



THOMSON REUTERS

IDS

A review of X-Factor 2012

A report for the Armed Forces Pay Review Body

from

Incomes Data Services

November 2012

Incomes Data Services, Finsbury Tower, 103-105 Bunhill Row, London, EC1Y 8LZ
UK 0845 077 2911 **Fax** 0845 310 5517 **Customer Services** 0845 600 9355
www.incomesdata.co.uk

Thomson Reuters (Professional) UK Limited (Company No. 1679046).
Registered in England and Wales. Registered office: Aldgate House, 33 Aldgate High Street, London EC3N 1DL.
Trades using various trading names, a list of which is posted on its website at sweetandmaxwell.co.uk

● thomsonreuters.com

Contact details

Name: Raymond Storry
Title: Senior Project Manager
Telephone: +44 (0) 20 7422 4922
E-mail: Raymond.storry@thomsonreuters.com
Address: Incomes Data Services
Finsbury Tower
103-105 Bunhill Row
London EC1Y 8LZ
www.incomesdata.co.uk

This report was researched and written by Incomes Data Services (IDS) on behalf of the Armed Forces Pay Review Body.

The authors of this report are:

Max Davis
Adam Elston
Peter Harrison-Evans
Matthew Marley
Hayfa Mohdzaini
Eleonora Francesca Poli
Raymond Storry
Lisa Trehitt
Lois Wiggins

Contents

Part A: The components of the X-Factor

	Overview of the findings	
1	DANGER.....	1
1.1	Workplace injuries	1
1.2	Workplace injuries by sector	3
1.3	Number of serious accidents	3
1.4	Summary.....	3
2	TURBULENCE.....	4
2.1	Housing tenure	4
2.2	Housing tenure by age	4
2.3	Moving by housing tenure.....	5
2.4	Spouses' employment.....	6
2.5	Managerial status among married women.....	7
2.6	Summary.....	7
3	SEPARATION FROM HOME AND FAMILY	8
3.1	Separation and business travel overview.....	8
3.2	Overseas business trips.....	8
3.3	Nights spent away on overseas business trips.....	9
3.4	Domestic business trips	9
3.5	Summary.....	10
4	HOURS OF WORK	11
4.1	Basic and total hours worked.....	11
4.2	Unsocial hours working.....	11
4.3	Long hours working.....	12
4.4	Overtime working	13
4.5	Unpaid overtime	14
4.6	Paid overtime	15
4.7	Shift working	15
4.8	Annual hours.....	16
4.9	Summary.....	16
5	JOB SATISFACTION	17
5.1	Satisfaction levels.....	17
5.2	Changing jobs.....	18
5.3	Differences by age	18
5.4	Career opportunities.....	19
5.5	Summary.....	19
6	JOB SECURITY	20
6.1	Labour market figures	20
6.2	Unemployment.....	20
6.3	Redundancies	21
6.4	Type of contract	22
6.5	Level of job security	22
6.6	Staff turnover	22
6.7	Summary	22
7	DEGREE OF AUTONOMY, MANAGEMENT CONTROL AND WORKPLACE FLEXIBILITY.....	23
7.1	Job supervision	23
7.2	Decision-making process.....	23
7.3	Ability to influence the decisions about work	24
7.4	Summary.....	24
8	TRAINING.....	25
8.1	Training and learning at work.....	25
8.2	Training opportunities for young people.....	26
8.3	Training received from employer last year	26
8.4	Government spending.....	27
8.5	Summary.....	28
9	STRESS AT WORK	29
9.1	Main health problem.....	29
9.2	Self-reported stress.....	30
9.3	Suicides	31
9.4	Summary.....	32

10	INDIVIDUAL RIGHTS	33
10.1	Overview.....	33
10.2	Summary.....	36
11	SUPPORT TO PERSONNEL AND FAMILIES.....	37
11.1	Overview.....	37
11.2	Maternity pay and maternity leave.....	38
11.3	Paternity pay and paternity leave.....	39
11.4	Childcare support.....	40
11.5	Workplace and other nursery provision.....	41
11.6	Out-of-school care.....	41
11.7	Emergency childcare.....	41
11.8	Childcare vouchers and allowances.....	42
11.9	Employee assistance programmes.....	42
11.10	Care leave and bereavement leave.....	44
12	LEAVE	46
12.1	Basic annual leave.....	46
12.2	Service-related leave.....	47
12.3	Paid bank holidays by occupational group.....	48
12.4	Paid bank holidays by industry sector.....	49
12.5	Other trends.....	49
12.6	Summary.....	49
13	PROMOTION AND EARLY RESPONSIBILITY	50
13.1	Promotion opportunities	50
13.2	Career opportunities in current firm	50
13.3	Responsibility and career opportunity	51
13.4	Career opportunities.....	52
13.5	Summary.....	52
14	HEALTH AND EDUCATION	53
14.1	Health and education.....	53
14.2	Private or state school.....	53
14.3	Admission and appeals.....	54
14.4	Health services	55
14.5	Private medical insurance.....	55
14.6	NHS satisfaction	55
14.7	Summary.....	56
15	ADVENTURE AND TRAVEL.....	57
15.1	Overseas travel	57
15.2	Breakdown by type and social class.....	58
15.3	Domestic travel.....	59
15.4	Leisure/relaxation Time	59
15.5	Participation in sporting activities.....	60
15.6	Summary.....	60
16	DIVORCE AND FAMILY.....	61
16.1	Divorce rates	61
16.2	Age	62
16.3	Marriages rates.....	63
16.4	Domestic violence.....	63
16.5	Summary.....	63
17	TRADE UNION MEMBERSHIP AND INDUSTRIAL ACTION	64
17.1	Trade union membership and presence.....	64
17.2	Industrial action.....	65
17.3	Trade union premium.....	65
17.4	Age	65
17.5	Satisfaction levels.....	66
17.6	Summary.....	66
18	TRAVEL TO WORK.....	67
18.1	Method of travel to work	67
18.2	Long commuting times.....	68
18.3	Commuting and business travel.....	69
18.4	Satisfaction levels.....	69
18.5	Summary.....	69
	Part B: Supporting mobile employees.....	70

Part A: The components of the X-Factor

Overview of findings

The following summarises how each element of the X-Factor has changed in the civilian labour market over the period 2006 to 2011/12.

- Seven of the components show a degree of deterioration since the last review, many of which had previously been stable or showed an improvement: job satisfaction, training, promotion and early responsibility, autonomy/management control, employment of spouses, trade union membership and adventure and travel
- Two further areas show a particularly marked deterioration: job security and housing
- Three areas show general stability: hours of work, leave and separation from home and family
- In five areas there were signs of improvement: danger, stress at work, support to personnel and families, divorce and family and travel to work
- There was only marked improvement in one area: individual rights
- Finally, the picture for education and health is mixed: some improvement, but signs of a marked deterioration in health in 2011.

Compared to 2007

- When ten areas showed an improvement, and only two areas had worsened.

1	Danger		↑
2	Turbulence	– housing	↓
		– employment of spouses	↓
3	Separation from home and family		↔
4	Hours of work		↔
5	Job satisfaction		↓
6	Job security		↓
7	Degree of autonomy, management control, workplace flexibility		↓
8	Training		↓
9	Stress at work		↑
10	Individual rights		↑
11	Support to personnel and families		↑
12	Leave		↔
13	Promotion and early responsibility		↓
14	Health and education		↔
15	Adventure and travel		↓
16	Divorce and family		↑
17	Trade union membership and industrial action		↓
18	Travel to work		↑

1 Danger

- From 2006/07 the number of workers suffering illness and the subsequent amount of working days lost considerably decreased
- The majority of sectors reported a decline in the number of injuries that took place during working hours

1.1 Workplace injuries

According to the 2010 Health and Safety Executive Statistics report, each year thousands of people die because of diseases related to their work. In 2010/11, 1.8 million people suffered an illness probably caused by their past or present working conditions, or by the type of jobs they were involved in.

In 2010/11, the number of non-fatal injuries was 29 per cent lower than reported in 2006/07. Similarly, fatal injuries rates per 100,000 workers have decreased by 25 per cent in 2010/11 in comparison with those occurring in 2006/07. From 2006/07 to 2010/11 the number of working days lost by employees fell by 27 per cent. Specifically, the amount of days lost for work-related illness and injury decreased by 26.3 per cent and by 26.7 per cent, respectively (table 1.1).

This clearly shows a positive trend in the reduction of injuries or illness suffered by UK workers.

Table 1.1: Workplace injuries

Year	LFS reportable non-fatal injury rates (per 100,000 workers)	HSE fatal injuries to employees (per 100,000 workers)	Number of working days lost due to work-related ill health and workplace injury (million)	Number of working days lost due to work-related ill health (million)	Number of working days lost due to due to workplace injury (million)
2006/07	1,000	0.8	36.0	30.0	6.0
2007/08	1,000	0.8	34.0	28.0	6.0
2008/09	870	0.6	29.3	24.6	4.7
2009/10	840	0.5	28.5	23.5	5.1
2010/11	710	0.6	26.4	22.1	4.4
% change 2006/07-2010/11	-29.0	-25.0	-26.7	-26.3	-26.7

Source: Health and Safety Executive

Table 1.2: Workplace injuries by sector (rates per 100,000 workers)

Sector		Averaged 2006/07- 2008/09	Averaged 2007/08- 2009/10	Averaged 2008/09- 2010/11	% change 2006/07- 2010/11
Agriculture, forestry and fishing		2,030	1,890	-	-
Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply		-	-	-	-
Water supply; sewerage, waste management and remediation activities		-	-	-	-
Manufacturing		1,010	1,020	990	-2.0
Construction		1,330	1,250	1,090	-18.0
Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles; accommodation and food service activities		910	850	670	-26.4
	Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	950	900	710	-25.3
	Accommodation and food service activities	800	660	570	-28.8
Transportation and storage		1,800	1,810	1,670	-7.2
Information and communication; financial and insurance activities; real estate activities; professional, scientific and technical activities; administrative and support service activities		290	300	280	-3.4
	Administrative and support service activities	700	720	670	-4.3
Public administration		880	850	780	-11.4
	Education	610	570	470	-23.0
	Human health and social work activities	1,010	980	980	-3.0
Arts, entertainment and recreation; other service activities; activities of households as employers; undifferentiated goods-and services-producing activities of households for own use; activities of extraterritorial organisations and bodies		770	700	620	-19.5
	Arts, entertainment and recreation	1,220	1,010	900	-26.2
All industries (injury sustained in current or most recent job)		890	850	750	-15.7

Source: Health and Safety Executive

1.2 Workplace injuries by sector

The majority of working sectors (table 1.2.) have registered a relevant decline in the number of injuries occurring within working hours. From 2006-2008 to 2008-2011, this has diminished by 15.7 per cent. Still, the level remains high in all those sectors dealing with construction, transportation, security and health. However, over the years, there has been a steady decrease in their occurrence.

The agricultural, forestry and fishing sectors seem to have registered an irrelevant number of injuries in the last three years. In addition, the energy and water supply industries are now reported on separately and the numbers of injuries in either industry are statistically irrelevant.

1.3 Number of serious accidents

According to data provided by the British Household Panel Survey, from 2005/06 to 2007/08, the number of people having suffered serious accidents decreased from 10.1 per cent in 2005/06 to 8.6 per cent in 2007/08. In particular, the greatest declines have been in employees who have experienced more than one accident. Even though those may not be directly linked to more suitable working conditions, it is important to notice that the data refers to employees. Thus, it can provide a general picture of the risks faced by employed workers (table 1.3).

Table 1.3: Number of serious accidents (employees)

Year		Not applicable	One	Two	Three	Four +	Total
2005/06	%	90.0	8.9	0.9	0.2	0.1	100.0
	Number	6,739	665	68	14	5	7,491
2006/07	%	90.3	8.7	0.8	0.1	0.1	100.0
	Number	6,511	626	61	9	6	7,212
2007/08	%	91.3	7.8	0.7	0.1	0.0	100.0
	Number	7,413	632	57	10	3	8,114
% change 2005/06-2007/08			-12.4	-22.2	-35.1	-53.5	

Source: British Household Panel Survey

1.4 Summary

Overall, the data indicates that the level of danger faced by employees has diminished considerably. Although some professions are still registering accidents, the general trend shows a decrease in the number of dangerous situations faced by workers.

2 Turbulence

- Since 2006, while the number of home owners has dropped, the proportion of households in privately-rented accommodation has increased significantly, especially among young people, aged between 16 and 24
- Between 2006 and 2011, unemployment rates, especially among young people and young married women, have been high
- The proportion of married women holding a supervisory or management position has stayed the same

2.1 Housing tenure

An important consideration when assessing the impact of moving is the ability of the household to buy its own property. The current trend shows that households which do not live in their own property increasingly live in privately-rented accommodation. The proportion of owner-occupiers – those who have either bought their property outright or are in the process of buying their own property – has decreased since 2006, after a period of relative stability in the period prior to 2006. In the period 1999 to 2006, around 70 per cent of households were classified as owner-occupiers. In 2010, this proportion had fallen to 66 per cent (see table 2.1).

Over the period 2006 to 2010/11 the proportion of households in privately-rented accommodation has increased significantly, from 12 per cent in 2006 to 17 per cent in 2010/11. The proportion of households in social housing – from a housing association or local authority – has remained at a similar level to that recorded in 2006 (see table 2a, Appendix A).

Table 2.1: Housing tenure (% of households)

	2006	2010/11	% change
Owner-occupiers	70	66	-5.7
Social rented	18	17	-5.6
Private rented	12	17	41.7

Source: Department for Communities and Local Government Survey of English Housing

2.2 Housing tenure by age

Looking at housing tenure by age shows that for young people aged between 16 and 24, privately-rented housing is the predominant form of housing, a trend that has remained relatively stable since 2006. While home ownership increases for those aged 25 to 34 (as indicated in the report in 2007), the proportion has fallen significantly from 56 per cent in 2006 to 43 per cent in 2010/11 (table 2.2). For people in this age range there has been a large shift from owning their own property to living in privately-rented housing: the proportion has increased from 27 per cent in 2006 to 41 per cent in 2010/11 (see table 2c and table 2e, Appendix A).

Table 2.2: Proportion of housing tenure by age 2010/11 (%)

	16 to 24	25 to 34	35 to 44	45 to 64	65 and over
Owner-occupiers	12	43	63	76	76
Social rented	23	16	18	15	19
Private rented	65	41	18	9	5

Source: Department for Communities and Local Government Survey of English Housing

The findings on housing tenure are an important consideration for the Armed Forces, since the age profile of the military will be skewed towards the first two age bands, and any consideration of the impact of turbulence on the ability of military personnel to buy their own homes will need to be taken into account.

2.3 Moving by housing tenure

The proportion of all households that move in any given year has been relatively stable since 1999 at around 10 per cent. The proportion of those moving has declined only slightly since 2007 (11 per cent of households) to 9 per cent in 2010/11. In 2010/11, of those households moving, around a fifth are owner-occupiers; a sixth live in social rented housing and just under two-thirds are privately rented. The trend between 2006/07 and 2010/11 has been for an increasing proportion of those in privately-rented housing, and a falling proportion of owner-occupiers to move in the last 12 months. The proportion of those in social rented housing to move in the last 12 months has remained relatively stable between 16 and 18 per cent (table 2.3).

Considering the high proportion of those aged between 16 and 24 (and an increasing proportion of those aged 25 to 34) who live in privately-rented housing, along with an increasing proportion of households in the privately-rented sector among those who have recently moved, it is reasonable to assume that the level of housing turbulence has increased for these age groups. This is similar to the findings of the 2007 report.

Table 2.3: Proportion of households moving by type of tenure (resident less than a year)

Year	Ownership (%)	Social rented (%)	Private rented (%)
2006/07	40	18	43
2007/08	42	16	43
2008/09	27	16	57
2009/10	20	18	62
2010/11	22	16	62

Source: Department for Communities and Local Government Survey of English Housing

2.4 Spouses' employment

Frequent movements demanded by military service may have an impact on the employment prospects of spouses. As a relevant comparison, an analysis of the economic activity of women who are either married or cohabiting was undertaken¹.

A summary of the proportion of married women in employment is shown in table 2.4. This shows that there has been a slight fall in the overall proportion of married women in employment since 2006 (from 70.5 per cent in 2006 to 67.8 per cent in 2011). However, the proportion had been steadily increasing until 2006 but is now at the level recorded in 1998. The table shows that the proportion of young married women (aged 16 to 19) in employment has halved since 2006, from 50.8 to 25 per cent. The proportion of married women aged between 20 and 24 has also fallen significantly from 70 per cent in 2006 to 49 per cent in 2011. The sharp decline in the number of employed married women in these age groups can be explained by possible changes in student economic activity. Inactivity rates for married women aged between 16 and 24 have risen sharply since 2006 (see table 2g, Appendix A).

For married women above the age of 24, the employment figures are more stable, although for those aged 25 to 49, employment has fallen, and for those aged 50 to 59, employment has slightly increased. International Labour Organisation (ILO) unemployment figures for married women aged 25 to 34 have increased significantly over the period, from just under 3 per cent in 2006 to nearly 5 per cent in 2011.

Table 12.4: Proportion of married women in employment (%)

Age	2006	2011
16-19	50.8	25.0
20-24	69.9	48.9
25-29	75.3	67.0
30-34	74.1	71.7
35-39	74.7	72.5
40-44	78.6	76.2
45-49	81.2	79.2
50-54	77.2	77.9
59-59	62.7	65.9
60-64	33.5	32.7
Total	70.5	67.8

Source: Labour Force Survey, April-June

1 Throughout this chapter references to married women in both text and tables include those cohabiting and in civil partnerships.

2.5 Managerial status among married women

The overall proportion of married women in either a supervisory or managerial position has declined since 2006 from 36.0 to 35.3 per cent (table 2.5). For married women aged 35 to 44, the proportion of women in managerial or supervisory positions has remained mostly the same at 38 per cent.

Table 2.5: Married women who are managers or supervisors (%)

Age	2006	2011
16-19	10.6	0.0
20-24	21.6	21.3
25-29	34.3	32.3
30-34	39.6	33.5
35-39	38.5	38.6
40-44	37.9	37.7
45-49	38.5	36.2
50-54	39.2	36.2
55-59	31.4	34.7
60-64	26.5	27.1
Total	36.0	35.3

Source: Labour Force Survey, April-June

2.6 Summary

The proportion of owner-occupiers has decreased since 2006 with an increased proportion of households in the privately-rented sector. This indicates that people are being hindered in their ability to buy their own property, particularly those aged 16 to 34. Since 2006 there is evidence of increased turbulence in the privately-rented sector, again significantly affecting younger people.

While unemployment rates for young people have been high over the period, this cannot necessarily be linked with the falling proportion of young married women in employment as there has also been an increase in inactivity rates for young married women.

3 Separation from home and family

- Overseas business travel outside Europe shows a steady decrease until 2010 followed by a pick-up in 2011
- Nights spent away on overseas business travel outside Europe show marked falls in 2009/10 followed by an increase in 2011
- The number of nights spent away from home of less than seven days to Europe show a steady decline over the whole period
- Overnight stays for domestic business show an overall reduction of six per cent for the period between 2006 and 2011

3.1 Separation and business travel overview

One of the consequences of today's global economy is the necessity for international business travel. Although such travel can be interesting and rewarding, it can also be physically and psychologically demanding.

One impact of business travel, be it foreign or domestic, is the inevitable separation from the employee's home and family. The findings of Espino et al (2002)¹ indicated that 'frequent trips increased the strain on the family and as a by-product contributed to the stress of the travellers'. It would appear that there is a correlation between the level of discomfort felt by families and the distance employees travel for business purposes. According to Liese et al (2000)², it is commonly perceived that the domestic business traveller encounters less 'psychic dislocation' in travelling shorter distances.

There is currently a paucity of information on the number of UK employees who are assigned for both short and long periods away from home. One way of measuring the changing picture of those UK employees who work away from home is to look at the number taking trips both abroad and domestically.

3.2 Overseas business trips

According to The Office for National Statistics (ONS) Travel Trends survey, the period between 2007 and 2010 saw the number of UK residents who travelled abroad for business purposes fall by just under 24 per cent (table 3.2). The Civil Aviation Authority (CAA) Passenger Survey substantiates this argument, highlighting a similar fall of just below 25 per cent during the period between 2006 and 2010, (see table 3d, Appendix A). However, in 2011 there is a pick-up in the number of employees who travelled abroad for business to countries outside of Europe. Europe itself displayed the most consistent decline throughout the five years, falling by 28 per cent, and this trend has continued into 2011.

1 *International business travel: impact on families and travellers*, by Espino, C.M., Sundstrom, S.M. Frick, H.L., Jacobs, M. and Peters, M. *Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, May 2002, Volume 59, Issue 5, pp. 309-322.

2 *Medical insurance claims associated with business travel*, by Liese, B., Mundt, K.A., Dell, L.D., Nagy, L. and Demure, B. *Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, July 1997, Volume 54, Issue 7, pp. 499-503.

Table 3.2: Number of business trips abroad by region (000s)

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	% change over period 2007-2011
North America	869	772	572	587	730	-16.0
Europe	7,161	7,101	5,400	5,193	5,186	-27.6
Other Countries	989	1,046	915	859	930	-6.0
Total World	9,018	8,920	6,887	6,639	6,846	-24.1

Source: ONS, Travel trends

3.3 Nights spent away on overseas business trips

A look at the total number of nights that UK employees spent away on business trips throughout the world reveals a decline of some 16 per cent from 2007 to 2010, followed by a small recovery outside Europe in 2011. Outside Europe, there was a rising trend in the total number of nights spent away up to 2008, hallowed by a marked fall in 2009/10, followed by a pick up in 2011, clear evidence of the impact of the recession. Europe, by way of contrast, shows a steady decline across the whole period (table 3.3(i)).

The average length of nights spent away on business depicts an overall increase for all regions between 2007 and 2011, with length of stay in North America increasing from 7.6 to 8.7 nights on average (table 3.3(ii)). Table 3.3(iii) also highlights a marked difference in the average length of stay between Europe – about four days – and those countries outside Europe and North America of almost two weeks.

The differential falls in the number of trips taken by major international region and different average length of stay for each region accounts for the smaller fall in nights spent away from home.

Table 3.3(i): Number of nights abroad by region

	Nights (000s)				
	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
North America	6,587	6,740	4,855	4,786	6,352
Europe	26,383	25,574	21,802	21,513	19,844
Other Countries	12,208	13,782	13,236	11,470	12,407
Total World	45,159	46,095	39,893	37,769	38,603

Source: ONS, Travel trends

Table 3.3(ii): Number of nights abroad by region

	Nights abroad by region (% change)				
	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
North America	-	2.3	-26.3	-27.3	-3.6
Europe	-	-3.1	-17.4	-18.5	-24.8
Other Countries	-	12.9	8.4	-6.0	1.6
Total World	-	2.1	-11.7	-16.4	-14.5

Source: ONS, Travel trends

Table 3.3(iii): Average length of stay abroad by region

	Average length of stay (nights)				
	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
North America	7.6	8.7	8.5	8.1	8.7
Europe	3.7	3.6	4.0	4.1	3.8
Other Countries	12.3	13.2	14.5	13.4	13.3
Total World	5.0	5.2	5.8	5.7	5.6

Source: ONS, Travel trends

3.4 Domestic business trips

The Great Britain Tourism Survey reveals a gradual decline in the number of UK residents undertaking domestic business trips between 2006 and 2010, followed by a recovery in 2011, to show an overall picture of stability between 2006 and 2011. The number of nights spent away on domestic business trips follows a similar pattern. However, the overall number during the period 2006 to 2011 has fallen by 6 per cent. This is maybe indicative of companies being more cost-conscious (table 3.4).

Table 3.4: Breakdown of domestic business travel by journey-type

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	% change 2006-2011
Trips (millions)	18.6	18.1	17.6	17.5	16.3	18.6	0.0
Nights (millions)	44.6	43.5	41.6	40.8	37.7	41.8	-6.3

Source: Great Britain Tourism Survey

3.5 Summary

The evidence shows a similar pattern for overseas and domestic business trips. In both instances there is a decrease in either trips or nights spent away for domestic and foreign business trips until 2010, followed by a pick-up in 2011. However, there is a degree of resilience in long-distance international travel. Nights spent away for domestic and overseas business travel showed an overall reduction between 2006-2011 and 2007-2011 respectively. By way of contrast, the number of domestic business trips reveal an overall picture of stability compared to international business travel, which has shown an overall decline during the same period.

4 Hours of work

- Several trends have continued from the previous X-Factor report. The number of basic hours has remained stable, the incidence of evening and Saturday working has continued to rise and the trend of long hours working has continued to fall
- Although the incidence of overtime working has fallen slightly, the incidence of long, unpaid overtime working of more than 12 hours a week has risen for most occupational groups
- Some organisations implement annual hours to provide extended cover or cope with uneven demands throughout the year, and to control the cost of paid overtime

4.1 Basic and total hours worked

Basic and total hours worked for full-time employees, as in the previous X-Factor report, remained stable, with median hours unchanged from 2006 to 2011 (table 4.1). Although median total working hours remained unchanged from 2006 to 2011, the mean total working hours fell slightly during this period. The general lack of change in the average and median working hours may in part be a reflection of the Working Time Regulations (WTR), which implement the European Working Time Directive. Effective since 1998, the WTR state that a working week should be a maximum of 48 hours on average, including overtime. Provisions are also laid down for rest breaks and night work.

Table 4.1: Weekly basic and total working hours for full-time employees

Basic working hours (number)						
Year	All employees		Male		Female	
	Median	Mean	Median	Mean	Median	Mean
2006	37.5	38.0	37.5	38.7	37.0	36.8
2011	37.5	38.0	37.5	38.7	37.0	36.8
Total working hours (number)						
Year	All employees		Male		Female	
	Median	Mean	Median	Mean	Median	Mean
2006	37.5	39.4	39.0	40.7	37.0	37.6
2011	37.5	39.1	38.3	40.2	37.1	37.3

Source: Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings

4.2 Unsocial hours working

Since the last X-Factor report, the incidence of regular evening and Saturday working has continued to rise, while the incidence of regular Sunday working has continued to fall (table 4.2).

Table 4.2: Unsocial hours working

Work	2008	2011
(%) UK employees involved in regular evening work	34.8	36.4
(%) UK employees involved in regular work on Saturdays	29.7	36.4
(%) UK employees involved in regular work on Sundays	19.3	17.6

Source: WageIndicator Survey

4.3 Long hours working

The WTR included a derogation that allows individual employees to opt out of the 48-hour working week clause by signing an opt-out agreement with their employer. Employees are not obliged to sign this agreement and cannot be penalised for not doing so.

The WageIndicator Survey, which has a large sample of white-collar employees, finds that 25 per cent of UK employees had signed an opt-out agreement with their employers in 2011 (see table 4f, Appendix A). In comparison, the Labour Force Survey shows that 17.5 per cent of employees work more than 45 hours a week (table 4.3).

Table 4.3: Long hours working

Year	% of employees working over 45 hours a week
2006	18.8
2007	19.1
2008	18.9
2009	17.5
2010	17.4
2011	17.5

Source: Labour Force Survey, April-June

As in the previous X-Factor report, the trend of long hours working (over 45 hours a week) has continued to fall, while the trend of part-time working (16 to 30 hours a week) has continued to rise (see table 4c, Appendix A). Between 1998 and 2011, the proportion of employees working long hours fell from 23.5 to 17.5 per cent, while the proportion of employees working part-time rose from 15.6 to 19.9 per cent.

4.4 Overtime working

Although those who work long hours are in the minority, almost one-half of full-time employees work either paid or unpaid overtime (table 4.4(i)). The proportion of employees who worked unpaid overtime fell from 47.8 per cent in 2006 to 44.8 per cent in 2011.

Of those who work beyond their contractual hours, some 80 per cent of full-time employees do not work more than 12 hours of overtime in a given week (table 4.4(ii) and (iii))¹.

Approximately half of full-time employees work unpaid overtime of up to five hours a week (table 4.4(ii)). Although the distribution of overtime hours remained broadly stable between 2006 and 2011, the incidence of unpaid overtime of more than 12 hours a week appears to have slightly fallen.

Table 4.4(i): Percentage of full-time employees who ever work paid or unpaid overtime

Year	% of full-time employees
2006	47.8
2007	48.0
2008	47.5
2009	45.7
2010	46.3
2011	44.8

Source: Labour Force Survey, April-June

Table 4.4(ii): Distribution of unpaid overtime (% of full-time employees)

Year	0.25 to 5 hours	5.25 to 12 hours	More than 12 hours
2006	48.5	30.7	20.8
2007	48.9	30.5	20.5
2008	50.3	30.4	19.2
2009	48.2	31.7	20.1
2010	48.8	31.4	19.8
2011	48.6	31.4	20.1

Source: Labour Force Survey, April-June

Table 4.4(iii): Distribution of paid overtime (% of full-time employees)

Year	0.25 to 5 hours	5.25 to 12 hours	More than 12 hours
2006	39.6	38.6	21.8
2007	39.9	39.3	20.7
2008	42.0	36.5	21.5
2009	43.9	35.8	20.3
2010	42.5	36.9	20.7
2011	41.7	37.9	20.4

Source: Labour Force Survey, April-June

¹ Percentages are of those working beyond their contractual hours.

4.5 Unpaid overtime

Long unpaid overtime hours are most common among higher and lower managerial and routine occupations (table 4.5). The incidence of unpaid overtime working in managerial occupations is probably due to an expectation that long hours is a requirement of the job and that their salaries already adequately compensate them for any additional hours worked (IDS HR Studies, Overtime 2010). As for those in routine occupations, it could be that overtime is already factored into their annual salaries. Under the 'new working practices agreements' at Rolls-Royce (Derby), for example, a certain number of additional hours are paid for within total pay (IDS HR Studies, Shift Pay 2010).

Between 2006 and 2011, the overall proportion of full-time employees who have worked more than 12 hours of unpaid overtime has fallen (table 4.4(ii)), but when viewed by major occupational group it has risen except for those in lower supervisory and technical occupations (table 4.5). The incidence of long hours of unpaid overtime appears to have fallen for those in lower supervisory and technical occupations, as fewer employees work more than 12 hours of unpaid overtime and more are working between 5.25 and 12 hours of unpaid overtime.

Some organisations control the cost of paid overtime by taking steps including requiring overtime authorisation, providing time-off-in-lieu, reviewing employment levels and changing existing pay arrangements (IDS HR Studies, Overtime 2006, 2008 and 2010).

Table 4.5: Unpaid overtime by occupational group (%)

Occupational group	Hours	2006	2011	% change 2006-2011
Higher managerial and professional	0.25 to 5 hours	42.7	45.1	5.6
	5.25 to 12 hours	35.2	32.3	-8.2
	More than 12 hours	22.1	22.6	2.3
Lower managerial and professional	0.25 to 5 hours	46.3	40.9	-11.7
	5.25 to 12 hours	31.6	34.1	7.9
	More than 12 hours	22.1	25.1	13.6
Intermediate occupations	0.25 to 5 hours	76.5	66.8	-12.7
	5.25 to 12 hours	17.0	23.8	40.0
	More than 12 hours	6.5	9.4	44.6
Lower supervisory and technical	0.25 to 5 hours	64.7	64.7	0.0
	5.25 to 12 hours	18.3	25.1	37.2
	More than 12 hours	17.0	10.2	-40.0
Semi-routine occupations	0.25 to 5 hours	71.9	59.6	-17.1
	5.25 to 12 hours	13.4	22.3	66.4
	More than 12 hours	14.7	18.1	23.1
Routine occupations	0.25 to 5 hours	59.2	45.2	-23.6
	5.25 to 12 hours	13.2	25.0	89.4
	More than 12 hours	27.6	29.7	7.6

Source: Labour Force Survey, April-June

4.6 Paid overtime

Employees who work paid overtime typically earn 1.5 times their normal hourly rate of pay from Monday to Saturday and twice their normal hourly rate of pay on Sundays and public holidays. Manual workers tend to be eligible for overtime pay but eligibility for other staff is dependent on salary or grade. Managers rarely receive overtime pay but may receive time-off-in-lieu. In some organisations, there is a contractual obligation to work overtime due to the nature of the work (IDS HR Studies, Overtime 2006, 2008 and 2010).

4.7 Shift working

The LFS indicates a general stability, at around 17 per cent, in the proportion of full-time employees who usually work shifts (table 4.7(i)).

Table 4.7(i): Percentage of full-time employees working shifts in main job (%)

Year	Usually	Sometimes	Never
2006	16.7	3.6	79.6
2007	16.9	3.7	79.5
2008	16.8	3.9	79.4
2009	16.3	3.8	79.8
2010	17.2	3.8	79.0
2011	17.1	3.1	79.8

Source: Labour Force Survey, April-June

The most popular shift patterns, according to IDS HR Studies, Shift Pay 2010, are two-shift/double-day systems, three-shift systems, alternating days/nights and permanent night shifts.

Shift lengths vary but typically last from 8 to 12 hours. Employees who work 12-hour shifts over four consecutive days would quickly reach the 48-hour working week limit stipulated by the WTR. A number of possible rotations exist for organisations operating 12-hour shifts but the most common cycle is four on, four off. For example, at FG Wilson, staff work a pattern of four earlies, four off, four lates, four off. At both Chevron UK (Pembroke Refinery) and Rolls-Royce (Derby), employees work a cycle of two days, two nights, four off (IDS HR Studies, Shift Pay 2010).

Employees typically receive a premium for working shifts, with night shifts attracting a much higher premium than morning shifts. For example, Rolls-Royce (Derby) employees who work morning shifts receive a shift premium worth 4 per cent of their basic pay while those who work night shifts receive a higher shift premium worth 17 per cent of their basic pay (see table 4g, Appendix A).

4.8 Annual hours

Some organisations implement annual hours to provide extended hours cover or cope with uneven demands throughout the year. Many who work annual hours are manual workers. Contracted annual hours at organisations monitored by IDS typically range between 1,680 and 2,504 hours a year (roughly equivalent to a 30- to 48-hour week). Annual hours arrangements used to exist only in organisations in the manufacturing sector but the practice has spread to other sectors including retail, local government and healthcare (IDS HR Studies, Annual Hours 2006 and 2011).

4.9 Summary

Basic hours shift patterns have remained relatively unchanged from 2006 to 2011. The proportion of full-time employees who work overtime and who work long overtime hours appears to have fallen slightly. However, the fall in long unpaid overtime hours seems to have mainly affected those in lower-supervisory and technical occupations. Other occupational groups have seen a slight increase in long unpaid overtime hours.

5 Job satisfaction

- Figures from the British Household Panel Survey, Understanding Society and WageIndicator reveal different trends in the levels of job satisfaction among workers
- Overall, job satisfaction appears to be lowest among young people aged 18 to 24
- According to the British Social Attitudes Survey, from 2006 to 2010 employees' perceptions on career opportunities have worsened
- Generally, respondents have become less confident in the possibility of achieving job satisfaction by changing employer

5.1 Satisfaction levels

Attitude surveys give a mixed message with regards to changes in job satisfaction between 2006 and 2011. The WageIndicator Survey reveals an overall increase among those employees highly satisfied with their current job, rising from 12.4 per cent in 2006 to 16.3 per cent in 2011 (table 5.1(i)). This is also reflected in the Understanding Society survey where those employees completely satisfied in their job rose from 10.6 per cent in 2006/07 to 15.4 per cent in 2011 (table 5.1(ii)). Additionally, the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) reports an increase from 26 per cent in 2006 to 47 per cent in 2012, in net job satisfaction (table 5.3).

However, when looking at the highest level of dissatisfaction, the British Household Panel Survey shows an increase from 1.2 per cent in 2006/07 to 2.2 per cent in 2011. This is somewhat different to the highest levels of dissatisfaction recorded in the WageIndicator Survey, where figures reveal a decline from 10.5 per cent in 2006 to 8.6 per cent in 2011. This could be explained by the fact that the WageIndicator survey is only available on-line. Consequently, its users tend to be a younger demographic. The result could be an indication that with high youth unemployment prevalent during the recession, employees in the younger age groups are feeling more grateful just to have a job.

Table 5.1(i): Satisfaction with current job

Satisfaction levels	2006		2010		2011	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1-Highly dissatisfied	1,887	10.5	173	9.3	95	8.6
2	2,954	16.4	291	15.7	167	15.1
3	5,794	32.2	565	30.4	350	31.7
4	5,117	28.5	554	29.8	313	28.3
5-Highly satisfied	2,225	12.4	274	14.8	180	16.3

Source: WageIndicator Survey

Table 5.1 (ii): Job satisfaction-overall

Satisfaction levels	2006/07		2009/10		2010/11	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Not satisfied at all	89	1.2	694	3.0	197	2.2
Mostly dissatisfied	188	2.6	966	4.2	362	4.1
Somewhat dissatisfied	429	6.0	1,914	8.4	795	9.1
Neither satisfied/ dissatisfied	478	6.6	1,655	7.2	655	7.5
Somewhat satisfied	1,687	23.4	3,844	16.8	1,635	18.6
Mostly satisfied	3,579	49.6	9,828	43.0	3,784	43.1
Completely satisfied	760	10.6	3,992	17.4	1,353	15.4
Total	7,210	100.0	22,894	100.0	8,780	100.0

Sources: British Household Panel Survey, 2006/07; Understanding Society Survey, Wave 1 and Wave 2

5.2 Changing jobs

The British Social Attitudes Survey suggests that employees are less confident in achieving job satisfaction through changing employer in 2010 than they were in 2005. The decline in the economy from late-2008 onwards is reflected in employees feeling that from this period onwards they are in a more precarious position with regards to moving jobs. When asked 'how difficult or easy it would be for you to get a similar or better job with another employer if you wanted' in 2005, just over one in three (36 per cent) felt they would have some degree of difficulty. This figure rose to 43 per cent in 2008 (table 5.2). By 2010 exactly half the people questioned said it would be difficult or very difficult to change jobs.

Table 5.2: Difficulty finding a similar or better job with another employer

Level of difficulty	2005		2008		2010	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Very difficult	163	10.6	204	12.3	231	15.2
Difficult	399	26.0	522	31.4	533	35.2
Neither difficult nor easy	326	21.3	447	26.9	339	22.4
Easy	501	32.7	366	22.0	336	22.2
Very easy	145	9.4	123	7.4	76	5.0

Source: British Social Attitudes Survey

5.3 Differences by age

The CIPD research into the area of job satisfaction splits this category into age ranges. According to the CIPD Employee Outlook Survey, it is the younger age groups (18-34) who are consistently the most dissatisfied with their jobs, whereas employees who are 55 or older are the most satisfied. Generally speaking, job satisfaction increases as an employee's age increases (table 5.3).

Table 5.3: Employee net satisfaction by age*

Age	2006	Spring 2009	Spring 2010	Spring 2011	Spring 2012
18-24	-	+35	+7	+14	+25
25-34	-	+44	+27	+28	+38
35-44	-	+45	+33	+35	+39
45-54	-	+40	+33	+24	+40
55+	-	+60	+59	+51	+61
Overall	+26	+46	+36	+34	+47

Source: CIPD Employee Outlook Quarterly Survey

*Note: the net score is calculated by subtracting the percentage who claim to be dissatisfied from the percentage who say they are satisfied. The 2006 figures are taken from 'How engaged are British employees?' CIPD survey.

5.4 Career opportunities

The WageIndicator Survey reveals a substantial increase in people who feel they have a lack of career opportunities afforded to them in their workplace, rising from 50 per cent in 2006 to 63 per cent in 2011. Once again, the figures show a dramatic change from 2009 onwards, with just under one in two stating that they had opportunities for progression in 2009 (48 per cent). This number had dipped to just over one in three (37 per cent) by 2011 (table 5.4).

Table 5.4: Career opportunities

	2006		2009		2011	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
No	10,445	50.4	500	52.0	303	62.7
Yes	10,298	49.6	462	48.0	180	37.3

Source: WageIndicator Survey

5.5 Summary

The current evidence on job satisfaction is somewhat contradictory, with some surveys suggesting a decrease in job satisfaction and some pointing to an increase or stability. A key factor over the period in question is economic decline, leading to employees re-evaluating their career prospects and levels of satisfaction within the workplace. On balance, we would conclude that job satisfaction has declined since 2006.

6 Job security

- According to the Labour Force Survey, since 2006 the level of unemployment among people aged 18 to 24 has increased by two-thirds and long-term unemployment has doubled
- From 2006 to 2010, the number of redundancies increased significantly, especially in 2009
- The proportion of employees leaving their jobs through resignation dropped from 47.7 per cent in 2006 to 21.1 per cent in 2011
- Overall, the difficulty of finding a full-time job has resulted in a growing proportion of workers in temporary or part-time contracts, and with a decreased level of job security

6.1 Labour market figures

In the final quarter of 2008 the UK fell into recession until the second quarter of 2009, and then re-entered recession in the second quarter of 2012. This economic downturn is reflected in the employment figures and also levels of redundancy. These statistics are not conducive to a positive feeling of individual job security.

6.2 Unemployment

The level of unemployment, as measured by the Labour Force Survey (LFS), has risen significantly in this period, as has the level of long-term unemployment (those unemployed for over 12 months). The proportion of long-term unemployed has risen from 21.4 per cent of all unemployment in 2006, to 34.4 per cent in 2012. (table 6.2(i)).

Particularly significant in this period is the sharp increase in the level of unemployment of those aged 18 to 24. The latest figures show that people in this age group who are not in employment, education, or training, termed as 'NEETs', has steadily increased to a rate of 19.5 per cent in 2012 (this is the highest rate recorded since 1995). Nearly a third of employees aged 18 to 24 have been unemployed for over 12 months. This is almost double the rate recorded in 2006 when 15.4 per cent of unemployed people in this age group had been unemployed for over 12 months (table 6.2(ii)).

Table 6.2(i): Unemployment rates and levels (economically active aged 16 and over)

Year	Level	Rate %	% Unemployed over 12 months
2006	1,685,788	5.5	21.4
2007	1,655,258	5.4	23.8
2008	1,673,631	5.4	24.7
2009	2,435,425	7.8	22.5
2010	2,462,058	7.8	32.4
2011	2,493,632	7.9	33.6
2012	2,563,543	8.0	34.4

Source: Labour Force Survey, April-June

Table 6.2(ii): Unemployment rates and levels (economically active aged 18 to 24)

Year	Level	Rate %	% Unemployed over 12 months
2006	517,547	12.6	15.4
2007	520,366	12.5	17.8
2008	526,054	12.6	20.0
2009	719,419	17.3	19.8
2010	728,529	17.6	25.7
2011	743,869	18.0	27.4
2012	809,070	19.5	29.2

Source: Labour Force Survey, April-June

6.3 Redundancies

Redundancies grew significantly during the period the UK was in recession, rising from 4.8 per cent in 2008 to a rate of 10.6 per cent of employees in 2009. The risk of redundancy is a good measure of how secure an individual feels in their job and although the level of redundancies has fallen since the peak reached in 2009, it is still not back to the level recorded in 2006. This means that individuals are still likely to be feeling relatively insecure in their job (table 6.3).

Table 6.3: Redundancies: levels and rates

Year	Level	Rate % of employees
2006	136,131	5.4
2007	115,928	4.6
2008	121,469	4.8
2009	267,236	10.6
2010	150,804	6.1
2011	154,390	6.2
2012	150,261	6.0

Source: Labour Force Survey, April-June

The LFS records the reason for employees leaving their last job. According to this source, the proportion of employees who said they left their last job after being made redundant (both compulsory and voluntary) increased significantly in this period to reach a peak of 23.2 per cent in 2009, from 9.3 per cent in 2006.

The proportion of employees leaving their jobs through resignation (voluntarily) decreased from 47.7 per cent in 2006 to 21.1 per cent in 2011. This indicates that employees have not been confident of finding alternative work (see table 6j, Appendix A for a breakdown of reasons for employees leaving jobs).

There has been a significant increase in the proportion of employees leaving their job due to the end of a temporary contract. In 2006, 11.9 per cent of employees provided this as a reason for leaving their last job; in 2011, this has increased to 34.7 per cent. This indicates that there has perhaps been a shift in the way employers use temporary contracts, with much more fluidity in this part of the labour force (see table 6j, Appendix A).

6.4 Type of contract

In this period there has been an increase in the level of temporary work. The proportion of employees on temporary contracts has increased from 5.7 per cent in 2006 to 6.4 per cent in 2011 (see table 6i, Appendix A). Of the reasons provided for having a temporary job (on a fixed-term contract) the most significant was failure to find a permanent job (16.1 per cent).

The propensity of part-time work in this period has increased from 25.5 per cent in 2006 to 26.7 per cent in 2011. The number of people in part-time work because they were unable to find a full-time job was 16.5 per cent in 2011. This figure has almost doubled since 2006, when 8.8 per cent of people said they could not find a full-time job.

6.5 Level of job security

Evidence from the British Social Attitudes Survey reveals that employees are feeling slightly less secure in their current employment. The last survey in 2010 showed that the proportion of people feeling 'very secure' in their current employment had fallen to 26.1 per cent (down from 37.3 per cent in the 2005 survey). However, the proportion of people feeling 'secure' had increased from 40.6 per cent in 2005 to 46.4 per cent in 2010. The proportion of people describing their current employment as either 'insecure' or 'very insecure' has broadly stayed the same over the period (see table 6l, Appendix A).

6.6 Staff turnover

The CIPD measure of staff turnover has fallen over the period from 18.3 per cent in 2006 to 12.5 per cent in 2011. This survey shows that the proportion of voluntary leavers has fallen from 9.0 per cent in 2008 to 7.8 per cent in 2011, which again points towards a general level of job insecurity (see table 6e, Appendix A).

6.7 Summary

The evidence in this area, particularly from official statistics on the labour market, point to a period of general job insecurity. This is shown through a higher level of unemployment and long-term unemployment, and from a sharp increase in youth unemployment. The increase in temporary work and part-time working are also indicative of the level of job insecurity.

Since the previous review of the X-Factor in 2007, the indicators for job security have completely reversed. In 2007, the indicators for job security were good, with reported falls in both unemployment and long-term unemployment and the level of redundancies falling significantly over the period from 2002 to 2005.

7 Degree of autonomy, management control and workplace flexibility

- WageIndicator highlights that general employee satisfaction with the level of contribution to the decision-making process has fallen
- According to the British Social Attitudes Survey, from 2006 to 2010 the percentage of employees able to strongly influence work-related decisions increased. However, the proportion of employees who were involved in decisions related to work fell and the rate of those having just a little say rose

7.1 Job supervision

Management control is a valuable way of viewing the level of employee involvement allowed by supervisors in job-related issues. Furthermore, the extent of management control imposed over employees results in more or less efficient working performances and outcomes.

When it comes to the level of managerial control in the UK, the data provided by the WageIndicator Survey highlights a decrease in the number of employees closely supervised. In 2007 those who were strictly controlled accounted for 28 per cent, while in 2011 they represented 18.2 per cent of the employees interviewed. This may indicate that more autonomy has lately been granted to workers (table 7.1).

Table 7.1: Is closely supervised

Year		No	Yes	Total
2007	%	72.0	28.0	100.0
	Number	5,387	2,091	7,478
2008	%	70.1	29.9	100.0
	Number	4,907	2,095	7,002
2009	%	72.5	27.5	100.0
	Number	504	191	695
2010	%	76.7	23.3	100.0
	Number	478	145	623
2011	%	81.8	18.2	100.0
	Number	180	40	220

Source: WageIndicator Survey

7.2 Decision-making process

Although employees' autonomy might have increased, their involvement in job-related decisions has not improved. The figures in table 7.2 show that employees' satisfaction with their participation in decisions affecting their work has remained stable. In 2007, 53 per cent of employees claimed to be satisfied with their level of contribution in the decision-making process. In 2010, 52 per cent of the workers interviewed were involved in job-related decisions. In 2007 46.8 per cent of employees felt they should have more say, compared with 47.1 per cent in 2010.

Table 7.2: Should you have more say in decisions affecting your work, or not?

Year		Should have more say	Satisfied with way things are	Don't know	Total
2007	%	46.8	53.0	1.13	100.0
	Number	721	816	2	1,538
2008	%	45.4	54.0	0.6	100.0
	Number	765	910	10	1,685
2009	%	45.5	54.1	0.4	100.0
	Number	765	909	7	1,680
2010	%	47.1	52.0	0.9	100.0
	Number	724	798	14	1,536

Source: British Social Attitudes Survey

7.3 Ability to influence the decisions about work

Data provided by the British Social Attitudes Survey indicates a slight increase in employees' perceptions of their ability to influence work-related assessments. The percentage of those with 'a great deal' of involvement in the process rose from 23.6 per cent in 2006 to 25.2 per cent in 2010. However, 34.6 per cent of the employees interviewed in 2010 maintained they had 'just a little' chance to influence decisions about work. In 2006, 32.8 per cent reported that they had 'just a little' chance to influence decisions about work (table 7.3).

Table 7.3: Do you think you would have a chance to influence the decision about work?

Year		A great deal	Quite a lot	Just a little	Don't know	Total
2006	%	23.6	43.0	32.8	0.6	100.0
	Number	191	349	266	5	811
2007	%	22.2	44.3	33	0.4	100.0
	Number	176	352	262	3	794
2008	%	22.2	42.9	35	0.1	100.0
	Number	199	384	312	1	896
2009	%	21.5	43.1	35.3	0.1	100.0
	Number	195	391	320	1	906
2010	%	25.2	39.9	34.6	0.3	100.0
	Number	188	298	258	2	747

Source: British Social Attitude Survey

7.4 Summary

The data indicates that employees' level of satisfaction with their involvement in the job decision-making process is mostly unchanged, although workers appear to be less controlled by their managers.

8 Training

- The National Employers Skills Survey highlights a decrease in the amount of job-related training offered to employees
- Among the different age groups, young people from 16 to 24 years old are likely to suffer the most from a lack of training
- Since 2006-07, Government financial support to training providers has risen by 48.6 per cent. However, this has not resulted in increased access to apprenticeships

8.1 Training and learning at work

By enhancing economic competitiveness and fostering social inclusion, training and learning at work may be considered a useful economic instrument. However, according to the National Employers Skills Surveys, from 2005 to 2011 the number of employers supplying any job-related training decreased from 65 per cent to 59 per cent. Between 2005 and 2009 the number of employers offering training rose, but from 2009, employers' willingness to grant job-related training significantly decreased (table 8.1).

Between 2005 and 2011, the percentage of employers offering on-the-job training fell from 19 to 17 per cent, while the proportion of employers offering off-the-job training remained stable. However, the proportion of employers providing both on- and off-the-job training has fallen from 33 to 29 per cent over the period.

The data also shows that, from 2005 to 2011, the proportion of workers having access to training fell. In 2011, 54 per cent of the total UK workforce received training, while in 2005, those having access to training accounted for 61 per cent of the total workforce (table 8.1).

Table 8.1: Learning and training at work

Year	Employers providing any job-related training	Employers providing on-the-job training	Employers offering off-the-job training	Employers providing both	Proportion of employees receiving off-the-job training %	Employees receiving NVQ training	% of total workforce having access to training
2005	65	19	13	33	61	48	61
2007	67	21	13	33	63	49	63
2009	68	17	13	38	56	-	56
2011	59	17	13	29	54	-	54

Source: National Employers Skills Survey

8.2 Training opportunities for young people.

From 2006 to 2012, the number of employees receiving training fell by 7.7 per cent. Young people aged 16 to 17 and from 18 to 24 experienced the largest fall in training opportunities. Indeed, between 2006 and 2012, their participation in training courses dropped by 50.6 per cent and 17.7 per cent respectively.

However, a positive trend has been registered for employees aged from 50 to 64, who are the only group receiving more training now (1.8 per cent) than six years ago (table 8.2).

Table 8.2: Employees receiving training by age group*

Year (January- March)		All aged 16-64**	16-17	18-24	25-34	35-49	50-64
2006	%	16	24	23	16	15	11
	Number	3,826	122	783	916	1,356	651
2007	%	15	23	21	15	14	10
	Number	3,622	112	718	860	1,346	586
2008	%	15	24	21	15	14	11
	Number	3,627	119	715	851	1,314	628
2009	%	14	22	20	15	14	10
	Number	3,473	94	647	839	1,267	627
2010	%	14	20	19	15	14	10
	Number	3,355	67	592	833	1,274	589
2011	%	15	19	20	15	14	11
	Number	3,551	60	608	897	1,321	665
2012	%	15	19	21	15	14	11
	Number	3,528	60	644	907	1,255	663
	% Change	-7.7	-50.8	-17.7	-1.0	-7.4	1.8

Source: ONS, Labour Force Survey

*Note: employees receiving training as a percentage of all employees in the relevant age group.

**Note: males and females aged between 16 and 64.

8.3 Training received from employer last year

When it comes to the amount of time spent by workers in training activities, WageIndicator outlines, on average, a stable trend. In 2010 and in 2011 the proportion of employees receiving training of two months or more stood at 13.4 per cent and 11.1 per cent, respectively, while in 2007 it was only 7.4 per cent (table 8.3). This might indicate that long-term training has increased slightly in the last few years.

Table 8.3: How much training received from employer in the last year

Year		None	1 - 2 days	3 - 6 days	1 - 2 weeks	3 - 4 weeks	1 - 2 months	2 months or more	Total
2007	%	16.1	20.7	31.8	15.2	6.2	2.6	7.4	100.0
	Number	93	120	184	88	36	15	43	579
2008	%	32.4	16.4	18.5	12.4	6.5	3.6	10.2	100.0
	Number	3,326	1,681	1,897	1,272	667	374	1,044	10,261
2009	%	31.7	13.9	16.4	12.7	8.3	4.7	12.3	100.0
	Number	1,354	596	700	543	354	200	527	4,274
2010	%	30.2	15.0	17.1	13.4	6.6	4.2	13.4	100.0
	Number	862	428	489	383	189	120	381	2,852
2011	%	31.2	14.8	17.2	12.8	8.3	4.6	11.1	100.0
	Number	508	241	280	209	136	75	181	1,630

Source: WageIndicator Survey

8.4 Government spending

The positive data registered may be counted as a partial success in respect of the job-related policies enforced in the last few years by the Government to combat the recession. Among the several initiatives, the National Employers Survey indicates the 'Train to Gain' scheme as one of the most important. Launched in 2006, the scheme was designed, in particular, to assist and sustain small and medium-sized companies in offering training to their employees. However, the scheme was considerably reduced in 2010.

The 2012 National Audit Office Report on Adult Apprenticeships provides another example of national spending for training activities. According to the report, since 2006 the total public funding for apprenticeship providers has grown by 48.6 per cent (table 8.4(i)). The data refers to the financial support granted to training providers and not to training activities. This means that we do not have clear figures on the amount of national spending on workers' training.

Moreover, according to table 8.4(ii), the number of apprenticeships in the workplace has fallen by 18 per cent over the last five years. Thus, the growing cost of the national apprenticeship programme did not necessarily result in more apprenticeships.

Table 8.4(i): Apprenticeship programme delivery costs, 2006/07 to 2010/11

Year	Age: 16-18 (£m)	Age: 19-24 (£m)	Age: 25+ (£m)	Total adult (£m)	Total (£m)
2006/07	588	217	0	217	805
2007/08	604	223	6	229	832
2008/09	630	253	94	347	977
2009/10	688	268	116	384	1,072
2010/11	745	315	136	451	1,196
% change 2006/07-2010/11	26.7	45.2	-	107.8	48.6

Source: National Audit Office analysis of Skills Funding Agency and Learning and Skills Council accounts

Table 8.4(ii): Apprenticeship part of main job

Year	Number
2006	173,103
2007	171,637
2008	163,714
2009	157,746
2010	142,303
2011	141,685
% change 2006-2011	-18.1

Source: Labour Force Survey, April-June

8.5 Summary

In contrast to the findings shown by the previous X-Factor report, on- or off-the-job training offers to workers have declined.

Although the Government has played a relevant role in financing training activities and national spending towards training providers has increased, the proportion of workers with access to training has dropped.

9 Stress at work

- Since 2006, the proportion of employees with stress-related medical conditions has fallen as a percentage of main health problems
- On average, from 2004-05 to 2010-11, the number of days lost per worker for stress-related diseases has dropped by 23 per cent
- In 2010/11 people aged 45 to 54 were most likely to be affected by stress-related illnesses. Generally, female respondents reported more stress-related illness than male respondents
- From 2009 to 2011, the number of suicides increased only among men aged between 45 and 74 and fell away among other groups

9.1 Main health problem

Table 9.1 shows the main stress-related health problems, the number of stress-related incidents by age and gender, and the number of working days lost through stress. As The Work Foundation has reported, there are clear links between work-related stress and a variety of physical and mental disorders: 'The effects of work-related stress on ill-health operate in physiological, cognitive, emotional and behavioural ways'¹

Our 2006 report found that the number of individuals with a self-reported health problem increased dramatically between 1998 and 2006. Latest data shows that overall there has been a reduction in the proportion of stress-related medical conditions, from 36.3 per cent of all self-reported health problems in 2006 to 35.3 per cent in 2012. Among the illnesses reported, 'heart, blood pressure, circulation' illnesses have decreased from 17.0 to 16.2 per cent but 'depression, bad nerves' has increased slightly from 2.5 to 3.3 per cent.

¹ *Stress at Work*, The Work Foundation, 2007.

Table 9.1: Main health problem

Health problem	2006		2012	
	% of all health problems	Number of individuals	% of all health problems	Number of individuals
Stress-related health problems*:				
Back, neck	12.6	816,928	11.3	823,316
Skin conditions, allergies	3.6	235,676	3.6	265,879
Heart, blood pressure, circulation	16.5	1,068,224	16.2	1,186,469
Depression, bad nerves	2.8	184,037	3.3	243,451
Mental illness, phobia, panic attacks	0.5	35,178	0.9	66,104
Total stress-related health problems	36.0	2,349,043	35.3	2,585,219
Non-stress-related health problems:				
Arms, hands	5.5	354,385	5.2	381,936
Legs, feet	9.8	636,608	9.9	724,923
Difficulty seeing	1.7	109,488	1.4	101,632
Difficulty hearing	2.7	172,381	2.3	165,854
Speech impediment	0.1	4,506	0.0	1,511
Chest/breathing problems	16.3	1,060,233	15.5	1,133,109
Stomach, liver, kidney, digestion	6.7	437,793	6.8	494,440
Diabetes	6.3	406,538	6.5	477,429
Epilepsy	1.3	85,748	1.1	81,754
Learning difficulties	1.0	67,158	0.9	64,131
Progressive illness	2.1	137,365	2.7	200,210
Other health problems or disabilities	10.5	680,670	12.4	905,174
Total non stress-related health problems	64.0	4,152,873	64.7	4,732,103
Total	100.0	56,492,916	100.0	7,317,322

Source: Labour Force Survey

*Note: 'Stress-related' illnesses have been defined by IDS

9.2 Self-reported stress

According to the Health and Safety Executive, LFS data for 2010/11 estimates that the total number of cases of stress was 400,000 out of a total of 1,152,000 for all work related illnesses³.

3 Stress and Psychological Disorders, HSE: www.hse.gov.uk/statistics/causdis/stress/index.htm

On average, some 27 days per case were lost due to stress-related illnesses in 2010/11, compared to 30 days in 2006/07 (table 9.2). Average days lost for each worker was highest in 2006/07 at 0.6 and lowest in 2009/10 at 0.42. Over the period there has been a decline in the number of days lost per worker of 23 per cent, and a fall in the total number of days lost by 22 per cent.

Table 9.2: Self-reported stress, depression or anxiety caused by or made worse by work*

Year	Incidence per 100 employees	Estimated working days lost (millions)	Average days lost per worker	Average days lost per case
2006/07	0.83	13.7	0.60	30.2
2007/08	0.78	13.5	0.56	30.7
2008/09	0.76	11.3	0.48	27.5
2009/10	0.78	9.7	0.42	22.5
2010/11	0.70	10.7	0.46	27.0
% change 2004/05-2010/11	-15.7	-21.9	-23.3	-10.6

Source: Labour Force Survey on self-reported work-related illness and workplace injuries

***Note: central estimates**

Evidence from 2010/11 LFS data on self-reported work-related illness and workplace injuries (SWI) shows that, as in 2006, more women than men reported stress-related illnesses. In 1998/99 the age bracket most likely to report stress-related illnesses was 35-54 whereas in 2010/11, for both men and women, the age bracket 45-54 is more likely to report stress-related illnesses. The industries that reported the highest rates of work-related stress in the last three years were health and social work, education and public administration.

9.3 Suicides

The 2006 report identified a decline in the number of young men (15-44) committing suicide over the period 1998-2004. The trend continues in the latest period, with some 16.7 per 100,000 committing suicide in 2010 compared to 17.7 in 2006. There was, however an upturn to 18.6 in 2008 and 18.0 in 2009. Equally, there has been a small increase in the number of suicides among older men in the last two years. In contrast, the picture among women is one of decline across all age groups (table 9.3).

Table 9.3: Age standardised suicide rates (per 100,000 population)

Men	15>	15-44	45-74	75>
2006	17.4	17.7	17.3	14.9
2007	16.8	17.6	16.0	15.2
2008	17.7	18.6	17.0	13.9
2009	17.5	18.0	17.4	13.6
2010	17.0	16.7	17.7	14.6
Women	15>	15-44	45-74	75>
2006	5.3	4.4	6.6	4.5
2007	5.0	4.2	6.2	4.3
2008	5.4	4.9	6.1	4.5
2009	5.2	4.9	5.8	4.7
2010	5.3	4.8	6.0	4.2

Source: ONS

*Note: age-standardised rate per 100,000 population, standardised using the European standard Population.

9.4 Summary

Many employers now focus on preventative measures aimed at reducing stress in the workplace. The success of these measures appears to be borne out by data. Overall, data shows that the picture is of a declining number and rate of stress-related illnesses. There was a continued decline in the proportion of young men committing suicide. However, there is some evidence that the level of suicide has increased a little in recent years especially among older men, age 45 plus.

10 Individual rights

- The period since 2007 has seen a raft of legislation introduced concerning individual rights at work
- The last five years have been especially significant in terms of legislation around equalities issues. The Equality Act 2010 consolidated most of the previous anti-discrimination legislation into a single Act

10.1 Overview

According to the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), the UK has one of the most lightly-regulated labour markets among developed countries. Only the US and Canada have lighter overall regulation (OECD Indicators of Employment Protection 2008; Employment Law Review, Annual Update March 2012, Department for Business, Innovation and Skills).

In May 2010, the Government made a commitment to review employment laws for 'employers and employees, to ensure they maximise flexibility for both parties while protecting fairness and providing the competitive environment for enterprise to thrive' (BIS, 2012). Since that time the Government has been carrying out a Parliament-long review of employment-related legislation under the umbrella of the Employment Law Review. Coordinated by BIS, the review involves a wide-ranging examination of laws and regulations that affect the functioning of the labour market and brings together policies from across Government, including the Government Equalities Office, the Department for Work and Pensions and the Ministry of Justice.

Table 10.1 overleaf presents changes since 2007, including amendments to the Sex Discrimination Act 1975, introduction of the Equality Act 2010 and Agency Worker Regulations 2010.

10.1: Employment legislation 2007 to 2012

Legislation	Details
2007	
Corporate Manslaughter and Corporate Homicide Act 2007	Corporations and some other designated bodies made liable for the new offence of corporate manslaughter if the management of the organisation's activities breaches a duty of care, resulting in death.
2008	
Sex Discrimination Act 1975 (Amendment) Regulations 2008 SI 2008/656	Changes to the grounds on which a harassment claim can be brought, and what actions constitute discrimination occurring on maternity leave.
Sex Discrimination (Amendment of Legislation) Regulations 2008 SI 2008/963	Regulations implementing the principle of equal treatment between men and women in the access to and supply of goods and services which are available to the public.
Sex Discrimination Act 1975 (Amendment) Regulations 2008 SI 2008/656 and Maternity and Parental Leave etc. and the Paternity and Adoption Leave (Amendment) Regulations 2008 SI 2008/1966	Removal of distinction between ordinary and additional maternity leave. Women whose expected week of child-birth began on or after 5 October 2008 have the right to the same non-remuneration terms and conditions during additional maternity leave as those enjoyed during ordinary maternity leave. The same applies to employees expected to adopt on or after that date.
Information and Consultation of Employees Regulations 2004 SI 2004/3426	The ICE Regulations, which give employees the right to agree with their employer procedures for informing and consulting on workplace issues, extended to undertakings with 50 or more employees.
Income Tax (Pay as You Earn) Regulations 2008 SI 2008/782	Regulations making a number of changes to the regime for collecting income tax through the PAYE system, including granting HM Revenue & Customs a power to transfer PAYE liability from an employer to an employee.
2009	
Flexible Working (Eligibility, Complaints and Remedies) Regulations 2002 SI 2002/3236	Extends the right to request flexible working to parents of children up to 16 years old (or, if the child is disabled, 17 years old).
Working Time Regulations 1998 SI 1998/1833	Increases statutory minimum paid holiday entitlement from 4.8 to 5.6 weeks (24 to 28 days for those working a five-day week)

Legislation	Details
Employment Act 2008 (Commencement No. 1, Transitional Provisions and Savings) Order 2008 SI 2008/3232	Contains transitional provisions governing when the statutory dispute resolution procedures will continue to apply after 6 April 2009.
Employment Tribunals (Constitution and Rules of Procedure) Regulations 2004 SI 2004/1861	Makes changes to tribunal procedure, including applications for extensions of time for presenting a response, issuing and reviewing default judgments, withdrawal and dismissal of proceedings, and the steps a debarred respondent can take in the proceedings.
Safeguarding Vulnerable Groups Act 2006	Single vetting system for checking the suitability of potential employees to work with children and vulnerable adults.
2010 and beyond	
Bribery Act 2010	The Act repeals the common law bribery offences and creates new offences with a maximum penalty of ten years' imprisonment or an unlimited fine for which employees, directors and commercial organisations can be liable.
Equality Act 2010	Harmonises equality law by bringing together previous equality legislation. The Act covers discrimination because of age, disability, gender reassignment, marriage and civil partnership, pregnancy and maternity, race, religion or belief, sex and sexual orientation, and also now explicitly covers associate discrimination and perceptible discrimination.
Transnational Information and Consultation of Employees Regulations 1999 SI 1999/3323	The Regulations aim to increase the use of European Works Councils. The changes include new definitions of information and consultation, and requiring arrangements for informing and consulting employees to be defined and implemented.
Agency Worker Regulations 2010 SI 2010/93	The Regulations implement the Temporary Agency Workers Directive (2008/104/EU) and grant agency workers the right to equal treatment in matters of pay and conditions with staff hired directly by the employer once the worker has satisfied a 12-week qualifying period.
Parental Leave Directive (2010/18/EU)	Extends parental leave from three to four months for each parent of which at least one month must be non-transferable to the other parent (i.e. it is lost if not taken) to encourage fathers to take the leave. Also clarifies that all workers may take parental leave regardless of their contract type.
Employment Equality (Age) Regulations 2006 SI 2006/1031	Default retirement age of 65 phased out from April 2011.
Additional Paternity Leave Regulations 2010 SI 2010/1055 and related regulations	Mothers with maternity leave outstanding after the child is 20 weeks old can 'transfer' up to six months of maternity leave to the father or partner, and some of it is paid. Measure effective for parents of children due on or after 3 April 2011.
Unfair Dismissal and Statement of Reasons for Dismissal (Variation of Qualifying Period) Order 2012 SI 2012/989	Increases the qualifying period required to bring a claim of unfair dismissal or request a written statement of reasons for dismissal to two years for those starting a new job on or after 6 April 2012. Employees whose employment started before 6 April will remain subject to the one-year qualifying period.

10.2 Summary

The last five years have been significant for legislative changes in a number of key areas, particularly equalities and family-friendly policies. The Equality Act 2010, for example, saw almost all of the previous anti-discrimination legislation in Great Britain replaced and consolidated into a single Act. Moreover, the Additional Paternity Leave Regulations 2010 have enabled mothers with maternity leave outstanding to transfer up to six months of maternity leave to the father.

11 Support to personnel and families

- Since the introduction of the Work and Families Act 2006, IDS has found evidence to suggest that employers have become increasingly likely to offer maternity pay above the statutory minimum. However, it is less common for organisations to offer maternity leave above the statutory minimum
- Employers have become increasingly likely to offer paternity pay above the statutory minimum since 2007. However, the practice of paying one week at full pay and one week at the Statutory Paternity Pay (SSP) rate has remained constant
- Some forms of childcare, particularly workplace nurseries, have become less common since 2007, for reasons of cost to the employer and low take-up
- Since tax and National Insurance Contributions exemptions were introduced in 2005, the provision of childcare vouchers and allowances has become more popular
- Although detailed information is not readily available, research suggests that the provision of employee assistance programmes has either grown, or at least been maintained, since 2008

11.1 Overview

This chapter looks at company practice since 2007 to the present, in respect of support given to employees and their families around maternity and paternity pay and leave, childcare support, employee assistance programmes, care leave and bereavement leave.

Each of the above fall into the category of ‘employee benefits’, which are typically non-cash provisions within the pay and benefits package, although they carry a financial value or cost to the employer – for example, paid holidays, pensions and company cars, etc. Employee benefits may be offered by employers for business reasons (i.e. helping to recruit, retain and/or motivate employees as required to achieve organisational objectives) and/or ‘moral’ reasons based on a desire to care for employees’ well-being, and in so doing, potentially enhance their engagement to the business (CIPD 2012). The prevailing economic, regulatory and social background also plays an influential role in the development and shaping of employers’ policies and practices.

In 2010, IDS HR Studies reported how the economic recession had put HR departments under pressure in terms of keeping employees engaged while having to control or cut costs. One approach has been to shift the emphasis away from the annual salary increase and on to the total value of the employee proposition. Having a strong employee benefits package is a key part of this and, increasingly, employers are seeking to broaden their benefits offering and give employees greater choice by means of voluntary benefits schemes and salary sacrifice arrangements.

The Covenant sets out the relationship between the Nation, the State and the Armed Forces and recognises that the whole nation has a moral obligation to members of the Armed Forces and their families, and establishes how they should expect to be treated. Moreover, the Employer-Financed Retirement Benefits Schemes (Excluded Benefits for Tax Purposes) (Amendment) Regulations SI 2011/2281 make particular provision for certain benefits paid specifically to or in respect of Armed Forces personnel, to be excluded from counting as relevant benefits.

This chapter is divided into four main sections as follows:

Sections 11.2 and 11.3 look at practice in respect of maternity and paternity pay and leave arrangements, drawing on relevant data from across the IDS HR Studies series between 2007 and 2011.

- Sections 11.4 to 11.8 review childcare support, also drawing on relevant publications by IDS HR Studies between 2007 and 2011.
- Section 11.9 reports on company practice, as reported by IDS HR Studies, concerning the provision of employee assistance programmes (EAPs) for six organisations in each of two years – 2008 and 2011.
- Finally, section 11.10 looks at workplace arrangements around care leave and bereavement leave between 2006/07 and 2011/12. For this section of the analysis we have drawn on data from Croner Reward's annual Employee Benefits Surveys.

11.2 Maternity pay and maternity leave

- The Work and Families Act 2006 improved both statutory maternity leave and statutory maternity pay (SMP), extending SMP from six to nine months and the maximum period of maternity leave to one year
- Research by IDS suggests that since the Act came into force in 2007, employers have become increasingly likely to offer maternity pay above the statutory minimum
- It is less common for organisations to offer maternity leave above the statutory minimum, although IDS research suggests some slight improvements in maternity leave provision since 2009

The most recent IDS HR Study on maternity and paternity leave, reporting on practice in 92 organisations employing a total of 680,084 staff, found that 61 per cent of employers offered maternity pay above the statutory minimum. The most common approach (for 58 per cent of organisations) was to provide full pay for a period of maternity leave – typically around 18 weeks – although some employers (30 per cent) staggered payments, following a shorter period at full pay with a period at half pay and the remainder at the statutory rate. Only two employers in the 2011 IDS Study offered an extended period of paid maternity leave beyond the statutory 39 weeks, including one that offered 60 weeks' leave on the basis of at least 63 weeks of service.

The majority of respondents to the 2011 survey (90 per cent) also operated 'keeping-in-touch' days and over a quarter, 27 per cent, had put in place return-to-work incentives. In addition, over half from this group of respondents required women to return to work – typically for 12 weeks – or lose all or part of their maternity pay. Some 28 per cent of organisations also offered a return-to-work bonus.

All 21 organisations in the 2009 IDS maternity and parental leave HR Study had arrangements which were an improvement on the statutory maternity provisions. Almost all topped up statutory maternity pay (SMP) to full pay for part of the statutory pay period – typically paying a full salary for between six and 40 weeks. The most common requirement for receiving better-than-statutory maternity was 26 weeks' service, the same as for SMP, although more than a third of organisations in the 2009 IDS Survey had longer service requirements.

None of the organisations featured in 2009 extended maternity leave beyond 52 weeks, although some offered career breaks or unpaid leave providing an opportunity for women to take extra time off after their maternity leave. Many of these schemes also had a service requirement and the duration of the breaks varied widely – from three months to five years.

Finally, the 2007 IDS HR Study in the same series reported that all 26 organisations featured that year improved on the statutory maternity provisions in some respect, although in the wake of the Work and Families Act 2006, few (two out of 26) had overhauled their maternity pay arrangements significantly. The majority extended their existing provisions with the addition of a further 13 weeks' lower-rate SMP.

11.3 Paternity pay and paternity leave

- In April 2011, new legislation was introduced enabling fathers to take up to six months (26 weeks) of additional paternity leave. This means that fathers can take up to 26 weeks of any leave that is untaken by the mother from the 20th week after the birth. The father may also be entitled to additional paternity pay if statutory maternity pay remains untaken when the mother returns to work
- Thanks to the new legislation, therefore, paternity leave provision offered by employers has improved since 2007, although very few organisations offer above the statutory minimum
- Research by IDS since 2007 has shown that a majority of employers offer paternity pay above the statutory minimum although the practice of paying one week at full pay and one week at the SPP rate has remained constant

The 2011 IDS HR Study on maternity and paternity leave found that a majority of employers (63 per cent) offered paternity pay above the statutory minimum. The most common arrangement was to provide full pay for the full two weeks of ordinary paternity leave – the practice at 60 per cent of organisations offering enhanced paternity pay. A further third of organisations, 33 per cent, paid one week at full pay followed by one week at statutory paternity pay. Very few organisations offered paternity leave beyond two weeks and, where occurring, this tended to be only in special circumstances such as multiple births.

The 2011 IDS Study also reported that around three quarters (72 per cent) of respondents had changed their policies in the wake of the additional paternity leave (APL) arrangements introduced that same year. In a majority of cases, employers matched the statutory requirements, while three respondents said they provided full pay for at least a part of APL if taken during the period that a mother would have received full pay.

Prior to the introduction of the new APL arrangements in 2011, the 2009 IDS HR Study on maternity and paternity leave found that a majority of the 21 featured organisations followed the statutory requirements for paternity leave, as outlined in the Work and Families Act 2006, offering up to two weeks' leave to be taken as one week or two consecutive weeks (i.e. not odd days, or two separate weeks). A small number of organisations had gone beyond the statutory leave entitlements by relaxing some of the rules; for example, allowing paternity leave to be taken one day at a time, but none offered more than the statutory two weeks' leave.

Nevertheless, the majority of employers typically enhanced the two weeks' statutory paternity pay, either providing two weeks on full pay or the first week on full pay and the second week at the SPP rate.

Similar paternity arrangements to those reported by IDS in 2009 were also found among the 26 organisations surveyed for the 2007 IDS HR Study. A majority of the companies followed the statutory requirements for paternity leave, offering up to two weeks' leave to be taken as one week or two consecutive weeks, and within 54 days of the birth of the child. Two organisations in the 2007 Study allowed for paternity leave to be taken in blocks of one day. One organisation had provision for an extension of paternity leave to three weeks, but only in cases of particular distress (for example, serious illness of the mother or child), and one other employer offered up to four weeks' paid leave for multiple births.

In addition, as in 2011 and 2009, most of the organisations featured in the 2007 Study offered enhanced paternity pay. Two organisations had a minimum service requirement (one and two years respectively) for enhanced pay but the majority had adopted the statutory rules.

11.4 Childcare support

- The main forms of childcare support provided by employers are: workplace and other nursery provision; out-of-school childcare; emergency childcare; and childcare vouchers and allowances
- Some forms of childcare, particularly workplace nurseries, have become less common since 2007, both for reasons of cost to the employer and low take-up
- Organisations looking for a more cost-effective option are turning to childcare vouchers and allowances, which have become more popular since tax and National Insurance Contributions exemptions were introduced in 2005

As stated at the beginning of this chapter, two key trends in recent years in respect of employee benefits provision have been flexibility and cost containment, and both can be seen in the approach that many companies take to childcare support. The most common means of offering employee assistance with the cost of childcare is to give employees access to childcare vouchers through a salary sacrifice scheme. For the employee, this provides cost savings from tax and National Insurance Contribution (NIC) exemptions on the first £55 of vouchers purchased each week (for basic-rate earners). However, such schemes are now less attractive for higher-rate tax payers who joined after 6 April 2011.

For employers, salary sacrifice childcare voucher schemes provide a way of bolstering their family-friendly credentials without incurring significant costs – any administration fees charged by the voucher provider should be covered by savings made on employer NICs. This means that the budget available for employee benefits provision can then be spent on benefits that will appeal to all staff – and parents are not seen to receive favourable treatment.

- A series of IDS HR Studies, between 2007 and 2011, have looked at the range of childcare support measures offered to employees, in particular:
 - Workplace and other nursery provision
 - Out-of-school care
 - Emergency childcare
 - Childcare vouchers and allowances.

11.5 Workplace and other nursery provision

The 2011 IDS HR Study on childcare support reported on workplace/other nursery provision arrangements in 17 organisations, including the Foreign and Commonwealth Office and the Ministry of Defence. The organisations featured operated a range of allocation policies including ‘first-come, first served’, and giving priority to employees that already had one child at the nursery. In terms of charges, a majority of the organisations charged weekly fees, although some operated salary sacrifice schemes whereby parents agreed to a reduction in salary equivalent to nursery fees. ‘Other’ nursery provision was provided by two organisations offering subsidised placements or childcare vouchers.

Surveys of childcare provision conducted by IDS in 2009 and 2007 reported on practice in 20 and 23 organisations, respectively. In all three years of the survey, workplace nurseries have been most prevalent in the public sector, in particular hospitals and universities with a high proportion of professional female employees that offer on-site childcare support for their staff.

Nevertheless, IDS reported that a number of organisations it approached for the 2011 Study had closed their workplace nurseries due to costs or low uptake of places. Moreover, some companies seek to avoid being seen to favour a particular employee group with an expensive benefit, and prefer to spend their budget on a range of flexible benefit options.

11.6 Out-of-school care

By offering assistance, whether practical or financial, with out-of-school and holiday care, employers can help staff with school-age children to work normal hours during the week and for at least part of the school holidays. However, in its series of surveys since 2007 covering this subject, IDS has found that relatively few companies offer such support and instead are more likely to offer working parents flexible working options as a way to cope with the difficulties that school holidays and after-school hours can present.

The 2011 IDS HR Study on childcare support reported on practice in eight organisations in respect of holiday play schemes. The 2009 and 2007 HR Studies looked at company practice in 11 and 12 organisations respectively. Across the three reports, places on holiday play schemes have generally been allocated on a ‘first-come, first-served’ basis and day rates range from approximately £9 up to £37 (for an extended day).

11.7 Emergency childcare

While a sudden breakdown in childcare arrangements can be stressful for employees and disruptive for employers, providing staff with access to emergency childcare services can help organisations to lower absence rates and also promote higher levels of employee engagement.

Research undertaken by IDS HR Studies in 2011 and 2009, which looked at arrangements in four and five organisations respectively, identified a number of different practices by employers, from offering short-notice places at the on-site workplace nursery to providing designated childcare co-ordinators or advisers with responsibility for finding suitable emergency childcare spaces when the situation arises. This means that, even if a company’s workplace nursery has no capacity, help is available to source places at external facilities. Moreover, two of the four organisations in 2011 used third-party providers to find nursery places and three of the five organisations featured in the 2009 HR Study reported doing so.

11.8 Childcare vouchers and allowances

Despite IDS's reporting on practical initiatives run by organisations to help employees manage their childcare arrangements, including workplace/other nursery provision and emergency childcare cover, it remains the case that such provision is not a viable option for many employers. Consequently, childcare assistance is more commonly provided in the form of either cash allowances or vouchers, which offer staff a far greater degree of flexibility and are increasingly offered as voluntary benefits paid for by staff through a salary sacrifice arrangement. Since tax and NIC exemptions were introduced in April 2005, childcare vouchers have tended to be the more popular of the two approaches, and vouchers may also be offered as part of a flexible benefits programme or provided as an incentive to mothers to return to work following maternity leave.

Over the period 2007 to 2011, IDS HR Studies tracked the practice of 11 organisations providing childcare vouchers and allowances. The majority of these organisations (eight out of 11) offered childcare vouchers in each year and the remainder offered cash allowances, typically on a sliding scale – i.e. the largest amount going to the first child and lesser amounts being paid out for subsequent children. One organisation, across two of the three years, offered a childcare allowance of £100 per month, or 30 per cent of childcare fees, whichever was lower.

11.9 Employee assistance programmes

- Employee assistance programmes (EAPs) typically include access to 24-hour telephone helplines, counselling services and wider workplace occupational health schemes
- Detailed information about the prevalence of workplace EAPs is not readily available, although research carried out by the CIPD suggests that employer provision has either grown, or been maintained from the previous year, since 2008

- The section looks at organisation practice around the provision of EAPs, which the Employee Assistance Professionals Association (EAPA) defines as a 'worksite-focused programme to assist in the identification and resolution of employee concerns, which affect, or may affect, performance'. Such employee concerns typically include, though are not limited to:
 - Personal matters – health, relationship, family, financial, emotional, legal, anxiety, alcohol, drugs and other related issues.
 - Work matters – work demands, fairness at work, working relationships, harassment and bullying, personal and interpersonal skills, work/life balance, stress and other related issues.

The EAP also includes a mechanism for providing counselling and other forms of assistance, advice and information to employees to recognised standards.

EAPA states that EAPs can help individuals, managers and organisations to:

- Cope with work-related and personal problems and challenges that impact on performance at work
- Improve productivity and workplace efficiency
- Decrease work-related accidents
- Lessen absenteeism and staff turnover
- Promote workplace cooperation
- Manage the risk of unexpected events
- Position the organisation as a caring employer
- Recruit and retain staff
- Reduce grievances
- Assist in addiction problems
- Improve staff morale and motivation
- Provide a management tool for performance analysis and improvement
- Demonstrate a caring attitude to employees
- Assist line managers in identifying and resolving staff problems.

In both 2008 and 2011, IDS HR Studies looked at company practice in six organisations and we present the main findings from this research in tables 11a and 11b in Appendix A. To summarise, EAPs typically offer access to telephone helplines and counselling services and may be either run in-house or provided by a third-party specialist, or involve a combination of the two approaches. In the organisations reviewed, self-referral was generally preferred, although line managers were encouraged to remind their staff that the service was available where there were concerns about an employee's health and wellbeing. Moreover, in a majority of cases EAPs were open to all company employees and their immediate family. Take-up rates varied but, where stated, were in the range of 5 to 10 per cent.

More broadly, detailed information about the prevalence of EAPs is not widespread, although a series of annual surveys produced by the CIPD suggest that the practice of offering an EAP in the workplace has grown steadily, or at least been maintained since 2008. In its 2011 Absence Management Survey, the CIPD reported that 46 per cent of the 600 organisations surveyed had an employee wellbeing strategy (or similar) in place. The same proportion of organisations in 2010 reported having such a strategy, compared with 33 per cent in 2009 and 30 per cent in 2008.

11.10 Care leave and bereavement leave

- Research since 2006/07 suggests that the number of organisations providing care leave to their employees has risen, although the data reviewed does not draw on matched samples year on year. Five days' care leave provision is now the most commonly reported by employers
- Five days was also the most commonly reported number of bereavement days given by employers and this has remained largely unchanged since 2006/07

The final part of this chapter looks at arrangements that organisations have in place for their staff in respect of care and bereavement leave. Drawing on data collected annually by Croner Reward since 2006 (over a series of four surveys), under the umbrella of family-friendly policies, the main findings are presented in tables 11c to 11e in Appendix A.

In interpreting the findings from Croner Reward, it is important to note that the surveys are not based on matched samples year-on-year and moreover the sample sizes vary considerably—e.g. 40 organisations provided data in 2006/07; 172 organisations in 2008/09; 195 organisations in 2010/11 and 112 organisations in 2011/12. Finally, information was not collected in a consistent way over the series of surveys— i.e. organisations were asked to respond to questions that were phrased differently in particular years and so it is difficult to discern particular trends over time.

For example, in 2006/07, 17 organisations (43 per cent of the total sample) provided care leave for their employees, compared with:

- 54 organisations in 2008/09 (31 per cent of the total sample)
- 61 in 2010/11 (31 per cent of the total sample)
- 63 in 2011/12 (56 per cent of the total sample).

Further information is provided in Appendix A.

The four surveys also provide a breakdown of care leave arrangements by job level – management, clerical and operative – and show generally little difference in the number of care leave days received by management and clerical job-holders. There was a general trend for individuals in operative roles to receive slightly fewer care leave days overall, while across all three job groups the most commonly reported amount of care leave was five days.

Five days was also most frequently reported in respect of days given by employers for bereavement leave. Across all four surveys, employers gave five days' leave for the death of a spouse or child and in all but one year (2006/07), five days was also given for the death of a sibling. In addition, from 2008/09 onwards, Croner Reward collected information around time off given for the death of a parent and this again was five days in each year. Typically, for non-relatives, employers provided one day of bereavement leave.

Across the three job groups, organisations providing information did not generally differentiate in terms of the number of bereavement days provided, which is to be expected. Finally, across three of the four surveys¹, around a fifth to over one half of respondents said that the amount of bereavement leave given to all job-holders was at the employer's discretion.

¹ The 2006/07 survey did not provide information on sample sizes.

12 Leave

- The proportion of full-time employees with 26 or more days’ annual leave has increased
- In particular, full-time employees in lower-skilled occupations in some organisations have seen a rise in basic annual leave entitlement as a result of improvements in statutory leave entitlement and the harmonisation of terms and conditions
- Some three-fifths of employers provide service-related leave, with the majority giving the maximum entitlement within ten years of service
- The proportion of full-time employees who work on bank holidays has risen for all employee groups
- Full-time employees in managerial occupations are more likely to receive paid leave for bank holidays

12.1 Basic annual leave

IDS research indicates that, between 2007 and 2011, the average basic annual leave entitlement rose by only 0.1 days (table 12.1(i)). Although the average basic annual leave entitlement rests at 24.7 days in 2011, there are variations between occupational groups and industry sectors (see tables 12a to 12k, Appendix A).

Table 12.1(i): Basic annual leave entitlement (days)*

Year	Average basic annual leave entitlement
2007	24.6
2008	24.7
2009	24.8
2010	24.6
2011	24.7

Source: IDS HR Studies Hours and Holidays 2007 to 2011

***Note: excludes any additional service-related leave**

The distribution of paid annual leave entitlement for full-time employees (in the Labour Force survey) shows a slight increase in entitlement for some employees (table 12.1(ii)). The proportion of full-time employees with 26 or more days’ basic leave has increased from 35.4 per cent in 2007 to 41 per cent in 2011. The increase in annual leave entitlement may, in part, reflect the effect of legislation. The Working Time (Amendment) Regulations 2007 increased holiday entitlement from four weeks to 5.6 weeks, with effect from April 2009.

Although the statutory minimum includes bank and public holidays, it has provided some upward impetus to an increase in basic annual leave entitlement, excluding bank and public holidays. While some employers have increased leave entitlement in line with the statutory minimum, other employers have increased leave entitlement so that they continue to be above the statutory minimum.

Table 12.1(ii): Distribution of paid annual leave entitlement for full-time employee *

Days	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	% change 2007-2011
20 days or less	24.3	22.4	25.1	21.0	20.4	-16.0
21 to 25 days	40.3	40.7	36.9	38.1	38.6	-4.2
26 to 30 days	23.4	24.6	25.1	27.7	27.7	18.4
31 days or more	12.0	12.4	12.9	13.2	13.3	10.8

Source: Labour Force Survey, October-December

***Note: excludes bank holidays and public holidays**

In some organisations, the harmonisation of terms and conditions has led to some employee groups gaining extra holiday (IDS HR Studies, Hours and Holidays 2008). Table 12.1(iii) shows that employees in semi-routine and routine occupations have gained two days' annual leave between 2007 and 2011.

Table 12.1(iii): Basic annual leave entitlement by major occupational group

Occupational group	Median	
	2007	2011
Higher managerial and professional	25.0	25.0
Lower managerial and professional	25.0	26.0
Intermediate occupations	25.0	25.0
Lower supervisory and technical	24.0	25.0
Semi-routine occupations	22.0	24.0
Routine occupations	21.0	23.0

Source: Labour Force Survey, October-December

Although annual leave entitlement across most sectors remained relatively unchanged, some sectors have seen a rise or fall in entitlement over this period (see table 12b, Appendix A). The median annual leave entitlement has risen by three days in construction as well as hotels and restaurants. The median annual leave entitlement fell by three days in education. IDS data on annual leave entitlement is broadly in line with that provided in the LFS (see tables 12b and 12c, Appendix A). While the evidence suggests that annual leave entitlement has risen for some employee groups in some sectors, there is no evidence to show the amount of annual leave that employees actually take in a year.

12.2 Service-related leave

Approximately two fifths of employers do not offer service-related leave and instead provide employees with the maximum leave entitlement upon entry. The majority of employers who do give service-related leave normally give the maximum leave entitlement after five years of service (table 12.2(i)).

Table 12.2: Service-related entitlement – when maximum holiday is reached (2011)

Years' service	% of employers
On entry	39.2
1 to 4	4.5
5	15.3
6 to 9	1.2
10	11.6
11 to 14	1.9
15	6.9
16 to 19	–
20	7.3
21 to 24	0.2
25	8.5
26 to 29	0.5
30	1.2
35	0.5
40	0.2

Source: IDS HR Studies Hours and Holidays 2011

Under the Equality Act 2010, it is unlawful to discriminate against employees because of their age. However, the regulations include a service-related exemption for 'benefits' awarded where the service criterion is five years or less. Moreover, an employer may award extra benefits, including extra holiday entitlement, using a length-of-service criterion of more than five years if it can show that the criterion 'fulfils a business need'.

Over recent years, many organisations have responded to the age regulations by rationalising their service-related leave to meet the exemption of five years or less. A few employers have removed service-related leave altogether (IDS HR Study, Hours and Holidays 2011).

The Working Time (Amendment) Regulations 2007 also had an effect on service-related leave entitlement. Many of the organisations featured in IDS HR Study Hours and Holidays 2011 have improved service-related leave entitlement as a direct result of an increase to basic leave entitlement.

12.3 Paid bank holidays by occupational group

Over the 2007 and 2011 period, the proportion of full-time employees who work on bank holidays has risen for all occupational groups (see table 12d, Appendix A). The rise in bank holiday working could be linked to the increased popularity of annual hours arrangements.

While the majority of full-time employees get paid for working bank holidays, there has been a small increase in the proportion of full-time employees receiving pay for working bank holidays across all occupational groups except for those in intermediate occupations (see table 12e, Appendix A).

The incidence of bank holiday working is more common among those in low-skilled than in high-skilled occupations. In 2011, full-time employees in semi-routine occupations, 46.2 per cent, were most likely to work on bank holidays, while full-time employees in higher managerial occupations, 22.7 per cent, were least likely to work on bank holidays (see table 12d, Appendix A).

Despite the rise in bank holiday working, the majority of full-time employees still do not work on bank holidays. Those in managerial occupations are more likely to receive paid leave on bank holidays than those in routine occupations (see table 12g, Appendix A).

12.4 Paid bank holidays by industry sector

The LFS industry sector classification codes changed between 2007 and 2011, so the figures are not always directly comparable between these two years.

According to table 12h in Appendix A, there has generally been a small rise in bank holiday working in industry sectors that have not changed their classifications. These include mining and quarrying, manufacturing, construction, wholesale and retail, public administration and defence, and health and social work. However, education and extraterritorial organisations have seen a fall in bank holiday working over this period.

Paid leave on bank holidays appears to be weakly linked to the concentration of high-skilled employees in the sector. Between 2007 and 2011, paid leave on bank holidays has risen in financial and insurance activities and extraterritorial bodies but has fallen in wholesale and retail, and hotels and restaurants. In a number of sectors such as public administration and defence, manufacturing and construction, the incidence of paid leave on bank holidays has remained stable over this period.

12.5 Other trends

IDS HR Study, Hours and Holidays 2011, reported that some organisations provide the flexibility for employees to carry-over up to five days' leave or to buy and sell leave. Britvic Soft Drinks, for example, allows employees to buy up to ten days' leave and sell up to five days (IDS HR Study, Hours and Holidays 2010).

Some organisations may fix the dates of when leave can be taken, such as, during plant shutdown. Tetley GB, for example, requests its employees to reserve five days' leave until 1 June, by which date it will have decided whether to close over Christmas – if not, no holiday is fixed. At Barclays Bank, staff in 'high-risk' roles are required to take a mandatory block of at least two weeks' leave to allow time to audit and detect any rogue trading activities (IDS HR Study, Hours and Holidays 2011).

12.6 Summary

Over the period 2007 to 2011, there was an increase in the percentage of full-time employees with 26 or more days' annual leave, from 35 per cent to 41 per cent. The median basic annual leave entitlement has risen slightly for lower-skilled occupations, driven in part by the harmonisation of terms and conditions and improvements in statutory annual leave entitlement. Some two fifths of employers do not offer service-related leave while those that do normally award the maximum leave entitlement after five years' service. Although the incidence of bank holiday working has risen, most full-time employees did not work on bank holidays. Those working in higher level occupations are more likely to receive paid leave on bank holidays.

13 Promotion and early responsibility

- According to the British Household Panel Survey, opportunities for career development have been constant since 2006
- WageIndicator highlights that, from 2006 to 2011, fewer workers have been promoted
- During this period, the number of managers has remained stable, the number of supervisors has slightly dropped and the number of employees has increased

13.1 Promotion opportunities

Promotion and early responsibility is a very interesting analysis tool. It gives prospects of career development in the job market and it provides an overview of general economic trends. Indeed, growing economies are normally drivers of promotional opportunities.

According to the British Household Panel Survey, from 2005/06 to 2007/08, the number of opportunities for career advancement remained stable. In 2005/06, 48.5 per cent of the employees interviewed said they received a promotion. A similar trend was also registered over the course of the years. Indeed, in 2007/08, job promotion was considered achievable by 48.6 per cent of employees (table 13.1).

Table 13.1: Promotion opportunities in current job

Year		Yes	No	Total
2005/06	%	48.5	51.6	100.0
	Number	3,569	3,798	7,367
2006/07	%	49.0	51.0	100.0
	Number	3,468	3,615	7,083
2007/08	%	48.6	51.9	100.0
	Number	3,728	3,948	7,676

Source: British Household Panel Survey

13.2 Career opportunities in current firm

WageIndicator highlights similar trends. In 2011, 37.8 per cent of British workers received a promotion in their current firm. In 2007, those promoted accounted for 42.8 per cent of the employees interviewed. In 2009 there was a clear drop in career development with only 36.8 per cent of workers receiving a promotion. This was probably a consequence of the recessionary trends fostered by the 2008 financial crisis (table 13.2).

Although the number of promotions has, on average, remained constant in the course of the years, the majority of employees did not achieve a promotion and did not expect to be promoted. This indicates that a preponderant group of employees are restricted in their career development. This has been particularly evident in 2011, when 62.2 per cent of employees had not been considered for promotion.

Table 13.2: Has been promoted in current firm

Year		No	Yes	Total
2006	%	58.5	41.5	100.0
	Number	12,415	8,804	21,219
2007	%	57.2	42.8	100.0
	Number	5,280	3,950	9,230
2008	%	60.0	40.0	100.0
	Number	5,466	3,648	9,114
2009	%	63.2	36.8	100.0
	Number	1,713	998	2,711
2010	%	59.6	40.4	100.0
	Number	1,130	765	1,895
2011	%	62.2	37.8	100.0
	Number	727	441	1,168

Source: WageIndicator Survey

13.3 Responsibility and career opportunity

In 2006, 25.0 per cent of the workers interviewed in the Labour Force survey were managers, 12.9 per cent were supervisors and 62.1 per cent were non-managerial/supervisory employees. In 2011, the number of managers remained stable (24.8 per cent), the number of supervisors slightly diminished (11.7 per cent) and the number of employees increased (63.5 per cent), (table 13.3).

This could have been caused by a lack of skilled workers or by the onset of more employees positioning themselves at the entry-level of the job market. Otherwise, the increasing number of non-managerial or non-supervisory employees can be linked to the presence of fewer job opportunities.

Table 13.3: Management status

Year		Manager	Foreman or supervisor	Not manager or supervisor	Total
2006	%	25.0	12.9	62.1	100.0
	Number	6,256,649	3,240,655	15,533,252	25,030,556
2007	%	24.8	12.4	62.7	100.0
	Number	6,227,602	3,119,550	15,741,980	25,089,132
2008	%	25.8	12.1	62.1	100.0
	Number	6,548,887	3,077,171	15,759,550	25,385,608
2009	%	25.2	12.3	62.5	100.0
	Number	6,244,082	3,053,766	15,509,998	24,807,846
2010	%	25.2	11.9	62.9	100.0
	Number	6,255,597	2,945,439	15,577,105	24,778,141
2011	%	24.8	11.7	63.5	100.0
	Number	6,202,792	2,916,556	15,863,461	24,982,809

Source: Labour Force Survey, April-June

13.4 Career opportunities

According to the WageIndicator Survey, in 2011 only 37.3 per cent of the employees interviewed claimed they had good career opportunities in the organisation where they were working. In 2006, the figure was 49.6 per cent. From being equal, the perception of career development has consistently dropped in the last two years (table 13.4). This is clear evidence of the impact of the current economic recession.

Table 13.4: Has good career opportunities in organisation

Year		No	Yes	Total
2006	%	50.4	49.6	100.0
	Number	10,445	10,298	20,743
2007	%	47.5	52.5	100.0
	Number	4,278	4,728	9,006
2008	%	49.9	50.1	100.0
	Number	4,461	4,472	8,933
2009	%	52.0	48.0	100.0
	Number	500	462	962
2010	%	57.1	42.9	100.0
	Number	500	375	875
2011	%	62.7	37.3	100.0
	Number	303	180	483

Source: WageIndicator Survey

13.5 Summary

The data characterising promotion and early responsibility went through some change since the last X-Factor report. Although the majority of the figures indicate a stable trend, there have been some minor decreases in the amount of opportunities for promotions and in the perception of career possibilities. Moreover, the number of supervisors has dropped and no increases in the percentage of people with managerial positions of better job prospects have been registered. This supports the view that the impact of the recent economic downturn has resulted in a decline of business development and in a decrease of general working opportunities for skilled workers.

14 Health and education

- The British Household Panel Survey highlights a drop in the number of people who had attended a private school or who paid for private medical care. This can probably be interpreted as a consequence of the current economic recession.
- From 2006 to 2010 there was a good level of satisfaction with the health and education system. However, the 29th British Social Attitudes Report has registered a significant drop in the level of satisfaction with NHS performance in 2011.

14.1 Health and education

Satisfaction with public health and education is a very good measure of general social welfare trends.

Parents' satisfaction with the level of education is normally measured in terms of effectiveness, good teaching performances, the ability to promote the welfare of children and to guarantee an optimal learning process. Pupils' achievements and acquisition of knowledge have also to be considered as relevant components of parents' satisfaction. However, according to Ofsted 'Parents' Satisfaction with School' report, it is not always possible to align parents' contentment with the level of good practices developed by a specific school. This depends also on the loyalty developed by a family group towards their children's schools.

By contrast, the level of fulfilment within the health system is generally related to the extent of doctors' and nurses' performances and general good management. For instance, satisfaction has also been tested according to waiting times for incoming patients. However, expectations of what constitutes a good service may negatively influence the level of patients' satisfaction if the health system has failed to keep up with the new treatments that have become available.

14.2 Private or state school

When it comes to education and the choice between private or state primary and secondary schools, the vast majority of respondents attended state schools. In 2006, 89 per cent attended a state school; in 2010 this figure was 92 per cent, according to the British Household Panel Survey. Given the steady increase in those attending a state school, which predates the recession, this may reflect a positive level of satisfaction with state school performances and the quality of the services provided (table 14.2). Pupil registration figures show similar levels of choice between state and private schools, with little change over the period (see table 14r, Appendix A).

Table 14.2: You attend\ed fee-paying, private primary or secondary school in UK

Year		Yes	No	Total
2006	%	11.0	89.0	100.0
	Number	380	3,220	3,600
2007	%	10.0	90.0	100.0
	Number	363	3,110	3,473
2008	%	9.0	91.0	100.0
	Number	340	3495	3,835
2009	%	9.0	91.0	100.0
	Number	268	2,625	2,897
2010	%	8.0	92.0	100.0
	Number	77	832	909

Source: British Social Attitude Survey

14.3 Admission and appeals

The analysis of the number of appeals registered in UK local authorities for primary and secondary school constitutes another method of measuring parents' satisfaction. This data reflects the number of parents who are dissatisfied with schools' decisions not to accept their children. According to the School Census and Admission Appeals Survey, while from 2005-06 to 2009-10 the general number of admissions decreased by 1.07 per cent the number of appeals rose from 5.3 to 5.8 per cent. However, decisions in parents' favour dropped. In 2005/2006 they were 36.3 per cent, in 2009/10 they were 29.8 per cent of the total number of appeals. The rising level of appeals possibly indicates a rise in parents' awareness of what constitutes a good school (table 14.3).

Table 14.3: Appeals by parents against non-admission of their children to Local Authority Maintained Schools.

		2005/06	2006/07	2007/08	2008/09	2009/10
Admissions	Number	1,483,255	1,484,320	1,488,865	1,467,815	1,467,295
Admission appeals lodged by parents	Number	78,665	80,010	86,020	88,275	85,165
	%	5.3	5.4	5.8	6.0	5.8
Appeals heard by an appeals panel	Number	56,590	56,615	61,945	63,715	60,855
	%	3.8	3.8	4.2	4.3	4.1
Appeals decided in parents' favour	Number	20,540	19,455	19,150	19,060	18,110
	%	36.3	34.4	30.9	29.9	29.8

Source: School Census and Admission Appeals Survey

14.4 Health services

The majority of respondents used the free health services provided by the NHS. In 2005/06, 87.6 per cent of those interviewed declared that their hospital stays were for free at point of use. In 2007/08 almost everyone (90.9 per cent) made use of NHS hospitals without being charged. Similarly the proportion who paid for all of their hospital care privately has fallen from 9.8 per cent in 2005/06 to 7.6 per cent in 2007/08 (table 14.4).

Table 14.4. Was/were your hospital stay(s) free under the National Health Service or paid for privately?

Year		All free under NHS	All paid privately	Some NHS/private	Total
2005/06	%	87.6	9.8	2.6	100.0
	Number	404	45	12	461
2006/07	%	92.4	6.1	1.47	100.0
	Number	438	29	7	474
2007/08	%	90.9	7.6	2.15	100.0
	Number	500	39	11	550

Source: British Household Panel Survey

14.5 Private medical insurance

According to the British Household Panel Survey, in the course of these years, the number of people covered by private medical insurance has decreased. In 2005/06, 75.6 per cent of the employees interviewed did not have any medical insurance. In 2007/08 those who were not privately covered accounted for 77.8 per cent (table 14.5). Again, this is possibly a consequence of the current economic recession.

Table 14.5: Covered by private medical insurance

Year		Don't know	Yes, in own name	Yes, via other family members	No, not insured	Total
2005/06	%	1.4	17.0	6.1	75.6	100.0
	Number	104	1,270	454	5,663	7,491
2006/07	%	0.8	16.3	5.7	77.2	100.0
	Number	61	1,173	412	5,567	7,212
2007/08	%	1.0	16.0	5.0	77.8	100.0
	Number	70	1,287	436	6,299	8,093

Source: British Household Panel Survey

14.6 NHS satisfaction

The level of satisfaction regarding NHS services has remained quite stable over time. According to the British Social Attitudes Survey, from 2006 to 2010 less than a third of the people questioned declared themselves to be very satisfied with the NHS or their GPs' performances. Furthermore, nearly half said they were quite satisfied, and only a few (3.1 per cent in 2006 and 4 per cent in 2010) said they were completely dissatisfied by the administration of public health services (table 14.6).

Moreover, 4.3 per cent of the respondents seem to be satisfied with hospital waiting lists. This represents a huge improvement since 2006, when only 1.2 per cent acknowledged they were fully content with the system (table 14.7).

Nevertheless, the 30th British Social Attitude Report¹ states that the level of fulfilment related to the general NHS performances registered in 2011 has dropped. There are no evident explanations for this negative trend, and the general quality of services provided, such as the length of waiting time, did not suffer a real decline. Following the British Social Attitudes report, this drop may not have been caused by direct dissatisfaction within the NHS, but by a more general feeling of discontent with economic and political trends.

Table 14.6: How satisfied are you with the way local doctors or GPs run the NHS nowadays?

Year		Very satisfied	Quite satisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Quite dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied	Don't know	Total
2006	%	29.6	46.2	10.2	10.6	3.1	0.3	100.0
	Number	534	835	184	192	56	6	1,806
2007	%	27.7	49.2	9.1	9.6	3.9	0.5	100.0
	Number	721	1,281	237	250	102	14	2,604
2008	%	31.2	46.3	9.6	9.9	2.4	0.6	100.0
	Number	894	1,325	273	284	68	16	2,860
2009	%	31.1	48.9	8.5	8.5	2.9	0.1	100.0
	Number	901	1416	246	246	83	4	2,897
2010	%	30.0	46.0	9.0	10.0	4.0	0.3	100.0
	Number	834	1,273	249	275	109	10	2,750

Source: British Social Attitude Survey

Table 14.7: Opinion of hospital waiting lists

Year		Need a lot of improvement	Need some improvement	Satisfactory	Very good	Total
2006	%	33.4	45.0	20.4	1.2	100.0
	Number	522	702	319	18	1,561
2010	%	10.0	40.0	45.0	4.3	100.0
	Number	232	930	1,042	100	2,304

Source: British Social Attitude Survey

14.7 Summary

Until 2010, the level of satisfaction with the public health and education system had apparently been positive. However, the British Social Attitudes 29th Report outlines that in 2011, the degree of satisfaction with the general health system has decreased. According to the report, respondents may have expressed negative opinions due to dissatisfaction with current policies regarding NHS services.

Moreover, the drop in the number of people paying for private health insurance and private education might not be interpreted as simple contentment with the services provided by the public system, but as a consequence of the current economic recession.

¹ The report had not been published at the time of writing and references are based on an early press release of results.

15 Adventure and Travel

- The number of trips and the amount spent abroad by UK residents fell by 20 per cent and 37 per cent, respectively, between 2007 and 2011
- The number of journeys within the UK made by residents increased by 13 per cent, as more people chose to holiday in the UK
- Levels of satisfaction with leisure time and participation in sporting activities have remained stable

15.1 Overseas travel

The ONS Overseas Travel and Tourism Survey shows that the number of visits abroad by UK residents fell significantly by 20 per cent between 2007 and 2011. The greatest decline occurred between 2008 and 2009 – perhaps unsurprisingly given the economic climate at the time – and accounts for three quarters of the overall reduction across the entire period (table 15.1(i)).

Table 15.1(i): Visits abroad by UK residents

Year	Number of visits (000s)	Annual change %
2007	69,450	-
2008	69,011	-0.6
2009	58,614	-15.1
2010	55,562	-5.2
2011	56,005	0.8
Q1 2011	13,830	-
Q1 2012	13,620	-1.5

Source: ONS, Overseas Travel and Tourism

In line with the fall in the number of trips abroad, there has been an even greater reduction in spending. Between 2007 and 2011, the amount spent abroad by UK residents fell by 37 per cent (table 15.1(ii)). This is demonstrated in 2008 by the significant fall in spend of 12 per cent compared to the relatively minor decrease in the number of visits abroad of only 1 per cent.

Table 15.1(ii): Spending abroad by UK residents

Year	Expenditure (£M, constant price)	Annual change %
2007	32,480	-
2008	28,670	-11.7
2009	22,680	-20.9
2010	22,020	-2.9
2011	20,600	-6.4

Source: ONS, Overseas Travel and Tourism

Despite a decrease of 21 per cent between 2007 and 2011 Europe remained the most popular destination for UK residents, with some 44 million electing to travel there in 2011. North America showed the greatest decline in travel, falling by 23 per cent between 2007 and 2011 (table 15.1(iii)). A closer look at the figures for visits abroad made by UK residents reveals the apex of the decline occurring in 2009. However, there is some evidence of stability in 2010 with no discernible change in the number of visits to North America, and a slight dip of 3 per cent in 2011. Similarly, visits to Europe made by UK residents in 2011 actually increased by 3 per cent in 2011. The figures for UK residents travelling to both Europe and North America have once again declined between the first quarter of 2011 and the first quarter of 2012 by 2 and 5 per cent, respectively (see table 15.2, Appendix A). This is perhaps evidence of the double-dip recession.

Table 15.1(iii): Visits abroad by UK residents by major destination

Year	North America (000s)	Annual change (%)	Europe (000s)	Annual change (%)
2007	4,587	-	55,188	-
2008	4,629	0.9	54,424	-1.4
2009	3,652	-21.1	45,944	-15.6
2010	3,653	0.0	42,565	-7.4
2011	3,554	-2.7	43,629	2.5
Q1 2011	674	-	7,290	-
Q1 2012	640	-5.0	7,150	-1.9

Source: ONS, Overseas Travel and Tourism

15.2 Breakdown by type and social class

According to the Civil Aviation Authority's Passenger Survey, the period between 2006 and 2010 saw the number of UK residents who travelled for leisure pursuits fall by just under 11 per cent, from 74,113 to 66,289 passengers. The A/B social class (higher and intermediate professionals) accounts for the largest decrease in UK residents who travelled for leisure reasons between 2006 and 2010, falling from 26,802 to 21,910 (see table 15d, Appendix A).

Table 15.2: Leisure Passenger breakdown by main type

Year	Leisure (000s)	Leisure (%)
2006	74,113	77.5
2010	66,289	80.2
% change	-10.6	

Source: CAA Passenger Survey

15.3 Domestic travel

According to the Great Britain Tourism Survey the number of people who chose to holiday in the UK increased by 13 per cent between 2006 and 2011, rising from 52 million trips in 2006 to 58 million in 2011. This is perhaps unsurprising given that in the same period of time, foreign travel has receded by a substantial amount. Trips to see family and friends have declined from just over 48 million in 2006 to under 46 million in 2011. Journeys to family and friends have also been for shorter periods, highlighted by the fact that there has been an 8 per cent reduction in the number of nights spent away (table 15.3).

Table 15.3: Breakdown of domestic travel by journey-type

Type of journey		2006	2011	% change '06-'11
All	Trips (millions)	122.6	126.6	3.3
	Nights (millions)	386.9	387.3	0.1
	Average trip length (day)	3.2	3.1	-3.1
Holidays	Trips (millions)	51.8	58.4	12.7
	Nights (millions)	192.3	208.5	8.4
	Average trip length (day)	3.7	3.6	-2.7
Friends & family	Trips (millions)	48.1	45.7	-5.0
	Nights (millions)	137.1	125.7	-8.3
	Average trip length (day)	2.9	2.8	-3.4

Source: Great Britain Tourism Survey

15.4 Leisure/relaxation Time

Between 2006/07 and 2010/11, the level of satisfaction with the amount of leisure time has remained broadly stable. According to the British Household Panel Survey in 2006/07, 7.6 per cent of the respondents were 'completely satisfied' with the amount of free time they had available. In 2010/2011 this had fallen to 6.7 per cent. However, the percentage of respondents who were mostly satisfied increased from 17.3 per cent in 2006/07 to 25.5 per cent in 2010/11. At the same time, the level of those who reported a sense of dissatisfaction has also steadily risen. In 2006/07, 24.2 per cent of those interviewed said they were either 'not satisfied at all', 'mostly dissatisfied' or 'somewhat dissatisfied' with the amount of leisure time available. The Understanding Society Survey reported that this figure had increased to 32.1 per cent by 2010/11.

Table 15.4: Satisfaction with leisure time

Satisfaction levels	2006/07		2009/10		2010/11	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Not satisfied at all	165	2.3	663	3.3	228	2.9
Mostly dissatisfied	511	6.9	1,636	8.1	669	8.6
Somewhat dissatisfied	1,115	15.0	4,015	19.9	1,607	20.6
Neither satisfied/dissatisfied	1,685	22.8	2,535	12.6	1,017	13.0
Somewhat satisfied	2,077	28.1	4,788	23.8	1,776	22.7
Mostly satisfied	1,281	17.3	5,118	25.4	1,989	25.5
Completely satisfied	566	7.6	1,389	6.9	524	6.7
Total	7,400	100.0	20,145	100.0	7,810	100.0

Sources: British Household Panel Survey Wave 17; Understanding Society Survey Wave 1 and Wave 2¹

15.5 Participation in sporting activities

The decline in satisfaction with the availability leisure time does not appear to be reflected by the amount of time people spend undertaking 'moderate intensity' sport. According to the Active People Survey, there is clear evidence of stability among those people who participate for a minimum of three times a week in moderate intensity sport for at least 30 minutes each time. Between the period 2007/08 and 2010/11 the percentage of men exercising has increased slightly, while the percentage of women exercising has moderately decreased (table 15.5).

Table 15.5: People participating in at least three sessions of moderate intensity sport each week (%)

Gender	2007/08	2008/09	2009/10	2010/11
Men	20.0	20.6	20.3	20.5
Women	13.1	12.7	12.8	12.4
Overall	16.4	16.6	16.5	16.3

Source: Active People Survey, Sport England

15.6 Summary

The evidence shows a marked decrease in travel abroad, coupled with an increase in domestic travel. There has been relative stability in sports participation, active recreation and with the amount of leisure time.

¹ In the British Household Panel Survey, respondents are only shown the labels for the two extreme values. While in the Understanding Society Survey, respondents are shown all of the value labels. This may account for some differences between the datasets..

16 Divorce and family

- From 2006 to 2009 the number and rate of divorces declined steadily. The number of divorces in 2009 was nearly 14 per cent down on the 2006 figure
- In contrast to the general downward trend, 2010 saw an increase in divorces. The number of divorces rose to 119,589, an increase of 5 per cent compared with 2009, although still 12,551 less than the total in 2006
- The median age for divorce has steadily risen between 2006 and 2010, increasing by 1.2 years and one year for men and women respectively
- In a similar pattern to the divorce rate, the general marriage rate decreased by 0.4 from 2006 to 2009, before increasing by 0.2 in 2010. Between 2006 and 2011 the percentage of employees that have never married increased by 1.5, while the proportion that are married fell by 2.2

16.1 Divorce rates

As table 16.1 shows, the general trend in divorce rates from 2006 to 2010 has been one of decline. In 2009, the number of divorces was down 14 per cent on the total in 2006. The numbers of first marriage and second (or subsequent) marriage divorces were down by 13 per cent and 16 per cent, respectively.

However, in contrast to this decreasing trend, figures from the ONS for 2010 show an increase in the number of divorces, up 5 per cent on 2009 – the first increase since 2003. This increase was reflected in the levels of first and second marriages and in the divorce rate, which also saw increases in 2010. The ONS states that although it is too early to draw firm conclusions, this could be a reflection of increased economic hardship following the onset of the recession in 2008/09, with a similar pattern recorded in 1993 after the recession of 1990-1992. Despite the increase, however, all the measures remain significantly below the 2006 figures.

Table 16.1: Divorces (England and Wales)

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	% change 2006-2010	
Decrees made absolute: All divorces (000s)	132.1	128.1	121.7	113.9	119.6	-9.5	
First marriage (000s)	Males	104.0	101.4	96.3	90.5	95.2	-8.5
	Females	104.5	101.7	96.8	90.7	95.4	-8.7
Second or later marriage (000s)	Males	28.1	26.8	25.4	23.5	24.4	-13.2
	Females	27.7	26.4	24.9	23.3	24.1	-13.0
Divorces decreed per 1,000 married population	Males	12.1	11.8	11.2	10.5	11.0	-9.1
	Females	12.1	11.8	11.3	10.6	11.1	-8.3

Source: ONS

16.2 Age

The median age for divorce has been steadily rising over 2006-2010, increasing by 1.2 years and one year for men and women, respectively. As table 16.2 shows, the general trend over the period has been one of falling divorce rates across most age groups, although many age groups have seen increases in 2010. For men the highest divorce rate in 2010 was among 30 to 34 year olds, a departure from previous years where 25 to 29 year olds had the highest rates. A continued decreasing trend in 2010 was seen in both 20 to 24 year olds and 25 to 29 year olds. Divorce rates in these two categories have seen the largest declines compared with other age groups over the 2006-2010 period.

Similarly, women's divorce rates have seen a general decline across all age groups from 2006 to 2010. Unlike the male rates, however, divorce rates increased for every age group in 2010, with the highest rates remaining within the 25-29-year-old category. The largest decline in divorce rates over the whole period was for the under 20s.

Table 16.2: Divorce rates by age per 1,000 married population

Males	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	Change %
Under 20	3.5	3	3.8	2.7	2.7	-0.8
20-24	19.9	19.6	17.1	16.4	15.2	-4.7
25-29	24.4	23.9	22.8	21.7	21.8	-2.6
30-34	24.2	23.5	22.4	21.7	22.5	-1.7
35-39	22.8	22	21.2	19.9	21.5	-1.3
40-44	20.7	20.2	18.8	17.7	19.2	-1.5
45-49	17.1	16.9	16.5	15.6	16.2	-0.9
50-59	9.8	9.8	9.6	9.1	9.9	0.1
60 and over	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.1	2.2	0.0
Females	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	Change %
Under 20	9.4	8.2	6.3	4.7	6.5	-2.9
20-24	23.5	23.6	23.2	21.9	22.7	-0.8
25-29	26.8	25.9	25.8	25.1	25.9	-0.9
30-34	23.8	23.6	22.7	22.1	23.5	-0.3
35-39	22.4	21.5	20.1	19.3	20.8	-1.6
40-44	19.4	19.1	18.3	17	18.1	-1.3
45-49	14.8	15	14.5	13.7	14.7	-0.1
50-59	7.4	7.4	7.5	7	7.6	0.2
60 and over	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.6	0.2

Source: ONS

16.3 Marriages

The number and rate of marriages from 2006 to 2010 have exhibited similar patterns to that of divorce – a trend of decline over the whole period, but with slight increases in 2010 (see table 16b, Appendix A). The provisional general marriage rate decreased by 0.4 from 2006 to 2009, before increasing by 0.2 in 2010. The provisional 2010 figure of 8.7 (persons marrying per 1,000 unmarried population aged 16 and over) is still substantially below the rate of 10.3 recorded in 2000.

As table 16.3 shows, the proportion of employees who have never married has increased between 2006 and 2011, by 1.5 per cent, while the proportion who are married has fallen by 2.2 per cent. One major change over the period has been the introduction of civil partnerships. The 2004 Civil Partnership Act gave same-sex couples rights identical to civil marriage, with the first civil partnership ceremonies taking place in December 2005. The number of employees currently or previously in a civil partnership rose by a factor of nearly ten, comparing 2006 with 2011, or by 0.3 per cent as a proportion of all UK employees

Table 16.3: Marital status* of employees in the United Kingdom (%)

Year	Single/ never married	Married, living with husband/ wife	Married, separated from husband/ wife	Divorced	Widowed	Currently or previously in civil partnership
2006	35.6	52.2	2.7	8.1	1.4	0.0
2007	35.8	52.2	2.6	7.8	1.5	0.1
2008	36.5	50.8	2.9	8.2	1.3	0.3
2009	35.8	51.4	3.0	8.2	1.4	0.2
2010	36.4	51.0	2.8	8.1	1.3	0.3
2011	37.1	50.0	3.0	8.2	1.2	0.3
% change 2006-2011	4.2	-4.2	11.1	1.2	-14.3	-

Source: Labour Force Survey

*Note: By legal status; cohabitants are to be found in each of the categories shown in table 16.3 other than 'married, living with husband/wife'.

16.4 Domestic violence

According to the British Crime Survey domestic violence rates have stayed relatively stable from 2006-07 to 2011-12 at a rate of between six to nine per 1,000 households (see table 16d, Appendix A). The figures for this period are down on the rate of 15 recorded in 2001/02.

16.5 Summary

The downward trend in absolute numbers and rates of divorce and marriage from 2006 to 2009 has been partially countered by increases in 2010. However, figures for divorces and marriages in 2010 still remained significantly below 2006 levels. Falling divorce rates have been highest in some of the younger age groups, with the median age for divorce rising over the period.

17 Trade union membership and industrial action

- The decline in trade union density has continued between 2006 and 2011, falling by over 2 per cent during the period. In 2011 some 26.0 per cent of employees were union members
- The decline in the proportion of employees that are union members has largely been confined to the private sector, despite a small increase in the actual number of members in the private sector in 2011
- In 2011 a total of 1.39 million working days were lost to strike action, the highest since 1990
- The difference in the hourly earnings of trade union members compared with non-members has risen by nearly 2 per cent over the period as a whole. In 2011 the trade union ‘wage premium’ stood at 18.1 per cent

17.1 Trade union membership and presence

According to the Labour Force Survey (LFS), long-term trends of declining trade union density at an economy-wide level have continued between 2006 and 2011. Table 17.1 shows a continued decline in the proportion of employees that are trade union members; have trade unions present in their workplace; and have their pay affected by collective agreement.

Table 17.1: Trade union presence (% of employees)

Year	Employee membership	Trade unions present in the workplace	Pay affected by collective agreement
2006	28.3	47.0	33.3
2007	28.0	46.6	34.6
2008	27.4	46.7	33.7
2009	27.4	46.7	32.7
2010	26.6	46.1	30.8
2011	26.0	44.8	31.2

Source: Department for Business Innovation and Skills

Trade union membership density is far higher in the public than the private sector. Within the public sector the proportion of employees who are members of trade unions and who have trade unions in their workplace has stayed relatively stable since 2006. The decline in the overall figures has, therefore, been driven largely by decreasing trade union density and presence in the private sector (see tables 17a and 17b, Appendix A). However, in 2011 there was a small rise in the actual number of trade union members in the private sector for the first time since 2003.

Trade union membership and presence in the workplace tends to rise with increased workforce size. Data from the British Household Panel Survey and its successor, Understanding Society (see tables 17f and 17g, Appendix), show that the percentage of employees with a trade union present at their workplace is usually below 50 per cent for workplaces with fewer than 50 employees, rising to above 70 per cent at organisations with a staff size of 1,000 or more. Comparing figures from Wave 2 of Understanding Society (2010/11) with British Household Panel Survey data from 2005, there appears to be

a slight reduction in presence at the larger workplaces over time. However, at this stage no strong claims can be made, with more waves of Understanding Society needed to see if this slight divergence from previous figures represents a significant trend. A similar pattern of reduced presence is seen, for example, in data from the 2011 WageIndicator (see table 17h, Appendix A), albeit only in the very largest organisations.

17.2 Industrial action

Table 17.2 shows that in 2011 a total of 1.39 million working days were lost due to strike action. While the number of days lost as a result of labour disputes tends to vary significantly year on year, the figure for 2011 was the highest since 1990. Some 92 per cent of days lost were in the public sector¹, although private sector strike days also rose substantially, more than doubling from the previous year. According to the Office for National Statistics (ONS), 95 per cent of working days lost across the economy were as a result of pay disputes.

Table 17.2: Industrial action

Year	Number of working days lost (000s)			Number of stoppages		
	All	Private	Public	All	Private	Public
2006	752	96	656	209	97	112
2007	1,038	36	1,002	193	66	127
2008	759	48	711	168	82	86
2009	458	90	368	130	62	68
2010	367	53	314	127	61	66
2011	1,391	115	1,276	194	80	114

Source: ONS

17.3 Trade union premium

On average, trade union members tend to have higher wages than non-members. This difference in wages (sometimes termed the trade union 'premium') is calculated as the percentage difference in average hourly earnings of union members compared with non-members. At an economy-wide level the trade union premium has risen in consecutive years since 2008 and it is currently just under two percentage points higher than in 2006 (see table 17d, Appendix A). The gradual increase since 2008 has largely been fuelled by increases in the private sector from a low point of 2.3 to 8.0 per cent in 2011. In the public sector, although the premium is higher than in the private sector, there has been a gradual decline over the last decade.

17.4 Age

Trade union membership tends to rise with age, as does the percentage of employees whose pay is affected by union agreements. However, as table 17.3 shows, all age groups have seen similar declines of around five percentage points in the proportion of employees whose pay is covered by collective agreement since 2007.

¹ The 30th November 2011 public sector strikes over pensions made a significant contribution to the number of strike days in that year.

Table 17.3: Percentage of employees with pay and conditions affected by union agreements

Age	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	% change 2007-2011
16 – 19	14.4	16.9	17.0	11.4	11.6	-19.4
20 – 24	23.2	23.9	19.7	19.8	17.1	-26.3
25 – 29	30.4	29.7	29.5	26.6	25.5	-16.1
30 – 35	32.5	33.7	33.0	29.6	30.4	-6.2
35 – 40	37.0	34.1	33.3	32.7	33.3	-10.0
40 – 50	42.0	41.9	40.2	37.7	35.9	-14.5
50+	43.9	41.7	39.8	36.9	36.7	-16.4

Source: Labour Force Survey, October-December

17.5 Satisfaction levels

Levels of satisfaction at the influence of trade unions in the workplace have remained relatively constant since 2006. According to the British Social Attitudes Survey, around 70 per cent of employees with a union or staff association present at their workplace think that it is 'doing its job well' (see table 17j, Appendix A).

17.6 Summary

The gradual decline in trade union density, presence in the workplace, and coverage of collective agreements has continued since 2006. Despite this, union impact in certain areas has shown an increase, with a rising wage premium and a spike in the number of days lost to strike action, which could well continue into 2012.

18 Travel to work

- There is a slight uptrend in the proportion of employees who walk, cycle or travel by rail to work
- The time taken to travel to work has remained broadly stable with a small increase in the proportion of employees taking between 31 and 45 minutes
- The fall in the number of trips and total distance travelled annually could have contributed towards higher satisfaction levels with commuting time

18.1 Method of travel to work

Between 2007 and 2011, the proportion of employees who travel to work by rail, bicycle or foot increased slightly (table 18.1(i)). The decline in the use of private motor vehicles such as cars, vans and motorbikes shown in the previous X-Factor report has continued in this review.

Table 18.1(i): Usual method of travel to work (% of employees)

Travel method	2007	2011
Car, van, minibuss, works van	68.2	66.9
Motorbike, moped, scooter	1.0	0.9
Bicycle	3.0	3.3
Bus, coach, private bus	8.0	8.0
Taxi	0.3	0.3
Railway train	4.9	5.1
Underground train, light railway, tram	2.7	3.1
Walk	11.4	11.9
Other method	0.4	0.5

Source: Labour Force Survey, April-June

Although a large proportion of employees still spend under half an hour to travel to work, the number of employees who take between half and three quarters of an hour to get to work has increased slightly (table 18.2(ii)). The relative comfort of rail travel, the growing popularity of zero carbon travel combined with cheaper housing outside the cities could have driven these two trends.

Table 18.1(ii): Usual travel time to work for employees in the UK (% of employees)

Travel time in minutes	2007	2011
0-15	42.4	41.5
16-30	32.8	33.2
31-45	12.1	12.7
46-60	7.8	7.7
61-75	1.3	1.4
76-90	2.1	2.1
91-120	0.9	0.8
>120	0.7	0.6

Source: Labour Force Survey, April-June

18.2 Long commuting times

Table 18.2 shows the percentage of employees who travel for a long time to work, which might include weekend commuters. The percentage of employees who travel between two and two and a half hours (one way) has fallen. However, the percentage of those who travel more than two and a half hours (one way) to work has increased slightly.

Table 18.2: People travelling more than two hours (one way) to work (% of employees)

Year	121-150 minutes	151-180 minutes
2007	0.21	0.48
2008	0.17	0.58
2009	0.17	0.60
2010	0.13	0.51
2011	0.13	0.51

Source: Labour Force Survey, April-June

18.3 Commuting and business travel

The UK National Travel Survey indicates that the average trip distance and duration remained broadly stable between 2006 and 2009. The total number of trips and distance travelled each year fell during this period. This could be partly driven by the cost-saving measures taken by businesses, the growth of virtual collaboration tools including video-conferencing, and increased acceptance of remote working as a way to encourage work-life balance (table 18.3).

Table 18.3: Commuting and business travel

Average trip distance in number of miles:	2006	2009
Commuting	8.7	8.6
Business	19.4	18.3
Average trip duration in minutes:	2006	2009
Commuting	27.2	27.9
Business	38.3	38.0
Number of trips per person per year:	2006	2009
Commuting	160	147
Business	35	30
Miles per person per year:	2006	2009
Commuting	1,391	1,266
Business	682	551

Source: UK National Travel Survey

18.4 Satisfaction levels

The levels of satisfaction with commuting time have increased from 54.9 per cent in 2005 to 58.1 per cent in 2011 (see table 18b, Appendix A), according to the WageIndicator database which largely samples white-collar workers. As white-collar workers are more likely to make business trips and be given the flexibility to work from home, it is likely that the trend shown in table 18.2 has contributed towards higher satisfaction levels with commuting time.

18.5 Summary

The usual methods of travelling to work have broadly remained the same over the period in question, with a slight rise in the proportion of employees who walk, cycle or travel by rail. There was a slight increase in the proportion who travelled for between 31 and 45 minutes. The number of commuting and business trips has fallen, as well as the total distances travelled annually on such trips, which may have contributed towards higher satisfaction levels with commuting time.

Part B: Supporting mobile employees

There is currently no information on the number of UK employees being assigned to jobs away from home, nor is there the ability to gauge whether this level has changed over time. However, it does appear that more companies are recognising the value of having a mobile workforce and have, therefore, devised sufficiently attractive mobility packages in order to encourage employees to move overseas. Typically these packages would include the provision of relocating family members too, although this is not always possible for those in military service.

B1: 'Employee mobility', IDS HR Studies, April 2010

The study looked at how employers manage individual and group moves, and the typical content of an employee relocation package and featured case studies from six large employers.

Many organisations operate both long-and short-term assignments, depending on business requirements. Short-term assignments can last anywhere from three months to a year and long-term assignments up to three years. Findings from the IDS HR Study showed that the mobility of employees is deemed so important that most continued to operate domestic and international assignments during the recession despite making cutbacks in other areas.

A typical international assignment package

The following elements are commonly found in a compensation package for longer-term international assignments:

- Assignment salary (with deductions for hypothetical tax and social security if a tax equalisation policy is in place)
- Cost-of-living adjustment (if positive)
- Hardship premium (depending on the assignment location)
- Removal and shipping costs
- Travel to and from the host country
- Disturbance/relocation allowance
- Accommodation and utility costs (a housing contribution may be payable)
- Medical cover
- Home leave

B2: Length of assignments

The relocation package for employees being assigned abroad typically varies according to the length of the assignment. For example, employees on longer-term assignments, typically lasting two to three years, are often accompanied by their family, and benefits such as assistance with school fees and partner allowances are, therefore, an important part of the relocation package.

B3: Hardship allowances

It is common for organisations to pay a hardship allowance to employees assigned to certain locations to compensate them for living in a more difficult environment than their home country. These allowances are usually expressed as a percentage of salary and differ between locations. A number of conditions can be used to calculate allowances including medical, educational and leisure facilities; accessibility and infrastructure; pollution levels; political violence and repression; personal security; access to goods and services; and ease of movement. These allowances tend to be reviewed regularly.

B4: Home leave

Home leave is another key provision of an international assignment package. Longer-term assignees are generally eligible for one home leave trip for each 12 months of the assignment. Some companies allow different numbers of home trips, depending on the location of the assignment.