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Employment Inequalities in Northern Ireland

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Glossary of Terms

Category	Term	Definition
Dependency status	Married or co-habiting with dependent children	This refers to those who have children and are either married or co-habiting.
	Lone parents	This refers to those who have children but are not married or co-habiting.
	No dependent children	This refers to those who do not have dependent children. In this group the person could be married, single or co-habiting.
Disability status	Disabled	<p>Those who self-reported a disability in the LFS. A total of 17 categories of disability are recorded in the LFS:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Arms, hands 2. Legs or feet 3. Back or neck 4. Difficulty in seeing 5. Difficulty in hearing 6. Speech impediment 7. Skin conditions ,allergies 8. Chest, breathing problems 9. Heart, blood pressure, circulation 10. Stomach, liver, kidney, digestion 11. Diabetes 12. Depression, bad nerves 13. Epilepsy 14. Learning difficulties 15. Mental illness, phobia, panics 16. Progressive illness 17. Other problems, disabilities
	Not disabled	Those who did not self-report a disability in the LFS.

Category	Term	Definition
Economic activity	In employment	<p>There are two ways of looking at employment: the number of people in employment or the number of jobs. These two concepts represent different things as one person can have more than one job. The LFS counts the number of people in employment.</p> <p>The LFS defines employment as those people aged 16 and over who did at least one hour's paid work in the reference week (either as an employee or self-employed); those who had a job which they were temporarily away from (on holiday for example); those participating in government training and employment programmes; and those doing unpaid family work.</p>
	Economically Active	For LFS the Economically Active includes those in Employment and those ILO unemployed. The Inactive make up the remainder of the Working Age population.
	ILO unemployed	<p>The "unemployed" comprise all persons above a specified age who during the reference period were:</p> <p>(a) "without work", i.e. were not in paid employment or self-employment ;</p> <p>(b) "currently available for work", i.e. were available for paid employment or self-employment; and</p> <p>(c) "seeking work", i.e. had taken specific steps in a specified recent period to seek paid employment or self-employment. The specific steps may include registration at a public or private employment exchange; application to employers; checking at work sites, farms, factory gates, market or other assembly places; placing or answering newspaper advertisements: seeking assistance of friends or relatives: looking for land, building, machinery or equipment to establish own enterprise; arranging for financial resources; applying for permits and licences, etc.</p>
	Economically Inactive	The "population economically inactive" comprises all persons in the present study who were not "economically active" i.e. were not employed or ILO unemployed.
	Long term unemployed	Those who have been unemployed for one year or longer.

Category	Term	Definition
Ethnic group	Eastern Europe	This group includes those in A8 countries: Czech Republic; Estonia; Hungary; Latvia; Lithuania; Poland; Slovakia; and Slovenia. These Central and Eastern European countries joined the European Union in May 2004.
	UK and Ireland	This group includes those born in the United Kingdom and Ireland
	Others	This group includes those born in all other countries.
Hours and Pay	Full-time employment	Respondents to the LFS self- selected whether they worked full-time or part-time.
	Part-time employment	Respondents to the LFS self- selected whether they worked full-time or part-time.
	Hours worked per week	<p>The hours of work per week relate to the time spent by persons in the performance of activities which contribute to the production of goods and services within the general production boundary as defined by the United Nations System of National Accounts.</p> <p>The two types of statistics on hours of work presented in LFS:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Hours actually worked ○ Hours usually worked <p>Hours actually worked covers all types of workers, whether in self-employment jobs or in paid employment jobs; it may be paid or unpaid and carried out in any location, including the street, field, home, etc.</p> <p>The hours usually worked relates to the hours actually most commonly worked per week by persons in paid and self-employment.</p>
	Gross Total Weekly Pay	The total weekly wage/salary before any deductions are made by the employer in respect of taxes, contributions of employees to social security and pension schemes, life insurance premiums, union dues and other obligations of employees. Earnings should include: direct wages and salaries, remuneration for time not worked (excluding severance and termination pay), bonuses and gratuities and housing and family allowances paid by the employer directly to this employee.

Category	Term	Definition
	Gross Total Hourly Pay	Same as Gross Total Weekly Pay but calculated by the hours worked per week.
Industry sector	A-B: Agriculture & fishing	This includes agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing.
	C,E: Energy & water	This includes mining and quarrying, electricity, gas and water supply.
	D: Manufacturing	This includes manufacture of food products, textiles and textile products, leather and leather products, wood and wood products, pulp, paper and paper products; publishing and Printing, coke, refined petroleum products and nuclear Fuel, chemicals, chemical products and man-made Fibres, rubber and plastic products, non-metallic mineral products, machinery and equipment not elsewhere Classified, electrical and optical equipment, transport equipment etc.
	F: Construction	This includes construction; building demolition and earth moving.
	G-H: Distribution, hotels & restaurants	This includes wholesale and retail trade, repair of motor vehicles, motorcycles and personal household goods and hotels and restaurants.
	I: Transport & communication	This includes land, water and air transport; transport via pipelines; supporting and auxiliary transport activities; activities of travel agencies; and post and telecommunications.
	J-K: Banking, finance & insurance etc.	This includes financial intermediation, real estate, renting and business activities.
	L-N: Public admin, education & health	This includes public administration and defence, compulsory social security, education, health and social work
	O-Q: Other services	This includes other community, social and personal service activities, private households with employed persons and extra-territorial organisations and bodies
Inequalities	Persistent inequality	This is an inequality that was consistently evident between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.

Category	Term	Definition
	Emergent inequality	This is an inequality that did not exist in Q1 2006 but was existent by Q1 2012.
Main reason for not looking for work in the last four weeks	Main reasons for not looking for work	<p>(1) Waiting for the results of an application for a job/being assessed by an ET training agent</p> <p>(2) Student</p> <p>(3) Looking after the family/home</p> <p>(4) Temporarily sick or injured</p> <p>(5) Long-term sick or disabled</p> <p>(6) Believes no jobs available</p> <p>(7) Not yet started looking</p> <p>(8) Doesn't need employment</p> <p>(9) Retired from paid work</p> <p>(10) Any other reason</p>
Marital status	Married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership	Those who were married, co-habiting or were in a civil partnership.
	Single and have never married;	This refers to those who have never been married and are not currently co-habiting or in a civil partnership.
	Previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed	This refers to those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed. This group is not co-habiting.
Occupation group	Managers and Senior Officials	This includes corporate managers, managers and proprietors in agriculture and services.
	Professional occupations	This includes science and technology professionals, health professionals, teaching and research professionals, business and public service professionals.
	Associate Professional and Technical	This includes science and technology associate professionals, health and social welfare associate professionals, protective service occupations, culture, media and sports occupations, business and public service associate professionals.

Category	Term	Definition
	Administrative and Secretarial	This includes administrative occupations and secretarial related occupations.
	Skilled Trades Occupations	This includes skilled agriculture trades, skilled metal and electrical trades, skilled construction and building trades, and textiles, printing and other skilled trades.
	Personal Service Occupations	This includes caring personal service occupations and leisure and other personal service occupations.
	Sales and Customer Service Occupations	This includes sales occupations and customer service occupations.
	Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	This includes process, plant and machine operatives and transport and mobile machine drivers and operatives.
	Elementary Occupations	This includes elementary trades, plant and storage related occupations and elementary administration and service occupations.
Qualifications	No Qualification Rates	Proportion of sub group with no qualifications.
	Degree or Equivalent Rates	Proportion of sub group with degree or equivalent qualifications, (comprising of those with higher degrees, NVQ Level 5, First degree and other degree)
Sector of employment	Public Sector	In the LFS, the “public sector” is defined as that owned, funded or run by central or local government.
	Private Sector	<p>Except public organisations, everything else is included in the private sector, including:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Public limited companies (PLC), companies that are quoted on the stock market and have shareholders. - Limited companies (Ltd). Small businesses often owned by one or more individuals. These may also be referred to as private limited companies. - Self-employed individuals; sole traders, or owners of small shops or businesses. - Charities, private trusts, housing associations or other voluntary organisations. - Trade Unions (employees of).

Category	Term	Definition
Segregation	Horizontal segregation	The under or over representation of a given group with regard to industry sector.
	Vertical segregation	The under or over representation of a given group at a particular occupation level.
Statistical terms	Distribution	The percentage of a particular group that are employed in a particular industry sector or occupation group. For example, 18.4% of males who were in employment worked in the 'Manufacturing' industry sector in Q1 2012.
	Median	The midpoint in a set of ordered data values.
	Proportion	The percentage of a particular group employed in each industry sector or occupation group. For example, 92.3% of those who worked in the 'Agriculture and Fishing' industry sector in Q1 2012 were male.
Transport	Car, van, motor bicycle	This includes private bus, car, van, minibus, works van, motorbike, moped, and scooter.
	Walk, bicycle	This includes walking and cycling to work.
	Public transport	This includes public bus, coach, taxi, railway train, and underground train/light railway/tram.
Working age	Working age population	<p>The working age population of concern in this report is 16-59 years old for females and 16-64 years old for males.</p> <p>An exception to this is in chapter 4 where the working age population was taken to be 18-59 years old for females and 18-64 years old for males. This was because the 16-17 year old age group is in transition from statutory education.</p>

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Executive Summary

Background

The Employment Research Institute of Edinburgh Napier University was commissioned to carry out research on employment inequalities in Northern Ireland on behalf of the Equality Commission for Northern Ireland. The motivation for the research is to inform the work of the Equality Commission for Northern Ireland in updating the 2007 *Statement on Key Inequalities in Northern Ireland*, which identified employment as one of the areas where inequalities exist and need to be addressed. The work investigates inequalities in employment across the nine equality grounds defined in Section 75 of the Northern Ireland Act 1998; gender, age, religious belief, political opinion, racial group, disability, sexual orientation, marital status and dependant status.

Aims of the research

The overall aim of the research was to provide an up-to-date evidence base alongside identification of new and/or persistent key inequalities in employment in Northern Ireland, including for each of the nine equality grounds. In addition the research sought to provide an overview of potential barriers and enablers to labour market participation.

Methodology

The main focus of this report was on each of the nine equality grounds (listed above). For each ground a literature review was conducted to identify any employment patterns or trends and also barriers and enablers to participation in the Northern Ireland labour market. Following the literature review an analysis of Quarterly Labour Force Survey (LFS, Quarter One 2006 to Quarter One 2012) data was undertaken to report on trends over the period of time. However, the LFS does not contain information pertaining to political opinion or sexual orientation; where possible alternative data was utilised in these chapters. The LFS data was supplemented with data from the Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings (Department of Finance and Personnel Northern Ireland, 2012) and the Census 2011 for Northern Ireland (Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency 2012a; 2013a; 2013b; 2013c). The data analysis sought to present information on trends relating to: economic status; main reasons for not looking for work; pay; hours worked; sector of employment; industry sector; occupation group; qualifications; and transport.

Following the analysis of LFS and supplementary data, attitudinal data was discussed and trends over the time period discerned where possible. Attitudinal data was taken from sources such as: the Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey (NILTS) (2006, 2010 and 2012) and the Equality Commission for Northern Ireland's Equality Awareness Survey (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012).

In addition, 15 stakeholders who represented organisations with an insight into: the employment inequalities facing one or more of the groups of interest; and the responses by policymakers and others to tackling these inequalities were interviewed. Interviews covered a range of issues: labour market inequalities, the reason for these and the extent to which they reflect long term barriers to employment; inequalities in education and training and the impact on labour market outcomes; how inequality is assessed and monitoring could be improved upon; and responses to employment inequalities by Government and other sectors, and the extent to which these have been effective.

Since the focus of the research was on employment inequalities in Northern Ireland, the population from which the data was drawn included only those of working age; 16-59 years old for females and 16-64 years old for males (although in the age chapter 18-59 years old and 18-64 years old are utilised since 16-17 year olds are largely in transition from statutory education).

As a quality check that the information gained was reliable and accurate, an Engagement Event was held on the 23rd of May 2013 at the Equality Commission for Northern Ireland. This gave the researchers an opportunity to present their findings to stakeholders in the area of inequalities, and to gain feedback.

Findings: Key Inequalities

The main findings of the research regarding economic activity highlight noticeable disadvantages and / or key inequalities for three equality groups:

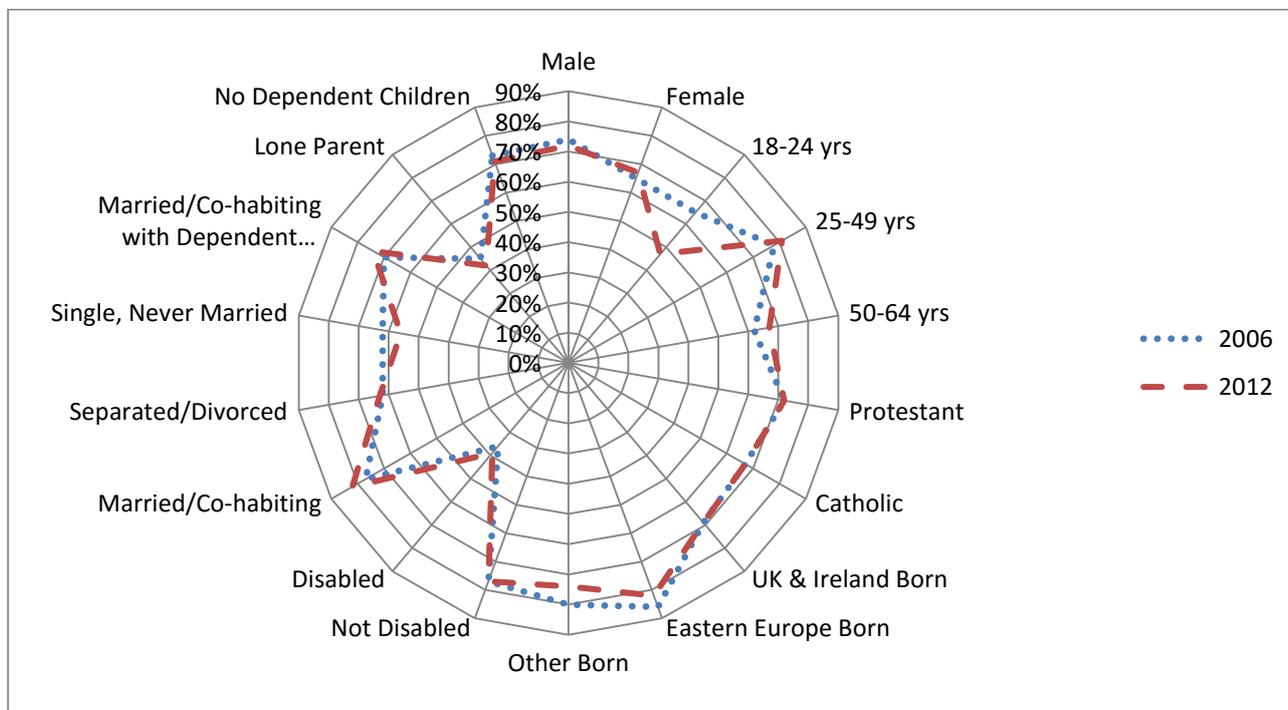
1. For those aged **18-24 years old**, employment rates were low and ILO unemployment rates and economic inactivity rates were high;
2. **Lone parents** continued to have lower employment rates, and higher ILO unemployment rates and economic inactivity rates, than married or cohabiting couples with dependent children or those with no dependent children; and
3. **Disabled people** were much less likely to be employed, and much more likely to be economically inactive, than those without disability.

The evidence presented within this report clearly demonstrates that those aged 18-24 year old, lone parents and those with a disability were subject to key inequalities in terms of labour market participation and outcomes from that participation. The research looked across the main areas of employment, such as ILO unemployment and median gross hourly pay, to highlight the key inequalities, presented in this Executive Summary. However, it must be realised that inequalities were exhibited across all nine equality grounds. These are fully examined within specific chapters for each equality ground and further summarised within Chapter 13: 'Summary of key inequalities in employment'.

In 2012, people in the 18-24 years old age group were less likely to be in employment than those aged 25-49 years old or 50-64 years old. The employment rate in the 18-24 years old age group fell considerably

between 2006 and 2012 whilst those in the 25-49 years old age group maintained consistently higher than average employment rates than the other two age groups. Although the employment rate of those aged 50-64 years old was also lower than average it increased slightly between 2006 and 2012. In conclusion, those 18-24 year olds experienced key inequalities in employment in Northern Ireland.

Employment rates in 2006 and 2012 (Source: LFS 2006 and 2012)



There was considerable disadvantage for disabled people and lone parents; both of these groups had noticeably lower employment rates over the period of interest. The employment situation of these groups was persistently low over the study period; this could therefore be characterised as a persistent inequality, rather than one that has occurred in response to, or been exacerbated by, the economic downturn. Those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children, those with no dependent children, and those without a disability, maintained higher than average employment rates throughout the period of study.

It is worth noting here that the effect of lone parenthood is likely to be confounded to some extent with age; lone parents with young children (who are likely to be out of work) are also likely to be younger, and this group is also less likely to be in employment. A similar effect is likely to occur in the single and have never married group, who have had lower than average employment rates throughout the period of study, but this group were also more likely to be in the 18-24 years old age group with lower employment rates. Those who were separated, divorced or widowed also had lower than average employment rates; this group may be more likely to be in the 50-64 years old age group, which also had a lower employment rate.

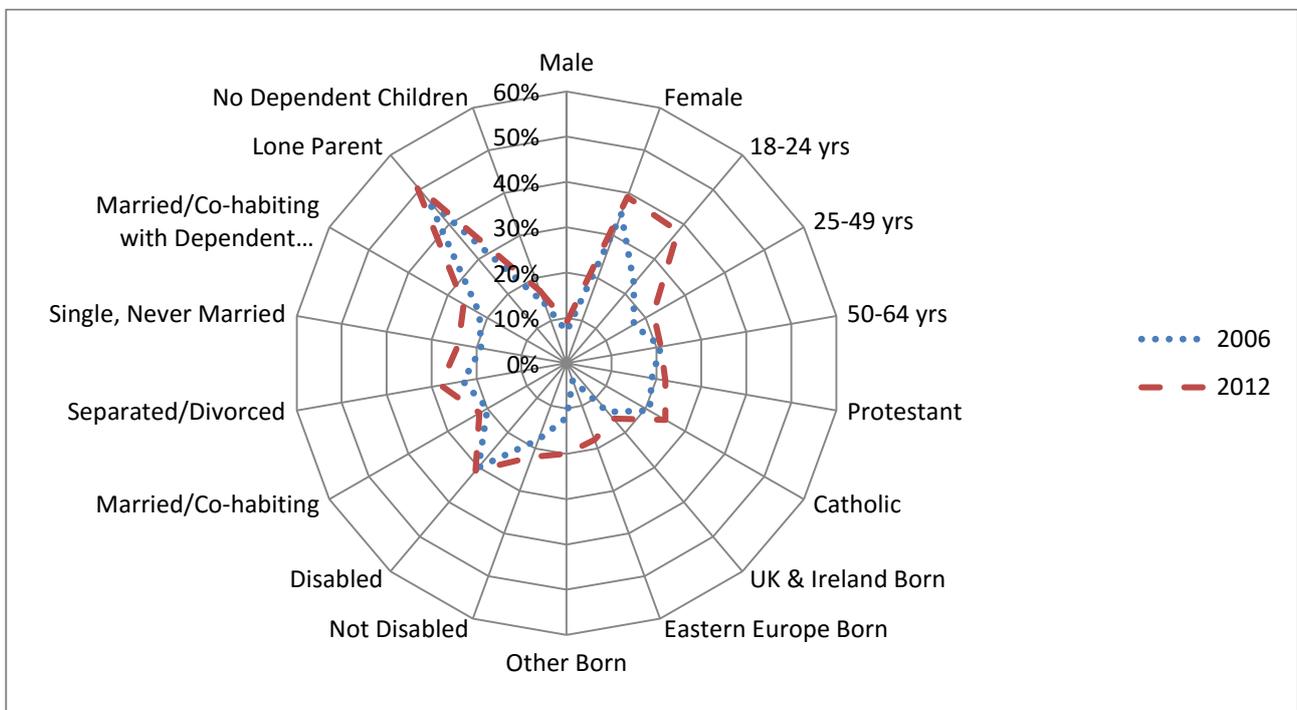
There was no change in the employment rate of those classified as UK and Ireland born, which stayed exactly at the average for the whole period of study (although the fact that they comprised over 98% of the population means that the 'average' employment rate will rarely differ). The picture was different for those born outside the UK and Ireland; employment rates in these groups were higher than the UK and Ireland

born group, but both those born in Eastern Europe and those born elsewhere saw a fall in employment rates between 2006 and 2012.

Subtle differences in employment rates can be seen between those of a Protestant and Catholic background, with Protestant employment rates (72.1% and 72.2% at 2006 and 2012, respectively) slightly higher than those of Catholics (65.1% and 67.2% at 2006 and 2012, respectively) at both time periods, but almost no overall change experienced by either group. The differences between the sexes were also very slight, with male employment rates (74.1% and 71.6% at 2006 and 2012, respectively) slightly higher than average¹, and female employment rates (64.6% and 67.3% at 2006 and 2012, respectively) slightly lower, although this gap was smaller in 2012 than it was in 2006.

The proportions of those employed who were in part-time employment for each of the equality groups appear to have increased between 2006 and 2012, although to varying extents. For males, part-time employment rose very slightly but was consistently very low; by contrast, although part-time employment was very rare for those born in Eastern Europe in 2006; the proportion in part-time employment had increased by 2012. Part-time employment became considerably more common among 18-24 year olds between 2006 and 2012, and there was also a slight increase among 25-49 year olds, but for those aged 50-64 years old there was little change over this period. Those with a disability were more likely to work part-time than those without, although there was an increase in part-time employment among those without a disability. Most likely to work part-time were lone parents, females, and those aged 18-24 years old; membership between these groups is likely to overlap considerably.

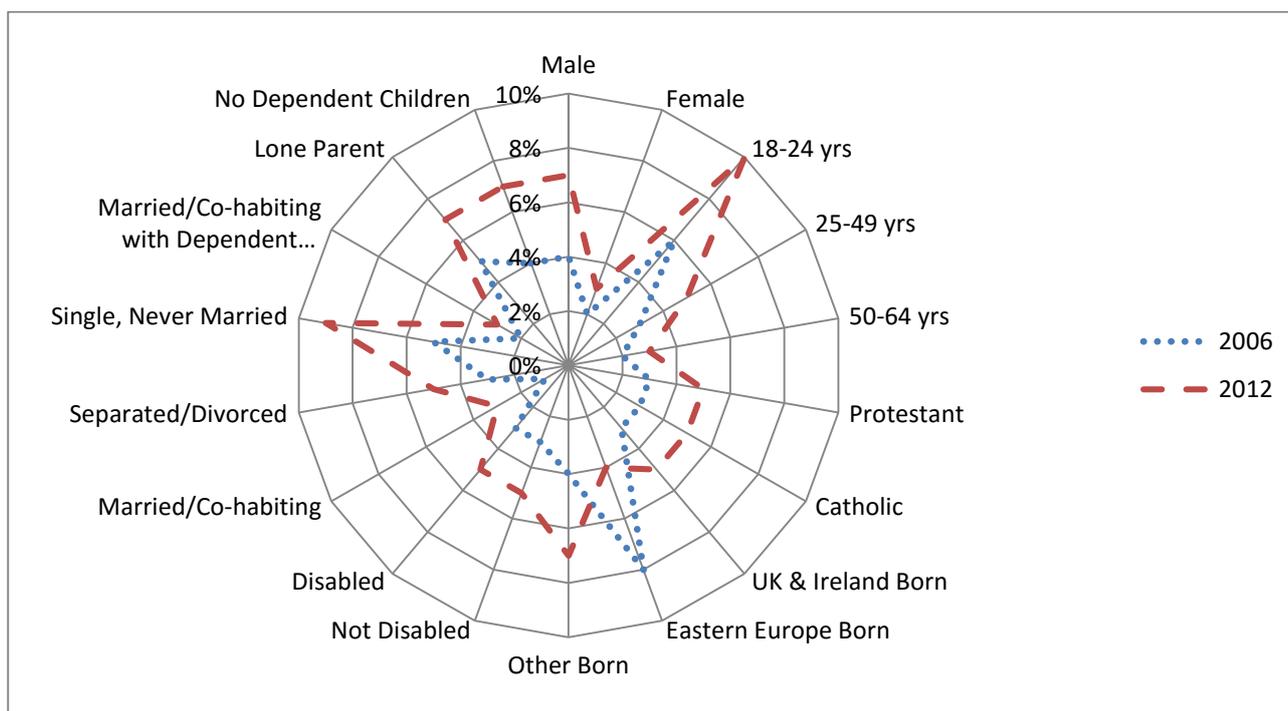
Proportion in part-time employment in 2006 and 2012 (Source: LFS 2006 and 2012)



¹ The average rates of employment were 69.6% and 69% in 2006 and 2012 respectively

In general, presumably reflecting the economic downturn, ILO unemployment rates had risen since 2006 for every group apart from those born in Eastern Europe, who saw a fall in ILO unemployment. Those born elsewhere (i.e. not in the UK, Ireland or Eastern Europe) had a relatively high rate of unemployment; a considerable increase was seen between 2006 and 2012. Relatively high ILO unemployment rates were seen among 18-24 year olds, lone parents, and those who were single and have never married; again there is likely to be considerable overlap between these groups. High ILO unemployment was also seen among those who were male and those who had no dependent children. There were differences in the prevalence of ILO unemployment between the sub-groups of most of the equality grounds, but in 2012 there was very little difference between those of a Catholic background and those of a Protestant background, or between those with and without a disability.

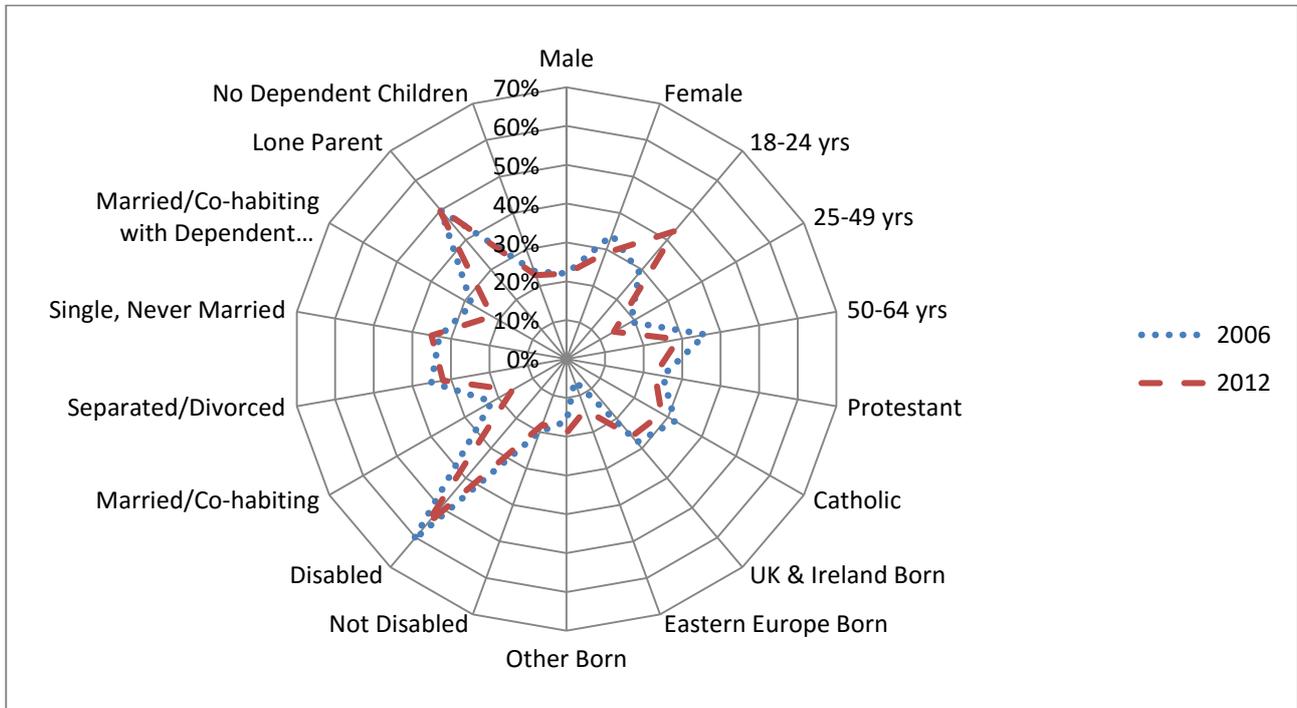
ILO unemployment rates in 2006 and 2012 (Source: LFS 2006 and 2012)



Particularly high economic inactivity rates were evident for those aged 18-24 years old, those with a disability, and lone parents. The high economic inactivity rate of those aged 18-24 years old will be to some extent due to the fact that many were in education, either still at school, or in further or higher education. However, the 18-24 years old age group also had high ILO unemployment rates, and therefore the low employment rates and high economic inactivity rates cannot be merely attributed to this group's participation in education. Indeed, as Chapter 4 will explore in more detail, a high proportion of this group are classified as Not in Employment, Education or Training (NEET); 20.5% of 16-24 year olds in Northern Ireland are classified as such, which represents an increase of 59% since the year 2000 (Northern Ireland Executive, 2012). The research confirmed the trend towards even higher economic inactivity rates among the 18-24 years old age group. Therefore, this is an issue of considerable policy concern in Northern Ireland, and indeed across Europe, with many other countries faring as badly or even worse. In the 50-64 years old age group, a trend away from retirement amongst this group can be seen, with lower economic inactivity rates in 2012 than in 2006.

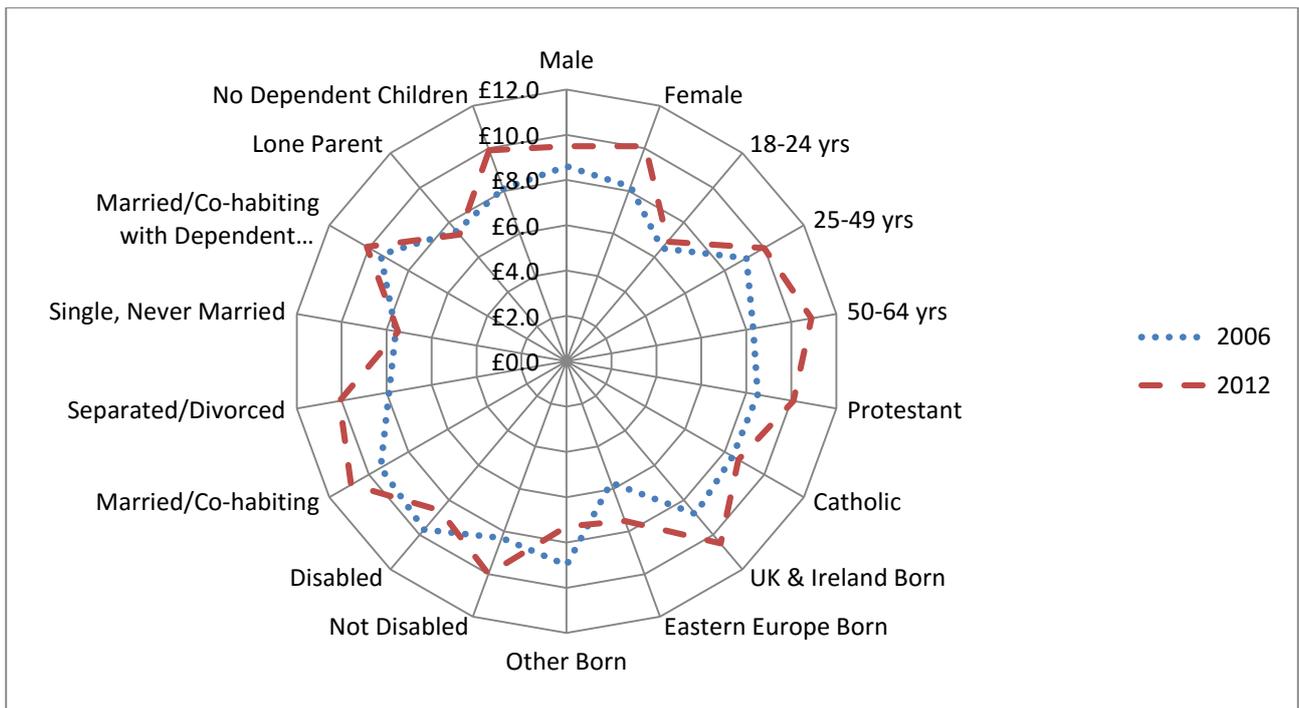
High economic inactivity rates among those with a disability and lone parents also point to important policy issues. Although economic inactivity among those with a disability fell slightly between the two time points, it remained high at 61.2% and 56.3% respectively at 2006 and 2012, respectively; they were the most disadvantaged group in this respect. The economic inactivity rate of lone parents was 49.6% at 2006 and increased slightly to 51.1% at 2012.

Economic inactivity rates in 2006 and 2012 (Source: LFS 2006 and 2012)



For most groups, median gross hourly pay had increased between the two time points. However, for some groups, pay had fallen or remained stable, and inequalities had widened or even reversed. Those aged 18-24 years old, who already had lower pay at 2006 than the other two age groups, saw only a small increase by 2012, and the inequalities between the age groups widened as a result. Those with a disability had a higher average wage at 2006, but this situation had reversed by 2012. The disparity between those of Protestant and Catholic backgrounds was very small at 2006, but by 2012 it had widened. Those who were single and have never married had also fallen further behind those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership and those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced.

Median gross hourly pay in 2006 and 2012 (Source: LFS 2006 and 2012)



Chapter 1. Introduction

The Employment Research Institute of Edinburgh Napier University was commissioned to carry out research on employment inequalities in Northern Ireland on behalf of the Equality Commission for Northern Ireland. The motivation for the research is to inform the work of the Equality Commission for Northern Ireland in updating the 2007 *Statement on Key Inequalities in Northern Ireland*, which identified employment as one of the areas where inequalities exist and need to be addressed. The work investigates inequalities in employment across the nine equality grounds defined in Section 75 of the Northern Ireland Act 1998; gender, disability, age, dependant status, sexual orientation, racial group, marital status, religious belief and political opinion.

Aims and objectives

The overall aim of the research is:

To provide an up-to-date evidence base alongside identification of new and/or persistent key inequalities in employment in Northern Ireland, including for each of the nine equality grounds.

The specific objectives are to:

- 1. Provide a comprehensive and updated picture of patterns and trends in employment and non-employment in Northern Ireland, establishing any key inequalities (data permitting) evident in Northern Ireland for each equality ground identified by Section 75 of the Northern Ireland Act 1998;*
- 2. Provide an overview of potential barriers and enablers to labour market participation (entry, retention and progression), including an assessment of any changing dynamics (e.g. the effect of the economic downturn) for each equality ground;*
- 3. Involve relevant stakeholders via an expert seminar to explore and refine emerging draft findings of the research, with a view to informing the final report and associated recommendations;*
- 4. Distil from the above the most substantive/overarching key employment inequalities/dynamics (across all equality grounds) in Northern Ireland and summarise any relevant wider observations noted during the project.*

Achieving the aims and objectives

The main data sources for this investigation was the Labour Force Survey, 2006 to 2012 (LFS 2006-2012), supplemented by data from the Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings, 2007 to 2012 (ASHE 2007-2012), the 2011 Census for Northern Ireland (NISRA, 2012c) and the Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey (NILTS Devine, 2010). The 2011 Equality Awareness Survey (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012) and the Northern Ireland Survey of Activity Limitation and Disability (NISRA, 2007) were also used, along with relevant reports, to supplement the data sources and provide information on attitudes towards each equality group. From analysis of these data sources, trends in employment across the nine equality grounds were identified, including multiple inequalities (i.e. where an individual is a member of more than one group that experiences disadvantage in the labour market).

In parallel to this, a brief review was conducted of the existing literature (from Northern Ireland and beyond) on the relevant labour market inequalities, and key stakeholders who work with disadvantaged groups were consulted. This allowed the identification of barriers to, and enablers of, labour market participation, and what actions are, or could be, taken to improve or at least sustain labour market participation. Stakeholders were also asked to provide any information they had on the labour market outcomes of the groups they worked with, particularly those for whom data was limited. For example, a key deficiency in the datasets was the lack of information on differences in labour market outcomes by sexual orientation. Alternative data sources were sought and used where available, but data was not available for all outcomes across all equality grounds.

Interim findings from the research were presented to stakeholders, participants and experts via a seminar/workshop, and the feedback from this enabled some refinement of the final recommendations for policy.

Methods

Analysis of survey data

Whilst all nine equality grounds were investigated in the course of the research, paucity of data on political opinion and sexual orientation hindered in depth coverage of these two equality grounds.

The prime source of data used in the research was the Quarterly Labour Force Survey (LFS), 2006 to 2012, for seven of the nine equality grounds (there was no information available in this dataset pertaining to political opinion or sexual orientation). The data presented here on labour market outcomes, such as economic activity and wages, are shown mainly from Quarter 1 in 2006 (Q1 2006²) to Quarter 2 in 2012 (Q2 2012), which was the latest data available (see Appendix 1 on data sources). Discussion centres on changes

²Throughout the document each Quarter is referred to as Q followed by the number and year e.g. Quarter one 2006 would read Q1 2006.

over a six year period, therefore, data over the period Q1 2006 to Q1 2012 is discussed in the present report, unless otherwise specified, although the graphs also show the latest data, i.e. Q2 2012. Care must be taken with the LFS data for any particular quarter, as it is a survey and so is subject to sampling error, especially for small sub-groups. Thus, it is important to consider the broad trends rather than a figure for a single month. However, the LFS is updated each quarter and thus allows for more effective monitoring than most other data sources.

In this report the focus is on a working age population of 16-59 years old for females and 16-64 years old for males. This age range was chosen as LFS data, up until August 2010 (where changes were made due to rises in pension age for females), utilised this age range in its analysis. However, an exception to this is when age is considered (Chapter 4 focuses on age inequalities in employment). With regard to analyses relating to age the working age population is taken to be 18-59 years old for females and 18-64 years old for males. This smaller range was chosen as those aged 16 - 17 years old are in transition between education and employment and/or further study. Therefore, the inclusion of 16 – 17 year olds would artificially skew employment rates of the lower age group toward unemployment.

The LFS data was supplemented with data from the Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings (Department of Finance and Personnel Northern Ireland, 2012), the Census 2011 for Northern Ireland (Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency 2012a; 2013a; 2013b; 2013c), the Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey (NILTS) (2006, 2010 and 2012), and the Equality Commission for Northern Ireland's Equality Awareness Survey (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012).

Literature review

In conducting the brief literature search, use was made of academic literature databases, libraries, and Northern Ireland and United Kingdom (UK) Government sources. A search was conducted for literature that concerns itself with the inequalities in employment pertaining to the nine equality grounds; the relative difficulties that members of particular groups may face in finding employment, and the inequalities they face within employment, such as discrimination, harassment and unequal pay. Where possible, literature that discusses multiple inequalities was utilised i.e. where a person falls into more than one group that might experience disadvantages within the labour market such as lone parents aged 18-24 years old.

Where possible, literature focusing specifically on Northern Ireland was sought. However, the review also included literature from Great Britain, the UK and some comparative literature from other European Union (EU) and Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) member states. The literature collected was then synthesised and presented for each group under the key themes that emerged.

Stakeholder consultation

Fifteen interviews were carried out with key stakeholders, who represented organisations with an insight into: the employment inequalities facing one or more of the groups of interest; and the responses by policymakers and others to tackling these inequalities.

The list of participants can be found in Appendix 2. Each participant was briefed on the purpose of the study and their informed consent was gained. They were interviewed either face to face or by telephone by an experienced researcher; interviews lasted in the region of 30-60 minutes.

Interviews were semi-structured in nature, allowing the coverage of common topics across all interviews, whilst leaving room for useful additional insights. The interviews covered the following issues, (see Appendix 3 for full schedule):

1. Background of interviewee's work with groups of interest;
2. Labour market inequalities, the reasons for these, and the extent to which they reflect long term barriers as opposed to the impact of the economic downturn;
3. Inequalities in education and training, and the impact of this on labour market outcomes;
4. How inequality is assessed and whether/how monitoring could be improved;
5. Responses to inequality on the part of government, community and voluntary sector organisations, employers, trade unions and other key stakeholders, and the extent to which these have been adequate and effective;
6. The opportunity to add any further relevant comments not already addressed in the course of the interview.

Interviews sought to obtain the stakeholders' perspectives on these issues, based on their experience (e.g. in providing a service, policymaking, etc.) and on relevant data collected or research carried out by themselves or their organisation, which we sought to obtain where possible.

Not all of the equality groups are directly represented in this exercise, as it is not clear who in the case of some areas – such as religion, political opinion or marital status – might have a specific interest in employment inequalities pertaining to these groups. Some equality areas also received greater attention than others due to the availability of research data for each equality group.

Engagement event

An Engagement Event was held on the 23rd of May 2013 at the Equality Commission for Northern Ireland. This gave the researchers an opportunity to present their findings to stakeholders in the area of

inequalities, and to gain feedback. The event was attended by 12 stakeholders and chaired by Simon Hookham, Senior Research Officer for the Equality Commission for Northern Ireland. Further information on this event is presented in Appendix 4.

Report structure

The reader should note that the emphasis of this report is on the collection of quantitative data, supported by literature review. The report also uses qualitative research, in the form of stakeholder interviews, to validate and complement the quantitative findings. The report then outlines the policy initiatives undertaken by government, but does not evaluate the effectiveness of such initiatives. For each chapter, where data allows, the analysis will adhere to the following reporting structure: Economic Status, Median Gross Weekly Pay and Hours Worked, Employment by Industry Sector and Occupation Group, Qualifications, Transport and Attitudes.

The remainder of this report is structured as follows:

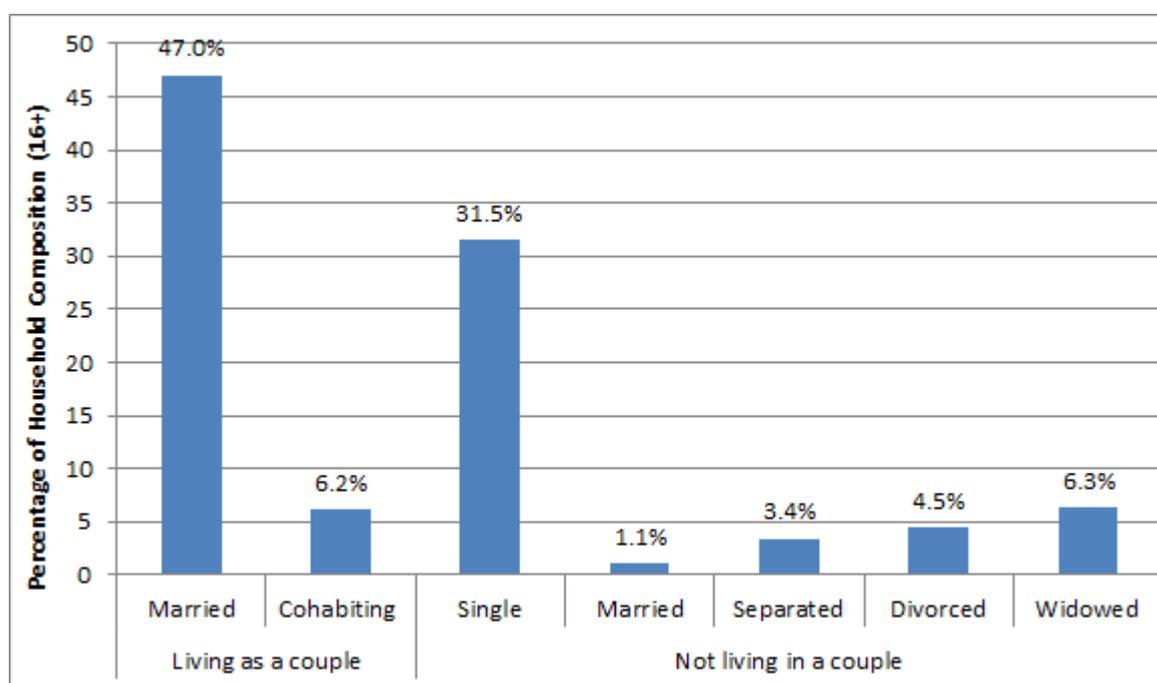
- Chapter 2. Overview of Employment in Northern Ireland
- Chapter 3. Gender Inequalities in Employment
- Chapter 4. Age Inequalities in Employment
- Chapter 5. Religious Background Inequalities in Employment
- Chapter 6. Political Opinion Inequalities in Employment
- Chapter 7. Ethnic and Race Inequalities in Employment
- Chapter 8. Disability Inequalities in Employment
- Chapter 9. Sexual Orientation Inequalities in Employment
- Chapter 10. Marital Status Inequalities in Employment
- Chapter 11. Dependency Status Inequalities in Employment
- Chapter 12. Multiple Inequalities in Employment
- Chapter 13. Summary of Key Inequalities in Employment
- References
- Appendix 1. Data Sources Used
- Appendix 2. List of Stakeholders Consulted
- Appendix 3. Interview Schedule
- Appendix 4. Engagement Event 23 May 2013
- Appendix 5. Sample sizes for Labour Force Survey pay estimates

Chapter 2. Overview of Employment in Northern Ireland

The Northern Ireland population

According to the 2011 Census for Northern Ireland, the population of Northern Ireland in 2011 was 1,810,863 (NISRA, 2012a). In total, 79.0% of the population were aged 16 years old and over, and of these 98.8% lived in households and 1.2% in a communal setting. Among those who lived in households, 53.2% lived as a couple (47.0% of whom were married couples) and the remaining 46.8% did not live as a couple (4.5%, were still legally married or in a registered partnership but did not live as a couple). The breakdown of the Northern Ireland population by household composition³ is shown in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: Household composition for the population of Northern Ireland aged over 16 years old (Source: NISRA, 2012b)



The category 'Married' includes those in a registered same-sex civil partnership; 'Separated' means those separated but still legally married or still legally in a registered same-sex civil partnership; 'Divorced' means the marriage relationship or the same-sex civil partnership is now legally dissolved; and 'Widowed' includes being the surviving partner from a registered same-sex civil partnership.

³ This figure shows the household composition for all those over 16 years old, rather than only for the working age population with which this report is concerned (18-64 year olds), as data on the working age population was not available when this report was produced.

The changing population composition of equality groups

Trends in the prevalence of the different equality groups in Northern Ireland were investigated using the Labour Force Survey (LFS), over the period between 2006 and 2012, which corresponds to: before the start of, and during, the economic crisis. How numbers and proportions in these groups have changed in Northern Ireland over the time period of investigation is summarised in Table 2.1.⁴ However, these figures should be viewed with care, as there may be some survey sampling errors, especially where the survey numbers are small in any particular year.

Whilst the working age population in the LFS changed post August 2010 to 16-64 years old for both males and females⁵ it was deemed necessary to retain the previous definition for consistency in reporting. The data presented in Table 2.1, and throughout the study, is therefore based on LFS data on the working age population pre August 2010 (16-64 years old for males and 16-59 years old females). As previously stated an exception to this is with regard to analyses relating to age (focused on in Chapter 4) where the working age population was taken to be 18-59 years old for females and 18-64 years old for males.

From Table 2.1, a number of points were observed from Q1 2006 to Q1 2012:

- The female share of the population decreased and the share of males increased by 0.2 percentage points;
- There was a slight decrease in the number of those aged 16-24 years old in the population accompanied by a corresponding increase in those aged 25-64 years old;
- There was a very slight decrease in those with a self-reported disability (0.1 percentage point);
- The share of single and have never married individuals in the population increased by 1.4 percentage points;
- The share of those who were married or living in a civil partnership in the population decreased by 2.1 percentage points;
- The share of married or co-habiting couples with dependent children in the population decreased by 2.7 percentage points;
- The share of lone parents in the population increased by 1.4 percentage points;
- The share of those without dependents in the population increased slightly by 1.3 percentage points;
- The ethnic composition of the population in Northern Ireland was predominately white at both time points and that the white share of the population decreased by 0.6 percentage points;

⁴ Where possible, all data presented in this report, displays percentages rounded to one decimal place, apart from currency values which are given to two decimal places. Due to rounding, percentages may not sum to 100%.

⁵ http://www.detini.gov.uk/introduction_of_new_working_age_definition.pdf

- Of the non-whites groups, Asian or Asian British was the largest, this groups share of the population increased by 0.3 percentage points;
- The share of Other ethnic groups in the population increased by 0.2 percentage points;

Table 2.1: Prevalence of equality groups in the Northern Ireland working age population (Source: LFS, Q1 2006 and Q1 2012)

	Population Estimates		Percentage	
	Q1 2006 N	Q1 2012 N	Q1 2006 %	Q1 2012 %
Gender				
Male	547,319	573,515	51.5	51.7
Female	515,426	535,937	48.5	48.3
Disability				
Disabled	195,616	203,278	18.4	18.3
Not disabled	867,129	906,174	81.6	81.7
Age				
16-17	52,147	49,169	4.7	4.4
18-24	174,094	172,609	15.7	15.6
25-49	598,425	624,372	54.1	56.3
50-64	238,079	263,302	25.5	23.7
Dependency status				
Married/co-habiting dependent children	456,392	445,233	42.9	40.2
Lone parent dependent children	83,917	103,640	7.9	9.3
No dependents	522,436	560,579	49.2	50.5
Ethnicity				
White	1,049,786	1,089,231	98.8	98.2
Mixed	2,402	2364	0.2	0.2
Asian or Asian British	5,074	8,765	0.5	0.8
Black or Black British	333	808	0	0.1
Chinese	4,515	4,860	0.4	0.4
Other ethnic group	635	3,424	0.1	0.3
Marital status				
Single, never married	415,251	449,070	39.1	40.5
Married, living with husband/wife, civil partner	555,837	556,986	52.3	50.2
Married, separated from husband/wife, divorced, widowed, separated civil partner	91,657	103,396	8.6	9.3
Religion				
Catholic	440,966	479,222	45.5	43.8
Protestant	527,058	615,080	54.4	56.2

Not shown in Table 2.1, but found in the LFS data and relevant here, was that there was evidence of a 1.0 percentage point decrease in the proportion of the population who were children aged under 16 years old (compared to a 0.6% decrease in Great Britain (GB)), while the share of the older aged (60 + years old for females and 65 + years old for males) dependent population increased from 15.7% to 17.0% between 2006 and 2012 (the rate of increase in GB was the same; 1.3%).

The young age dependency rate⁶ in Northern Ireland – the rate of the young who are dependent on the working age population – saw a 1.2 percentage point decrease (NISRA, 2013). However, the share of households with older people who were dependent on the working age population increased by 2.1 percentage points, from 25.3% to 27.4% during this period. For a comparison, in the rest of the UK, the decrease in the youth dependency during the same period decreased by 0.6 percentage points, from 30.8% to 30.2%, while there was an increase of 2.8 percentage points in the older age dependency rate from 29.2% to 32.0%. The Census 2011 for Northern Ireland data shows that the total number of households with young dependents was 49.2%; the number with older dependents was not available.

The LFS does not include Irish Traveller as an ethnic category, but data from the 2011 Census for Northern Ireland shows that the number of Irish Travellers decreased from 1,710 in 2001 to 1,301 in 2011 (Russell, 2013).

Lastly, the Census 2011 for Northern Ireland contained two questions on religion. The first asked respondents to which religion, religious denomination or body they belonged to. In response to this question: 40.8% stated that they belonged to the Roman Catholic religion; 41.6% stated that they belonged to Protestant or Other Christian religions; 0.8% stated that they belonged to another (non-Christian) religion; and 16.9% either stated that they belonged to no religion⁷. Those who stated 'none' in response to this first question were then asked which religion they were brought up in. Bringing together religious affiliation with religion brought up in⁸, 45.1% of the population were either Roman Catholics or had been brought up as Roman Catholics, while 48.4% belonged to or had been brought up in Protestant or Other Christian denominations. A total of 5.6% neither belonged to, nor had been brought up in, any religion. This distribution in the 2011 Census for Northern Ireland data is broadly consistent with the LFS data in Table 2.1, which suggested a higher proportion stated that they were Protestant (the LFS also contains two questions which simply ask: 'What is your religious denomination?' and '... what religious denomination, if any, were you brought up in?'; again the second question is asked if the response to the first is 'no denomination').

Research data on sexual orientation is lacking and it is not included as a variable within either the Census or LFS. However, the LFS does contain a variable of 'living with a same sex partner' which was utilised in the present study to gain an insight into the Northern Ireland labour market for those living in same sex as opposed to heterosexual couples. In addition, attitudinal data was reviewed in the present study; such as

⁶ Estimated as a proportion of population aged below 16 years old compared to the working age population.

⁷ Census 2011: Detailed Characteristics for Northern Ireland on Health, Religion and National Identity, NISRA, May 2013.

⁸ The published statistics do not provide a breakdown of the response to the second religion question itself.

the Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey (2006 and 2012) data and the 2011 Equality Awareness Survey (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012).

Changes in the Northern Ireland labour market

The main changes in the labour market of Northern Ireland over the study period, based on LFS data, are summarised in Table 2.2. The figures in Table 2.2 show that whilst the full-time employment rate decreased from Q1 2006 to Q1 2012 the part-time employment rate increased by the same amount: 3.4 percentage points. Proportions employed in the private and public sectors were virtually unchanged. In regard to economic activity, the employment rate did not change from Q1 2006 to Q1 2012, whilst the inactivity rate decreased. An increase was evidenced in the unemployment rate, which had increased by 2.1 percentage points from 3.1% to 5.2%. Additionally, there was an increase in the proportion of those with degree or equivalent qualifications; this increased from 15.4% in Q1 2006 to 19.1% in Q1 2012.

Table 2.2: The labour market in Northern Ireland (Source: LFS, Q1 2006 and Q2 2012)

	Q1 2006	Q1 2012
Hours and Earnings		
Usual weekly hours incl. overtime (Mean)	42.9	43.7
Gross hourly pay (Median)	£8.05	£8.91
Employed full-time (%)	80.5	77.1
Employed part-time (%)	19.5	22.9
Sector		
Employed in private sector (%)	70.3	70.0
Employed in public sector (%)	29.7	30.0
Economic Activity		
In Employment (%)	69.5	69.5
ILO Unemployed* (%)	3.1	5.2
Inactive (%)	27.4	25.3
Qualifications		
Degree or equivalent+ (%)	15.4	19.1
No qualifications (%)	22.8	18.5

*International Labour Organisation

+This category is composed of those with higher degrees, NVQ level 5, first degrees and other degrees)

Chapter 3. Gender Inequalities in Employment

Introduction

This report provides a picture of patterns and trends in employment and non-employment in Northern Ireland, establishing any key inequalities (data permitting) that are evident in Northern Ireland for each equality ground as identified by Section 75 of the Northern Ireland Act 1998. This chapter provides evidence of inequalities drawn from quantitative data (primarily from analyses of the Labour Force Survey) which is supplemented by stakeholder interviews and literature review for this equality ground. It is important to stress that no one individual belongs solely to one equality group, and that everyone has multiple identities. Consideration was given to multiple identities where quantitative data was available and allowed for meaningful analyses. Limited analyses across a range of multiple inequalities are reported in Chapter 12. The distillation of the most substantive / overarching key employment inequalities (across all equality grounds) in Northern Ireland are summarised in Chapter 13.

This chapter reviews how different gender groups of the working age population in Northern Ireland fare in relation to the labour market (note that only males and females are considered due to lack of data on transgender people). Firstly the literature around this topic is considered, focusing on Northern Ireland, but also considering sources from the UK and wider international context. This is followed by a summary of labour market trends, over the period 2006 to 2012, across a number of variables; economic activity; hours worked; median gross weekly and hourly wages; and occupation sector and type. In this analysis the effect of the economic downturn, which became evident in 2008, is noted. Consideration is also paid to potential barriers to accessing the labour market; access to transport; qualifications held; and attitudes towards men and women in the labour market. The chapter then considers the responses of policymakers and various stakeholders to gender inequalities in employment, draws conclusions and sets forth recommendations.

The main source of data for the analysis is the Quarterly Labour Force Survey (LFS), from 2006 to 2012, the main advantage of which is that data is available on a quarterly basis making it more suitable for trend analysis. The Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings ((ASHE) Department of Finance and Personnel Northern Ireland, 2007 and 2012) is utilised to provide supplementary information about wages. Information pertaining to attitudes was drawn from the Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey (NILTS) (Devine, 2010) and the Equality Commission for Northern Ireland's 2011 Equality Awareness Survey (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012).

The general picture reported is of on-going inequalities in the labour market in favour of males. Males, it is reported, are much more likely to be in full-time employment and in higher quality jobs than females. Males have higher ILO unemployment rates than females, male unemployment rates in Q1 2012 were twice that of females. Female inactivity rates are also higher than those of males. However, there is an emerging gap in full-time hourly pay in favour of females. Gender gaps in employment and job characteristics cannot be explained by the extent to which these groups hold different qualifications, but they are greatly influenced by the tendency of women to work part-time. Women working part-time are

more likely to have caring responsibilities for children, and there are evident differences between females with and without child caring responsibilities.

Literature review on gender inequalities in employment

Males in Northern Ireland are more likely to be economically active, and in full-time employment. Economic activity rates are 66.6% for females aged 16-59 years old and 79.0% for males aged 16-64 years old, while 39.8% of female employees work part-time, compared with just 10.4% of male employees (Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency, 2012b).

Northern Ireland is unusual with respect to the direction of the gender pay gap. In Northern Ireland, females earn slightly more with regard to full-time median hourly earnings than males (£11.00 and £11.20, respectively), while for the UK as a whole, full-time hourly earnings are lower for females, at 90.9% of male earnings (Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency, 2012c). In other words, there is a slight gender pay gap for full-time workers in Northern Ireland, but it is males who are earning less per hour. However, as the median hourly earnings of part-time workers are 69.9% of those of full-time workers (Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency, 2012c), and given that females are far more likely to work part-time, it is this difference that is driving the continued gender pay gap for the labour market in Northern Ireland.

Males are much more likely than females to be self-employed in Northern Ireland, by around 10 percentage points. However, whilst self-employment remained fairly constant for females over the last decade –3.6% in 2004 compared to 3.7% in 2012 – but it has declined from 17.0% to 13.0% among males.⁹ These trends are at odds with the UK as a whole; where over the same period, male self-employment stayed almost constant, at 13.0% in 2004 and 13.3% in 2012, while female self-employment increased from 4.6% in 2004 to 5.8% in 2012. Although female self-employment in the UK as a whole saw some increase, much of this has been in self-employment working less than thirty hours per week (Office for National Statistics, 2013). A lot of female self-employment in the UK constitutes very short hours – the average number of hours worked by self-employed females represents 2-3 days per week – and thus may not necessarily represent entrepreneurial activity or businesses which might grow to create additional jobs (Causar and Park, 2009). Furthermore, self-employed working-age adults in the UK are more likely to be in poverty than other working families, and self-employment can be used by employers to avoid National Insurance contributions and other responsibilities (such as paid holiday and pensions), rather than something that workers choose in their own interests (Trades Union Congress, 2012a).

It is difficult to isolate the impact of gender on employment from the impact of motherhood, and the associated 'choices' that females have to make in response to childcare responsibilities. For instance, females who do not have dependent children are more likely to work full-time, with related career consequences, than females with current or past childcare responsibilities. Dependency status is dealt with in Chapter 11; here we consider the possible impact of gender itself. It is also worth noting that the issue of gender inequalities in employment is not simply a case of females being disadvantaged relative to males, as

⁹ Source: Annual Population Survey 2004-2012, accessed via NOMIS.

some sub-groups of males may be more disadvantaged than some sub-groups of females. An example of this complexity can be seen in the comparison of young males and females. Young males are more likely to be unemployed than young females; in Northern Ireland, the ratio of male to female 18-24 year olds unemployment benefit claimants is approximately 3:1 (Bennett, 2010). Similarly, in the UK as a whole, young males are represented in much higher numbers among the unemployed; 62% of the young (16-24 years old) unemployed cohort are male, rising to 70% for long-term unemployment (Lee et al., 2012). However, young females are more likely to fall into the category of Not in Education, Employment or Training (NEET); in England, 21% of females aged 16-24 years old are NEET, compared with 17% of males in the same age group (Allen et al., 2012). It is difficult to obtain a comparable figure for Northern Ireland; this statistic does not feature in the scoping work carried out in preparation for the Northern Ireland Executive's strategy for tackling the issue of NEET young people (Northern Ireland Assembly Research and Library Services, 2009; Department for Employment and Learning, 2010), and gender does not appear in the strategy (Northern Ireland Executive, 2012). The intersections between gender and other variables in understanding employment inequalities are discussed further in Chapter 12.

Occupational segregation

Gender segregation in the labour market may be vertical – i.e. males are more likely to occupy senior positions – and horizontal – i.e. sectors and occupations tend to be male or female dominated. The implications of vertical segregation for the gender pay gap are the more obvious of the two; if females are less likely than males to occupy the well-remunerated jobs; this lowers their average wage relative to males. In Northern Ireland, only 36% of managers and senior officials are female; therefore 5% of females compared to 10% of males are employed in manager and senior official positions (Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency, 2012c). Thus, vertical segregation is likely to play a role in any gender pay gap.

However, if the sectors in which females are more likely to be employed in are those in which wages are also lower, horizontal segregation can also drive the gender pay gap. The Northern Ireland labour market is highly horizontally segregated along gender lines. For example, in 2012 92% of female full-time employees worked in the service sector, compared to 65% of males; a total of 54% of females were employed in the public administration, education and health sectors compared to 26% of males (Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency, 2012c). In addition, the Northern Ireland labour market is also highly vertically segregated along gender lines. For example, in 2012 whilst only 5% of females were employed in 'Managers and Senior Officials' occupation groups 10% of males were employed at this high occupation level; 77% of those who were employed in administrative and secretarial occupations were female, which accounted for 22% of females who were in employment (*ibid.*).

This horizontal segregation may also be a driver of vertical segregation; working in the public sector protects employees from downward occupational mobility, but restricts their upward mobility; research from the UK and across Europe suggests that there are more opportunities to achieve the better-paid managerial roles in the more male-dominated private sector (Schroeder et al., 2008). Horizontal segregation may also create gender inequalities in employment outcomes if sectors are differently affected by cyclical economic fluctuations. The recession had a particularly large impact on the male-dominated construction industry in Northern Ireland, and the job losses incurred by males were larger than those incurred by females, as the public sector seemed to remain relatively sheltered (Hinds, 2011). However,

this conceals more subtle changes to female employment – particularly the reduced hours and worse conditions that may have forced females to ‘choose’ to leave jobs that no longer allowed them to balance their work and care responsibilities – and the impact of public spending cuts that may be felt in the future (Hinds 2011). It does suggest, however, that the issue of gender inequalities in the labour market is complex, and the impact of the recession on males and females needs to be taken into account.

There are a number of theories as to why females may be paid less in the labour market, apart from differences in qualifications and experience. It may be that the roles and skills that are valued the highest are those that have stereotypically ‘masculine’ characteristics – being assertive, analytical and competitive – rather than the kind of occupations that require stereotypically ‘feminine’ traits, such as caring and customer service roles (England and Folbre, 1999; Grimshaw and Rubery, 2007; Rake and Lewis, 2009). If males are concentrated in the former and females in the latter, and the former is systematically better paid, then this will drive a gender pay gap.

There is no definitive answer as to why occupational segregation exists, and the extent to which it is a product of choice. Findings from the Women into Non-Traditional Sectors project in Belfast (Potter and Hill, 2009) suggested that, where constraints exist, they are both practical and cultural. A combination of childcare, transport and mentoring support was shown to help females overcome some of the practical impediments to accessing training and employment in traditionally male-dominated areas. However, without organisational change towards a genuine commitment to diversity and work-family reconciliation across the labour market, females will continue to be effectively excluded from many workplaces.

Transparency and equality

Another potential site of discrimination is in pay-setting, which is usually a secretive process that is open to a great deal of discretion, and is centred on potentially male-biased ‘performance’ criteria, or at least criteria that are stereotypically associated with males (Grimshaw and Rubery, 2007). The possibility that pay setting may be gendered is not generally something that is explicitly acknowledged by employers. Adams et al. (2009), in a cross sector survey of 900 organisations in Great Britain (GB), found strong resistance to conducting, and especially to publicising, any analysis of gender pay gaps in the organisation, particularly in the private sector. Their results confirmed that pay setting in the UK is often shrouded in secrecy; half of the employers gave their employees no information at all on how their pay compares to others, and only 4% were fully transparent (the remainder for the most part gave some indication of a pay band).

In recognition of the role of this secrecy in perpetuating the gender pay gap, the Equality Act 2010 made pay secrecy clauses unenforceable where pay is disclosed in the context of equal pay discussions, or the investigation of possible discrimination in pay¹⁰. However, these provisions do not apply in Northern Ireland (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2011). It will be interesting to see whether further differences

¹⁰ <http://www.equalityhumanrights.com/advice-and-guidance/tools-equal-pay/discussing-pay-with-colleagues/protected-discussions-with-colleagues-and-others-about-pay/> [Accessed 28/10/13]

in the gender pay gap emerge between GB and Northern Ireland over time by virtue of this difference in policy context.

Transgender and employment inequality

A survey of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender (LGBT) staff and students in higher education in Northern Ireland, England and Wales by Valentine et al. (2009) found that 23% of transgender staff claimed to have been denied a promotion because of their transgender status. Transgender employees also identified difficulties changing their personal details on workplace records, and reported being asked not to use the toilet facilities that correspond to their preferred/correct gender (Valentine et al., 2009).

Case study research from the UK and United States of America (USA) (Barclay and Scott, 2006; Schilt and Connell, 2007; Metcalf and Rolfe, 2011) has also identified a number of issues faced by transsexuals in the workplace, and for their managers and colleagues in negotiating the complex legal and intra-personal challenges posed by a transitioning employee.

A key problem faced by transsexuals at work is isolation; there is unlikely to be more than one transsexual in a workplace, which makes it more difficult to create any collective force for tolerance and accommodation within the workplace. This rarity also means that workplaces are unlikely to have any specific policy on transsexuality as they do not perceive it as a likely issue. The workplace rights of transsexuals are poorly understood by employers and in turn they are poorly equipped to advise other employees of their obligations towards their transsexual colleague. Gender transitions can undermine trust in the workplace, as colleagues may feel that the trans person is not the person they thought they knew. There may also be hostility towards the trans employee, caused by transphobia, or a perception that the trans person is receiving special treatment (Barclay and Scott, 2006, Badgett et al., 2007 and Sargeant, 2009).

The problems faced by transgender individuals highlights the gender binary that operates in the workplace. Males who transition to females report that they suddenly experience the same negative stereotypes about their competence and commitment as their female colleagues. However, it should be noted that the transition is not easy in either direction, as the trans person is trying to fit their gender identity, which is much more fluid and complex than most people's, into the gender binary that operates not just within the workplace, but in society as a whole (see Badgett et al., 2007 and Bruni et al., 2005).

Recent trends in gender inequalities in employment in Northern Ireland

Economic status

A summary of the economic status of males and females at Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 is displayed in Table 3.1. From this table it is evident that the percentage of females in employment was lower than the percentage of males in employment. Also shown is that a higher percentage of females tended to be classified as economic inactivity compared to males, while a greater percentage of males tended to be ILO unemployed. From Q1 2006 to Q1 2012 employment rates for males have fallen by 2.5 percentage points, from 74.1% to 71.6%, respectively while those of females have risen by 2.7 percentage points, from 64.6% to 67.3%, respectively. For males unemployment rates rose between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 by 2.4 percentage points, from 4.4% to 6.8%, respectively, for females the rise in unemployment was 1.7 percentage points, from 1.7% to 3.4%, respectively. Economic inactive rates fell for females over the period by 4.4 percentage points, from 33.7% in Q1 2006 to 29.3% in Q1 2012 while for males the rate of economic inactivity remained constant at 21.5% for both time points.

Table 3.1: Economic status by gender (Source: LFS Q1 2006 & Q1 2012)*

Q1 2006					Q1 2012			
Gender	In employment	ILO unemployed	Economically Inactive	Total	In employment	ILO unemployed	Economically Inactive	Total
Number								
Male	405588	24048	117683	547319	410796	39256	123463	573515
Female	332981	8985	173460	515426	360562	18258	157117	535937
Total	738569	33033	291143	1062745	771358	57514	280580	1109452
Percentage of Population Category								
Male	74.1%	4.4%	21.5%	100.0%	71.6%	6.8%	21.5%	99.9%
Female	64.6%	1.7%	33.7%	100.0%	67.3%	3.4%	29.3%	100.0%
Total	69.5%	3.1%	27.4%	100.0%	69.5%	5.2%	25.3%	100.0%
Percentage of Economic Status Category								
Male	54.9%	72.8%	40.4%	51.5%	53.3%	68.3%	44.0%	51.7%
Female	45.1%	27.2%	59.6%	48.5%	46.7%	31.7%	56.0%	48.3%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

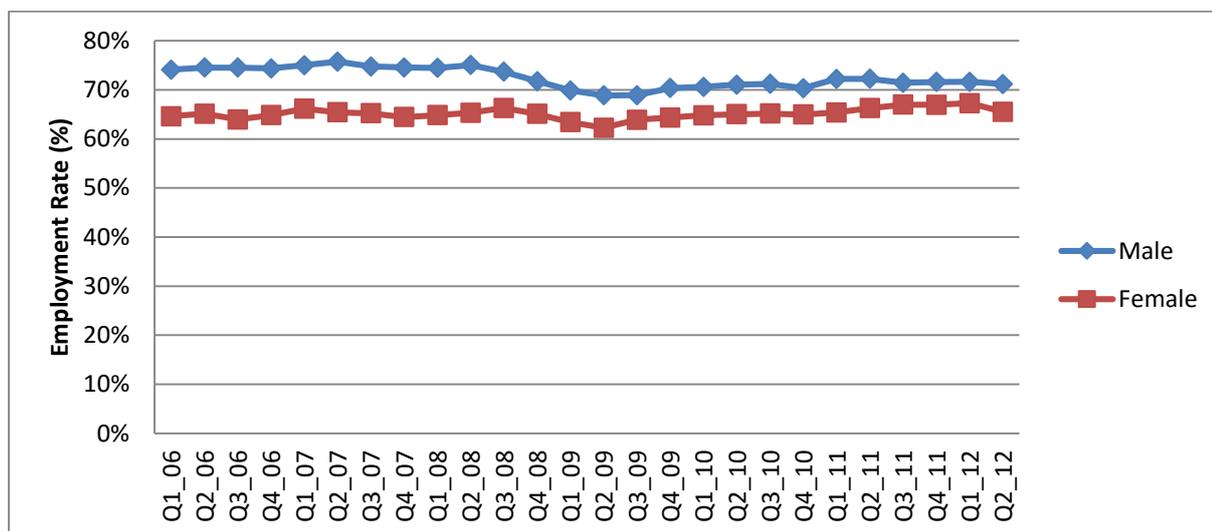
* Percentages may not sum to 100 due to rounding.

Figures 3.1 to 3.4 display trends in economic status for males and females in the Northern Ireland working age population (16-64 years old for males and 16-59 years old for females). The weighted LFS data shows trends over the period Q1 2006 to Q2 2012.

Employment

Employment rates for the working age population as a whole remained constant at 69.5% at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. Figure 3.1 suggests a decline was experienced in early 2009, and was more pronounced for males, whose employment rate fell from 74.1% in Q1 2006 to 71.6% in Q1 2012. Although females experienced some decline during the second half of 2008 and the first half of 2009, their employment rate by Q1 2012 (67.3%) was higher than in Q1 2006 (64.6%). In Q1 2012, males (71.6%) exceeded the average employment rate by 2.1 percentage points, while lower rates were reported for females (67.3%) of 2.2 percentage points.

Figure 3.1: Employment rate by gender (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

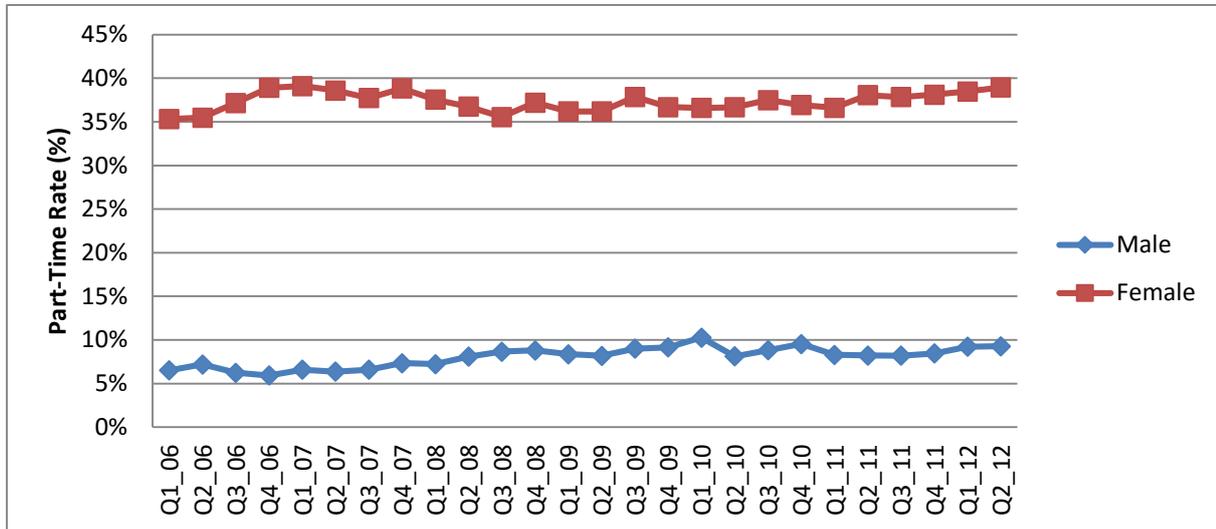


Part-time employment

The proportion of all those employed who were working part-time increased, from 19.5% in Q1 2006 to 23.1% in Q1 2012, an increase of 3.6 percentage points. Females were much more likely to work part-time than men; in Q1 2012, 38.5% of female employees worked part-time – 15.4 percentage points higher than the average – while 9.2% of male employees worked part-time, a difference of 13.9 percentage points. The proportion in part-time work for both sexes remained fairly constant from Q1 2006 to Q1 2012, as can be observed from the relatively flat trends displayed in Figure 3.2. According to initial calculations from the Census 2011 for Northern Ireland (NISRA, 2012a), males work longer hours than females: some 11.9% of females who worked did so for less than 16 hours per week (compared with 4.9% of males); 32.5% of females worked 16-30 hours per week (compared with 9.8% of males); 51.8% of females worked 31 to 48 hours per week (compared with 70.0% of males); and 3.7% worked 49 or more hours per week (15.3% of males). It should be noted, however, that these figures define a working age population as 16-74 years old,

as opposed to the definition employed in the present study of 16-64 years old for males and 16-59 years old for females.

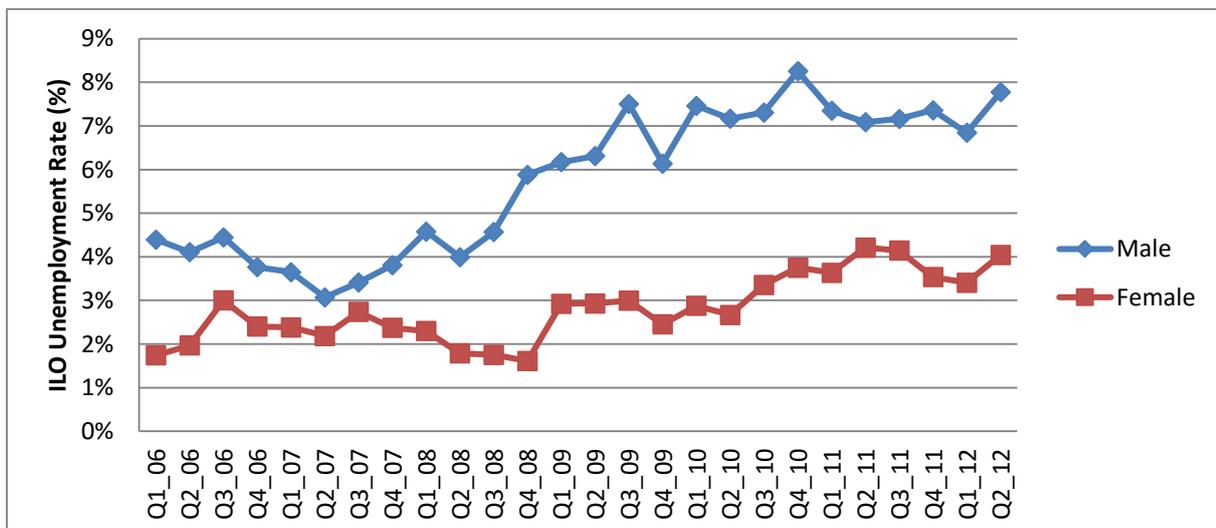
Figure 3.2: Percentage of those employed working part-time by gender (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Unemployment

ILO unemployment among the working age population as a whole increased over the period of interest, from 3.1% in Q1 2006 to 5.2% in Q1 2012. Male ILO unemployment was higher than the population average at 6.8% in Q1 2012, while female ILO unemployment was considerably lower at 3.4%. From Figure 3.3 it seems that males were disproportionately affected by the fall in employment in terms of their ILO unemployment rate, which had risen more than the female rate.

Figure 3.3: ILO unemployment rate by gender (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

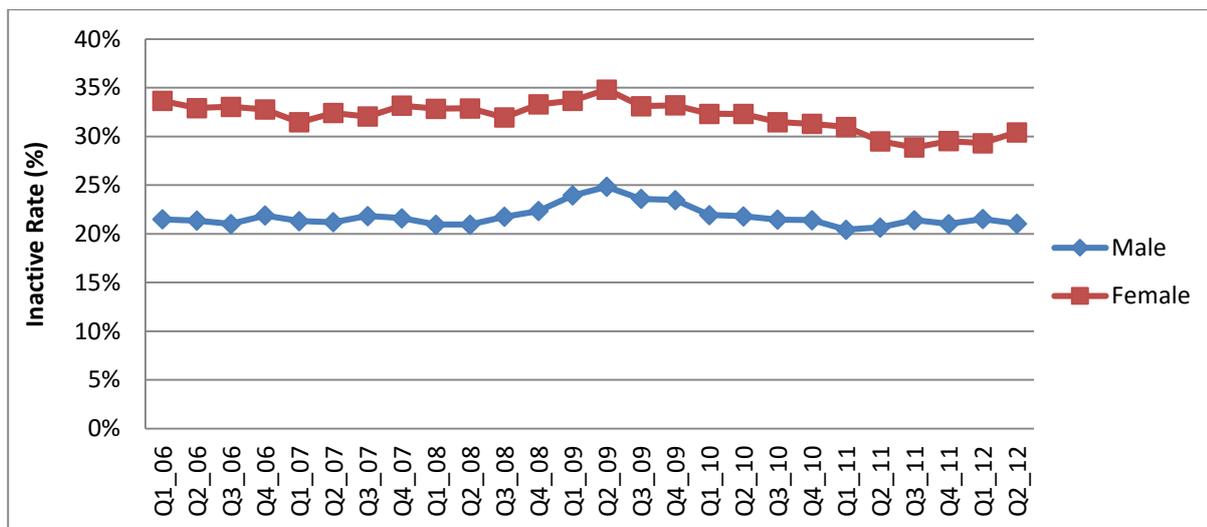


For those who were ILO unemployed in Q1 2006, 32.8% of ILO unemployed males and 44.4% of ILO unemployed females were classified as long term unemployed. In Q1 2012 the percentages were nearly reversed with 48.3% of ILO unemployed males and 30.5% of ILO unemployed females classified as long term unemployed.

Economic Inactivity

Economic inactivity rates among the working age population as a whole fell slightly from 27.4% in Q1 2006 to 25.3% in Q1 2012. Female economic inactivity was 4.0% higher than the population average in Q1 2012, at 29.3%, while male economic inactivity was 3.8% lower at 21.5%. Female economic inactivity fell by 4.4 percentage points between Q1 2006 (33.7%) and Q1 2012 (29.3%), while male economic inactivity changed very little over the period as a whole (it remained the same at 21.5% for both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012), although for both genders the latter part of 2008 and early 2009 represented a peak in economic inactivity (Figure 3.4). The difference between male and female inactivity rates has stayed fairly constant at around 10.0 percentage points, but this has narrowed slightly in recent years. The findings from the literature review above suggest that these gender differences can be largely attributed to caring responsibilities, especially for children.

Figure 3.4: Economic inactivity rate by gender (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

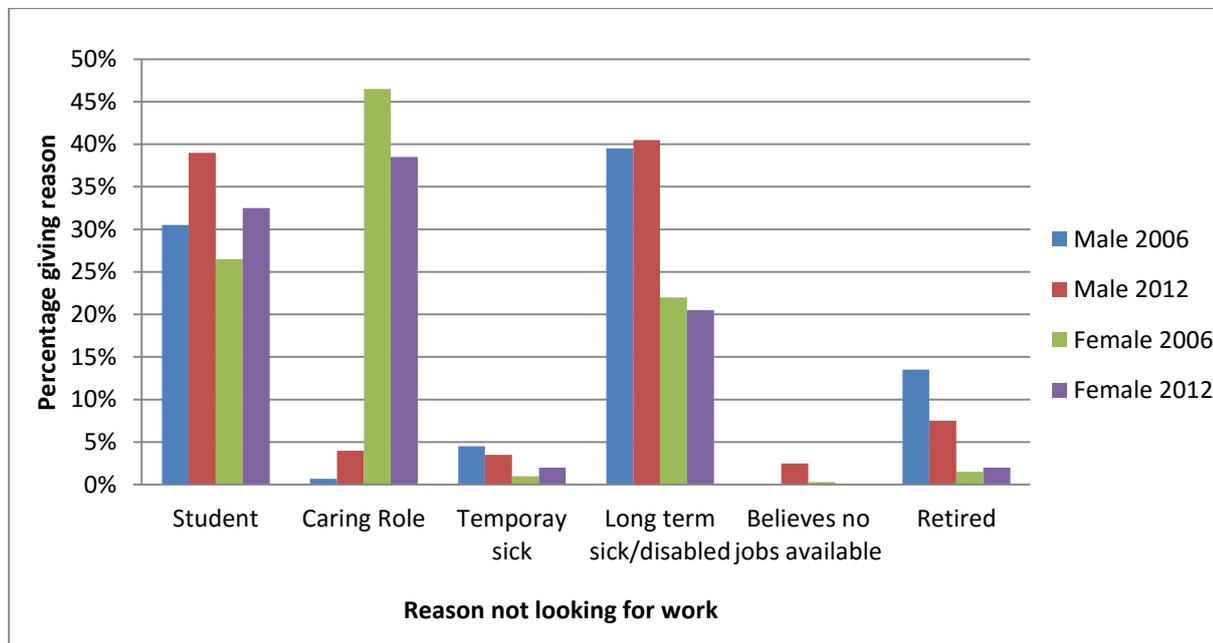


Main reasons for not looking for work

The reasons for not looking for work given by those classified as economically inactive in the LFS are displayed in Figure 3.5. Note that great care should be taken in interpreting these figures, as the total number who answered this question in the survey was less than 800 and therefore may not be representative of the whole population. However, even though the numbers are small, it is clear that a major reason for females not looking for work is that they have a caring role. It is also notable that males are more likely not to be looking for work because they are long term sick or disabled. For both genders roughly a quarter to a third of both sexes were not looking for work because they were students. Data is

presented from both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, and suggests that there are no significant trends in the reasons given for not seeking work; the proportions are broadly similar at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.

Figure 3.5: Main reason for not looking for work in the last four weeks by gender (Source: LFS, 2006 and 2012)

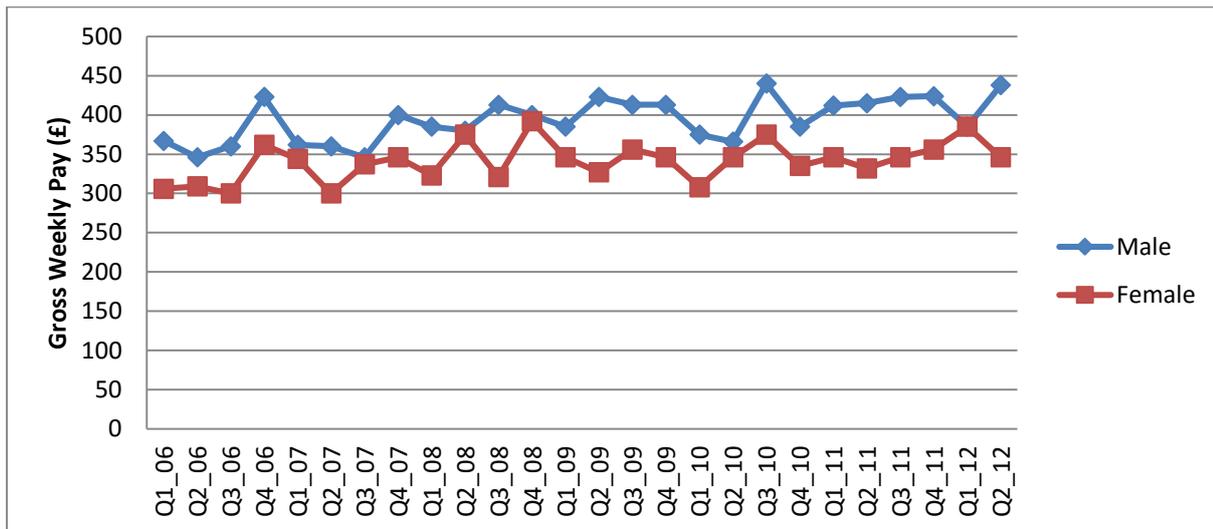


Median gross weekly pay

Median gross weekly pay for all full-time workers was £346 in Q1 2006 and £385 in Q1 2012, a nominal increase of £39 (11.3%) per week. Figure 3.6a shows trends in the median weekly gross pay rates for male full-time workers and female full-time workers. Male full-time workers were paid on average £53 per week (just over 16%) more than female full-time workers between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. Whilst the differential has been fairly constant during this time, towards the end of the period there has been some convergence in pay. Data from the LFS suggests no pay differential at all in Q1 2012, although this is anomalous with the surrounding data points, which suggest a trend of a continuing differential. The ASHE Data, which is based on different samples and methods¹¹, is shown in Figure 3.6c, and suggests a narrowing but enduring gender differential in gross weekly pay, which was £38.90 in 2012 (average weekly pay of £479 for men and £440 for women).

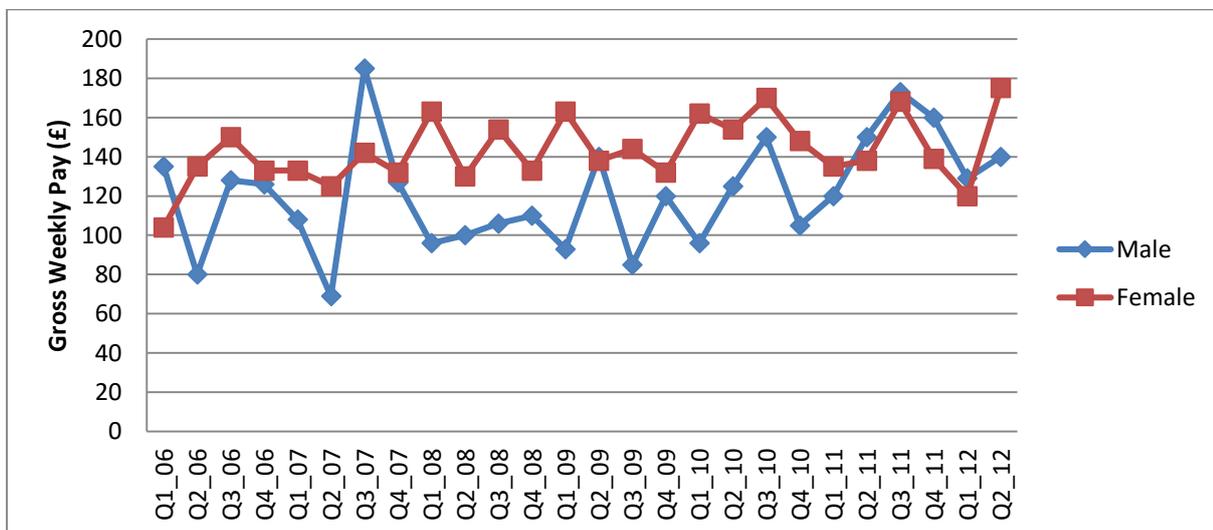
¹¹ For a discussion of the relative merits of the LFS and the ASHE for measuring wages and understanding the gender pay gap, see Leaker (2008).

Figure 3.6a: Median gross weekly pay for full-time workers by gender (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



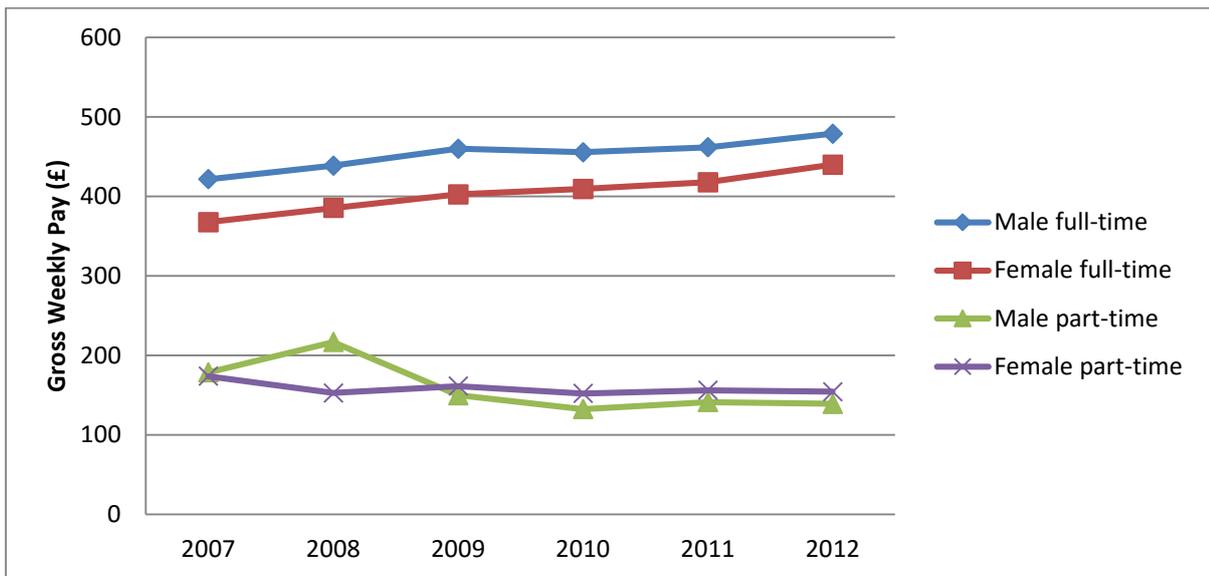
For part-time workers, median gross weekly pay for all workers increased by £5 (4.3%), from £115 in Q1 2006 to £120 in Q1 2012. Female part-time workers had on average over the period a gross pay of £22 (or 20%) per week more than male part-time workers, and again there is convergence towards the end of the period (Figure 3.6b).

Figure 3.6b: Median gross weekly pay for part-time workers by gender (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



LFS data suggests a very similar weekly wage of £120 for females and £129 for males in Q1 2012. However, ASHE data suggests a small and relatively stable gender pay gap in median weekly wages for part-time workers (Figure 3.6c) in favour of women by around £15 per week in 2012, so caution is needed when considering these results.

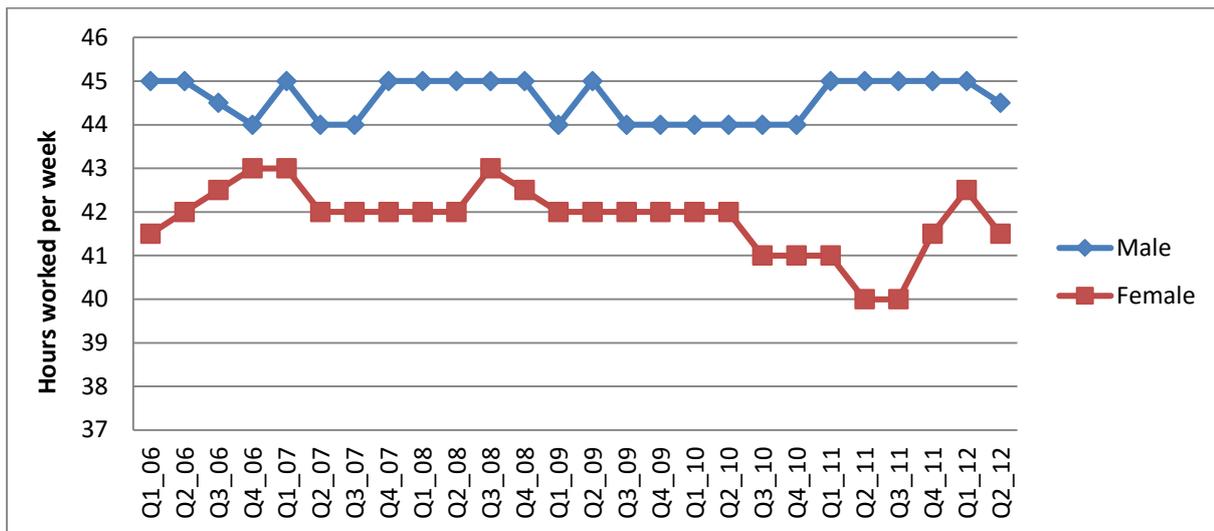
Figure 3.6c: Median gross weekly pay for full-time and part-time workers by gender – ASHE data (Source: ASHE, 2007-2012)



Hours worked per week including overtime

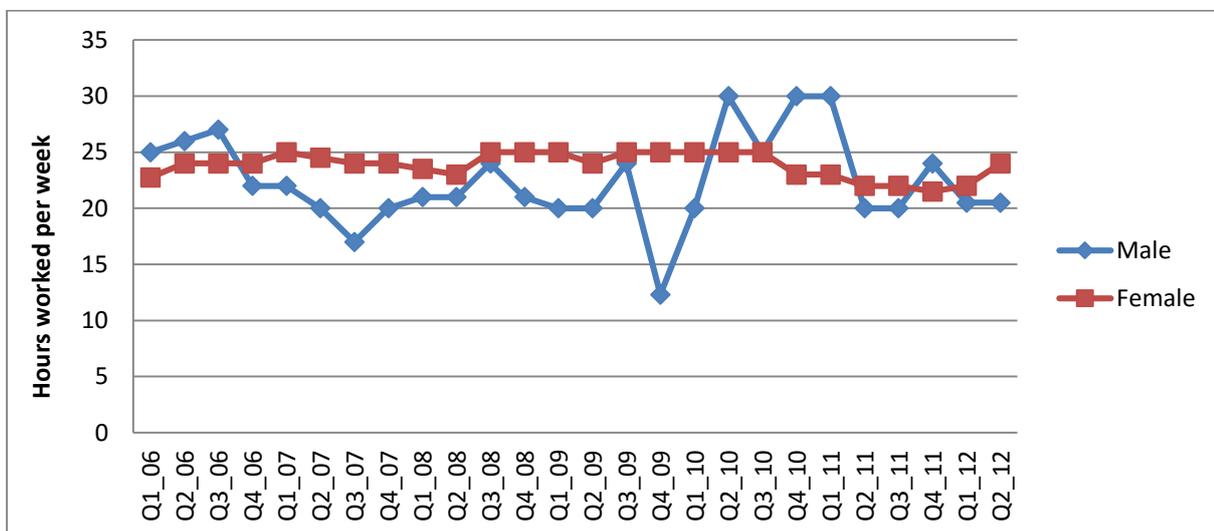
The median hours worked per week including overtime changed slightly from Q1 2006 to Q1 2012 for the working age population as a whole, remaining the same at 44 hours per week in Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 for full-time workers, and falling from 23 to 22 hours per week for part-time workers over the same period. Trends in working hours for male and female full-time workers are displayed in Figure 3.7a. This figure shows that, for most of the period, males worked around 3 hours per week more than females; at its widest (from Q2 2011 to Q3 2011), the differential is 5 hours per week, although this has since narrowed a little. Whilst males experienced some fluctuation in the hours worked per week including overtime between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, the median hours worked per week was the same at both time points (45 hours per week at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012). For females, hours fluctuated over the period and experienced an overall increase of one hour between Q1 2006 (41.5 hours) and Q1 2012 (42.5 hours).

Figure 3.7a: Median hours worked per week including overtime for full-time workers by gender (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Trends in working hours for male and female part-time workers are displayed in Figure 3.7b. Female part-time workers hours show little variation over time whilst male part-time hours show fluctuations though this is likely to be due to the small number of male part-time workers in the sample.

Figure 3.7b: Median hours worked per week including overtime for part-time workers by gender (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

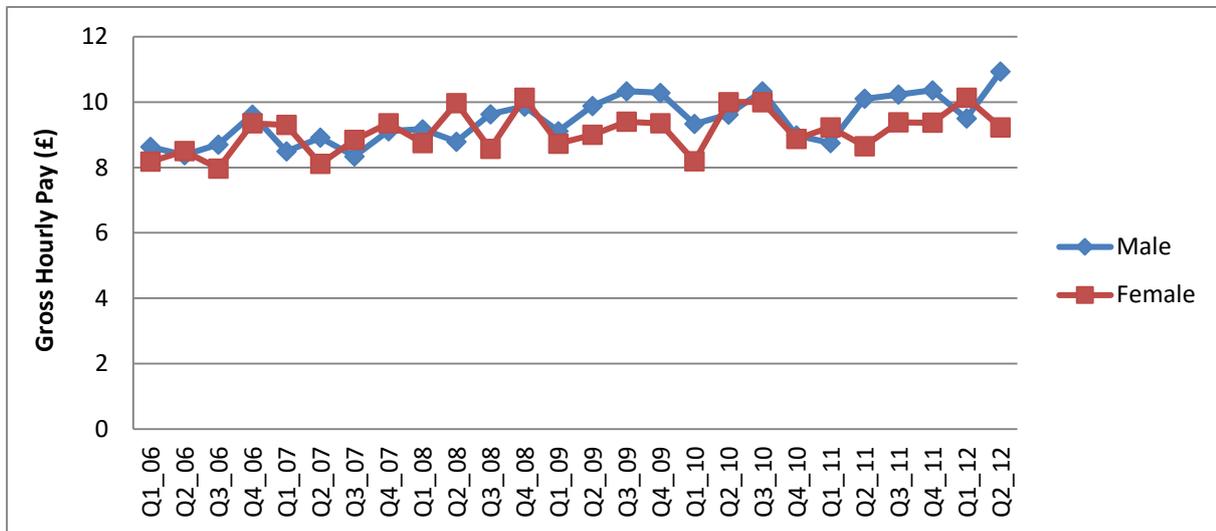


Median gross hourly pay

Median gross hourly pay for all full-time workers was £8.33 per hour in Q1 2006 and £9.87 per hour in Q1 2012, a nominal increase of £1.54 per hour over the period. Figure 3.8a shows the median gross hourly pay of male and female full-time workers over this period; it is apparent that there are no substantial differences between the sexes. Data from Q1 2012 suggests that women earn slightly more than the median gross hourly wage for all full-time workers, at £10.13 per hour, while men earn slightly less at £9.50

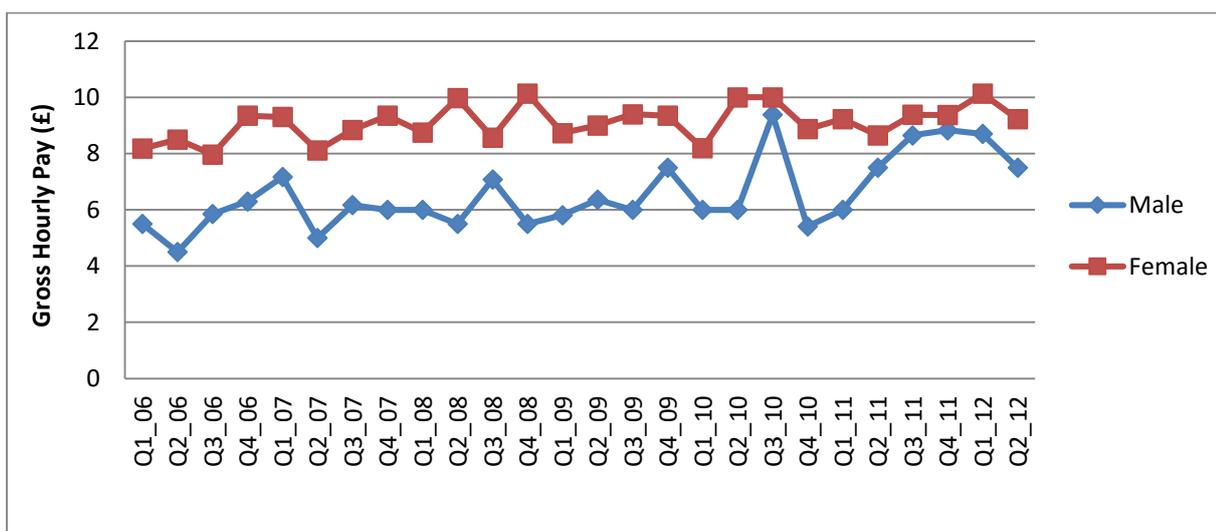
per hour. However, the surrounding time period (Q2 – Q4 2011 and Q2 2012) suggests a gap in favour of men.

Figure 3.8a: Median gross hourly pay for full-time workers by gender (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



For part-time workers, median gross hourly pay for all workers increased by £1.05 (16.9%), from £6.20 in Q1 2006 to £7.25 in Q1 2012. Unlike full-time workers, it appears from Figure 3.8b that for part-time workers there is a gap in favour of females, who for most of the period were paid on average £2.00 per hour more than males. In Q1 2012, the median hourly pay for female part-time workers was higher than for all workers at £10.13, while for male part-time workers it was lower than average at £8.70. However, it should be noted that the number of male part-time workers in the sample was small; care should be taken in interpreting the estimates produced.

Figure 3.8b: Median gross hourly pay for part-time workers by gender (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Because of the sometimes low sample sizes, basing an understanding of pay differences solely on the LFS might be problematic, so the wage rates derived here were compared to those reported in the ASHE from 2006 and 2012. Data from the ASHE comparing the median gross hourly pay rates are reported in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Median gross hourly wage rates by gender and employment type (Source: ASHE 2006 and 2012)

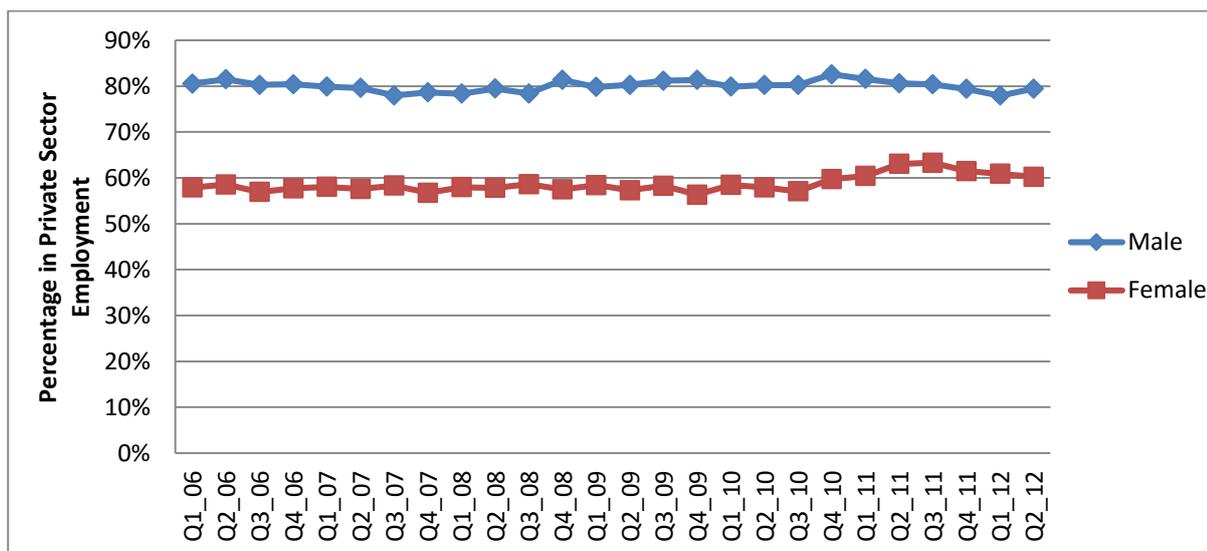
		2006	2012
Gender	Employment type	Median Hourly Gross Pay	Median Hourly Gross Pay
Female	Full-time	£9.83	£11.37
	Part-time	£7.02	£7.96
Male	Full-time	£10.00	£11.40
	Part-time	£7.33	£7.14
Percentage Pay Difference			
Median female hourly pay as a proportion of median male hourly pay, and the gender pay gap (in brackets)	Full-time	98.3% (-1.7%)	99.7% (-0.3%)
	Part-time	95.8% (-4.2%)	111.5% (+11.5%)

Table 3.2 shows that, in 2006, median gross hourly pay for part-time workers was lower for females than for males, with a gender pay gap of 4.2% in favour of males, but that this had reversed by 2012 to a gender pay gap of 11.5% in favour of females. This is broadly consistent with the LFS data, which suggests a gap in favour of women; although it also suggested that this gap was present in 2006 and has since narrowed. The ASHE data here is probably a better indicator, as the sample size of male part-time workers in Northern Ireland as derived from the LFS is small, resulting in a large standard error on the 2012 estimate of the median gross hourly earnings for males. Among full-time workers, the gender pay gap narrowed, from 1.7% in favour of males in 2006 to just 0.3% in favour of males in 2012. The finding that male and female full-time pay was very similar is in agreement with the LFS data.

Private sector employment

Employment in the private sector¹² stayed fairly constant for the working age population as a whole between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012; it stood at 70.3% in Q1 2006 and 70.0% in Q1 2012. At Q1 2012 males (79.4%) were more likely to be in private sector employment (including the self-employed) than females (60.2%), with the difference remaining fairly constant over the period of interest at 21.3 percentage points on average (Figure 3.9).

Figure 3.9: Percentage in private sector employment by gender (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Industry sector

This section investigates the distribution of employment of males and females across industry sectors, examining the proportion employed and the median hourly gross pay in each sector for each sex (Appendix 5 Table A5.1 gives the sample sizes for each gender for each industry sector).

The distribution by sex across industry sectors is given in Table 3.3. These numbers demonstrate the way in which females are concentrated in a small number of industries to a far greater extent than males and show little change between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. In both 2006 and 2012, no more than 20.4% of all males worked in any one industry sector. This compares with over half of all female employment being concentrated into the 'Public Administration, Education and Health' sector (52.6% in Q1 2006 and 51.4% in Q1 2012); almost three quarters of females were employed in either this sector or 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' (21.9% in Q1 2006 and 22.0% in Q1 2012).

¹² In the Labour Force Survey dataset, 'Private sector' is defined as those working for; a private firm or business; a public company (plc.); or a charity, voluntary organisation or trust. 'Public sector' is those working for: a nationalised industry or corporation; central or local government or the civil service; a university or local authority controlled/grant funded educational establishment; or a health authority or NHS trust.

Table 3.3 also shows the high degree of horizontal segregation that exists in the labour market – i.e. the concentration of males and females in different industry sectors. This is particularly evident in the ‘Construction’ sector where the proportion of females is continuously under-represented in both Q1 2006 (under 45.1%¹³) and Q1 2012 (under 46.7%¹⁴) (6.2% and 6.1%, respectively). It can also be seen in the: ‘Agriculture and Fishing’; ‘Energy and Water’; ‘Manufacturing’; and ‘Transport and Communication’ sectors (although slight increases were evident in Q1 2012, for all but ‘Manufacturing’). Conversely, of those employed in ‘Public Administration, Education and Health’, a greater proportion were female in both Q1 2006 (69.8%) and Q1 2012 (68.9%) than male.

Table 3.3: Industry sector of employment by gender (Source: LFS, 2006 and 2012)

Sector (SIC2007)	Q1 2006				Q1 2012			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²
A-B: Agriculture & Fishing	92.3	5.6	7.7	0.6	87.8	4.7	12.2	0.7
C,E: Energy & Water	93.7	1.4	6.3	0.1	85.2	1.8	14.8	0.4
D: Manufacturing	77.5	19.9	22.5	7.0	78.1	18.4	21.9	5.9
F: Construction	93.8	17.3	6.2	1.4	93.9	15.9	6.1	1.2
G-H: Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants	49.3	17.5	50.7	21.9	47.1	17.2	52.9	22.0
I: Transport & Communication	77.0	6.7	23.0	2.4	79.2	7.4	20.8	2.2
J-K: Banking, Finance & Insurance etc.	53.1	9.3	46.9	10.0	48.5	9.8	51.5	11.9
L-N: Public Admin, Education & Health	30.2	18.7	69.8	52.6	31.1	20.4	68.9	51.4
O-Q: Other Services	52.2	3.6	47.8	4.0	53.4	4.4	46.6	4.3

¹ Row: proportion within each sector of sex class (e.g. in 2006 77.5% of those employed in manufacturing were male). ² Column: distribution of sex class group across sectors (e.g. in 2006 19.9% of males were employed in manufacturing)

¹³ At Q1 2006, 45.1% of those in employment were female.

¹⁴ At Q1 2012, 46.7% of those in employment were female.

Table 3.4 shows the distribution of males and females between industry sectors according to the Census 2001 for Northern Ireland and Census 2011 for Northern Ireland data. This table gives support to the distributions found in the LFS.

Table 3.4: Industry sector of employment by gender - Census data* (Source: NISRA, 2001; 2011)

Sector (SIC2007)	2001		2011	
	Male %	Female %	Male %	Female %
Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing	4.7	0.9	3.7	0.7
Manufacturing	19.2	8.1	14.4	4.7
Electricity, gas and water supply	1.0	0.3	1.8	0.5
Mining & quarrying and construction	15.9	1.5	14.5	1.9
Wholesale & retail trade, repair of motor vehicles	15.9	17.8	17.0	18.1
Hotels and catering	3.3	6.0	4.5	6.4
Transport, storage and communication	7.3	3.1	9.7	3.2
Financial intermediation	2.2	4.0	2.7	3.9
Real estate, renting and business activities	8.0	7.7	10.0	9.1
Public administration and defence	10.0	8.5	7.9	8.0
Education	4.8	13.7	5.0	14.1
Health and social work	4.2	23.2	5.2	23.9
Other	3.8	5.2	3.8	5.5

*Based on a working age population aged between 16 and 74 years old.

Table 3.5 presents the median gross hourly pay for males and females across industry sectors. In Q1 2006, the top three highest paid sectors for males were: 1. 'Energy and Water'; 2. 'Other Services'; and 3. 'Public Administration, Education and Health', whilst for females the top three highest paid sectors were: 1. 'Banking, Finance and Insurance'; 2. 'Construction'; and 3. 'Transport and Communication' and 'Public Administration, Education and Health' (shared third place). In Q1 2012, 'Energy and Water' and 'Other Services' no longer featured in the top three highest paid sectors for males. The top three highest paid sectors for males had changed to: 1. 'Public Administration, Education and Health'; 2. 'Transport and Communication'; and 3. 'Construction'. For females, in Q1 2012 the top three highest paid were: 1. 'Construction'; 2. 'Other Services'; and 3. 'Public Administration, Education and Health'.

In most sectors, males were higher paid than females; exceptions to this were 'Banking, Finance and Insurance' in Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, and 'Construction', 'Other Services' and 'Banking Finance and Insurance' in Q1 2012.

Table 3.5: Median gross hourly pay in each industry sector by gender and gender pay gaps (Source: LFS, 2006 and 2012)

Sector (SIC2007)	Q1 2006			Q1 2012		
	Male	Female	Pay Gap*	Male	Female	Pay Gap*
A-B: Agriculture & Fishing	£10.16	n/a		£5.91	n/a	
C,E: Energy & Water	£20.14	n/a		£7.80	n/a	
D: Manufacturing	£7.83	£7.69	£0.14	£7.69	£6.67	£1.02
F: Construction	£9.21	£9.07	£0.14	£10.00	£15.59	-£5.59
G-H: Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants	£6.64	£5.60	£1.04	£8.52	£6.91	£1.61
I: Transport & Communication	£9.17	£8.05	£1.12	£10.92	£6.93	£3.99
J-K: Banking, Finance & Insurance etc.	£8.41	£11.00	-£2.59	£7.86	£8.25	-£0.39
L-N: Public Admin, Education & Health	£10.38	£8.05	£2.33	£13.37	£10.10	£3.27
O-Q: Other Services	£11.75	n/a		£9.46	£11.43	-£1.97

*Pay gap = male median gross hourly pay minus female median gross hourly pay

n/a = No data available

Occupation group

This section explores the distribution and proportion of males and females across occupation groups, and their relative pay in each group (Appendix 5 Table A5.1 gives the sample sizes for each gender for each occupation group). Table 3.6 shows that:

- In both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 the occupation with the highest distribution of males was 'Skilled Trades Occupations' (30.9% and 24.1%, respectively); females were most highly distributed in 'Administrative and Secretarial' occupations (22.8% and 21.4%, respectively).
- In Q1 2012 males were much more often employed in 'Skilled Trades Occupations' than females (24.1% and 2.3%, respectively); this also held true for employment as 'Process, Plant and Machine Operatives' (10.5% for males and 1.9% for females) even though the distribution of males

employed in these occupations declined in Q1 2012 compared to Q1 2006 (by 6.8 percentage points for 'Skilled Trades Occupations and by 4.0 percentage points as 'Process, Plant and Machine Operatives'); which could be explained by economic factors.

- Females, compared to males, were much more often employed in Q1 2012 in 'Administrative and Secretarial' occupations (21.4% and 5.5%, respectively), 'Personal Service Occupations' (16.8% and 2.7%, respectively) and 'Sales and Customer Service Occupations' (11.9% and 4.7%, respectively).
- A degree of vertical segregation, to the detriment of females, was evident at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 with regard to 'Managers and Senior Officials' occupations; males were over-represented in these occupations at both time points (i.e. over 54.9%¹⁵ and 53.3%¹⁶).
- In Q1 2012, a higher distribution of males were employed as
- The distribution of females was higher than that of males in 'Professional Occupations' in Q1 2012 (19.5% compared with 17.9%); a positive increase in the distribution of both males and females from Q1 2006 to Q1 2012 was also evidenced (7.1 percentage points for males and 5.5 percentage points for females, respectively);
- Whilst the distribution of males and females employed in 'Associate Professional and Technical' occupations showed little difference between the sexes in Q1 2012 there was a 4.1% decline in the distribution of females from Q1 2006.

¹⁵ At Q1 2006, 54.9% of those in employment were male.

¹⁶ At Q1 2012, 53.3% of those in employment were male.

Table 3.6: Occupation group by gender (Source: LFS, 2006 and 2012)

Occupation (SOC10)	Q1 2006				Q1 2012			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²
Managers and Senior Officials	64.5	11.4	35.5	7.6	63.2	10.2	36.8	6.8
Professional Occupations	48.3	10.8	51.7	14.0	51.2	17.9	48.8	19.5
Associate Professional and Technical	46.6	10.2	53.4	14.2	55.4	11.0	44.6	10.1
Administrative and Secretarial	22.7	5.5	77.3	22.8	22.6	5.5	77.4	21.4
Skilled Trades Occupations	92.7	30.9	7.3	2.9	92.3	24.1	7.7	2.3
Personal Service Occupations	14.4	1.9	85.6	13.9	15.3	2.7	84.7	16.8
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	32.7	4.9	67.3	12.3	31.0	4.7	69.0	11.9
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	88.1	14.5	11.9	2.4	86.3	10.5	13.7	1.9
Elementary Occupations	54.8	9.8	45.2	9.8	62.3	13.4	37.7	9.3

¹ Row: proportion within each occupation of gender class (e.g. in 2006 35.5% of managers and senior officials were female)

² Column: distribution of gender class group across occupations (e.g. in 2006 7.6% of females were managers and senior officials)

The LFS data also gives figures for self-employed males and females which may influence the figures in Table 3.6, especially with regard to differences between the sexes. In Q1 2006, a greater proportion of males than females were self-employed (16.3% and 3.9%, respectively). By Q1 2012, the percentage of self-employed males fell to 13.3%, whilst the percentage of self-employed females rose to 4.3%. However, the rise for females was small and provides little indication that females were increasingly likely to be self-employed from Q1 2006 to Q1 2012. These differences affect the occupational distribution as the self-

employed, for both sexes, were more likely to be classified as senior managers, although often in very small organisations, (13.8% for males and 17.8% for females in Q1 2012) and less likely to be classified as professionals (11.4% for males and 13.1% for females in Q1 2012). Excluding the self-employed, the percentages classified as ‘Managers and Senior Officials’ or in ‘Professional Occupations’ was 21.9% of males and 20.9% of females in Q1 2006, a gender gap of 1.0 percentage point; a slightly wider gender gap of 2.8 percentage points was evident in Q1 2012, where 28.8% of males and 26.0% of females, respectively were classified as ‘Managers and Senior Officials’ or in ‘Professional Occupations’. Due to small sample sizes, care should be taken with figures relating to the self-employed derived from LFS data.

Data from the Census 2001 for Northern Ireland and the Census 2011 for Northern Ireland presents a somewhat similar distribution (see Table 3.7), although it should be noted that census data publications define the working age population as 16-74 years old, so results are not fully compatible with the LFS analysis conducted here. The census data suggests relatively more females than males in the combined ‘Managers’ and ‘Professionals’ categories in 2011, although the number of senior managers appears to have declined for both sexes and the number of professionals increased for both; although more so for females.

Table 3.7: Occupation group by gender – Census data* (Source: NISRA, 2011)

Occupation (SOC10)	2001		2011	
	Male %	Female %	Male %	Female %
Manager, directors and senior officials	12.6	8.1	9.8	6.2
Professional occupations	10.1	11.1	14.1	20.4
Associate professional and technical	11.8	13.4	9.7	7.5
Administrative and secretarial	7.2	23.6	7.8	20.8
Skilled trades	25.7	3.2	24.3	3.0
Caring leisure and other services	1.8	12.7	2.7	16.4
Sales and customer service	3.7	11.7	6.8	13.5
Process plant and machine	15.5	4.1	13.5	2.0
Elementary occupations	11.6	12.0	11.4	10.2

* Based on a working age population aged between 16 and 74 years old.

Variation in median gross hourly pay across occupation groups for each sex is presented in Table 3.8. For males and females, in Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 the top three hourly paid occupations were: 1. ‘Professional Occupations’, 2. ‘Managers and Senior Officials’ and 3. ‘Associate Professional and Technical’. In all occupation groups in Q1 2006 except ‘Professional Occupations’, males were higher paid per hour than

females. This pay differential changed in Q1 2012, where males were higher paid per hour in all occupation groups except for 'Managers and Senior Officials' and 'Administrative and Secretarial'.

Table 3.8: Median gross hourly pay in each occupation group by gender (Source: LFS 2006, 2012)

Occupation (SOC10)	Q1 2006			Q1 2012		
	Male	Female	Pay Gap*	Male	Female	Pay Gap*
Managers and Senior Officials	£12.50	£10.38	£2.12	£12.31	£12.66	-£0.35
Professional Occupations	£13.85	£15.00	-£1.15	£16.84	£15.18	£1.66
Associate Professional and Technical	£11.33	£9.25	£2.08	£13.42	£10.13	£3.29
Administrative and Secretarial	£9.75	£7.63	£2.12	£8.05	£9.58	-£1.53
Skilled Trades Occupations	£7.29	£7.00	£0.29	£7.69	£7.50	£0.19
Personal Service Occupations	£8.65	£5.91	£2.74	£10.35	£7.00	£3.35
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	£8.90	£5.60	£3.30	£9.72	£6.84	£2.88
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	£7.83	£6.34	£1.49	£7.50	£5.83	£1.67
Elementary Occupations	£5.50	£5.50	£0.00	£7.38	£6.25	£1.13

*Pay gap = male median gross hourly pay minus female median gross hourly pay

Qualifications

From Figure 3.10 it is clear that, relative to males, the qualification profile of females is better. In Q1 2006, 16.5% of females and 14.3% of males held a degree or equivalent (this category is composed of those with higher degrees, NVQ level 5, first degrees and other degrees). By Q1 2012, the proportion holding a degree or equivalent had increased for both sexes, to 20.3% and 18.0% for females and males respectively; this increase was slightly greater for males, increasing the gender gap slightly in favour of females from 2.2 to 2.3 percentage points.

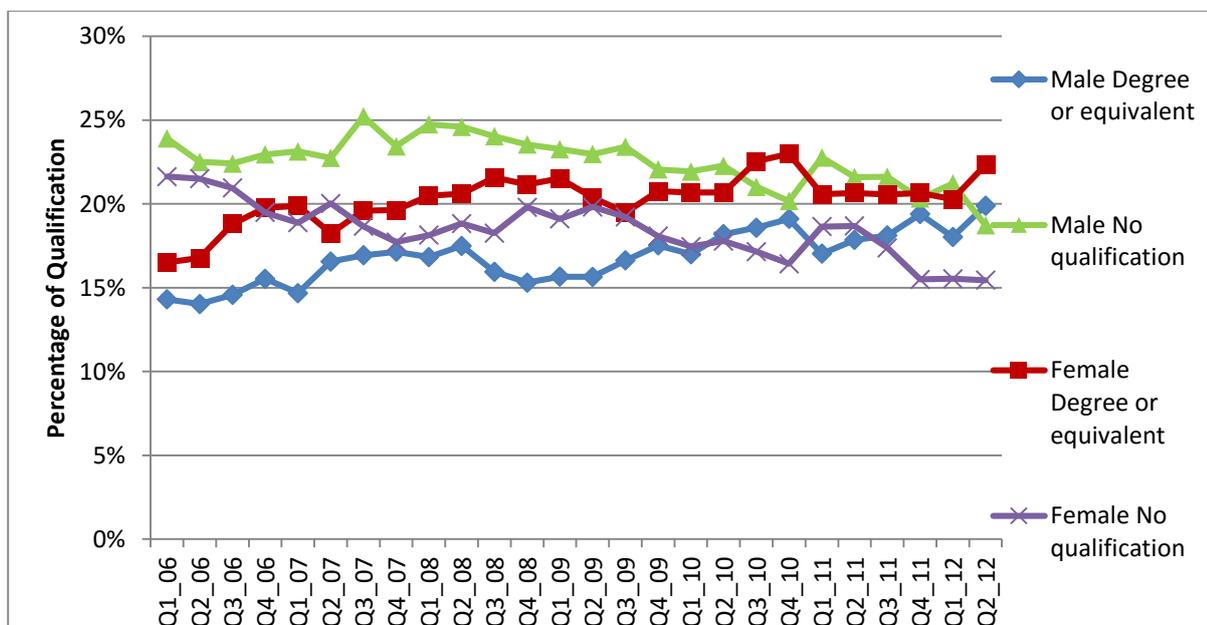
The proportion holding no qualifications was 21.6% for females 23.9% for males in Q1 2006 (only a small gap of 2.3 percentage points). However, a wider gender gap began to develop from Q4 2006; by Q1 2012

the proportion of females with no qualifications had fallen to 15.5%, while the proportion of males fell to 21.2%.

Qualifications are a key determinant of success in modern labour markets; in the UK, employees with a degree earn, on average, 85.5% higher median hourly wages than those with GCSE level qualifications, who in turn earn 7.0% more than those with no qualifications (Office for National Statistics, 2011b). Given the trends outlined above, one would expect females to earn more per hour than males, for younger females at least, as they are more likely to hold a degree and less likely to hold no qualifications. Indeed, this may well explain the emerging pay gap in favour of females in Northern Ireland identified in a previous section of this chapter. However, it should also be noted that the higher proportion of females with degrees is a relatively recent phenomenon, and as different types of degrees are related to different earning levels, current levels of degree holding cannot be straightforwardly connected to trends in overall pay (Ramsey, 2008).

Although the proportion of both males and females without qualifications has decreased, the proportion of males without qualifications remains noticeably higher than for females. This is an important issue to analyse and monitor, as a lack of qualifications is highly linked to low pay and unemployment inequalities (see Dearden et al., 2006; Elliott et al., 2001). To combat inequality with regard to pay, it is important to gain a greater understanding of factors contributing to educational inequalities in Northern Ireland, and the relative role played by: variations at the school level; neighbourhood deprivation; and the legacy of conflict (Ferguson and Michaelsen, 2013; Horgan and Monteith, 2009).

Figure 3.10: Percentage holding a degree and percentage with no qualifications by gender (Source LFS, 2006-2012)



Note: Degree or equivalent includes higher degree, NVQ level 5, first degree and other degree.

See: http://ww2.prospects.ac.uk/cms/ShowPage/Home_page/Main_Menu_News_and_information/Graduate_Market_Trends/Definitions_of_highest_education_qualifications_used_in_the_LFS/pllebejj

Transport

There is little difference between males and females regarding mode of travel to work and commuting times. On average, male travel times to work were a little higher than for females, but only of the order of two to four minutes. On average over the period 87.0% of males travelled to work by car, van or motorbike, while for females this rate was 81.2%. On average, around 7.6% of males walked or cycled to work and only 4.4% used public transport; for females these rates were higher at 11.5% and 7.2% respectively. Research has shown that females with child caring responsibilities in particular have low travel times (McQuaid and Chen, 2012), suggesting that their responsibilities restrict the time they can spend commuting, and hence they are likely to have more limited access to suitable job opportunities (ibid.).

Attitudes

In the NILTS (2006 and 2012) two questions were asked regarding gender attitudes: “Do you think women are treated unfairly?” and “Do you think men are treated unfairly?” The vast majority of respondents, including those who were in positions of influence as employers (large employers and senior managers), did not think that there was unfair treatment of males or females. In 2010, only 4.6% (53 out of 1148) of respondents thought that there was unfair treatment of females and even fewer (1.3%) thought that there was unfair treatment of males (15 out of 1185 people). For females this was a slight improvement on the 2006 response, in which 5.5% (64 out of 1166 people) perceived that females were unfairly treated. In 2010, amongst the 20 large employers and senior managers, none thought females were unfairly treated and only one thought males were unfairly treated.

These findings were supported by the findings of the 2011 Equality Awareness Survey (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012), which found that there were slight rises in the percentage reporting positive attitudes to males and females (positive feelings for males rose from 83% in 2008 to 87% in 2011 and positive feelings for females rose from 85% to 88%). It was also reported in the Equality Awareness Survey that hardly anyone thought either males or females were treated unfairly when compared to other equality groups; the respective percentages were 1.5% and 4.4%. However, 69.1% of all respondents did report that “we need more women in management positions in the workplace”.

With regard to transgender people 28% of respondents to the 2012 NILTS believed that transgender people were ‘treated better than 5 years ago’ and 13% that they were ‘treated worse than 5 years ago’. Whilst 38% felt treatment was the same as it was 5 years ago it is important to note that we do not know whether those respondents felt treatment 5 years ago was positive or negative; over a fifth (21%) did not know about how transgender people were treated compared to 5 years ago.

The 2011 Equality Awareness Survey also contained questions on transgender persons. It found that ‘negative attitudes existed towards... transgender persons (22%)’. It also found that negative attitudes to transgender people existed with regard to having a transgender person: as a work colleague (35% would mind a little or a lot); a neighbour (40% would mind a little or a lot); and as an in-law (53% would mind a

little or a lot). It would seem from these results that negative attitudes were more prominent when relationships were closer (i.e. neighbour and in-law).

Policy responses to gender inequalities in employment

Much of the female gender inequality in employment relates to their status as mothers and the changes to labour market participation after they have children. This is dealt with in Chapters 11 and 12, which specifically examines employment inequalities for those with caring responsibilities.

However, the Northern Ireland Executive does look beyond childcare responsibilities to some of the issues of discrimination and low pay identified in the literature review above. The *Gender Equality Strategy for Northern Ireland* (Office of the First Minister and Deputy First Minister (OFMdFM), 2006) underpins the Government's efforts to tackle gender inequality. This sets out what it sees as its role in tackling gender inequality, which consists of:

- improving and reviewing the effectiveness of anti-discrimination legislation and protections;
- achieving a balance between males and females in representation and participation;
- the use of gender mainstreaming¹⁷ to identify structural inequalities and take action where appropriate;
- the use of gender action measures¹⁸, including positive action.

The Government also specifically acknowledges inequalities that males may face relative to females. For example, the Department for Employment and Learning's Audit of Inequalities and Action Plan for 2011-2016 identified that higher education occupancy is 60% female, and as a result is trying to engage young males by funding programmes that allow universities to develop partnerships in disadvantaged areas.

Improving policy responses to tackling gender inequalities in employment

The *Gender Equality Strategy* was accompanied by a set of gender equality indicators to measure the position of males and females in Northern Ireland, and how this had changed since the publication and implementation of the strategy. It is still quite early for data and commentary to identify whether this has had an effect, given the lag involved in policy implementation, the collection of good quality data, and the publication of results from these data. In 2011, OFMdFM published statistics on the gender equality indicators suggesting that the period immediately following the strategy was characterised largely by continuity in the slow pace of change that has been occurring for some time with respect to gender gaps

¹⁷ Gender mainstreaming is the practice of assessing the gender implications of government activity, such as strategies, policies, legislation, data gathering and procedures.

¹⁸ The Office of the First Minister and Deputy First Minister 'recognise clearly that treating men and women the same – that is being 'gender neutral'-is not the solution to eradicating gender inequality' (pg. 15)..

(Office of the First Minister and Deputy First Minister, 2011). Although there has been some convergence in employment and pay, this convergence has been extremely slight in the case of some indicators, such as the pay deficit experienced by females, and some of the educational deficits experienced by males, such as the proportion gaining A-levels and progressing to higher education. The figures presented by OFMdFM also have some evidence of divergence in the small amount of data available since the recession, for example in males' experience of unemployment and homelessness, for which their risk relative to females is now even greater. OFMdFM acknowledges that it is impossible to quantify the contribution of the strategy to levels or changes in these aggregate level statistics (Ibid., p5), and it is difficult to see how this could be achieved.

Attempts to tackle gender inequality may be undermined by changes – or lack of changes – in other areas of policy. A key factor that has been highlighted by female groups as responsible for holding females back in the labour market is the lack of affordable, accessible and suitably flexible childcare, or any strategy to bring such provision about (Women's Resource and Development Agency, 2012a; 2012b; 2013; Women's Support Network, 2012; 2013). Another area of concern is some of the proposed changes to employment laws. The UK Government has a number of proposals to reform employment law, and although the Northern Ireland Executive does not plan to mirror these exactly, it is undertaking its own review (Department for Employment and Learning, 2012a). Some of the UK Government's proposals could have a negative impact on females, for example proposals to increase the qualifying period for unfair dismissal will disproportionately affect those with shorter employment tenures, which females are more likely to have by virtue of their labour market histories being interrupted to care for children (Irish Congress of Trade Unions, 2012). Extensions to parental leave and flexible working, as per the recent EU Directive: Extension to Parental Leave Entitlement, are also central to increasing families' abilities to balance work with care responsibilities (Northern Ireland Public Service Alliance, 2012), but it is not clear to what extent these will be embraced in Northern Ireland, with the Department for Employment and Learning projecting costs to the Northern Ireland government of up to £1.75m, and £100,000 in administrative costs for employers in Northern Ireland, plus the additional cost of a likely increase in the number of employment tribunals (Department for Employment and Learning, 2012b).

Both of these issues – childcare and employment law – relate mainly to the issue of females' differential participation in employment due to their role as primary carers. As previously stated the role of dependent care in employment inequalities is discussed in Chapter 11.

Summary

The key points from the analyses against the equality ground of gender are summarised below. A total of seven inequalities were identified. These inequalities are presented in the table below; followed by a summary of the Chapter's findings.

Please note that due to a lack of data on transgender persons only males and females were included in the data analysis.

Gender Inequalities in Employment:	Persistent or Emergent?
➤ Negative attitudes towards transgender persons were reported both in general and with regard to the labour market.	Unknown given data
➤ Females had lower employment rates than males.	Persistent
➤ Females had higher economic inactivity rates than males.	Persistent
➤ Males had higher ILO unemployment rates than females: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ From Q1 2008 to Q1 2012 males consistently had much higher rates of ILO unemployment; ○ At Q1 2012 the male rate was twice that of females (6.8% compared to 3.4%). 	Emergent
➤ Females had higher rates of part-time employment than males: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Females consistently had higher rates of part-time employment than males between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012; ○ At Q1 2012 the proportion of females who worked part-time was over four times greater than for males (38.5% compared to 9.2%). 	Persistent
➤ A high degree of horizontal segregation in the labour market, in respect to industry sector employed, was observed: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Females were under-represented in five of the nine industry sectors; ○ Nearly three quarters of the female workforce were employed in only two industry sectors 'Administration, Education & Health' (52.6% at Q1 2006 and 51.4% at Q1 2012) and 'Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants' (21.9% at Q1 2006 and 22.0% at Q1 2012), whereas male employment was more evenly distributed across the nine industry sectors 	Persistent
➤ A degree of vertical segregation in the labour market, in respect to occupation group employed, was observed:	Persistent

- At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, males were over-represented in the highest level occupation group of ‘Managers and Senior Officials’, compared to their share of the in employment population (i.e. over 54.9%¹⁹ and 53.3%²⁰).
- Occupation groups such as ‘Skilled Trade Occupations’ and ‘Process, Plants and Machine Operatives’ employed a large proportion of the male workforce and a low proportion of the female workforce 30.9% and 14.5% compared with 2.9% and 2.4%, respectively at Q1 2006 and 24.1% and 10.5% compared with 2.3% and 1.9, respectively at Q1 2012.
- ‘Administrative and Secretarial’ occupations accounted for 22.8% and 21.4% of the female workforce in Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, respectively, compared to 5.5% of the male workforce at both time points. ‘Personal Service Occupations’ accounted for 13.9% and 16.8% of the female workforce at Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, respectively, compared to 1.9% and 2.7%, respectively of the male workforce. ‘Sales and Customer Service’ occupations also tended to account for greater proportions of the female workforce at Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 (12.3% and 11.9%, respectively) compared to the proportions of the male workforce accounted for (4.9% and 4.7%, respectively).

Economic status

- Males consistently enjoyed higher employment rates than females between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.
 - The employment rate for males fell between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 (74.1% and 71.6%, respectively) whilst that of females rose (64.6% and 67.3%, respectively).
- At Q1 2012, the proportion of females who worked part-time was over four times greater than the proportion of males who worked part-time (38.5% and 9.2%, respectively); this remained relatively constant between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.
- Males were more likely to be ILO unemployed than females.
 - From Q1 2008 to Q1 2012 males consistently had much higher rates of ILO unemployment than females. At Q1 2012, the male rate of ILO unemployment was twice that of females (6.8% compared to 3.4%).
- Male were less likely to be economically inactive.
 - Female rates of economic inactivity, whilst showing a decrease from 33.7% in Q1 2006 to 29.3% in Q1 2012, remained higher than the rates of economic inactivity for males, which was 21.4% for both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.

¹⁹ At Q1 2006, 54.9% of those in employment were male.

²⁰ At Q1 2012, 53.3% of those in employment were male.

- The difference between male and female rates of economic inactivity remained fairly constant at around 10.0 percentage points (this narrowed slightly in toward the end of the period of interest).
- The main reasons given for economic inactivity were broadly similar at Q1 2006 and Q1 2012:
 - Caring responsibilities for females
 - Long term sickness or disability for males.

Hours worked

- Between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, for those working full-time hours, males consistently worked more hours per week than females. Males and females respectively worked 45 and 41.5 hours per week in Q1 2006 and 45 and 42.5 hours per week in Q1 2012.

Wage rates

- Male full-time workers were paid on average a gross weekly pay of £53 per week more than female full-time workers between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. This represents an average gender pay gap of just over 16% over the period of investigation.
 - Data from the LFS suggests no pay differential at all at Q1 2012, although this is anomalous with the surrounding data points, which suggest a trend of a continuing differential.
 - The ASHE Data suggests a narrowing but enduring gender differential in gross weekly pay for full-time workers, which was £38.90 in 2012, with female average gross weekly pay at £440 compared to £479 for males.
- Female part-time workers were paid on average £22 per week more than male part-time workers between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. This represents an average gender pay gap, in favour of females, of 20% over the period of investigation.
 - LFS data shows convergence between the sexes by Q1 2012.
 - ASHE data suggested a small and relatively stable gender pay gap for part-time workers in favour of females of around £15 per week in 2012.
- The ASHE data was utilised to compare median gross hourly wage rates by gender.
 - Among full-time workers, the gender pay gap narrowed, from 1.7% in favour of males in 2006 to just 0.3% in favour of males in 2012.
 - Among part-time workers, the gender pay gap switched from being in favour of males (4.2%) in Q1 2006 to being in favour of females (11.5%) in Q1 2012.

Industry sector and occupation employment

- Males were more likely to work in private sector employment than females (including self-employed).
 - This difference remained fairly constant between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 at 21.3 percentage points on average. In Q1 2012, 79.4% of males and 60.2% of females worked in the private sector.
- A high degree of horizontal segregation was observed in the labour market in respect to the industry sector employed; this showed little change between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.
 - Females were under-represented in the 'Agriculture and Fishing', 'Energy and Water', 'Manufacturing', 'Transport and Communication', and 'Construction' sectors in both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.
 - Over half of all female employment was concentrated into the 'Public Administration, Education and Health' sector (52.6% at Q1 2006 and 51.4% at Q1 2012). Consistently, female representation in this industry sector was higher than that for males (69.8% at Q1 2006 and 68.9% at Q1 2012).
 - Over a fifth of females were employed in 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' (21.9% at Q1 2006 and 22.0% at Q1 2012).
 - Male employment was more evenly distributed across all industry sectors, with no single sector employing more than 20.4% of employed males in either Q1 2006 or Q1 2012.
- A degree of vertical segregation existed in the labour market in respect to occupation group employed. This showed little change between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.
 - At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, a higher proportion of males than females were employed in the highest level occupation group of 'Managers and Senior Officials' (64.5% and 63.2% of males, compared to 35.5% and 36.8% of females, respectively). This was an over-representation compared to their share of the in employment population (i.e. over 54.9%²¹ and 53.3%²²).
 - At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 males (11.4% and 10.2%, respectively), compared to females (7.6% and 6.8%, respectively), were more often employed as 'Managers and Senior Officials'.
 - At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 males (30.9% and 24.1%, respectively), compared to females (2.9% and 2.3%, respectively), were much more often employed in 'Skilled Trades' occupations.
 - Males were also more often employed in 'Process, Plant and Machine Operatives' occupations than females at both Q1 2006 (14.5% and 2.4%, respectively) and Q1 2012 (10.5% and 1.9%, respectively).
 - At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 females, compared to males, were much more often employed in: 'Administrative and Secretarial' occupations (22.8% and 5.5%, respectively at Q1 2006; 21.4% and 5.5%, respectively at Q1 2012); 'Personal Service Occupations' (13.9% and 1.9%, respectively at Q1 2006; 16.8% and 2.7%, respectively at Q1 2012); and 'Sales and Customer

²¹ At Q1 2006, 54.9% of those in employment were male.

²² At Q1 2012, 53.3% of those in employment were male.

Service Occupations' (12.3% and 4.9%, respectively at Q1 2006; 11.9% and 4.7%, respectively at Q1 2012).

- Therefore, occupation groups such as 'Skilled Trade Occupations' (92.7% in Q1 2006 and 92.3% in Q1 2012) and 'Process, Plants and Machine Operatives' (88.1% in Q1 2012 and 86.3% in Q1 2012) were predominantly male in composition. Whereas, 'Administrative and Secretarial' (77.3% in Q1 2006 and 77.4% in Q1 2012), 'Personal Service Occupations' (85.6% in Q1 2006 and 84.7% in Q1 2012) and 'Sales and Customer Service Occupations' (67.3% in Q1 2006 and 69.0% in Q1 2012) were female dominated occupation groups.
- The 2011 Equality Awareness Survey (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012) found that 69.1% of all respondents reported that "we need more women in management positions in the workplace".
- Male self-employment decreased 3.0 percentage points between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 (from 16.3% to 13.3%) whilst female self-employed remained low (3.9% and 4.3%, respectively).

Attitudes

- The 2011 Equality Awareness Survey (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012) found that hardly anyone thought either males or females were treated unfairly when compared to other equality groups; the respective percentages were 1.5% and 4.4%.
- Negative attitudes toward transgender persons were reported by 22% of respondents to the 2011 Equality Awareness Survey. In addition, 35% of respondents would mind having a transgender person as a work colleague; 40% would mind having a transgender person as a neighbour; and 53% would mind having a transgender person as an in-law.

Barriers and Enablers

- Much of the female gender inequality in employment relates to their status as mothers and the changes to labour market participation after they have children.
- The Gender Equality Strategy for Northern Ireland (Office of the First Minister and Deputy First Minister (OFMdFM), 2006) consists of:
 - Improving and reviewing the effectiveness of anti-discrimination legislation and protections;
 - Achieving a balance between males and females in representation and participation;
 - Gender mainstreaming²³ to identify structural inequalities and take appropriate action;
 - The use of gender action measures²⁴, including positive action.

²³ Gender mainstreaming is the practice of assessing the gender implications of government activity, such as strategies, policies, legislation, data gathering and procedures.

²⁴ Gender action measures include provisions such as 'positive discrimination' measures such as all-female shortlists for election candidates.

- The Government also acknowledges inequalities males may face relative to females.
 - The Department for Employment and Learning's (DEL) identified that higher education occupancy is 60% female. As a result DEL is trying to engage young males by funding programmes that allow universities to develop partnerships in disadvantaged areas.
- The *Gender Equality Strategy* was accompanied by a set of gender equality indicators to measure the position of males and females in Northern Ireland.
 - Statistics on the gender equality indicators suggest that the period immediately following the strategy has been characterised by continuity in the slow pace of change (Office of the First Minister and Deputy First Minister, 2011).
 - Convergence in employment and pay has been slight in the case of indicators such as the pay deficit experienced by females, and educational deficits experienced by males.
 - There has been divergence in males' experience of unemployment and homelessness, for which their risk relative to females is now even greater.
- The lack of affordable, accessible and suitably flexible childcare has been highlighted as responsible for holding females back in the labour market (Women's Resource and Development Agency, 2012a; 2012b; 2013; Women's Support Network, 2012; 2013).
- UK Government's proposals to reform employment law could have a negative impact on females.
 - Increasing the qualifying period for unfair dismissal will disproportionately affect those with shorter employment tenures, which females are more likely to have (Irish Congress of Trade Unions, 2012).

Extensions to parental leave and flexible working, as per the recent EU Directive, are also central to increasing families' abilities to balance work with care responsibilities (Northern Ireland Public Service Alliance, 2012), but it is not clear to what extent these will be embraced in Northern Ireland.

Chapter 4. Age Inequalities in Employment

Introduction

This report provides a picture of patterns and trends in employment and non-employment in Northern Ireland, establishing any key inequalities (data permitting) that are evident in Northern Ireland for each equality ground as identified by Section 75 of the Northern Ireland Act 1998. This chapter provides evidence of inequalities drawn from quantitative data (primarily from analyses of the Labour Force Survey) which is supplemented by stakeholder interviews and literature review for this equality ground. It is important to stress that no one individual belongs solely to one equality group, and that everyone has multiple identities. Consideration was given to multiple identities where quantitative data was available and allowed for meaningful analyses. Limited analyses across a range of multiple inequalities are reported in Chapter 12. The distillation of the most substantive / overarching key employment inequalities (across all equality grounds) in Northern Ireland are summarised in Chapter 13.

This chapter reviews how different age groups of the working age population in Northern Ireland fare in relation to the labour market. Firstly the literature around this topic is considered, focusing on Northern Ireland, but also considering sources from UK and wider international context. This is followed by a summary of labour market trends, over the period 2006 to 2012, across a number of variables: economic activity; hours worked; median gross wages; and occupation sector and type. In this analysis the effect of the economic downturn, which became evident in 2008, is noted. There is also consideration of potential barriers to accessing the labour market: qualifications held; access to transport; and attitudes towards different age groups in the labour market. The chapter then considers the responses of policymakers and various stakeholders to the issue of age inequalities in employment, and puts forth conclusions and recommendations.

The main source of data for the analysis is the Quarterly Labour Force Survey (LFS), from 2006 to 2012, the main advantage of which is that data is available on a quarterly basis making it more suitable for trend analysis. The Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings (ASHE) (Department of Finance and Personnel Northern Ireland, 2012) is utilised to provide supplementary information about wages. Information pertaining to attitudes was drawn from the Equality Commission for Northern Ireland's Equality Awareness Survey (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012).

The general picture reported in this chapter is one of considerable labour market disadvantage facing young people (those aged 18-24 years old). This group is considerably less likely to be in employment, and although this is accounted for to some extent by the involvement of this group in full-time study, a high proportion (around a fifth) of 18-24 year olds in Northern Ireland are not in any kind of employment, education or training and the difference with older age groups is increasing. Younger workers also have lower wages on average than their older counterparts, although this is likely to reflect their relative lack of experience in conjunction with being less represented in high status occupations. In this report it is found that the 50-64 years old age group experience some labour market disadvantage relative to the 25-49 years old age group, although not to the same extent as 18-24 year olds. A key issue facing the 50-64 years old

age group is one of negative stereotypes about older workers, and the perception that it is justified to deny training and progression opportunities to those who are perceived as close to retirement. The 18-24 year olds have also been affected by sector changes in occupations in Q1 2006 almost one quarter were employed in the 'Construction' industry; by Q1 2012 this proportion had fallen to one sixth.

Literature review on age inequalities in employment

The literature suggests that the potential barriers and enablers to labour market participation, and the effects of the economic downturn, vary between different age groups.

Previous research has suggested that the impact of the recession in Northern Ireland has been particularly marked for those aged 18-24 years old in terms of its impact on the unemployment and economic inactivity of this group (Bennett, 2010; McQuaid et al., 2010). Workers in the 50-64 years old age group are also less likely to be in employment than average, and the differential – 8.6 percentage points in 2011 – is larger in Northern Ireland than in the UK as a whole, for which the differential is 5.4 percentage points (Department for Work and Pensions, 2011). However, the employment rate of 50-64 years old workers is increasing in Northern Ireland; in 2011 it was 3.9 percentage points higher than its 2010 level of 55.3%, an increase not seen in other regions of the UK over this period (Department for Work and Pensions, 2010).

Evidence from Great Britain (GB) suggests that workers aged 25-49 years old have better opportunities in the labour market than those in the younger (18-24 years old) and older (50 years old and over) age groups. For example, workers aged 25-49 years old have higher employment rates than those aged 18-24 years old and 50-69 years old. In Q1 2009, the employment rate for workers aged 25-49 years old was 81%, for those aged 18-24 years old it was 59.5%, and for those aged 50-69 years old, it was only 56% (Equality and Human Rights Commission and Department for Work and Pensions, 2009). The 2011 Census for Northern Ireland confirms the relatively lower level of employment among the 50-69 years old age group (49%) compared with the 25-49 years old age group (76%) (NISRA, 2013a). An evidence review on pay gaps in the UK (from the year 2000 onwards) also found that workers aged under 30 years old and over 60 years old are paid less than those aged 30-60 years old (Metcalf, 2009). The drivers of this pay gap are unclear, but could be due to: qualifications and skills between age groups; different levels of productivity or perceived productivity linked to age; different rates of part-time working; and concentrations in low paying sectors (Ibid.).

Youth unemployment

In Northern Ireland, 20.5% of 16-24 year olds are not in full-time education, government supported training, or employment (known as "NEET"); this is slightly higher than the UK average of 19.2%, and represents an increase of 59% since the year 2000 (Northern Ireland Executive, 2012). There is a lack of data in Northern Ireland on young peoples' transitions that would enable policymakers to truly understand the characteristics of NEETs and how to help them. Fortunately, data from elsewhere in the UK can help to illuminate the probable factors, which include: educational dropout; social, behavioural and attitudinal problems; being in care or a young carer; drug or alcohol abuse; a criminal record; and poor health (Northern Ireland Assembly Research and Library Services, 2009). However, the influence of some of these

should not be overstated; in England, it is estimated that only 38% of young NEETs are characterised by complex needs and barriers to participation, with the majority not experiencing any substantive barriers to employment, and many taking time out of work or study by choice (Ibid.).

A significant number of young people in the UK do not make a successful transition from education into employment, as the youth labour market has contracted and employers have frozen recruitment (Bynner et al., 2002; Oxford Economics, 2010; Office for National Statistics, 2012c). The problem of NEETs is not unique to Northern Ireland or the UK; this rise in youth unemployment has also been mirrored in the rest of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries (Bell and Blanchflower, 2011) and reflects the experience of previous recessions. Until the 1970s in the UK, the unemployment rates of young people were lower than those of other age groups. However, following the recessions of the 1980s and 1990s, young people found it increasingly difficult to find work (Bivand, 2012). In the 1990s recession, those aged 18-24 years old were more affected than those aged 25 years old or older in terms of their employment rate (Equality and Human Rights Commission and Department for Work and Pensions, 2009).

However, there are complexities when interpreting unemployment rates. More young people in the UK in education now identify as unemployed, thus increasing the unemployment rate for that age group (Bivand, 2012). If one excludes students, currently the levels of unemployment among those aged 16-24 years old in the UK are lower than the levels following the recessions of the 1980s and 1990s, as more young people have entered full-time education – although they may still be looking for work to go alongside their studies (Office for National Statistics, 2012a; 2012c). Underemployment (e.g. in terms of working less hours than wanted or not using their skills fully) also needs to be considered, as those aged under 25 years old are most likely to find themselves ‘underemployed’ (UK Commission for Employment and Skills, 2011; Trades Union Congress, 2012b). In addition young people may be at risk of cycling between unemployment and low paid work (Shildrick et al., 2010, Bivand, 2012).

The young people facing the greatest problems in finding work are those who obtain the fewest qualifications at school. In Northern Ireland, there is insufficient data available to link the destinations of school leavers to their individual characteristics (Department for Employment and Learning Northern Ireland, 2010), but conclusions can be drawn about the link between academic attainment and subsequent labour market outcomes from the information in the school leavers survey (NISRA, 2013d). This survey shows the difference in outcomes between pupils leaving grammar and non-grammar schools. For those leaving grammar schools (where almost two thirds leave with at least 3 A-levels at A*-C and almost all obtain at least 5 GCSEs at A*-C), 72% go onto Higher Education and only 1.6% enter unemployment. For those leaving non-grammar schools (where only 16% obtain A-levels at A*-C and 61% gain 5 GCSEs at A*-C), the destinations are very different; only 20% go on to Higher Education, and 4.4% go into unemployment. There are also large differences in the proportion classed as participating in ‘training’, which includes government programmes aimed at disadvantaged young people; 1.5% of grammar pupils go on to participate in training, compared with 18% of those from non-grammar schools. These figures suggest a strong link between schooling (which is linked to a variety of factors) and outcomes at school, and subsequent paths into and through the labour market. The Longitudinal Study of Young People in England suggests that just 2% of the NEET group are those who managed to obtain at least 5 GCSEs at A*-C (Department for Employment and Learning Northern Ireland, 2010).

In the UK, those aged 16-24 years old are less likely to be unemployed if they leave school with A-levels than if they only obtained GCSEs; 20.3% of 18 year olds with A-levels who are no longer in full-time education are unemployed, compared with 26.6% of 18 year olds with GCSEs only (Office for National Statistics, 2012a). Among those with the same level of qualification, unemployment is lower at the upper end of this age bracket; for example, 12.8% of 24 year olds with GCSEs who are no longer in full-time education are unemployed, compared with 25.9% of 16 year olds (Ibid.). Unemployment is highest for those in the UK who have recently left education (Office for National Statistics, 2012d). More generally, those with lower levels of education are three times more likely to be unemployed or inactive than those with a higher education (Gomes, 2009). The unemployment rates for 18-24 year olds with low levels of skills and qualifications in the recent recession are much higher than those in previous recessions (Gregg and Wadsworth, 2010). 'Over-education' has also become an issue in Europe – young people performing jobs which require fewer skills than they have acquired in initial education (see Quintini and Martin, 2006). This means that graduates may now be competing for job vacancies previously filled by those with a lower level of qualification, further marginalising young people with low level skills.

Young people and job search

UK research has shown that there is a variety of mechanisms shaping the opportunities available to young people. While it should not be assumed that post primary school pupils from disadvantaged areas have low education and work aspirations (Sinclair et al., 2010; Kintrea et al., 2011), social and parental background continues to play a role in the opportunities open to young people generally (MacDonald et al., 2005; Schroeder et al., 2008). Parents especially play an important role in shaping young people's aspirations (Kintrea et al., 2011; Schoon and Parsons, 2002). Furthermore, a body of research (including work undertaken in Northern Ireland) has shown that social networks and attachment to place may mean that young people are limited in the opportunities for employment and training they believe open to them. Those young people who have work experience may have broader horizons, looking at potential employment in terms of the job itself rather than location (Green et al., 2005; Green and White, 2008; Lindsay et al., 2005; MacDonald et al., 2005; White and Green, 2011).

Research on the job strategies of young people looking for work in England and Wales highlights the intense competition for jobs and the disadvantage faced by those who do not have internet access and who do not live near employers (Tunstall et al., 2012). Employers, especially small businesses, may still rely on informal contacts to find new recruits; younger people do not necessarily have these contacts as these are usually established over time. In addition others have found that employers often stress the importance of experience and soft and generic skills (rather than qualifications), but young people do not have these (Newton et al., 2005, UK Commission for Employment and Skills, 2012). A UK survey asking employers about the work readiness of those recruited straight from education identified that most thought entrants were well prepared, although perceptions of preparedness was lower for those recruited at 16 years old compared to those recruited later on (17-18 year olds, those leaving Further Education and those leaving Higher Education). However, it should be noted that only a minority recruit straight from education (UK Commission for Employment and Skills, 2011).

Finally, transport to work may be a problem for younger people, especially as they have less access to private transport and jobs requiring, for instance, evening work may be difficult or expensive to reach.

Trends in the employment of older workers

More and more older people are continuing in employment for longer; the trend for early retirement has declined since the 1990s (OECD, 2011). Across the EU Member States and the OECD, employment rates of older workers (those aged 55-64 years old) have been less affected by the recession than is the case for younger (aged 15-24 years old) and middle age (aged 25-54 years old) workers (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2012). At the OECD level, compared to previous recessions, older workers' employment has not been as badly affected as other groups, or as much as older workers had been affected by previous recessions (OECD, 2011). However, once older workers lose their jobs they may find it more difficult to get back into the labour market, as the share of those aged under 50 years old who are long term unemployed is lower than among those aged 50 years old and over (Gregg and Wadsworth, 2010).

While employers may take steps to retain older workers they may not to the same extent be seeking to recruit older workers (McNair et al., 2007; Smeaton and Vegeris, 2009; Fuertes et al., 2013). In addition older workers could face future declines in employment. Workers aged 55-64 years old are over-represented in the public sector across the EU Member States and so are at risk from public spending cuts (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2012). In Q1 2012 UK public sector employment decreased for the tenth consecutive quarter with the largest decrease in local government (Office for National Statistics, 2012b). While private sector employers in the UK have continued to hire new staff, hence cushioning the effects of reduction in the public sector workforce, many of those who move out of the public sector move into economic inactivity (which may mean that unemployment as a result of public sector cuts is underestimated) (Brinkley, 2012).

Stereotypes and discrimination against older workers

The UK Government has sought to encourage later life employment through the introduction of age discrimination legislation – such as the Employment Equality (Age) Regulations 2006, and scrapping default retirement ages (HM Government, 2006; 2011; Nldirect, 2011). However, research has highlighted the discrimination and stereotypes faced by older workers. Such stereotypes included the belief that older workers are unwilling to change their ways or undertake new learning. A 2007 survey commissioned by the Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, in response to the 2006 Regulations, found evidence that such stereotypes are held in the population as a whole, although only a small proportion of older workers reported personal experience of age discrimination (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2008). A total of 61% of respondents to the 2007 survey agreed that “older workers need younger colleagues for their fresh ideas and energy”, suggesting some perception of older people as lacking energy and set in their ways. Nearly a quarter (24%) said they would send a 30 year old man on a training course before a 55 year old man, although over half (56%) said it would depend; this suggests some limited perception that it is not worthwhile training older workers in new skills. Only 5% of those aged 65 years old and over perceived that they had personally experienced age-related unfair treatment from their own employer. However, for 16-

29 year olds the figure was double this at 10%, suggesting that discrimination may act against younger as well as older workers. The 2011 Equality Awareness Survey (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012) also found the youngest age group (16-29 year olds) to be much more likely to perceive unfair treatment at work (12%) than the group aged 65 years old and over (5%).

Research on this issue conducted in the UK (Loretto and White, 2006a; 2006b; Vickerstaff et al., 2008) and beyond (Naegele and Walker, 2006) has also offered some evidence that negative stereotypes about older people exist in the workplace. For example, older workers who remain in work may face inequalities such as being less likely to participate in skills development and training, or indeed be offered the opportunity to participate in skills development as perceptions may exist that they are less willing to train (McNair et al., 2007, Johnson et al., 2009, Devins et al., 2011).

Research conducted on behalf of the Department for Work and Pensions (DWP) in England and Scotland (Vickerstaff et al., 2008) has shown that many workers who are aged between 60 and 64 years old would welcome the opportunity to work beyond the normal retirement age. However, older workers face a range of barriers to employment including health, care giving responsibilities and financial circumstances. Older workers therefore may want to follow different work patterns to those followed previously, for example through flexible working, part-time working, self-employment or phased retirement (McNair et al., 2004; CIPD, 2008). Indeed, older workers are more likely to stay in work longer if they have access to flexible working (Vickerstaff et al. 2008). Older people may want to continue working but sometimes in different occupations. However, some may feel too old to initiate change, and for others, employer attitudes and ageism may not make change possible (Smeaton et al., 2009; McNair 2011). A review of the literature on older workers (aged 60-64 years old) suggests that they may face disadvantages in employment opportunities due to work design within organisations, as they desire less stressful working conditions (Smeaton and Vegeris, 2009).

Recent trends in age inequalities in employment in Northern Ireland

Economic status

In Table 4.1 employment status by age group for Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 is presented. In this analysis 16 and 17 year olds were not included as these are transition years between school and work there was a great deal of variability quarter to quarter.

For those aged 18-24 years old their employment over the period decreased by 17.9 percentage points, from 65.0% in Q1 2006 to 47.1% in Q1 2012, while the employment rate of the older age groups increased. Of those in work, those aged 18-24 years old accounted for 15.3% of those in employment in Q1 2006 and only 10.0% of those in employment in Q1 2012. The 18-24 year olds had the highest rates of ILO unemployment at Q1 2006 (6.3%) and Q1 2012 (10.3%). Their economic inactivity rates had also risen from 28.7% at Q1 2006 to 42.6% at Q1 2012. At both time points rates economic inactivity rates fell for those aged 50-64 years old, who previously had the highest rates at Q1 2006 (36.2%) to less than the 18-24 years old age group at Q1 2012 (29.2%).

Table 4.1: Economic status and age (Source: LFS Q1 2006 & Q1 2012)*

Age	Q1 2006				Q1 2012			
	In employment	ILO unemployed	Economically Inactive	Total	In employment	ILO unemployed	Economically Inactive	Total
Number								
16-17	9204	1700	41243	52147	5576	1128	42465	49169
18-24	113219	10887	49988	174094	81334	17699	73576	172609
25-49	469132	15456	113837	598425	507050	29731	87591	624372
50-64	147014	4990	86075	238079	177398	8956	76948	263302
Total	738569	33033	291143	1062745	771358	57514	280580	1109452
Percentage of Population Category								
16-17	17.7%	3.3%	79.1%	100.0%	11.3%	2.3%	86.4%	100.0%
18-24	65.0%	6.3%	28.7%	100.0%	47.1%	10.3%	42.6%	100.0%
25-49	78.4%	2.6%	19.0%	100.0%	81.2%	4.8%	14.0%	100.0%
50-64	61.8%	2.1%	36.2%	100.1%	67.4%	3.4%	29.2%	100.0%
Total	69.5%	3.1%	27.4%	100.0%	69.5%	5.2%	25.3%	100.0%
Percentage of Economic Status Category								
16-17	1.2%	5.1%	14.2%	4.9%	0.7%	1.6%	14.9%	4.4%
18-24	15.3%	33.0%	17.2%	16.4%	10.0%	32.9%	26.1%	15.5%
25-49	63.5%	46.8%	39.1%	56.3%	66.2%	45.5%	32.3%	56.3%
50-64	19.9%	15.1%	29.6%	22.4%	23.1%	20.0%	26.7%	23.8%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

* Percentages may not sum to 100 due to rounding.

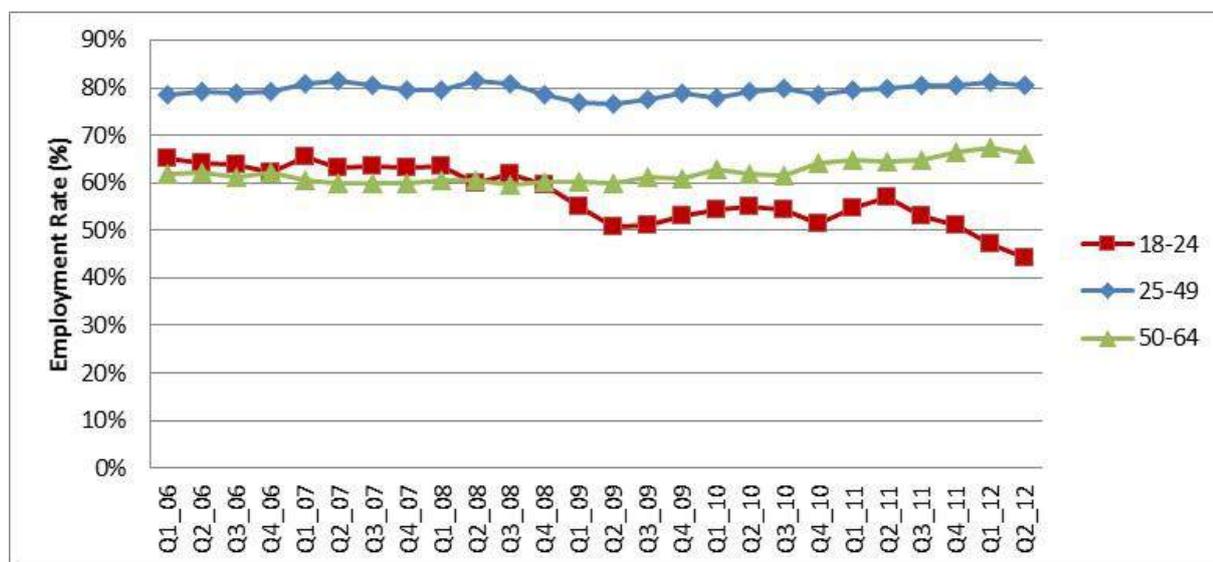
Figures 4.1 to 4.4 display trends in economic status for different age groups within the Northern Ireland working age population as previously defined i.e. 18-64 years old for males and 18-59 years old for females. In each figure and in most tables in this chapter three age groups are represented: 18-24 years old; 25-49 years old; and 50-64 years old. The weighted LFS data shows trends over the period Q1 2006 to Q2 2012.

Employment

Employment rates for the working age population as a whole remained constant at 69.5% at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.

The employment rate of the 25-49 years old age group was consistently the highest of the three age groups between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 (78.4% and 81.2%, respectively). It is also evident from Figure 4.1 that the employment rate of those aged 25-49 years old remained fairly constant over the period at around 80%; considerably higher than the population average. Employment in the 50-64 years old age group was consistently less than the employment rate in the 25-49 years old age group over the period of interest. In Q1 2006 employment in the 50-64 years old age group was 16.6 percentage points less than the 25-49 years old age group at 61.8%, whilst at Q1 2012 the differential fell to 13.8 percentage points, with an employment rate for the 50-64 years old age group of 67.4%. The employment rate for the 18-24 years old age group was also consistently below that of 25-49 year olds; the employment rate was 65.0% in Q1 2006, which was slightly higher than the 50-64 years old age group. However, since Q4 2008, a downward trend appeared, and the employment rate of the 18-24 years old age group also fell consistently below those aged 50-64 years old; in Q1 2012 the employment rate of the 18-24 years old age group fell below 50.0% to 47.1%, well below the population average.

Figure 4.1: Employment rate by age group (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

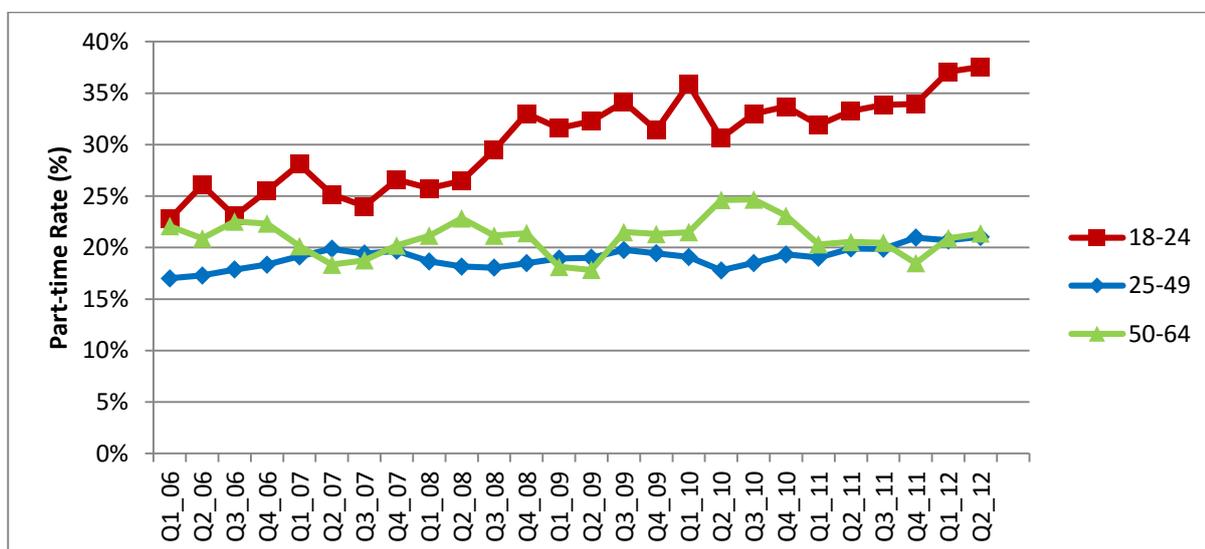


Part-time employment

The proportion of all those employed who worked part-time increased over the period of interest, from 19.5% in Q1 2006 to 23.1% in Q1 2012, an increase of 3.6 percentage points.

For both the 18-24 years old and 25-49 years old age groups, part-time working increased over the period of review (Figure 4.2). In Q1 2006, 17.0% of the 25-49 years old age group worked part-time, and in Q1 2012 it was 20.7%, a slight increase with some fluctuation over the period. However, the increase in part-time working among the 18-24 years old age group is particularly striking, increasing by as much as 14.3 percentage points from 22.8% in Q1 2006 to 37.1% in Q1 2012. For the 50-64 years old age group there was some fluctuation over time, but little change between Q1 2006, when 22.1% of those employed in this age group worked part-time, and Q1 2012, when the proportion was 20.9%.

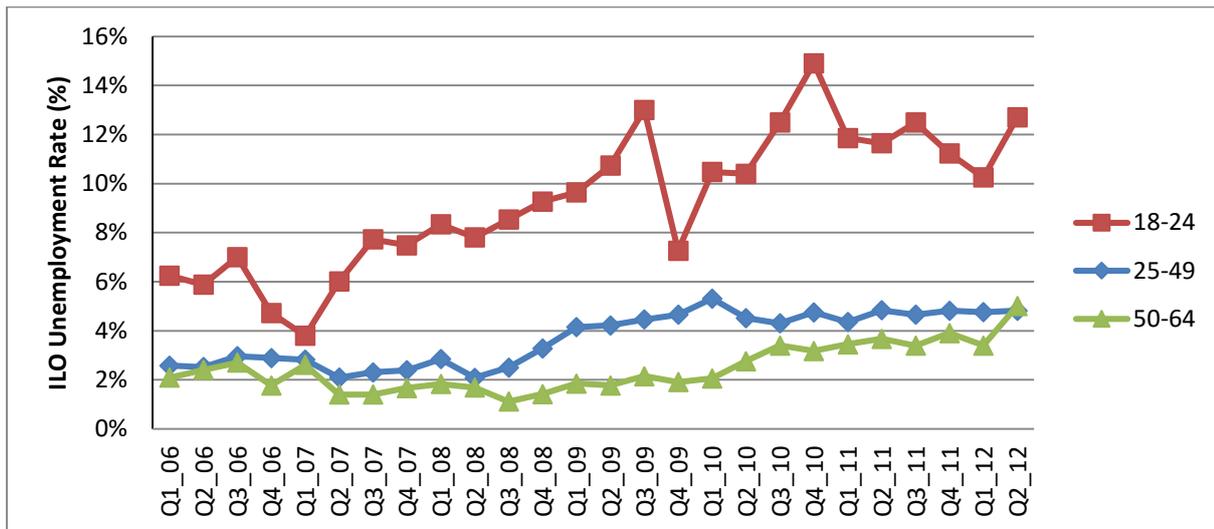
Figure 4.2: Percentage of those employed working part-time by age group (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Unemployment

ILO unemployment among the working age population as a whole increased over the period of interest, from 3.1% in Q1 2006 to 5.2% in Q1 2012. Although ILO unemployment rose across all age groups, it is clear from Figure 4.3 that this rise was experienced disproportionately by the 18-24 years old age group. For this age group ILO unemployment was already twice the population average in Q1 2006, at 6.3%, and after a slight drop in the latter part of 2006, it rose dramatically, peaking at almost 14.9% at the end of 2010 before falling slightly to 10.3% in Q1 2012. The 25-49 years old and 50-64 years old age groups saw some increase from the second half of 2008, but their ILO unemployment rates remained below average over the period. For those aged 25-49 years old, ILO unemployment was 2.6% in Q1 2006, and 4.8% by Q1 2012, while for those aged 50-64 years old ILO unemployment increased from 2.1% in Q1 2006 to 3.4% in Q1 2012. The finding that ILO unemployment was experienced particularly badly amongst young people supports the findings in the literature review.

Figure 4.3: ILO unemployment rate by age group (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

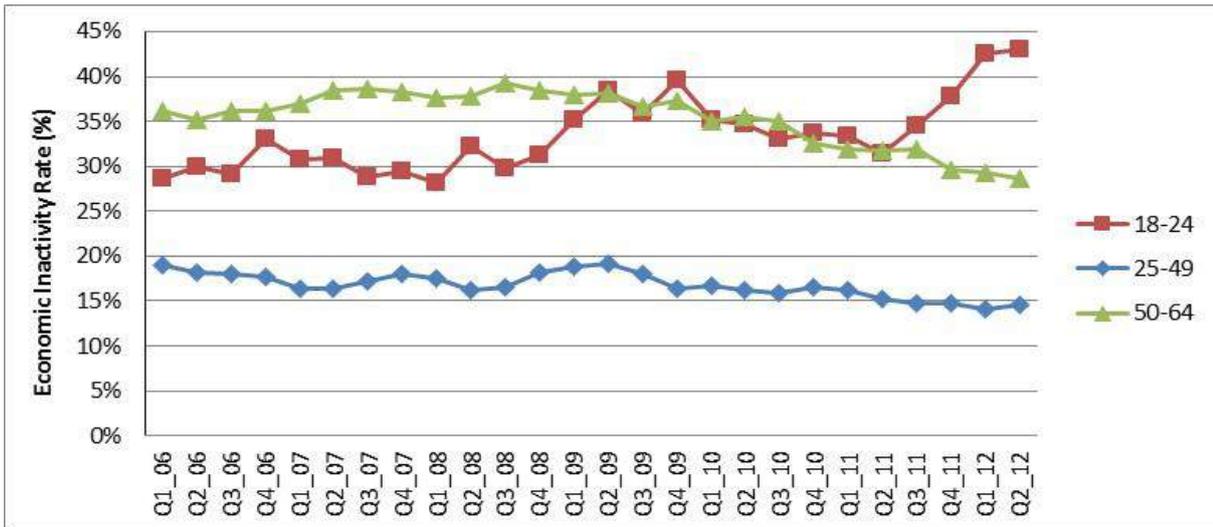


In Q1 2006, 66.6% of ILO unemployed 50-64 year olds were classed as long term unemployed (i.e. had been ILO unemployed for 12 months or more), compared with 38.2% of those aged 25-49 years old, and 20.1% of those aged 18-24 years old. By Q1 2012, the proportion of ILO unemployed 50-64 year olds who were long term unemployed had fallen to 55.8%, but had risen in the 18-24 years old and 25-49 years old age groups to 28.3% and 53.4%, respectively.

Economic Inactivity

Economic inactivity rates among the working age population as a whole fell slightly over the period of interest, from 27.4% in Q1 2006 to 25.3% in Q1 2012, a fall of 2.1 percentage points. Figure 4.4 presents the trends in economic inactivity rates over this period by age group. As one would expect, economic inactivity was higher for the 50-64 years old age group than the 25-49 years old age group, as some of this age group may have been retired. Economic inactivity among the 50-64 years old age group was 36.2% in Q1 2006, but fell slightly after 2008, and was 29.2% in Q1 2012 (which is linked to both increased employment and unemployment). Economic inactivity in the 25-49 years old age group had been consistently lower than the population average, falling slightly over the period from 19.0% in Q1 2006 to 14.0% in Q1 2012. Perhaps surprisingly, since Q3 2011 the 18-24 years old age group showed a tendency to have the highest inactivity rates since; this group saw a considerable increase of 13.9 percentage points over the period, from 28.7% in Q1 2006 to 42.6% in Q1 2012.

Figure 4.4: Economic inactivity rate by age group (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

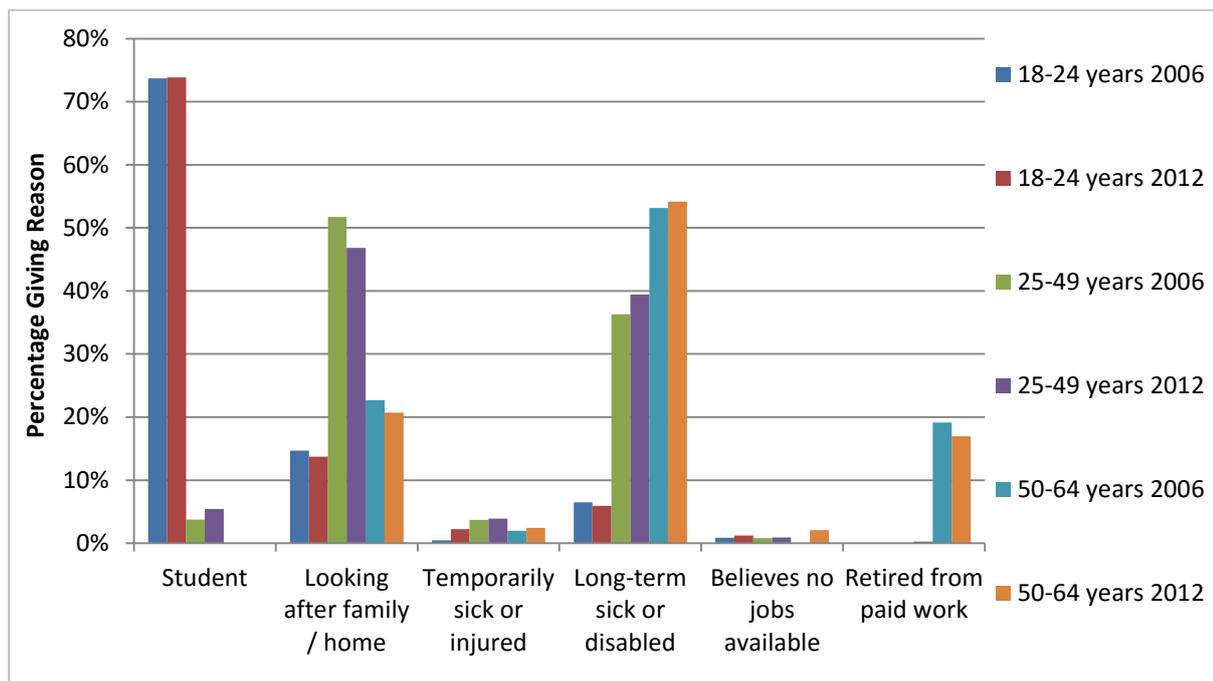


Main reasons for not looking for work

Figure 4.5 shows the main reasons for not looking for work in the last four weeks, as reported by the different age groups.

For the 18-24 years old age group, the most common reason for not looking for work (73.7% in Q1 2006 and 73.9% in Q1 2012 of the age group) was because they were still studying. However for those aged 25-49 years old, caring responsibilities, being long-term sick or disabled were cited as the major reasons for not looking for work. For those aged 50-64 years old, disability emerged as the main reason, looking after family/home and early retirement appeared as other reasons for not looking for a job for this group.

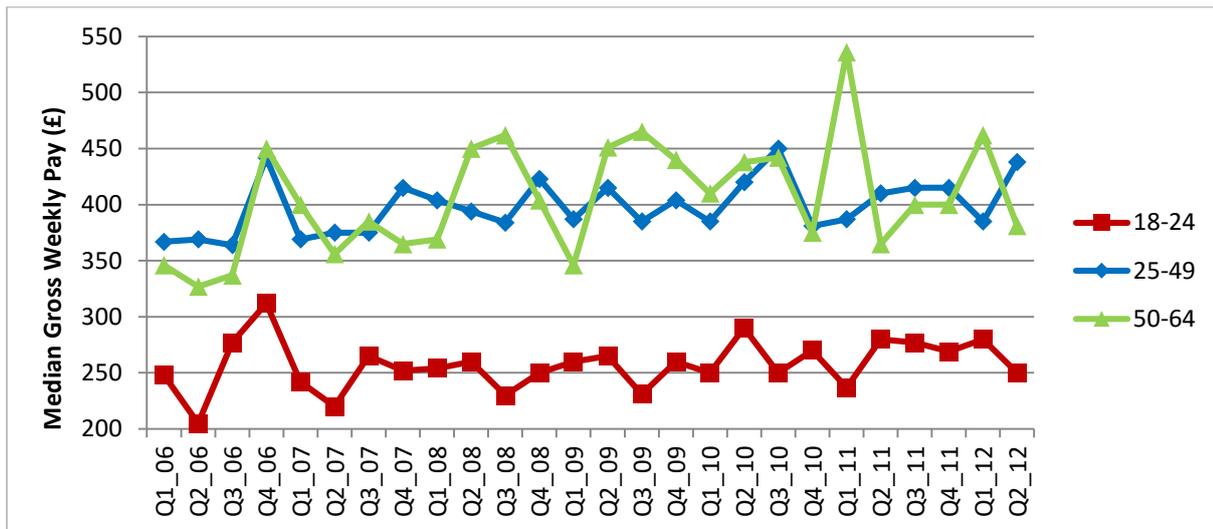
Figure 4.5: Main reason for not looking for work in the last four weeks by age group (Source: LFS, 2006 and 2012)



Median gross weekly pay

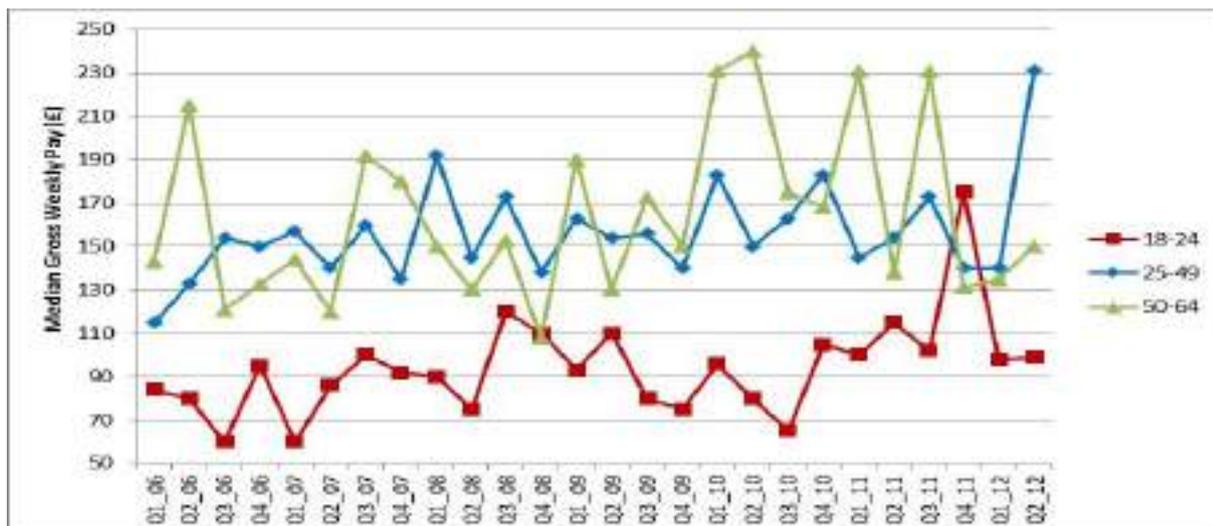
Median gross weekly pay for all full-time workers was £346 in Q1 2006 and £385 in Q1 2012, a nominal increase of £39 (11.3%) per week over the time period. The median gross weekly pay for the different age groups for full-time workers is illustrated in Figure 4.6a. For the 25-49 years old and 50-64 years old age groups, weekly pay levels were similar and showed a slight rise over the period. Those aged 25-49 years old saw an increase from £367 per week in Q1 2006 to £385 in Q1 2012, and those aged 50-64 years old saw an increase from £346 to £462 over the same period. The 18-24 years old age group had generally been paid less than the population average; there was little change over the period of study for this age group, with weekly pay at £248 in Q1 2006 and £280 in Q1 2012.

Figure 4.6a: Median gross weekly pay for full-time workers by age group (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



For part-time workers, median gross weekly pay for all workers increased by £5 (4.3%), from £115 in Q1 2006 to £120 in Q1 2012. Figure 4.6b shows the median gross weekly pay for the different age groups for part-time workers. Although this figure suggests a great deal of fluctuation of part-time wages over the period of interest, care should be taken in drawing conclusions in this respect, as the sample size in each quarter of wage data for part-time workers may be quite small. As with the wages for full-time workers, the data suggests comparable wages for the 25-49 years old and 50-64 years old age groups, with lower than average wages for the 18-24 years old age group. Although it was difficult to identify any particular trends, there may be some downward trend from Q3 2009 for the 18-24 years old age group, with some recovery after Q3 2010.

Figure 4.6b: Median gross weekly pay for part-time workers by age group (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Hours worked per week including overtime

With regard to the working age population as a whole, the median hours worked per week including overtime remained the same at 44.0 hours per week in Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 for full-time workers but fell slightly from 23.0 to 22.0 hours per week for part-time workers over the same period. Figure 4.7a shows the median number of hours worked by each age group, for full-time workers.

Figure 4.7a: Median hours worked per week including overtime for full-time workers by age group
(Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

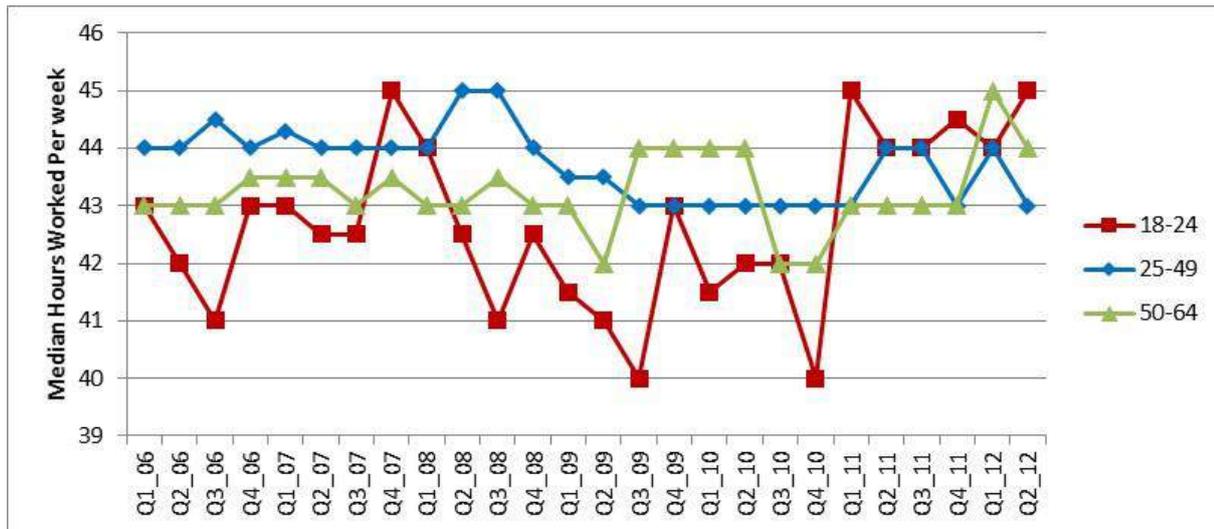
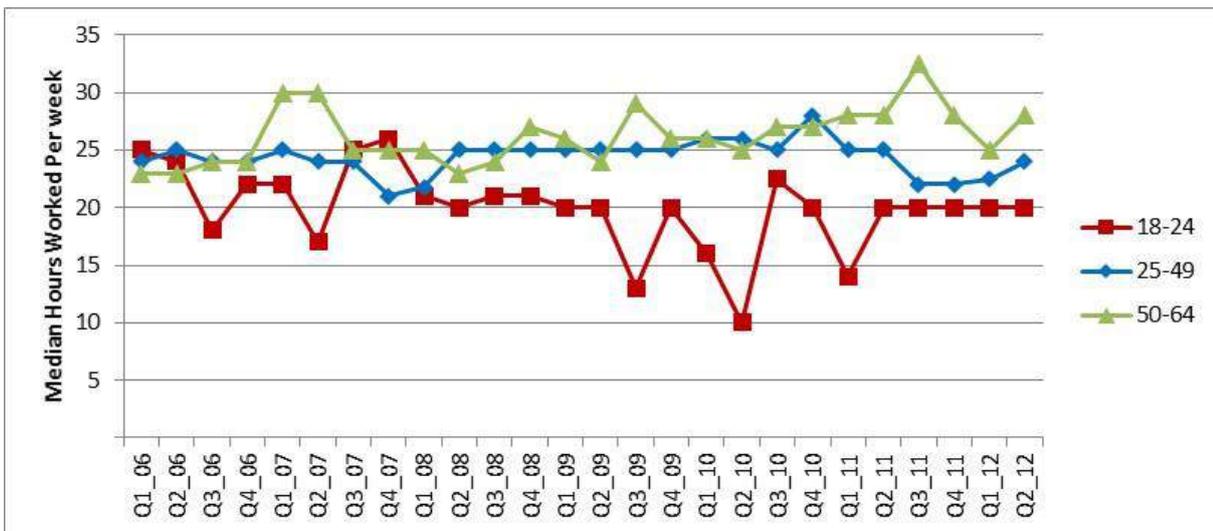


Figure 4.7a suggests a tendency towards slightly longer working hours among the 25-49 years old age group for full-time workers. In both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, the average working hours for this group was 44 hours per week, with a small amount of fluctuation between these two time points. At the start of the period, both the 50-64 years old and 18-24 years old age group workers had a slightly lower average at 43 hours per week, but since 2011 there seems to have been convergence, with 18-24 year olds working 44 hours per week in Q1 2012 – the same as the 25-49 years old age group – and the 50-64 years olds working slightly longer at 45 hours per week.

For part-time workers (Figure 4.7b), there were even fewer differences between the different age groups. The most notable trend was towards lower than average hours for the 18-24 years old age group; in Q1 2006 this group worked on average 25 hours per week, similar to the other age groups, but by Q2 2010 this had fallen to 10 hours, although some recovery to 20 hours per week was observed by Q1 2012. Many of this age group were students, and their lower work hours are likely to reflect the fact that they may be combining a part-time job with studying. There was little change over the period in the hours of part-time workers in the 25-49 years old and 50-64 years old age groups. For 25-49 year olds, hours decreased slightly, from 24.0 hours in Q1 2006 to 22.5 hours in Q1 2012, while for the 50-64 years olds there was a slight increase from 23.0 to 25.0 hours per week over the same period.

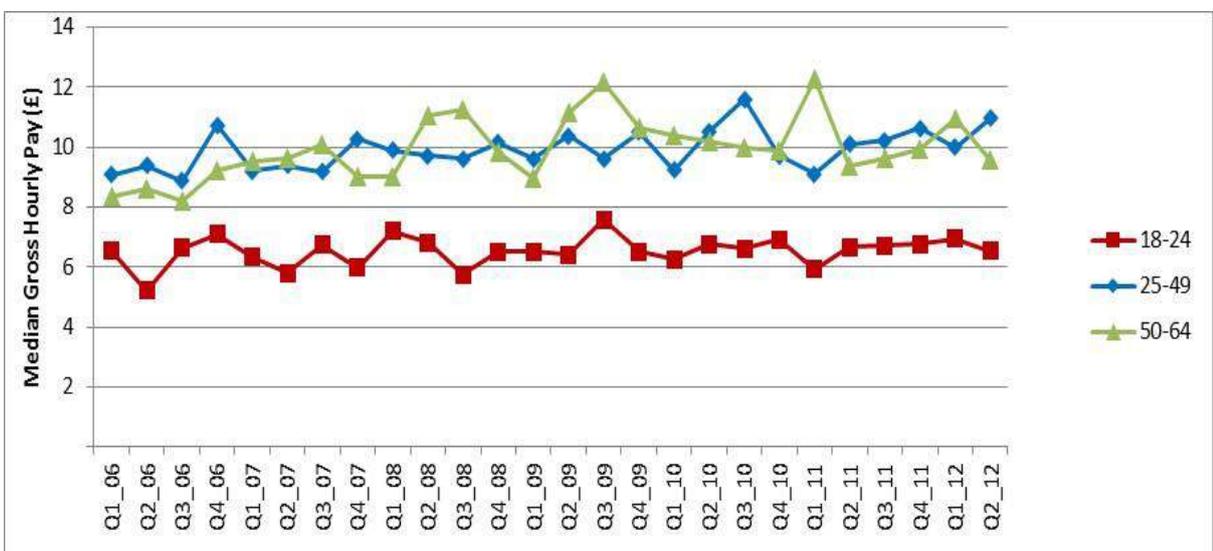
Figure 4.7b: Median hours worked per week including overtime for part-time workers by age group
(Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Median gross hourly pay

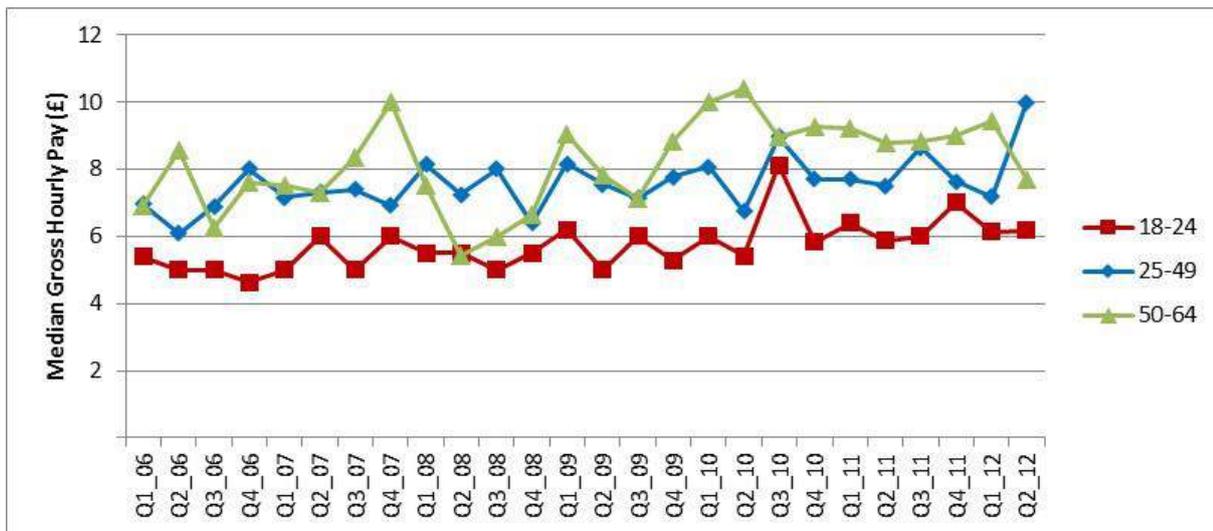
Median gross hourly pay for all full-time workers was £8.33 per hour in Q1 2006 and £9.87 per hour in Q1 2012, a nominal increase of £1.54 per hour over the period. Figure 4.8a shows the variation in hourly pay rates over the period of interest for full-time workers in the different age groups. The 18-24 years old age group had an hourly wage lower than average, which is unsurprising given that they have limited experience, and pay scales generally reflect length of service. However, what is also notable is that this age group seemed not to have experienced the same upward trend in hourly pay experienced by the 25-49 years old and 50-64 years old age groups. Hourly pay for 18-24 year olds was £6.53 in Q1 2006, and £6.94 in Q1 2012, whereas hourly pay increased from £9.07 to £10.00 for 25-49 year olds and £8.33 to £10.93 for 50-64 year olds over the same period.

Figure 4.8a: Median gross hourly pay for full-time workers by age group (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



For part-time workers (Figure. 4.8b), median gross hourly pay for all workers increased by £1.05 (16.9%), from £6.20 in Q1 2006 to £7.25 in Q1 2012. As with full-time workers, the 18-24 years old age group had the lowest hourly pay among part-time workers, although the difference is less pronounced. In Q1 2006, 18-24 year olds working part-time had an average hourly wage of £5.40, and this had increased slightly by Q1 2012 to £6.13. For part-time workers aged 25-49 years old, median hourly pay was £6.96 in Q1 2006 and increased slightly to £7.19 in Q1 2012, although the data suggests some fluctuation between these time points. Part-time workers in the 50-64 years old age group saw some increase in hourly pay, from £6.93 in Q1 2006 to £9.45 in Q1 2012.

Figure 4.8b: Median gross hourly pay for part-time workers by age group (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



To highlight recent pay differentials, data on gross weekly pay, hours worked and median hourly pay is taken from the ASHE, 2012 and shown in Table 4.2. The reporting age groups are different, but the picture presented here is consistent with the figures used above and supports the idea that younger workers are paid less.

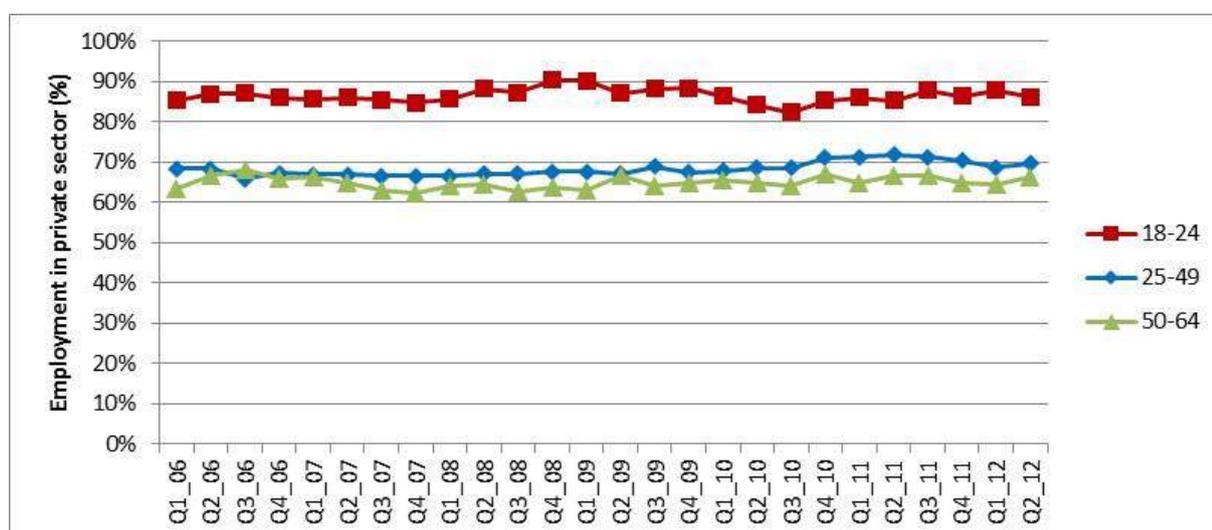
Table 4.2: Median gross weekly pay, median hours worked per week, and median hourly pay, by age group and gender (Source: ASHE 2012, provisional figures)

	All	Male		Female	
		Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time
Median Weekly Gross Pay					
All	£360.20	£478.90	£139.00	£440.00	£153.80
18-21 years old	£117.70	£244.00	£96.10	£240.90	£87.90
22-29 years old	£308.70	£358.90	£133.60	£344.80	£139.80
30-39 years old	£407.60	£480.30	£132.70	£458.60	£188.50
40-49 years old	£427.80	£569.20	£170.60	£529.40	£176.10
50-59 years old	£417.00	£559.70	£166.30	£477.50	£173.40
60+ years old	£308.50	£489.70	£209.40	£430.60	£116.3
Median Total Hours Worked per Week					
All	37.0	39.6	18.0	37.5	18.8
18-21 years old	20.0	37.0	16.0	37.9	13.9
22-29 years old	37.5	39.8	19.7	37.5	18.4
30-39 years old	37.1	40.0	16.0	37.3	20.0
40-49 years old	37.0	39.8	18.5	37.5	20.0
50-59 years old	37.0	39.0	17.9	37.3	20.0
60+ years old	32.5	39.0	19.9	36.6	15.0
Median Hourly Gross Pay					
All	£10.10	£11.50	£7.10	£11.40	£10.10
18-21 years old	£6.10	£6.50	£6.10	£6.20	£6.50
22-29 years old	£8.30	£8.90	£6.50	£8.80	£8.50
30-39 years old	£11.10	£11.60	£7.50	£12.40	£10.90
40-49 years old	£12.10	£13.60	£8.90	£13.90	£11.10
50-59 years old	£11.50	£13.60	£8.50	£12.10	£10.70
60+ years old	£9.70	£11.40	£9.30	£11.50	£9.28

Private sector employment

Employment in the private sector stayed fairly constant for the working age population as a whole over the period of interest; it stood at 70.3% in Q1 2006 and 70.0% in Q1 2012. Figure 4.9 shows the proportion in each age group employed in the private sector over the period of interest. As with the trend for the population as a whole, the proportion of each age group employed in the private sector was fairly consistent over the period. The 18-24 years old age group was more likely than the working age population as whole to be employed in the private sector; private sector employment averaged at 86.4% for the 18-24 years old age group, compared with 68.2% and 64.9% for the 25-49 years old and 50-64 years old age groups, respectively. In Q1 2006, 85.4% of 18-24 year olds were employed in the private sector, and this was similar in Q1 2012 at 88.3%. Private sector employment was very similar for the 25-49 years old and 50-64 years old age groups; in Q1 2006 it was 68.4% for 25-49 year olds and 63.4% for 50-64 year olds, and in Q1 2012 it was 68.8% and 64.6%, respectively.

Figure 4.9: Percentage in private sector employment by age group (Source: LFS 2006-2012)



Industry sector

This section investigates the distribution of employment of the working age population by age group, across industry sectors, examining the proportion employed and the median hourly gross pay by sector and age group.

The distributions of the different age groups across industry sectors are laid out in Table 4.3. The industry distributions for the 25-49 years old and 50-64 years old age groups are very similar, with the largest proportion of these age groups employed in 'Public Administration, Education and Health' in both Q1 2006 (36.6% and 39.7%, respectively) and Q1 2012 (35.5% and 41.5% respectively). The largest proportion of 18-24 year olds, on the other hand, were employed in 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' in both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 (34.2% and 37.6%, respectively).

The distribution across sectors within each age group remained broadly similar between the two time periods, particularly for the 25-49 years old age group, for which virtually no change occurred. Since 2006 the distribution of the 50-64 years old age group employed in 'Manufacturing' has reduced by 4.8 percentage points while their distribution in employment in 'Construction' increased by 2.4 percentage points. The distribution of the 18-24 years old age group employed in 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' increased by 3.4 percentage points over the study period, while the proportion of those employed in 'Manufacturing' and 'Construction' fell by 2.8 and 2.1 percentage points, respectively.

At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, the 18-24 years old age group was over-represented (i.e. over 15.3%²⁵ at Q1 2006 and over 10.0%²⁶ at Q1 2012) in three industry sectors in Q1 2012: 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants'; 'Construction'; and 'Other Services'. Those aged 25-49 years old were over-represented (i.e. over 63.5%²⁷ at Q1 2006 and over 66.2%²⁸ at Q1 2012) in four of the same industry sectors at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012: 'Manufacturing'; 'Transport and Communication'; 'Banking, Finance and Insurance etc.'; and 'Public Administration, Education and Health'. In addition, those aged 25-49 years old were also over-represented in the 'Energy and Water' industry sector at Q1 2012. Those aged 50-64 years old were over-represented (i.e. over 19.9%²⁹ at Q1 2006 and over 23.1%³⁰ at Q1 2012) in three of the same industry sectors at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012: 'Agriculture and Fishing'; 'Energy and Water'; and 'Public Administration, Education and Health'. Whilst those aged 50-64 years old were over-represented in 'Manufacturing' at Q1 2006, this was not the case in Q1 2012 where those aged 50-64 years old were over-represented in two further industry sectors (than those already listed): 'Construction' and 'Other Services'.

²⁵ At Q1 2006, 15.3% of those in employment were aged 18-24 years old.

²⁶ At Q1 2012, 10.0% of those in employment were aged 18-24 years old.

²⁷ At Q1 2006, 63.5% of those in employment were aged 25-49 years old.

²⁸ At Q1 2012, 66.2% of those in employment were aged 25-49 years old.

²⁹ At Q1 2006, 19.9% of those in employment were aged 50-64 years old.

³⁰ At Q1 2012, 23.1% of those in employment were aged 50-64 years old.

Table 4.3: Industry sector of employment by age group (Source: LFS, 2006 and 2012)

Sector (SIC2007)	Q1 2006						Q1 2012					
	18-24		25-49		50-64		18-24		25-49		50-64	
	Row Prop.% ¹	Column Dist. % ²	Row Prop.% ¹	Column Dist. % ²	Row Prop.% ¹	Column Dist. % ²	Row Prop.% ¹	Column Dist. % ²	Row Prop.% ¹	Column Dist. % ²	Row Prop.% ¹	Column Dist. % ²
A-B: Agriculture & Fishing	4.5	1.0	55.6	2.9	38.1	6.3	7.6	2.1	50.3	2.2	37.5	4.6
C,E: Energy & Water	16.4	0.9	60.2	0.8	23.4	1.0	6.3	0.7	69.9	1.2	23.9	1.2
D: Manufacturing	11.6	10.8	66.1	14.6	22.3	15.7	6.5	8.0	73.3	13.9	20.2	10.9
F: Construction	24.9	16.7	56.5	8.9	14.1	7.1	16.6	14.6	58.8	8.0	24.6	9.5
G-H: Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants	26.4	34.2	56.4	17.2	14.9	14.5	19.8	37.6	61.5	18.1	16.9	14.2
I: Transport & Communication	11.6	3.7	70.4	5.3	18.0	4.3	6.9	3.4	75.3	5.7	17.8	3.8
J-K: Banking, Finance & Insurance etc.	15.9	10.1	66.6	10.0	16.9	8.1	8.7	9.1	71.4	11.7	19.9	9.3
L-N: Public Admin, Education & Health	8.0	18.0	68.6	36.6	23.3	39.7	5.4	18.2	67.2	35.5	27.5	41.5
O-Q: Other Services	18.6	4.7	62.8	3.7	17.3	3.3	15.0	6.4	55.7	3.7	26.4	5.0

¹ Row: proportion within each sector of age class (e.g. in 2006 11.6% of the manufacturing sector were occupied by 18-24 year olds)

² Column: distribution of age class group across sectors (e.g. in 2006 10.8% of 18-24 year olds worked in manufacturing)

The median gross hourly pay in each industry sector for each age group, and the pay gap between age groups, is displayed in Table 4.4. Note here that the estimates for several of the age sector combinations are rather unreliable as a consequence of low sample sizes (see Appendix 5 Table A5.2), and should therefore be treated with caution. For example, in Q1 2006, 50-64 year olds are indicated to have a median gross hourly pay of £57.80; however, this is based on a sample size of only four; therefore, even where this appears to be the largest, this figure will not be quoted with regard to pay gaps. Furthermore, caution needs to be applied when considering the top three highest paid industry sectors, given that data was available for one year of interest only for some industry sectors.

In Q1 2006, the top three highest paid industry sectors for the 18-24 years old age group were: 1. 'Transport and Communication'; 2. Banking, Finance and Insurance'; and 3. 'Construction' and 'Energy and Water'. This picture changed somewhat in Q1 2012 to 1. 'Public Administration, Education and Health'; 2. 'Banking, Finance and Insurance' and 'Other Services'; and 3. 'Construction'; therefore excluding 'Transport and Communication' and 'Energy and Water' for which no figures were available in Q1 2012. The lowest paid industry sector at both time points was 'Manufacturing'.

The top three highest paid industry sectors in Q1 2006 for the 25-49 years old age group were: 1. 'Energy and Water'; 2. 'Banking, Finance and Insurance'; and 3. 'Agriculture and Fishing'. None of the highest paid industry sectors from Q1 2006 remained in the top three in Q1 2012, although this is unsurprising with regard to 'Energy and Water' as no figures were available for Q1 2012. For Q1 2012 the three highest paid industry sectors were: 1. 'Other Services'; 2. 'Transport and Communication'; and 3. 'Construction' and 'Public Administration, Education and Health'. The lowest paid industry sector in Q1 2006 was 'Other Services', which became one of the top three highest paid industry sectors in Q1 2012. Conversely, 'Agriculture and Fishing' not only lost its top three highest paid positions in Q1 2006 but became the lowest paid industry sector in Q1 2012.

Only one industry sector remained in the top three highest paid for the 50-64 years old age group between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, despite all being represented at both time points: 'Other Services'. The Q1 2006 top three highest paid industry sectors were: 1. 'Energy and Water'; 2. 'Banking, Finance and Insurance'; and 3. 'Other Services'. This changed to: 1. 'Construction'; 2. 'Other Services'; and 3. 'Public Administration, Education and Health' in Q1 2012. The lowest paid industry sector for Q1 2006 was 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants', which due to an increase in median gross hourly pay lost its last place position in Q1 2012 to the 'Agriculture and Fishing' industry sector.

In Q1 2006 the largest pay gap between the 18-24 years old and 25-49 years old age groups was in 'Energy and Water', but in Q1 2012 (note no figure was available for 'Energy and Water') this had changed to 'Other Services' (both pay gaps were in favour of the 25-49 years old age group). The largest gap between the 18-24 years old and 50-64 years old age groups in Q1 2006 was in 'Banking, Finance and Insurance', but in Q1 2012 the largest gap was in 'Construction' (both pay gaps were in favour of the 50-64 years old age group). In Q1 2006 the largest pay gap between those in the 25-49 years old and 50-64 years old age groups was in 'Other Services', but by Q1 2012 the largest gap was in 'Construction' (both were in favour of the 50-64 years old age group).

Table 4.4: Median gross hourly pay in each industry sector by age group and pay gaps between age groups (Source: LFS 2001 and 2012)

Sector (SIC20007)	Q1 2006						Q1 2012					
	Median Gross Hourly pay			Pay Gap*			Median Gross Hourly pay			Pay Gap*		
	18-24 yrs old	25-49 yrs old	50-64 yrs old	25-49 yrs old – 18-24 yrs old	50-64 yrs old – 18-24 yrs old	50-64 yrs old – 25-49 yrs old	18-24 yrs old	25-49 yrs old	50-64 yrs old	25-49 yrs old – 18-24 yrs old	50-64 yrs old – 18-24 yrs old	50-64 yrs old – 25-49 yrs old
A-B: Agriculture & Fishing	n/a	£10.20	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	£7.20	£5.90	n/a	n/a	-£1.30
C,E: Energy & Water	£7.00	£20.10	£57.80	£13.10	£50.80	£37.70	n/a	n/a	£7.80	n/a	n/a	n/a
D: Manufacturing	£4.60	£7.90	£8.30	£3.30	£3.70	£0.40	£5.90	£7.90	£10.90	£2.00	£5.00	£3.10
F: Construction	£7.00	£9.10	£9.20	£2.10	£2.20	£0.10	£7.00	£10.70	£18.70	£3.70	£11.70	£8.00
G-H: Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants	£5.50	£6.70	£5.60	£1.20	£0.10	-£1.10	£6.10	£8.40	£9.90	£2.30	£3.80	£1.50
I: Transport & Communication	£9.20	£8.50	£6.80	-£0.70	-£2.40	-£1.70	n/a	£10.90	£6.90	n/a	n/a	-£4.00
J-K: Banking, Finance & Insurance etc.	£8.40	£11.00	£13.10	£2.60	£4.70	£2.10	£7.30	£9.60	£8.30	£2.30	£1.00	-£1.30
L-N: Public Admin, Education & Health	£5.90	£9.80	£8.10	£3.90	£2.10	-£1.70	£8.00	£10.70	£11.20	£2.70	£3.20	£0.50
O-Q: Other Services	n/a	£6.30	£9.80	n/a	n/a	£3.50	£7.30	£11.40	£12.30	£4.10	£5.00	£0.90

* Pay Gap = median gross hourly pay in age group 1 minus median gross hourly pay in age group 2; n/a = No data available

Occupation group

This section explores the distribution and proportion of each age group across occupation groups, and their relative pay. Table 4.5 shows that:

- In Q1 2006, the most common type of occupation for all age groups was 'Skilled Trades Occupations'. This also remained the most common type of occupation for 50-64 year olds in Q1 2012.
- The stability of the 50-64 years old age group within 'Skilled Trades Occupations', and the proportions employed in this occupation may reflect the different educational path of this cohort, and the different nature of the labour market when they entered it as compared to the current youngest cohort.
- At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 the 25-49 years old age group workers made up most employees within all occupation groups. At both time points those aged 25-49 years old were over-represented (i.e. over 63.5%²⁷ in Q1 2006 and over 66.2%²⁸ in Q1 2012) in the top three highest level occupation groups: 'Managers and Senior Officials'; 'Professional Occupations'; and 'Associate, Professional and Technical' occupations. In Q1 2012 the most common occupation of the 25-49 years old age group was 'Professional Occupations' (20.9%).
- An over-representation (i.e. over 19.9%²⁹ at Q1 2006 and over 23.1%³⁰ at Q1 2012) of those aged 50-64 years old was evident at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 in the highest level occupation group: 'Managers and Senior Officials'. In addition, at Q1 2012 those aged 50-64 years old were over-represented in two mid level occupation groups: 'Administrative and Secretarial Occupations' and 'Skilled Trades Occupations'.
- Whilst at Q1 2006, the over-representation of those aged 25-24 years old in 'Professional Occupations' was more pronounced than the over-representation of those aged 50-64 years old, at Q1 2012 this had reversed; the over-representation of those aged 50-64 years old in 'Professional Occupations' was more pronounced.
- Over a quarter (26.4%) of 18-24 year olds were employed in 'Skilled Trades Occupations' in Q1 2006. However, in Q1 2012 this was no longer the most common occupation for this age group, with employment in this category falling to 18.1%, and being overtaken by 'Sales and Customer Services Occupations' (22.8%) and 'Elementary Occupations' (20.2%).
- Despite the change in proportions within occupation groups for those aged 18-24 years old, at Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 this age group was over-represented (i.e. over 15.3%²⁵ in Q1 2006 and over 10.0%²⁶ in Q1 2012) in the same four mid to lower level occupation groups: 'Skilled Trades Occupations'; 'Personal Service Occupations'; 'Sales and Customer Service Occupations'; and 'Elementary Occupations'. This is consistent with the position of this younger group at the entry level of the labour market, or still completing their education.

The LFS also gives figures for those who are self-employed. In Q1 2006 the rate of self-employment was 11.6% for the 25-49 years old age group and 12.8% for the 50-64 years old age group. By Q1 2012, these proportions had reduced by 1.4 percentage points for 25-49 year olds (10.2%) and remained the same for 50-64 year olds (12.8%). However, those aged 18-24 years old had a rate of self-employment in Q1 2006

that was only 5.1%, and by Q1 2012 this had fallen 4.0 percentage points to 1.1%. Clearly the 18-24 years old age group found it difficult to enter or sustain employment, either by working for someone or as self-employed.

Table 4.5: Occupation group by age group (Source: LFS, 2006 and 2012)

Occupation (SOC10)	Q1 2006						Q1 2012					
	18-24 yrs old		25-49 yrs old		50-64 yrs old		18-24 yrs old		25-49 yrs old		50-64 yrs old	
	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist. % ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist. % ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist. % ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist. % ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist. % ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist. % ²
Managers and Senior Officials	4.6	3.0	74.0	11.3	21.4	10.4	4.1	3.5	66.5	8.7	29.3	11.0
Professional occupations	8.7	7.1	71.9	13.8	19.4	11.9	4.1	7.5	74.1	20.9	21.8	17.6
Associate Professional and Technical	6.4	5.1	73.2	13.8	20.4	12.3	1.5	1.5	77.7	12.4	20.9	9.5
Administrative and Secretarial	11.9	10.5	69.3	14.5	18.4	12.3	6.9	8.7	64.5	12.6	28.2	15.7
Skilled Trades Occupations	21.8	26.4	55.1	15.8	20.6	18.9	13.4	18.1	54.3	11.4	32.3	19.4
Personal Service Occupations	20.1	9.8	59.6	6.8	19.1	7.0	15.3	13.9	63.3	8.9	20.1	8.1
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	34.3	18.8	50.8	6.6	10.1	4.2	29.0	22.8	59.5	7.3	10.2	3.5
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	8.7	5.2	63.9	9.1	27.4	12.4	6.2	3.9	70.2	6.9	23.6	6.6
Elementary Occupations	21.9	14.2	55.2	8.4	21.8	10.7	18.0	20.2	61.9	10.8	17.2	8.5

¹ Row: proportion within each occupation group of age class (e.g. In Q1 2006 4.6% of Managers and Senior Officials were 18-24 year olds)

² Column: distribution of age class group across occupation groups (e.g. In Q1 2006 3% of 18-24 year olds were Managers and Senior Officials)

Median gross hourly pay rates for each occupation by age group, and the pay gaps between the age groups, are presented in Table 4.6. Note that small sample sizes compromise reliability in analysing the estimates presented in Table 4.6, see Appendix 5 Table A5.2.

In Q1 2006, the top three highest paid occupations for the 18-24 years old age group were: 1. 'Managers and Senior Officials'; 2. 'Process, Plant and Machine Operatives'; and 3. 'Professional Occupations'. In Q1 2012 no figures were available for 'Managers and Senior Officials', the top three highest paid occupations were: 1. 'Professional Occupations'; 2. 'Administrative and Secretarial' and 'Personal Service Occupations'; and 3. 'Skilled Trades Occupations'. The lowest paid occupation at Q1 2006 was 'Associate Professional and Technical'; no values were available for this occupation in Q1 2012, where the lowest paid occupation was 'Process, Plant and Machine Operatives' where median gross hourly pay reduced from £9.20 in Q1 2006 to £5.60 in Q1 2012.

For those aged 25-49 years old and 50-64 years old the top three highest paid occupations in Q1 2006 were: 1. 'Professional Occupations'; 2. 'Managers and Senior Officials'; and 3. 'Associate Professional and Technical' occupations. For the 24-49 years old age group these remained the top three highest paid occupations in Q1 2012; with the exception that 'Managers and Senior Officials' and 'Associate Professional and Technical' occupations switched ranking. With regard to the 50-64 years old age group in Q1 2012 the top two occupations remained the same; 'Personal Service Occupations' took third place in the rankings. The lowest paid occupations for the 25-49 years old age groups were 'Elementary Occupations' in Q1 2006 and 'Sales and Customer Service Occupations' in Q1 2012. The lowest paid occupation for 50-64 year olds in Q1 2006 was 'Personal Service Occupations'; in Q1 2012 it was 'Elementary Occupations'.

As might be expected given the trends in hourly pay identified above, pay gaps tend to be to the advantage of the 25-49 years old age group, with the 18-24 years old age group most likely to have a negative pay gap. The largest pay gap between the 18-24 years old age group and the 25-49 years old age group was for 'Associate Professional and Technical' occupations in Q1 2006 (£7.10), but by Q1 2012 this had changed to 'Professional Occupations' with an estimated pay gap of £9.70. The largest pay gap between those in the 18-24 years old age group and those in the 50-64 years old age group was in 'Associate Professional and Technical' occupations in Q1 2006 and in 'Professional Occupations' in Q1 2012. In Q1 2006, the largest pay gap between the 50-64 years old and 25-49 years old age groups was also in 'Associate Professional and Technical' occupations, although this was to a much lesser extent than those reported above; 50-64 year olds were £3.70 better off. In Q1 2012, although the largest pay gap (£3.90) was still in 'Associate Professional and Technical', the direction of the gap had reversed in favour of the 25-49 years old age group.

Table 4.6: Median gross hourly pay in each occupation group by age group and pay gaps between age groups (Source: LFS 2006 & 2012)

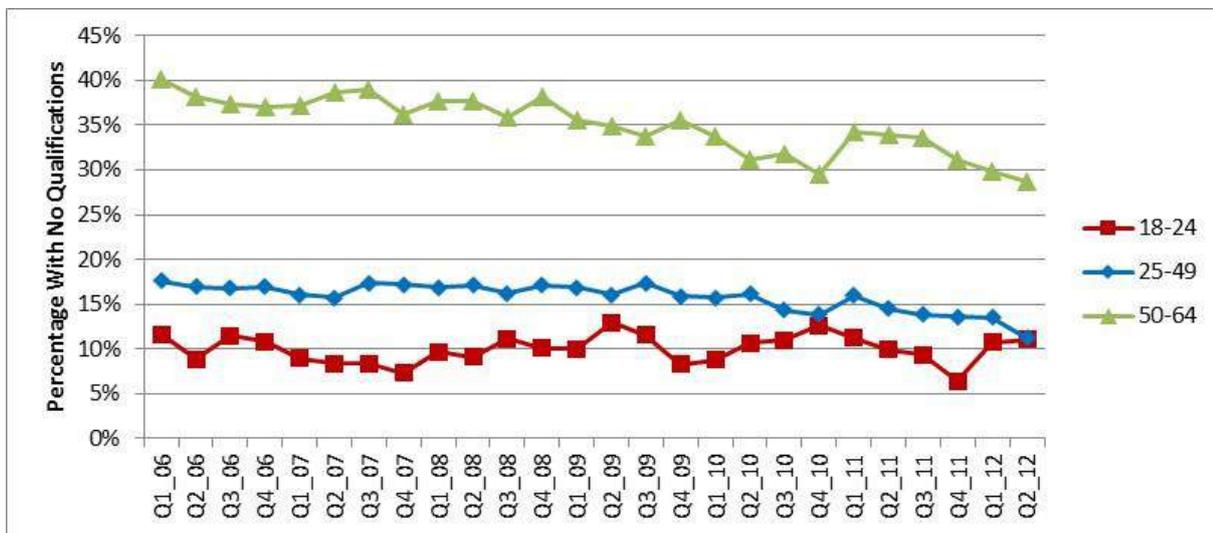
Occupation (SOC 10)	Q1 2006						Q1 2012					
	Median Gross Hourly pay			Pay Gap*			Median Gross Hourly pay			Pay Gap*		
	18-24 yrs old	24-49 yrs old	50-64 yrs old	25-49 - 18-24 yrs old	50-64- 18-24 yrs old	50-64- 25-49 yrs old	18-24 yrs old	24-49 yrs old	50-64 yrs old	25-49 - 18-24 yrs old	50-64 - 18-24 yrs old	50-64- 25-49 yrs old
Managers and Senior Officials	£9.80	£10.40	£13.70	£0.60	£3.90	£3.30	n/a	£12.30	£12.20	n/a	n/a	-£0.10
Professional occupations	£8.20	£15.10	£15.00	£6.90	£6.80	-£0.10	£8.00	£17.70	£16.70	£9.70	£8.70	-£1.00
Associate Professional and Technical	£2.70	£9.80	£13.50	£7.10	£10.80	£3.70	n/a	£12.50	£8.60	n/a	n/a	-£3.90
Administrative and Secretarial	£7.30	£8.10	£8.20	£0.80	£0.90	£0.10	£7.30	£9.60	£10.10	£2.30	£2.80	£0.50
Skilled Trades Occupations	£7.00	£7.50	£8.30	£0.50	£1.30	£0.80	£6.60	£7.80	£7.70	£1.20	£1.10	-£0.10
Personal Service Occupations	£5.70	£7.60	£5.60	£1.90	-£0.10	-£2.00	£7.30	£7.20	£10.50	-£0.10	£3.20	£2.30
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	£5.50	£7.50	n/a	£2.00	n/a	n/a	£6.10	£6.90	£9.90	£0.80	£3.80	£3.00
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	£9.20	£7.80	£7.00	-£1.40	-£2.20	-£0.80	£5.60	£7.50	£7.80	£1.90	£2.20	£0.30
Elementary Occupations	£5.10	£5.80	£6.30	£0.70	£1.20	£0.50	£6.10	£7.50	£6.50	£1.40	£0.40	-£1.00

* Pay Gap = median gross hourly pay in one age group minus median gross hourly pay in another (as defined in column headings); n/a = No data available

Qualifications

Figure 4.10 clearly shows that people in the 50-64 years old age group had a higher likelihood of having no qualifications; however, this differential decreased over time. In Q1 2006, 40.2% of those aged 50-64 years old had no qualifications, but by Q1 2012 this had fallen to 29.8%. There was also a decrease in the proportion of those in the 25-49 years old age group with no qualifications, but it was much smaller, from 17.6% in Q1 2006 to 13.5% in Q1 2012. The 18-24 years old age group did not see much change overall over this period; although some fluctuation was evident, the proportion with no qualifications was 11.7% in Q1 2006 and 10.7% in Q1 2012. However, results for this age group should be considered with caution as many may still be completing education and possibly in the process of obtaining a qualification or degree.

Figure 4.10 Percentage with no qualifications by age group (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Transport

There is little variation in travel to work times: on average those aged 18-24 years old travelled a little over 21 minutes; those aged 25-49 years old travelled longest for around 23 minutes; and those aged 50-64 years old travelled for around 22 minutes. The main travel mode to work by age group is displayed in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Travel to work mode by age group (Source: LFS, 2006 and 2012)

	18–24 yrs old		25-49 yrs old		50-64 yrs old	
	%		%		%	
	2006	2012	2006	2012	2006	2012
Car, van, or motorcycle	76.4	61.8	86.5	88.3	83.9	86.0
Walk or bicycle	15.7	25.5	7.9	7.7	10.5	7.5
Public transport	7.9	12.7	5.6	3.9	5.7	6.5

At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, private motorised transport (i.e. car, van or motorcycle) was the main mode of travel to work for all age groups. However, the 18-24 years old age group was less likely to use this form of transport than the 25-49 years old and 50-64 years old age groups at both Q1 2006 (difference of 10.1 and 7.5 percentage points, respectively) and Q1 2012 (difference of 26.5 and 24.2 percentage points, respectively). Consequently, the 18-24 years old age group walked, cycled and used public transport more than the other age groups. A lack of access to private transport may restrict the job opportunities to which this group have access, and this might help to explain some part of the younger group’s lower employment rates.

Attitudes

In the 2011 Equality Awareness Survey (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012), age was the second most common response when respondents were asked what they felt was the important equality issue, although the question was asked in a general sense rather than specifically related to employment inequalities. Respondents were also asked, again in general, how positive or negative they felt towards particular groups. A total of 77% reported a positive feeling towards young people (aged under 25 years old) and only 5% reported a negative feeling towards this group, and feelings towards older people (70 years old and over) were even more positive, at 81% positive and 4% negative.

The survey included some direct questions about unfair treatment at work. Some 10% of respondents thought that people under 25 years old were treated unfairly in general (5% said this group were treated the most unfairly – a decrease of 1 percentage point since 2008), and of these, 40% said that this unfair treatment occurred at work, suggesting a low perception of unfair treatment at work. Although 15% thought that people aged 70 years old and over were treated unfairly, this was more likely to be in relation to access to public services. A total of 12% of those aged 16-29 years old and 5% of those aged 65 years old and over reported personal experience of unfair treatment at work.

Stakeholder views on age inequalities in employment

Stakeholders³¹ highlighted education as a key barrier for young people trying to enter the labour market. Young people not in employment, education or training (NEETs) tend to leave school with few qualifications and poor standards of basic literacy and numeracy. The problem is reported to begin with a lack of school readiness at the start of primary school, leading to a long lasting impact that this has on pupils' experience of the education system.

However, although a lack of qualifications has an impact on the job opportunities open to school leavers, the problem is not just a simple lack of qualifications on paper, but also the factors associated, or perceived by employers to be associated, with their failure to obtain any. Low attainment is associated, among other things, with socio-economic disadvantage and chaotic family backgrounds. Outcomes are particularly poor for those who have been in the care system, particularly residential care; their unstable upbringing means care leavers also have a higher likelihood of having mental health issues or addiction problems (Mallon, 2005).

Another issue is engagement with the youth justice system and the on-going impact of this. The rise of criminal background checks as part of recruitment processes means that a person's past record can have an impact on their job prospects throughout their working life. A criminal record makes it difficult to get a job within Northern Ireland, and also makes it harder to take advantage of opportunities to emigrate to countries such as Canada and Australia that have many relatively low skilled, high paid jobs in certain sectors such as mining.

Stakeholders believed that the increase in the proportion of young people who are NEET was notable after the year 2000, well before the present economic downturn, and therefore the root causes of the problem pre-date the recession. However, that is not to say that present conditions are not making it harder for young people to enter the labour market. As more experienced workers, and those who do have qualifications, are losing their jobs, they are downshifting into the kind of jobs that might traditionally have been taken by a school leaver with few formal qualifications, such as entry level retail and hospitality work. Increasing casualization and part-time working also makes it difficult to establish a strong employment history, which further damages future employment prospects. The economic downturn has also accelerated the decline of industries that less academic young males might previously have pursued vocational paths in, and fewer employers are able to offer apprenticeships. Young males leaving school may find themselves unable to pursue the occupations they wanted to, such as joinery or bricklaying, and find it difficult to identify an alternative. They are less likely to contemplate non-stereotypical alternatives unless specifically encouraged to do so, but such encouragement is not always forthcoming from parents, teachers or peers. At this stage it is difficult to determine if some of these changes are purely cyclical (and will reverse when the economy becomes more buoyant) or whether they represent long term structural changes.

³¹ While providing very useful insights, the number of stakeholders interviewed was limited, so conclusions from these interviews need to be treated with some care.

Young people in rural areas in particular face a lack of opportunities, particularly with the decline of industries such as construction, although they also face less competition for the opportunities that do exist than their urban counterparts. However, a key problem for rural youth is transport to access employment or training. Even if they can afford to cover fares, or are participating in a programme that covers such costs, there may not be public transport at suitable times. High car insurance costs for young people (in addition to the high cost of fuel) also makes driving a less accessible option; the location of some jobs are often easier to access by car. For a programme to successfully recruit and retain young people, it may be necessary to improve access to different means of transport.

Policy responses to age inequalities in employment

The Northern Ireland Executive's overarching strategy for tackling the issue of young people not in education, employment or training (NEETs) is *Pathways to Success*³², which was launched in May 2012. The starting point for the strategy is that being NEET is caused by personal and social factors more than the prevailing economic conditions, and it stresses early year's provision, family support and educational outcomes as the key solutions to this, as well as more effective multi-agency working across the sector. The strategy also outlines a number of measures that will be necessary to support its implementation; these include better childcare provision, better transport and access for young people in rural areas, opportunities for creative and sporting activities, and reintegration of young people with experience of the criminal justice system or at risk of becoming involved. There is also a *Collaboration and Innovation Fund*³³, to fund initiatives that help meet the strategy's objectives.

Pathways to Success was devised in conjunction with the NEET Strategy Forum. This forum is comprised of organisations that work with NEET young people, and allowed them to have input into the work of the inter-departmental group in government who were developing the strategy. Post-publication of *Pathways*, this forum will continue to exist, in order to facilitate the collaborative approach that the strategy aims for, allow for continued representation of young people, and to oversee implementation. It is too early to draw any conclusions about the success or otherwise of the strategy as it is very much in its infancy; stakeholders consulted in the course of preparing this report are optimistic that it is a move in the right direction, although they expressed some doubts over the efficacy of any such strategy in a time of weak labour demand (see below).

While various policies were targeted at the disadvantaged young (e.g. NEETs) particularly, it was argued by policy stakeholders consulted in the course of this research that most employability programmes were 'equalities blind' in that all people can apply for most of them. However, this ignores that the way some programmes are marketed or implemented may discourage certain groups from applying or remaining in a programme. Examples of employability programmes aimed specifically at young people in Northern Ireland are:

³² <http://www.delni.gov.uk/es/index/successthroughskills/pathways-to-success.htm>

³³ <http://www.delni.gov.uk/collaboration-and-innovation-fund>

- *Training for Success*³⁴ guarantees a training place to 16 and 17 years old school leavers, with support to keep participants engaged; enhanced training fees and disability supplements are paid to training suppliers to provide any additional resources needed. Eligibility for this is extended up to age 22 years old for those with a disability, and up to age 24 years old for those leaving care.³⁵
- *Youth Employment Scheme*³⁶ is aimed at those aged 18-24 years old. This programme initially focuses on employability skills and additional support needed to become work ready, and then offers work experience in charitable, private or social economy organisations, followed by longer placements that allow participants to gain qualifications while they work. Employers are offered subsidies to take on young people in this final stage.

For 16-19 year olds who stay in school, go to FE College, or participate in *Training for Success*, an *Education Maintenance Allowance*³⁷ is available. This scheme has existed since 2004, and is currently a means tested payment of up to £30 per week. From the start of the academic year 2013/14, the scheme will operate slightly differently, reducing coverage to the most disadvantaged families, with the £10 and £20 bands withdrawn and the annual bonus reduced from £300 to £200.³⁸

There are also some programmes aimed at encouraging older people to re-enter or remain in employment, such as *Step Ahead 50+*³⁹, which provides temporary employment to those aged 50 years old and over who have been claiming benefit for one year or more, in order to provide them with recent work experience and a recent job history.

Improving policy to tackle age inequalities in employment

Stakeholders had a cautiously positive response to the Government's NEET strategy. On the positive side, it was agreed that such a strategy was much needed, and the youth sector had not necessarily been very effective in the past, particularly statutory programmes, which had a high dropout rate. The move towards more collaborative working was welcomed, and it was also deemed to be positive that the strategy has been (and its implementation continues to be) steered by a strategy group drawn from across the sector. It is also important that the strategy is cross-departmental, as no single department can tackle the issue within its own remit. It was certainly apparent that many of the issues raised by stakeholders around the causes of NEET seem to be at least acknowledged in the strategy.

³⁴ <http://www.delni.gov.uk/trainingforsuccess>

³⁵ The European Union has strongly supported the concept of a Youth Guarantee: "Youth guarantee"
<http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2012:0729:FIN:EN:PDF>

³⁶ <http://www.delni.gov.uk/youthemploymentscheme>

³⁷ <http://www.nidirect.gov.uk/education-maintenance-allowance-ema>

³⁸ DEL Oral Statement: Future of the Education Maintenance Allowance, Tuesday 12 February 2013.

³⁹ <http://www.delni.gov.uk/es/stw-step-ahead-50>

However, some caution was also expressed. Firstly, no matter how effective the strategy is, there is unlikely to be a substantial fall in the proportion of NEET young people without the economy picking up as the lack of suitable jobs is an issue. Secondly, the aims of the strategy are in some ways contrary to the wider direction of policy under welfare reform, and the impact of this wider context on young people needs to be considered. Thirdly, although it is important to reduce the proportion of young people who are NEET, this may distract the government from helping young people as a whole. There are many young people who are not technically NEET – they are perhaps participating in some kind of training or education, and thus not classified in this way – but still face a lot of the same life issues, and are in need of support to achieve successful outcomes. Government should not forget these young people in pursuit of a NEET-orientated target.

Stakeholders highlighted a number of examples of good practice from GB, although these may be affected by the recent move towards cuts to services. For example, the Future Jobs Fund was given as an example of a policy to support young people in GB but not Northern Ireland; however, this fund has since been discontinued in GB. Although the Northern Ireland Government's strategy on NEETs is now broadly similar to that in the rest of the UK, it took longer to get onto the agenda in Northern Ireland, and the strategy itself is a very recent development. It was also observed that there are better mechanisms in place in other parts of the UK to track young people after they leave school; indeed, this is part of the new NEET strategy in Northern Ireland, to improve service planning and delivery.

Case studies: employability services available to young people outside the statutory provision

Barnardo's provide a range of services to children and young people covering a variety of situations, and NEETs are a key client group, to whom Barnardo's offer vocational training and work-based learning opportunities. These include Dr B's Kitchen, which trains young people with learning disabilities for employment in the hospitality industry, and provides support for young people leaving care.

Youth Action has six strands of work, one of which is their work with young males (they also work with young females, and their training strand works with NEETs). The Young Men Unit works with young males to explore masculinity as it impacts upon a number of aspects of their lives, such as education, employment, fatherhood and violence. The aim of the project is holistic rather than employment focussed – to improve the well-being of young males generally – but employment plays a part in this, as having a job is perceived to be a key aspect of masculinity. Youth Action encourages young males to explore non-traditional paths, and have a volunteering scheme that allows them to shadow Youth Action's own youth workers, and work towards qualifications.

Include Youth work with 16-21 year olds, mostly those who are in or leaving care, but also other vulnerable young people referred by social workers. Their main programme is *Give and Take*, which is funded by the European Social Fund, and works with young people for 12-18 months, with the intention of moving them into mainstream education, training or employment (in 2012 57% did so, Include Youth, 2012). Programme activities include pre-vocational training, work placements and tasters, personal development, and basic

skills such as literacy. Include Youth are also a specialist support provider for participants in the DEL Training for Success Programme outlined above, and are involved in the Health and Social Care Trusts' employability service for care leavers.

Opportunity Youth provide, among other services, mentoring and support for care leavers and young people who are isolated for reasons such as behavioural or emotional issues, or cultural differences. They are also specialist support providers for DEL and involved in the Belfast HSCT's employability scheme for care leavers.

Summary

The key points from the analyses against the equality ground of age are summarised below. A total of 10 inequalities were identified. These inequalities are presented in the table below; followed by a summary of the Chapter's findings.

The three age groups considered in the analysis are: 18-24 years old; 25-49 years old; and 50-64 years old.

Age Inequalities in Employment:	Persistent or Emergent?
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 18-24 year olds had lower employment rates than 25-49 year olds and 50-64 year olds: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, the employment rates for 18-24 year olds were consistently lower than those for 25-49 year olds; ○ From Q1 2009 onward the employment rates for 18-24 year olds were consistently lower than those for 50-64 year olds. 	Emergent / Persistent
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 18-24 year olds experienced a decrease in employment rates not seen for 25-49 year olds and 50-64 year olds: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ While the employment rates for 25-49 year olds and 50-64 year olds increased slightly, those for 18-24 year olds decreased. ○ The decrease in the employment rates for 18-24 year olds was evident from Q1 2009 when their employment rates went below those for 50-64 year olds. Prior to this date, the employment rates for 18-24 year olds were similar or higher than those for 50-64 year olds. 	Emergent
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 50-64 year olds had lower employment rates than 25-49 year olds between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. 	Persistent
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 18-24 year olds were more likely to be in part-time employment than the 	Emergent

Age Inequalities in Employment:	Persistent or Emergent?
<p>other two age groups:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Part-time employment increased over time for 18-24 year olds, this was particularly evident from Q2 2008 onwards. 	
<p>➤ 18-24 year olds had higher ILO unemployment rates than those for 25-49 year olds and 50-64 year olds:</p>	Persistent
<p>➤ 18-24 year olds experienced a greater overall increase in their rates of ILO unemployment over the period than did the 25-49 year olds and 50-64 year olds.</p>	Emergent
<p>➤ 18-24 year olds had higher rates of economic inactivity than 25-49 year olds and 50-64 year olds:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ This trend commenced at Q3 2011 – prior to this date, the rates of economic inactivity were lower or similar to those for the 50-64 year olds; ○ The differences in the rates of economic inactivity between 18-24 year olds and the 25-49 year olds and 50-64 year olds is increasing; ○ Economic inactivity of 18-24 year olds increased by 13.9 percentage points from 28.7% at Q1 2006 to 42.6% at Q1 2012. Whereas, the rates of economic inactivity for 25-49 year olds and 50-64 year olds were respectively 14.0% and 29.2% in Q1 2012. 	Emergent
<p>➤ 18-24 years old workers were paid less than the other two age groups.</p>	Persistent
<p>➤ Some degree of horizontal segregation in the labour market, in respect to industry sector employed, was observed:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ At Q1 2012 there was an under-representation (i.e. under 10.0%²⁶) of 18-24 year olds in two thirds (six out of nine) of industry sectors, compared to an under-representation of four industry sectors for those aged 25-49 years old (under 66.2%²⁸) and those aged 50-64 years old (under 23.1%³⁰); ○ Those aged 50-64 years old either maintained or increased their shares within most industry sectors between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. 	Emergent
<p>➤ A high degree of vertical segregation in the labour market, in respect to occupation group employed, was observed:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ 18-24 year olds were under-represented (i.e. under 10.0%²⁶) in higher level occupation groups such as ‘Managers and Senior Officials’, ‘Professional Occupations’ and ‘Associate and 	Persistent Emergent /

Age Inequalities in Employment:	Persistent or Emergent?
<p>Technical' occupations. Furthermore, their shares within these occupation groups decreased between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ At Q1 2012, 18-24 year olds were over-represented in 'Sales and Customer Services Occupations' and 'Elementary Occupations' given their overall share of the employed working age population (over 10.0%²⁶). However, at Q1 2006, 18-24 year olds also constituted greater shares within the 'Personal Service Occupations' and the 'Skilled Trades Occupations'. ○ In contrast, between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, 50-64 years olds increased their representative shares within all occupation groups except the 'Process, Plant and Machine Operatives' and 'Elementary Occupations'. These occupations saw increases in the representative shares of those aged 18-24 year old and 25-49 years old. 	

Economic status

- Those aged 18-24 years old, from Q4 2008 onwards, had much lower employment rates than those aged 25-49 years old or 50-64 years old.
 - The employment rates for those aged 18-24 years old fell between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, whilst employment rates increased for the 25-49 years old age group and 50-64 years old age group.
- Employment rates for both the 18-24 years old age group and the 50-64 years old age group were consistently lower than for the 25-49 years old age group between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.
 - Employment rates for the 18-24 years old age group became lower than for the 50-64 years old age group from Q1 2009 to Q1 2012.
- Those aged 18-24 years old were, from Q3 2006, consistently more likely to be in part-time employment than those aged 25-49 years old or those aged 50-64 years old.
- The ILO unemployment rates were consistently higher between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 for those aged 18-24 years old than for those aged 25-49 years old or for those aged 50-64 years old.
- Between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, ILO unemployment rates for those aged 25-49 years old and for those aged 50-64 years old increased.
 - For the 18-24 years old age group unemployment rates increased by 4.0 percentage points from 6.3% in Q1 2006 (twice the population average) to 10.3% in Q1 2012.
- Between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, economic inactivity rates for those aged 25-49 years old and those aged 50-64 years old decreased.

- Economic inactivity rates for 18-24 year olds increased by 13.9 percentage points from 28.7% at Q1 2006 to 42.6% at Q1 2012.
- The main reasons given for economic inactivity at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 were:
 - Studying for those aged 18-24 years old;
 - Caring responsibilities or long term sickness or disability for those aged 25-49 years old;
 - Long term sickness or disability or looking after family/home for those aged 50-64 years old.

Wage rates

- All age groups showed increases in gross weekly and hourly pay for all full-time workers between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.
 - Those in the 18-24 years old age group were consistently paid the least between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, and experienced the lowest wage increases.

Industry sector and occupation employment

- At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, the 18-24 years old age group was more likely to be employed in the private sector than the 25-49 years old and 50-64 years old age groups.
- At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, industry sectors showed the following:
 - An over-representation (i.e. over 15.3²⁵ at Q1 2006 and over 10.0%²⁶ at Q1 2012) of those aged 18-24 years old in: 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants'; 'Construction'; and 'Other Services'.
 - An over-representation of those aged 25-49 years old (i.e. over 63.5% at Q1 2006 and over 66.2% at Q1 2012) in: 'Manufacturing'; 'Transport and Communication'; 'Banking, Finance and Insurance etc.'; and 'Public Administration, Education and Health'.
 - An over-representation of those aged 50-64 years old (i.e. over 19.9%²⁹ at Q1 2006 and over 23.1%³⁰ at Q1 2012) in: 'Agriculture and Fishing'; 'Energy and Water'; and 'Public Administration, Education and Health'.
 - Those aged 25-49 years old made up at least half of all employees within each industry sector;
 - 'Public Administration, Education and Health' employed the largest proportion of 25-49 year olds (36.6% and 35.5%, respectively) and 50-64 year olds (39.7% and 41.5%, respectively).
 - 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' employed the largest proportion of 18-24 year olds (34.2% and 37.6%, respectively).
- At Q1 2012 those aged 18-24 years old were under-represented (i.e. under 10.0%²⁶) in two thirds of the industry sectors (six out of nine), compared to an under-representation in four industry sectors of those aged 25-49 years old and those aged 50-64 years old.
 - Those aged 50-64 years old increased their share of the workforce within most industry sectors.

- At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, the 25-49 years old age group workers made up over half of the employees within each occupation group. In addition:
 - Those aged 25-49 years old were over-represented (i.e. over 63.5%²⁷ at Q1 2006 and over 66.2%²⁸ at Q1 2012) in the top three highest level occupation groups: 'Managers and Senior Officials'; 'Professional Occupations'; and 'Associate, Professional and Technical' occupations. 'Professional Occupations' was the most common occupation for this age group at Q1 2012.
 - The highest level occupation group: 'Managers and Senior Officials' also had an over-representation of those aged 50-64 years old.
 - Whilst at Q1 2006, the over-representation of those aged 25-49 years old in 'Managers and Senior Officials' was greater, compared to their share of those in employment, than the over-representation of 50-64 year olds, in Q1 2012 this had reversed – those aged 50-64 year olds were more highly over-represented in 'Managers and Senior Officials' occupations.
- At Q1 2006, the occupation group which constituted the largest proportion of all age groups was 'Skilled Trades Occupations'. However, at Q1 2012, while this remained the most common type of occupation group for 50-64 year olds, other occupation groups occupied greater proportions of 18-24 year olds ('Sales and Customer Services Occupations') and 25-49 year olds workers
- At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, 18-24 year olds were under-represented in higher level occupation groups such as 'Managers and Senior Officials', 'Professional Occupations', 'Associate and Technical' and also in the lower level 'Process, Plant and Machines Operatives' occupations. Furthermore, their shares within these occupation groups decreased between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.
 - At Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, 18-24 year olds were over-represented (i.e. over 15.3%²⁵ at Q1 2006 and over 10.0%²⁶ at Q1 2012) in four mid to low level occupation groups: 'Skilled Trades Occupations'; 'Personal Service Occupations'; 'Sales and Customer Services Occupations'; and 'Elementary Occupations'. However, at Q1 2006, 18-24 year olds also constituted greater shares within the 'Personal Service Occupations' and the 'Skilled Trades Occupations'.
 - In contrast, between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, 50-64 years olds increased their representative shares within all occupation groups except the 'Process, Plant and Machine Operatives' and 'Elementary Occupations'. These occupations saw increases in the representative shares of those aged 18-24 year old and 25-49 years old.
- For those aged 18-24 years old and 25-49 years old the rates of self employment reduced, whilst those aged 50-64 years old experienced increases.
 - 18-24 year olds experienced the lowest rates of self employment at both time points.
 - 50-64 years olds had the highest rates of self-employment at both time points.

Attitudes

- In the 2011 Equality Awareness Survey (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012), age was the second most common response when respondents were asked what they felt was an important equality issue.
- With regard to those aged under 25 years old:

- A total of 77% respondents reported positive feelings and 5% reported negative feelings towards this age group. Some 10% of respondents thought this age group was treated unfairly in general (5% said this group were treated the most unfairly – a decrease of 1 percentage point since 2008); of these 40% said that this unfair treatment occurred at work, suggesting a low perception of unfair treatment at work.
- A total of 12% of those aged 16-29 years old reported personal experience of unfair treatment at work.
- With regard to those aged 65-70 years old and over:
 - A total of 81% of respondents reported positive feelings and 4% negative feels toward those aged 70 years old and over. Although 15% thought that people aged 70 years old and over were treated unfairly, this was more likely to be in relation to access to public services.
 - A total of 5% of those aged 65 years old and over reported personal experience of unfair treatment at work.

Barriers and Enablers

- The Northern Ireland Executive’s overarching strategy for tackling the issue of young people not in education, employment or training (NEETs) is *Pathways to Success*⁴⁰.
 - The strategy stresses early year’s provision, family support and educational outcomes as key solutions, as well as more effective multi-agency working across the sector.
 - The *Collaboration and Innovation Fund*⁴¹ funds initiatives that help meet the strategy’s objectives.
- The NEET Strategy Forum is comprised of organisations that work with NEETs, and allowed them to have input into the work of the inter-departmental group developing the strategy.
- Stakeholders argued that most employability programmes were ‘equalities blind’ in that all people can apply for most programmes. However, the marketing of some programmes may discourage certain groups from applying. Employability programmes aimed at young people include: *Training for Success*⁴²; the *Youth Employment Scheme*⁴³; and the *Education Maintenance Allowance*.
- *Step Ahead 50+*⁴⁴ provides temporary employment to those aged 50 years old and over who have been claiming benefit for one year or more, thus providing recent work experience and job history.
- Stakeholders had a cautiously positive response to the Government’s NEET strategy.
 - It was agreed that such a strategy was much needed, and the youth sector had not necessarily been very effective in the past.
 - The move towards more collaborative working was welcomed, and it is also positive that the strategy has been steered by a strategy group drawn from across the sector.

⁴⁰ <http://www.delni.gov.uk/es/index/successthroughskills/pathways-to-success.htm>

⁴¹ <http://www.delni.gov.uk/collaboration-and-innovation-fund>

⁴² <http://www.delni.gov.uk/trainingforsuccess>

⁴³ <http://www.delni.gov.uk/youthemploymentscheme>

⁴⁴ <http://www.delni.gov.uk/es/stw-step-ahead-50>

- It is important that the strategy is cross-departmental, as no single department can tackle the issue within its own remit.
- However, some caution was also expressed.
 - There is unlikely to be a substantial fall in the proportion of NEET young people without the economy picking up as the lack of suitable jobs is an issue.
 - The impact on young people of the wider direction of welfare reform has to be considered.
 - The focus on reducing the proportion of NEETs may distract the government from helping young people as a whole. Many young people who are not technically NEET still face a lot of the same life issues, and are in need of support to achieve successful outcomes.
- It took longer to get a strategy on NEETs onto the agenda in Northern Ireland, and the strategy itself is a very recent development.
 - Stakeholders observed that there are better mechanisms in other parts of the UK to track school leavers; this is part of the new NEET strategy in Northern Ireland.
- **Barnardo's** offer vocational training and work-based learning opportunities to NEETs. Dr B's Kitchen, trains young people with learning disabilities for employment in the hospitality industry, and provides support for young people leaving care.
- **Youth Action** encourages young males to explore non-traditional employment paths, and have a volunteering scheme shadowing Youth Action's youth workers, and working towards qualifications.
- **Include Youth** work with young people through their programme *Give and Take* to move them into mainstream education, training or employment. Include Youth are a specialist support provider in the DEL Training for Success Programme, and are involved in employability services for care leavers.
- **Opportunity Youth** provide mentoring and support for care leavers and young people who are isolated. They are also specialist support providers for DEL and involved in the Belfast HSCT's employability scheme for care leavers.

Chapter 5. Religious Background Inequalities in Employment

Introduction

This report provides a picture of patterns and trends in employment and non-employment in Northern Ireland, establishing any key inequalities (data permitting) that are evident in Northern Ireland for each equality ground as identified by Section 75 of the Northern Ireland Act 1998. This chapter provides evidence of inequalities drawn from quantitative data (primarily from analyses of the Labour Force Survey) which is supplemented by stakeholder interviews and literature review for this equality ground. It is important to stress that no one individual belongs solely to one equality group, and that everyone has multiple identities. Consideration was given to multiple identities where quantitative data was available and allowed for meaningful analyses. Limited analyses across a range of multiple inequalities are reported in Chapter 12. The distillation of the most substantive / overarching key employment inequalities (across all equality grounds) in Northern Ireland are summarised in Chapter 13.

This chapter reviews how groups in the working age population in Northern Ireland with different religious backgrounds fare in relation to the labour market. Firstly the literature around this topic is considered, focusing on Northern Ireland, but also considering the limited work on this concerning the rest of the UK. This is followed by a summary of labour market trends, over the period 2006 to 2012, across a number of variables: economic status; hours worked; median gross wages; industry sector; and occupation type. The chapter then considers the responses of policymakers to the issue of religious background inequalities in employment and lastly draws conclusions.

The main source of data for the analysis is the Labour Force Survey (LFS), 2006 to 2012. Some information on attitudes was also drawn from the Equality Commission for Northern Ireland's Equality Awareness Survey (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012), and from the Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey (NILTS) (Devine, 2010). Additionally, the Census 2011 for Northern Ireland was used to ascertain the reported religious background composition (NISRA, 2013c).

The distribution of religious background in Northern Ireland according to the Census 2011 for Northern Ireland is displayed in Table 5.1 for both all usual residents and those aged 16-64 years old for males and 16-59 years old for females (the working age population reported on in this report). As can be seen for both sets of data the number of those who listed a religion or religious background other than 'Roman Catholic' or 'Catholic', and 'Protestant and Other Christian (including Christian related)' is small. Due to the small numbers of those who indicated that they were from 'Other religions' or 'No religion', these groups were not included within the data analysis. Therefore, the quantitative data presented and discussed in the present chapter is limited to the categories defined in the LFS: 'Roman Catholic' and 'Protestant' backgrounds, (hereafter referred to as 'Catholic' and 'Protestant').

Table 5.1: Distribution of Religious Background in Northern Ireland, (source NISRA, 2012).

Religion or religion brought up in	All usual residents		Working age population (16-64 years old*)	
	N	%	N	%
Roman Catholic	817,385	45.1	520,561	46.5
Protestant or Other Christian (including Christian related)	875,717	48.4	529,403	47.3
Other religions	16,592	0.9	11,278	1.0
No religion	101,169	5.6	58,468	5.2

* This is the age range for which LFS data is utilised throughout this report.

The general picture presented here is that, although Catholics have historically experienced disadvantage in the labour market, in terms of having higher ILO unemployment and economic inactivity rates, there appears to have been some convergence in recent years. Of those who are in employment, there is very little difference between those of a Catholic or Protestant background with regard to pay, type of job or industry employed in; although a very slight degree of segregation in employment may still be evident. This convergence and similarity could perhaps be attributed to improvements in the educational attainments of Catholics, and to workforce monitoring and anti-discrimination obligations placed upon employers.

Literature review on religious background inequalities in employment

Analysis of LFS data over the period 1992-2011 suggests that Catholics in Northern Ireland have typically had lower labour market participation and greater labour market disadvantage, although this is now converging (Office of First Minister and deputy First Minister (OFMdFM), 2013a). Analysis of data from the 1991 Census suggested that, even controlling for other factors that contribute to employment outcomes such as qualifications, Catholics were over-represented among the jobless and under-represented among higher status jobs, and that this penalty was much greater for males (Borooah, 1999). The situation appears to have changed since then. The higher economic activity rate of Protestants has persisted over time, although the gap has narrowed from 11 percentage points in 1992 to 4 percentage points in 2011 (OFMdFM, 2012). Differences in employment status are complex; Catholics are most represented within both Elementary and Professional occupations (Ibid.). Analysis of LFS data on the relative impact of the recession (from 2006 to the end of 2009) on Catholics and Protestants suggested that Catholics may have been slightly worse affected, although this seemed to be due primarily to differences in the age structure of the two groups and the concentration of Catholics in the relatively badly affected construction sector (McQuaid et al., 2010).

The results from workplace monitoring surveys⁴⁵ suggest that the Catholic proportion of the workforce is increasing. The composition of the monitored workforce when the first monitoring report was published in 1991 was 65.1% Protestant and 34.9% Catholic workers (Russell, 2012a); by 2011 the Catholic workers share had risen to 46.3% (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012b). Key factors behind this are likely to be: demographic, a rise in the Catholic share of the working age population; educational, as more of those from a Catholic background are going to university; structural and economic, such as changes to the economy and labour market and the decline of particular sectors or industries (Ibid.). The Equality Commission for Northern Ireland also compared the profile of applicants and appointees over the period 1991 to 2010, and found that these profiles broadly match. In this report 'year-on-year figures for the private sector show[ed] that the Protestant proportion of the appointments... was slightly lower (approximately 1 [percentage points lower] relative to applications over most years since 2004' (pg. 2). With regard to the public sector, 'with the exception of 2008 and 2009. Year-on-year data... since 1997, indicated that the Protestant proportion of annual appointments [was] around 2-3 [percentage points] lower than the Protestant proportion of applications' (ibid.)⁴⁶. This suggests that there has not been systematic discrimination against a particular religious background at the hiring stage, at least at an aggregate level.

In addition to the data generated by official monitoring obligations, OFMdFM produces an annual report of religious inequalities in employment from 1990 to the present day, based on the LFS. The most recent report (OFMdFM, 2013a) suggests that Catholic workers have, and have persistently had over the period, a higher economic inactivity rate, but notes the huge increase in numbers of working-age and employed Catholics. Since 1992 there has been an increase of 123,000 Catholic workers in employment, compared with an increase of 7,000 Protestant workers. OFMdFM is also responsible for collecting the 'Good Relations' statistics, which draw on various secondary sources (such as the NILTS) to give a picture of the participation of religious and minority ethnic groups in economic, political and social life. The most recent figures from the NILTS, as published in the *Good Relations Indicators* by the OFMdFM (OFMdFM, 2013b) suggest that the majority of respondents would prefer to work in a mixed religion workplace and would not avoid mainly Protestant or Catholic areas; 94% of people preferred to work in a mixed religion workplace in 2010 (compared with 90% in 2006), and only 24% of Catholics and 27% of Protestants say they would avoid working in a mainly Protestant/Catholic area (compared with 36% and 33% respectively in 2006).

Some previous research has suggested that, although aggregate figures show quite an even balance of Protestants and Catholics in the monitored workforce as a whole, this disguises inequalities across grades within the monitored workforce, as well as inequalities in non-monitored workplaces (Committee on the Administration of Justice, 2006). However, there is a lack of up to date research to indicate whether this is still the case; the analysis presented later in this chapter investigates inequalities between Catholics and Protestants across the labour market as a whole.

A survey of 2500 staff in a large retail organisation in Northern Ireland found that sectarianism was by far the most common form of harassment (Trademark, 2012). Of the 13% who had personally experienced

⁴⁵ Certain employers are legally required to submit information about the composition of their workforces with respect to religious background; see section on policy responses below.

⁴⁶ A decline in the Protestant proportion means a commensurate rise in the Catholic share.

harassment on any issue (325 respondents), 44% had experienced sectarianism (143 respondents), compared with 23% who had experienced racism (75 respondents), 27% sexism (88 respondents) and 6% ageism (20 respondents). The authors of Trademark (2012) argue that the low number of complaints and cases at tribunal is not necessarily indicative of harmonious workplaces and that it could equally be taken as evidence of a culture of fear in coming forward about sectarian harassment and the qualitative research undertaken alongside the quantitative survey suggested that such a culture may be present in some workplaces. Previous qualitative research with employers, Trade Union representatives and young employees in interface areas of Belfast suggested that there are sectarian tensions within the workplace, and that employers are to some extent in denial about these, focusing on the most ostensible displays (e.g. items of clothing), but not acknowledging the stress, absence and employee turnover caused by more subtle or hidden forms such as verbal abuse (Hargie et al., 2006).

Other research conducted previously in Northern Ireland has suggested that religious background can affect job search and the opportunities perceived to be open to job seekers. Research on the experiences of young people living in interface areas of Belfast found that they may have barriers to work in terms of not wanting to enter a workplace perceived to be the domain of another religious group and that they were unwilling to cross-interface areas because of fear of attack. Most however may be willing to work in a neutral area with a mixed workforce (Hargie et al., 2006). Green et al. (2005) highlight how different factors such as limited mobility and lack of confidence intertwine with religious factors to limit the perceived job opportunities open to young people living in Belfast. Those young people who had a greater knowledge of the geography of Belfast and previous employment experience in different neighbourhoods perceived a greater number of opportunities open to them and were willing to travel further for work.

Currently there is a lack of consensus as to the existence of data on the extent of labour market disadvantage related to religious background in the UK as a whole. Researchers such as Woodhead (2009) suggest that there is a lack of data whilst others, for example Weller (2011), have argued that there is an evidence base, albeit patchy. Weller (2011) argues that some surveys do ask about religious background, and that this could be used alongside data from tribunals and qualitative studies to identify patterns and trends in religious discrimination. However, there are still many gaps in the evidence: it is only a minority of large-scale studies that ask about religious background; qualitative studies of experience of discrimination pertain to a subjective, perceived discrimination rather than a universal definition; increases in tribunal frequency may indicate increased awareness of legal remedies for discrimination rather than increases in discrimination itself; and that there is a lack of comparative research on religious discrimination and the best way to tackle it.

Some legal cases regarding religious discrimination have been discussed in the academic literature. For example, in England, the case of a registrar dismissed for refusing to perform civil partnership ceremonies, and a therapist dismissed for refusing to provide counselling to homosexual couples, both of whom claimed that their dismissal constituted religious discrimination (Vickers, 2010). The issue of religious discrimination has also been discussed in relation to employment dismissals or school suspensions for wearing religious symbols (Hatzis, 2011; Howard, 2011).

As regards Northern Ireland, Fair Employment Tribunal decisions, as well as settlements reached in relation to religious/political opinion discrimination, complaints supported by the Equality Commission also reveal the nature and extent of discrimination in this area.⁴⁷ Statistics from the Office of the Industrial Tribunals and the Fair Employment Tribunal (OITFET) over the last decade show a decreasing number of cases and complaints being registered with the Fair Employment Tribunal (FET).⁴⁸

Recent trends in religious background inequalities in employment in Northern Ireland

Economic status

A summary of economic status by Catholic and Protestant background is presented in Table 5.2 for Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. Table 5.2 shows that, with regard to the overall population, the rates of employment for Protestants were higher than for Catholics at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. However, the difference in respect of the employment rates for Protestants and Catholics narrowed from 7.0 percentage points in Q1 2006 to 5.0 percentage points in Q1 2012. The rate of ILO unemployment showed that Catholics were slightly more likely to be ILO unemployed at both time points; however, the difference in the rates of ILO unemployment for Catholics and Protestants reduced from 0.5 percentage points to 0.3 percentage points from Q1 2006 to Q1 2012. With regard to the rates of economic inactivity, Catholics were more likely to be classed as economically inactive at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 than Protestants. However, the difference in the rates of economic inactivity for the two religious backgrounds reduced from 6.5 percentage points in Q1 2006 to 4.7 percentage points in Q1 2012.

At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 Protestants retained a larger share of those 'in employment'; this difference decreased over time from 14.0 percentage points at Q1 2006 to 4.8 percentage points at Q1 2012. In terms of ILO unemployment, Protestants held a slightly greater share than Catholics in Q1 2006 (50.6% and 49.4% respectively). This reversed in 2012 with Protestants holding a smaller share of the ILO unemployed category than Catholics (49.4% and 50.6% respectively). With regard to shares of the economic inactivity status, Catholics had a slightly greater share than Protestants in Q1 2006 (the difference was 2.6 percentage points); at Q1 2012 the difference had increased to (8.2 percentage points); caused by a corresponding increase in the Catholic share and decrease in the Protestant share of the economically inactive status category.

⁴⁷ See for example, *ECNI Decisions and Settlements Review*, published on an annual basis by ECNI since 2005, http://www.equalityni.org/sections/default.asp?secid=8&cms=Publications_General_commission+supported+cases&cm sid=7_36_983&id=983

⁴⁸ See *OITFET annual report 2012/13*. Statistics show that 140 FET cases and complaints were registered with the FET in 2003/04 and this fell to 140 in 2012/13. http://www.employmenttribunalsni.co.uk/oitfet_annual_report_2013.pdf

Table 5.2: Economic status by Catholic and Protestant religious background (Source: LFS Q1 2006 & Q1 2012)*

Religious Background	Q1 2006				Q1 2012			
	In employment	ILO unemployed	Economically Inactive	Total	In employment	ILO unemployed	Economically Inactive	Total
Number								
Catholic	287081	14926	138959	440966	322008	24816	132398	479222
Protestant	379783	15289	131986	527058	355101	24199	1112534	491834
Total	666864	30215	270945	968024	677109	49015	244932	971056
Percentage of Population Category								
Catholic	65.1%	3.4%	31.5%	100.0%	67.2%	5.2%	27.6%	100.0%
Protestant	72.1%	2.9%	25.0%	100.0%	72.2%	4.9%	22.9%	100.0%
Total	68.9%	3.1%	28.0%	100.0%	69.7%	5.0%	25.2%	100.0%
Percentage of Economic Status Category								
Catholic	43.0%	49.4%	51.3%	45.6%	47.6%	50.6%	54.1%	49.4%
Protestant	57.0%	50.6%	48.7%	54.4%	52.4%	49.4%	45.9%	50.6%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

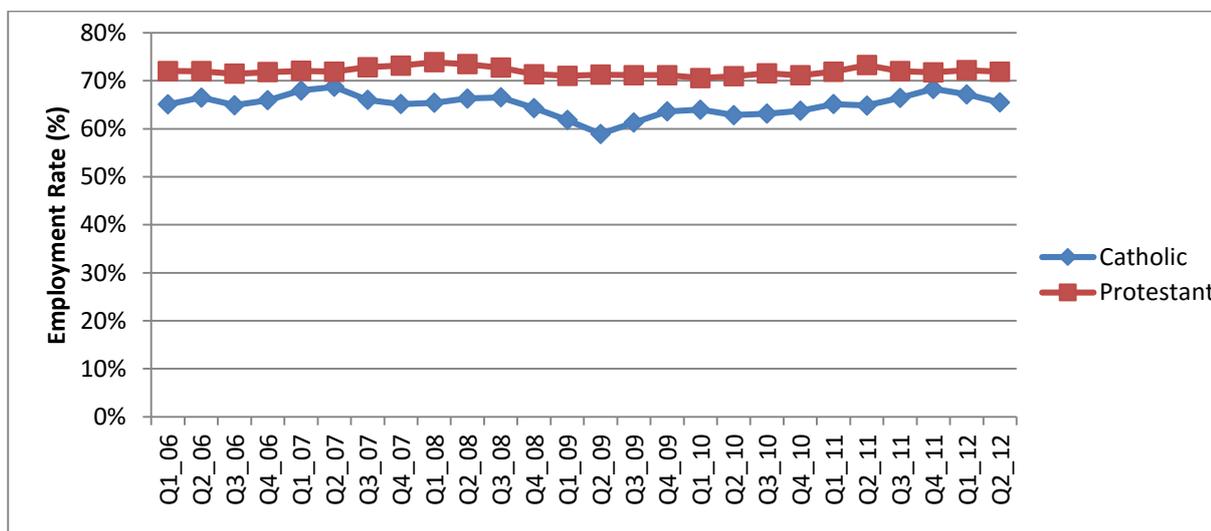
Figures 5.1 to 5.4 display trends in economic status for those of Catholic and Protestant backgrounds within the Northern Ireland working age population (the population as a whole is defined as 16-64 years old for males and 16-59 years old for females). The analysis reports for Q1 2006 to Q1 2012. However, the weighted LFS data in the figures below show trends over the period Q1 2006 to Q2 2012.

Employment

Employment rates for the working age population as a whole remained constant at 69.5% at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.

During the period of interest, Protestants were consistently more likely to be in employment than Catholics, as illustrated by Figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1: Employment rate by religious background (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



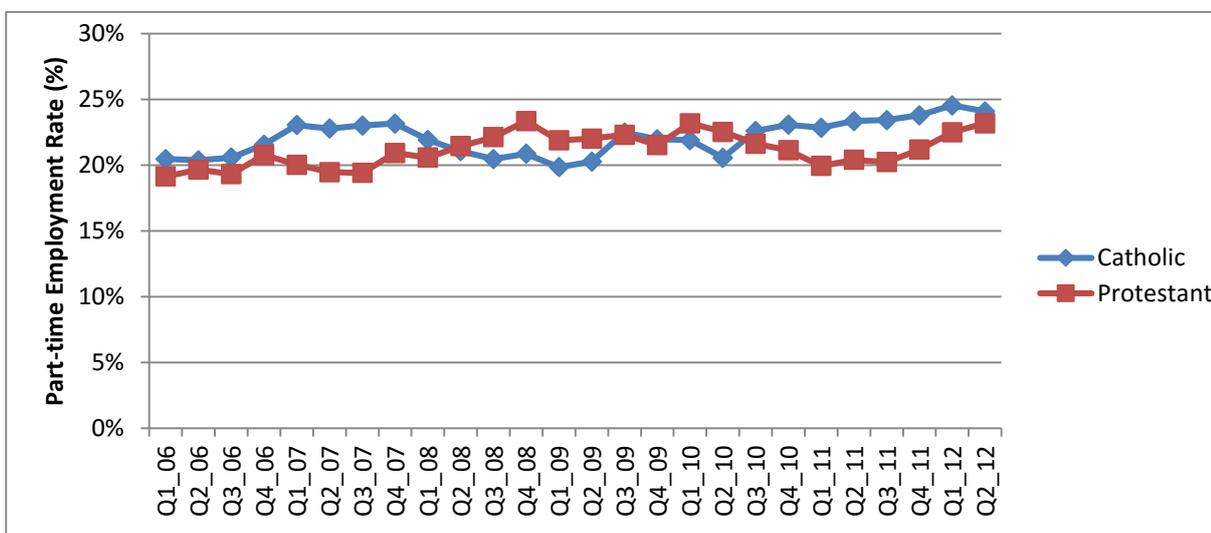
The employment rates of Protestants remained fairly constant over the period of interest and were consistently higher than the average employment rates at both Q1 2006 (72.1%) and Q1 2012 (72.2%). Whilst the employment rate of Catholics were 65.1% in Q1 2006, a notable decline was experienced during the period Q2 2007 (68.7%) to Q2 2009 (58.9%); recovery to a rate, still below the population average, of 67.2% in Q1 2012 was made.

Part-time employment

The proportion of all those employed who were working part-time increased over the period of interest, from 19.5% in Q1 2006 to 23.1% in Q1 2012, an increase of 3.6 percentage points.

There was little difference in part-time employment rates between Catholics and Protestants. There was a slight increase in part-time employment rates over the period, with rates at 20.5% and 19.1% in Q1 2006, rising to 24.5% and 22.5% in Q1 2012 for Catholics and Protestants respectively (Figure 5.2).

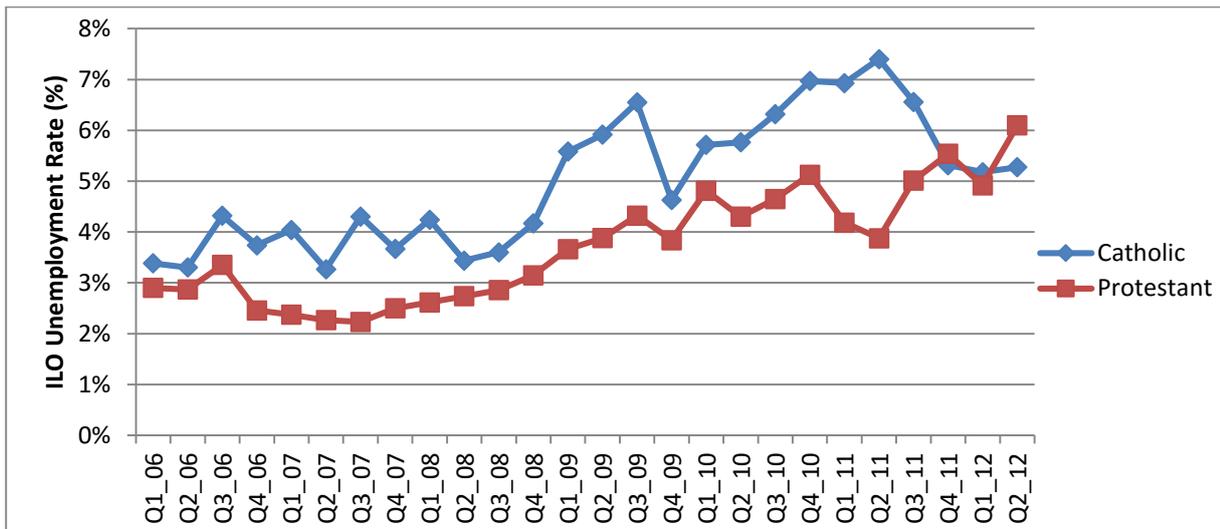
Figure 5.2: Percentage of those employed working part-time by religious background (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Unemployment

ILO unemployment among the working age population as a whole increased over the period of interest, from 3.1% in Q1 2006 to 5.2% in Q1 2012. In line with the differences in employment rates, ILO unemployment rates were consistently higher amongst Catholics than Protestants for most of the period of interest; this trend changed in Q4 2011, where unemployment rates appeared to be evening out (Figure 5.3). For Protestants, ILO unemployment rates were 2.9% in Q1 2006 and 4.9% in Q1 2012, while for Catholics they were 3.4% in Q1 2006 and 5.2% in Q1 2012.

Figure 5.3: ILO unemployment rates by religious background (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

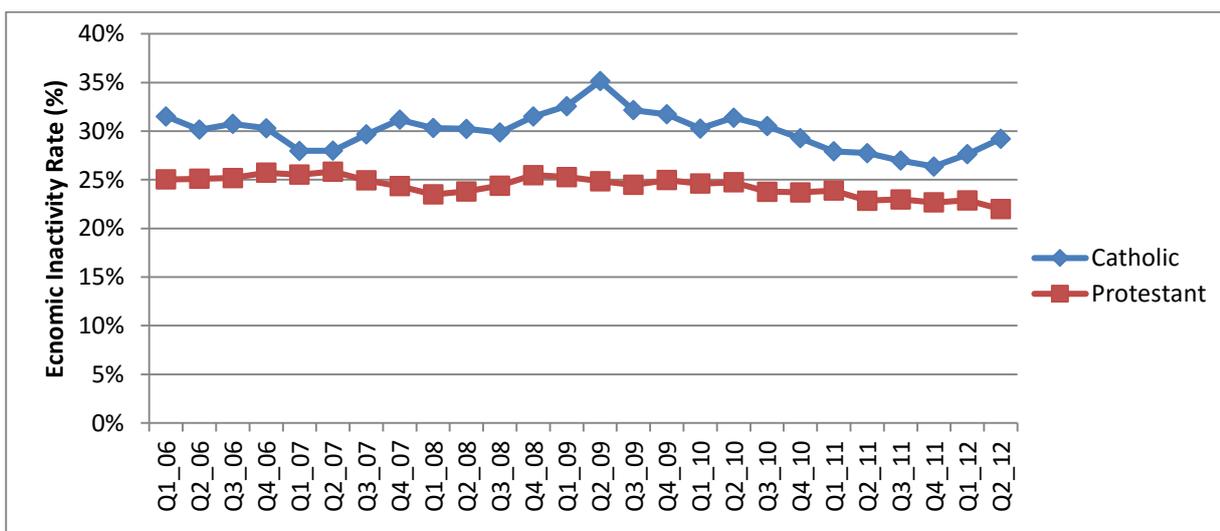


Of those Catholics who were ILO unemployed in Q1 2006, 40.8% were long term unemployed, and in Q1 2012 this percentage had risen to 50.0%. For Protestants the respective figures were 30.6% in Q1 2006 and 45.7% in Q1 2012. It would seem that Protestants suffer long term unemployment less than Catholics, although the levels are converging.

Economic Inactivity

Economic inactivity rates of Catholics were consistently higher than that of Protestants over the period from Q1 2006 to Q1 2012, as can be seen from Figure 5.4.

Figure 5.4: Economic inactivity rate by religious background (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Economic inactivity rates among the working age population as a whole fell slightly over the period of interest, from 27.4% in Q1 2006 to 25.3% in Q1 2012, a fall of 2.1 percentage points. The economic

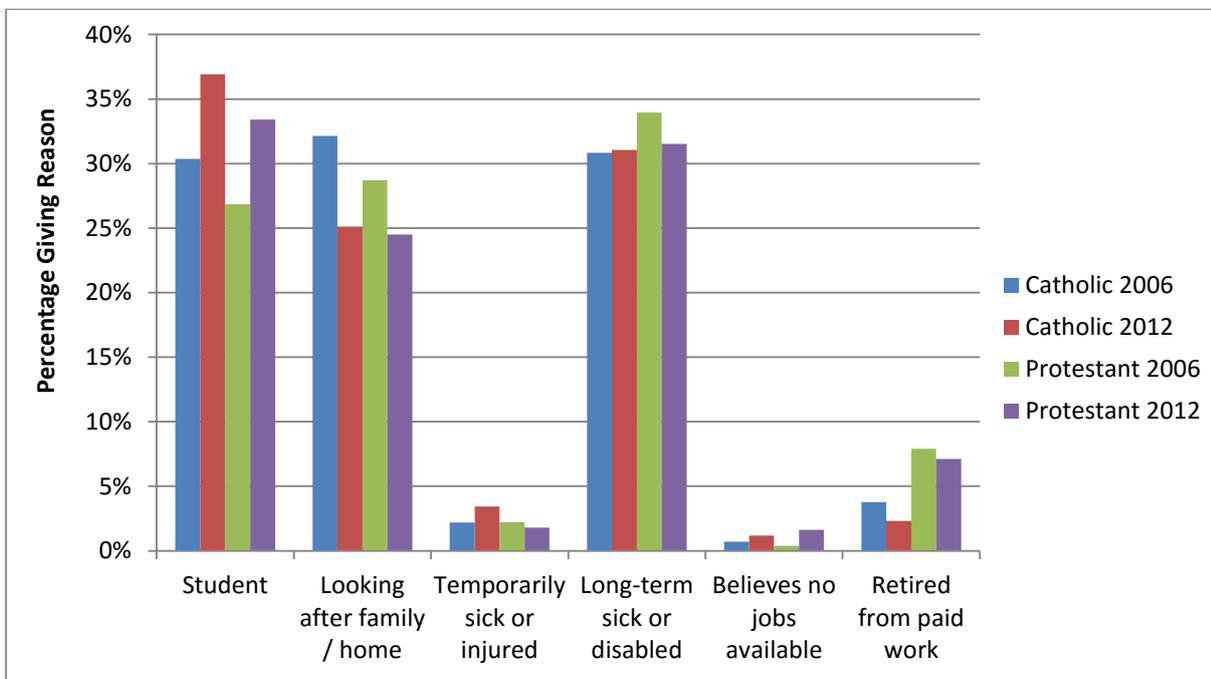
inactivity rates among Catholics were 31.5% in Q1 2006 and 27.6% in Q1 2012, a fall of 3.9 percentage points while the economic inactivity rates amongst Protestants saw a decrease of 2.1 percentage points from 25.0% in Q1 2006 to 22.9% in Q1 2012.

Main reasons for not looking for work

The main reasons given for not looking for work in the previous four weeks reported by Catholics and Protestants are displayed in Figure 5.5. At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 the top three reasons for not looking for work for Catholics were: 1. Looking after family/home; 2. Long-term sickness or disability; and 3. Being a student. Protestants gave the same three reasons but their order changed from: 1. Long-term sickness or disability; 2. Looking after family/home; and 3. Being a student at Q1 2006 to: 1. Being a student; 2. Long-term sickness or disability; and 3. Looking after family/home at Q1 2012.

Figure 5.5 also shows that there is little difference between Catholics and Protestants with regard to the proportion who cited long-term sickness or disability as a main reason for not looking for work. Differences are apparent in the proportion who cited: being a student (a greater proportion of Catholics than Protestants cited this reason at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012); and being retired from paid work (more Protestants cited this as a reason at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012). Of interest also, is that the proportions of Catholics and Protestants who cited looking after family/home as a main reason for not looking for work as they decreased for both religious backgrounds between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.

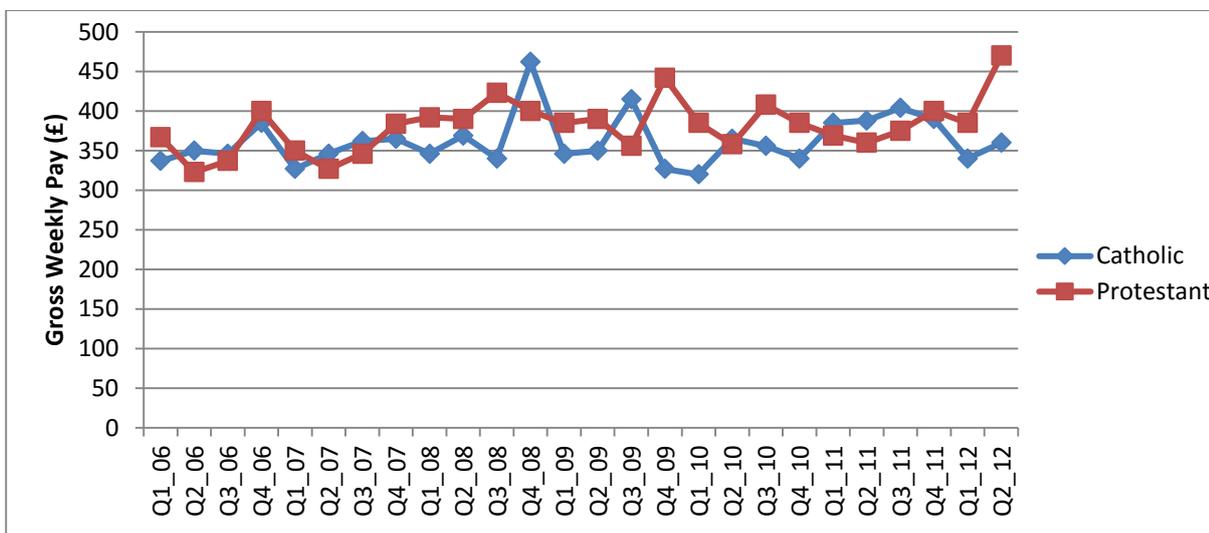
Figure 5.5: Main reason for not looking for work in the last four weeks by religious background (Source: LFS, 2006 and 2012)



Median gross weekly pay

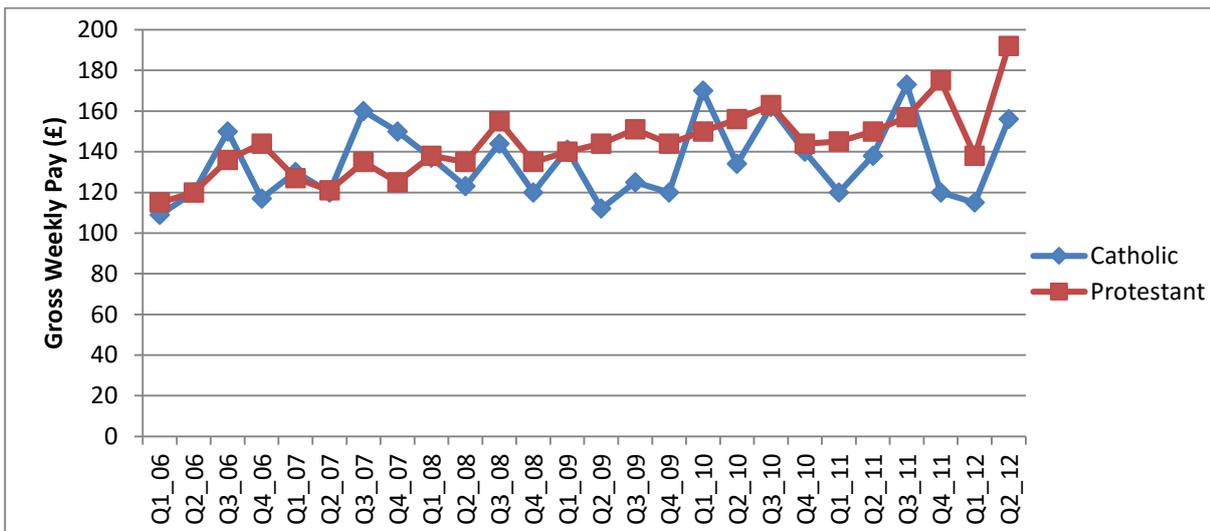
Median gross weekly pay for all full-time workers was £346.00 in Q1 2006 and £385.00 in Q1 2012, a nominal increase of £39.00 (11.3%) per week. Among full-time workers of a Protestant background, median gross weekly pay increased by £18.00 over the period, from £367.00 in Q1 2006 to £385.00 in Q1 2012. Full-time workers of a Catholic background saw a more modest increase of £3.00, from £337.00 to £340.00 over this period. Over the period of study, Catholic full-time workers were paid on average £15.64 per week less than Protestant full-time workers. However, the trends in median wage (presented in Figure 5.6a) suggest that Protestant full-time workers had no consistent advantage over the period in this respect.

Figure 5.6a: Median gross weekly pay for full-time workers by religious background (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



For part-time workers, median gross weekly pay for all workers increased by £5.00 (4.3%), from £115.00 in Q1 2006 to £120.00 in Q1 2012. As with full-time workers, neither those of a Protestant or Catholic background were consistently paid more over this period. However, whilst Protestant part-time workers saw an increase of £23.00 (from £115.00 in Q1 2006 to £138.00 in Q1 2012), Catholic part-time workers saw an increase of £6.00 (from £109.00 in Q1 2006 to £115.00 in Q1 2012) (Figure 5.6b).

Figure 5.6b: Median gross weekly pay for part-time workers by religious background (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

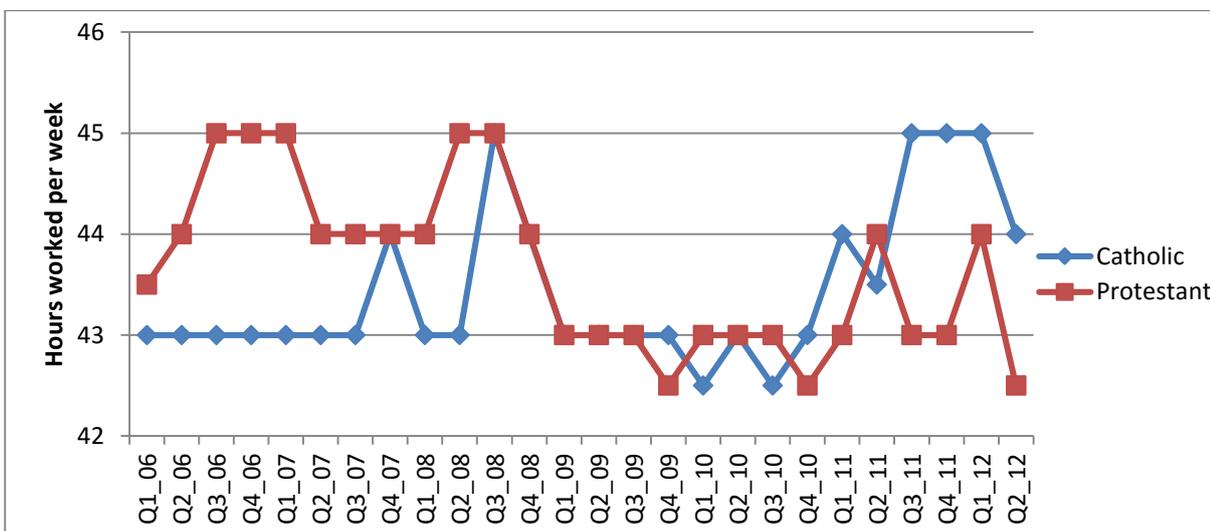


Hours worked per week including overtime

The median hours worked per week including overtime changed slightly over the period of interest for the working age population as a whole, remaining the same at 44.0 hours per week in Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 for full-time workers, but falling from 23.0 to 22.0 hours per week for part-time workers over the same period.

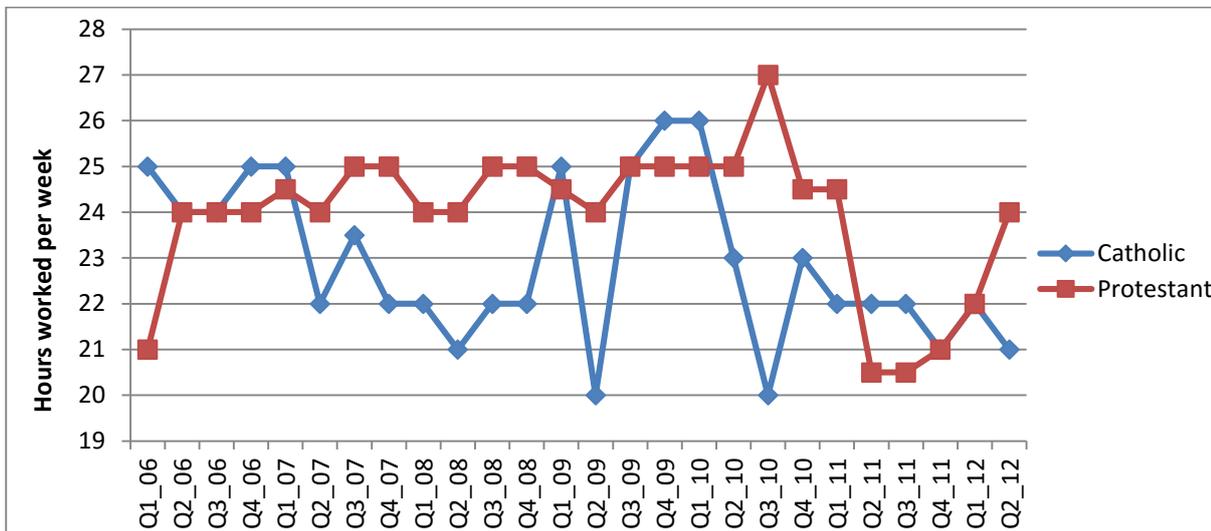
There was little difference between those of a Catholic or a Protestant background in terms of the weekly hours of full-time workers (Figure 5.7a), although by 2011 Catholic workers seemed to work around two hours per week more than Protestant workers. Protestant workers worked an average of 43.5 hours per week in Q1 2006 and 44.0 hours per week in Q1 2012, while Catholic workers worked an average of 43.0 hours per week in Q1 2006 and 45.0 hours per week in Q1 2012.

Figure 5.7a: Median hours worked per week including overtime for full-time workers by religious background (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



For part-time workers, Catholic workers worked slightly fewer hours per week than Protestant workers in most, but not all, of the time period of interest (Figure 5.7b). Catholic workers saw a fall in median hours worked per week from 25 hours per week in Q1 2006 to 22 hours in Q1 2012, while Protestant workers saw a small increase from 21 hours per week in Q1 2006 to 22 hours per week in Q1 2012.

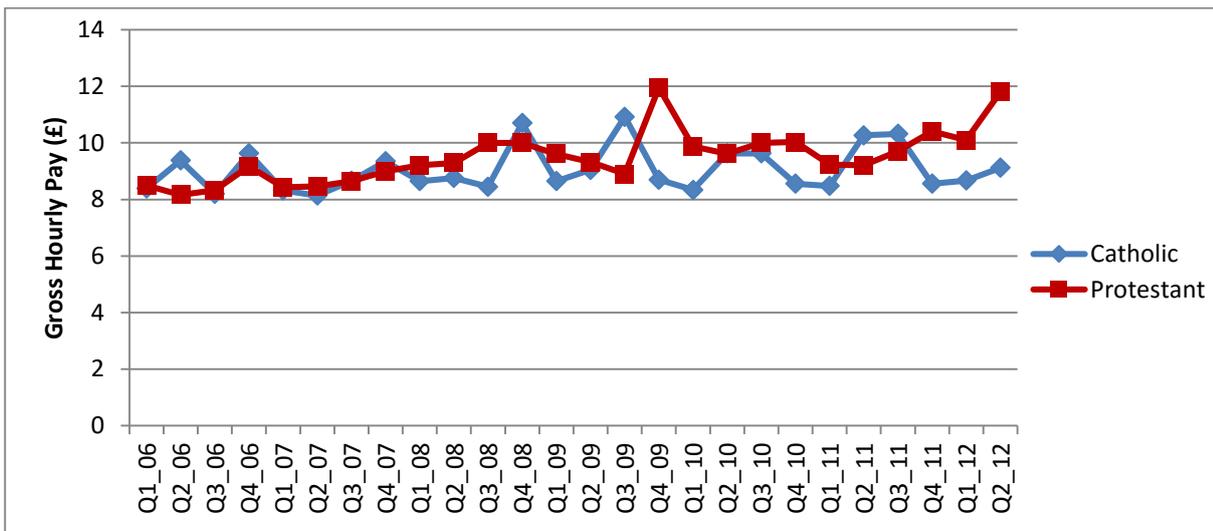
Figure 5.7b: Median hours worked per week including overtime for part-time workers by religious background (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Median gross hourly pay

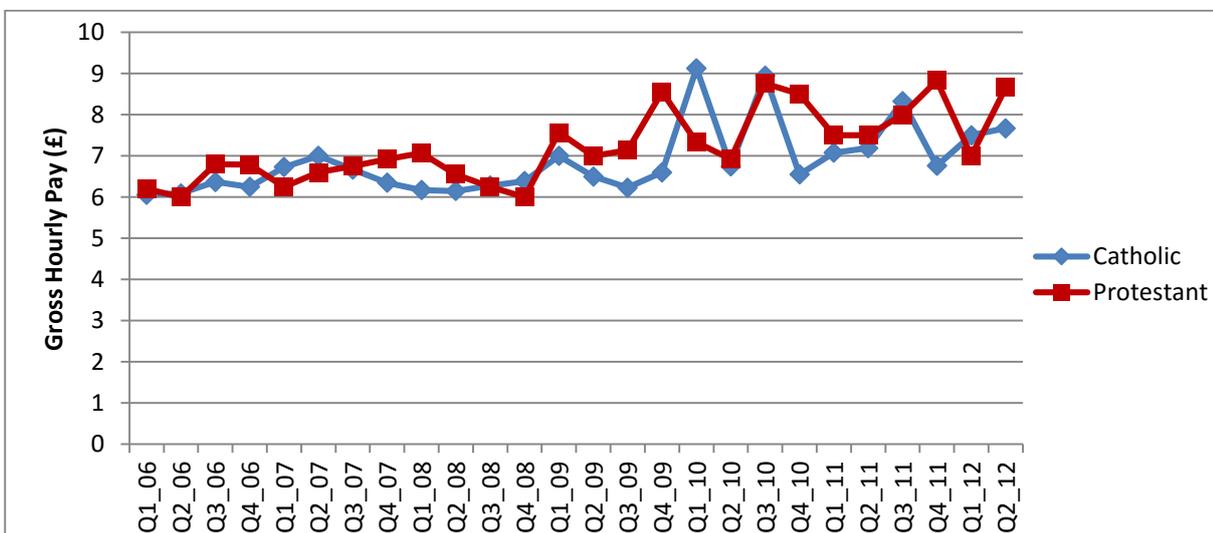
Median gross hourly pay for all full-time workers was £8.33 per hour in Q1 2006 and £9.87 per hour in Q1 2012, a nominal increase of £1.54 per hour over the period. Figure 5.8a shows trends in median gross hourly pay for Catholic and Protestant workers working full-time, and suggests that there was little difference between the two groups over this period. Median gross hourly pay among Catholic workers saw some fluctuation but little overall increase over time, from £8.39 in Q1 2006 to £8.67 in Q1 2012, while hourly pay for Protestant workers displayed a greater upward trend, from £8.50 in Q1 2006 to £10.10 in Q1 2012. For part-time workers, median gross hourly pay for all workers increased by £1.52 (26.4%), from £5.75 in Q1 2006 to £7.27 in Q1 2012.

Figure 5.8a: Median gross hourly pay for full-time workers by religious background (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



As indicated in Figure 5.8b, the general trend was upwards in median gross hourly pay for both Catholic and Protestant workers working part-time. Median gross hourly pay among Catholic workers increased from £6.06 in Q1 2006 to £7.50 in Q1 2012, and hourly pay for Protestant workers increased from £6.20 in Q1 2006 to £7.00 in Q1 2012.

Figure 5.8b: Median gross hourly pay for part-time workers by religious background (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

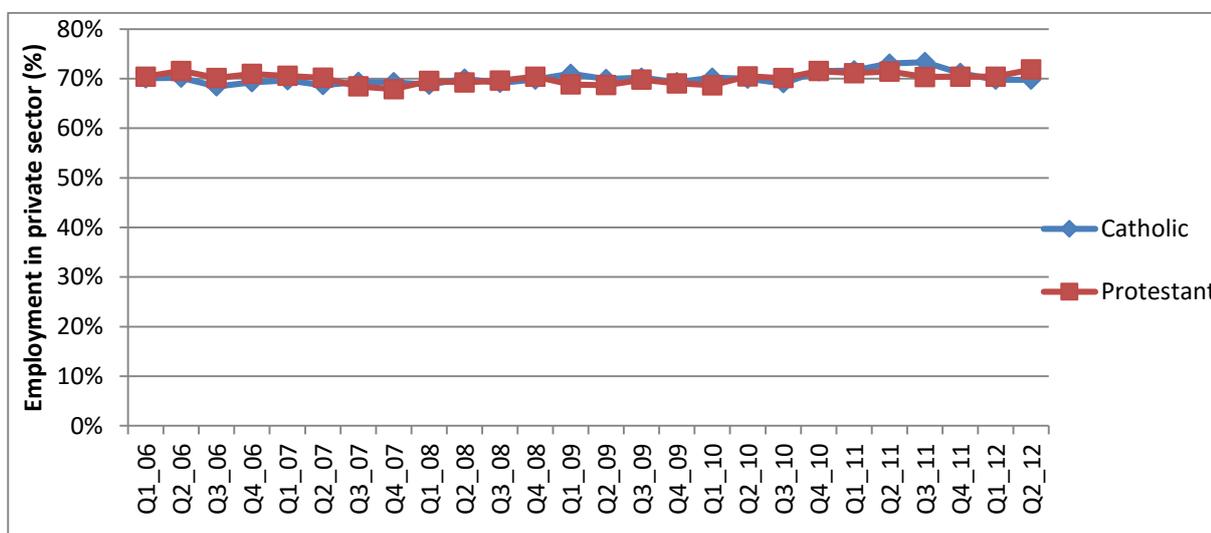


Private sector employment

Employment in the private sector stayed fairly constant for the working age population as a whole over the period of interest; it stood at 70.3% in Q1 2006 and 70.0% in Q1 2012.

There was no observable difference in the rates of employment in the private and public sectors between Catholic and Protestant workers (see Figure 5.9), rates remained around the average throughout the period of interest. The average rate of employment in the Private sector over the study period was the same for both groups at 70.1%.

Figure 5.9: Percentage in private sector employment by religious background (Source: LFS 2006-2012)



Industry sector

This section investigates the distribution in employment of workers from a Catholic or a Protestant background across industry sectors, examining the proportion employed and the median hourly gross pay in each sector for each group.

Table 5.3 shows the distribution of Catholic and Protestant workers across industry sectors, and the proportion of each background employed in each sector. The distribution of Catholic and Protestant workers across each industry sector does not differ markedly by either background or over time. At each time point, for both Catholic and Protestant workers, the sector with the highest distribution of each religious background was 'Public, Administration, Education and Health', which accounted for over a third of the Catholic and Protestant workforces at both time points. The second and third highest distributions across industry sectors for both Catholic and Protestant workers were: 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' and 'Manufacturing', respectively.

The largest changes in distribution for both Catholic and Protestant workers was a reduction from Q1 2006 to Q1 2012; for Catholic workers a reduction of 2.6 percentage points in the 'Construction' sector and for Protestant workers a reduction of 2.5 percentage points in the 'Manufacturing' sector.

When the proportion of each group employed in each industry sector is considered, an over representation (over 57.0%⁴⁹) of Protestant workers was found in Q1 2006 for all but two industry sectors: 'Construction' and 'Public Administration, Education and Health'. The over representation of Protestant workers was most evident in 'Energy and Water' and 'Agriculture and Fishing', the proportions for which were 73.8% and 67.5%, respectively.

In Q1 2012 Protestant workers were over-represented (over 52.4%⁵⁰), in all but three industry sectors: 'Manufacturing'; 'Construction'; and 'Public Administration, Education and Health'. It is worthy of note that over representation in 'Agriculture and Fishing', 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' and 'Banking, Finance and Insurance' was slight and may reflect a lessening of the degree of horizontal segregation. However, the proportion of Protestants in each industry sector, except 'Transport and Communication', decreased between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. This was especially evident in 'Agriculture and Fishing' (a decrease of 13.6 percentage points) and 'Energy and Water' (a decrease of 14.4 percentage points). The over representation of Protestant workers was still evident in 'Energy and Water' and 'Transport and Communication', the proportions for which were 59.4% and 61.8%, respectively. The

⁴⁹ Table 5.2 shows that in Q1 2006, 57.0% of those in employment were from a Protestant background.

⁵⁰ Table 5.2 shows that in Q1 2012, 52.4% of those in employment were from a Protestant background.

Table 5.3: Industry sector of employment by religious background (Source: LFS, 2006 and 2012)

Sector (SIC2007)	Q1 2006				Q1 2012			
	Catholic		Protestant		Catholic		Protestant	
	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²
A-B: Agriculture & Fishing	32.5	2.6	67.5	4.0	46.1	3.1	53.9	3.3
C,E: Energy & Water	26.2	0.6	73.8	1.2	40.6	1.1	59.4	1.4
D: Manufacturing	40.5	13.5	59.5	14.9	48.4	12.8	51.6	12.4
F: Construction	52.9	12.8	47.1	8.6	54.1	10.2	45.9	7.8
G-H: Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants	41.6	18.8	58.4	19.8	46.9	19.2	53.1	19.6
I: Transport & Communication	40.1	4.2	59.9	4.7	38.2	4.1	61.8	6.0
J-K: Banking, Finance & Insurance etc.	42.1	9.4	57.9	9.7	46.2	10.0	53.8	10.5
L-N: Public Admin, Education & Health	44.0	34.9	56.0	33.4	48.2	35.5	51.8	34.4
O-Q: Other Services	38.1	3.1	61.9	3.8	44.2	4.1	55.8	4.7

¹ Row: proportion within each sector of religious class group (e.g. in 2006 47.1% of Construction workers were Protestant)

² Column: distribution of religious class group across sectors (e.g. in 2006 8.6% of Protestants worked in Construction)

Table 5.4 shows the median gross hourly pay of Catholics and Protestants in each sector, and the pay gaps between them. Note that small sample sizes may make this analysis unreliable (see Appendix 5 Table A5.3), and care should be taken in interpreting these results.

In Q1 2006, the top three highest paid sectors for Catholic workers were: 1. 'Other Services'; 2. 'Construction'; and 3. 'Public Administration, Education and Health'. For Protestant workers the top three highest paid sectors were: 1. 'Energy and Water'; 2. 'Banking, Finance and Insurance'; and 3. 'Agriculture

and Fishing'. Only one sector remained in the top three in Q1 2012 for Catholics and Protestants: 'Public Administration, Education and Health' and 'Banking, Finance and Insurance', respectively. The top three highest paid sectors for Catholic workers in Q1 2012 were: 1. 'Transport and Communication'; 2. 'Public Administration, Education and Health'; and 3. 'Banking, Finance and Insurance'. The top three highest paid sectors for Protestant workers in Q1 2012 were: 1. 'Banking, Finance and Insurance'; 2. 'Other Services'; and 3. 'Public Administration, Education and Health' (although it is worth noting that 'Energy and Water', which was the highest paid sector in Q1 2006 for Protestant workers could not be included in the analysis of Q1 2012).

In Q1 2006 Catholic workers were paid the least in the 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' sector and Protestant workers were paid the least in the 'Other Services' industry sector. In Q1 2012 both Catholic and Protestant workers were paid the least in the 'Agriculture and Fishing' industry sector.

In terms of pay gaps, in Q1 2006 the largest pay gap between Catholic and Protestant workers was £10.27 in the 'Other services' sector in favour of Catholic workers. This gap reversed in Q1 2012 to a gap of £4.14 in favour of Protestant workers, and again was the largest gap. In Q1 2006 a gap of £3.96 in favour of Protestant workers was found in the 'Banking, Finance and Insurance' sector. Protestant workers also had a favourable pay gap over Catholic workers in the 'Construction' industry in Q1 2012 (£2.62).

Table 5.4: Median gross hourly pay in each industry sector by religious background and pay gaps (Source: LFS, 2006 and 2012)

Sector (SIC2007)	Q1 2006			Q1 2012		
	Catholic	Protestant	Pay Gap*	Catholic	Protestant	Pay Gap*
A-B: Agriculture & Fishing	n/a	£10.16	n/a	£5.91	£7.20	£1.29
C,E: Energy & Water	n/a	£20.14	n/a	£7.80	n/a	n/a
D: Manufacturing	£7.27	£7.83	£0.56	£7.69	£10.13	£2.44
F: Construction	£9.07	£9.21	£0.14	£7.38	£10.00	£2.62
G-H: Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants	£6.13	£6.64	£0.51	£7.25	£7.50	£0.25
I: Transport & Communication	£7.47	£8.50	£1.03	£10.92	£9.87	-£1.05
J-K: Banking, Finance & Insurance etc.	£7.54	£11.50	£3.96	£8.25	£12.31	£4.06
L-N: Public Admin, Education & Health	£8.83	£8.20	-£0.63	£10.77	£10.35	-£0.42
O-Q: Other Services	£16.62	£6.35	-£10.27	£7.29	£11.43	£4.14

*Pay gap = Protestant median gross hourly pay minus Catholic median gross hourly pay

n/a = No data available

Occupation group

This section explores the distribution and proportion of each religious background across occupation groups, and their relative pay in each group. Table 5.5 shows that:

- In Q1 2006 the occupation group with the highest distribution of Catholic and Protestant workers was 'Skilled Trades Occupations' (19.2% and 18.1%, respectively). The largest difference in distribution between each religious background was in 'Administrative and Secretarial' occupations, where there was a 4.5 percentage point higher distribution of Protestant than Catholic workers.
- In Q1 2012 the occupation group with the highest distribution of Catholic and Protestant workers was 'Professional Occupations' (18.9% and 17.3%, respectively). The largest difference in distribution between each religious background was in 'Associate Professional and Technical'

occupations, where there was a 2.7 percentage point higher distribution of Protestant than Catholic workers.

- In Q1 2006 Protestants were over-represented (over 57.0%⁴⁹) in four occupation groups: 'Managers and Senior Officials' (59.6%); 'Administrative and Secretarial' (65.2%); 'Process, Plant and Machine Operatives' (62.9%) and 'Elementary Occupations' (59.2%). Catholic workers were over-represented (over 43.0%⁵¹) in the remaining occupation groups.
- In Q1 2012 Protestants were also over-represented (over 52.4%⁵⁰) in four occupation groups: 'Managers and Senior Officials' (55.6%); 'Associate Professional and Technical' (59.1%); 'Administrative and Secretarial' (54.6%); and 'Personal Service Occupations' (57.5%). Catholic workers were over-represented (over 47.6%⁵²) in the remaining occupation groups.
- The occupations with the highest proportion of Catholic workers in Q1 2006 were: 'Professional Occupations' and 'Personal Service Occupations' (49.2% for both). In Q1 2012 the occupations with the highest proportion of Catholic workers were: 'Sales and Customer Service Occupations' (51.5%) and 'Process, Plant and Machine Operatives' (53.9%).
- In Q1 2012, compared to Q1 2006, the proportion of Catholic workers increased in all occupation groups but one: 'Associate Professional and Technical' occupations. The largest increase in the proportion of Catholic workers was in the lower level occupation group of 'Process, Plant and Machine Operatives' (16.8 percentage point increase). Unsurprisingly, Protestant workers saw increases in the occupation groups where the proportion of Catholic workers declined.

In Q1 2006 a degree of vertical segregation at the highest occupation group level, 'Managers and Senior Officials', was discernible in favour of Protestant workers, compared to their share of the population (over 57.0%⁴⁹). However, when the next two highest levels of occupation group are considered ('Professional Occupations' and 'Associate, Professional and Technical') the vertical segregation that is discernible is in favour of Catholics; Protestants at Q1 2006 were also over-represented in the lowest two occupation groups, compared to their share of the population ('Process, Plant and Machine Operatives' and 'Elementary Occupations').

In Q1 2012 vertical segregation at the highest occupation group level, 'Managers and Senior Officials' persisted, although this was to a lesser degree (the Protestant workers share fell by 4.0 percentage points). Regarding vertical segregation at the lowest occupation groups, at Q1 2012, it was no longer Protestants who were over-represented at this level, but Catholic workers. Catholic workers therefore experienced vertical segregation at both the highest ('Managers and Senior Officials' occupations) and lowest ('Sales and Customer Service Occupations', 'Process, Plant and Machine Operatives' and 'Elementary Occupations') levels.

The LFS data also gives figures for self-employed Catholic and Protestant workers which may influence the figures in Table 5.5, especially with regard to differences between the two groups. In Q1 2006, a nearly equal percentage of Catholic (10.0%) and Protestant (10.3%) workers were self-employed. By Q1 2012 the

⁵¹ Table 5.2 shows that in Q1 2006, 43.0% of those in employment were from a Catholic background.

⁵² Table 5.2 shows that in Q1 2012, 47.6% of those in employment were from a Catholic background.

percentage of self-employed workers had decreased for both religious background groups; a total of 9.4% of Catholic workers were self-employed compared to 8.5% of Protestant workers. Therefore, whilst Catholic workers saw a decrease of 0.6 percentage points, Protestant workers experienced a greater decrease of 1.8 percentage points.

Table 5.5: Occupation group by religious background (Source: LFS, 2006 and 2012)

Occupation (SOC10)	Q1 2006				Q1 2012			
	Catholic		Protestant		Catholic		Protestant	
	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²
Managers and Senior Officials	40.4	9.2	59.6	10.2	44.4	7.5	55.6	8.5
Professional occupations	49.2	13.5	50.8	10.5	49.7	18.9	50.3	17.3
Associate Professional and Technical	45.8	12.5	54.2	11.1	40.9	8.7	59.1	11.4
Administrative and Secretarial	34.8	10.8	65.2	15.3	45.4	12.5	54.6	13.6
Skilled Trades Occupations	44.4	19.2	55.6	18.1	49.0	14.4	51.0	13.6
Personal Service Occupations	49.2	8.8	50.8	6.8	42.5	8.8	57.5	10.8
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	45.5	8.7	54.5	7.8	51.5	9.0	48.5	7.7
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	37.1	7.8	62.9	10	53.9	7.5	46.1	5.8
Elementary Occupations	40.8	9.3	59.2	10.2	50.2	12.7	49.8	11.4

¹ Row: proportion within each occupation of religious class group (e.g. in 2012 49.7% of professional occupations were occupied by Catholics)

² Column: distribution of religious class group across occupations (e.g. in 2012 18.9% of Catholics worked in professional occupations)

Table 5.6 shows the median gross hourly pay of Catholics and Protestants in each occupation group, and the pay gaps between them. Note that, as with the similar table for the industry sector above, small sample

sizes compromise the reliability of this analysis (see Appendix 5 Table A5.3), and care should be taken in interpreting these results.

For both Catholic and Protestant workers in Q1 2006 the top three hourly paid occupation groups were: 1. 'Professional Occupations'; 2. 'Managers and Senior Officials'; and 3. 'Associate Professional and Technical' occupations. With regard to pay gap Catholic workers earned more per hour than Protestant workers in 'Professional Occupations' (£1.41 difference) but less in both 'Managers and Senior Officials' (£2.74 difference) and 'Associate Professional and Technical' occupations (£1.28 difference).

In Q1 2012 the top three hourly paid occupations remained the same for both Catholic and Protestant workers. However, the order had changed somewhat for Catholic workers to: 1. 'Managers and Senior Officials'; 2. 'Associate Professional and Technical'; and 3. 'Professional Occupations'. Whilst in Q1 2006 Protestant workers were paid more than Catholic workers in two of the top three hourly paid occupations this was reversed in Q1 2012. In Q1 2012 Catholic workers earned more than Protestant workers in both 'Managers and Senior Officials' (£6.14 difference) and 'Associate Professional and Technical' (£3.74 difference) occupations; Protestant workers earned more in 'Professional Occupations' than Catholic workers (£3.08 difference).

Table 5.6: Median gross hourly pay in each occupation group by religious background and pay gaps
(Source: LFS, 2006 and 2012)

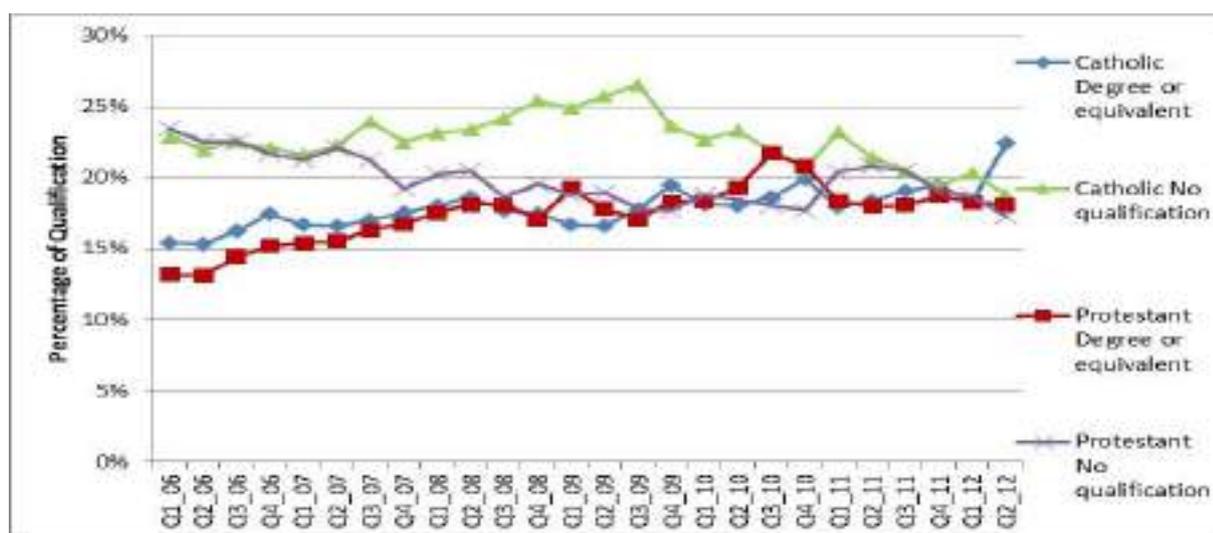
Occupation (SOC10)	Q1 2006			Q1 2012		
	Catholic	Protestant	Pay Gap	Catholic	Protestant	Pay Gap
Managers and Senior Officials	£9.76	£12.50	£2.74	£18.45	£12.31	-£6.14
Professional occupations	£16.49	£15.08	-£1.41	£14.60	£17.68	£3.08
Associate Professional and Technical	£9.35	£10.63	£1.28	£14.96	£11.22	-£3.74
Administrative and Secretarial	£7.34	£8.11	£0.77	£8.05	£11.08	£3.03
Skilled Trades Occupations	£6.41	£7.29	£0.88	£7.69	£7.50	-£0.19
Personal Service Occupations	£7.37	£5.67	-£1.70	£7.22	£7.50	£0.28
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	£6.53	£6.64	£0.11	£6.93	£6.19	-£0.74
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	£8.74	£7.00	-£1.74	£7.50	£8.42	£0.92
Elementary Occupations	£5.50	£6.20	£0.70	£6.67	£7.20	£0.53

*Pay gap = Protestant median gross hourly pay minus Catholic median gross hourly pay

Qualifications

There was little difference in degree holding between Protestants and Catholics, as can be observed from Figure 5.10. In Q1 2006, 15.4% of Catholics and 13.1% of Protestants held a degree; by Q1 2012 this had reversed to 18.3% of Catholics and 19.9% of Protestants. However, although the proportion holding no qualifications started at similar rates in Q1 2006 (22.9% of Catholics and 23.4% of Protestants), the proportion of Protestants with no qualifications (18.7% in Q1 2012) declined faster over the period of interest than that of Catholics (20.3% in Q1 2012). This suggests that there may be inequalities in the education system, as in the absence of such inequalities one might expect changes in qualification rates over time to move at the same speed.

Figure 5.10: Percentage holding a degree and percentage with no qualifications by religious background
(Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Transport

With regard to transport, the earliest available data time point in the LFS is Q4 2006. Average travel time to work was the same for Catholic and Protestant workers at 23.0 minutes in Q4 2006 while Catholic workers travelled a bit longer (25.0 minutes) than Protestant workers (22.0 minutes) in Q1 2012. However, at both Q4 2006 and Q1 2012, Protestant workers (87.0% and 81.5%, respectively) used privatised motorised transport more than Catholic workers (82.5% and 77.1%, respectively) as a travel to work mode. The percentage of Catholic workers who walked or cycled (11.1% in Q4 2006 and 15.5% in Q1 2012) to work was much higher than that of Protestant workers (7.9% in Q4 2006 and 11.2% in Q1 2012). The use of public transport by Catholics (6.4% in Q4 2006 and 7.4% in Q1 2012) was slightly higher than Protestants (5.1% in Q4 2006 and 7.3% in Q1 2012).

Attitudes

In the NILTS 2006 and 2012, questions were asked about attitudes to the main religious backgrounds present in Northern Ireland: Catholic and Protestant. The questions along with their resulting percentages are presented in Table 5.7, for respondents as a whole and also specifically for those who were larger employers and senior managers.

The majority of respondents did not think that any of the religious groups were treated unfairly in either 2006 or 2010. Whilst this was also true when asked how favourable respondents were toward people from the Catholic and Protestant communities, respectively there was an 11.1 percentage point's drop in favourable opinion toward the Protestant community in 2010. This drop was also evident in the responses of large employer and higher managerial occupations, though to a lesser extent of 6.6 percentage points. Favourable opinion toward the Catholic community dropped a little, 2.6 percentage points, between 2006 and 2010 for all respondents, but experienced a larger fall of 11.7 percentage points in responses of large

employers and higher managerial occupations. However, the number of respondents at both 2006 and 2010 for large employers and higher managerial occupations were low at each time point, meaning caution should be applied when interpreting the results.

Most respondents to the NILTS's reported that they had 'a lot' of respect for both the Catholic and Protestant Community; a small drop of less than a percentage point was experienced for each community between 2006 and 2010. Large employers and higher managerial occupations reported an increase in respect for both communities between the two time points (4.6 and 8.4 percentage points for Catholic and Protestant communities, respectively).

The majority of respondents would prefer a mixed religion workplace; a 3.3 percentage point increase was evident between 2006 and 2010 with regard to this for all respondents. A 2.9 percentage point increase for large employers and higher managerial occupations meant that all of this group would prefer a mixed religion workplace.

A positive change was reported in Protestant and Catholic relations within the previous five years (i.e. 2001-2006 and 2005-2010) for all respondents, including large employers and higher managerial occupations. Over half of all respondents (52.3%) indicated that they thought relations between Protestants and Catholics would get 'better' in the next five years. Although this saw a 2.8 percentage point drop between 2006 and 2010 for all respondents'; larger employers and higher managerial occupations saw a 21.8 percentage point increase of those who held this view.

The 2011 Equality Awareness Survey found that a minority of respondents perceived unequal treatment on the basis of religious background; 17.0% of people perceived that those with a Catholic background were treated unfairly compared with other groups in Northern Ireland (compared with 11.3% who thought that those from a Protestant background were unfairly treated) and of these the most common perceived site of such unfair treatment was in the workplace (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012).

Table 5.7: Attitudes towards Catholics and Protestants (Source: NILTS, 2006 and 2010)

Question	All respondents		Large employers and higher managerial occupations	
	2006 % (N=957)	2010 % (N=937)	2006 % (N=35)	2010 % (N=20)
Catholics treated unfairly (Yes)	5.3	3.7	2.9	0
Protestants treated unfairly (Yes)	4.6	3.7	5.7	5.3
How favourable are you about people from Catholic community? (Favourable and Very Favourable)	73.9	71.3	82.8	71.1
How favourable are you about people from Protestant community? (Favourable and Very Favourable)	74.6	63.5	82.9	76.3
How much respect do you have for culture of Catholic community? (A lot)	66.7	66.0	77.0	81.6
How much respect do you have for culture of Protestant community? (A lot)	64.3	63.5	67.9	76.3
Prefer a workplace with people only own religion or mixed religion? (Mixed religion workplace)	90.2	93.5	97.1	100
Protestant & Catholic relations changed in last 5 years? (Better)	57.1	62.6	71.4	76.3
In 5 years' time Protestant & Catholic relations? (Better)	55.1	52.3	57.1	78.9

Policy responses to religious background inequalities in employment

Provision for equality in employment between people from all religious backgrounds is set out in the Fair Employment and Treatment (Northern Ireland) Order 1998, which has since been amended by the Fair Employment and Treatment Order (Amendment) Regulations (Northern Ireland) 2003 to meet the requirements of the EU Framework Directive for Equal Treatment in Employment and Occupation. This legislation makes it unlawful to discriminate on the grounds of religious belief and/or political opinion in the fields of employment, the provision of goods facilities and services, the sale or management of land or property and further and higher education⁵³.

Discrimination in employment covers a number of issues: in recruitment and selection including arrangements for deciding who should be offered employment, in the terms on which employment is offered or by refusing or deliberately omitting to offer a person employment; in the terms and conditions of employment; in relation to access to benefits, including opportunities for promotion, transfer, training or any other benefits, or the refusal of those opportunities; by dismissing an employee or causing him/her any other detriment; and discrimination after the employment relationship has come to an end⁵⁴.

The legislation also places workforce monitoring obligations on all registered employers (specified public sector employers, plus all private sector employers with more than 10 full-time employees working more than 16 hours per week). These employers must submit an annual monitoring return to the Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, giving detail of the community background (Catholic, Protestant or neither Catholic nor Protestant) of their employees, applicants, appointees, and – for larger employers – promotees and leavers⁵⁵.

Employers may also implement affirmative action to secure fair participation in employment by those of a Protestant or Catholic background, including: the encouragement of applications for employment or training for people from under-represented groups; targeting training in a particular area or at a particular class of person; the negotiation of agreed redundancy schemes to preserve fair participation; the provision of training for non-employees of a particular religious belief - following approval by the Equality Commission; and the recruitment of unemployed persons⁵⁶.

The figures presented above in the literature review and data analysis suggest considerable improvement over the last 20 years with regard to employment equality between those of a Protestant and Catholic background. However, it is very difficult to attribute changes in the workforce composition to equality legislation, because of the demographic and structural changes that are likely to be driving these changes, and because there is no way to measure the counterfactual ‘what if there had been no legislation’ – these changes might have happened anyway in the absence of legislation (Russell, 2012a). The Equality

⁵³http://www.equalityni.org/sections/default.asp?cms=Your+Rights_Fair+employment+%26+treatment&cmsid=2_56&id=56&secid=2 [accessed 14/05/13]

⁵⁴ http://www.ofmdfmi.gov.uk/index/equality/fair-employment/employment_provisions.htm [accessed 14/05/13]

⁵⁵ <http://www.ofmdfmi.gov.uk/index/equality/fair-employment/monitoring.htm> [accessed 14/05/13]

⁵⁶ http://www.ofmdfmi.gov.uk/index/equality/fair-employment/affirmative_action.htm [accessed 14/05/13]

Commission for Northern Ireland stressed, in their report on applicants and appointees that the results were in the aggregate, and could not be taken to mean that employment is fair in all workplaces (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012c).

Summary

The key points from the analyses of religious background inequalities in employment are summarised below. A total of four inequalities were identified. These inequalities are presented in the table below; followed by a summary of the Chapter’s findings.

According to the Census 2011 for Northern Ireland only 1.0% of those usually resident in Northern Ireland at the time of the Census were from religious backgrounds other than Catholic or Protestant. This low representation of other religious backgrounds means that little employment data exists for religious backgrounds other than Catholic or Protestant. For this reason the present analysis only considered those from a Catholic or Protestant background.

Religious Background Inequalities in Employment:	Persistent or Emergent?
➤ Catholics had lower employment rates than Protestants.	Persistent
➤ Catholics had higher economic inactivity rates than Protestants.	Persistent
➤ A degree of horizontal segregation in the labour market, in respect to industry sector employed, was observed: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ At Q1 2006 an overrepresentation of Protestant workers, according to their overall share of the in employment working age population (57.0%⁴⁹), was found in all but two industry sectors – ‘Public Administration, Education and Health’ and ‘Construction’ over-represented; <li>○ At Q1 2012 the overrepresentation of Protestant workers, according to their overall share of the in employment working age population (52.4%⁵⁰), had become less evident. Overrepresentation was found in all but three industry sectors: – ‘Manufacturing’; ‘Construction’; and ‘Public Administration, Education and Health’ over-represented. 	Persistent
➤ A degree of vertical segregation in the labour market, in respect to occupation group, was observed: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, Protestant workers were over-represented in the highest level ‘Managers and Senior Officials’ occupations (59.6% and 55.6%, respectively) and mid-level ‘Administrative and Secretarial’ occupations (65.2% and 54.6%, 	Persistent

Religious Background Inequalities in Employment:	Persistent or Emergent?
<p>respectively) compared to their share of the in employment working age population (57.0%⁴⁹ and 52.4%⁵⁰, respectively);</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 Catholic workers were over-represented in two occupation levels: high level 'Professional Occupations' (49.2% and 49.7%, respectively), mid level 'Skilled Trades Occupations' (44.4% and 49.0%, respectively) compared to their share of the in employment working age population (43.0%⁵¹ and 47.6%⁵², respectively); ○ Whilst in Q1 2006 Catholics were over-represented in 'Associate Professional and Technical' (45.8%) occupations and 'Personal Service Occupations' (49.2%), by Q1 2012 it was Protestant workers who were over-represented in these occupation groups (59.1% and 57.5%, respectively); ○ Whilst Protestant workers were over-represented in the low level occupation groups of 'Process, Plant and Machine Operatives' (62.9%) and 'Elementary Occupations' (59.2%) at Q1 2006 this reversed in Q1 2012 to an overrepresentation of Catholic workers (53.9% and 50.2%, respectively). 	

Economic status

- Between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 Protestants were consistently more likely to be in employment than Catholics.
 - For Catholics, a notable dip was observed in employment rates between Q2 2007 (68.7%) and Q2 2009 (58.9%).
- No consistent differences in part-time employment rates between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 for Catholics and Protestants were found; both religious backgrounds experienced an increase in part-time employment.
- ILO unemployment rates were consistently higher amongst Catholics than Protestants for most of the period between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. However, the data showed signs of convergence at Q4 2011.
 - Both Catholics and Protestants experienced an increase in those considered as long term unemployed. However, Catholics were consistently more likely to be long term unemployed; the gap between the two religious backgrounds narrowed from 10.2 percentage points to 4.3 percentage points between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.
- Both religious backgrounds experienced decreases in economic inactivity rates from Q1 2006 to Q1 2012, although the inactivity rates for Catholics were consistently higher than those for Protestants.
- The main reasons given for economic inactivity were largely the same at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 for both Protestants and Catholics; only the order changed:

- The top three at Q1 2006 for both religious backgrounds were: 1. Looking after family/home; 2. Long term sickness or disability; and 3. Being a student.
- In Q1 2012 these remained the same for Catholics but changed for Protestants to: 1. Long term sickness or disability; 2. Looking after family/home; and 3. Being a student.

Wage rates

- Protestant full-time workers were paid more in terms of median gross weekly pay than Catholic full-time workers at many time points between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012; although no consistent pattern was discernible.
 - Protestant full-time workers experienced an increase of £18.00 from £367.00 in Q1 2006 to £385.00 in Q1 2012, whereas Catholic full-time workers saw a smaller increase of £3.00 from £337.00 in Q1 2006 to £340.00 in Q1 2012.
- As with full-time workers, neither Catholic nor Protestant part-time workers were consistently paid more between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.
 - Protestant part-time workers again saw a larger increase, of £23.00 from £115.00 in Q1 2006 to £138.00 in Q1 2012, in median gross weekly pay compared to Catholic part-time workers, of £6.00 from £109.00 in Q1 2006 to £115.00 in Q1 2012.

Industry sector and occupation employment

- There were no notable differences in the rates of employment of Catholics and Protestant workers in the private or public sector between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.
- The distribution of Catholic and Protestant workers across each industry sector does not differ markedly by either background or over time.
 - At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 the industry sector with the highest distribution of each religious background was 'Public, Administration, Education and Health', which accounted for over a third of the Catholic and Protestant workforces at both time points.
- When the proportions of Catholics and Protestants employed in each industry sector are considered:
 - At Q1 2006 an overrepresentation of Protestant workers, according to their overall share of the in employment working age population (57.0%), was found in all but two industry sectors – 'Public Administration, Education and Health' and 'Construction' over-represented;
 - At Q1 2012 the overrepresentation of Protestant workers, according to their overall share of the in employment working age population (52.4%⁵⁰), had become less evident. Over-representation was found in all but three industry sectors: – 'Manufacturing'; 'Construction'; and 'Public Administration, Education and Health' over-represented.
- At Q1 2006 the occupation group which constituted the highest distribution of both Catholic (19.2%) and Protestant (18.1%) workers was 'Skilled Trades Occupations'.

- This changed to 'Professional Occupations' at Q1 2012, with 18.9% of all employed Catholics and 17.3% of all employed Protestants.
- Particular occupation groups, at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, demonstrated overrepresentations of Protestant or Catholic workers according to their overall share of the in employment working age population (57.0%⁴⁹ and 52.4%⁵⁰, respectively for Protestants and 43.0%⁵¹ and 47.6%⁵², respectively for Catholics):
 - At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, Protestant workers were over-represented in the highest level 'Managers and Senior Officials' occupations (59.6% and 55.6%, respectively) and mid-level 'Administrative and Secretarial' occupations (65.2% and 54.6%, respectively).
 - At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 Catholic workers were over-represented in two occupation levels: high level 'Professional Occupations' (49.2% and 49.7%, respectively) and mid level 'Skilled Trades Occupations' (44.4% and 49.0%, respectively).
 - Whilst in Q1 2006 Catholics were over-represented in 'Associate Professional and Technical' (45.8%) occupations and 'Personal Service Occupations' (49.2%), by Q1 2012 it was Protestant workers who were over-represented in these occupation groups (59.1% and 57.5%, respectively).
 - Whilst Protestant workers were over-represented in the low level occupation groups of 'Process, Plant and Machine Operatives' (62.9%) and 'Elementary Occupations' (59.2%) at Q1 2006 this reversed in Q1 2012 to an overrepresentation of Catholic workers (53.9% and 50.2%, respectively).

Attitudes

- The majority of respondents to the Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey (NILTS) (2006 and 2010) did not think any of the religious groups were treated unfairly.
 - Between 2006 and 2010 there was an 11.1 percentage points drop in favourable opinion toward the Protestant community and a 2.6 percentage points drop in favourable opinion toward the Catholic community.
- Most respondents to the 2006 and 2010 NILTS reported that they had 'a lot' of respect for both the Catholic and Protestant Communities.
- The majority of respondents would prefer a mixed religion workplace; a 3.3 percentage point increase was evident between 2006 and 2010 with regard to this for all respondents.
- A positive change was reported in Protestant and Catholic relations within the previous five years (i.e. 2001-2006 and 2005-2010) for all respondents.
 - Over half of all respondents (52.3%) indicated that they thought relations between Protestants and Catholics would get 'better' in the next five years. Although this saw a 2.8 percentage points drop between 2006 and 2010 for all respondents'.
- The 2011 Equality Awareness Survey (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012) found that a minority of respondents perceived unequal treatment on the basis of religious background; 17.0% of people perceived that those with a Catholic background were treated unfairly compared with other

groups in Northern Ireland (compared with 11.3% who thought that those from a Protestant background were unfairly treated).

- The most common perceived site of such unfair treatment was in the workplace.

Barriers and Enablers

- Provision for equality in employment between people from all religious backgrounds is set out in the Fair Employment and Treatment (Northern Ireland) Order 1998, which was amended in 2003 to meet EU standards.
 - This legislation makes it unlawful to discriminate on the grounds of religious belief and/or political opinion in the fields of employment, further and higher education and others⁵⁷.
 - Employers must submit an annual monitoring return to the Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, detailing the community background (Catholic, Protestant or neither) of their employees, applicants, appointees, and, for larger employers, promotees and leavers⁵⁸.
- Employers may implement affirmative action to secure fair participation in employment including:
 - Encouragement of applications for employment or training from under-represented groups;
 - Targeting training in a particular area or at a particular class of person;
 - The negotiation of agreed redundancy schemes to preserve fair participation;
 - The provision of training for non-employees of a particular religious belief – following approval by the Equality Commission;
 - The recruitment of unemployed persons⁵⁹.
- The figures presented in this report suggest considerable improvement over the last 20 years with regard to employment equality between those of a Protestant and Catholic background.
 - However, it is difficult to attribute changes in the workforce composition to equality legislation as demographic and structural changes are likely to be driving these changes, and because there is no way to measure whether these changes would have happened anyway in the absence of legislation (Russell, 2012a).

⁵⁷ http://www.equalityni.org/sections/default.asp?cms=Your+Rights_Fair+employment+%26+treatment&cmsid=2_56&id=56&secid=2 [accessed 14/05/13]

⁵⁸ <http://www.ofmdfmi.gov.uk/index/equality/fair-employment/monitoring.htm> [accessed 14/05/13]

⁵⁹ http://www.ofmdfmi.gov.uk/index/equality/fair-employment/affirmative_action.htm [accessed 14/05/13]

Chapter 6. Political Opinion Inequalities in Employment

Introduction

This report provides a picture of patterns and trends in employment and non-employment in Northern Ireland, establishing any key inequalities (data permitting) that are evident in Northern Ireland for each equality ground as identified by Section 75 of the Northern Ireland Act 1998. This chapter provides evidence of inequalities drawn from quantitative data (primarily from analyses of the Labour Force Survey) which is supplemented by stakeholder interviews and literature review for this equality ground. It is important to stress that no one individual belongs solely to one equality group, and that everyone has multiple identities. Consideration was given to multiple identities where quantitative data was available and allowed for meaningful analyses. Limited analyses across a range of multiple inequalities are reported in Chapter 12. The distillation of the most substantive / overarching key employment inequalities (across all equality grounds) in Northern Ireland are summarised in Chapter 13.

This chapter explores the association between political opinion and inequalities in the labour market amongst the working age population of Northern Ireland. Due to a paucity of both literature and data on this particular equality ground, the chapter is brief, but attempts to identify information gaps on this issue. As political opinion is not a variable in the Labour Force Survey (LFS), the empirical analysis of trends in labour market outcomes is limited. Data for analysis will be drawn mainly from the Northern Ireland Life and Time Surveys (NILTS) from 2006 and 2012 (Devine, 2012).

Broadly speaking, the picture reported is that those who identified themselves as Nationalists had the lowest employment rate, furthermore those who identified themselves as Nationalists also had the highest economic inactivity rate of the three groups: Unionist, Nationalist and Neither Unionist nor Nationalist. When broken down into the political party supported those who were supporters of Sinn Féin were the lowest earners in terms of median weekly income and median personal weekly income, for both periods.

Literature review on political opinion inequalities in employment

When considering inequalities according to political opinion, it should be noted that there is often a conceptual and analytical overlap between political orientation, religious identity and ethnicity (Woodhead, 2009). As such, the term 'sectarian harassment' is commonly used in Northern Ireland to refer to harassment on the grounds of religious belief *or* political opinion (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2004; Hargie et al., 2006). We are not aware of any research that considers specifically the impact of political belief, as opposed to the broader concept of sectarianism, or specifically the differences between Protestant and Catholic workers, on labour market outcomes in Northern Ireland. The literature on religious background is considered in Chapter 5 of this report, which investigates the impact of religious background on labour market outcomes.

If one considers the issue of political opinion more broadly, research covering both the United Kingdom (UK) and internationally has identified the links between the unionisation of the workplace and the development and training opportunities available to workers. It has been identified that non-unionised workplaces have lower than average rates of participation in skills development, with union representatives (e.g. union learning representatives) playing a key role in shaping the opportunities offered by employers (Johnson et al. 2009, Devins et al., 2011). Research from the United States of America (USA) suggests some association between partisan affiliation and the extent to which white Americans perceived themselves to be victims of racial discrimination, although the key message of this research seems to be that perceptions of fair treatment are influenced by complex and inter-related identities of race, religion, place and politics (Maryl and Saperstein, 2013).

Recent trends in political opinion employment inequalities in Northern Ireland

As previously mentioned, the NILTS is the main source of data for this chapter. The questions in the NILTS relating to political opinion were:

1. Political party supported?; and
2. Generally speaking are you Unionist or Nationalist or Neither?

The results of these questions are presented in Table 6.1. Levels of party support are similar between the two years, although recorded support for the Ulster Unionist, Social Democratic and Labour, and Democratic Unionist Parties was slightly lower in 2012 than in 2006, while for the Alliance Party, Sinn Féin, and other parties it had risen slightly. The proportion stating no party affiliation was around a quarter in both years; 24.1% in 2006 compared with 25.5% in 2012.

The proportion of respondents who stated that, generally speaking, they thought of themselves as a Unionist was lower in 2012 than it was in 2006; 28.9% compared with 36.1%. The proportion of those who thought of themselves as Nationalist was virtually identical in 2006 and 2012 – 23.0% and 22.7%, respectively – while the proportion who stated themselves to be neither increased from 40.9% in 2006 to 48.3% in 2012.

Table 6.1: Political party supported and Unionist/Nationalist orientation

(Source: NILTS, 2006 & 2012)

	Percentage of respondents (%)	
	2006	2012
Political party supported	(N=956)	(N=716)
Ulster Unionist Party (UUP)	16.3	11.4
Social Democratic & Labour Party (SDLP)	15.3	14.9
Democratic Unionist Party (DUP)	20.5	18.2
Alliance Party	7.0	9.0
Sinn Fein	12.7	13.1
Other	4.0	7.9
None	24.1	25.5
Generally Speaking are you...	(N=946)	(N=809)
Unionist	36.1	28.9
Nationalist	23.0	22.7
Neither	40.9	48.3

In the analysis below, these political affiliations are tabulated against the small number of economic variables available from the dataset for: economic status (employment, unemployment, and inactivity); median gross weekly pay; and hours worked per week including overtime.

Economic status

Table 6.2 presents economic status variables by political party supported, and then by whether or not the respondent identified as Unionist, Nationalist, or neither. The data are for those aged 18-64 years old for males and 18-59 years old for females (this is in slight contrast to the definition of working age employed elsewhere in this report, which includes 16 and 17 year olds; NILTS does not survey those aged under 18 years old).

In considering Table 6.2 it is important to note that the sample sizes for the ILO unemployed and economically inactive category are extremely small and the proportions here should be interpreted with extreme caution

Table 6.2: Economic status by political opinion (Source: NILTS, 2006 & 2012)

Political party supported	Q1 2006				Q1 2012			
	In employment	ILO unemployed	Economically Inactive	Total	In employment	ILO unemployed	Economically Inactive	Total
Number								
Ulster Unionist Party (UUP)	79	1	27	107	98	8	22	128
Social Democratic & Labour Party (SDLP)	79	2	36	117	82	4	31	117
Democratic Unionist Party (DUP)	103	6	64	173	52	1	13	66
Alliance Party	34	1	17	52	78	7	14	99
Sinn Fein	56	11	51	118	56	0	16	72
Other	18	3	5	26	19	0	2	21
None	228	17	118	363	145	7	61	213
Total	597	41	318	956	530	27	159	716
Generally Speaking are you...								
Unionist	196	12	97	305	154	7	31	192
Nationalist	120	12	85	217	124	9	48	181
Neither	275	16	133	424	327	13	96	436
Total	591	40	315	946	605	29	175	809
Percentage								
Ulster Unionist Party (UUP)	73.8%	0.9%	25.2%	100.0%	76.6%	6.3%	17.2%	100.0%
Social Democratic & Labour Party (SDLP)	67.5%	1.7%	30.8%	100.0%	70.1%	3.4%	26.5%	100.0%
Democratic Unionist Party (DUP)	59.5%	3.5%	37.0%	100.0%	78.8%	1.5%	19.7%	100.0%
Alliance Party	65.4%	1.9%	32.7%	100.0%	78.8%	7.1%	14.1%	100.0%
Sinn Fein	47.5%	9.3%	43.2%	100.0%	77.8%	0.0%	22.2%	100.0%
Other	69.2%	11.5%	19.2%	100.0%	90.5%	0.0%	9.5%	100.0%
None	62.6%	4.8%	32.5%	100.0%	68.1%	3.3%	28.6%	100.0%
Generally Speaking are you...								
Unionist	64.3%	3.9%	31.8%	100.0%	80.2%	3.6%	16.1%	100.0%
Nationalist	55.3%	5.5%	39.2%	100.0%	68.5%	5.0%	26.5%	100.0%
Neither	64.9%	3.8%	31.4%	100.0%	75.0%	3.0%	22.0%	100.0%

Employment

From the LFS (2006-2012), employment rates for the working age population as a whole remained constant at 69.5% at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. In the NILTS data, employment rates may appear to have risen, but it should be noted that there is no way to derive identical employment status variables in the 2006 and 2012 datasets, and therefore data from the two years cannot be considered strictly comparable.

In the 2006 NILTS, the political party supported with the highest percentage of employed workers was the Ulster Unionist Party (73.8%) and that with the lowest percentage of employed workers was Sinn Féin (47.5%); the other three main political parties had employment rates between 59.5% and 67.5%. The employment rate of those who supported no political party sat somewhere between this at 62.6%. All political parties supported apart from the Ulster Unionist Party had an employment rate below the LFS Q1 2006 population average (69.5%).

Notable increases in employment rates were evident in 2012 for all political parties supported, particularly with regard to those whose political party was Sinn Féin; where a 25.4 percentage point increase occurred. The second highest increase occurred for the Democratic Unionist Party, which increased by 16.7 percentage points. All political parties supported had employment rates above the LFS Q1 2012 population average (69.5%), except for those did not support a political party, who had an employment rate below the average.

In 2006, the highest employment rate was found among those who identified as neither Unionist nor Nationalist, although the employment rate for this group (65.0%) was very similar to the employment rate of those who identified as Unionist (64.5%), with employment among those who identified as Nationalist somewhat lower at 55.5%. In 2012, the highest employment rates were found among those who identified as Unionist (80.5%); this was 10.2 percentage points higher than those who identified as Nationalist, and 4.9 percentage points higher than those who identified as neither.

Part-time employment

The data on economic status variables by political party in relation to part-time employment is not available and so no analysis could be carried out.

Unemployment

From the Labour Force Survey (2006-2012) ILO unemployment among the working age population as a whole increased over the period of interest, from 3.1% in Q1 2006 to 5.2% in Q1 2012.

The figures presented in Table 6.2 for unemployment should be interpreted with extreme caution, as the small sample sizes make them highly unreliable, and it would be unwise to draw any firm conclusions

regarding differences in unemployment rates between supporters of political parties, or how these have changed over time.

The indicative figures presented here suggest that unemployment amongst party supporters slightly decreased over time for Sinn Féin (by 5.5 percentage points) and the Alliance Party (by 2.0 percentage points) supporters; supporters of no political party also experienced a decrease in employment rates (by 2.4 percentage points). The largest decrease in employment rates was evident for those who supported another political party (a decrease of 8.7 percentage points). Increases were evident for three Social Democratic and Labour Party (by 5.8 percentage points), Democratic Unionist Party (by 3.3 percentage points) and Ulster Unionist Party (by 1.2 percentage points) supporters. There was almost no difference between the two time periods in the unemployment rate of those considering themselves to be Unionist. For those who identified as Nationalist or neither, unemployment was lower in 2012.

Economic Inactivity

From the Labour Force Survey (2006-2012) economic inactivity rates among the working age population as a whole fell slightly over the period of interest, from 27.4% in Q1 2006 to 25.3% in Q1 2012, a fall of 2.1 percentage points.

Due to differences in the computation of the 'inactive' category between the two survey years, it is unwise to draw conclusions about changes in inactivity rates over the period. However, those of different political affiliations can be compared within years, and some changes have occurred in this respect. The highest inactivity rates among those who supported a political party were among Sinn Féin supporters in 2006. However, by 2012 Sinn Féin supporters were more in line with supporters of other political parties and the highest rate of inactivity was found amongst those who did not support any political party. In Q1 2006 those who supported no political party were less likely to be economically inactive than those who supported a political party (apart from those who supported the Ulster Unionist Party), but in Q1 2012 inactivity rates among those who supported no political party were higher than among those who supported any political party. Those who identified as Nationalist were more likely to be classed as economically inactive in both periods than those who identified as Unionist or neither; the gap was smaller in 2006 than in 2012.

Main reasons for not looking for work

No data was available to investigate reasons for not looking for work.

Median gross weekly pay

Median personal and total household weekly incomes, and hours worked per week, are set out by political opinion in Table 6.3. Note that the income estimates are not very precise, as income is reported in the survey in broad width bands only; here, the median income of the weighted average for each category is taken.

There is some variation in personal and household weekly income between supporters of the different political parties. This data suggests that those who supported Sinn Féin were the lowest earners in both 2006 and 2012, both in terms of median weekly income and median personal weekly income. Those who supported the Alliance Party had the highest household income in 2006 and 2012, and although they did not have quite the highest personal income in 2006, they did in 2012.

Median income was higher in 2012 than in 2006 for those who supported a named political party and those who did not support any political party. The only exception to this was in for those who supported other political parties, whose average personal income was £26.71 lower in 2012. The largest income increase for both household and personal income was seen among those who supported the Social Democratic and Labour Party, who saw an increase of £182.80 in household income and £152.56 in personal income.

Median income was also higher in 2012 than it had been in 2006 for those who identified as Unionist, Nationalist and neither. The largest increase in median household income, of £108.30, was among those who identified as Nationalist, although median household income remained lower for this group than for those who identified as Unionist or neither. The largest increase in median personal income was seen among those who identified as neither, with an increase of £104.14 which put them almost exactly on a par with those who identified as Unionist; those who identified as Nationalist earned less than both groups.

Table 6.3: Weekly median total household and personal incomes, and median hours worked per week, by political opinion (Source: NILTS, 2006 & 2012)

	Sample Size		Total median weekly income of household		Median personal income before tax and National Insurance contributions		Median Number of hours worked per week	
	2006	2012	2006	2012	2006	2012	2006	2012
Political party supported								
Ulster Unionist Party (UUP)	184	124	£290.00 (N=134)	£381.50 (N=95)	£196.75 (N=140)	£281.50 (N=98)	36.8 (N=80)	33.9 (N=53)
Social Democratic and Labour Party (SDLP)	154	147	£202.70 (N=120)	£385.50 (N=112)	£132.32 (N=126)	£284.88 (N=122)	36.9 (N=66)	32.7 (N=68)
DUP or Democratic Unionist Party	212	198	£278.45 (N=156)	£296.17 (N=139)	£137.19 (N=169)	£218.97 (N=154)	38.9 (N=94)	33.2 (N=96)
Alliance Party	77	95	£470.36 (N=54)	£574.50 (N=76)	£206.17 (N=55)	£303.79 (N=80)	33.6 (N=39)	32.6 (N=51)
Sinn Fein	133	139	£199.10 (N=88)	£213.79 (N=91)	£96.86 (N=99)	£201.91 (N=103)	38.3 (N=47)	33.1 (N=67)
Other	43	79	£400.50 (N=29)	£444.50 (N=60)	£325.62 (N=29)	£298.91 (N=63)	39.3 (N=22)	33.1 (N=42)
None	262	285	£194.59 (N=183)	£323.50 (N=178)	£135.79 (N=209)	£241.50 (N=193)	37.0 (N=132)	32.5 (N=138)
Generally speaking are you Unionist or Nationalist?								
Unionist	445	348	£285.32 (N=310)	£354.50 (N=245)	£165.00 (N=340)	£239.72 (N=261)	36.8 (N=189)	33.4 (N=158)
Nationalist	275	255	£196.76 (N=197)	£305.06 (N=177)	£130.35 (N=212)	£217.28 (N=196)	36.7 (N=105)	33.3 (N=110)
Neither	495	542	£282.50 (N=345)	£381.72 (N=376)	£134.88 (N=383)	£239.02 (N=408)	36.7 (N=251)	32.5 (N=284)

Hours worked per week including overtime

Table 6.3 also shows the median weekly hours worked by political opinion. Hours worked per week seem to be broadly similar regardless of political party supported. Those who supported the Alliance Party worked the least number of hours in 2006 (median hours worked per week for this group was 33.6), this fell slightly to 32.6 in 2012, although in 2012 this was not quite the lowest figure, as those who supported no political party had a median of 32.5. The highest median hours in 2006 were among those who supported other political parties (39.3 per week); although in 2012 the highest hours were found among those who supported the Ulster Unionist Party (33.9 per week).

Median hours appeared to fall somewhat between 2006 and 2012 for supporters of all parties and none. Although it should be noted that slight differences in the computation of this variable between the two surveys means that they are not completely comparable, and small apparent differences should be interpreted with caution.

There were no substantial differences between hours worked by those who, generally speaking, considered themselves to be Unionist, Nationalist or neither Unionist nor Nationalist, in either 2006 or 2012. In 2012 their median working hours followed the same pattern as for those who supported a particular political party; a decrease in median hours worked per week was evident.

Policy responses to political opinion inequalities in employment

The Fair Employment and Treatment (Northern Ireland) Order 1998 (outlined in Chapter 5 of this report with respect to its coverage of religious background) also covers political opinion; thus, it is illegal to discriminate in employment against those with different political beliefs. This encompasses a range of beliefs: Nationalist, Republican, Loyalist or Unionist beliefs; any opinion on Northern Ireland constitutional politics; any political opinion related to the conduct or government of the state, or matters of public policy; support for any lawful political party that does not endorse violence; and not holding any political opinions⁶⁰.

However, the legislation does not carry the same monitoring requirements on employees as it does for religion; there is no obligation to monitor the political opinion of the workforce. Thus, it is difficult to say whether the legislation has had any impact on the representation of those with different political beliefs, and their treatment by employers. The results presented in this report suggested some convergence of wage rates and hours worked between individuals with Unionist or Nationalist beliefs, although employment rates for the latter remain lower and unemployment higher.

⁶⁰http://www.equalityni.org/sections/default.asp?secid=4&cms=Service+Providers_What+the+law+says_Religious+belief%2Fpolitical+opinion++++&cmsid=130_242_301&id=301 [accessed 14/05/13]

Summary

The key points from the analyses against the equality ground of political opinion are summarised below. A total of two inequalities were identified. These inequalities are presented in the table below; followed by a summary of the Chapter's findings.

As political opinion is not a variable in the Labour Force Survey (LFS), the empirical analysis of trends in labour market outcomes was limited. Data for analysis was drawn mainly from the Northern Ireland Life and Time Surveys (NILTS) from 2006 and 2012 (Devine, 2012). In the NILTS respondents were asked to identify which political party they supported (i.e. Sinn Féin, Ulster Unionist Party, Alliance Party etc.), if any, and whether or not they considered themselves to be Unionist, Nationalist or Neither.

Political Opinion Inequalities in Employment:	Persistent or Emergent?
➤ Those who identified as Nationalist had the lowest employment rate	Persistent
➤ Those who identified as Nationalist had higher economic inactivity rates	Persistent

Economic status

Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey (NILTS) (2006 and 2012) data was utilised to provide an outline of employment by political opinion; no such data was available from the Labour Force Survey (LFS)⁶¹.

- In the 2006 NILTS, the political party supported with the highest percentage of employed workers was the Ulster Unionist Party (74.4%) and that with the lowest percentage of employed workers was Sinn Féin (47.6%); the other three main political parties and those who supported no political party had employment rates between 59.8% and 67.7%.
- Notable increases were evident in 2012 for all political parties supported, particularly with regard for those whose political party was Sinn Féin; where a 25.4 percentage point increase occurred.
- In 2006, the highest employment rates were found among those who identified as being neither Unionist nor Nationalist, followed by those who identified as Unionist, and finally Nationalist.
 - In 2012, the highest employment rates were found among those who identified as Unionist (80.5%); followed by those who identified as neither (75.6%). Nationalists (70.3%) had the lowest employment rate.

⁶¹ Small sample sizes for the data on economic status by political opinion make the figures highly unreliable, and it would be unwise to draw any firm conclusions regarding differences in unemployment rates between supporters of political parties, or how these have changed over time.

- Unemployment decreased slightly between 2006 and 2012 for supporters of most political parties, most notably for Sinn Féin (from 8.9% to 3.4%, respectively) and the Alliance Party (2.0% to 0.0%, respectively).
 - Increases were evident for those who supported: the Social Democratic and Labour Party (rates rose from 1.4% in 2006 to 7.2% in 2012); the Democratic Unionist Party, (rates rose from 3.1% in 2006 to 6.4% in 2012); and the Ulster Unionist Party (rates rose from 0.5% in 2006 to 1.7% in 2012).
- Those identifying as Nationalist or neither experienced a decrease in unemployment from 2006 to 2012. There was little change for those identified as Unionist.
- Those who identified as Nationalist were more likely to be economically inactive in both periods than those who identified as Unionist or as neither, although the gap was smaller in 2006 than in 2012.
 - The highest inactivity rates among those who supported a political party were among Sinn Féin supporters in both periods, although a gap of 6.4 percentage points in 2006 narrowed to a gap of 1.3 percentage points in 2012.

Wage rates

- Data suggests that supporters of Sinn Féin were the lowest earners in both 2006 and 2012, both in terms of median weekly income and median personal weekly income. Supporters of the Alliance Party had the highest household income in 2006 and 2012, and although they did not have the highest personal income in 2006, they did in 2012.
- Median income was higher in 2012 than it had been in 2006 for those who identified as Unionist, Nationalist and neither.

Barriers and Enablers

- The Fair Employment and Treatment (Northern Ireland) Order 1998 makes it illegal to discriminate in employment against those with different political beliefs.
 - This encompasses a range of beliefs: Nationalist, Republican, Loyalist or Unionist beliefs; any opinion on Northern Ireland constitutional politics; any political opinion related to the conduct or government of the state, or matters of public policy; support for any lawful political party that does not endorse violence; and not holding any political opinions⁶².
- There is no obligation to monitor the political opinion of the workforce. Thus, it is difficult to say whether the legislation has had any impact on the representation of those with different political beliefs, and their treatment by employers.

⁶² http://www.equalityni.org/sections/default.asp?secid=4&cms=Service+Providers_What+the+law+says_Religious+belief%2Fpolitical+opinion++++&cmsid=130_242_301&id=301 [accessed 14/05/13]

Chapter 7. Minority Ethnic and Racial Inequalities in Employment

Introduction

This report provides a picture of patterns and trends in employment and non-employment in Northern Ireland, establishing any key inequalities (data permitting) that are evident in Northern Ireland for each equality ground as identified by Section 75 of the Northern Ireland Act 1998. This chapter provides evidence of inequalities drawn from quantitative data (primarily from analyses of the Labour Force Survey) which is supplemented by stakeholder interviews and literature review for this equality ground. It is important to stress that no one individual belongs solely to one equality group, and that everyone has multiple identities. Consideration was given to multiple identities where quantitative data was available and allowed for meaningful analyses. Limited analyses across a range of multiple inequalities are reported in Chapter 12. The distillation of the most substantive / overarching key employment inequalities (across all equality grounds) in Northern Ireland are summarised in Chapter 13.

This chapter explores how different minority ethnic and racial groups of the working age population in Northern Ireland fare in relation to the labour market. Firstly, the literature around this topic is considered, focusing on Northern Ireland, but also considering sources from the rest of the United Kingdom (UK). This is followed by a summary of labour market trends over the period 2006 to 2012, across a number of variables: economic activity; hours worked; median gross weekly and hourly wages; and occupation sector and type. Consideration is also paid to potential barriers to accessing the labour market: access to transport; qualifications held; and attitudes to different minority and racial groups in the labour market. The chapter then considers the responses of policymakers and other stakeholders in respect to minority or racial inequalities in the labour market, before concluding with a summary of findings presented in the chapter.

The main source of data for the analysis is the Quarterly Northern Ireland Labour Force Survey (LFS) from 2006 to 2012. Some information on attitudes was also drawn from the Equality Commission for Northern Ireland's 2011 Equality Awareness Survey (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012), and from the Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey (NILTS) (Devine, 2012). Data from the Census 2001 and Census 2011 for Northern Ireland was also utilised. The empirical analysis of labour market trends for racial groups is limited somewhat by the low representation in the quantitative research data of those who are not white and Northern Ireland born; reflective of the composition of the Northern Ireland population⁶³.

To permit analysis and the identification of trends, the LFS sample is classified by country of birth. Since the Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency (NISRA) estimate that migrants from the A8⁶⁴ countries made up the majority of migration flows to Northern Ireland between mid-2004 and mid-2009 it was

⁶³ Further detail on this is provided later in the chapter, prior to presenting the results of the analysis.

⁶⁴ A8 Czech Republic; Estonia; Hungary; Latvia; Lithuania; Poland; Slovakia; and Slovenia are countries from Central and Eastern Europe that joined the European Union in May 2004.

evident that this group should have its own category. To this end, Eastern Europe born⁶⁵ is one of the categories in the present analysis. Since most of the data available relates to the UK and Ireland born population this group will also make up an individual category in the current analysis. Unfortunately, the population of those born in countries other than those in the two categories already identified are too small; in this instance the category of Others is utilised. The LFS also does not record whether the respondent is from an Irish Traveller or Roma background, thus no analysis of outcomes for this group was possible using the LFS, although the chapter presents the relevant literature on Irish Travellers where available.

Therefore, the three categories, by country of birth, included in this analysis were: UK and Ireland; Eastern Europe; and Others. Therefore, a distinction is made between UK and Irish born workers on the one hand, and Eastern Europe born workers on the other.

The picture presented from the literature and interests groups is that Irish Travellers have much lower employment and higher economic inactivity rates than those classed in any other group; although empirical data is lacking. Those workers classed as having been born in the UK or Ireland tend to have higher economic inactivity rates than other groups. Those workers classed as from an Other background were paid less than those who were born in the UK or Ireland. It was also found in the present research that horizontal segregation of the labour market with respect to racial background is evident in that workers born in Eastern Europe were more likely to be employed in 'Manufacturing'. Vertical segregation was also apparent as the highest proportion of those born in Eastern Europe worked in 'Elementary' occupations and their representation in higher level occupations was low compared to the rest of the groups. No workers in the sample of the Other group were employed as 'Managers and Senior Officials' whilst over one third of this group were employed in 'Professional Occupations'. Also, considerable prejudice was found against Irish Travellers and Polish migrants.

Literature review on minority ethnic and racial inequalities in employment

There is a small amount of literature available on minority inequalities in the labour market in Northern Ireland. The body of research primarily relates to studies of migrant workers, which are often qualitative in nature. Systematic information about the position of minority ethnic individuals in the labour market in Northern Ireland is severely limited. This review of the literature will consider first of all the situation of migrant workers, followed by the issue of discrimination and its potential effects, and finally the prevalence of minority occupation segregation in Northern Ireland.

⁶⁵ This category includes the A8 countries listed above.

Migrant workers in Northern Ireland

NISRA report annually on the population and migration estimates for Northern Ireland. In the 2012 report it was stated that between mid-2004 and mid-2009 there was a large migration flow into Northern Ireland. In particular, migrants from the A8⁶⁶ countries (identified as Eastern Europe in the present study) made up the majority of this flow. Research has reported that approximately 122,000 international migrants arrived in Northern Ireland between 2000 and 2010 and that immigration peaked in 2007 but declined following the 2008 economic downturn (Russell, 2012b). Net migration to Northern Ireland was estimated to be negative for the year's mid-2010 to mid-2012, which is the most recent year for which estimates are available (NISRA, 2013e). However in citing these statistics it should be remembered that there is no single statistical source for recording the number of long term international migrants to Northern Ireland and Great Britain (GB) (Kofman et al., 2009; Russell, 2012b).

While international migration to Northern Ireland has implications for the demand for public services, the health service for example has benefited from the skills and experiences of migrant health care professionals (Russell, 2012b). However, migrant workers in Northern Ireland face a range of barriers to employment, such as difficulty getting National Insurance numbers (Bell et al., 2004), or non-recognition of qualifications (Bell et al., 2004; Potter, 2006; McVeigh and McAfee, 2009; Northern Ireland Council for Ethnic Minorities, 2012). Indeed, many migrant workers in Northern Ireland take up jobs at a skills level much lower than that of their qualifications (Bell et al., 2009). This mismatch between qualifications and occupational outcomes is consistent with evidence from across Europe that migrant workers are more likely to experience such a mismatch (i.e. to be over-educated or under-educated for the job that they perform) than native born workers (Aleksynska and Tritah, 2013).

Migrant workers are vulnerable to forced labour practices. Allamby et al. (2012) found evidence of some forced labour in Northern Ireland that takes a variety of forms: threats or physical harm; restrictions on movement; debt bondage; withholding agreed wages; retention of passports; and threat of denunciation to the authorities. These issues tend to affect the most vulnerable migrants, those with: limited English; few local contacts or support; and a limited understanding of the social and legal context in which they are employed. Research with the Polish community in Northern Ireland has also suggested difficulties in receiving state support such as unemployment benefits, as accessing these may be difficult due to language barriers (McVeigh and McAfee, 2009).

Qualitative research with migrant workers in Northern Ireland has suggested potentially discriminatory practices of recruitment agencies; through which many new migrants find work (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2010). For example, migrants reported being 'prevented from registering for work with some recruitment agencies because they lacked English language skills; including agencies that were recruiting for the type of work that would require very little verbal communication' (pg. 8); errors and delays in receiving pay were also frequently reported.

⁶⁶ A8 Czech Republic; Estonia; Hungary; Latvia; Lithuania; Poland; Slovakia; and Slovenia are countries from Central and Eastern Europe that joined the European Union in May 2004.

Discrimination in employment

Racial equality legislation in Northern Ireland is covered by the Race Relations (Northern Ireland) Order, which became law in 1997, some 21 years after the Race Relations Act 1967 was passed in GB (Wallace et al., 2013). Despite the legislation, there is evidence of existing prejudice against minority ethnic groups in Northern Ireland. In a survey of Polish migrants in Northern Ireland (McVeigh and McAfee, 2009), one sixth reported being intimidated at work because of their “country of origin, colour or religion” (Ibid., p35). Another survey, of Filipinos (Northern Ireland Council for Ethnic Minorities, 2012) found that 41.5% reported being racially harassed by customers or services users, and 48.1% by a colleague. Of those harassed at work, 33% were harassed by a manager. As a result of the conditions of their work permits (individuals cannot move to another employer without the approval of the UK Border Agency) it is difficult to challenge this harassment (Northern Ireland Council for Ethnic Minorities, 2012). These surveys cannot necessarily be extrapolated to the experience of all Polish and Filipino workers, as their samples were not randomly drawn, but they suggest that racism is not confined to isolated incidents, but part of the experience of migrant workers.

The 2009 NILTS, which utilises a random sampling method, demonstrated a clear prejudice against Travellers in Northern Ireland society. The survey found that 55% of respondents said they would not want Travellers living in a house as a resident in their local area, 30% would not accept them as a colleague, 46% would not accept them as a close friend, and 47% would not accept them as an in-law (as cited by the Taskforce on Traveller Education, 2011). Research on Gypsy and Traveller communities in Britain suggests that they experience discrimination in the workplace, with many feeling they have to disguise their origins from customers and employers (Cemlyn et al., 2009). This area will be returned to later in the chapter when attitudes are reported on and findings from the 2011 Equality Awareness Survey (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012) is referred to.

Research conducted in GB has provided some insights as to why barriers exist that might cause minority ethnic groups to be under-represented in some sectors and occupations⁶⁷. For example, a review of race discrimination in the construction industry in GB conducted by Caplan et al. (2009) found that minority ethnic groups faced restricted opportunities. According to Caplan et al., reasons might be: that images of the industry as an unwelcome environment for people from minority ethnic groups do not make it attractive; the poor implementation of equality and diversity policies especially in smaller companies; an under representation of minority ethnic groups in the sector; and a lack of awareness of opportunities in minority ethnic communities.

Those from minority ethnic groups may face inequalities in recruitment. Research on behalf of the Department for Work and Pensions in a sample of British cities (Birmingham, Bradford, Bristol, Glasgow, Leeds, London and Manchester) conducted a study whereby 2,961 matched job ‘applications’ (manufactured for the purposes of the study) were submitted to 987 advertised job vacancies (Wood et al., 2009). Ethnic identity was conveyed through using names associated with different minority ethnic groups,

⁶⁷ We are not aware of research on the barriers to participation in the labour market pertaining specifically to Northern Ireland.

and a 29% net name-based discrimination in favour of UK white applicants was identified. Interestingly when employers required their own application form to be used by applicants, there was less discrimination than when applicants submitted a Curriculum Vita. This indicates that forms should be designed where personal details can be removed before the short listing process is undertaken (Wood et al., 2009). This kind of experiment has been replicated, and significant discrimination identified, in Sweden, France, the USA, Belgium, Denmark, the Netherlands, and Australia (OECD, 2008).

The research evidence is mixed regarding whether the size of the employer affects discrimination in recruitment. An evidence review on poverty and ethnicity in the UK conducted for the Joseph Rowntree Foundation (JRF) identified that minority ethnic groups may be treated less favourably in the recruitment process, especially in the case of small and medium sized businesses and private sector employers (Barnard and Turner, 2011). Small and medium sized enterprises in GB continue to be cited as having poorer equality and diversity practices (Hudson and Radu, 2011). However, other research in GB has identified that 'ethnic penalties' are greater in medium and large employers (Heath and Cheung, 2006). Employers in GB with minority ethnic staff may be less likely to use formal recruitment procedures and may focus more on soft skills (Tackey et al., 2006) with these practices often being used in small and medium sized enterprises.

Minority ethnic occupational segregation in Northern Ireland

Whether prejudice translates into a negative impact on labour market outcomes in Northern Ireland is unclear, as a lack of data pertaining to minority ethnic groups makes it difficult to achieve the ethnic monitoring that might reveal inequalities (Wallace et al., 2013). We are not aware of any existing analysis of systematic racial and minority ethnic inequalities in the labour market in Northern Ireland, and a recent JRF review of the evidence base on poverty and ethnicity in Northern Ireland (Wallace et al., 2013) similarly found a lack of robust information on this issue. Isolated examples of research on particular communities may suggest some inequalities, but do not constitute systematic evidence. For example, research with the Polish community in Northern Ireland suggested an unemployment rate at three times the Northern Ireland average (McVeigh and McAfee, 2009), but the sample on which the research is based cannot be considered representative of the whole Polish population in Northern Ireland.

Analysis of the Northern Ireland LFS data was undertaken with respect to the position of migrant workers in the Northern Ireland economy (Oxford Economics, 2009). The authors make a caveat that the small number of migrant workers in the LFS data sample, and the tendency of the LFS to undercount migrant workers, means that the analysis should be considered indicative, rather than a definitive profile of migrant worker employment. The research suggested that migrant workers in Northern Ireland are concentrated in particular sectors, particularly the manufacture of food and beverages, and in health and social work. For example, 22% of migrant workers in Northern Ireland work in the manufacturing industry, compared with 13% of native workers. Migrant workers were also found to be disproportionately concentrated in the lower skill level occupations such as customer service, personal service and elementary occupations. A review of the research evidence as conducted on behalf of the JRF on poverty and ethnicity in Northern Ireland also identified that minority ethnic groups are found at all levels in the economy but are over-represented in low grade and low paid work (Wallace et al., 2013). This is consistent with findings from the UK, which suggest clustering of different national groups in different occupation groups. For example, 28%

of UK nationals work in process, plant and machine operating jobs or elementary occupations, compared with 33% of Bangladeshis, 56% of Poles, 54% of Portuguese and 52% of Somalis (Kofman et al., 2009).

Research has been carried out elsewhere in the UK with regard to minority ethnic inequalities in employment. Research conducted on behalf of the Department of Work and Pensions (DWP) on the position of minority ethnic groups in the UK labour market found that Pakistani, Bangladeshi, Black Caribbean and Black African males may in particular experience higher unemployment rates, and those who are in work have low earnings and are likely to be in low skilled work (Heath and Cheung, 2006). Research on the barriers to employment for Pakistanis and Bangladeshis in GB identified low human capital – in terms of qualifications, skills and work experience – as a key barrier, although this may vary by various factors such as age (Tackey et al., 2006). Research examining trends in GB and the United States of America (USA) has identified that ‘first generations’ may experience a greater ‘ethnic penalty’ than ‘second generations’ (Heath and Cheung, 2006; Yaojun Li, 2010). Indeed, this pattern has been found to exist across Europe; Bisin et al. (2011) found that ‘there is a penalty to be paid for immigrants with a strong identity’ and that ‘being a first generation immigrant leads to a penalty of about 17 percent whilst second-generation immigrants have a probability of being employment that is not statistically different from that of natives’ (pg. 1). Data from the EU Labour Force Survey also shows a distinction between first-generation migrants who have been in their host country for fewer than five years, and those who have been there for five years or more, with employment rates for the latter much closer to (or even higher than) the native-born employment rate in most cases, although there are some exceptions to this, of which the UK is one (Kahanec et al., 2010).

Data from England has also shown that there is an uneven representation of minority ethnic groups in different occupations and sectors. Minority ethnic groups are under-represented in some occupations (managers and administrators, associate professional, administrative and clerical and skilled manual occupations) and over-represented in some sectors (food and drink, transport and communications, energy industries and health and social work) (Green et al., 2005). Furthermore, research conducted for the DWP on the recruitment of under-represented groups in the UK (those from minority ethnic groups, females and people with disabilities) into senior civil service positions identified that people from minority ethnic groups and females were under-represented, despite the fact that under-represented groups are more likely to consider working for the civil service (Hooker et al., 2008). These findings are replicated internationally. Research comparing the USA with GB found that in both countries ethnic minorities faced employment inequalities and disadvantages in accessing professional/managerial posts (Yaojun Li, 2010).

Research carried out on behalf of the UK Commission for Employment and Skills (Johnson et al., 2009) has identified, drawing on evidence from both the UK and internationally, the lack of information regarding the links between ethnicity and motivation and participation in training and skills development. However, some minority ethnic groups may have lower rates of participation, for example, females from Bangladeshi and Pakistani backgrounds (Aldridge et al., 2006, cited in Johnson et al., 2009).

Recent trends in minority ethnic and racial inequalities in employment in Northern Ireland

The empirical review of labour market trends is limited by the very low representation in the data of those who are non-white or not born in Northern Ireland. According to the Census 2011 for Northern Ireland, the majority of the population of Northern Ireland (88.7%) were born in Northern Ireland, and of the 202,000 who were not, 82,800 (41.0% of these) were born in other parts of the UK and (19.0% of these) in the Republic of Ireland (NISRA, 2013b). Table 7.1 shows the proportion of the population born in different countries outside of Northern Ireland (and also shows that the LFS estimates for Q1 2012 align closely to those of the 2011 Census).

Table 7.1: Country of birth, Census 2011 for Northern Ireland and LFS estimates

(Source: NISRA, 2013b and LFS Q1 2012)

Country of Birth	Census 2011 (%)	LFS Q1 2012 (%)
Northern Ireland	88.7	86.3
England	3.4	3.4
Republic of Ireland	2.2	1.5
Poland	1.1	1.1
Scotland	0.9	0.9
Lithuania	0.4	1.1
India	0.3	0.3
USA	0.2	0.2
Germany	0.2	0.5
Wales	0.2	0.2
Philippines	0.2	0.1
Slovakia	0.1	0.2
Canada	0.1	0.2
Latvia	0.1	0.1
China	0.1	0.1
Portugal	0.1	0.1
Other	1.6	1.7

The Census 2011 for Northern Ireland also shows that 98.3% of the population are of White ethnic origin, with 1.1% Asian, 0.2% Black, and 0.4% mixed or other (Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency,

2013b). Less than 1% of those born in Northern Ireland are identified as anything other than White, thus making White Northern Irish by far the majority ethnic grouping; however, of those who identified as White, 10% were born outside of Northern Ireland (Ibid.). GB has much higher population shares that are non-White or born outside GB and so findings from GB research may not be totally transferable to the Northern Ireland situation. There are also large differences between different minority ethnic sub-groups (e.g. in terms of employment rates, etc.), so the grouping together of non-Whites as a single group hides major differences between sub-groups.

To allow empirical analysis and trends to be identified, the sample under investigation has been, as previously stated, classified by country of birth into three categories; UK and Ireland, Eastern Europe and Others. When the LFS is used in trend analysis, the UK and Ireland ethnic group ranged between 96.4% and 98.8% over the study period (with the remainder split equally between Eastern Europe and Others). This differs slightly from the Census estimate of 96.3%, because the Census included the non-working-age population, while the LFS analysis does not (Russell, 2013).

In the 2011 Census, only 0.1 % of the Northern Ireland population stated that their ethnicity was Irish Traveller; 1,091 people (Russell, 2013). Irish Travellers are not recorded as a category in the LFS, therefore this analysis does not include any specific consideration of employment inequalities facing Irish Travellers; they are classified by country of birth and are therefore likely to be included within the UK and Ireland sub-group.

Economic status

Economic status by the proxy for racial group is presented in Table 7.2 for Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. Amongst the different groups the in employment rates were lowest for those born in the UK or Ireland at both Q1 2006 (69.2%) and Q1 2012 (69.0%). The UK or Ireland born group also experienced the highest rates of economic inactivity at both Q1 2006 (27.8%) and Q1 2012 (25.9%). At Q1 2006 those born in Eastern Europe had the highest ILO unemployment rate (7.8%) this however, fell to the lowest ILO unemployment rate at Q1 2012 (4.4%). Over the period of study the ILO unemployment rate of the remaining groups rose and at Q1 2012 the ILO unemployment rate was highest for those classed as Other (7.2%).

Table 7.2: Economic Status by country of birth (Source: LFS Q1 2006 & Q1 2012)*

Q1 2006					Q1 2012			
Country of Birth	In employment	ILO unemployed	Economically Inactive	Total	In employment	ILO unemployed	Economically Inactive	Total
Number								
UK and Ireland	714926	31578	287268	1033772	714934	53299	268583	1036816
Eastern Europe	7284	663	520	8467	29613	1588	5029	36230
Others	16359	792	3355	20506	26811	2627	6968	36406
Total	738569	33033	291143	1062745	771358	57514	280580	1109452
Percentage of Population Category								
UK and Ireland %	69.2%	3.1%	27.8%	100.1%	69.0%	5.1%	25.9%	100.0%
Eastern Europe %	86.0%	7.8%	6.1%	99.9%	81.7%	4.4%	13.9%	100.0%
Others %	79.8%	3.9%	16.4%	100.0%	73.6%	7.2%	19.1%	99.9%
Total	69.5%	3.1%	27.4%	100.0%	69.5%	5.2%	25.3%	100.0%
Percentage of Economic Status Category								
UK and Ireland %	96.8%	95.6%	98.7%	97.3%	92.7%	92.7%	95.7%	93.5%
Eastern Europe %	1.0%	2.0%	0.9%	0.8%	3.8%	2.8%	1.8%	3.3%
Others %	2.2%	2.4%	1.2%	1.9%	3.5%	4.6%	2.5%	3.3%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

* Percentages may not sum to 100 due to rounding.

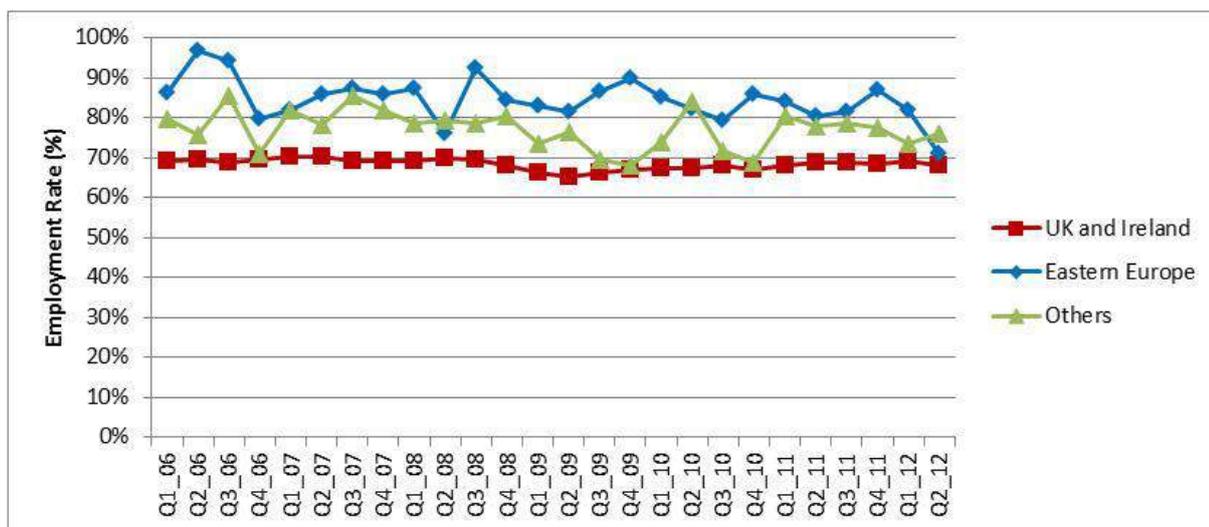
Trends in economic status over the period Q1 2006 to Q1 2012 are presented and discussed in the following sections.

Employment

Employment rates for the working age population as a whole remained constant at 69.5% at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.

Employment rates by broad ethnic group as classified by country of birth are displayed in Figure 7.1. This chart indicates that, if anything, at least up until Q1 2012, those from Eastern Europe had higher employment rates. In Q1 2006, the employment rate of those from Eastern Europe was 86.0%, compared with 79.8% for Others and 69.2% for UK and Ireland, the lowest of the three. Between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, the employment rate for those born in the UK and Ireland changed very little (it was 69.0% in Q1 2012); meanwhile a notable decrease was evident among those born in Eastern Europe, whose rates fell 4.3 percentage points to 81.7% in Q1 2012. Those who belonged to the Others group experienced an even greater decrease of 6.2 percentage points (73.6% were in employment in Q1 2012).

Figure 7.1: Employment rate by country of birth (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



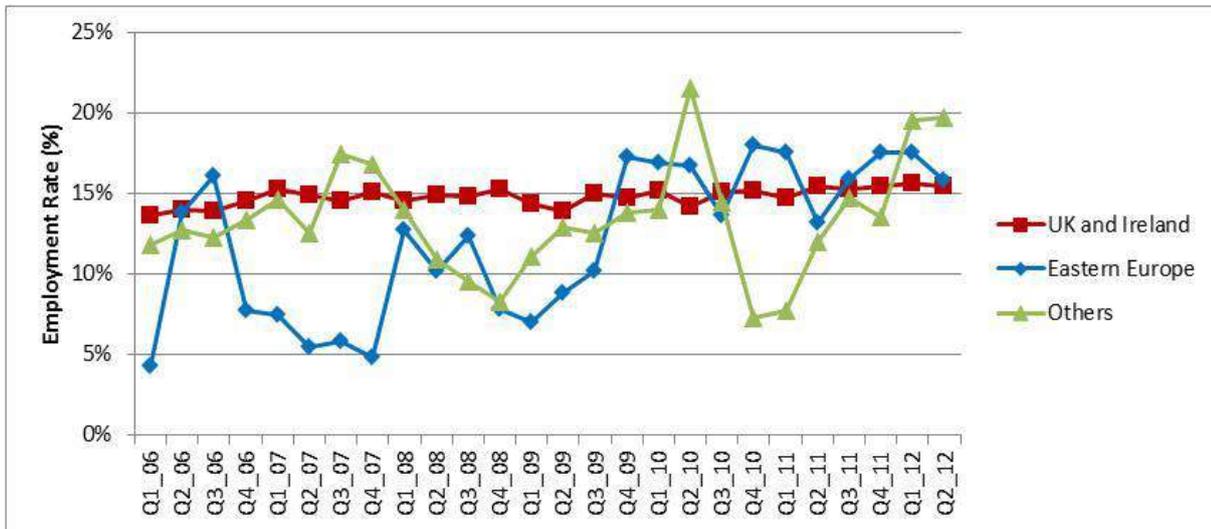
Part-time employment

The proportion of all employees working part-time increased over the period of interest, from 19.5% in Q1 2006 to 23.1% in Q1 2012, an increase of 3.6 percentage points.

The Eastern Europe group was in general less likely to be in part-time work than the UK and Ireland group over the first half of the period of interest, but there was convergence in the latter part of the time period, as is evident from Figure 7.2. In Q1 2006, 13.6% of UK and Ireland born workers were employed part-time, compared with 4.3% of those born in Eastern Europe and 11.8% of those born in Other countries. However,

by Q1 2012, UK and Ireland born workers had the lowest rate of part-time working at 15.5%, compared with 17.5% of those in the Eastern Europe group and 19.5% of those in the Others group.

Figure 7.2: Percentage of those employed working part-time by country of birth (Source: LFS, 2006-2012).

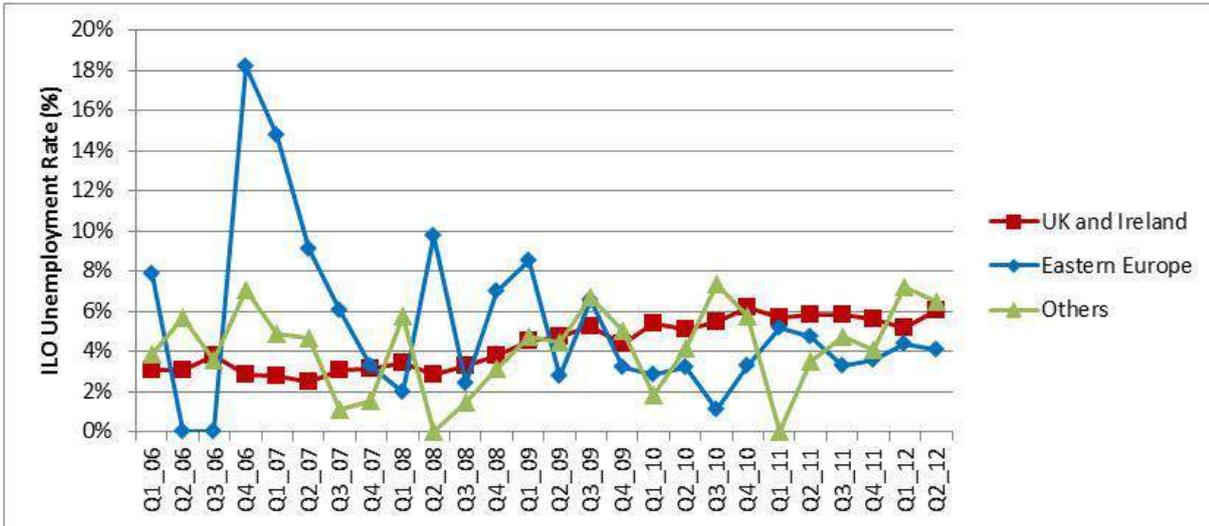


Unemployment

ILO unemployment among the working age population as a whole increased over the period of interest, from 3.1% in Q1 2006 to 5.2% in Q1 2012.

From Figure 7.3 there appears to be little difference in ILO unemployment levels between the groups, with nearly all levels for each group lower than 10.0%, except for the Eastern Europe group during Q4 2006 to Q1 2007 where ILO unemployment rates were over 14.0%. In recent years those from Eastern Europe tended to have lower ILO unemployment rates than those born in the UK or Ireland. In Q1 2006 there was little difference between those born in the UK and Ireland and the Others group (3.1% and 3.9%, respectively), however, the Eastern Europe group had an ILO unemployment rate of nearly double that of the other two groups at 7.8%. By Q1 2012, the rate for those born in Eastern Europe was the lowest at 4.4%, while for those born in the UK and Ireland it had increased to 5.1%, and for those in the Others group it had increased to 7.2%, the highest of the three groups.

Figure 7.3: ILO unemployment rate by country of birth (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

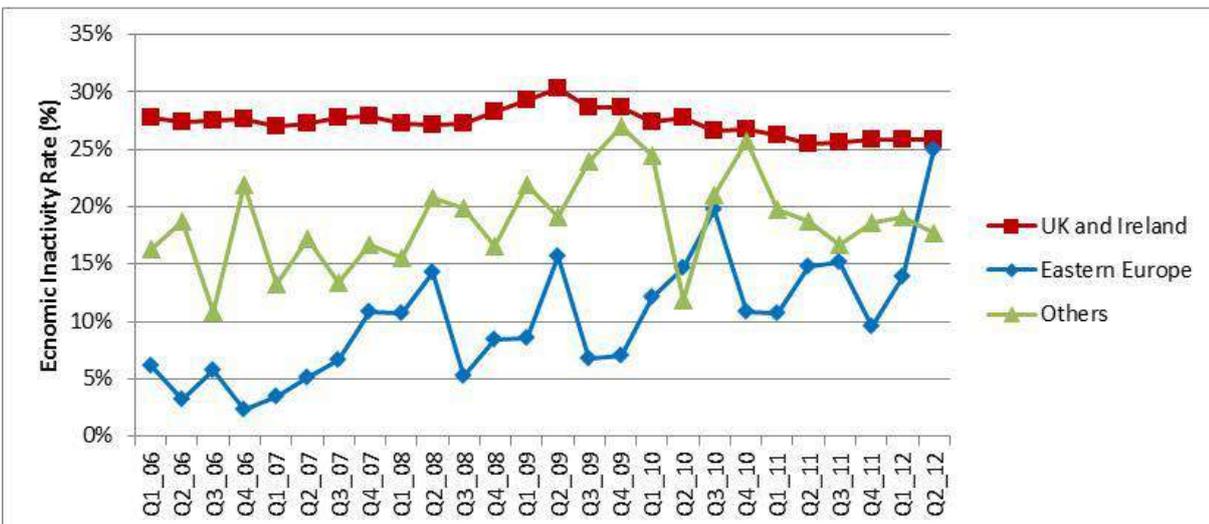


Economic Inactivity

Economic inactivity rates among the working age population as a whole fell slightly over the period of interest, from 27.4% in Q1 2006 to 25.3% in Q1 2012, a fall of 2.1 percentage points.

Economic inactivity rates for the three groups are displayed in Figure 7.4. It is shown that the economic inactivity rates were consistently highest for those born in the UK and Ireland. Whilst the rate of economic inactivity for those born in the UK and Ireland was fairly constant over the period of interest it fell slightly by 1.9 percentage points from Q1 2006 (27.8%) to Q1 2012 (25.9%); this was the only group that showed a decrease in economic inactivity over the time period. By contrast, the economic inactivity rates for those in the Eastern Europe group increased by four times that which the UK and Ireland group fell (7.8 percentage points over the same period from 6.1% in Q1 2006 to 13.9% in Q1 2012). The Others group showed an increase of 2.7 percentage points over the time period (16.4% in Q1 2006 and 19.1% in Q1 2012).

Figure 7.4: Economic inactivity rates by country of birth (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



No analysis of employment among Travellers was attempted here due to a lack of available information. As mentioned above, data from the 2011 Census for Northern Ireland suggests an employment rate of 20% of Travellers between the ages of 16-74 years old, an unemployment rate of 8%, and an economic inactivity rate of 69% (NISRA, 2013b).

Main reasons for not looking for work

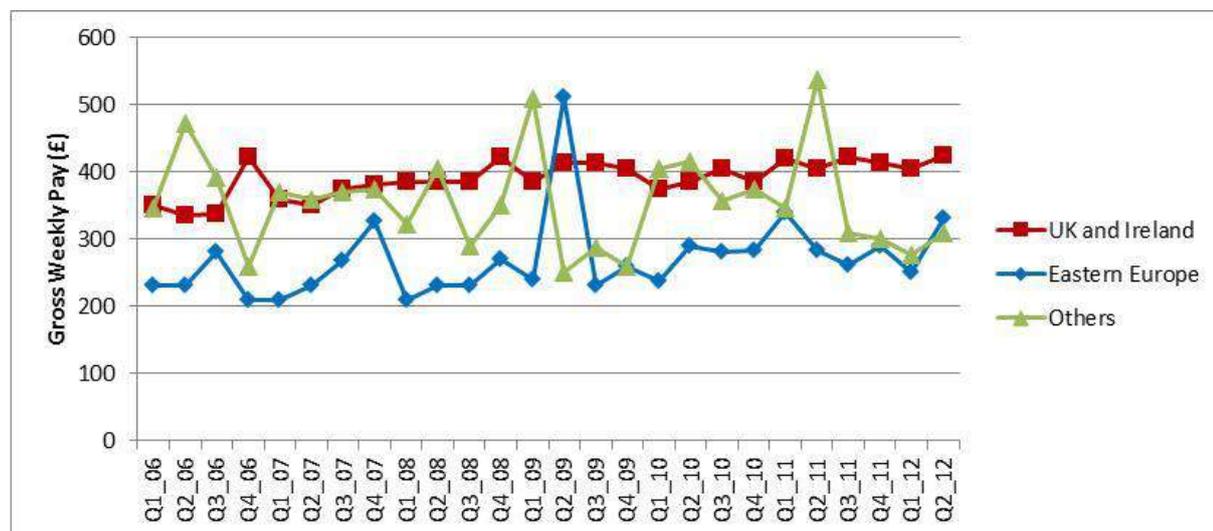
The numbers of those not born in the UK or Ireland in the LFS sample are too small to allow meaningful comparisons of the reasons for not seeking work.

Median gross weekly pay

Median gross weekly pay for all full-time workers was £364 in Q1 2006 and £385 in Q1 2012, a nominal increase of £21 (5.8 %) per week.

The small sample size of full-time workers from the Eastern Europe and Others groups makes comparison difficult. However, there is some evidence that the Eastern Europe and Others groups full-time workers were earning less than the UK and Ireland full-time workers group. Figure 7.5a shows the median gross weekly pay of the three groups. Median pay was consistently lower for the Eastern Europe group (except in Q2 2009) than the other two groups over the period of interest. For the Eastern Europe full-time workers group, median gross weekly pay was £231 in Q1 2006; this experienced a slight increase to £250 in Q1 2012. Full-time workers in the UK and Ireland group saw a slightly bigger increase over this period, from £350 in Q1 2006 to £404 in Q1 2012, while full-time workers in the Others group experienced a decrease from £346 to £277.

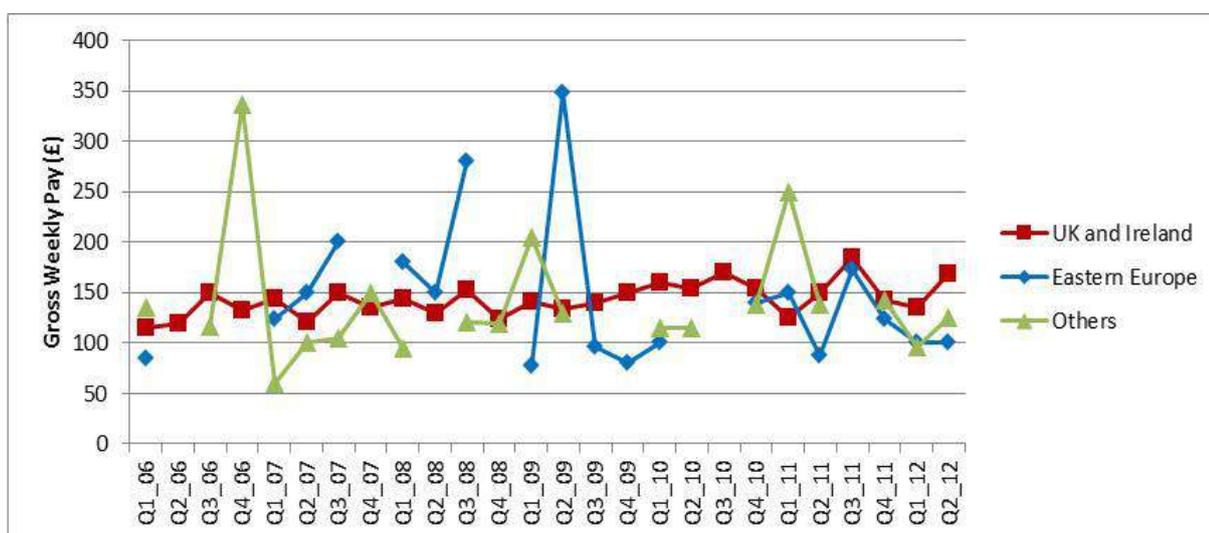
Figure 7.5a: Median gross weekly pay for full-time workers by country of birth (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



For part-time workers, median gross weekly pay for all workers increased by £5 (4.3%) from £115 in Q1 2006 to £120 in Q1 2012.

Figure 7.5b presents the available information on trends in the weekly wages of part-time workers. It is even harder to make comparisons between the groups for part-time wages, as there is insufficient data at some points to produce any estimate at all (as evidenced in the broken lines of the graph). For this reason it is unwise to make any inferences about trends in wages for those in the Eastern Europe or Others groups. For those in the UK and Ireland group there was an increase in median gross weekly pay over the period of 17.4%; from £115 in Q1 2006 to £135 in Q1 2012.

Figure 7.5b: Median gross weekly pay for part-time workers by country of birth (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)⁶⁸



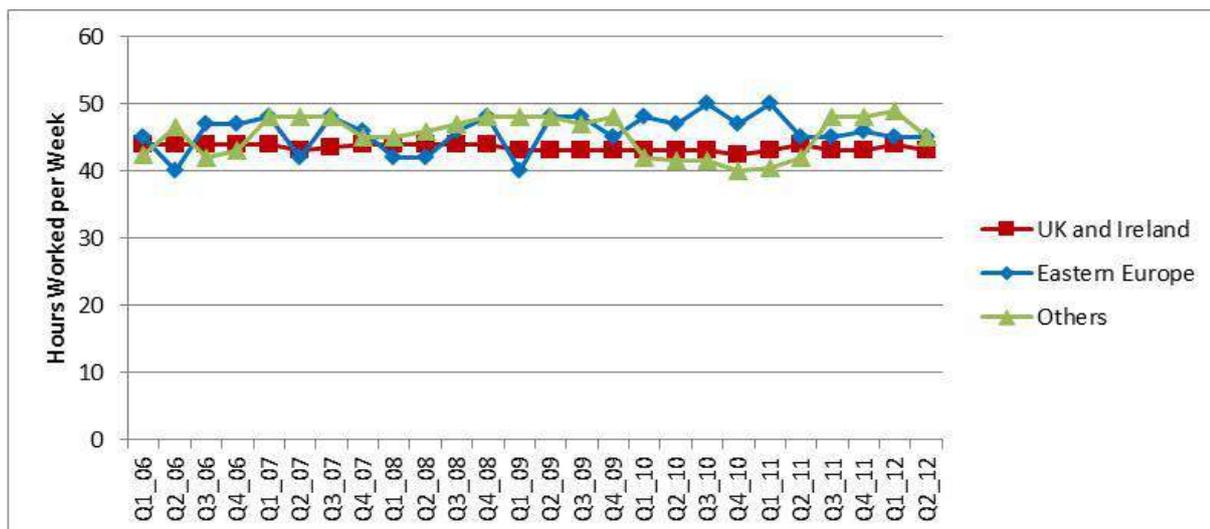
Hours worked per week including overtime

The median hours worked per week including overtime for full-time workers remained stable between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 (44 hours per week) for the working age population as a whole. Part-time workers for the working age population as a whole experienced a slight drop in hours from 23.0 to 22.0 hours per week (in Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, respectively).

Generally, Figure 7.6 shows that at many time points' workers in the Eastern Europe and Others groups worked a little more hours per week than those born in the UK or Ireland. However, the unbalanced sample size does not make drawing inferences appropriate. For workers in the UK and Ireland, Eastern Europe and Others groups, median weekly hours in Q1 2006 were 44, 45 and 42.5 hours respectively, and in Q1 2012 median weekly hours were 44, 45 and 49 hours, respectively. It was not possible to form a chart for part-time workers, because of the low numbers of workers in the Eastern Europe and Others groups.

⁶⁸ Low sample sizes of those not born in the UK or Ireland means that some estimates of gross wages cannot be produced for these groups.

Figure 7.6: Median hours worked per week including overtime for full-time workers by country of birth
 (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



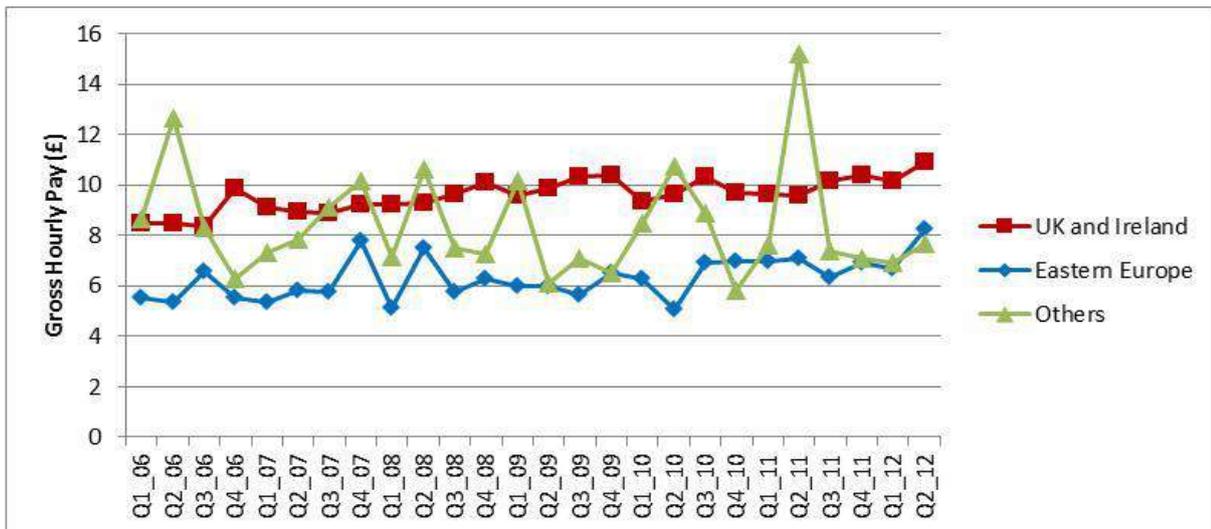
Median gross hourly pay

Median gross hourly pay for all full-time workers was £8.33 per hour in Q1 2006 and £9.87 per hour in Q1 2012, a nominal increase of £1.54 per hour over the period.

Full-time median gross hourly pay rates for the three countries of origin groups are displayed in Figure 7.7. The figure shows that at all time points workers in the Eastern Europe group earned less than those in the UK and Ireland group; at many time points workers in the Eastern Europe group also earned less than those in the Others group.

Median gross hourly pay increased from £8.50 in Q1 2006 to £10.13 in Q1 2012 for full-time workers in the UK and Ireland group, and from £5.50 to £6.67 for full-time workers in the Eastern Europe group over the same period. Full-time workers in the Others group saw a fall in hourly pay over this period from £8.65 in Q1 2006 to £6.93 in Q1 2012.

Figure 7.7: Median gross hourly pay for full-time workers by country of birth (Source: LFS, 2006-2012).



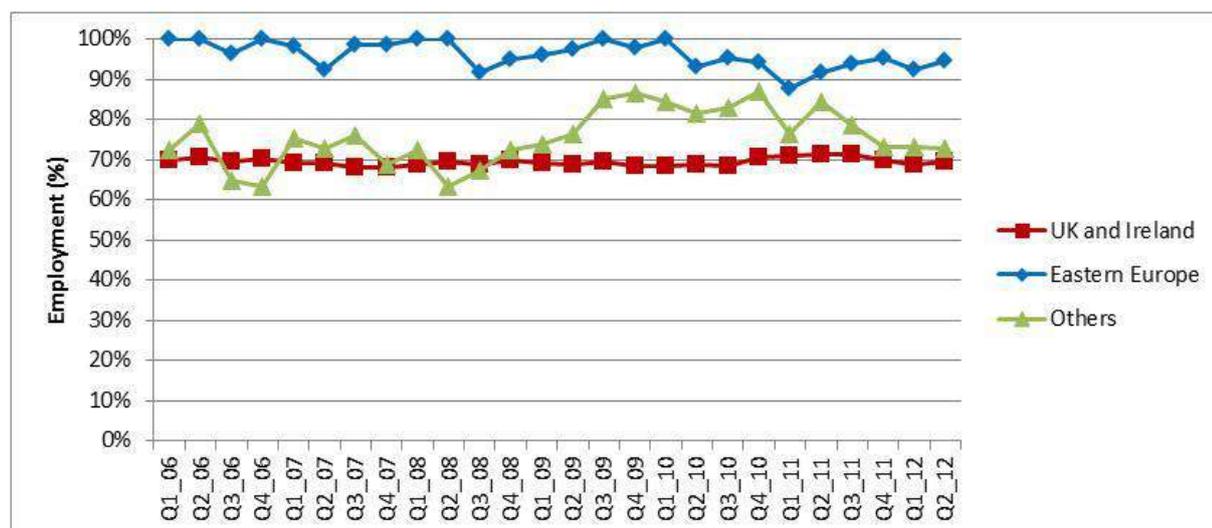
Low sample sizes amongst those in the Eastern Europe and Others groups prevented analysis of hourly pay for part-time workers.

Private sector employment

Employment in the private sector remained fairly constant for the working age population as a whole over the period of interest; it stood at 70.3% in Q1 2006 and 70.0% in Q1 2012.

The proportion of workers in each group employed in the private sector is shown in Figure 7.8. It is suggested from this figure that workers in the Eastern Europe group had a higher tendency to be employed in the private sector than workers in the UK or Ireland or Others group. In Q1 2006 all workers in the Eastern Europe group worked in the private sector; this figure reduced to 92.5% in Q1 2012. The proportion of workers in the UK and Ireland group who worked in the private sector had stayed fairly constant, with little difference between the Q1 2006 proportion of 70.1% and the Q1 2012 proportion of 68.9%. The proportion of workers in the Others group employed in the private sector had fluctuated somewhat, and by Q1 2012 the proportion (73.2%) was higher than it had been in Q1 2006 (72.5%). From Q2 2009, the proportion of workers in the Others group employed in the private sector saw some increase, and this proportion was greater in the second half of the time period than for workers in the UK or Ireland group.

Figure 7.8: Percentage in private sector employment by country of birth (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Industry sector

This section investigates the distribution of employment of each country of birth group across industry sectors, examining the proportion employed and the median gross hourly gross pay in each sector for each group.

The distribution by country of birth group across industry sectors is given in Table 7.3. Figures show that at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 no group other than workers in the UK and Ireland group were employed in 'Agriculture and Fishing' or 'Energy and Water'. In addition, in Q1 2006 no workers in the Eastern Europe group were employed in the 'Transport and Communication', 'Administration, Education and Health' and 'Other Services' sectors and no workers in the Others group were employed in the 'Banking, Finance and Insurance' sector. This picture changed in Q1 2012 where the 'Administration, Education and Health' and 'Other Services' sectors employed workers in the Eastern Europe group. Workers in the Others group were represented across all sectors except for 'Agriculture and Fishing' and 'Energy and Water' in Q1 2012.

The industry sectors with the highest distribution of employees remained the same for each group at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. Therefore, at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012: workers in the UK and Ireland were most highly distributed in the 'Public Administration, Education and Health' sector (34.2% and 36.1%, respectively); workers in the Eastern Europe group were most highly distributed in the 'Manufacturing' sector (43.0% and 51.4%, respectively); and workers in the Others group were most highly distributed in the 'Public Administration, Education and Health' sector (43.2% and 31.9%, respectively).

In terms of the proportion of each sector comprised by each group, workers in the UK or Ireland group unsurprisingly dominated all sectors, given their predominance in the population and subsequently the small sample size of the other groups. At Q1 2006 workers in the UK or Ireland group were over-

represented (i.e. over 96.8%⁶⁹) in all but two industry sectors: 'Manufacturing'; and 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants'; at Q1 2012 the over-representation (i.e. over 92.7%⁷⁰) decreased to all but four industry sectors – the additions were 'Banking, Finance and Insurance etc.' and 'Other Services'.

Workers in the Eastern Europe group had their greatest proportionate representation in Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 in 'Manufacturing' (3.0% and 15.9%, respectively); and experienced a 12.9 percentage point increase over the time period. The non-representation of workers in the Eastern Europe group in over half of the industry sectors at Q1 2006 could account for their over-representation in those they were represented in (i.e. over 1.0%⁷¹). This over-representation lessened in Q1 2012, when more industry sectors employed those in the Eastern Europe group; although 'Manufacturing' and 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' still had an over-representation (i.e. over 3.8%⁷²) of those in the Eastern Europe group in Q1 2012.

Workers in the Others group had their greatest proportionate representation in Q1 2006 in 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' (3.9%), in Q1 2012 this had changed to the 'Other Services' industry sector (6.7%). At Q1 2006 workers in the Others group were over-represented (i.e. over 2.2%⁷³) in three industry sectors: 'Manufacturing'; 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants'; and 'Public Administration, Education and Health'; at Q1 2012 this had increased (i.e. over 3.5%⁷⁴) to four industry sectors: 'Manufacturing'; 'Transport and Communication'; 'Banking, Finance and Insurance etc'; and 'Other Services'.

⁶⁹ At Q1 2006, 96.8% of those in employment were in the UK or Ireland group.

⁷⁰ At Q1 2012, 92.7% of those in employment were in the UK or Ireland group.

⁷¹ At Q1 2006, 1.0% of those in employment were in the Eastern Europe group.

⁷² At Q1 2012, 3.8% of those in employment were in the Eastern Europe group.

⁷³ At Q1 2006, 2.2% of those in employment were in the Others group.

⁷⁴ At Q1 2012, 3.5% of those in employment were in the Others group.

Table 7.3 Industry sector of employment by country of birth (Source: LFS, 2006 and 2012)

Sector (SIC2007)	Q1 2006						Q1 2012					
	UK and Ireland		Eastern Europe		Others		UK and Ireland		Eastern Europe		Others	
	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²
A-B: Agriculture & Fishing	100.0	3.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	3.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
C,E: Energy & Water	100.0	0.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	1.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
D: Manufacturing	94.5	13.7	3.0	43.0	2.4	15.3	78.4	10.6	15.9	51.4	5.7	20.7
F: Construction	97.3	10.1	2.1	21.3	0.6	2.7	99.3	9.6	0.7	1.5	0.0	0.0
G-H: Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants	94.9	19.1	1.3	24.5	3.9	33.8	92.3	19.4	4.6	23.0	3.1	17.5
I: Transport & Communication	98.7	4.9	0.0	0.0	1.3	2.8	95.4	5.1	0.0	0.0	4.6	6.7
J-K: Banking, Finance & Insurance etc.	98.8	9.8	1.2	11.1	0.0	0.0	91.6	10.7	3.6	10.2	4.7	14.7
L-N: Public Admin, Education & Health	97.2	34.2	0.0	0.0	2.8	43.2	95.7	36.1	1.1	10.3	3.2	31.9
O-Q: Other Services	98.7	3.8	0.0	0.0	1.3	2.1	90.0	4.2	3.3	3.7	6.7	8.5

¹ Row: proportion within each sector of country of birth (e.g. In Q1 2006 2.1% of the construction sector were occupied by Eastern Europeans)

² Column: distribution of country of birth across sectors (e.g. In Q1 2006 21.3% of Eastern Europeans were in the construction sector)

Table 7.4 shows the median gross hourly pay in each industry for each of the country of birth groups, and the pay gaps between these groups in each industry. For those workers not in the UK or Ireland group, these estimates are very unreliable due to the small sample sizes and lack of data for many industry sectors – see Appendix 5 Table A5.4.

In Q1 2006, the highest paying sector per hour for workers in the UK or Ireland group was ‘Energy and Water’. Out of the four median gross hourly pay figures available in Q1 2006 for workers in the Eastern Europe group and the three median gross hourly pay figures available for workers in the Others group, the highest paying recorded sectors were ‘Construction’ and ‘Public Administration, Education and Health’, respectively. The lowest paying sector was ‘Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants’ for all groups.

In Q1 2012, the highest hourly paying sector for workers in the UK or Ireland group was ‘Public Administration, Education and Health’. Out of the four median gross hourly pay figures available in Q1 2012 for workers in the Eastern Europe group and the three available for workers in the Others group, the highest paying recorded sectors were ‘Manufacturing’ and ‘Public Administration, Education and Health’, respectively. The lowest paying sectors were ‘Agriculture and Fishing’ for workers in the UK and Ireland group, ‘Public Administration, Education and Health’ for workers in the Eastern Europe group, and ‘Manufacturing’ for workers in the Others group.

In relation to pay gaps results should again be approached with caution, given the limited amount of data available on workers in the Eastern Europe and Others groups. In Q1 2006 the largest pay gap was found between workers in the UK and Ireland group and those in the Eastern Europe group in the ‘Banking, Finance and Insurance’ sector; this gap was £4.80 per hour in favour of those born in the UK or Ireland. In Q1 2012, the largest pay gap was also between workers in the UK and Ireland group and those in the Eastern Europe group, but occurred in the ‘Public Administration, Education & Health’ sector the gap and was £5.50 per hour in favour of workers in the UK or Ireland group.

Table 7.4: Median gross hourly pay in each industry sector by country of birth and pay gaps between groups in each sector (Source: LFS 2006 & 2012)

Sector (SIC20007)	Q1 2006						Q1 2012					
	Median Gross Hourly pay			Pay Gap*			Median Gross Hourly pay			Pay Gap*		
	UK and Ireland	Eastern Europe	Others	UK&I - EE	UK&I - Others	EE - Others	UK and Ireland	Eastern Europe	Others	UK&I - EE	UK&I - Others	EE - Others
A-B: Agriculture & Fishing	£10.16	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	£5.91	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
C,E: Energy & Water	£20.14	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	£7.80	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
D: Manufacturing	£8.33	£5.50	£6.34	£2.83	£1.99	-£0.84	£7.69	£6.67	£6.79	£1.02	£0.90	-£0.12
F: Construction	£9.11	£6.25	n/a	£2.86	n/a	n/a	£10.00	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
G-H: Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants	£6.64	£5.10	£4.33	£1.54	£2.31	£0.77	£7.50	£6.25	n/a	£1.25	n/a	n/a
I: Transport & Communication	£8.39	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	£10.13	n/a	£6.93	n/a	£3.20	n/a
J-K: Banking, Finance & Insurance etc.	£11.00	£6.15	n/a	£4.85	n/a	n/a	£8.24	£5.83	n/a	£2.41	n/a	n/a
L-N: Public Admin, Education & Health	£8.33	n/a	£10.81	n/a	-£2.48	n/a	£11.08	£5.58	£7.29	£5.50	£3.79	-£1.71
O-Q: Other Services	£11.75	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	£9.46	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a

* Pay Gap = median gross hourly pay in group 1 minus median gross hourly pay in group 2; n/a = No data available

Occupation group

This section explores the distribution and proportion of workers born in the UK and Ireland, Eastern Europe and Others groups across occupation groups, and their relative pay in each group. Table 7.5 shows that:

- In Q1 2006 'Skilled Trades Occupation' retained the highest distribution of workers from both the UK and Ireland and Others group (18.1% and 24.1%, respectively). 'Elementary Occupations' retained the highest distribution of workers in the Eastern Europe group (49.3%).
- In Q1 2012 workers in the UK and Ireland and Others group were again more highly distributed in the same occupation group, which had changed from 'Skilled Trades Occupations' to 'Professional Occupations' (18.6% and 35.1%, respectively). The highest distribution of workers in the Eastern Europe group was retained in 'Elementary Occupations'.
- Unsurprisingly the proportion of workers in the UK and Ireland group was high in all occupation groups for both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. However, this lessened most notably in 'Process, Plant and Machine Operatives' and 'Elementary Occupations' in Q1 2012.
- Workers in the Eastern Europe group appear to have experienced vertical segregation in multiple occupation groups. In both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 workers in the Eastern Europe group were under-represented (i.e. under 1.0%⁷¹ at Q1 2006 and under 3.8%⁷² at Q1 2012) in higher level occupations such as: 'Managers and Senior Officials'; 'Professional Occupations' (they were not represented at all in Q1 2006); 'Associate, Professional and Technical'; and 'Administrative and Secretarial' (they were not represented at all in Q1 2006 or Q1 2012) occupations.
- Whilst workers in the Eastern Europe group were not represented at all in two of the mid to lower level occupation groups at Q1 2006; 'Personal Service Occupations'; and 'Sales and Customer Service Occupations', representation had increased in Q1 2012 to the point where the Eastern Europe group were over-represented (over 3.8%) in 'Sales and Customer Services Occupations'. Again, care must be taken in the interpretation of these results due to small sample sizes.
- Those in the Others group also experienced some vertical segregation with respect to the highest occupation group level: 'Managers and Senior Officials' occupations at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012; this segregation increased in Q1 2012 where no workers in the Others group were employed in 'Managers and Senior Officials' occupations.

Table 7.5 Occupation group by country of birth (Source: LFS, 2006 and 2012)

Occupation (SOC10)	Q1 2006						Q1 2012					
	UK and Ireland		Eastern Europe		Others		UK and Ireland		Eastern Europe		Others	
	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²
Managers and Senior Officials	98.4	9.9	0.7	7.1	0.9	3.7	98.4	9.2	1.6	3.5	0.0	0.0
Professional Occupations	97.3	12.3	0.0	0.0	2.7	14.9	92.7	18.6	0.8	3.8	6.5	35.1
Associate Professional and Technical	96.0	11.9	0.5	6.4	3.5	18.7	95.0	10.8	1.0	2.8	4.0	12.1
Administrative and Secretarial	98.9	13.6	0.0	0.0	1.1	6.6	98.6	13.7	0.0	0.0	1.4	5.4
Skilled Trades Occupations	95.9	18.1	1.1	20.6	2.9	24.1	94.1	14.1	3.1	11.2	2.8	11.2
Personal Service Occupations	97.6	7.4	0.0	0.0	2.4	7.7	95.6	9.6	0.9	2.3	3.5	9.3
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	98.0	8.4	0.0	0.0	2.0	7.4	91.3	7.9	3.9	8.2	4.8	11.2
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	95.3	8.9	1.8	16.6	2.9	11.7	78.3	5.5	18.2	30.6	3.5	6.7
Elementary Occupations	93.8	9.5	5.0	49.3	1.1	5.0	84.6	10.5	12.7	37.8	2.7	8.9

¹ Row: proportion within each occupation of country of birth (e.g. In Q1 2012 0.8% of professional occupations were occupied by Eastern Europeans)

² Column: distribution of country of birth across occupations (e.g. In Q1 2012 3.8% of Eastern Europeans were in professional occupations)

Variation in median gross hourly pay across occupation groups for workers in the UK and Ireland, Eastern Europe and Others groups is presented in Table 7.6. For workers in the UK and Ireland group the top three hourly paid occupations at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 were: 1. 'Professional Occupations'; 2. 'Managers and Senior Officials'; and 3. 'Associate Professional and Technical' occupations. Since data is only available for three of the occupation groups, some of which are at different time points, for workers in the Eastern Europe group it is impractical to list top hourly paid occupations. Nearly all occupation groups provided a median gross hourly pay figure for workers in the Others group (six out of nine at Q1 2006 and eight out of nine at Q1 2012). The top three hourly paid occupations for workers in the Others group at Q1 2006 were therefore: 1. 'Professional Occupations'; 2. 'Administrative and Secretarial'; and 3. 'Associate Professional and Technical'. In Q1 2012 these changed to: 1. 'Associate Professional and Technical'; 2. 'Skilled Trades Occupations'; and 3. 'Professional Occupations'.

The lowest paid occupation group in Q1 2006 was 'Elementary Occupations' for workers in the UK or Ireland and Eastern Europe groups (although only three occupation groups had values for workers in the Eastern Europe group); for workers in the Others group the lowest paid occupation was 'Skilled Trades Occupations'. In Q1 2012 the lowest paid occupation group was 'Sales and Customer Service Occupations' for workers in the UK or Ireland group, 'Professional Occupations' for workers in the Eastern Europe group (although only three occupation groups had values for workers in the Eastern Europe group) and 'Elementary Occupations' for workers in the Others group.

In Q1 2006, the largest hourly pay gap recorded between workers in the UK or Ireland group and workers in the Eastern Europe group was £6.1, in favour of those in the UK or Ireland group, among 'Managers and Senior Officials', but in Q1 2012 it was in 'Professional Occupations', with an hourly pay gap of £11.4, also in favour of the UK and Ireland group (although pay gaps were only calculable for three occupation groups). When workers in the UK or Ireland group were compared to workers in the Others group, the highest pay gap was £3.6 in 'Skilled Trades Occupations' in Q1 2006, and £9.0 in 'Professional Occupations' in Q1 2012, both in favour of the UK and Ireland group. Pay gaps between workers in the Eastern Europe group compared to workers in the Others group could not be calculated for all but one of the occupation groups in Q1 2006. However, in Q1 2012 a calculation was possible for three occupation groups and showed that workers in the Others group were paid an average of £2.4 more per hour in 'Professional Occupations' than workers in the Eastern Europe group.

Table 7.6: Median gross hourly pay in each industry sector by country of birth and pay gaps between groups in each sector (Source: LFS 2006 & 2012)

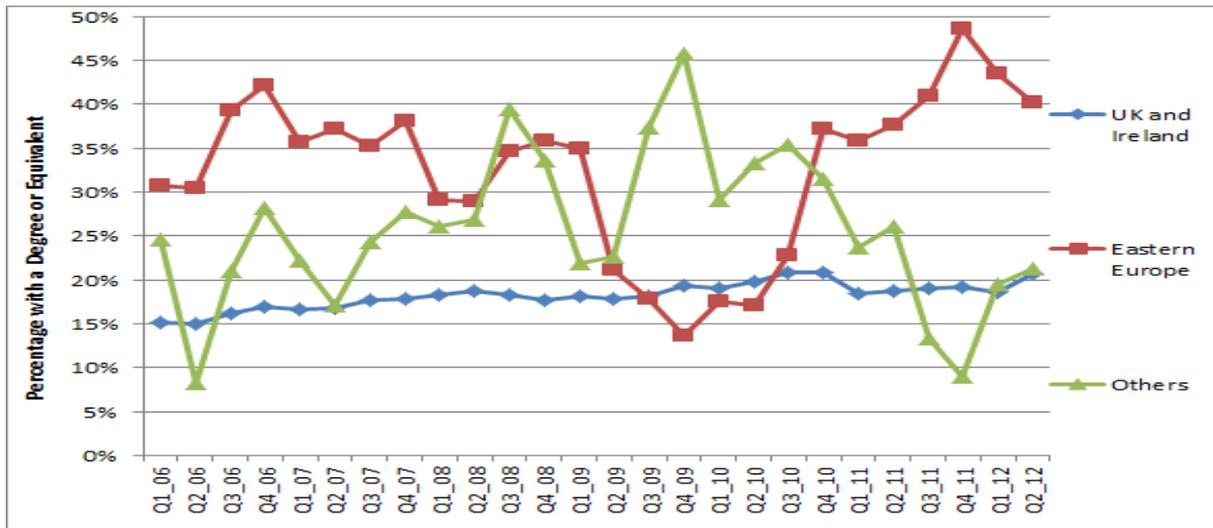
Occupation (SOC 10)	Q1 2006						Q1 2012					
	Median Gross Hourly pay			Pay Gap*			Median Gross Hourly pay			Pay Gap*		
	UK and Ireland	Eastern Europe	Others	UK&I - EE	UK&I - Others	EE - Others	UK and Ireland	Eastern Europe	Others	UK&I - EE	UK&I - Others	EE - Others
Managers and Senior Officials	£11.8	£5.8	n/a	£6.1	n/a	n/a	£12.3	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Professional Occupations	£15.0	n/a	£13.5	n/a	£1.5	n/a	£17.0	£5.6	£8.0	£11.4	£9.0	-£2.4
Associate Professional and Technical	£10.4	n/a	£8.8	n/a	£1.6	n/a	£11.9	n/a	£12.0	n/a	-£0.1	n/a
Administrative and Secretarial	£8.1	n/a	£10.8	n/a	-£2.8	n/a	£9.5	n/a	£7.3	n/a	£2.2	n/a
Skilled Trades Occupations	£7.6	£6.2	£4.0	£1.4	£3.6	£2.2	£7.7	n/a	£10.0	n/a	-£2.3	n/a
Personal Service Occupations	£6.3	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	£7.5	n/a	£7.2	n/a	£0.3	n/a
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	£6.5	n/a	£7.0	n/a	-£0.4	n/a	£6.6	n/a	£6.9	n/a	-£0.3	- n/a
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	£7.8	n/a	£6.3	n/a	£1.5	n/a	£8.0	£6.7	£6.8	£1.3	£1.2	-£0.1
Elementary Occupations	£6.2	£5.5	n/a	£0.7	n/a	n/a	£7.4	£6.3	£5.9	£1.1	£1.4	£0.4

* Pay Gap = median gross hourly pay in age group 1 minus median gross hourly pay in age group 2; n/a = No data available

Qualifications

Figure 7.9a presents the proportion of workers in the UK and Ireland, Eastern Europe and the Others groups holding a degree or equivalent. This indicates that degree holding tends to be higher amongst workers in the Eastern Europe group than workers in the UK or Ireland group. A noticeable dip was evident for workers in the Eastern Europe group between Q3 2009 and Q3 2010; the time periods in-between were the only time that the UK and Ireland group had a higher proportion of workers who held degree or equivalent qualifications than the Eastern Europe group. In total, the qualification gap between workers in the UK and Ireland and Eastern Europe group widened from Q1 2006 to Q1 2012 in favour of the latter group. The line graph also shows that at most time points workers in the Others group had a higher proportion of workers who held degree or equivalent qualifications than those in the UK and Ireland group. In the main workers in the Eastern Europe group had a higher proportion of workers who held degree or equivalent qualifications than workers in the Others group, except for the time periods in which the Eastern Europe group experienced a dip (discussed above).

Figure 7.9a: Percentage holding a degree by country of birth (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

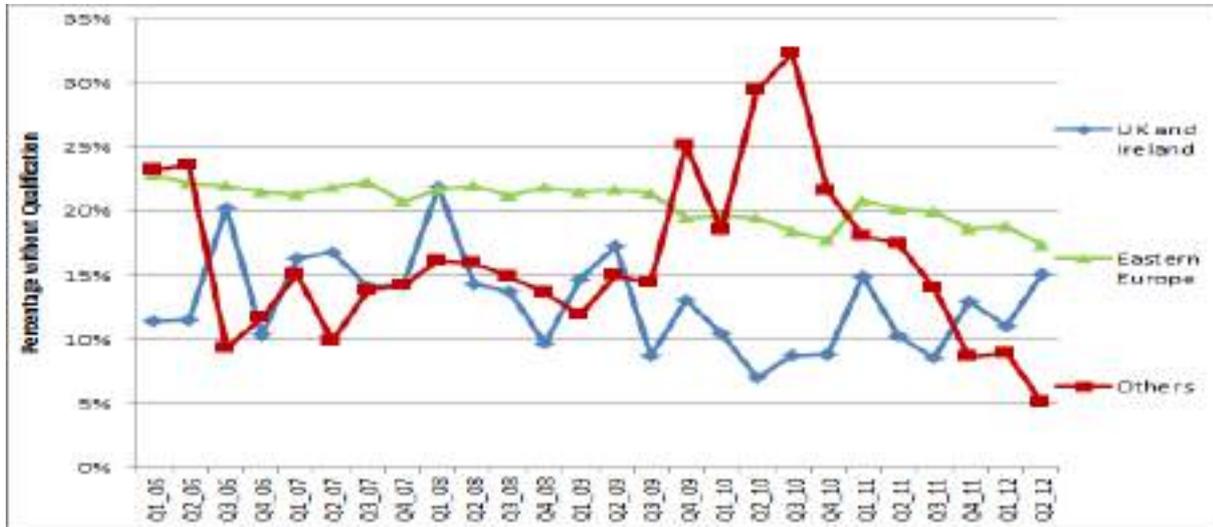


Data from the 2011 Census for Northern Ireland suggests a lower rate of degree holding among those born in the post-2004 EU Accession countries than among the UK and Ireland born population, at 18% and 23% respectively (NISRA, 2013b). However it should be noted that the post-2004 accession category does not correspond exactly with the Eastern Europe category used here, and that the Census figures are for all residents aged 16 years old and over, while the LFS figures presented here are for the working age population as defined at the beginning of this chapter.

The proportion of each group holding no qualifications is represented in Figure 7.9b. A lower proportion of workers in the UK and Ireland group held no qualifications compared to workers in the Eastern Europe group. The same holds true over much of the time period with regard to workers in the Others group, where workers in the UK and Ireland group had a lower proportion of those who held no qualifications. Except for a few time points, shown on the graph, workers in the Others group had a lower proportion of those who held no qualifications than workers in the Eastern Europe group. Again the 2011 Census for

Northern Ireland (NISRA, 2013b) suggested a higher proportion holding no qualifications among those born in the UK and Ireland (30%) relative to those born in the post-2004 EU accession countries (17%), although the same caveats should be borne in mind regarding the categories employed and the age of the sample.

Figure 7.9b: Percentage with no qualifications by country of birth (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



No analysis is conducted here for the presence of qualifications among Travellers, but previous research has suggested that attainment is extremely low. The majority, 64%, of non-Travellers leave school with at least five GCSEs at A*-C, while for Travellers this proportion is just 11% (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2011). Data from the Department of Education Northern Ireland’s School Leaver Survey showed that, for the period 2003/04 to 2008/09, 61.9% of Traveller school leavers achieved no GCSEs, compared with 2.9% of all pupils in 2008/09 (as cited by the Taskforce on Traveller Education, 2011). There is a high prevalence of special educational needs (SEN) among Traveller pupils; over half (54%) of Traveller pupils of statutory school age have been identified as having SEN in comparison with 20% of all pupils. Low attainment may also be attributed to early dropout; the dropout rate after primary school is 40-50% (ibid.). Attendance at school is also low for a number of reasons: a perception of low expectations of Traveller children on the part of teachers and a resulting poor quality of education; a fear of bullying and a tendency of Traveller parents to remove children being bullied; a lack of effort on the part of schools to chase up attendance of Traveller children; and a perception among Traveller children that education is not relevant to them and their future plans (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2008).

Transport

Little can be reliably inferred from the LFS data, as the numbers of those born in Eastern Europe and elsewhere are few compared to those born in the UK or Ireland. However, for the small group of Eastern Europe born workers, reported median travel times to work were 15 minutes in 2006 and 2012, compared to 20 minutes (in both years) for those born in the UK or Ireland. The Others born group took a median of 20 minutes to travel to work in 2006 and 17 minutes in 2012. Those not born in the UK or Ireland used cars, vans or motorcycles much less than those born in the UK or Ireland; 60.8% of those born in Eastern Europe and 62.1% of those born in Other countries compared to 84.7% for those born in the UK or Ireland. In 2012

those born outside the UK and Ireland also walked, cycled and used public transport more than those born in the UK or Ireland; 39.2% and 35.9% for those born in Eastern Europe and Others respectively, compared to 14.3% for those born in the UK or Ireland.

Attitudes

The NILTS asked a number of questions relating to attitudes towards migrants and Irish Travellers; responses are summarised in Table 7.7 for the 2006 and 2010 surveys. Responses are given for all respondents and then separately for large employers and senior managers – i.e. those with positions of influence in the workplace. The results of the views of large employers and senior managers should be read with caution given the low sample sizes at both time points.

Whilst results show a fall in the perceived level of prejudice against people from minority ethnic groups between 2006 and 2010 for all respondents (51.5% in 2006 and 43.2% in 2010) and also for large employers and higher managerial occupations (57.1% in 2006 and 39.5% in 2010) there is still over a third of respondents from each group that believe ‘a lot’ of prejudice still exists. The level of racial prejudice in Northern Ireland compared to five years previous to the survey and the projected level of prejudice in the five years after the survey also decreased between 2006 and 2010. Whereas 71.1% of all respondents in 2006 thought the level of prejudice was more compared to five years previously a much reduced figure of 48.9% believed this in 2010. A greater proportion of large employers and higher managerial occupations in 2010 believed prejudice was more than five years previously (60.5%) than when all respondents were considered (48.9%); the view of large employers and higher managerial occupations decreased by 8.1 percentage points in this area. With regard to the projected level of prejudice becoming more in the next five years large percentage point decreases were evident for both all respondents (22.8 percentage points) and large employers and higher managerial occupations (39.4 percentage points). This brought the proportion of all respondents and large employers and higher managerial occupations who believed this from over half (54.6% and 65.7%, respectively) to under a third (31.8% and 26.3%, respectively) (ibid.).

All respondents indicated that the group there was most prejudice against in Northern Ireland in both 2006 and 2010 were Polish migrants. Large employer and higher managerial occupations indicated that, for them, the group there was most prejudice against in Northern Ireland in both 2006 and 2010 was Irish Travellers, although Polish migrants were a close second. Increases in perceived prejudice against all groups shown in Table 7.7 were evident between 2006 and 2010 for both all respondents and large employers and higher managerial occupations (ibid.).

Acceptance of Irish Travellers and other minority ethnic migrants has increased greatly for all respondents and large employers and higher managerial occupations for both living in a house in local areas and as a work colleague. The same is also true for acceptance of migrants from Eastern Europe; in addition the majority would accept migrants from Eastern Europe as residents of Northern Ireland. Increased acceptance of Irish Travellers for all respondents may be due to an increased proportion that is of the opinion that Irish Travellers are treated unfairly (this increased by 13.8 percentage points over the time period). The acceptance of people of Islamic faith, that is Muslims, as a work colleague increased from a third in 2006 to over three quarters in 2010. For large employers and higher managerial occupations

acceptance of Muslims as work colleagues increased from a third to nearly all between 2006 and 2010 (ibid.).

Whilst the opinion that migrant workers take jobs from people born in Northern Ireland had lessened over the time period (by 8.1 percentage points for all respondents and 30.5 percentage points for large employers and higher managerial occupations) over a third of all respondents and nearly a fifth of larger employers and higher managerial occupations still agreed that this was the case. In the main all respondents did not agree that migrant workers are good for the Northern Ireland economy; good opinion declined by over a quarter over the time period from 52.7% in 2006 to 25.7% in 2010. The opposite was true for large employers and higher managerial occupations where an increasing proportion agreed that migrant workers were good for the Northern Ireland economy (ibid.).

Further sources that explore attitudes toward minority ethnic groups include the Equality Commission for Northern Ireland's Equality Awareness Surveys. Findings from the 2011 Equality Awareness Survey (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012) found considerable prejudice against Irish Travellers in the workplace, with over a third of respondents saying that they would mind having an Irish Traveller as a work colleague (a figure similar to the results from the NILTS for those who would not accept Irish Travellers as a work colleague). This represents a small improvement from the figure of 38% in 2008, but it is considerably higher than the 2005 figure of 24%; this does not suggest that attitudes towards Travellers in the workplace are becoming more tolerant over time. However, respondents were less opposed to having a Traveller as a colleague than they were as a neighbour (54%) or married to a close relative (55%). There is little perception that prejudice against Travellers is unfair; only 16% of respondents perceived that Travellers are treated unfairly as a group. Of those who felt that Travellers were treated unfairly, this was predominantly in relation to being harassed (24%), or treated unfairly when expressing their culture (21%) or using shops, bars or restaurants (17%). Only 4.5% of those who thought that Travellers were treated unfairly thought that they were treated unfairly at work.

The 2011 Equality Awareness Survey also asked about attitudes to migrant workers from Eastern Europe and people from Black or minority ethnic (BME) groups. A quarter of respondents said that they would mind having a migrant worker from Eastern Europe as a colleague (the same question was not asked regarding those from BME groups). A total of 19% perceived that migrant workers were treated unfairly, and of these people, almost half thought that this unfair treatment occurred at work. Perceptions of unfair treatment of BME people were slightly lower at 16%, and only 23% thought this occurred at work.

Table 7.7: Attitudes to migrants and Irish Travellers (Source NILTS 2006 and 2010)

Question	All respondents %, 2006 (N= 957)	All respondents %, 2010 (N = 937)	Large employers and higher managerial occupations %, 2006 (N=35)	Large employers and higher managerial occupations %, 2010 (N=20)
Level of prejudice in NI against people from minority ethnic communities (A lot)	51.5	43.2	57.1	39.5
Level of racial prejudice in NI compared with 5 years ago (More)	71.1	48.9	68.6	60.5
Level of racial prejudice in NI in the next 5 years (More)	54.6	31.8	65.7	26.3
Group there is most prejudice against in NI	Polish (27.6)	Polish (33.7)	Irish Traveller (28.6)	Irish Traveller (31.6)
	Irish Traveller (14.7)	Irish Traveller (17.3)	Polish (22.9)	Polish (28.9)
	South Asian (12.9)	Romanian (17.1)	South Asian (20.0)	Romanian (23.7)
Accept Irish Traveller living in house in local areas (Y)	25.9	48.9	11.1	100
Accept Irish Traveller as a colleague (Y)	24.8	77.6	37.1	84.2
Accept Eastern European as resident of NI (Y)	67.5	84.5	77.1	100
Accept Eastern European as a resident in local area (Y)	40.7	84.0	42.9	100
Accept Eastern European as a colleague	40.9	89.8	48.6	100
Accept other ethnic group as a colleague	41.5	95.5	60.0	100
Accept other ethnic as a resident of NI	74.5	92.5	80.0	100
Accept a Muslim as a colleague	34.4	77.0	33.3	94.4
Migrant workers take jobs from people born in NI (Agree and Strongly Agree)	47.9	39.8	48.9	18.4
Migrant workers good for NI economy (Agree and Strongly Agree)	52.7	25.7	60.0	71.1
Travellers treated unfairly (Y)	30.8	44.4	38.9	34
Other ethnic minorities treated unfairly (Y)	42.3	42.0	42.9	44.7

Stakeholder views on minority ethnic and racial inequalities in employment

According to stakeholders, the key barrier to employment for those from minority ethnic, migrant and Irish Traveller backgrounds is discrimination. Their views on this corresponded to the statistics presented above on the high levels of prejudice against these groups that is still evident in Northern Ireland. Although discrimination was cited as an issue that most minority ethnic groups have in common, it was noted there are substantial differences within the minority ethnic population on attributes such as educational attainment and degree of integration into local communities. Discrimination was also considered to be an issue that predates the recession and transcends economic conditions to a great extent, although weak labour demand may amplify the fear of being made redundant among those who have the most to lose because they are not entitled to benefits, or risk being deported.

Stakeholders who worked with migrant workers reported that English proficiency can be an issue among first generation migrants, and there is little government-provided provision to improve this, but those who migrate early in life, or are born in Northern Ireland to migrant parents, are unlikely to have this problem. Low educational attainment among some minority ethnic groups is not necessarily due to poor English, as it occurs even among young people who can speak English, and does not occur across all minority ethnic groups; some Asian groups outperform White students, while those from a Black African background fare the worst. It is not entirely clear why this is, and there is a lack of research on the issue as it relates to Northern Ireland and its education system, but family structure may play a role. Migrant workers may also be seen as having limited qualifications if the qualifications they obtain overseas are not fully recognised by employers.

Stakeholders argued that there is a high degree of occupational segregation in the minority ethnic population and that the distribution of minority ethnic groups is not even across occupations. They report that there are particular concentrations of minority ethnic groups in shops, restaurants and takeaways, and the healthcare sector. It was thought that this is to some extent tied to the original reasons for migration – to take up a particular professional position, or for economic reasons. Although second and third generation migrants are more likely to move into a more diversified set of occupations, in a recession when jobs are difficult to obtain, they may end up working in their parents' businesses, thus perpetuating the segregation. Migrant workers may also struggle to progress in employment in the same way as 'native' employees, although the perception that they are not suited to higher level positions operates on the side of the employee as well as the employer.

A group identified by stakeholders as particularly segregated in employment was Irish Travellers. Stakeholders who have worked with Irish Travellers suggested that low labour market engagement might be due to the operation of businesses that are not registered with the government and the retention of skills and trades for exclusive use within their own community. It was reported by stakeholders that Irish Travellers face particular internal and external barriers to engaging with the labour market: fear and suspicion of mainstream employment and services; cultural differences around work-related behaviours such as department and timekeeping; and the possibility of any involvement in education or training being interrupted by travelling or what is happening within the family or community. It was felt that bullying and discrimination at school, and high non-attendance and dropout rates, mean that Irish Travellers are likely to

leave school without qualifications, and – generally speaking, although not always – Irish Travellers may place a low value on formal educational attainments.

Stakeholders from the Migrant Workers Helpline identified a number of issues faced in the workplace by migrant workers. The most common issue is a dispute over pay. This often involves employers who systematically underpay, compensate for fewer hours than the employee worked, or refuse holiday or sick pay. The second most common enquiries relate to unfair dismissals and leave entitlements, such as the refusal to allow maternity leave, flexible working and paid holiday leave. Overt racism was considered not that common; it tends to take more subtle forms such as exclusion, or the unequal application of standards of performance or behaviour. As with Irish Travellers, migrant workers report cultural misunderstandings around speech and behaviour, for example directness that is misconstrued as rudeness. However, the impact of these cultural misunderstandings in relation to their experiences in the workplace has not often been addressed.

Issues associated with agency work were also highlighted by stakeholders. Many migrant workers find employment through agencies; largely because of the language barrier. The use of an agency obviates the need to read adverts, make applications, etc. whereby the agency acts as a broker. However, stakeholders point out that this can lead to problematic employment conditions. Whilst agency workers are supposed to be entitled to the same rights as in-house staff after a certain period of time many sign 'contracts' with their agency that offer some payment between jobs in return for waiving these rights. Therefore the workers become employees of the agency, subject to the conditions of the agency not the host employer. Stakeholders reported that dependence on agencies also persists even after workers learn English; although they could be in a position to leave the agency and find a job on their own, the agency keeps them with promises of contracts, employment rights, etc. in the future.

Policy responses to minority ethnic and racial inequalities in employment

The Race Relations (Northern Ireland) Order 1997 (the RRO), as amended by the Race Relations Order (Amendment) Regulations (Northern Ireland) 2003 outlaws discrimination on the grounds of colour, race, nationality or ethnic or national origin. The RRO makes it unlawful to discriminate in the fields of employment, education, the disposal and management of premises, and the provision of goods, facilities and services. The RRO also states that segregation on racial grounds constitutes discrimination. The Irish Traveller community is specifically identified in the RRO as a racial group which is protected against unlawful racial discrimination.

Migrant workers

There have been a number of legislative developments in recent years that have aimed to improve the position of those using agencies, with a particular focus on migrant workers. For example, the EU Agency Workers Directive⁷⁵ was introduced in 2008; this Directive was implemented in 2011 through the Agency Workers Regulations (Northern Ireland) 2011, which gives agency workers some rights from the day they start, and equal treatment rights (to pay and other conditions such as leave and rest breaks) once they have been employed for twelve weeks. Further protection is offered to workers through the Gangmasters Licensing Authority⁷⁶ which aims to protect vulnerable workers within a number of industries such as agriculture, horticulture and food and drink processing and packaging.

There is some partnership working around the issue of migrant workers' employment conditions. The Employment Agency Inspectorate holds seminars for organisations in the community and voluntary sector to increase their knowledge of employment rights, and the recourse available should those rights be infringed. The Department for Employment and Learning chairs the Migrant Workers sub-group of the Racial Equality Forum, which aims to establish that the needs of migrant workers and those who advise them are adequately met. A new body has been established – the Northern Ireland Strategic Migration Partnership – which plans activities such as an information website for migrants.

In an attempt to improve the recognition of qualifications obtained abroad, migrants have access to a service that gives them access to information from the UK National Academic Recognition Information Centre qualifications databases, to allow them to compare their own qualifications to local ones. However, employers are not obliged to accept the equivalisation.

Irish Traveller education

Education authorities are formally opposed to segregated education, but there is a degree of *de facto* segregation of Irish Traveller children across different sectors, particularly in Belfast. Education and Library Boards provide some services to schools with Traveller children, although this varies between Boards, and the Department for Education has acknowledged the need for better co-ordination in this respect (Taskforce on Traveller Education, 2011). The Department for Education provides funding to schools (£1028 per pupil) and ELBs (£476 per capita) for Irish Traveller education services, which usually take the form of additional staff members, tasked with Irish Traveller welfare, or youth or community drop-in centres.

There is a system in place to track children who drop out of school and do not re-enrol elsewhere, and although schools will not pursue a parent if the family is travelling, the Education and Library Boards have a statutory duty to follow up on children who drop out, and will liaise with organisations such as Traveller Support Groups in doing so.

⁷⁵ <http://www.euromove.org.uk/index.php?id=15075>

⁷⁶ <http://gla.defra.gov.uk/>

The Taskforce on Traveller Education (2011) recently made a number of recommendations for improvement. These included:

- A more co-ordinated approach and better partnership working.
- Engaging with and supporting Traveller parents, as their buy-in is needed.
- Education and careers advice should take account of Travellers' world of work, but also encourage broadening of horizons. There appears to be a move away from segregated education for Traveller children.
- Staff should receive anti-racism training and be more informed about Traveller culture and heritage.

Improving policy responses to minority ethnic and racial inequalities in employment

Stakeholders felt that the legislation that existed to protect minority ethnic and migrant workers from discrimination and exploitation was not always effective. Northern Ireland was slow to adopt race legislation compared to the rest of the UK, and it is yet to become institutionally embedded. Although migrant workers theoretically have access to the same employment rights as all employees, they may not be in a position to access these rights. This is particularly the case with migrant workers who are on work permits tied to particular employers; their high risk of deportation (they only have one month to find new job if they resign or are dismissed), means they are reluctant to complain about their employers. Even for those who are willing to complain, there is a lack of access to justice in cases of exploitation and discrimination. Although the Equality Commission for Northern Ireland represent some cases, they do not represent all those who request it, and will decline cases that are not within its strategic priorities. The representation in cases of employment rights infringements of migrant workers is within the strategic priorities of the Law Centre (NI), but access to this service is not guaranteed, and cases are prioritised according to a case selection policy⁷⁷. Beyond this, there is no access to subsidised independent representation, and most migrant workers are not in a position to finance this themselves. The bureaucracy of the process is also a barrier to those who may not be fluent in English.

For Travellers, there is little provision for employment services targeted at their needs. Although Travellers have access to Steps to Work, and some do participate, it is unlikely to be effective because it does not address the cultural, complex and specific barriers that Travellers face to employment. With assistance from specialised employment services, such as those offered by An Múna Tober, with aspects such as applications and interviews, Travellers can be placed in employment, but they do not always receive the specialised help to do so.

In order for Travellers to be able to access employment, issues of poor educational outcomes need to be addressed. Stakeholders argued that current policy provision is failing to help Traveller children and young

⁷⁷ Law Centre NI Strategic Case Selection Policy, 2012-2013, <http://www.lawcentreni.org/Publications/Strategic-Case-Selection-Policy-2012.pdf>

people. There used to be some alternative education programmes, but funding for these was cut and the programmes ceased to exist. There is little assistance available for Traveller children between the ages of 5-10 years old, normally attending Traveller specific primary schools, to help them prepare for their transition to post-primary education alongside pupils from the settled community; indeed, these 'transition points' have previously been identified by the Equality Commission for Northern Ireland as something that schools need to better manage, as there is a high risk of educational drop out at these points (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2008). At the other end of the educational road, stakeholders argue that the Not in Education Employment or Training (NEET) strategy does not consider the specific needs of Traveller young people, and will not necessarily help address the problems they face in making a transition from school to employment.

Finally, an issue that arose in speaking to stakeholders in relation to minority ethnic groups is that of the inadequacy of current monitoring and data collection systems. Current efforts to collect data about race are poor; the Office of the First Minister and Deputy First Minister (OFMdFM) have guidelines, drawn up in association with the Northern Ireland Council for Ethnic Minorities, and the approach has been piloted with Health and Social Care Trusts, but it is yet to become common practice. As a result, there is little depth to the data that is collected on race and the data that is collected may not support Section 75 obligations. Stakeholders also reported that there is also an inherent problem in collecting data on hard to reach groups, such as migrant workers, particularly those working illegally, and Travellers. This makes it very difficult to understand the true picture of the inequalities that they experience.

Case studies: organisations providing support for migrant workers and Travellers

The **Migrant Workers Helpline** provide an advice service over the telephone and through outreach events, and can accompany individuals to (internal) disciplinary hearings and grievance procedures, although they are not resourced to represent complainants at tribunals. The service receives funding from the Department for Employment and Learning, and from Belfast City Council as part of the Peace III funding.

An Munia Tober provides a range of support services to the Traveller community, including supporting access to education, training and employment (funded by the Department for Social Development's Belfast Regeneration project). The organisation works with young Travellers (aged 15-17 years old) who might otherwise drop out of education and adults

Summary

The key points from the analyses of minority ethnic and racial inequalities in employment are summarised below. A total of 11 inequalities were identified. These inequalities are presented in the table below; followed by a summary of the Chapter’s findings.

The empirical review of labour market trends was limited by the very low representation in the data of those who were non-white or not born in Northern Ireland. According to the Census 2011 for Northern Ireland, the majority of the population of Northern Ireland (88.7%) were born in Northern Ireland, and of the 202,000 who were not, 82,800 (41.0% of these) were born in other parts of the UK and (19.0% of these) in the Republic of Ireland (Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency, 2013b). The Census 2011 for Northern Ireland also showed that 98.3% of the population were of White ethnic origin, with 1.1% Asian, 0.2% Black, and 0.4% mixed or other (Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency, 2013b).

Due to the small numbers presented above the analysis undertaken in the present research was split into country of birth. This provided three separate groupings: UK and Ireland; Eastern Europe; and Others.

With regard to Irish Travellers data was not available within the Labour Force Survey; supplementary data was used where possible to ensure that any data relating to Irish Travellers was included.

Minority Ethnic and Racial Inequalities in Employment:	Persistent or Emergent?
➤ Irish Travellers had dramatically lower employment rates than the UK and Ireland, Eastern Europe, and Other groups.	Unknown given data
➤ Irish Travellers had dramatically higher economic inactivity rates than the UK and Ireland, Eastern Europe, and Other groups.	Unknown given data
➤ Workers in the Eastern Europe group were consistently paid less with regard to median gross weekly pay than those in the UK and Ireland group.	Persistent
➤ Workers in the Eastern Europe group were consistently paid less than those in the UK and Ireland group and those in the Others group with regard to median gross hourly pay.	Persistent
➤ A degree of horizontal segregation in the labour market, in respect to industry sector employed, was observed: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Workers in the Eastern Europe group were most often employed in the ‘Manufacturing’ sector (43.0% at Q1 2006 and 51.4% at Q1 2012). 	Persistent
➤ A high degree of vertical segregation in the labour market existed in respect to occupation group, it was observed that:	Persistent

Minority Ethnic and Racial Inequalities in Employment:	Persistent or Emergent?
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 the highest proportion of Eastern Europe workers were employed in 'Elementary Occupations'; ○ The proportion of Eastern Europe workers in higher level occupations was low, and in some cases non-existent. 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ A high degree of vertical segregation in the labour market existed, in respect to occupation group, to the detriment of those in the Others group: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ No workers in the Others group were employed in 'Managers and Senior Officials' occupations at Q1 2012; whilst ○ Over a third of workers in the Others group were employed in 'Professional Occupations'. 	Emergent
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ There was considerable prejudice against Polish migrants: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Respondents to the 2006 and 2010 NILTS indicated that the group there was most prejudice against was Polish migrants. 	Persistent
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Positive opinion toward migrant workers declined between 2006 and 2010: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ With regard to all respondents to the NILTS, positive opinion toward migrant workers declined by over a quarter, from 52.7% to 25.7%. 	Persistent
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ There was considerable prejudice against Irish Travellers as a potential: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Work colleague; ○ Neighbour; ○ Spouse of a close relative. 	Persistent

Economic status

- Those from the Eastern Europe group consistently had higher employment rates from Q1 2006 to Q1 2012.
 - Between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, the employment rates for those born in the UK and Ireland changed very little, whereas the rates of those from the Eastern Europe group and the Others group decreased.
- All groups saw an increase in part-time workers. However, the increases were most dramatic for those from the Eastern Europe group with an increase of 13.2 percentage points from Q1 2006 to Q1 2012.

- From the data there appears to be little difference in ILO unemployment rates between the groups, with nearly all rates of ILO unemployment for each group lower than 10%, except for the Eastern Europe group during Q4 2006 to Q1 2007 where unemployment rates were over 14%.
- Economic inactivity rates were consistently highest for those born in the UK and Ireland between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. This was the only group that showed a decrease in economic inactivity over the time period.
 - Economic inactivity rates for those in the Eastern Europe group and the Others group increased. However, those from Eastern Europe group experienced the biggest increase.
- Data from the 2011 Census for Northern Ireland suggests an employment rate of 20% for Irish Travellers between the ages of 16-74 years old, an unemployment rate of 8%, and an economic inactivity rate of 69% (NISRA, 2013b).

Wage rates

- Those in the Eastern Europe group were consistently paid less between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 (except at Q4 2010). However, median gross weekly pay increased slightly from Q1 2006 to Q1 2012.
 - Full-time workers in the UK and Ireland group saw a slightly bigger increase over this period, while full-time workers in the Others group experienced a decrease.
- Workers in the UK and Ireland group were consistently paid more than workers in the Eastern Europe group, and were the only group to experience a rise in median gross hourly pay rates between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.
 - Median gross hourly pay increased from £8.50 in Q1 2006 to £10.13 in Q1 2012 for full-time workers in the UK and Ireland group, and from £5.50 to £6.67 for full-time workers in the Eastern Europe group over the same period. Full-time workers in the Others group saw a fall in hourly pay over this period from £8.65 in Q1 2006 to £6.93 in Q1 2012.

Industry sector and occupation employment

- Workers in the Eastern Europe group had a higher tendency to be employed in the private sector than workers in the UK or Ireland or Others groups between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.
- Workers from the Eastern Europe group and the Other group were often absent from some industry sectors:
 - At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, no group other than workers in the UK and Ireland group were employed in the 'Agriculture and Fishing' or 'Energy and Water' industry sectors.
 - At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, workers in the Eastern Europe group were not represented in the 'Transport and Communication' sector.
 - At Q1 2012, workers in the Others group were not represented in the 'Construction' sector; however, they did have a representation in this industry sector in Q1 2006.

- At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, workers in the UK and Ireland and Others groups were most highly distributed in the 'Public Administration, Education and Health' (34.2% and 43.2% in Q1 2006, respectively and 36.1% and 31.9% in Q1 2012, respectively) industry sector; workers in the Eastern Europe group were most highly distributed in the 'Manufacturing' sector (43.0% and 51.4%, respectively).
- The proportion of workers in the UK or Ireland group dominated all industry sectors at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.
 - UK and Ireland workers were over-represented in all but two industry sectors in Q1 2006 (i.e. over 96.8%⁶⁹): 'Manufacturing' and 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants', and all but four in Q1 2012 (i.e. over 92.7%⁷⁴): 'Manufacturing'; 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants'; 'Banking, Finance and Insurance etc.'; and 'Other Services'.
 - Workers in the Eastern Europe group had their greatest proportionate representation in Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 in 'Manufacturing' (3.0% and 15.9%, respectively); and experienced a 12.9 percentage point increase over the time period;
 - Workers in the Others group had their greatest proportionate representation in Q1 2006 in 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' (3.9%), in Q1 2012 this had changed to the 'Other Services' industry sector (6.7%).
- At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, 'Elementary Occupations' retained the highest distribution of workers in the Eastern Europe group (49.3% and 37.8% respectively).
 - For workers in the UK and Ireland and Others group the highest distribution at Q1 2006 was in 'Skilled Trades Occupations' (18.1% and 24.1%) and at Q1 2012 it was in 'Professional Occupations' (18.6% and 35.1%).
- In both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 workers in the Eastern Europe group were under-represented (i.e. under 1.0%⁷¹ at Q1 2006 and under 3.8%⁷² at Q1 2012) in higher level occupations such as: 'Managers and Senior Officials'; 'Professional Occupations' (they were not represented at all in Q1 2006); 'Associate, Professional and Technical'; and 'Administrative and Secretarial' (they were not represented at all in Q1 2006 or Q1 2012) occupations.
- Those in the Others group also experienced some vertical segregation with respect to the highest occupation group level: 'Managers and Senior Officials' occupations at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012; this segregation increased in Q1 2012 where no workers in the Others group were employed in 'Managers and Senior Officials' occupations.

Attitudes

- Results of the 2006 and 2010 Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey (NILTS) showed a fall in the perceived level of prejudice against people from minority ethnic groups for all respondents (51.5% in 2006 and 43.2% in 2010) and also for large employers and higher managerial occupations (57.1% in 2006 and 39.5% in 2010).
 - Over a third of respondents from each group believed 'a lot' of prejudice still existed.

- The perceived level of racial prejudice in Northern Ireland compared to five years previous to the survey and the projected level of prejudice in the five years after the survey decreased between 2006 (71.1%) and 2010 (48.9%).
 - In 2012 a greater proportion of large employers and higher managerial occupations believed prejudice was more than five years previously (60.5%).
- All respondents indicated that the group there was most prejudice against in Northern Ireland in both 2006 and 2010 were Polish migrants.
 - Large employers and higher managerial occupations indicated that, for them, the group there was most prejudice against in Northern Ireland in both 2006 and 2010 was Irish Travellers, although Polish migrants were a close second.
- Acceptance of Irish Travellers and other minority ethnic migrants had increased greatly with regard to living in a house in local areas and being a work colleague.
 - The same was also true for acceptance of migrants from Eastern Europe; in addition the majority would accept migrants from Eastern Europe as residents of Northern Ireland.
- In the main all respondents did not agree that migrant workers were good for the Northern Ireland economy; positive opinion declined by over a quarter over the time period from 52.7% in 2006 to 25.7% in 2010.
 - Large employers and higher managerial occupations positive opinion increased over the period.
- Findings from the 2011 Equality Awareness Survey (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012) found considerable prejudice against Irish Travellers in the workplace, with over a third of respondents saying that they would mind having an Irish Traveller as a work colleague (a figure similar to the results from the NILTS for those who would not accept Irish Travellers as a work colleague).
 - This represented a small improvement from the figure of 38% in 2008, but it was considerably higher than the 2005 figure of 24%; this does not suggest that attitudes towards Irish Travellers in the workplace are becoming more tolerant over time.
- Respondents were less opposed to having an Irish Traveller as a colleague than they were as a neighbour (54%) or married to a close relative (55%).
- Only 16% of respondents perceived that Irish Travellers were treated unfairly as a group.
 - Of those who felt that Irish Travellers were treated unfairly, this was predominantly in relation to: being harassed (24%); when expressing their culture (21%); or using shops, bars or restaurants (17%).
 - Only 4.5% of those who indicated that Irish Travellers were treated unfairly thought that they were treated unfairly at work.
- A quarter of respondents said that they would mind having a migrant worker from Eastern Europe as a colleague.
- A total of 19% perceived that migrant workers were treated unfairly.
 - Of these almost half thought that this unfair treatment occurred at work. Perceptions of unfair treatment of Black or Minority Ethnic (BME) people were slightly lower at 16%, and only 23% thought this occurred at work.

Barriers and Enablers

- The Race Relations (Northern Ireland) Order 1997 (the RRO), as amended in 2003, outlaws discrimination on the grounds of colour, race, nationality or ethnic or national origin.
 - The RRO makes it unlawful to discriminate in the fields of employment, education, the disposal and management of premises, and the provision of goods, facilities and services.
 - The RRO also states that segregation on racial grounds constitutes discrimination and the Irish Traveller community is specifically identified as a racial group which is protected.

The EU Agency Workers Directive regulations were created in 2008 to protect vulnerable workers; these were implemented in Northern Ireland in 2011 through the Agency Workers Regulations (Northern Ireland) 2011. A risk-based inspection regime is in place to identify workplaces in breach of regulations, and the government has enhanced powers to investigate and prosecute such workplaces.

- The EU Agency Workers Directive gives agency workers some rights from the day they start, and equal treatment rights once they have been employed for twelve weeks.
- The Employment Agency Inspectorate holds seminars for organisations in the community and voluntary sector to increase their knowledge of employment rights, and the recourse available should those rights be infringed.
- The Department for Employment and Learning (DEL) chairs the Migrant Workers sub-group of the Racial Equality Forum, which aims to establish that the needs of migrant workers and those who advise them are adequately met.
- Migrants have access to information from the UK National Academic Recognition Information Centre qualifications databases, to allow them to compare their own qualifications to local ones. However, employers are not obliged to accept the equivalisation.
- Education authorities are formally opposed to segregated education, but there is a degree of *de facto* segregation of Irish Traveller children across different sectors, particularly in Belfast.
 - DEL provides funding to schools and ELBs for Irish Traveller education services, which usually take the form of additional staff members, tasked with Irish Traveller welfare, or youth or community drop-in centres.
 - The Education and Library Boards have a statutory duty to follow up on children who drop out of school and do not re-enrol elsewhere. Schools will not pursue a parent if the family is travelling.
- Stakeholders felt that the legislation to protect minority ethnic and migrant workers from discrimination and exploitation was not always effective.
 - Northern Ireland was slow to adopt race legislation compared to the rest of the UK, and it is yet to become institutionally embedded.
 - Although migrant workers have access to the same employment rights as all employees, they may not be in a position to access these rights. Migrant workers on permits tied to particular employers can be reluctant to complain due to their high risk of deportation.
 - For those who are willing to complain, there is a lack of access to justice in cases of exploitation and discrimination. The representation in cases of employment rights infringements of migrant

workers is within the strategic priorities of the Law Centre (NI), but access to this service is not guaranteed, and cases are prioritised according to a case selection policy.⁷⁸

- Beyond this, there is no access to subsidised independent representation, and most migrant workers are not in a position to self fund this. The bureaucracy of the process is also a barrier to those who may not be fluent in English.
- Stakeholders reported that there is little provision for employment services targeted at the needs of Travellers. Although some Travellers participate in Steps to Work, it is unlikely to be effective because it does not address the cultural, complex and specific barriers that Travellers face to employment.
 - Travellers can be placed in employment with assistance from specialised employment services, but they do not always receive this help.
 - There is a need for legislation that creates positions particularly suited to those from the Traveller community.
- Stakeholders argued that current education policy provision is failing to help Traveller children and young people. Funding for alternative education programmes was cut and they ceased to exist.
 - Stakeholders argue that the Not in Education Employment or Training (NEET) strategy does not consider the specific needs of Traveller young people, and will not necessarily help address the problems they face in making a transition from school to employment.
- Current efforts to collect data about race are poor; the Office of the First Minister and Deputy First Minister drew up guidelines with the Northern Ireland Council for Ethnic Minorities, and the approach has been piloted with Health and Social Care Trusts, but it is yet to be common practice.
 - As a result, there is little depth to the data that is collected on race. In addition, the limitations to the data collected may not support Section 75 obligations.
 - There is also an inherent problem in collecting data on hard to reach groups, such as migrant workers, particularly those working illegally, and Irish Travellers. This makes it very difficult to understand the true picture of the inequalities that they experience.
- The **Migrant Workers Helpline** provides a telephone advice service, hold outreach events, and can accompany individuals to (internal) disciplinary hearings and grievance procedures.
- **An Munia Tober** provides a range of services to the Traveller community, including supporting access to education, training and employment. The organisation works with young Travellers (aged 15-17 years old) who might otherwise drop out of education, and adults.

⁷⁸ Law Centre NI Strategic Case Selection Policy, 2012-2013, <http://www.lawcentreni.org/Publications/Strategic-Case-Selection-Policy-2012.pdf>

Chapter 8. Disability Inequalities in Employment

Introduction

This report provides a picture of patterns and trends in employment and non-employment in Northern Ireland, establishing any key inequalities (data permitting) that are evident in Northern Ireland for each equality ground as identified by Section 75 of the Northern Ireland Act 1998. This chapter provides evidence of inequalities drawn from quantitative data (primarily from analyses of the Labour Force Survey) which is supplemented by stakeholder interviews and literature review for this equality ground. It is important to stress that no one individual belongs solely to one equality group, and that everyone has multiple identities. Consideration was given to multiple identities where quantitative data was available and allowed for meaningful analyses. Limited analyses across a range of multiple inequalities are reported in Chapter 12. The distillation of the most substantive / overarching key employment inequalities (across all equality grounds) in Northern Ireland are summarised in Chapter 13.

This chapter compares the labour market outcomes of those who report a disability with those who do not. Firstly, the literature on the barriers faced by people with a physical, mental, sensory or learning disability in the labour market is reviewed, and then trends in labour market outcomes of disabled and non-disabled individuals over the period 2006 to 2012 are explored. The main source of data for this investigation is the Quarterly Labour Force Survey (LFS), from 2006 to 2012. Data from the Census 2011 for Northern Ireland (NISRA, 2013c) is also utilised where possible. Since disability is a complex area with many different types of disability covered under the 'disability umbrella' further investigation is also carried out to compare those with different types of disability. The chapter then discusses policy responses and the views of key stakeholders, before concluding with a summary of findings presented in the chapter.

The general picture reported is that those with disabilities had lower employment rates than non-disabled workers and those with disabilities, especially those reporting with mental ill health and/or learning disability experienced the highest rates of economic inactivity. Those who had hidden disabilities had the highest rates of ILO unemployment. Disabled people were more likely to be in part time employment than non-disabled people. However, those with hidden disabilities had similar rates of part time employment to non disabled workers.

There was little evidence of any differentials in pay rates between disabled and non disabled workers. At Q1 2006 evidence indicated that disabled workers were under-represented in 'Public Administration, Education & Health' which employed 11.3% of those who self-reported as disabled while this sector employed 34.5% of those with no disability. However, at Q1 2012 the proportions were more similar at 32.1% for those described as disabled and 35.2% of those described as not disabled. There was no substantial evidence of any vertical segregation by occupation group between disabled and not-disabled workers. Prejudice against disabled people (especially those with mental ill health) as a potential work colleague was reported.

Literature review on disability inequalities in employment

The Disability Discrimination Act (DDA) (1995) introduced measures to end discrimination against disabled people in employment. However, people with disabilities are still disadvantaged and discriminated against in the labour market, despite the legislative provision. In the Census 2011 for Northern Ireland, economic activity rates in Northern Ireland were found to vary from 76.6% for those who had no long-term health problem or disability⁷⁹, to 14.5% for those whose disability limited their activities 'a lot' (NISRA, 2013c). Economic inactivity rates were highest among those experiencing frequent confusion or memory loss, communication difficulties and difficulties with mobility or dexterity (Ibid.).

In the United Kingdom (UK) as a whole⁸⁰, 45.6% of those aged 16-64 years old with a disability were in work, compared with 76.2% of those without a disability (Office for National Statistics, 2011c). The employment rate was lowest for those with severe learning difficulties, mental illnesses or nervous disorders, and depression or anxiety (Berthoud, 2006; Evans, 2007; Meager and Higgins, 2011; ONS, 2011c). It must also be remembered that disability not only affects the individual, but also others in their household with other household members leaving employment because of caring responsibilities (for further information see analysis of the British Household Panel survey in Burchardt, 2003). The probability of a person with a disability having a job depends on the demographic and economic characteristics of the disabled person, as well the specific type, nature and degree of their disability (Berthoud, 2006). As the onset of most disability or impairment occurs during adulthood, it is also worth noting that it is those on the lowest incomes that are most likely to become disabled, and therefore the apparent fall in income associated with disability may not be as great as expected, if individuals already had lower incomes on average (Burchardt, 2003).

There are mixed findings internationally as to the effects of the recession on people with disabilities in the workplace. Research drawing on the United States of America (USA) Current Population Survey found that the 2007-2009 recession disproportionately affected workers with disabilities. Since the onset of the recession there were 9% fewer workers with disabilities in the USA labour force, with some groups affected more than others; in particular: those with mobility impairments; those with difficulty performing routine daily activities; males with disabilities; those without college degrees; those in medium skill occupations; and younger workers with disabilities (Kaye, 2010). However, analysis of trends in the employment of disabled people in Great Britain (GB) found that the employment rate of people with disabilities was not especially sensitive to the economic cycle (Berthoud, 2011). We are not aware of any research that specifically looks at the impact of the economic cycle on disabled people in Northern Ireland.

The ways in which the employment rate for people with disabilities has changed over time can be difficult to measure because of the different definitions of disability used in different studies. In general however, it has fluctuated in a similar way to the overall employment rate in the UK, but at twice the rate (Stafford and

⁷⁹ that limited their day to day activities

⁸⁰ NB - Comparable tables to those described in the preceding paragraph have yet to be produced for England and Wales, therefore the literature referenced in this paragraph uses data from other sources, and the two paragraphs should not be taken as a direct comparison between Northern Ireland and the rest of the UK.

Duffy, 2009). There are a number of factors which make people with disabilities more vulnerable in an economic downturn. Research conducted on behalf of the Equalities and Human Rights Commission has found that: disabled workers tend to be concentrated in low skilled and low wage jobs which are vulnerable in a downturn; that disabled workers tend to be older (older people have been impacted more in previous recessions); and that employers tend to regard disabled workers as being less productive (Hogarth et al., 2009). An Equality Commission for Northern Ireland report (2010) entitled 'Employment Inequalities in an Economic Downturn' also found that whilst the recession had little impact on those who were registered under the DDA, significant falls in employment rates during and immediately prior to the recession were experienced by those with a self declared work limiting disability (not registered under DDA).

Barriers and discrimination in the workplace

Research conducted in GB identified a range of barriers that people with disabilities may face in the workplace. Key barriers which may make it difficult for people with disabilities to find work include: the attitude of employers; lower levels of qualifications as a result of inequality in education (although the aspirations of young people with disabilities and young people without disabilities are similar); and access to transport (Burchardt, 2000; Burchardt, 2005; TUC, 2009; Riddell et al., 2010; Meager and Higgins, 2011). The Department for Work and Pensions Disability Steering Group has argued that people with disabilities may be prevented from getting jobs or reaching their full potential (Department for Work and Pensions, 2011). People with disabilities are less likely to work in high level occupations (Meager and Higgins 2011), and non-disabled people have been found to be twice as likely to be a board level director, and three times more likely to be a director or head of department, than people with disabilities (Sayce, 2010). Research conducted on 'high fliers' living with ill-health, injury or disability, identified that those who do achieve high positions tend to work in the private sector and be middle aged males (Sayce, 2010).

Research with disabled and non-disabled members of the British public has also revealed negative attitudes towards disabled people, and has suggested that people with disabilities may experience discrimination in the workplace. Over half of respondents (52%) to the Leonard Cheshire Disability's 'Disability Review 2009'⁸¹ (UK), had experienced discrimination in the workplace and 43% reported that they had been turned down for jobs because of their disability (Gore and Parckar, 2009). More generally, evidence from the British Social Attitudes Survey indicated that while people may not express openly prejudiced views against people with disabilities, their capabilities and productivity may be questioned and many do not feel that they would be able to hold positions of responsibility. In addition people may feel less comfortable interacting with people with learning disabilities or mental health conditions, than interacting with those with physical or sensory disabilities (Staniland, 2011).

The attitudes and practices of employers may be central to the experiences of people with disabilities in the workplace. Having mentors and senior support is important in helping people with disabilities to progress (Sayce, 2010). Research on mental health in England found that there may be a lack of willingness to discuss mental health issues in the workplace which may present difficulties for employers, for example,

⁸¹ The Disability Review 2009 was a survey of 1253 disabled people drawn from all parts of the UK including Northern Ireland.

to enact retention strategies (Sainsbury et al., 2008). It was also found that understandings of the term 'mental health condition' may vary between workplaces with larger employers having a broader understanding than smaller employers (Sainsbury et al., 2008). Research conducted in England, Wales and Scotland on behalf of the Joseph Rowntree Foundation found that the support that workers with disabilities draw upon may be both formal and informal, highlighting the need for employers to provide more structured and formalised support. However, there may be no universally beneficial strategy that could be offered to all workers with disabilities; what is helpful to one disabled worker may be unhelpful or even risky for another with different needs, and the right support depends on the employment context and the human resources (HR) and financial environment (Roulstone et al., 2003). Research on disability legislation and employers' practices in the UK recommends that HR practices in the private and public sectors should encompass positive action and positive discrimination measures to encourage the employment of disabled people (Woodhams and Corby, 2007). In 2007, the 'disability duties' on public authorities came into force as part of a series of changes to the DDA. Changes placed a duty on public authorities in Northern Ireland to have due regard, when exercising their functions, to the need 'to promote positive attitudes towards disabled people, and to encourage participation by disabled people in public life' (pg. 5).

Policies aimed at tackling discrimination against disabled people in employment, despite an apparent strengthening of the rights of disabled employees, may not necessarily have positive effects. Research has examined the effect of the UK Disability Discrimination Act (DDA) on the employment rates of people with disabilities (Bambra and Pope, 2007). It found that the DDA may have had a negative effect on employment rates of people with disabilities, with the social and economic inequalities in the employment rates of people with disabilities deepening after its introduction. Research by Bell and Heitmuller (2009) using the British Household Panel Survey to compare employment outcomes before and after the legislation also found support for the notion that the DDA may have worsened the employment situation for people with disabilities. However, it is worth noting that these studies examined the impact of the DDA on employment rates; the legislation may have had a positive impact on the experience of disabled people already in employment.

Another potential unintended consequence of policy is that restrictions in the welfare benefit system may prevent people with disabilities from increasing their employability, for example, via participation in training (Birmingham Disability Resource Centre, 2007). More generally there may be a fear that in returning to work people will be left worse off than when they were claiming benefits. The EU also identifies concerns about disabled people being excluded from the benefit system if a person is not able to carry on working, in a document addressing the needs of people with disabilities in ESF programmes in the 2007-2013 period⁸². Disability policy may also be constrained if it focuses only on the barriers associated with a specific disability, as people with disabilities often face multiple disadvantages such as having a low level of qualifications, and these barriers need to be tackled as well (Burchardt, 2000).

⁸² http://ec.europa.eu/employment_social/esf/docs/peopledisabilities_en.pdf

Recent trends in disability inequalities in employment in Northern Ireland

Most of this section will report on trends in labour market outputs by categories of disability as reported in the LFS. Table 8.1 shows the frequency of different conditions and disabilities in the Northern Ireland working age population, as estimated from the LFS in Q1 2012.

Table 8.1: Estimates of the frequency of disabilities in the working age population of Northern Ireland
(Source: LFS Q1 2012)

Disability	Percentage of working age population affected
1. Arms, hands	6.7
2. Legs or feet	6.7
3. Back or neck	11.4
4. Difficulty in seeing	0.8
5. Difficulty in hearing	1.7
6. Speech impediment	0.0
7. Skin conditions ,allergies	1.9
8. Chest, breathing problems	16.8
9. Heart, blood pressure, circulation	14.3
10. Stomach, liver, kidney, digestion	8.6
11. Diabetes	7.7
12. Depression, bad nerves	4.2
13. Epilepsy	1.1
14. Learning difficulties	1
15. Mental illness, phobia, panics	0.7
16. Progressive illness n.e.c.	3.4
17. Other problems, disabilities	13.1

Whilst the LFS covers people with a range of physical, mental, sensory or learning disabilities, respondents are divided, in this report, into broad categories to facilitate analysis.⁸³ Anyone reporting a disability in categories 1 to 5 is classed as having a 'physical and/or sensory disability'; although categories 4 and 5 could constitute a separate 'sensory disability' category, the sample size is too small to analyse this group separately, and they are therefore subsumed into the physical category. Those reporting a disability in categories 12, 14 or 15 are classified as having 'mental ill health and/or learning disabilities'; it is recognised that this is not a homogenous category but small sample sizes constrain the ability to analyse 'learning difficulties' as a separate category. The rationale for collapsing 'mental ill health and/or learning disability' together is supported by a report of the Foundation for People with Learning Disabilities who report that, in England, 'estimates of prevalence of mental health problems [amongst the learning disabled population] vary from 25-40%, depending on the population sampled and the definitions used'⁸⁴. Those reporting a disability in categories 8 to 11 or 13 are categorised as having a 'hidden disability', while those reporting a disability in any other category are classified as having a 'progressive or other disability'. Those reporting none of these are classified as 'not disabled'.

Economic status

Changes in economic status over the period Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 for those who self reported as disabled or not disabled, and if disabled by the type of disability are reported in Table 8.2. For both periods the highest in employment rates were observed for those who were not disabled (77.0% and 76.5%). When broken down by type of disability those with a hidden disability had the highest in employment rate at Q1 2006 (44.0%) but it was those with a progressive or other disability who had the highest in employment rate at Q1 2012 (47.3%). At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 those with a mental ill health and/or learning disability retained the lowest in employment rate (18.9% and 23.9%, respectively).

The ILO unemployment rates for those with and without a disability were similar and it is interesting to note that for both groups the rate increased between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. However, it would appear that, rather than be classified as ILO unemployed; the majority of non working people are classified as economically inactive, regardless of whether they have a disability. With regard to those who had a disability the highest ILO unemployment rate at Q1 2006 was found for those with a progressive or other disability (4.4%) and the lowest amongst those with a hidden disability. However, at Q1 2012, the picture reversed; it was those with a hidden disability who experienced the highest ILO unemployment rate (7.1%) and those with a progressive or other disability who experienced the lowest (1.6%).

As previously mentioned, economic inactivity rates were much higher for those with and without a disability than ILO unemployment rates; the economic inactivity rates will now be considered. Whilst the highest levels of economic inactivity were experienced by disabled people at both Q1 2006 (61.2%) and Q1 2012 (56.3%), the rate itself fell by 4.9 percentage points. When broken down by type of disability it is evident that at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 those with a mental ill health and/or learning disability had the

⁸³ The classification is not absolute, as some individuals may fit into more than one category, but it is necessary for the purposes of grouping the respondents so that analysis can proceed.

⁸⁴ http://www.mentalhealth.org.uk/content/assets/PDF/policy-archive/Mental_health_in_people_with_learning_disabilities.pdf

highest economic inactivity rates (79.1% and 71.2%, respectively) despite a decrease of 7.9 percentage points from Q1 2006 to Q1 2012. Whilst the economic inactivity rates for all disability types were greater than 50% the group with the lowest economic inactivity rates at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 were for those with a hidden disability (54.1% and 51.0%, respectively).

Table 8.2: Economic status by disability group (Source: LFS Q1 2006 & Q1 2012)

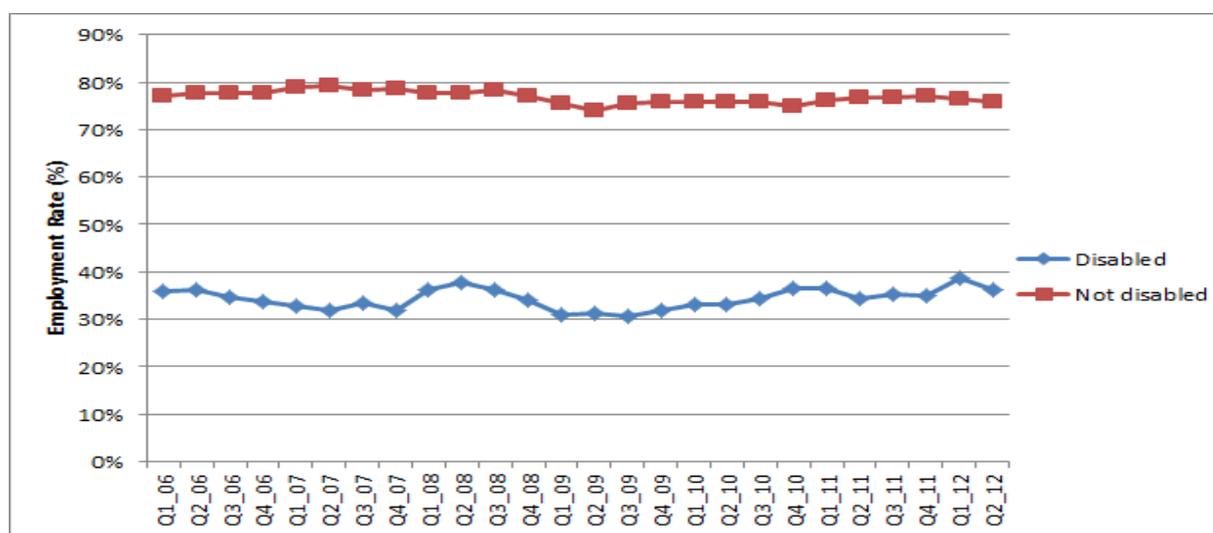
Disability	Q1 2006				Q1 2012			
	In employment	ILO unemployed	Economically Inactive	Total	In employment	ILO unemployed	Economically Inactive	Total
Number								
Not Disabled	668176	27439	171514	867129	693162	46874	166138	906174
Disabled	70393	5594	119629	195616	78196	10640	114442	203278
Physical and/or Sensory	28903	2508	44081	75492	28702	3916	38032	70650
Hidden	25504	1083	31326	57913	24611	4185	30011	58807
Mental Ill Health and/or Learning	5760	625	24139	30524	9946	2030	29634	41610
Progressive or Other	10226	1378	20083	31687	14937	509	16765	32211
Total	738569	33033	291143	1062745	771358	57514	280580	1109452
Percentage of Population Category								
Not Disabled	77.1%	3.2%	19.8%	100.0%	76.5%	5.2%	18.3%	100.0%
Disabled	36.0%	2.9%	61.2%	100.0%	38.5%	5.2%	56.3%	100.0%
Physical and/or Sensory	38.3%	3.3%	58.4%	100.0%	40.6%	5.5%	53.8%	100.0%
Hidden	44.0%	1.9%	54.1%	100.0%	41.9%	7.1%	51.0%	100.0%
Mental Ill Health and/or Learning	18.9%	2.1%	79.1%	100.0%	23.9%	4.9%	71.2%	100.0%
Progressive or Other	32.3%	4.4%	63.4%	100.0%	46.4%	1.6%	52.0%	100.0%
Total	69.5%	3.1%	27.4%	100.0%	69.5%	5.2%	25.3%	100.0%
Percentage of Economic Status Category								
Not Disabled	90.5%	83.1%	58.9%	81.6%	89.9%	81.5%	59.2%	81.7%
Disabled	9.5%	16.9%	41.1%	18.4%	10.1%	18.5%	40.8%	18.3%
Physical and/or Sensory	3.9%	7.6%	15.1%	7.1%	3.7%	6.8%	13.5%	6.4%
Hidden	3.5%	3.3%	10.8%	5.4%	3.2%	7.3%	10.7%	5.3%
Mental Ill Health and/or Learning	0.8%	1.9%	8.3%	2.9%	1.3%	3.5%	10.6%	3.8%
Progressive or Other	1.4%	4.2%	6.9%	3.0%	1.9%	0.9%	6.0%	2.8%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Figures 8.1 to 8.4 display trends in economic status by disability status and type, within the Northern Ireland working age population (the population as a whole is defined as 16-64 years old for males and 16-59 years old for females). The weighted LFS data shows trends over the period Q1 2006 to Q2 2012.

Employment

Figures 8.1a and 8.1b show the trends in full-time employment over the period of interest, by disability status and type. Figure 8.1a shows that the rate of employment for people with disabilities is much lower than the rate for those without disabilities; in Q1 2012, only 38.5% of those with a disability were in employment, compared to 76.5% of those without a disability.

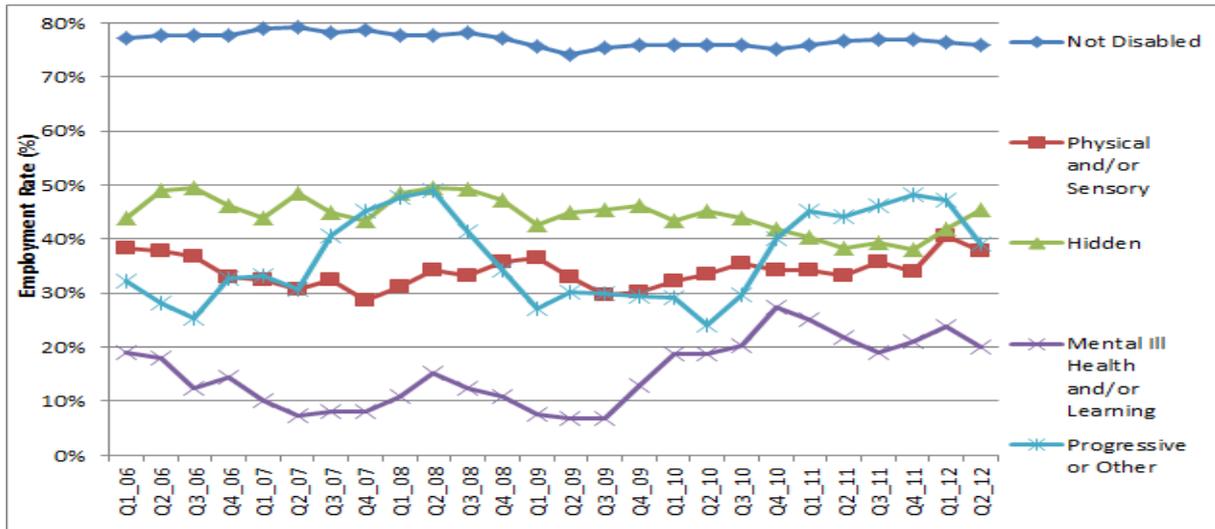
Figure 8.1a: Employment rate by disability status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



In Figure 8.1b shows that the group that consistently experienced the lowest rate of employment was those with mental ill health and/or learning disabilities; a group which was considerably lower than the other disability groups during the period Q4 2006 to Q4 2009. The employment rate of those with hidden disabilities was usually the highest out of the disability groups and the employment rate of those with physical and/or sensory disabilities was usually the second lowest.

Also shown in Figure 8.1b is a slight increase in the Q1 2012 employment rate of those with mental ill health and/or learning disabilities and those with progressive or other disabilities compared to Q1 2006.

Figure 8.1b: Full-time employment rate by disability type (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

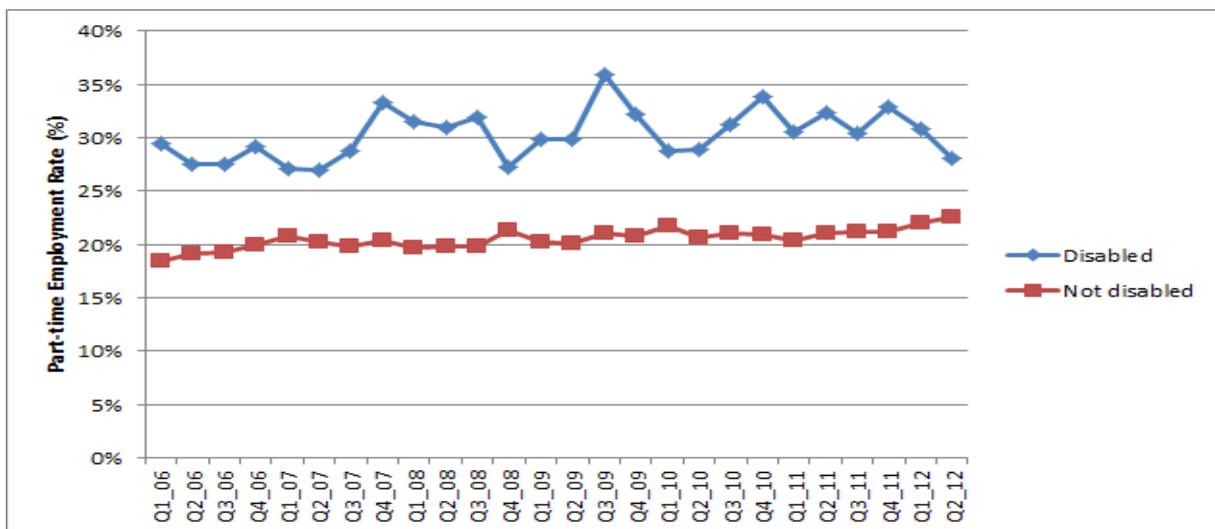


Part-time employment

The proportion of all those employed who were working part-time increased over the period of interest, from 19.5% in Q1 2006 to 23.1% in Q1 2012, an increase of 3.6 percentage points.

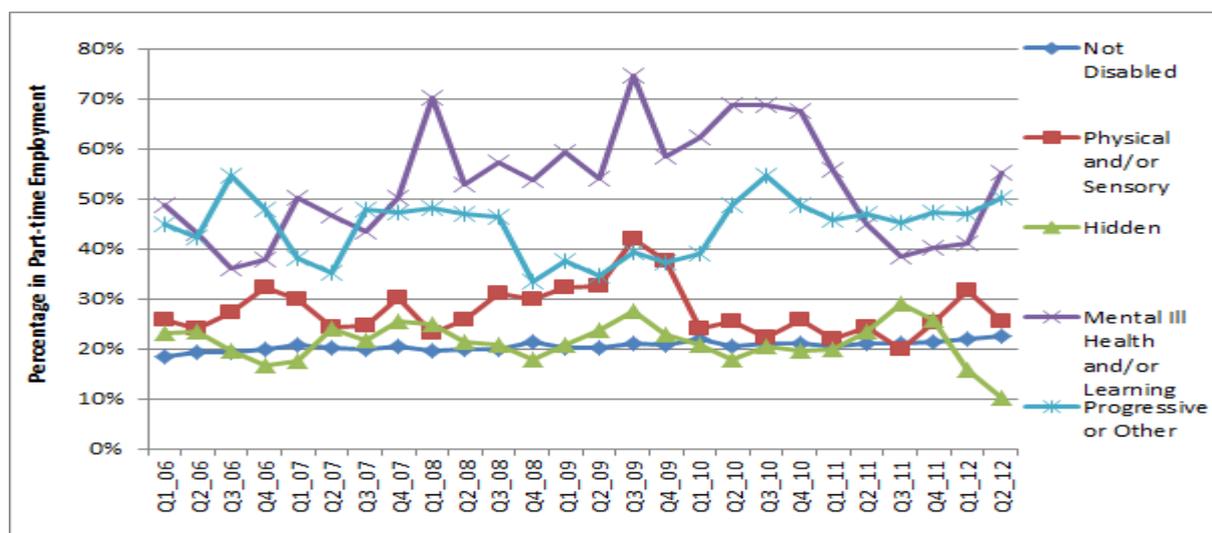
Figure 8.2a shows the proportion of those in part-time employment by disability status i.e. disabled or not disabled. The chart shows that people with a disability were more likely to work part-time than those without a disability; although the gap appears to have narrowed. In Q1 2006 29.5% of workers with a disability worked part-time, compared to 18.4% of those without a disability. In Q1 2012 rates increased for both groups to 30.8% and 22.0%, respectively.

Figure 8.2a Percentage of those employed working part-time by disability status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Looking at the trends in type of disability (Figure 8.2b) over the period as a whole, evidence indicates that those with a hidden disability, and to some extent those with a physical and/or sensory disability, had similar rates of part-time employment to those without a disability. Those with a progressive or other disability and those with a mental ill health and/or learning disability more frequently worked part-time than the other groups. It would be unwise to infer anything more precise than this general trend from these figures, given the small sample sizes on which these estimates are based.

Figure 8.2b Percentage of those employed working part-time by disability type (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Unemployment

ILO unemployment among the working age population as a whole increased over the period of interest, from 3.1% in Q1 2006 to 5.2% in Q1 2012.

From Figure 8.3a, it appears that there was no major difference in ILO unemployment rates between those with and without a disability. Both those with disabilities and those without disabilities experienced an increase in ILO unemployment between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. Regarding long-term unemployment rates, in Q1 2006, 69.3% of ILO unemployed people with a disability were classified as long-term unemployed, compared with 29.2% of ILO unemployed people without a disability. In Q1 2012, this had fallen to 39.6% of ILO unemployed people with a disability, while for those without a disability the proportion of long-term unemployed increased to 49.4%. However, it should be noted that the number of ILO unemployed disabled people in the sample was very low, averaging 22 people in each quarterly wave of data, and therefore these figures should be interpreted with extreme caution.

Figure 8.3a: ILO unemployment rate by disability status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

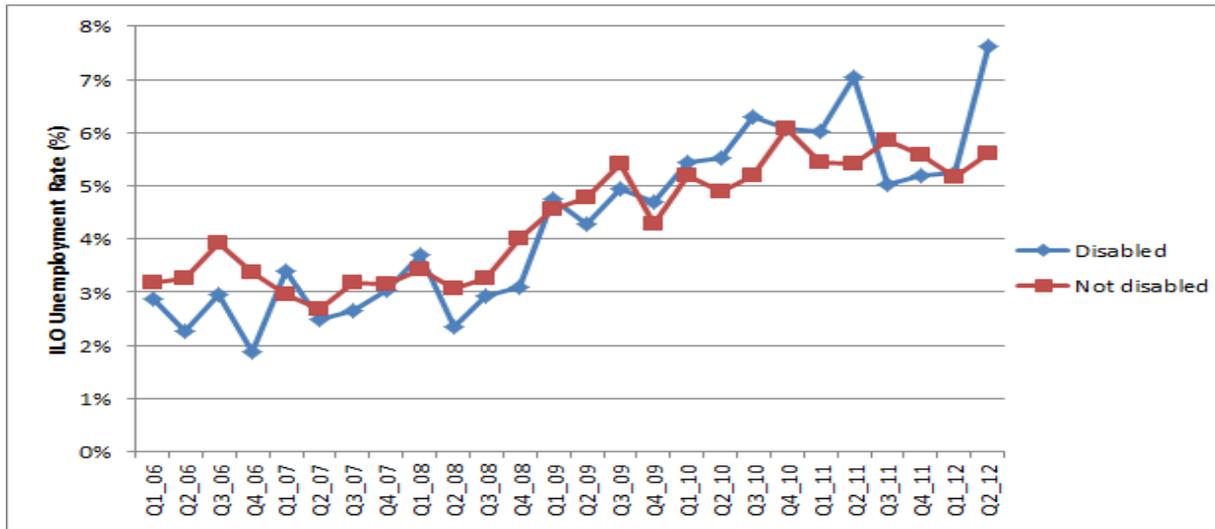
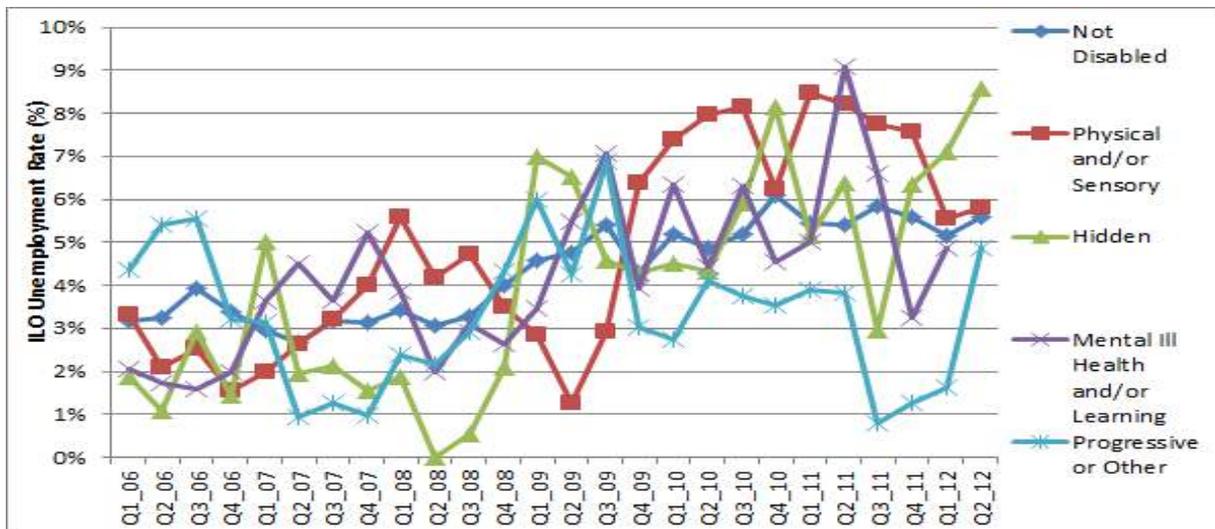


Figure 8.3b shows that all of the disability groups experienced greater fluctuation over the time period than the not disabled group. However, despite the high levels of fluctuation the general upward trend seen in the working age population as a whole can be broadly discerned for all groups. After Q3 2009, unemployment seemed to rise particularly steeply for those with a physical and/or sensory disability, but this fell to similar levels as to those experienced by those without a disability in Q1 2012.

Figure 8.3b: ILO unemployment rate by disability type (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

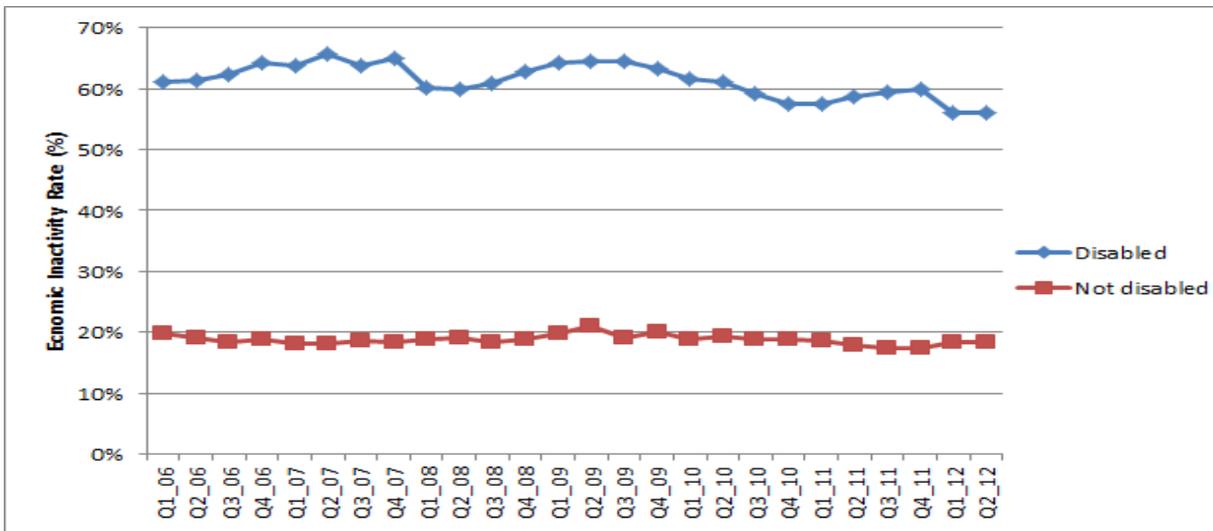


Economic Inactivity

Economic inactivity rates among the working age population as a whole fell slightly over the period of interest, from 27.4% in Q1 2006 to 25.3% in Q1 2012, a fall of 2.1 percentage points. As shown in Figure 8.4a those with a disability had higher rates of economic inactivity than those without a disability, however, by Q1 2012 inactivity rates of those classified as disabled had fallen by around 6 percentage points from the

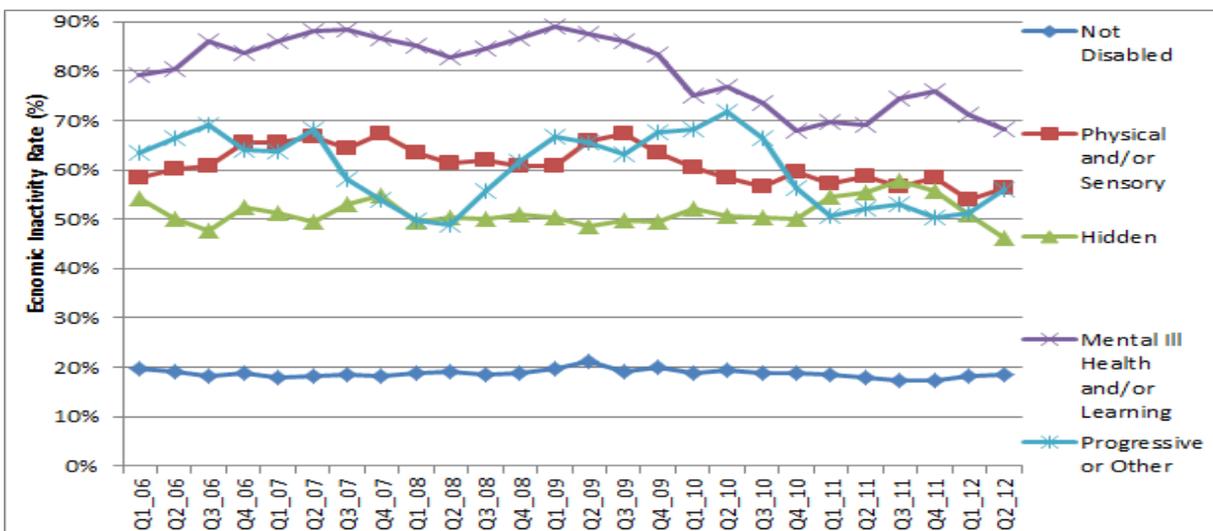
Q1 2006 level. In Q1 2012, 56.3% of working age people with a disability were classed as economically inactive, which was more than triple the non-disabled economic inactivity rate (18.3%).

Figure 8.4a: Economic inactivity rate by disability status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



The economic inactivity rates for those with mental ill health and/or learning disability were consistently the highest of all the disability groups; rates for those without disabilities were the lowest at each time point (Figure 8.4b). The greatest fluctuations in economic inactivity rates were evidenced for those with a progressive or other disability with relatively little change in economic inactivity rates overall.

Figure 8.4b: Economic inactivity rate by disability type (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



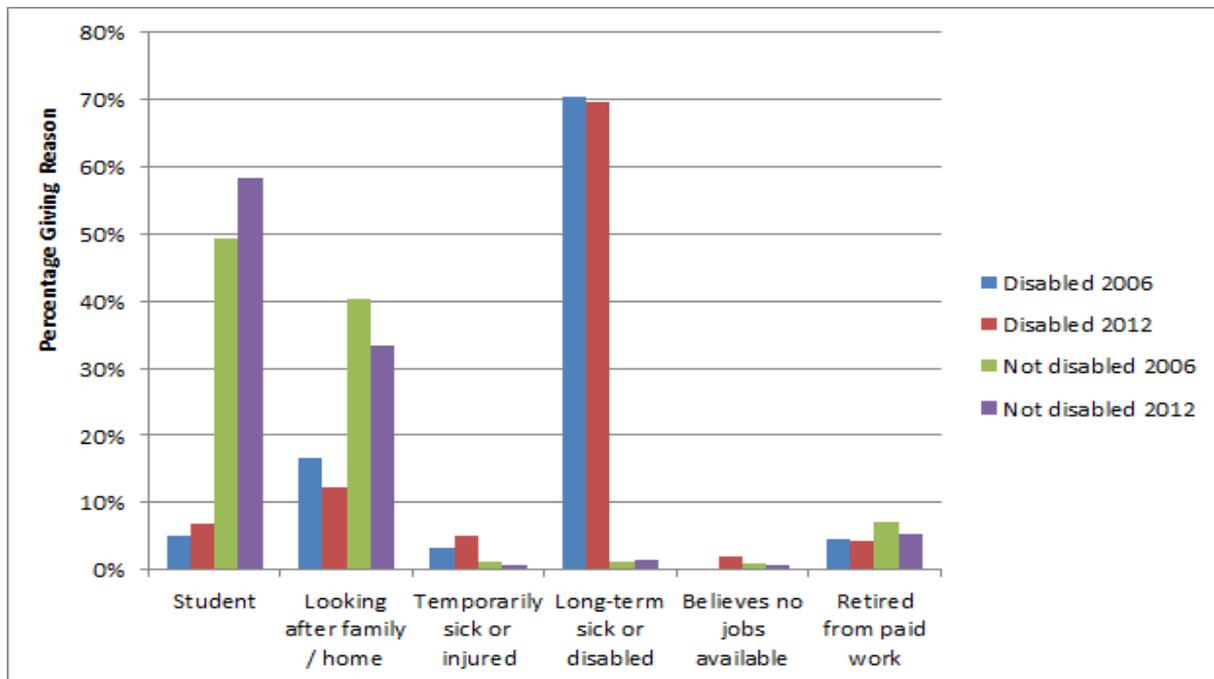
The above findings reflect those reported in the Equality Commission for Northern Ireland’s (ECNI) Statement on Key Inequalities (ECNI, 2007), which reported that “the employment rate for those without disabilities (79%) is over twice that of people with disabilities (32%)”. However, in the present analysis, unemployment amongst disabled people was found to be similar to that of the non-disabled at many time points, which is in contrast to the unemployment rate reported by ECNI in 2007 in which “13% of the

economically active disabled people were unemployed” which is more than double the 6% who were not disabled.

Main reasons for not looking for work

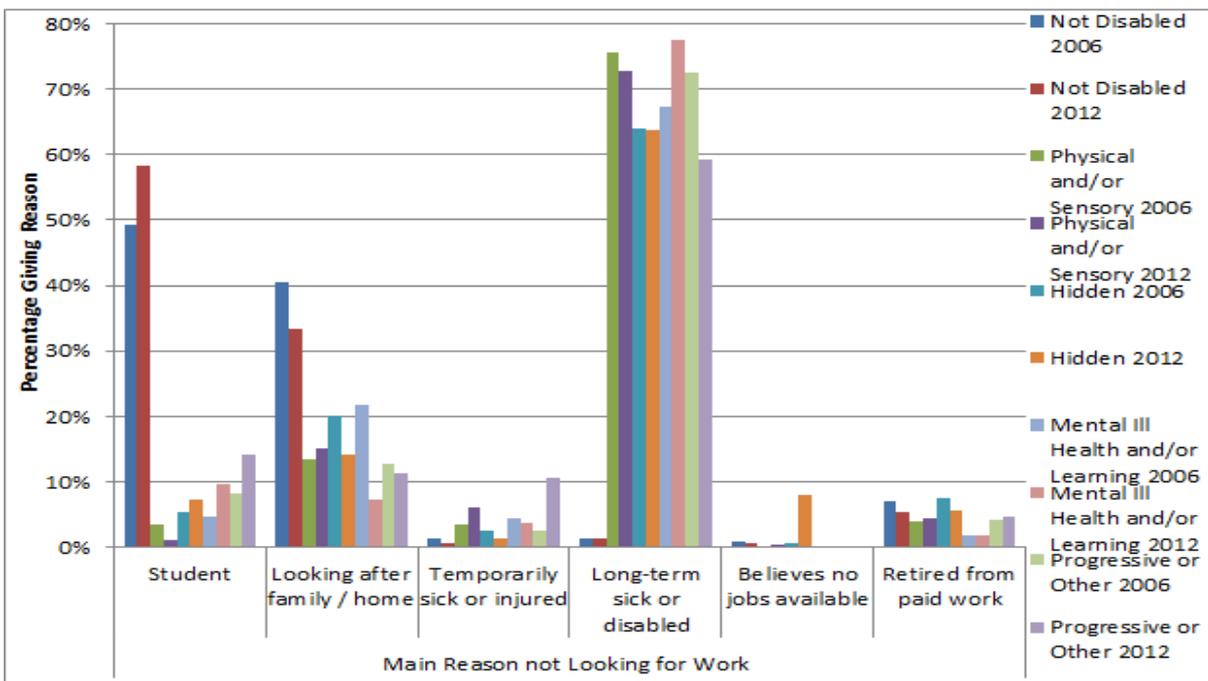
Figure 8.5a shows the main reason given by LFS respondents for not looking for work in the last four weeks, but care is needed in interpreting this, as the numbers of disabled people surveyed were small (less than 400). At both time points most disabled people (over 56.0%) cited long term sick or disability as a reason for not looking for work, while for those without a disability, the main reasons for not looking for work were being a student or looking after family/home.

Figure 8.5a: Main reason for not looking for work in the last four weeks by disability status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



The main reason for not looking for work in the last four weeks remained consistent when disability was broken down into the different types (Figure 8.5b).

Figure 8.5b: Main reason for not looking for work in the last four weeks by disability type (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

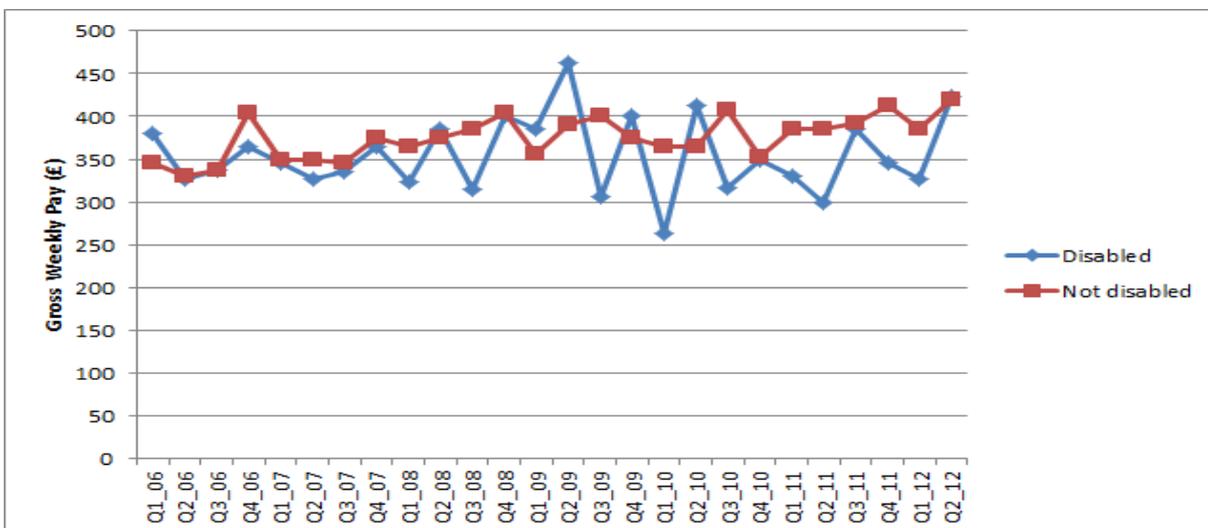


Median gross weekly pay

Median gross weekly pay for all full-time workers was £346 in Q1 2006 and £385 in Q1 2012, a nominal increase of £39 (11.3%) per week.

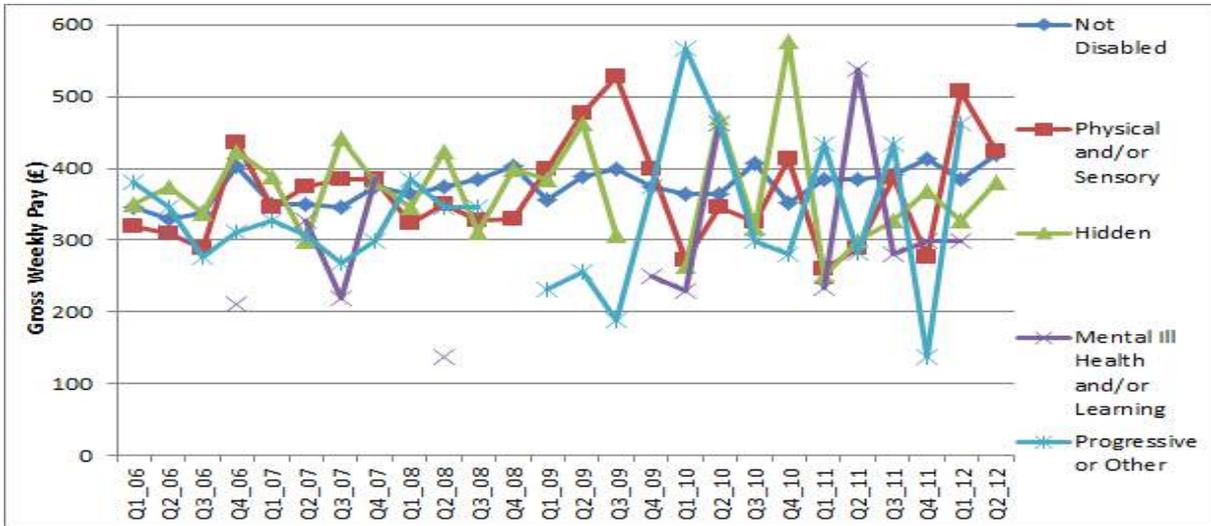
The median gross weekly pay of full-time workers with and without a disability is shown in Figure 8.6a which shows that no group seemed to have any consistent advantage over the time period.

Figure 8.6a: Median gross weekly pay for full-time workers by disability status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



The findings above are also true when disability is broken down into disability types as shown in Figure 8.6b. As can be seen in both Figure 8.6a and 8.6b the data shows high levels of variation which makes drawing any conclusions about pay difficult. This is likely to be a reflection of the low numbers of disabled respondents in the LFS, especially when broken down by disability type.

Figure 8.6b: Median gross weekly pay for full-time workers by disability type (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



For part-time workers, median gross weekly pay for all workers increased by £5 (4.3%), from £115 in Q1 2006 to £120 in Q1 2012. Figure 8.6c shows that there was no consistent difference between those with a disability and those without in terms of gross weekly pay for part-time workers. The pay of workers with a disability showed greater fluctuation over the period than that of workers without a disability.

Figure 8.6c: Median gross weekly pay for part-time workers by disability status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

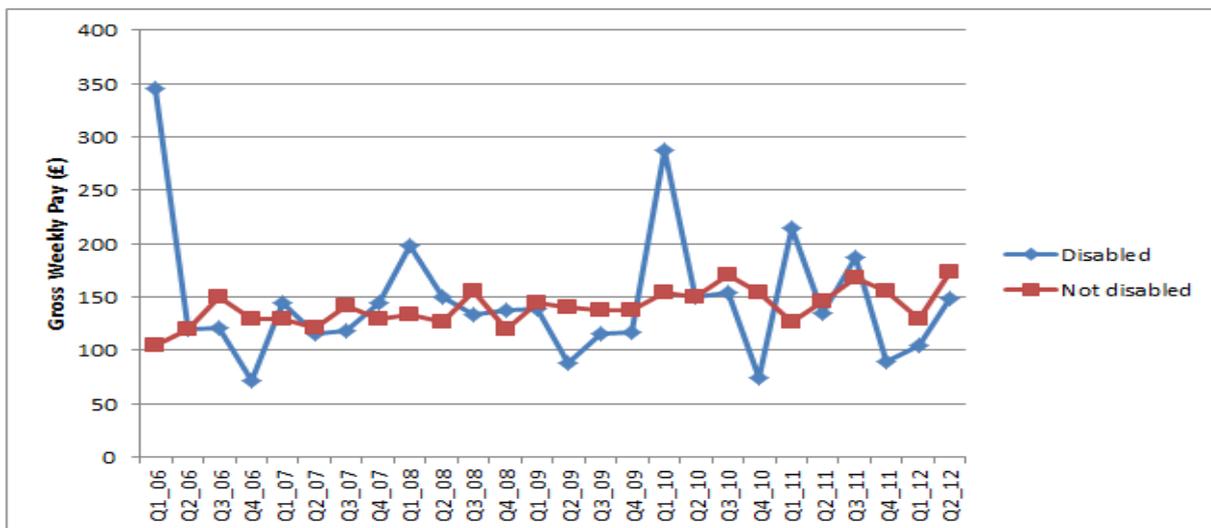
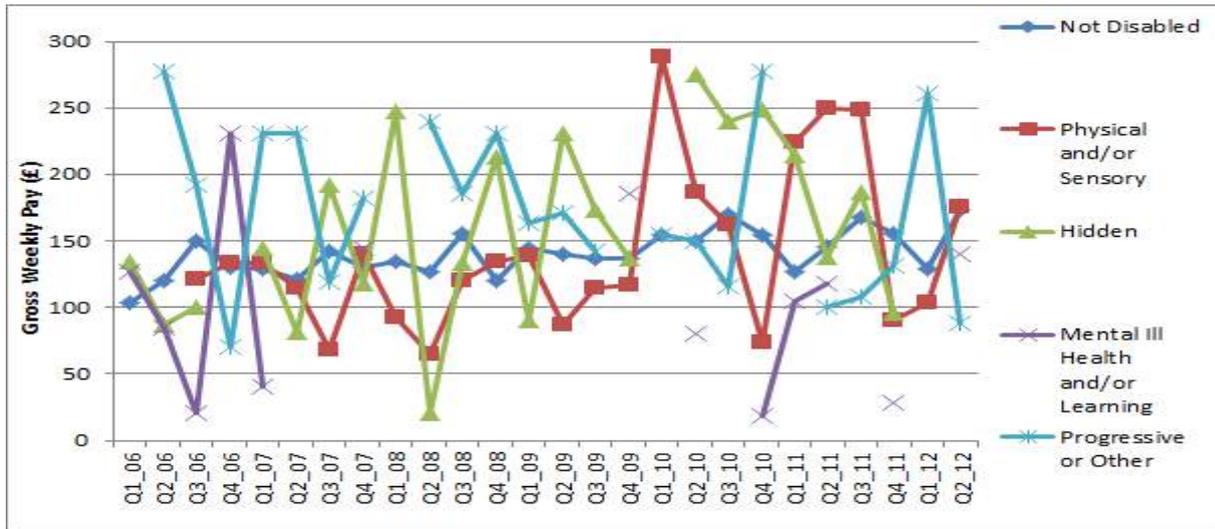


Figure 8.6d shows trends in median gross weekly pay for part-time workers, broken down by disability type; as with full-time workers, missing values and the large degree of fluctuation make it impossible to draw firm conclusions about the relative position of the different groups.

Figure 8.6d: Median gross weekly pay for part-time workers by disability type (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Hours worked per week including overtime

The median hours worked per week including overtime for the working age population as a whole, remained the same at 44.0 hours per week in Q1 2006 and the first quarter of 2012 for full-time workers, and falling from 23.0 to 22.0 hours per week for part-time workers over the same period.

From Figure 8.7a, it is evident that little difference between those with disabilities and those without disabilities existed with regard to median hours worked per week including overtime for full-time workers.

Figure 8.7a: Median hours worked per week including overtime for full-time workers by disability status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

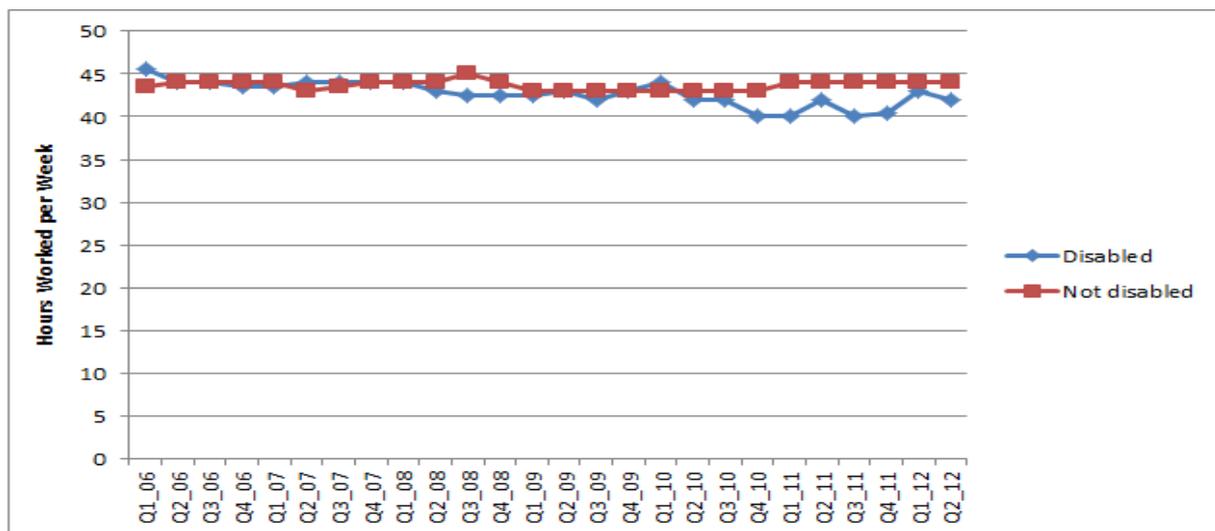
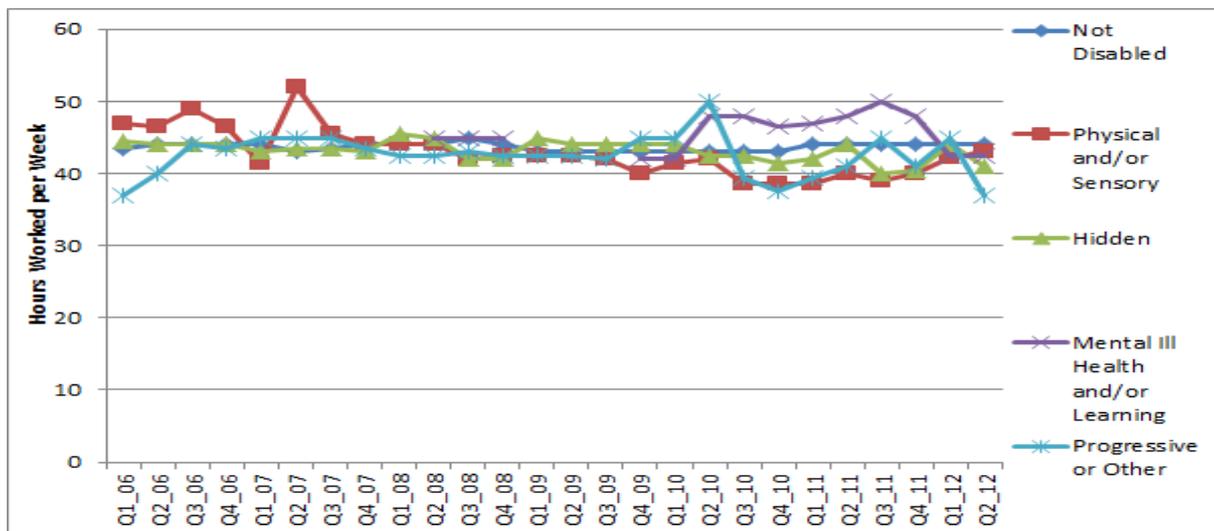


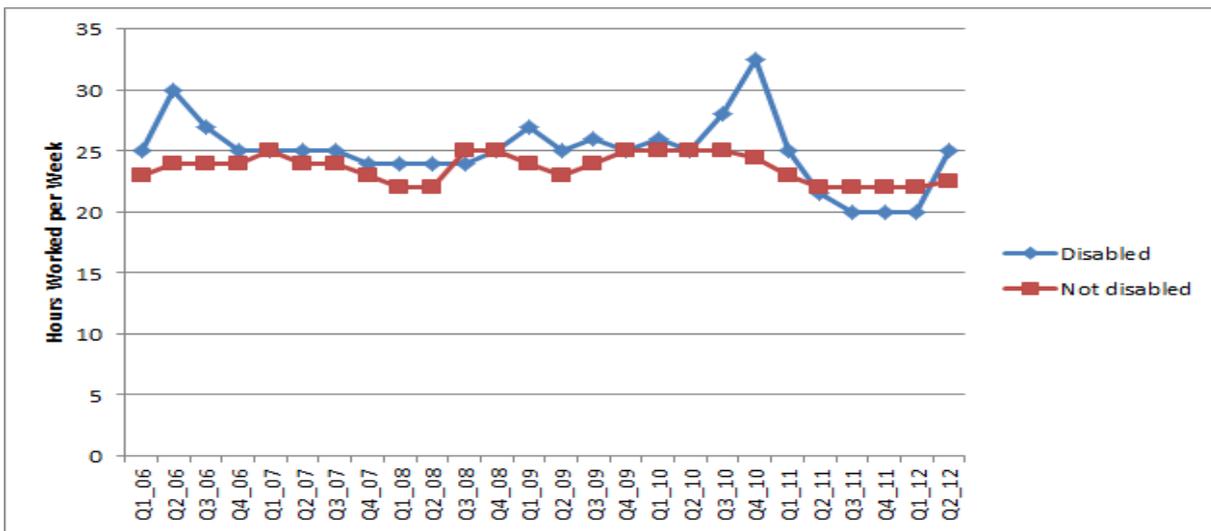
Figure 8.7b shows the median hours worked per week including overtime for full-time workers for each of the disability groups. From this figure it is notable that the range of hours increased compared to those displayed in Figure 8.7a which looked at disability versus no disability. It is also evident that during the period Q3 2007 to Q3 2009 there was some convergence in the median hours worked per week for all groups. Some divergence appeared from Q2 2010 to Q4 2011 where those with a mental ill health and/or learning disability worked a greater number of hours per week than any other group. During this same period those with no disabilities worked fewer hours than those with a mental ill health and/or learning disability but more than the other groups. In Q1 2012 convergence was again evident for all groups.

Figure 8.7b: Median hours worked per week including overtime for full-time workers by disability type
(Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



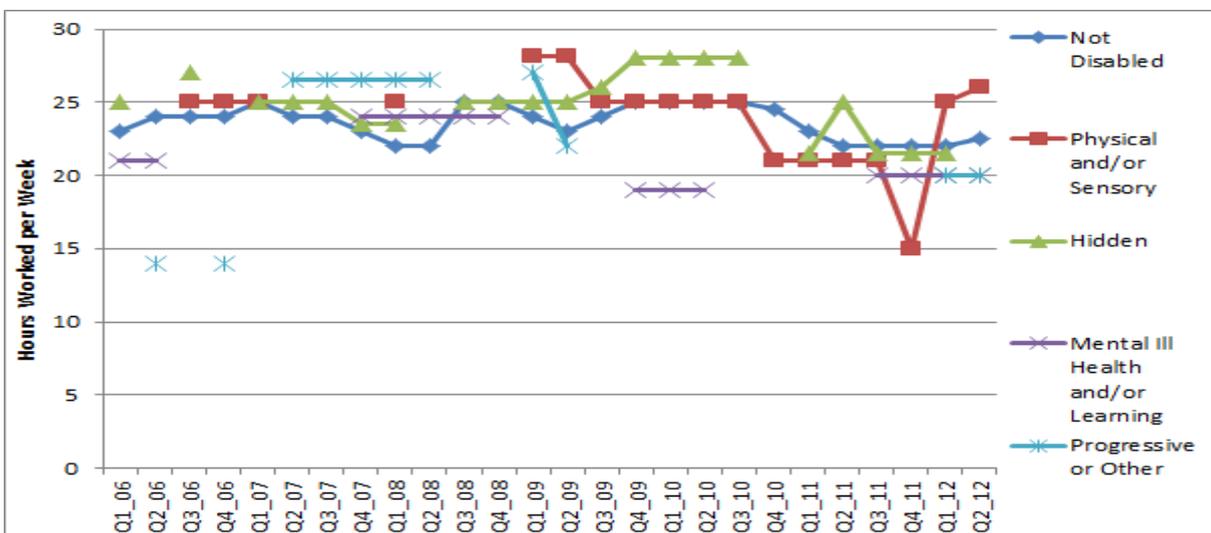
With regard to hours worked for part-time workers Figure 8.7c shows that those with a disability showed greater fluctuation in hours worked between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 than those without a disability. At many time points' workers with a disability worked more hours part-time than those without a disability, although this reversed between Q3 2011 and Q1 2012.

Figure 8.7c: Median hours worked per week including overtime for part-time workers by disability status
(Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



When each disability group is considered (Figure 8.7d) it was also shown that, at many time points, part-time workers without a disability worked fewer hours per week than those with a disability. However, there were so many missing values in the time series that it was difficult to get an impression of whether this pattern was consistent over the period.

Figure 8.7d: Median hours worked per week including overtime for part-time workers by disability type
(Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



The hours worked per week including overtime for both full-time and part-time staff is also shown in Table 8.3. These figures show that (compared to Q1 2006) the Q1 2012 median hours worked per week for full-time workers: stayed the same for those with no disabilities and those with hidden disabilities; reduced for those with physical and/or sensory disabilities and those with mental ill health and/or learning disabilities; and increased for those with progressive or other disabilities. With regard to part-time workers, all workers

except for those with progressive or other disabilities (who again experienced an increase) experienced a reduction in hours worked per week.

Median gross hourly pay

Median gross hourly pay for all full-time workers was £8.33 per hour in Q1 2006 and £9.87 per hour in Q1 2012, a nominal increase of £1.54 per hour over the period. In Figure 8.8a, this small upward trend can be observed among those without a disability, who earned £8.65 per hour in Q1 2006 and £10.00 per hour in Q1 2012. For those with a disability greater fluctuation was evident, although at most time points pay levels for this group was below the Q1 2006 level.

Figure 8.8a: Median gross hourly pay for full-time workers by disability status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

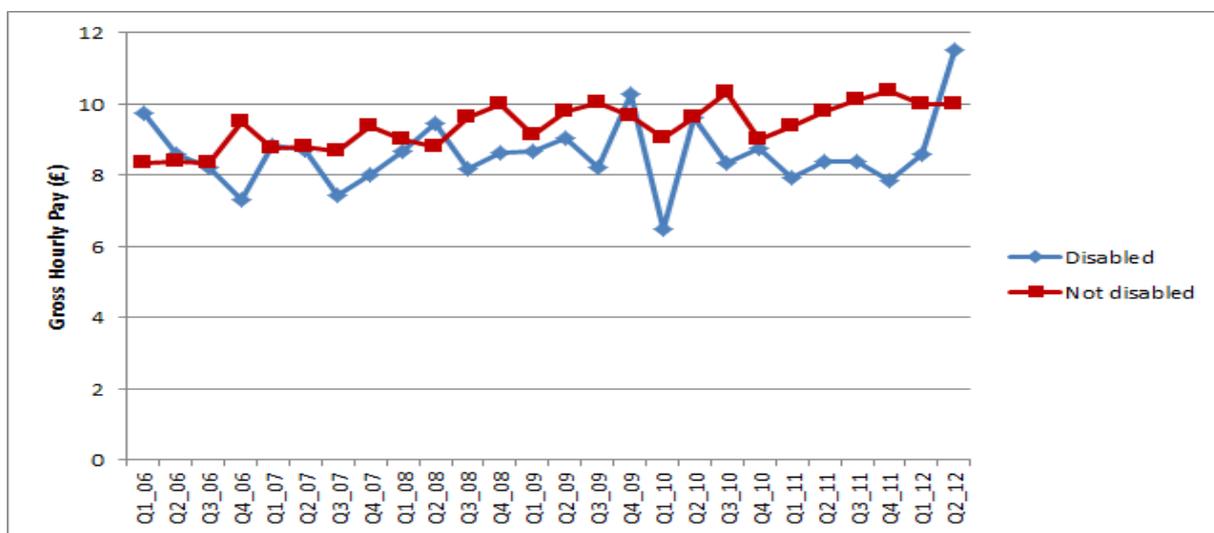
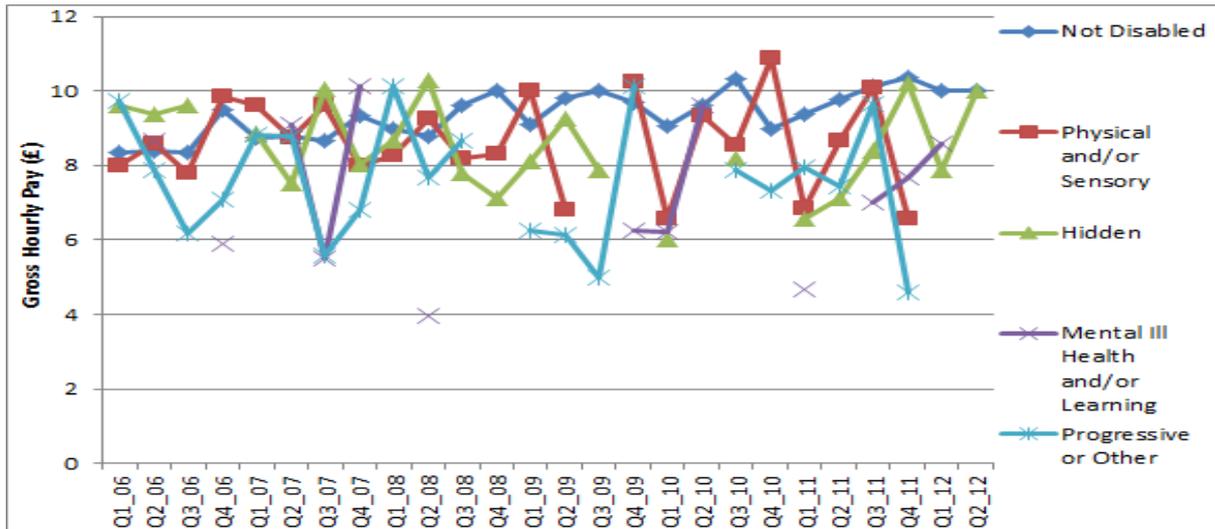


Figure 8.8b shows gross hourly pay for full-time workers in each disability group. Unfortunately, there is so much fluctuation in the disability groups (other than those without a disability) that it is difficult to get any sense of a trend. Therefore there is no consistent pattern of those without a disability earning more.

Figure 8.8b: Median gross hourly pay for full-time workers by disability type (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)⁸⁵



For part-time workers, median gross hourly pay for all workers increased by £1.05 (16.9%), from £6.20 in Q1 2006 to £7.25 in Q1 2012. Again, this upward trend is broadly reflected among part-time workers without a disability (Figure 8.8c), but there is too much fluctuation in the disability group to discern any consistent trend.

Figure 8.8c: Median gross hourly pay for part-time workers by disability status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

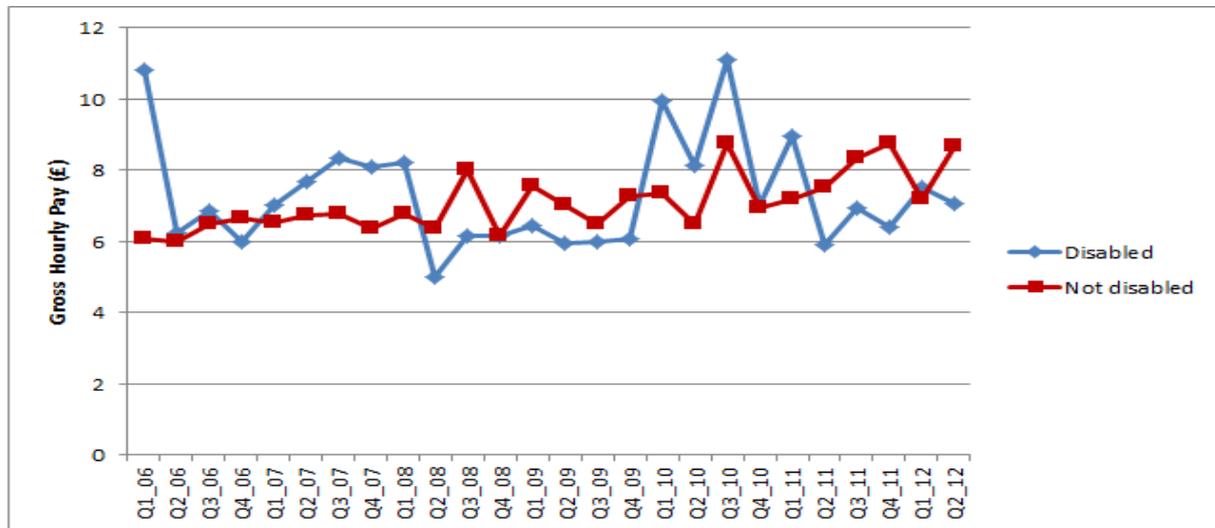
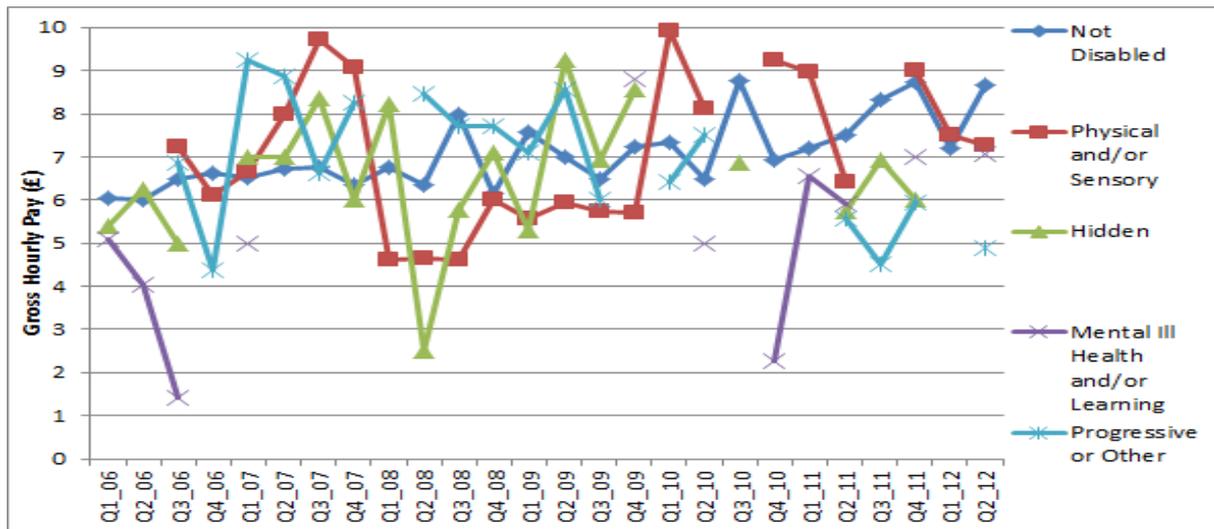


Figure 8.8d shows gross hourly pay for part-time workers for each disability type. Unfortunately, too many data points are missing in the time series, due to a lack of LFS data, to enable any conclusions to be drawn with regard to any particular disability type.

⁸⁵ There were several missing quarters for the disabled full-time gross hourly pay time series.

Figure 8.8d: Median gross hourly pay for part-time workers by disability type (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)⁸⁶



The median gross hourly pay for both full-time and part-time staff is also shown in Table 8.3. These figures show that (compared to Q1 2006) the Q1 2012 median gross hourly pay for full-time workers: increased for those with no disabilities, those with physical and/or sensory disabilities and those with progressive or other disabilities; and reduced for those with mental ill health and/or learning disabilities and those with hidden disabilities (although the decrease for this group was only £0.01). With regard to part-time workers increases were evident for all groups but those with progressive or other disabilities who again experienced a reduction in hourly pay; no figure was available for hidden disabilities in Q1 2012.

⁸⁶ There were several missing quarters for the disabled part-time gross hourly pay time series.

Table 8.3: Median hours worked and median gross hourly pay for full-time and part-time workers by disability status (Source: LFS 2006 & 2012)

	Full Time				Part Time			
	Median Hours Worked		Median Gross Hourly Pay		Median Hours Worked		Median Gross Hourly Pay	
	2006	2012	2006	2012	2006	2012	2006	2012
Not Disabled	44	44	£8.65	£10.00	24	23	£6.30	£7.70
Disabled	44	43	£8.61	£10.22	27	22	£6.25	£7.27
Physical and/or Sensory	47	43	£8.59	£11.53	30	25	£7.25	£7.50
Hidden	44	44	£9.38	£9.37	32	22	£6.00	-
Mental Ill Health and/or Learning	59	43	£11.39	£8.57	21	20	£4.05	£7.07
Progressive or Other	40	41	£7.20	£12.16	14	20	£6.86	£4.89

Private sector employment

Employment in the private sector stayed fairly constant for the working age population as a whole over the period of interest; it stood at 70.3% in Q1 2006 and 70.0% in Q1 2012.

Figure 8.9a shows the rate of private sector employment for those with and without a disability. The overall picture is that there was little difference in the rate of private sector employment between the groups.

Figure 8.9a: Percentage in private sector employment by disability status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

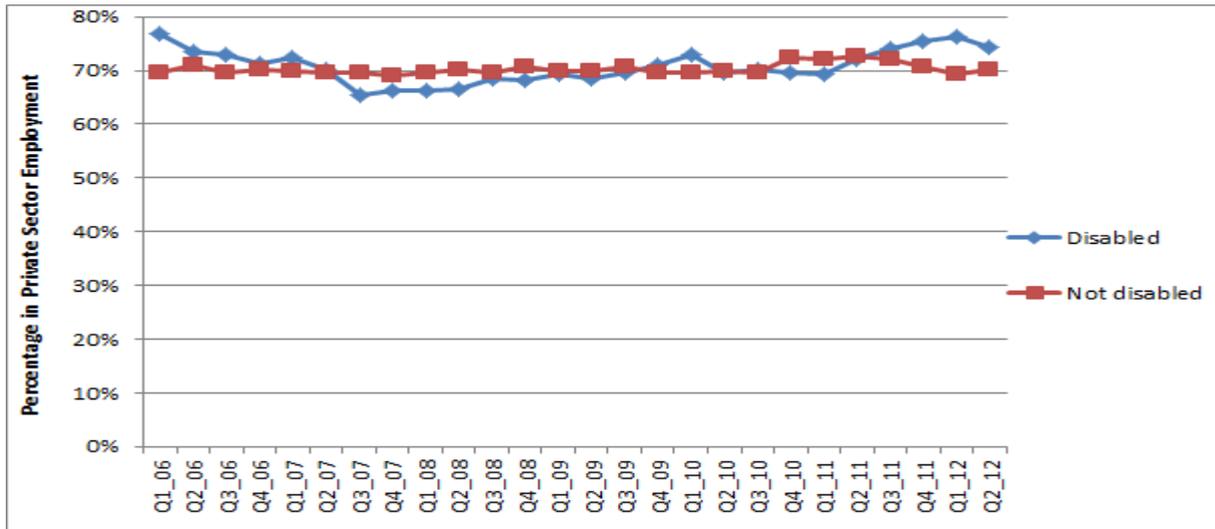
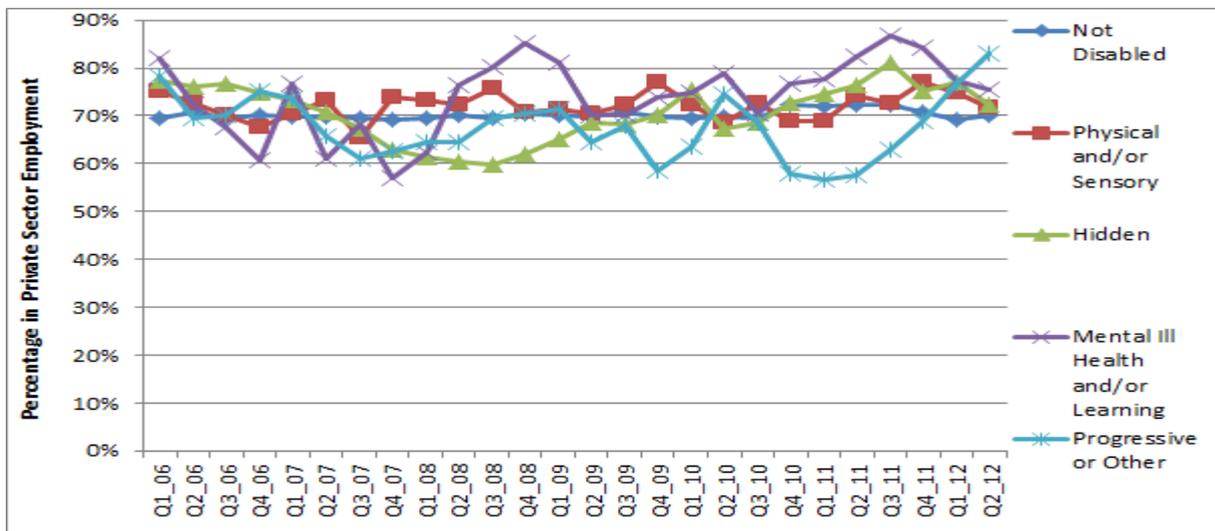


Figure 8.9b also shows a somewhat similar rate of private sector employment for those without a disability, those with a physical and/or sensory disability and those with a hidden disability (except for between Q4 2007 and Q1 2009). Workers with mental ill health and/or learning disabilities experienced fluctuation over the period, but from Q2 2008 onwards their rate of private sector employment was around, if not above, that of those without a disability. Those with progressive or other disabilities showed much fluctuation over the time period and from Q4 2010 to Q2 2011 experienced the lowest rate of private sector employment.

Figure 8.9b: Percentage in private sector employment by disability type (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Industry sector

This section investigates the distribution of employment of those with and without a disability and also each disability group across industry sectors, examining the proportion employed and the median hourly gross pay in each sector for each group.

The distribution of disability groups across industry sectors is given in Table 8.4. Those with a disability were represented in all industry sectors at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. In Q1 2006 a fifth (20.0%) of those with a disability who were in employment worked in the 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' sector. In Q1 2012, nearly a third (32.1%) worked in the 'Public Administration, Education and Health' sector and a quarter (25.4%) worked in the 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' sector. However, whilst at Q1 2006 the industry sector with the highest proportion of disabled workers was also the 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' sector (12.0%), at Q1 2012 the 'Agriculture and Fishing' industry sector had the highest proportion of disabled workers (22.3%).

With regard to each disability group figures show that at Q1 2006 the 'Energy and Water' sector did not employ any persons with hidden disabilities, mental ill health and/or learning disabilities or progressive or other disabilities, in Q1 2012 this extended to include those with physical and/or sensory disabilities but no longer included those with mental ill health and/or learning disabilities. At Q1 2006 only the 'Agriculture and Fishing' and 'Other Services' industries also did not employ any workers with mental ill health and/or learning disabilities or progressive or other disabilities. The 'Banking, Finance and Insurance' industry did not employ any persons with mental ill health and/or learning disabilities in Q1 2006 only. At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 the 'Transport and Communication' industry did not employ any workers with mental ill health and/or learning disabilities. A negative change occurred with regard to the 'Construction' sector in Q1 2012 where this sector no longer employed persons with mental ill health and/or learning disabilities.

The industry sector with the highest distribution of employees was the same for each group at Q1 2012: 'Public Administration, Education and Health'. Indeed this industry sector was also the highest for all but those with mental ill health and/or learning disabilities in Q1 2006; the highest distribution of workers in this group in Q1 2006 was in the 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' sector. At Q1 2006 'Energy and Water' was the lowest represented employer with regard to distribution of employees from each group (however, for those with mental ill health and/or learning disabilities and those with progressive or other disabilities there were multiple industries where they were not represented at all). The 'Energy and Water' sector maintained the lowest distribution of employees from all but those with mental ill health and/or learning disabilities in Q1 2012.

In terms of the proportion of each industry sector comprised by each group, unsurprisingly workers with no disabilities dominated all industry sectors; for both time periods 'Energy and Water' showed the greatest proportion of non-disabled workers. At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 workers with physical and/or sensory disabilities were more proportionally represented in the 'Agriculture and Fishing' sector. Whilst workers with hidden disabilities had the greatest proportionate representation in the 'Other Services' industry at Q1 2006, at Q1 2012 this had changed to the 'Agriculture and Fishing' industry sector. The other two groups, workers with mental ill health and/or learning disabilities and workers with progressive or other disabilities,

also showed different proportionate representations between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012; their highest proportionate representation at Q1 2012 was in industries where they were previously not represented at all. In Q1 2006 workers with mental ill health and/or learning disabilities had their highest proportionate representation in the 'Construction' industry sector; this changed to the 'Energy and Water' industry sector in Q1 2012. Workers with progressive or other disabilities had their highest proportionate representation in the 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' sector in Q1 2006 and their highest proportionate representation in the 'Other Services' industry in Q1 2012.

At Q1 2006 workers with no disabilities were over-represented (i.e. over 90.5%⁸⁷) in four industry sectors: 'Energy and Water'; 'Transport and Communication'; Banking, Finance and Insurance etc.'; and 'Public Administration, Education and Health'. At Q1 2012 this expanded to include over-representations in two further industry sectors (i.e. over 89.9%⁸⁸): 'Manufacturing' and 'Construction'. For those workers with disabilities an over-representation (i.e. over 9.5%⁸⁹) in four industry sectors was evident at Q1 2006: 'Agriculture and Fishing'; 'Manufacturing'; 'Construction'; and 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants'; at Q1 2012 this had changed to an over-representation (i.e. over 10.1%⁹⁰) in three industry sectors: 'Agriculture and Fishing'; 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants'; and 'Other Services'.

Those with disabilities were under-represented (i.e. under 9.5%⁹¹) in four industry sectors at Q1 2006: 'Energy and Water'; 'Transport and Communication'; 'Banking, Finance and Insurance etc.'; and 'Public Administration, Education and Health'. In Q1 2012 this increased to six industry sectors (i.e. under 10.1%⁹²), the additional industry sectors were: 'Manufacturing' and 'Construction'.

⁸⁷ At Q1 2006, 90.5% of those in employment did not have a disability.

⁸⁸ At Q1 2012, 89.9% of those in employment did not have a disability.

⁸⁹ At Q1 2006, 9.5% of those in employment had a self reported disability.

⁹⁰ At Q1 2012, 10.1% of those in employment had a self reported disability.

⁹¹ At Q1 2006, 9.5% of those in employment had a self reported disability.

⁹² At Q1 2012, 10.1% of those in employment had a self reported disability.

Table 8.4: Industry sector by disability status (Source: LFS, 2006 and 2012)

Q1 2006

Sector (SIC2007)	Not Disabled		Disabled		Physical and/or Sensory		Hidden		Mental Ill Health and/or Learning		Progressive or Other	
	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²
A-B: Agriculture & Fishing	89.1	3.3	10.9	12.1	7.6	6.5	3.3	3.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
C,E: Energy & Water	94.5	0.9	5.5	7.5	5.5	1.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
D: Manufacturing	90.2	14.0	9.8	10.4	3.5	12.6	4.2	16.7	0.6	14.3	1.6	17.1
F: Construction	90.2	10.0	9.8	8.7	3.9	10.1	3.7	10.9	1.6	27.0	0.6	4.2
G-H: Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants	88.0	18.9	12.0	20.0	5.1	25.3	3.9	22.3	1.0	33.3	2.0	29.0
I: Transport & Communication	92.8	4.9	7.2	5.0	3.4	4.1	2.9	4.0	0.0	0.0	0.9	3.2
J-K: Banking, Finance & Insurance etc.	92.2	9.8	7.8	12.3	3.8	9.2	2.6	7.3	0.0	0.0	1.4	10.1
L-N: Public Admin, Education & Health	92.0	34.5	8.0	11.3	3.2	27.8	2.9	28.8	0.5	25.4	1.4	36.5
O-Q: Other Services	90.5	3.8	9.5	12.7	3.4	3.2	6.1	6.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

(Table 8.4 contd. next page)

(Table 8.4 contd.)

Q1 2012

Sector (SIC2007)	Not Disabled		Disabled		Physical and/or Sensory		Hidden		Mental Ill Health and/or Learning		Progressive or Other	
	Row Prop. % ₁	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ₁	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ₁	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ₁	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ₁	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ₁	Column Dist.% ²
A-B: Agriculture & Fishing	77.7	2.5	22.3	6.3	9.5	7.3	8.9	8.1	1.5	3.4	2.4	3.5
C,E: Energy & Water	94.0	1.2	6.0	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.0	5.6	0.0	0.0
D: Manufacturing	92.6	12.9	7.4	9.2	2.6	8.8	1.9	7.5	0.6	6.3	2.3	14.6
F: Construction	90.5	9.1	9.5	8.5	4.0	9.6	3.1	8.8	0.0	0.0	2.5	11.5
G-H: Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants	86.9	18.8	13.1	25.4	4.9	25.7	4.0	25.2	2.2	34.2	2.0	19.7
I: Transport & Communication	93.0	5.2	7.0	3.5	2.5	3.4	2.8	4.4	0.0	0.0	1.7	4.3
J-K: Banking, Finance & Insurance etc.	93.3	11.2	6.7	7.2	2.4	7.0	2.2	7.6	0.6	5.5	1.5	8.2
L-N: Public Admin, Education & Health	90.8	35.2	9.2	32.1	3.5	33.1	2.8	31.2	1.3	35.5	1.6	29.3
O-Q: Other Services	83.9	4.1	16.1	7.0	4.2	5.0	5.1	7.2	2.8	9.6	4.0	8.9

¹ Row: proportion within each sector of disability group (e.g. In Q1 2006 90.2% of the Manufacturing sector was occupied by those with no disability)

² Column: distribution of disability group across sectors (e.g. In Q1 2006 16.7% of those employed with a hidden disability were in the Manufacturing sector)

Table 8.5 shows the median gross hourly pay for each group in each sector, and the pay gaps between workers with and without disabilities in each sector. For each group, apart from the non-disabled group, the lack of pay data for many industry sectors makes Table 8.5 incomplete – see Table A5.1 in Appendix 5.

In Q1 2006, the highest hourly paid sector was ‘Energy and Water’ for workers without a disability and the lowest was the ‘Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants’ sector; the lowest paid sector changed to ‘Agriculture and Fishing’ in Q1 2012. Data on workers in each disability group is lacking. However, enough data was available on workers with hidden disabilities to report that the highest paid sector in Q1 2006 was ‘Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants’ and the lowest was ‘Manufacturing’; ‘Manufacturing’ remained the lowest paid sector in Q1 2012.

In Q1 2012 the ‘Public Administration, Education and Health’ sector was where the highest recorded median gross hourly pay rates were observed for all groups. The pay gaps in Table 8.5 were not always in favour of workers without a disability, but given the small sample sizes, it is difficult to draw any robust conclusions about the relative pay of the different groups.

Table 8.5: Median gross hourly pay in each industry sector and pay gaps by disability status (Source: LFS, 2006 and 2012)

Q1 2006											
Sector (SIC2007)	Median Gross Hourly Pay						Pay Gap*				
	Not Disabled	Disabled	Physical and/or Sensory	Hidden	Mental Ill Health and/or Learning	Progressive or Other	Disabled	Physical and/or Sensory	Hidden	Mental Ill Health and/or Learning	Progressive or Other
A-B: Agriculture & Fishing	£10.16	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
C,E: Energy & Water	£20.14	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
D: Manufacturing	£7.69	£8.00	£8.00	£5.82	n/a	£10.38	-£0.31	-£0.31	£1.87	n/a	-£2.69
F: Construction	£9.07	£9.74	n/a	£6.52	£11.86	£9.74	-£0.67	n/a	£2.55	-£2.79	-£0.67
G-H: Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants	£6.33	£11.52	£27.90	£11.52	£5.08	£5.00	-£5.19	-£21.57	-£5.19	£1.25	-£1.33
I: Transport & Communication	£8.39	£8.05	n/a	£8.05	n/a	n/a	£0.34	n/a	£0.34	n/a	n/a
J-K: Banking, Finance & Insurance etc.	£11.00	£9.62	n/a	£9.62	n/a	£6.25	£1.38	n/a	£1.38	n/a	£4.75
L-N: Public Admin, Education & Health	£8.33	£10.81	£6.90	£10.81	n/a	£16.00	-£2.48	£1.43	-£2.48	n/a	-£7.67
O-Q: Other Services	£11.75	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a

(Table 8.5 contd. next page)

Table 8.5 contd.

Q1 2012

Sector (SIC2007)	Median Gross Hourly Pay						Pay Gap*				
	Not Disabled	Disabled	Physical and/or Sensory	Hidden	Mental III Health and/or Learning	Progressive or Other	Disabled	Physical and/or Sensory	Hidden	Mental III Health and/or Learning	Progressive or Other
A-B: Agriculture & Fishing	£5.58	£7.20	n/a	£7.20	n/a	n/a	-£1.62	n/a	-£1.62	n/a	n/a
C,E: Energy & Water	£7.80	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
D: Manufacturing	£7.69	£6.50	£6.50	£5.79	n/a	£12.16	£1.19	£1.19	£1.90	n/a	-£4.47
F: Construction	£10.00	£18.69	n/a	£18.69	n/a	n/a	-£8.69	n/a	-£8.69	n/a	n/a
G-H: Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants	£7.50	£6.84	£6.00	£7.50	£6.38	n/a	£0.66	£1.50	£0.00	£1.12	n/a
I: Transport & Communication	£10.13	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
J-K: Banking, Finance & Insurance etc.	£8.25	£7.50	£7.50	£7.49	n/a	£12.43	£0.75	£0.75	£0.76	n/a	£4.18
L-N: Public Admin, Education & Health	£10.57	£14.51	£12.92	£19.78	£8.57	£20.61	-£3.94	-£2.35	-£9.21	£2.00	-£10.04
O-Q: Other Services	£9.46	£12.28	n/a	£12.28	n/a	n/a	-£2.82	n/a	-£2.82	n/a	n/a

* Pay gap = median gross hourly pay of Not Disabled minus median gross hourly pay of disability group

n/a = not available

Occupation group

This section explores the distribution and proportion of workers with and without disabilities (and within each disability group) across occupation groups, and their relative pay in each occupation group. Table 8.6 shows that:

- In Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 disabled workers were represented in each of the occupation groups. The minimal proportionate representation at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 for disabled workers was in 'Professional Occupations'; this is despite representing 7.5% and 11.3%, respectively of the disabled workforce.
- Whilst disabled workers had a lesser share of jobs in the high level 'Professional Occupations' than those without disabilities they had a greater share of the highest level 'Manager and Senior Officials' occupations at both Q1 2006 (11.6%) and Q1 2012 (8.2%).
- In Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 'Skilled Trades Occupation' employed a fifth (20.0% and 20.7%, respectively) of the disabled workforce.
- In Q1 2006 'Skilled Trades Occupations' retained the highest distribution of non-disabled workers, workers with a physical and/or sensory disability and workers with hidden disabilities. 'Elementary Occupations' retained the highest distribution of workers with mental health and/or learning disabilities and 'Managers and Senior Officials' occupations retained the highest proportion of workers with progressive or other disabilities.
- In Q1 2012 'Skilled Trades Occupations' retained the highest distribution of workers with physical and/or sensory disabilities and workers with hidden disabilities; in addition this occupation group also retained the highest distribution of workers with mental ill health and/or learning disabilities. 'Professional Occupations' retained the highest distribution of non-disabled workers and 'Associate Professional and Technical' retained the highest distribution of workers with progressive or other disabilities.
- Unsurprisingly the proportion of non-disabled workers was high in all occupation groups for both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. Notable decreases ranging from 3.1 to 5.1 percentage points were evident in the Q1 2012 proportions in 'Associate Professional and Technical', 'Administrative and Secretarial', 'Skilled Trades Occupations', and 'Personal Service Occupations' for these workers.
- Between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 the proportion of workers with physical and/or sensory disabilities decreased in four of the occupation groups, most notably in the 'Sales and Customer Service' (4.5 percentage points) and 'Process Plant and Machine Operatives' (1.3 percentage points) occupation groups. Small increases were evident in some occupation groups: 'Managers and Senior Officials', 'Administrative and Secretarial', 'Personal Service Occupations', and 'Elementary Occupations' (ranging from 0.4 to 1.7 percentage points).
- Whilst the proportion of workers with hidden disabilities increased for four occupation groups: 'Professional Occupations', 'Associate Professional and Technical', 'Skilled Trades Occupations' and 'Process, Plant and Machine Operatives' (ranging from 1.1 to 1.3 percentage points), decreases were seen in six occupation groups (ranging from 0.1 to 3.3 percentage points).

- Of note for workers with mental ill health and/or learning disabilities is that their proportionate representation in Q1 2006 for five of the occupation groups was nil; in Q1 2012 these workers were represented in all occupation groups.
- The proportion of workers with progressive or other disabilities decreased between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 in 'Managers and Senior Officials' (by 3.0 percentage points), 'Professional Occupations' (by 0.9 percentage points) and 'Process, Plant and Machine Operatives' (by 1.8 percentage points) occupation groups but increased in all other occupation groups; increases ranged from 0.1 to 3.1 percentage points. Additionally, these workers were newly represented within the 'Skilled Trades Occupations' in Q1 2012.
- Whilst at Q1 2006 disabled workers were over-represented (i.e. over 9.5%⁸⁹) in the highest level occupation group, 'Managers and Senior Officials', at Q1 2012 it was those without a disability who were over-represented in this occupation group (i.e. over 90.5%⁸⁷).
- Those with disabilities experienced vertical segregation at Q1 2012 with respect to the highest level occupation groups of: 'Managers and Senior Officials'; 'Professional Occupations'; and 'Administrative and Secretarial' occupations; in Q 1 2006 this vertical segregation was also apparent in 'Professional Occupations'; 'Associate Professional and Technical'; and 'Administrative and Secretarial' occupations, but was not apparent in 'Managers and Senior Officials' occupations.

Self-employment rates were fairly constant; however, a smaller proportion of those with disabilities reported being self-employed than those with no disabilities (7.8% and 9.3% respectively in Q1 2012, the disabled and non-disabled rates were 6.3% and 11.2% in Q1 2006).

Table 8.6: Occupation group by disability status (Source: LFS, 2006 and 2012)

Q1 2006

Occupation (SOC10)	Not Disabled		Disabled		Physical and/or Sensory		Hidden		Mental Ill Health and/or Learning		Progressive or Other	
	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²
Managers and Senior Officials	88.4	9.5	11.6	12.1	2.8	6.8	4.4	12.5	0.9	13.7	3.6	26.4
Professional occupations	94.3	12.7	5.7	7.5	2.2	6.9	1.8	6.6	0.4	8.2	1.2	11.0
Associate Professional and Technical	92.0	12.2	8.0	10.4	4.6	14.2	2.8	9.8	0.0	0.0	0.6	5.6
Administrative and Secretarial	93.9	13.8	6.1	8.7	1.4	4.6	4.0	15.3	0.0	0.0	0.8	7.8
Skilled Trades Occupations	89.8	18.1	10.2	20.0	5.4	24.8	3.6	19.4	1.2	35.1	0.0	0.0
Personal Service Occupations	93.7	7.6	6.3	5.0	3.7	7.0	1.8	3.9	0.0	0.0	0.7	3.9
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	86.1	7.8	13.9	12.3	7.2	15.0	3.4	8.2	0.0	0.0	3.3	20.9
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	88.4	8.8	11.6	11.3	4.9	11.1	4.2	10.9	0.0	0.0	2.6	18.0
Elementary Occupations	87.9	9.5	12.1	12.7	3.9	9.6	4.7	13.4	2.7	43.0	0.8	6.3

(Table 8.6 contd. next page)

Table 8.6 contd.

Q1 2012

Occupation (SOC10)	Not Disabled		Disabled		Physical and/or Sensory		Hidden		Mental Ill Health and/or Learning		Progressive or Other	
	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²
Managers and Senior Officials	91.8	8.8	8.2	7.1	4.5	10.5	2.4	6.8	0.7	4.9	0.6	2.5
Professional occupations	93.9	19.5	6.1	11.3	2.1	10.6	3.0	17.9	0.6	9.5	0.3	3.1
Associate Professional and Technical	86.9	10.2	13.1	13.8	4.0	11.4	3.9	13.1	1.5	12.9	3.7	20.2
Administrative and Secretarial	90.8	13.0	9.2	11.9	2.3	8.1	2.6	10.9	1.5	15.5	2.8	18.5
Skilled Trades Occupations	85.1	13.1	14.9	20.7	5.7	21.3	5.2	23.4	1.8	19.9	2.2	15.5
Personal Service Occupations	89.8	9.3	10.2	9.5	4.9	12.4	1.0	3.0	1.8	13.1	2.5	12.0
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	89.2	8.0	10.8	8.7	2.7	5.9	3.3	8.4	1.4	9.1	3.4	14.1
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	89.1	6.4	10.9	7.1	3.6	6.3	5.5	11.5	1.0	5.0	0.8	2.8
Elementary Occupations	91.3	11.7	8.7	10.0	4.3	13.4	1.4	5.0	1.1	10.2	1.9	11.5

¹ Row: proportion within each occupation of disability status (e.g. In Q1 2012 93.9% of professional occupations were occupied by non-disabled persons)

² Column: distribution of disability status across occupations (e.g. In Q1 2012 19.5% of non-disabled persons were in professional occupations)

Table 8.7 shows the median gross hourly pay across occupation groups for each disability group and the pay gaps between those with and without disabilities in each occupation group. Analysis was problematic in this section due to the low sample sizes which resulted in many empty cells in Table 8.7 – see **Table A5.1** in Appendix 5.

The top three highest paid occupations at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 for those with no disabilities were: 1. 'Professional Occupations'; 2. 'Managers and Senior Officials'; and 3. 'Associate and Professional and Technical' occupations. For those with a disability the top three highest paid occupations in Q1 2006 were: 1. 'Sales and Customer Service Occupations'; 2. 'Professional Occupations'; and 3. 'Associate Professional and Technical' occupations. In Q1 2012 the number one ranking of 'Sales and Customer Service Occupations' was replaced by 'Managers and Senior Officials', the second and third ranking remained the same as in Q1 2006.

For those with physical and/or learning disabilities little data was available in Q1 2006. However, in Q1 2012 the representation of a wider range of occupation groups afforded the opportunity to calculate the three highest paid occupations at this time point to be: 1. 'Associate Professional and Technical'; 2. 'Elementary Occupations'; and 2. 'Professional Occupations'. The top three highest paid occupations at Q1 2006 for workers with hidden disabilities were: 1. 'Associate Professional and Technical'; 2. 'Professional Occupations'; and 3. 'Managers and Senior Officials'. At Q1 2012 this changed to: 1. 'Managers and Senior Officials'; 2. 'Professional Occupations'; and 3. 'Administrative and Secretarial' occupations. Too little data was available at either time point with regard to workers with mental ill health and/or learning disabilities and workers with progressive or other disabilities to make any report on the same meaningful.

The lowest paid occupation group in Q1 2006 for workers with no disabilities and workers with hidden disabilities was 'Elementary Occupations'. In Q1 2012 workers with no disabilities were still paid the least in 'Elementary Occupations'; workers with hidden disabilities were paid the least in 'Skilled Trades Occupations'. 'Skilled Trades Occupations' and 'Personal Service Occupations' were the lowest paid occupations in Q1 2012 for workers with Physical and/or Sensory disabilities.

In general those with disabilities appeared across most occupations to be getting paid more per hour than those without a disability. In Q1 2006 the largest pay gap was £21.84 per hour in 'Sales and Customer Service Occupations', in favour of those with physical and/or sensory disabilities compared to those without a disability. In Q1 2012 the largest hourly pay gap was £9.39 per hour in 'Associate Professional and Technical Occupations' in favour of workers without a disability when compared to workers with mental ill health and/or learning disabilities. However, small sample sizes mean that any conclusions with respect to pay gaps between those with and without disabilities should be viewed with extreme caution.

Table 8.7: Median gross hourly pay in each occupation group and pay gaps by disability status (Source: LFS, 2006 and 2012)

Q1 2006

Occupation (SOC10)	Median Gross Hourly Pay						Pay Gap*				
	Not Disabled	Disabled	Physical and/or Sensory	Hidden	Mental Ill Health and/or Learning	Progressive or Other	Disabled	Physical and/or Sensory	Hidden	Mental Ill Health and/or Learning	Progressive or Other
Managers and Senior Officials	£11.84	£10.38	n/a	£9.62	n/a	£10.00	£1.46	n/a	£2.22	n/a	£1.84
Professional occupations	£14.44	£16.00	£20.24	£10.81	n/a	£16.00	-£1.56	-£5.80	£3.63	n/a	-£1.56
Associate Professional and Technical	£9.80	£12.81	n/a	£13.73	n/a	£13.00	-£3.01	n/a	-£3.93	n/a	-£3.20
Administrative and Secretarial	£8.23	£7.63	n/a	£7.63	n/a	n/a	£0.60	n/a	£0.60	n/a	n/a
Skilled Trades Occupations	£7.00	£8.33	£8.00	£6.52	£11.86	n/a	-£1.33	-£1.00	£0.48	-£4.86	n/a
Personal Service Occupations	£6.30	£6.90	£6.90	n/a	n/a	n/a	-£0.60	-£0.60	n/a	n/a	n/a
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	£6.06	£27.90	£27.90	n/a	n/a	n/a	-£21.84	-£21.84	n/a	n/a	n/a
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	£7.27	£9.74	n/a	n/a	n/a	£9.74	-£2.47	n/a	n/a	n/a	-£2.47
Elementary Occupations	£5.50	£5.40	n/a	£5.40	£5.08	£5.00	£0.10	n/a	£0.10	£0.42	£0.50

(Table 8.7 contd. next page)

(Table 8.7 contd.)

Q1 2012

Occupation (SOC10)	Median Gross Hourly Pay						Pay Gap*				
	Not Disabled	Disabled	Physical and/or Sensory	Hidden	Mental Ill Health and/or Learning	Progressive or Other	Disabled	Physical and/or Sensory	Hidden	Mental Ill Health and/or Learning	Progressive or Other
Managers and Senior Officials	£12.33	£20.33	n/a	£20.33	n/a	£12.16	-£8.00	n/a	-£8.00	n/a	£0.17
Professional occupations	£15.59	£18.69	£12.92	£19.78	£14.60	n/a	-£3.10	£2.67	-£4.19	£0.99	n/a
Associate Professional and Technical	£11.22	£14.96	£14.96	£7.49	n/a	£20.61	-£3.74	-£3.74	£3.73	n/a	-£9.39
Administrative and Secretarial	£9.58	£9.45	£9.45	£12.28	£8.57	£12.43	£0.13	£0.13	-£2.70	£1.01	-£2.85
Skilled Trades Occupations	£7.78	£6.64	£6.50	£6.64	n/a	n/a	£1.14	£1.28	£1.14	n/a	n/a
Personal Service Occupations	£7.29	£7.50	£6.50	£10.22	n/a	n/a	-£0.21	£0.79	-£2.93	n/a	n/a
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	£6.93	£6.84	£6.84	n/a	£6.38	n/a	£0.09	£0.09	n/a	£0.55	n/a
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	£6.92	£11.81	n/a	£11.81	n/a	n/a	-£4.89	n/a	-£4.89	n/a	n/a
Elementary Occupations	£6.78	£7.20	£14.51	£7.20	n/a	n/a	-£0.42	-£7.73	-£0.42	n/a	n/a

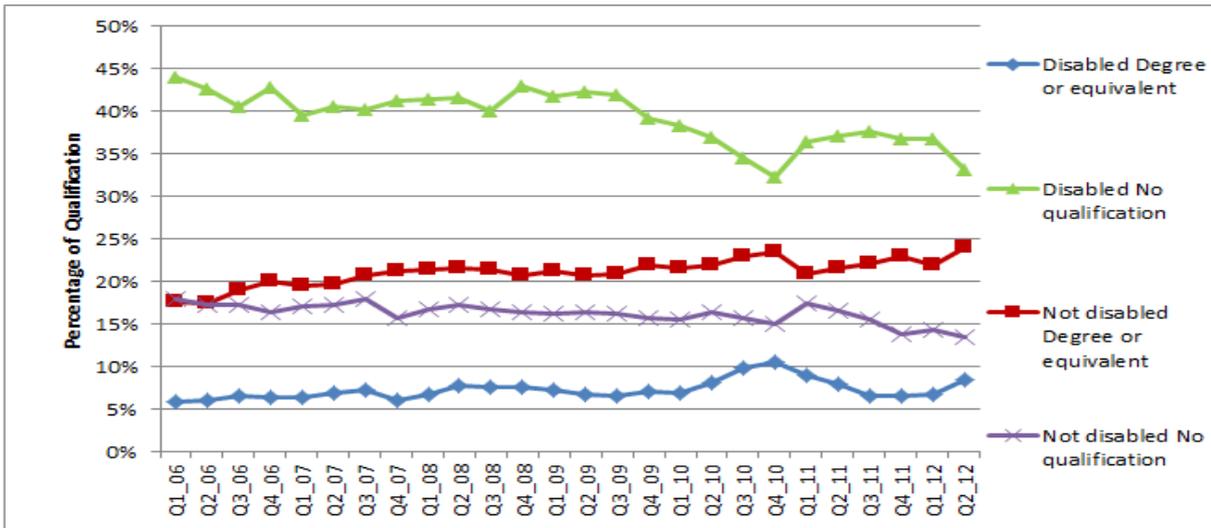
* Pay gap = median gross hourly pay of Not Disabled minus median gross hourly pay of disability group

n/a = not available

Qualifications

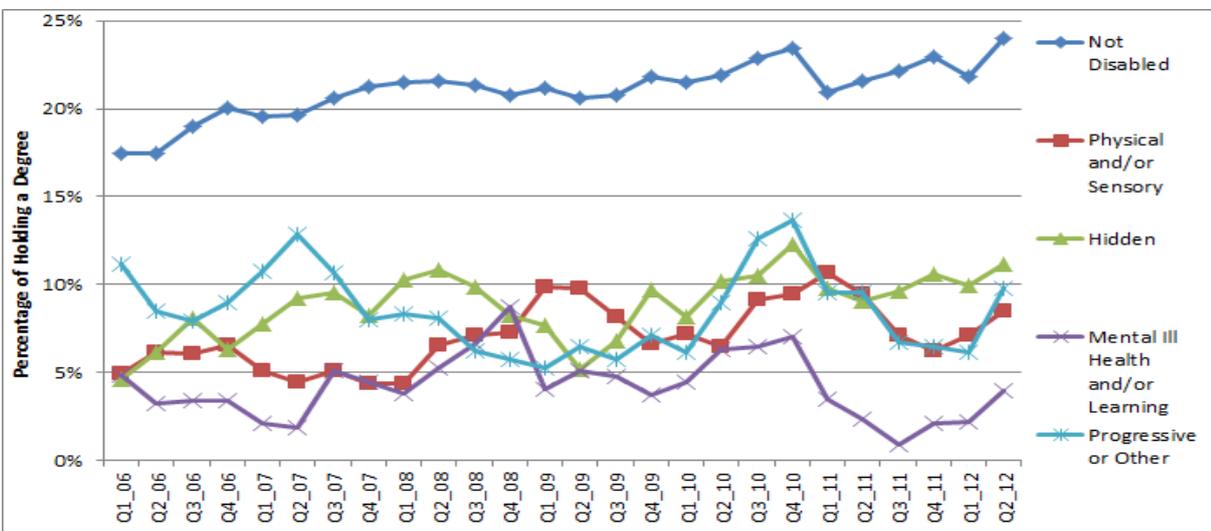
Disabled people were much less likely to have a degree, and were much more likely to have no qualifications, than non-disabled people, (see Figure 8.10a). In Q1 2012 only 6.8% of those with reported disabilities had a degree and some 36.8% had no qualifications in comparison with the population average of 21.1% who held a degree or equivalent and 17.2% who did not hold any qualifications.

Figure 8.10a: Percentage of qualification by disability type (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



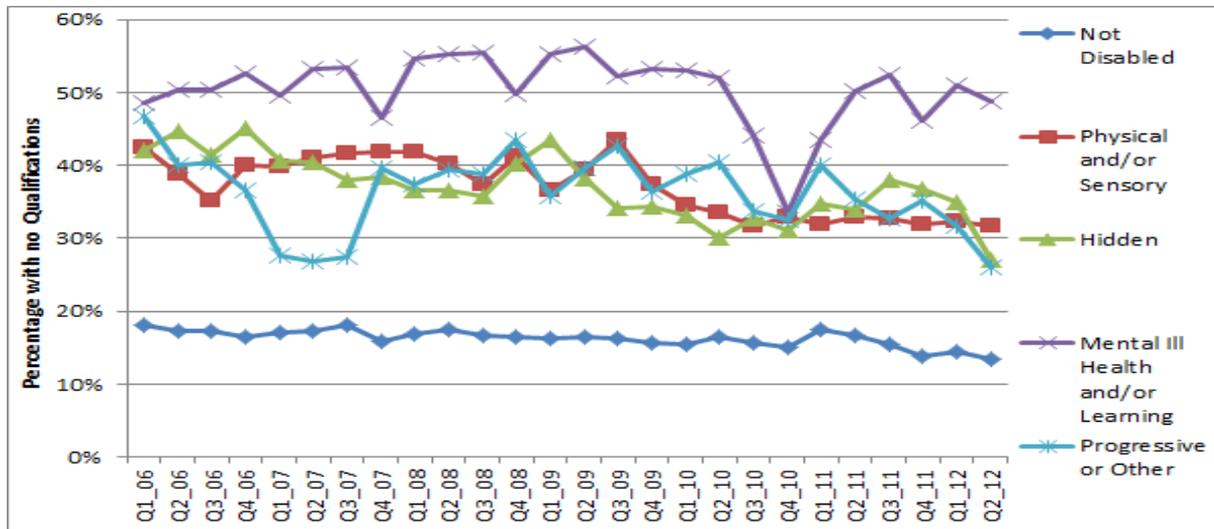
With regard to degree holding (Figures 8.10ba) the situation improved over time for those with physical and/or sensory disabilities and for those with hidden disabilities. However, degree holding of those with mental ill health and/or learning disabilities and those with progressive or other disabilities reduced in Q1 2012 compared to Q1 2006.

Figure 8.10b: Percentage holding a degree by disability type (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



When considering qualifications (Figure 8.10c) it is evident that the group with fewest qualifications were those with mental ill health and/or learning disabilities. For each of the other disability group's qualification holding increased between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.

Figure 8.10c: Percentage with no qualifications by disability type (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Transport

The travel to work time of those with a disability was shorter on average than for those without a disability (21 minutes compared to 23 minutes, respectively). On average, 80.2% of those who reported a disability reported that they used a car, van or motorcycle as the main mode of travel to work, which was around 4.5 percentage points less than those who were not disabled. A total of 11.4% of disabled workers walked or cycled to work and 8.5% used public transport to get to work compared to 9.9% and 5.5%, respectively of workers who were not disabled.

Attitudes

The 2011 Equality Awareness Survey (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012) asked respondents how they felt about having a person with different types of disability as a colleague. A total of 15% said they would mind having a person with a physical disability as a colleague, and 11% said they would mind someone with a learning disability. Over a quarter (26%) said that they would mind having a person with mental ill-health as a colleague; this is considerably higher than the 2005 figure of 17% and the fact that 1 in 4 people responded affirmatively to this question suggests an enduring stigma against those with mental health issues in the workplace.

Respondents to the Equality Awareness Survey were also asked whether they perceived that those with disabilities were treated unfairly, to which 24% responded that they thought this was the case; 13% felt this group was treated the most unfairly. Of those who thought that disabled people were treated unfairly, a

third believed that this unfair treatment occurred at work. This may be indicative of ongoing prejudice against disabled people in employment.

The findings related to attitudes towards disabled people are similar to that reported by the Equality Commission for Northern Ireland's Statement on Key Inequalities in 2007 (ECNI, 2007), which cited research by the Disability Rights Commission that found that 45% of those from the general public who were surveyed believed that it would be "quite/very difficult" to employ a disabled person. A total of 24% of those who felt it would be "quite/very difficult" to employ a disabled person reported the belief that if the job did not work out the disabled person would claim discrimination.

Stakeholder views on disability inequalities in employment

Employment

Stakeholders, reporting generally on disability, were of the view that the severity of disability has a profound impact on the ability to work; with the most severely disabled people unable to work, whilst those with less severe disabilities might be able to. However, stakeholders reported that Health and Social Care Trusts may be too quick to assume that individuals cannot work. Disabled people may be able to work, stakeholders reported, if they are suitably identified and referred to the right kind of support.

Many of the barriers to employment for disabled workers appear to come from the stigma and discrimination they experience in trying to obtain work; such stigma exists in all sectors. Stakeholders felt it surprising that such stigma exists in the public sector since this sector promotes a commitment to diversity and inclusion. For example, one stakeholder, Action Mental Health, reported being unable to place clients in work experience placements in the Northern Ireland Civil Service.

Stakeholders reported the belief that challenging employer attitudes is key to improving the employment outcomes of disabled workers. In stakeholders' experience disabled workers are more likely to get a job from a work placement, and employers are more willing to make adjustments for existing employees rather than employing disabled workers as a new hire. This demonstrates the importance of challenging employers' perceptions about the capabilities of disabled workers and the adjustments they need to do to meet a disabled employee's needs. However, stakeholders caution that it may be necessary to remove an element of risk or cost before employers are willing to recruit or take steps to retain a disabled worker, and thus schemes that subsidise placements or adjustments are deemed to be important.

Qualifications

Stakeholders reported that the type of work that disabled workers enter into is more likely to be low paid and that unemployed disabled workers tend to have fewer qualifications than unemployed workers who are not disabled; as evidenced earlier in this chapter. Whilst low academic achievement remains a key

barrier to employment, the right adjustment can make it possible for disabled workers to complete education and training. However stakeholders perceive that there is a lack of effort on the part of educational institutions to make these adjustments. Stakeholders argued that adjustments need to be made because disabled pupils at school may struggle to achieve good outcomes if they cannot follow the mainstream 'path' through education. In addition, the stages of the curriculum, the qualifications framework and the post-school options may not be necessarily suitable for all disabled students. Provision to support young people both in education and with regard to post-school transition is not universal or consistently offered across Northern Ireland, although successful projects do exist, for example the HYPE (Helping Young People Enter Education and Employment) project in Ballymena.

Stakeholders also reported knowledge of disabled workers that are highly qualified but who do not want to take on a high level job. The lack of role models in higher level positions is felt to exacerbate the perception of this group that they are not capable of high level work. On the other hand sporadic labour market engagement at low levels of compensation is believed to provide a poor incentive to leave the relative stability of the benefit system, particularly if these benefits are supporting a family.

Recession

Stakeholders indicated that, although the issues facing disabled workers operate regardless of economic conditions, the recession had made it more difficult to achieve positive outcomes for disabled workers. It was felt that disabled workers are pushed further back in the queue when workers without disabilities are losing their jobs, and it is also harder to broker the work placements that act as the stepping stone into work. Although there are some growth sectors even in the recession, these are not necessarily particularly suited for disabled workers. For example, the high pressure environment of the growing call centre industry may not be suitable for an individual with mental health issues. For those in work, having a disability amplifies the concerns that everyone in employment has about losing their job. Disabled workers may be reluctant to ask for adjustments or even disclose their condition to their employer out of fear of being made redundant. The stress caused by these fears can also itself impact upon disabilities where stress is a triggering factor for a condition.

Rural issues

Stakeholders argued that employability services for disabled workers in rural areas come under greater pressure than those in urban areas and because there are fewer employment opportunities, clients do not move off programmes as quickly. Furthermore, in addition to the common problem of a lack of transport, disabled workers may not be able to use transport at all, restricting the access to services and job opportunities of rural dwellers.

Policy responses to tackling disability inequalities in employment

Although anyone seeking work, including disabled workers, has access to the Department for Employment and Learning's main employment programme, *Steps to Work*, specialist programmes are offered to those with disabilities seeking to enter or stay in work. In addition, support is offered to employers and institutions of higher or further education to support their employees and students.

Those who have been on benefits such as Incapacity Benefit or Employment Support Allowance are entitled to Return to Work Credit if they move into paid employment of at least 16 hours per week. This pays £40 per week for one year, on top of wages, for those earning less than £15,000 per year.

There is also a range of vocational and pre-vocational programmes, and in-work support. These include the following:

- The *Condition Management Programme*⁹³ which assists rehabilitation back into a working environment.
- *Workable (NI)*⁹⁴ which is aimed at helping those with substantial disabilities into work, providing long term in-work support and help to move to unsupported work where appropriate.
- *Access to work (NI)*⁹⁵ which is an individually assessed programme of financial assistance to overcome barriers to work, financing, for example, adaptations, special equipment and travel.
- The *Job Introduction Scheme*⁹⁶ which offers a weekly grant to employers towards the cost of employing disabled workers for the initial period of their employment (up to 13 weeks).
- *Work Connect*⁹⁷ which is aimed at improving employability of clients with health conditions and disabilities.
- Ulster Supported Employment⁹⁸ which offers sheltered employment for severely disabled people.
- Parkanaur⁹⁹ which is a residential vocational training college for those who cannot access mainstream training provision because of their disability.
- Occupational Psychology Services¹⁰⁰ which offer advice and guidance on the impact of health conditions or disability, and assesses possibilities for employment and steps needed to progress into work.

⁹³ <http://www.nidirect.gov.uk/condition-management-programme>

⁹⁴ <http://www.nidirect.gov.uk/workable-ni>

⁹⁵ <http://www.nidirect.gov.uk/access-to-work-practical-help-at-work>

⁹⁶ <http://www.nidirect.gov.uk/job-introduction-scheme>

⁹⁷ <http://www.nidirect.gov.uk/work-connect>

⁹⁸ <http://www.usel.co.uk/>

⁹⁹ <http://www.parkanaurcollege.org/>

¹⁰⁰ <http://www.nidirect.gov.uk/occupational-psychology-services>

Financial support is also given to HE and FE institutions, to provide specialist equipment and support to disabled students. As well as being able to use funding under the Widening Access programme, HE institutions receive a premium based on the number of full-time undergraduates in receipt of Disabled Students Allowance (which is available to students to cover additional costs incurred as a result of their disability). The Department for Employment and Learning also funds the two universities in Northern Ireland to administer a register of freelance support providers to provide support where necessary, such as audio typing and dyslexia coaches. FE colleges have access to the Additional Support Fund to assist with technical and personal support, and earmarked funding to meet additional requirements of those with learning difficulties.

The other relevant aspect of policy is the existence of legislation that forbids discrimination against disabled people in access to employment, training and education. Selected key pieces of legislation (McClenahan, 2012) include:

- The Disability Discrimination Act 1995 (DDA) prohibits discrimination in employment, access to goods and services and in property and land transactions.
- The Disability Discrimination Act 1995 (Amendment) Regulations (NI) 2004 implements the EU Employment Framework Directive, prohibits harassment and ended the exemption of small employers from the provisions.
- There are a number of amendments to the legislation including around the definition of disability and reasonable adjustment; provisions against discrimination in education; and the conferring of powers to act against discriminating employers on bodies such as the Equality Commission for Northern Ireland.
- The United Kingdom has also ratified the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD), which places obligations upon the UK Government to promote and protect the rights of disabled people, including in employment.

Improving policy responses to tackling disability inequalities in employment

Stakeholders highlighted the problem of a lack of joined up thinking in getting people with a physical, mental, sensory or learning disability into employment. It is challenging because the two key service areas involved have such different aims. It is felt that whilst the Department for Employment and Learning wishes to encourage disabled people into work the Department of Health is concerned with health outcomes and well-being, and may be reluctant to pursue employment-related objectives, feeling that this is outside their remit. A more collective and cooperative approach is needed to meet both the health and employment needs of disabled individuals.

Successful policy approaches to helping disabled people into employment, as identified by stakeholders, seem to have certain key features: they offer tailored support and specialist provision, and a greater degree of flexibility than other programmes might allow. For example, people are allowed to complete training over a longer period of time if their condition makes continuous participation impossible. It was also felt

that: early intervention is more effective than trying to remedy a situation post hoc; it is better that disabled people can gain qualifications at school, rather than having to try to gain them in later life; and that mediation and occupational psychology services are applied as soon as a condition presents itself, and not after the individual has given up or been dismissed.

Stakeholders highlighted that there is insufficient data available to effectively plan and deliver services. There is even a lack of basic monitoring data; for example, the Department for Employment and Learning would not necessarily know the exact number of people in the workplace or in the population of jobseekers who have learning disabilities. This is not helped by organisations applying different criteria for the purpose of recording conditions and disabilities, and limited training for those working in Jobs and Benefits offices to be able to identify and distinguish between conditions. It is therefore difficult to keep track of the employment needs of this group.

Finally, some unease was expressed by stakeholders about the direction of policy that might result from ongoing welfare reform. The changes introduced so far have instilled a lot of fear, for example negative experiences with the new work capability tests, and the policy rhetoric on disabled people. However, the final impact of welfare reform is not really yet known. There is some concern that, as the conditionality regime gets stronger or the pressure on Jobcentres to be seen to be 'doing something' increases, clients will be referred to employability services who are not really suitable, because of low employability due to a lack of qualifications, skills, experience or motivation and confidence. Concerns were also raised about a payment system for those delivering employability services to disabled people that are too 'outcome-focused', as this creates incentives to take on only the most job ready clients, and neglect those with low employability.

Case studies: organisations providing employability support to disabled people outside of mainstream provision

Action Mental Health helps people with mental health conditions to move into employment. Its main project is *New Horizons*, which is funded by European Social Fund money, obtained through the Department for Employment and Learning, and match funded by the Health and Social Care Trusts. Clients are referred both from Jobs and Benefits Offices and from the mental health teams in the Health and Social Care Trusts. The programme offers a period of vocational and personal development training, and then brokers work placements, with a view to making a transition into mainstream employment. Independent evaluations of this programme suggested that it had an overwhelmingly positive impact on participants' educational outcomes, employability and well-being (McCoy, 2012), as well as yielding substantial savings on health and personal services, day care and hospital admissions (McLaughlin and Casson, 2012). Action Mental Health is also contracted to run some of the Department for Employment and Learning's provision for disabled clients (see section below on policy responses).

Mencap provide employment services to people with learning disabilities. This support operates principally through the *Pathways to Success* project, which is funded through the European Social Fund (with some matched funding from the Health and Social Care Trusts, Department for Employment and Learning and FE

colleges). Participants on the programme explore their options with respect to employment and training, etc. and Mencap help to broker work placements and offer support for them to achieve their aims. Mencap also provide services under some of the Department for Employment and Learning’s mainstream provision as commented on above.

Summary

The key points from the analyses against the equality ground of disability are summarised below. A total of seven inequalities were identified. These inequalities are presented in the table below; followed by a summary of the Chapter’s findings.

Disability Inequalities in Employment:	Persistent or Emergent?
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Disabled people had lower employment rates than non-disabled people. Out of the disability groups: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Those with a mental ill health and/or learning disability consistently experienced the lowest rates of employment; ○ Those with hidden disabilities usually experienced the highest rates of employment. 	Persistent
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Disabled people were more likely to work part-time than non-disabled people: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 non-disabled people consistently had lower part-time employment rates (18.4% and 22.0%, respectively) than disabled people (29.5% and 30.8%, respectively). ○ Those with hidden disabilities had similar rates of part-time employment as non-disabled people. 	Persistent
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ People with disabilities had higher economic inactivity rates than those without disabilities: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ In Q1 2012, 56.2% of working age disabled people were classed as economically inactive, which was more than triple the non-disabled inactivity rate (18.3%). ○ People with mental ill health and/or learning disability had the highest inactivity rates of all the disability groups. 	Persistent
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Those with a disability had lower self employment rates than people without a disability. 	Emergent
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ A degree of horizontal segregation in the labour market, in respect to industry sector employed in, was observed: 	Persistent

Disability Inequalities in Employment:	Persistent or Emergent?
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ At Q1 2006 those with a disability were under-represented (i.e. under 9.5%¹⁰¹) in four industry sectors; ○ At Q1 2012 this had increased to an under-representation (i.e. under 10.1%¹⁰²) in six industry sectors. 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ A degree of vertical segregation in the labour market, in respect to occupation group employed in, was observed: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Those with disabilities were under-represented (i.e. under 9.5%⁸⁹ at Q1 2006 and under 10.1%⁹⁰ at Q1 2012) in higher level occupations such as ‘Professional Occupations’. 	Persistent
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ There was prejudice against disabled people as a potential work colleague: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ This was most notable with regard to people with mental ill health. 	Persistent

Economic status

- Non-disabled people consistently enjoyed higher employment rates than disabled people between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.
 - In Q1 2012, only 38.6% of disabled people were in full-time employment, compared to 76.5% of non-disabled people.
 - Out of the disability groups, those with a mental ill health and/or learning disability consistently experienced the lowest employment rate; those with hidden disabilities usually had the highest employment rate.
- People with a disability were more likely to work part-time than those without a disability.
 - In Q1 2006 29.5% of those with a disability worked part-time, compared to 18.4% of those without a disability. In Q1 2012 rates increased for both groups to 30.8% and 22.0%, respectively.
- Those with a progressive or other disability and those with a mental ill health and/or learning disability more frequently worked part-time than the other disability groups¹⁰³.
 - Those with a hidden disability, and to some extent those with a physical and/or sensory disability, had similar rates of part-time employment as those without a disability.
- There were no notable differences in ILO unemployment rates between disabled and non-disabled people.

¹⁰¹ At Q1 2006, 9.5% of those in employment had a self reported disability.

¹⁰² At Q1 2012, 10.1% of those in employment had a self reported disability.

¹⁰³ It would be unwise to infer anything more precise than the general trends from these figures, given the small sample sizes on which these estimates are based.

- High levels of fluctuation were experienced by each of the individual disability groups between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012; conclusions could not be drawn.
- Whilst in Q1 2006 disabled people were more likely to be long-term unemployed than non-disabled people (69.3% and 29.2%, respectively), in Q1 2012 this was reversed (39.6% and 49.4%, respectively).
- Non-disabled people were less likely to be economically inactive.
 - In Q1 2012, 56.2% of working age disabled people were classed as economically inactive, which was more than triple the non-disabled inactivity rate (18.3%).
 - Economic inactivity rates were consistently much lower between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 for those without disabilities than those with a disability.
 - The rates for those with a mental ill health and/or learning disability were consistently the highest of any group.
- The main reasons given for economic inactivity were broadly similar at Q1 2006 and Q1 2012:
 - Long term sickness or disability for disabled people;
 - Being a student or caring responsibilities for non-disabled people¹⁰⁴.

Hours worked

- Between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, little difference in full-time median hours worked per week including overtime for full-time workers existed between disabled and non-disabled workers.
- Between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 disabled workers showed greater fluctuation in part-time median hours worked including overtime than non-disabled workers.
- At many time points disabled workers worked more hours part-time than those without a disability, although this reversed between Q3 2011 and Q1 2012.

Wage rates

- Between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 neither disabled nor non-disabled workers had any consistent advantage in terms of full-time or part-time median gross weekly pay; although variability over time made it difficult to discern trends¹⁰⁵.
 - The pay of disabled workers showed greater fluctuation over the period than that of non-disabled workers.

¹⁰⁴ The number of disabled people surveyed was small (less than 400).

¹⁰⁵ This is a reflection of the low numbers of disabled respondents in the LFS, especially when broken down by disability type.

Industry sector and occupation employment

- Between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 disabled and non-disabled workers had similar rates of private sector employment.
- At Q1 2006 the proportion of the disabled workforce working in 'Public Administration, Education & Health' was much lower than the proportion of the non-disabled workforce, 11.3% compared with 34.5%. However, at Q1 2012 the proportions had become similar at 35.2% for non-disabled and 32.1% for disabled.
 - Between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 the number of those with disabilities employed in all but two sectors, 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' and 'Public Administration, Education and Health' fell.
 - The number of disabled workers in 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' increased from 20.0% to 24.5% between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.
 - The number of not disabled people employed fell in two industry sectors between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012: 'Agriculture and Fishing' (from 3.3% to 2.5%, respectively) and 'Manufacturing' (from 14.0% to 12.9%, respectively).
- Those with disabilities were under-represented (i.e. under 9.5%¹⁰⁶) in four industry sectors at Q1 2006: 'Energy and Water'; 'Transport and Communication'; 'Banking, Finance and Insurance etc.'; and 'Public Administration, Education and Health'. In Q1 2012 this increased to six industry sectors (i.e. under 10.1%¹⁰⁷), the additional industry sectors were: 'Manufacturing' and 'Construction'.
- At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 the highest concentration of disabled workers worked in 'Skilled Trades' occupations (20.0% and 20.7%, respectively). At Q1 2006 the greatest share of non-disabled workers was also in 'Skilled Trades Occupations' (18.8%), however, at Q1 2012 share had fallen to 13.1% and 'Professional Occupations' became the modal occupation employing 19.5% of non-disabled workers.
 - At Q1 2006 the lower skilled occupation groups of: 'Sales and Customer Service', 'Process, Plant and Machine Operatives' and 'Elementary Occupations' employed 36.3% of the disabled workforce – at Q1 2012 this proportion had fallen to 25.8%, the corresponding share of the non-disabled workforce was 26.1%, at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.
 - The higher level occupation groups of 'Managers and Senior Officials', 'Professional Occupations' and 'Associate Professional and Technical' occupations employed 30% of the disabled workforce at Q1 2006 and at Q1 2012 this rose to 32.2%; the corresponding proportions of the non-disabled workforce were 34.4% and 38.5%, respectively.
- Whilst at Q1 2006 disabled workers were over-represented (i.e. over 9.5%⁸⁹) in the highest level occupation group, 'Managers and Senior Officials', at Q1 2012 it was those without a disability who were over-represented in this occupation group (i.e. over 90.5%⁸⁷).
- Those with disabilities experienced vertical segregation at Q1 2012 with respect to the highest level occupation groups of: 'Managers and Senior Officials'; 'Professional Occupations'; and 'Administrative and Secretarial' occupations; in Q 1 2006 this vertical segregation was also apparent in 'Professional

¹⁰⁶ At Q1 2006, 9.5% of those in employment had a self reported disability.

¹⁰⁷ At Q1 2012, 10.1% of those in employment had a self reported disability.

Occupations'; 'Associate Professional and Technical'; and 'Administrative and Secretarial' occupations, but was not apparent in 'Managers and Senior Officials' occupations.

- Between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 non-disabled workers had higher self-employment rates than disabled workers.
 - Self-employment amongst non-disabled workers increased by 1.9 percentage points over the period (from 9.3% to 11.2%);
 - Self-employment amongst disabled workers decreased by 1.5 percentage points over the period (from 7.8% to 6.3%).

Attitudes

- Research by the Disability Rights Commission (2005) found that 45% of respondents believed it would be "quite/very difficult" to employ a disabled person and that if the job did not work out 24% of those who responded thought that disabled people would claim discrimination.
- Respondents to the 2011 Equality Awareness Survey (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012) were more positive toward some disabilities than others:
 - 15% said they would mind having a person with a physical disability as a colleague.
 - 11% said they would mind having a person with a learning disability as a colleague.
 - Over a quarter (26%) said that they would mind having a person with mental ill-health as a colleague; this is considerably higher than the 2005 figure of 17%.
- A total of 24% of respondents thought people with disabilities were treated unfairly; 13% of those thought that this group was treated the most unfairly.
 - Of those who thought that disabled people were treated unfairly, a third believed that this unfair treatment occurred at work.

Barriers and Enablers

- In addition to DEL's *Steps to Work* programme other specialist programmes are offered to those with disabilities seeking to enter or stay in work. Support is offered to employers and institutions of higher or further education to support their employees and students. Such programmes include:
 - The *Condition Management Programme*¹⁰⁸ which assists rehabilitation back into a working environment;
 - *Workable (NI)*¹⁰⁹ which aims to help those with substantial disabilities into work, providing long term in-work support and help to move to unsupported work where appropriate;

¹⁰⁸ <http://www.nidirect.gov.uk/condition-management-programme>

¹⁰⁹ <http://www.nidirect.gov.uk/workable-ni>

- *Access to work (NI)*¹¹⁰ which is an individually assessed programme of financial assistance to overcome barriers to work;
 - The *Job Introduction Scheme*¹¹¹ which offers a weekly grant to employers towards the cost of employing disabled workers for the initial period of their employment (up to 13 weeks);
 - *Work Connect*¹¹² which aims to improve the employability of clients with health conditions and disabilities;
 - *Ulster Supported Employment*¹¹³ which offers sheltered employment for severely disabled people;
 - *Parkanaur*¹¹⁴ which is a residential vocational training college for those who cannot access mainstream training provision because of their disability; and
 - *Occupational Psychology Services*¹¹⁵ which offers advice and guidance on the impact of health conditions or disability, and assesses possibilities for employment and steps needed to progress into work.
- Those who have been on Incapacity Benefit or Employment Support Allowance are entitled to Return to Work Credit if they move into paid employment of at least 16 hours per week. This pays £40 per week for one year, on top of wages, for those earning less than £15,000 per year.
 - Financial support is given to HE and FE institutions, to provide specialist equipment and support to disabled students. For example, the Additional Support Fund which aims to assist with technical and personal support, and provide funding to meet any additional requirements of those with learning difficulties.
 - Selected key pieces of legislation forbid discrimination against disabled people in access to employment, training and education (McClenahan, 2012). This legislation includes:
 - The Disability Discrimination Act 1995 (DDA) which prohibits discrimination in employment.
 - The Disability Discrimination Act 1995 (Amendment) Regulations (NI) 2004 which implements the EU Employment Framework Directive, prohibits harassment and ended the exemption of small employers from the provisions.
 - The UK has ratified the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD), which places obligations upon the UK Government to promote and protect the rights of disabled people, including in employment.
 - Stakeholders highlighted the problem of a lack of joined up thinking in getting people with a physical, mental, sensory or learning disability into employment:
 - DEL wishes to encourage disabled people into work, whilst the Department of Health is concerned with health outcomes and well-being. A more collective and cooperative approach is needed to meet both the health and employment needs of disabled individuals.
 - Stakeholders identified that successful policy approaches have certain key features:

¹¹⁰ <http://www.nidirect.gov.uk/access-to-work-practical-help-at-work>

¹¹¹ <http://www.nidirect.gov.uk/job-introduction-scheme>

¹¹² <http://www.nidirect.gov.uk/work-connect>

¹¹³ <http://www.use1.co.uk/>

¹¹⁴ <http://www.parkanaurcollege.org/>

¹¹⁵ <http://www.nidirect.gov.uk/occupational-psychology-services>

- They offer tailored support and specialist provision, and a greater degree of flexibility than other programmes might allow;
- Early intervention is more effective than trying to remedy a situation post hoc;
- It is better that disabled people can gain qualifications at school, rather than having to try to gain them in later life;
- Mediation and occupational psychology services are applied as soon as a condition presents itself, and not after the individual has given up or been dismissed.
- There is a lack of basic monitoring data – DEL would not necessarily know the exact number of people in the workplace or in the population of jobseekers who have learning disabilities:
 - Organisations apply different criteria for recording conditions and disabilities, and those working in Jobs and Benefits offices have limited training to be able to identify and distinguish between conditions.
- The changes to welfare reform introduced so far have instilled a lot of fear, for example negative experiences with the new work capability tests, and the policy rhetoric on disabled people:
 - There is some concern that, as the conditionality regime gets stronger, or the pressure on Jobcentres to be seen to be ‘doing something’ increases, clients will be referred to employability services that are not really suitable.
 - Concerns were raised about a payment system for those delivering employability services to disabled people that are too ‘outcome-focussed’, as this creates incentives to take on only the most job ready clients, and neglect those furthest from the labour market.
- **Action Mental Health** helps people with mental health conditions to move into employment.
 - Its main project is *New Horizons* which offers a period of vocational and personal development training, and then brokers work placements, with a view to making a transition into mainstream employment.
 - Independent evaluations of this programme suggested that it had an overwhelmingly positive impact on participants’ educational outcomes, employability and well-being (McCoy, 2012), as well as yielding substantial savings (McLaughlin and Casson, 2012).
- **Mencap** provide employment services to people with learning disabilities principally through the *Pathways to Success* project.
 - Mencap help to broker work placements and offer support to participants to achieve their aims. Mencap also provide services under some of DEL’s mainstream provision.

Chapter 9. Sexual Orientation Inequalities in Employment

Introduction

This report provides a picture of patterns and trends in employment and non-employment in Northern Ireland, establishing any key inequalities (data permitting) that are evident in Northern Ireland for each equality ground as identified by Section 75 of the Northern Ireland Act 1998. This chapter provides evidence of inequalities drawn from quantitative data (primarily from analyses of the Labour Force Survey) which is supplemented by stakeholder interviews and literature review for this equality ground. It is important to stress that no one individual belongs solely to one equality group, and that everyone has multiple identities. Consideration was given to multiple identities where quantitative data was available and allowed for meaningful analyses. Limited analyses across a range of multiple inequalities are reported in Chapter 12. The distillation of the most substantive / overarching key employment inequalities (across all equality grounds) in Northern Ireland are summarised in Chapter 13.

This chapter explores inequalities on the grounds of sexual orientation in the labour market in Northern Ireland. The chapter is mainly based on existing literature and the research with key stakeholders, as there is a shortage of available data on this issue because sexual orientation is often not reported on in large employment based surveys. There are relatively few large scale studies of sexual orientation and employment, especially those that specifically consider Northern Ireland. The chapter begins with a review of the literature, followed by a discussion on the limited available data. Finally stakeholder and policymaker responses to inequalities in employment by sexual orientation are discussed. The chapter ends with a summary of findings.

Generally it was found that there was a persistent inequality in that males who lived with a same sex partner earned a lower hourly wage than males who lived with an opposite sex partner. Evidence emerged of the persistence of prejudice against Lesbian, Gay and Bisexual individuals emerged from analysis of the 2011 Equality Awareness Survey and the 2012 Northern Ireland Life and Time Survey.

Literature review on sexual orientation inequalities in employment

A lack of monitoring of the sexual orientation of employees can make it difficult for employers to enact equality in the workplace (Guasp and Balfour, 2008). For example, research conducted in Northern Ireland, England and Wales has shown that the majority of Higher Education Institutions do not monitor the sexual orientation of their staff or students (Valentine and Wood, 2009). More generally, there is at present no reliable information on the size of the lesbian, gay and bisexual (LGB) population in the UK because of problems of question content, wording and categorisation for sexual orientation in surveys. The Integrated Household Survey (Joloza et al., 2010) reported that in 2009-2010, 1.4% of the population identified as LGB. However, the survey data that exists in the UK is thought to underestimate the true size of the LGB population, as people may choose to misreport their sexuality or not respond to questions on sexuality (Aspinall, 2009).

Many LGB employees may choose not to disclose their sexual orientation in the workplace because of fear of negative reactions, and this can make monitoring and assessment of equalities policies within the workplace even more difficult. Research has identified a range of factors as to why LGB employees may not disclose their sexual orientation in the workplace. Research conducted by Tejada (2006) in the USA identified that gay males who have disclosed their sexuality to their supervisor report greater workplace hostility. This research also suggested that disclosing sexual orientation was linked to perceptions of there being fewer promotion opportunities. Further research also from the USA (King et al., 2008) highlighted the need to consider both whether gay and lesbian employees disclosed their sexuality and the conditions under which the disclosure occurred. The study highlighted that gay and lesbian employees had the most positive disclosure experiences when their workplace maintained a supportive and tolerant climate towards LGB employees; although disclosures may be more positively received by heterosexual colleagues if they take place after a period of time, once a relationship has been established.

In the UK a lack of role models and openly-LGB staff in the workplace has also been identified as shaping the likelihood of LGB employees disclosing their sexual orientation in the workplace (Guasp, and Balfour, 2008; Miles, 2008). In addition, while policies may have sought to promote the inclusion of gay and lesbian employees, there may still be a lack of understanding of bisexuality. Employees may not feel able to disclose their sexuality and feel that it is easier to let colleagues assume they are either gay or straight (Chamberlain, 2009).

Workplace discrimination on the grounds of sexual orientation

A survey of LGB employees in Northern Ireland¹¹⁶ (McDermott, 2011) found a high level of prejudice in the workplace. Around a quarter of respondents concealed their sexual orientation at work, and this was more common among older workers. Two fifths of those in private and public sector organisations had heard negative comments about LGB people in their workplace (the figure was slightly lower in third sector organisations – around a third) and 15-20% (depending on sector) had been subjected to negative comments themselves at work.

Discrimination in the workplace on the grounds of sexual orientation has been identified in the UK and internationally. Interviews with LGB staff from 21 private and public sector organisations in the UK found evidence of 'banter', bullying and harassment of LGB employees (Guasp and Balfour, 2008). A study of homophobia, transphobia and discrimination on grounds of sexual orientation and gender identity in the 47 member states of the Council of Europe identified homophobic attitudes in all member states, and that LGB and transsexual persons face discrimination and harassment in the workplace, despite the fact that most states recognise sexual orientation as an equalities ground (although gender identity may only be partially included) (Council of Europe, 2011).

¹¹⁶ The survey comprised an online survey of 752 respondents (convenience sampled through online and physical social networks), plus interviews with 8 LGB employees and 4 employers.

In contexts where sexual orientation can be inferred from job applications, discrimination against LGB applicants has been identified. Austrian research (Weichselbaumer, 2003) used correspondence testing¹¹⁷ to assess the impact of lesbian sexual orientation and gender identity on the chances of getting a job interview. This was possible due to the numerous detailed documents required for job applications in Austria (e.g. CVs, school reports, photographs). The research found that applicants who indicated a lesbian identity in their job applications were 12-13 percentage points less likely to get invited for interview. However, a link between gender identity and chances of getting a job interview could not be verified.

LGB workers may earn less than their heterosexual colleagues but the evidence is limited and not consistent. Research undertaken using USA data from the General Social Survey 1989-91 (utilising a national random sample) found that gay and bisexual male workers earned 11-27% less than heterosexual male workers, even if they had the same levels of experience and education, were in the same occupation, had the same marital status and lived in the same region. The findings for lesbian and bisexual females were not consistently statistically significant, although they earned 12-30% less than heterosexual females (Badgett and Lee, 1995). Data from the USA 1991–1996 General Social Survey found that gay and bisexual males earned 22% less than heterosexual males, but that an opposite trend could be found for lesbian and bisexual females who earned 30% more than heterosexual females (Berg and Lien, 2002).

Research undertaken in the UK has focused on the experiences of LGB employees in certain sectors; For example, research on lesbian, gay and bisexual people working in the health and social care sector identified discriminatory practices across the sector, such as the use of homophobic language, homophobia not being reflected in policy statements, and exclusion by colleagues. As a result of this hostile climate towards LGB employees, the research participants reported that they either decided not to disclose their sexual orientation in the workplace, sought workplaces less discriminatory or left the health and social care sector (Hunt et al., 2007).

Research has been conducted with LGB staff and students in higher education in Northern Ireland, England and Wales. LGB staff was found to be concerned about disclosing their sexual orientation because of potential discrimination and negative reactions from students. A third (33.8%) identified that they had received negative treatment from colleagues because of their sexual orientation and nearly a fifth (18.9%) from their students. Only 38.6% had disclosed their sexual orientation to all those in their workplace (Valentine and Wood, 2009).

Research on LGB employees in a UK local council found that the equalities framework was not promoted, and that there was little activity to promote discussions and awareness around the issue of sexual orientation (Senyucel and Phillpott, 2011).

¹¹⁷ Correspondence testing is a research method where a researcher submits matched letters to apply for the same job, but with one demographic characteristic (such as their gender) being different. So any discrimination can be identified from differences in the responses to the applications.

The presence and enactment of equalities policies regarding sexual orientation may be key in the experiences of LGB employees. Research conducted in the USA identified that gay males who worked for employers that had non-discrimination policies reported significantly higher levels of organisational citizenship behaviours, satisfaction with work and supervisor relationship quality (Tejeda, 2006). Nevertheless, higher levels of workplace hostility were also in organisations where there were non-discrimination policies in place regarding sexual orientation. However, this may be explained by the fact that employees may have felt more able to report the inappropriate behaviour of a colleague (Tejeda, 2006). In the UK, Stonewall developed a Workplace Equality Index for employers to measure efforts to tackle discrimination and create inclusive workplaces for lesbian, gay and bisexual employees.¹¹⁸ In 2012 Ernst & Young, Home Office, Barclays, Sussex Partnership NHS Foundation Trust and Metropolitan Housing Partnership were identified as the top 5 employers in Britain for lesbian, gay and bisexual people.

Recent trends in sexual orientation inequalities in employment

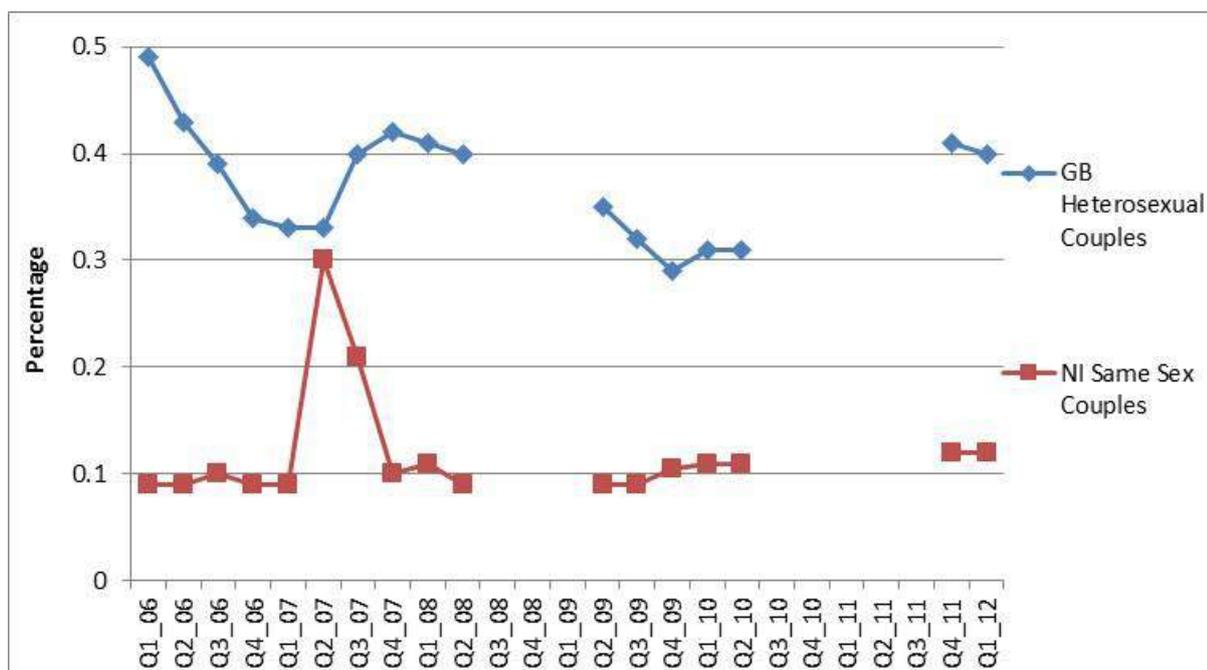
Labour market data disaggregated by sexual orientation is not readily available, and where data is available, it could be misleading due to small numbers and sampling bias (because not everyone who lives in a same sex couple reports this), and therefore it does not always permit conclusions that are representative of the population. Research has indicated that, generally those who report that they live with a same sex partner have a higher level of education, higher rates of employment and higher earnings (Hills et al., 2010).

In this section we explore evidence of employment inequalities on the grounds of sexual orientation which we were able to gather from the LFS. In the LFS, individuals have not been asked about their sexual orientation as such. However, sexual orientation can be implied for cohabiting couples if the couple is opposite or same sex. For Northern Ireland this information was gathered less consistently than for the rest of the UK.

As shown in Figure 9.1, among the working age population (in this study the working age population is 16-64 years old for males and 16-59 years old for females) the percentage of individuals living in same sex couples is very small across the UK. However, in Northern Ireland the percentage is much lower than in the rest of the UK. Of course many LGB people will not be living in a same sex couple.

¹¹⁸ www.stonewall.org.uk/at_work/workplace_equality_index_2013/default.asp

Figure 9.1: Percentage of individuals living with a same sex partner out of total individuals living in couples (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Economic status

In the LFS data, all (100%) same sex couples were in full-time employment in Northern Ireland, at every time point that data was available. Therefore no analyses were possible of trends in economic status by sexual orientation.

Median gross weekly pay

For Northern Ireland, the data on weekly earnings for same sex couples existed for only four time points - 2006, 2007, 2008 and 2011. According to these figures, median weekly net pay was lower for males living in same sex couples than those living in opposite sex couples. In Q4 2011, net weekly pay differed by £89 in favour of opposite sex couples. Small sample sizes mean that any other relevant effects, for instance the effects of age, could not be rigorously estimated for Northern Ireland.

Hours worked per week including overtime

From the LFS, information on the number of working hours for same sex couples was only available for Q2 2007 and Q3 2011. In Q3 2011, same sex couples worked on average fewer hours than opposite sex couples (38 hours per week, compared to 44.9 hours per week).

Median gross hourly pay

As with weekly earnings, the data on hourly earnings for same sex couples existed for only four time points - 2006, 2007, 2008 and 2011. According to these figures, median gross hourly pay was lower for males living in same sex couples than for those living in an opposite sex couple. For example, in Q4 2011 gross hourly pay for males living with a male partner was £7, compared to £10.98 for those living with a female partner.

Private sector employment

No information was available from the LFS about whether those living with a same sex partner were employed in the private or public sector.

Industry sector

No information was available from the LFS on the industry sector of employment of those living with a same sex partner.

Occupation group

No information was available from the LFS on the occupation group of those living with a same sex partner.

Qualifications

No information was available from the LFS on the qualifications of those living with a same sex partner.

A survey of LGB young people in Northern Ireland¹¹⁹ (Cara-Friend and Rainbow Project, 2011) suggested that harassment and intimidation against LGB individuals was present in schools, which could have a negative impact on educational outcomes. The survey found a high level of intimidation and a reluctance of staff to intervene on their behalf. Nearly three quarters of LGB individuals (71%) had 'come out' at school at least to some extent, although some only to close friends and not necessarily to their family or their whole peer group. A greater percentage (81%) reported hearing homophobic language most days in school, mostly by pupils, although a quarter (26%) by teachers. Over three quarters (79%) reported that staff who heard the homophobic language ignored it or joined in. Almost half (47%) said they had been intimidated, and a third (34%) threatened with violence; 84% of those who experienced incidents such as abuse,

¹¹⁹ The survey comprised an online survey of 133 people aged 14-25, recruited through Facebook and other social networks.

intimidation or violence felt that it was motivated by their sexuality. Only 14% of LGB students had not experienced any bullying. Three quarters (75%) of those who did experience bullying did not report it.

Transport

No information was available from the LFS on transport use for those living with a same sex partner.

Attitudes

In the 2006 and 2012 NILTS respondents were asked which groups (from a pre-selected list) they felt were 'generally treated unfairly'. A total of 31.4% of respondents to this question indicated that they believed lesbians, gays and bi-sexuals were 'generally treated unfairly', and in 2012 this increased to 39.3% of respondents. Thus, there is a perception by approximately one third of people that those with non-heterosexual orientation were treated unfairly and this had not changed since 2006. It is interesting to note that, for those who were large employers or in senior management, the respective percentages were 37.1% and 35.6%.

The 2012 NILTS contained a module with questions related to lesbian, gay and bi-sexual issues; the first time such a module was included in this survey. Respondents were asked to indicate if they felt that treatment toward lesbian, gay or bi-sexual people had become worse, better or stayed the same than 5 years previously. Over half of the respondents (52%) indicated that they believed lesbians, gays and bi-sexuals were 'treated better than 5 years ago', whilst 9% felt they were 'treated worse than 5 years ago'. Whilst on the surface the figure of 9% of respondents who indicated worse treatment would seem to be a positive increase in opinion it is important to note that 29% felt that this group were 'treated the same as 5 years ago'; it is therefore not possible to know if this same treatment was viewed as positive or negative.

With regard to prejudice against gay men 6% of respondents reported that they were 'very prejudiced' and 18% were 'a little prejudiced' toward gay men; 73% were 'not prejudiced at all'. Of those respondents who reported some prejudice (that they were either very prejudiced or a little prejudiced), over three quarters (79%) indicated that they 'avoid displaying prejudiced behaviour towards gay men', whilst 7% felt that their 'behaviour towards gay men match[ed] with the prejudice...' they felt.

Prejudice against lesbians was slightly lower: 5% felt 'very prejudiced'; 15% 'a little prejudiced'; and 76% 'not prejudiced at all' toward lesbians. . Of those respondents who reported some prejudice (that they were either very prejudiced or a little prejudiced), most (83%) would 'avoid displaying prejudicial behaviour towards lesbians', whilst 14% indicated that their 'behaviour towards lesbians match[ed] with the prejudice...' they felt.

The 2012 NILTS also asked respondents about how comfortable they would feel if certain people were 'gay or lesbian'. Some of these results are summarised in Table 9.1. Results show that the scenario presented

with which respondents felt least uncomfortable was that of having a gay or lesbian work colleague (8%), followed by someone that they would 'manage in a new job' (9%). The idea of having a 'boss in a new job' or 'close friend' who was gay or lesbian was either fairly or very uncomfortable for 10% of respondents; only 1% more comfortable than the idea of having a gay or lesbian MP (Member of Parliament).

It is apparent in Table 9.1 that the closer the relationship to the individual the less comfortable the respondent became. For example, respondents were more likely to feel fairly or very uncomfortable with the scenario of a gay or lesbian child (20%), child's teacher (17%) or GP (General Practitioner, 16%).

The 2011 Equality Awareness Survey suggests a somewhat higher level of prejudice against LGB individuals in the workplace; 22% of survey participants would mind (a little or a lot) having a LGB person as a colleague; this increased from 14% in 2005 (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012). Almost one quarter (24%) of respondents to this survey perceived that LGB people were treated unfairly in Northern Ireland. Although they were much more likely to identify unfair treatment in terms of harassment against LGB people rather than discrimination at work, the literature review above suggested that harassment plays a significant role in contributing to LGB people's negative experiences in the workplace.

Table 9.1 Comfort level when presented with gay or lesbian scenarios (NILTS 2012)

How comfortable would you feel personally if each of the following were gay or lesbian?	Comfort Level			
	Very/Fairly comfortable %	Neither comfortable nor uncomfortable %	Fairly/Very uncomfortable %	Don't know %
A work colleague	78	13	8	1
Your MP	74	15	11	2
Your boss in a new job	76	12	10	1
A close friend	76	13	10	1
Your brother or sister	71	13	14	1
Someone that you manage in a new job	76	14	9	1
Your GP	69	13	16	1
Your child	65	13	20	3
Your child's teacher	67	15	17	2

Stakeholder views on sexual orientation inequalities in employment

Stakeholders corroborated the issue of a lack of data on LGB individuals in work. Although the Rainbow Project, and its counterparts in other parts of the UK such as Stonewall, have conducted some research into the experience of LGB individuals in employment and education, and this is probably the most specific source of information available on these issues, it is mostly based on small or 'convenience' samples.

Those who work with employers and LGB employees report anecdotally that discrimination against LGB individuals in the workplace does exist, and has a negative impact on their experience in employment. Some workplaces were described as having a 'culture of homophobia', which goes unchallenged. Homophobia was also reported to affect the experience of young LGB people in school; this can lead to under-achievement, which has an impact on future labour market outcomes.

Policy responses to sexual orientation inequalities in employment

The Department for Employment and Learning's Audit of Inequalities identified anecdotal evidence that LGB individuals are at greater risk of bullying and harassment. The department now funds work with (private sector) employers to: raise awareness of the issue (see Rainbow Project case study, above); challenge homophobia; and explain how to design workplace policies that reduce and tackle homophobic bullying and harassment in the workplace.

LGB individuals also have some protection against discrimination enshrined in legislation, although sexual orientation has been a key point of contention in attempts to draw up a single equality Bill. Key pieces of anti-discrimination legislation (McClenahan, 2012) include:

- The Employment Equality (Sexual Orientation) Regulations (NI) 2003 making it unlawful to discriminate on grounds of sexual orientation in employment, vocational training, further education and higher education.
- The Equality Act (Sexual Orientation) Regulations (NI) 2006 extending the protection against discrimination to the provision of goods, facilities and services, the management and disposal of land or premises and the provision of education in schools.

Claims of unfair dismissal and harassment on the grounds of sexual orientation have successfully been brought in Northern Ireland under this legislation. For example, in the case of *Kelso vs. Whitehead Golf Club*, a gay man successfully argued that, because he had been dismissed for gross misconduct while a heterosexual employee was not dismissed for the same offence, this constituted unequal treatment on the grounds of sexual orientation. In the case of *Hutton vs. Rainbow Garland Ltd.*, a lesbian employee successfully claimed compensation for harassment on the grounds of sexual orientation, after her employer repeatedly referred to her in offensive terms that were clearly based on her sexual orientation.

Improving policy responses to tackling sexual orientation inequalities in employment

This chapter has made clear how little is known about the LGB population in relation to their experiences in the labour market. The lack of good quality data on the LGB population is problematic from an equality monitoring point of view, and better data is required in order to assess the extent to which LGB employees face unequal treatment in hiring and promotion, and discrimination from other employees (Equality and Human Rights Commission, 2009). Without this kind of data, it is difficult to estimate even the proportion of the population of Northern Ireland that is LGB. Among surveys that do contain this information, responses varied from 1% on stronger 'identification' questions, were higher for more 'behaviour-orientated' questions and reached up to 12% on the loosest 'attraction' type questions (McClenehan, 2012). Given variations in the definition of sexual orientation it is even harder to draw robust conclusions about the employment experiences of this group.

However, there are some obstacles to collecting this information. The issue of a question about sexual orientation was raised in the preparation of the 2011 Census for England and Wales, but the final questionnaire did not include one. The Office for National Statistics offered a rationale for this based on: the difficulties of defining sexuality, and what aspects of a person constitute their sexuality; the likelihood that not all respondents would feel able to declare their orientation, which could lead to undercounting; and the lack of willingness on the part of the public as a whole to provide this information, with a survey by the Department for Employment and Learning Northern Ireland suggesting that only 60% would be willing to answer such a question for employment monitoring purposes (Office for National Statistics, 2006).

The issue of a question on sexual orientation was also raised in relation to the 2011 Census for Scotland, and the General Register Office for Scotland carried out a small postal survey to assess the feasibility of a number of potential new questions for inclusion in the Census, including one on sexual orientation, but came to the same conclusion that it should not be included (General Register Office for Scotland, 2009). In their survey, non-response was high for the question on sexual orientation; higher than for the question on religion, although lower than a question about unpaid caring responsibilities. A total of 6% did not respond at all to the question, and 8.5% responded 'Prefer not to answer', with only 2% declaring a non-heterosexual orientation. Qualitative feedback on the questionnaire suggested some discomfort with the question, and a lack of clarity on why it was being asked.

Case study: increasing awareness among employers

The Rainbow Project works with employers to raise awareness of LGB issues in the workplace and promote inclusive workplaces. It has two, relatively recently established programmes to achieve this, working with private sector organisations under a scheme funded by the Department for Employment and Learning, and public sector organisations that pay for the service themselves. The organisation also works in an advisory capacity (particularly around bullying and harassment) with the Labour Relations Agency and Trade Unions, who have an advocacy and advice role for LGB issues in the workplace.

Summary

The key points from the analyses of sexual orientation inequalities in employment are summarised below. A total of three inequalities were identified. These inequalities are presented in the table below; followed by a summary of the Chapter's findings.

Please note that sexual orientation is often not reported on in large employment based surveys and there are relatively few studies of sexual orientation and employment, especially those that specifically consider Northern Ireland. Due to the limited availability of data with regard to sexual orientation and employment the analysis in the present study is also limited.

Sexual Orientation Inequalities in Employment:	Persistent or Emergent?
➤ Males who lived with a same sex partner earned a lower hourly wage than males who lived with an opposite sex partner.	Persistent
➤ Prejudice against Lesbian, Gay and Bisexual individuals was reported: <ul style="list-style-type: none">○ The 2011 Equality Awareness Survey suggested a 22% level of prejudice against lesbian, gay or bisexual individuals in the workplace.○ A total of 24% of respondents to the Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey reported that they were either 'very' (6%) or 'a little' prejudiced toward gay men; 20% were 'very' (5%) or 'a little' prejudiced toward lesbians.○ Of those who reported prejudice toward gay men in the 2012 Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey 7% felt that their behaviour matched the prejudice they felt. With regard to lesbians 14% indicated that their behaviour matched the prejudice they felt.	Persistent
➤ Lesbian, Gay and Bisexual individuals were reported to be treated unfairly both in general and with regard to the labour market.	Persistent

Economic status

- According to the LFS data (between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012), all same sex couples were in full-time employment in Northern Ireland, at every time point that data was available.

Hours worked

- Information on the number of working hours for same sex couples was only available for Q2 2007 and Q3 2011. At Q3 2011, same sex couples worked on average fewer hours than opposite sex couples (38 hours per week, compared to 44.9 hours per week).

Wage rates

- For Northern Ireland, the data on weekly earnings for same sex couples existed for only four years: 2006, 2007, 2008 and 2011. According to these figures, median weekly net pay was lower for males living in same sex couples than those living in opposite sex couples.
 - At Q4 2011, net weekly pay differed by £89 in favour of opposite sex couples.
- Data on hourly earnings for same sex couples also only existed for: 2006, 2007, 2008 and 2011. According to these figures, median gross hourly pay was consistently lower for males living in same sex couples than for those living in an opposite sex couple.
 - For example, at Q4 2011 gross hourly pay for males living with a male partner was £7, compared to £10.98 for those living with a female partner.

Attitudes

- The 2012 Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey (NILTS) found an increase in the proportion of respondents who felt 'gays/lesbians/bisexuals' were treated unfairly (31.4% in 2006 and 39.3% in 2012). For those who were large employers or in senior management, the respective percentages were 37.1% and 35.6%.
- In the 2011 Equality Awareness Survey a quarter (24%) of respondents perceived LGB people to be treated unfairly in Northern Ireland.
- Of the respondents to the 2012 NILTS: 18% were 'a little prejudiced' towards gay men whilst 6% were 'very prejudiced'; 15% were 'a little prejudiced' toward lesbian women whilst 5% were 'very prejudiced'.
 - Of those who reported prejudice, 7% and 14% felt their behaviour matched with the prejudice they felt toward gay men and lesbians, respectively.
 - A total of 3.6% of respondents to the 2012 NILTS admitted to acting in a prejudicial way towards gay men, and 2.4% towards lesbian women.
- With regard to the workplace:
 - The 2012 NILTS found that 7.6% of respondents would be uncomfortable having a gay or lesbian colleague at work, and 10.5% would be uncomfortable with a gay or lesbian boss.

- The 2011 Equality Awareness Survey suggested a somewhat higher level of prejudice against LGB individuals in the workplace; 22% of survey participants would mind (a little or a lot) having a LGB person as a colleague; this increased from 14% in 2005.

Barriers and Enablers

- DEL's Audit of Inequalities identified anecdotal evidence that LGB individuals are at greater risk of bullying and harassment. The department now funds work to raise awareness of the issue, challenge homophobia and provide guidance on workplace policies to reduce and tackle homophobic bullying and harassment in the workplace.
- Claims of unfair dismissal and harassment on the grounds of sexual orientation have successfully been brought in Northern Ireland under anti-discrimination legislation such as:
 - The Employment Equality (Sexual Orientation) Regulations (NI) 2003 making it unlawful to discriminate on grounds of sexual orientation in employment, vocational training, further education and higher education.
 - The Equality Act (Sexual Orientation) Regulations (NI) 2006 extending the protection against discrimination to the provision of education in schools.
- The lack of good quality data on the LGB population hampers effective monitoring, and better data is required to assess the extent to which LGB employees face unequal treatment and discrimination from employers and other employees (Equality and Human Rights Commission, 2009).
- There are some obstacles to collecting LGB information.
 - The issue of a question about sexual orientation was raised in the preparation of the 2011 Census for England and Wales, but the final questionnaire did not include one. The Office for National Statistics posited that the information would be difficult to define and respondents may not provide honest responses.
- **The Rainbow Project** works with employers to raise awareness of LGB issues in the workplace and promote inclusive workplaces.
 - The organisation also works in an advisory capacity with the Labour Relations Agency and Trade Unions, who have an advocacy and advice role for LGB issues in the workplace

Chapter 10. Marital Status Inequalities in Employment

Introduction

This report provides a picture of patterns and trends in employment and non-employment in Northern Ireland, establishing any key inequalities (data permitting) that are evident in Northern Ireland for each equality ground as identified by Section 75 of the Northern Ireland Act 1998. This chapter provides evidence of inequalities drawn from quantitative data (primarily from analyses of the Labour Force Survey) which is supplemented by stakeholder interviews and literature review for this equality ground. It is important to stress that no one individual belongs solely to one equality group, and that everyone has multiple identities. Consideration was given to multiple identities where quantitative data was available and allowed for meaningful analyses. Limited analyses across a range of multiple inequalities are reported in Chapter 12. The distillation of the most substantive / overarching key employment inequalities (across all equality grounds) in Northern Ireland are summarised in Chapter 13.

This chapter explores the association between marital status and labour market outcomes among the working age population in Northern Ireland. Firstly the literature around this topic is considered, although there is very little literature that looks explicitly at the impact of marital status, and none of it pertains specifically to Northern Ireland. This is followed by a summary of labour market trends, over the period 2006 to 2012, across a number of variables; economic activity, hours worked, median gross wages, and occupation sector and type. In this analysis the effect of the economic downturn, which became evident in 2008, is noted. There is also consideration of qualifications held and access to transport as potential barriers to accessing the labour market.

The source of data for the analysis is the Quarterly Labour Force Survey (LFS), for 2006-2012. In the LFS there are nine categories of marital status; 1 = Single never married, 2= Married living with husband/wife, 3 = Married, separated from husband/wife, 4 = Divorced, 5 = Widowed, 6 = Civil partner, 7 = Separated civil partner, 8 = Former civil partner, legally dissolved and 9 = Surviving civil partner, partner died. In the forthcoming analysis these were reduced to three categories; Single and have never married (1), Married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership (2) and Previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed (3, 4 and 5). The numbers in the civil partner categories (6, 7, 8 and 9) were too few to allow effective analysis so these categories were not used in the analysis. The chapter briefly considers policy responses to inequalities in employment by marital status.

Generally it was found that employment rates were higher amongst those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership than for those who were single and have never married and those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed. This especially applied to those aged 18-24 years old. ILO unemployment persisted to be highest for those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed and economic inactivity rates were lowest for those who are currently married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership. There was also some evidence of an emergent inequality in the vertical structure of the labour market as, for example, a higher proportion of those who were single

and have never married worked in 'Sales and Customer Service Occupations' and 'Elementary Occupations' than the other two marital status groups.

Literature review on marital status inequalities in employment

This section examines the literature on whether a person's marital status has an impact on their likelihood of labour force participation and on their wages in employment. The question of whether marriage has a positive effect on male wages, and a negative effect on female ones, has received some attention in the literature (although not, as far as we are aware, with respect to Northern Ireland specifically). It is not possible to observe directly whether employers take marital status into account when recruiting and setting pay for employees. However, some studies have examined whether marital status is a significant determinant of employment outcomes, controlling as far as possible for individual level differences in characteristics and work effort that might complicate this association.

Marital status and earnings

Bardasi and Taylor (2008) identified a number of theoretical reasons from the literature for a wage premium to married males, and these are as follows: that the highest potential earners are more likely to get married (and thus a selection effect occurs); that employers discriminate in favour of married males, because they perceive them as more committed or more deserving; or that intra-household specialisation in married couples mean that married males specialise in, and thus become more productive in, wage labour. Their empirical work – the only such example on UK data – focuses on the latter specialisation hypothesis, and finds that some of the wage premium for married males can be attributed to household specialisation in this way.

Other studies from Germany and the USA differ on the cause, but confirm the existence of, a wage premium to married males. Pollmann-Schult (2010) analysed German data, which suggest that the wage premium comes from males putting more effort into their work – not because they do less housework, but because they are less satisfied with their financial situation, perhaps because they have or perceive the likelihood of more expenditure. Ahituv and Lerman (2007) also found, using USA data, that much of the wage premium is found in the additional hours that males work after marriage, and also that working more, earning more and being married reinforce each other over time.

Zavodny (2008) poses an interesting question around wage premiums: whether they also accrue to gay partners. However, her analysis of USA data showed no return for cohabitation for gay or non-married males, respectively; the return is only apparent for married, heterosexual males. She suggests that this is due to the financial advantages available to married couples, and because the higher commitment implied by marriage makes intra-household specialisation more likely. This is only partially relevant to the UK context, as there are currently limited tax advantages for married couples, but the specialisation argument is plausible.

Marital status and female labour market behaviour

The impact of marriage itself on female earning is not something that receives much empirical attention; the focus is generally on the changes in labour market behaviour that females make in anticipation of, and in response to, childbearing. However, a recent (USA) study (Juhn and McCue, 2011) did look directly at the impact of marriage, and observed convergence over the last 40 years between the wages of single and married females. This was especially true for the less educated females, although the gap had also narrowed among college-educated females. This suggests that marriage itself is playing less and less of a role in female employment decisions and perhaps that it is mainly the wealthiest females who can exercise any choice at all in whether or not to work.

Recent trends in marital status inequalities in employment in Northern Ireland

Economic status

A summary of economic status at Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 is displayed in Table 10.1. The percentage of those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership who were in employment increased from 76.6% at Q1 2006 to 81.5% at Q1 2012. Over the same period the percentage of those who are single and have never married fell from 61.6% at Q1 2006 to 56.1% at Q1 2012. For those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed there was a slight rise in employment (61.7% to 63.2%).

For both periods ILO unemployment rates were highest for the single and have never married group (5.3% at Q1 2006 rising to 8.6% at Q1 2012); those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership had the lowest ILO unemployment rates (1.4% at Q1 2006 and 2.5% at Q1 2012).

With regard to economic activity, those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership had the lowest economic inactivity rate at Q1 2006 (22.0%) and at Q1 2012 (16.0%). The marital status group with the highest economic inactivity rate at Q1 2006 was those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed (34.9%); at Q1 2012 this had changed to those who were single and had never married (35.3%).

At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership made up over half (57.7% and 58.9%, respectively) of those in employment. Those who were single and have never married accounted for around a third of the in employment population at both Q1 2006 (34.7%) and Q1 2012 (32.6%).

Those who were single and have never married made up over two thirds of those in the ILO unemployed category at both Q1 2006 (67.2%) and Q1 2012 (67.4%); those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership made up under a quarter at both time points (23.6% and 24.3%, respectively).

Whilst at Q1 2006 there was only a 5.2 percentage points difference between the share of those who were single and have never married and those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership who made up the economically inactive category this gap had widened to 24.8 percentage points in Q1 2012. Those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed maintained a relatively stable representation in all economic status categories at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.

Table 10.1: Economic status and marital status (Source: LFS Q1 2006 & Q1 2012)

Marital status	Q1 2006				Q1 2012			
	In employment	ILO unemployed	Economically Inactive	Total	In employment	ILO unemployed	Economically Inactive	Total
Number								
Single, never married	255949	22205	137097	415251	251818	38743	158509	449070
Married/Co-habiting	426022	7787	122028	555837	454160	13951	88875	556986
Separated or Divorced	56598	3041	32018	91657	65380	4820	33196	103396
Total	738569	33033	291143	1062745	771358	57514	280580	1109452
Percentage of Population Category								
Single, never married	61.6%	5.3%	33.0%	100.0%	56.1%	8.6%	35.3%	100.0%
Married/Co-habiting	76.6%	1.4%	22.0%	100.0%	81.5%	2.5%	16.0%	100.0%
Separated or Divorced	61.7%	3.3%	34.9%	100.0%	63.2%	4.7%	32.1%	100.0%
Total	69.5%	3.1%	27.4%	100.0%	69.5%	5.2%	25.3%	100.0%
Percentage of Economic Status Category								
Single, never married	34.7%	67.2%	47.1%	39.1%	32.6%	67.4%	56.5%	40.5%
Married/Co-habiting	57.7%	23.6%	41.9%	52.3%	58.9%	24.3%	31.7%	50.2%
Separated or Divorced	7.7%	9.2%	11.0%	8.6%	8.5%	8.4%	11.8%	9.3%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Figures 10.1 to 10.4 display trends in economic status by marital status for the Northern Ireland working age population (in this study the working age population as a whole is defined as 16-64 years old for males and 16-59 years old for females). The weighted LFS data shows trends over the period Q1 2006 to Q2 2012; although data discussions will only concern Q1 2006 to Q1 2012. The analysis divides respondents into three marital status groups: those who are single and have never married; those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership; and those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed.

Employment

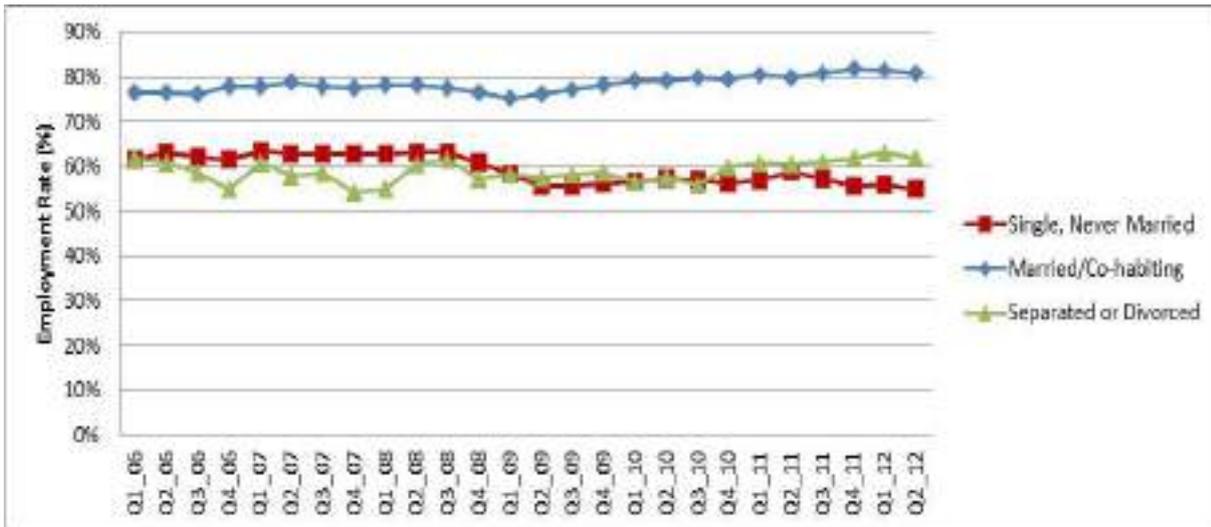
Employment rates for the working age population as a whole remained constant at 69.5% at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.

It is evident from Figure 10.1 that employment rates for those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership were consistently higher than those for the working age population as a whole; and also higher than rates for the other two marital status groups. The rate of employment for those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership increased by 4.9 percentage points, from 76.6% in Q1 2006 to 81.5% in Q1 2012. The employment rate of those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed was below the working age population average over this period, although there was little in the way of a trend; the rate was 61.7% in Q1 2006 and 63.2% in Q1 2012 (an increase of 1.5 percentage points).

The employment rate of those who are single and have never married exhibited a downward trend since late 2008, falling from 61.6% in Q1 2006 to 56.1% in Q1 2012. This may be linked to an age effect, as younger people have become less likely to be economically active over this period (see Chapter 4) and younger people feature prominently amongst the single and have never married group.¹²⁰ The LFS data suggests that in Q1 2012, 96.6% of 18-24 year olds and all 16-17 year olds were in the single and have never married group; and nearly half (48.1%) of those who are single and have never married were aged under 25 years old. Among those in the single and have never married group who are aged between 25-49 years old, 75.5% were in employment, compared to 47.4% of 18-24 year olds who are single and have never married. The employment rate of those in the single and have never married group aged 25-49 years old was 10.5 percentage points less than the rate for those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership (86.0%) and 4.6 percentage points above the employment rate for those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced, or widowed (70.9%) in that age group.

¹²⁰ Several of the associations explored in this report may be driven in part by age differences between groups; some of these are explored further in Chapter 12.

Figure 10.1: Employment rate by marital status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

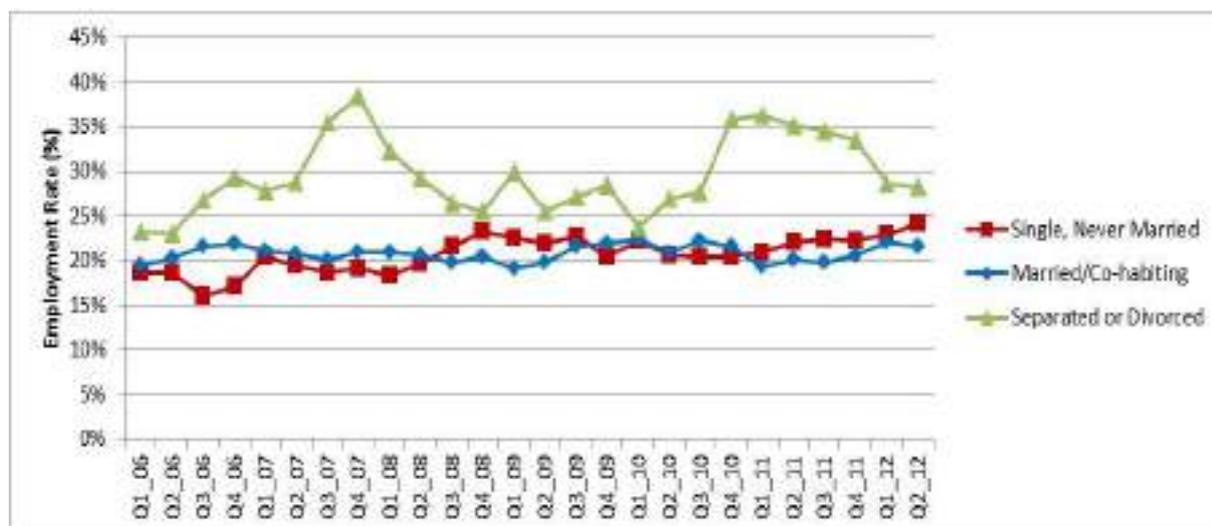


Part-time employment

The proportion of all those employed who were working part-time increased over the period of interest, from 19.5% in Q1 2006 to 23.1% in Q1 2012, an increase of 3.6 percentage points.

Figure 10.2 shows the part-time employment rates by marital status for the period Q1 2006 to Q2 2012. The proportion of workers employed part-time was similar for the single and have never married or married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership groups (18.7% and 19.5% in Q1 2006 and 23.0% and 22.1% in Q1 2012, respectively). A small upward trend is evident for those workers who are single and have never married, although not a smooth one, as there has been some fluctuation over time. For those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed, part-time employment rates are higher and fluctuate more than the other groups. The proportion of those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed employed part-time was 23.2% in Q1 2006 and 28.6% in Q1 2012, although Figure 10.2 suggests rates in excess of 30.0% at some time points. However, it should be noted that the greater fluctuation seen in the single and have never married and those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed groups may also reflect the smaller sample sizes of these groups.

Figure 10.2: Percentage of those employed working part-time by marital status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



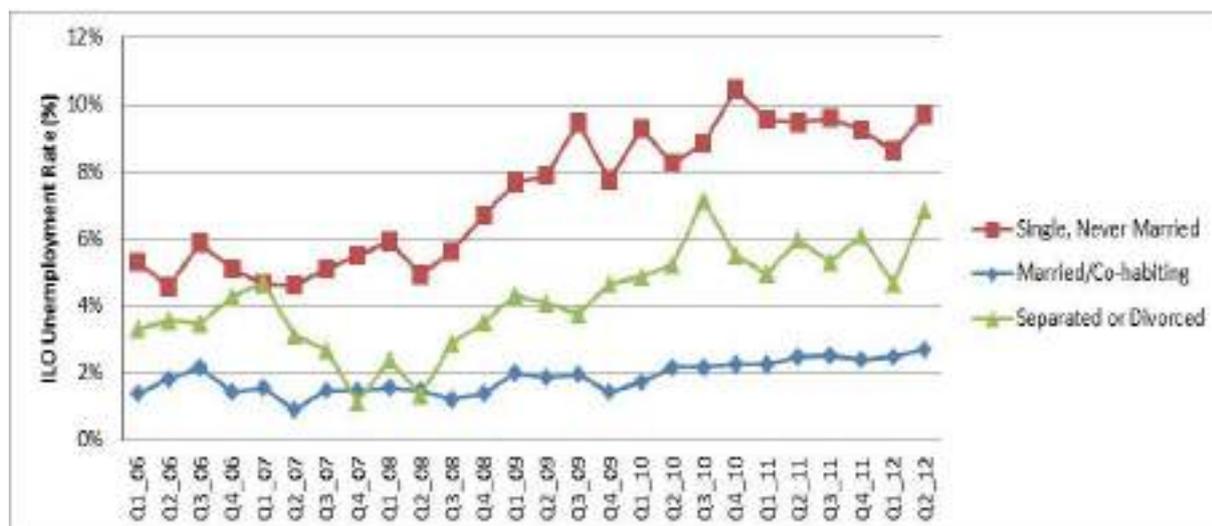
Unemployment

ILO unemployment among the working age population as a whole increased over the period of interest, from 3.1% in Q1 2006 to 5.2% in Q1 2012. Figure 10.3 suggests that the highest ILO unemployment rate was experienced by those who are single and have never married, followed by those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed. ILO unemployment had increased among all three groups, although much more steeply among the single and have never married group. ILO unemployment among those who are in the single and have never married group was 5.3% in Q1 2006, but had risen steeply to 8.6% by Q1 2012. Those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed saw a smaller increase, from 3.3% to 4.7%; those in the married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership group saw a more modest increase from 1.4% to 2.5%.

Considering just the 25-49 years old age group, the ILO unemployment rate in the single and have never married group rose from 4.5% in Q1 2006 to 8.6% in Q1 2012. This was higher at Q1 2012 than those of the same age who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed (6.5%), or those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership (2.3%), but lower than for single and have never married 18-24 year olds (10.0%). This again demonstrates the role of age in explaining apparent associations between marital status and labour market outcomes.

A quarter (24.9%) of those who were single and have never married and were ILO unemployed in Q1 2006 were classified as long term unemployed, compared to over half of those married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership (57.1%) or those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed (60.9%). In Q1 2012 the proportion of long-term unemployed had increased considerably in the single and have never married group (from 24.9% to 44.0%) and the previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed group (from 60.9% to 70.1%), but had fallen for those married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership (from 57.1% to 49.2%).

Figure 10.3: ILO unemployment rate by marital status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

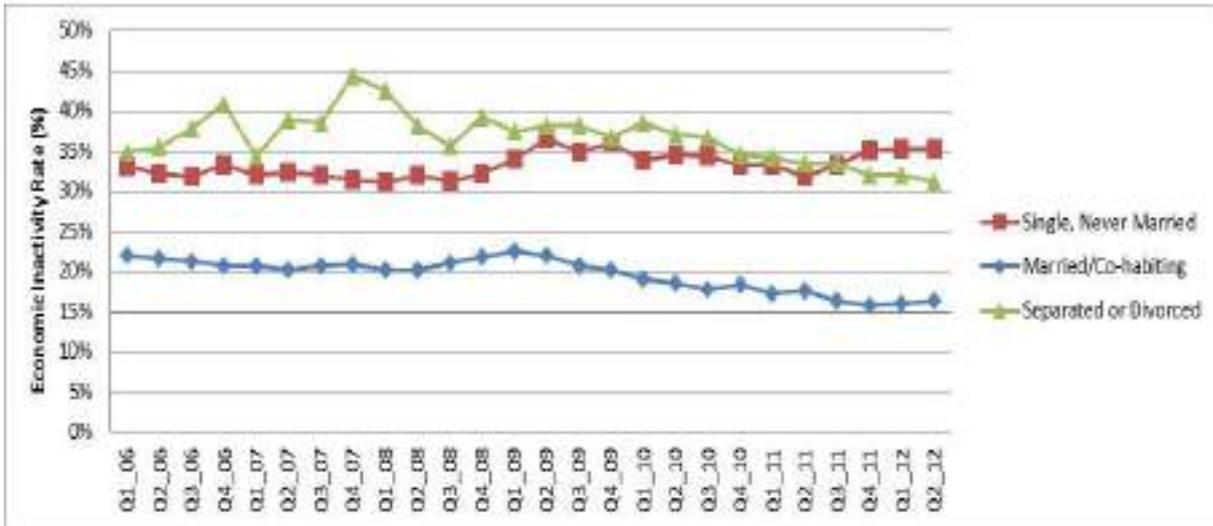


Economic Inactivity

Economic inactivity rates among the working age population as a whole fell slightly over the period of interest, from 27.4% in Q1 2006 to 25.3% in Q1 2012; a fall of 2.1 percentage points. Figure 10.4 shows that economic inactivity rates over this period were lowest for the married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership group; 22.0% in Q1 2006, falling to 16.0% in Q1 2012, with a downward trend in economic inactivity evident since late 2008. The economic inactivity rate of those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed although higher than the economic inactivity rate of the married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership group also trended downwards since late 2008, falling from 34.9% in Q1 2006 to 32.1% in Q1 2012. However, for those who are single and have never married the rate perhaps slightly trended upwards, from 33.0% in Q1 2006 to 35.3% in Q1 2012.

Within the single and have never married group, the economic inactivity rate among 25-49 year olds in Q1 2012 was 15.8%, much lower than the rate for 18-24 year olds in this group (42.5%); this is likely to reflect the greater proportion of the younger age group still in education. This inactivity rate of single and have never married 25-49 year olds is lower than for those of the same age who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed (22.6%), but higher than those of the same age who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership (11.7%). The difference between those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership and those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed in this respect may be due to the experience of lone parenthood among the latter group, and the impact of this on economic activity (see Chapter 11).

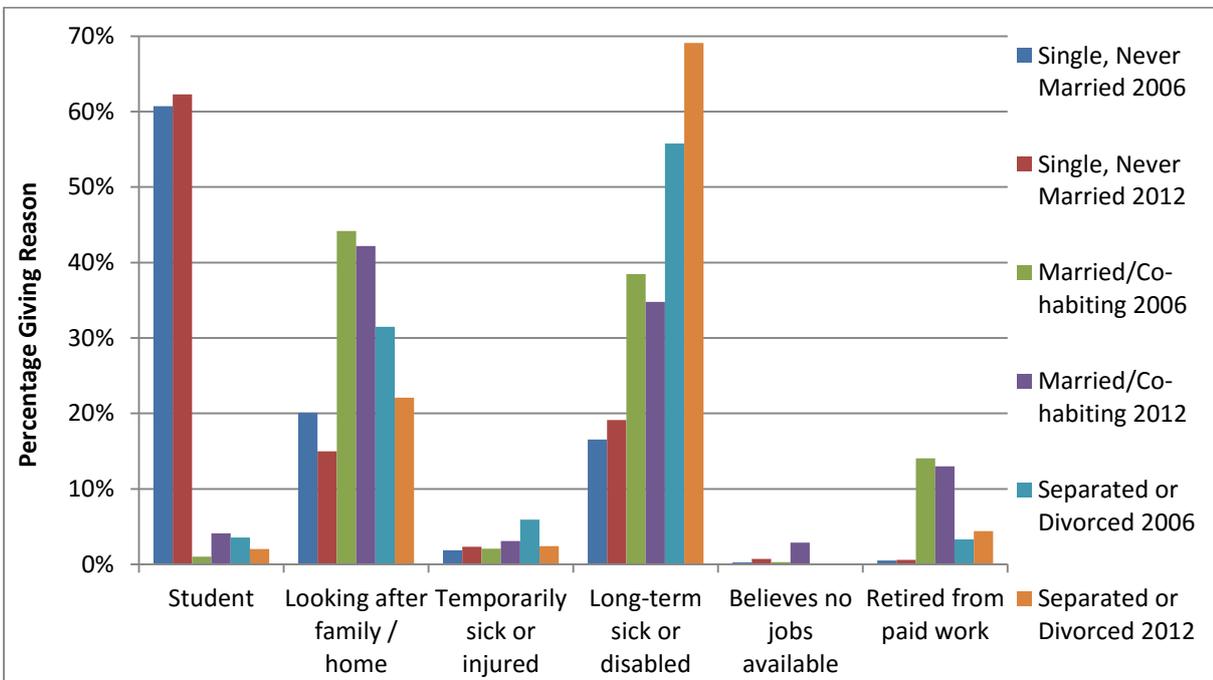
Figure 10.4: Economic inactivity rate by marital status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Main reasons for not looking for work

Figure 10.5 shows the main stated reasons for not looking for a job in the last four weeks by marital status, for Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.

Figure 10.5: Main reason for not looking for work in the last four weeks by marital status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



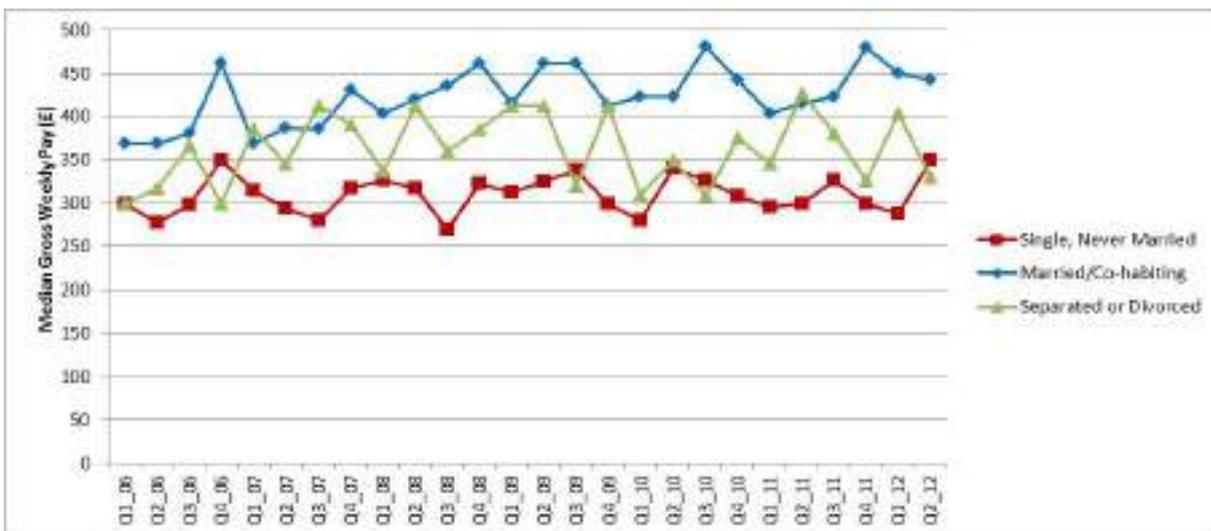
In both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, the most common reason for not seeking work among those who are single and have never married was that they were a student, while for those married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership, a caring role was cited as the main reason. For those who were previously married but are now

separated, divorced or widowed, being long-term sick or disabled was the main cited reason. These findings are unsurprising, as the profiles displayed in Figure 10.5 are likely to be closely related to the average age and life stage of each of these groups.

Median gross weekly pay

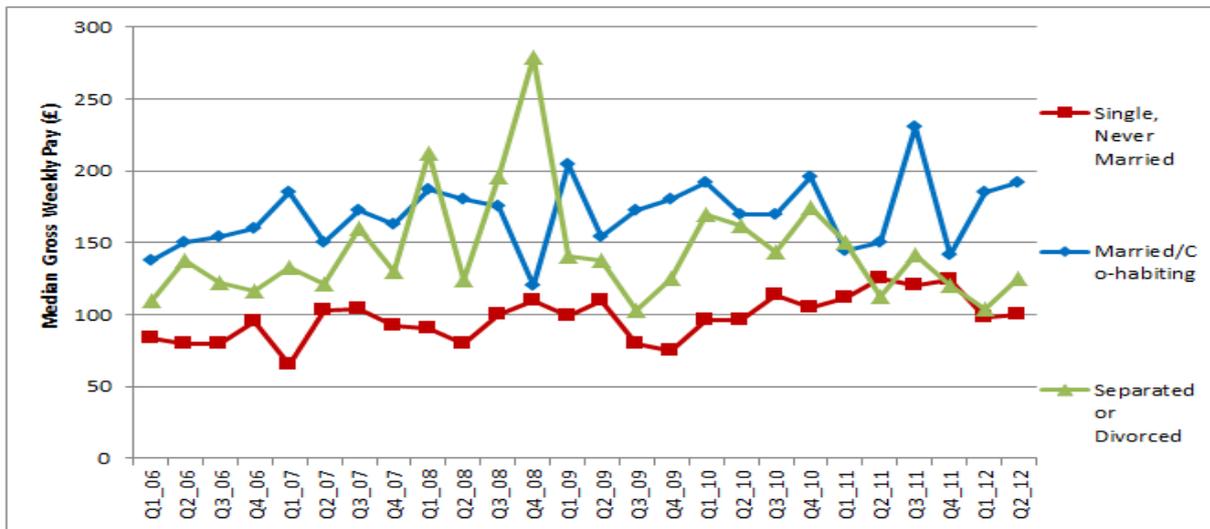
Median gross weekly pay for all full-time workers was £346 in Q1 2006 and £385 in Q1 2012, a nominal increase of £39 (11.3%) per week. From Figure 10.6a, it can be observed that the married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership group had consistently the highest median gross weekly pay amongst full-time workers, and was paid more than average. This group saw an upward trend of over a fifth in weekly pay, from £369 in Q1 2006 to £450 in Q1 2012 (an increase of £81 (22.0%)). The single and have never married group saw a slight drop from £300 to £288 over this period, while the increase for those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed was the largest from £300 to £404 (an increase of £104 (34.7%)).

Figure 10.6a: Median gross weekly pay for full-time workers by marital status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



For part-time workers, median gross weekly pay for all workers increased by £5 (4.3%), from £115 in Q1 2006 to £120 in Q1 2012. Figure 10.6b shows that, as with full-time workers, part-time workers who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership tended to be paid the most, although the advantage was less pronounced. The median gross weekly pay for part-time workers who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership increased from £138 in Q1 2006 to £185 in Q1 2012; again this increase was more than that experienced by the single and have never married group, whose weekly pay increased from £84 in Q1 2006 to £98 per week in Q1 2012, and more than those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed group, whose weekly pay fluctuated considerably but actually displayed a small downward shift from £110 in Q1 2006 to £104 in Q1 2012.

Figure 10.6b: Median gross weekly pay for part-time workers by marital status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

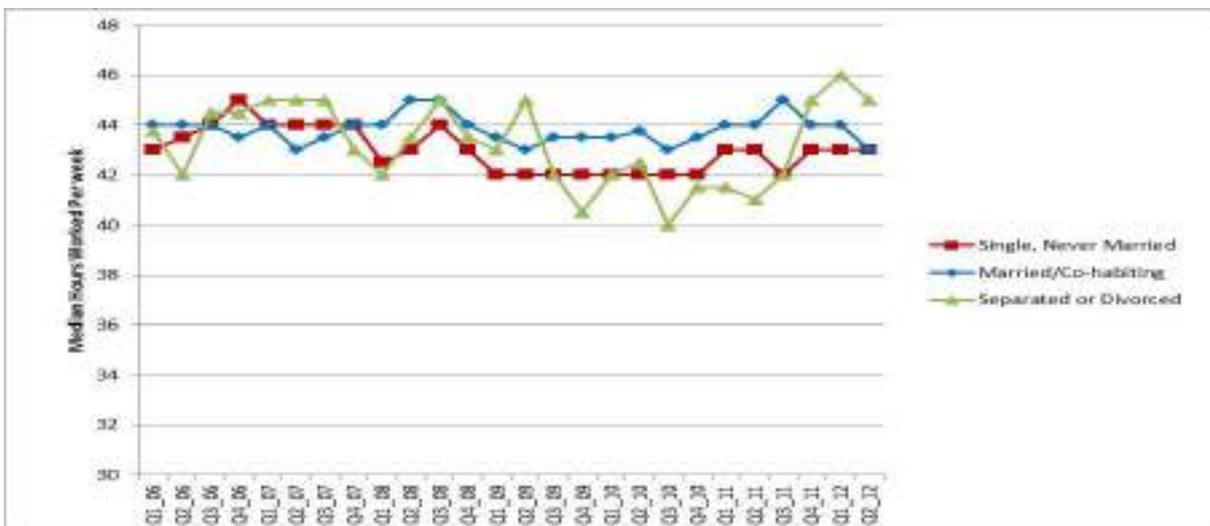


Hours worked per week including overtime

The median hours worked per week including overtime remained the same at 44.0 hours per week in Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 for full-time workers, and fell from 23.0 to 22.0 hours per week for part-time workers over the same period.

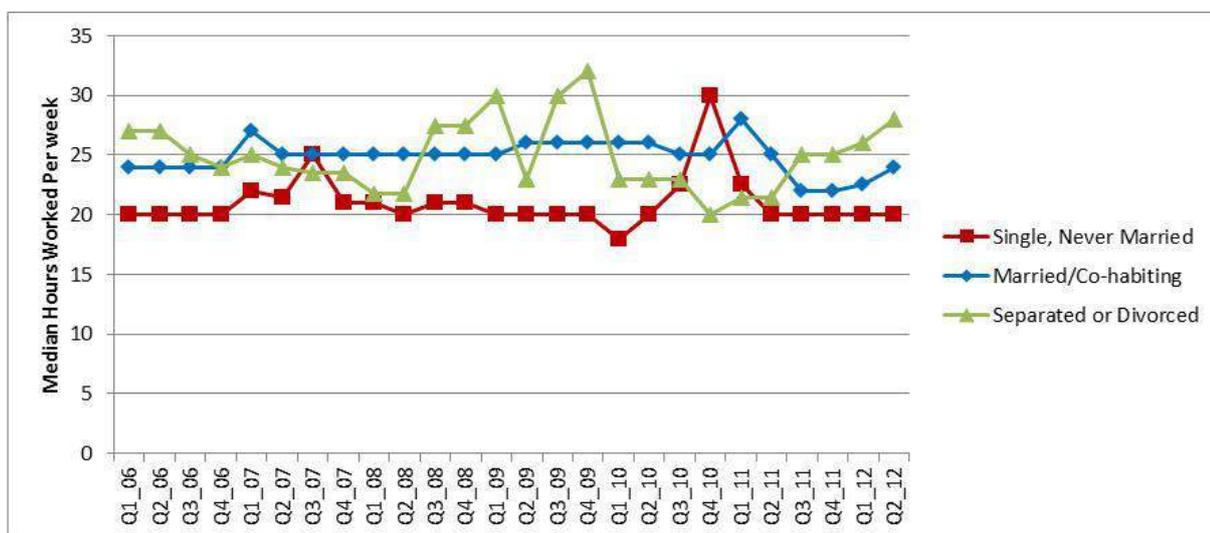
Figure 10.7a displays the median hours worked per week including overtime for full-time workers by marital status. Little difference is found in hours worked per week between individuals of different marital status for full-time workers. Over the period Q1 2006 to Q1 2012 the median hours worked for full-time workers in the: single and have never married group was 43.0 hours; married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership group was 44.0 hours; and those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed group was 43.3 hours.

Figure 10.7a: Median hours worked per week including overtime for full-time workers by marital status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



For part-time workers, in general those who are single and have never married worked fewer hours than the other groups (Figure 10.7b). This is likely to be due to this group being younger and still in education. The median hours worked over the period Q1 2006 to Q1 2012 for part-time workers were: 20.0 hours for the single and have never married group; 25.0 hours for the married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership group and 25.0 hours for those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed.

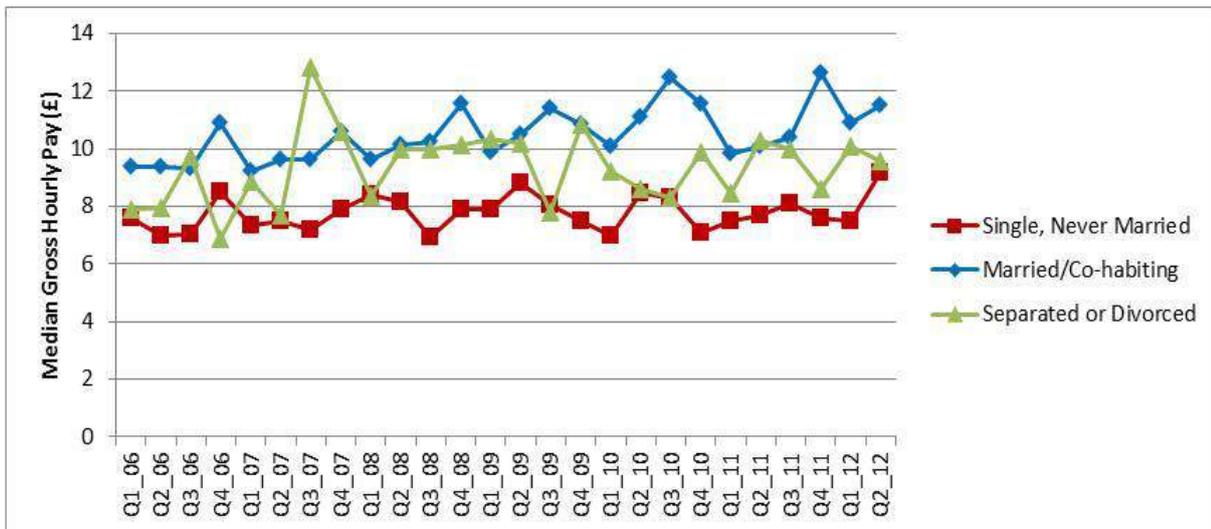
Figure 10.7b: Median hours worked per week including overtime for part-time workers by marital status
(Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Median gross hourly pay

Median gross hourly pay for all full-time workers was £8.33 per hour in Q1 2006 and £9.87 per hour in Q1 2012, a nominal increase of £1.54 per hour over the period. Figure 10.8a shows trends in median gross hourly pay for the three marital status groups. The married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership group was paid most per hour, and a modest upward trend was evident, with a small increase from £9.10 in Q1 2006 to £11.00 in Q1 2012. Median gross hourly pay among the other two groups fluctuated over the same period, and for the single and have never married group, median gross hourly pay was similar in both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, at £7.58 and £7.49 respectively. Although hourly pay among those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed increased from £7.89 to £10.10 over this period, it is difficult to interpret the trend presented in Figure 10.8a as an upward one due to many fluctuations over the period.

Figure 10.8a: Median gross hourly pay for full-time workers by marital status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



For part-time workers, median gross hourly pay for all workers increased by £1.05 (16.9%), from £6.20 in Q1 2006 to £7.25 in Q1 2012. Figure 10.8b suggests a slight upward trend in hourly pay among single and have never married part-time workers, with an overall increase of 11.7% from £5.48 in Q1 2006 to £6.13 in Q1 2012. The other two groups displayed considerable fluctuation over this time period, and there was little evidence of any particular trend. Hourly pay for married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership part-time workers was £9.25 in Q1 2006 and £8.91 in Q1 2012, and for those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed part-time workers it was £6.20 in Q1 2006 and £6.00 in Q1 2012.

Figure 10.8b: Median gross hourly pay for part-time workers by marital status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

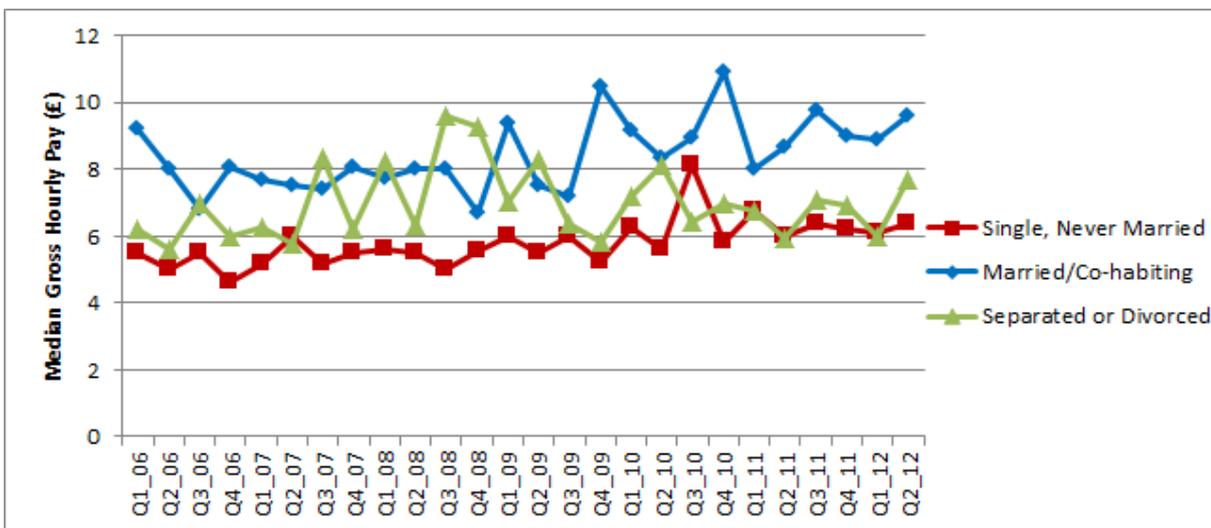


Table 10.2 summarises the data on hours and pay for the different marital status groups, at Q1 2012. Those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership, whether in full-time or part-time work, had higher median pay than others; those who are single or never married had the lowest median pay. On the other hand those who are single or never married had lower median hours worked than others; whilst those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed had the highest hours worked.

Table 10.2: Median hours worked, median gross weekly pay, and median gross hourly pay, for full-time and part-time workers, by marital status (Source: LFS, Q1 2012)

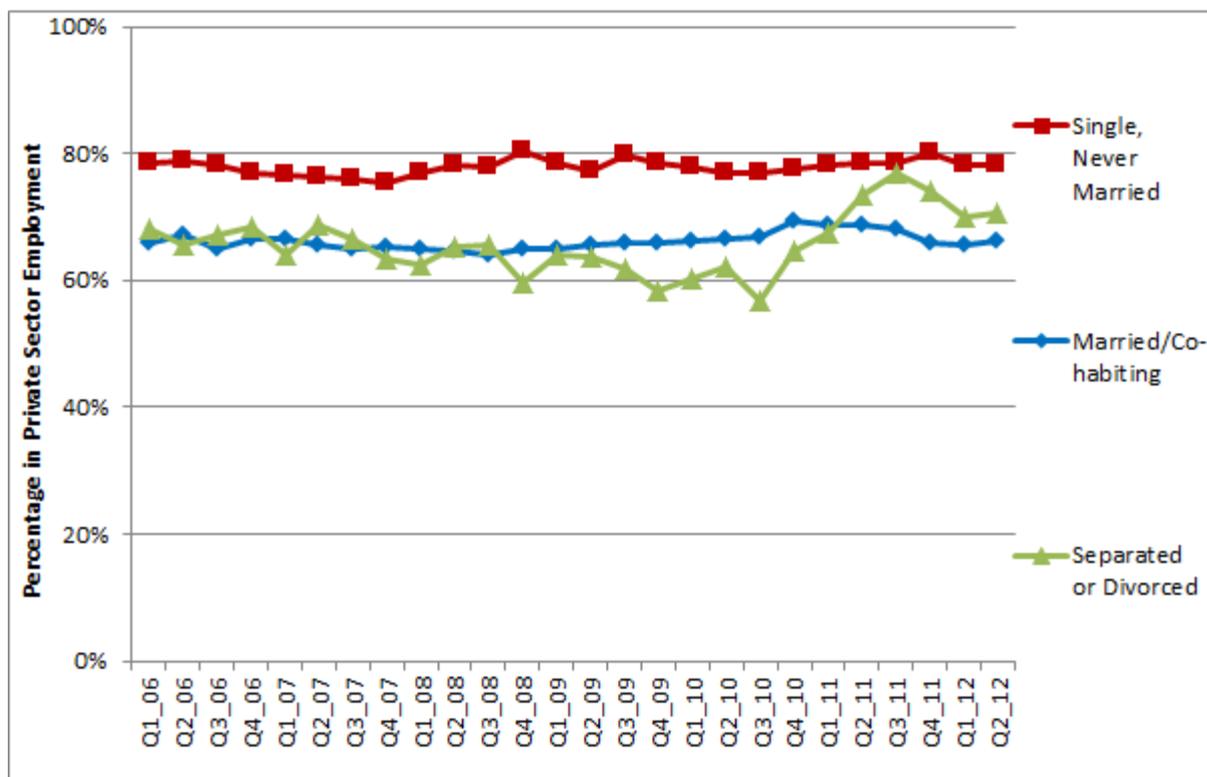
	Full-time			Part-time		
	Median Hours Worked	Median Gross Weekly Pay	Median Gross Hourly Pay	Median Hours Worked	Median Gross Weekly Pay	Median Gross Hourly Pay
Single, never married	43	£288	£7.50	20	£98	£6.13
Married, co-habiting or civil partnership	44	£456	£10.92	22.5	£185	£8.91
Separated, divorced, or widowed	46	£404	£10.10	26	£104	£6.00

Private sector employment

Employment in the private sector stayed fairly constant for the working age population as a whole over the period of interest; it stood at 70.3% in Q1 2006 and 70.0% in Q1 2012.

Figure 10.9 shows that those who are single and have never married were more likely than the other two marital groups to be employed in the private sector; average private sector employment was 77.9% over the period of interest. For those married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership the average private sector employment rate was 66.2% over the period of interest. This was similar to those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed, who had an average private sector employment of 65.8% over the period. Therefore the difference for the average private sector employed between single and have never married group and the married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership group was 11.7 percentage points. A slightly greater difference of 12.1 percentage points was found in comparing the single and have never married group to those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed.

Figure 10.9 Percentage in private sector employment by marital status (Source: LFS, 2006 -2012)



Industry sector

This section investigates the distribution of employment of marital status across industry sectors, examining the proportion employed and the median hourly gross pay in each sector by status.

The distribution of marital status across industry sectors is given in Table 10.3. In both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 the single and have never married group were most highly distributed within ‘Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants’ (26.0% and 28.5%, respectively) and ‘Public Administration, Education and Health’ (24.4% and 24.2%, respectively). ‘Public Administration, Education and Health’ was the industry sector with the highest distribution, at Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, of those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership (39.6% and 40.1%, respectively) and those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed (35.5% and 39.2%, respectively). The high distribution of those who are single and have never married within the ‘Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants’ industry sector is likely to be linked to the younger average age of the single group.

In the main, distributions of each marital status group remained fairly stable between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. However, for those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed ‘Banking, Finance and Insurance’ increased by 7.1 percentage points in Q1 2012 and ‘Manufacturing’ decreased by 6.5 percentage points in Q1 2012.

Those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed consistently (i.e. at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012) made up a smaller proportion of each industry sector than each of the other two groups. However, the gap appeared to be closing in the 'Energy and Water' sector in Q1 2012 where the proportion of those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed in this sector increased by 14.5 percentage points, whilst those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership decreased by 11.6 percentage points.

Table 10.3: Industry sector by marital status (Source: LFS, 2006 and 2012)

Sector (SIC2007)	Q1 2006						Q1 2012					
	Single, never married		Married/co-habiting		Separated, divorced or widowed		Single, never married		Married/co-habiting		Separated, divorced or widowed	
	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²
A-B: Agriculture & Fishing	29.6	2.9	67.0	3.8	3.4	1.5	31.6	2.8	66.8	3.2	1.6	0.5
C,E: Energy & Water	23.1	0.6	71.4	1.0	5.4	0.6	20.3	0.7	59.8	1.2	19.9	2.7
D: Manufacturing	33.3	13.7	58.2	14.1	8.5	15.6	30.4	11.8	63.5	13.4	6.1	9.1
F: Construction	43.2	12.7	51.5	8.9	5.4	7.0	36.6	10.2	57.4	8.7	5.9	6.3
G-H: Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants	45.7	26.0	45.2	15.2	9.1	23.1	47.3	28.5	43.0	14.1	9.7	22.3
I: Transport & Communication	33.4	4.7	57.2	4.7	9.4	5.8	33.9	5.2	60.3	5.1	5.8	3.4
J-K: Banking, Finance & Insurance etc.	39.0	10.9	56.1	9.3	4.9	6.2	34.5	11.5	55.1	10.0	10.4	13.3
L-N: Public Admin, Education & Health	24.5	24.4	67.5	39.6	8.0	35.5	22.4	24.2	68.2	40.1	9.5	39.2
O-Q: Other Services	38.1	4.2	52.5	3.4	9.4	4.6	37.5	5.1	56.6	4.2	5.9	3.0

¹ Row: proportion within industry sector of marital status (e.g. In Q1 2006 51.5% of construction sector were married/co-habiting persons)

² Column: distribution of marital status across industry sector (e.g. In Q1 2006 8.9% of married/co-habiting persons were in construction sector)

The median gross hourly pay for each marital status group in each sector, and the pay gaps between groups are displayed in Table 10.4 for Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. The sub-sample numbers in some cells of Table 10.4 can be very small or non-existent in the LFS, making estimation unreliable and resulting in several empty cells (for sample sizes see Appendix 5 Table A5.5).

In Q1 2006 the top three highest paid sectors for the single and have never married group were: 1. 'Other Services'; 2. 'Agriculture and Fishing'; and 3. 'Banking, Finance and Insurance'. Only one of the top three ('Banking, Finance and Insurance') remained the same in Q1 2012: 1. 'Transport and Communication'; 2. 'Public Administration, Education and Health'; and 3. 'Banking, Finance and Insurance'.

For those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership the top three highest paid sectors in Q1 2006 were similar to the single and have never married group: 1. 'Energy and Water'; 2. 'Agriculture and Fishing'; and 3. 'Banking, Finance and Insurance'. This picture changed somewhat in Q1 2012, although figures were not available for the 'Energy and Water' sector. The top three highest paid sectors for the married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership group in Q1 2012 were: 'Public Administration, Education and Health'; 2. 'Other Services' and 3. 'Manufacturing'.

The top three highest paid sectors in Q1 2006 for those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed were: 1. 'Construction'; 2. 'Manufacturing'; and 3. 'Transport and Communication'. The number one highest paid sector remained the same in Q1 2012 but the other two changed, the top three highest paid sectors in Q1 2012 were: 1. 'Construction'; 2. 'Public Administration, Education and Health'; and 3. 'Distributions, Hotels and Restaurants'. It is worthy of note that 'Transport and Communication' figures were not available for Q1 2012 and that 'Public Administration, Education and Health' may have overtaken 'Manufacturing' to gain the number two position due to an increase in pay for the former (£4.97) and a decrease for the latter (£6.00).

In Q1 2006 the largest pay gap was between those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership and those who are single and have never married in the 'Energy & Water' sector (this was £13.14 in favour of the former group). In Q1 2012 the largest pay gap was between those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed and those who are single and have never married in the 'Construction' sector (this was £6.43 in favour of the former group).

Table 10.4: Median gross hourly pay in each industry sector by marital status and pay gaps by marital status (source: LFS, 2006 and 2012)

Q1 2006						
Sector (SIC2007)	Median hourly pay			Pay gaps		
	Single, never married	Married/co-habiting	Separated, divorced or widowed	Married/co-habiting - Single, never married	Married/co-habiting - Separated, divorced or widowed	Separated, divorced or widowed – Single, never married
A-B: Agriculture & Fishing	£9.75	£15.58	-	£5.83	-	-
C,E: Energy & Water	£7.00	£20.14	-	£13.14	-	-
D: Manufacturing	£7.65	£8.23	£11.75	£0.58	-£3.52	£4.10
F: Construction	£8.11	£9.21	£14.54	£1.10	-£5.33	£6.43
G-H: Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants	£5.60	£7.32	£6.64	£1.72	£0.68	£1.04
I: Transport & Communication	£8.05	£8.39	£11.33	£0.34	-£2.94	£3.28
J-K: Banking, Finance & Insurance etc.	£8.41	£12.76	£7.55	£4.35	£5.21	-£0.86
L-N: Public Admin, Education & Health	£7.30	£9.89	£6.25	£2.59	£3.64	-£1.05
O-Q: Other Services	£11.75	£9.75	-	-£2.00	-	-

(Table 10.4 contd. next page)

Table 10.4 contd.

Q1 2012						
Sector (SIC2007)	Median hourly pay			Pay gaps		
	Single, never married	Married/co-habiting	Separated, divorced or widowed	Married/co-habiting - Single, never married	Married/co-habiting - Separated, divorced or widowed	Separated, divorced or widowed – Single, never married
A-B: Agriculture & Fishing	£5.91	£7.20	-	£1.29	-	-
C,E: Energy & Water	-	-	£7.80	-	-	-
D: Manufacturing	£6.58	£10.93	£5.75	£4.35	£5.18	-£0.83
F: Construction	£7.38	£10.38	£13.81	£3.00	-£3.43	£6.43
G-H: Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants	£6.19	£8.00	£8.55	£1.81	-£0.55	£2.36
I: Transport & Communication	£11.72	£10.13	-	-£1.59	-	-
J-K: Banking, Finance & Insurance etc.	£7.49	£9.58	£8.24	£2.09	£1.34	£0.75
L-N: Public Admin, Education & Health	£8.23	£12.16	£11.22	£3.93	£0.94	£2.99
O-Q: Other Services	£7.29	£11.43	-	£4.14	-	-

Occupation group

This section explores the distribution and proportion of each marital status group across occupation groups, and their relative pay in each group. Table 10.5 shows that:

- In Q1 2006 the occupation with the highest distribution of those who are single and have never married and those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership was 'Skilled Trades Occupations'. Those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed were distributed most highly in 'Administrative and Secretarial' occupations.
- In Q1 2012 the single and have never married group were more often employed in 'Elementary Occupations' whilst those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership were more often employed in 'Professional Occupations'. Those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed were more often employed in 'Personal Service Occupations' in Q1 2012.
- The difference in distributions over time for those who are single and have never married and those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership can be accounted for by a decrease in 'Skilled Trades Occupations' in Q1 2012 for both groups (5.8 and 4.0 percentage points, respectively). This decrease was competing against an increase in 'Elementary Occupations' for those who are single and have never married (4.3 percentage points) and an increase in 'Professional Occupations' for those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership (9.0 percentage points).
- At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 all occupation groups but two ('Sales and Customer Service Occupations' and 'Elementary Occupations') had a higher proportion of those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership than any of the other marital status groups.
- The proportion of those who are single and have never married increased between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 in 'Process, Plant and Machine Operatives' occupations by the same amount that the proportion of those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership decreased (10.3 percentage points).
- The proportion of those who are single and have never married decreased between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 in 'Administrative and Secretarial' occupations by nearly the same amount that the proportion of those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership increased (6.7 and 6.0 percentage points, respectively).
- There was nearly the same percentage point difference, although in a different direction, between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 for those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership in 'Professional occupations' (an increase of 6.3 percentage points) and 'Personal Service Occupations' (a decrease of 6.5 percentage points).
- Those who were single and have never married were over-represented (i.e. over 32.6%¹²¹) at Q1 2012 in the lower level occupation groups.

¹²¹ At Q1 2012, 32.6% of those in employment were single and have never married.

Table 10.5: Occupation group by marital status (Source: LFS, 2006 and 2012)

Occupation (SOC10)	Q1 2006						Q1 2012					
	Single, never married		Married/co-habiting		Separated, divorced or widowed		Single, never married		Married/co-habiting		Separated, divorced or widowed	
	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist. % ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist. % ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist. % ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist. % ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist. % ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist. % ²
Managers and Senior Officials	19.8	5.6	70.5	11.8	9.7	12.3	19.6	5.3	70.4	10.3	10.0	10.2
Professional occupations	26.9	9.6	67.8	14.3	5.3	8.4	21.6	12.5	74.1	23.3	4.4	9.6
Associate Professional and Technical	25.7	9.0	67.0	13.9	7.3	11.6	21.0	6.9	70.1	12.5	8.9	11.1
Administrative and Secretarial	36.3	14.1	54.1	12.4	9.6	16.7	29.6	11.9	60.1	13.1	10.3	15.6
Skilled Trades Occupations	40.4	21.5	55.1	17.3	4.5	10.8	36.5	15.7	56.7	13.3	6.8	11.2
Personal Service Occupations	30.9	6.6	58.3	7.4	10.8	10.4	32.7	9.4	51.8	8.1	15.6	17.0
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	54.9	13.3	36.7	5.2	8.4	9.1	54.6	13.6	38.0	5.2	7.4	7.0
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	27.3	7.2	66.3	10.3	6.4	7.6	37.6	7.6	56.0	6.1	6.4	4.9
Elementary Occupations	45.4	12.9	44.3	7.4	10.3	13.2	48.1	17.2	42.0	8.1	9.9	13.4

¹ Row: proportion within occupation group of marital status (e.g. In Q1 2006 67.8% of professional occupations were married/co-habiting)

² Column: distribution of marital status across occupation group (e.g. In Q1 2006 14.3% of married/co-habiting persons were in professional occupations)

The median gross hourly pay for each marital status group in each occupation group, and the between groups pay gaps, are displayed in Table 10.6 for Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. The sub-sample numbers in some cells of Table 10.6 can be very small or non-existent in the LFS, making estimation unreliable and resulting in several empty cells (for sample sizes see Appendix 5 Table A5.5).

In Q1 2006, the top three highest paid occupation groups for the single and never married group were: 1. 'Professional Occupations'; 2. 'Managers and Senior Officials'; and 3. 'Process, Plant and Machine Operatives'. In 2012 the top two occupations were the same, but the third was replaced with 'Associate Professional and Technical'. Median hourly pay increased between 2006 and 2012 for the single and never married in most occupation groups, although not in 'Professional Occupations', where it decreased by £2.72 per hour, or in 'Process, Plant and Machine Operatives', where it decreased by £2.50 per hour, and was overtaken as the third highest paid category.

For those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership, the top three highest paid sectors in both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 were the same but with a different rank order for second and third place. Therefore, whilst the top three highest paid industry sectors at Q1 2006 were: 1. 'Professional Occupations'; 2. 'Managers and Senior Officials'; and 3. 'Associate Professional and Technical', at Q1 2012 they were 1. 'Professional Occupations'; 2. 'Associate Professional and Technical'; and 3. 'Managers and Senior Officials'. Increases in the median hourly wage were seen in most groups, although a fall was seen among 'Managers and Senior Officials' of £0.86 per hour, and among 'Sales and Customer Service Occupations' of £2.79 per hour.

The top three highest paid sectors in Q1 2006 for those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed were: 1. 'Process, Plant and Machine Operatives'; 2. 'Managers and Senior Officials'; and 3. 'Professional Occupations'. For Q1 2012, there is insufficient data to estimate a median hourly wage for the 'Professional Occupations'. The top three occupation groups for which there is data were: 1. 'Managers and Senior Officials'; 2. 'Associate Professional and Technical'; and 3. 'Administrative and Secretarial'. An increase in median hourly pay between 2006 and 2012 of £2.76 in the 'Administrative and Secretarial' group, and a decrease of £7.38 in the 'Process, Plant and Machine Operatives' group, explains why the former has overtaken the latter.

In Q1 2006 the largest pay gap was between those who were separated, divorced or widowed, and those who were married or co-habiting, in the 'Process, Plant and Machine Operatives' group; a difference in median hourly wage of £8.38 in favour of those who are separated, divorced or widowed. In Q1 2012, the largest pay gap was between those who were separated, divorced or widowed, and those who were single and never married, in the 'Managers and Senior Officials' group; a gap of £7.40 per hour in favour of those who are separated, divorced or widowed.

Table 10.6: Median gross hourly pay in each occupation group and pay gaps by marital status (source: LFS, 2006 and 2012)

Q1 2006						
Occupation (SOC10)	Median hourly pay			Pay gaps		
	Single, never married	Married/co-habiting	Separated, divorced or widowed	Married/co-habiting - Single, never married	Married/co-habiting - Separated, divorced or widowed	Separated, divorced or widowed – Single, never married
Managers and Senior Officials	£9.76	£13.19	£14.54	£3.43	-£1.35	£4.78
Professional occupations	£15.08	£15.00	£14.44	-£0.08	£0.56	-£0.64
Associate Professional and Technical	£8.65	£11.00	£9.82	£2.35	£1.18	£1.17
Administrative and Secretarial	£7.70	£8.39	£7.34	£0.69	£1.05	-£0.36
Skilled Trades Occupations	£7.00	£7.13	£8.00	£0.13	-£0.87	£1.00
Personal Service Occupations	£5.33	£8.00	£5.17	£2.67	£2.83	-£0.16
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	£5.60	£9.63	£6.64	£4.03	£2.99	£1.04
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	£9.17	£6.80	£15.18	-£2.37	-£8.38	£6.01
Elementary Occupations	£5.12	£6.25	£6.25	£1.13	£0.00	£1.13

(Table 10.6 contd. next page)

Table 10.6 contd)

Q1 2012

Occupation (SOC10)	Median hourly pay			Pay gaps		
	Single, never married	Married/co-habiting	Separated, divorced or widowed	Married/co-habiting - Single, never married	Married/co-habiting - Separated, divorced or widowed	Separated, divorced or widowed – Single, never married
Managers and Senior Officials	£11.05	£12.33	£18.45	£1.28	−£6.12	£7.40
Professional occupations	£12.36	£17.11	-	£4.75	-	-
Associate Professional and Technical	£10.13	£12.49	£13.42	£2.36	−£0.93	£3.29
Administrative and Secretarial	£7.78	£9.74	£10.10	£1.96	−£0.36	£2.32
Skilled Trades Occupations	£6.64	£8.70	£7.62	£2.06	£1.08	£0.98
Personal Service Occupations	£6.38	£9.73	£8.67	£3.35	£1.06	£2.29
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	£6.91	£6.84	£9.85	−£0.07	−£3.01	£2.94
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	£6.67	£8.42	£7.80	£1.75	£0.62	£1.13
Elementary Occupations	£6.08	£7.50	£6.00	£1.42	£1.50	−£0.08

Those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership had the highest proportion of self-employed workers – 13.6% in Q1 2006 and 12.4% in Q1 2012 – while those who are single and have never married had the lowest rates of self-employment, at 6.3% in Q1 2006 and 5.1% in Q1 2012. Self-employment amongst those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed was 8.3% in Q1 2006, and fell by 1.4 percentage points to 6.9% in Q1 2012.

Qualifications

Figure 10.10a shows the prevalence of degree holding among the marital status groups over the period of interest. Among those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership, there was a notable increase over the period, from 18.3% in Q1 2006 to 25.1% in Q1 2012. Although with less of a convincing upward trend degree holding in the single and have never married group increased from 13.3% in Q1 2006 to 13.8% in Q1 2012, and in the those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed group from 7.0% in Q1 2006 to 10.2% in Q1 2012.

Figure 10.10a: Percentage holding a degree by marital status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

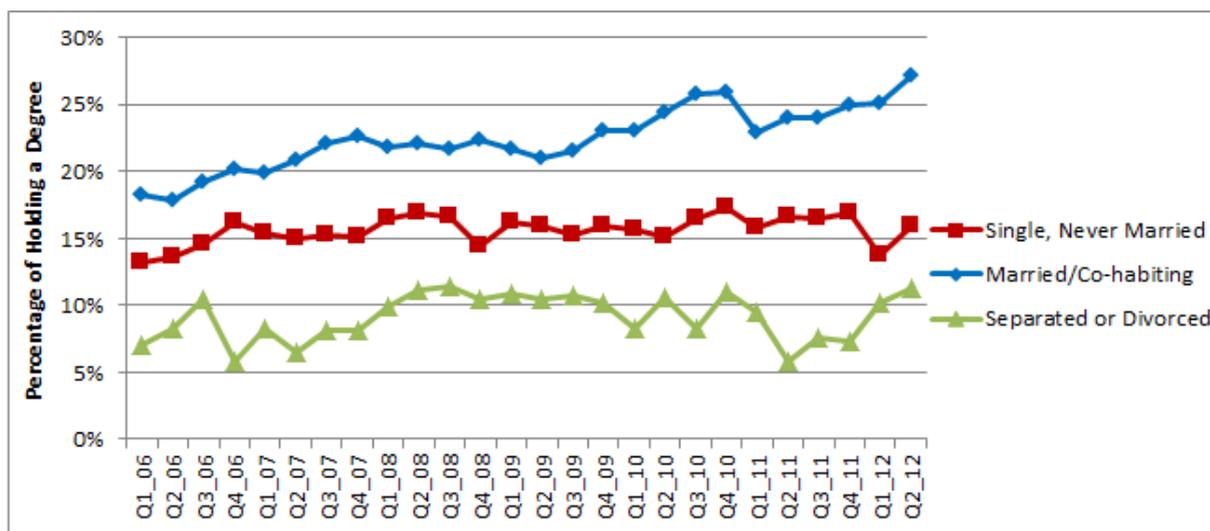
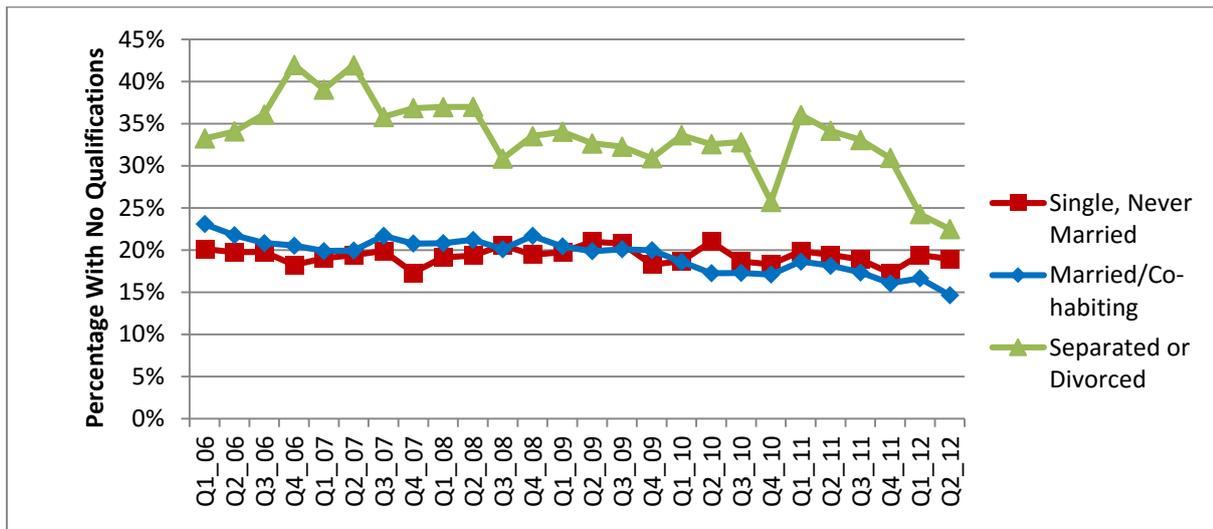


Figure 10.10b shows that the proportion of those holding no qualifications declined considerably over the period of interest for those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed group, from 33.2% in Q1 2006 to 24.3% in Q1 2012. This decline was also evident, to a lesser extent, amongst the married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership group, for whom the proportion declined from 23.1% to 16.7% over the same period. For the single and have never married group, the proportion holding no qualification stayed fairly steady over the period; it was 20.1% in Q1 2006 and 19.4% in Q1 2012.

Figure 10.10b: Percentage with no qualifications by marital status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Transport

In 2012, those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership had the longest travel time to work at 23 minutes, whilst those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed had the shortest travel time to work at 20 minutes. The main mode of transport to work by all marital groups was car, van or motorcycle, and the average use of this mode of transport was highest for those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership (89.2%) and lowest for those who are single and have never married (77.4%). Walking or cycling was reported to be highest amongst those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed (14.2%) and lowest for those married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership (7.4%). The least used mode of transport was public transport. However, use of public transport was highest amongst those who are single and have never married (9.2%) and lowest for those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership (3.4%).

Attitudes

The surveys cited elsewhere in this report in relation to the attitudes of people in Northern Ireland towards particular groups do not ask about attitudes towards people of a particular marital status. The only potentially relevant finding here, from the Equality Awareness Survey 2011 (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012), is the difference in reported unfair treatment between single and have never married and married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership respondents. It was found that single and have never married people were twice as likely to report unfair treatment in their use of bars, shops and restaurants as those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership. However, there were no notable differences by marital status in the reporting of unfair treatment at work, or in relation to educational opportunities. This suggests that this is not an important characteristic that affects an individual's experience in the labour market.

Policy responses to marital status inequalities in employment

There have been no specific policy responses to marital status inequalities in employment on the part of the Northern Ireland Assembly. If being married is associated with higher employment rates, then the Government could encourage marriage; indeed, the UK Government has recently introduced plans for a tax allowance for married couples in which one spouse earns less than the income tax threshold¹²². However, it is not clear that this particular policy would encourage employment, as it is only of use where one spouse either does not work or works so little that they earn below the income tax threshold.

However, even if the policy were to financially incentivise marriage for dual-earning couples, and even if this small incentive had any impact on marriage rates, it is unlikely that this would have an impact on employment rates. Although associations were found in this report between marital status and employment and pay, they are unlikely to be directly causal. The association is likely to be driven by the differences in employment outcomes between different age groups; young people are more likely to be single and never have married and more likely to be unemployed. Thus, policies aimed at tackling unemployment among young people (see Chapter 4) may well reduce the disparities between those who are single and have never married and those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership. There is also potentially an element of selection into marriage; it may be that those who are in a more stable economic position that are likely to get married, rather than marriage conferring positive economic outcomes (Crawford et al., 2011).

¹²² <http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/uk-politics-24309634>

Summary

The key points from the analyses against the equality ground of marital status are summarised below. A total of nine inequalities were identified. These inequalities are presented in the table below; followed by a summary of the Chapter's findings.

In the analysis, the dependency status of three groups was examined: those married or co-habiting or in a civil partnership; those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed; and those who were single and have never married.

Marital Status Inequalities in Employment:	Persistent or Emergent?
➤ Those who were single and have never married and those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed had lower employment rates than those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership.	Persistent
➤ Those aged 18-24 years old who were single and have never married had lower employment rates than those of the same age in the other marital status groups.	Persistent
➤ Those who were single and have never married had higher ILO unemployment rates than the other marital status groups: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ ILO unemployment for this group increased steeply over the period of interest, particularly from Q2 2008. 	Persistent
➤ ILO unemployment rates for those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed were higher than for those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ ILO unemployment rates for those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed were consistently higher after Q2 2008; ○ ILO unemployment rates increased for those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed over the period of interest. 	Persistent
➤ Those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed had higher long-term unemployment rates between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 than those who were single and have never married.	Persistent
➤ Those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed had higher long-term unemployment rates at Q1 2012 than those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership:	Emergent

Marital Status Inequalities in Employment:	Persistent or Emergent?
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ This was due to an increase in long-term unemployment for those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed and a decrease in long-term unemployment for those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership. 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Those who were single and have never married and those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed had much higher economic inactivity rates than those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership. 	Persistent
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Those who were single and have never married and those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed had lower wage rates than those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership. 	Persistent
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ A degree of vertical segregation in the labour market, in respect to occupation group employed in, was observed: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ In Q1 2012, those who were single and have never married were over-represented in all of the lower level occupation groups. 	Emergent

Economic status

- Those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership enjoyed higher employment rates than those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed and those who were single and have never married, between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.
 - Age had an effect on employment. At Q1 2012, 75.5% of those in the single and have never married group who were 25-49 years old, were in employment. This was compared to an employment rate for 18-24 year olds of 47.4% for those who were single and have never married; no such effects were found for the other groups.
- The single and have never married group were consistently more likely to be ILO unemployed between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012:
 - ILO unemployment rates rose between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 among all three groups, although much more steeply among the single and have never married group.
- Those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed experienced much higher rates of long-term unemployment at Q1 2006 than those who were single and have never married.
 - At Q1 2012 those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed had the highest long-term unemployment rates of all the marital status groups.
- Those who were single and have never married and those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed were more likely to be economically inactive:

- The inactivity rate in Q1 2012 among 18-24 year olds in the single and have never married group was much higher than the rate for 25-49 year olds in the same group.
- The main reasons given for economic inactivity were broadly similar at Q1 2006 and Q1 2012:
 - Being a student for those who were single and have never married;
 - Caring responsibilities for those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership;
 - Disability for those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed.

Wage rates

- Between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership group consistently had the highest median gross weekly and hourly pay amongst full-time and part-time workers:
 - Median gross weekly pay for married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership full-time workers was £369 in Q1 2006 and £450 in Q1 2012; for part-time workers pay was £138 and £185, respectively.
 - Median gross hourly pay for married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership full-time workers was £9.10 in Q1 2006 and £11.00 in Q1 2012; for part-time workers pay was £9.25 and £8.91, respectively.

Industry sector and occupation employment

- On average, between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 those who were single and have never married were more likely than the other two marital groups to be employed in the private sector.
 - An average of 77.9% of those who were single and have never married, compared to 66.9% of those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership and 65.8% who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed were in private sector employment.
- At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, the single and have never married group was most highly distributed within 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' (26.0% and 28.5%, respectively), followed closely by the 'Public Administration, Education and Health' (24.4% and 24.2%, respectively) industry sector.
 - Those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership were most highly distributed in the 'Public Administration, Education and Health' industry sector (39.6% and 40.1%, respectively); the same was found for those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed (35.5% and 39.2%, respectively).
- Some evidence of vertical segregation in the labour market in respect to the industry sector employed was observed at Q1 2012:
 - At Q1 2006 the occupation group that those who were single and have never married and those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership were more likely to be employed in was 'Skilled Trades Occupations' (21.5% and 17.3%, respectively).

- This changed to ‘Elementary Occupations’ (17.2%) at Q1 2012 for those who were single and have never married and ‘Professional Occupations’ (23.3%) for those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership.
- Those who were previously married but were now separated, divorced or widowed were distributed most highly in ‘Administrative and Secretarial’ occupations at Q1 2006 (16.7%) and ‘Personal Service Occupations’ at Q1 2012 (17.0%).
- At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 all occupation groups but two had a higher proportion of those who are married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership than any of the other marital status groups.
- Those who were single and have never married were over-represented (i.e. over 32.6%¹²³) at Q1 2012 in the lower level occupation groups.
- Those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership had the highest proportion of self-employed workers.
 - Those who were single and have never married have the lowest rates of self-employment.

Attitudes

- The Equality Awareness Survey 2011 (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012), reported unfair treatment between marital status groups. It found that:
 - Single and have never married people were twice as likely to report unfair treatment in their use of bars, shops and restaurants than those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership.

Barriers and Enablers

- The UK Government introduced plans for a tax allowance for married couples in which one spouse earns less than the income tax threshold¹²⁴. However, as this policy is only of use where one spouse either does not work or earns very little, it is not clear that it would encourage employment.
 - Although associations were found between marital status and employment and pay, they are unlikely to be directly causal.
 - The association is likely to be driven by the differences in employment outcomes between different age groups; young people are more likely to be single and have never married and are more likely to be unemployed. Thus, policies aimed at tackling unemployment among young people may reduce the disparities between different marital statuses.
 - It may also be that those who are in a more stable economic position are more likely to get married, rather than marriage conferring positive economic outcomes (Crawford et al., 2011).

¹²³ At Q1 2012, 32.6% of those in employment were single and have never married.

¹²⁴ <http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/uk-politics-24309634>

Chapter 11. Dependency Status Inequalities in Employment

Introduction

This report provides a picture of patterns and trends in employment and non-employment in Northern Ireland, establishing any key inequalities (data permitting) that are evident in Northern Ireland for each equality ground as identified by Section 75 of the Northern Ireland Act 1998. This chapter provides evidence of inequalities drawn from quantitative data (primarily from analyses of the Labour Force Survey) which is supplemented by stakeholder interviews and literature review for this equality ground. It is important to stress that no one individual belongs solely to one equality group, and that everyone has multiple identities. Consideration was given to multiple identities where quantitative data was available and allowed for meaningful analyses. Limited analyses across a range of multiple inequalities are reported in Chapter 12. The distillation of the most substantive / overarching key employment inequalities (across all equality grounds) in Northern Ireland are summarised in Chapter 13.

This chapter reviews how dependency status of the working age population in Northern Ireland fares in relation to the labour market (note that only those with responsibility for dependent children are considered due to lack of data on the dependency and caring of others such as adults who are ill or elderly). Firstly the literature around this topic is considered, focusing on Northern Ireland where literature is available, but also considering sources from the UK and wider international context. This is followed by a summary of labour market trends, over the period 2006 to 2012, across a number of variables; economic activity; hours worked; median gross weekly and hourly wages; and occupation sector and type. In this analysis the effect of the economic downturn, which became evident in 2008, is noted. Consideration is also paid to potential barriers to accessing the labour market; access to transport; qualifications held; and attitudes towards those with dependent responsibilities in the labour market. The chapter then considers the responses of policymakers and various stakeholders to dependency status inequalities in employment.

Data utilised in the analysis is drawn from the Quarterly Labour Force Survey (LFS), from 2006 to 2012, the main advantage of which is that data is available on a quarterly basis making it more suitable for trend analysis.

The general picture reported is of persistent lower employment rates for lone parents compared to the other two dependency groups; lone parents also continued to have the highest rates of part-time working and the highest economic inactivity rates. The lowest level of ILO unemployment was for the married or co-habiting with dependent children dependency status group. It also appears that lone parents had low representation in higher level occupation groups especially for 'Managers and Senior Officials'. Difficulties in securing childcare emerged as an ongoing barrier to workforce participation, in particular a lack of mainstream care.

Literature review on dependency status inequalities in employment

This section discusses the employment inequalities experienced by those with responsibilities for the care of dependents, relative to those without such responsibilities. It will focus mainly on the inequalities faced by parents, particularly mothers, but will also briefly consider the situation of those caring for a disabled or elderly person.

The 2011 Census for Northern Ireland found that 33.8% of households contained at least one dependent child¹²⁵ (NISRA, 2012a). Child care responsibilities, to the extent that parents cannot or do not want to transfer these outside of the household, may have a negative impact on the ability to hold paid employment. The presence of childcare responsibilities, and a lack of good quality, accessible childcare, is recognised as a key barrier to gender equality in the labour market (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2008). However, in 2012 the vast majority of fathers and a majority of mothers were in employment; in fact, a female with dependent children was more likely to be economically active (76.7% in 2012) than a female without (only 65.1% in 2012) (NISRA, 2012c). In the UK as a whole, these economic activity rates were almost identical, at 73.3% and 71.5% (Ibid.). It is noted that the economic activity rates of females will be different to that of males or childless females. For example, females with dependent children may be more likely to work part-time and as such the overall levels of economic activity of females with dependent children may mask an employment inequality – that of lower full-time employment.

The impact of dependent children on employment can be seen as a gender inequality to a great extent, as it is mostly females that make these adjustments; 93.9% of males with dependent children are economically active, compared with 76.7% of females with dependent children (NISRA, 2012c). As with females, males with dependent children are considerably more likely than those without to be economically active; the economic activity rate of males without dependent children is 75.9%. Fathers are increasingly becoming entitled to the same flexibility and leave provisions as mothers, but it is reported that fathers generally do not make use of these rights, at least in the short term (Fagan, 2011).

Finally, it is important to note that the number of children is an important determinant of labour market participation. Although initially higher, the economic activity rate of mothers with three or more children (60.5%) falls below that of females with no dependent children (65.1%) (Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency, 2012c).

Constraints on combining work and care

A key problem facing parents in combining work and care is the availability and cost of childcare. In Northern Ireland childcare is very expensive, costing an average of 45% of one parent's net salary per child (Dennison et al., 2011). This high cost is likely to act as a huge barrier to work, especially if any income gain is subsequently spent on childcare costs. Parents in Northern Ireland report the lack of childcare as a

¹²⁵ This is defined as a child who is aged 0 to 15, or who is aged 16-18 years old and still in full-time education.

barrier to entering work, training and education; a 2003 survey found that two thirds of mothers not in work cited childcare as a barrier (Gray and Bruegel, 2003). However, it should be noted that the same survey also identified a number of other barriers to employment, such as a lack of qualifications (in almost a third of cases), and a lack of jobs, particularly part-time (in around a fifth of cases).

Certain types of families in Northern Ireland may find it particularly difficult to obtain suitable childcare to facilitate employment. For example, the recent reduction in the childcare element of the Child Tax Credit has made childcare even less affordable for low income families (Save the Children and Daycare Trust, 2011). Lone parents in particular are likely to perceive the cost of childcare as simply unaffordable (Gray and Carragher, 2008). In addition, families with disabled children may struggle to find the specialised care that their child requires due to their disability (McColgan et al., 2006; Dillenburger and McKerr, 2011; Lowndes and Smith 2011).

At the cross-national European level, there is an association between good (i.e. readily available, high quality, affordable) childcare, and maternal employment rates (Plantenga and Remery, 2009). However, this link is not straightforward, as it is not just childcare that facilitates maternal employment; it is an interaction of state support, other sources of support (e.g. from employers or other family members) and a supportive and egalitarian culture around maternal employment (Abendroth et al., 2012). It is also important to note that good childcare is not simply a question of government generosity (as state support to families can facilitate traditional as well as egalitarian family arrangements) if it incentivises home care by mothers rather than supports a model in which both parents work and care (Abendroth et al., 2012).

Qualitative research with parents in Great Britain has suggested that mothers' return to work is based on a complex set of economic and normative factors (La Valle et al. 2008, Collard and Atkinson 2009, Lyonette et al., 2011). These factors are the need to work and the opportunities to do so, including finding the right childcare and working hours that fit around childcare responsibilities. However, it is also rooted in understandings of what constitutes 'good' mothering and the extent to which work is essential, or even permissible, within this understanding. From an equality point of view, it is important to understand what support is (or is not, but should be) available, and the extent to which aspirations come into conflict with stereotypes.

There are also practical as well as financial issues in finding suitable childcare. Brewer and Paull (2008), in their analysis of British survey datasets, found that even when children start school (thus providing several hours per day where childcare does not need to be sourced) parents may still struggle to arrange employment that fits around these hours, and to source childcare for before and/or after school. Bashir et al. (2011), in qualitative research with English families, also found that parents emphasise the need to find a job that fits around childcare hours, as well as the childcare itself. Being unable to achieve a suitable fit between employment and childcare may mean having to give up an employment opportunity entirely (McColgan et al., 2006; Rutter and Evans, 2012). Access to suitable transport is also a key element for parents in balancing work and childcare arrangements, particularly in rural areas, where the distances between home, work and childcare locations are the greatest (McQuaid et al. 2013). The use of public transport to get to work has been found to be associated with the longest commutes (McQuaid and Chen,

2012), and having to rely on public transport to get to work may therefore limit the feasible commuting distance, and by extension the number of job opportunities and childcare options available.

Mothers may also face direct discrimination in the workplace. Whilst, the 2011 Equality Awareness Survey (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012) did not find that those with dependents were significantly more likely to report unfair treatment at work than those without, it did not consider the experiences of males and females with dependents separately. The Equal Opportunities Commission carried out an investigation in Great Britain specifically into the treatment of pregnant females at work, based on consultation with 1000 employers and 1000 women (Equal Opportunities Commission, 2005). The results suggested that around half of pregnant females experience some form of disadvantage at work due to pregnancy and maternity leave, and 30,000 are forced out of their jobs each year. However, only 3% of these will attempt to seek redress for this at an Employment Tribunal; less than 5% even seek advice. This suggests that, despite the fact that anti-discrimination laws have been in place for several decades, attitudes towards mothers' abilities at work are yet to catch up. This has been confirmed in 'laboratory' studies (mostly conducted in the USA), in which participants are presented with identical hypothetical CVs that are randomly assigned a gender and childbearing status. Participants in such studies perceive mothers as less competent and committed than males and childless females, even in the presence of qualifications and experience that demonstrate competence, and doubts are cast on mothers' interpersonal skills (Cuddy et al., 2004; Fuegen et al., 2004; Correll et al., 2007; Benard and Correll, 2010).

The impacts of time out of employment and part-time work

Employment interruptions after childbearing can have an impact on mothers' future labour force trajectories (i.e. they can cast a shadow over future employment) as evidenced by an analysis of large-scale British survey data¹²⁶ which showed that mothers' labour market interruptions affected their subsequent employment outcomes (Malo and Munoz-Bullon, 2008; Gangl and Zeifle, 2009; Fouarge et al., 2010). This phenomenon is often explained in terms of 'lost investment' where time out of the labour market represents a lost opportunity to accumulate the skills and experience that lead to greater rewards (Becker, 1964; Mincer and Polachek, 1974).

Another factor depressing mothers' wages is their propensity to return to work part-time in order to reconcile work and caring responsibilities. Part-time workers are less well compensated per hour than full-time workers; as noted already in Chapter 3, it is part-time work that appears to be driving the gender pay gap in Northern Ireland. Research with UK data has suggested that the pay gap between part-time and full-time jobs can be largely explained by occupational segregation where jobs are located in different segments of the labour market (Manning and Petrongolo, 2008; Mumford and Smith, 2008). Part-time jobs are also more likely to be 'task-based' – i.e. consist of tasks that can be completed in a limited number of

¹²⁶ There is a considerable body of literature on the labour market penalties experienced by mothers, although we are not aware of any studies that pertain specifically to Northern Ireland; the literature reviewed here is from the UK and beyond. It should be noted that attitudes may be slowly changing, so some results from older literature may be slightly dated.

hours – rather than ‘demand-based’ – i.e. requiring on-going attention and variable time commitment, with the latter tending to be more senior and better compensated (Grant et al., 2005).

Employers may also have negative perceptions about part-time workers that act as barriers to promotion or equal pay with their full-time counterparts. Part-time workers may be perceived as having less of a stake in the organisation than someone who is there full-time and that their preference for part-time work reflects a prioritising of family or other external responsibilities over their job (Grant et al. 2005). Furthermore, those who work part-time may be perceived as earning ‘pin money’ to buy extras or luxuries, rather than supporting a family, and therefore do not need to be paid as much (Grant et al., 2005; Grimshaw and Rubery, 2007). A UK Government Survey of 1506 employers found that 35% of employers who would allow a mother to return to work part-time would not allow her to retain her existing job or seniority (Woodland et al., 2003).

Another problem with returning to work in the UK context is the lack of support available to mothers who are not returning to previous employment after a period of maternity leave, but seeking a new job. The career breaks that mothers take make them less likely to qualify for back to work schemes linked to Jobseeker’s Allowance; their interrupted employment history means their National Insurance contributions may be insufficient to qualify; and if they have a partner in employment they are unlikely to qualify on an income-assessed basis (Woodroffe, 2009). A lack of good quality part-time work, a lack of support for labour market re-entry, and the related loss of confidence may mean that females end up downshifting into a part-time position for which they are over-qualified (Grant et al., 2005; McIntosh et al., 2012). This is not a rare phenomenon, and nearly half of female part-time workers report being over-qualified for their jobs, compared with just over a third of full-time female workers (Schuller, 2011). At best, part-time work can act as a bridge from maternity leave back into full-time employment, albeit on a lower trajectory than would otherwise have been the case; at worst, mothers can become trapped in a pattern of alternation between non-employment and poor quality part-time work (Connolly and Gregory, 2009).

The extent to which mothers take time out of employment varies among mothers. UK mothers are more likely to be employed by the time their child is aged three years old if they were employed during pregnancy and resumed employment within nine months; there is also an association with the mother’s occupational class and partner’s working hours (Fagan and Norman, 2012). A survey of almost 2000 women in Great Britain found that previous employment is crucial in being able to return to work and factors such as: long tenure before childbearing; occupational maternity pay (i.e. in excess of statutory); and returning to an employer with family-friendly arrangements are all positively associated with the return to work (La Valle et al., 2008). These things are themselves correlated with higher status jobs. Being in full-time, as opposed to part-time employment is even more polarised towards the top end of the labour market; UK mothers in this situation are disproportionately the main family earner, and in higher status occupations (Kanji, 2010).

The impact of taking career breaks can be felt throughout a mother’s career and even beyond. Literature from the UK suggests that older men and women may have different attitudes and behaviours with regard to employment (McIntosh et al., 2012; Maxwell and Ogden, 2006; Berger, 2006; McVittie et al., 2008; Crompton and Lyonette, 2006; Hakim, 2002). Females may for example, retire when their husbands do, and

their career interruptions may mean that they have smaller pensions, while men may be more able to exercise choice in terms of later life employment because they are in financially better positions (Vickerstaff et al., 2008; Smeaton et al., 2009). This review has focussed on mothers but similar factors may affect some fathers, for instance with later ages for having a first child it may become more likely that a female partner may return to work full-time and the male work part-time, although numbers are likely to be small.

Unpaid carers

Children are potentially not the only dependents for whom a working-age adult might have responsibility; they might be providing unpaid care for an elderly or disabled person. In the Census 2011 for Northern Ireland, 213,980 people in Northern Ireland (11.8% of the population) said that they supported a family member, friend or neighbour with a health problem, disability or problem related to old age (NISRA, 2012a). The proportion providing unpaid care rises to 23% of those in the 50-54 years old age bracket (NISRA, 2013c). A total of 26.3% of those reporting care responsibilities reported providing 50 or more hours of unpaid care per week (Ibid.). Such a burden is likely to be a barrier to paid employment; indeed, the Census 2011 for Northern Ireland data showed that the employment rate among those providing over 20 hours of unpaid care per week is 46.5% for males and 40.8% for females, compared with 61.1% and 53.6% respectively for those who provide no unpaid care (Ibid.).¹²⁷

Research carried out in England suggested that providing just 10 hours of care per week is the key threshold at which carers are at risk of leaving employment (NIHR School for Social Care Research, 2011). The limited research that exists on informal care as a barrier to work suggests that it does have a negative impact on both participation and pay, although it is not clear in which direction causality operates; economic participation may reduce willingness to care as well as care responsibilities affecting ability to work (Heitmueller and Inglis, 2007; Carmichael et al., 2008; 2010). Many of the issues outlined above regarding childcare may be relevant to carers of disabled or elderly dependents; they face the same trade-offs between the conflicting demands of work and care, and the employment penalties that may result, in a context of limited institutional support for meeting those care needs. As with childcare, the strength of the correlation depends on institutional and cultural context, and is lower in the more supportive Nordic countries (Kotsadam, 2011).

¹²⁷ Note that these figures are for the population aged 16 to 74, rather than the working age population used in the analysis in this chapter, of 16-64 for men and 16-59 for women.

Recent trends in dependency status inequalities in employment in Northern Ireland

As previously noted there is a lack of data on the dependency and caring of others such as adults who are ill or elderly. Due to this lack of data the present chapter considers only those with responsibility for dependent children compared to those with no dependent children. Since parents of dependent children can be married or lone parents three dependency status groups were utilised: 1. those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children; 2. lone parents; and 3. those with no dependent children.

Economic status

A summary of economic status by dependency status at Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 is presented in Table 11.1. From the data presented it is shown that the highest in employment rate at Q1 2006, was for those who had no dependent children (72.6%); at Q1 2012 the highest in employment rate was for those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children (74.3%). At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 lone parents maintained the lowest in employment rate (45.4% and 41.7%, respectively). At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 those with no dependent children made up over half of the in employment economic status category (51.3% and 51.5%, respectively). Those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children made up over forty percent of this economic status category (43.5% and 42.9%, respectively).

Lone parents experienced the highest ILO unemployment and economic inactivity rates at both Q1 2006 (5.0% and 49.6%, respectively) and Q1 2012 (7.2% and 51.1%, respectively). At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 those with no dependent children made up over half of those who were ILO unemployed (58.9% and 63.7%). Lone parents made up the smallest proportion of those who were ILO unemployed at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 (12.8% and 12.9%, respectively).

Whilst the proportions of those classified as economically inactive at Q1 2006 were similar for those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children (43.2%) and those with no dependent children (42.5%) the proportion of those with no dependent children in the economically inactive economic status in Q1 2012 increased (to 45.1%). Of note here is that whilst the economic inactivity of those with no dependent children and lone parents` increased that of those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children decreased.

Table 11.1: Economic status and dependency status (Source: LFS Q1 2006 and Q1 2012)

Dependency status	Q1 2006				Q1 2012			
	In employment	ILO unemployed	Economically Inactive	Total	In employment	ILO unemployed	Economically Inactive	Total
Number								
Married or co-habiting with dependent children	321352	9364	125676	456392	330791	13468	100974	445233
Lone parent with dependent children	38070	4221	41626	83917	43263	7436	52941	103640
No dependent children	379147	19448	123841	522436	397304	36610	126665	560579
Total	738569	33033	291143	1062745	771358	57514	280580	1109452
Percentage of Population Category								
Married or co-habiting with dependent children	70.4%	2.1%	27.5%	100.0%	74.3%	3.0%	22.7%	100.0%
Lone parent with dependent children	45.4%	5.0%	49.6%	100.0%	41.7%	7.2%	51.1%	100.0%
No dependent children	72.6%	3.7%	23.7%	100.0%	70.9%	6.5%	22.6%	100.0%
Total	69.5%	3.1%	27.4%	100.0%	69.5%	5.2%	25.3%	100.0%
Percentage of Economic Status Category								
Married or co-habiting with dependent children	43.5%	28.3%	43.2%	42.9%	42.9%	23.4%	36.0%	40.1%
Lone parent with dependent children	5.2%	12.8%	14.3%	7.9%	5.6%	12.9%	18.9%	9.3%
No dependent children	51.3%	58.9%	42.5%	49.2%	51.5%	63.7%	45.1%	50.5%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

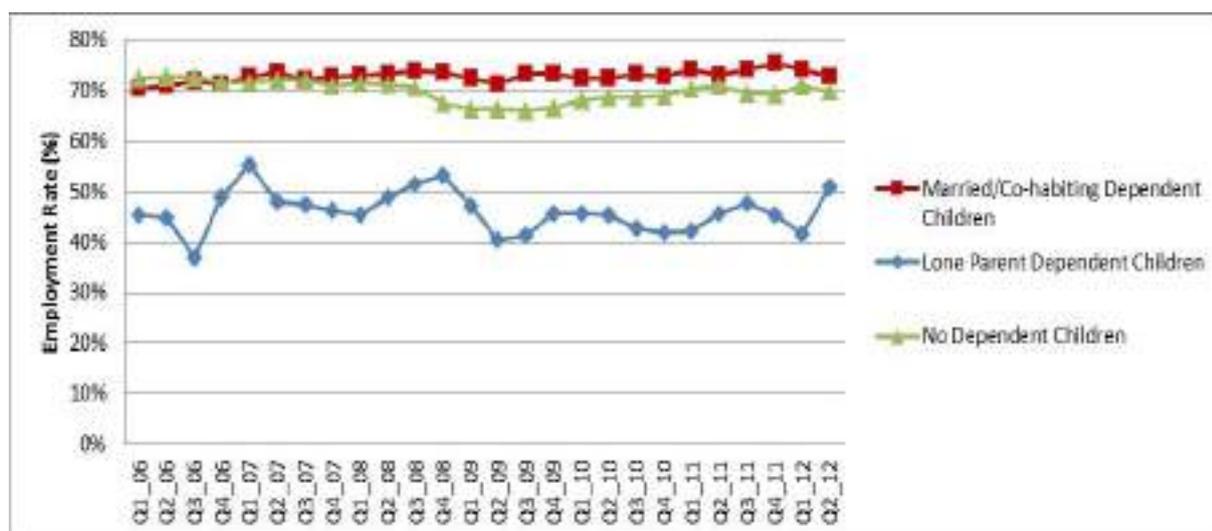
Figures 11.1 to 11.4 display trends in the economic status of the three dependency status groups within the Northern Ireland working age population (16-64 years old for males and 16-59 years old for females).

Employment

Employment rates for the working age population as a whole remained constant at 69.5% at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.

Figure 11.1 shows that over the period Q1 2006 to Q1 2012, those married or co-habiting with dependent children and those with no dependent children exhibited similar employment rates. For those married or co-habiting with dependent children, employment rose slightly over the period, from 70.4% in Q1 2006 to 74.3% in Q1 2012. For those without dependent children, employment was at 72.6% in Q1 2006, and dipped slightly during 2008 and 2009, before some recovery, but to a slightly lower level than in 2006 of 70.9% in Q1 2012. Lone parents were considerably less likely than the other two groups to be in employment; the rate appeared to fluctuate over the period, and was 3.7 percentage points lower in Q1 2012 (at 41.7%) than in Q1 2006 (45.4%).

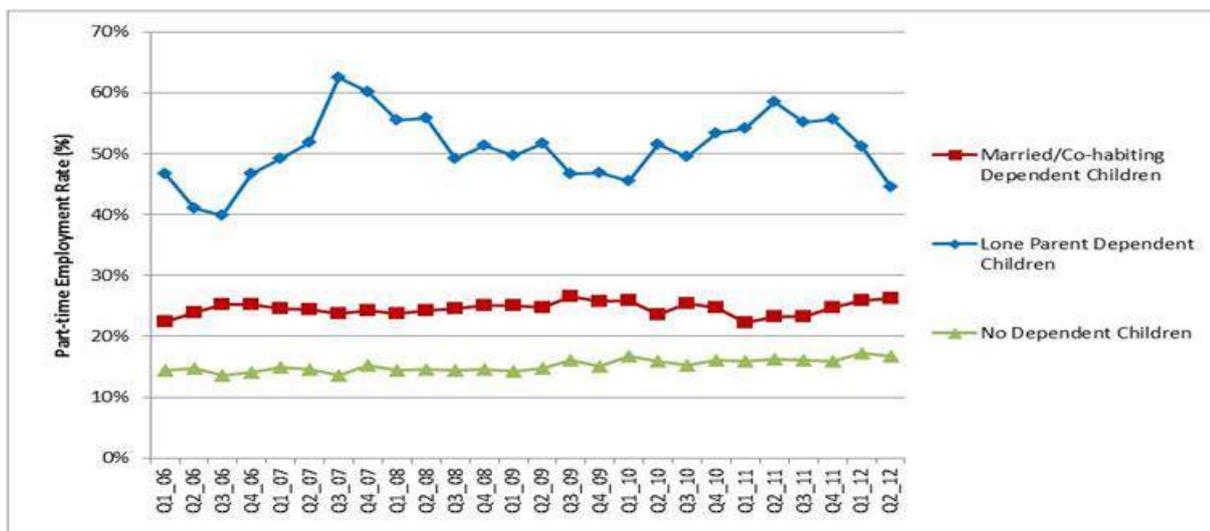
Figure 11.1: Employment rate by dependency status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Part-time employment

Part-time employment rates were highest and fluctuated more for lone parents than the other groups (although this may be influenced by the size of the sample). The mean part-time employment rate over the period for lone parents was 51.1%, compared to 24.1% and 15.2% for married or co-habiting parents with dependent children and those with no dependent children, respectively. It is perhaps unsurprising that workers with no dependent children were the least likely to work part-time. The trends in part-time employment for the three groups are displayed in Figure 11.2.

Figure 11.2 Part-time employment rates by dependency status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



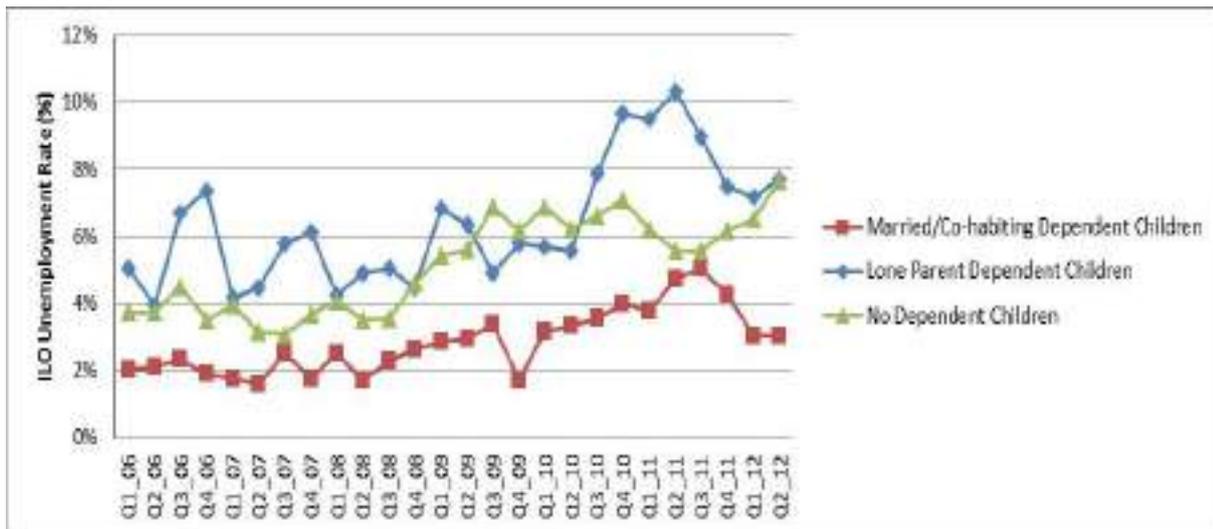
Unemployment

ILO unemployment among the working age population as a whole increased over the period of interest, from 3.1% in Q1 2006 to 5.2% in Q1 2012.

Figure 11.3 shows that this rise was evident among those with and without dependent children, most notably after Q3 2008, but to varying extents. Over the period of interest lone parents exhibited the highest level of ILO unemployment of the three groups except for from Q3 2009 to Q2 2010 when those with no dependent children had the highest level of ILO unemployment. The ILO unemployment rate for lone parents rose by 2.2 percentage points from 5.0% in Q1 2006 to 7.2% in Q1 2012. An even larger increase of 2.8 percentage points was observed for those with no dependent children, whose ILO unemployment rose from 3.7% in Q1 2006 to 6.5% in Q1 2012. Over the same period, those who were married or cohabiting with dependent children exhibited the lowest ILO unemployment rates and a more moderate increase over time; ILO unemployment in this group was 2.1% in Q1 2006, and although a marked increase was observed over the period, especially after 2008, the rate then fell after Q3 2011, to 3.0% in Q1 2012.

The relatively lower ILO unemployment rates of those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children may be a reflection of the older average age of this group, as younger age groups are more likely to be ILO unemployed (see Chapter 4). The sharp increase in ILO unemployment among lone parents during 2010 may also have been linked to changes to the benefits system around this time, which reduced the age of the youngest child at which a lone parent must transfer from Income Support (i.e. economic inactivity) to Jobseeker’s Allowance (i.e. unemployment), thus increasing the proportion of lone parents in the latter category.

Figure 11.3: ILO unemployment rate by dependency status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

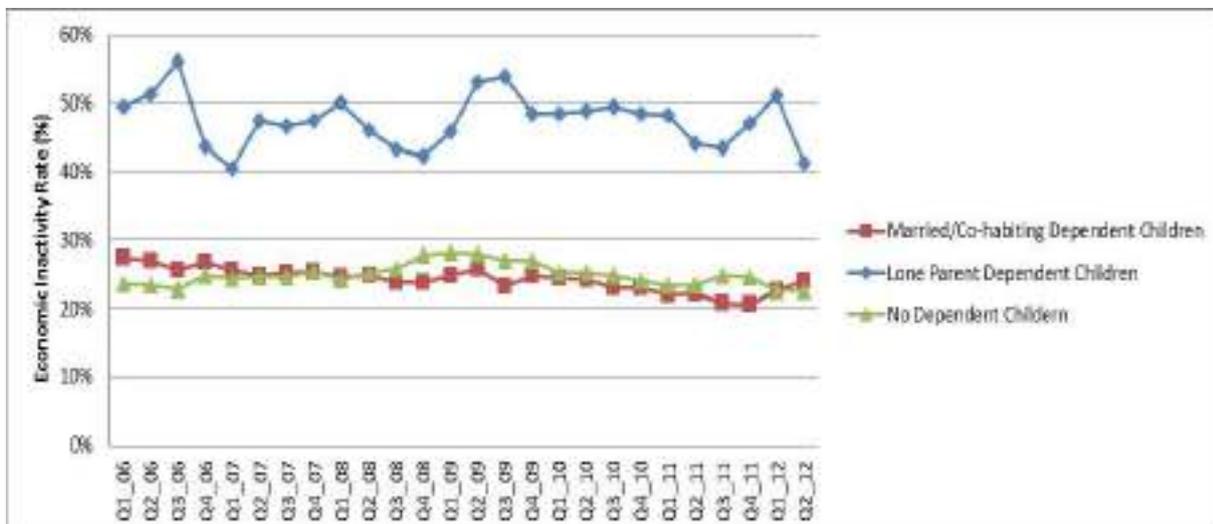


Economic Inactivity

Economic inactivity rates among the working age population as a whole fell slightly over the period of interest, from 27.4% in Q1 2006 to 25.3% in Q1 2012.

Figure 11.4 shows the trends in economic inactivity for the three groups over the period Q1 2006 to Q1 2012. The economic inactivity of lone parents is clearly much higher than that of the other groups; around double the rate. However, it is difficult to identify any particular trend over the period; the rate of economic inactivity among lone parents was 49.6% in Q1 2006, and fluctuated considerably over the next six years ending up at 51.1% in Q1 2012, only a 1.5 percentage point difference compared to the start of the period. For those without dependent children, economic inactivity was 23.7% in Q1 2006, and 22.6% in Q1 2012, a decrease of 1.1 percentage points. Those married or co-habiting with dependent children saw a fall of 4.8 percentage points over the period, from 27.5% in Q1 2006 to 22.7% in Q1 2012.

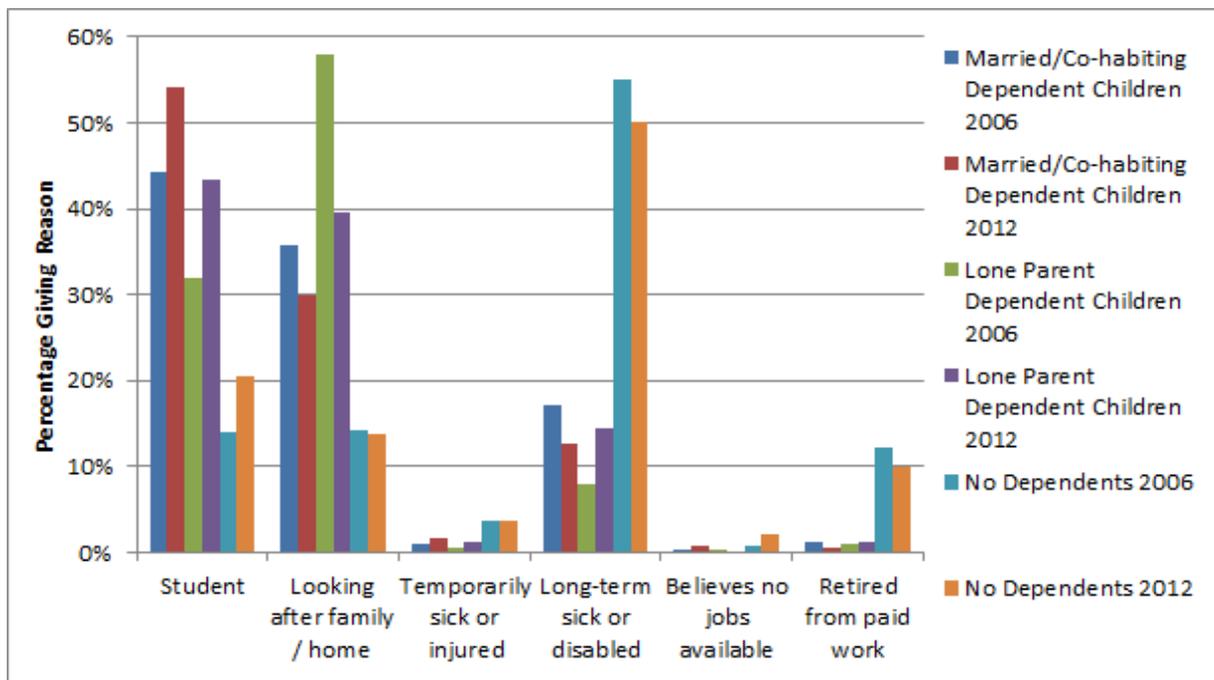
Figure 11.4: Economic inactivity rate by dependency status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Main reasons for not looking for work

The main reasons for not looking for work given by those classified as economically inactive in the LFS are displayed in Figure 11.5. For lone parents the main reason given for not looking for work was caring responsibilities at Q1 2006 and being a student at Q1 2012. For those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children, the most common reason given was studying at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, although around a third also cited caring for family. Among those without dependent children, the most common reason for not looking for work was sickness or disability at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.

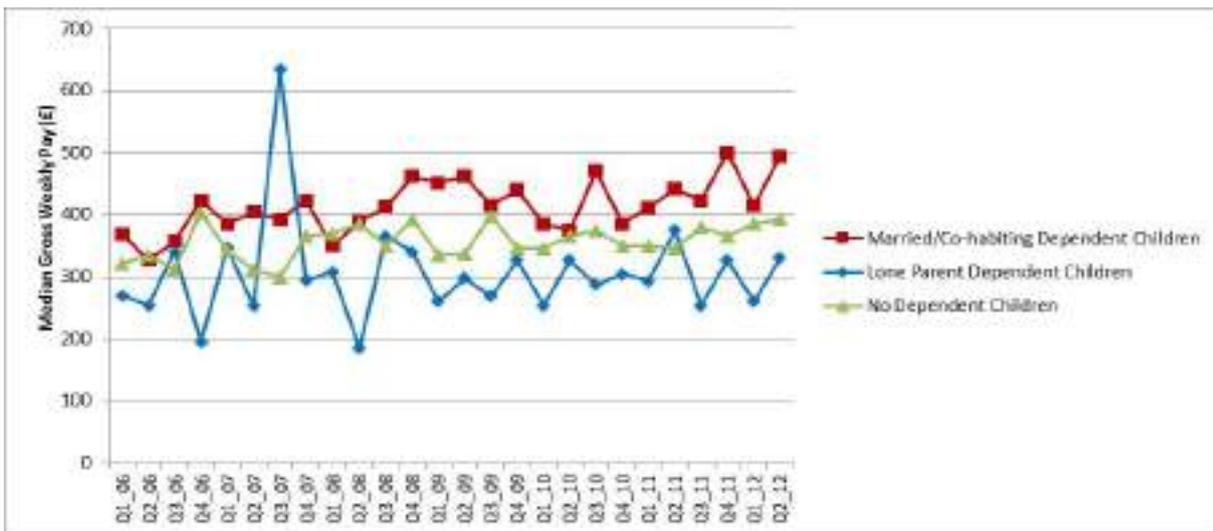
Figure 11.5: Main reason for not looking for work in the last four weeks by dependency status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Median gross weekly pay

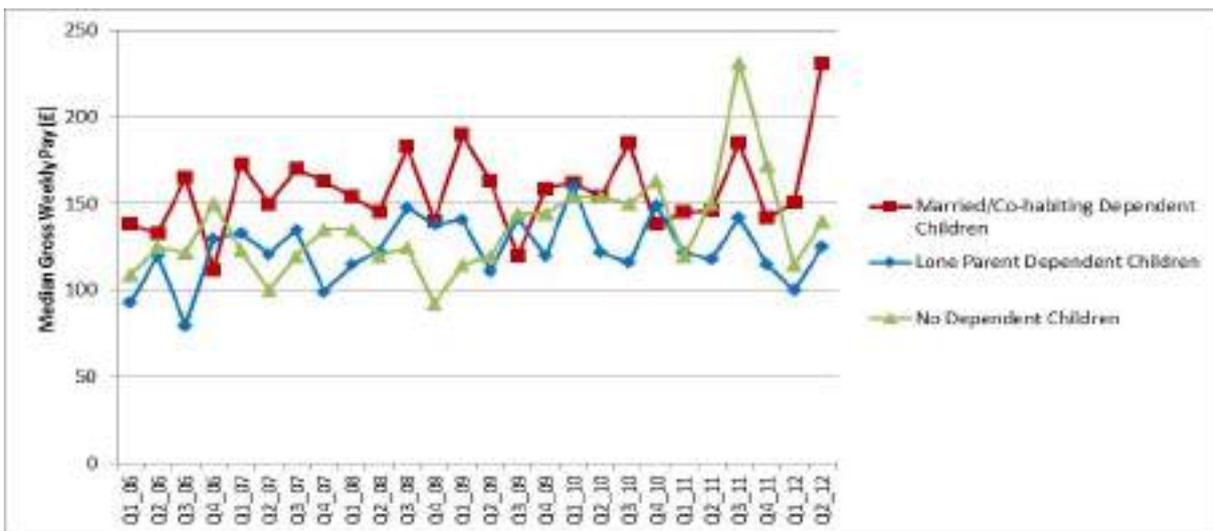
Median gross weekly pay for all full-time workers was £346 in Q1 2006 and £385 in Q1 2012, a nominal increase of £39 (11.3%) per week. Figure 11.6a shows the median gross weekly pay of those married or co-habiting with dependent children, lone parents, and those without dependents. It is clear that lone parents' median gross weekly wages were less than the other groups and that they did not experience the nominal increase that was seen on average for the working age population; median gross weekly pay for lone parents fell by £10 between Q1 2006 (£270) and Q1 2012 (£260). The other two groups saw an increase in their weekly pay over the same period, from £320 to £385 (an increase of £65) for those with no dependent children, and £369 to £415 (an increase of £46) for those married or co-habiting with dependent children.

Figure 11.6a: Median gross weekly pay for full-time workers by dependency status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



For part-time workers, median gross weekly pay for all workers increased by £5 (4.3%), from £115 in Q1 2006 to £120 in Q1 2012. There was less evidence of inequalities by dependency status among part-time workers than there was among full-time workers (Figure 11.6b). Although those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children appeared to have the upper hand in the first half of the period of interest, the second half showed some convergence between the groups. All three groups saw considerable fluctuation over the period, and a slight overall rise between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012; from £138 to £151 (an increase of £13) for those married or co-habiting with dependent children, from £109 to £115 (an increase of £6) for those without dependent children, and from £93 to £100 (an increase of £7) for lone parents.

Figure 11.6b: Median gross weekly pay for part-time workers by dependency status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Hours worked per week including overtime

The median hours worked per week including overtime remained the same at 44 hours per week in both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 for full-time workers, and fell from 23 to 22 hours for part-time workers over the same period.

The median hours worked per week over the period of interest are displayed graphically for the three dependency status groups for full-time workers (Figure 11.7a) and part-time workers (Figure 11.7b). For full-time workers, the median hours worked per week of those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children were similar to those with no dependent children; in many cases they were above those with no dependent children. Those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children worked 45 hours per week in Q1 2006 and 44 hours per week in Q1 2012, while those with no dependent children worked 43 hours per week in Q1 2006 and 44 hours per week in Q1 2012. Lone parents tended to work fewer hours per week, particularly since Q3 2008, after which there was a marked downward trend for this group, although there was some recovery since Q4 2011, and the working hours in Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 were the same at 41 hours per week.

For part-time workers, there were no consistent differences between the groups. In Q1 2006, the median hours worked per week for lone parents and those without dependent children was 25 hours per week, while for those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children, the median hours worked per week was lower at 20 hours per week. During 2008 and 2009, the median hours worked per week of those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children increased, while the working hours of the other two groups decreased, leading to a gap in favour of those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children of 6 hours per week. However, by Q1 2012, it was again lone parents who worked the most hours, at 25 hours per week, those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children worked 23 hours per week and those without dependent children worked 21 hours per week.

Figure 11.7a: Median hours worked per week including overtime for full-time workers by dependency status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

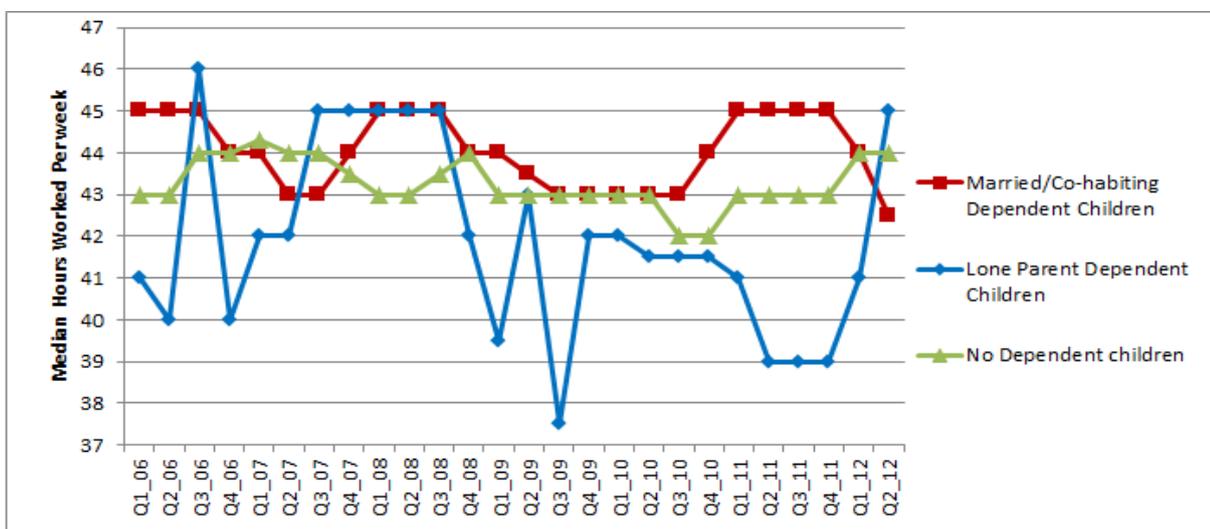
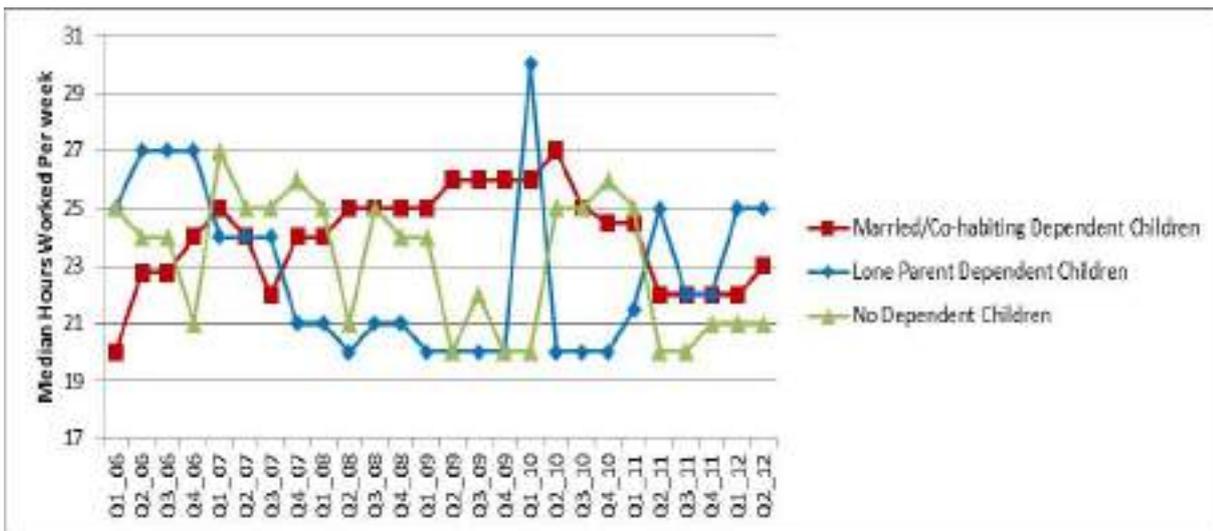


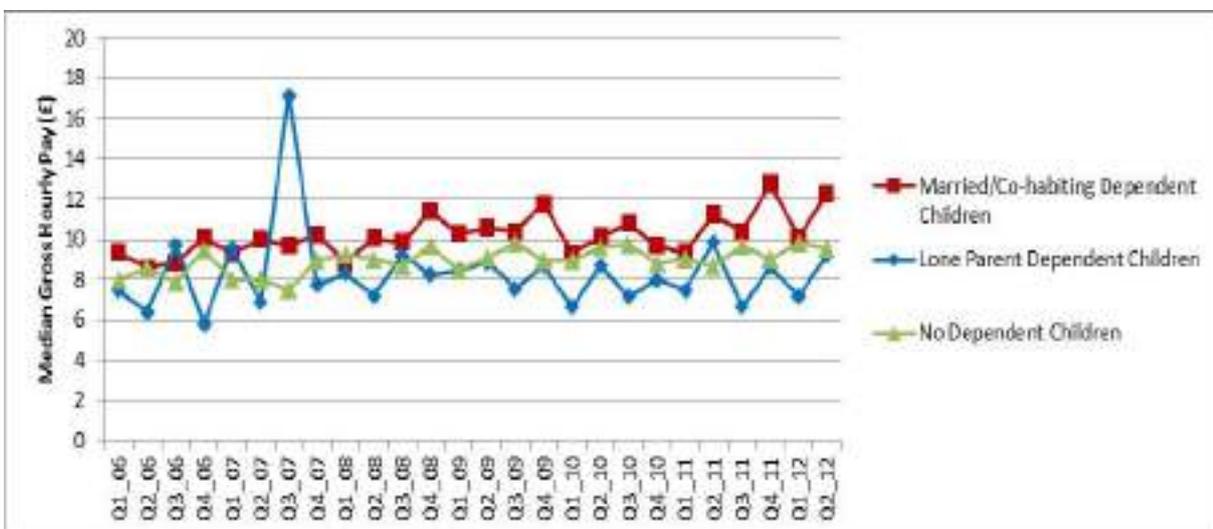
Figure 11.7b: Median hours worked per week including overtime for part-time workers by dependency status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Median gross hourly pay

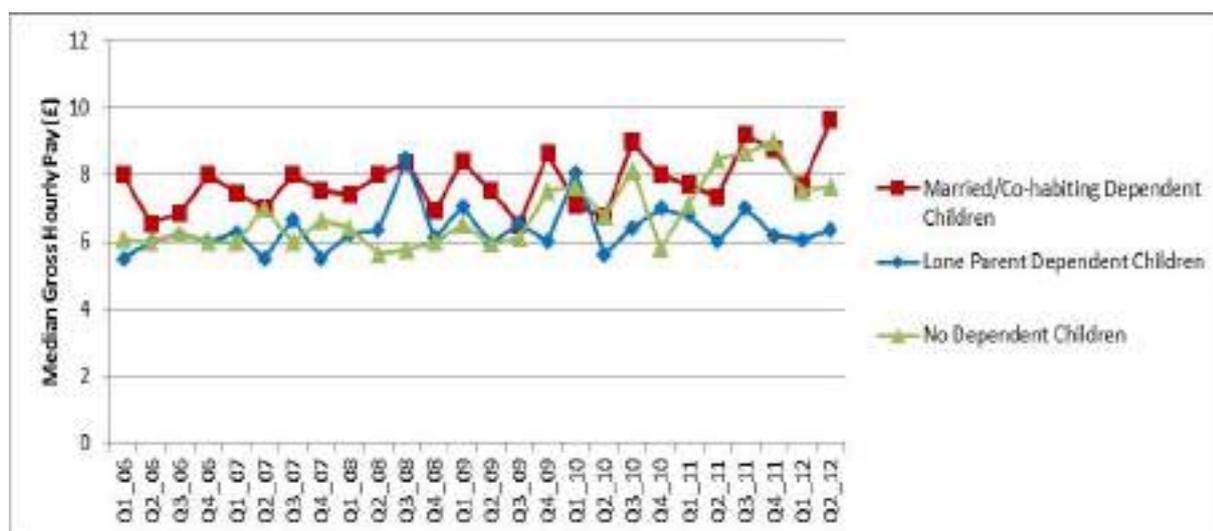
Median gross hourly pay for all full-time workers was £8.33 per hour in Q1 2006 and £9.87 per hour in Q1 2012, a nominal increase of £1.54 per hour over the period. Figure 11.8a shows the median gross hourly pay of full-time workers for the three dependency status groups over the period of interest. Lone parents earned consistently the least over this period, with a gap between lone parents and the other groups of £1.50 to £2.00 per hour, and lone parents did not see any consistent upward trend between 2006 and 2012, while an upward trend was observed for the other two groups. The median gross hourly pay of full-time workers for those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children was £9.35 per hour in Q1 2006, this increased to £10.10 in Q1 2012. It was £8.05 per hour in Q1 2006, and increased to £9.85 in Q1 2012 for those with no dependent children.

Figure 11.8a: Median gross hourly pay for full-time workers by dependency status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



As can be seen from Figure 11.8b, median gross hourly pay for all part-time workers increased by £1.05 (16.9%), from £6.20 in Q1 2006 to £7.25 in Q1 2012. There was less of a consistent gap between lone parents and the other groups for part-time workers, although since Q1 2011 it seemed that a gap emerged. Those without dependent children saw the biggest increase of £1.44 in median gross hourly pay among part-time workers from £6.06 per hour in Q1 2006 to £7.50 per hour in Q1 2012. It also increased for lone parents from £5.50 per hour in Q1 2006 to £6.07 per hour in Q1 2012. However, for those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children, it fell from £8.00 per hour in Q1 2006 to £7.67 in Q1 2012 per hour.

Figure 11.8b: Median gross hourly pay for part-time workers by dependency status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



The information presented here on hours worked pay rates, and the gaps between the different dependency status groups, is summarised in Table 11.2. For full-time workers, all pay differentials in both periods were in favour of married or co-habiting parents, with differentials wider in Q1 2012 than in Q1 2006. Lone parents and those without dependent children worked on average fewer hours than those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children in Q1 2006, but this was reversed in Q1 2012.

For part-time workers, there was a considerable difference in median hours worked by those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children, who compared to the other two groups, worked on average 5 hours per week fewer in Q1 2006. However, by Q1 2012 the gap was smaller, and in the case of those without dependent children had reversed. Pay differentials were similar in the two time periods for part-time workers, and as with full-time workers they were always in favour of those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children.

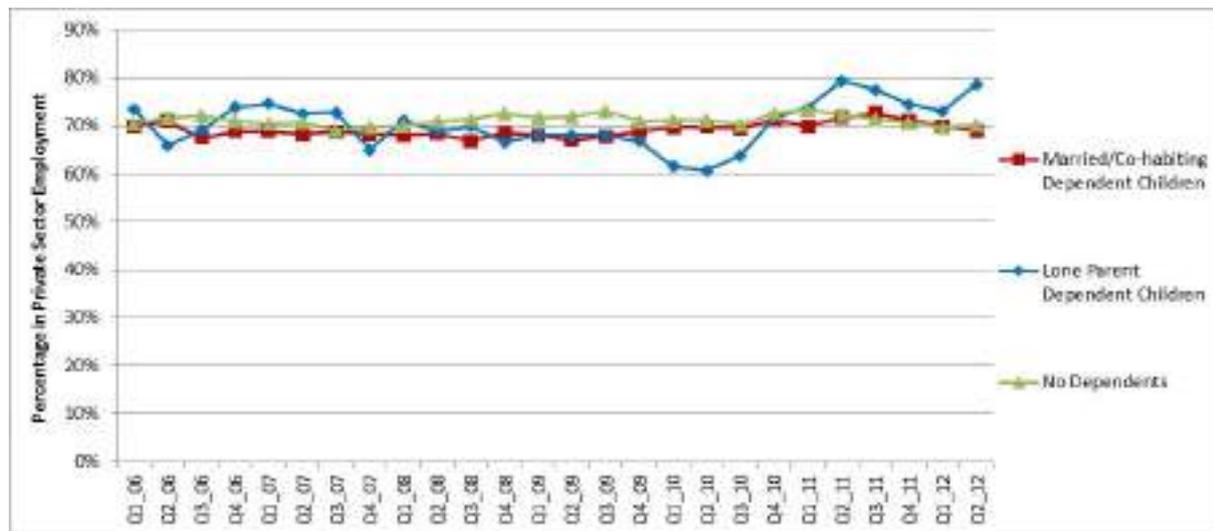
Table 11.2: Hours worked and median gross hourly pay of full-time and part-time workers and pay gaps by dependency status (Source: LFS 2006 & 2012)

Q1 2006						
	Full-time			Part-time		
	Married or co-habiting with dependent children	Lone parents	No dependent children	Married or co-habiting with dependent children	Lone parents	No dependent children
Hours worked	45	42	43	20	25	25
Median gross hourly pay	£9.40	£7.50	£8.10	£8.00	£5.50	£6.10
Gap in hours worked ¹	-	3.0	2.0	-	-5.0	-5.0
Gap in median gross hourly pay ¹	-	£1.90	£1.30	-	£2.50	£1.90
Q1 2012						
	Full-time			Part-time		
	Married or co-habiting with dependent children	Lone parents	No dependent children	Married or co-habiting with dependent children	Lone parents	No dependent children
Hours worked	42.5	45	44	23	25	21
Median gross hourly pay	£12.30	£9.20	£9.20	£9.60	£6.30	£7.70
Gap in hours worked ¹	-	-2.5	-1.5	-	-2.0	2.0
Gap in median gross hourly pay ¹	-	£3.10	£3.10	-	£3.30	£1.90

Private sector employment

For all groups, the average rate of participation in private sector work was similar at around 70% (69.2% for those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children, 70.7% for lone parents and 71.1% for those with no dependent children). Trends in private sector employment are displayed in Figure 11.9.

Figure 11.9: Percentage in private sector employment by dependency status (source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Industry sector

This section investigates the distribution of employment of each of the three groups across industry sectors, examining the proportion employed and the median hourly gross pay in each sector for each group.

The distribution by dependency status group across industry sectors is given in Table 11.3. In Q1 2006 workers who were married or co-habiting with dependent children and those with no dependent children most often worked in the 'Public Administration, Education and Health' industry sector. This held true for Q1 2012 with the addition that lone parents were also now more likely to be employed in this industry sector (they were slightly more likely to be employed in 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants in Q1 2006). For all groups, at each time point, the least likely industry sector of employment was the 'Energy and Water' sector; lone parents were not represented at all in either this sector or in 'Agriculture and Fishing'.

In both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 workers who were married or co-habiting with dependent children or those who had no dependent children were well represented in each industry sector. Those who were lone parents were not well represented in most of the industry sectors. In particular, at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 lone parents were not represented in either 'Agriculture and Fishing' or 'Energy and Water'; they

were also under-represented (i.e. under 5.2%¹²⁸ at Q1 2006 and under 5.6%¹²⁹ at Q1 2012) in four industry sectors at Q1 2006 and four industry sectors at Q1 2012.

At Q1 2006 those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children were over-represented (i.e. over 43.5%¹³⁰) in all but four industry sectors: 'Manufacturing'; 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants'; 'Transport and Communication'; and 'Banking, Finance and Insurance etc'. At Q1 2012 this over-representation (i.e. over 42.9%¹³¹) had increased to all but two industry sectors: 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants'; and 'Banking, Finance and Insurance etc'.

¹²⁸ At Q1 2006, 5.2% of those in employment were lone parents.

¹²⁹ At Q1 2012, 5.6% of those in employment were lone parents.

¹³⁰ At Q1 2006, 43.5% of those in employment were married or co-habiting with dependent children.

¹³¹ At Q1 2012, 42.95 of those in employment were married or co-habiting with dependent children.

Table 11.3: Industry sector by dependency status (Source: LFS, 2006 and 2012)

Sector (SIC2007)	Q1 2006						Q1 2012					
	Married or co-habiting with dependent children		Lone parents		No dependent children		Married or co-habiting with dependent children		Lone parents		No dependent children	
	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist.% ²
A-B: Agriculture & Fishing	56.1	4.3	0.0	0.0	43.9	2.9	70.7	4.7	0.0	0.0	29.3	1.6
C,E: Energy & Water	47.6	0.9	0.0	0.0	52.4	0.9	51.2	1.4	0.0	0.0	48.8	1.1
D: Manufacturing	40.3	13.0	2.1	5.8	57.6	15.8	49.2	14.4	2.7	6.1	48.1	11.7
F: Construction	46.2	10.7	4.4	8.8	49.4	9.7	45.0	9.5	1.2	1.9	53.8	9.4
G-H: Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants	40.2	18.0	9.8	37.6	50.0	19.0	33.9	15.4	9.1	31.4	57.1	21.5
I: Transport & Communication	33.8	3.7	2.3	2.1	63.9	5.9	48.1	5.6	3.8	3.4	48.1	4.7
J-K: Banking, Finance & Insurance etc.	43.1	9.5	3.6	6.9	53.3	10.0	35.4	8.9	5.3	10.3	59.3	12.4
L-N: Public Admin, Education & Health	46.3	36.2	5.1	34.7	48.5	32.2	43.3	35.3	6.8	42.4	49.9	33.8
O-Q: Other Services	44.0	3.8	5.5	4.1	50.5	3.7	47.7	4.9	6.0	4.6	46.3	3.9

¹ Row: proportion within each sector of dependency status group (E.g. In Q1 2006 4.4% of Construction workers are lone parents)

² Column: distribution of dependency status group across sectors (e.g. In Q1 2006 8.8% of lone parents work in Construction)

The median gross hourly pay in each sector by dependency status, and the pay gaps between the groups in each sector, are presented in Table 11.4 for the periods Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. Note that small sample sizes mean that there are some blank cells in this table and the estimates of median gross hourly pay and pay gaps should be considered approximate – see Appendix 5 Table A5.6 for sample sizes.

In Q1 2006, the top three highest paid sectors for those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children were: 1. 'Energy & Water'; 2. 'Other Services'; and 3. 'Agriculture and Fishing'. For lone parents the top three highest paid sectors were: 1. 'Manufacturing'; 2. 'Banking, Finance and Insurance'; and 3. 'Transport and Communication'. The top three highest paid sectors for workers without dependents were: 1. 'Banking, Finance and Insurance' and 2. 'Agriculture and Fishing' and 'Other Services'. In Q1 2012 the top three highest paid sectors had changed for all three groups. The top three highest paid sectors for those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children were: 1. 'Banking, Finance and Insurance'; 2. 'Public Administration, Education and Health'; and 3. 'Transport and Communication', this represented a complete change in the top three highest paid sectors (although no figures were available on 'Energy and Water'). The top three highest paid sectors in Q1 2012 for lone parents had changed to: 1. 'Banking, Finance and Insurance'; 2. 'Public Administration, Education and Health'; and 3. 'Other Services'. Lastly, the top three highest paid sectors for those without dependent children were: 1. 'Construction'; 2. 'Public Administration, Education and Health'; and 3. 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants'.

At both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 those who were married or co-habiting with dependents were more highly paid in each sector data was available for compared to lone parents, with the exception of 'Manufacturing' in Q1 2006. Those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children were also more highly paid in most sectors, at each time point, compared to those without dependent children, with the exception of 'Banking, Finance and Insurance' in Q1 2006 and 'Construction' and 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' in Q1 2012. Those without dependent children were more highly paid than lone parents in each sector data was available for, except for 'Manufacturing' in Q1 2006 and 'Banking, Finance and Insurance' in Q1 2012.

Table 11.4: Median gross hourly pay in each industry by dependency status and pay gaps between groups (Source: LFS, 2006 & 2012)

Q1 2006						
Sector (SIC2007)	Median gross hourly pay			Pay gap		
	Married or co-habiting with dependent children	Lone parents	No dependent children	Married or co-habiting with dependent children / lone parents	Married or co-habiting with dependent children / no dependent children	No dependent children / lone parents
A-B: Agriculture & Fishing	£15.58	-	£9.75	-	£5.83	-
C,E: Energy & Water	£20.14	-	£7.00	-	£13.14	-
D: Manufacturing	£8.38	£9.92	£7.65	-£1.54	£0.73	-£2.27
F: Construction	£9.11	-	£9.07	-	£0.04	-
G-H: Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants	£6.53	£5.75	£6.13	£0.78	£0.40	£0.38
I: Transport & Communication	£14.42	£7.47	£8.39	£6.95	£6.03	£0.92
J-K: Banking, Finance & Insurance etc.	£8.41	£7.55	£11.50	£0.86	-£3.09	£3.95
L-N: Public Admin, Education & Health	£9.35	£6.20	£8.11	£3.15	£1.24	£1.91
O-Q: Other Services	£16.62	-	£9.75	-	£6.87	-

(Table 11.4 contd. next page)

Table 11.4 contd.

Q1 2012						
Sector (SIC2007)	Median gross hourly pay			Pay gap		
	Married or co-habiting with dependent children	Lone parents	No dependent children	Married or co-habiting with dependent children / lone parents	Married or co-habiting with dependent children / no dependent children	No dependent children / lone parents
A-B: Agriculture & Fishing	£7.20	-	£5.91	-	£1.29	-
C,E: Energy & Water	-	-	£7.80	-	-	-
D: Manufacturing	£7.86	£5.79	£7.69	£2.07	£0.17	£1.90
F: Construction	£7.38	-	£15.59	-	-£8.21	-
G-H: Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants	£7.25	£6.00	£8.56	£1.25	-£1.31	£2.56
I: Transport & Communication	£10.92	-	£6.93	-	£3.99	-
J-K: Banking, Finance & Insurance etc.	£14.51	£8.24	£8.00	£6.27	£6.51	-£0.24
L-N: Public Admin, Education & Health	£12.00	£7.22	£10.32	£4.78	£1.68	£3.10
O-Q: Other Services	£9.50	£6.67	£7.50	£2.83	£2.00	£0.83

Occupation Group

This section explores the distribution and proportion of each dependency status group across occupation groups, and their relative pay. Table 11.5 shows that:

- In Q1 2006 the occupation with the highest distribution of married or co-habiting with dependent children workers and workers with no dependent children was 'Skilled Trades Occupations' (18.5% and 19.1%, respectively); lone parents were most highly distributed in 'Sales and Customer Service Occupations' (21.1%).
- In Q1 2012 married or co-habiting with dependent children workers and workers with no dependent children were again most highly distributed in the same occupation group: 'Professional Occupations' (22.4% and 16.6%, respectively). Lone parents were most highly distributed in 'Administrative and Secretarial' occupations (23.9%).
- The highest proportion of workers in each occupation group was either those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children or those with no dependent children. In Q1 2006 the proportion of lone parents employed in any given occupation ranged from 1.5% to 12.9%; in Q1 2012 it ranged from 0.3% to 14.0%.
- In Q1 2006 the proportion of workers who were married or co-habiting with dependent children was higher than workers who had no dependent children in three occupation groups: 'Professional Occupations' (by 1.3 percentage points), 'Personal Service Occupations' (by 8.4 percentage points) and 'Sales and Customer Service Occupations' (by 2.5 percentage points). Most notable is that 'Elementary Occupations' and 'Administrative and Secretarial' occupations had a much greater proportion of workers without dependent children than those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children (differences of 24.6 and 18.8 percentage points, respectively).
- For lone parents their proportionate representation in four occupation groups increased between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. However, many of the higher level occupation groups showed a decrease over this time period: 'Managers and Senior Officials' (1.9 percentage point decrease); 'Professional Occupations' (0.3 percentage points decrease); and 'Skilled Trades Occupations' (1.7 percentage points decrease).
- In Q1 2006 workers with no dependent children occupied over half of the positions in five of the occupation groups; in Q1 2012 this had increased to seven out of the nine occupation groups.
- Those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children were over-represented (i.e. over 43.5%¹³⁰ at Q1 2006 and over 42.9%¹³¹ at Q1 2012) at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 in the three highest level occupation groups: 'Managers and Senior Officials'; 'Professional Occupations'; and 'Associate Professional and Technical' occupations.
- Those who were lone parents or who had no dependent children were under-represented in the higher level occupations at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 (according to their share of the in employment population); except for those with no dependent children in Q1 2006 who were over-represented in 'Managers and Senior Officials' occupations.

Table 11.5: Occupation group by dependency status (Source: LFS, 2006 and 2012)

Occupation (SOC10)	Q1 2006						Q1 2012					
	Married or co-habiting with dependent children		Lone parents		No dependent children		Married or co-habiting with dependent children		Lone parents		No dependent children	
	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist. % ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist. % ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist. % ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist. % ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist. % ²	Row Prop. % ¹	Column Dist. % ²
Managers and Senior Officials	44.7	9.9	3.4	6.5	51.9	9.8	47.1	9.5	1.5	2.3	51.4	8.6
Professional Occupations	49.3	13.8	2.8	6.7	48.0	11.5	51.5	22.4	2.5	8.2	46.0	16.6
Associate Professional and Technical	46.3	12.7	3.9	9.2	49.9	11.7	45.7	11.3	4.3	8.0	50.1	10.3
Administrative and Secretarial	37.7	11.5	5.8	15.4	56.5	14.7	35.1	10.6	10.4	23.9	54.5	13.7
Skilled Trades Occupations	44.3	18.5	2.0	7.3	53.7	19.1	40.6	13.2	0.3	0.7	59.1	15.9
Personal Service Occupations	48.8	8.2	10.8	15.6	40.4	5.8	42.1	9.1	14.0	23.1	44.0	7.9
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	44.8	8.5	12.9	21.1	42.3	6.8	35.3	6.6	11.8	17.0	52.9	8.3
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	44.9	9.3	1.5	2.8	53.6	9.5	43.4	6.6	2.8	3.3	53.8	6.8
Elementary Occupations	33.7	7.5	8.0	15.4	58.3	11.1	39.7	10.7	6.6	13.5	53.7	12.0

¹ Row: proportion within each occupation group of dependency status group (E.g. In Q1 2006 2.8% of professional occupations are lone parents)

² Column: distribution of dependency status group across occupation groups (E.g. In Q1 2006 6.7% of lone parents are in professional occupations)

Self-employment figures gained from the LFS show that workers who are married or co-habiting with dependent children were consistently more likely to be self-employed (12.7% in Q1 2006 and 12% in Q1 2012). Those who had no dependent children were the second most likely group to be self-employed (9.3% in Q1 2006 and 8.1% in Q1 2012). Lone parents were therefore the least likely to be self-employed at both time points (2.6% in Q1 2006 and 3.5% in Q1 2012). Of interest is that whilst the percentage of those self-employed decreased between the two time points for those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children and those with no dependent children an increase of 0.9 percentage points was experienced by lone parents.

Variation in median gross hourly pay across occupation groups for each dependency group is presented in Table 11.6. For all three groups, the highest median gross hourly pay at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 was found in 'Professional Occupations'. For those married or co-habiting with dependent children and those with no dependent children the second and third highest paid occupations at Q1 2006 were: 'Managers and Senior Officials' and 'Associate Professional and Technical' occupations, respectively. Whilst the picture did not change for those with no dependent children in Q1 2012 it did for those married or co-habiting with dependent children where 'Associate Professional and Technical' moved up into second place, followed by 'Administrative and Secretarial' occupations.

At both time points no pay data was available for lone parents with regard to 'Managers and Senior Officials' occupations. In Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 the second highest paid occupation for lone parents was 'Associate Professional and Technical'. Whilst in Q1 2006 the third highest paid occupation for lone parents was 'Administrative and Secretarial' it changed to 'Personal Service Occupations' in Q1 2012.

In Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children were paid more than those without dependent children, except for in 'Sales and Customer Service Occupations' in Q1 2006 and 'Managers and Senior Officials' and 'Skilled Trades Occupations' in Q1 2012. Those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children were also paid more in each occupation group at both time points compared to lone parents, except for in 'Sales and Customer Service Occupations' at Q1 2006. Those who had no dependents were paid more in each occupation at both time points than lone parents, except for in 'Sales and Customer Service Occupations' in Q1 2006 and 'Personal Service Occupations' in Q1 2012.

Table 11.6: Median gross hourly pay in each occupation by dependency status and pay gaps between groups (Source: LFS, 2006 & 2012)

Q1 2006						
Occupation (SOC10)	Median hourly pay			Pay gaps		
	Married or co-habiting with dependent children	Lone parents	No dependent children	Married or co-habiting with dependent children / lone parents	Married or co-habiting with dependent children / no dependent children	No dependent children / lone parents
Managers and Senior Officials	£11.84	-	£11.39	-	£0.45	-
Professional Occupations	£16.00	£14.44	£15.00	£1.56	£1.00	£0.56
Associate Professional and Technical	£11.00	£7.89	£10.13	£3.11	£0.87	£2.24
Administrative and Secretarial	£8.41	£7.70	£8.05	£0.71	£0.36	£0.35
Skilled Trades Occupations	£7.13	-	£7.00	-	£0.13	-
Personal Service Occupations	£8.00	£5.22	£5.67	£2.78	£2.33	£0.45
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	£6.53	£6.96	£6.64	-£0.43	-£0.11	-£0.32
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	£9.23	-	£7.25	-	£1.98	-
Elementary Occupations	£5.63	£5.50	£5.50	£0.13	£0.13	£0.00

(Table 11.6 contd. next page)

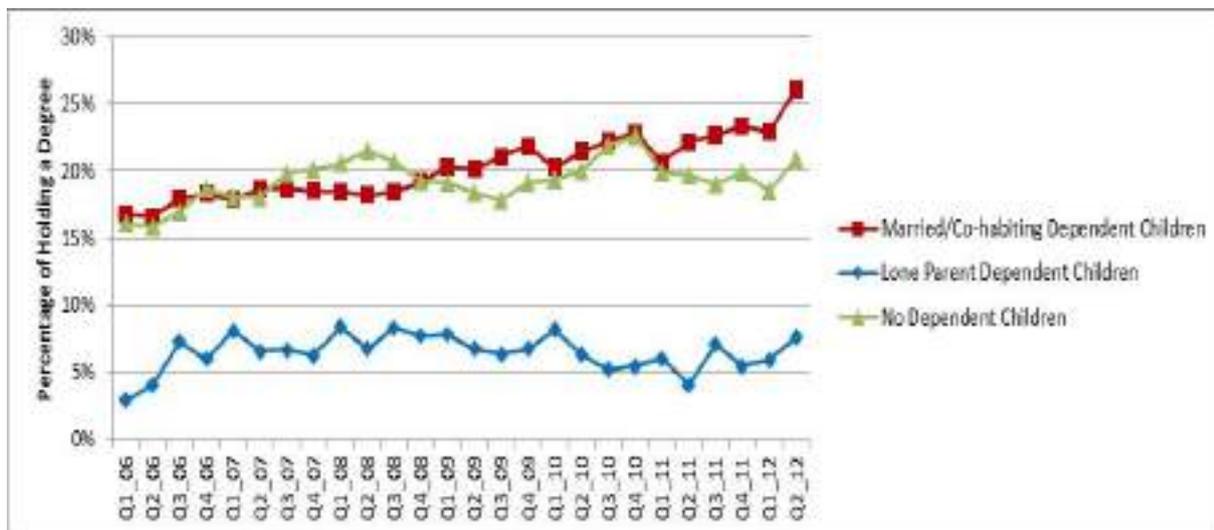
Table 11.6 contd.

Q1 2012						
Occupation (SOC10)	Median hourly pay			Pay gaps		
	Married or co-habiting with dependent children	Lone parents	No dependent children	Married or co-habiting with dependent children / lone parents	Married or co-habiting with dependent children / no dependent children	No dependent children / lone parents
Managers and Senior Officials	£11.04	-	£12.66	-	-£1.62	-
Professional Occupations	£17.30	£14.71	£15.59	£2.59	£1.71	£0.88
Associate Professional and Technical	£12.81	£8.24	£10.69	£4.57	£2.12	£2.45
Administrative and Secretarial	£11.43	£7.22	£8.57	£4.21	£2.86	£1.35
Skilled Trades Occupations	£7.50	-	£8.70	-	-£1.20	-
Personal Service Occupations	£8.56	£7.50	£6.76	£1.06	£1.80	-£0.74
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	£6.94	£5.40	£6.91	£1.54	£0.03	£1.51
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	£8.00	£5.79	£7.50	£2.21	£0.50	£1.71
Elementary Occupations	£7.20	£6.07	£6.85	£1.13	£0.35	£0.78

Qualifications

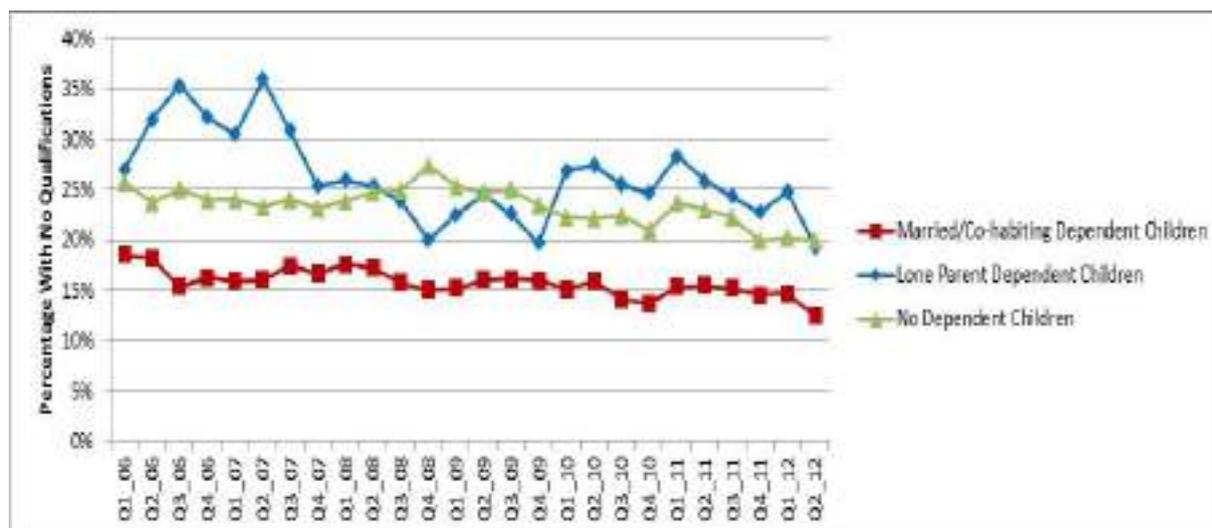
The proportion of lone parents with a degree or equivalent was much lower than the other groups, (Figure 11.10a). In Q1 2006, only 2.9% of lone parents held a degree or equivalent, compared to 16.8% of married or co-habiting parents and 16.1% of those with no dependent children. Degree holding increased across all three groups over the period of interest. For lone parents the proportion holding a degree increased by 3.1 percentage points to 6.0%, while those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children saw a 6.1 percentage point increase to 22.9%, and those without dependent children saw a more modest rise of 2.4 percentage points, to 18.5%.

Figure 11.10a: Percentage holding a degree by dependency status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



The disparities between the groups are less stark for the proportions who hold no qualifications (Figure 11.10b). Over the period of interest, lone parents generally had the highest proportion holding no qualifications, but they were temporarily overtaken by those without dependent children between Q3 2008 and Q4 2009. Those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children were consistently less likely than the other two groups to hold no qualifications, although the size of the gap, at 5 to 10 percentage points, was smaller than the gap observed between those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children and lone parents in degree holding. A downward trend in the proportion holding no qualifications was observed for all three groups, although the smallest decline (of 2.2 percentage points) was observed for lone parents. The poorer qualification profile of lone parents might help explain their lower wage relative to those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children and those with no dependent children.

Figure 11.10b: Percentage with no qualifications by dependency status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Transport

Average travel to work times for those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children and those with no dependent children were 23 and 22 minutes respectively, which was slightly higher than lone parents, who on average travelled 20 minutes. Previous research has suggested that females with children have significantly lower travel to work times than females without dependent children or males, and that this may affect the number of employment opportunities open to them (McQuaid and Chen, 2012). The main mode of travel to work is shown in Table 11.7. From this it is evident that lone parents walked, cycled or used public transport more than the other groups, and the proportion who used a car, van or motorcycle was considerably lower than the other groups, especially compared to those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children.

Table 11.7: Travel to work mode by dependency status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

	Car, van, motorcycle (%)	Walk or bicycle (%)	Public Transport (%)
Married or co-habiting with dependent children	89.0	7.1	3.9
Lone parents	66.1	19.5	14.4
No dependents	82.5	11.4	6.1

Attitudes

Whilst little information is available with regard to the attitudes toward the three dependency groups defined in this chapter the 2011 Equality Awareness Survey (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012) did contain questions about people with caring responsibilities. Respondents to this survey were asked which groups were generally treated unfairly compared to other groups in Northern Ireland. A total of 6% of respondents stated that they felt that people with caring responsibilities were treated unfairly in comparison to other groups. In consideration of all the groups 3% of respondents believed that people with caring responsibilities were treated the most unfairly.

Although somewhat dated, responses to the NILTS (2002) show that 23% of respondents disagreed with the notion that a working mother can establish just as warm and secure a relationship with her children as a mother who does not work. Additionally, 36% felt that family life suffers when the woman has a full time job and 32% disagreed that a lone parent could bring up a child just as well as two parents. No current data is available in order to see if these attitudes toward lone parents and working mothers have changed or indeed if they have an impact on the employment rates of these groups.

Policy responses to tackling dependency status inequalities in employment

For those with child care responsibilities in Northern Ireland the government provides some specific assistance in the form of support for childcare. The main features of this provision are:

- All parents, regardless of employment status or income, are entitled to free nursery school provision for children the year before they start school, for at least 2.5 hours per day during term time (38 weeks per year).
- For parents who are in work, support for childcare outside the free entitlement is funded through the UK-wide tax credit system; working parents get means tested tax credits towards the cost of childcare (up to 70% of the cost, up to a maximum of £300 per week for two or more children).
- Working parents can also participate in a salary sacrifice scheme and receive childcare vouchers worth up to £77.00 per month (or up to £154.00 if claimed by both parents), although money received in this way will affect entitlement to childcare tax credits.
- For parents in education or training, *Steps to Work* participants get some help with childcare costs, although this is a maximum of £26.00 per day for one child and £48.00 per day for two or more children. *Care to Learn* offers childcare support for parents between aged 16-19 years old who are in further education.
- Vulnerable families may also be able to access services through their local authority, including some childcare services, although the purpose of such childcare would be for educational and social objectives rather than to facilitate employment.

This provision has been identified as deficient (see below; also Hinds, 2011; McQuaid et al., 2013; Women's Resource and Development Agency, 2013; Women's Support Network, 2013), and the Northern Ireland Government is currently consulting on a childcare strategy in an attempt to improve this. All parents seeking employment have access to Steps to Work and other mainstream employment services. However, there are no mainstream services specific to parents, although there is some provision in the voluntary sector specifically targeted at parents (see case studies below).

All those identified by healthcare trusts as in need of care are assessed to see what services they need, which should mean that they are not reliant on their carer to fulfil all of their care needs. Carers themselves are also entitled to an assessment of their needs, and may be entitled to some assistance if they are performing a substantial amount of care; they may also be entitled to respite and leisure activities. However it is not clear that this process is helping to meet the needs of carers or the people they care for (see below).

The lowering of the age of the youngest child, to five years old, in moving from income support to Job Seekers Allowance in the UK, is likely to move more lone parents from economic inactivity to ILO unemployment.

Improving policy responses to tackling dependency status inequalities in employment

A recent consultation with a number of relevant stakeholders in the childcare sector (McQuaid et al., 2013) revealed a number of issues with childcare provision. The current system of provision fails to meet the needs of working parents; there is not enough childcare in Northern Ireland that is sufficiently affordable and flexible for parents to take up, maintain, and progress in employment. Some groups have particular difficulties in accessing childcare, in particular: rural families; families with disabled children; large, low income and single parent families; and minority ethnic/migrant/Traveller families. Stakeholders were unanimous in agreement on the need not only for a strategy, but one that clearly delineates responsibilities and assigns accountability for its implementation. It was also claimed that mainstream employment programmes do not always address the needs of those with caring responsibilities, and should be more sensitive to these in understanding clients' barriers to employment.

Although carers and the people they care for have a statutory entitlement to an assessment of their needs, stakeholders report that in practice this does not always result in a reduction of the burden on carers. The Health and Social Care Trusts' diagnosis of needs may not match reality, and friends, neighbours and relatives are left to take up the slack, although there is an element of them wanting to or feeling responsible for doing so. Carers report being unaware of their entitlement to an assessment of their needs, or being told that they are unlikely to be entitled to any support so there is no point in carrying one out. Furthermore, although they may be entitled to some flexibility at work to fulfil their care responsibilities, they may be reluctant to disclose themselves as carers to their employers for fear that they will be perceived as a burden or that it will put their employment at risk.

Stakeholders argued that this reluctance of carers to identify themselves is one of the reasons that it is difficult to gather data on the needs of carers and their position in the labour market, and why the issues remain 'hidden' to a great extent. There may also be intersections with other equality issues; for example, an employee caring for a same-sex partner may not disclose that they are a carer if they are also trying to conceal their sexuality. Young carers are also particularly unlikely to identify themselves as such. For example, if they are caring for a parent with an alcohol or substance abuse problem and fear that the parent may get into trouble. A further problem getting carers to identify themselves as such (although they recognise the activities they do as caring) is that they may not define themselves as 'carers', and therefore they may not think about their own needs and entitlements as carers.

Case studies: employment support for those with caring responsibilities

Gingerbread offer employability services to lone parents through their Choices Plus programme, which is funded by the European Social Fund. This helps them to meet the cost of obtaining a Level 3 qualification, as the Level 2 qualifications covered by mainstream programmes are often not sufficient to earn an income that can support a family. Gingerbread are also a partner in the Marks and Starts programme that offers work preparation training and placements in Marks and Spencer stores.

Initiatives in the voluntary and community sector include the **Training for Women Network**, which receives funding under the EU Programme for Peace and Reconciliation to provide and co-ordinate training opportunities for females; and **Women's TEC**, which receives funding from a number of sources (including the Department for Employment and Learning, the EU Regional Development Fund, the European Social Fund and Belfast City Council) to promote women's involvement in training for non-traditional occupations.

Carers NI is the Northern Ireland branch of the Carers UK organisation, which provides advice and information to carers on dealing with practical and financial issues, as well as support groups to help deal with emotional issues. They also provide training to organisations on meeting the needs of employees who are carers, and aim to promote the message of the importance of flexible working.

Summary

The key points from the analyses of dependency status inequalities in employment are summarised below. A total of eight inequalities were identified. These inequalities are presented in the table below; followed by a summary of the Chapter's findings.

In the analysis, the dependency status of three groups was examined: those married or co-habiting with dependent children; lone parents; and those with no dependents.

Dependency Status Inequalities in Employment:	Persistent or Emergent?
➤ Lone parents had lower employment rates than the other two dependency groups.	Persistent
➤ Lone parents had higher rates of part-time employment than the other two dependency groups*.	Persistent
➤ Those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children had lower ILO unemployment rates than the other two dependency groups.	Persistent
➤ Lone parents had higher economic inactivity rates than the other two groups: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Lone parents were around two times more likely to be economically inactive than the other two dependency groups. 	Persistent
➤ On average, lone parents earned less than the other two dependency groups.	Persistent
➤ A degree of horizontal segregation in the labour market, in respect to industry sector employed, was observed: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Lone parents were not well represented in most industry sectors. In particular, at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 lone parents were not represented in either 'Agriculture and Fishing' or 'Energy and Water'; they were also under-represented (i.e. under 5.2%¹³² at Q1 2006 and under 5.6%¹³³ at Q1 2012) in four industry sectors at Q1 2006 and four industry sectors at Q1 2012. 	Persistent
➤ A degree of vertical segregation in the labour market, in respect to occupation group employed, was observed: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children were over-represented (i.e. over 43.5%¹³⁰ at Q1 2006 and over 42.9%¹³¹ at Q1 2012) at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 in the three 	Persistent

¹³² At Q1 2006, 5.2% of those in employment were lone parents.

¹³³ At Q1 2012, 5.6% of those in employment were lone parents.

Dependency Status Inequalities in Employment:	Persistent or Emergent?
<p>highest level occupation groups: ‘Managers and Senior Officials’; ‘Professional Occupations’; and ‘Associate Professional and Technical’ occupations.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Those who were lone parents or who had no dependent children were under-represented in the higher level occupations at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 (according to their share of the in employment population); except for those with no dependent children in Q1 2006 who were over-represented in ‘Managers and Senior Officials’ occupations. 	Persistent
<p>➤ Those with childcare responsibilities experienced ongoing barriers to participation in the workforce; stakeholders reported:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ There are no mainstream childcare services specific to parents; ○ Childcare in Northern Ireland is not sufficiently affordable or flexible for parents to take up, maintain, and progress in employment; ○ A Northern Ireland childcare strategy is much needed; ○ Mainstream employment programmes do not always address the needs of those with caring responsibilities; ○ Statutory needs assessment of carers and the people they care for does not always result in a reduction of the burden on carers. 	Persistent

* Small sample sizes mean that this inference may not be wholly correct.

Economic status

- Lone parents were consistently much less likely than the other two groups to be in employment between Q1 2006 (45.4%) and Q1 2012 (41.7%).
 - The only group to experience an increase in employment rates between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 were those married or co-habiting with dependent children; rates increased by 2.4 percentage points from 70.4% to 72.8%.
- Lone parents were more likely to be employed part-time than the other dependency status groups:
 - Part-time employment rates were highest and fluctuated more for lone parents than for the other groups (although this may be influenced by the size of the sample).
- Lone parents had higher rates of ILO unemployment:
 - Between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 lone parents exhibited the highest rates of ILO unemployment (5.0% and 7.2%).
 - An exception to this was between Q3 2009 and Q2 2010 when those with no dependents had the highest level of unemployment.

- Those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children exhibited the lowest unemployment rates (2.1% and 3.0%, in Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 respectively).
- The economic inactivity of lone parents was much higher than that of other groups; around double.
- The main reasons given for economic inactivity were broadly similar at Q1 2006 and Q1 2012:
 - Caring responsibilities for lone parents at Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, with the addition of being a student at Q1 2012;
 - Studying for those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children;
 - Long term sickness or disability for those with no dependents.

Hours worked

- Between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, the median hours worked per week by full-time workers who were married or co-habiting parents were similar to those with no dependents; in many cases they were above those with no dependents.
 - Lone parents have tended to work fewer hours per week.
- For part-time workers, there were no consistent differences between the groups with regard to median hours worked per week.

Wage rates

- Lone parents' full-time median gross weekly pay were less than the other groups, and lone parents were the only group to see a decrease in their weekly pay over the period of interest (pay decreased by £10, from £270 in Q1 2006 to £260 in Q1 2012).
- There was less evidence of inequalities by dependency status among part-time workers than there was among full-time workers with regard to median gross weekly pay.
- Between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 lone parents earned consistently less than the other two groups in terms of median gross hourly pay¹³⁴.

Industry sector and occupation employment

- For all groups, participation in private sector work was similar at around 70%.
- The distribution of each dependency group across each industry sector did not differ markedly over time:

¹³⁴ Note that small sample sizes mean that there is some missing data and the estimates of median gross hourly pay and pay gaps should be considered approximate.

- At Q1 2006 workers who were married or co-habiting with dependent children and those with no dependent children most often worked in the 'Public Administration, Education and Health' industry sector (36.2% and 32.2%, respectively).
- Lone parents most often worked in the 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' sector at Q1 2006 (37.6%). The next highest employer of lone parents was the 'Public Administration, Education and Health' industry sector (34.7%).
- All dependency status groups were most likely to be employed in the 'Public Administration, Education and Health' industry sector at Q1 2012, (35.3%, 42.4% and 33.8% for those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children, lone parents and those with no dependent children respectively).
- Those who were lone parents were not well represented in most of the industry sectors. In particular, at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 lone parents were not represented in either 'Agriculture and Fishing' or 'Energy and Water'; they were also under-represented (i.e. under 5.2%¹³⁵ at Q1 2006 and under 5.6%¹³⁶ at Q1 2012) in four industry sectors at Q1 2006 and four industry sectors at Q1 2012.
 - At Q1 2006 those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children were over-represented (i.e. over 43.5%¹³⁷) in all but four industry sectors: 'Manufacturing'; 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants'; 'Transport and Communication'; and 'Banking, Finance and Insurance etc'. At Q1 2012 this over-representation (i.e. over 42.9%¹³⁸) had increased to all but two industry sectors: 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants'; and 'Banking, Finance and Insurance etc'.
- A degree of vertical segregation in the labour market, in respect to occupation group employed was observed:
 - Those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children were over-represented (i.e. over 43.5%¹³⁰ at Q1 2006 and over 42.9%¹³¹ at Q1 2012) at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 in the three highest level occupation groups: 'Managers and Senior Officials'; 'Professional Occupations'; and 'Associate Professional and Technical' occupations.
 - Those who were lone parents or who had no dependent children were under-represented in the higher level occupations at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 (according to their share of the in employment population); except for those with no dependent children in Q1 2006 who were over-represented in 'Managers and Senior Officials' occupations.
 - Whilst the proportionate representation of lone parents in four occupation groups increased between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, many of the higher level occupation groups showed a decrease over this time period.
- Workers who were married or co-habiting with dependent children were consistently more likely to be self-employed between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 (12.7% and 12%, respectively), followed by those who had no dependent children (9.3% and 8.1%, respectively).

¹³⁵ At Q1 2006, 5.2% of those in employment were lone parents.

¹³⁶ At Q1 2012, 5.6% of those in employment were lone parents.

¹³⁷ At Q1 2006, 43.5% of those in employment were married or co-habiting with dependent children.

¹³⁸ At Q1 2012, 42.95 of those in employment were married or co-habiting with dependent children.

- Although lone parents were least likely to be self employed between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, they were the only group to see an increase in the percentage of self-employed workers (from 2.6% to 3.5%).

Attitudes

- A total of 6% of respondents to the Equality Awareness Survey (2011) stated that they felt that people with caring responsibilities were treated unfairly in comparison to other groups.
 - In consideration of all the groups 3% of respondents believed that people with caring responsibilities were treated the most unfairly.

Barriers and Enablers

- The government provides specific assistance for those with childcare responsibilities in the form of support for childcare. This assistance includes: free nursery school provision for children aged 3-4 years old; means tested tax credits towards the cost of childcare; and a childcare vouchers scheme.
 - Assistance is also provided for those in training or further education (for example, *Steps to Work* and *Care to Learn*) and for vulnerable families.
- Childcare provision has been identified as deficient (Hinds, 2011; McQuaid et al., 2013; Women's Resource and Development Agency, 2013; Women's Support Network, 2013), and the Government is currently consulting on a childcare strategy in an attempt to improve this.
 - There are no mainstream services specific to parents, although there is some provision in the voluntary sector specifically targeted at parents.
- Stakeholders reported that there is not enough childcare in Northern Ireland that is sufficiently affordable and flexible for parents to take up, maintain, and progress in employment.
 - Some groups have particular difficulties in accessing childcare, in particular: rural families; families with disabled children; large, low income and single parent families; and minority ethnic/migrant/Traveller families.
- Stakeholders were unanimous in agreement of the need for a childcare strategy in Northern Ireland that clearly delineates responsibilities and assigns accountability for its implementation.
 - Mainstream employment programmes do not always address the needs of those with caring responsibilities. These programmes should be more sensitive to these needs to enable an understanding of clients' barriers to employment.
- Stakeholders report that, in practice, the statutory needs assessment of carers and the people they care for does not always result in a reduction of the burden on carers.
 - The Health and Social Care Trusts' diagnosis of needs may not match reality, carers report being unaware of their entitlement to an assessment of their needs, or may be reluctant to disclose themselves as such to their employers for fear that they will be perceived as a burden or that it will put their employment at risk.

- **Gingerbread** offers employability services to lone parents through their Choices Plus programme. This helps them to meet the cost of obtaining a Level 3 qualification.
 - Gingerbread is also a partner in the Marks and Starts programme that offers work preparation training and placements in Marks and Spencer stores.
- **Initiatives in the voluntary and community sector** include the **Training for Women Network**, which provides and co-ordinates training opportunities for females, and **Women's TEC** which promotes women's involvement in training for non-traditional occupations.
- **Carers NI** provides advice and information to carers on dealing with practical and financial issues, as well as support groups to help deal with emotional issues. They also provide training to organisations on meeting the needs of employees who are carers, and aim to promote the message of the importance of flexible working.

Chapter 12. Multiple Inequalities in Employment

Introduction

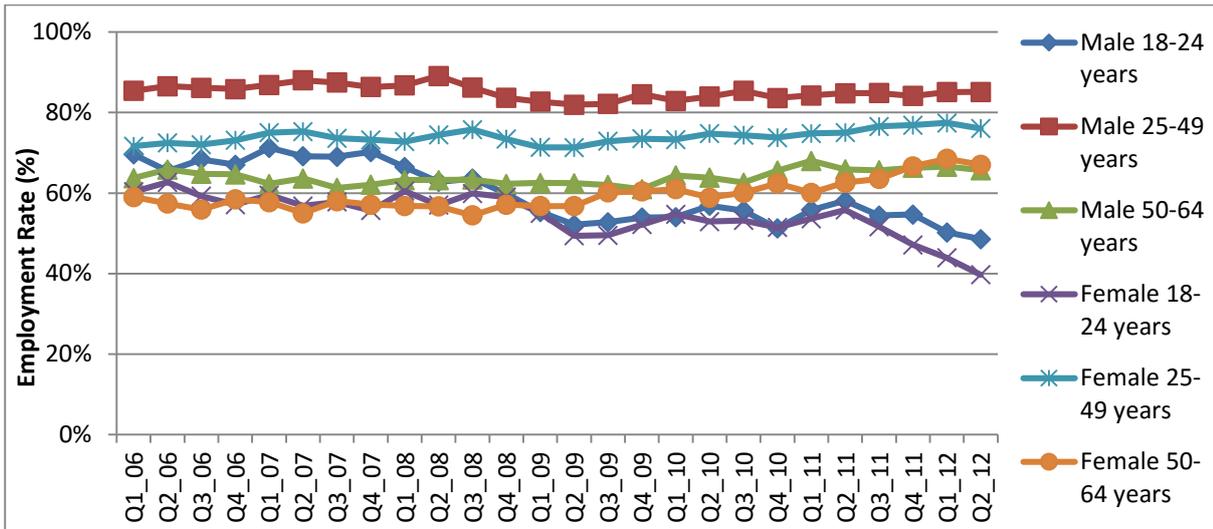
It can be misleading to consider in isolation the inequalities experienced by members of a particular group, as people may be members of several disadvantaged groups, and disadvantage may be compounded when multiple inequalities are experienced. Interaction between the equality grounds may also obscure the true mechanisms of inequality. For example, although Chapter 10 identified that those who are single and have never married experience some labour market disadvantage, it is unlikely that their marital status itself is causing these poorer outcomes; rather, the inequality is because they are on average younger, and younger age groups face considerable labour market disadvantage. Indeed, nearly all the equality groups interact in some way. Individuals may fall into multiple equality grounds; for instance, young working class males may suffer greater inequality than older, middle class females. Similarly, an inequality ground combined with certain characteristics, such as a lack of qualifications, may result in greater inequality.

This chapter examines some of the main combinations of inequality trends in labour market outcomes, particularly with respect to the interaction between age and other equality grounds, although consideration is also paid to interactions with gender and religious background. A number of multiple inequalities (e.g. marital status and age), have been discussed earlier in the report and are not repeated here. It should be noted that small sample sizes limit the level to which the sample can be disaggregated into multiple equality grounds, therefore the results should be interpreted with some caution, and some potentially interesting intersections could not be analysed here at all.

Gender and age

In Figure 12.1, trends in employment rates since 2006 are plotted by age and gender group. For those 25 years old and over, employment rates remained fairly constant over time. However, for those under 25 years old, employment rates showed a downward trend, especially since Q4 2008. The effects seem attributable more to age than gender, as young males and females saw similar downward trends in their employment rate. In Q1 2006, the employment rate of 18-24 year old males was 69.6%, and for females of the same age it was 60.3%; by Q1 2012, these fell to 50.2% and 43.9% respectively.

Figure 12.1: Employment rate by gender and age (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



The percentage of workers in part-time employment, by age and gender, is displayed in Figure 12.2. Regardless of age, females had higher rates of part-time employment than males. Regarding the rate of part-time employment of females, those aged 50-64 years old had the highest part-time employment rates at many time points. However, the rate of part-time employment amongst 50-64 years old females dropped steadily below that of 18-24 year old females from Q2 2011 onwards. At Q1 2012, 50-64 years old females had the lowest rate of employment amongst females, whilst from Q2 2011 females aged 18-24 years old had the highest rate of part-time employment regardless of gender. Males aged 18-24 years old had the highest part-time employment rate amongst males; this rose from 15.2% in Q1 2006 to 26.3% in Q1 2012.

Figure 12.2: Part-time employment rate by gender and age (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

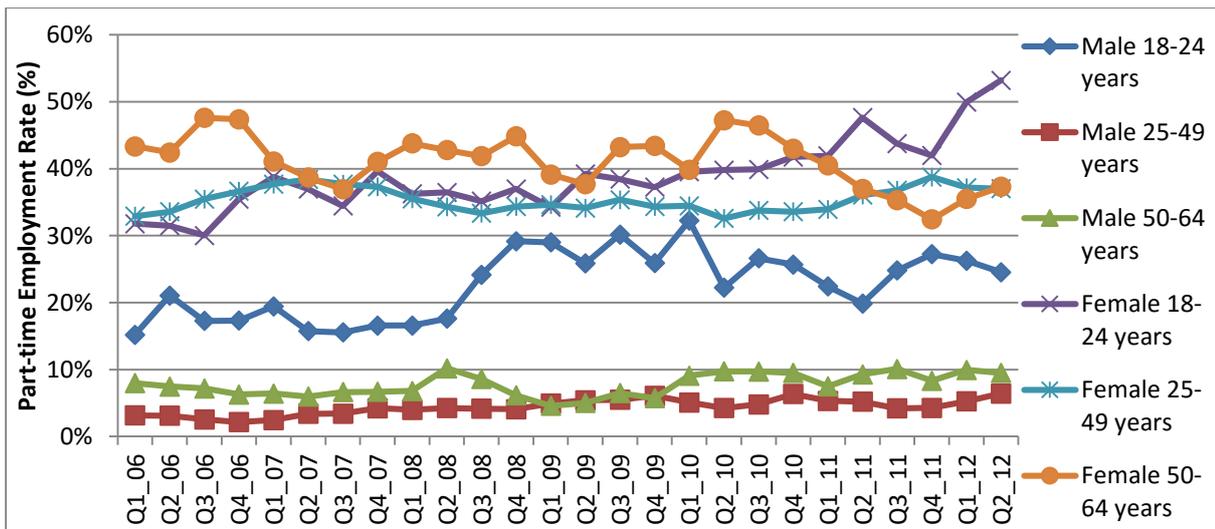
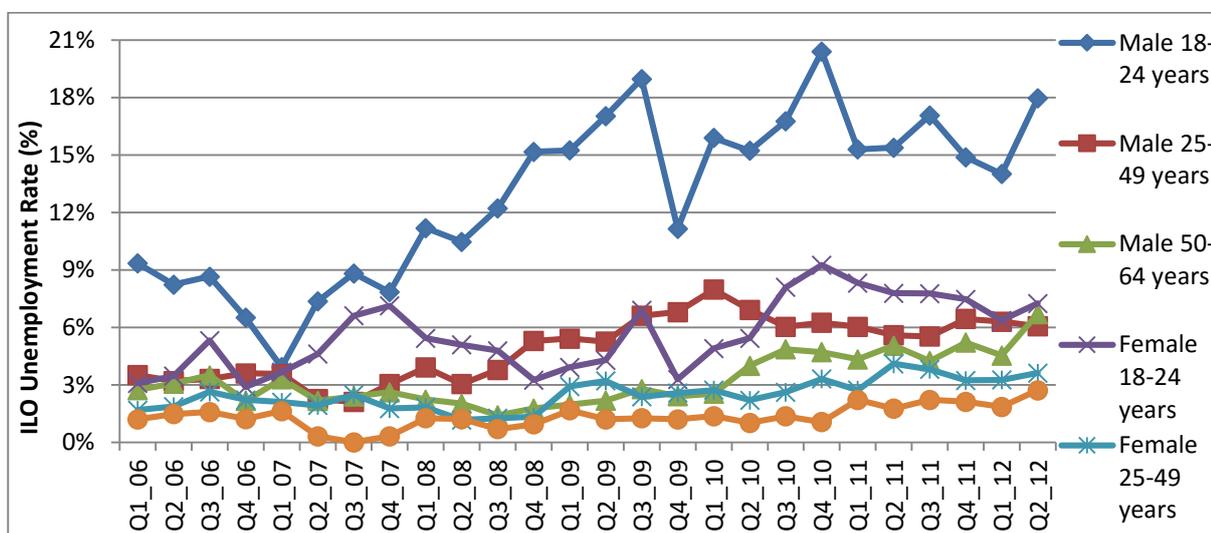


Figure 12.3 shows that, for most age and gender groups, trends in ILO unemployment rates fluctuated over the period of interest (with the exception of females aged 25 years old and over), with a slight upward

trend (except for males aged 18-24 years old who saw a substantial increase from 9.3% in Q1 2006 to 14.0% in Q1 2012).

Overall, females aged 50-64 years old had the lowest ILO unemployment rates of both genders; from Q1 2008 50-64 years old males had the lowest ILO unemployment rates amongst males. For males and females, those aged 18-24 years old consistently had the highest ILO unemployment rates between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 (except at Q1 2007 for males aged 18-24 years old). For males, the within groups difference between those aged 18-24 years old and those aged 25 years and older was much higher than for females. However, whilst it would therefore appear that age, rather than gender is a greater factor in determining ILO unemployment, it is important to note that from Q1 2008 males had much higher ILO unemployment rates than females of the same age group.

Figure 12.3: ILO unemployment rate by gender and age (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

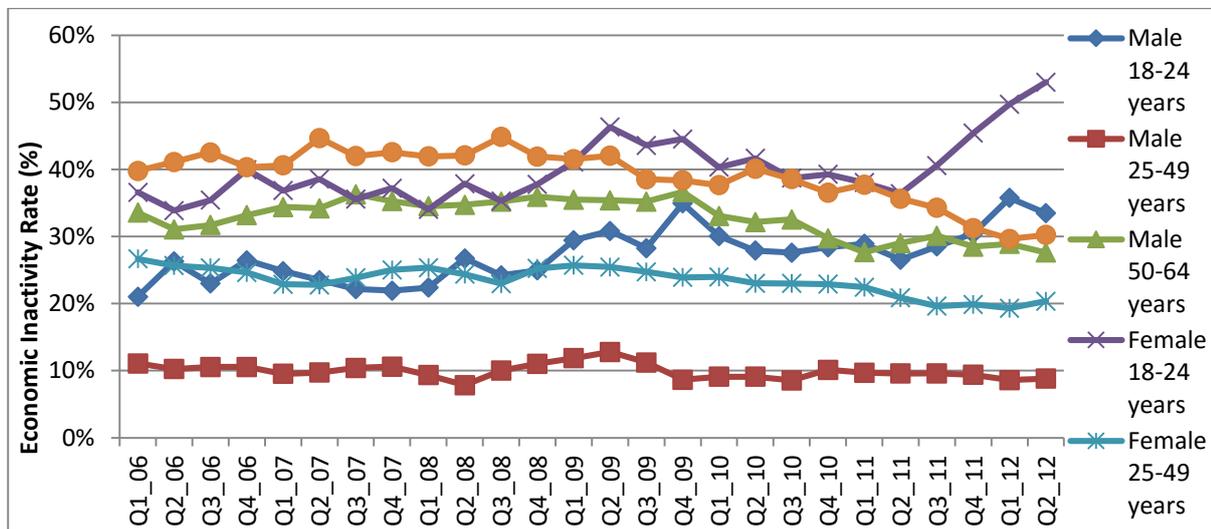


Economic inactivity rates by gender and age are charted in Figure 12.4. At each time point, for all three age groups, females were more economically inactive than males of the same age. From Q1 2006 to Q1 2009 females aged 50-64 years old were most likely to be economically inactive. However, after this period females aged 18-24 years old were more likely to be economically inactive, with the gap between females aged 50-64 years old and 18-24 years old widening from Q3 2011 onwards. At each time point, amongst females, workers aged 25-49 years old maintained a lower rate of economic inactivity than both of the other age groups.

Of all the groups represented in Figure 12.4, males aged 25-49 years old were consistently the least economically inactive from Q1 2006 to Q1 2012. Amongst males those aged 50-64 years old showed much higher levels of economic inactivity between Q1 2006 and Q4 2009 than those aged 18-24 years old and those aged 25-49 years old. However, after Q4 2009 the gap between males aged 50-64 years old and those aged 18-24 years old became much smaller; at some time points 18-24 year old males had slightly higher economic inactivity rates.

For both genders the 18-24 years old age group experienced an increase in economic inactivity between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. The other age groups, for both genders, experienced decreases in economic inactivity between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.

Figure 12.4: Economic inactivity rate by gender and age (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Considering the relative effects of age and gender on employment, unemployment and inactivity the effect of age appears to dominate; with differences between age groups more apparent than those between the genders. Both males and females aged under 25 years old fared considerably worse in the labour market than those aged over 25 years old. The main gender differences that appear are: the higher tendency of females to work part-time relative to males; the gender differences in the 18-24 year old age group in which males not in employment are more likely to be classed as unemployed whilst females not in employment are more likely to be classed as economically inactive.

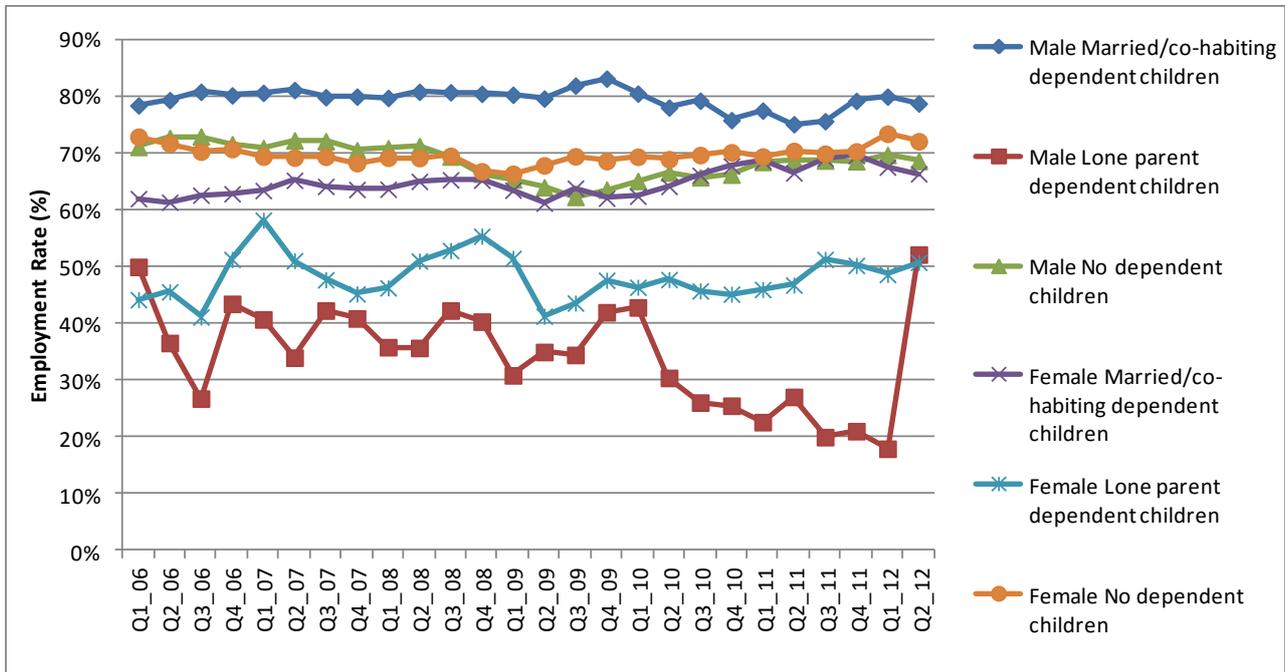
Gender and dependency status

Figure 12.5 shows trends in employment rates by gender and dependency status. It is evident that employment rates were fairly constant for married or co-habiting females with dependent children, and for both males and females without dependent children. For married or co-habiting females with dependent children, employment rates rose slightly over the period of review, from 62.3% in Q1 2006 to 67.6% in Q1 2012. The rate of employment for males with no dependent children saw a fall of 9.6 percentage points between Q2 2008 (72.6%) to Q3 2009 (63.0%) before slowly recovering to 69.7% by Q1 2012. However, females with no dependent children did not experience a drop in employment rate to nearly the same extent, with only a small decrease observed over the period of interest.

Married or co-habiting males with dependent children had the highest employment rate of 80.4% in Q1 2012; the rate remained relatively constant over the period. Employment rates were less stable for lone parents, particularly male lone parents, who showed a steep downward trend, and who had the lowest employment rates over the period of interest. Female lone parents consistently had higher employment

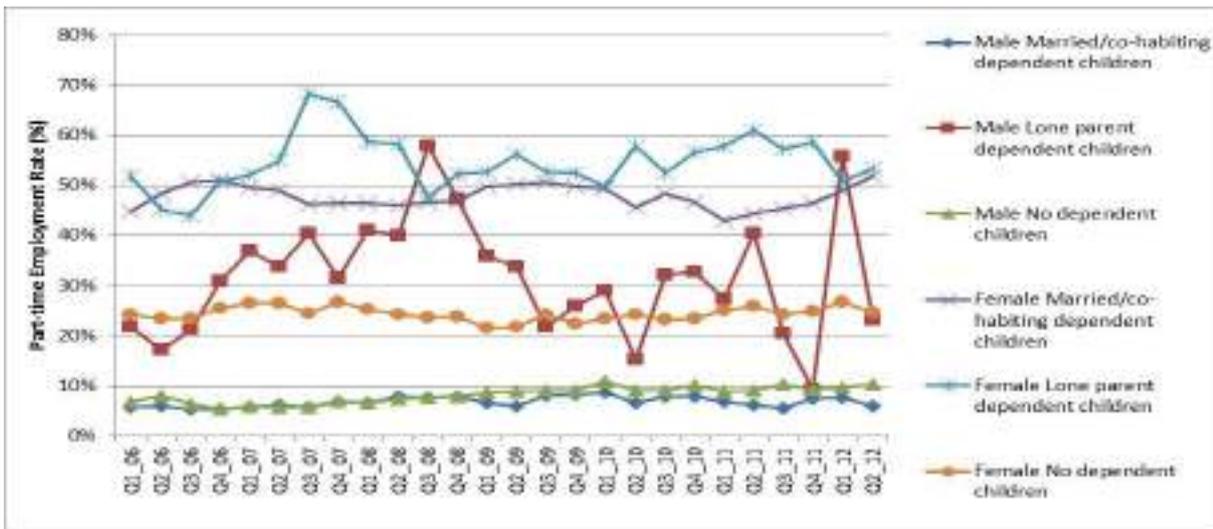
rates than male lone parents. However, drawing inference in regard to male lone parents needs to be treated with caution, as the numbers are low.

Figure 12.5: Employment rate by gender and dependency status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



The trends in part-time employment rates by gender and dependency status are exhibited in Figure 12.6. Most of the subgroups remained fairly constant between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, with the exception of lone parents. Male and female lone parents showed a great deal of fluctuation; although for males this is likely to be a consequence of small sample sizes. Males who are married or co-habiting with dependent children, or have no dependent children, had the lowest rates of part-time employment (5.7% and 6.7% in Q1 2006 and 7.7% and 9.8% in Q1 2012, respectively). Their rates of part-time employment were the lowest by some margin; the next lowest average part-time employment rate was among females with no dependent children, with a range of 16.6-20.1 percentage points difference to the other two groups (at 24.3% in Q1 2006 and 26.8% in Q1 2012). Females with dependent children had the highest rates of part-time employment for the majority of the period of interest, and this figure demonstrates the profound and gendered impact of caring responsibilities on mothers' working lives.

Figure 12.6: Part-time employment rate by gender and dependency status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



In Figure 12.7, an upward trend in ILO unemployment rates for all groups can be observed between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, with the exception of male lone parents. Whilst all groups showed some level of fluctuation over the time period, the unemployment rates of male lone parents were higher and more erratic than other groups, but again one must remember that the numbers are small (in Q1 2012 there were 226 lone parents in the survey, of which 17.3% (39) were male). To investigate this further, the gender of lone parents and their employment status was investigated using the Census 2001 and Census 2011 of Northern Ireland, and the results are displayed in Table 12.1. These results indicate that the conclusions drawn from Figure 12.7 are likely to be erroneous and attributed to the low sample size. From the larger, more reliable, Census data, it is clear that female lone parents had higher rates of unemployment and also had higher rates of part-time working than male lone parents at both time points.

The least fluctuation was experienced by females who were married or co-habiting with dependent children and females who had no dependent children; these two groups also showed the lowest levels of ILO unemployment.

Figure 12.7: ILO unemployment rate by gender and dependency status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

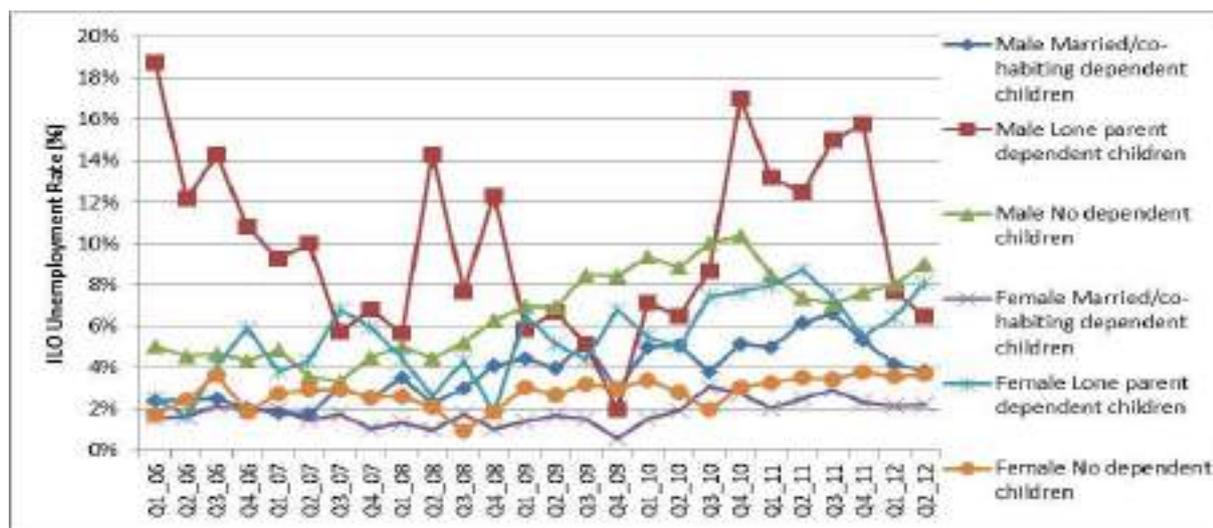


Table 12.1: Employment rate of lone parents by gender – Census data (Source: NISRA, 2001 & 2011)

	Male Lone Parents		Female Lone Parents	
	2001	2011	2001	2011
Number	5639	3928	58282	46713
In full-time employment (%)	45.2	43.3	17.5	19.7
In part-time employment (%)	6.8	12.6	20.9	33.1
Not in employment (%)	47.9	44.0	61.6	47.2

Considering economic inactivity rates (Figure 12.8), all groups displayed fairly constant inactivity rates, except for male and female lone parents. Male and female lone parents showed greater fluctuation over the time period. In addition male lone parents showed a considerable increase in economic inactivity rising from an economic inactivity rate of 31.3% at Q1 2006 to 74.4% at Q1 2012 whilst females showed a decrease in economic inactivity rates from 53.3% at Q1 2006 to 44.9% at Q1 2012, (again the results related to males should be viewed with caution). Other groups experienced little fluctuation over the same period, although a slight decline was seen in these groups.

Figure 12.8: Economic inactivity rate by gender and dependency status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

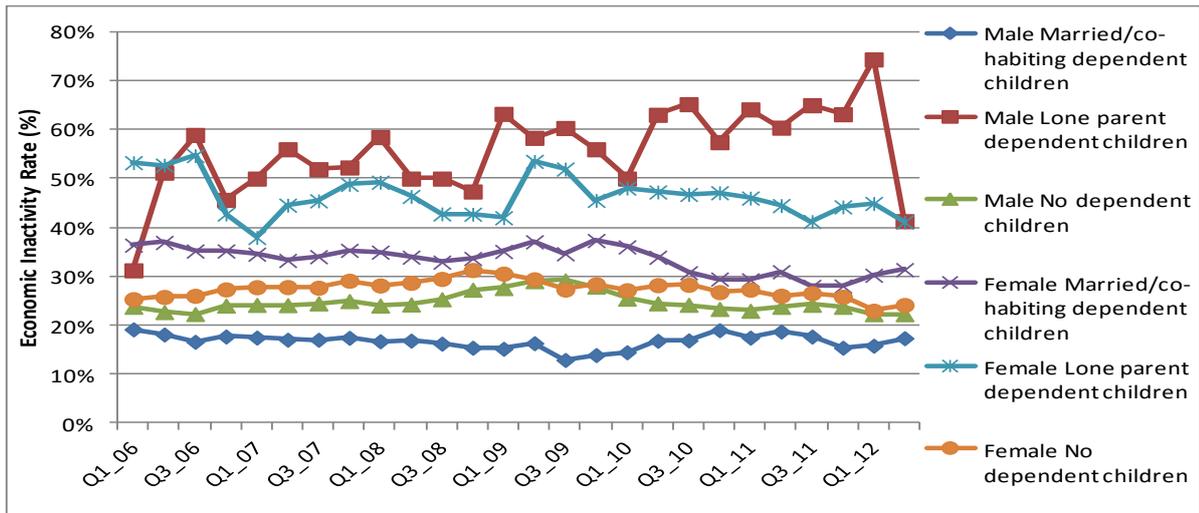
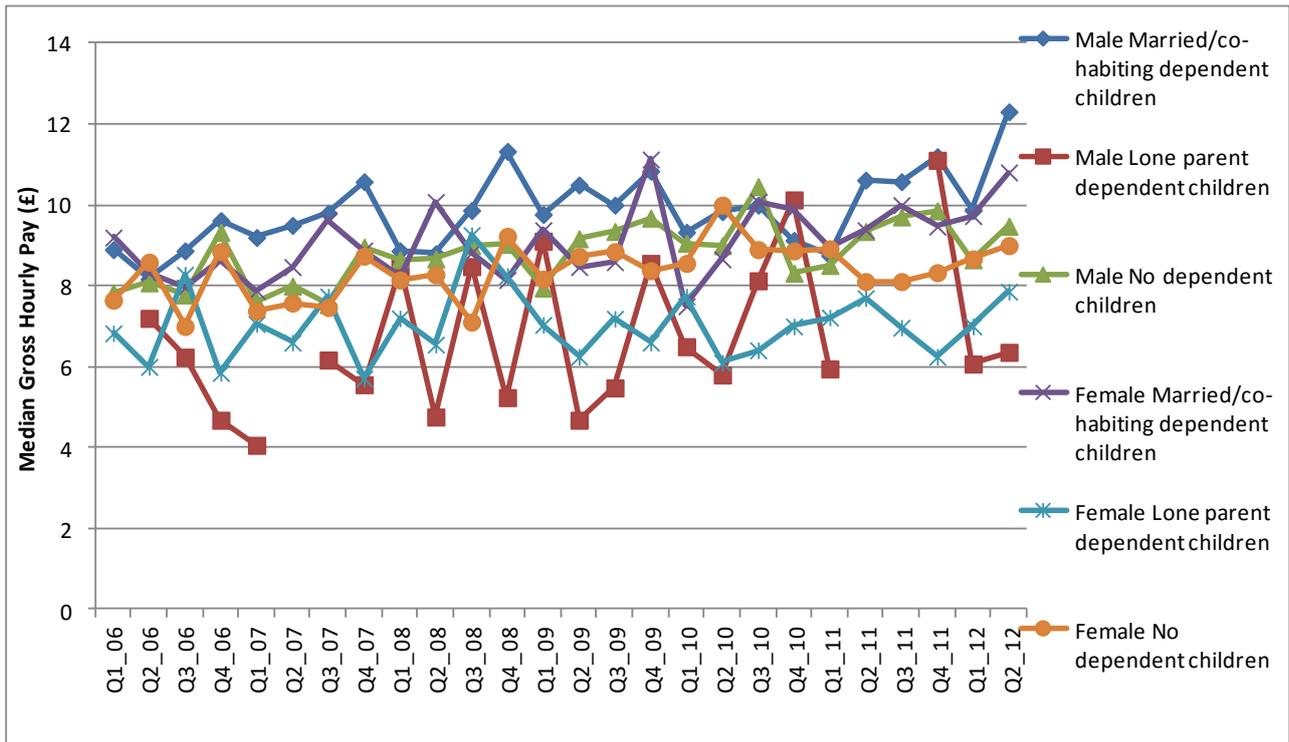


Figure 12.9 shows trends in median gross hourly wage rates by gender and dependency status. Married or co-habiting males with dependent children had the highest median gross hourly wage rates, slightly above married or co-habiting females with dependent children, whose rates rose from just under £9.00 per hour in Q1 2006 to over £10.90 per hour in Q1 2012. It is difficult to discern a trend for male lone parents due to the number of missing data points, but female lone parents were consistently paid less than married or co-habiting parents of both genders, and males without dependent children. In Q1 2006 the median gross hourly pay of female lone parents was £6.80 per hour and this fluctuated around £7.00 per hour until Q1 2012, at a time when median gross hourly pay for all females was almost £8.00. Median gross hourly pay for males and females without dependent children was very similar throughout the period of interest.

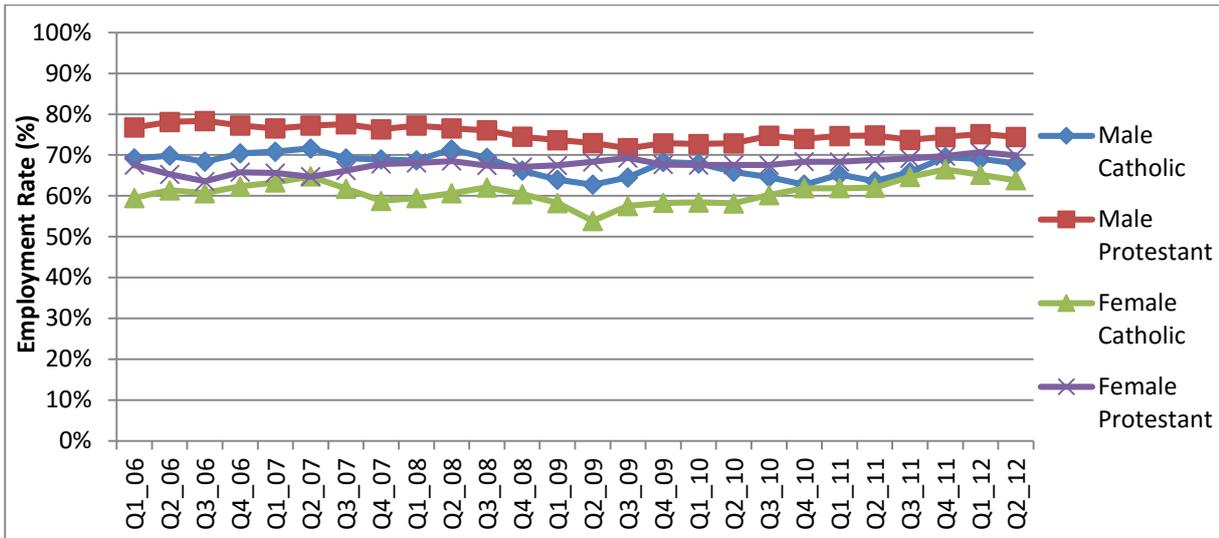
Figure 12.9: Median gross hourly pay by gender and dependency status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Religious background and gender

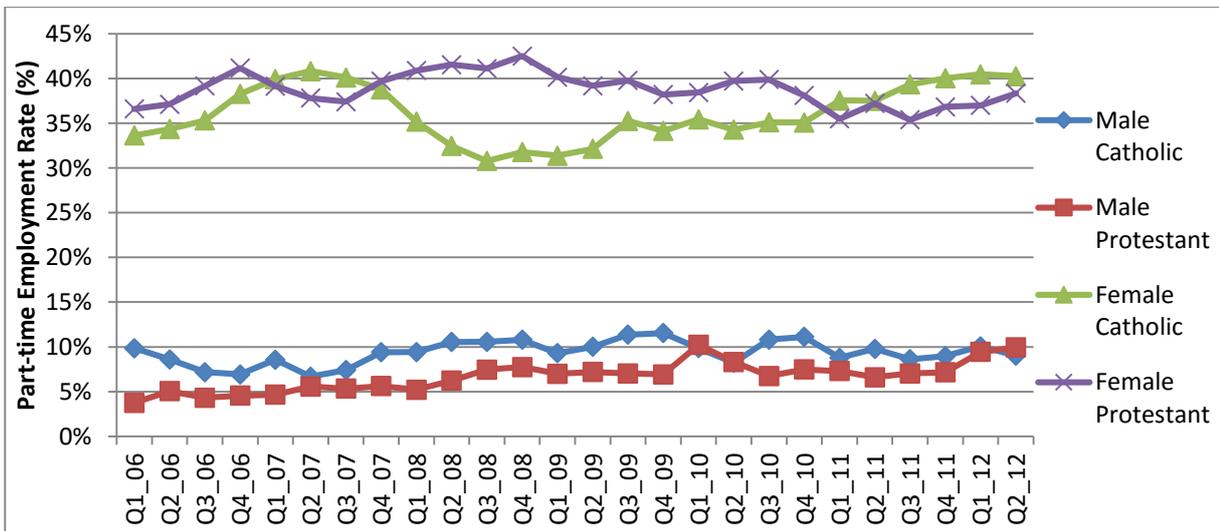
Figure 12.10 shows the employment rates by religious background and gender over the period of interest. It suggests that, within each religious background, a higher proportion of males than females were in employment. However, Protestant females showed higher employment rates than Catholic males from Q2 2010 to Q2 2011, and higher rates than Catholic females throughout. There was some convergence in employment rates between male and female Catholics between Q4 2010 and Q3 2011. Protestant males consistently had the highest employment rates throughout the period of interest.

Figure 12.10: Employment rate by religious background and gender (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



The trends in part-time employment rates by gender and religious background are exhibited in Figure 12.11. There is a clear divide by gender, which is a much stronger predictor of part-time employment than religion. Males from a Protestant background had the lowest rates of part-time employment, although some convergence with Catholic males was shown from Q1 2010 onwards. Protestant females showed the highest part-time employment rates for the majority of the period of interest, but from Q3 2011 onwards the Catholic female part-time employment rates were higher. However, due to the sample size for Catholic females, caution should be employed in the interpretation of these results.

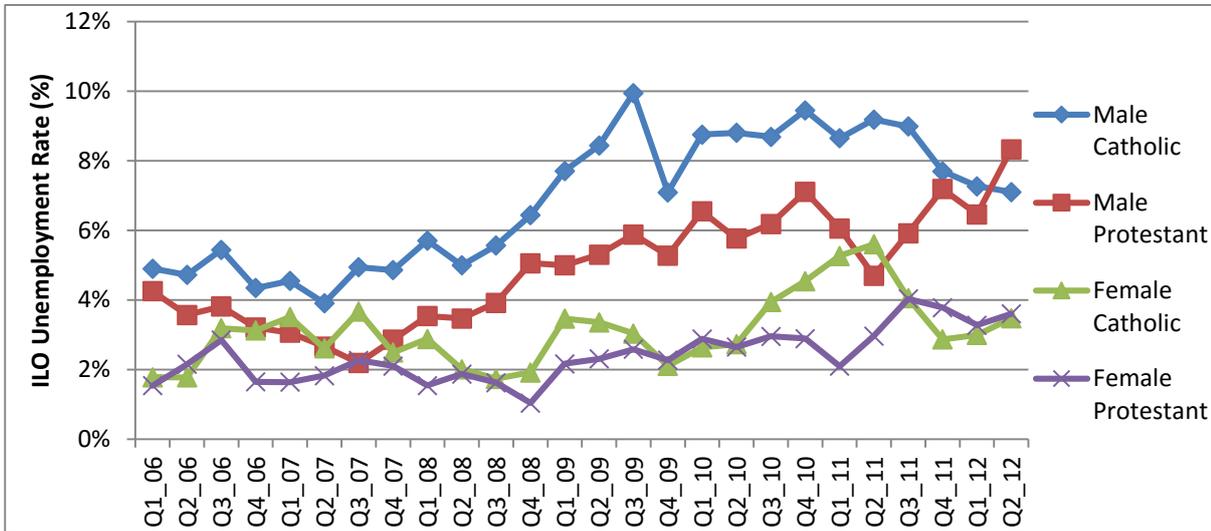
Figure 12.11: Part-time employment rate by religious background and gender (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



In Figure 12.12, an overall increasing trend in ILO unemployment rates for all groups can be seen after Q3 2008. The unemployment rates of males from a Catholic background were higher than other groups over the period, and increased from 4.9% in Q1 2006 to 7.3% in Q1 2012. The lowest ILO unemployment rates were typically seen among females from a Protestant background (1.5% in Q1 2006 and 3.3% in Q1 2012). Overall, males were consistently more likely to be ILO unemployed than females, and within each gender,

Catholics were more likely to be ILO unemployed than Protestants, although there is more fluctuation in this regard.

Figure 12.12: ILO unemployment rate by religious background and gender (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Regarding economic inactivity rates (Figure 12.13) all groups showed an overall slight downward trend in economic inactivity rates. There are both gender and religious differences apparent, with females more likely to be economically inactive than males, and Catholics more likely to be economically inactive than Protestants within each gender. Females from a Catholic background had the highest inactivity rates (38.4% in Q1 2006 and 31.7% in Q1 2012), and males from a Protestant background the lowest (19.3% in Q1 2006 and 19.8% in Q1 2012).

Figure 12.13: Economic inactivity rate by main religious background and gender (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

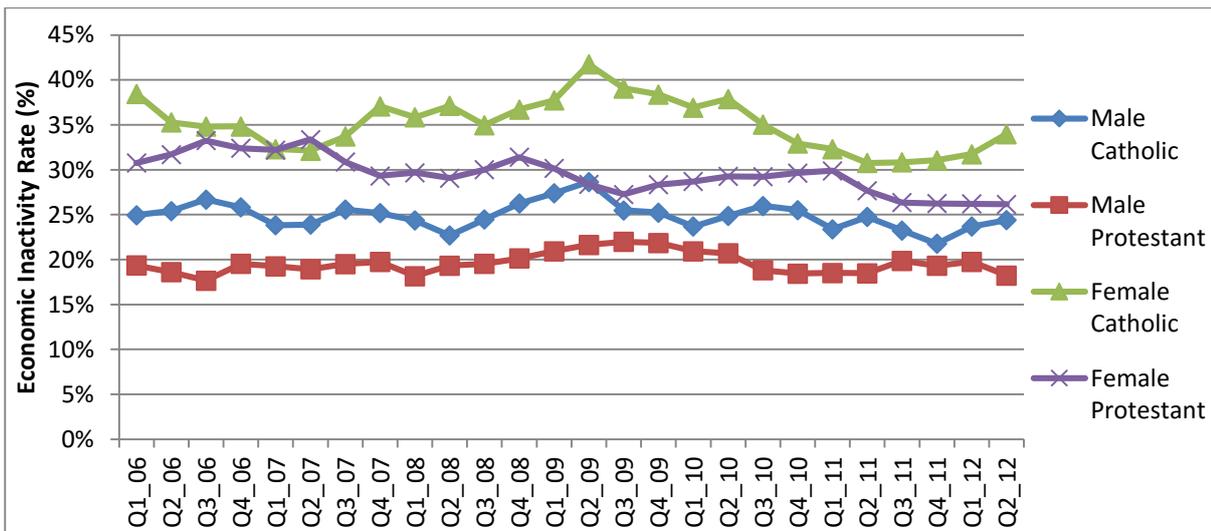
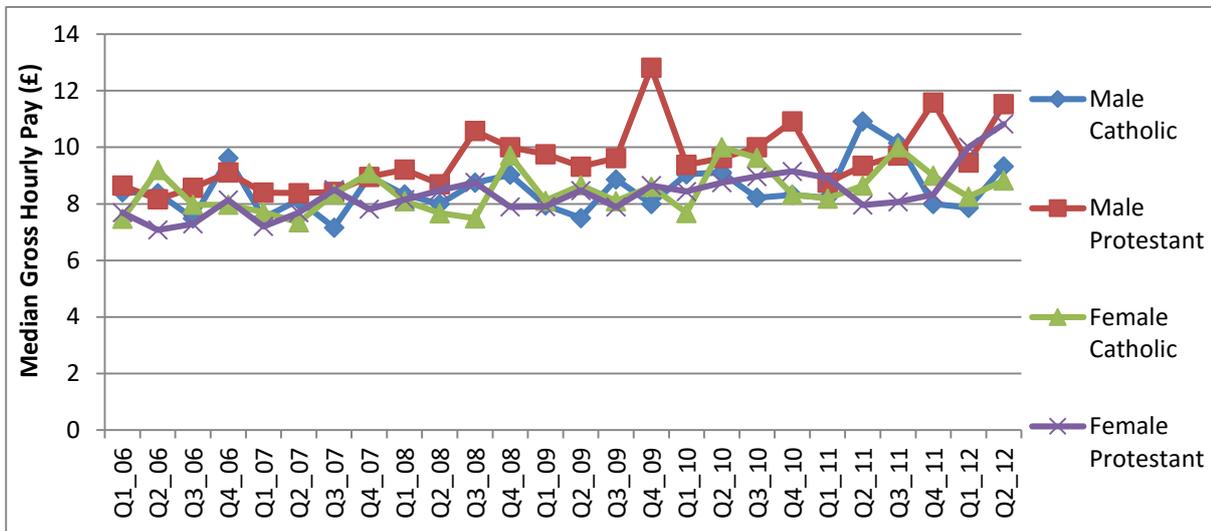


Figure 12.14 shows trends in median gross hourly pay by gender and religious background. From this it appears that, in the main, Protestant males were in receipt of higher median hourly wages over the period of interest. All groups apart from Catholic males saw an overall increase in median gross hourly wages over

the period of interest, although this increase was larger for Protestant females (£2.31 per hour between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012) and Protestant males (£0.81 per hour) than for Catholic females (£0.78 per hour).

Figure 12.14: Median gross hourly pay by main religious background and gender (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Religious background and age

Some interesting patterns emerge when considering the impact of both age and religious background on economic activity. Figure 12.15 shows the employment rates over the period of interest by age and religious background. The highest employment rates were for Protestant workers aged 25-49 years old, followed by Catholics of the same age. Therefore, whilst religious background had little effect age did. The rate of employment for Protestants aged 50-64 years old remained relatively stable over time, showing a slight increase from Q1 2006 to Q1 2012. Catholics of the same age showed greater fluctuation and a greater increase in employment rates over the same time period. In Q1 2012 the employment rate of Catholics in this age group was 10.5 percentage points lower than that of Protestants (61.6% and 72.1%, respectively).

The employment rates of Protestant 18-24 year olds was consistently greater than that of Catholics of the same age; until Q3 2011 when they began to lower to the same level as Catholic employment rates. In Q1 2012 employment rates for Protestant 18-24 year olds fell below the rates for Catholics of the same age.

Figure 12.15: Employment rate by age and religious background (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

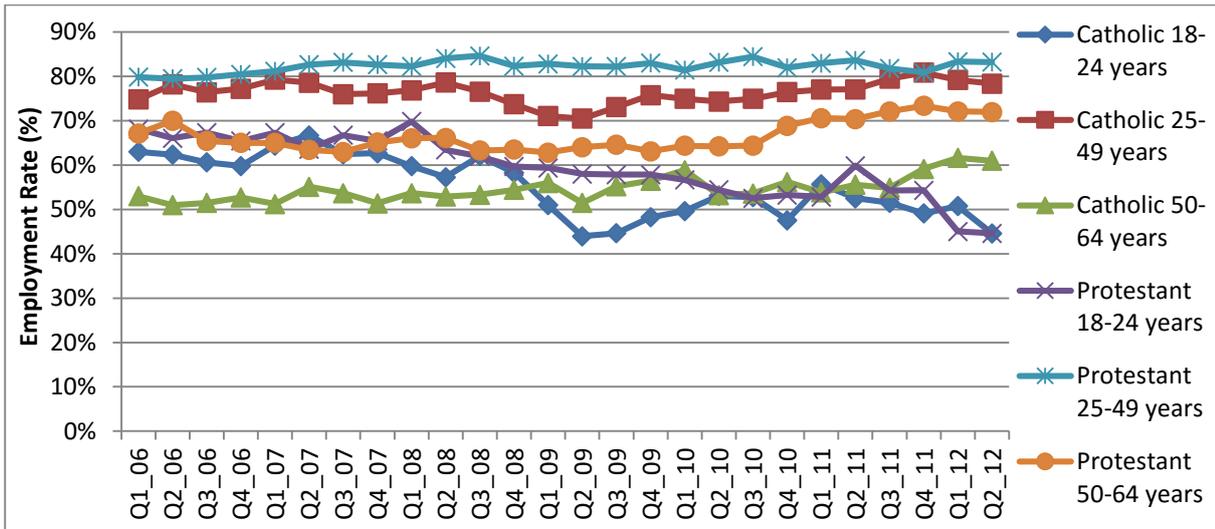


Figure 12.16 shows the ILO unemployment rates by age and religious background. The rate of ILO unemployment for 18-24 year olds showed high levels of fluctuation; Catholics in this age group showed a slight overall increase from Q1 2006 to Q1 2012, whereas Protestants showed a much bigger increase in same time period. The 18-24 years old age group consistently experienced the highest ILO unemployment rates overall. The ILO unemployment rates for Protestants aged 25-49 years old was consistently lower than for Catholics in the same age group until Q4 2011. Also, Catholics aged 50-64 years old had higher ILO unemployment rates than Protestants of the same age group; though at some time points this did converge and fall below the rate of Protestants.

It is evident from Figure 12.16 that whilst there are religious background differences, the differences in age are more prominent given the fact that 18-24 year olds consistently experience higher rates of ILO unemployment than the other two age groups.

Figure 12.16: ILO unemployment rate by age and religious background (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

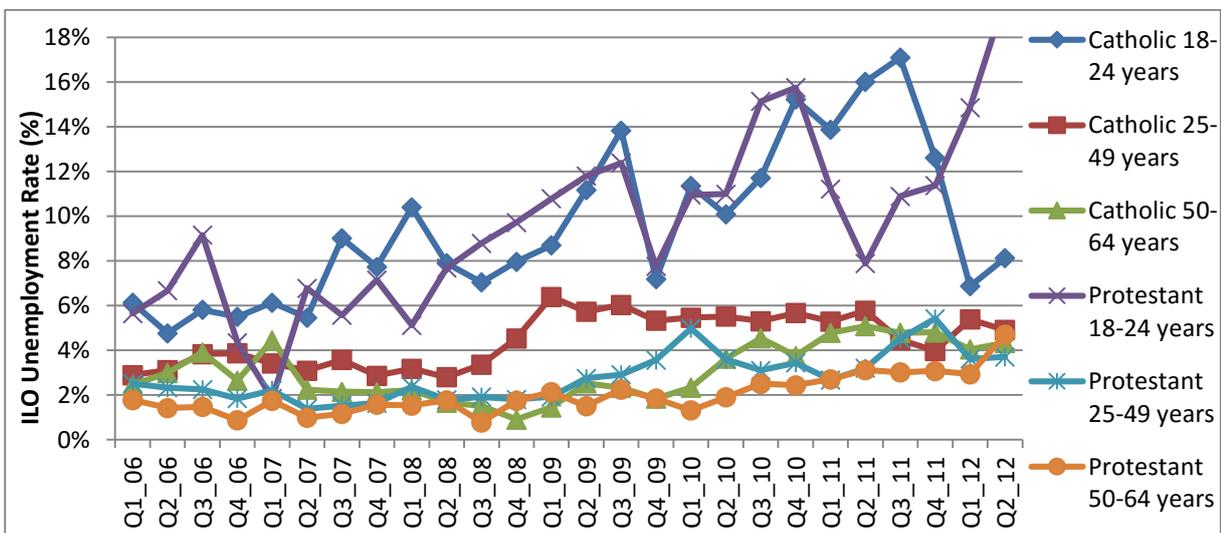
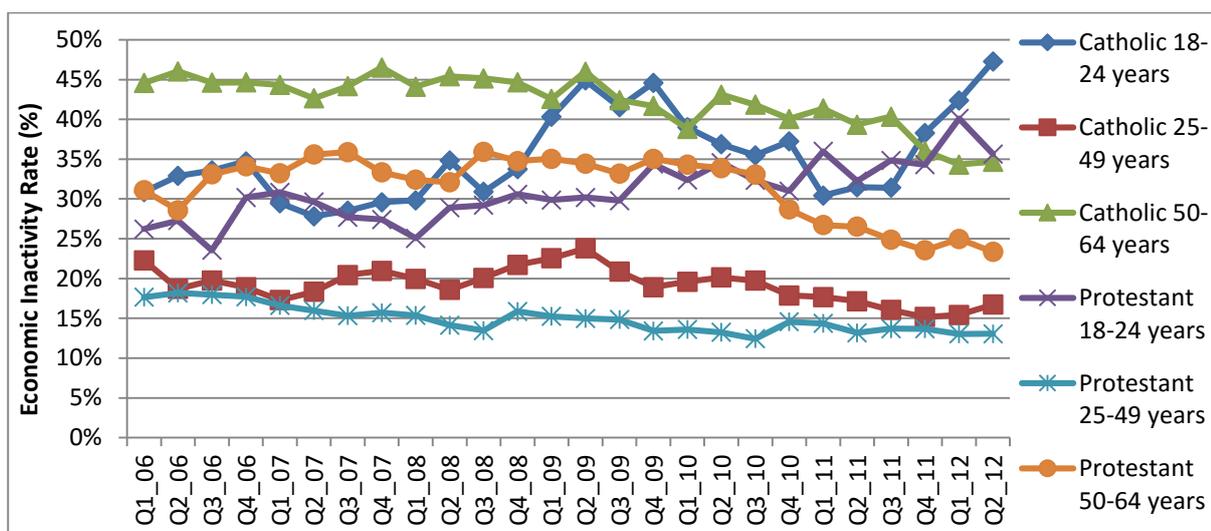


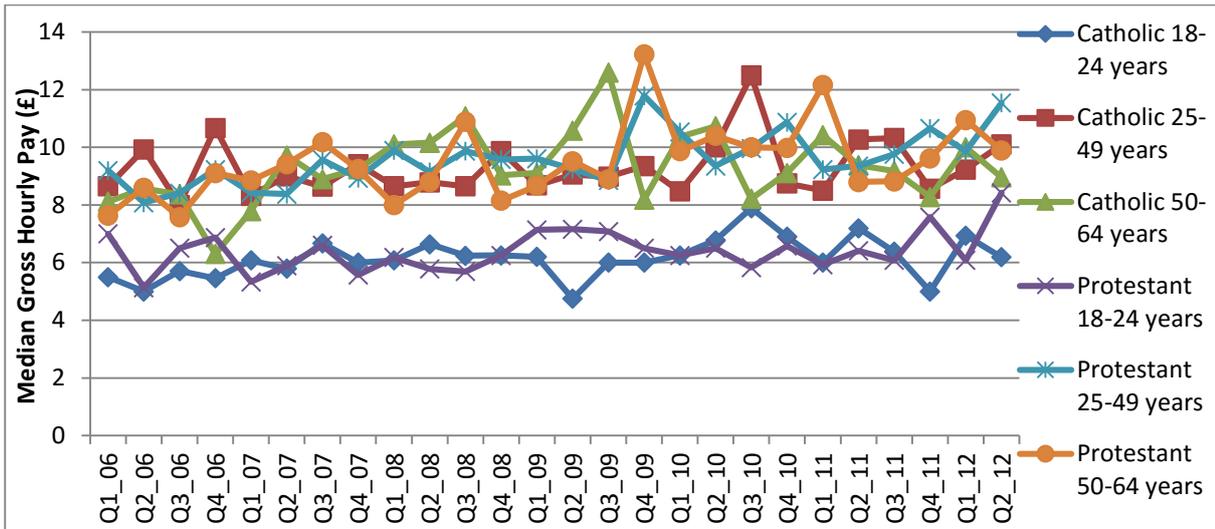
Figure 12.17 shows the economic inactivity rates by age and religious background. The highest economic inactivity rates for most of the period of interest were found among Catholics aged 50-64 years old, although they were overtaken by 18-24 year olds of both religious backgrounds in Q1 2012. The proportions of economically inactive Catholics in the 50-64 year old age group were consistently around 10 percentage points higher than for Protestants in the same age group. However, the difference between the two groups at the end of the period (9.3 percentage points) was narrower than it was at the beginning of the period (13.5 percentage points). Although ILO unemployment rates for Protestant and Catholic 25-49 year olds were largely the same, a small gap emerged in favour of Protestants during the economic downturn, but the rates have since re-converged.

Figure 12.17: Economic inactivity rate by age and religious background (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



When religious background groups are split by age and their median gross hourly wage examined (Figure 12.18), no major differences between the groups appear, other than the relatively lower pay among 18-24 year olds of both religious backgrounds. There has been a general rise in median gross hourly pay over time, and the only evidence of stratification is by age group; there is no evidence here to suggest differences between Protestants and Catholics.

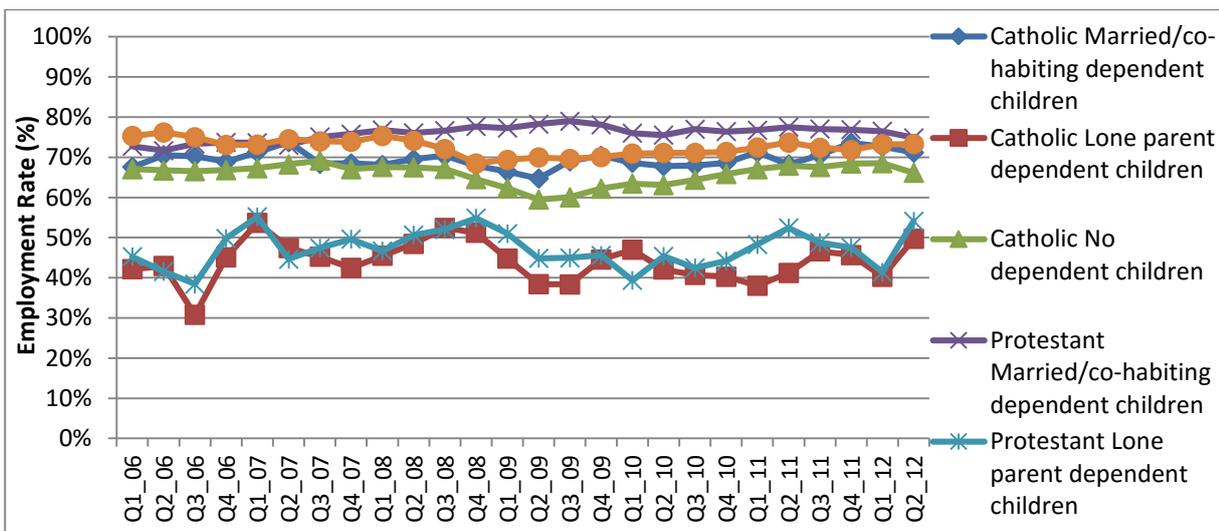
Figure 12.18: Median gross hourly pay by age and main religious background (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Religious background and dependency status

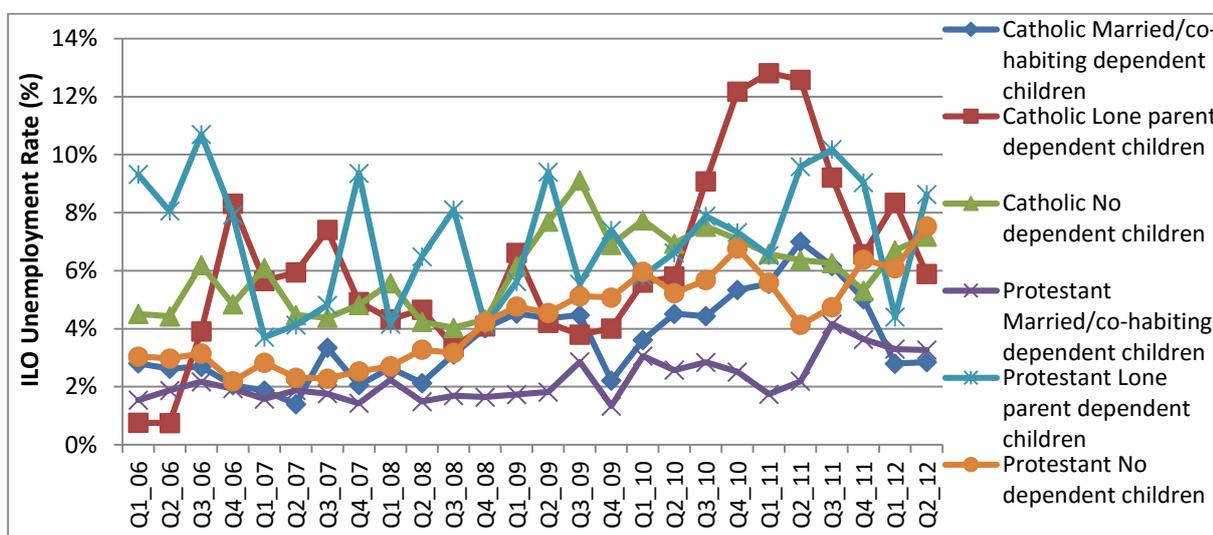
Figure 12.19 shows trends in the employment rates by religious background and dependency status. This figure shows that within each of the dependency status groups, Catholics had lower employment rates than Protestants, with the exception of lone parents where there was a high degree of fluctuation. However, these differences have become smaller over time. For example, in Q1 2006, married or co-habiting Protestants with dependent children had an employment rate of 72.7%, while Catholics in this group had a rate of 67.4%, a difference of 5.3 percentage points. However, by Q1 2012 these rates had increased to 76.5% and 72.6% respectively, a difference of 3.9 percentage points. Lone parents of both backgrounds were considerably less likely to be in employment than married or co-habiting parents and those with no dependent children.

Figure 12.19: Employment rate by dependency status and religious background (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



ILO unemployment rates are presented in Figure 12.20, and from this figure it is clear that ILO unemployment rates rose for both Catholics and Protestants with no dependent children. For Catholics with no dependent children, ILO unemployment rose from 4.5% in Q1 2006 to 6.7% in Q1 2012. Protestants with no dependent children experienced a bigger increase from 3.0% to 6.1% over the same period. While the ILO unemployment rate of Protestant lone parents fluctuated over the period of interest, with no real trend discernible, for Catholic lone parents ILO unemployment appeared to rise sharply from Q2 2010 and peak highly at 12.8% in Q1 2011, before returning to a level comparable with Protestant lone parents and those with no dependent children of both religious backgrounds. The lowest ILO unemployment rates were quite consistently among married or co-habiting Protestants with dependent children; who experienced an increase from 1.5% in Q1 2006 to 3.3% in Q1 2012.

Figure 12.20: ILO unemployment rate by dependency status and religious background (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Disability and age

Figure 12.21 shows employment rates over the period of interest by disability status and age group. There was no overlap between the groups with and without a disability; all age groups without a disability had higher employment rates than all age groups with a disability. Among those without a disability, the youngest age group (18-24 years old) had the lowest employment rate over the period, and while the employment rate rose slightly among the other age groups, for the youngest group it fell considerably, from 65.7% in Q1 2006 to 48.7% in Q1 2012. For those with a disability, the 50-64 years old age group was the least likely to be in employment, although a dramatic fall in employment among the youngest group (from 58.2% in Q1 2006 to 32.0% in Q1 2012) saw convergence between the two. The employment rate among disabled individuals in the 25-49 years old age group increased over the period, from 38.9% in Q1 2006 to 47.6% in Q1 2012.

Figure 12.21: Employment rate by age group and disability status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

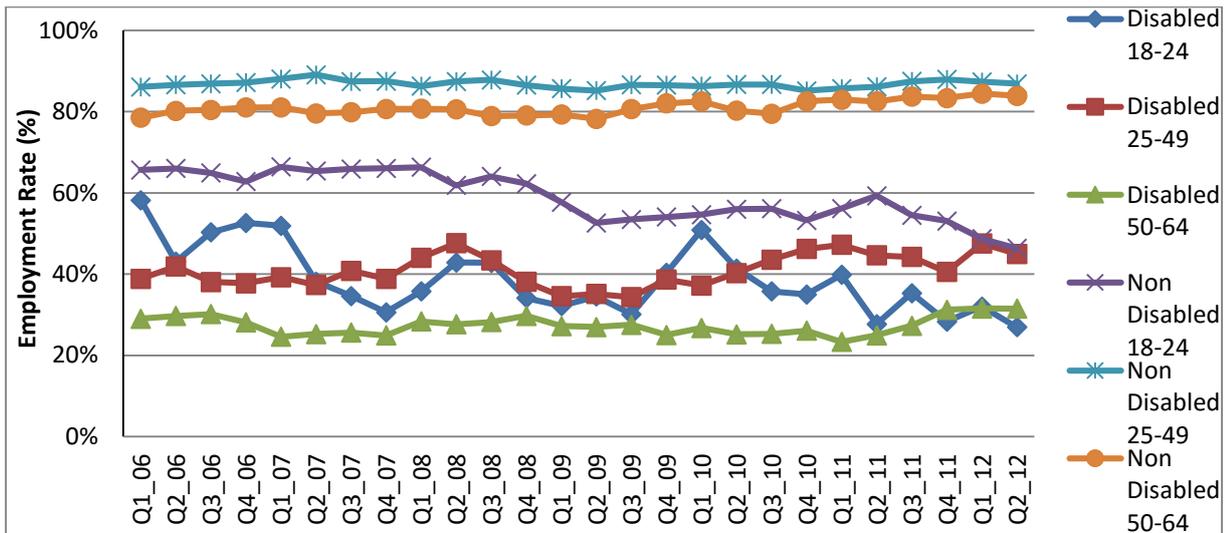


Figure 12.22 considers the trends in ILO unemployment by disability status and age group. The age effect on labour market outcomes is clear in this figure, which shows that those in the 18-24 years old age group were more likely to be unemployed than older workers, regardless of disability status. Those who were disabled and aged 18-24 years old were the most likely to be ILO unemployed for many time points over the period of interest, although their ILO unemployment rate fell considerably since Q2 2011, to below the ILO unemployment rate for some of the other groups from Q4 2011 onwards. Unfortunately, this cannot be interpreted as a recovery, as the corresponding increase in economic inactivity in Figure 12.23 suggests that they have simply been reclassified as economically inactive.

Figure 12.22: ILO unemployment rate by age group and disability status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)

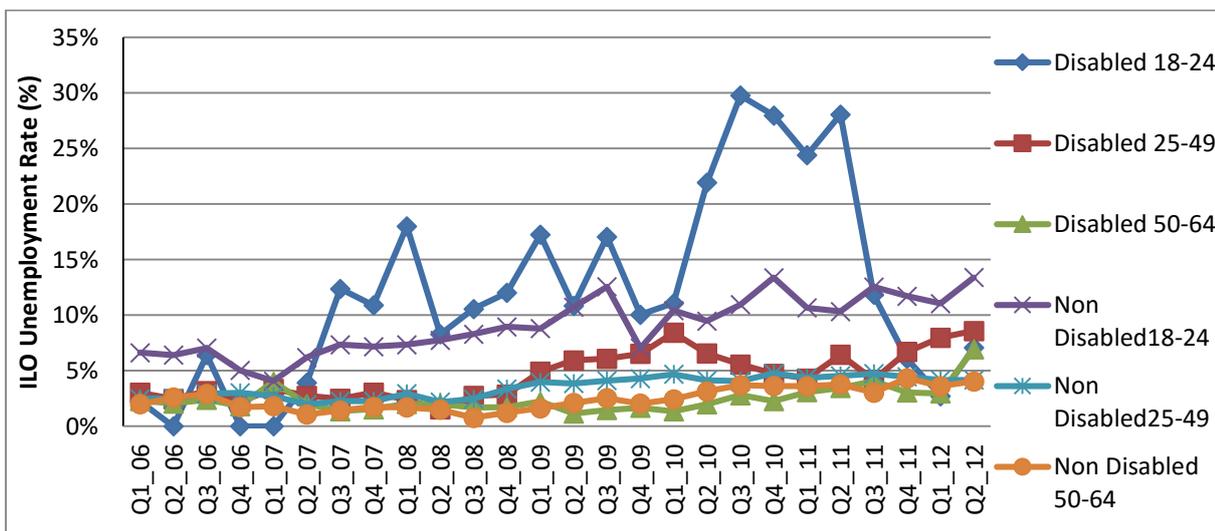
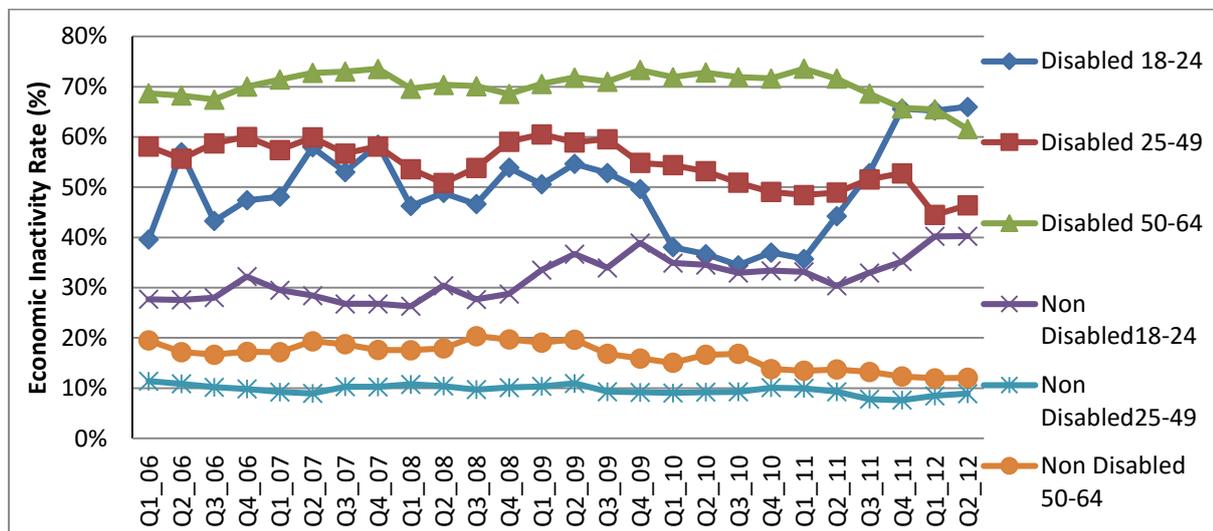


Figure 12.23 shows that those with a disability in the 50-64 years old age group were most likely to be economically inactive over the period of interest, although the inactivity rate in this group fell from 68.7% in Q1 2006 to 65.5% in Q1 2012; those without a disability of the same age group experienced a similar decrease in economic inactivity. A fall in economic inactivity was also observed among 25-49 year olds,

both with and without a disability; the former group had economic inactivity rates that were considerably higher over the period, although the gap narrowed from 46.7 percentage points in Q1 2006 to 36.0 percentage points in Q1 2012. The 18-24 years old age groups, both with and without a disability, were the only groups to experience a rise in economic inactivity. This rise was sharper among those with a disability, who by Q1 2012 were just as likely as disabled 50-64 year olds to be economically inactive.

Figure 12.23: Economic inactivity rate by age group and disability status (Source: LFS, 2006-2012)



Summary

The key points from the analyses of multiple inequalities are summarised below. A total of eight key inequalities were identified. These inequalities are presented in the table below; followed by a summary of the Chapter’s findings.

Multiple Inequalities in Employment:	Persistent or Emergent?
Gender and Age	
➤ Males aged 18-24 years old consistently had higher rates of part-time employment than males aged 25 years old and over.	Persistent
➤ Females aged 18-24 years old had the highest rates of part-time employment overall: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ From Q2 2011 females aged 18-24 years old had higher rates of part-time employment than females aged 25 years old and over and males aged 18 years old and over. 	Emergent
➤ Females aged 18-24 years old were the most likely to be classified as economically inactive: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ From Q3 2011 females aged 18-24 years old were the most likely, 	Emergent

Multiple Inequalities in Employment:	Persistent or Emergent?
of all the groups (male or female) to be economically inactive.	

Gender and Dependency Status

➤ Females who were lone parents or were married or co-habiting with dependent children had much higher part-time employment rates than females with no dependent children.	Persistent
➤ Male lone parents had higher part-time employment rates than males who were married or co-habiting with dependent children or males with no dependent children.	Persistent
➤ Female lone parents had higher rates of part-time employment than male lone parents.	Persistent
➤ Female lone parents had higher rates of ILO unemployment than male lone parents.	Persistent

Religious Background and Gender

➤ Catholic females consistently had the highest rates of economic inactivity.	Persistent
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*The sample size of male lone parents is small.

Gender and age

- Trends in employment rates were more attributable to age rather than sex.
 - Employment rates for those aged 25 years old and over remained fairly constant between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.
 - Employment rates for those aged 18-24 years old decreased between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 for both males (69.6% and 50.2%, respectively) and females (60.3% and 43.9%, respectively).
- Females had higher rates of part-time employment than males, regardless of age.
 - Amongst females, those aged 25-49 years old had the lowest rates of part-time employment for the majority of the period of interest.
 - From Q2 2011, females aged 18-24 years old had the highest rates of part-time employment compared to any of the other groups.
- Amongst males those aged 18-24 years old consistently had the highest rates of part-time employment between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.

- Those aged 18-24 years old, regardless of sex, consistently had the highest ILO unemployment rates between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.
 - Males aged 18-24 years old saw the biggest increase in ILO unemployment rates, from 9.3% in Q1 2006 to 14.0% in Q1 2012.
- Females, were more likely to be economically inactive than males of the same age between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012.
 - For both sexes the 18-24 years old age group experienced an increase in economic inactivity between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, whilst all other groups experienced a decrease in inactivity rates.
 - From Q3 2011 females aged 18-24 years old experienced the highest rates of economic inactivity.
 - Within each sex, those aged 25-49 years old consistently maintained lower rates of economic inactivity than those aged 18-24 and 50-64 years old.

Gender and dependency status

- Regardless of sex, employment rates showed similar patterns.
 - Employment rates were fairly constant for those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children, and those without dependents.
 - Married or co-habiting males with dependent children consistently had the highest employment rates throughout the period of interest – rates increased from 78.4% in Q1 2006 to 80.0% in Q1 2012.
 - Employment rates rose slightly over the period of review for married or co-habiting females with dependent children, from 62.3% in Q1 2006 to 67.6% in Q1 2012.
 - Employment rates were less stable for lone parents.
 - Male lone parents, in particular, showed a steep downward trend, and had the lowest employment rates over the period of interest (however, numbers for male lone parents were low and must be treated with caution).
- The rates of part-time employment remained fairly constant for most groups between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, with the exception of lone parents.
 - Males who were married or co-habiting with dependent children, or had no dependent children, had the lowest rates of part-time employment (5.7% and 6.7% in Q1 2006 and 7.7% and 9.8% in Q1 2012, respectively).
 - Male lone parents had the highest rates of part-time employment amongst males.
 - Females with dependent children had the highest rates of part-time employment for the majority of the period of interest.
 - Census 2001 and Census 2011 for Northern Ireland data showed that female lone parents had higher rates of part-time employment than male lone parents.

- All groups experienced an upward trend in ILO unemployment between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, with the exception of male lone parents.
 - Census 2001 and Census 2011 for Northern Ireland data showed that female lone parents had higher rates of unemployment than male lone parents at both time points.
- All groups displayed fairly constant economic inactivity rates, with the exception of male and female lone parents who experienced some fluctuation over the time period.

Religious background and gender

- Within each religious background, a higher proportion of males than females were in employment.
 - Protestant females had higher employment rates than Catholic males from Q2 2010 to Q2 2011, and higher rates than Catholic females throughout.
 - Protestant males consistently had the highest employment rates throughout the period of interest.
- Gender is a much stronger predictor of part-time employment than religious background.
 - Protestant females showed the highest part-time employment rates for the majority of the period of interest. From Q3 2011 the Catholic female part-time employment rates were higher (although sample sizes for Catholic females were low).
 - Males from a Protestant background had the lowest rates of part-time employment overall.
- An overall increase in ILO unemployment rates for all groups was seen after Q3 2008.
 - Overall, males were consistently more likely to be ILO unemployed than females.
 - Within each sex, Catholics were more likely to be ILO unemployed than Protestants.
 - Catholic males had the highest ILO unemployment rates; rates increased from 4.9% in Q1 2006 to 7.3% in Q1 2012.
- All groups showed an overall slight downward trend in economic inactivity rates.
 - Females were more likely to be economically inactive than males.
 - Catholics more likely to be economically inactive than Protestants within each sex.
 - Females from a Catholic background had the highest economic inactivity rates (38.4% in Q1 2006 and 31.7% in Q1 2012), and males from a Protestant background the lowest (19.3% in Q1 2006 and 19.8% in Q1 2012).
- Protestant males were in receipt of higher median hourly wages for the majority of the period of interest.
 - All groups except Catholic males saw an overall increase in hourly median wages over the period of interest.
 - Catholic females experienced the biggest increase in hourly median wages (an increase of £1.09 per hour from Q1 2006 to Q1 2012).

Religious background and age

- Trends in employment rates were more attributable to age rather than religious background.
 - The highest employment rates were for Protestant workers aged 25-49 years old, followed by Catholics of the same age.
 - The employment rate of Catholics aged 50-64 years old was 10.5 percentage points lower than that of Protestants in the same age group in Q1 2012 (61.0% and 72.1%, respectively).
 - Those aged 18-24 years old from both religious backgrounds were the only groups to experience a fall in employment rates and had the lowest employment rates in Q1 2012.
- Those aged 18-24 from both religious backgrounds had the highest rates of ILO unemployment and also the highest levels of fluctuation.
 - The ILO unemployment rates for Protestants aged 25-49 years old was consistently lower than for Catholics in the same age group until Q4 2011.
 - Catholics aged 50-64 years old had higher ILO unemployment rates than Protestants of the same age, although at some time points this did converge.
- The highest economic inactivity rates for most of the period of interest were found among Catholics aged 50-64 years old, although they were overtaken by 18-24 year olds of both religious backgrounds in Q1 2012.
 - The proportion of economically inactive Catholics in the 50-64 years old age group was consistently around 10 percentage points higher than for Protestants in the same age group.
 - Economic inactivity rates for 25-49 year old Protestant and Catholics were largely the same.
- Trends in median gross hourly pay were more attributable to age rather than religious background.
 - The median gross hourly pay for 18-24 year olds of both religious backgrounds was lower than any of the other age groups, regardless of religious background.
 - There was a general rise in median gross hourly pay between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 for all groups.

Religious background and dependency status

- Within each of the dependency status groups, Catholics had lower employment rates than Protestants, with the exception of lone parents where there was a high degree of fluctuation.
 - Lone parents of both backgrounds were considerably less likely to be in employment than married or co-habiting parents and those with no dependent children.
- ILO unemployment rates rose for both Catholics (4.5% in Q1 2006 to 6.7% in Q1 2012) and Protestants (3.0% to 6.1% over the same period) with no dependent children.
 - The lowest ILO unemployment rates were quite consistently among married or co-habiting Protestants with dependent children, although an increase was also evident in this group, from 1.5% in Q1 2006 to 3.3% in Q1 2012.

Disability and age

- All age groups without a disability had higher employment rates than all age groups with a disability.
 - Of those without a disability, 18-24 year olds had the lowest employment rates over the period of interest, falling from 65.7% in Q1 2006 to 58.7% in Q1 2012.
 - For those with a disability, the 50-64 years old age group was the least likely to be in employment. Although there was some convergence with the 18-24 year olds as they experienced a dramatic drop in employment rates (from 58.2% in Q1 2006 to 32.0% in Q1 2012).
 - The employment rate among disabled individuals in the 25-49 years old age group increased over the period, from 38.9% in Q1 2006 to 47.6% in Q1 2012.
- Those in the 18-24 years old age group were more likely to be ILO unemployed than older workers, regardless of disability status.
- Those with a disability in the 50-64 years old age group were most likely to be economically inactive over the period of interest, although their economic inactivity rate fell from 68.7% in Q1 2006 to 65.5% in Q1 2012.
 - A fall in economic inactivity was also observed among 25-49 year olds, both with and without a disability.
 - Those in the 18-24 years old age group, both with and without a disability, were the only groups to experience a rise in economic inactivity.

Chapter 13. Summary of Key Inequalities in Employment¹³⁹

In 2007 the Equality Commission for Northern Ireland published its *Statement on Key Inequalities in Northern Ireland*. In this publication a number of key inequalities with regard to employment in Northern Ireland were identified. For example: ‘differences in occupational profiles [for gender]’ (pg. 9); gender pay gaps; ‘unequal sharing of caring responsibilities’ (pg. 10); gender differences in hours worked; and lower employment rates for disabled people.

The present report was commissioned as an update of the key inequalities in employment in Northern Ireland. As such, data within this report covers the period 2006 to 2012. The main data source for the report was the Labour Force Survey (LFS) which comprises a quarterly sample of between 2500 and 3000 people of working age in Northern Ireland; therefore, Quarter 1 2006 to Quarter 1 2012 (Q1 2006 to Q1 2012) were utilised. Whilst trends in labour market outcomes were investigated in the present study using this data it should be noted that care must be taken as LFS data is subject to sample error especially for small sub groups, for example, male lone parents. Therefore it is important in the analysis of LFS data to consider the broad trends rather than a figure for a single month. However, the LFS is updated each quarter and allows a more effective monitoring than most other data sources; it is also directly comparable with other parts of the UK and in part with EU countries.

In addition to the use of LFS data the report also drew on data from: the Census 2011 for Northern Ireland (although many of the detailed tables were unavailable); the Northern Ireland Life and Times Surveys (NILTS, 2006, 2010 and 2012); the Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings (ASHE); and the Equality Commission for Northern Ireland’s Equality Awareness Survey (2012).

This chapter is a refinement and summary of the inequalities that were identified for each of the equality grounds set out in Section 75 of the Northern Ireland Act, 1998. First, this chapter presents a **summary of the key inequalities** in employment in Northern Ireland. The summary of key inequalities will look against the main areas of employment, such as ILO unemployment and median gross hourly pay, to highlight the key inequalities. Then, the chapter **summarises the inequalities for each of the nine equality grounds** followed by a discussion of how these relate to the literature cited in the main report; this will be undertaken for each of the equality groups above. Furthermore, inequalities in employment in respect to identified multiple identities are highlighted against the nine equality grounds.

Summary of key inequalities in employment

The main findings of the research regarding economic activity are summarised in pictorial form using spider diagrams. An overview is presented of the employment rates (Figure 13.1), part-time employment rates (Figure 2.3), ILO unemployment rates (Figure 2.4), economic inactivity rates (Figure 2.5) and median gross

¹³⁹ References used within this chapter are cited in the appropriate chapters’ reference section.

hourly pay for seven of the nine equality grounds¹⁴⁰, for the time periods 2006 and 2012. In interpreting the charts a key point to note is that the closer the line is to the centre of the spider diagram, or web, the lower the represented rate.

Employment

From Figure 13.1 it is clear that in 2012 people in the 18-24 years old age group were less likely to be in employment than those aged 25-49 years old or 50-64 years old. The employment rate in the 18-24 years old age group fell considerably between 2006 and 2012 whilst those in the 25-49 years old age group maintained consistently higher than average employment rates than the other two age groups. Although the employment rate of those aged 50-64 years old was also lower than average it increased slightly between 2006 and 2012. In conclusion, those 18-24 year olds experienced key inequalities in employment in Northern Ireland.

Figure 13.1 Employment rates in 2006 and 2012 (Source: LFS 2006 and 2012)

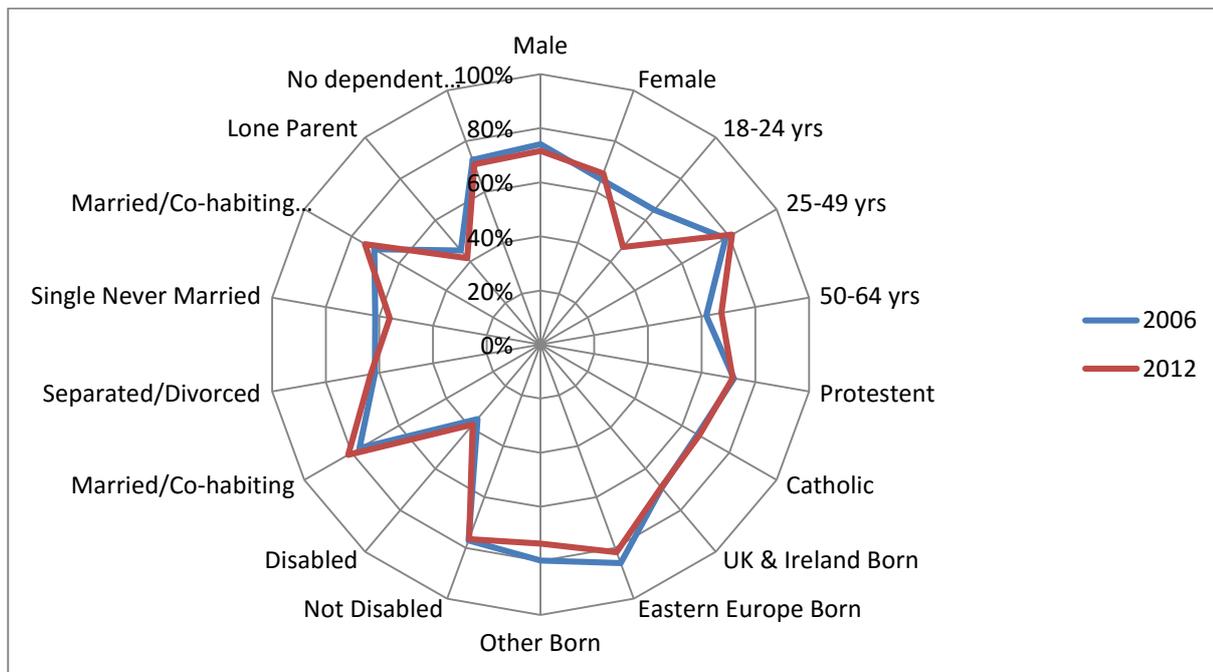


Figure 13.1 also indicates considerable disadvantage for disabled people and lone parents; both of these groups had noticeably lower employment rates over the period of interest. The employment situation of these groups was persistently low over the study period; this could therefore be characterised as a persistent inequality, rather than one that has occurred in response to, or been exacerbated by, the economic downturn. Those who were married or co-habiting with dependent children, those with no dependent children, and those without a disability, maintained higher than average employment rates throughout the period of study.

¹⁴⁰ The data used here is from the Labour Force Survey, which does not include data on sexual orientation or political belief.

Investigation of these three particularly disadvantaged groups (those aged 18-24 years old, people with a disability, and lone parents) was undertaken in Chapters 4, 8 and 11 respectively, with the findings summarised below. It is worth noting here that the effect of lone parenthood is likely to be confounded to some extent with age; lone parents with young children (who are likely to be out of work) are also likely to be younger, and this group is also less likely to be in employment. A similar effect is likely to occur in the single and have never married group, who have had lower than average employment rates throughout the period of study, but this group were also more likely to be in the 18-24 years old age group with lower employment rates. Those who were separated, divorced or widowed also had lower than average employment rates; this group may be more likely to be in the 50-64 years old age group, which also had a lower employment rate.

Figure 13.1 shows no change in the employment rate of those classified as UK and Ireland born, which stayed exactly at the average for the whole period of study (although the fact that they comprise over 98% of the population means that the 'average' employment rate will rarely differ). The picture was different for those born outside the UK and Ireland; employment rates in these groups were higher than the UK and Ireland born group, but both those born in Eastern Europe and those born elsewhere saw a fall in employment between 2006 and 2012.

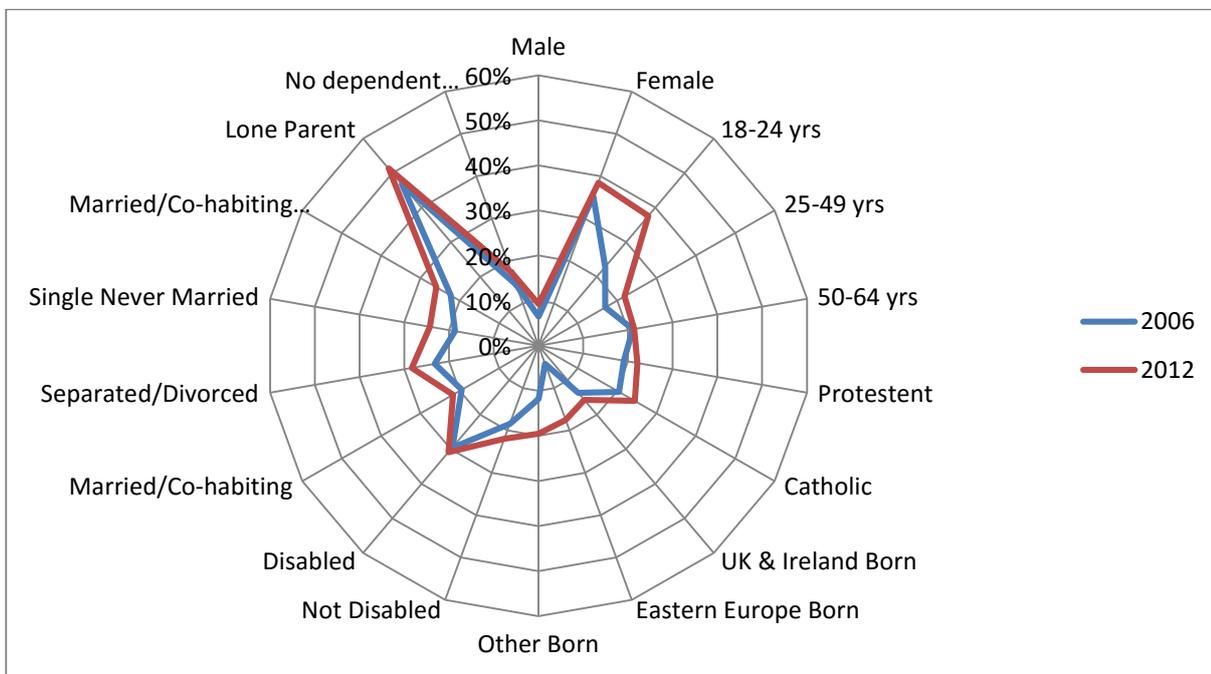
Subtle differences in employment rates can be seen between those of a Protestant and Catholic background, with Protestant employment rates (72.1% and 72.2% at Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, respectively) slightly higher than those of Catholics (65.1% and 67.2% at Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, respectively) at both time periods, but almost no overall change experienced by either group. The differences between the sexes were also very slight, with male employment rates (74.1% and 71.6% at Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, respectively) slightly higher than average¹⁴¹, and female employment rates (64.6% and 67.3% at Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, respectively) slightly lower, although this gap was smaller in 2012 than it was in 2006.

¹⁴¹ The average rates of employment were 69.6% and 69% in 2006 and 2012 respectively

Part-time employment

Figure 13.2 shows the proportions of those employed who were in part-time employment for each of the equality groups, and suggests that for most groups this proportion had risen, although to varying extents. For males, part-time employment rose very slightly but was consistently very low; by contrast, although part-time employment was very rare for those born in Eastern Europe in 2006; the proportion in part-time employment had increased by 2012. Part-time employment became considerably more common among 18-24 year olds between 2006 and 2012, and there was also a slight increase among 25-49 year olds, but for those aged 50-64 years old there was little change over this period. Those with a disability were more likely to work part-time than those without, although there was an increase in part-time employment among those without a disability. Most likely to work part-time were lone parents, females, and those aged 18-24 years old; membership between these groups is likely to overlap considerably.

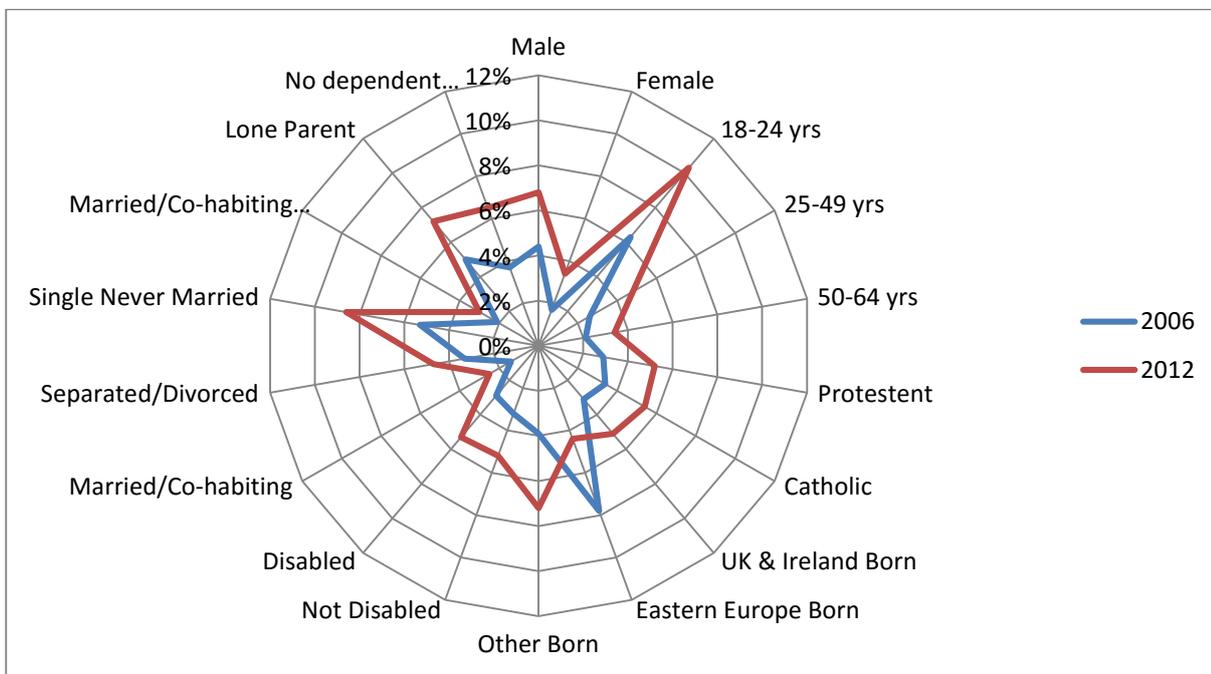
Figure 13.2 Proportion in part-time employment in 2006 and 2012 (Source: LFS 2006 and 2012)



Unemployment

Figure 13.3 shows that, in general, presumably reflecting the economic downturn, ILO unemployment rates had risen since 2006 for every group apart from those born in Eastern Europe, who saw a fall in ILO unemployment. Those born elsewhere (i.e. not in the UK, Ireland or Eastern Europe) had relatively high rates of unemployment; a considerable increase was seen between 2006 and 2012. Relatively high ILO unemployment rates were seen among 18-24 year olds, lone parents, and those who were single and have never married; again there is likely to be considerable overlap between these groups. High ILO unemployment rates were also seen among those who were male and those who had no dependent children. There were differences in the prevalence of ILO unemployment between the sub-groups of most of the equality grounds, but in 2012 there was very little difference between those of a Catholic background and those of a Protestant background, or between those with and without a disability.

Figure 13.3: ILO unemployment rates in 2006 and 2012 (Source: LFS 2006 and 2012)

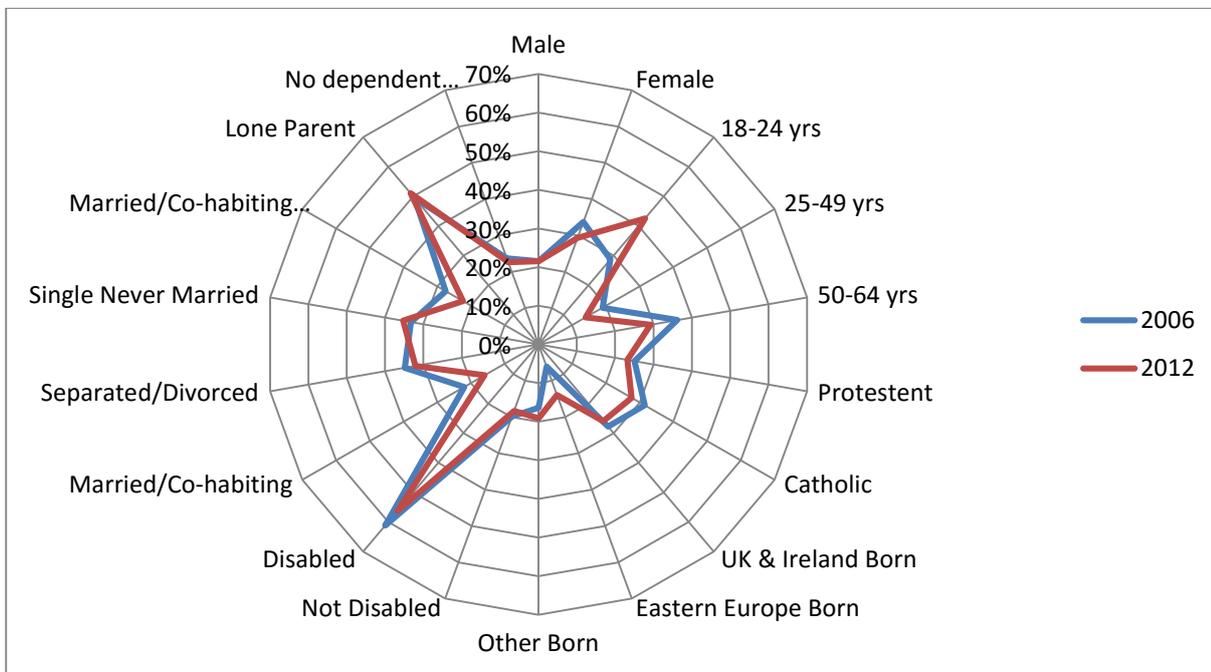


Economic Inactivity

Figure 13.4 shows particularly high economic inactivity rates were evident for those aged 18-24 years old, those with a disability, and lone parents. The high economic inactivity rate of those aged 18-24 years old will be to some extent due to the fact that many were in education, either still at school, or in further or higher education. However, as Figure 13.2 noted, the 18-24 years old age group also had a high ILO unemployment rate, and therefore the low employment and high economic inactivity rates cannot be merely attributed to this group's participation in education. Indeed, as Chapter 4 will explore in more detail, a high proportion of this group are classified as Not in Employment, Education or Training (NEET); 20.5% of 16-24 year olds in Northern Ireland are classified as such, which represents an increase of 59% since the year 2000 (Northern Ireland Executive, 2012). Figure 13.4 confirms the trend towards even higher economic inactivity rates among the 18-24 years old age group. Therefore, this is an issue of considerable policy concern in Northern Ireland, and indeed across Europe, with many other countries faring as badly or even worse. In the 50-64 years old age group, a trend away from retirement amongst this group can be seen, with lower economic inactivity rates in 2012 than in 2006.

High economic inactivity rates among those with a disability and lone parents also point to important policy issues. Although economic inactivity among those with a disability fell slightly between the two time points, it remained high at 61.2% and 56.3% respectively at Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, respectively; they were the most disadvantaged group in this respect. The economic inactivity rate of lone parents was 49.6% at Q1 2006 and increased slightly to 51.1% at Q1 2012.

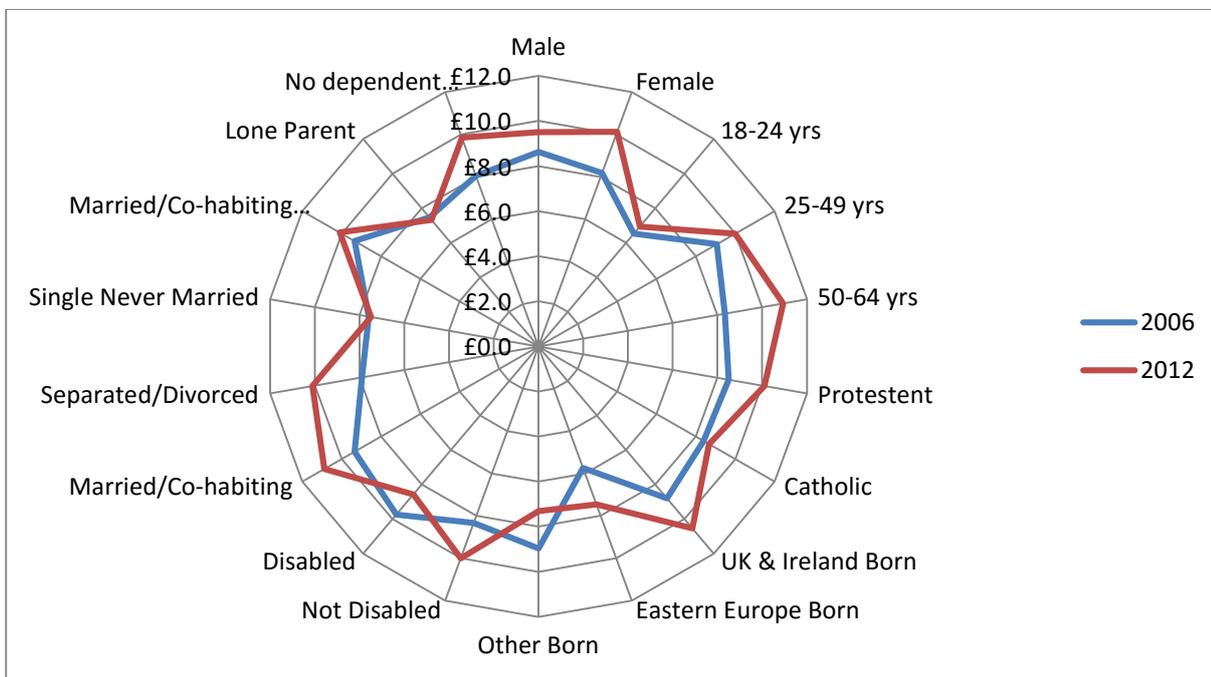
Figure 13.4: Economic inactivity rates in 2006 and 2012 (Source: LFS 2006 and 2012)



Median gross hourly pay

Figure 13.5 presents the median gross hourly pay at Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 for each group. For most groups, pay had increased between the two time points. However, for some groups, pay had fallen or remained stable, and inequalities had widened or even reversed. Those aged 18-24 years old, who already had lower pay at Q1 2006 than the other two age groups, saw only a small increase by Q1 2012, and the inequalities between the age groups widened as a result. Those with a disability had a higher average wage at Q1 2006, but this situation had reversed by Q1 2012. The disparity between those of Protestant and Catholic backgrounds was very small at Q1 2006, but by Q1 2012 it had widened. Those who were single and have never married had also fallen further behind those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership and those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed.

Figure 13.5: Median gross hourly pay in 2006 and 2012 (Source: LFS 2006 and 2012)



Key inequalities

The main findings of the research regarding economic activity, as summarised here, detailed below, and fully examined with specific chapters, highlight noticeable disadvantages and / or key inequalities for three equality groups:

1. For those aged **18-24 years old**, employment rates were low and unemployment economic inactivity rates were high;
2. **Lone parents** continued to have lower employment rates, and higher unemployment and inactivity rates, than married or cohabiting couples with children or those without children; and
3. **Disabled people** were much less likely to be employed, and much more likely to be economically inactive, than those without disability.

The evidence presented here clearly demonstrates that those 18-24 year old, lone parents and those with a disability were subject to key inequalities in terms of labour market participation and outcomes from that participation. However, it must be realised that inequalities were exhibited across all equality grounds. These are now summarised within the remainder of this chapter.

Summary of inequalities for each of the nine equality grounds

The chapter now refines and summarises the inequalities for each of the nine equality grounds followed by a discussion of how these relate to the literature cited in the main report; this will be undertaken for each of the equality groups above. Furthermore, inequalities in employment in respect to identified multiple identities are highlighted against the nine equality grounds.

Gender

Within this report the general picture reported is of on-going inequalities in the labour market that affects females. This report found that between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 the inequalities that females faced in the labour market were persistent. Females consistently experienced:

- Lower employment rates than males;
- Higher economic inactivity rates than males;
- Higher rates of part-time employment than males;
- Horizontal segregation in respect to industry sector employed in; and
- Vertical segregation in respect to occupation group employed in.

The finding that females had lower employment rates than males remained remarkably stable over the period Q1 2006 to Q1 2012. However, differences were more marked when trends in ILO unemployment rates were examined – these rates increased for both males and females over the period, but the level and rate of increase was much higher for males than females. Economic inactivity rates also remained fairly constant between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. Whilst male economic inactivity rates averaged at 21.8% over the period female economic inactivity rates were 32.1%. It is noted that economic inactivity rates peaked in Q2 2009 for both males and females; this was likely to be an effect of the continuation of weak economic growth.

The inequalities outlined above are also supported in the literature review. The Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency (NISRA, 2012b) reported male economic activity rates in April to June 2012 of 66.6% for females aged 16-59 years old and 79.0% for males aged 16-64 years old; these rates were similar to those found in this report¹⁴² (70.7% and 78.6%, respectively). In addition NISRA (ibid.) reported that 39.8% of female employees worked part-time, compared with just 10.4% of male employees; again this is similar to rates found in the present research (38.5% and 9.2%, respectively).

Data from NISRA (2012c) also supports the finding that the Northern Ireland labour market is highly horizontally segregated along gender lines. For example, in 2012 92% of female full-time employees worked in the service sector, compared to 65% of males; a total of 54% of females were employed in the public administration, education and health sectors compared to 26% of males (Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency, 2012c). These findings mirror those of the present study which found that 51.4% of females at Q1 2012 were employed in the 'Public Administration, Education and Health' industry sector and an additional 22.0% in 'Distribution, Hotels and Restaurants' (22.0% at Q1 2012).

Research from the UK and across Europe suggests that there are more opportunities to achieve the better-paid managerial roles in the more male-dominated private sector (Schroeder et al., 2008). Therefore, it is possible that the identified existence of horizontal segregation in the Northern Ireland labour market may also be a driver of vertical segregation; where working in the public sector protects employees from downward occupational mobility, but restricts their upward mobility.

Horizontal segregation may also create gender inequalities in employment outcomes if sectors are differently affected by cyclical economic fluctuations. As evidence in gender chapter of this report the recession had a particularly large impact on the male-dominated construction industry in Northern Ireland, and the job losses incurred by males were larger than those incurred by females, as the public sector seemed to remain relatively sheltered (Hinds, 2011). That is not to say that females were not affected by the recession; the issue of gender inequalities in the labour market is complex, and the impact of the recession on males and females reflects this in different ways. For example, females may have left jobs that no longer allowed them to balance their work and care responsibilities (ibid.).

NISRA (2012b) research has also shown evidence to support the finding that vertical segregation in the labour market with regard to occupation group exists. In Northern Ireland, from April to June 2012, only

¹⁴² This rate is calculated by 100 minus the economic inactivity rate.

36% of 'Managers and Senior Officials' were reported to be female; this equates to only 5% of females compared to 10% of males being employed in 'Managers and Senior Official' positions (ibid.). The present research supports this finding: at Q1 2012 only 36.8% of those employed in 'Managers and Senior Officials' Occupations were female.

The present report also found a degree of vertical segregation with regard to other occupation groups such as:

- 'Administrative and Secretarial' occupations which employed 21.4% of the female workforce in Q1 2012, compared to only 5.5% of the male workforce;
- 'Personal Service Occupations' which employed 16.8% of the female workforce in Q1 2012, compared to only 2.7% of the male workforce;
- 'Sales and Customer Service' occupations which employed 11.9% of the female workforce in Q1 2012, compared to only 4.7% of the male workforce;
- 'Skilled Trades Occupations' which employed 24.1% of the male workforce in Q1 2012, compared to only 2.3% of the female workforce; and
- 'Process, Plant and Machine Operatives' occupations which employed 10.5% of the male workforce in Q1 2012, compared to only 1.9% of the female workforce.

There is no definitive answer as to why occupational segregation exists, and the extent to which it is a product of choice. Findings from the Women into Non-Traditional Sectors project in Belfast (Potter and Hill, 2009) suggested that, where constraints exist, they are both practical and cultural. A combination of childcare, transport and mentoring support was shown to help females overcome some of the practical impediments to accessing training and employment in traditionally male-dominated areas. However, without organisational change towards a genuine commitment to diversity and work-family reconciliation across the labour market, females may continue to be effectively excluded from many workplaces. The present research also found that the weaker economic labour market position of females was not explained by qualification holding as females were generally better qualified than males (having higher degree or equivalent holding rates and lower no qualification rates than males).

A further inequality with regard to gender was identified in the present study: negative attitudes toward transgender persons. Since no data was available with regard to the labour market outcomes of transgender persons, attitudinal data was utilised. Findings from the 2011 Equality Awareness Survey showed that 22% of respondents had a negative attitude toward transgender persons. When broken down further it was shown that: 35% of respondents would mind having a transgender person as a work colleague; 40% would mind having a transgender person as a neighbour; and 53% would mind having a transgender person as an in-law.

The identification of negative attitudes toward transgender persons is supported in the literature. Valentine et al. (2009) found that 23% of transgender staff who worked in higher education in Northern Ireland, England and Wales, claimed to have been denied a promotion because of their transgender status. In that

same study, transgender employees also identified difficulties changing their personal details on workplace records, and reported being asked not to use the toilet facilities that correspond to their preferred/correct gender (Valentine et al., 2009).

The interaction between gender and age will be discussed within the age section. Likewise, gender and dependency status will be discussed in the dependency status section of this chapter.

Age

Within this report the general picture reported is of considerable labour market disadvantage facing young people (those aged 18-24 years old). This report found that between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, the inequalities that face those aged 18-24 years old were both persistent (P) and emergent (E). Between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 those aged 18-24 years old experienced:

- Lower employment rates than those aged 25 years old and over (E);
- A larger decrease in employment rates than those aged 25 years old and over (E);
- Higher part-time employment rates than those aged 25 years old and over (E);
- Higher ILO unemployment rates than those aged 25 years old and over (P);
- Higher rates of economic inactivity than those aged 25 years and over (E);
- Lower pay rates than those aged 25 years old and over (P);
- Horizontal segregation in respect to industry sector employed in (E); and
- Vertical segregation in respect to occupation group employed in (E).

As can be seen above, a number of emergent inequalities were identified by the current research giving support to the research literature which suggests that the impacts of the recession in Northern Ireland were particularly marked for those aged 18-24 years old in terms of unemployment and economic inactivity rates experienced by this group (Bennett, 2010; McQuaid et al., 2010); similar to findings from the 1990s recession (Equality and Human Rights Commission and Department for Work and Pensions, 2009). Indeed, Gregg and Wadsworth (2010) asserted that the unemployment rates for those aged 18-24 years old with low levels of skills and qualifications in the recent recession were much higher than those in previous recessions. However, there are complexities when interpreting unemployment rates. For example, many of those in further or higher education who are aged less than 25 years old identify as unemployed, thus increasing the unemployment rate for that age group (Bivand, 2012). If one excludes students, the levels of unemployment among those aged 16-24 years old in the UK in 2012 were lower than the levels following the recessions of the 1980s and 1990s, as more young people had entered full-time education – although they may have looked for work to go alongside their studies (Office for National Statistics, 2012a; 2012c). Underemployment (e.g. in terms of working less hours than wanted or not using their skills fully) also needs to be considered, as those aged under 25 years old were most likely to find themselves ‘underemployed’ (UK Commission for Employment and Skills, 2011; Trades Union Congress, 2012b). In addition, young

people may be at risk of cycling between unemployment and low paid work (Shildrick et al., 2010, Bivand, 2012).

Research shows that, in 2010 in Northern Ireland, 20.5% of 16-24 year olds were not in full-time education, government supported training, or employment (known as “NEET”); this represented an increase of 59% since the year 2000 (Northern Ireland Executive, 2012). Of those known as NEET only 2% were those who managed to obtain at least 5 GCSEs at A*-C (Department for Employment and Learning Northern Ireland, 2010). In addition, research suggests that unemployment was highest for recent school leavers (Office for National Statistics, 2012d) and that only a minority of UK employers recruit straight from education (UK Commission for Employment and Skills, 2011). A significant number of young people in the UK did not make a successful transition from education into employment, as the youth labour market had contracted and employers had frozen recruitment (Bynner et al., 2002; Oxford Economics, 2010; Office for National Statistics, 2012c). The problem of NEETs is not unique to Northern Ireland or the UK; this rise in youth unemployment was also mirrored in the rest of the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries (Bell and Blanchflower, 2011). On the other side of the coin ‘over-education’ also became an issue in Europe; where young people performed jobs which required fewer skills than they had acquired in initial education (see Quintini and Martin, 2006). This meant that graduates may have been competing for job vacancies previously filled by those with a lower level of qualification, further marginalising young people with low level skills.

As shown by the findings that many young people were ‘over-educated’ for their job roles, education is too simplistic an explanation of the inequalities those aged under 25 years old face in relation to the labour market. UK research has shown that there is a variety of mechanisms shaping the opportunities available to young people. As stated in the literature review of the age chapter within the present report social and parental background continues to play a role in the opportunities open to young people generally (MacDonald et al., 2005; Schroeder et al., 2008); especially in shaping young people’s aspirations (Kintrea et al., 2011; Schoon and Parsons, 2002). Furthermore, a body of research (including work undertaken in Northern Ireland) showed that social networks and attachment to place may mean that young people were limited in the opportunities for employment and training they believed open to them. In addition, those young people who had work experience may have broader horizons, looking at potential employment in terms of the job itself rather than location (Green et al., 2005; Green and White, 2008; Lindsay et al., 2005; MacDonald et al., 2005; White and Green, 2011).

Social aspects also cannot account fully for the difficulties faced by those aged 18-24 years old as research has shown that employers often stress the importance of experience and soft and generic skills (rather than qualifications), but young people do not have these (Newton et al., 2005, UK Commission for Employment and Skills, 2012). Additionally, when in employment, the 2011 Equality Awareness Survey found that 12% of 16-29 year olds perceived that they had personally experienced age-related unfair treatment from their own employer.

Horizontal segregation, to the detriment of those aged 18-24 years old, emerged as an inequality in the labour market. This emergent inequality is evident from the findings in the present research that at Q1 2012, those aged 18-24 years old were under-represented in two thirds (six out of nine) of industry sectors.

Additionally, vertical segregation in relation to the occupation group employed emerged for those aged 18-24 years old. In the present research it was found that those aged 18-24 years old were under-represented in higher level occupation groups such as 'Managers and Senior Officials', 'Professional Occupations' and 'Associate and Technical Occupations'.

As evidenced above, it is fair to say that the recession has increased the barriers facing poorly qualified workers aged 18-24 years old when attempting to enter employment. A further barrier for those aged 18-24 years old identified in both the current and other (UK) research is the increased employment rates of workers aged 50-64 years old; the Department for Work and Pensions (2010 and 2011) reported a 3.9 percentage point increase from 2010 to 2011 with regard to employment rates for those aged 50-64 years old (from 51.4% in 2010 to 55.3% in 2011). This increased employment may have blocked opportunities for new entrants to the labour market. However, the present study also found that those aged 50-64 years old faced a persistent inequality as they had consistently lower employment rates than those aged 25-49 years old between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. Furthermore, sectors such as 'Construction' and heavy industry, which traditionally employed 18-24 years old workers with weaker qualifications, suffered more than other sectors as a result of the recession.

Age and gender were both found to interact with regard to employment rates. Between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 the following persistent (P) and emergent (E) inequalities were found relating to both gender and age:

- Higher rates of part-time employment for males aged 18-24 years old than for males aged 25 years old or over (P);
- Rates of part-time employment overall were highest for females aged 18-24 years old (E); and
- Higher economic inactivity rates for females aged 18-24 years old (E).

Religious background

This report found that between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 the inequalities within the labour market that related to religious background were persistent. Over the time period Catholics experienced:

- Lower employment rates than Protestants;
- Higher economic inactivity rates than Protestants; and
- A degree of horizontal segregation with respect to industry sector employed in.

The finding in the present study that Catholics consistently had lower employment rates than Protestants between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 is upheld in the literature. However, as also found in the present study the difference between Catholics and Protestants is decreasing. The Office of First Minister and Deputy First Minister (OFMdFM, 2012) found that the differential has decreased from 11 percentage points in 1992 to 4 percentage points in 2011.

Whilst the literature also finds that Catholics had persistently higher economic inactivity rates, OFMdfM (2013a) also notes a huge increase in the number of working-age Catholics in employment. Since 1992, there was an increase of 123,000 Catholics in employment compared to an increase of 7,000 Protestants. The present study also identified that it is Catholic females who have the highest economic inactivity rates overall with regard to gender and religious background.

A degree of horizontal segregation was found in the present study with respect to industry sector employed in. Protestant workers were over-represented in all but two industry sectors in Q1 2006. However, whilst this segregation was persistent between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, there were signs of lessening, as in Q1 2012 Protestants were over-represented in all but three industry sectors.

A further persistent inequality was also identified in the present study:

- A degree of vertical segregation in respect to occupation group employed in existed for both Catholics and Protestants.

As outlined above differences in labour market participation for Catholics and Protestants are complex. Whilst under-representation, with respect to the highest level occupation group 'Managers and Senior Officials', was experienced by Catholics at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012, Protestants were under-represented at the next highest level, 'Professional Occupations' at both time points. Regarding lower level occupations, whilst Protestants were over-represented in the low level occupation groups of 'Process, Plant and Machine Operatives' and 'Elementary Occupations' at Q1 2006, it was Catholics who were over-represented at Q1 2012.

Political opinion

This report found that between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 the inequalities within the labour market that related to political opinion were persistent. The persistent inequalities found were that:

- Those who identified as Nationalist had the lowest employment rate; and
- Those who identified as Nationalist had higher economic inactivity rates.

As stated in the literature review for the political opinion there is no research that specifically considers the impact of political belief on the labour market. However, the Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey (NILTS, 2006 and 2012) does offer insight into the political opinion of those in Northern Ireland. Results from the NILTS show that whilst the proportion of respondents who thought of themselves as Nationalist remained the same in both 2006 and 2012 (23.0% and 22.7%, respectively), those who identified as Unionist decreased between the two times points (36.1% in 2006 compared to 28.9% in 2012); the proportion who stated they were neither Nationalist nor Unionist increased from 40.9% in 2006 to 48.3% in 2012.

The NILTS also provided some data with regard to the Northern Ireland labour market and found that, at both 2006 and 2012, those who identified as Nationalist had the lowest employment rates. Additionally, NILTS data also showed that those who identified as Nationalist had higher economic inactivity rates than those who identified as Nationalist or 'Neither Unionist or Nationalist'

Minority ethnic and racial

Within this report the general picture reported is of considerable labour market disadvantage facing Irish Travellers and Eastern Europeans. This report found that between 2006 and 2012, the inequalities (it is unknown whether the inequalities are persistent or emergent given the lack of data sources over time) that Irish Travellers faced were:

- Dramatically lower employment rates;
- Dramatically higher economic inactivity rates; and
- A high degree of prejudice.

There is a small amount of literature on the economic situation of the Traveller community in Northern Ireland. Data from the 2011 Census for Northern Ireland reported an employment rate of 20% for Travellers between the ages of 16-74 years old, an ILO unemployment rate of 8%, and an economic inactivity rate of 69% (NISRA, 2013b). The All Ireland Traveller Health Study suggests that most Travellers leave school without any qualifications, and Traveller children exhibit high levels of non-attendance and dropout (Public Health Agency Northern Ireland, 2010). Data from the 2011 Census for Northern Ireland suggested that 68% of Travellers had no qualifications, although this varies from 57% of 16-24 year olds to 78% of those aged 75 years old and over (NISRA, 2013b).

There was also a high degree of prejudicial attitudes against Travellers in Northern Ireland. The 2012 Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey found that 42.5% of respondents would not want an Irish Traveller as a neighbour and 36.9% would not accept them as a colleague. The 2011 Equality Awareness Survey suggested similarly that a third of respondents would not want a Traveller as a colleague.

As mentioned above, Eastern Europeans also faced inequalities in the Northern Ireland labour market between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. The inequalities that they faced were persistent:

- Lower pay rates – in terms of both gross weekly and median gross hourly pay;
- A degree of horizontal segregation with respect to industry sector employed in;
- A high degree of vertical segregation with respect to occupation group employed in; and
- Prejudiced attitudes toward Polish migrants.

In addition, an inequality of negative attitudes toward migrant workers was persistent. Respondents to the NILTS (2006 and 2010) did not agree that migrant workers were good for the economy, in fact, positive opinion declined from 52.7% in 2006 to 25.7% in 2010.

The literature on minority ethnic and racial inequalities in employment highlighted a number of barriers to, and difficulties within, employment for those who are born outside of the UK or Ireland. Discriminatory attitudes may affect the likelihood of minorities being hired, and once in employment they may face harassment at work and restricted opportunities for training and promotion. Although it is difficult to say to what extent discrimination has this effect, negative attitudes towards minority ethnic or migrant workers were found to be widespread. For example, a quarter of respondents to the ECNI's Equality Awareness Survey in 2011 stated that they would mind having a migrant worker from Eastern Europe as a colleague (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012) and in a survey of Polish workers in Northern Ireland, one sixth reported being intimidated at work (McVeigh and McAfee, 2009).

The findings of horizontal segregation with respect to industry sector employed in, and vertical segregation with respect to occupation group employed in, are not new. The research literature draws attention to both types of segregation and makes links between discriminatory attitudes (described above) and difficulties faced in gaining employment. For example, migrant workers in Northern Ireland face a range of barriers to employment, such as difficulty gaining National Insurance numbers (Bell et al., 2004) or non-recognition of their qualifications (Bell et al., 2004; Potter, 2006; McVeigh and McAfee, 2009; Northern Ireland Council for Ethnic Minorities, 2012). These problems often force migrant workers, in this case Eastern Europeans, to take up jobs at a much lower skill level than qualified for (Bell et al., 2009). In addition, the present study also found that those in the Others group experienced vertical segregation, in respect to occupation group employed in. As stated in the literature review for ethnic and racial inequalities in employment this mismatch between qualifications and occupational outcomes is consistent with evidence from across Europe that migrant workers are more likely to experience such a mismatch (i.e. to be over-educated or under-educated for the job that they perform) than native born workers (Aleksynska and Tritah, 2013).

Disability

Within this report the general picture reported is of persistent and emergent labour market disadvantages for those with a disability between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. The inequalities that disabled people experienced were:

- Lower employment rates (P);
- Higher part-time employment rates (P);
- Higher rates of economic inactivity (P);
- Lower self employment rates (E);
- A degree of horizontal segregation with respect to industry sector employed in (P);
- A degree of vertical segregation with respect to occupation group employed in (P); and
- Prejudice as a potential work colleague (P).

The finding that people with disabilities had lower employment rates is supported in the literature. For example, the Office for National Statistics reported that, in the UK, 45.6% of those aged 16-64 years old with a disability were in work, compared with 76.2% of those without a disability (2011c).

In the Census 2011 for Northern Ireland, economic activity rates in Northern Ireland were found to vary from 76.6% for those who had no long-term health problem or disability¹⁴³, to 14.5% for those whose disability limited their activities 'a lot' (NISRA, 2013c). Economic inactivity rates were highest among those experiencing frequent confusion or memory loss, communication difficulties and difficulties with mobility or dexterity (Ibid.). The present study found that, when the different types of disability were compared, those with a mental ill health or learning disability had the lowest employment rates of all disabled people; those with hidden disabilities the highest employment rates. Again this is supported in the literature, where it was found that the employment rates were lowest for those with severe learning difficulties, mental illnesses or nervous disorders, and depression or anxiety (Berthoud, 2006; Evans, 2007; Meager and Higgins, 2011; ONS, 2011c).

The present study also found that, of those who were in employment, disabled people were more likely to work part-time; in Q1 2012, 30.8% of disabled people worked part-time compared to 22.0% of non-disabled people.

Regarding economic inactivity rates, the present study found that disabled people consistently experienced higher rates of economic inactivity than non-disabled people. In Q1 2012, a total of 56.2% of disabled people were classified as economically inactive; more than triple the economic inactivity rate of non-disabled people.

An emergent inequality found within the present study was that whilst the rate of self employment increased for non-disabled people between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 (from 9.3% to 11.2%, respectively) it decreased for disabled people over the same period of time (from 7.8% to 6.3%, respectively).

Disabled people also faced prejudice with regard to being a potential work colleague, and of the 24% of respondents to the 2011 Equality Awareness Survey (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012) who thought disabled people were treated unfairly, almost a third believed this unfair treatment to take place at work. Research by the Disability Rights Commission (2005) also showed prejudice toward disabled people at work; it found that 45% of respondents believed it would be "quite/very difficult" to employ a disabled person, and that if the job did not work out 24% of those who responded thought that disabled people would claim discrimination.

Horizontal segregation with respect to industry sector employed in was found to be a persistent inequality in the present research. It was found that those with disabilities were under-represented in four industry sectors at Q1 2006, and two thirds (six out of nine) of industry sectors at Q1 2012. In addition, vertical segregation with respect to occupation group employed in was found at both Q1 2006 and Q1 2012. Those

¹⁴³ that limited their day to day activities

with disabilities were under-represented at higher level occupation groups such as 'Professional Occupations' at both time points.

The 2011 Equality Awareness Survey (Equality Commission for Northern Ireland, 2012) also found that opinion differed for some types of disability compared to others:

- 15% said they would mind having a person with a physical disability as a colleague.
- 11% said they would mind having a person with a learning disability as a colleague.
- Over a quarter (26%) said that they would mind having a person with mental ill-health as a colleague; this is considerably higher than the 2005 figure of 17%.

Sexual orientation

Persistent labour market disadvantage toward lesbian, gay and bisexuals (LGBs) were reported within the present research. Between 2006 and 2012 the following persistent inequalities were found¹⁴⁴:

- Lower hourly wage rates for males who lived with a same sex partner;
- Prejudice against LGBs; and
- Unfair treatment of LGBs in general and in regard to the labour market.

Whilst the present study found that males who lived with a same sex partner had lower hourly wage rates than females living in same sex couples or those living in an opposite sex couple, research suggests that evidence is limited and inconsistent. However, whilst evidence may be limited, research reported upon in the literature review for the sexual orientation chapter supports the current findings. Data from the United States of America (USA) General Social Survey 1989-91 (utilising a national random sample) found that gay and bisexual male workers earned 11-27% less than heterosexual male workers, even if they had the same levels of experience and education, were in the same occupation, had the same marital status and lived in the same region. Data from the USA 1991-1996 General Social Survey found that gay and bisexual males earned 22% less than heterosexual males (Berg and Lien, 2002).

Prejudice against LGBs was apparent in Northern Ireland. A survey of LGB employees in Northern Ireland¹⁴⁵ (McDermott, 2011) found a high level of prejudice in the workplace, and that around a quarter of respondents concealed their sexual orientation at work; this was more common among older workers. The research also found that two fifths of those in private and public sector organisations had heard negative comments about LGB people in their workplace (the figure was slightly lower in third sector organisations – around a third) and that 15-20% (depending on sector) had been subjected to negative comments themselves at work. The findings of Mc Dermott (2011) are supported by 2011 Equality Awareness Survey,

¹⁴⁴ Please note that there was a lack of data on sexual orientation and labour market participation in Northern Ireland.

¹⁴⁵ The survey comprised an online survey of 752 respondents (convenience sampled through online and physical social networks), plus interviews with 8 LGB employees and 4 employers.

which reported a 22% level of prejudice against LGBs in the workplace. Additionally, a study of homophobia, transphobia and discrimination on grounds of sexual orientation and gender identity in the 47 member states of the Council of Europe identified homophobic attitudes in all member states, and that LGB and transsexual persons faced discrimination and harassment in the workplace, despite the fact that most states recognised sexual orientation as an equalities ground (although gender identity may only be partially included) (Council of Europe, 2011)

Prejudice towards LGB individuals does not only exist in the workplace. The NILTS (2012) found that 24% of respondents were 'very' (6%) or 'a little' prejudiced toward gay men; 20% were 'very' (5%) or 'a little' prejudiced toward lesbians. A total of 7% of those who admitted to having prejudice toward gay men believed that their behaviour matched their prejudice; 14% believed their behaviour toward lesbians matched their prejudice.

However, whilst discrimination cannot be solely attributed to the workplace many studies have focused on this area. Discrimination in the workplace on the grounds of sexual orientation has been identified in the UK and internationally. Research conducted by Tejada (2006) in the USA identified that greater workplace hostility was felt by gay males who disclosed their sexuality to their supervisor. This research also suggested that disclosing sexual orientation was linked to perceptions of there being fewer promotion opportunities. Research in the UK has shown that, in the health and social care sector, discriminatory practices contribute to LGB employees seeking out alternative organisations to work for, or to leave the sector altogether (Hunt et al., 2007). Additionally, as reported in the literature review for the sexual orientation chapter, research found that LGB staff and students in higher education in Northern Ireland, England and Wales were concerned about disclosing their sexual orientation because of potential discrimination and negative reactions from students. A third of staff (33.8%) identified that they had received negative treatment from colleagues because of their sexual orientation and nearly a fifth (18.9%) from their students. Only 38.6% had disclosed their sexual orientation to all those in their workplace (Valentine and Wood, 2009).

Marital status

Within this report the general picture reported is of both persistent and emergent labour market inequalities toward those who were single and have never married and those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed. Between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 the following inequalities were found:

- Lower employment rates for those who were single and have never married and those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed (P);
- Lower employment rates for those who were single and have never married who were aged between 18-24 years old (P);
- Higher ILO unemployment rates for those who were single and have never married (P);
- Higher ILO unemployment rates for those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed compared to those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership (P);

- Higher long term unemployment rates for those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed compared to those who were single and have never married (P) and those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership (E);
- Higher economic inactivity rates for those who were single and have never married and those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed (P);
- Lower wage rates for those who were single and have never married and those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed (P); and
- A degree of vertical segregation in the labour market with respect to occupation group employed in (E).

As can be seen from the inequalities outlined above, the present study found that married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership couples were much better off in the Northern Ireland labour market. Being married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership attracted: higher employment rates; lower ILO unemployment rates; lower long term unemployment rates; lower economic inactivity rates; and higher wage rates.

Research has sought to identify why the discrepancy in favour of married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership couples exists. Bardasi and Taylor (2008) identified a number of theoretical reasons from the literature for a wage premium to married males: that the highest potential earners are more likely to get married (and thus a selection effect occurs); that employers discriminate in favour of married males, because they perceive them as more committed or more deserving; or that intra-household specialisation in married couples mean that married males specialise in, and thus become more productive in, wage labour. Their empirical work – the only such example on UK data – focuses on the latter specialisation hypothesis, and finds that some of the wage premium for married males can be attributed to household specialisation in this way. Other studies from Germany and the USA differ on the cause, but confirm the existence of, a wage premium to married males. Zavodny (2008) found research to support the idea that the higher wage rates only existed for married, heterosexual males.

The impact of marriage itself on female earning is not something that has received much empirical attention; the focus is generally on the changes in labour market behaviour that females make in anticipation of, and in response to, childbearing. However, a recent (USA) study (Juhn and McCue, 2011) did look directly at the impact of marriage, and observed convergence over the last 40 years between the wages of single and married females.

Although the single and have never married group appears to be most disadvantaged in the Northern Ireland labour market, it must be noted that age had an effect on the labour market outcomes of this group. For example, at Q1 2012 75.5% of those in the single and have never married group who were 25-49 years old, were in employment; compared to 47.4% of 18-24 years olds who were single and have never married; no such effects were found for the other age groups.

Whereas those who were single and have never married experienced the highest economic inactivity rates and ILO unemployment rates of all the marital status groups, those who were previously married but are now separated, divorced or widowed experienced higher ILO unemployment rates than those who were married, co-habiting or in a civil partnership.

A degree of vertical segregation in the labour market with respect to occupation group employed in was also found in the current research whereby those who were single and have never married were over-represented in all of the lower level occupation groups.

Dependency status

Within this report the general picture reported is of persistent labour market inequalities faced by lone parents. Between Q1 2006 and Q1 2012 lone parents faced the following inequalities in the Northern Ireland labour market:

- Lower employment rates;
- Higher economic inactivity rates;
- Higher rates of part-time employment¹⁴⁶;
- Lower wage rates;
- A degree of horizontal segregation in the labour market, in respect to industry sector employed in; and
- A degree of vertical segregation in the labour market, in respect to occupation group employed in.

One of the main difficulties in regard to the Northern Ireland labour market faced by those with dependent children is that of combining work and childcare. As cited in the literature review for the dependency status chapter childcare in Northern Ireland is very expensive, costing an average of 45% of one parent's net salary per child (Dennison et al., 2011). This high cost is likely to act as a huge barrier to work, especially if any income gain is subsequently spent on childcare costs. The obtainment of childcare to facilitate employment is especially difficult for low income families (Save the Children and Daycare Trust, 2011). In addition, lone parents are likely to perceive the cost of childcare as simply unaffordable (Gray and Carragher, 2008) and parents of disabled children may struggle to find the specialised care that their child requires due to their disability (McColgan et al., 2006; Dillenburger and McKerr, 2011; Lowndes and Smith 2011).

However, even where childcare is available lone parents may find it hard to gain employment. As reported in the literature review for the dependency status chapter Brewer and Paull (2008), in their analysis of British survey datasets, found that even when children start school (thus providing several hours per day where childcare does not need to be sourced) parents may still struggle to arrange employment that fits around these hours, and to source childcare for before and/or after school.

¹⁴⁶ Sample size means that this inference may not be wholly correct.

Lone parents had by far the highest economic inactivity rates, at around double that of married or co-habiting couples with dependent children and those with no dependent children. Married or co-habiting couples with dependent children, as suggested in the literature, tended to have the highest employment rates and lowest ILO unemployment rates.

Horizontal segregation with respect to the industry sector employed in was evident for lone parents. Lone parents were not well represented in most industry sectors at either Q1 2006 or Q1 2012; at each time point, they were under-represented in four industry sectors. Vertical segregation with respect to the occupation group employed in was evident in the present study where higher level occupations consistently had an under-representation of lone parents.

Unsurprisingly, dependency status and gender were found to interact with one another to produce a number of persistent inequalities faced by males and females:

- Females with dependent children had much higher rates of part-time employment than females with no dependent children;
- Male lone parents had higher rates of part-time employment than males who were married or co-habiting with dependent children and those with no dependent children;
- Female lone parents had higher rates of part-time employment than male lone parents; and
- Female lone parents had higher rates of ILO unemployment than male lone parents.

The finding that females with dependent children experienced higher rates of part-time employment than females with no dependent children is supported in the literature review of the dependency status chapter. The review states that mothers' return to work is based on a complex set of economic and normative factors (La Valle et al. 2008, Collard and Atkinson 2009, Lyonette et al., 2011). These factors are the need to work and the opportunities to do so, including finding the right childcare and working hours that fit around childcare responsibilities. However, it is also rooted in understandings of what constitutes 'good' mothering and the extent to which work is essential, or even permissible, within this understanding. From an equality point of view, it is important to understand what support is (or is not, but should be) available, and the extent to which aspirations come into conflict with stereotypes.

Barriers to work for females with dependent children may not be by choice or in order to facilitate childcare. For example, a UK Government Survey of 1506 employers that 35% of employers who would allow a mother to return to work part-time would not allow her to retain her existing job or seniority (Woodland et al., 2003).

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Appendix 1. Data Sources Used

Labour Force Survey (LFS)

Labour Force Survey (LFS), 2006 Quarter 1 to 2012 Quarter 2 (the latest available data) was the main data used. The unweighted sample sizes by quarter are listed in Table 1.1. The 2006 and 2010 annual releases of this NILTS were used. Unfortunately this survey has been discontinued after 2010. The sample sizes were 1230 and 1204 for 2006 and 2010 respectively. In this study only the working age population was used defined here as 16 to 64 for men and 16 to 59 for females.

Table A1.1: LFS unweighted sample sizes

Quarter	Sample size	Quarter	Sample size
Q1_06	2947	Q2_09	2825
Q2_06	3069	Q3_09	2738
Q3_06	2864	Q4_09	2595
Q4_06	2813	Q2_10	2787
Q1_07	2737	Q3_10	2678
Q2_07	2973	Q4_10	2502
Q3_07	2816	Q1_11	2606
Q4_07	2839	Q2_11	2666
Q1_08	2930	Q3_11	2634
Q2_08	2986	Q4_11	2524
Q3_08	2875	Q1_12	2520
Q4_08	2834	Q2_12	2617
Q1_09	2715		

For each of the first seven equality groups, where the size of the sub sample permitted, the changes in labour market outcomes over the period Q1 (Quarter 1, i.e. January to March) 2006 to Q2 2012 were investigated.

This usually involved plotting the time series of either the proportion in each labour market category or plotting the averages (medians for wage data, or mean for hours worked) of the outcome¹⁴⁷. The labour market outcomes investigated were: economic activity in terms of the proportion of the population that was either employed or unemployed (as defined by the International Labour Organization (ILO 2012)) or economically inactive. The LFS variables net weekly pay and hours worked was used to calculate the hourly wage rate. For private or public sector work only the proportions employed in the private sector were plotted as the proportion in the public sector is simply the complement of this proportion. Also reported are the proportions of those in the different equality groups who are well qualified (a higher degree or equivalent and those who have no academic qualifications) as education has a large bearing on labour market outcomes. Finally distribution by main occupation group of the equality groups were compared using tables, comparing Q1 2006 with Q1 2012 and computing the percentage change (unless otherwise specified, although the graphs show the latest data i.e. to Q2 2012).

For the equality groups ethnic origin, the proportion of the population who are not white Irish is very small, so disaggregated analysis by ethnic group is not accurate. Therefore this inequality was investigated by using the aggregations of white versus non-white, and no analysis was carried out for Irish Travellers.

Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings (ASHE)

The *Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings (ASHE)* is one of the largest surveys of the earnings of individuals in the UK. Data on the wages, paid hours of work, and pensions arrangements of nearly one per cent of the working population are collected. Other variables relating to age, occupation and industrial classification are also available. The ASHE sample is drawn from National Insurance records for working individuals, and the survey forms are sent to their respective employers to complete.

While limited in terms of personal characteristics compared to surveys such as the *Labour Force Survey*, the ASHE is useful not only because of its larger sample size, but also the responses regarding wages and hours are considered to be more accurate, since the responses are provided by employers rather than from employees themselves. A further advantage of the ASHE is that data for the same individuals are collected year after year. It is therefore possible to construct a panel dataset of responses for each individual running back as far as 1997, and to track how occupations, earnings and working hours change for individuals over time. Furthermore, using the unique business identifiers, it is possible to combine ASHE data with data from other business surveys, such as the *Annual Respondents Database* (UK Data Archive SN 6644).

The ASHE replaced the *New Earnings Survey (NES, SN 6704)* in 2004. NES was developed in the 1970s in response to the policy needs of the time. The survey had changed very little in its thirty-year history. ASHE datasets for the years 1997-2003 were derived using ASHE methodologies applied to NES data.

¹⁴⁷ The median was used (i.e. 50% of wages were higher and 50% lower), to take out the effects of a few very high salaries on the average.

Table A1.2: Sources of data used in the analysis

Name	Date Range	Sample Size	Source
Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings (ASHE)	2007-2011	1% of all employees in Northern Ireland who were covered by PAYE schemes	Office for National Statistics, Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings, 1997-2012: Secure Access [computer file]. 4th Edition. Colchester, Essex: UK Data Archive [distributor], June 2013. SN: 6689.
Census	2001 and 2011	All NI	Office for National Statistics. Census Division and University of Manchester. Cathie Marsh Centre for Census and Survey Research, Census 1991: Individual Sample of Anonymised Records for GB (SARs) [computer file]. Colchester, Essex: UK Data Archive [distributor], January 2013. SN: 7210.
Labour Force Survey (LFS)	2006 to Q2 2012 (Quarterly)	2,500-3,000	Office for National Statistics. Social Survey Division and Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency. Central Survey Unit, Labour Force Survey Two-Quarter Longitudinal Dataset, July - December, 2012 [computer file]. Colchester, Essex: UK Data Archive [distributor], March 2013. SN: 7234 , http://dx.doi.org/10.5255/UKDA-SN-7234-1
Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey (NILTS)	2006 and 2010	1,800	ARK. Northern Ireland Life and Times Survey, 2010 [computer file]. ARK www.ark.ac.uk/nilt [distributor], June 2011.
Northern Ireland Survey of Activity Limitation and Disability (NISALD)	2007	3,400	Northern Ireland Survey of Activity Limitation and Disability, NISRA, 2007
All-Ireland Traveller Health Study	2010	22,869 in ROI 3,293 in NI	All Ireland Traveller Health Study Team; School of Public Health, Physiotherapy and Population Science, University College Dublin. (2010) All-Ireland Traveller Health Study summary of findings. Department of Health and Children, Dublin.
Do You Mean Me? equality awareness			Do you mean me? Equality Awareness Survey 2011 available on: http://www.equalityni.org/archive/pdf/DYMMSurveyMainReport(webB).pdf

Appendix 2. List of Stakeholders Consulted

The following stakeholders kindly participated in a face to face or telephone interview:

- Michael Armstrong and Philip Ballentine, Department for Employment and Learning
- Matthew McDermott, Rainbow Project
- Kasia Garbal and Kevin Doherty, Migrant Workers Helpline
- Patrick Yu, Northern Ireland Council for Ethnic Minorities
- Laura McCartney and Sean Fitzsimmons, Disability Action
- Mary Anne Webb, Barnardos
- Sara Boyce, Include Youth
- Liam Burns, Mencap
- John McCormick, Carers NI
- Emma Patterson and Daniel Holder, Equality Coalition/Committee for the Administration of Justice
- Peter Shields, Action Mental health
- Sian Fisher, Citizen's Advice
- Michael McKenna, Youth Action
- Susan Strang, An Munia Tober

Thanks also to representatives from the Department for Enterprise, Trade and Investment, the Office of the First Minister and Deputy First Ministers, and the Department of Education, for sending relevant written material.

Appendix 3. Interview Schedule

Employment Inequalities in Northern Ireland

Understanding inequalities and employment, unemployment and inactivity

TOPIC GUIDE

Below is a copy of the topic guide, or interview schedule that will be used in the stakeholder interviews. In many cases the questions will be adapted slightly or changed to take into account the particular organisation being interviewed.

1. Brief introduction to project

- who we are and who commissioned the project
- what the project is about (employment, unemployment and inactivity of the different equalities groups)
- how long the interview will be (and they can terminate it at any point) – about 25 minutes
- how the data will be used (for the report and possible academic papers thereafter)
- what will be done with the data (securely held for 4 years, then destroyed)

In all answers prompt for evidence and information on how good this evidence is.

In each case Prompt for each equality group: gender, disability, age, racial group and ethnicity (BME, travellers), religion/community background, dependent status, sexual orientation as appropriate

*The key questions are marked *.*

2. Interviewee

Name, organisation, position, contact email and telephone

3. Topic Guide

1. About your organization and the group(s) you deal with (Keep brief)

1. Which equality group(s) are you most involved with?

2. In what capacity do you deal with these group(s) (e.g. advocate group; providing specific services etc.)
Do you work with other organisations in tackling the inequalities in employment and non-employment?
If so please describe this.

Prompt: Do you work with employers?

Do you work with government organisations?

Do you work with voluntary/community organizations?

3. Do you collect or publish data on the employment position of these group(s)? [Get details and copies etc. where possible]

II. Position/inequalities, of the group(s), in the labour market

4. *What is the position of each of the equality groups [or the equality group you are most concerned with] in the labour market (in terms of employment, unemployment and inactivity)? Are there any emerging inequalities relating to these groups?

4a Employment

Prompt: in terms of - getting employment; working conditions and types of jobs and sectors working in, pay, hours, flexible working provisions, security of job and other conditions, training, promotion, career opportunities?

4b Unemployment

Prompt: in terms of unemployment for each group; distinguish long term unemployment

4c Inactive

Prompt in terms of inactivity for each group (also distinguish the experiences of students who are temporarily inactive and non-students)

4d Pay

Prompt in terms of pay inequalities

5. To what extent do the issues facing equalities groups reflect long term labour market barriers? *What are these barriers?* Has this position changed over the last decade or two and is it likely to change in the near future?

Prompt: identify long term structural inequalities especially, and whether they are improving/worsening over the last decade or so?

6. What are the main impacts of the current recession (since 2008) on inequalities? Which groups are affected the most?

7. *What are the main reasons that perpetuate these long term inequalities?

Prompt: are the reasons changing over time; are these reasons due: to low employability, e.g. in terms of low qualifications/ skills; discrimination; childcare; lack of transport or poor public transport; other etc.

8. Do these impacts differ from other parts of UK (for example groups affected, intensity, duration, responses etc.)? Do they differ from the impacts in the Republic of Ireland?

III. Education and training related to jobs and careers

9. Do the equality groups have equal access to, and take up of, education and training in employment, that will assist their employment and career prospects?

10. Are low educational attainments at school affecting the different equality groups?

Prompt: if not identify scale of inequalities, has it been changing over the last decade or two, causes of it, what could be done to reduce inequalities

IV. Other variations in inequality

11. Are there geographical variations in employment and un-employment experiences of each different equality group?

Prompt: East-west- Greater Belfast/ within Belfast. Rural-urban.

12. What industries and/or occupations have been most affected by inequalities in employment? Are there any changes over time in the configuration of industries and/or occupations have been most affected by inequalities in employment?

13. *The official Labour Force Survey data seem to indicate that inequalities are particularly pronounced in the following groups – do you think these are accurate?

- Young males seem to have more difficulties in the labour market
- Lone parents do not engage with the labour market (to be in work or actively looking for work) as much as those parents who are married or co-habit or those who have no dependent children
- Disabled people are less likely to engage with the labour market (to be in work or actively looking for work)
- There is little evidence of differences between any of the other equality groups in relation to labour market outcomes.

V. Assessment of inequalities

14. How is inequality in employment and non-employment being monitored and assessed by your organisation and by others (e.g. government agencies etc.)? Is further assessment required?

Prompt: assessed by your organisation; assessed by other agencies/departments

Is current assessment adequate (if not why not and how could it be improved?)

15. What difficulties are there in identifying the needs of different equalities groups?

VI. Responses to the inequalities

16. *Over the last decade or so, have there been any employment or training or other initiatives aimed at [the specific groups you deal with, or: the equalities groups such as young people, disabled people, migrant workers, lone parents etc.]?

If so, which are the most important and **have these initiatives been adequate or effective?**

Prompt: if not, in what ways have they not been?

How the needs of different equality groups are taken in the account?

What have been the main policy responses in Northern Ireland to the inequality in employment and non-employment? Which have been most effective?

How does current recession impact these policies?

Is there continuity in the policy? Have significant new policies been developed, and if so which have been most important?

What is the concrete evidence on their (lack of) effectiveness?

17. How are different stakeholders (employers/ government agencies/ Jobs and Benefits office; Trade Unions; Citizens Advice Bureaux; Employer groups; employment agencies; Voluntary Sector; community organisations) responding to inequalities in employment, unemployment and inactivity?

18. Do responses vary in different parts of Northern Ireland?

19. Do the responses differ from other parts of the UK? If so why and should responses be more/less like the rest of the UK? Do they differ from the Republic of Ireland?

VII. Last comments

20. *What more needs to be done in terms of improving equalities in employment?

21. Are there any further comments you would like to make that may be relevant to employment equalities in Northern Ireland?

Appendix 4. Engagement Event 23 May 2013

Equality House, Belfast, Northern Ireland

Organisations attending:

- Committee on the Administration of Justice
- Northern Ireland Council for Ethnic Minorities
- Youth Action Armagh Office
- Disability Action
- Labour Relations Agency
- Equality Directorate Research Branch
- NIPSA
- Include Youth
- MENCAP
- OFMdFM/ DEL

SLIDES excluding graphs already in the main report.

Slide 1

**Trends in Equalities and Employment
in Northern Ireland
2006 to 2012**

Professor Ronald McQuaid, Professor Robert Raeside, Dr Jesus Canduela,
Dr Valerie Egdell, Dr Helen Graham, Dr Marina Shapira

Employment Research Institute
Edinburgh Napier University
www.napier.ac.uk/eri

 Employment Research Institute  Edinburgh Napier University

Slide 2

Approach

- Literature
- Data Analysis
 - Labour Force Survey (LFS)
 - Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings (ASHE)
 - Census (NISALD)
 - Northern Irish Life and Times Survey (NILTS)
 - Equity Awareness Survey
- Stakeholder Interviews

Slide 3

Summary

- Situation of people aged less than 25 years is deteriorating
- Those with disabilities and lone parents have on-going inequality
- Situation of those aged over 50 years is "improving".
- Slight evidence of gender inequality – males are more likely to be unemployed while females are more likely to be inactive.
- Recent trends in ethnic/race inequalities are mixed.
- Catholics and Protestants fair much the same.

Slide 4

Stakeholders

- Government Approach is embraced in the Gender Equality Strategy for NI
 - improving and reviewing the effectiveness of anti-discrimination legislation and protections;
 - achieving a balance between males and females in representation and participation;
 - the use of gender mainstreaming to identify structural inequalities and take action where appropriate;
 - the use of gender action measures, including positive action .
 - Gender mainstreaming is the practice of assessing the gender implications of government activity, such as strategies, policies, legislation, data gathering and procedures.
 - Gender action measures include provisions such as 'positive discrimination' measures such as all-female shortlists for election candidates.
- Department for Employment and Learning – trying to up the participation in HE of young males

Slide 5

Stakeholders

Reasons for young people fairing relatively badly:

- Education as a key barrier - basic literacy and numeracy
 - lack of school readiness.
- Chaotic family backgrounds
- Rise of criminal checks in assessing employment criteria
- Decline of construction industry
- Lack of private transport - high cost of car insurance

Slide 6

Stakeholders

Key barriers

- Discrimination
- High diversity of the group e.g. in education
- English proficiency
- Low educational attainment in some groups
- High degree of occupational segregation

Travellers

- Cultural issues – e.g. attitudes to time keeping, low value on formal education, deportment.
- Engagement in black economy – causes suspicion

Enquires to Migrant Worker Helpline most about

- Pay and conditions
- Unfair dismissal

Problems of agency work

- Contacts with agency give them less rights than regular workers of host company

Slide 7

Stakeholders

Key barriers

- Just unable to work.
- Stigma and discrimination in trying to obtain work.
- Perceived costs of employing disabled people.
- Need more support at school and the transition to university – but this varies by region in NI.
- Lack of role models.
- Fewer opportunities for disabled in rural areas.
- Lack of transport.

Slide 8

Sexual Orientation

- Lack of survey information.
- NILTS asked “Are gays/lesbians/bisexuals treated unfairly?” in 2006 36% of respondents thought they were and this rose to 37% in 2010.

Stakeholders

- A great deal of discrimination and prejudice - around one quarter concealed their orientation and 15 to 20% been subjected to negative comments.
- Problems of discrimination at school leads to under achievement.

Slide 9

Issues

- The young – the “scarring” effect
- Disabled people
- Lone parents
- Who cares – women’s burden

Problems

- Political Opinion
- Sexual Orientation

Appendix 5: Sample sizes for Labour Force Survey pay estimates

This Appendix shows the sample sizes for Labour Force survey estimates of median gross hourly pay by industry sector and occupation group

Table A5.1: Sample sizes for gender groups

Sector (SIC2007)	Q1 2006		Q1 2012	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
A-B: Agriculture & Fishing	68	6	46	7
C,E: Energy & Water	16	1	17	3
D: Manufacturing	215	68	157	49
F: Construction	181	14	146	9
G-H: Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants	182	205	149	173
I: Transport & Communication	71	22	67	17
J-K: Banking, Finance & Insurance etc.	94	90	85	99
L-N: Public Admin, Education & Health	200	499	186	426
O-Q: Other Services	38	38	39	36

Occupation (SOC10)	Q1 2006		Q1 2012	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Managers and Senior Officials	125	74	96	53
Professional occupations	112	129	154	160
Associate Professional and Technical	109	136	99	83
Administrative and Secretarial	54	213	49	173
Skilled Trades Occupations	333	29	225	19
Personal Service Occupations	20	134	24	144
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	49	114	38	95
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	159	24	96	16
Elementary Occupations	102	89	112	75

Table A5.2: Sample sizes for age groups

Sector (SIC2007)	Q1 2006			Q1 2012		
	18-24 years	25-49 years	50-64 years	18-24 years	25-49 years	50-64 years
A-B: Agriculture & Fishing	3	40	30	4	26	21
C,E: Energy & Water	3	10	4	1	14	5
D: Manufacturing	28	187	68	14	145	47
F: Construction	44	111	32	23	89	43
G-H: Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants	96	219	64	61	196	60
I: Transport & Communication	9	65	19	5	63	16
J-K: Banking, Finance & Insurance etc.	27	123	33	15	130	39
L-N: Public Admin, Education & Health	52	473	173	29	413	170
O-Q: Other Services	14	47	14	11	41	21

Table A5.2: Sample sizes for age groups (continued)

Occupation (SOC10)	Q1 2006			Q1 2012		
	18-24 years	25-49 years	50-64 years	18-24 years	25-49 years	50-64 years
Managers and Senior Officials	9	144	46	5	97	47
Professional occupations	20	172	49	11	229	74
Associate Professional and Technical	15	175	55	2	142	38
Administrative and Secretarial	29	186	51	14	144	63
Skilled Trades Occupations	70	200	84	31	127	86
Personal Service Occupations	28	92	32	24	108	34
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	53	84	19	37	79	15
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	13	115	55	7	75	30
Elementary Occupations	39	105	45	32	116	35

Table A5.3: Sample sizes for religious background groups

Sector (SIC2007)	Q1 2006		Q1 2012	
	Catholic	Protestant	Catholic	Protestant
A-B: Agriculture & Fishing	22	45	25	27
C,E: Energy & Water	4	13	8	12
D: Manufacturing	103	157	82	116
F: Construction	98	85	74	80
G-H: Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants	145	203	128	192
I: Transport & Communication	31	50	28	55
J-K: Banking, Finance & Insurance etc.	69	98	71	111
L-N: Public Admin, Education & Health	282	352	254	352
O-Q: Other Services	25	40	31	44

Occupation (SOC10)	Q1 2006		Q1 2012	
	Catholic	Protestant	Catholic	Protestant
Managers and Senior Officials	73	109	56	91
Professional occupations	104	107	132	178
Associate Professional and Technical	100	116	60	121
Administrative and Secretarial	86	157	88	133
Skilled Trades Occupations	148	186	108	129
Personal Service Occupations	72	74	67	99
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	64	81	57	76
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	60	107	50	62
Elementary Occupations	72	103	84	99

Table A5.4: Sample size for country of birth groups

Sector (SIC2007)	Q1 2006			Q1 2012		
	UK or Ireland	Eastern Europe	Other	UK or Ireland	Eastern Europe	Other
A-B: Agriculture & Fishing	74	0	0	53	0	0
C,E: Energy & Water	17	0	0	20	0	0
D: Manufacturing	268	8	7	166	27	13
F: Construction	189	5	1	154	1	0
G-H: Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants	369	4	14	299	14	9
I: Transport & Communication	92	0	1	80	0	4
J-K: Banking, Finance & Insurance etc.	182	2	0	173	6	5
L-N: Public Admin, Education & Health	679	0	20	587	8	17
O-Q: Other Services	75	0	1	68	2	5

Table A5.4: Sample size for country of birth groups (continued)

Occupation (SOC10)	Q1 2006			Q1 2012		
	UK or Ireland	Eastern Europe	Other	UK or Ireland	Eastern Europe	Other
Managers and Senior Officials	196	1	2	147	2	0
Professional occupations	234	0	7	296	3	15
Associate Professional and Technical	235	1	9	173	2	7
Administrative and Secretarial	264	0	3	219	0	3
Skilled Trades Occupations	348	4	10	229	8	7
Personal Service Occupations	151	0	3	161	2	5
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	160	0	3	123	4	6
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	175	3	5	88	19	5
Elementary Occupations	179	10	2	164	18	5

Table A5.5: Sample sizes for marital status groups

Sector (SIC2007)	Q1 2006			Q1 2012		
	Single, never Married	Married or Co-habiting	Separated or Divorced	Single, never Married	Married or Co-habiting	Separated or Divorced
A-B: Agriculture & Fishing	22	49	3	14	38	1
C,E: Energy & Water	4	12	1	4	12	4
D: Manufacturing	88	170	25	59	133	14
F: Construction	78	106	11	52	93	10
G-H: Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants	167	186	34	143	146	33
I: Transport & Communication	29	55	9	27	52	5
J-K: Banking, Finance & Insurance etc.	69	106	9	60	104	20
L-N: Public Admin, Education & Health	164	476	59	131	423	58
O-Q: Other Services	28	41	7	27	43	5

Table A5.5: Sample sizes for marital status groups (continued)

Occupation (SOC10)	Q1 2006			Q1 2012		
	Single, never Married	Married or Co-habiting	Separated or Divorced	Single, never Married	Married or Co-habiting	Separated or Divorced
Managers and Senior Officials	37	142	20	25	110	14
Professional occupations	62	165	14	64	235	15
Associate Professional and Technical	57	170	18	36	129	17
Administrative and Secretarial	96	145	26	61	139	22
Skilled Trades Occupations	136	209	17	81	146	17
Personal Service Occupations	45	92	17	54	88	26
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	86	64	13	69	53	11
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	46	124	13	39	65	8
Elementary Occupations	83	89	19	87	79	21

Table A5.6: Sample sizes for dependency status groups

Sector (SIC2007)	Q1 2006			Q1 2012		
	Married or co-habiting parents with dependent children	Lone parent with dependent children	No dependent children	Married or co-habiting parents with dependent children	Lone parent with dependent children	No dependent children
A-B: Agriculture & Fishing	41	0	33	38	0	15
C,E: Energy & Water	8	0	9	10	0	10
D: Manufacturing	114	6	163	101	5	100
F: Construction	92	7	96	68	2	85
G-H: Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants	157	38	192	109	29	184
I: Transport & Communication	32	2	59	41	3	40
J-K: Banking, Finance & Insurance etc.	80	7	97	67	10	107
L-N: Public Admin, Education & Health	324	37	338	269	43	300
O-Q: Other Services	35	4	37	36	5	34

Occupation (SOC10)	Q1 2006			Q1 2012		
	Married or co-habiting parents with dependent children	Lone parent with dependent children	No dependent children	Married or co-habiting parents with dependent children	Lone parent with dependent children	No dependent children
Managers and Senior Officials	90	7	102	74	2	102
Professional occupations	120	7	114	161	9	114
Associate Professional and Technical	115	10	120	87	8	120
Administrative and Secretarial	100	16	151	81	22	151
Skilled Trades Occupations	166	6	190	100	1	190
Personal Service Occupations	75	16	63	70	23	63
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	72	21	70	46	16	70
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	81	3	99	50	3	99
Elementary Occupations	64	15	112	70	13	112

Table A5.1: Sample sizes by disability status

Sector (SIC2007)	Q1 2006				
	Not Disabled	Physical and/or Sensory	Hidden	Mental Ill Health and/or Learning	Progressive or Other
A-B: Agriculture & Fishing	65	6	3	0	0
C,E: Energy & Water	16	1	0	0	0
D: Manufacturing	254	11	12	2	4
F: Construction	174	9	8	3	1
G-H: Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants	339	20	16	4	8
I: Transport & Communication	86	3	3	0	1
J-K: Banking, Finance & Insurance etc.	169	7	5	0	3
L-N: Public Admin, Education & Health	641	24	21	3	10
O-Q: Other Services	68	3	5	0	0

Occupation (SOC10)	Q1 2006				
	Not Disabled	Physical and/or Sensory	Hidden	Mental Ill Health and/or Learning	Progressive or Other
Managers and Senior Officials	175	6	9	2	7
Professional occupations	226	6	5	1	3
Associate Professional and Technical	224	12	7	0	2
Administrative and Secretarial	250	4	11	0	2
Skilled Trades Occupations	323	21	14	4	0
Personal Service Occupations	144	6	3	0	1
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	139	12	6	0	6
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	161	9	9	0	4
Elementary Occupations	167	8	9	5	2

(Table A5.1 contd. next page)

Table A5.1 continued

Sector (SIC2007)	Q1 2012				
	Not Disabled	Physical and/or Sensory	Hidden	Mental Ill Health and/or Learning	Progressive or Other
A-B: Agriculture & Fishing	39	5	5	0	1
C,E: Energy & Water	23	0	0	1	0
D: Manufacturing	179	6	6	1	2
F: Construction	128	7	5	0	4
G-H: Distribution, Hotels & Restaurants	313	20	11	4	6
I: Transport & Communication	88	2	3	0	2
J-K: Banking, Finance & Insurance etc.	182	4	7	1	6
L-N: Public Admin, Education & Health	576	24	22	9	7
O-Q: Other Services	60	3	2	1	4

Table A5.1 continued

Occupation (SOC10)	Q1 2012				
	Not Disabled	Physical and/or Sensory	Hidden	Mental Ill Health and/or Learning	Progressive or Other
Managers and Senior Officials	150	8	7	1	2
Professional occupations	331	9	9	1	2
Associate Professional and Technical	166	9	7	2	7
Administrative and Secretarial	204	7	11	2	7
Skilled Trades Occupations	195	13	12	2	1
Personal Service Occupations	144	8	2	3	3
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	129	3	3	1	4
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	105	6	6	0	2
Elementary Occupations	164	8	4	5	3