

---

*Race Research for the Future*

# Minority ethnic participation and achievements in education, training and the labour market

---

*David Owen (CRER) and Anne Green, Jane Pitcher  
and Malcolm Maguire (IER)*

*Centre for Research in Ethnic Relations  
and  
Institute for Employment Research  
University of Warwick*

The views expressed in this report are the authors' and do not necessarily reflect those of the Department for Education and Employment

© Crown Copyright 2000. Published with the permission of DfEE on behalf of the Controller of Her Majesty's Stationery Office. Applications for reproduction should be made in writing to The Crown Copyright Unit, Her Majesty's Stationery Office, St Clements House, 2-16 Colegate, Norwich NR3 1BQ.

ISBN 1 84185 352 6  
October 2000



## Contents

Chapter	Title	Page
	Executive Summary	iii
	Glossary of Terms	ix
1	Introduction	1
2	The Demographic Background	5
3	Participation and attainment in compulsory education	19
4	Activities of 16-19 year olds following compulsory schooling	31
5	Participation in higher education	55
6	Patterns of labour market participation	71
7	Skills and Work-Related Training	97
8	Lifelong Learning	107
9	Review of Data Sources and Assessment of Data Quality and Gaps in Data Availability	115
10	Conclusion	125
	Appendices	A1



## Executive Summary

The purpose of this report is to provide as up-to-date as possible a picture of the experience and achievements of people from minority ethnic groups in respect of employment, training and education throughout the life course.

This report is organised into eight substantive chapters, covering:

- The demographic background;
- Participation and attainment in compulsory education
- Activities of 16-19 year olds following compulsory schooling
- Participation in higher education
- Patterns of labour market participation
- Skills and work-related training
- Lifelong learning
- Assessment of the quality of data and gaps in data availability.

The key findings of these chapters are summarised here.

## The Demographic background

### *Size of ethnic minority population*

- The minority ethnic group population of Great Britain has grown continuously since the late 1940s.
- It reached more than 1 million in the late 1960s and 3 million by 1991 and has continued to grow rapidly, to over 3.8 million in 1999. Minority ethnic groups are projected to account for more than half of the growth in the working age population over the next ten years.
- This rapid growth is a consequence of relatively large numbers of births in the UK, due to the very youthful age structure of most minority ethnic groups, and the continued immigration of people from particular ethnic groups.

### *Composition of the ethnic minority population*

- The bulk of the minority population is from South Asian ethnic groups, with Indians being the largest single ethnic group. The Black African and Bangladeshi ethnic groups are two of the most rapidly growing.
- Minority ethnic groups form a much larger percentage of children and young people than they do of older people. They accounted for an increasing percentage of new entrants to the labour market, since the number of young adults in the white population was declining sharply during the 1990s.
- However, the number of middle-aged and elderly people in the Black-Caribbean and Indian ethnic groups is increasing quite rapidly, though still representing relatively small numbers of people.

### *Geographical concentration*

- Minority ethnic groups remain highly geographically concentrated in the larger urban areas and the original destination areas of post-war migrants.
- Greater London contains half of all people from minority ethnic groups living in Great Britain, and two-thirds of all people from Black ethnic groups.

### *Projections*

- Minority ethnic groups are projected to continue to gain population rapidly in the first decade of the 21st Century, and to form an increasing percentage of younger people of working age.
- However, by 2009, the number of older people from minority ethnic groups will also have increased substantially.

## **Participation and attainment in compulsory education**

### *Minority ethnic pupils in primary and secondary schools*

- Ethnic minority pupils comprised 11.8 per cent of primary school pupils and 11.5 per cent of secondary pupils in January 1999.
- There are significant differences between and within Government Office regions in the ethnic group profiles of primary and secondary school students.
- The largest minority ethnic groups in primary and secondary schools in England are Pakistanis and Indians.
- Local Education Authorities (LEAs) with the highest proportion of primary and secondary pupils from minority ethnic groups tend to be mainly London LEAs, but also certain LEAs within the East and West Midlands, Yorkshire and Humberside and the South East.

### *Pupils for whom English is an additional language*

- There are particularly high concentrations of primary and secondary pupils for whom English is an additional language in London. The proportion is also relatively high in the West Midlands.

### *Permanent exclusions*

- Exclusion rates in England are highest for Black pupils, whereas rates for other groups are similar to, or lower than, those for White pupils.

### *Examination performance*

- The level of achievement in the GCSE examination steadily improved during the 1990s across all ethnic groups. However, there are still wide gaps in attainment between ethnic groups.
- Data for the period 1994 to 1997 shows that Indian students are most likely to achieve 5 or more passes at GCSE grade A\* to C. Black and Pakistani/Bangladeshi students display the lowest levels of achievement. White students perform better than those from minority ethnic groups overall, but fewer achieved 5 or more passes at GCSE grade A\* to C than those from Indian and "Other" ethnic groups.
- Across all ethnic groups, students whose fathers worked in managerial and professional jobs are most likely to do well in their GCSE examinations, and those whose fathers were in manual occupations fare worst. Students attending Independent and Grant Maintained schools are also more likely than those attending LEA-controlled schools to achieve good results in their GCSE examinations in 1996/7.
- There were no marked differences in subjects studied at GCSE by ethnic group in 1998.

## **Activities of 16-19 year olds following compulsory schooling**

### *Activity following Year 11 in 1998*

- Young people from minority ethnic groups are more likely to remain in full-time education than their white peers.

- White young people are more likely to enter employment than those from ethnic minorities.
- Pakistani/Bangladeshi young people are more likely than those from other ethnic groups to be unemployed.
- Indian young people were most likely to be qualified to NVQ Level 3 or above, and most likely to have A/AS levels as their highest qualification.
- Less than a fifth of Black and Pakistani/Bangladeshi 18/19 year olds had a qualification at Level 3 or above.
- Over half of Indian 18/19 year olds still in full-time education attend a University, double the corresponding percentage for Pakistanis and Bangladeshis.

#### *Participation in Further Education during 1996/7 and 1997/8*

- A tenth of all students and 15 per cent of full-time students in the further education sector are from minority ethnic groups.
- Students from white and Black-Caribbean ethnic groups tend to be older on average, while South Asian students have a very youthful age profile.
- South Asian students form a particularly large percentage of full-time students aged 16-18, while students from the Chinese, Black-African and “Other” ethnic groups are particularly prominent among 19-24 year olds.
- White full-time students are most likely to be studying for ‘other advanced’ qualifications, while those from minority ethnic groups are most likely to be studying for GNVQ Level 3 qualifications or A/AS levels.

## **Participation in higher education**

#### *Representation of minority ethnic groups in higher education*

- Overall, minority ethnic groups are comparatively well-represented in higher education. There is however, variation in the levels of participation amongst ethnic groups, and evidence of under-participation particularly amongst Bangladeshi women, when compared to the participation rates of Bangladeshi men.

#### *Age profile of the student population and qualifications on entry*

- Black students are more likely than other groups to be mature students, whereas South Asian students are significantly younger than other groups.
- Black undergraduates are more likely to have ‘non-standard’ entry qualifications than other ethnic groups.

#### *Type of higher education institution, mode and subject of study*

- Black and South Asian students are particularly concentrated in the post-1992 ‘new’ universities, although South Asian students are also relatively well-represented in older universities. Chinese and Other-Asian students are particularly well-represented in old universities.
- Black students are significantly more likely than other groups to study part-time, which may be one of the reasons for their concentration in ‘new’ universities, where part-time study is more prevalent.
- Black-African, Chinese and ‘Other’ men are more likely than other groups to study full-time for postgraduate qualifications.
- Computing science is a popular choice of undergraduate degree for men from minority ethnic groups, particularly those of Pakistani and Indian origin. Subjects allied to medicine are popular for women, particularly Black-African, Black-Caribbean and White women.

### *Initial teacher training*

- During the academic years 1994/95 to 1999/2000, a greater proportion of white applicants than any other ethnic group were accepted to postgraduate courses.
- For undergraduate education courses, the difference in acceptances between ethnic groups was generally less marked, indeed, Black African and Asian Other groups had a greater percentage of applications accepted than white applicants
- There are certain ethnic group differences in relation to areas of study. In 1999/2000 minority ethnic group students were more likely than white students to opt for technology and mathematics. Relatively high proportions of South Asian and Black-African groups applied to teach science.

## **Patterns of labour market participation**

### *Labour market participation*

- The percentage of the population of working age economically active is higher for white people than for minority ethnic groups.
- Black-Caribbean people display higher rates of economic activity than people from other minority ethnic groups. Pakistani and Bangladeshi women display extremely low economic activity rates.
- Economic activity rates are higher for men than women. In most ethnic groups, the economic activity rate for married women is higher than that for women who are not married.
- Economic activity rates are higher for people aged 25 to 44 than for younger and older people. Differences in participation rates between ethnic groups are least in this age group.

### *Employment, unemployment and earnings*

- In general, men from minority ethnic groups are more likely to work in the service sector than white men. Bangladeshi and Chinese men in work are still highly concentrated in the distribution sector (which includes restaurants). Public sector services are a particularly important source of work for women from minority ethnic groups.
- Men from minority ethnic groups as a whole are less likely than white men to be in high status or skilled manual occupations, and are more likely to be semi-skilled manual workers. However, a higher than average percentage of Indian, Chinese, Other-Asian men are managers and administrators or professionals (Black-African men are also more likely than average to be in professional and associate professional occupations).
- The percentage in self-employment is highest for men from the Pakistani ethnic groups, and also higher than average for Indian, Chinese and Other-Asian men, but lower than average for men from Black ethnic groups.
- Minority unemployment rates are usually at least twice as high as those for white people, and highest for Bangladeshi, Pakistani and Black-African people. However, Indian and Chinese people tend to experience relatively low unemployment rates.
- Male earnings are highest for the white and lowest for the Bangladeshi ethnic group. Indian men earn more than Black men. Men from all ethnic groups have higher hourly wage rates in London than elsewhere. White women earn more than women from minority ethnic groups in London, but outside London, women from the Chinese and Other ethnic groups have the highest earnings. South Asian women earn less than Black women.



### *The “New Deal”*

- People from minority ethnic groups are less likely than white people to move into employment (either unsubsidised or subsidised) from New Deal, and are more likely to go into further education and training.
- People from Black ethnic groups are least likely and Indian people most likely to obtain unsubsidised employment on leaving the Gateway. White people are more likely than people from minority ethnic groups to move into subsidised employment.

## **Skills and work-related training**

### *Participation in work-based training*

- There has been an overall decline in the numbers participating on work-based training for adults (WBTA) in recent years, but a rise in the proportion of leavers going directly into jobs.
- Participants from minority ethnic groups tend to be concentrated in London and the West Midlands – reflecting the uneven regional distribution of minority ethnic groups in the population as a whole.

### *The experience of ethnic minorities on work-related training*

- Both adults and young people from minority ethnic groups are less likely to achieve a ‘positive outcome’ (notably entry into paid employment) after participation in a work-based training programme than their white counterparts.
- The Black group experiences particular disadvantage in entering employment.
- The Asian group fares least well in terms of qualification attainment. However the gap is narrowing in 1998/99 similar proportions of Asian and White trainees left to go into a job.
- Non-white young people are less likely than their white peers to enter higher status training programmes such as Modern Apprenticeships.
- In subjective terms European Social Fund (ESF) programme participants from minority ethnic groups rated their experience of ESF-funded activities more highly than white participants, with projects playing an important role in building confidence.

## **Lifelong Learning**

### *Sub-group variations in participation in learning*

- Ethnic groups vary in their propensity to participate in learning activities.

### *Targets and attainment levels*

- People of working age from minority ethnic groups as a whole have slightly higher attainment rates than white people at both the top and bottom of the qualification range: NVQ Level 5 and below NVQ Level 2. However, they have lower attainment rates at NVQ levels 2,3 and 4.
- While overall qualification attainment by people from minority ethnic groups as a whole appears to match that of white people, there are distinct differences between minority ethnic groups, with the Pakistani/Bangladeshi group having significantly lower proportions attaining qualifications.

## **Assessment of Data Quality and Gaps in Data Availability**

### *Properties of data sources for measuring minority ethnic group achievements*

- The main sources of information are of three basic types;
  - Census;
  - Sample surveys;
  - Administrative records.
- The Census of Population has the advantage of being comprehensive for a single point in time, but is limited in topic coverage.
- Survey data sets have the advantage of having a much wider coverage in terms of topics, and regularity of data collection, but suffer the drawback of small sample sizes.
- Administrative data sets have the advantage of almost complete coverage and regular collection, but have inconsistent data collection methodologies and ethnic group classifications and may encounter difficulty in tracking individuals for 'before' and 'after' comparisons.

### *Problems of data sources*

- A problem shared by most data sources is that of higher rates of non-response, and poorer rates of response among people from minority ethnic groups than for white people. This is the case for large scale surveys (such as the Labour force survey), as well as for administrative records (such as the Further Education Funding council's Individualised Student Record) and may particularly affect some minority ethnic groups (for example, non-response is particularly high for Black groups in the Youth Cohort Study).
- A further problem is the lack of accurate 'benchmark' data against which to compare data from surveys and administrative systems. This means that it is difficult to set participation on particular programmes (such as ESF) in a broader context.
- Small sample sizes mean that it may be difficult to generate estimates for minority ethnic groups, except by aggregating across successive time periods (as with the Labour Force Survey) or by grouping diverse minority ethnic groups together (as with the Youth Cohort Study).
- Most of the data sets used in production of this report are cross-sectional in nature. However, there is an increasing trend towards creating longitudinal data sets which can track the experience of people from different ethnic and social groups over time (for example, the Common Basic Data Set currently being developed may provide such information).

## Glossary of terms

A/AS level	Advanced/Advanced Supplementary level (of qualification)
Black	Black Caribbean, Black African, Black Other
CAS	Careers Activity Survey
Chinese and Other	Chinese, Other-Asian, Other-Other
DfEE	Department for Education and Employment
EA	Economically active
EAL	English as an Additional Language
Economically active	In employment, self-employed, on a government training scheme or unemployed
Economic activity rate	Percentage of the population of a given age group economically active
ESF	European Social Fund
FD	First degree
FDS	First Destinations Survey
FE	Further Education
FEFC	Further Education Funding Council
FSM	Free School Meals
GB	Great Britain
GCSE	General Certificate of Secondary Education
GNVQ	General National Vocational Qualification
HESA	Higher Education Statistics Agency
HO	Home Office
ILO	International Labour Office
IPS	International Passenger Survey
ISR	Individualised Student Record
ITT	Initial Teacher Training
JSA	Jobseeker's Allowance
KS1	Key Stage 1 (level 2 or above in the Reading Test/Task, Writing Test and Mathematics Test)
KS2	Key Stage 2 (level 4 or above in the English and Mathematics Tests)
LEA	Local Education Authority
LFS	Labour Force Survey
MA	Modern Apprenticeship
New Commonwealth	Countries of the Caribbean, South and South East Asia, Africa and the Mediterranean countries formerly part of the British Empire
New University	Post 1992 university or former polytechnic
NT	National Traineeship
NTETs	National Targets for Education and Training
NVQs	National Vocational Qualifications – these are work-related qualifications divided into five levels from Level 1 (foundation skills) to Level 5 (chartered, professional and senior management occupational skills)
NVQ Level 1	Competence which involves the application of knowledge in the performance of a range of varied work activities, most of which may be routine and predictable.
NVQ Level 2	Competence which involves the application of knowledge in a significant range of varied work activities, performed in a variety of contexts. Some of these activities are complex or non-routine and there is some individual responsibility or autonomy. Collaboration with others, perhaps through membership of a work group or team, may often be a requirement. (Equivalent to 5 GCSEs at grades A*-C).

NVQ Level 3	Competences which involve the application of knowledge in a broad range of work activities performed in a wide variety of contexts, most of which are complex and non-routine. There is considerable responsibility and autonomy and control or guidance of others is often required. (Equivalent of 2 A levels).
NVQ Level 4	Competence which involves the application of knowledge in a broad range of complex, technical or professional work activities performed in a variety of contexts and with a substantial degree of personal responsibility or autonomy. Responsibility for the work of others and the allocation of resources is often present. (Equivalent to a degree or higher level vocational qualification).
NVQ Level 5	Competence which involves the application of a range of fundamental principles across a wide and often unpredictable variety of contexts. Very substantial personal autonomy and often significant responsibility for the work of others and for the allocation of substantial resources features strongly, as do personal accountabilities for analysis, diagnosis, design, planning, execution and evaluation – chartered, professional and senior management
ONS	Office for National Statistics
OPCS	Office for Population Censuses and Surveys
OT	Other Training
OU	Open University
OUG	Other undergraduate study (e.g. HND etc)
participation rate	Percentage of the population of a given age group economically active
PA	pensionable age (taken to be 60 for women and 65 for men)
PG	Postgraduate
PGCE	Postgraduate Certificate in Education
positive outcome	a job, further education or training
PVT	Pre-Vocational Training
SIC	Standard Industrial Classification
SOC	Standard Occupational Classification
South Asian	Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi
South-East Asian	Chinese and Other-Asian
TFW	Training for Work
UK	United Kingdom
Working age	Aged between 16 and 59 (for women) or 64 (for men)
WBTA	Work-based Training for Adults
WBTP	Work-based Training for Young People
YCS	Youth Cohort Study

## Chapter 1

### Introduction

The purpose of this report is to provide as up-to-date as possible a picture of the experience and achievements of people from minority ethnic groups in respect of employment, training and education throughout the life course. Wherever possible, information is presented for individual minority ethnic groups and contrasts between males and females are highlighted.

The report explores a number of key themes;

- *Growth of the ethnic minority population:* People from minority ethnic groups form an increasing percentage of the population of the United Kingdom. They represent some of the fastest growing sections of the population and in an era when the white population has a low birth rate and is ageing overall, form a larger than average proportion of children and young adults.
- *Labour market disadvantage:* There is a huge body of evidence about the disadvantage in the labour market in terms of higher unemployment rates and poorer access to employment that these ethnic groups suffer. A substantial amount of research has demonstrated the role of direct and indirect racial discrimination by educational bodies and employers in limiting the ability of people from minority ethnic groups to fulfil their full potential.
- *Diversity of experience:* Recent research has demonstrated that the experience of minority ethnic groups is not uniform, and that the accepted picture of minority disadvantage ignores the evidence of considerable progress and achievement by people from minority ethnic groups in examination results, job creation and career progression.

### 1.1 Structure of the report

This report is organised into eight substantive chapters (in addition to this introduction and a concluding summary). These are:

- *The demographic background.* This chapter describes the growth of the minority ethnic group population of Great Britain over the last 50 years, drawing upon a range of sources. Data from the 1991 Census of Population and the Labour Force Surveys for 1999 are then used to describe the current characteristics of the minority ethnic group populations, their geographical distribution and their growth during the 1990s (comparing individual minority ethnic groups with the white population). The chapter concludes by reviewing projected trends in the ethnic composition of the working age population in the early years of the 21st Century.
- *Participation and attainment in compulsory education.* This chapter is based upon data from the DfEE Schools Census and the Youth Cohort Study. It describes geographical variations within England in the ethnic composition of the school population for 1998/99 and investigates contrasts between ethnic groups and between boys and girls in their performance in school and in the GCSE examinations they sat during 1996/7.
- *Activities of 16-19 year olds following compulsory schooling.* This chapter (based on data from a range of sources, including the Youth Cohort Study, the Careers Activity Survey and information from the Further Education Funding Council) is concerned with the transition from full-time education to participation in the labour market for young men and women from different ethnic groups. It identifies contrasting paths through further and higher education into employment, employment or economic inactivity across ethnic groups, for young people who reached year 11 (i.e. the minimum school leaving age) in 1994/5, 1996/7 and 1997/8.

- *Participation in higher education.* This chapter is largely based upon data from the Higher Education Statistics Agency. It identifies differences in educational attainment between students with different ethnic backgrounds, subjects studied and early destinations after leaving higher education, focussing on 1998/99. It also presents information on the first destinations of 1998/99 graduates.
- *Patterns of labour market participation.* This chapter presents a picture of the experience of people from minority ethnic groups in the labour market, mainly drawing upon data for 1998 and 1999. After describing differentials in economic activity rates by age and gender, it explores contrasts in employment, unemployment and earnings between ethnic groups. It also includes evidence on early experience of the New Deal over the period of its operation (from 1998 to 2000).
- *Skills and work-related training.* This chapter reviews information on the participation in work-based and work-related training of workers from different ethnic groups, drawing upon two reports published in 1999 and 2000. It covers the types of training engaged in, the duration of training and nature of programmes, and their subsequent destinations.
- *Lifelong learning.* This chapter considers contrasts between ethnic groups in the extent to which they engage in education and training throughout the life course, and the type of training in which they are involved. Data is presented for 1999, with information for the period from 1996 onwards, placing the 1999 picture in a longer-term perspective.
- *Assessment of the quality of data and gaps in data availability.* This chapter reviews and assesses the data sources used in the compilation of this report. It highlights specific areas in which there have been problems with data itself, or access to it, and also identifies topics upon which data are not available. It is emphasised, however, that the information base is dynamic: there are ongoing improvements in data availability on the theme of ethnic minority achievements in education, training and employment.

The concluding chapter draws together the findings of the substantive chapters. It includes a series of 'profiles' summarising the experience of people from each of the minority ethnic groups considered in this report.

## **1.2 A note on ethnic group classification and terminology**

The focus of this report is on the experience of people from minority ethnic groups, which in the British context means people who are visibly identifiable as minorities on the grounds of their physical appearance - usually their skin colour. The ethnic groups for which official data is available are not true ethnic groups, which might be best defined as 'a population whose members believe that in some sense they share common descent and a common cultural heritage or tradition, and who are so regarded by others' (Smith, 1986, 192). Rather, they are a mixture of national origin and skin colour categories, which have evolved through various official attempts to identify populations who have their origins in the countries of the New Commonwealth, but include both migrants and people born in the United Kingdom (Bulmer, 1996; Sillitoe and White, 1992). The imperative to identify such populations by government has usually been driven by the need to measure their experience of racial discrimination and resulting disadvantage in areas such as employment, housing and education, and to be able to measure the effectiveness of policies designed to counteract the effect of discrimination. An example of this is the use of ethnic monitoring in order to evaluate the effectiveness of equal opportunities policies.

Given that the imperative has been to measure the degree of disadvantage of people with skin colours other than white relative to the majority British population, the latter has not been divided into its constituent ethnic groups; rather, it has been aggregated into a single 'white' ethnic group. The existence of distinctive ethnic groups within this category is gradually being recognised, for example with proposals to recognise people of Irish descent as a separate ethnic group in the 2001 Census of Population. The minority ethnic

groups are themselves highly heterogeneous, for example cutting across religious divisions, such as that between Hindus, Sikhs and Muslims, which might be a more precise identifier of disadvantage than ultimate origin in a particular part of the Indian sub-continent (Modood, et. al. 1997).

Most of the data presented in this report adopts an ethnic group classification similar to that used by the 1991 Census of Population, which divided the minority population into 'Black', 'Asian' and 'Other'. The Black category is further divided into Black-Caribbean, Black-African and Black-Other, the last of which includes people of mixed parentage, one of whose parents is Black, as well as those Black people unwilling to classify themselves according to a country of origin outside the UK and who prefer to be known as 'Black British'. The Asian ethnic groups are usually also categorised by ultimate national origins into Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi and Chinese. A further category, Other-Asian, is used by the Census and Labour Force Survey to cover people with origins in South-East Asia; such as Malaysia, Japan or Vietnam. Most ethnic classifications include a final 'Other' category (Other-Other in the Census) which includes smaller ethnic groups such as Arabs and Iranians or people with mixed parentage over a number of generations (e.g. in port cities with a long history of intermarriage between ethnic groups).

In some data sets, only broad aggregates of ethnic groups are available; for example "Black" or "Asian". In this report, the commentary is based around the ethnic groups used by each data set itself, and therefore there is a (small) degree of inconsistency in the degree of disaggregation between chapters. Wherever possible, the terminology for different ethnic groups has been standardised to that used in the Census of Population. The minority ethnic group population is highly diverse, and it is therefore inappropriate to draw conclusions on the basis of the characteristics of all people in ethnic groups other than white amalgamated together. Wherever possible the report avoids the inappropriate aggregation of minority ethnic groups, and describes data at the most disaggregated level available. However, many tables *additionally* make use of commonly used aggregates such as "Black" for Black-Caribbean, Black-African and Black-Other people taken as a whole, "South Asian" for an aggregate of the Indian, Pakistani and Bangladeshi ethnic groups and "Chinese and Other" for data for Chinese, Other-Asian and Other-Other (in the case of the Census or Labour Force Survey) added together. The term "South-East Asian" is occasionally used to refer to an amalgamation of data for the Chinese and Other-Asian ethnic groups. These terms are usually only adopted in the text where the patterns for the constituent ethnic groups within the grouping are similar, and grouping them together can produce a less repetitive commentary.

In some instances, it is only possible, because of small sample sizes, to present the contrast between the white and minority ethnic groups taken as a whole. In these instances, and where the term "minority ethnic groups" is used as a broad descriptive label, it is therefore meant to represent an average of all minorities and no assumption is made that this statistical amalgamation represents a homogeneous social category.

## References

- Bulmer, M. (1996) 'The ethnic group question in the 1991 Census of Population', chapter 2 of Coleman, D. and Salt, J. (eds) *Ethnicity in the 1991 Census vol. 1: Demographic characteristics of the ethnic minority populations* (London: HMSO).
- Modood, T. (et. al.) (1997) *Ethnic Minorities in Britain: Diversity and Disadvantage* (London: Policy Studies Institute).
- Sillitoe, K. and White, P. (1992) 'Ethnic Group and the British Census: the Search for a Question', *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society, series A*, 158, 203-240.
- Smith, M.G. (1986) 'Pluralism, Race and ethnicity in selected African countries', in J. Rex and D. Mason (eds.) *Theories of Race and Ethnic Relations* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press).



## Chapter 2

### The Demographic Background

#### Summary

##### *Size of ethnic minority population*

- The minority ethnic group population of Great Britain has grown continuously since the late 1940s.
- It reached more than 1 million in the late 1960s and 3 million by 1991 and has continued to grow rapidly, to over 3.8 million in 1999. Minority ethnic groups are projected to account for more than half of the growth in the working age population over the next ten years.
- This rapid growth is a consequence of relatively large numbers of births in the UK, due to the very youthful age structure of most minority ethnic groups, and the continued immigration of people from particular ethnic groups.

##### *Composition of the ethnic minority population*

- The bulk of the minority population is from South Asian ethnic groups, with Indians being the largest single ethnic group. The Pakistani and Bangladeshi ethnic groups are two of the most rapidly growing.
- Minority ethnic groups form a much larger percentage of children and young people than they do of older people. They accounted for an increasing percentage of new entrants to the labour market, since the number of young adults in the white population was declining sharply during the 1990s.
- However, the number of middle-aged and elderly people in the Black-Caribbean and Indian ethnic groups is increasing quite rapidly, though still representing relatively small numbers of people.

##### *Geographical concentration*

- Minority ethnic groups remain highly geographically concentrated in the larger urban areas and the original destination areas of post-war migrants.
- Greater London contains half of all people from minority ethnic groups living in Great Britain, and two-thirds of all people from Black ethnic groups.

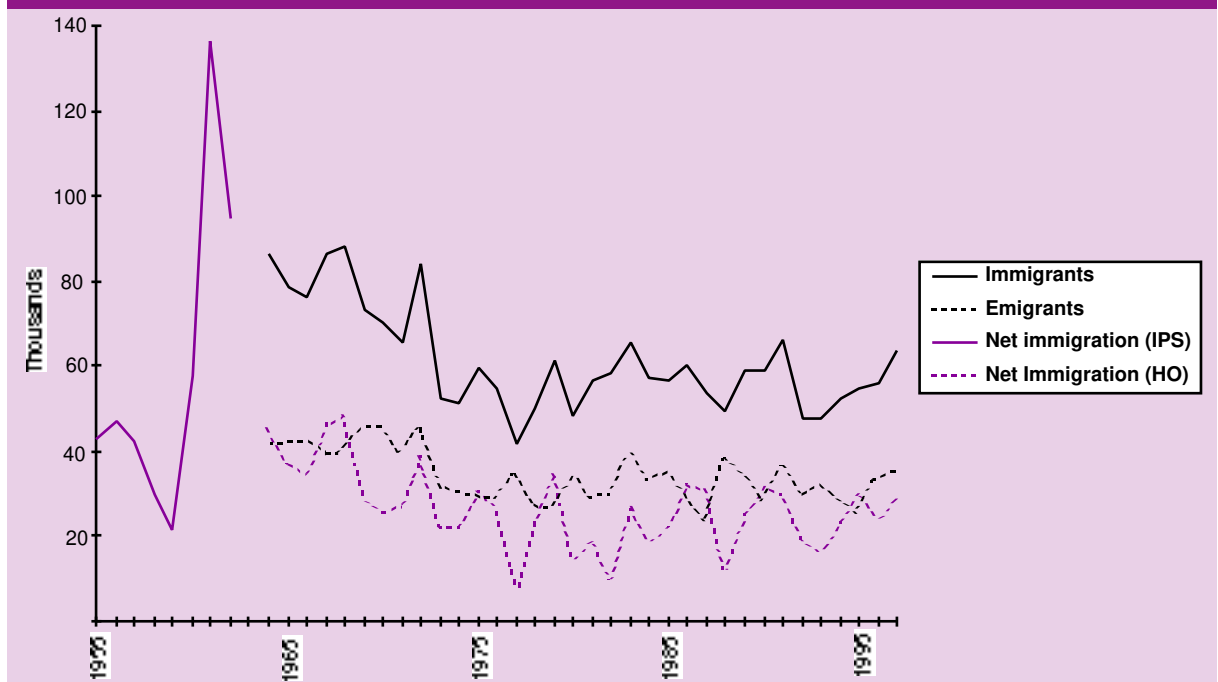
##### *Projections*

- Minority ethnic groups are projected to continue to gain population rapidly in the first decade of the 21st Century, and to form an increasing percentage of younger people of working age.
- However, by 2009, the number of older people from minority ethnic groups will also have increased substantially.

## 2.1 Introduction

The minority ethnic group population with which this report is concerned predominantly comprises people whose ultimate geographical origins lie in the countries of the “New Commonwealth” and neighbouring parts of the Indian sub-continent, south-east Asia, the Caribbean and Africa south of the Sahara. Though small numbers of people from these regions of the world were present in Britain throughout the period of empire, their populations have increased dramatically during the second half of the twentieth century. Minority ethnic groups now form a significant component of the British population, especially in the younger age groups. This chapter describes the growth of the minority population, the current ethnic profile of the British population (using data for 1997 and 1998) and likely medium-term trends in the ethnic composition of people of working age living in Great Britain.

**Figure 2.1: Immigration from the New Commonwealth to the UK**



Source: Home Office statistics and International Passenger Survey

## 2.2 The growth of the minority population of Great Britain

The substantial growth of the minority ethnic group population of Great Britain began in the era of mass immigration from the New Commonwealth, which lasted from the passing of the British Nationality Act in 1948 to the mid-1970s. The minority ethnic group population of England and Wales increased from 103,000 in 1951 to 415 thousand in 1961 (Eversley and Sukdeo, 1969), largely as result of immigration from the New Commonwealth, which reached a peak in the late 1950s and early 1960s (Figure 2.1). Immigration from the Caribbean was largely curtailed by the Commonwealth Immigrants Act of 1962, while the Immigration Act of 1971 had a similar effect upon primary immigration from the Indian sub-continent (Salt, 1996), though the migration of dependants continued. The migration of people from Pakistan and Bangladesh in search of work ended later and the migration of family members from these countries has also lasted longer than the corresponding flows from India and the Caribbean<sup>1</sup>.

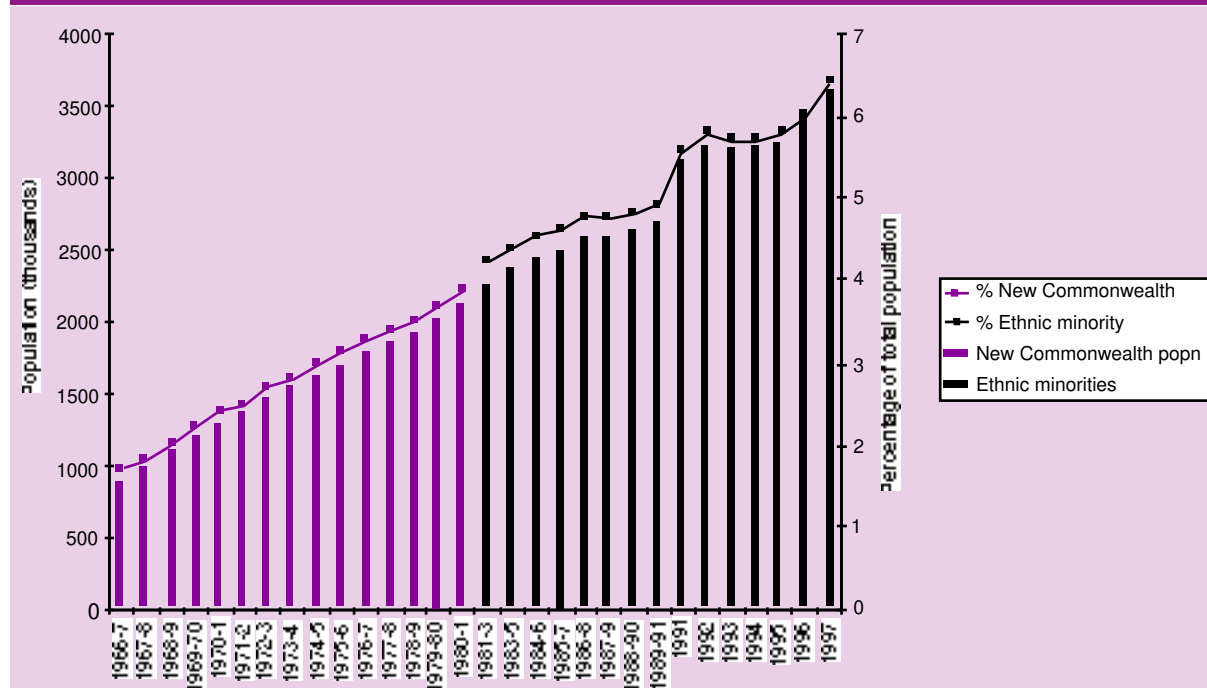
New flows of migrants developed during the 1980s and 1990s. Initially these flows comprised Chinese (mainly from Hong Kong) and Black-African people (many of whom arrived as students) together with students from other parts of South East Asia. This was followed by the arrival of increasing numbers of asylum-seekers (predominantly from Africa, the Middle East and countries such as Sri Lanka).

The rapid growth of the minority ethnic group population continued, due to high birth rates among migrants to the UK (Figure 2.2) and their UK-born children. Over the fourteen years from 1966 to 1980, the number of people estimated to be of “New Commonwealth and Pakistan” ethnic origin more than doubled in size, rising from 886 thousand to reach 2.1 million (as estimated by the Census of Population and Labour Force Survey for that year). The Labour Force Survey revealed a further increase of over half a

<sup>1</sup> And there is also a continuing in-flow of fiancés and newly-married spouses for some (mainly South Asian) ethnic groups.

million (growth of more than a quarter) during the 1980s, and the 1991 Census of Population found that the minority ethnic group population was just over 3 million people (5.5 per cent of the population of Great Britain). The quarterly Labour Force Survey has recorded further growth during the 1990s, so that the minority ethnic group population was believed to have reached 3.8 million or (6.7 per cent of the British population) in 1999.

**Figure 2.2: Estimated growth of the minority ethnic group population for Great Britain from 1966/7 to 1999.**



Sources: occasional OPCS/ONS articles in Population Trends (estimating first the “New Commonwealth” population, and later the “ethnic minority” population), Schuman (1999) and Labour Force Survey data.

### 2.3 The ethnic composition of Great Britain in 1991

The 1991 Census of Population provides the most detailed “benchmark” data on the ethnic composition of all parts of Great Britain so far available, and still represents the most up-to-date information on the ethnic composition of individual towns and cities. After adjusting for under-enumeration<sup>2</sup>, the Census revealed that of a total of 56.2 million people resident in Great Britain in mid-1991, just over 3.1 million (5.6 per cent) were from minority ethnic groups (Table 2.1).

Nearly half the minority population in 1991 comprised people from the three South Asian ethnic groups, with the largest single minority group being Indian people. There were around half a million people in both the second (Black-Caribbean) and third (Pakistani) largest minority groups. The heterogeneous “Chinese

<sup>2</sup> Unfortunately, it is believed that the 1991 Census underestimated the total population of Great Britain by around 1.2 million, with the degree of underestimation being greater for minority ethnic groups than for white people. A more accurate picture of individual ethnic group populations can therefore be obtained by adjusting the Census data to take into account the degree of undercount by age and sex and then scaling the resultant figures to match the Office for National Statistics estimate of the population at 30th June 1991.

and Other” grouping comprised around two-thirds of a million people, half of whom were classified as Other-Other (which includes a large number of smaller ethnic groups, together with some people of mixed parentage). The “Other” ethnic groups were some of the most youthful, and are dominated by UK-born people, many of whom have parents from different ethnic groups. Nearly five-sixths of people classified as “Black-Other” and three-fifths of those from the Other-Other group had been born in the UK, in contrast with the Bangladeshi and Black-African groups (also very youthful), in each of which only just over a third of the population had been born in the UK.

**Table 2.1: Ethnic composition of Great Britain, 1991**

Ethnic group	Population (thousands)	Percent of population	Males per 1000 females	Percentage born in UK	Median age in years
White	53084.7	94.4	951	95.8	39
<b>Minority ethnic groups</b>	<b>3121.9</b>	<b>5.6</b>	<b>1028</b>	<b>46.8</b>	<b>26</b>
<i>Black</i>	<i>926.0</i>	<i>1.6</i>	<i>979</i>	<i>55.7</i>	<i>27</i>
Black-Caribbean	517.7	0.9	946	53.7	30
Black-African	222.4	0.4	1051	36.4	26
Black-Other	185.9	0.3	991	84.4	17
<i>South Asian</i>	<i>1528.0</i>	<i>2.7</i>	<i>1061</i>	<i>44.1</i>	<i>24</i>
Indian	866.3	1.5	1036	42.0	28
Pakistani	493.2	0.9	1087	50.5	20
Bangladeshi	168.5	0.3	1113	36.7	17
<i>Chinese and Other</i>	<i>667.9</i>	<i>1.2</i>	<i>1022</i>	<i>40.6</i>	<i>26</i>
Chinese	162.8	0.3	1012	28.4	29
Other-Asian	204.2	0.4	926	21.9	31
Other-Other	300.9	0.5	1099	59.8	21
<b>All ethnic groups</b>	<b>56206.5</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>956</b>	<b>93.1</b>	<b>38</b>

Source: 1991 Census of Population (Crown Copyright). Population totals have been adjusted to match 1991 ONS mid-year estimates.

### 2.3.1 Gender structure of ethnic groups

Overall, there were more females than males in the British population, but there was near equality in the number of males and females in the population of minority ethnic groups as a whole. Within this overall average, considerable variations existed between minority ethnic groups. The lowest ratios of males to females occurred in the Other-Asian, Black-Caribbean, and white ethnic groups. In contrast, there was a marked excess of males over females in all three South Asian ethnic groups. The greatest excess of males occurred for Bangladeshis. To some extent, this pattern reflected the youthful age structure of these ethnic groups (since women have a longer life expectancy than men and hence are in the majority in the oldest age groups).

A more powerful influence upon this pattern is probably the different migration histories of each ethnic group. The high percentage of females in the Black-Caribbean population may be because women were relatively early migrants, and often migrated independently. In contrast, the pattern of South Asian migration was typically one of men migrating first and being joined later by their wives and children. People from the Indian ethnic group completed family reunification earlier than Pakistanis, and the Bangladeshi ethnic group was the slowest to reunite male migrants with their families. The high ratio of males to females in the Black-African ethnic group may reflect the migration of male students, while women migrating to fill service sector jobs may account for the low percentage of males in the Other-Asian ethnic group.

### 2.3.2 Population change 1991-98

Table 2.2 provides an indication of the probable pattern of population change over the eight years from 1991 to 1999. It compares adjusted 1991 Census of Population data with data from the quarterly Labour Force Survey for 1999<sup>3</sup>. This comparison reveals population growth to have been quite slow, at just over 1 per cent.

**Table 2.2: Estimated change in population by ethnic group for Great Britain, 1991-99**

Ethnic group	1991 Population (000s)	1999 Population (000s)	Change (000s)	Percentage change	Percent of population, 1991	Percent of population, 1999
White	53084.7	53074.2	-10.5	0.0	94.4	93.3
<b>Minority ethnic group</b>	<b>3121.9</b>	<b>3787.2</b>	<b>665.4</b>	<b>21.3</b>	<b>5.6</b>	<b>6.7</b>
<i>Black</i>	926.0	1174.7	248.8	26.9	1.6	2.1
Black-Caribbean	517.7	490.1	-27.6	-5.3	0.9	0.9
Black-African	222.4	376.2	153.9	69.2	0.4	0.7
Black-Other	185.9	308.4	122.5	65.9	0.3	0.5
<i>South Asian</i>	1528.0	1860.4	332.5	21.8	2.7	3.3
Indian	866.3	929.6	63.3	7.3	1.5	1.6
Pakistani	493.2	662.9	169.7	34.4	0.9	1.2
Bangladeshi	168.5	267.9	99.5	59.0	0.3	0.5
<i>Chinese &amp; Other</i>	667.9	752.0	84.1	12.6	1.2	1.3
Chinese	162.8	136.7	-26.0	-16.0	0.3	0.2
Other-Asian	204.2	206.4	2.2	1.1	0.4	0.4
Other-Other	300.9	408.9	108.0	35.9	0.5	0.7
<b>All ethnic groups</b>	<b>56206.5</b>	<b>56879.4</b>	<b>672.9</b>	<b>1.2</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: 1991 Census of Population data scaled to match ONS 1991 mid-year population estimates and Labour Force Survey, Spring 1999 to Winter 1999/2000 (Crown Copyright).

All the increase in the population of Great Britain over this period was estimated to be due to growth in the number of people from minority ethnic groups, since the number of white people present in Great Britain remained more or less constant. The fastest growing ethnic groups were the Black-African, "Black-Other" and Bangladeshi ethnic groups, all of which increased in population by at least three-fifths over this period. However, the number of Black people in aggregate only increased by a quarter, because of the decline of 28 thousand in the number of Black-Caribbean people<sup>4</sup>. In aggregate, the population of South Asian ethnic groups grew at a similar rate to the Black grouping, while the "Chinese and Other" ethnic grouping gained population at about half this rate. Amongst South Asian people, the rapid growth of the Pakistani and Bangladeshi ethnic groups was counterbalanced by a much slower rate of increase in the number of Indian people. The number of Chinese people is estimated to have fallen by 16 per cent, and thus the growth in the number of "Chinese and Other" people was entirely the result of an increase of 108 thousand in the number of people classified as "Other-Other" (representing the increase in the number of people of mixed parentage, and the increasing number of people from smaller ethnic groups).

<sup>3</sup> However, there is some uncertainty inherent in this comparison, because the Labour Force Survey is based on a very small sample and hence its estimates of the total minority population fluctuate greatly from year to year.

<sup>4</sup> This pattern probably reflects an increasing trend for Black people to identify themselves as 'Black British' rather than 'Black-Caribbean', and not a result of substantial increases in deaths or emigration.

The increase in the working age population (men aged from 16 to 64 and women aged from 16 to 59) was more than three times that of the population as a whole (Table 2.3).

The population of working age from minority ethnic groups grew by more than a fifth between 1991 and 1999, when they represented 6.6 per cent of the total working age population. The pattern of population change by ethnic group is broadly similar to that for the population as a whole. The largest numerical increase in the number of people of working age was recorded by the Pakistani ethnic group, and the number of people of working age from the South Asian ethnic groups grew about twice as rapidly than those from Black or “Chinese and Other” ethnic groups. The population of working age grew most rapidly for the Bangladeshi ethnic group, followed by Black-African, Black-Other and Pakistani people. In contrast, the number of Chinese and Black-Caribbean people of working age declined by about a twelfth.

<b>Table 2.3: Estimated change in working age population by ethnic group for Great Britain, 1991-9</b>						
<b>Ethnic group</b>	<b>Working age population 1991 (000s)</b>	<b>Working age population 1999 (000s)</b>	<b>Change (000s)</b>	<b>Percentage change</b>	<b>% of working age population, 1991</b>	<b>% of working age population, 1999</b>
White	32492.2	34220.0	1727.8	5.3	94.3	93.4
<b>Minority ethnic group</b>	<b>1965.5</b>	<b>2398.6</b>	<b>433.1</b>	<b>22.0</b>	<b>5.7</b>	<b>6.6</b>
<i>Black</i>	<i>609.1</i>	<i>712.7</i>	<i>103.6</i>	<i>17.0</i>	<i>1.8</i>	<i>1.9</i>
Black-Caribbean	364.9	335.2	-29.6	-8.1	1.1	0.9
Black-African	153.9	243.0	89.1	57.8	0.4	0.7
Black-Other	90.3	134.5	44.2	48.9	0.3	0.4
<i>South Asian</i>	<i>925.9</i>	<i>1191.3</i>	<i>265.5</i>	<i>28.7</i>	<i>2.7</i>	<i>3.3</i>
Indian	566.0	643.8	77.8	13.7	1.6	1.8
Pakistani	272.8	396.8	124.1	45.5	0.8	1.1
Bangladeshi	87.1	150.7	63.6	73.0	0.3	0.4
<i>Chinese &amp; Other</i>	<i>430.5</i>	<i>494.6</i>	<i>64.1</i>	<i>14.9</i>	<i>1.2</i>	<i>1.4</i>
Chinese	117.9	108.5	-9.4	-8.0	0.3	0.3
Other-Asian	148.0	158.9	10.9	7.4	0.4	0.4
Other-Other	164.7	227.3	62.6	38.0	0.5	0.6
<b>All ethnic groups</b>	<b>34457.7</b>	<b>36618.6</b>	<b>2160.9</b>	<b>6.3</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

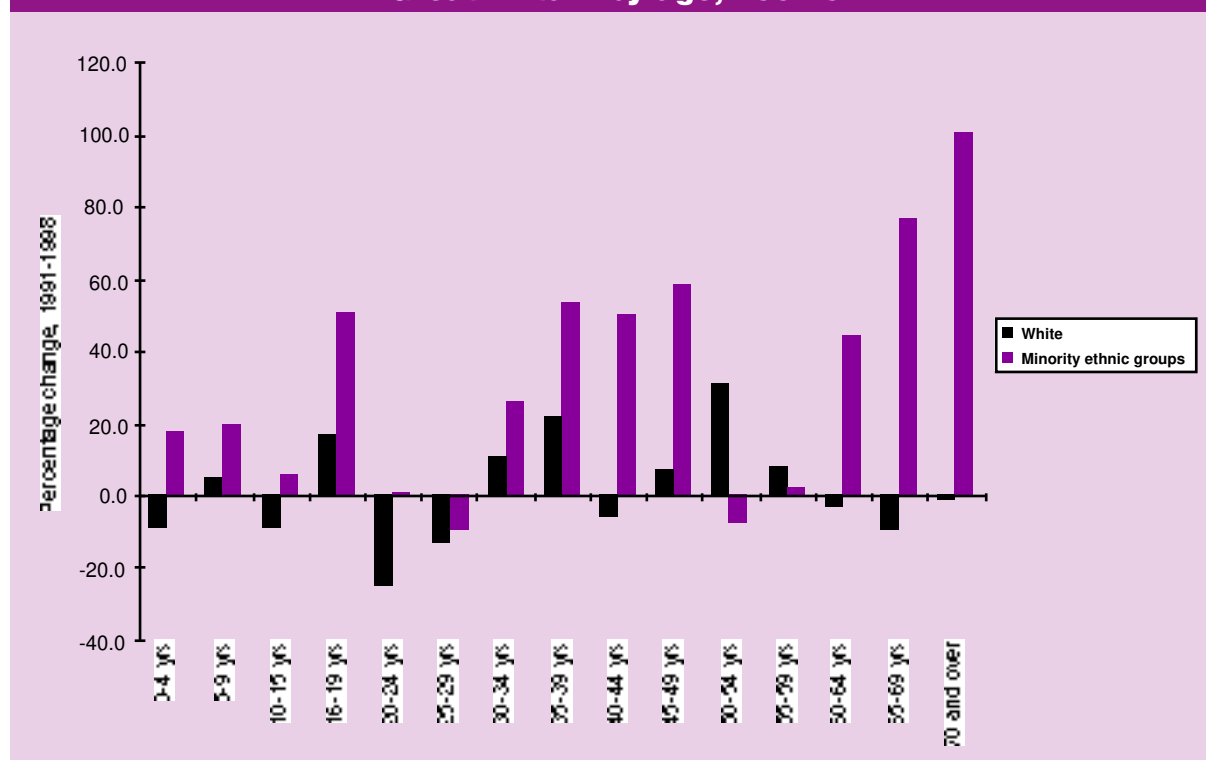
Source: 1991 Census of Population data scaled to match ONS 1991 mid-year population estimates and Labour Force Survey, Spring 1999 to Winter 1999/2000 (Crown Copyright).

Contrasts between the white and minority ethnic groups in rates of population change by age group are presented in Figure 2.3. The outstanding feature for the white population is the impact of the “demographic time-bomb”, with the number of 20-24 year olds declining by 26 per cent between 1991 and 1999. There was a smaller decline in the number of 25-29 year olds, but an increase in the number of people aged 30-39 and 50-54. The age-specific pattern of population change for minority ethnic groups was very different, with increases in all age groups except for people aged 20-29 or 50-54, in which age ranges the number of people from minority ethnic groups declined slightly. The most rapid increases in the minority population occurred in the 35 to 49 age range and for people aged over 60.

### 2.3.3 Age structure of the population

The median age of a person from an ethnic minority in 1991 was just over 25 (Table 2.1). On average, a person from the white ethnic group was nearly 13 years older. The oldest people from ethnic minorities on average were from the Black-Caribbean, Other Asian, Chinese and Indian ethnic groups. For all of these groups the median age was near 30 years. The median ages of people from the Black-Other, Bangladeshi, Pakistani, and “Other-Other” ethnic groups were much lower. In the Bangladeshi and Pakistani groups about half of the population had not yet reached school-leaving age in 1991.

**Figure 2.3: Percentage change in white and minority population in Great Britain by age, 1991-9**



Source: 1991 Census of Population data scaled to match ONS 1991 mid-year population estimates and Labour Force Survey, Spring 1999 to Winter 1999/2000 (Crown Copyright).

Table 2.4 presents the age structure of individual ethnic groups in greater detail for 1999. The percentage of the population in the older age groups was much higher for white people than for minority ethnic groups. Nearly two-fifths of white people were in the older part of the working age range or of pensionable age, twice the corresponding figure for people from minority ethnic groups as a whole. In contrast, children formed nearly a third of the ethnic minority population, but just under a fifth of the white population.

Starting with the older minority ethnic groups:

- The age structure of the Black-Caribbean population was probably closest to that of the white ethnic group, with a higher percentage of people from this ethnic group aged 65 and over (9.7 per cent) than in any other minority ethnic group. The percentage of children in the population was lowest in the Chinese and Other-Asian ethnic groups, which (like the Black-Caribbean and Indian ethnic groups) contained high percentages of people aged from 45 to retirement age).

- In the Indian ethnic group, just over a sixth of the population was of compulsory school age, and a third of prime working age (25 to 44), but 7.2 per cent were of pensionable age, an age distribution quite similar to the Chinese ethnic group.
- In the Black-African and Other-Asian ethnic groups, more than two-fifths of the population was aged 25-44. However, the Black-African group contained a larger share of pre-school age children than the Other-Asian group, which had a larger proportion of population aged from 45 to retirement age.
- In the Pakistani ethnic group, a third of the population was aged under 16, but about an eighth of the population was aged between 45 and retirement age. This indicates a pattern of an ageing population of early migrants and rapid population growth due to a high birth rate.
- In the most youthful age group, 96.3 per cent of the Black-Other ethnic group was aged under 45, more than half were under 16 years of age and a fifth of the ethnic group was of pre-school age (and hence over a third were of compulsory school age. This percentage was two and a half times the average for the population as a whole).
- The Other-Other and Bangladeshi ethnic groups had similar age structures, but in these ethnic groups, older people were also more common than for Black-Other people.

### *2.3.3 Ethnic group profile of the population at different ages*

The ethnic composition of the population varied greatly between age groups (Table 2.5):

- People aged over 45 were more likely than average to be white and those younger were more likely than average to be from minority ethnic groups.
- The share of people from minority ethnic groups in an age group declined with increasing age.
- Minority ethnic groups as a whole accounted for nearly an eighth of pre-school age children, a tenth of children of compulsory school age, 9.1 per cent of 16-24 year olds and 7.5 per cent of 25-44 year olds.
- Only 4.2 per cent of people aged from 45 to retirement age and 2.1 per cent of the population of pensionable age were from minority ethnic groups.
- The percentage share of the Black, Pakistani and Other-Other ethnic groups in the population was greatest for pre-school age children.
- The share of the Indian and Chinese ethnic groups in the population was greatest for young adults (people aged 16 to 24).

The age structure described here is likely to lead to the continued relatively rapid growth of the Black-Other, Other-Other, Black-African and Bangladeshi ethnic groups. At the other extreme, the Black-Caribbean ethnic group was the most aged of the minority ethnic groups, and the first in which significant numbers of people have reached retirement age.



**Table 2.4 Age structure in Great Britain, 1999**

Ethnic group	Percentage of ethnic group population of Great Britain in each age group					
	Aged 0-4	aged 5-15	aged 16-24	aged 25-44	aged 45-59/64	Pensionable age
White	5.8	13.8	10.5	29.8	24.1	15.9
<b>Minority ethnic groups</b>	<b>10.7</b>	<b>21.4</b>	<b>14.7</b>	<b>33.6</b>	<b>14.7</b>	
<b>4.8</b>						
<i>Black</i>	<i>12.2</i>	<i>22.2</i>	<i>13.0</i>	<i>35.4</i>	<i>12.3</i>	<i>4.9</i>
Black-Caribbean	7.0	14.9	10.8	37.3	20.2	9.7
Black-African	12.8	20.3	13.8	40.9	9.8	2.3
Black-Other	19.6	36.1	15.2	25.5	2.9	0.7
<i>South Asian</i>	<i>9.4</i>	<i>21.0</i>	<i>15.9</i>	<i>31.8</i>	<i>16.3</i>	
<b>5.6</b>						
Indian	6.5	17.1	14.1	34.7	20.5	7.2
Pakistani	12.1	23.9	17.5	30.0	12.4	4.1
Bangladeshi	13.2	27.0	18.5	26.2	11.5	3.6
<i>Chinese and Other</i>	<i>11.4</i>	<i>21.4</i>	<i>14.6</i>	<i>35.2</i>	<i>14.5</i>	<i>3.0</i>
Chinese	3.8	11.8	18.2	40.8	20.3	5.1
Other-Asian	6.6	13.7	12.7	44.9	18.5	3.6

Source: Labour Force Survey, Spring 1999 to Winter 1999/2000 (Crown Copyright).

**Table 2.5: Share of ethnic groups in Great Britain in each age group, 1999**

	Percentage of each age group from each ethnic group					
	Aged 0-4	aged 5-15	aged 16-24	Aged 25-44	aged 45-PA	Pensionable age
White	88.4	90.0	90.9	92.5	95.8	97.9
<b>Minority ethnic group</b>	<b>11.6</b>	<b>10.0</b>	<b>9.1</b>	<b>7.5</b>	<b>4.2</b>	<b>2.1</b>
<i>Black</i>	<i>4.1</i>	<i>3.2</i>	<i>2.5</i>	<i>2.4</i>	<i>1.1</i>	<i>0.7</i>
Black-Caribbean	1.0	0.9	0.9	1.1	0.7	0.6
Black-African	1.4	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.3	0.1
Black-Other	1.7	1.4	0.8	0.5	0.1	0.0
<i>South Asian</i>	<i>5.0</i>	<i>4.8</i>	<i>4.8</i>	<i>3.5</i>	<i>2.3</i>	<i>1.2</i>
Indian	1.7	1.9	2.1	1.9	1.4	0.8
Pakistani	2.3	1.9	1.9	1.2	0.6	0.3
Bangladeshi	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.4	0.2	0.1
<i>Chinese &amp; Other</i>	<i>2.5</i>	<i>2.0</i>	<i>1.8</i>	<i>1.6</i>	<i>0.8</i>	<i>0.3</i>
Chinese	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.1
Other-Asian	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.1
Other-Other	2.0	1.5	1.0	0.7	0.3	0.1
<b>All ethnic groups</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Labour Force Survey, Spring 1999 to Winter 1999/2000 (Crown Copyright).

## 2.4 Geographical distribution

Migrants from the New Commonwealth who came to Britain in the 1950s and 1960s in search of work tended to settle in London, Birmingham and other industrial cities and towns of the midlands and northern England, where jobs in manufacturing industry and public sector services were readily available. In spite of the general tendency for people to leave the cities and move to smaller towns and rural areas, and the massive loss of jobs in the larger urban areas, people from minority ethnic groups have remained geographically concentrated into the major cities (Owen, 1997).

The Labour Force Survey is used in Table 2.6 to describe the current distribution of minority ethnic groups across the Government Office Regions of England, together with Wales and Scotland. This shows that 96.5 per cent of all people from minority ethnic groups present in Great Britain in 1999 lived in England. Overall, 7.5 per cent of the population of England was from minority ethnic groups.

Of the minority ethnic group population of 3.8 million, almost half (47.6 per cent) lived within Greater London and a further eighth in the West Midlands (former) metropolitan county. Outside these two major conurbations, most lived in the Greater Manchester and West Yorkshire (former) metropolitan counties. However, only a tenth of all white people lived in Greater London and 4 per cent lived in the West Midlands, graphically illustrating the degree of spatial segregation between people from white and minority ethnic groups (which is even greater within cities).

Nearly two-thirds of people from the three Black ethnic groups lived in Greater London, with a further eighth living in the West Midlands. In contrast, only just over a third of South Asian people lived in the Greater London area in 1999 (and were more likely to live in Outer than Inner London). The West Midlands was a more important concentration for South Asians than other ethnic groups. However, Schuman (1999) demonstrated that there were major differences in the geographical distribution of the three South Asian ethnic groups in 1997. Around half of all Bangladeshis lived in Greater London, but Pakistani people were much more likely to live in northern England and the Midlands. Indian people had a more geographically widespread distribution than people from the other two South Asian ethnic groups. Chinese people were less strongly geographically concentrated than people from other minority ethnic groups.

The ethnic composition of Greater London is very different from that of the rest of Great Britain. A quarter of its population overall and a third of Inner London's population were from minority ethnic groups. Only the West Midlands (former) metropolitan county approached this percentage, with over a sixth of its population being from minority ethnic groups. Black people formed the largest part of the minority population of Greater London, while South Asian people were the largest minority groups in the West Midlands. Elsewhere, only in Greater Manchester did the minority share of the population exceed the average for England. In Wales, Scotland and the peripheral regions of England, minority ethnic groups still formed not much more than 2 per cent of the resident population (and often nearer 1 per cent) in 1999.

The Labour Force Survey is based upon too small a sample to yield reliable information on the detailed geographical distribution of minority ethnic groups. Therefore, at the time of writing, the 1991 Census of Population is still the best source of such data. This revealed that the London Boroughs (notably Brent, Newham and Tower Hamlets) contained some of the largest local concentrations of minority ethnic groups. Outside London, the major concentrations of minority ethnic groups occurred in Leicester, Slough, Birmingham, Luton, Wolverhampton, Bradford and Blackburn (Owen, 1992; Rees and Phillips, 1996).

**Table 2.6: Geographical distribution of minority ethnic groups in Great Britain, 1999**

Government Office Region, country or (former) metropolitan county (MC)	Population (000s)				Percentage of GB population				Percentage of local population						
	White	Black	South Asian	Chinese & Other	Minority ethnic groups	White	Black	South Asian	Chinese & Other	Minority ethnic groups	White	Black	South Asian	Chinese & Other	Minority ethnic groups
North East	2509	-	25	13	43	4.7	-	1.3	1.7	1.1	98.3	-	1.0	0.5	1.7
North West & Merseyside	6529	50	162	45	258	12.3	4.3	8.7	5.9	6.8	96.2	0.7	2.4	0.7	3.8
Greater Manchester MC	2371	34	114	27	175	4.5	2.9	6.1	3.5	4.6	93.1	1.3	4.5	1.1	6.9
Yorkshire & Humberside	4694	48	195	47	290	8.8	4.1	10.5	6.1	7.6	94.2	1.0	3.9	0.9	5.8
W Yorkshire MC	1868	28	171	25	225	3.5	2.4	9.2	3.3	5.9	89.3	1.4	8.2	1.2	10.7
East Midlands	3922	50	141	25	216	7.4	4.2	7.6	3.2	5.7	94.8	1.2	3.4	0.6	5.2
West Midlands	4759	110	367	40	518	9.0	9.3	19.8	5.2	13.6	90.2	2.1	7.0	0.8	9.8
W Midlands MC	2138	89	339	30	458	4.0	7.6	18.2	3.9	12.0	82.4	3.4	13.1	1.1	17.6
Eastern London	5142	48	109	41	198	9.7	4.1	5.9	5.3	5.2	96.3	0.9	2.0	0.8	3.7
London	5305	751	667	393	1812	10.0	63.9	35.9	51.0	47.6	74.5	10.6	9.4	5.5	25.5
Inner London	1867	451	225	175	851	3.5	38.4	12.1	22.7	22.4	68.7	16.6	8.3	6.4	31.3
Outer London	3438	300	442	218	960	6.5	25.5	23.8	28.3	25.2	78.2	6.8	10.1	5.0	21.8
South East	7651	60	116	88	263	14.4	5.1	6.2	11.4	6.9	96.7	0.8	1.5	1.1	3.3
South West	4757	27	22	27	75	9.0	2.3	1.2	3.5	2.0	98.5	0.6	0.4	0.6	1.5
England	45268	1149	1804	719	3672	85.3	97.8	97.0	93.3	96.5	92.5	2.3	3.7	1.5	7.5
Wales	2846	15	12	27	53	5.4	1.2	0.6	3.5	1.4	98.2	0.5	0.4	0.9	1.8
Scotland	4960	11	45	24	80	9.3	1.0	2.4	3.2	2.1	98.4	0.2	0.9	0.5	1.6
<b>Great Britain</b>	<b>53074</b>	<b>1175</b>	<b>1860</b>	<b>770</b>	<b>3805</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>93.3</b>	<b>2.1</b>	<b>3.3</b>	<b>1.4</b>	<b>6.7</b>

Source: Labour Force Survey, Spring 1999 to Winter 1999/2000 (Crown Copyright).

Note: Numbers less than 6,000 and percentages based upon them have been suppressed (-).

## 2.5 Future trends

As was shown in section 2.3, the age structure of the minority ethnic group population is such that it is likely to continue to increase at a relatively rapid rate in the medium term, because young people (especially women in the child-bearing age range, 16 to 49) represent a larger than average share of the population, and this factor is reinforced by the higher (though declining over time) fertility rates of minority ethnic groups relative to white people. While no official projections have as yet been made, a number of independent projections of the minority ethnic group population of Great Britain (of varying degrees of sophistication) have been carried out. At the aggregate level, Ballard and Khalra (1993) suggest that the minority ethnic group population will reach a maximum of about 10 per cent of the British population in the middle of the 21st century. It would then decline in size gradually over time, mirroring a fall in the total population, but the minority share of the population would remain fairly constant.

The National Institute of Economic and Social Research has produced a more detailed set of projections for the medium-term, projecting change in the number of people of working age by ethnic group over the period 1999 to 2009. In these projections, the minority share of the working age population is expected to rise from 6.7 per cent<sup>5</sup> to 7.9 per cent (Metcalf and Forth, 2000). This represents an increase of 11 per cent, compared with 1 per cent for the white population of working age (Table 2.7).

### Table

Overall, the working age population is projected to increase by nearly a million (approximately a fifth) over

<b>2.7: Projected change in working age population by ethnic group for Great Britain, 1999-2009</b>						
Ethnic group	Population (000s)		Change, 1999-2009		Percent of working age population	
	1999	2009	(000s)	Percentage	1999	2009
White	32918.8	33374.7	455.9	1.4	93.3	92.1
<b>Minority ethnic groups</b>	<b>2372.7</b>	<b>2880.4</b>	<b>507.7</b>	<b>21.4</b>	<b>6.7</b>	<b>7.9</b>
<i>Black</i>	689.7	830.2	140.4	20.4	2.0	2.3
Black-Caribbean	363.6	380.7	17.0	4.7	1.0	1.0
Black-African	196.8	252.2	55.4	28.1	0.6	0.7
Black-Other	129.2	197.3	68.0	52.6	0.4	0.5
<i>South Asian</i>	1132.7	1355.5	222.9	19.7	3.2	3.7
Indian	650.7	727.5	76.8	11.8	1.8	2.0
Pakistani	362.2	467.0	104.7	28.9	1.0	1.3
Bangladeshi	119.7	161.1	41.4	34.5	0.3	0.4
<i>Chinese and Other</i>	550.3	694.7	144.4	26.2	1.6	1.9
Chinese	141.6	160.9	19.2	13.6	0.4	0.4
Other-Asian	188.4	223.8	35.4	18.8	0.5	0.6
Other-Other	220.2	310.0	89.8	40.8	0.6	0.9
<b>All ethnic groups</b>	<b>35291.5</b>	<b>36255.0</b>	<b>963.5</b>	<b>2.7</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Metcalf & Forth (2000)

<sup>5</sup> This figure is somewhat larger than the share of minority ethnic groups in the population of working age in the 1999 Labour Force Survey data. This is because the NIESR data for 1999 are *estimates*, produced by ageing the 1991 Census forward by 8 years. Divergence between these estimates and the LFS data will result from the influence of the various assumptions made about migration, births and deaths by ethnic group in the projection methodology. In addition it should be noted that the NIESR projections were carried out prior to the re-grossing of the LFS in April 2000. This may affect comparability with subsequent population estimates.

this ten-year period. Minority ethnic groups are projected to account for more than half of this increase, with the most rapid increases occurring for the most youthful ethnic groups.

The number of people from minority ethnic groups in the 16-24 age group, seeking opportunities in further and higher education and entering the labour market, is projected to increase by a fifth between 1999 and 2009, while continued growth in the number of 25-34 year olds from minority ethnic groups will partly compensate for the projected decline of nearly a fifth in the number of white people in this age range. The ageing of the white population will continue, with the number aged from 45 to retirement age increasing by an eighth over this period. However, this period also sees the emergence of a large 'middle aged' component of the minority ethnic group population and the associated challenge of combating ageism as well as racial discrimination in ensuring that people from minority ethnic groups achieve adequate access to employment opportunities.

## 2.6 Conclusion

This chapter has described the demographic structure and likely evolution over time of the population of Great Britain by ethnic group, providing the context for the trends identified in the remainder of this report.

People from minority ethnic groups are younger on the whole than white people, and tend to be geographically concentrated within the major urban centres of England.

It is clear that the minority ethnic group population is very diverse, and likely to experience different trends over time. It is currently youthful, and hence large numbers of young people from minority ethnic groups are currently entering further and higher education and the labour market, and will continue to do so over the medium-term.

The ageing of the ethnic minority workforce is an emerging issue. The Black-Caribbean and Indian ethnic groups are further advanced on this path than others, as people from the original 'migrant' generation reach later middle age. Such people may face 'double discrimination' in the labour market; by age as well as ethnic group.

## References

Ballard, R. and Khalra, V. (1993) Ethnic dimensions of the 1991 census: a preliminary report (Census Microdata Unit, University of Manchester).

Eversley, D. and Sukdeo, F. (1969) *The Dependents of the Coloured Commonwealth Population of England and Wales* (Institute of Race Relations).

Metcalf, H. and Forth, J. (2000) 'The Business Benefits of Race Equality at Work', DfEE Research Report No. 177.

Owen, D. (1992) 'Ethnic Minorities in Great Britain: Settlement Patterns', National Ethnic Minority Data Archive 1991 Census Statistical Paper no. 1, Centre for Research in Ethnic Relations, University of Warwick.

Owen, D. (1997) 'Geographical patterns of recent migration and population change for minority ethnic groups within Great Britain', paper presented to the annual conference of the British Society for Population Studies, September 1-3, University of Exeter.

Rees, P. and Phillips, D. (1996) 'Geographical spread: The national picture', chapter 2 of P. Ratcliffe (ed.) *Ethnicity in the 1991 Census, Volume 3: Social geography and ethnicity in Britain: geographical spread, spatial concentration and internal migration* (London: HMSO).

Salt, J. (1996) 'Immigration and ethnic group', Chapter 5 of D. Coleman and J. Salt (eds) *Ethnicity in the 1991 Census vol. 1: Demographic characteristics of the ethnic minority populations* (London: HMSO), 124-150.

Schuman, J. (1999) 'The ethnic minority populations of Great Britain - latest estimates' *Population Trends*, 96, 33-43.

## Chapter 3

### Participation and attainment in compulsory education

#### Summary

##### *Minority ethnic pupils in primary and secondary schools*

- Ethnic minority pupils comprised 11.8 per cent of primary school pupils and 11.5 per cent of secondary pupils in January 1999.
- There are significant differences between and within Government Office regions in the ethnic group profiles of primary and secondary school students.
- The largest minority ethnic groups in primary and secondary schools in England are Pakistanis and Indians.
- Local Education Authorities (LEAs) with the highest proportion of primary and secondary pupils from minority ethnic groups tend to be mainly London LEAs, but also certain LEAs within the East and West Midlands, Yorkshire and Humberside, the North West and the South East.

##### *Pupils for whom English is an additional language*

- There are particularly high concentrations of primary and secondary pupils for whom English is an additional language in London. The proportion is also relatively high in the West Midlands.

##### *Permanent exclusions*

- Exclusion rates in England are highest for Black pupils, whereas rates for other groups are similar to, or lower than, those for White pupils.

##### *Examination performance*

- The level of achievement in the GCSE examination steadily improved during the 1990s across all ethnic groups. However, there are still wide gaps in attainment between ethnic groups.
- Data for the period 1994 to 1997 shows that Indian students are most likely to achieve 5 or more passes at GCSE grade A\* to C. Black and Pakistani/Bangladeshi students display the lowest levels of achievement. White students perform better than those from minority ethnic groups overall, but fewer achieved 5 or more passes at GCSE grade A\* to C than those from Indian and “Other” ethnic groups.
- Across all ethnic groups, students whose fathers work in managerial and professional jobs are most likely to do well in their GCSE examinations, and those whose fathers are in manual occupations fare worst. Students attending Independent and Grant Maintained schools were also more likely than those attending LEA-controlled schools to achieve good results in their GCSE examinations in 1996/7.
- There were no marked differences in subjects studied at GCSE by ethnic group in 1998.

### 3.1 Introduction

There has been an ongoing debate on educational policies, race equality and educational performance, particularly since the publication of the Swann Report in 1985 (DES, 1985). Troyna (1987, 1993) argued that certain analyses fail to explore the social processes and practices that lead to educational inequalities. Presentation of statistical information on examination performance without contextual qualitative research and analysis thus needs to be treated with caution. This ‘health warning’ is relevant here.

This chapter explores the local and regional concentration of school students from minority ethnic groups and identifies the numbers and distribution of those pupils for whom English is an additional language. Some information on the association between the ethnic mix of schools and their performance is presented.

There is no breakdown of attainment by ethnicity from LEA sources in this section, as LEA data vary greatly in coverage of ethnicity<sup>1</sup>. Instead, information on attainment from the Youth Cohort Study (YCS) is presented. The information presented is usually for 1998 or 1997/98, set in the context of longer-term trends.

## 3.2 Minority ethnic pupils in primary and secondary schools

Over 11 per cent of all school students were from minority ethnic groups in 1999<sup>2</sup>.

### 3.2.1 Primary schools

The greatest concentration of minority ethnic pupils in primary schools is in London, particularly in Inner London (where more than 50 per cent of pupils are from minority ethnic groups). In Outer London, more than 30 per cent of primary pupils are from a minority ethnic group and the proportion in the West Midlands is also above the national average (Appendix 1, Table 1). Non-white primary pupils in England as a whole comprise 11.8 per cent of the total population of pupils. The largest minority ethnic groups are Pakistani and Indian pupils (2.5 per cent and 2.3 per cent, respectively).

There are significant differences between and within Government Office regions in the ethnic group profiles of primary school students. For example:

- In Inner London, Black-African and Black-Caribbean pupils are the largest minority ethnic groups (14.0 per cent and 11.9 per cent respectively). Bangladeshi pupils comprise 9.0 per cent of the primary school population. The “Other” group also represents a significant proportion.
- In Outer London, pupils of Indian origin form the largest non-white group.
- In the West Midlands, Pakistani children comprise just over 5 per cent of pupils.

Certain minority ethnic pupils are concentrated in particular Government Office regions:

- Black-Caribbean pupils are particularly concentrated in Inner London, and also Outer London and the West Midlands.
- Black-African pupils are concentrated in Inner and Outer London.
- The highest proportions of Indian primary school children are in Outer London, the West Midlands, Inner London and the East Midlands.
- Pakistani pupils are concentrated in the West Midlands, Yorkshire and Humberside, the North West and Outer London.
- Bangladeshi children are concentrated in Inner London.

Looking at concentrations according to LEA (Table 3.1), it may be seen that while the highest proportions of primary school students are in Inner London boroughs, there are also relatively high concentrations in some Outer London boroughs, the East and West Midlands, North West and West Yorkshire.

### 3.2.2 Secondary schools

Within secondary schools, the non-white population of pupils in England as a whole is 11.5 per cent (Appendix 1, Table 2). This proportion again is greater in Inner and Outer London and is also slightly higher than the national average in the West Midlands.

The proportion of pupils from different minority ethnic groups varied according to Government Office region:

---

<sup>1</sup> Not all LEAs collect this information.

<sup>2</sup> Figures presented here relate to the maintained school sector only and derive from the DfEE's annual Schools'Census, January 1999.



- The largest groups in Inner London are Bangladeshi and Black pupils (particularly Black-African and Black-Caribbean). Pupils from “Other” ethnic groups also represent a relatively large percentage of the total.
- Outer London has a particularly high proportion of secondary school pupils of Indian origin.
- The largest minority ethnic groups in the West Midlands are the Indian and Pakistani groups.

Some minority ethnic groups are concentrated in certain areas:

- Black-Caribbean and Black-African pupils are concentrated in Inner London, and also Outer London.
- Particularly high proportions of Indian pupils occur in Outer and Inner London, the West and East Midlands.
- Yorkshire and Humberside, the West Midlands, the North West and London have relatively high concentrations of pupils of Pakistani origin.
- Bangladeshi pupils are concentrated in Inner London.

Within regions secondary pupils from minority ethnic groups tend to be concentrated in certain LEAs, particularly in large urban areas. Table 3.1 shows that, although the highest proportions are within Inner and Outer London boroughs, certain towns in the West and East Midlands, and the South East also have relatively high percentages.

**Table 3.1: LEAs with the highest proportion of primary and secondary pupils from minority ethnic groups, January 1999**

Primary schools	Per cent	Secondary schools	Per cent
Tower Hamlets	65.2	Brent	77.0
Brent	58.8	Tower Hamlets	70.8
Lambeth	58.7	Newham	69.6
Newham	58.5	Ealing	64.2
Hackney	56.1	Hackney	63.9
Southwark	49.1	Lambeth	62.7
Ealing	46.3	Southwark	60.0
Wandsworth	41.3	Westminster & City of London	59.9
Waltham Forest	41.2	Wandsworth	56.3
Haringey	40.8	Islington	56.3
Lewisham	38.9	Haringey	55.6
Leicester City	38.8	Harrow	55.3
Hammersmith & Fulham	38.4	Slough	53.1
Slough	37.9	Hounslow	50.2
Camden	37.5	Waltham Forest	50.0
Westminster & City of London	37.0	Leicester City	46.8
Redbridge	36.5	Redbridge	46.6
Harrow	36.4	Lewisham	46.1
Hounslow	36.1	Hammersmith & Fulham	45.1
Luton	33.1	Kensington & Chelsea	43.0
Birmingham	32.5	Birmingham	41.9
Islington	29.6	Camden	40.9
Bradford	28.4	Luton	39.3
Blackburn with Darwen	27.9	Barnet	33.6
Croydon	27.0	Wolverhampton	32.7

Source: DfEE, Annual Schools Census, 1999

Note: the proportion is expressed as a percentage of the number of pupils of compulsory school age and above, including ‘missing’ data.

### 3.3 Pupils in primary and secondary schools for whom English is an additional language (EAL)

While the proportion of pupils with EAL within primary and secondary schools in England as a whole was less than 9 per cent in 1999, particularly high concentrations also occur in London. The proportion is also relatively high in the West Midlands (Table 3.2).

Significant differences are evident by local education authority. While London LEAs are again predominant, certain authority areas in the East and West Midlands, Yorkshire and Humberside, the North West and the South East have more than 20 per cent of their pupils with EAL (Table 3.3).

**Table 3.2: Maintained primary and secondary schools by Government Office region: number and proportion of pupils for whom English is an additional language, January 1999**

	Primary schools		Secondary schools	
	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number
England	8.4	301,800	7.8	244,684
North East	2.0	3,668	1.4	2,562
North West	6.4	27,636	5.6	19,636
Merseyside	1.2	1,363	1.0	943
Yorks & Humberside	6.5	24,234	7.8	26,571
East Midlands	5.5	16,938	5.4	14,922
West Midlands	10.7	43,398	10.7	38,245
Eastern	3.7	14,084	3.5	12,657
Inner London	43.0	75,321	42.6	51,985
Outer London	21.9	70,500	21.6	57,185
South East	3.7	20,841	3.6	17,125
South West	1.1	3,817	1.0	2,853

Source: DfEE, Annual Schools Census, 1999

Note: the proportion is expressed as a percentage of the number of pupils of compulsory school age and above.

### 3.4 Permanent exclusions

The overall rate for permanent exclusions of pupils of compulsory school age in England in 1998/99 was 0.15 per cent. Rates were highest for Black pupils,<sup>3</sup> whereas the rate for other groups was similar to or below that for White pupils.<sup>4</sup>

Regionally, there were some variations in exclusion rates in 1997/98<sup>5</sup>. While the proportion of exclusions for White pupils in primary, secondary and special schools in each region was broadly similar to the national average, that for Black pupils differed substantially in some cases. Proportions of exclusions for Black pupils in Yorkshire and Humberside, London and the South East were somewhat similar to the national average, whereas those for the North West and Merseyside and the West and East Midlands were higher<sup>6</sup>.

<sup>3</sup> The rate for Black-Caribbean pupils was 0.58 per cent, those for Black-African and Black-Other pupils were 0.21 per cent and 0.49 per cent, respectively.

<sup>4</sup> The exclusion rate for White pupils was 0.15 per cent; those for Indian, Pakistani and Bangladeshi groups were 0.04 per cent, 0.10 per cent and 0.07 per cent, respectively. The rate for Chinese pupils was 0.03 per cent. For further details of exclusions, see DfEE Statistical First Release 11/99: *Permanent exclusions from schools in England 1998/99*.

<sup>5</sup> At the time of writing, regional analysis was not available for 1998/9 data. In some regions, the numbers are too low to calculate proportions of exclusions.

<sup>6</sup> Proportions were around 0.7 for the West and East Midlands and 0.9 for the North West and Merseyside.

### 3.5 Association between the ethnic mix of schools and pupil performance

Research has shown that pupils from some ethnic minority backgrounds and some whose first language is not English have had lower levels of attainment than other pupils (DfEE, 1999), (see also section 3.6 for further details on attainment in GCSEs). However, there is a need to set these statistics in context, and to provide explanations for differentials in attainment.

Further analysis of the DfEE's annual Schools' Census and Key Stage and GCSE performance data (DfEE, 1999) has found that eligibility for free school meals (FSM) has the strongest association with indicators of performance level.<sup>7</sup> FSM is a key measure of socio-economic disadvantage. The analysis also shows strong associations between the percentage of pupils with EAL and the proportion of pupils eligible for FSM, with high proportions of one measure corresponding with high proportions of the other. Because schools with

**Table 3.3: LEAs with the highest proportion of primary and secondary school pupils for whom English is an additional language**

Primary schools	Per cent	Secondary schools	Per cent
Tower Hamlets	59.8	Tower Hamlets	56.3
Westminster & City of London	57.4	Newham	54.3
Newham	53.4	Hackney	53.2
Hackney	53.1	Haringey	50.2
Brent	46.1	Westminster & City of London	46.4
Ealing	45.9	Brent	45.2
Haringey	45.1	Kensington & Chelsea	42.9
Camden	45.0	Harrow	41.9
Lambeth	39.6	Ealing	40.9
Kensington & Chelsea	38.2	Hounslow	40.8
Redbridge	37.9	Southwark	39.4
Hounslow	36.6	Slough	39.0
Harrow	36.4	Leicester City	38.9
Leicester City	35.7	Islington	38.2
Slough	35.0	Lambeth	35.8
Southwark	34.8	Redbridge	34.3
Islington	34.7	Wandsworth	32.5
Hammersmith & Fulham	32.7	Waltham Forest	32.4
Lewisham	30.5	Camden	31.3
Waltham Forest	29.5	Hammersmith & Fulham	31.0
Wandsworth	28.3	Bradford	30.3
Birmingham	27.4	Birmingham	28.6
Enfield	27.2	Luton	28.6
Barnet	27.2	Enfield	28.1
Blackburn with Darwen	27.0	Barnet	28.0

Source: DfEE, Annual Schools Census, 1999

Note: the proportion is expressed as a percentage of the number of pupils of compulsory school age and above.

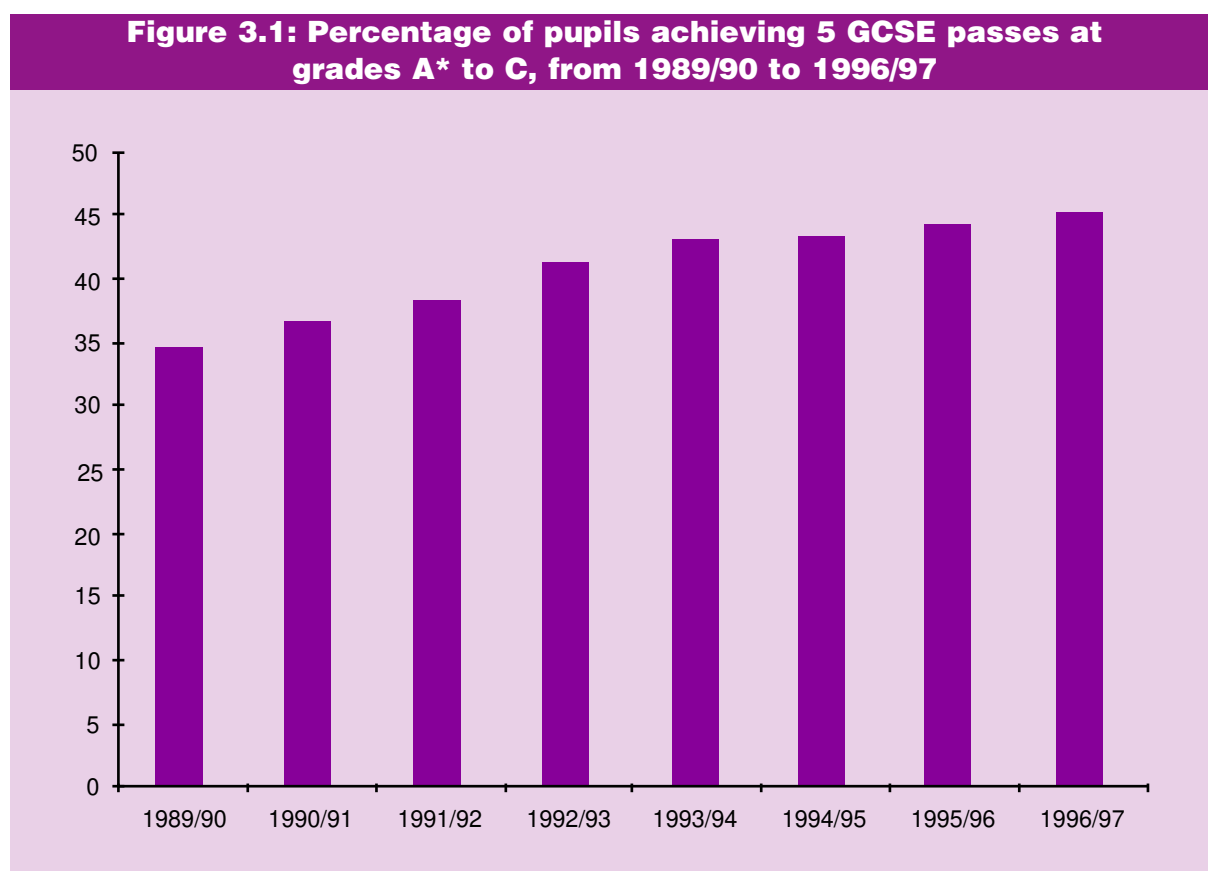
<sup>7</sup> This analysis is not at an individual pupil level and thus should be treated with caution.

high proportions of minority ethnic pupils and those with EAL tend to be located within areas where there is relative social deprivation, performance levels in these areas tend to be lower than average. The analysis shows that at Key Stage 1, on average, the performance of schools with greatest concentrations of pupils with EAL was somewhat below that of other schools where the proportions of pupils eligible for FSM were broadly similar, although at Key Stage 2 the differences were minimal. At GCSE level, schools with higher proportions of pupils with EAL appeared to have higher performances overall than other schools with equivalent levels of FSM. It is possible that EAL is a shorter-term issue for learning, whereas FSM is a more constant indicator of disadvantage, but this issue would need to be explored in greater depth before reaching any firm conclusions.

This analysis demonstrates that assessing performance by ethnicity without taking into account socio-economic background provides a partial picture. A lack of robust information currently available on school performance and the demographic characteristics and socio-economic background of pupils limits effective analysis. However, the DfEE is in the process of developing a common basic dataset that will hold individual pupil data. The aim is that this dataset will aid analysis of performance data related to ethnicity.

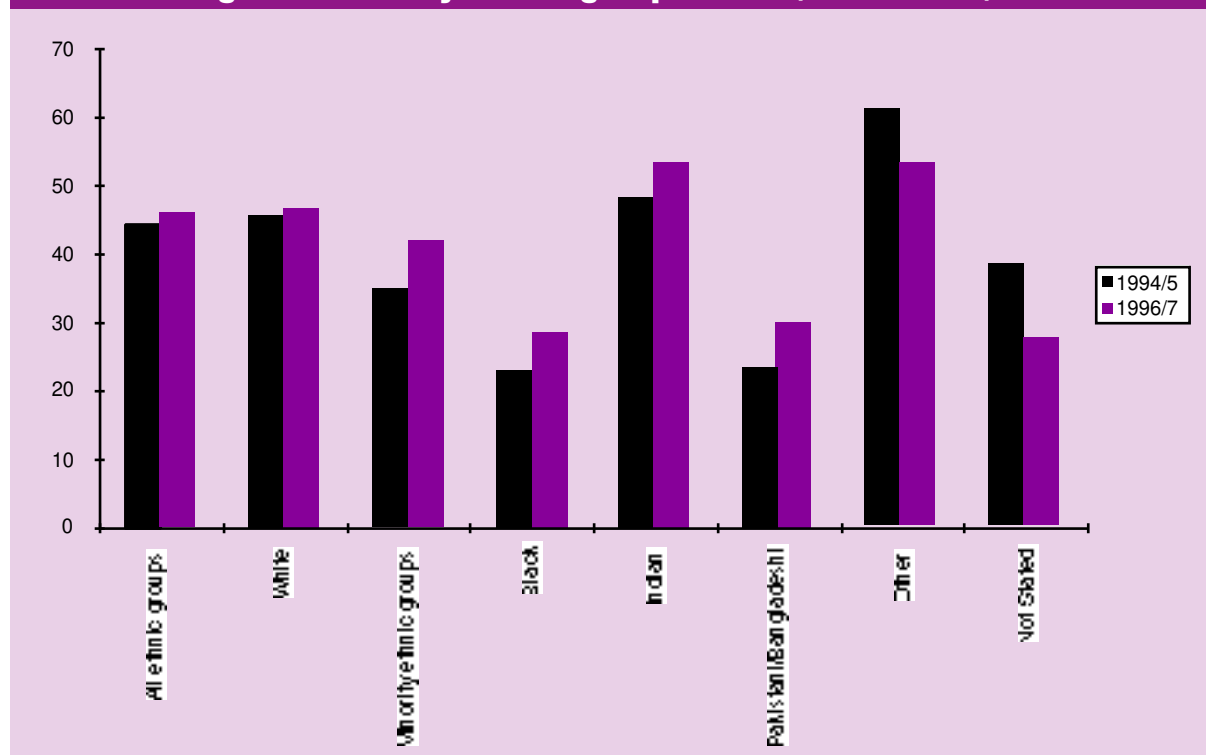
### 3.6 Examination performance at GCSE

In the population as a whole, the percentage of school pupils achieving 5 or more GCSE grades A\* to C has steadily increased during the 1990s (Figure 3.1).



Source: DfEE (1999) Labour Market and Skill Trends, 1998/1999

**Figure 3.2: Percentage achieving 5 or more GCSE passes at grades A\*-C by ethnic group in 1994/5 and 1996/7**



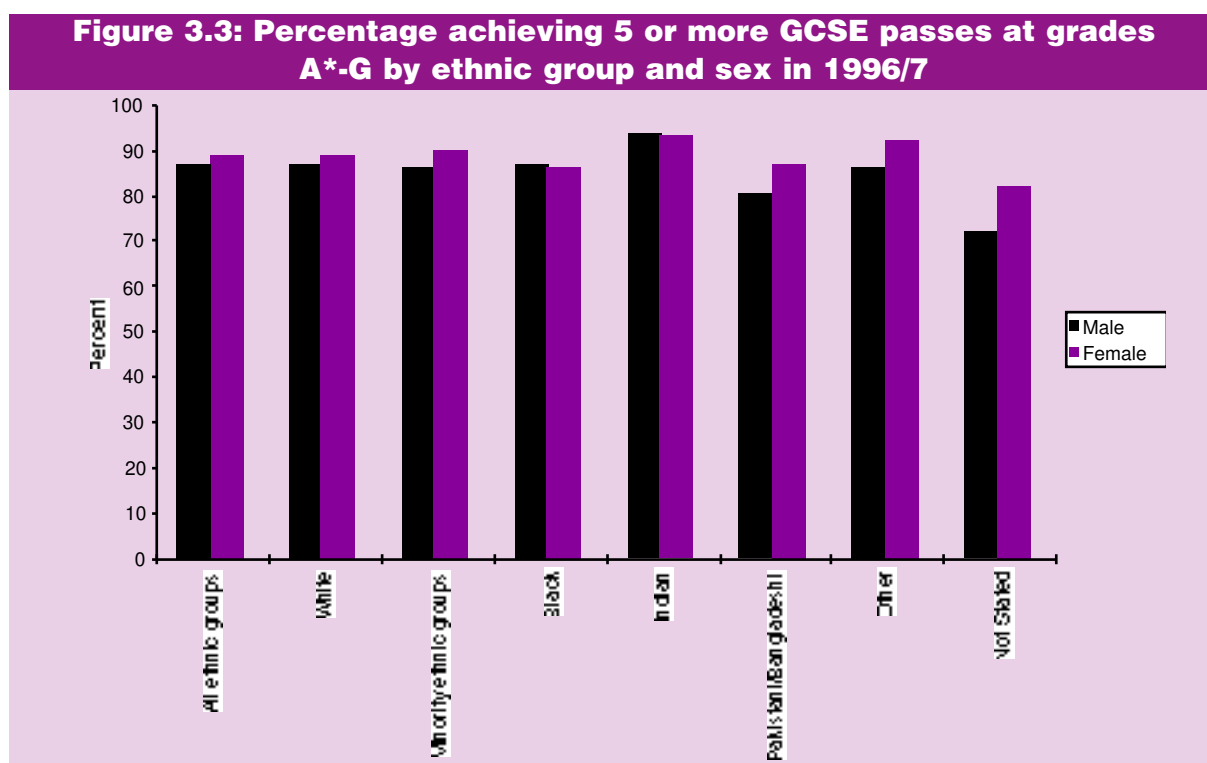
Source: Youth Cohort Study 8, sweep 1 (1996) and Youth Cohort Study 9, sweep 1 (1998)

Within this general trend, the comparison of data from successive Youth Cohort Studies (Figure 3.2) suggests that the GCSE examination performance of all ethnic groups has been improving in recent years.

In general, this improvement has been greater for minority ethnic groups than for white students (though small sample sizes mean that detailed comparisons may be misleading - e.g. for the “Other” ethnic group). Nevertheless, an attainment gap remains, with the performance of minority ethnic groups overall continuing to be depressed by the relatively poor (albeit improved) performance of Black and Pakistani/Bangladeshi groups.

Variations in the GCSE pass rate by ethnic group and gender are shown in Figure 3.3. Overall, 87.7 per cent of all students achieve five or more pass grades at GCSE (grade A\* to G), with a slightly larger percentage of females (89 per cent) than males (86.4 per cent) achieving these grades. The percentage of students from white and minority ethnic groups as a whole achieving 5 passes is almost identical, and more than four-fifths of students from all ethnic groups achieve 5 passes. However, there were variations in achievement between minority ethnic groups. Indian students display the highest rate of success, with well over 90 per cent achieving 5 passes. The lowest rate of success is displayed by Pakistani and Bangladeshi students, with male students from these ethnic groups having a lower pass rate than female students.

Table 3.4 provides more detail on GCSE examination results by ethnic group and gender for 1996/7, distinguishing the number of passes and examination grades achieved. Overall, more than two-fifths of all pupils obtained 5 or more GCSE passes at grade A\* to C. While more than half of females achieved this level of performance, only just over two-fifths of males did so.



Source: Youth Cohort Study 9, sweep 1 (1998)

**Table 3.4: Examination achievements in Year 11 by ethnic group and gender; percentages of all students achieving each level of attainment.**

Examination grade	Total	White	Minority ethnic groups	Black	Indian	Pakistani /B'ladeshi	Other	Not Stated
<b>Males</b>								
5+ GCSEs A*-C	41.7	42.5	37.5	22.7	51.9	28.2	44.4	24.8
1-4 GCSEs A*-C	25.5	25.4	26.2	24.0	23.1	29.9	26.8	28.8
5+ GCSEs D-G	20.5	20.1	24.2	40.3	19.4	23.2	18.2	20.0
1-4 GCSEs D-G	5.7	5.4	6.7	6.5	3.2	12.4	3.5	8.8
None reported	6.6	6.5	5.4	6.5	2.3	6.2	7.1	16.8
<b>All males</b>	<b>7393</b>	<b>6460</b>	<b>934</b>	<b>154</b>	<b>216</b>	<b>241</b>	<b>198</b>	<b>125</b>
<b>Females</b>								
5+ GCSEs A*-C	50.2	50.8	45.3	34.7	54.5	31.6	55.9	29.9
1-4 GCSEs A*-C	26.4	25.3	35.3	41.7	28.6	45.1	28.7	36.4
5+ GCSEs D-G	13.8	14.2	10.1	13.2	10.9	12.4	5.0	16.9
1-4 GCSEs D-G	3.8	3.8	4.0	2.8	3.6	4.7	4.5	6.5
None reported	5.7	5.9	4.0	6.9	2.7	6.2	1.0	9.1
<b>All Females</b>	<b>7269</b>	<b>6432</b>	<b>836</b>	<b>144</b>	<b>220</b>	<b>193</b>	<b>202</b>	<b>77</b>
<b>All Students</b>								
5+ GCSEs A*-C	45.9	46.7	41.9	28.5	53.2	29.7	52.9	27.2
1-4 GCSEs A*-C	26.0	25.3	30.6	32.6	25.9	36.6	27.6	31.7
5+ GCSEs D-G	17.2	17.2	17.4	27.2	15.1	18.4	11.5	18.8
1-4 GCSEs D-G	4.8	4.6	5.3	4.7	3.4	8.8	4.0	7.9
None reported	6.2	6.2	4.8	7.0	2.5	6.2	4.0	14.4
<b>All Persons</b>	<b>14662</b>	<b>12892</b>	<b>1769</b>	<b>298</b>	<b>436</b>	<b>434</b>	<b>399</b>	<b>202</b>

Source: Youth Cohort Study 9, sweep 1 (1998).

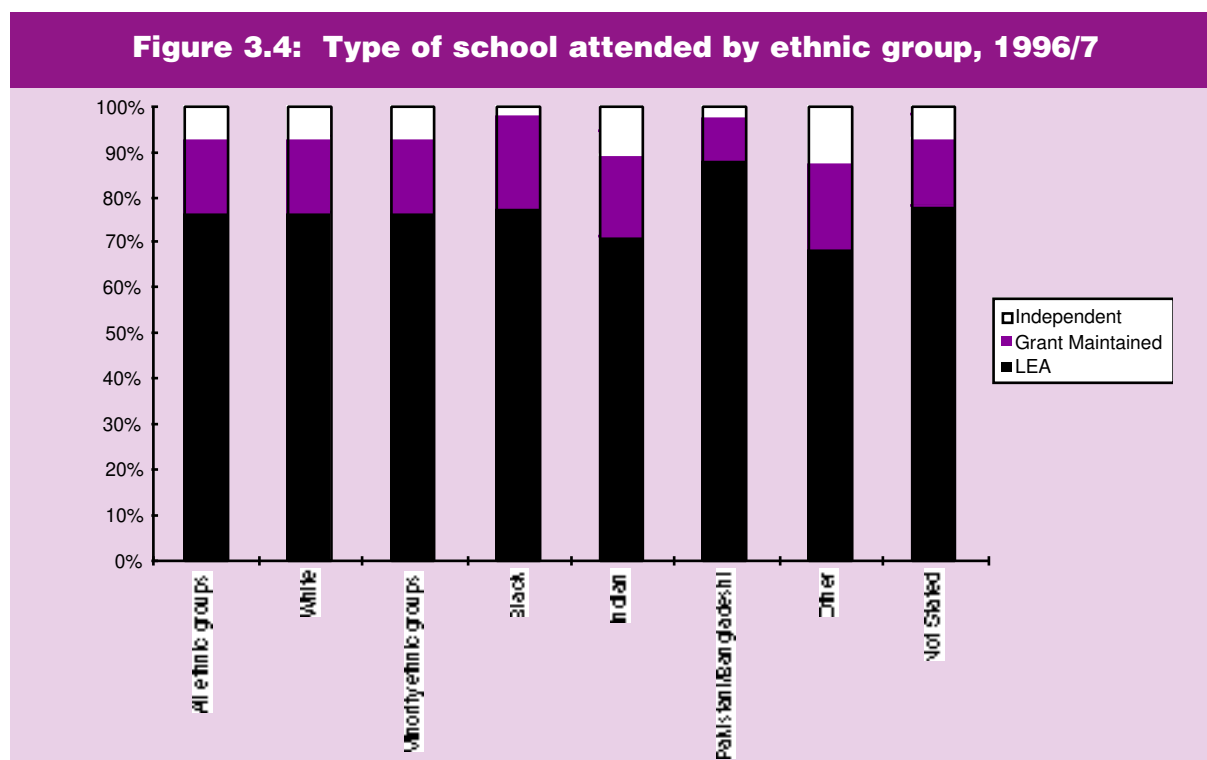
Students from minority ethnic groups taken as a whole are less likely than white students to have achieved the best grades in their GCSE examinations. However, this obscures the much better performance of Indian and “Other” students (which includes the Chinese group), more than half of whom achieve these grades, and the much poorer performance of Black and Pakistani/Bangladeshi people. In all ethnic groups female pupils outperform male pupils. The gap in achievement between the Indian and Black ethnic groups is even greater for males than for females.

There are also notable differences between ethnic groups and by gender in lower levels of achievement in GCSE examinations. The percentage of pupils who did not achieve a pass grade is lowest for the Indian ethnic group and highest for the Black ethnic group. The most common level of achievement for Black males is 5 or more passes at grades D to G while two fifths of Black females achieve 1 to 4 GCSEs at grade A\* to C (compared with an average for males and females from all ethnic groups of just over a quarter). Pakistani and Bangladeshi males are more than twice as likely than males or females from other ethnic groups to only achieve from 1 to 4 passes at grade D to G. The most common level of achievement is 1 to 4 grade A\* to C passes, but the percentage achieving this level is far lower than that for females from the same ethnic group.

### 3.6.1 Type of school attended

Figure 3.4 contrasts the percentages attending Local Education Authority-controlled, Grant Maintained and Independent schools by ethnic group.

The latest Youth Cohort Study (at the time of writing) shows that Pakistani and Bangladeshi students are most likely to be attending LEA-controlled schools while Indian and “Other” (including Chinese) students are more likely than average to be in Grant Maintained or Independent schools. Very small percentages of Black and Pakistani/Bangladeshi students study in the Independent sector, but a higher percentage of Black than of Pakistani/Bangladeshi or Indian students attend Grant Maintained schools.



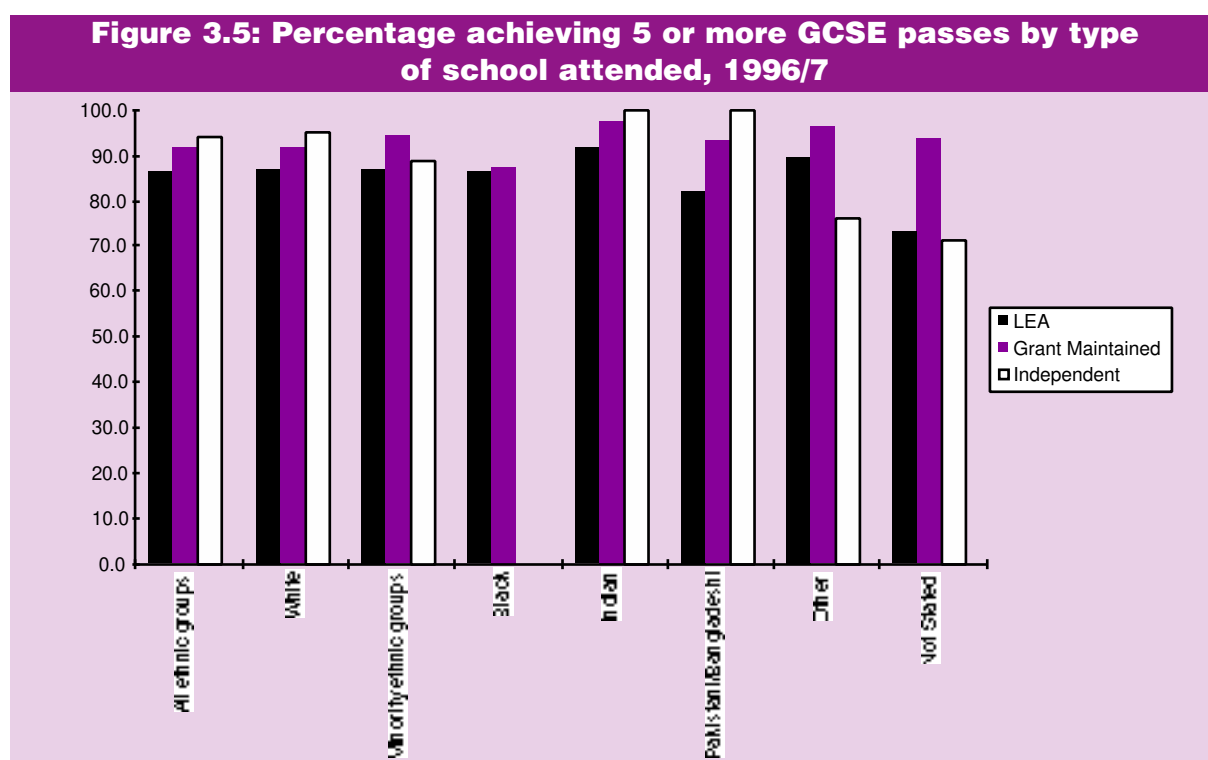
Source: Youth Cohort Study 9, sweep 1 (1998)

An important influence upon performance in GCSE examinations is the type of school attended. The percentage achieving 5 or more GCSE passes is highest for students attending Independent schools and lowest for those attending LEA-controlled schools (Figure 3.5). However, for minority ethnic groups, this percentage is higher among those attending Grant Maintained schools than for those attending Independent schools, mainly due to the poorer performance of students from “Other” ethnic groups in such schools.

Across all ethnic groups, a higher percentage of students at Grant Maintained schools than LEA-controlled schools achieve 5 or more GCSE passes, (although for Black students there is very little difference). Indian and “Other” students have the highest level of achievement in LEA-controlled and Grant Maintained schools. Pakistani and Bangladeshi students perform most poorly in LEA-controlled schools, while the degree of attainment in Grant Maintained schools is lowest for Black students. It should be borne in mind that type of school is only one factor, related to others, influencing achievement.

### 3.6.2 Social class and examination performance

Table 3.5 demonstrates the strong influence of social class upon examination performance, through classifying students by their father’s broad occupational status. Of students stating their ethnic group, two-thirds with a father in a managerial or professional job achieve 5 GCSEs at grades A\*-C, nearly twice as high a percentage as that for students with a father in a manual occupation in the case of white students. However, while a slightly smaller percentage of students from minority ethnic groups than white students with managerial and professional fathers achieve such grades, the pattern is reversed for students whose fathers are manual workers.



Source: Youth Cohort Study 9, sweep 1 (1998)

Note: Due to small sample size, the attainment for Black pupils in independent schools is not shown



**Table 3.5: Father's occupation and examination results in 1996/7: Percentage of all students with each level of attainment by social class background.**

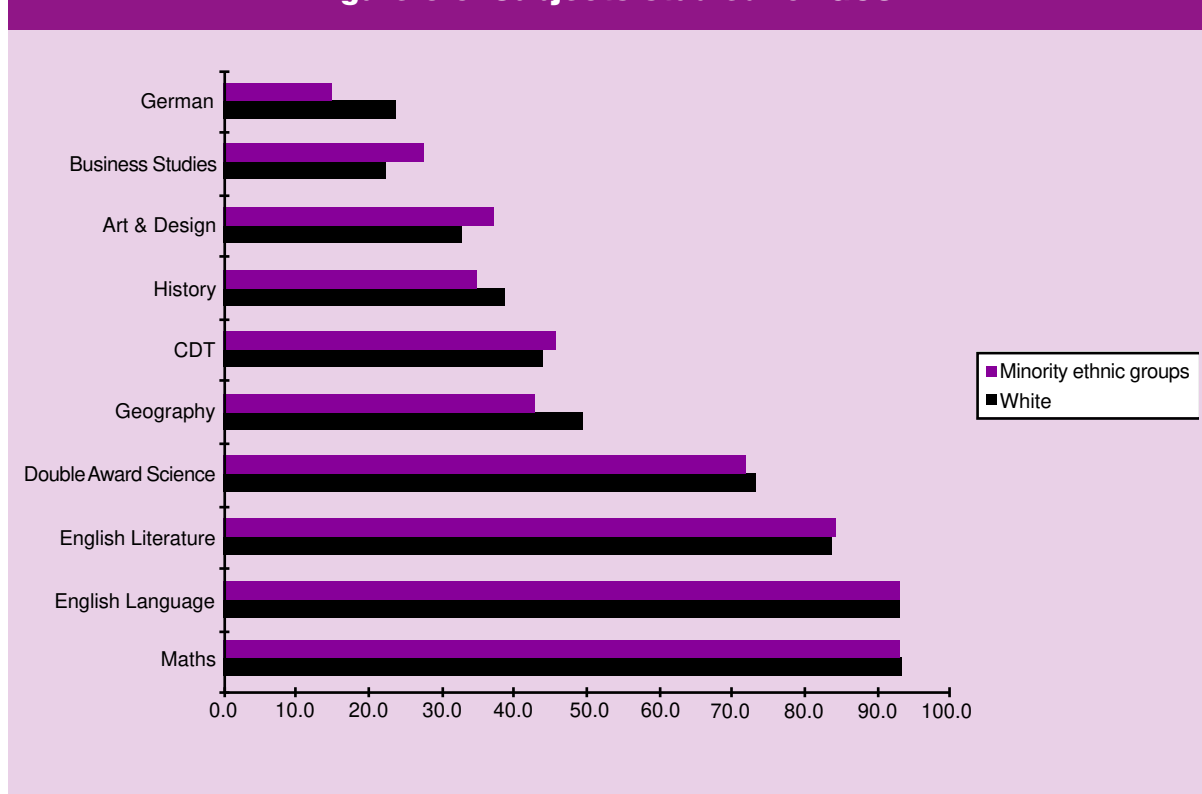
Socio-Economic Group of father and examination results	Total	White	Minority ethnic group	Not Stated
<b>Managerial/Professional</b>	3044	2790	243	12
5+ GCSE passes at grade A* to C	<b>69.1</b>	<b>69.4</b>	<b>66.3</b>	58.3
No GCSE passes at grade A* to G	<b>2.5</b>	<b>2.4</b>	<b>3.7</b>	8.3
<b>Other non-manual</b>	2827	2595	210	22
5+ GCSE passes at grade A* to C	<b>59.5</b>	<b>59.8</b>	<b>57.6</b>	54.5
No GCSE passes at grade A* to G	<b>3.9</b>	<b>4.2</b>	<b>0.5</b>	0.0
<b>Manual</b>	7013	6336	632	44
5+ GCSE passes at grade A* to C	<b>36.0</b>	<b>35.5</b>	<b>41.5</b>	27.3
No GCSE passes at grade A* to G	<b>6.8</b>	<b>7.1</b>	<b>4.3</b>	6.8

Source: Youth Cohort Study 9, sweep 1 (1998)

### 3.6.3 Subjects studied

Figure 3.6 contrasts the most common academic subjects studied by white and minority ethnic group school pupils and in which they took examinations.

**Figure 3.6: Subjects studied for GCSE**



Source: Youth Cohort Study 9, sweep 1 (1998)

The distribution of subjects taken is fairly similar between white and minority ethnic group pupils, with the largest categories being Mathematics and English (Language and Literature), followed by Double Award Science. In the less popular subjects, there is a slightly greater percentage of pupils from minority ethnic groups studying business studies and Art & Design, and a larger percentage of white pupils studying Geography, History and German.

### **3.7 Conclusion**

There are marked regional and local concentrations of pupils from minority ethnic groups. The highest proportions of pupils with English as an Additional Language are found in certain Inner London boroughs, and some of the larger urban areas in the Midlands (such as Birmingham and Leicester).

Analysis of attainment data shows a strong relationship between performance and socio-economic disadvantage (measured using the indicator of eligibility for Free School Meals), as well as between performance and the percentage of pupils with English as an additional language. Pupils from minority ethnic groups tend to be over-represented in areas of socio-economic disadvantage.

At GCSE level there is evidence for improved performance across all ethnic groups in recent years. However, an attainment gap remains, with Black and Pakistani/Bangladeshi students displaying the lowest level of achievements.

### **References**

Department for Education and Science (1985) *Education for all: the report of the Committee of Inquiry into the Education of Children from Ethnic Minority Groups*. London: HMSO.

Department for Education and Employment (1999) *Statistical Bulletin: Ethnic Minority Pupils and Pupils for whom English is an Additional Language: England 1996/7*.

Troyna, B (ed.) (1987) *Racial inequality in education*. London: Routledge.

Troyna, B (1993) *Racism and education*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

## Chapter 4

### Activities of 16-19 year olds following compulsory schooling

#### Summary

##### *Activity following Year 11 in 1998*

- Young people from minority ethnic groups are more likely to remain in full-time education than their white peers.
- White young people are more likely to enter employment than those from ethnic minorities.
- Pakistani/Bangladeshi young people are more likely than those from other ethnic groups to be unemployed.
- Indian young people were most likely to be qualified to NVQ Level 3 or above, and most likely to have A/AS levels as their highest qualification.
- In contrast, less than a fifth of Black and Pakistani/Bangladeshi 18/19 year olds had a qualification at NVQ Level 3 or above. They were also much less likely than Indian 18/19 year olds to have a qualification at NVQ Level 2 or above.
- White 18/19 year olds were more likely than those from minority ethnic groups to have an NVQ as their highest qualification. In contrast, GNVQs were more common than NVQs for 18/19 year olds from minority ethnic groups.
- Among 18/19 year olds, economic activity rates were higher for white people than for people from minority ethnic groups. The economic activity rate for both declined as the level of educational attainment increased.
- Over half of Indian 18/19 year olds still in full-timed education attend a University, double the corresponding percentage for Pakistanis and Bangladeshis.

##### Participation in Further Education during 1997/8 and 1998/9

- A tenth of all students and about 15 per cent of full-time students in the further education sector are from minority ethnic groups.
- Students from white and Black-Caribbean ethnic groups tend to be older on average, while South Asian students have a very youthful age profile.
- South Asian students form a particularly large percentage of full-time students aged 16-18, while students from the Chinese, Black-African and “Other” ethnic groups are particularly prominent among 19-24 year olds.
- White full-time students are most likely to be studying for ‘other advanced’ qualifications, while those from minority ethnic groups are most likely to be studying for GNVQ Level 3 qualifications or A/AS levels.

#### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter is concerned with the progress of young people from compulsory attendance at school through further education and training into participation in the labour market. Over the last ten years this transition process has become more protracted. The most notable trend has been the increase in the number of young people staying on in full-time education after Year 11 (i.e. beyond compulsory education), but the range of options available to young people at age 16 has also increased.

The chapter draws heavily upon data from the Youth Cohort Study (YCS). The YCS analyses are based on the most up-to-date data sets available at the time of writing, which were:

- YCS 9 sweep 1 for people aged 16 or 17 years old in February-May 1998 (for whom Year 11 was 1996/7), and
- YCS 8 sweep 2, which returned in 1998 to 18 or 19 year olds who had first been surveyed in 1996 at the ages of 16 or 17 years, having reached compulsory school leaving age in 1994/5.

The analysis of longer-term trends draws upon data from YCS 3 sweeps 1-4, which surveyed young people born in 1969/70 over the period 1987-9, and revisited them in 1994. It should be noted that there are some problems of sampling with lower achievers and ethnic minority groups through YCS and this has implications for the reliability of YCS-based estimates (for further discussion see Chapter 9). Unfortunately, sample sizes from the YCS are often too small to yield information for individual ethnic groups, and therefore some of the tables presented here simply contrast the experience of white people with that of minority ethnic groups as a whole or broad aggregates of minority ethnic groups; hence disguising important differences between minority ethnic groups.

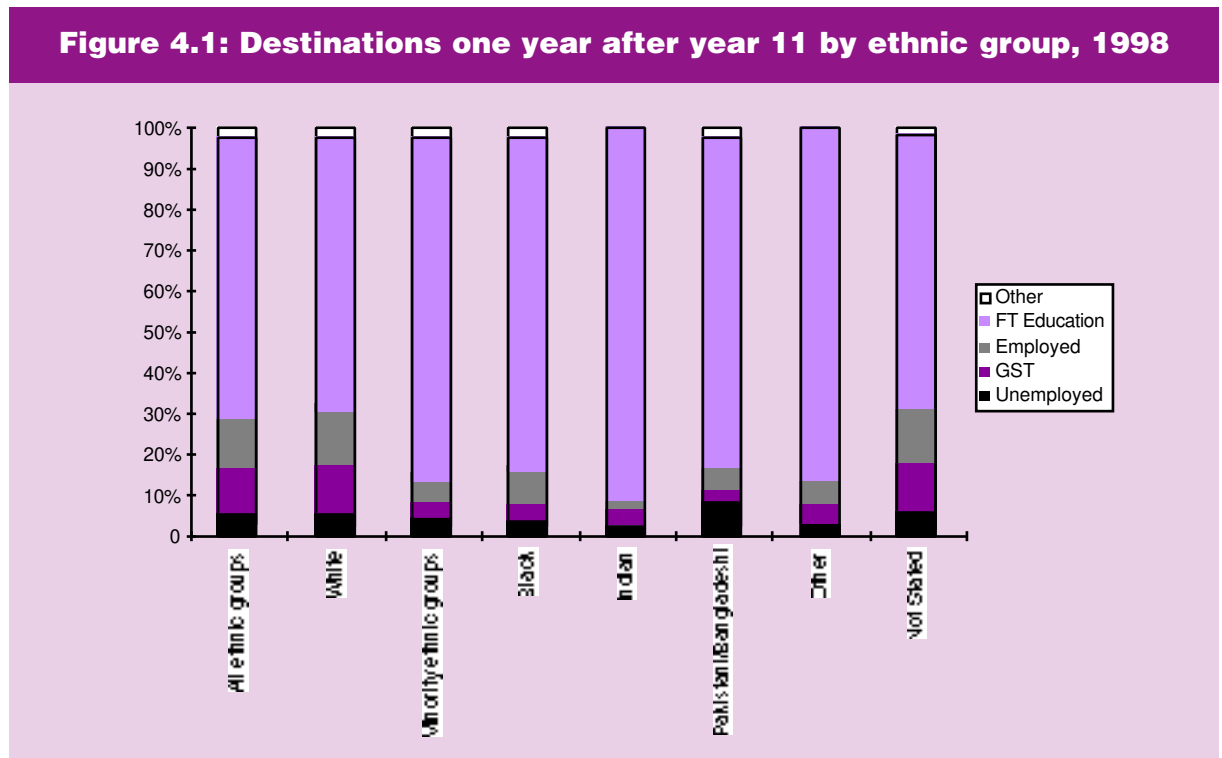
Reference is also made to the Careers Activity Survey (CAS). This source provides an alternative perspective to YCS on destinations of young people at the end of compulsory education. The CAS is undertaken by individual Careers Companies, rather than on a centralised basis, and coverage varies by type of school covered, in terms of the quality of ethnic group information collected and geographically. In particular, the survey suffers from a high degree of non-response in London (where a large percentage of all students from minority ethnic groups live).

Finally, this chapter draws on information on participants in further education using data from the Further Education Funding Council's (FEFC's) Individual Student Records.

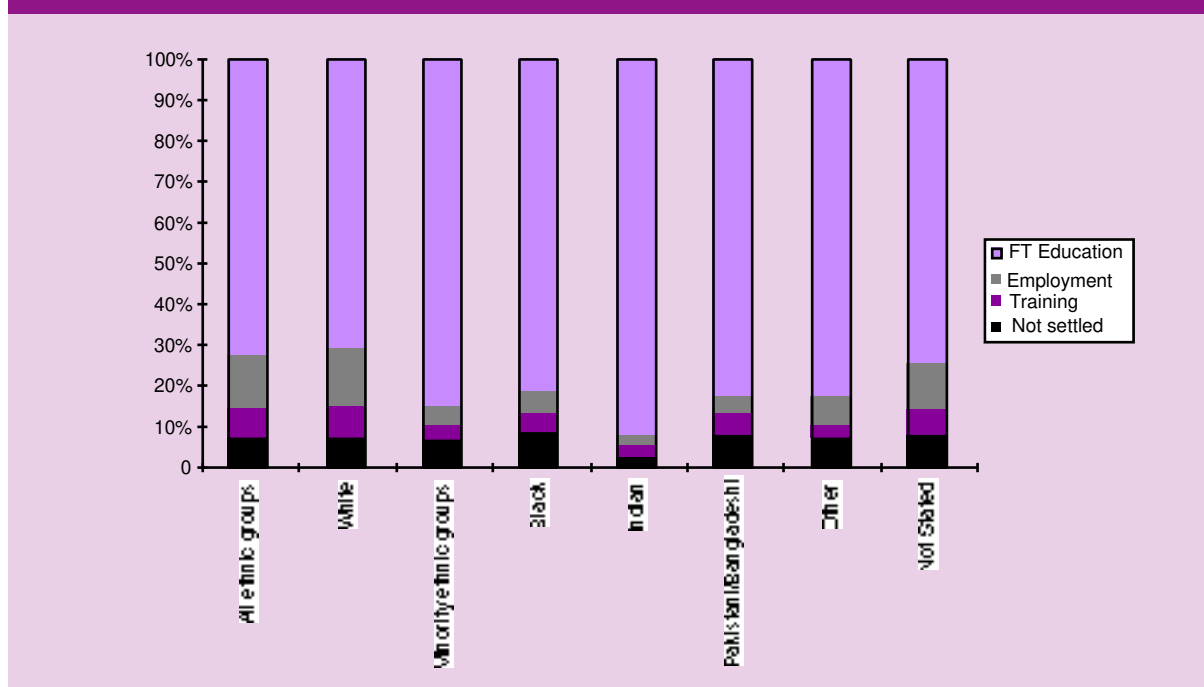
## 4.2 Activity after compulsory school attendance – perspectives from the Youth Cohort Study and the Careers Activity Survey

### 4.2.1 An overview of destinations

Figure 4.1 summarises activity by ethnic group in 1998 for those who reached compulsory school leaving age during the year 1996/7 using data from the Youth Cohort Study. Figure 4.2 provides some similar information from the 1998 Careers Activity Survey, although it should be noted that neither the timing nor the categories in each of the sources are exactly the same. Nevertheless, it is possible to make broad



**Figure 4.2: Destinations of year 11 completers by ethnic group, 1998**



Source: Careers Activity Survey, 1998

comparisons between data from the two sources to derive a general picture of variations by ethnic group in Year 11 destinations.<sup>1</sup>

It is evident that a similar picture is revealed by both sources:

- The majority of young people were in full time education.
- Whereas over four-fifths of all young people from minority ethnic groups were still in full-time education (at school, sixth-form college or in further education college), only just over two-thirds of white young people remained in the education system.
- The percentage staying on in education was highest for the Indian ethnic group.
- White people were most likely to be on training schemes, while Indian people were much less likely than those from other minority ethnic groups to be participating in such schemes.
- The percentage in work was highest for white people.
- The proportion unemployed (in the YCS) was much higher for Pakistani and Bangladeshi young people than for their peers from other ethnic groups. However, the proportion of Pakistani and Bangladeshi young people recorded as 'not settled' in the CAS was no higher than for the Black or "Other" ethnic groups.

#### 4.2.2 A more detailed picture of destinations from the Careers Activity Survey

Table 4.1 provides a more detailed picture<sup>2</sup> of the activity status of young people using all of the information contained in the CAS data set. The CAS has the advantage over the YCS of larger sample sizes, therefore making it possible to provide a more detailed picture of the experience of individual ethnic groups.

<sup>1</sup> The four main destinations identified in the YCS are full-time education, employment, government-supported training (training schemes) and unemployment. Analogous categories in the CAS are full time-time education, training, employemnt and not settled; (two further categories idemntified in the CAS - moved out of contact of the Careers Service and no response to follow-up - are not considered in Figure 4.2)

<sup>2</sup> Using a fuller disaggregation of ethnic groups than is shown in Figure 4.2 and incorporating those who moved out of contact with Careers Service and non-respondents.

**Table 4.1: Activity status of Year 11 completers by ethnic group in 1998**

	White	Black-African	Black-Carib'n	Black other	Indian	Pakist'i	B'ladeshi	Chinese	Other	Not specified	TOTAL
Full time education	67.8	79.2	71.5	70.7	89.1	77.2	75.4	89.8	74.2	64.8	68.5
Training	6.2	2.2	5.4	4.6	2.1	5.0	6.1	0.9	3.1	5.1	5.8
Employment	13.4	2.5	4.7	5.2	2.1	3.0	3.2	1.2	6.5	10.3	12.0
Not settled	7.4	5.3	8.6	9.1	2.9	7.2	6.6	1.5	7.4	7.3	7.2
Moved out of contact	1.8	3.2	3.0	3.2	1.2	2.5	2.3	3.8	3.0	4.6	2.3
No response to follow-up	3.4	7.7	6.7	7.2	2.5	5	6.6	2.8	5.7	7.8	4.2
Number of young people	415,954	3,640	5,687	3,470	13,091	12,160	4,074	1,956	13,024	82,213	555,269

Source: Careers Activity Survey, 1998

Note: Most of these young people will be aged 16/17 years.

Using the full disaggregations of activities shown in Table 4.1, the proportions in full time education ranged from 67.8 per cent for the White group, 70.7 per cent for the Black-Other group and 71.5 per cent for the Black-Caribbean group, to over 89 for those of Chinese and of Indian ethnic origin. A smaller proportion (64.8 per cent) of those for whom no ethnic group information was provided was in full-time education than was the case for total respondents. If some or all minority ethnic groups are over-represented in this unknown group it is possible that the gap between White young people and those from minority ethnic groups is smaller than suggested by Table 4.1.

The next largest proportion (12.0 per cent) of young people was in employment. White young people were significantly more likely to be in employment (13.4 per cent) than those from any of the minority ethnic groups. Amongst the minority ethnic groups those most likely to be in employment were from those in the "Other" (6.5 per cent), Black-Other (5.2 per cent) and Black-Caribbean (4.7 per cent) groups. Only 1.2 per cent of those from the Chinese group and 2.1 per cent from the Indian group were in employment. Slightly fewer of those for whom no ethnic group information was provided (10.3 per cent) were in employment than across the total number of young people included in the Survey (12.0 per cent).

Young people from minority ethnic groups were less likely to be in training than those from the white group (6.2 per cent). Of those from minority ethnic groups those in the Bangladeshi (6.1 per cent), Black-Caribbean (5.4 per cent) and Pakistani (5.0 per cent) were most likely to be in training. The proportions of young people in training were lowest for the Chinese (0.9 per cent), Indian (2.1 per cent) and Black-African (2.2 per cent) groups.

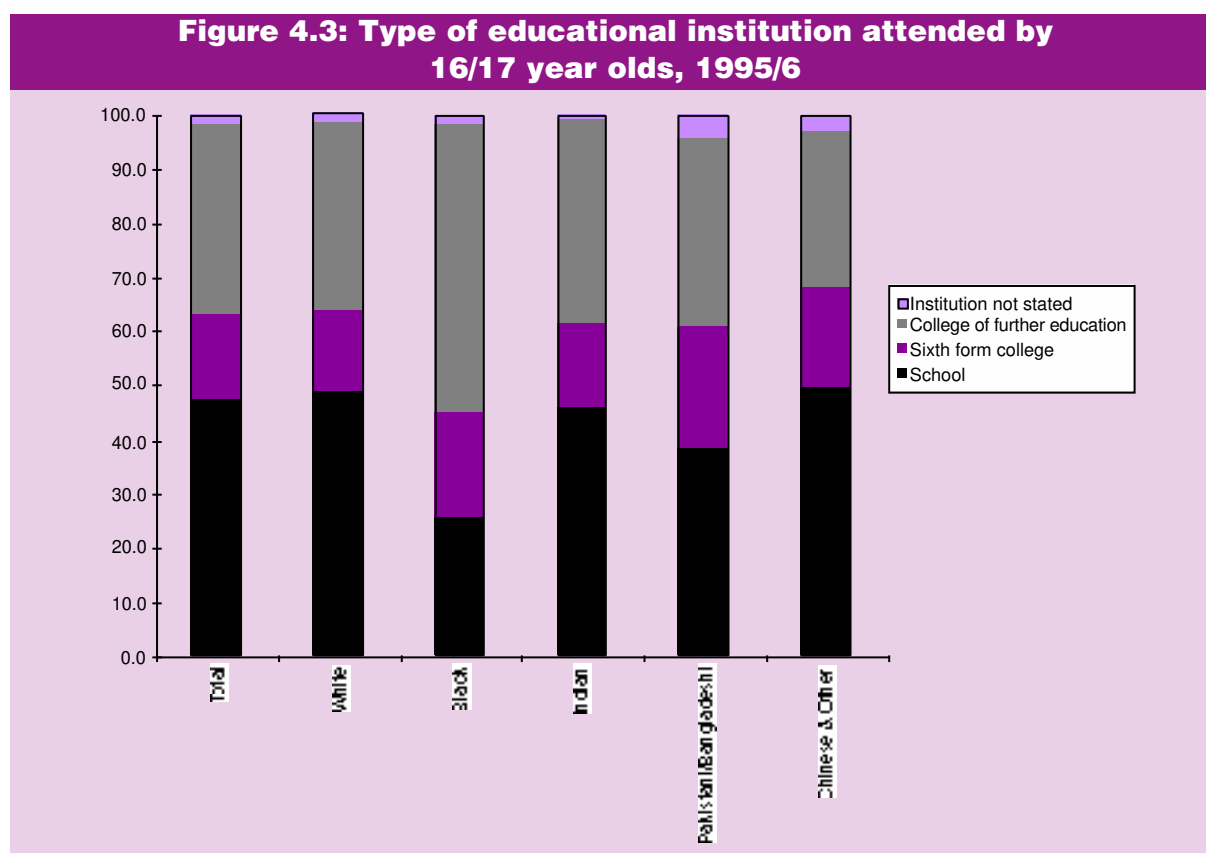
7.2 per cent of young people were recorded as not in a settled activity (i.e. not in education, training or employment) at the time of the survey. Those from the Black groups were most likely to be in the not settled category. At the level of individual ethnic groups the proportion of young people not in a settled activity was 9.1 per cent for the Black-Other group and 8.6 per cent for the Black-Caribbean group. Those from the Chinese (1.5 per cent) and Indian (2.9 per cent) groups were significantly less likely to be not in a settled activity than those from other ethnic groups.

Information on destination was unavailable for 2.3 per cent of young people who had moved out of contact of the Careers Service and 4.2 per cent for whom there was no response to follow-up efforts to gain information. The proportions in these categories are even higher for all minority ethnic groups – with the exception of the Indian and Chinese groups. A lack of information is most prevalent amongst the Black groups, and amongst those young people whom no ethnic group is recorded.

#### 4.2.3 Staying on in education – a more detailed picture from the Youth Cohort Study

A more detailed breakdown of the type of educational institution in which those choosing to stay on studied, is presented for 16/17 year olds in 1995/6 (Figure 4.3) and two years on for the same students aged 18/19 years in 1997/8 (Figure 4.4).

In the year after compulsory school leaving age, nearly half of all those still in full-time education in most ethnic groups were studying at school with a further sixth attending Sixth-Form College. Another third attended a Further Education college. The most notable exception to this pattern was for people from the Black ethnic group, only a quarter of whom stayed at school and more than half of whom chose to study at a college of Further Education. To some extent, this may reflect the differential geographical distribution of schools with sixth forms.



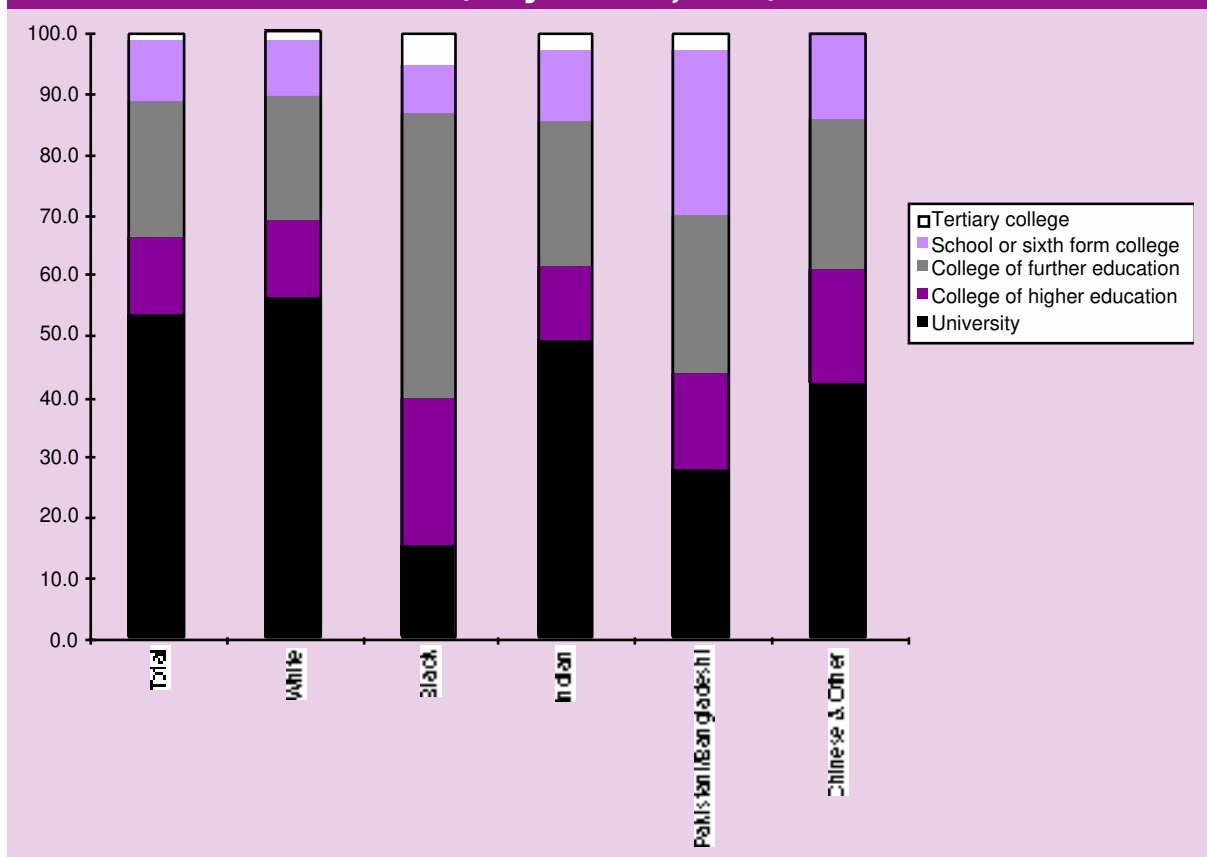
Source: Youth Cohort Study 8, sweep 1.

Two years later (Figure 4.4), more than half of white and Indian young people still in full-time education were attending University. Just over a quarter of Pakistani and Bangladeshi students, two-fifths of Chinese and “Other” students, and only about a sixth of Black students were at University. More than half of Black students were attending Further Education colleges, twice as high a percentage as for other ethnic groups. Black students were also more likely than those from other ethnic groups to be studying in Higher Education colleges. Pakistani and Bangladeshi students were more likely than those from other ethnic groups to be still attending school or sixth form college (representing around a quarter of those in full-time education).

#### 4.2.4 GCSE performance and subsequent activity

The influence of GCSE examination performance upon the experience of young people in the year following the end of compulsory education is summarised in Table 4.2.

**Figure 4.4: Type of educational institution attended by 18/19 year olds, 1997/8**



Source: Youth Cohort Study 8, sweep 2.

**Table 4.2: Activity one year after year 11 by level of attainment at GCSE results and ethnic group, 1998**

Ethnic group	Examination achievement at year 11	Full-time education	Government Scheme/ Training	In Work	Out of work	Other
All ethnic groups	5+ GCSEs A*-C	90.8	3.8	4.0	0.8	0.6
	1-4 GCSEs A*-C	61.8	14.9	16.3	5.4	1.7
	No GCSEs A*-C	40.9	19.4	22.7	12.7	4.3
	<b>All</b>	<b>69.3</b>	<b>11.0</b>	<b>12.4</b>	<b>5.3</b>	<b>1.9</b>
White	5+ GCSEs A*-C	90.2	4.1	4.3	0.7	0.7
	1-4 GCSEs A*-C	58.3	16.6	18.1	5.5	1.5
	No GCSEs A*-C	37.0	21.0	24.4	13.3	4.2
	<b>All</b>	<b>67.3</b>	<b>12.0</b>	<b>13.4</b>	<b>5.4</b>	<b>1.9</b>
Minority ethnic groups	5+ GCSEs A*-C	95.5	3.1		1.2	
	1-4 GCSEs A*-C	83.7	8.9		7.4	
	No GCSEs A*-C	70.8	16.6		12.9	
	<b>All</b>	<b>85.1</b>	<b>8.6</b>		<b>6.3</b>	

Source: Youth Cohort Study 9, sweep 1 (1998)



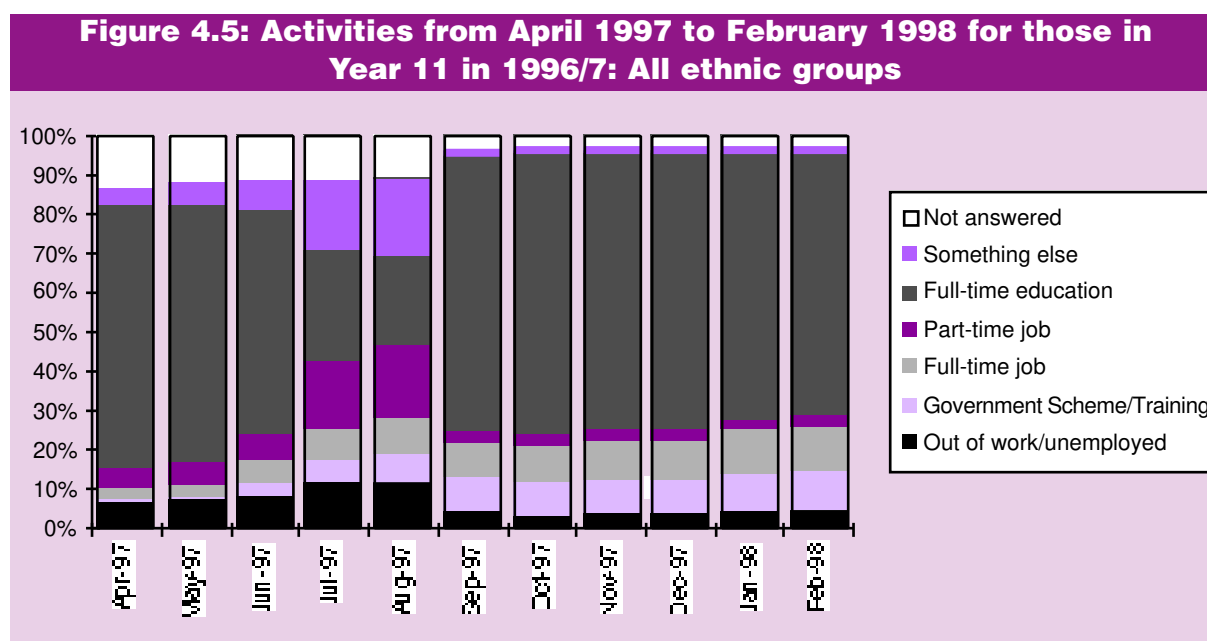
The latest Youth Cohort Study (at the time of writing) suggests that nearly all those young people who perform best in their GCSE examinations remain in full-time education, though the share of people from minority ethnic groups doing so is slightly higher than for white people. The percentage staying on in full-time education declines as the level of examination achievement falls.

Among those with the poorest GCSE examination performance, the percentage who remained in full-time education was twice as high for young people from minority ethnic groups than for their white counterparts. Just under half of white young people with such qualifications were on a training scheme or in work, compared with a sixth of young people from minority ethnic groups. However, the percentages out of work or “doing something else” were quite similar for people from the white and minority ethnic groups.

#### 4.2.5 Activities after age 16 on a month by month basis

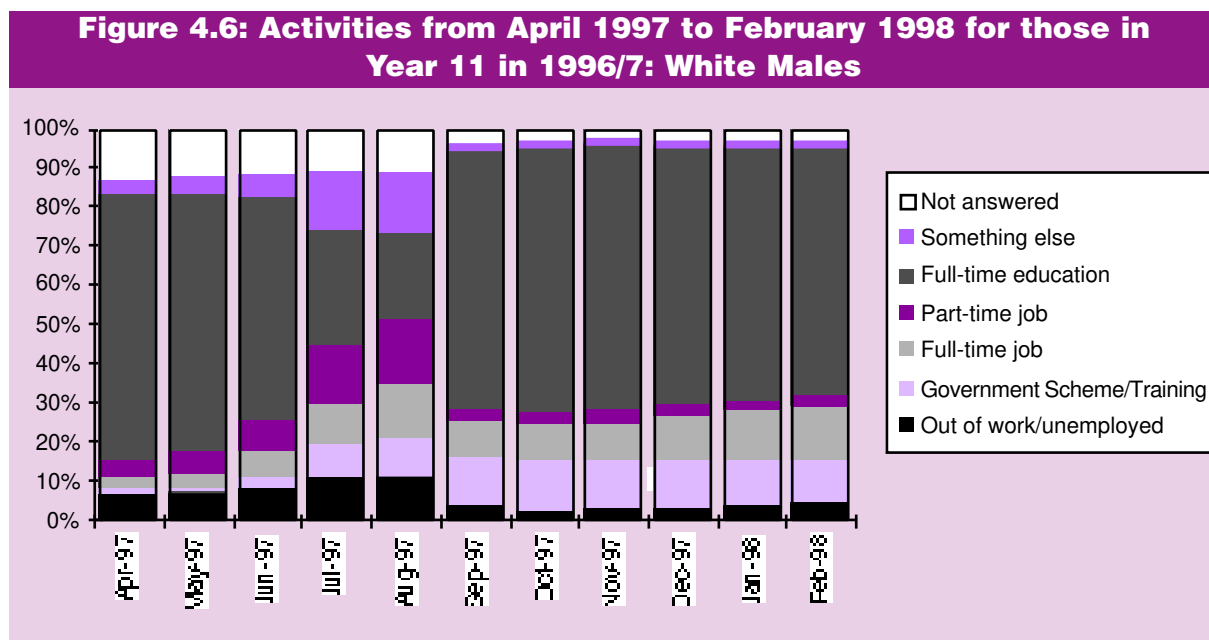
Data from the YCS can be used to provide a longitudinal perspective (albeit over only a short period) since activities are recorded on a monthly basis. Figures 4.5 to 4.13 trace the activities of young people from white and minority ethnic groups who were in Year 11 in 1996/7 over an eleven month period (from April 1997 to February 1998).

*All ethnic groups:* By April 1997, about one twelfth had left school and were unemployed, and this percentage rose through the summer months. The percentage in full-time education declined at the same time, and the percentages in work and “doing something else” also increased. In the autumn of 1997, over two-thirds of young people returned to full-time education from summer jobs, or economic inactivity, this remaining fairly constant from August 1997 to February 1998. The percentage in full time employment stayed at almost the level it had reached during the summer until the following spring, but the percentage in part-time jobs fell dramatically with the start of the 1997/8 academic year, as did the percentage unemployed. The percentage engaged on Government Training Schemes built up gradually through spring and summer 1997, remaining at the same level until the spring of 1998 (Figure 4.5).

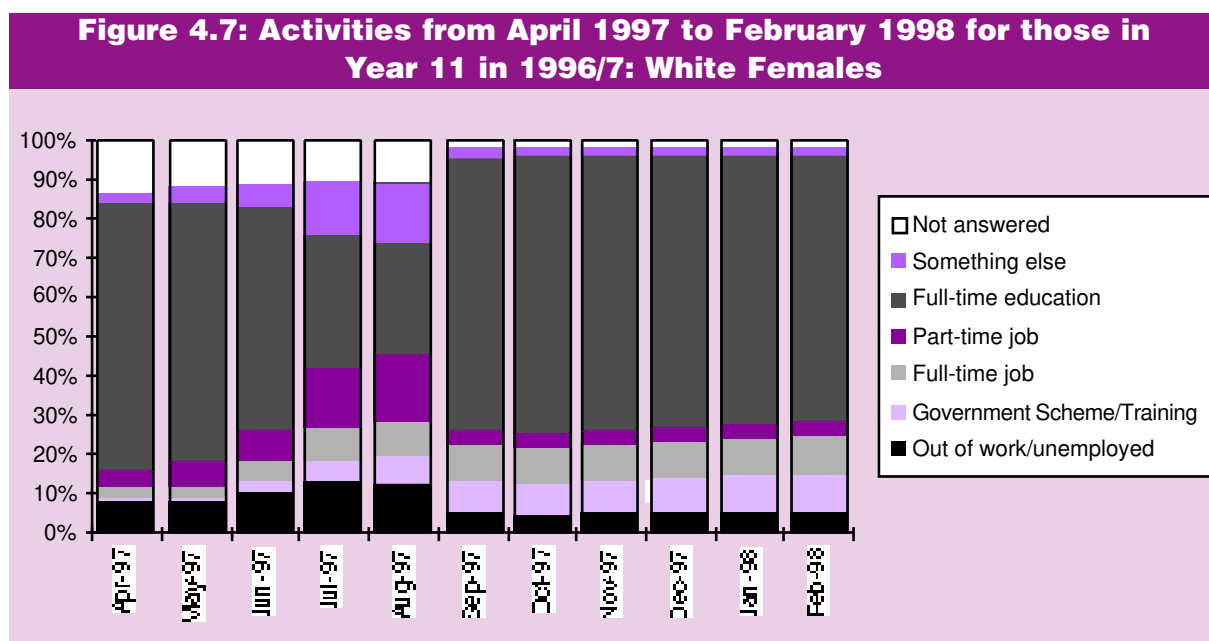


Source: Youth Cohort Study 9, sweep 1 (1998)

*White group:* This pattern was very similar for white people, but a higher percentage of males joined training schemes and white females were more likely to stay in full-time education (Figure 4.6 and 4.7).



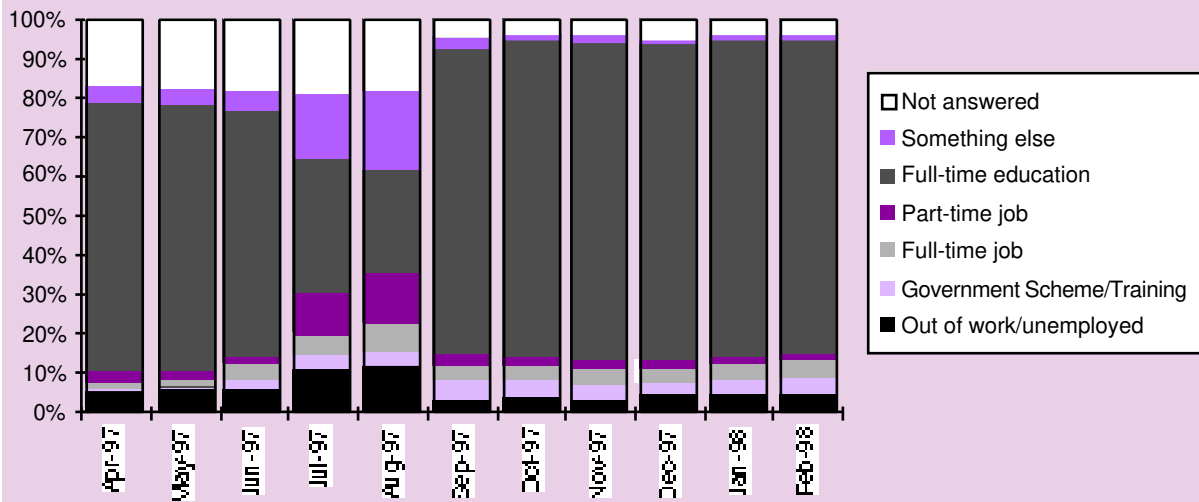
Source: Youth Cohort Study 9, sweep 1 (1998)



Source: Youth Cohort Study 9, sweep 1 (1998)

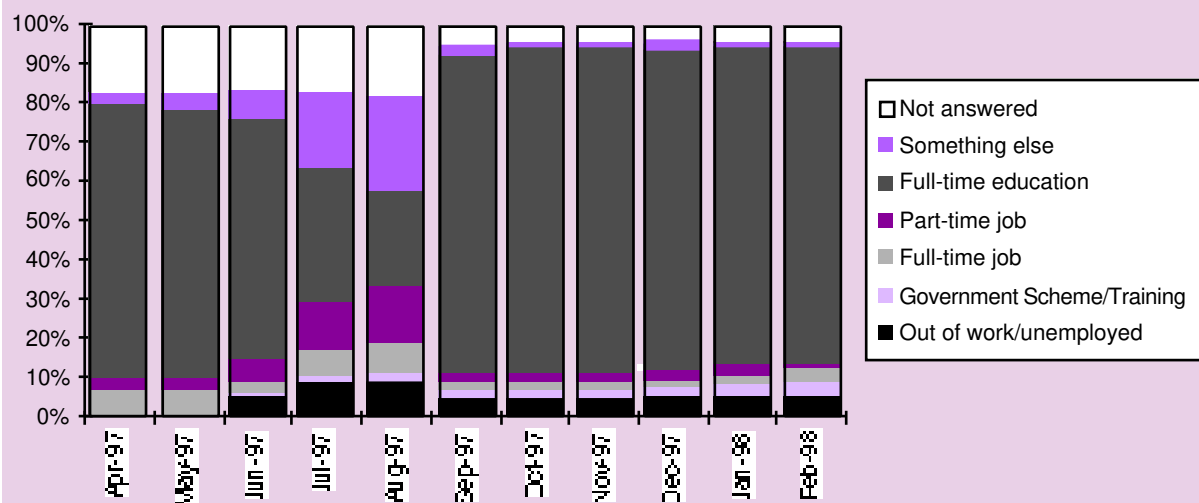
Minority ethnic groups: The same broad trends were experienced by minority ethnic groups, but a higher percentage (about two-thirds) of both men and women were in full-time education from autumn 1997 to spring 1998 (Figures 4.8 and 4.9). The percentages of both males and females from minority ethnic groups on training schemes and unemployed were lower than the corresponding percentages for white people.

**Figure 4.8: Activities from April 1997 to February 1998 for those in Year 11 in 1996/7: Minority Ethnic Group Males**



Source: Youth Cohort Study 9, sweep 1 (1998)

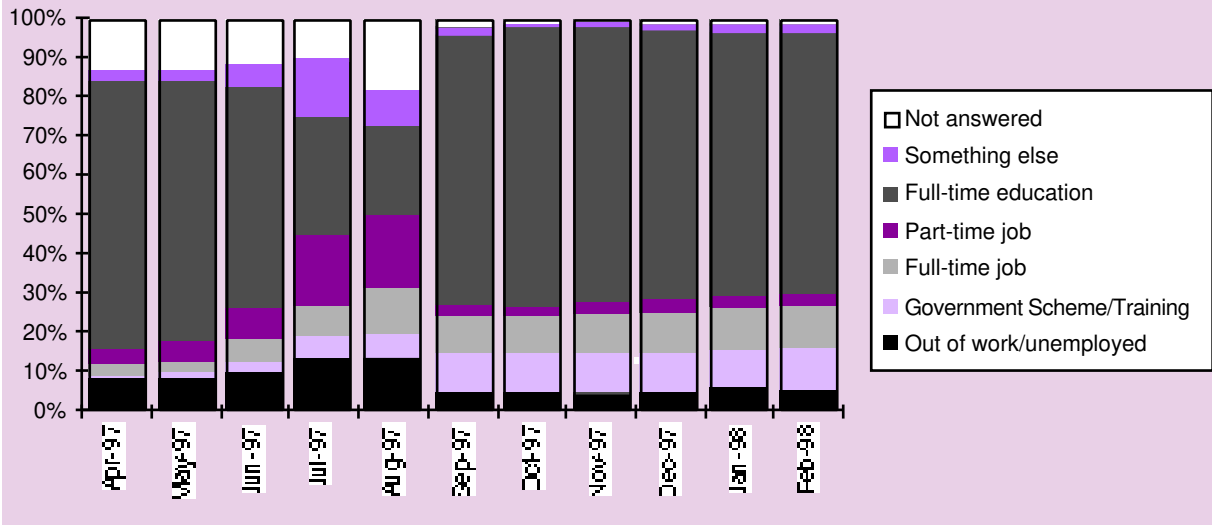
**Figure 4.9: Activities from April 1997 to February 1998 for those in Year 11 in 1996/7: Minority Ethnic Group Females**



Source: Youth Cohort Study 9, sweep 1 (1998)

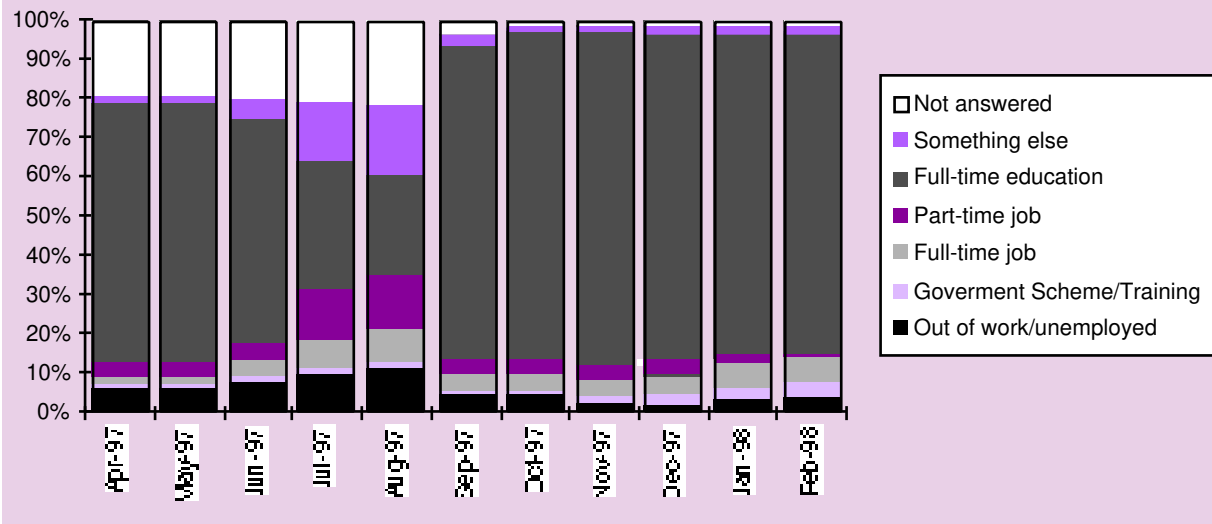
*Broad ethnic groups:* In examining trends for individual ethnic groups (Figures 4.10 to 4.13) the key feature is the much higher percentage of people in each minority ethnic group than white people in full-time education. From September 1997 onwards, around 80 to 90 per cent of people from minority ethnic groups were in full-time education. The percentage of Black people unemployed was slightly lower than the percentage of white young people unemployed, though the percentage of South Asian people (i.e. Indian, Pakistani and Bangladeshi people) unemployed was slightly higher. About a tenth of white people were in work, about twice as high as the corresponding percentage for Black young people, while the percentage of young people from South Asian and Other ethnic groups who were in work was much smaller.

**Figure 4.10: Activities from April 1997 to February 1998 for those in Year 11 in 1996/7: All white people**



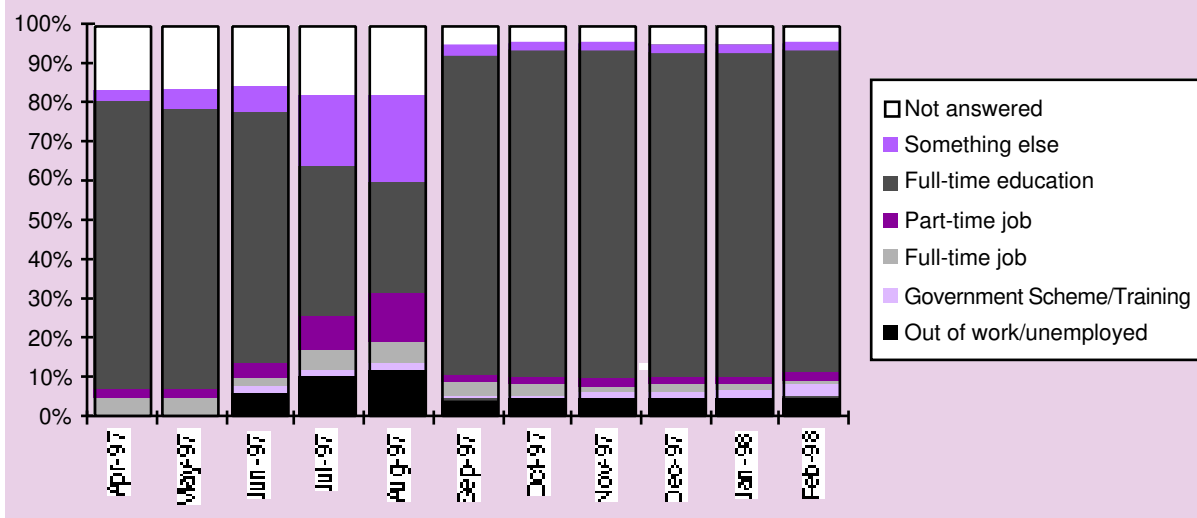
Source: Youth Cohort Study 9, sweep 1 (1998)

**Figure 4.11: Activities from April 1997 to February 1998 for those in Year 11 in 1996/7: All Black people**



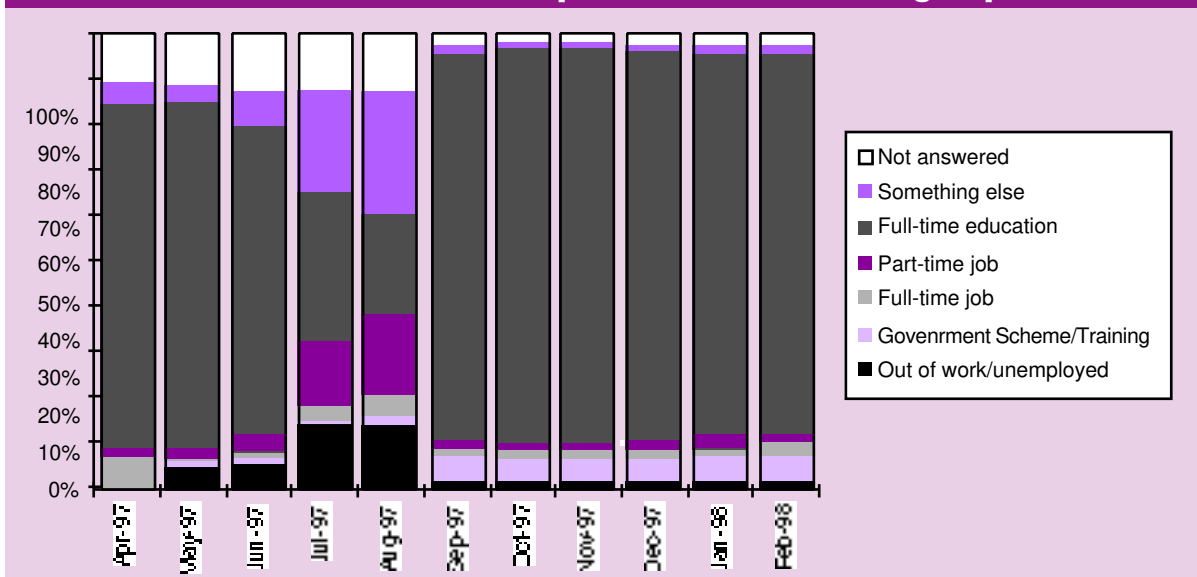
Source: Youth Cohort Study 9, sweep 1 (1998)

**Figure 4.12: Activities from April 1997 to February 1998 for those in Year 11 in 1996/7: South Asian people**



Source: Youth Cohort Study 9, sweep 1 (1998)

**Figure 4.13: Activities from April 1997 to February 1998 for those in Year 11 in 1996/7: People from Other ethnic groups**



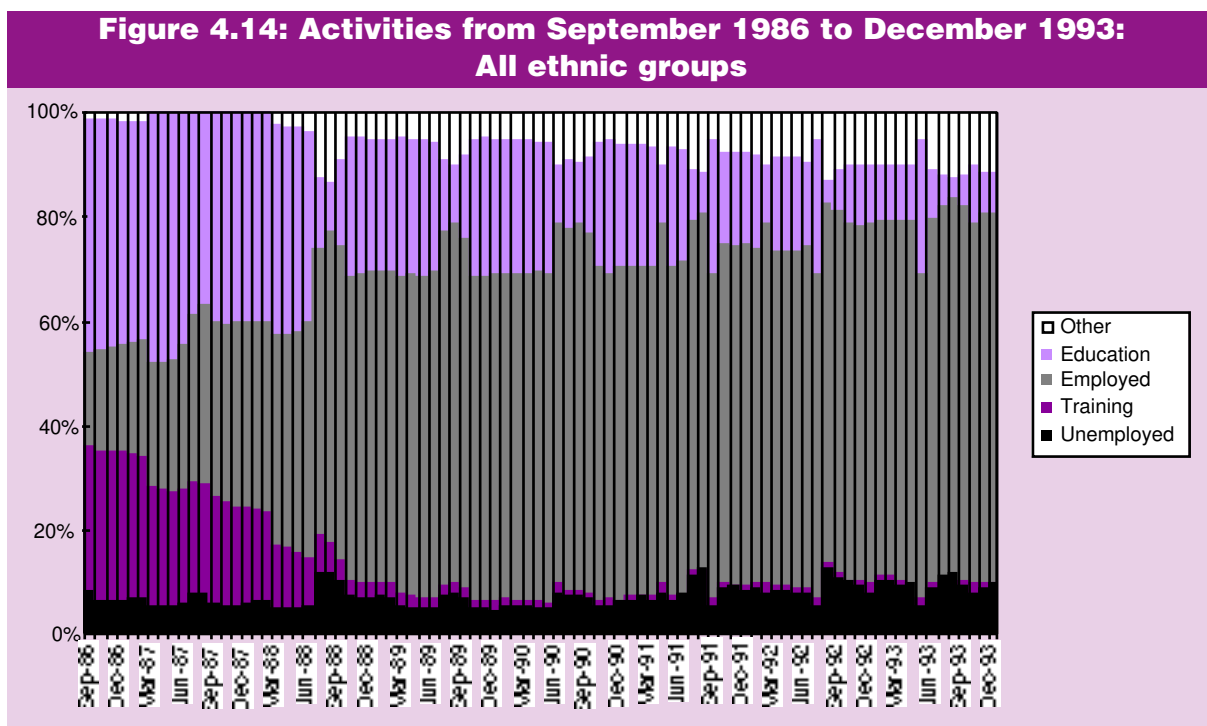
Source: Youth Cohort Study 9, sweep 1 (1998)

### 4.3 The longer-term perspective

Data from Youth Cohort Study 3, sweeps 1 to 4, provides a longer-term perspective on the labour market activities of young people by ethnic group, providing a monthly history of economic activity covering the period from September 1986 to December 1993.

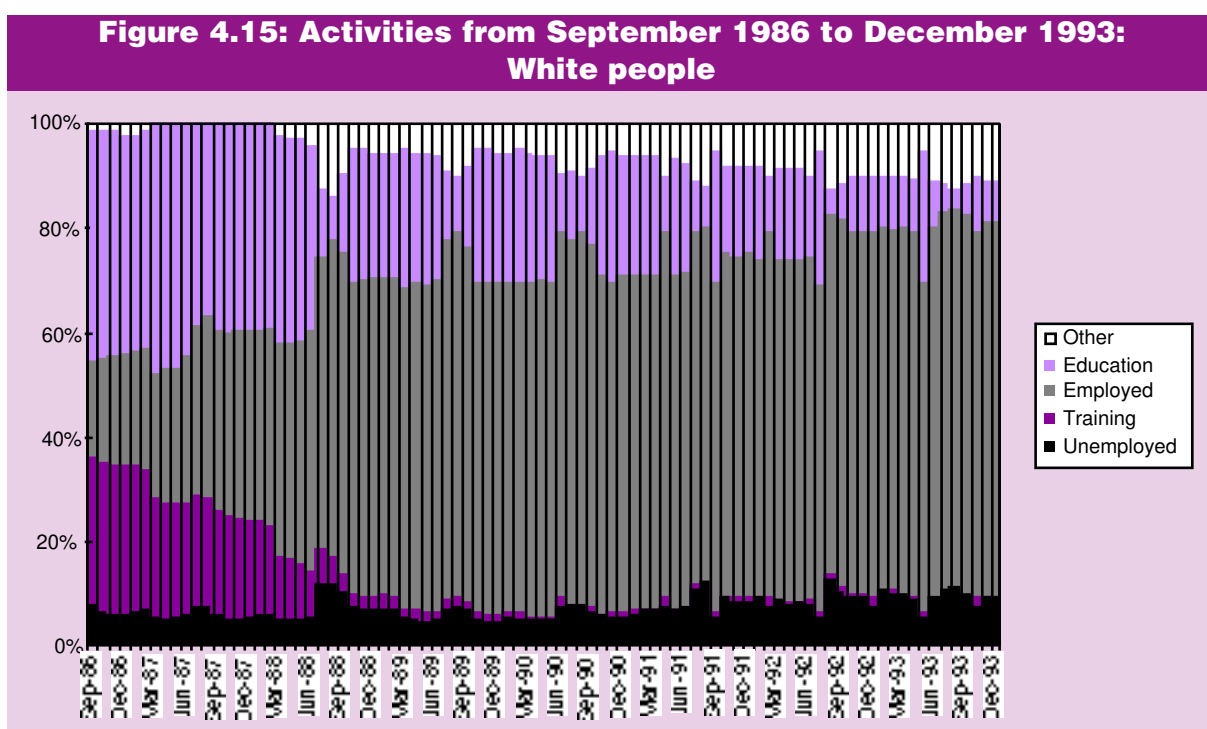
*All ethnic groups:* For the first two years, over a third of all young people were in education, and about a quarter on training courses. These percentages gradually declined until late 1988 (Figure 4.14). From then onwards, the dominant economic activity was employment, and the much smaller percentage in education

gradually declined. The share of the cohort unemployed or economically inactive increased slowly. Around a tenth of young people born in 1969/70 were economically inactive by the end of the period.



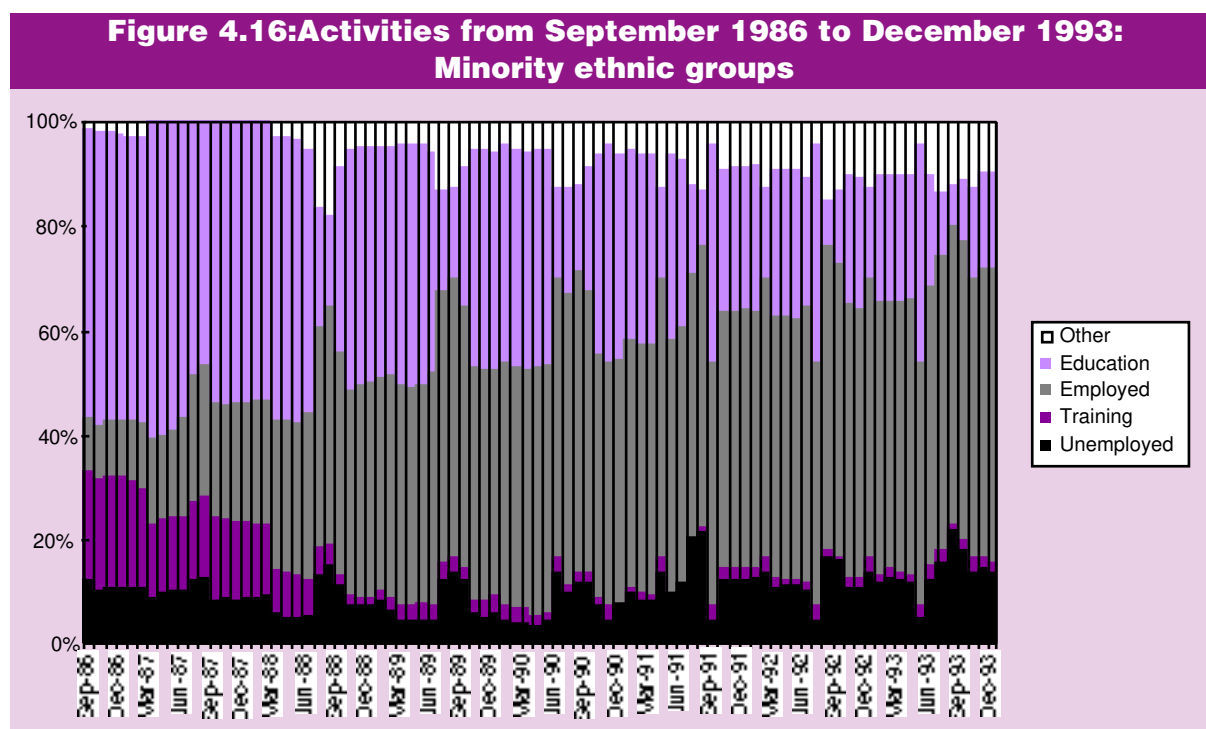
Source: Youth Cohort Study 3, sweeps 1 to 4.

*White group:* The pattern for white people was very similar (Figure 4.15).



Source: Youth Cohort Study 3, sweeps 1 to 4.

*Minority ethnic groups:* For minority ethnic groups as a whole (Figure 4.16), more than half this cohort was in education in autumn 1986.

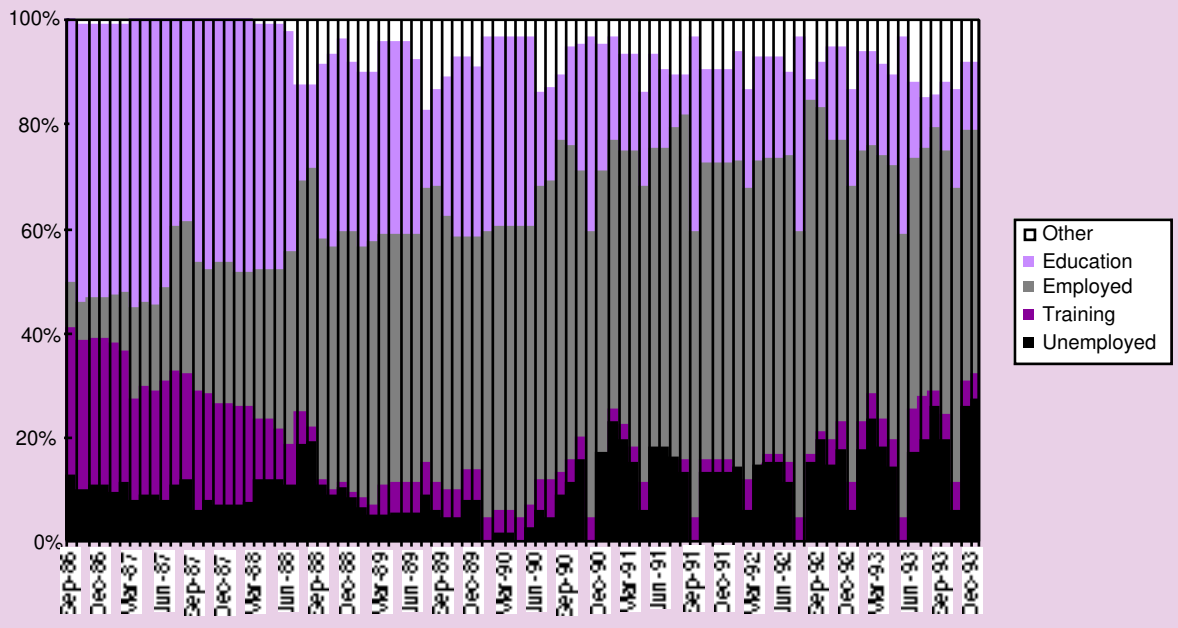


Source: Youth Cohort Study 3, sweeps 1 to 4.

This percentage declined much more slowly than for the population as a whole. At the end of 1993, at least a tenth of people contacted by YCS 3 Sweep 4 were still in full-time education. The percentage unemployed was greater than the average throughout the period, while the percentage on training schemes declined rapidly in the late 1980s, reflecting the pattern for the population as a whole. The percentage in work grew steadily over this 8-year period, but only reached a maximum of about two-thirds of all people who responded to the survey.

*Black group:* A smaller percentage of Black people than the minority average were in full-time education over this period, but at the start of the period, a higher percentage were on government training schemes (Figure 4.17). The percentage employed was highest in 1989-90 at the peak of economic prosperity, but this declined and unemployment increased in the early 1990s, with about a third of Black people unemployed at the end of 1993.

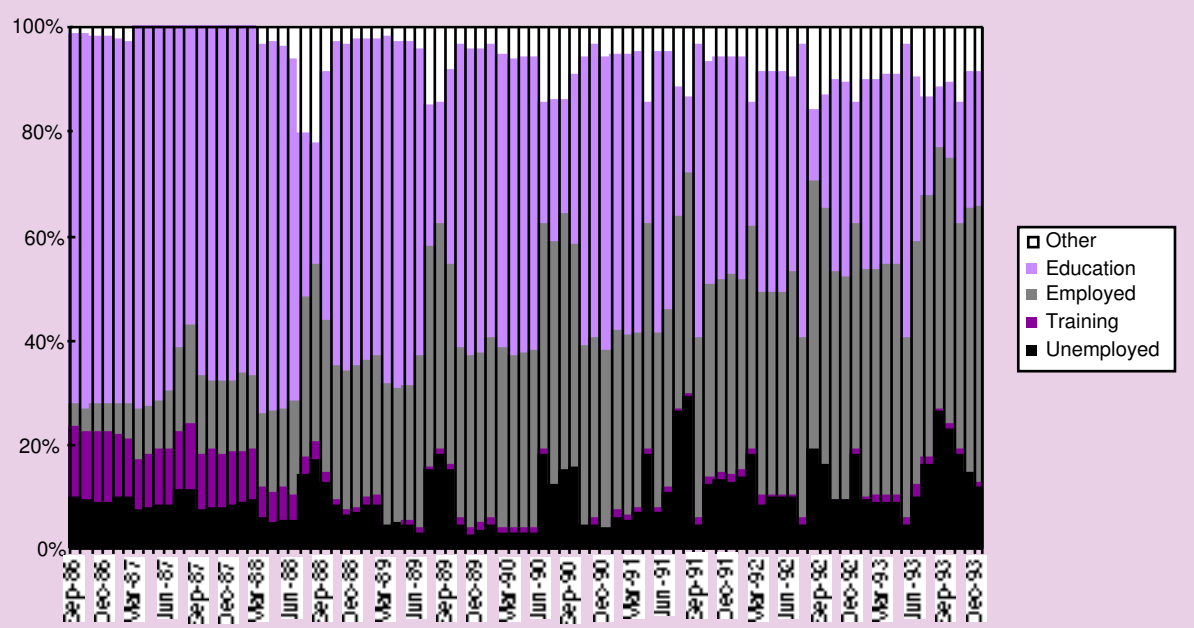
**Figure 4.17: Activities from September 1986 to December 1993:  
Black ethnic groups**



Source: Youth Cohort Study 3, sweeps 1 to 4.

*South Asian ethnic groups:* Two-thirds of South Asian people were in full-time education in the late 1980s, but this share declined to reach around a quarter by the end of 1993 (Figure 4.18). The percentage employed was smaller than for other ethnic groups, growing gradually to form around half of the population. The percentage unemployed tended to be highest in the autumn, and was higher in the early 1990s than the late 1980s.

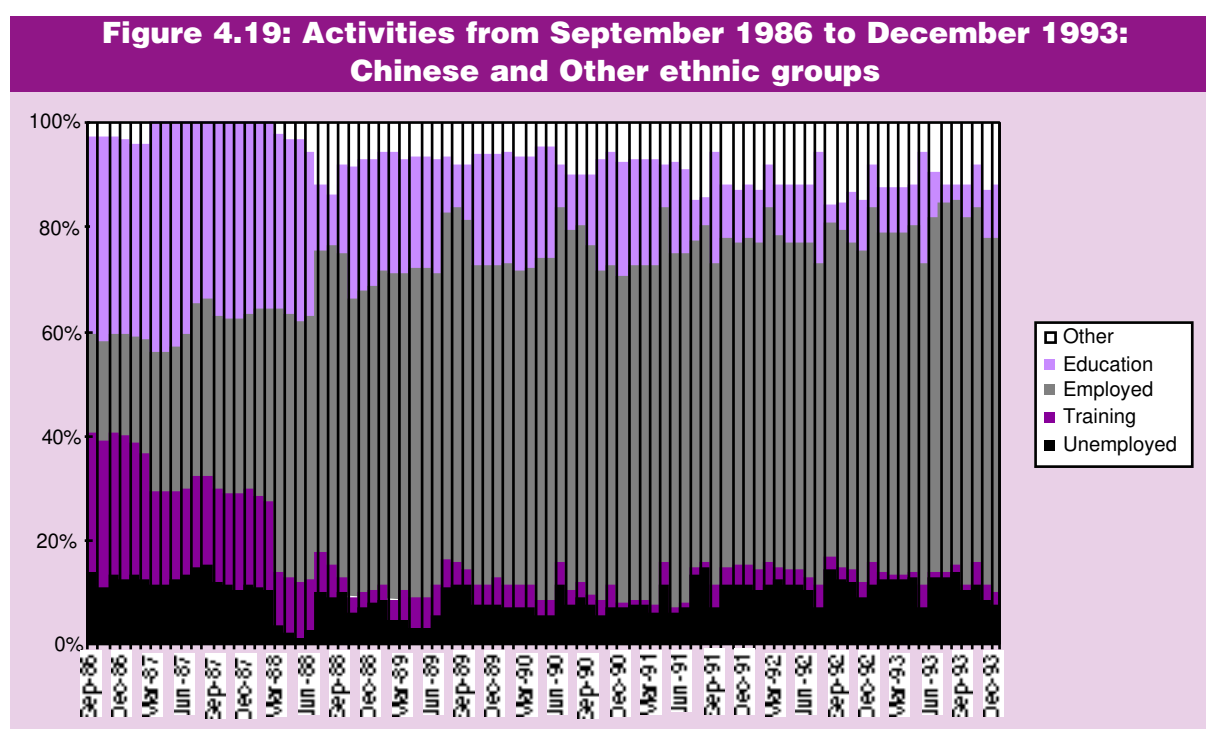
**Figure 4.18: Activities from September 1986 to December 1993:  
South Asian ethnic groups**



Source: Youth Cohort Study 3, sweeps 1 to 4.



*Chinese and Other ethnic groups:* The percentage of the Chinese and Other ethnic groups in education was smaller than for any other minority ethnic group (Figure 4.19). Initially, around a third were on training schemes and over a tenth unemployed, but the percentage on training schemes fell substantially in the late 1980s, as members of this cohort reached their late teens. The percentage employed gradually increased over time as the percentage in education declined, while the percentage unemployed remained fairly constant at around 10 per cent.



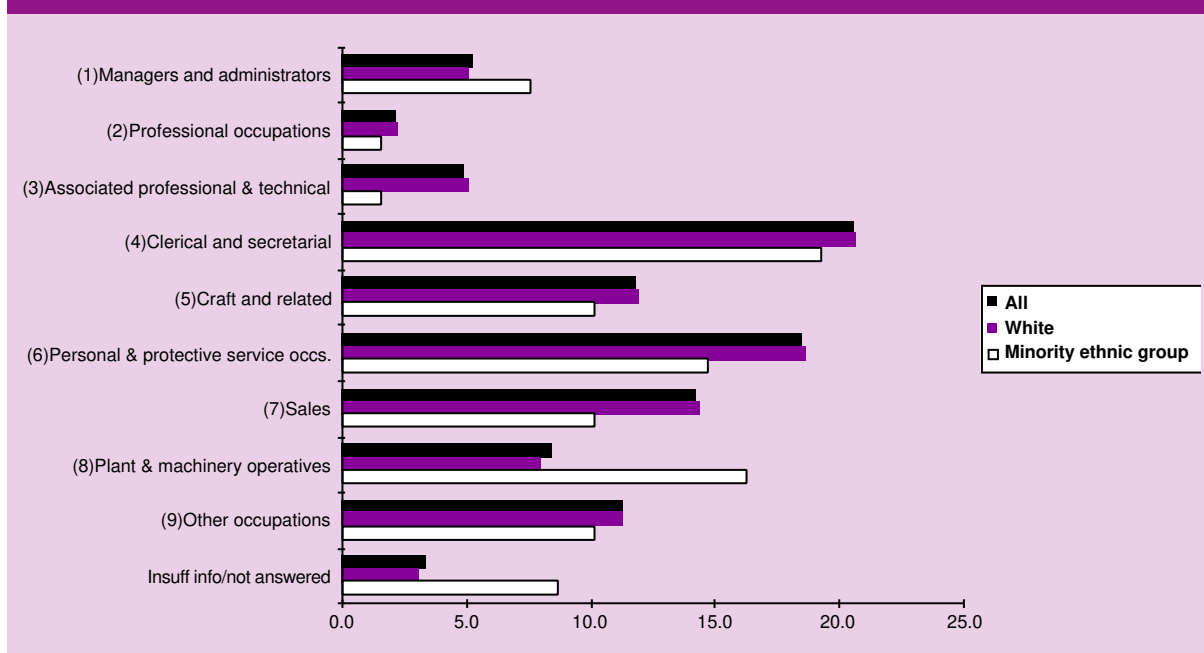
Source: Youth Cohort Study 3, sweeps 1 to 4.

#### 4.4 Types of training engaged in by 18/19 year olds, 1998

Sweep 2 of YCS 8, which contacted young people in England and Wales aged 18 to 19 in 1998, provides information on the training activities of those who left school in 1994/5. Three-fifths of those engaged in training were on Modern Apprenticeships, with a further fifth on Youth Training schemes, 4.4 per cent on Training for Work (TfW) schemes and 2.4 per cent engaged on National Traineeships. Overall, just under a tenth of employees from minority ethnic groups and one-twelfth of white employees were undergoing some kind of training, about half (slightly more than half for white young people) on TfW schemes.

Unfortunately, sample sizes are too small to distinguish the experience of men from women or to identify the types of jobs individual ethnic groups were training for, but it is possible to compare people from the white and minority ethnic groups as a whole (Figure 4.20).

**Figure 4.20: Types of job 18/19 year olds being trained to do, 1998**



Source: Youth Cohort Study 8, sweep 2.

The three most common occupations all young people were training for were:

- clerical & secretarial occupations,
- personal and protective service occupations,<sup>3</sup> and
- sales occupations.

However, a higher percentage of young people from minority ethnic groups were training for jobs as plant and machinery operatives (mainly semi-skilled manual jobs) than were training for personal and protective service jobs. About a tenth of all young people were training to do craft and related jobs (a slightly higher percentage of white than minority ethnic group people are training for these occupations), while around 5 per cent were training as managers or administrators or for associate professional occupations. The former was more popular among people from minority ethnic groups, while a larger percentage of people from the white than the minority ethnic groups were in training for the latter type of occupation.

#### 4.5 Labour market outcomes and qualifications for 18/19 year olds, 1998

Using data from Sweep 2 of YCS 8, it is possible to assess the influence of the levels of qualification obtained in school and subsequent study or training upon the labour market situation of people aged 18 to 19 in 1998.

White people are slightly more likely than people from minority ethnic groups to have a level 3 (or better) qualification as their highest qualification (Table 4.3). Clearly, aggregation masks considerable differences between individual minority ethnic groups, since 47 per cent of Indian people have achieved this level of qualifications, compared with only 19 per cent of Pakistani and Bangladeshi people and 17 per cent of Black people. Indian people are also more likely than people from any other ethnic groups to hold an A/AS level

<sup>3</sup> Including jobs such as hairdressers and waiters.

as their highest qualification, just above the corresponding percentage for people from “Other” ethnic groups. In contrast, people from the Black and Pakistani/Bangladeshi ethnic groupings are half as likely as white people to have an A/AS level, but (in common with other minority ethnic groups) are also twice as likely to hold a GNVQ at Level 2 or above as their highest qualification. The percentage with the poorest level of qualifications is twice as high for white people as for people from minority ethnic groups.

**Table 4.3: Highest qualifications of 18/19 year olds by ethnic group, 1998**

Qualification	White	Minority ethnic groups	Black	South Asian	Indian	Pakis'i/ B'ladeshi	Other
<b>Sample size</b>	<b>9142</b>	<b>893</b>	<b>164</b>	<b>600</b>	<b>224</b>	<b>283</b>	<b>222</b>
<i>Level 3+(percentages)</i>							
All	38	31	17	33	47	19	42
A/AS	29	24	12	25	36	13	33
GNVQ	4	4	-	5	7	4	4
NVQ or equivalent	6	4	3	3	4	2	6
<i>Level 2+ (percentages)</i>							
All	68	66	48	69	83	56	74
A/AS	50	44	23	48	63	34	55
GNVQ	10	20	20	20	22	20	17
NVQ or equivalent	15	7	8	6	6	6	10

Source: Youth Cohort Study 8, Sweep 2.

Note: Percentages are suppressed (-) when based on a cell count of less than 5.

**Table 4.4: Labour market outcomes of 18/19 year olds by qualification level and ethnic group, 1998**

Qualification level	Economic activity rate		Percent in work		Unemployment rate	
	White	Minority	White	Minority	White	Minority
All qualifications	75.9	67.0	67.5	53.3	11.1	-
20.4						
Level 3+	59.3	54.8	53.8	44.5	9.2	-
- A/AS level	51.5	50.7	45.9	-	10.9	-
- GNVQ	80.2	-	75.4	-	-	-
- NVQ or equivalent	86.8	-	81.9	-	-	-
Level 2+	70.9	60.5	64.6	49.4	8.8	-
- A/AS level	64.1	56.0	58.7	45.7	8.5	-
- GNVQ	84.3	66.9	76.8	-	-	-
- NVQ or equivalent	90.5	-	83.1	-	8.2	-
Below Level 2/none	86.6	78.5	73.6	60.6	15.0	-

Source: Youth Cohort Study 8, Sweep 2.

Note: Percentages are suppressed (-) when based on a cell count of less than 100.

Table 4.4 breaks down economic activity by level of qualification achieved and type of qualification for people from the white and minority ethnic groups as a whole. This reveals that:

- White people are more likely to be economically active than people from minority ethnic groups, regardless of qualification type and level.
- In general terms, the poorer the level of highest qualification, the more likely a person is to be economically active. The economic activity rate of people with NVQs is higher than that of people with GNVQs, which is in turn higher than the economic activity rate of people with A or AS levels as their highest qualification.
- Two-thirds of white people are in work, compared with just over half of all people from minority ethnic groups. For both white and minority ethnic groups, the percentage in work is higher for those whose highest qualification was of Level 2 or above than for those with Level 3 or above.
- The percentage of white people in work is highest for those with GNVQs as their highest qualification, and lowest for those with A or AS levels as their highest qualification. Among people from minority ethnic groups, this percentage is highest for those with highest qualifications below Level 2.
- The unemployment rate for people from minority ethnic groups is nearly twice that for white people. Amongst white people, the unemployment rate is higher for people qualified to level 3 and above than for those with qualifications of Level 2 and above and is higher for those with A/AS levels.
- However, the highest unemployment rates are experienced by people with the poorest level of qualifications.
- Thus, people from minority ethnic groups are less likely than white people to be participating in the labour market, but those who are economically active are more likely than white people to be unemployed.

#### 4.6 Views about advice from the Careers Service

Table 4.5 summarises the contrasting views of young people from white and minority ethnic groups with regard to the advice on labour market activity, education and training that they received from the Careers Service. In general, only a very small percentage of people were completely dissatisfied with the advice they received, though a significant minority were “not very satisfied” about some areas of advice.

	<b>Ethnic group</b>	<b>Very satisfied</b>	<b>Quite satisfied</b>	<b>Not very satisfied</b>	<b>Not at all satisfied</b>	<b>Not stated</b>
Seeking advice about leaving education or training early	White	17.8	57.5	14.2	3.6	7.0
	Minority	2.8	50.0	30.6	2.8	13.9
Wanting help at the end of education or training about what to do next	White	22.0	53.4	15.4	3.6	5.6
	Minority	15.0	60.8	13.1	4.6	6.5
Wanting to change job	White	18.5	45.5	25.8	4.5	6.2
	Minority	66.7	16.7	0.0	0.0	16.7
Advice on longer term career	White	20.1	53.4	18.8	3.7	4.0
	Minority	14.6	58.5	19.5	1.6	5.7
Wanting to get back into work or training	White	29.5	42.0	16.3	5.4	6.7
	Minority	36.4	45.5	9.1	4.5	4.5
Something else	White	22.1	47.7	15.0	5.0	10.2
	Minority	18.3	50.0	17.1	4.9	9.8

- The majority of people were satisfied with the advice they received on leaving education or training early; a third of people from minority ethnic groups were not satisfied, more than twice the corresponding percentage for white people.
- However, people from minority ethnic groups were very happy with the advice they received on changing jobs and advice on what to do at the end of a period of education and training. Around 30 per cent of white people were dissatisfied with the advice they received about changing jobs.
- About four-fifths of all people were satisfied to some degree with the advice they received on a longer term career, while people from minority ethnic groups were happier than white people with the advice they received on how to return to work or training.

## 4.7 Participants in the further education sector

One of the key routes of young people from compulsory schooling to employment is via further education (FE). This section provides a general profile of participants in FE, and is not confined solely to the younger age group.<sup>4</sup>

FE is education and training which takes place after the school-leaving age of 16.<sup>5</sup> In contrast to higher education (which provides mainly academic-based education – see Chapter 5), further education provides both academic and vocational education and training. Hence, FE encompasses education and training:

- for school-leavers wishing to undertake post-16 education,
- for people in work who wish to continue their training or education,
- for adults who wish to train or study for a new job or achieve better qualifications, and
- for people who want to learn a new subject or skill.

The information presented in this section draws on participation data from the Further Education Funding Council (FEFC). It should be noted that the coverage of FEFC data is not the same as the YCS, as the former does not cover education in school sixth forms, whereas the latter does.

Provisional data for 1998/99 suggests that 3.8 million students were enrolled in FE colleges. 3.1 million of these students were enrolled on provision funded by the FEFC and 0.8 million were enrolled on provision not funded by the FEFC. 0.3 million students were enrolled at external institutions on provision funded by the FEFC. The students on FEFC-funded provision in colleges and external institutions were studying for 5.7 million qualification – including GNVQ precursors, GNVQs, NVQs, GCSEs, GCE A/AS level examinations, access to higher education courses, open college network courses and NVQ/GNVQ additional units. Other students were enrolled on leisure courses; thus illustrating the diversity of the FE sector and the wide range of qualifications studied.

Characteristics of students enrolled in FE colleges are recorded on the Individualised Student Record (ISR). From the ISR information is available on key individual characteristics, such as:

- *gender* – men and women are fairly evenly represented in FE;
- *age* – key age distinctions used are 16-18 years, 19-24 years and 25 years and over; and
- *ethnic group* – information is available on ethnic group for the majority of (but not all) students.

From information on guided learning hours per year students are classified as full-time or part-time:

- full-time students are defined as those enrolled on programmes of at least 450 guided learning hours per year, or for at least 150 guided learning hours per tri-annual period or more than 16 guided learning hours per week for shorter courses;
- all other students are classified as part-time.

<sup>4</sup> Indeed, as outlined in Chapter 8, there is increasing recognition of the need for continuing learning throughout the lifetime of individuals, and FE has an important role to play here.

<sup>5</sup> FE in England is provided by general further education colleges and tertiary colleges, sixth form colleges, agriculture and horticulture colleges, art design and performing arts colleges and specialist designated institutions. It is important to note that Further Education Funding Council data do not cover school sixth forms.

*Ethnic group profile of students in FEFC colleges*

Table 4.6 shows the ethnic group profile of students enrolled in FE sector colleges in England in the academic years 1997/8 and 1998/99

<b>Table 4.6: Ethnic group composition of FE students, 1997/8 and 1998/9</b>						
Ethnic group	% of FE students (full-time & part-time)		% of FE students (full-time & part-time)		% of FE students (full-time only)	
	1997/98	1998/99	1997/98			
White	88.3	77.8	87.7	77.0	83.0	76.4
Minority ethnic groups	11.7	10.3	12.3	10.8	17.0	15.7
Black-Caribbean	1.8	1.6	1.8	1.6	2.3	2.1
Black-African	1.5	1.3	1.8	1.6	2.3	2.1
Black-Other	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6	1.0	1.0
Indian	2.1	1.9	1.9	1.7	3.1	2.9
Pakistani	2.0	1.8	2.1	1.9	3.2	3.0
Bangladeshi	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.9	0.9
Chinese	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.7
Other	2.6	2.3	2.9	2.5	3.4	3.2
Not known		11.9		12.2		8.0
<b>All</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
n	3.6 million		3.5 million		1.02 million	

Source: 1997/98 data are taken from FEFC Individualised Student Record (ISR) 13. 1998/99 data are taken from FEFC Individualised Student Record (ISR) 14 and are provisional.

Notes: In the first, third and fifth data columns ethnic group percentages are calculated excluding the 'Not Known' group, whereas in the second, fourth and sixth data columns percentages are calculated including the 'Not Known' group. Some 230,000 (ISR14) students recorded on an aggregate return for whom incomplete data are provided are excluded from the analysis.

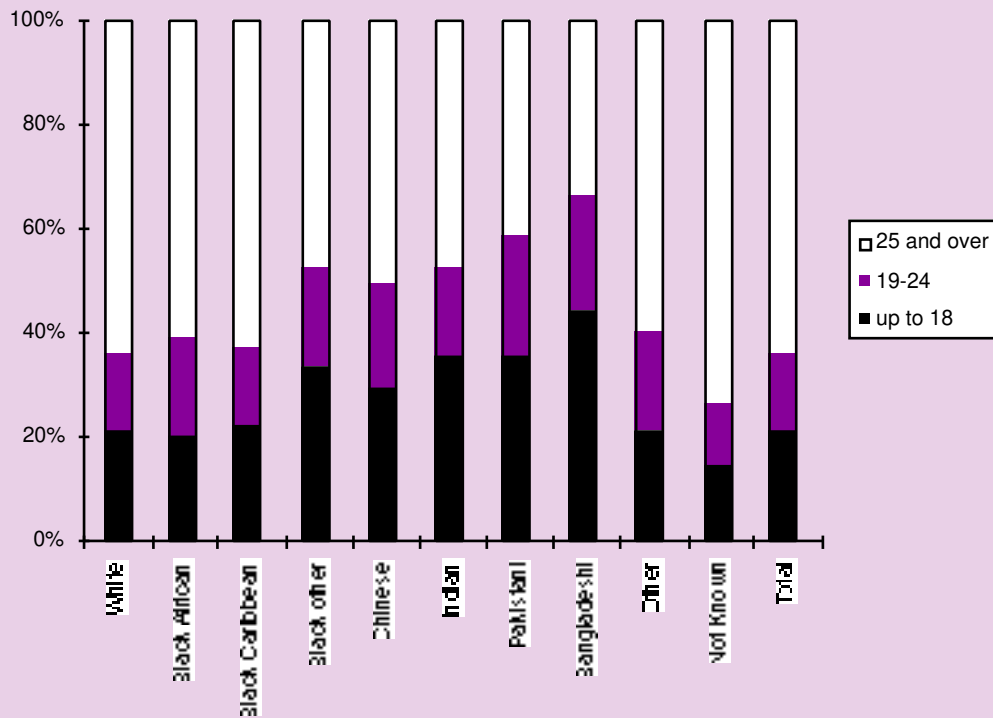
If students for whom ethnic group is not known are excluded from the calculations, just under nine-tenths of students were from the White group (88.3 per cent in 1997/98 and 87.7 per cent in 1998/99). 12.3 per cent of students were recorded as being from minority ethnic groups, of whom the "Other", Indian, Pakistani, Black-Caribbean and Black African students formed the largest single proportions.

Overall, for approximately an eighth of students (11.9 per cent in 1997/98 and 12.2 per cent in 1998/9) the ethnic group is not known or not provided. It is salient to note that this 'not known' group (431 thousand students out of 3.5 million in 1998/99) is larger than the aggregate of minority ethnic groups (379 thousand students out of 3.6 million in 1998/99).

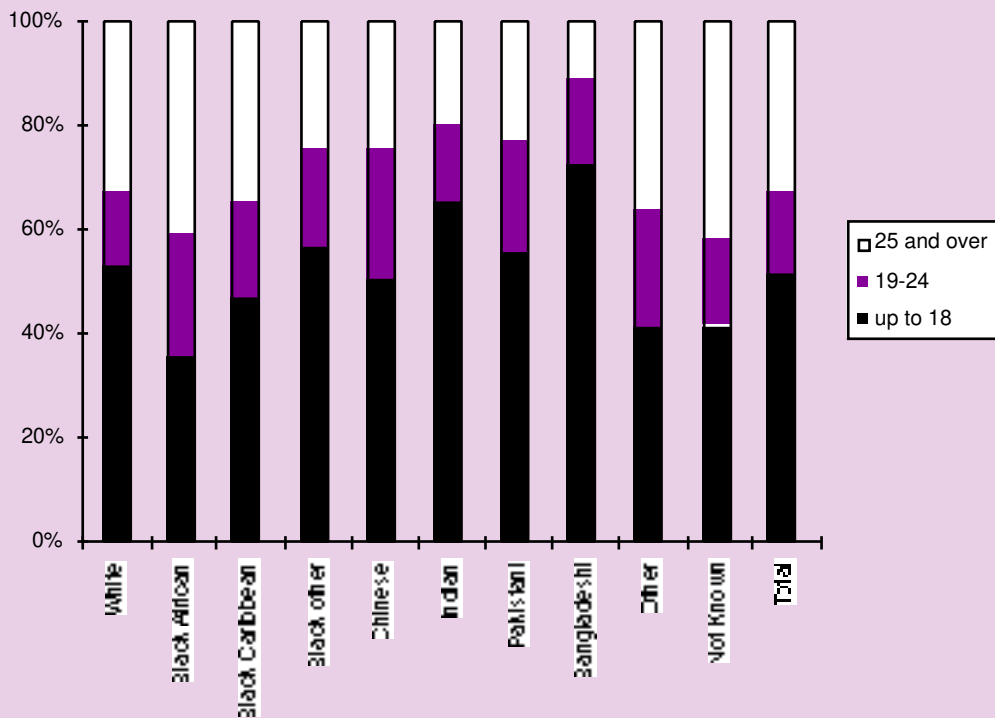
Information is also shown in Table 4.6 on the ethnic group profile of full-time students in 1997/98. If students for whom ethnic group is not known are excluded from the calculations, nearly 17 per cent of full-time FE students were recorded as being from minority ethnic groups, compared with 11.7 per cent of full-time and part-time FE students. (It is salient to note that data on ethnic group is more likely to be available for full-time than for part-time students.)

Figures 4.21a and 4.21b show the age profile of all students and full-time students, respectively, by broad ethnic group.

**Figure 4.21: Age profile of FE students by ethnic group, 1998/99**  
**a) all FE students**



**b) full-time FE students**



Source: FEFC Individualised Student Record (ISR) 14.

In 1998/99 21 per cent of all FE students were aged 16-18 years, 15 per cent were in the 19-24 years age group and 64 per cent were 25 years and over. Minority ethnic groups with a younger than average age profile include the Bangladeshi, Pakistani, Indian and Black-Other groups. The Black-Caribbean group has an age profile most similar to that for the White group. The not known, Black-Caribbean and White groups displayed the largest proportions of FE students in the 25 and over age group. Full-time FE students had a younger age profile: 52 per cent were aged 16-18 years, 16 per cent 19-24 years and 32 per cent were 25 years and over.

Since ethnic minority young people are well represented on full time courses in FE colleges (see Figure 4.21b), it is interesting to examine their position in more detail:

- In the 16-18 years age group the following have a higher than average proportion (i.e. higher than 51 per cent) in their respective groups: Bangladeshi (73 per cent), Indian (65 per cent), Pakistani (56 per cent), Black-Other (57 per cent), White (53 per cent).
- In the 19-24 years age group the following have a higher than average proportion (i.e. higher than 16 per cent) in their respective groups: Black-African (24 per cent), Chinese (26 per cent), Other (22 per cent), Pakistani (20 per cent), Bangladeshi (16 per cent), Black-Caribbean (18 per cent).

Data are available from the FEFC on the highest qualification studied for by students during the year 1998/99, divided into full-time/full-year and part-time/part-year students (Table 4.6).

The largest category of qualifications studied for by 18 year old full-time/full-year students is “other advanced”, followed by GNVQ3 and A/AS levels. White students are most likely to be studying for “other advanced” qualifications, while students from minority ethnic groups, particularly Indian, Pakistani and Bangladeshi students, are most likely to be studying for GNVQ3 qualifications. White students were also more likely than those from minority ethnic groups to be studying on HE courses. For people from minority ethnic groups, the percentage studying for A/AS levels is almost as high, being highest of all for Chinese students. Percentages studying for other types of qualification are mostly quite small, but a higher than average percentage of students from minority ethnic groups were taking GCSE (Chinese, Black African and Black Other) and “other foundation” courses (Pakistani, Black-Other and Other students).

The most common qualifications studied for by part-time or part-year students are “other foundation” courses (which people from minority ethnic groups, particularly Black African, are more likely than white people to follow), followed by “other intermediate” and NVQ2 courses, in both of which white students are more likely than students from minority ethnic groups to be enrolled on. More academic and higher-level vocational qualifications are less common, indicating that many part-time or part-year student.



**Table 4.6: Funded and non-funded students aged 18 in FE sector colleges by ethnic group and highest qualification studied - 1998/99**

Ethnic Group	HE	Qualification Studied (percentage of all students)											Total				
		A/AS		Other advanced		NVQ2		GNVQ2		Other int'mediate		GCSE		NVQ1	GNVQ1	Other foundation	
		NVQ3	GNVQ3	A/AS	Other advanced	NVQ2	GNVQ2	GNVQ2	Other int'mediate	GCSE	GCSE						
<i>Full-time and full-year students</i>																	
White	7.1	5.7	18.5	17.6	29.0	8.3	2.3	3.7	1.2	1.3	0.6	64211					
Black Caribbean	2.1	1.7	27.9	17.3	20.2	8.0	7.9	5.1	2.2	1.9	1.5	2168					
Black African	1.5	0.9	26.7	22.0	13.5	3.2	10.1	4.5	3.1	0.8	2.9	2385					
Black Other	2.5	3.5	22.5	18.6	22.5	7.7	6.9	4.7	3.0	2.5	0.9	1151					
Indian	3.5	1.2	40.0	30.1	12.3	2.7	3.5	1.4	1.2	0.4	0.5	3855					
Pakistani	2.1	1.1	33.1	23.3	12.6	4.3	6.5	2.5	1.8	0.9	1.1	4358					
Bangladeshi	1.7	1.5	34.6	22.6	14.5	2.3	7.8	4.2	1.8	0.7	1.5	1511					
Chinese	3.8	0.7	20.8	37.0	16.8	2.8	3.9	2.6	3.4	-	1.0	1026					
Other	3.4	1.6	23.1	25.8	18.9	4.8	6.2	3.6	2.9	0.9	1.0	3210					
Not Known	7.1	2.9	20.2	22.6	25.4	5.2	3.0	3.5	1.6	1.0	0.5	5590					
Total	6.1	4.6	21.2	19.5	25.8	7.2	3.2	3.6	1.4	1.2	0.7	89467					
<i>Part-time and part-year students</i>																	
White	4.0	10.5	0.9	9.0	9.4	14.2	0.2	19.2	3.4	1.4	-	70119					
Black Caribbean	0.7	2.4	2.3	10.8	6.6	11.3	0.9	18.8	6.5	3.0	-	1094					
Black African	0.7	1.6	2.9	12.2	4.0	6.2	0.8	15.0	7.6	1.6	-	882					
Black Other	1.5	3.2	2.6	12.7	8.6	10.7	-	15.4	7.9	1.8	-	597					
Indian	2.3	2.7	3.5	21.8	7.0	5.2	-	17.4	7.9	2.5	-	1364					
Pakistani	1.8	3.3	1.4	16.4	5.4	6.1	-	14.3	10.2	1.2	-	2063					
Bangladeshi	1.0	1.2	2.1	15.2	7.6	4.3	-	18.6	10.7	1.5	-	602					
Chinese	2.3	1.8	-	20.4	5.7	1.8	-	10.6	10.6	-	-	327					
Other	3.4	2.4	0.9	11.6	5.4	6.3	-	13.6	6.1	1.3	-	1991					
Not Known	2.0	5.4	0.8	9.0	5.2	9.4	-	15.2	3.2	13.9	-	8865					
Total	3.6	9.2	1.0	9.6	8.6	12.9	0.2	18.4	3.8	2.7	0.1	87904					

Source: FEFC Individualised Student Record (ISR) 14. Where student numbers are 5 or less the percentage has been replaced with “-”.

## 4.8 Conclusion

This chapter has drawn mainly upon data from the Youth Cohort Study, the Careers Activity Survey and the Further Education Funding Council, in order to illustrate the differential experience of the transition from school to the labour market for people from different ethnic groups living in England in the 1990s. It is clear that this transition is now quite extended, with high percentages of young people remaining in full-time education for longer periods of time than formerly. People from minority ethnic groups are more likely than white people to remain longer in full-time education, though Black people are less likely to than those from other minority ethnic groups.

People with better examination performance tended to stay in education longer, while those with poorer qualifications were more likely to be seeking work, rather than staying in education. Family background appears to have a strong influence upon educational attainment across ethnic groups, with people from a non-manual and better-educated family background tending to display higher levels of achievement.

In addition, ethnic group differentials remain, with Indian people tending to display levels of achievement as good as or better than white people do, while Black and Pakistani/Bangladeshi young people continue to be disadvantaged. The patterns presented suggest that while Indian young people stay on longer in education to improve their occupational prospects, Black and Pakistani/Bangladeshi young people may need to stay in education and training for longer in order to make up for poorer performance in their earlier education. Social class is likely to be a factor influencing these ethnic differences, but without further information, it is not possible to determine to what extent.

## Chapter 5

### Participation in higher education

#### Summary

##### *Representation of minority ethnic groups in higher education*

- Overall, minority ethnic groups are comparatively well-represented in higher education. However, for some ethnic groups (e.g. Pakistani and Bangladeshi people), there are many fewer women than men studying for first degrees.

##### *Age profile of the student population and qualifications on entry*

- Black students are more likely than other groups to be mature students, whereas South Asian students are significantly younger than other groups.
- Black undergraduates are more likely to have 'non-standard' entry qualifications than other ethnic groups.

##### *Type of higher education institution, mode and subject of study*

- Black and South Asian students are particularly concentrated in the post-1992 'new' universities, although South Asian students are also relatively well-represented in older universities. Chinese and Other-Asian students are particularly well-represented in old universities.
- Black students are significantly more likely than other groups to study part-time, which may be one of the reasons for their concentration in 'new' universities, where part-time study is more prevalent.
- Black-African, Chinese and 'Other' men are more likely than other groups to study full-time for postgraduate qualifications.
- Computing science is a popular choice for men from minority ethnic groups, particularly those of Pakistani and Indian origin. Subjects allied to medicine are popular for women, particularly Black-African, Black-Caribbean and White women.

##### *Initial teacher training*

- During the academic years 1995/96 to 1999/2000, a greater percentage of white applicants than any other ethnic group were accepted to postgraduate courses.
- For undergraduate education courses, the difference in acceptances between ethnic groups was generally less marked. Indeed, Black African and Asian Other groups had a greater percentage of applicants that were accepted than white applicants.
- There are certain ethnic group differences in relation to areas of study. In 1999/2000 minority ethnic group students were more likely than white students to opt for technology and mathematics. Relatively high percentages of Asian and Black-African groups applied to teach science.

##### *Graduate destinations*

- Although the First Destinations Survey (FDS) gives only an early snapshot of graduate destinations, it shows that all minority ethnic groups have higher unemployment rates than the white group. White graduates are more likely to be in permanent employment six months after graduating.
- There are some occupational and sectoral differences according to ethnic group in the early transitions of graduates.

## 5.1 Introduction and context

During the 1990s there has been a marked increase in the number of students entering higher education. The extent to which different sub-groups of the population have been able to share in, and benefit from, the expansion of higher education remains a key policy issue. This chapter highlights key features of variation in participation in higher education of home domiciled students by ethnic group<sup>1</sup>. It describes the regional distribution and age profile by ethnic group. Variations by ethnic group in entry qualifications to higher education are outlined, as are differences in the type of higher education institution attended, the mode of study and distribution by subject. Finally, levels of attainment and graduate destinations are considered. Most of the information presented here is for the year 1998/9, but information for the period from 1994 to 1998 is also presented in order to place the latest data within the context of recent trends.

### 5.1.1 *Representation in higher education by ethnic group*

Students from minority ethnic groups overall are comparatively well-represented in higher education in Great Britain. In 1997/98 minority ethnic groups comprised nearly 13 per cent of students at first degree-level in Great Britain, which is considerably higher than the minority ethnic share of the population of young people in 1998.<sup>2</sup> Minority ethnic students aged under 21 comprised 12.7 per cent of the undergraduate population. The percentage of minority ethnic students in higher education has risen in recent years (Connor et al, 1996)<sup>3</sup>. At the same time, general numbers in higher education have grown, particularly in the new university sector and in certain subjects at undergraduate level, such as business and financial studies and subjects allied to medicine.

The minority ethnic groups most highly represented in higher education are Indian people, followed by Black-African people (accounting for 4.1 per cent and 1.9 per cent of first degree 'ethnicity known' students, respectively, in 1998/99). Women predominate in the White, Black-Caribbean and Black-Other ethnic groups. This position is reversed for other groups, particularly Pakistani and Bangladeshi students, where women comprise between 42 per cent and 44 per cent of first degree students from these ethnic groups (Table 5.4).

The under-participation by some groups, particularly Bangladeshi women, has been noted previously (Modood and Shiner, 1994; McNay, 1992; Owen, 1994). Modood and Shiner (1994) showed that, even when controlling for other factors such as parental social class and possession of appropriate entry qualifications, Black-Caribbean and Pakistani applicants were less likely than their white counterparts to gain admission to the then 'old' universities. Students from minority ethnic groups tend overall to be concentrated in the 'new' universities, which is partly influenced by student choice due to the location of such universities (Woodrow and Crosier, 1996). Graduates from minority ethnic groups in 1996 were found to be more likely than white graduates to report restrictions on access to higher education (Hogarth et al., 1997).

There is some evidence to suggest that minority ethnic graduates experience greater difficulties than their white counterparts in accessing 'graduate' jobs (Connor et al, 1996, op cit.). The study by Hogarth et al (1997) demonstrated that, although the labour market position and earnings potential of graduates is favourable in comparison with non-graduates, the earnings for minority ethnic graduates tend to be lower

---

<sup>1</sup> The analysis excludes non-UK citizens studying at UK Higher Education Institutions (HEIs).

<sup>2</sup> In 1998, people from minority ethnic groups represented 8.3 per cent of those aged 19 to 24 (Labour Force Survey data).

<sup>3</sup> In 1992, the minority ethnic share of admissions to degree courses was 10.6 per cent. The numbers participating in higher education by ethnic group according to gender are sometimes too small to calculate proportional increases, but the data show that there has been a slight increase in Indian men and Pakistani women aged below 21 as a proportion of the age group in higher education between 1994 and 1997.

than those for white graduates. Differences in subject and institutional choice do not provide sufficient explanation. Thus, while possession of a degree generally enhances labour market prospects, there is evidence that continuing discrimination may limit the career opportunities of some minority ethnic graduates.

According to the Census of Population 1991, Black-African and Chinese men are more likely than males from other ethnic groups to possess higher qualifications at degree level or above. Data from the Labour Force Survey in 1998 show a similar picture<sup>4</sup>. Those groups with the lowest percentages holding higher level qualifications are Bangladeshi, Pakistani and Black-Caribbean. The White group is slightly below the average for all ethnic groups.

Data on participation of minority ethnic groups in higher education are mainly those compiled by the Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA). While collection of data has improved recently, there is still a significant amount of missing information in some cases<sup>5</sup>.

Reference is also made in this chapter to information on Initial Teacher Training.

## **5.2 Participation of ethnic groups by region of domicile**

The highest concentrations of minority ethnic students are those in higher education institutions in London, with the percentage in the West Midlands also being slightly higher than the national average (Appendix 2, Table 1). This largely reflects the concentrations within the population overall and may suggest that many minority ethnic students study at institutions close to their home.

## **5.3 Age profile of the student population**

Overall, the majority of undergraduate students are aged 24 and below. There are differences by ethnic group, however (Table 5.1):

- Black-Caribbean, Black-African and Black-Other groups have particularly high percentages of mature students. More than half of students in these ethnic groups are aged 25 and above, compared with the average of just over a third of all students.
- The profile of Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi and Chinese students is significantly younger than the other groups.

---

<sup>4</sup> 15 per cent of white men and 17 per cent of men from minority ethnic groups of working age had a highest qualification of degree level or better. However, 26 per cent of Black-African men and 22 per cent of Chinese men of working age had this level of educational qualification.

<sup>5</sup> For the academic year 1994/95, ethnicity was unknown for 24 per cent of students. By 1998/99, this proportion had decreased to less than 13 per cent.

**Table 5.1: Ethnic group by age of home domiciled full- and part-time undergraduate students in British HE institutions including the Open University, 1994/95 to 1998/99**

	Age group	Per Cent				
		1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99
White	<21	44.0	42.6	43.2	43.8	44.4
	21:24	22.5	20.1	18.9	18.9	18.6
	25+	33.5	37.3	38.0	37.3	37.0
Black-Caribbean	<21	18.2	17.9	17.9	20.2	21.4
	21:24	24.4	20.5	18.8	18.5	18.0
	25+	57.4	61.7	63.3	61.2	60.6
Black-African	<21	15.1	16.4	17.7	19.2	20.1
	21:24	27.2	24.7	23.6	23.5	23.7
	25+	57.7	58.9	58.8	57.3	56.2
Black-Other	<21	20.4	20.9	22.0	25.6	27.7
	21:24	23.6	20.4	20.4	20.8	20.6
	25+	56.0	58.7	57.6	53.6	51.6
Indian	<21	53.2	56.5	57.9	59.4	60.3
	21:24	33.3	30.6	29.3	29.1	28.6
	25+	13.5	12.9	12.8	11.5	11.1
Pakistani	<21	47.1	50.3	53.4	54.1	54.3
	21:24	39.2	35.9	33.2	33.0	32.8
	25+	13.7	13.8	13.5	12.9	12.9
Bangladeshi	<21	48.3	55.6	56.6	56.8	54.9
	21:24	30.7	32.8	32.5	33.1	33.9
	25+	21.0	11.6	10.9	10.1	11.3
Chinese	<21	49.2	51.6	53.3	53.7	54.0
	21:24	31.2	27.7	27.4	28.6	28.3
	25+	19.5	20.7	19.3	17.7	17.8
Other-Asian	<21	37.7	38.2	39.9	40.4	40.8
	21:24	26.0	24.3	24.4	26.5	26.5
	25+	36.4	37.5	35.7	33.1	32.7
Other	<21	36.2	36.9	39.2	42.9	43.8
	21:24	27.9	26.3	24.7	23.7	23.3
	25+	35.9	36.8	36.2	33.4	32.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>&lt;21</b>	<b>43.1</b>	<b>40.6</b>	<b>40.1</b>	<b>41.5</b>	<b>42.5</b>
	<b>21:24</b>	<b>23.7</b>	<b>22.0</b>	<b>20.9</b>	<b>20.2</b>	<b>19.6</b>
	<b>25+</b>	<b>33.2</b>	<b>37.4</b>	<b>39.0</b>	<b>38.3</b>	<b>37.9</b>

Source: HESA (DfEE)

## 5.4 Highest qualification on entry

The profile of first-year students by qualification on entry differs significantly by ethnic group (Table 5.2):

	<b>A-Level / equivalent and above (%)</b>	<b>Access/GCSE, other &amp; no formal qualifications (%)</b>	<b>Not known (%)</b>	<b>Total students</b>
White	74.8	17.4	7.8	366220
Black Caribbean	57.1	35.3	7.5	6154
Black African	55.0	36.3	8.8	9083
Black other	58.4	33.8	7.8	2987
Indian	80.2	14.2	5.6	15668
Pakistani	74.9	18.6	6.5	8391
Bangladeshi	76.5	17.8	5.7	2286
Chinese	80.0	13.7	6.2	3841
Asian/other	71.5	21.6	6.9	12363
Unknown	49.2	19.3	31.5	50140
Total	71.6	18.3	10.1	476538

Source: HESA (DfEE)

Chinese, South Asian and White students are more likely than the other groups to have qualifications at A level/equivalent or above on entry (A level or NVQ level 3 and above, such as degree, PGCE or postgraduate qualification).

Black students are more likely than other students to have non-standard entry qualifications (e.g. Access qualifications, GCSE or no formal qualifications), which may relate to the older age profile of these students.

Black and South Asian women are more highly qualified on entry than their male counterparts, compared with the average.

## 5.5 Type of higher education institution

The distribution of students in different types of university by ethnic group (Table 5.3) follows patterns similar to those described earlier.

**Table 5.3: Distribution by ethnic group of home domiciled full- and part-time HE students<sup>6</sup> in GB higher education institutions including the OU, by type of institution attended<sup>7</sup>, 1998/99**

	Per cent				Total students
	Open University %	Old Universities %	New Universities %	Other HEIs %	
White	10.1	40.5	37.7	11.7	1212899
Black Caribbean	3.5	20.1	67.1	9.3	17582
Black African	2.6	24.2	68.6	4.7	25926
Black other	14.9	21.0	55.3	8.8	8272
Indian	1.0	36.2	58.1	4.8	43696
Pakistani	0.9	34.5	59.6	4.9	22002
Bangladeshi	1.0	35.5	59.0	4.5	5964
Chinese	2.8	47.1	44.3	5.8	11773
Asian other	11.0	41.4	42.1	5.5	15890
Other	2.7	41.5	47.8	8.1	22252
Unknown	10.2	53.2	30.5	6.1	202224
Total	9.4	41.4	38.9	10.4	1588480
Missing	0.0	21.9	77.3	0.8	895

Source: HESA (DfEE)

While almost equal percentages of white students are distributed in old and new universities, Black and South Asian groups are particularly concentrated in the post-1992 universities, although South Asian students are also relatively well-represented in old universities. Chinese and Asian-Other students are particularly well-represented in old universities.

The percentage of Black students in old universities is considerably lower than that for other groups. This may relate to the fact that they are more likely than others to have non-traditional entry qualifications and may also reflect the older age profile of Black students.

There are particularly low percentages of South Asian students in the Open University, whereas Black-Other, Asian-Other and White students are present in significantly higher percentages than other groups.

There is little difference in the pattern of distribution between undergraduate and postgraduate students.

## 5.6 Mode of study for first degree students

Overall, a slightly higher percentage of female undergraduates study part-time, compared with their male counterparts (Table 5.4). This is also the case for white students (Table 5.5).

<sup>6</sup> Includes undergraduate and postgraduate students.

<sup>7</sup> 'New' universities refers to the pre-1992 polytechnics or HE colleges, whereas 'old' refers to the older established universities.



**Table 5.4: Distribution of home domiciled first degree students in GB higher education institutions, excluding the OU, 1998/99, by mode of study and gender**

		Full-time	Part-time	Total
White	Male.	92.2	7.8	321413
	Female.	89.9	10.1	374688
Black Caribbean	Male.	82.1	17.9	3405
	Female.	78.7	21.3	6787
Black African	Male.	82.2	17.8	7729
	Female.	84.2	15.8	7307
Black other	Male.	85.7	14.3	1779
	Female.	87.4	12.6	2837
Indian	Male.	94.5	5.5	16856
	Female.	94.5	5.5	16243
Pakistani	Male.	93.8	6.2	9388
	Female.	95.0	5.0	7217
Bangladeshi	Male.	92.4	7.6	2724
	Female.	94.7	5.3	2003
Chinese	Male.	95.5	4.5	4111
	Female.	94.0	6.0	4076
Asian other	Male.	92.2	7.8	5150
	Female.	91.8	8.2	4719
Other	Male.	90.7	9.3	6403
	Female.	91.2	8.8	7817
Unknown	Male.	85.4	14.6	32181
	Female.	80.5	19.5	35944
Total	Male.	91.5	8.5	411139
	Female.	89.2	10.8	469638
Missing	Male.	82.0	18.0	261
	Female.	73.9	26.1	284

Source: HESA (DfEE)

Some deviations from this general pattern are evident:

- Chinese and South Asian students are more likely than other ethnic groups to study full-time - particularly Pakistani and Bangladeshi women.
- Black men and women are significantly more likely than other students to be studying part-time, which may be related to their concentration in new universities, where part-time study is more prevalent.
- Black-African, Black-Other and Bangladeshi women are slightly more likely than their male counterparts to study full-time.

Table 5.5 shows that the majority of full-time students in Great Britain are studying for a first degree (FD) (more than four-fifths of the student population). Nearly ten per cent are studying for postgraduate (PG) qualifications, with men more likely than women to be undertaking some kind of postgraduate study. The largest group of part-time students is undertaking other undergraduate (OUG) study.

**Table 5.5: Distribution of home domiciled students in Great Britain higher education institutions, including the OU, by mode, level and gender, 1998/99**

		Full-time (per cent)			Part-time (per cent)		
		Post-graduate	First Degree	Open University	Post-graduate	First Degree	Open University
White	Male	8.1	84.5	7.4	36.9	13.2	49.8
	Female	7.6	81.6	10.8	29.1	14.6	56.3
Black Caribbean	Male	6.5	78.7	14.8	31.7	28.8	39.5
	Female	6.5	76.4	17.1	27.7	29.4	42.8
Black African	Male	9.9	74.0	16.1	41.7	28.5	29.8
	Female	6.6	70.3	23.2	33.1	30.7	36.1
Black other	Male	6.6	79.1	14.3	29.4	19.9	50.7
	Female	5.7	80.1	14.1	26.8	18.2	55.0
Indian	Male	5.0	85.8	9.1	42.3	25.6	32.1
	Female	5.6	86.1	8.3	39.8	24.4	35.8
Pakistani	Male	5.8	82.8	11.4	39.7	27.9	32.4
	Female	6.3	85.7	8.1	34.7	27.9	37.4
Bangladeshi	Male	4.8	85.4	9.8	32.0	38.5	29.4
	Female	5.0	87.7	7.3	33.5	33.9	32.6
Chinese	Male	9.8	83.9	6.3	50.6	18.0	31.3
	Female	9.9	83.8	6.2	36.0	16.4	47.6
Asian other	Male	8.7	84.3	7.0	40.6	16.2	43.2
	Female	8.7	83.6	7.8	30.1	15.0	54.9
Other	Male	10.4	80.5	9.1	46.3	19.4	34.3
	Female	8.3	83.0	8.7	37.7	20.3	42.0
Unknown	Male	24.5	66.4	9.0	55.4	8.8	35.8
	Female	19.9	63.4	16.7	43.9	11.3	44.8
Total	Male	9.5	82.6	8.0	41.0	13.2	45.8
	Female	8.6	80.0	11.3	32.0	14.7	53.3
Missing	Male	10.5	83.6	5.9	53.9	28.1	18.0
	Female	8.4	76.6	15.0	32.3	37.4	30.3

Source: HESA (DfEE)

Differences are evident between ethnic groups and by gender:

- Black-African, Chinese and 'Other' men are characterised by relatively high percentages studying full-time for postgraduate qualifications compared with the other ethnic groups.
- All groups have higher percentages studying part-time for postgraduate qualifications, particularly Chinese, 'Other', Black-African and Indian men.
- White males and females, Black-Other males and females and Asian-Other males and females are particularly well-represented among Open University students.
- There is a lower percentage of black students studying full-time First Degree courses than other ethnic groups.

Some higher education students are based in Further Education institutions (a total of nearly 161,000 in 1998/99). The majority (89%) are white, with 2% being Black Caribbean, Indian and Pakistani. Of the remaining ethnic groups, the proportions were 1% or below.

## 5.7 Subject distribution of students

There are significant subject differences by both gender and ethnic group of students in HEIs in Great Britain. Minority ethnic students are more highly represented than their White counterparts in certain subjects, such as Law, Medicine and Dentistry and Computing. Some of the key subject differences are:

- Chinese women and Indian women and men are particularly well-represented in Business and Administration studies.
- Computing science is a popular choice for minority ethnic male students, particularly those of Pakistani and Indian origin. Female students from minority ethnic groups are also more likely than White female students to select this subject.
- Engineering and Technology is a subject area chosen by men in particular, especially Chinese, Black-African and Bangladeshi men.
- Relatively high percentages of South Asian, Chinese and Asian-Other students are represented in Medicine and Dentistry.
- Subjects allied to medicine are popular for women, particularly Black-African, Black-Caribbean and White women.
- Pakistani and Bangladeshi women are relatively highly represented in Law and this subject is a more popular choice for Black and South Asian students than for White students.
- White women also have relatively high percentages in education<sup>8</sup>.

Table 2 in Appendix 2 contains further detail on subject differences between students from individual ethnic groups.

## 5.8 Initial teacher training

Data on ethnic group are collected for applications and acceptances<sup>9</sup> to postgraduate initial teacher training (ITT) and undergraduate education courses in England and Wales,<sup>10</sup> so giving an indication of percentages of those from different minority ethnic groups entering the teaching profession.

The total number of acceptances onto PGCE courses in 1999/2000 was just over 19 thousand, of whom 84 per cent were white. Just 5.4 per cent were from minority ethnic groups (the rest were 'not known').

---

<sup>8</sup> This corresponds with information earlier regarding groups in initial teacher training (see section 5.8).

<sup>9</sup> Undergraduate and PGCE courses at year of entry

<sup>10</sup> The data include FE PGCE teaching courses that do not lead to qualified teacher status in schools.

**Table 5.6: Percentages of applicants accepted, withdrawals and unplaced on postgraduate ITT courses, 1995/96 to 1999/2000**

Ethnic group	1995/96			1996/97			1997/98			1998/99			1999/2000		
	Acceptances	Withdrawals	Unplaced	Acceptances	Withdrawals	Unplaced	Acceptances	Withdrawals	Unplaced	Acceptances	Withdrawals	Unplaced	Acceptances	Withdrawals	Unplaced
White	51.4	21.5	27.1	55.4	19.1	25.5	58.6	14.7	26.7	59.4	15.1	25.5	59.7	15.4	24.9
Black Caribbean	42.6	17.9	39.5	47.8	17.6	34.5	50.7	14.6	34.7	49.5	11.9	38.6	46.6	16.8	36.6
Black African	29.5	15.0	55.5	35.3	19.9	44.7	29.2	17.6	53.2	28.6	15.0	56.4	30.7	11.7	57.6
Black Other	52.9	13.5	33.7	40.4	23.6	36.0	54.9	11.8	33.3	50.5	16.5	33.0	47.7	11.9	40.4
Indian	47.2	19.4	33.3	45.9	17.7	36.4	52.1	13.9	34.0	50.1	14.9	34.9	51.5	13.6	34.9
Pakistani	47.9	17.8	34.3	49.0	21.4	29.6	46.5	14.2	39.3	52.2	13.7	34.1	50.0	15.8	34.2
Bangladeshi	43.9	13.1	43.0	49.5	17.1	33.3	46.0	16.8	37.2	46.3	13.2	40.5	46.9	16.9	36.2
Chinese	42.1	26.3	31.6	43.0	34.2	22.8	54.9	12.7	32.4	47.1	20.0	32.9	48.8	19.1	32.1
Other-Asian	46.6	18.3	35.2	42.0	14.9	43.1	44.9	18.0	37.1	49.2	11.6	39.2	39.0	16.9	44.1
Not Known	51.2	17.2	31.6	50.0	17.7	32.3	55.4	14.4	30.2	57.4	13.6	29.0	51.9	13.9	34.2

Source: GTTR Annual Reports, 1995 to 1999 entry

Note: there are comparatively low numbers of applicants from the Black-Other, Bangladeshi and Chinese groups and thus caution should be exercised in interpretation.

Includes those applicants who are not qualified.

During the academic years 1995/96 to 1999/2000, acceptances of white applicants to *postgraduate courses* were consistently higher proportionately than for other ethnic groups. Correspondingly, relatively low percentages of white applicants were unplaced (Table 5.6). Black-African applicants had the lowest percentage of acceptances and the highest percentage of unplaced applicants. All minority ethnic groups had higher percentages of unplaced applicants than did the white group throughout this five year period.

The picture for *undergraduate education courses* is somewhat different. In 1999/2000, the Black African, Asian Other and Not Known groups had the highest percentages of acceptances to undergraduate education courses (Table 5.7). All other ethnic groups had lower percentages, particularly the Bangladeshi group (although the numbers from this ethnic group are too small to draw firm conclusions from).

Applications to undergraduate courses were more likely to come from women than men. Overall 82 per cent of applicants in 1999/2000 were women, and female applicants outnumbered male applicants in each ethnic group<sup>11</sup>.

Overall, 5 per cent of those undertaking primary courses in their final year of training in 1997/98 and 7 per cent of those doing secondary courses were from a minority ethnic group<sup>12</sup>.

<b>Table 5.7: Acceptances to undergraduate education courses as a percentage of total applicants, 1999/2000</b>		
	<b>1999/2000</b>	
	<b>Percent of acceptances</b>	<b>Number of acceptances</b>
White	73.3	11,573
Black-Caribbean	60.8	101
Black-African	82.4	42
Black-Other	70.9	61
Indian	63.1	140
Pakistani	62.6	117
Bangladeshi	57.4	31
Chinese	91.7	11
Other-Asian	86.0	49
Other	69.0	100
Not known	83.5	809
<b>Total</b>	<b>73.4</b>	<b>13,034</b>

Includes some education courses which do not lead to qualified teacher status (QTS)

Source: UCAS Annual Report, 1999 entry, Tables G3 and G4

<sup>11</sup> The majority of undergraduate acceptances are for primary ITT courses. Female applicants to PGCE courses were around 69 per cent in 1999/2000. The higher percentage of females accepted to undergraduate education courses compared to PGCE courses is mainly due to the majority of undergraduate acceptances being for primary ITT courses. This is an important factor in the gender split as many more women train to be primary teachers than men.

<sup>12</sup> TTA Initial Teacher Training Performance Profiles, 1999. The corresponding 'not known' percentages are 5 per cent for primary and secondary courses.

**Table 5.8: Applicants to postgraduate ITT courses 1999/2000 by subject area (percentages by subject)**

Ethnic group	Primary	Maths	English & Drama	Science	Modern Lang's inc Welsh	Technology	History	Geog'y	Physical Education	Art	Music	Religious Education	Other	Adult Education	Middle	Total (n)
White	38.5	4.5	9.4	10.2	6.5	4.8	5.2	4.1	4.4	4.1	2.1	2.5	0.6	1.5	1.6	26870
Black Caribbean	38.3	3.7	12.8	11.1	6.4	11.7	2.7	1.7	2.3	3.7	0.7	2.0	0.0	3.0	0.0	298
Black African	24.0	18.0	4.5	21.0	9.1	12.6	1.1	1.5	0.4	0.6	0.2	3.7	0.2	2.6	0.4	462
Black Other	38.5	4.6	7.3	12.8	7.3	9.2	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	1.8	1.8	0.0	5.5	0.0	109
Indian	42.4	8.2	5.6	20.7	2.2	8.2	1.8	1.3	1.1	2.2	0.4	1.8	0.5	3.1	0.5	550
Pakistani	33.5	12.1	7.2	21.6	0.7	8.4	3.3	1.9	0.7	1.4	0.0	4.4	0.9	2.8	1.2	430
Bangladeshi	44.6	10.8	8.5	19.2	0.0	6.2	1.5	0.8	0.0	1.5	0.0	0.0	0.8	5.4	0.8	130
Chinese	22.6	23.8	6.0	15.5	3.6	7.1	3.6	1.2	4.8	4.8	1.2	1.2	0.0	3.6	1.2	84
Other-Asian	24.4	21.1	4.7	22.5	3.8	9.4	1.9	1.4	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	0.0	2.8	0.5	213
Other/Unknown	31.4	6.3	9.6	9.1	13.7	6.9	4.8	3.3	2.8	4.1	1.8	2.6	0.9	1.7	1.1	3766
Total	37.4	5.2	9.2	10.7	7.2	5.3	5.0	3.9	4.0	4.0	2.0	2.5	0.6	1.7	1.5	32912

Source: GTTR Annual Statistical Report 1999

<sup>1</sup> Includes design and technology, information technology, business studies and home economics.

<sup>2</sup> Includes economics, social studies and classics

Applications to postgraduate teacher training courses by subject of study show differences by ethnic group (Table 5.8).

Key differences include:

- Relatively high percentages of students from the Other-Asian, Pakistani, Black-African, Indian and Bangladeshi ethnic groups applied to teach science.
- A high percentage of applications from Chinese, Other-Asian and Black-African students were for mathematics courses, whereas the corresponding percentage for the white ethnic group was below average.
- Students from minority ethnic groups were more likely than white students to study technology, particularly those of Black-African and Black-Caribbean origin.
- White applicants were somewhat more likely than other groups to opt for history.
- For PGCE primary ITT courses, the percentages of Black-African and Other-Asian students were relatively low.

## 5.9 Degree class

Table 5.9 shows that a greater percentage of White first degree graduates than graduates from other groups achieve an upper second or first class degree. Black students have the greatest percentages obtaining a lower second class degree. Such figures should be treated with some caution, however, as levels of attainment may relate to other factors such as socio-economic background, prior qualifications and academic and pastoral support received while in higher education. Connor *et al* (1996) also point to the need to investigate the question of attainment and ethnicity further. Attainment levels may also be seen in the context of the age cohort. As some minority ethnic groups have higher percentages of particular age cohorts participating in higher education than do their White counterparts<sup>13</sup>, it could be argued that there are comparatively higher percentages of the full age cohort attaining a degree.

per cent	First class honours.		Upper second class honours.		Lower second and undivided 2nd class .		3rd class, 4th class & pass		Unclassified, general & ordinary		Total (n)	
	1997/8	1998/9	1997/8	1998/9	1997/8	1998/9	1997/8	1998/9	1997/8	1998/9	1997/8	1998/9
	White	7.8	8.1	44.7	45.0	33.8	33.6	6.3	6.3	6.8	7.1	175904
Black Caribbean	2.1	1.4	26.9	28.5	49.6	51.6	14.0	15.0	4.1	3.5	2078	2186
Black African	1.5	2.3	21.4	22.8	48.7	50.4	21.8	20.7	3.9	3.8	2663	3070
Black other	3.3	2.8	29.5	29.2	43.4	50.3	15.4	13.0	6.2	4.7	892	917
Indian	4.3	4.5	33.0	33.7	43.5	43.6	10.9	11.4	6.5	6.9	6690	7312
Pakistani	3.1	3.9	29.6	28.1	44.1	45.1	13.4	14.6	7.5	8.3	2936	3365
Bangladeshi	3.0	4.5	29.1	30.9	46.9	44.0	13.8	15.6	4.2	5.1	766	964
Chinese	6.8	6.1	36.0	35.2	36.7	39.6	11.8	11.9	7.3	7.1	1825	2003
Asian other	5.2	5.5	34.3	34.9	38.4	38.0	13.5	12.6	7.6	9.1	2090	2254
Other	6.5	7.0	39.4	38.9	36.9	38.1	9.9	10.0	6.0	6.0	2814	3000
Unknown	7.8	7.3	39.8	44.0	29.9	33.1	10.1	10.0	12.3	10.6	26427	1767
Total	7.4	7.7	42.8	43.1	34.3	34.6	7.5	7.3	7.4	7.3	225085	229339

Source: HESA (DfEE)

<sup>13</sup> For example, South Asian groups have higher proportions of the under 21 age cohort in higher education.

## 5.10 Graduate destinations

The First Destinations Survey (FDS) takes place six months after graduating. Given that graduates in the 1990s may take considerably longer than formerly to become assimilated in the labour market in jobs which may be deemed appropriate for their skills and qualifications (Purcell, Pitcher and Simm, 1999), these first destinations should be seen as indicative only.

Appendix 2 Table 3 shows the situation of 1998/99 graduates at the time of the FDS. It can be seen from this that there are significant differences not only according to ethnicity, but also gender:

### 5.10.1 *Permanent, temporary and self-employment*

Higher percentages of White graduates than graduates from other groups are in permanent employment. In general, slightly higher percentages of males than females overall are in permanent employment. However, in the Black African, Black-Other and Bangladeshi groups, women are more likely than men to be in permanent employment. White and Black-Other women are more likely than other students to be in permanent employment. Those least likely to be in permanent employment are women of Pakistani or Chinese origin. White, Black-Other and Black-Caribbean men are most likely and Black-African, Bangladeshi and Chinese men least likely to be in permanent employment.

Very low percentages overall are self-employed.

### 5.10.2 *Education and training*

South Asian, Black-African and Chinese groups have somewhat higher percentages than average in education and training in the UK. A study in 1996 (Purcell and Pitcher, 1996) found that South Asian undergraduates were more likely than other groups to indicate that they intended to pursue further study after graduating.

### 5.10.3 *Unemployment*

All minority ethnic groups have higher unemployment rates than the white group. In the case of Black Caribbean and Black-Other graduates, the rate is almost double that for White graduates, while for Pakistani and Bangladeshi graduates it is greater than this. The rate for Black-African graduates is more than 2.5 times the average unemployment rate for graduates. Indian, Asian-Other and Chinese graduates experience the lowest rates for minority ethnic groups, but these are still in excess of the average.

Unemployment is a particular problem for males, particularly Black-African men, where the rate is nearly 17 per cent. For Black-Caribbean and Bangladeshi men, the rate is around 13 per cent and for Pakistani men 11 per cent, compared with the average for males of 7.0 per cent.

### 5.10.4 *Occupational and sectoral profiles*

The occupational profile of graduates varies according to ethnicity (Appendix 2 Table 4). The FDS shows that:

- Black-Caribbean graduates are somewhat more likely than other groups to be in managerial occupations.
- Pakistani, Indian, Chinese and Asian-Other graduates are more likely than other groups to be in professional occupations, whereas Black-Caribbean graduates are more likely to be in associate professional occupations.
- Relatively high percentages of graduates are in clerical and secretarial occupations six months after leaving higher education. Bangladeshi, Black-African, Black-Caribbean and Black-Other are somewhat more likely than other groups to be in these occupations.



New graduates tend to be mainly in five sectors (see Appendix 2 Table 5): business services (property development, renting, business and research), health and social work, manufacturing, education and wholesale and retail. Percentages differ according to ethnic group:

- White graduates are somewhat more likely than other groups to be in manufacturing.
- South Asian graduates are more likely than others to be in wholesale and retail.
- Around a third of Chinese and a quarter of Black-African, Indian and Asian-Other graduates are in Business services, compared with an average of 21.4 per cent.
- Black-Other and White graduates are proportionately above the average in education.
- Indian and Black-Caribbean graduates are more in evidence than other groups in health and social work.

## 5.11 Conclusion

There are marked variations between minority ethnic groups in participation and attainment in higher education.

Black students tend to be older than average (i.e. there are more mature students), are more likely than average to have non-standard qualifications on entry to higher education, and are more likely to study on a part-time basis. By contrast, South Asian students display a younger age profile.

The proportion of trainees in their final year of teacher training in 1997/98 from minority ethnic groups (at 5 per cent of those undertaking primary courses and 7 per cent of those doing secondary courses) is lower than the percentage of pupils in schools from minority ethnic groups.

In general, students from minority ethnic groups are more likely than their White counterparts to be studying at the 'new' universities, although this is not so much the case for Chinese and Other Asian students. White students are more likely than students from minority ethnic groups to attain first or upper second class degrees, and are more likely to be in permanent employment soon after graduating.

Highly qualified Black-African men are more likely than average to suffer unemployment on leaving higher education.

The increased representation of minority ethnic students in higher education has important implications for the career paths of minority ethnic groups. There is evidence to suggest that participation in higher education improves labour market prospects overall, although the labour market for graduates displays a certain level of differentiation (Pitcher and Purcell, 1998). Employment outcomes also differ according to the type of university attended and factors such as degree class. Employer discrimination may also continue to be a factor for some minority ethnic graduates, which may lessen the potential gains of possession of higher level qualifications.

## References

- Connor, H., I. la Valle, N. D. Tackey and S. Perryman (1996) *Differences by degrees: ethnic minority graduates*. (Brighton: IES).
- Hogarth, T., Maguire, M., Pitcher, J., Purcell, K. and Wilson, R. (1997) *The participation of non-traditional students in higher education* (Bristol: HEFCE).
- McNay, I. (1992) *Visions of post-compulsory education* (Buckingham: SRHE/OU).
- Modood, T and Shiner, M. (1994) *Ethnic minorities and higher education*. London: PSI.
- Owen, D (1994), *South Asian people in Great Britain: social and economic circumstances* (Coventry: University of Warwick, CRER).
- Pitcher, J. and K. Purcell (1998) 'Diverse Expectations and Access to Opportunities: is there a Graduate Labour Market?'. *Higher Education Quarterly*, 52, No 2, Apr: 179-203.
- Purcell, K. and Pitcher, J. (1996) *Great Expectations: the new diversity of graduate skills and aspirations* (Manchester: CSU).
- Purcell, K., Pitcher, J. and Simm, C. (1999) *Working Out? Graduates' early experiences of the labour market* (Manchester: CSU).
- Woodrow, M. and Crosier, D. (1996) *Access for under-represented groups. Vol II: report on Western Europe* (Strasbourg: Council of Europe).

## Chapter 6

### Patterns of labour market participation

#### Summary

##### *Labour market participation*

- The percentage of the population of working age economically active is higher for white people than for minority ethnic groups.
- Black-Caribbean people display higher rates of economic activity than people from other minority ethnic groups. Pakistani and Bangladeshi women display extremely low economic activity rates.
- Economic activity rates are higher for men than women. In most ethnic groups, the economic activity rate for married women is higher than that for women who are not married.
- Economic activity rates are higher for people aged 25 to 44 than for younger and older people. Differences in participation rates between ethnic groups are least in this age group.

##### *Employment, unemployment and earnings*

- In general, men from minority ethnic groups are more likely to work in the service sector than white men. Bangladeshi and Chinese men in work are still highly concentrated in the distribution sector (which includes restaurants). Public sector services are a particularly important source of work for women from minority ethnic groups.
- Men from minority ethnic groups as a whole are less likely than white men to be in high status or skilled manual occupations, and are more likely to be semi-skilled manual workers. However, a higher than average percentage of Indian, Chinese, Other-Asian men are managers and administrators or professionals (Black-African men are also more likely than average to be in associate professional occupations).
- The percentage in self-employment is highest for men from the South Asian ethnic groups, but lower than average for people from Black ethnic groups.
- Minority unemployment rates are usually at least twice as high as those for white people, and highest for Bangladeshi, Pakistani and Black-African people. However, Indian and Chinese people tend to experience relatively low unemployment rates.
- Male earnings are highest for the white and lowest for the Pakistani/Bangladeshi ethnic group. Amongst people from minority ethnic groups, wage rates are highest for people from the Mixed and Other ethnic groups. People from all ethnic groups have higher hourly wage rates in London than elsewhere. Indian people earn more than Black people. White women earn more than women from minority ethnic groups in London, but outside London, women from the Mixed and Other ethnic groups have the highest earnings.

##### *The “New Deal”*

- People from minority ethnic groups are less likely than white people to move into employment (either unsubsidised or subsidised) from New Deal, and are more likely to go into further education and training.
- People from Black ethnic groups are least likely and Indian people most likely to obtain unsubsidised employment on leaving the Gateway. White people are more likely than people from minority ethnic groups to move into subsidised employment.

#### 6.1 Introduction

The message of a series of studies of the labour market has been that unemployment rates for people from minority ethnic groups have been consistently higher than those for white people, while their degree of participation in the labour force has been lower (Brown, 1984; Jones, 1993; Owen, 1993). In addition to

the continuing existence of racial discrimination in recruitment and promotion, the problems of minority ethnic groups in gaining access to the labour market and employment have been intensified by:

- the transformation of the British economy from domination by manufacturing to reliance upon service industries,
- the associated relative shift of employment towards white-collar jobs, jobs for women and part-time employment, and by
- the emergence of a problem of mass unemployment since the mid-1970s.

As noted in Chapter 2, minority ethnic group populations contain a large proportion of young adults and children who have been (or will be) seeking to find employment. The late 1980s and early 1990s was a period of low demand for labour, with limited employment opportunities and higher unemployment rates. However, the effect of the “demographic time-bomb” in reducing the number of white people in the younger economically active age range has potentially offered this cohort of young people an opportunity for entry to the labour market not open to older people from minority ethnic groups as employers have had to seek new sources of labour and in doing so often abandon any racially discriminatory hiring practices. This imperative has been reinforced by the sustained growth of the British economy during the mid- and late-1990s, which has resulted in falling unemployment and increasing employment, especially in southern England.

This chapter describes the participation in the labour market of people from minority ethnic groups across the entire working age range (conventionally defined as being from 16 to 59 years of age for women and from 16 to 64 for men). The detailed information on employment and unemployment is presented for 1998, the most recent year for which data was available at the time this report was written. This recent information is placed within the context of longer term trends, through the presentation of data from the 1991 Census of Population (which permits greater disaggregation of the results by age and gender, since it is based upon the entire population, rather than a sample) and selected findings from the PSI Fourth National Survey of Ethnic Minorities (Modood et. al., 1997). At the end of the chapter information is presented on early experience of the ‘New Deal’ (in 1998 and early 1999): the central element of the Government’s Welfare to Work policies.

## 6.2 Labour Market participation

### 6.2.1 *Variations in economic activity by age group and gender*

An analysis of labour market participation by ethnic group in 1991 revealed considerable variations across the age range<sup>1</sup>. For the population as a whole, the percentage of men seeking work is very low for those who have reached minimum school-leaving age, then rises to reach a maximum for men in their late twenties, remaining at a high level until it starts to decline as retirement age approaches. The percentage of men from minority ethnic groups in the labour force is smaller than for white men throughout the age range and increases more slowly with increasing age, to reach a maximum in the 40-44 year age group. Men from the Black-Caribbean and Black-Other ethnic groups have a similar pattern of economic activity by age to white men, but the increase in participation rates with age is slower for men from other minority ethnic groups, since their rate of participation in further and higher education is higher than for white men.

For women, the pattern of labour market participation is complicated by child-bearing, since many mothers withdraw from the labour force while their children are young<sup>2</sup>. As a result the overall female economic

---

<sup>1</sup> Owen (1997) analysed the detailed pattern of economic activity rates by 5-year age group for each ethnic group and gender using data from the 1991 Census of Population (this analysis cannot be repeated using Labour Force Survey data, because of the small sample sizes). These findings are briefly summarised here, in order to provide a context for the patterns described for 1998.

<sup>2</sup> In some ethnic groups, the data suggests that mothers do not return to the labour force.

activity rate reaches a peak for women in their mid-to-late twenties, falls for women in their early thirties, and then rises again to a higher peak for women in their late thirties, declining again for women aged over 50. Peak rates of labour market participation are lower for women from minority ethnic groups as a whole than for white women and occur at a slightly older age, in the 25-29 and 45-49 year age groups.

However, the pattern of economic activity by age is radically different for Pakistani and Bangladeshi women than for women from other ethnic groups. Those aged 16-19 were most likely to be economically active, but their economic activity rates then declined with increasing age, with the percentage of women in their thirties economically active being particularly low. Modood et. al. (1997) note that the low economic activity rates of these two ethnic groups reflect the low labour market participation rates of Asian Muslim women, which they suggest are a product of the cultural norms of this religious group, the generally low degree of economic activity of women with unemployed husbands (since unemployment rates are high for Muslim people), and the high percentage of women from these ethnic groups with poor English language skills. Indeed, the PSI Fourth National Survey of Ethnic Minorities demonstrates a clear decline in economic activity with declining levels of education and fluency in English for Pakistani and Bangladeshi women.

Table 6.1 summarises variations in the percentage of the population economically active (in work or seeking work) across the working age range, using three broad divisions into young workers (16-24 year olds), the core working ages (25-44 years) and older workers (aged from 45 to retirement age). White economic activity rates are well above those for people from minority ethnic groups as a whole. Amongst men of working age (aged 16 to 64), only Black-Caribbean and Indian men have economic activity rates close to the white rate, while Bangladeshi and Chinese men are distinctive in having very low economic activity rates. The differential between white and minority economic activity rates is wider for women, though 75 per cent of Black-Caribbean women of working age are economically active, a rate slightly above that of white women and much higher than for women from any other minority ethnic group. At the other extreme, female economic activity rates are lowest for the Bangladeshi and Pakistani ethnic groups.

Economic activity rates are highest for people aged 25 to 44; 93 per cent of men and 76 per cent of women in this age group are in the labour force. Just over three-quarters of men and two-thirds of women in the younger age groups are economically active, but only 77 per cent of men and 70 per cent of women in the older age range are still in the labour force.

Economic activity rates are lower than average for *16-24 year olds*, because of the relatively high percentage of young people who stay in full-time education (see Chapter 4), though this varies between ethnic groups. The difference in labour market participation rates between people from white and minority ethnic groups is greatest in this age group. The white male economic activity rate is closest to that for Black-Caribbean and Black-Other men. The next highest economic activity rates are displayed by Indian men, more than three-fifths of whom are in the labour force, while just over half of Pakistani and Bangladeshi men and only 47 per cent of Chinese and Other men are economically active. White women are most likely to be in the labour force, while three-fifths of Black-Other young women are economically active. Only two-thirds of Black-Caribbean and half of women from Indian and "Chinese and Other" ethnic groups are economically active. However, economic activity rates for Pakistani and Bangladeshi women (at around 35 per cent) are higher in this age group than for women aged 25 and over.

The male-female differential in economic activity rates widens further in the *25-44 year old age group*. Turning first to men, Indian and white men display the highest economic activity rates, followed by Pakistani and Black-Caribbean men. The percentage of Bangladeshi men economically active is lower than for any other ethnic group, but differentials between ethnic groups are smallest in this age range, with more than 80 per cent of men from all ethnic groups in the labour force. Turning to women, Black-Caribbean

**Table 6.1: Economic activity rates in Great Britain by age group and gender, 1999**

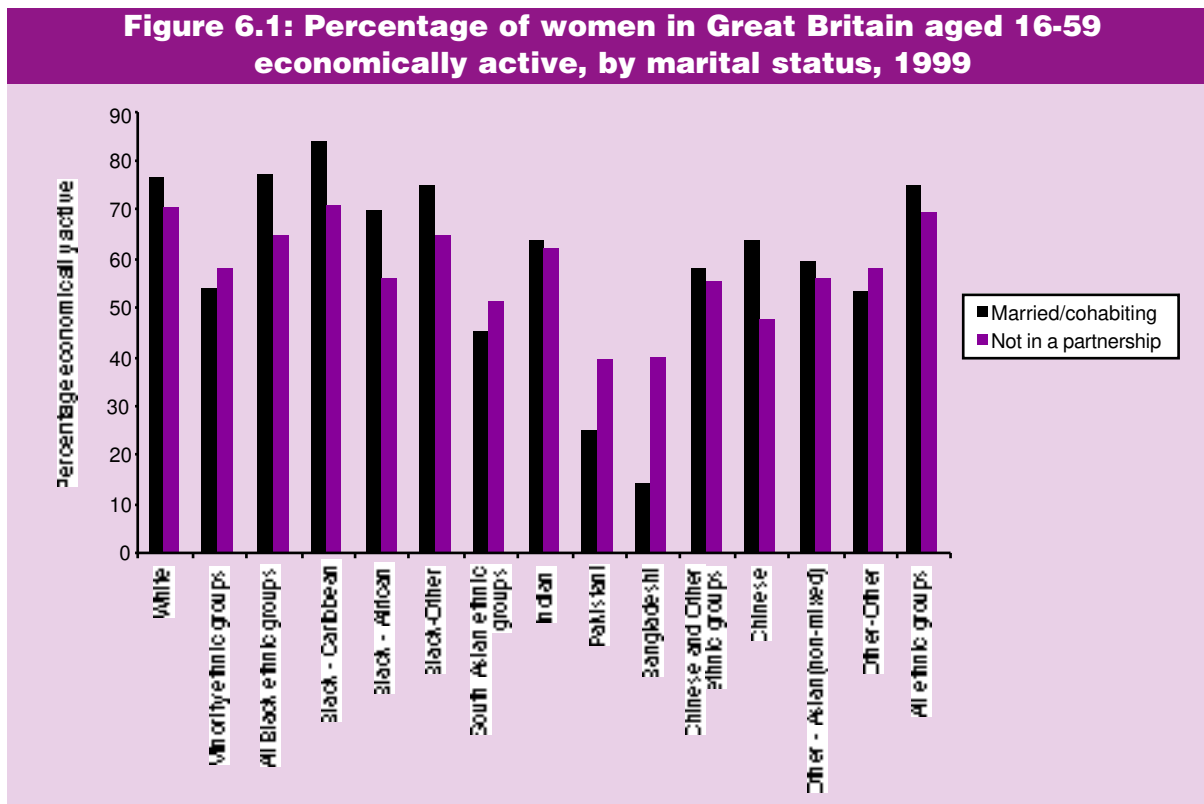
	Male				Female			
	16-64	16-24	25-44	45-64	16-59	16-24	25-44	45-59
White	85	78	94	78	74	70	78	71
<b>Minority ethnic groups</b>	<b>77</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>88</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>55</b>
<i>Black</i>	78	69	86	69	68	54	72	72
Black – Caribbean	80	77	89	65	75	63	78	72
Black – African	76	50	84	77	61	40	65	71
Black – Other	81	78	83	-	67	59	72	-
<i>South Asian</i>	77	59	91	67	47	45	51	41
Indian	82	62	95	74	63	56	69	56
Pakistani	74	56	89	62	30	35	31	21
Bangladeshi	65	55	81	40	22	36	-	-
<i>Chinese &amp; Other</i>	74	47	85	78	57	46	58	64
Chinese	63	-	83	73	57	-	63	64
Other - Asian	77	46	85	82	58	52	58	64
Other - Other	76	58	86	77	55	49	55	66
<b>All</b>	<b>85</b>	<b>76</b>	<b>93</b>	<b>77</b>	<b>73</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>76</b>	<b>70</b>

Source: Labour Force Survey, mean of Spring 1999 to Winter 1999/2000

Note: In this and subsequent tables based on data from the Labour Force Survey, percentages are suppressed (-) where the weighted cell count on which they are based is less than 6,000. This is because the associated standard error for the percentage exceeds 20 per cent. Percentages are rounded to the nearest whole number.

and white women have the highest economic activity rates, followed by Black-Other and Indian women. Three-fifths or more of women from most ethnic groups are economically active, with the major exception of Bangladeshi and Pakistani women. Only 31 per cent of Pakistani women are economically active, and there are too few economically active Bangladeshi women in this age range for the percentage to be reported. Among men *aged 45 to 64*, economic activity rates are substantially lower on average than for 25 to 44 year olds. Men from the Other-Asian ethnic group display the highest economic activity rates, and those for Black-African and Other-Other men are similar to those of white men, slightly greater than the percentage of Indian and Chinese men economically active. The effects of early retirement, loss of industrial jobs and age discrimination are most apparent for South Asian men, with the percentage of Bangladeshi men economically active halving to 40 per cent and the percentage of Pakistani men economic active declining by 27 compared with the corresponding rate for 25 to 44 year olds. Economic activity rates are also lower in this age range for women, with just over half of women from minority ethnic groups *aged 45 to 59* active in the labour market. The decline is least for Black women, nearly three-quarters of whom are still in the labour force, displaying economic activity rates similar to those of white women. Economic activity rates decline most for South Asian women, with just over half of Indian women and only a fifth of Pakistani women aged over 45 still in the labour force.

## 6.2 Variations in female economic activity by marital status



Source: Labour Force Survey, mean of Spring 1999 to Winter 1999/2000

An important influence upon the participation of women in the labour market is their partnership status. Many women traditionally chose to take responsibility for looking after the home and raising children full-time once they became married, and thus withdrew from the labour force. However, patterns of partnership formation have changed substantially in recent decades, with many women<sup>3</sup> now choosing to cohabit rather than marry or to bring up a family without being married. Figure 6.1 contrasts the percentage of women economically active who are married or cohabiting with those who are not in a partnership for each ethnic group (for women aged 16 to 59). Overall, the percentage of women economically active is slightly higher for those who are married or cohabiting than for those not in a partnership.

For white women, there is very little difference in economic activity rates between those who are married or cohabiting women and those who are not in a partnership. In contrast, among women from minority ethnic groups as a whole, women without a partner have slightly higher economic activity rates than those with a partner. White married or cohabiting women are slightly less likely to be economically active than similar Black-Caribbean women, but white women not in a partnership are more likely than women from minority ethnic groups as a whole with no partner to be economically active.

Amongst married or cohabiting women, Black women are most likely to be in the labour force. Black-Caribbean women have the highest economic activity rate (83 per cent). Over 60 per cent of married and cohabiting Indian and Chinese women are economically active, but only 25 per cent of Pakistani and 14

<sup>3</sup> Mainly from the white, Black-Caribbean and Black-Other ethnic groups; this tendency is much less common for women from the South Asian, Chinese or Other-Asian ethnic groups.

per cent of Bangladeshi married and cohabiting women are in the labour force. For most of the minority ethnic groups (opposite to the average of all minority ethnic groups added together), a smaller percentage of women without partners than married or cohabiting women are economically active. This is probably because of the relatively high rates of marriage and early age of marriage in South Asian ethnic groups (Modood, et. al, 1997, 23-28), which means that most non-married women will be young, a large percentage of whom will be still engaged in full-time education. The difference in economic activity rates is least for Indian and Other-Asian women. In contrast to other ethnic groups, a much higher percentage of non-married than married women are economically active in the Pakistani and Bangladeshi ethnic groups, implying that marriage greatly reduces the chances of women from these ethnic groups seeking employment. Given that the economic activity rate for Pakistani and Bangladeshi women falls dramatically with increasing age, their low average age of marriage and the low economic activity rates of married women from these ethnic groups, it is probable that most of the economically active will be very young, and if they follow the pattern revealed in current data, will withdraw from the labour market to take on full-time domestic responsibilities once they marry.

### 6.3 Employment structure

The basic characteristics of employment by ethnic group for 1999 are summarised for men and women separately in Table 6.2. Overall, more than 80 per cent of men and over 90 per cent of women from both white and minority ethnic groups are employees. The bulk of the remainder are self-employed, with less than one per cent being on government employment and training programmes. The proportion of the employed population accounted for by employees is greatest in the Black ethnic groups, with 87 per cent of men and 96 per cent of women working as employees.

Self-employment is much more common for men than for women, and most common among South Asian people. A fifth of South Asian men are self-employed (a much larger fraction than for white men), though the average for South Asian women is almost the same as that for white women. The largest percentages of men self-employed occur in the Pakistani (25 per cent), Chinese (21 per cent) and Indian (19 per cent) ethnic groups. The highest percentages of women self-employed are in the Chinese and Other ethnic groups. The percentages of both men and women from Black ethnic groups in self-employment is well below those of other ethnic groups. The Labour Force Survey for 1999 reveals a lower incidence of self-employment than the PSI Fourth National Survey of Ethnic Minorities<sup>4</sup>, though the differentials between ethnic groups revealed by the two sources are broadly similar.

#### 6.3.1 *The industrial breakdown of employment*

The industrial breakdown of employment by ethnic group for 1997-99 is presented in Table 6.3 for men, women and all workers. Given that the percentage distribution of men and women across industries is very different, the discussion highlights gender differences as well as ethnic differences in industrial specialisation.

- Overall, 60 per cent of men and 86 per cent of women work in the service sector. This sector provides 76 per cent of all men from minority ethnic groups with employment.
- Only 24 per cent of all men, 19 per cent of men from minority ethnic groups as a whole, and only 11 per cent of all women work in manufacturing industry.
- For men, the percentage working in manufacturing industry is highest for the white ethnic group, followed by the Indian, Pakistani and Black-Caribbean ethnic groups. At the other extreme, only 12 per cent of Black-African and 14 per cent of Chinese men have manufacturing sector jobs.
- The agriculture and fishing and energy and water industries are now relatively small employers and predominantly employ white men.

<sup>4</sup> Which was carried out four years earlier, during the early stages of recovery from a deep economic recession, while 1998 was a period of economic prosperity.



**Table 6.2: Type of work by ethnic group and gender in Great Britain, 1999**

Ethnic group	Men				Women			
	All in work (000s)	Employees	Self-employed	Gover'nt scheme	All in work (000s)	Employees	Self-employed	Gover'nt scheme
White	14,097	84	15	1	11,506	92	7	0
<b>Minority ethnic groups</b>	<b>793</b>	<b>82</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>580</b>	<b>92</b>	<b>6</b>	
-								
Black	218	87	12	-	219	96	3	
-								
Black - Caribbean	104	87	13	-	116	97	-	-
Black - African	75	85	13	-	62	95	-	-
Black - Other *	18	89	-	-	20	95	-	-
Black - Mixed	21	90			21	95	-	-
South Asian	421	78	20	-	232	90	8	
-								
Indian	249	80	19	-	177	90	8	-
Pakistani	130	73	25	-	45	91	-	-
Bangladeshi	42	86	-	-	9	89	-	-
Chinese & Other	154	84	16	-	130	89	8	
-								
Chinese	28	75	21	-	31	81	-	-

Source: Labour Force Survey, mean of Spring 1999 to Winter 1999/2000

\* Non-mixed

- Amongst men from minority ethnic groups, only for the Black-Caribbean ethnic groups is the construction industry a significant source of employment.
- The service sector employs a much smaller percentage of white men than men from minority ethnic groups. This percentage is highest for Bangladeshi and Chinese men (at 91 and 88 per cent, respectively) and Black-African men (85 per cent) and least for Black-Caribbean (67 per cent) and Indian (72 per cent) men.

The *distribution industry* section (including restaurants and retail businesses) is the largest single source of service sector jobs for men from minority ethnic groups (accounting for 27 per cent of the total), employing 70 per cent of Bangladeshi and 58 per cent of Chinese men (Sly et. al. [1998] found an even greater degree of concentration, with over 60 per cent of Bangladeshi and 40 per cent of Chinese men working in the restaurant trade). The percentage of other South Asian men working in distribution is less than half that for Bangladeshis, while only 17 per cent of white and 19 per cent of Black men work in this industry.

The percentage of men from minority ethnic groups working in *transport and communications* is slightly higher than that for white men, being highest (at 19 per cent) for Pakistani men (12 per cent of whom were taxi drivers or chauffeurs). The Banking, finance and insurance industries employ 15 per cent of white men and 16 per cent of men from minority ethnic groups on average, but 25 per cent of Black-African men work in this industry. The percentages of men working in *Public administration* is highest for the Other-Other (21 per cent) and Black-African (20 per cent) ethnic groups, while 9 per cent of Black-Caribbean men work in *Other Services*, compared with an average of 5 per cent, and only 2 per cent of South Asian men.

The degree of concentration into a few industries was much more marked for women; the largest industry divisions were *public administration, education and health; distribution, and banking, finance and insurance*. In contrast with men, manufacturing employs only 11 per cent of women. Most women from minority ethnic groups working in this section are from the Indian (18 per cent of all Indian women in work) and Pakistani (17 per cent) ethnic groups. Almost no women work in the construction sector. Women from minority ethnic groups as a whole are slightly more likely than white women to work in *distribution*, but there are substantial differences between ethnic groups. This industry provides the bulk of employment for Chinese women (42 per cent), but employs only 15 per cent of Black-Caribbean women.

In both white and minority ethnic groups, 15 per cent of all women work in the *banking, finance and insurance* section. Indian women are most likely (18 per cent) and Black-Caribbean women (13 per cent) are least likely to work in this industry. Public sector services (*public administration, education and health*) employs 38 per cent of all women, and half of all Black women. Most Black-Caribbean (55 per cent) and almost as many Black-African (47 per cent) women work in this sector. Around a third of women in most other ethnic groups work in this industry, but Indian (27 per cent) and Chinese (29 per cent) are least likely to work in these services.

### 6.3.2 *The occupational breakdown of employment*

The industrial distribution of employment powerfully influences the occupational distribution of work (Table 6.4). Once again, there is a marked gender specialisation of work imposed on the contrasting specialisation in employment by ethnic group.

- The most common occupations (employing over 10 per cent of all those in work) for men are: *craft & related* and *managers & administrators*, followed by *plant & machine operatives* and *professional occupations*.
- The most common occupations for women are *clerical & secretarial*, then *personal & protective services*, followed by *managers & administrators, sales occupations* and *associate professional & technical occupations*.

*Men* from minority ethnic groups as a whole are less likely than white men to be employed as *managers & administrators*. However, this average obscures the very low percentage of Black-Caribbean, Black-African and Bangladeshi men (10, 13 and 16 per cent, respectively) in such occupations and the high percentage of Chinese (27 per cent), Other-Asian (24 per cent) and Indian (22 per cent) men in such jobs. This partly reflects the high percentage of self-employed businessmen among men from South and South East Asian ethnic groups. The percentage of men from minority ethnic groups in *professional occupations* is higher than the corresponding percentage for white men, being particularly high for the Other-Other (22 per cent), Indian (19 per cent), Other-Asian (17 per cent), Chinese (16 per cent) and Black-African men (14 per cent), but lower than average for Black-Caribbean (8 per cent) and Pakistani men (10 per cent). Black-African (12 per cent) and Other-Asian (11 per cent) men are also more likely than men from other ethnic groups to work in *associate professional and technical* occupations (which includes nursing and teaching assistants).

About a fifth of white and Black-Caribbean men work in *craft & related* (skilled manual) jobs, nearly twice as high a percentage as for men from most minority ethnic groups. Men from minority ethnic groups as a whole are more likely than white men to work in *personal and protective service occupations*, with 42 per cent of Bangladeshi and 28 per cent of Chinese men having such jobs (most of whom probably work in the restaurant industry). Sales occupations (perhaps mainly related to retailing) are most common among Pakistani and Other-Asian men (10 and 11 per cent, respectively), while 28 per cent of Pakistani men are employed in (semi-skilled manual) *plant & machine operative* jobs. This percentage is double that for men from most other ethnic groups, the main exception being the Black-Caribbean ethnic group, 18 per cent

**Table 6-3: Breakdown of employment by industry: Percentages of all employees and self-employed (mean for Great Britain, 1997 to 1999)**

Industry Section	All ethnic	Men													Women																					
		White	Minority ethnic	Black	Black-Caribbean	Black-African	Black-Other	Black-Mixed	South Asian	Indian	Pakistani	Bangladeshi Chinese & Other	Chinese	Other-Asian	Other-Other	Other-Mixed	White	Minority ethnic	Black	Black-Caribbean	Black-African	Black-Other	Black-Mixed	South Asian	Indian	Pakistani	Bangladeshi Chinese & Other	Chinese	Other-Asian	Other-Other	Other-Mixed					
<b>All employees &amp; self-employed (000s)</b>	<b>14,452</b>	<b>13,710</b>	<b>740</b>	<b>214</b>	<b>104</b>	<b>75</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>380</b>	<b>240</b>	<b>103</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>146</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>11,712</b>	<b>11,168</b>	<b>541</b>	<b>205</b>	<b>117</b>	<b>51</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>211</b>	<b>164</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>126</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>31</b>		
A-B: Agriculture & fishing	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
C,E: Energy & water	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
D: Manufacturing	24	25	19	17	21	12	-	-	22	24	23	-	14	-	16	-	-	11	11	11	6	7	-	-	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
F: Construction	11	12	4	7	10	-	-	-	3	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
G-H: Distribution, hotels & restaurants	17	17	29	19	15	22	-	-	32	26	31	70	37	58	33	28	27	23	23	24	18	15	19	-	30	42	25	29	29	25	29	29	22	22	22	
I: Transport & communication	9	9	11	12	12	11	-	-	12	11	19	-	8	-	-	-	-	4	4	4	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
J-K: Banking, finance & insurance, etc	15	15	16	20	16	25	-	-	15	17	13	-	15	-	16	-	-	15	15	16	20	16	25	-	15	-	16	-	16	-	16	-	19	19	19	
L-N: Public admin., education & health	14	14	15	17	15	20	-	-	13	15	10	-	17	-	17	21	17	14	14	15	17	15	20	-	17	-	17	-	17	21	21	17	17	17	17	17
O-Q: Other services	5	5	4	8	9	-	-	-	2	3	-	-	6	-	-	-	-	5	5	4	8	9	-	-	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
G-Q: Total services	60	59	76	75	67	85	77	77	74	72	74	91	82	88	82	82	76	86	86	87	93	91	96	93	93	80	79	82	88	89	91	92	88	85	85	
<b>All employees &amp; self-employed (000s)</b>	<b>11,712</b>	<b>11,168</b>	<b>541</b>	<b>205</b>	<b>117</b>	<b>51</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>211</b>	<b>164</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>126</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>31</b>	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
A-B: Agriculture & fishing	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
C,E: Energy & water	0	0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	11	11	11	6	7	-	-	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
D: Manufacturing	11	11	11	6	7	-	-	-	18	18	17	-	9	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
F: Construction	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	23	23	24	18	15	19	-	30	42	25	29	29	25	29	22	22	22	22	
G-H: Distribution, hotels & restaurants	23	23	24	18	15	19	-	-	26	25	26	-	30	42	25	29	22	4	4	4	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
I: Transport & communication	4	4	4	5	-	-	-	-	5	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	15	15	15	14	13	16	-	15	-	15	-	15	-	15	-	-	-	-	
J-K: Banking, finance & insurance, etc	38	38	38	50	55	47	48	35	28	27	35	-	35	29	39	39	33	38	38	38	50	55	47	48	35	28	27	35	35	39	39	39	33	33	33	
L-N: Public admin., education & health	7	7	5	6	-	-	-	-	4	-	-	-	7	-	-	-	-	7	7	5	6	-	-	-	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
O-Q: Other services	86	86	87	93	91	96	93	93	80	79	82	88	89	91	92	88	85	86	86	87	93	91	96	93	93	80	79	82	88	89	91	92	88	85	85	
G-Q: Total services	86	86	87	93	91	96	93	93	80	79	82	88	89	91	92	88	85	86	86	87	93	91	96	93	93	80	79	82	88	89	91	92	88	85	85	

Source: Labour Force Survey (mean of Spring quarters for 1997, 1998 and 1999)  
 Note: percentages are suppressed (-) where the weighted number of workers is less than 4,800

**Table 6.3 (continued): Breakdown of employment by industry: Percentages of all employees and self-employed (mean for Great Britain, 1997 to 1999)**

Industry/Section	Persons																
	All ethnic	White	Minority ethnic	Black	Black-Carib'n	Black-African	Black-Other	Black-Mixed	South Asian	Indian	Pakis'	B'ladeshi & Other	Chinese	Other-Asian	Other-Other	Other-Mixed	
<b>All employees &amp; self-employed (000s)</b>	<b>26,164</b>	<b>24,878</b>	<b>1,281</b>	<b>419</b>	<b>221</b>	<b>126</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>591</b>	<b>403</b>	<b>144</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>272</b>	<b>69</b>	<b>85</b>	<b>51</b>	<b>66</b>
A-B: Agriculture & fishing	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
C-E: Energy & water	1	1	0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
D: Manufacturing	18	19	16	12	14	8	-	-	21	22	21	-	11	-	12	-	14
F: Construction	7	7	3	4	5	-	-	-	2	3	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
G-H: Distribution, hotels & restaurants	20	20	27	18	15	20	22	28	30	26	29	65	33	50	30	29	25
I: Transport & communication	7	7	8	8	8	9	-	-	10	9	14	-	6	-	-	-	-
J-K: Banking, finance & insurance, etc	15	15	16	17	14	21	-	-	16	18	13	-	15	13	16	-	18
L-N: Public admin., education & health	24	24	25	33	36	31	35	25	18	20	17	-	25	20	27	29	24
O-Q: Other services	6	6	5	7	7	7	-	-	3	3	-	-	6	-	-	-	-
<b>G-Q: Total services</b>	<b>72</b>	<b>71</b>	<b>81</b>	<b>84</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>89</b>	<b>85</b>	<b>86</b>	<b>76</b>	<b>75</b>	<b>76</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>85</b>	<b>89</b>	<b>86</b>	<b>85</b>	<b>80</b>

Source: Labour Force Survey (mean of Spring quarters for 1997, 1998 and 1999)

Note: percentages are suppressed (-) where the weighted number of workers is less than 4,800

of whom work in such jobs. Black men (12 per cent) are more likely than men from other ethnic groups to work in *other* (unskilled manual) occupations, which are least common among Indian men (5 per cent).

The occupational distribution of women from minority ethnic groups is similar to that of white women, except that the percentage working in associate professional & technical, professional, craft & related occupations and plant and machine operatives is higher and the percentage working as managers and administrators and in clerical and secretarial occupations is lower. The percentage of women working as managers & administrators or in professional occupations is particularly low in the Black ethnic groups, but 17 per cent of Chinese women are managers & administrators, while 15 per cent of Chinese women work in professional occupations, compared with only 10 per cent of white women. However, associate professional & technical occupations are most common for Black-Caribbean (18 per cent), Black-African (17 per cent) and Other-Mixed (16 per cent) women, while Indian women (9 per cent) are much less likely than average to work in such jobs.

*Clerical & secretarial* jobs account for around 25 per cent of all women in work in most ethnic groups, but are most common for women from the Black-Other (33 per cent) and Other-Mixed (30 per cent) ethnic groups and least common for the Chinese (14 per cent) and Black-African (16 per cent) ethnic groups. Black women (26 per cent of Black-African women) are more likely and South Asian women (notably, only 7 per cent of Indian women) less likely than average to work in *personal & protective service* occupations. *Sales occupations* are most common for women from the Indian ethnic group (13 per cent) and least common for Black-Caribbean women (7 per cent). A slightly higher percentage of women from minority ethnic groups than white women work as *plant & machine operatives*, mainly because 11 per cent of Indian women work in such jobs. Only 8 per cent of all women are in *other* (unskilled manual) occupations, with white women being more likely than women from most minority ethnic groups to have such jobs, though 18 per cent of Black-African women (a percentage well above the corresponding figure for men) have such jobs.

**Table 6.4: Breakdown of employment by occupation: Percentages of all employees and self-employed (mean for Great Britain, 1997 to 1999)**

SOC Major Group	All ethnic	White	Minority ethnic	Men										All ethnic			
				Black-Carib'n	Black-African	Black-Other	Black-Mixed	South Asian	Indian	Pakis'i	B'ladeshi Chinese & Other	Chinese	Other-Asian		Other-Other	Other-Mixed	
<b>All employees &amp; self-employed (000s)</b>	<b>14,821</b>	<b>14,078</b>	<b>741</b>	<b>214</b>	<b>104</b>	<b>75</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>381</b>	<b>240</b>	<b>104</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>147</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>36</b>
1 Managers and administrators	20	20	18	11	10	13	*	*	20	22	18	16	22	27	24	23	16
2 Professional occupations	12	11	14	10	8	14	*	*	15	19	10	*	16	16	17	22	*
3 Associate prof & tech occupations	9	9	9	11	10	12	*	*	7	8	5	*	11	*	11	*	*
4 Clerical, secretarial occupations	7	7	9	10	8	11	*	*	9	10	8	*	7	*	*	*	*
5 Craft and related occupations	20	21	11	13	20	*	*	*	10	11	9	*	8	*	*	*	16
6 Personal, protective occupations	6	6	10	12	10	15	*	*	8	4	6	42	15	28	*	*	*
7 Sales occupations	5	5	8	7	5	8	*	*	8	7	10	*	9	*	11	*	*
8 Plant and machine operatives	14	14	14	14	18	11	*	*	17	14	28	*	6	*	*	*	*
9 Other occupations	7	7	8	12	11	12	*	*	6	5	8	*	6	*	*	*	*
<b>Women</b>																	
<b>All employees &amp; self-employed (000s)</b>	<b>12,007</b>	<b>11,463</b>	<b>542</b>	<b>205</b>	<b>117</b>	<b>51</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>211</b>	<b>164</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>126</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>31</b>
1 Managers and administrators	12	12	10	8	7	*	*	*	11	12	*	*	12	17	*	*	*
2 Professional occupations	10	10	11	8	9	*	*	*	11	11	*	*	14	15	14	*	*
3 Associate prof & tech occupations	11	11	13	17	18	17	*	*	9	9	*	*	14	15	12	*	16
4 Clerical, secretarial occupations	25	25	24	23	25	16	33	*	25	26	24	*	22	14	21	26	30
5 Craft and related occupations	2	2	4	*	*	*	*	*	7	7	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
6 Personal, protective occupations	16	16	15	21	20	26	*	*	8	7	13	*	15	17	15	*	*
7 Sales occupations	11	11	11	9	7	*	*	*	13	13	12	*	12	*	*	*	*
8 Plant and machine operatives	4	4	6	3	*	*	*	*	10	11	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
9 Other occupations	8	9	8	10	8	18	*	*	5	5	*	*	7	*	*	*	*

Source: Labour Force Survey (mean of Spring quarters for 1997, 1998 and 1999)  
 Note: percentages are suppressed (-) where the weighted number of workers is less than 7,800

**Table 6.4 (continued): Breakdown of employment by occupation: Percentages of all employees and self-employed (mean for Great Britain, 1997 to 1999)**

SOC Major Group	Persons																
	All ethnic	White	Minority ethnic	Black Caribbean	Black African	Black-Other	Black-Mixed	South Asian	Indian	Pakistani	Bangladeshi & Other	Chinese	Other-Asian	Other-Other	Other-Mixed		
<b>All employees &amp; self-employed (000s)</b>	<b>26,828</b>	<b>25,540</b>	<b>1,283</b>	<b>419</b>	<b>221</b>	<b>126</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>592</b>	<b>404</b>	<b>144</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>272</b>	<b>69</b>	<b>86</b>	<b>51</b>	<b>66</b>
1 Managers and administrators	16	16	15	10	9	11	*	14	17	18	15	15	18	22	18	16	14
2 Professional occupations	11	11	12	9	9	11	*	*	13	15	10	*	15	16	16	20	11
3 Associate prof & tech occupations	10	10	11	14	14	14	14	*	8	9	6	*	12	12	11	12	14
4 Clerical, secretarial occupations	15	15	15	16	17	13	25	15	15	16	12	*	14	9	14	15	19
5 Craft and related occupations	12	12	8	8	10	*	*	*	9	10	9	*	5	*	*	*	9
6 Personal, protective occupations	11	11	12	16	15	19	*	14	8	5	8	37	15	23	12	16	12
7 Sales occupations	8	8	9	8	6	8	*	14	10	9	11	12	10	9	11	9	11
8 Plant and machine operatives	9	9	10	9	10	7	*	*	15	13	23	*	4	*	*	*	*
9 Other occupations	8	8	8	11	10	15	*	*	6	5	7	*	6	*	8	*	*

Source: Labour Force Survey (mean of Spring quarters for 1997, 1998 and 1999)

Note: percentages are suppressed (-) where the weighted number of workers is less than 7,800

### 6.3.3 Duration of employment

Another important aspect of employment is the stability of employment, which can be measured by the length of time for which an individual has held their current job in 1998 (Table 6.5). More than a third of white men and a over quarter of white women have been employed in their current job for more than ten years, compared with just under a quarter of men and a fifth of women from minority ethnic groups. People from minority ethnic groups are more likely than white people to have held this job less than a year.

People from the Black-Caribbean and Indian ethnic groups, together with the Chinese and Other ethnic groups, have the longest average periods employed in their current jobs. At the other extreme, Black-African, Black-Other, Pakistani and Bangladeshi men and women experience the shortest periods of current employment. Around three-quarters of people from these ethnic groups have been working in their present jobs for 5 years or less. Clearly, length of employment is partly related to age: older people will have the opportunity to have worked for their employer for longer. Thus, very few people from the more youthful ethnic groups (e.g. Bangladeshi and Black-Other people) have spent long periods in their current job.

<b>Table 6.5: Length of time in current job by ethnic group and gender in Great Britain, 1999</b>								
	<b>Male</b>				<b>Female</b>			
	<b>&gt;1 year</b>	<b>1-5 years</b>	<b>5-10 years</b>	<b>10 years +</b>	<b>&gt;1 year</b>	<b>1-5 years</b>	<b>5-10 years</b>	<b>10 years +</b>
White	18	30	15	36	21	34	17	28
<b>Minority ethnic groups</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>16</b>	
<b>21</b>								
<i>Black</i>	24	40	14	22	26	36	15	23
Black - Caribbean	18	37	16	28	24	33	15	29
Black - African	32	44	11	14	29	43	16	12
Black - Other	33	39	-	16	38	38	-	-
<i>South Asian</i>	23	36	14	26	26	36	18	20
Indian	21	32	15	32	24	34	20	22
Pakistani	25	42	14	19	29	45	-	15
Bangladeshi	35	36	-	18	-	-	-	-
<i>Chinese &amp; Other</i>	25	38	13	24	28	39	12	21
Chinese	-	37	-	23	23	42	-	22
Other - Asian	25	35	15	25	28	35	14	23
Other - Other	26	41	9	23	32	40	-	18

Source: Labour Force Survey, mean of Spring 1999 to Winter 1999/2000

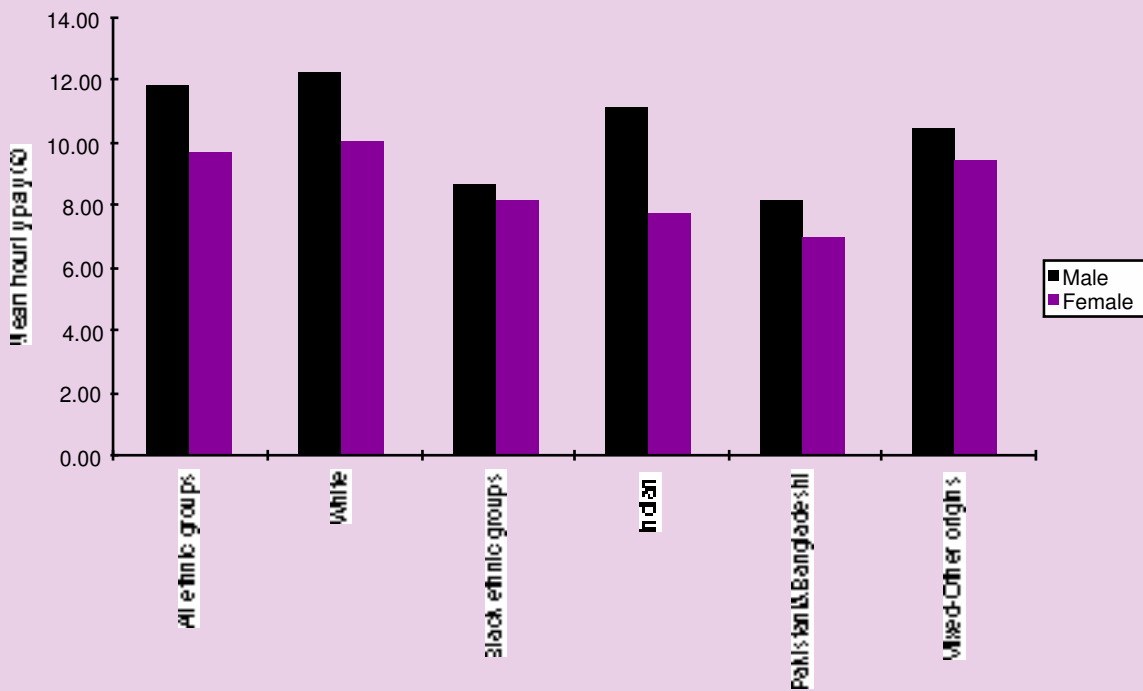
## 6.4 Earnings

Earnings are difficult to compare between ethnic groups and between men and women as a result of differences in the composition of employment in terms of status of employment and hours worked, and differences in deductions. Moreover, there are substantial differences in wages rates between the regions of Great Britain, the most significant of which is the difference in average pay rates between London and the rest of the country.

In order to reduce the complicating effect of these factors, here the gross hourly pay of full-time employees is compared between broad ethnic groupings. Wages of men and women living in Greater London and the rest of Britain are compared (Figures 6.2 and 6.3)

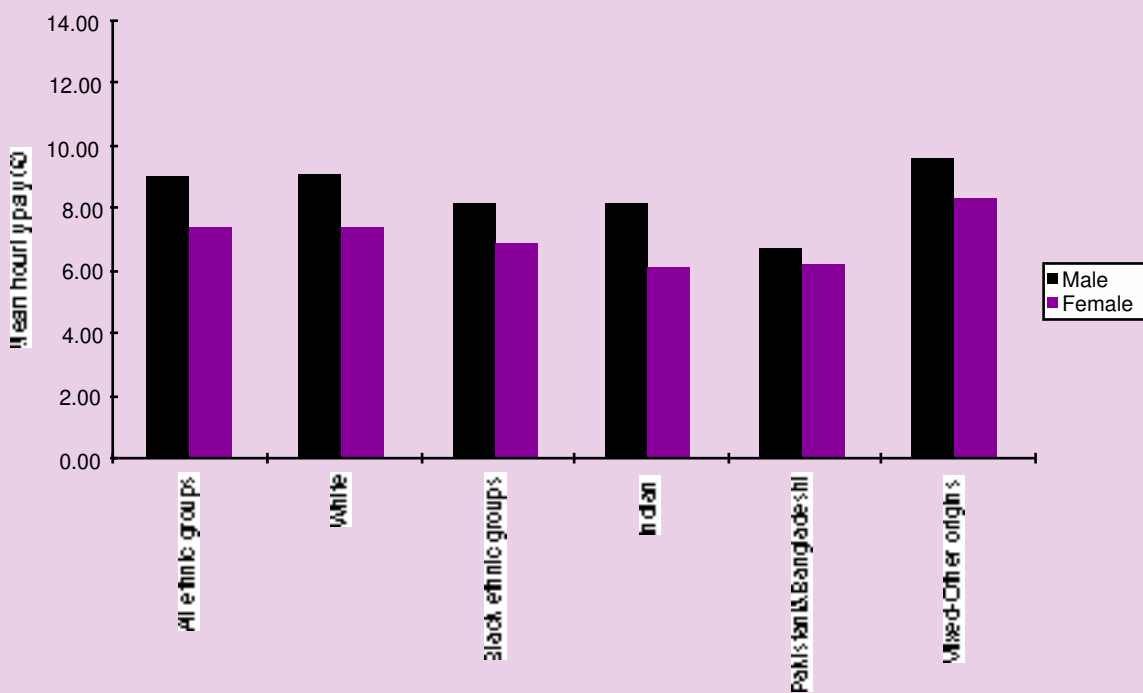


**Figure 6.2: Gross hourly rates of pay for full-time employees by ethnic group and gender: London**



Source: Labour Force Survey, mean for Spring 1998 to Winter 1998/9 (not seasonally adjusted)

**Figure 6.3: Gross hourly rates of pay for full-time employees by ethnic group and gender: Rest of Great Britain**



Source: Labour Force Survey, mean for Spring 1998 to Winter 1998/9 (not seasonally adjusted)

Average hourly rates of pay are £11.81 for men in London, £9.64 for women in London, £9.04 for men living elsewhere in Britain and £7.27 for women living elsewhere in Britain. Thus, wage rates are about 30 per cent higher in London than elsewhere, and male wages are more than 20 per cent greater than female wage rates for all ethnic groups taken together across the whole of Great Britain.

The pattern for London is simpler than for the rest of Britain. Hourly wage rates are higher for white men and women than for those from all minority ethnic groups. However, Indian men earn considerably more than men from the Black and Pakistani/Bangladeshi ethnic groupings and slightly more than men with Mixed and Other<sup>5</sup> ethnic origins. Amongst men, wage rates are lowest for Pakistanis and Bangladeshis, slightly less than those for Black men. The pattern for women is slightly different. Hourly wage rates are slightly lower for women from Mixed and Other ethnic origins, just above those of Black women, who earn more than Indian women. Once again, hourly earnings are lowest for the Pakistani and Bangladeshi ethnic grouping. White men earn about 20 per cent more than women, but Indian men earn 40 per cent more than Indian women. The differential in hourly earnings is smallest for men and women from Black and Mixed and Other ethnic groups.

The differential in wage rates between London and the rest of the country is greatest for Indian men and white women, amongst whom people living in London earn about 40 per cent more than those living in the rest of Britain.

In the rest of Britain, Mixed-other people experience the highest hourly wage rates. Men earn on average £0.58 more than white men, while women earn £1.01 more per hour than white women. Hourly earnings for Indian and Black men are similar, around £0.90 lower than those of white men, but Pakistani and Bangladeshi men earn around £2.50 less than white men. Differentials in wage rates between women from different ethnic groups are narrower than those for men. White women earn around £0.50 per hour more than Black women, who earn around £0.70 per hour more than South Asian women. Indian women's earnings are slightly lower than those of Pakistani and Bangladeshi women. The gender differential in wage rates is narrowest for Pakistani and Bangladeshi people.

Modood et. al. (1997) found that only Chinese men matched the earnings of white men, and that Pakistani (and especially) Bangladeshi men had the lowest weekly earnings. Chinese, Caribbean, Indian and African Asian women earned more than white women, but Pakistani and Bangladeshi women again experienced the lowest levels of earnings. Within the South Asian ethnic groups, they also reveal there were higher average earnings for Hindu people and lower average earnings for Muslim people at the time of their survey (1994/5). In his analysis of household incomes, Berthoud (1998) identified a similar gradient of income, from Chinese, African Asian and Indian households with the highest incomes to Pakistani and Bangladeshi households with the lowest incomes.

## 6.5 Unemployment

The pattern of unemployment rates by ethnic group, gender and marital status is summarised in Table 6.6 (for all persons aged 16 and over). White people experience the lowest rates of unemployment, with minority ethnic group unemployment rates more than twice as high for men and over 2.5 times as high for women. The unemployment rates for women is slightly lower than that for men for both white people and people from minority ethnic groups taken as a whole. Married women experience much lower unemployment rates than those who are not married or cohabiting (partly because the benefit system encourages married women who have been unemployed for more than a year to leave the labour force). White women not in a partnership experience unemployment rates three times higher than those of married

---

<sup>5</sup> This ethnic grouping includes Chinese and Other-Asian people, but not Black-Other people with mixed parentage.

**Table 6.6: Unemployment rates for Great Britain by ethnic group and gender (all persons aged 16 and over), 1999**

	All	Men	Women	Married or cohabiting women	Women not in a partnership
White	6	6	5	3	9
<b>Minority ethnic groups</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>19</b>
<i>Black</i>	16	17	14	8	18
Black – Caribbean	13	15	12	-	14
Black - African	17	15	18	-	22
Black - Other	19	22	17	-	22
<i>South Asian</i>	12	11	12	7	20
Indian	8	8	8	5	15
Pakistani	16	15	20	-	26
Bangladeshi	24	21	-	-	-
<i>Chinese&amp;Other</i>	12	12	11	-	17
Chinese	10	-	-	-	-
Other - Asian	9	-	-	-	-
Other - Other	15	16	13	-	-
<b>All</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>9</b>

Source: Labour Force Survey, mean of Spring 1999 to Winter 1999/2000

or cohabiting women, and this differential is almost as great among women from minority ethnic groups (where numbers unemployed are large enough to permit this comparison).

Overall, 16 per cent of Black people, 12 per cent of South Asian people and 12 per cent of people from the Chinese and Other ethnic groups are unemployed, but these averages for broad ethnic groupings disguise much larger differences between individual ethnic groups. The highest unemployment rate (24 per cent) is experienced by Bangladeshi people, and nearly a fifth of Black-Other and Pakistani people are also unemployed. On the other hand, unemployment rates experienced by Indian, Chinese and Other-Asian people are only half as high (but still one-and-a-half times the white unemployment rate).

These differentials also hold for men, for whom unemployment rates are highest in the Black-Other and Bangladeshi ethnic groups. Female unemployment rates are slightly lower than male unemployment rates in most ethnic groups, the only exception being for Black-African and Pakistani women. Female unemployment rates are lowest for Indian women, but still high higher than that for white women. Unemployment rates are highest for Pakistani, Black-African and Black-Other women. Unemployment rates for women not in a partnership are much higher than those for married or cohabiting women. For example, 26 per cent of non-married Pakistani women are out of work.

#### 6.5.1 Unemployment rates by age

Table 6.7 contrasts unemployment rates by ethnic group, gender and the three age bands used to describe economic activity rates in section 6.2.1.

**Table 6.7: Unemployment rates for Great Britain by age group, gender and ethnic group, 1999**

	Male				Female			
	16-64	16-24	25-44	45-64	16-59	16-24	25-44	45-59
White	6	14	5	5	5	10	4	3
<b>Minority ethnic groups</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>10</b>	
<b>8</b>								
<i>Black</i>	17	25	13	19	14	28	13	-
Black - Caribbean	15	29	9	-	12	-	12	-
Black - African	15	-	16	-	18	-	15	-
Black - Other	22	-	-	-	17	-	-	-
<i>South Asian</i>	11	20	9	11	12	26	8	-
Indian	7	17	5	-	8	-	6	-
Pakistani	15	21	11	-	20	38	-	-
Bangladeshi	21	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Chinese&amp;Other</i>	12	24	11	-	11	-	9	-
Chinese	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other - Asian	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other - Other	16	-	14	-	13	-	-	-

Source: Labour Force Survey, mean of Spring 1999 to Winter 1999/2000

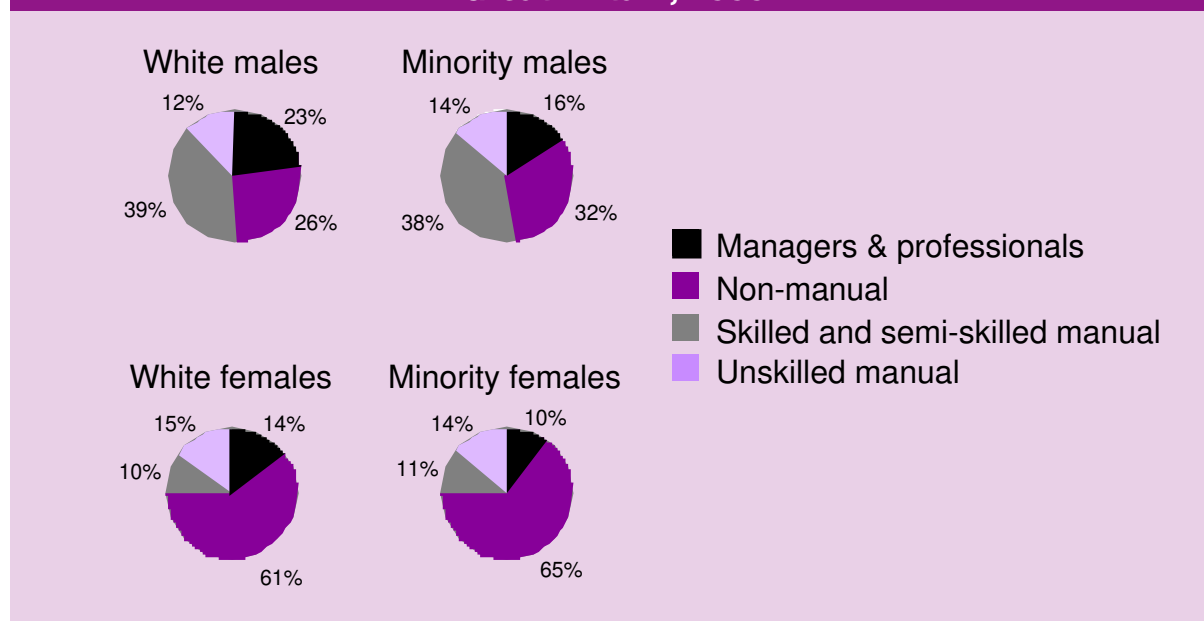
Unemployment rates decline with increasing age for both men and women, but are typically at least twice as high for all people from minority ethnic groups as for white people in each age group. Women from all ethnic groups have lower unemployment rates than men for those aged from 16 to 24 and from 45 to retirement age. Over a fifth per cent of young economically active men (aged 16 to 24) from minority ethnic groups are out of work, with 29 per cent of Black-Caribbean men and 24 per cent of men from Chinese and Other ethnic groups and 21 per cent of Pakistani men unemployed, compare with 14 per cent of young white men. The average unemployment rate for young women from minority ethnic groups is two-and-a-half times the corresponding figure for white women aged 16-24, and the few instances in which numbers unemployed are large enough for statistically reliable unemployment rates reveal some extremely high rates of unemployment. Over a quarter of young women from Black ethnic groups and 38 per cent of Pakistani women aged 16-24 are unemployed.

Minority ethnic group unemployment rates are much lower in the 'prime' economically active age range (25-44 years), With highest unemployment rates recorded by Black-African men (at 16 per cent). In most ethnic groups, male unemployment rates are under half those of 16-24 year olds. Indian men have an unemployment rate as low as that for white men. The pattern for women aged 25-44 is similar, with a sixth of Black-African women unemployed. The unemployment rate for men from minority ethnic groups as a whole aged 45-64 is higher than that for 25-44 year old men, in both the Black and South Asian ethnic groups. The unemployment rate for women from minority ethnic groups is much lower in this age group than in the two younger age groups, but is still more than twice that of white women.

#### 6.5.2 Occupational breakdown of unemployment

The occupational breakdown of the last job held by unemployed people from white and minority ethnic groups as a whole (aggregated because of small sample numbers) is presented in Figure 6.4 for men and for women. People in lower-status occupations tend to be at greater risk of unemployment, and these would thus be expected to predominate.

**Figure 6.4: Previous occupations of the unemployed in Great Britain, 1999**



Source: Labour Force Survey, mean of Spring 1999 to Winter 1999/2000

This pattern is found for white men, with 51 per cent of the unemployed having previously worked in skilled and semi-skilled manual jobs (comprising SOC major groups *craft & skilled workers* and *plant & machinery operators*) and unskilled manual jobs (SOC major group *other occupations*), and unskilled occupations are more common than for men from minority ethnic groups. The share of these low status occupations for men from minority ethnic groups as a whole is slightly higher (52 per cent). They are much more likely (32 per cent) than white men (26 per cent) to have previously held a non-manual job (SOC major groups *clerical, sales and personal and protective service occupations*). The percentage who previously worked in a managerial and professional job (SOC major groups *managers and administrators* and *professional occupations*) is higher (23 per cent) for white men than for men from minority ethnic groups (16 per cent).

For both white and minority ethnic groups as a whole, the bulk of the female unemployed previously held non-manual jobs (SOC major groups *clerical, sales and personal and protective service occupations*), with more than a tenth having previously worked as managers and professionals. There is little difference between the occupational profile of women from the white and minority ethnic groups, but white women are slightly more likely to have been unskilled manual workers (SOC major group *other occupations*).

These patterns are strongly influenced by the industrial and occupational concentration of people from white and minority ethnic groups. Hence, non-manual occupations, which are more common in the service sector, form a larger component of minority ethnic group unemployment, while manual jobs, which are more common in manufacturing industry, are more prominent among the white unemployed.

### 6.5.3 Unemployment duration

The length of time men and women from different ethnic groups have been out of work is summarised in Table 6.8. This distinguishes long-term (over 1 year), longer-term (2-5 years) and very long-term unemployment (more than 5 years).

There is little difference between white people and minority ethnic groups as a whole in the distribution of unemployment durations, with nearly two-thirds of men and over three-quarters of women out of work for less than a year, and 9 per cent of men, but only 3 per cent of women unemployed for 5 years or more. Women from minority ethnic groups are slightly more likely than white women to have been unemployed for more than a year, with those from the South Asian and Chinese and Other ethnic groups being most likely to have been unemployed for less than a year. Both men and women from Black ethnic groups are more likely than people from other ethnic groups to have experienced lengthy periods of unemployment.

**Table 6.8: Distribution of unemployment durations in Great Britain by ethnic group and gender, 1999 (percentages of all unemployed)**

	Male				Female			
	under 1 year	1-2 years	2-5 years	5 years +	under 1 year	1-2 years	2-5 years	5 years+
White	67	13	11	10	81	9	6	3
<b>Minority ethnic groups</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>75</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>9</b>	
-								
Black	58	17	16	-	68	18	-	-
South Asian	68	15	-	-	79	-	-	-
Chinese & Other	67	-	-	-	82	-	-	-

Source: Labour Force Survey, mean of Spring 1999 to Winter 1999/2000

## 6.6 Welfare to Work: early experience of the New Deal

New Deal programmes are a key element in attempts to enhance employability and achieve social inclusion through work. In this section information is presented on the participation and experience of different ethnic groups in:

- *the New Deal for young unemployed people* - introduced in 12 'pathfinder' areas in January 1998 and nationally in April 1998. It was aimed at those individuals aged 18-24 years who have been claiming Jobseeker's Allowance (JSA) continuously for a period of six months, although some groups are entitled to early entry to New Deal before reaching the six-month point. Those joining New Deal first enter a Gateway period lasting up to four months, during which efforts are made to improve employability and find unsubsidised jobs. Those who do not find a job move onto one of four options:
  - subsidised employment,
  - full-time education/training,
  - a job with an environmental task force, or
  - a job in the voluntary sector.
- *the New Deal for long-term unemployed people aged 25 years and over* - introduced nationally in June 1998. It is aimed at those aged 25 years and over who have been claiming JSA continuously for a period of two years, although some groups are entitled to entry to New Deal before reaching the two-year point. Those joining New Deal first enter an Advisory Interview process lasting between three and six months, during which time efforts are made to improve employability and find unsubsidised jobs. Those who do not find a job may transfer to other provision or move onto one of two New Deal-specific measures:
  - a period of subsidised employment,
  - a course of full-time education/training.

New Deal statistics provide regular monthly information on the progress of New Deal (i.e. numbers of people leaving and joining, their personal characteristics, which options they follow, etc, and on immediate and longer-term outcomes of New Deal participants); (for further details see Daly and Bentley [1999]). One of the personal characteristics on which information is recorded is self-assessed ethnic origin. Standard

ethnic group classifications are used, with the addition of a specific option for the client to record 'preferred not to say'; (chosen by about 5 per cent of clients).

#### 6.6.1 *The New Deal for young unemployed people*

Table 6.9 shows the number of young people participating in the New Deal over the period from January 1998 to January 2000 in Great Britain.

<b>Table 6.9: Number of individuals from ethnic minorities on 18-24 New Deal, January 1998-January 2000</b>			
<b>Date</b>	<b>Total (000s)</b>	<b>Ethnic minorities (000s)</b>	<b>Ethnic minorities (% of total)</b>
January 1998	6.4	0.66	10.3
February 1998	10.4	1.07	10.3
March 1998	14.2	1.66	11.7
April 1998	35.8	4.59	12.8
May 1998	64.9	8.66	13.3
June 1998	82.8	11.43	13.8
July 1998	102.8	14.25	13.9
August 1998	113.4	15.96	14.1
September 1998	121.1	16.96	14.0
October 1998	127.7	17.95	14.1
November 1998	132.1	18.66	14.1
December 1998	136.0	19.15	14.1
January 1999	142.1	20.12	14.2
February 1999	146.2	20.67	14.1
March 1999	149.7	21.16	14.1
April 1999	151.5	21.60	14.3
May 1999	152.1	21.65	14.2
June 1999	151.1	21.48	14.2
July 1999	152.8	21.63	14.2
August 1999	150.6	21.57	14.3
September 1999	145.6	20.79	14.3
October 1999	138.5	19.36	14.0
November 1999	133.2	18.43	13.8
December 1999	131.7	18.09	13.7
January 2000	129.3	17.99	13.9

Source: DfEE Statistical First Release: SFR 3/2000, Tables 1 and 1b.

The total number of participants increased from just over 6 thousand in January 1998, to over 14 thousand at the end of March 1998 and to a peak of nearly 153 thousand at the end of July 1999. However, recently the number of participants has declined and in January 2000 stood at 129 thousand. The number of participants from minority ethnic groups increased from 1.7 thousand at the end of March 1998 to over 21.6 thousand at the end of May 1999. Mirroring the overall pattern of participation, the number of participants from minority ethnic groups declined to around 18 thousand at the end of January 2000. In the first year of national operation of the 18-24 New Deal young people from minority ethnic groups accounted for 13-14 per cent of total participants. This contrasts with young people from minority ethnic groups aged 18-24 years accounting for 12.6 per cent of all young people unemployed in this age group (representing an unemployment rate of 24 per cent, compared with an unemployment rate of 11 per cent for their white counterparts).

Table 6.10 shows the detailed ethnic group breakdown of New Deal participants at the end of January 2000. Of the minority ethnic groups, Black-Caribbean and Pakistani young people, with nearly 4 thousand and 3.6 thousand, respectively, accounted for the largest single proportions. The next largest groups were Other (3.1 thousand) and Black-African (2.2 thousand). 6.5 thousand young people declined to give information on their ethnic origin. Young people from the Chinese group comprised only 0.2 per cent of all New Deal participants.

Ethnic group	000s	%
White	104.01	80.44
Black – Caribbean	3.95	3.05
Black – African	2.19	1.69
Black – Other	1.77	1.37
Indian	1.93	1.49
Pakistani	3.63	2.81
Bangladeshi	1.15	0.89
Chinese	0.25	0.19
Other	3.14	2.43
Prefer not to say	6.50	5.03
TOTAL	129.3	100.00

Source: DfEE Statistical First Release: SFR 3/2000, Table 1

Table 6.11 shows the position of those in the 18-24 New Deal at the end of January 2000 by ethnic group. Of the 129 thousand New Deal participants, 65 thousand (50 per cent) were still in the Gateway. Of the 42 thousand on one of the four options, 42 per cent were on the full-time education and training option, 25 per cent were in subsidised employment, 17 per cent on the voluntary sector option and 16 per cent on the environment task force.

Ethnic Group	Total	Gateway	Options					Follow-Through*
			Total	Subsidised Employer	Education & training	Voluntary sector	Envir'nt TaskForce	
	(000s)	(000s)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(000s)
<b>All</b>	<b>129.3</b>	<b>65.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>24.9</b>	<b>41.7</b>	<b>17.1</b>	<b>16.4</b>	<b>22.0</b>
White	104.0	50.7	100.0	26.3	38.9	16.6	18.3	18.3
Ethnic Minorities	18.0	9.9	100.0	17.3	57.7	19.2	5.8	2.8
Black - Caribbean	3.9	2.1	100.0	18.2	54.5	18.2	9.1	0.7
Black - African	2.2	1.0	100.0	14.3	71.4	14.3	0.0	0.4
Black - Other	1.8	0.9	100.0	20.0	60.0	20.0	0.0	0.4
Indian	1.9	1.1	100.0	20.0	60.0	20.0	0.0	0.2
Pakistani	3.6	2.2	100.0	20.0	50.0	20.0	10.0	0.5
Bangladeshi	1.2	0.7	100.0	25.0	50.0	25.0	0.0	0.1
Chinese	0.2	0.1	100.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Other	3.1	1.8	100.0	22.2	66.7	11.1	0.0	0.4
Prefer not to say	6.5	3.8	100.0	15.8	47.4	21.1	10.5	0.9

Source: DfEE Statistical First Release: SFR 3/2000, Table 2

Note: The total of these categories does not match the total of 137,600 participants, because ethnicity is not recorded for more than 1000 cases.

- Individuals join follow-through on completing their New Deal option, all of which are designed to last at least 6 months.



The following variations in experience are evident by ethnic group:

- Those from minority ethnic groups were less likely to have moved onto one of the options (55 per cent were still in the Gateway) than those from the White group (49 per cent).
- Of those on options, the proportion in education and training was larger for all minority ethnic groups (58 per cent) than for the white group (39 per cent). Yet data on existing qualifications on entry to the New Deal shows a larger proportion of the white group with no qualifications (33 per cent) than in any of the minority ethnic groups.
- 26 per cent of the white group were in subsidised employment compared with 17 per cent of those from minority ethnic groups. Of those from minority ethnic groups the Bangladeshi group were most likely to be in the subsidised employment option (25 per cent), with the Indian, Pakistani and Black-Other groups equally likely to be in subsidised employment (at 20 per cent). This is compared to only 14 per cent of the Black-African group.
- Slightly more individuals from minority ethnic groups than the white group were on the voluntary sector option. Far fewer from ethnic minority groups (6 per cent) than from the white group (18 per cent) were on the Environment Task Force option.

Table 6.12 provides information on the immediate destinations of leavers from the New Deal Gateway over the period from January 1998 to the end of January 2000. Just over a quarter moved into unsubsidised employment. 42 per cent moved out of the Gateway into one of the four New Deal options, with the single largest proportion moving into education and training. Others left New Deal altogether: either transferring to other benefits, moving to 'other' destinations (including transfer to training programmes, gone abroad, etc) or moving out to an unknown destination (this latter category is likely to include some individuals who have moved into jobs).

Key variations in experience by ethnic group include:

- Those from the Black groups are least likely to enter unsubsidised employment: 17 per cent of the Black-African group left the Gateway for unsubsidised employment, compared with 23 per cent from all minority ethnic groups and 26 per cent for the White group. By contrast, 30 per cent of the Indian group had an immediate destination in unsubsidised employment on leaving the Gateway.
- The proportion leaving the New Deal Gateway for an unknown destination was higher for all minority ethnic groups in aggregate (24 per cent of all leavers) and for each of the individual ethnic groups than for the White group (15 per cent of all leavers).
- Those from the White group were more likely to move into the subsidised employer option (9 per cent of immediate destinations) than those from minority ethnic groups (5 per cent). Of those from minority ethnic groups Bangladeshi young people were most likely to participate in the subsidised employment option (6 per cent of leavers from this ethnic group), while members of the Black-African group were least likely to take this option (less than 4 per cent of leavers).
- In aggregate those from minority ethnic groups were more likely to take up the education & training option (22 per cent) than the White group (19 per cent).

**Table 6.12: Immediate destinations of leavers from the Gateway to the end of January 2000 by ethnic group**

	Total		OPTIONS						Other	
	(000s)	(%)	Unsubsidised employment (%)	Subsidised Employer (%)	Education & training (%)	Voluntary sector (%)	Environment Task Force (%)	Transfer to other benefits (%)	Other (%)	Not known (%)
<b>Total</b>	<b>357.1</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>25.6</b>	<b>7.8</b>	<b>18.7</b>	<b>7.8</b>	<b>7.4</b>	<b>7.7</b>	<b>8.2</b>	<b>16.7</b>
White	285.7	100.0	25.8	8.7	18.7	7.9	8.6	8.0	7.5	14.8
<i>Ethnic minorities</i>	48.4	100.0	22.9	4.8	21.7	8.3	2.7	5.6	10.5	23.6
Black - Caribbean	9.2	100.0	19.6	5.4	23.9	9.8	4.3	5.4	8.7	22.8
Black - African	5.4	100.0	16.7	3.7	31.5	9.3	1.9	5.6	11.1	24.1
Black - Other	4.3	100.0	20.9	4.7	25.6	9.3	4.7	7.0	9.3	20.9
Indian	6.3	100.0	30.2	4.8	15.9	6.3	1.6	4.8	12.7	25.4
Pakistani	11.1	100.0	23.4	5.4	18.0	7.2	1.8	7.2	11.7	25.2
Bangladeshi	3.6	100.0	27.8	5.6	16.7	11.1	0.0	5.6	11.1	22.2
Chinese	0.7	100.0	28.6	0.0	28.6	14.3	0.0	0.0	14.3	28.6
Other	7.8	100.0	23.1	3.8	23.1	7.7	2.6	6.4	10.3	23.1
<i>Prefer not to say</i>	15.5	100.0	25.2	5.2	18.1	7.1	4.5	7.1	10.3	21.9

Source: DfEE Statistical First Release: SFR 3/2000, Tables 4a, 4c

6.6.2 *The New Deal for long-term unemployed people aged 25 years and over*

Table 6.13 shows the number of long-term unemployed people aged 25 years and over participating in the New Deal over the period from July 1998 to January 2000.

<b>Table 6.13: Number of individuals from ethnic minorities on New Deal 25+, July 1999-January 2000</b>			
<b>Date</b>	<b>Total (000s)</b>	<b>Ethnic minorities (000s)</b>	<b>(%)</b>
July 1998	12.0	1.1	9.2
August 1998	22.4	2.0	8.9
September 1998	31.8	2.8	8.8
October 1998	45.1	4.1	9.1
November 1998	54.8	5.1	9.3
December 1998	61.0	5.7	9.3
January 1999	67.7	6.5	9.6
February 1999	72.6	7.1	9.8
March 1999	74.8	7.3	9.8
April 1999	76.1	7.7	10.1
May 1999	77.3	8.1	10.5
June 1999	79.1	8.5	10.7
July 1999	81.0	8.7	10.7
August 1999	80.9	8.8	10.9
September 1999	80.4	8.7	10.8
October 1999	82.5	8.7	10.5
November 1999	83.8	8.7	10.4
December 1999	85.8	8.8	10.3
January 2000	86.2	9.0	10.4

Source: DfEE Statistical First Release: SFR 3/2000, Table LTU1

The total number of participants increased from 12 thousand in July 1998 to 86 thousand in January 2000. The number of participants from minority ethnic groups increased from 1.1 thousand to 9.0 thousand over the same period. Participants from ethnic minority groups accounted for approximately 10 per cent of the total, compared with over 13 per cent of participants on the 18-24 New Deal. In large measure this is likely to reflect the younger age profile of the population from minority ethnic groups compared with the White group.

Table 6.14 contrasts the position of individuals from ethnic minorities in the 25+ New Deal at the end of January 2000 with all participants. The overwhelming majority of participants are in the Advisory Interview Process (designed to last three-six months). However, the most notable points are that relative to the White group, participants from ethnic minorities are:

- less likely to be in subsidised employment, and
- more likely to be in a education and training or work-based training option, as was the case for the 18-24 New Deal.

**Table 6.14: Position of individuals from ethnic minorities on 25+ New Deal, end January 2000**

	Total (000s)	Advisory Interview Process (000s)	Employer Subsidy (000s)	Education & Training Opportunities (000s)	Work Based Training for Adults (000s)	Follow- Through (000s)
All (n)	86.2	70.7	4.6	2.4	7.4	1.1
	100%	82.0%	5.3%	2.8%	8.6%	1.3%
Ethnic minorities (n)	9.0	7.4	0.3	0.3	0.8	0.1
	100%	82.2%	3.3%	3.3%	8.9%	1.1%

Source: DfEE Statistical First Release: SFR 3/2000, Table LTU2

## 6.8 Conclusion

This chapter has summarised the labour market situation of men and women from the ten Census ethnic groups in the late 1990s, mainly using data from the Labour Force Survey for Great Britain.

The patterns of economic activity described here are quite familiar:

- People from minority ethnic groups are on the whole less likely than white people to be economically active, though Black-Caribbean people display a stronger attachment to the labour market than other people from minority ethnic groups.
- Pakistani and Bangladeshi people have the lowest economic activity rates, and the highest unemployment rates, along with Black people.
- Indian and Chinese people are the least disadvantaged (in terms of unemployment rates) of all minority ethnic groups.
- Self-employment is most common among people (especially men) from South Asian (especially Indian) ethnic groups, but people from Black ethnic groups are less likely than average to be self-employed.
- A relatively high percentage of South and South-East Asian (Chinese and Other-Asian) people and Black-African people are employed in high-status occupations.
- The Bangladeshi and Chinese ethnic groups are still highly segregated in terms of their employment into their traditional industries, mainly the restaurant and associated trades.
- On the whole, Indian people display the clearest evidence of progress in the wider labour market.

Early evidence from the New Deal suggests that individuals from minority ethnic groups are less likely than their White counterparts to move into (unsubsidised or subsidised) employment (see also Chapter 7 for experience of work-related training, and are more likely to move into further education and training. However, as on other dimensions of economic activity, some variations in experience between minority ethnic groups are evident.

## References

- Daly M. and Bentley R. (1999) 'New Deal statistics and the New Deal Evaluation Database', *Labour Market Trends* 107(4), 197-206.
- Modood, T., Berthoud, R., Lakey, J., Nazroo, J., Smith, P., Virdee, S., and Beishon, S. (1997) *Ethnic Minorities in Britain* (London: Policy Studies Institute).
- Owen, D. (1997) 'Labour force participation rates, self-employment and unemployment', chapter 3 of V. Karn (ed.) *Ethnicity in the 1991 Census vol. 4: Employment, education and housing among the ethnic minority populations of Britain* (London: The Stationery Office), 29-66.
- Sly, F., Thair, T. and Risdon, A. (1998) 'Labour market participation of ethnic groups', *Labour Market Trends*, December, 601-607.

## Chapter 7

### Skills and Work-Related Training

#### Summary

##### *Participation in work-based training*

- There has been an overall decline in the numbers participating on work-based learning for adults (WBLA) in recent years, but a rise in the proportion of leavers going directly into jobs.
- Participants from minority ethnic groups tend to be concentrated in London and the West Midlands – reflecting the uneven regional distribution of minority ethnic groups in the population as a whole.

##### *The experience of ethnic minorities on work-related training*

- Both adults and young people from minority ethnic groups are less likely to achieve a ‘positive outcome’ (notably entry into paid employment) after participation in a work-based training programme than their white counterparts. However, the gap has narrowed and by 1998-99, Asian<sup>1</sup> trainees going into a job are the same as that of white leavers (41 per cent).
- The Black group experience particular disadvantage in entering employment.
- The Asian group fare least well in terms of qualification attainment.
- Non-white young people are less likely than their white peers to enter higher status training programmes such as Modern Apprenticeships.
- In subjective terms European Social Fund (ESF) programme participants from minority ethnic groups rated their experience of ESF-funded activities more highly than white participants, with projects playing an important role in building confidence.

#### 7.1 Introduction

This chapter draws largely on information from two reports produced by the Department for Education and Employment that shed some light on the participation of different ethnic groups in work-related training:

- *Work Based Learning for Adults Quarter Three Performance Report* (December 1999) - provides details for government funded work based training for adults<sup>2</sup> of:
  - starters,
  - average length of stay,
  - outcomes and destinations, and
  - qualification attainment.
- *Work Based Training for Young People - Block One Quarter Three Performance Report* (published March 2000) - considers Advanced Modern Apprenticeships (previously titled Modern Apprenticeships), Foundation Modern Apprenticeships (previously titled National Traineeships) and Other Training, focusing on expenditure and performance relating to:
  - starts,
  - destinations,
  - outcomes, and
  - qualification attainment.

---

<sup>1</sup> This is the terminology used in the relevant data source. It is understood to incorporate South Asian and Chinese people. Ideally, a greater degree of ethnic group disaggregation would have been desirable, since broader categories may amalgamate ethnic groups and display different profiles.

<sup>2</sup>Information was derived from:

- a) four weekly and quarterly returns from TECs on programmes which they deliver,
- b) Employment Service data on starts and referrals,
- c) Starts certificates (completed by TECs),
- d) follow-up questionnaires that are sent out six months after an individual has completed the training.

Both reports include limited data on ethnic minorities, concentrated on starts and outcomes. No breakdown is provided of ethnic minority participation and achievement by, for example, age, length of stay on the programme and region.

In the final sub-section of the chapter information is provided on participation by ethnic group in training programmes supported by the European Social Fund (ESF). Again, the main sources of data are administrative returns, and without additional survey work it is difficult to assess how and whether such programmes have improved the labour market position of different sub-groups of beneficiaries.

## 7.2 Work Based Training for Adults

### 7.2.1 Trends

Participation and achievement of ethnic minority groups on training programmes needs to be viewed in the light of trends within those programmes.

There has been a significant decline in numbers going through Work Based Learning for Adults (WBLA,<sup>3</sup> formerly Training for Work [TFW]). The number of participants in England and Wales declined from around 145,000 in 1992-3, and dropped further to 35,000 in December 1999 (Statistical First Release, March 2000). Of these 35,000, 15,000 were in Basic Employability (previously Pre-Vocational Training). Also 20,000 were in Occupational Training in December 1999.

The total number of starts per financial year for England and Wales fell from 318,400 in 1992-93 to 102,900 in 1998-99. This reduction partly reflects the emergence of a more buoyant labour market, with an upturn in the availability of jobs.

### 7.2.2 Ethnic group profile of starters

Table 7.1 shows the distribution of participants on WBTA programmes by ethnic group.

Despite substantial changes in numbers, there was little change in the ethnic group profile of participants between 1995-96 and 1998-99. A slight rise in the proportion of Black/African Caribbean trainees is evident from 6 per cent in 1995-96 to 9 per cent in 1998-99. There was a reduction of 85% white participants from 86% in 1995-96 to 82% in 1998-99.

There is also a slightly larger concentration of minority ethnic groups in the Basic Employability (BE; previously titled Pre-Vocational Training) category: 24.5 per cent of all those undertaking BE Training from

	1995-96	1996-97	1997-98	1998-99
<b>White</b>	86	85	85	82
<b>Black/Afro-Caribbean</b>	6	7	7	9
<b>Asian</b>	4	5	5	5
<b>Others</b>	4	3	3	3

Source: WBTA Starts Database. Adapted from DfEE (1999) Work Based Learning for Adults Quarter Three Report (Table 2j, p.25).

<sup>3</sup> WBLA is one of a range of government-supported measures designed to help long-term unemployed people to find jobs. The work-based training programme for adults used to be called Training for Work (TfW). In a review of impact, Payne et al. (1999, 356) state: "TfW aimed to help unemployed people to find jobs and improve their skills, by providing appropriate training and work experience. The usual eligibility requirement was six months or more of claimant unemployment, though this was waived for certain 'special needs' groups, such as literacy or numeracy needs, labour market returners and former prisoners." Between 1992 and 1998 between 80 per cent and 85 per cent of those entering the programme had been unemployed for over six months; (the remainder could largely be accounted for by 'special needs' categories).

November 1998 to October 1999 were non-white, compared to only 16.7 per cent in the non-BE categories.

A regional analysis of starts on programmes (see Table 1, Appendix 3) reflects the concentrations of minority ethnic groups discussed in Chapter 2. In London half the trainees were non-white (50 per cent in 1998-99), with over a quarter of the total (28 per cent) being Black/Afro-Caribbean. The only other region with over 10 per cent of non-white trainees was the West Midlands, where 7 per cent of the trainee population was Black/Afro-Caribbean and 7 per cent, Asian.

### 7.2.5 *Outcomes and qualifications*

Entry into a job, further education or training on leaving a programme is recorded as a 'positive outcome'. Table 7.2 shows that minority ethnic groups have tended to fare less well than white people on this indicator. While the proportion of trainees from white and non-white groups entering a job after leaving the programme peaked around 1996-97 and then reduced slightly to 1998-99, the disparity between white and non-white groups narrowed. The disparity in job entry rates may be partly attributable to a higher proportion of non-whites being in BE. Of trainees from minority ethnic groups those from the Asian group were most likely to enter employment, and those of Black/Afro-Caribbean origin were least likely to enter employment.

In 1998-99, 43 per cent of Black/Afro-Caribbean's had 'positive outcomes', compared to 45 per cent for all leavers. This contrasts with the findings in terms of qualification attainment where it is the Asian group that experienced the greatest disadvantage.

An analysis of the pattern of qualification attainment reveals that the proportion of white trainees gaining a full qualification was around 40 per cent, but that level was not been reached by Asian or Black/Afro-Caribbean trainees. In 1998-99 only 28 per cent of Asian trainees gained a full qualification, compared with 40 per cent for all trainees. Black/Afro-Caribbean and "Other" ethnic origin trainees also had qualification attainment levels significantly lower than those of white trainees.

The patterns for outcomes and qualifications for all leavers varied between regions (see Table 2, Appendix 3). London, which had the highest concentration of non-white trainees, had a significantly higher proportion of completers than the national average (73 per cent), but lower than average levels of job entry, qualification attainment and 'positive outcomes'.

## 7.3 Work Based Training for Young People

The data<sup>4</sup> for Work Based Training for Young People (WBTYP) focuses on three major programmes:

- Advanced Modern Apprenticeships (AMAs) - which in December 1999 had 143,300 participants in England and Wales,
- Foundation Modern Apprenticeships (FMAs) 72,700 participants in December 1999, and
- Other Training (OT) - 84,200 participants in December 1999.

### 7.3.1 *Trends*

Due to the fact that Advanced Modern Apprenticeships (AMAs) only became fully operational in 1995-96 and Foundation Modern Apprenticeships (previously National Traineeships (NTs) in 1997-98, longer term trend data is not available for these programmes. However, for WBTYP as a whole, the number of starts per financial year rose steadily from 244,100 in 1990-91 to 309,700 in 1996-97, before falling to 243,500 in 1998-99.

---

<sup>4</sup> The data are derived from DfEE Starts and Leavers Databases and from the follow-up survey of Other Training (OT).

Trends in the participation rates of white trainees on WBTYP programmes indicate an increasing percentage in recent years, notably since the introduction of AMAs (Table 7.3). However, closer examination reveals that the proportion of non-white trainees remained fairly static, at 7 per cent, while the decrease was in the 'not stated' category.

<b>Table 7.2: Outcomes and Qualifications by Ethnic Group and Financial Year</b>				
	<b>In a Job</b>	<b>Positive Outcome* // Leavers</b>	<b>Gained Full Qualification</b>	<b>percentage Completed</b>
1995-96	39	44	42	69
1996-97	44	49	38	71
1997-98	44	48	37	71
1998-99	40	45	40	71
May 98 - Apr 99	40	45	40	71
<b>White</b>				
1995-96	40	45	42	69
1996-97	45	49	39	71
1997-98	44	48	38	71
1998-99	41	45	41	70
May 98 - Apr 99	41	45	41	70
<b>Black/Afro/Caribbean</b>				
1995-96	32	40	37	71
1996-97	37	45	33	72
1997-98	40	47	31	73
1998-99	35	43	35	75
May 98 - Apr 99	34	42	34	75
<b>Asian</b>				
1995-96	37	43	32	71
1996-97	45	51	29	72
1997-98	43	48	29	71
1998-99	41	46	28	71
May 98 - Apr 99	41	45	29	72
<b>Other ethnic origin</b>				
1995-96	33	41	37	74
1996-97	39	45	34	74
1997-98	40	47	33	73
1998-99	36	42	36	74
May 98 - Apr 99	36	42	36	74

Source: WBLA Follow-up Survey, DfEE - WBLA Quarter Three Report, Table 3r, p.49

Note: \* In a job, further education or training



**Table 7.3: Profile of starters on WBTyp programmes by gender and ethnic group, 1995-96 to 1998-99**

% starts who were	95-96	96-97	97-98	98-99
Male	54	52	52	52
Female	46	48	48	48
White	93	93	93	97
Black/Afro Caribbean	2	2	2	3
Asian	3	3	3	3
Other	2	1	1	1

Source: WBTyp trainee database - SFR 24 March 2000, Table 6.

Information on those starting Modern Apprenticeships points to an under-representation of minority ethnic groups, particularly those of Asian origin (Table 7.4).

**Table 7.4: Profile of starters on Modern Apprenticeships by gender and ethnic group, 1997 - Oct 1999 (includes Financial Year quarters)**

% Starts who were	Fin Yr 1997-98	Fin Yr 1998-99	Nov-98 Oct-99	1998-99				1999-00	
				Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2
Male	53	53	51	44	62	52	47	44	57
Female	47	47	49	56	38	48	53	56	43
White	95	95	95	96	96	96	94	95	96
Black/Afro Caribbean	1	2	2	2	1	1	2	2	1
Asian	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2
Other	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

Source: OT/MA Starts Databases, DfEE - Block One WBTyp Performance Report published March 2000, table 4b, p.44

The relative inability of greater numbers of minority ethnic groups to gain entry to MAs can be seen in a comparison, by region, of those starting MAs and OT. In London only 53 per cent of those starting OT between November 1998 and October 1999 were from the white group (Table 7.5). 25 per cent were Black/Afro-Caribbean and 13 per cent were Asian. The only other region with a significant representation of non-whites was the West Midlands, with 6 per cent Black/Afro-Caribbean, 9 per cent Asian and 1 per cent "Other".

**Table 7.5: Participation in Other Training by Region - November 1998 to October 1999**

% of respondents	SE	L	E	SW	WM	EM	YH	NW	NE	Eng	Wa	Eng &Wal
Male	55	56	55	56	59	52	56	57	61	56	61	57
Female	45	44	45	44	41	48	44	43	39	44	39	43
White	94	53	96	98	83	95	93	93	99	90	98	90
Black/Afro Caribbean	2	25	1	1	6	2	2	2	0	4	1	4
Asian	3	13	2	0	9	3	5	4	1	5	1	4
Other	1	9	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1

Source: OT Starts Database, DfEE Block One WBTYP Performance Report published March 2000, table 4j, p.47

*Key to regions:* SE: South East, L: London, E: Eastern, SW: South West, WM: West Midlands, EM: East Midlands, Y&H: Yorkshire & the Humber, NW: North West, NE: North East, Eng: England, Wa; Wales, Eng & Wal: England & Wales

In contrast, for MAs, although again the proportions of non-whites in London (Black/Afro Caribbean 8% and Asian 5%) and the West Midlands (Black/Afro Caribbean 2% and Asian 4%) were higher than in other regions, they fell well short of the figures for OT (Table 7.6). This suggests that non-whites were failing to enter higher status forms of training, such as Modern Apprenticeships, in the same proportions as they entered training overall.

**Table 7.6: Participation in Modern Apprenticeships by Region, November 1998 to October 1999**

% of respondents	SE	L	E	SW	WM	EM	YH	NW	NE	Eng	Wa	Eng &Wal
Male	50	49	52	54	47	53	55	52	50	51	49	51
Female	50	51	48	46	53	47	45	48	50	49	51	49
White	97	81	97	99	94	97	97	97	99	95	99	95
Black/African/Caribbean	1	8	1	1	2	1	1	1	-	2	-	2
Asian	1	5	1	-	4	2	2	2	1	2	-	2
Other	1	5	1	1	1	1	-	1	-	1	-	1

Source: MA Starts Database - DfEE Block One WBTYP Performance Report published March 2000, table 4f, p.46

*Key to Regions:* see Table 7.5

Differences between the white and non-white groups in outcomes and qualification attainment are apparent from the OT follow-up survey (Table 7.7).

Those from minority ethnic groups were less likely than their white counterparts to enter employment; (as was the case for New Deal participants in Chapter 6):

- The proportion of white trainees entering a job on leaving the programme was 64 per cent in 1995-96, rising to 66 per cent in 1998-99. The comparable percentage for Black and Afro-Caribbean people was only 40 per cent in 1995-6, increasing to 42 per cent in 1998-99.
- The position of Asian leavers relative to Black leavers improved slightly over the period, with the share

<b>Table 7.7: Differences in outcomes and qualification attainment by ethnic group, 1995/96 to 1998/99</b>				
	<b>In a job</b>	<b>In a positive outcome</b>	<b>Gained full qualification</b>	<b>Completed agreed course</b>
<b>All Leavers</b>				
<b>1995-96</b>	63	76	43	51
<b>1996-97</b>	66	79	44	54
<b>1997-98</b>	65	79	45	54
<b>1998-99</b>	64	77	46	54
<b>May 98 to April 99</b>	64	77	46	54
<b>White</b>				
<b>1995-96</b>	64	77	43	52
<b>1996-97</b>	67	80	45	54
<b>1997-98</b>	66	80	46	54
<b>1998-99</b>	66	78	46	54
<b>May 98 to April 99</b>	66	78	46	54
<b>Black/Afro</b>				
<b>1995-96</b>	40	63	36	45
<b>1996-97</b>	41	65	34	47
<b>1997-98</b>	40	70	35	47
<b>1998-99</b>	42	67	36	44
<b>May 98 to April 99</b>	41	67	36	44
<b>Asian</b>				
<b>1995-96</b>	39	66	37	46
<b>1996-97</b>	43	70	38	48
<b>1997-98</b>	44	72	38	49
<b>1998-99</b>	43	68	40	52
<b>May 98 to April 99</b>	43	68	40	52
<b>Other Ethnic Origin</b>				
<b>1995-96</b>	50	71	35	49
<b>1996-97</b>	50	73	39	54
<b>1997-98</b>	52	73	41	56
<b>1998-99</b>	48	70	44	57
<b>May 98 to April 99</b>	47	71	43	56

Source: OT Follow-up Survey - DfEE Block One WBTYP Performance Report published March 2000, table 4r, p.51

*Positive Outcome* – In a job, Further Education or other Government Training

entering a job on leaving the programme increasing from 39 per cent to 43 per cent over the same period.

- The proportion of “Other” ethnic origin leavers entering employment increased from 50 per cent in 1995-86 to 52 per cent in 1997-98, but then decreased to 48 per cent in 1998-99.

In terms of qualifications attained, although participants from all three broad minority ethnic groups identified in this data set tended to be less likely than white participants to achieve a full qualification, there was only a marginal difference in the rates. Young people from minority ethnic groups still fall behind white participants in terms of achieving a ‘positive outcome’, whereby in 1998-99, 78 per cent of white participants achieved a ‘positive outcome’ compared to 67 per cent Black/African Caribbean, 68 per cent Asian and 70 per cent of ‘other’ ethnic minority leavers.

## 7.4 Participation on ESF programmes

### 7.4.1 Introduction

Some ‘part funding’<sup>5</sup> for training courses<sup>6</sup> is available from the European Social Fund (ESF). The ESF is sub-divided into a number of different objectives (as shown in Table 7.8). Of these, Objective 3 accounts for the single largest share of ESF participants<sup>7</sup>

Objective	Regionally / non-regionally defined	Description
1	Regional – Objective 1 regions	Assisting regions ‘lagging’ behind in terms of economic development
2	Regional – Objective 2 regions (typically declining industrial areas)	Areas adapting to industrial change
3	Non-regional	Aims to combat long-term unemployment and improving employment chances for those threatened with exclusion from the labour market
4	Non-regional	Adapting the workforce to industrial change
5b	Regional	Adjusting the structure of vulnerable rural areas

### 7.4.2 Profile of ESF beneficiaries by ethnic group

Table 7.9 shows the profile of ESF beneficiaries in 1998 by ethnic group. The information is restricted to those beneficiaries for whom ethnic origin is recorded; (for 24 per cent of beneficiaries ethnic group is unknown).

<sup>5</sup> All ESF projects need to obtain ‘match funding’; (key sources include TECs and local authorities).

<sup>6</sup> For example, Training for Work (TFW), and some Further Education and Higher Education courses. Hence, some of the groups recorded as participating on ESF training courses, will also be recorded as participants in training in other data sources (i.e. there will be an element of ‘double counting’ between sources). At this stage no attempt has been made to adjust for such ‘double counting’ in deriving overall estimates of the participation in education and training by ethnic group.

<sup>7</sup> In 1997 58.6 per cent of ESF beneficiaries from minority ethnic groups were funded under Objective 3, while for the white group the comparable proportion was 39.2 per cent. 15.6 per cent of ESF Objective 3 beneficiaries were from minority ethnic groups, compared with 15.2 per cent of Objective 2 beneficiaries, 3.8 per cent of Objective 1 beneficiaries, 5 per cent of Objective 4 beneficiaries and 0.7 per cent of Objective 5 beneficiaries.

**Table 7.9: ESF beneficiaries by ethnic group, 1998**

	All		Women		Men	
White	665,754	89.0%	270,339	86.9%	395,415	90.5%
<i>Ethnic Minorities</i>	<i>82,067</i>	<i>11.0%</i>	<i>40,598</i>	<i>13.1%</i>	<i>41,469</i>	<i>9.5%</i>
- Black – Caribbean	14,628	2.0%	7,467	2.4%	7,161	1.6%
- Black – African	14,228	1.9%	5,532	1.8%	8,696	2.0%
- Black – Other	6,279	0.8%	3,385	1.1%	2,894	0.7%
- Indian	11,534	1.5%	6,346	2.0%	5,188	1.2%
- Chinese	2,336	0.3%	1,297	0.4%	1,039	0.2%
- Pakistani	14,139	1.9%	7,438	2.4%	6,701	1.5%
- Bangladeshi	5,425	0.7%	2,692	0.9%	2,733	0.6%
- Other	13,498	1.8%	6,441	2.1%	7,057	1.6%
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>747,821</b>	<b>100.0%</b>	<b>310,937</b>	<b>100.0%</b>	<b>436,884</b>	<b>100.0%</b>

Source: ESF Final Claims, 1998 – DfEE

Note: The data cover only those beneficiaries for whom ethnic origin is known.

#### 7.4.3 Findings from follow-up surveys of ESF beneficiaries

While the information from the ESF Final Claims database provides administrative information on the number of participants from minority ethnic groups, in order to gain insights into whether ESF-funded activities have helped to improve their labour market position, it is necessary to turn to the results of follow-up surveys. An analysis of data on ESF Objective 3 projects collected from the 1998 Leavers' Survey (Finch, 2000), indicates that beneficiaries from minority ethnic groups were:

- less likely to be in paid work at the time of the survey (24 per cent, compared with 37 per cent of white beneficiaries);
- as likely to be unemployed and claiming benefit as white leavers (16 per cent compared with 18 per cent);
- more likely than white leavers to be in education or training (40 per cent compared with 26 per cent); and
- as likely to complete the project as white leavers.

On the basis of these findings, it is not possible to conclude with any certainty that ESF-funded activities helped to improve the labour market position of minority ethnic groups. However, ESF-funded activities did appear to play an important role in confidence building, with over 85 per cent of those from ethnic minorities saying that their confidence had been improved. The survey also showed that beneficiaries from minority ethnic groups who followed a more 'integrated' package of support (often involving advice and guidance, job search and work experience in addition to training) were more likely than those on a 'non integrated' package to find work (26 per cent versus 18 per cent).

Earlier research (Hansbro, 1998) found that beneficiaries from minority ethnic groups were also more likely than their white counterparts to consider that their activities had been helpful in obtaining work experience (75 per cent versus 62 per cent), and in looking for work (65 per cent compared with 55 per cent).

While on simple quantitative indicators beneficiaries from minority ethnic groups were less likely to be in paid work following Objective 3 support, in subjective terms the beneficiaries from minority ethnic groups tended to rate their experience of ESF-funded projects more highly than those from the white group.

### 7.5 Conclusion

The picture emerging from an analysis of participation in work-related training is, at face value, one of a less rosy picture in terms of 'positive outcomes' for trainees from minority ethnic groups than for the white group.

Variations were evident between minority ethnic groups, with the Afro-Caribbean group tending to fare particularly badly in terms of 'positive outcomes'.

However, account needs to be taken of:

- The different training profiles by ethnic group: i.e. Minority ethnic group trainees are more likely to be on Pre-Vocational Training courses than their white counterparts, and this will be a factor in reducing the likelihood of achieving comparable outcomes in terms of job entry and qualification attainment.
- The relatively high proportions of young people from minority ethnic groups participating in further education.<sup>8</sup>
- Evidence from an ESF follow-up survey indicates that work-related training programmes may play a more important role in confidence building for participants from minority ethnic groups than for those from the white group. Those from minority ethnic groups were more likely than their white counterparts to have considered their participation in such programmes as a valuable experience.

## References

Department for Education and Employment *Work Based Learning for Adults, Quarter Three Report to 31 December 1999*. Sheffield: DfEE, Resources and Contract Management Division (RCM5) & Analytical Services.

Department for Education and Employment *Work Based Training for Young People: Block One Performance Report Quarter 3 1999-00. Published March 2000* Sheffield: DfEE, Resources and Budget Management Division & Analytical Services.

Statistical First Release: *TEC/CCTE Delivered Government Supported Training: work-based training for young people and work-based learning for adults - England and Wales. 24 March 2000. SFR 8/2000*. Sheffield: DfEE Analytical Services (section EAL4).

Payne J., Lissenburgh S., Payne C. and Range M. (1999) 'The impact of work-based training on job prospects for the unemployed', *Labour Market Trends* 107 (7), 355-361.

Finch S., Lewin C and La Valle I. (2000). What happens to the people who go on ESF Objective 3 projects? Results from the 1998 Objective 3 Leavers' Survey. Report prepared for DfEE by NCSR.

Hansbro J. (1998). What happens to the people who go on ESF Objective 3 projects?. Report prepared for DfEE.

---

<sup>8</sup>"Young people from ethnic minorities are more likely to participate in Further Education" (Work Based Training for Young People, p 6), as is revealed in Chapter 4.

## Chapter 8

### Lifelong Learning

#### Summary

##### *Sub-group variations in participation in learning*

- Different sub-groups of the population display different propensities to participate in learning activities.
- Differences between minority ethnic groups in their likelihood to participate in learning have also been identified.
- With currently available data sets it is not possible to provide information on levels of participation in learning and qualification attainment by ethnic minority groups with any great degree of reliability.<sup>1</sup>

##### *Targets and attainment levels*

- People of working age from minority ethnic groups as a whole have slightly higher attainment rates than white people at both the top and bottom of the qualification range: Black and Indian Ethnic groups have a higher level of attainment at NVQ levels 3 and 4.
- While overall qualification attainment by people from minority ethnic groups as a whole appears to match that of white people there are distinct differences between ethnic minority groups.
- The Indian group also displayed higher attainment at NVQ level 3 (49 per cent) than the cohort as a whole, and the highest attainment levels at NVQ level 4 (33 per cent).
- The Other non-white group displayed high attainment levels: 49 per cent at level 3 and 32 per cent at level 4.
- The Pakistani/Bangladeshi group displayed significantly lower attainment levels than the other groups: with 37 per cent of economically active adults qualified at NVQ level 3 and 20 per cent at NVQ level 4.

## 8.1 Context

Following the emergence during the 1980s of a steady output of research reports and other publications indicating deficiencies in the skills and qualifications of the British workforce, in comparison to the workforces of international competitors, attention has focused on increasing participation in processes of learning of the population as a whole. There is a growing conviction that the future prosperity of the nation is highly dependent on the knowledge, skills and motivation of the entire population. It is now accepted that it is not sufficient merely to provide training to a certain number of individuals in order to equip them with the skills required to fill identified skill shortage areas. Rather, there has to be a much more fundamental reappraisal of, and attitudinal shift towards, the value attached to learning by society as a whole. This is allied to a strong belief, particularly from those who are involved in adult education, that all members of a society should have the opportunity to continue to learn and develop throughout life.

## 8.2 Participation of individuals in learning

### *8.2.1 Introduction*

It has long been established that the distribution of individuals in learning and training activities is uneven. Certain 'broad' groupings under-represented in learning have been identifiable by characteristics such as age, gender, ethnicity, socio-economic grouping, educational background, school-leaving age, previous participation in training, employment status, type of work, income, marital status and domestic responsibilities.

---

<sup>1</sup> Although the situation looks set to improve when the results of the Survey of Adult Learning Amongst Ethnic Minorities are published during 2000.

In terms of employees engaging in training, it has been shown that participation is low among workers who are:

- in part-time, seasonal or casual jobs;
- self-employed;
- employed in small and medium-sized enterprises;
- unskilled; and
- lacking educational qualifications.

The greatest likelihood of learning in the future is recent experience of learning: “recent job-related learning quadruples the likelihood of future learning while other recent learning increases the likelihood by almost as much” (Maguire, Hasluck and Green, 1996).

### 8.2.2 *Participation in learning by ethnic group*

As far as ethnic minority groups are concerned, NIACE’s *The Learning Imperative* (1993) suggested that “certain minority ethnic communities living in Britain invest in their own education and training in significantly larger numbers than the population as a whole” (p 21). More recently, McGivney (1999) concluded “there are some general differences in qualification levels between different racial and social groups. An analysis of 1991 Census data (Karn, 1997) revealed significant variations in achievement between groups from different ethnic backgrounds: the highest qualified groups were the Black-African, Chinese, Other-Asian and “Other” groups, followed by the Indians and whites. The lowest qualified groups were Black-Caribbean, Black-Other, Pakistani and Bangladeshi groups” (p 27).<sup>2</sup>

More detailed and up-to-date information on participation in learning by ethnic groups will become available with the publication of the Survey of Adult Learning Amongst Ethnic Minorities. The Survey used the National Adult Learning Survey questionnaire as closely as possible, and was designed to investigate the extent to which Britain’s main ethnic minority groups take part in learning activities, and for those that do, the learning activities they take part in.

## 8.3 Targets – progress by broad ethnic group

One of the key initiatives developed to focus attention on deficiencies in learning and qualification attainment, and to generate commitment to raising levels of participation was the introduction of the National Targets for Education and Training (NTETs), and the subsequent launch of National Learning Targets.

In order to be effective, the National Targets require appropriate mechanisms for measuring qualification attainment across a range of dimensions, such as gender, age, geographical area, industrial sector, ethnic origin, disability etc. The limitations of current datasets for establishing levels of attainment have been highlighted by this need to provide measures of participation in learning and qualification attainment for population sub-groups. Reliance on the Labour Force Survey (LFS), with its relatively small sample sizes for minority ethnic groups and associated susceptibility to wide margins of error when extrapolated, presents a considerable problem.

As far as *young people* are concerned, there are National Learning Targets figures for qualification attainment of 19-21 year olds and 21-23 year olds. However, it has been suggested that, due to the possible margin of error, and therefore their inherent unreliability, figures for minority ethnic groups should not be produced.

The estimates for the *adult* group are much more robust and reliable. The figures for the proportion of economically active adults qualified to at least NVQ level 3 or at least NVQ level 4 in 1999 (Table 8.1) reveal a different pattern of attainment among the minority ethnic groups.

---

<sup>2</sup> Some information on participation in learning is provided in the discussion of further education in section 4.7.



**Table 8.1: Proportion of economically active adults qualified to at least NVQ level 3 or at least NVQ level 4 by ethnic group, England, Autumn 1999**

Ethnic group	Estimated attainment at level 3 (%)	Estimated attainment at level 4 (%)
All	46.2	26.6
White	46	26
Non-white of which:	47	30
Black	49	31
Indian	49	33
Pakistani/Bangladesh	37	20
Other non-white	49	32

Source: Labour Force Survey, Autumn 1999.

- The Black group had a higher attainment at NVQ level 3 (49 per cent) than the cohort as a whole (46 per cent). This pattern of higher attainment was repeated at NVQ level 4: 31 per cent for the Black group contrasting with 27 per cent for all economically active adults.
- The Indian group also displayed higher attainment at NVQ level 3 (49 per cent) than the cohort as a whole, and the highest attainment levels at NVQ level 4 (33 per cent).
- The Other non-white group displayed high attainment levels: 49 per cent at level 3 and 32 per cent at level 4.
- The Pakistani/Bangladeshi group displayed significantly lower attainment levels than the other groups: with 37 per cent of economically active adults qualified at NVQ level 3 and 20 per cent at NVQ level 4.

### 8.3.1 Trends

Trends in the proportion of economically active adults qualified to at least NVQ level 3 (Table 8.2) suggest that the rate of recent increase is slightly greater among minority ethnic groups than for whites.

**Table 8.2: Percentage of economically active adults' qualified to at least NVQ level 3 or equivalent**

	1996	1997	1998	1999
All	41.6	43.0	45.1	46.2
White	42	43	45	46
Non-white of which	41	42	45	47
Black	43	42	47	49
Indian	42	44	46	49
Pakistani/Bangladeshi	25	32	34	37
Other non-white	49	45	50	49

Source: Labour Force Survey, mean of Autumn quarters, 1996 to 1999.

Over the period from 1996 to 1999 the proportion of economically active adults qualified to at least NVQ level 3 or equivalent rose by 4.6 percentage points (from 41.6 per cent to 46.2 per cent), while that for non-whites as a whole increased by 6 percentage points (from 41 per cent to 47 per cent). For individual minority ethnic groups, the largest percentage point increase in attainment was among the Pakistani/Bangladeshi group (from the lowest initial base), with an 8 percentage point rise. However, this increase was not sufficient to close the attainment gap between the Pakistani/Bangladeshi and other groups. For the Indian group the rise was 7 percentage points and for the Black group was 6 percentage points. There has been no rise in attainment for the Other non-white group.

At NVQ level 4 (Table 8.3), the patterns of differentiation by broad ethnic group were similar to those at NVQ level 3.

<b>Table 8.3: Percentage of economically active adults' qualified to at least NVQ level 4 or equivalent</b>				
	<b>1996</b>	<b>1997</b>	<b>1998</b>	<b>1999</b>
All	23.8	24.4	26.1	26.6
White	24	24	26	26
Non-White	26	27	30	30
of which				
Black	28	25	30	31
Indian	27	29	31	33
Pakistani/Bangladeshi	13	21	20	20
Other Non-White	32	29	34	32

Source: Labour Force Survey, mean of Autumn quarters, 1996 to 1999.

Non-whites had slightly higher attainment levels than whites, but, again, the rate of increase for minority ethnic groups qualified to at least NVQ level 4 or equivalent increased by 4 percentage points (from 26 per cent to 30 per cent) between 1996 to 1999, compared to a 2 percentage point increase (from 24 per cent to 26 per cent) for whites. The Black group experienced a 3 percentage point rise between 1996 and 1999, while the increase for the Indian group was 6 percentage points. Despite experiencing an 7 percentage point increase, the proportion of the Pakistani/Bangladeshi group qualified to NVQ level 4 or equivalent remained lower than that of the other minority ethnic groups.

#### **8.4 Highest qualification by ethnic group**

Table 8.4 shows that the proportion of non-whites with no qualifications remained higher than that of whites (20 per cent, compared to 17 per cent, in 1999).<sup>3</sup> Amongst non-whites, those in the Pakistani/Indian/Bangladeshi group consistently displayed a higher average share of economically active adults with no qualifications (26 per cent in 1999, compared to 20 for the non-white group as a whole).<sup>4</sup>

<sup>3</sup> It seems likely that there may be important variations by gender in the proportion of persons with no qualifications but small sample sizes limit the scope for provision of robust estimates for smaller ethnic groups.

<sup>4</sup> This amalgamation of three South Asian groups is likely to disguise differences between the constituent ethnic groups; (see Table 8.5).

**Table 8.4: Highest qualification held by people of working age by broad ethnic group, UK, 1996-1999**

	NVQ level 5	NVQ level 4	NVQ level 3	NVQ level 2	Below NVQ level 2	No qualific's
<i>Spring 1996</i>						
White	3	17	17	21	20	21
Non-white of which	3	15	13	20	22	26
Black	3	17	15	22	25	18
Indian/Pakis'i & B'ladeshi	3	13	11	18	21	34
Other non-white	5	19	16	22	22	16
	NVQ level 5	NVQ level 4	NVQ level 3	NVQ level 2	Below NVQ level 2	No qualific's
<i>Spring 1997</i>						
White	3	18	17	22	21	18
Non-white of which	4	16	14	21	24	22
Black	3	17	14	23	25	17
Indian/Pakis'i & B'ladeshi	4	15	13	19	23	27
Other non-white	6	17	15	22	26	15
	NVQ level 5	NVQ level 4	NVQ level 3	NVQ level 2	Below NVQ level 2	No qualific's
<i>Spring 1998</i>						
White	3	18	18	22	21	18
Non-white of which	4	17	14	20	23	22
Black	4	20	14	21	25	17
Indian/Pakis'i & B'ladeshi	4	15	13	18	21	28
Other non-white	6	17	16	22	23	16
	NVQ level 5	NVQ level 4	NVQ level 3	NVQ level 2	Below NVQ level 2	No qualific's
<i>Spring 1999</i>						
White	4	19	18	22	20	17
Non-white of which	5	17	16	20	22	20
Black	5	21	16	21	22	16
Indian/Pakis'i & B'ladeshi	4	14	15	19	22	26
Other non-white	7	19	17	22	22	23

Source: Labour Force Survey, mean of Spring quarters, 1996 to 1999.

For those with qualifications, non-whites had slightly higher attainment rates than their white counterparts at NVQ level 5 and below NVQ level 2, but lower proportions for NVQ levels 2, 3 and 4. Amongst the non-white groups in 1999:

- Other non-whites displayed the highest proportion of economically active adults at NVQ level 5 or equivalent.
- The Black group displayed the highest proportion of any minority ethnic group qualified at NVQ level 4 or equivalent (21 per cent).

For a more insightful interpretation of these figures more needs to be known about the relationship between qualification attainment and level of job held, and any disparities that may be evident by ethnic group.

**Table 8.5: Educational level of highest qualification held by population of working age by ethnic group in Great Britain, 1999**

Ethnic group	Degree or equivalent qualification	A level or equivalent qualification	O levels or equivalent qualification	Other or equivalent qualification	None or equivalent qualification
White	23.0	24.4	22.7	13.7	16.3
Black-Caribbean	18.5	20.6	24.7	18.0	18.2
Black-African	35.5	15.7	11.6	26.1	11.1
Black-Other	23.2	19.1	29.6	14.1	14.0
Black-Mixed	19.5	23.3	28.1	16.4	12.7
Indian	25.5	16.0	15.1	26.3	17.1
Pakistani	12.7	16.2	14.9	24.1	32.1
Bangladeshi	8.4	9.2	17.1	23.8	41.5
Chinese	31.1	15.9	10.3	23.7	19.1
Other-Asian	25.8	15.7	8.3	38.1	12.2
Other-Other	24.5	13.2	12.2	39.1	11.1
Other-Mixed	27.3	22.9	21.8	18.8	9.3

Source: Labour Force Survey, mean for Spring 1999 to Winter 1999/00.

Tables 8.1-8.4 reveal variations by broad ethnic group. Table 8.5 shows the highest qualification level by a more detailed ethnic group classification. Only those individuals for whom a qualification level is identified are included in the Table.

Using the more detailed ethnic group breakdown, it is evident that:

- There were marked disparities in attainment between minority ethnic groups and within broad ethnic groups.
- There were large differences in attainment levels within the South Asian group, with Indians displaying higher qualification levels than the Pakistani and Bangladeshi groups. 41 per cent of the Bangladeshi group and 32 per cent of the Pakistani group had no qualifications – far greater proportions than for any of the other ethnic groups.
- Amongst the Black group, individuals from the Black-African group were most likely to have degrees.
- Just under a third of the Chinese group had degree level qualifications, but there was also a higher than average proportion with no qualifications.

## 8.5 Conclusion

Levels of attainment vary markedly between minority ethnic groups. To some extent the patterns of variation in attainment by ethnic group differ according to the level of attainment considered. At a broad level NVQ levels for the non-white population were only significantly lower than the white population at Level 3.

To date a detailed investigation of ethnic group variations in learning has been hampered by small sample sizes in the LFS. In order to assess the implications of variations in learning more needs to be known about the relationship between educational attainment and jobs held by ethnic group.

## References

Karn, V. (1997) "Ethnic penalties' and racial discrimination in education, employment and the housing: conclusions and policy implications" in Karn, V. (ed.) *Ethnicity in the 1991 Census Vol. 4: Employment, education and housing among the ethnic minority populations of Britain*. (London: Stationery Office).

Maguire, M., Hasluck, C. and Green, A. (1996) *Identifying Target Groups for Individual Commitment Policies*, DfEE Research Studies RS28. (Sheffield: Department for Education and Employment).

McGivney, V. (1999) *Excluded Men: Men who are missing from education and training*. (Leicester: NIACE).

NIACE (1993) *The Learning Imperative*. (Leicester: NIACE).



## Chapter 9

### Review of Data Sources and Assessment of Data Quality and Gaps in Data Availability

#### Summary

##### *Data sources used*

Amongst the data sources used in compiling this report were:

- The 1991 Census of Population
- Labour Force Survey
- DfEE Schools' Census
- Youth Cohort Study
- Careers Activity Survey
- Higher Education Statistics Agency data on students and first destinations of graduates
- Graduate Teacher Training Registry annual report
- Further Education Funding Council student data
- Administrative data on the operation of the New Deal, European Social Fund and Work-Based Training.

##### *Properties of data sources for measuring minority ethnic group achievements*

- The main sources of information are of three basic types;
  - Census;
  - Sample surveys;
  - Administrative records.
- The Census of Population has the advantage of being comprehensive for a single point in time, but is limited in topic coverage.
- Survey data sets have the advantage of having a much wider coverage in terms of topics, and regularity of data collection, but suffer the drawback of small sample sizes.
- Administrative data sets have the advantage of almost complete coverage and regular collection, but have inconsistent data collection methodologies and ethnic group classifications and may encounter difficulty in tracking individuals for 'before' and 'after' comparisons.

##### *Problems of data sources*

- A problem shared by most data sources is that of higher rates of non-response, and poorer rates of response among people from minority ethnic groups than for white people.
- A further problem is the lack of accurate 'benchmark' data against which to compare data from surveys and administrative systems.
- Most of the data sets used in production of this report are cross-sectional in nature. However, there is an increasing trend towards creating longitudinal data sets which can track the experience of people from different ethnic and social groups over time.

#### 9.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the data sources used in compiling the seven substantive chapters of this report. It provides an assessment of the features of the different types of data set used and identifies the deficiencies of existing data for the analysis of the labour market and education experiences of people from different ethnic groups.

## 9.2 Data sources used

### *Census of Population (Chapter 2)*

This is the most important source of socio-economic information in the UK. It has been collected every ten years since 1841. It aims to cover the entire population of the UK, through a self-completion questionnaire delivered to every household. It yields an enormous amount of information on the demography, household structure, housing characteristics and economic activity of the population. Data is available for over 150,000 enumeration districts (which typically contain about 200 households), 10,500 electoral wards and the various levels of administrative units which they fall within. The 1991 Census of Population was the first to include a question on the ethnic origin of the population.

### *Labour Force Survey (Chapters 2, 4, 6, 8)*

This is a survey of households living at private addresses across the UK. It was first carried out in 1973, was carried out every other year until 1983, then annually until 1991 and quarterly since Spring 1992. It covers 61 thousand households in Great Britain (0.3 per cent of the total, containing around 140 thousand individuals) each quarter, in a panel design, each household remaining in the survey for five successive “waves” (with an 80% overlap between successive waves). The survey uses an unclustered random sample of addresses. It yields estimates of unemployment and other labour market indicators through the application of weights to results for sampled households, which sum to the total projected population of the UK for the year in which the survey took place. The response rate of the survey is about 80 per cent, with increasing attrition of panel members over successive waves. LFS estimates based on a weighted count of under 10 thousand are not published, as the associated standard error of the estimate will be greater than 20 per cent. For sub-groups of the population, it is recommended to base estimates on the mean of four successive quarters, for which the publication threshold becomes a cell size of 6 thousand. An alternative is to base estimates on the average of data from the same quarter for a series of years (which can be necessary if a variable is only collected in a given quarter). Publication thresholds for such averages are 6,000 for the same quarter in two successive years and 4,000 for three years. The survey is thought to under-represent persons living in London, in rented accommodation, young single people, and households with heads born in the New Commonwealth.

### *DfEE Schools' Census (Chapter 3)*

Since 1945-1946 the Schools' Census has been based on a series of returns (known collectively as Form 7 returns) which require schools to provide details of their pupils, staff, classes and examination courses on the census data - traditionally the third Thursday in January. Most of the questions in the returns are designed to give a snapshot of the situation in schools on that date, though in some cases schools are required to provide retrospective data: e.g. to give the ages of pupils at the previous 31 August, to give details of staff numbers and hours during the week of the census, and to give the numbers of permanent exclusions during the previous academic year. Approximately 26,300 institutions in England received forms as part of the Schools' Census in 1998. Returns are submitted by primary, middle and secondary schools, city technology colleges and special schools and the response rate is very high (around 95 percent). Information on the ethnic composition of pupils, the number of pupils with English as an additional language and the number of exclusions according to ethnic group are published in DfEE Statistical Press Notices and Statistical Bulletins.

### *Youth Cohort Study (Chapters 3, 4)*

The Youth Cohort Study (YCS) is a programme of research among young people aged 16 and upwards designed to monitor their decisions and behaviour as they make the transition from compulsory education to further or higher education or to the labour market. The first survey in the series was carried out in 1985,



and there have so far been 9 cohort studies undertaken. Each cohort is surveyed in a series of 'sweeps'; for the first six cohorts there were three at ages 16, 17 and 18, but more recent cohorts have only been surveyed at age 16 and 18. Cohort 3 respondents were contacted for a fourth time when they were 23 or 24.

In the first sweep, boys and girls who had reached minimum school leaving age in the previous school year are contacted. The sample is drawn up from a list of 20 per cent of all eligible pupils. The main stage survey consists of an initial mailing plus three postal reminders and a telephone 'chaser' interview. The first sweep collects a range of information on the characteristics of each respondent, their performance in school and their family and household circumstances. Typically, about two-thirds of those sampled in the first sweep return their questionnaire (though the response rate has declined over time, from a peak of 77 per cent for YCS 3 to 65 per cent for YCS 8), yielding information on about 16 thousand persons. Non-response rates appear to be higher for Black respondents than for those from other ethnic groups<sup>1</sup>. The second sweep is a follow-up postal questionnaire which collects information on the respondent's circumstances at age 18 and their labour market and educational activities over the intervening two years. Around three-quarters of respondents to the first sweep reply to the second sweep<sup>2</sup>.

#### *Careers Activity Survey (Chapter 4)*

The Careers Activity Survey (CAS) is an annual survey designed to collect data on the destinations of young people completing Year 11. It is undertaken by local Careers Services. Although the Survey is intended to cover all schools – including special schools, grant-maintained and independent schools, coverage of the latter is known to be patchy. Moreover, the methodologies used differ between local areas, so enabling scope for problems of comparability between local areas. The variation in methodologies employed may also account for some of the differences in response rates between areas. From the perspective of this report it is notable that some of the Careers Companies registering the highest levels of non-response are in Inner London; an area characterised by a relatively transient population and also with a high concentration of young people from minority ethnic groups. As well as non-response, there are some problems of lack of provision of ethnic group information for some respondents. For example, in 1998 across England as a whole ethnic group information was unavailable for 82,213 individuals (14.8 per cent of the Survey total of 555,269 individuals). In London, the North East and the South West the proportions of individuals for whom no ethnic group information was available ranged from 23 per cent to 32 per cent. Hence, there is scope for improvement of this data source.

#### *Further Education Funding Council (FEFC) Individualised Student Record (ISR) (Chapter 4)*

For the purposes of this data set, *further education (FE)* is defined as education and training which takes place after the minimum school-leaving age of 16. In England FE is provided by general further education colleges and tertiary colleges, sixth form colleges (school sixth forms are not currently included under the FEFC remit), agriculture and horticulture colleges, art design and performing arts colleges and specialist designated institutions.

Characteristics of students enrolled in FE are recorded on the *Individualised Student Record (ISR)*. Characteristics recorded include:

- gender
- age
- ethnic group
- postcode of residence
- guided learning hours (used to distinguish full-time and part-time students), etc

---

<sup>1</sup> Drew et. al. (1992), p6.

<sup>2</sup> The response rate to sweep 2 of YCS 4 (undertaken in 1990) was 74 per cent (Courtenay and McAleese. (1994) p61).

Unfortunately, the relatively high level of non-response to the ethnic group question currently reduces the utility of the ISR for further analysis.

#### *HESA data sets (Chapter 5)*

The Higher Education Statistics Agency produces reports based on individual student returns for undergraduates and a survey of first destinations of graduates. The individual student returns include information on ethnicity, gender, mode of study, qualifications, subjects studied and geographical location. The survey of first destinations includes information on duration of employment, type of work, level of qualification and geographical location. Together, these are a rich source of data on ethnicity and has improved greatly in recent years, as higher education institutions have improved their data collection methods.

#### *Graduate Teacher Training Registry annual report (Chapter 5)*

Data on initial teacher training was taken from the Graduate Teacher Training Registry annual report, which shows applications and acceptances according to ethnic origin and registrations of ethnic minority trainees, including by subject.

#### *Various Administrative Sources – New Deal statistics, European Social Fund statistics, Work-Based Training Statistics (Chapters 6, 7 and 8)*

The common feature of statistics relating to the above programmes are that they are from administrative sources. Individual characteristics, such as gender, age and ethnic group (generally this is recorded on a participant 'self-assessed' basis) are recorded for all programme participants.

Administrative returns may be analysed to provide regular information (on a monthly basis in the case of the New Deal, where particularly effort has been placed on developing a comprehensive database for monitoring progress) on:

- numbers and characteristics of people leaving and joining programmes,
- their progress through programmes – including options selected and achievements (as appropriate), and
- subsequent destinations.

DfEE publishes regular statistical bulletins and press notices based on such administrative data collected.

### **9.3 Types of data sources – strengths and weaknesses**

Three main types of data sets have been used in compiling the information presented in this report:

- (i) *census,*
- (iii) *survey, and*
- (v) *administrative sources.*

#### *9.3.1 Census data*

Information from the Census of Population was presented in Chapters 2 and 6. The key advantages and disadvantages of this data set may be summarised as follows:

- *advantages:*
  - a) virtually complete coverage of the population; and
  - c) availability at the micro and local area level.
- *disadvantages:*
  - c) ethnic group classification is not ideal;
  - d) underestimated the population of some age ranges and ethnic groups;

- e) lack of detailed questions on education and training attainment;
- f) frequency – data are available on a decennial basis only

It is only carried out once every ten years, but is designed to cover the entire population and every part of the United Kingdom. Because of this, it can yield data for very small geographical areas, which is of great importance in identifying the emergence of spatial pockets of advantage and disadvantage and identifying areas which are in need of particular types of assistance. Unfortunately, it was of limited value for the analysis of the living conditions of minority ethnic groups before 1991, because it only collected information on the country of birth of individuals, and not their ethnic groups. Minority ethnic groups were thus identified by a 'proxy'; people living in a household headed by a person born in the New Commonwealth and Pakistan. By 1981, this measure was already inadequate, as it could not identify people living households whose head was from a minority ethnic group, but had been born in the UK. After a long period of experimentation, an ethnic group question (which broadly followed the categories suggested by the Commission for Racial Equality) was introduced for the 1991 Census.

This marked a considerable advance in the information base for analysing the economic, social and demographic characteristics of ethnic groups in Britain. Because of its large sample size and almost complete coverage of the population across the whole of Great Britain, the 1991 Census has become the definitive source of information on the ethnic composition of the British population, and the comparative circumstances of minority ethnic groups. The ethnic group classification adopted by this Census has become the de facto standard for collection of ethnic group information, adopted by a range of other official government surveys and for use in ethnic monitoring systems.

The question adopted by the 1991 Census was based on the concept that "ethnic group is what people categorise themselves as belonging to in answering the question", rather than being derived from a formal definition of ethnicity. As a result, the categories presented in the question can be criticised for being a mixture of racial, national and ethnic groups. This classification has also been heavily criticised for putting undue emphasis upon colour, since it includes a large undivided 'white' category while assigning ethnic groups only to people who are not white. Moreover, the ethnic groups used in the classification adopt a 'national' terminology which tends to classify individuals in terms of their ultimate country of origin. The question has also been criticised on the grounds that it does not allow people of mixed parentage to adequately identify their ethnic origins, or allow people to properly express an identity as 'Black British' or 'Irish'. A further problem is that smaller ethnic groups (such as the Vietnamese or Sri Lankans) tend to get lost within larger categories, or are allocated to catch-all "Other" groups.

On the other hand, the question appears to have worked very well in practice, with most people being able to answer the question in accordance with the expectations of the Census Offices (though problems were encountered by some people of mixed parentage who may have provided an answer in the "other ethnic group" category when they should have chosen one of the Black categories). The 2001 Census in England and Wales will go some way to addressing the criticisms of the 1991 ethnic group question by introducing a revised version of the question which subdivides the white category, including a separate "Irish" option, includes "British" options for Black and Asian people and adds a category for people of "mixed" parentage.

An important drawback of the 1991 Census data has been the substantial undercount of the population faced in 1991. A comparison with the ONS estimate of the population of Great Britain in June 1991 suggested that the Census underestimated the population by 1.2 million (after imputation of data for some categories of non-response). Even worse, it suggested that the 'undercount' was biased, with certain types of people being particularly likely to be missed by the Census. People living in houses in multiple

occupation in inner city areas tended to be missed, and the age and gender groups under-represented were young children (both boys and girls), men in the age range from the late teens to mid-thirties and very old women. The degree of undercount was greatest for young men. Given the youthful nature of many minority ethnic groups, and their relative concentration in inner city areas, the undercount is assumed to have been relatively greater for these ethnic groups than for white ethnic groups. While the difference overall was minor, the population of Black-African people is thought to have been underestimated by 5 per cent, and the young male population of the Black, Pakistani and Bangladeshi ethnic groups was probably underestimated by 15 per cent or more.

Though 'adjustment' factors based on the ratio between the Census and mid-year estimates of the population in 1991 have been applied to 'correct' the Census data, this differential undercount must mean that some indicators closely associated with the missing groups may be unreliable. For example, unemployed young men from minority ethnic groups living in rented accommodation in inner cities were probably least likely to be contacted by the Census, and hence youth unemployment rates for such areas calculated from the Census are subject to a considerable degree of uncertainty. The 2001 Census will address the problem of the undercount directly through a new 'One Number Census' procedure in which a Census Coverage Survey will yield information upon which the statistical adjustment of the Census count will be based. This adjustment will occur before the data is published.

The published and electronic information from the 1991 Census is voluminous, running to 100 tables for each geographical area (which can be as small as electoral wards, typically containing about 10 thousand people). However, these tables were pre-specified before the Census by the Census Offices in consultation with the prime customers for the data, and do not cover all possible needs for Census information. The 1991 Census output includes 10 tables which present information disaggregated by ethnic group. Unfortunately, much very important labour market information for minority ethnic groups, such as the industrial and occupational structure of employment, has been omitted. Moreover, data on economic activity is not broken down by age (except for some variables for 16-24 year olds), making it impossible to accurately calculate an unemployment rate for people in the economically active age range or to calculate the percentage of people aged 16-24 who are in full-time education. Other drawbacks of the Census are more general (rather than specific to information cross-tabulated by ethnic group), such as the lack of detailed questions on unemployment, educational qualifications and training and the poor match of Census qualifications to NVQ and NTET categories. Output from the 2001 Census is likely to be more flexible, and some more sensitive labour market indicators, such as unemployment duration (and perhaps earnings) will be introduced, while economic activity will use standard ILO definitions.

An unavoidable drawback of the Census is that it quickly becomes out-of-date (often by the time it is published). With no other local source of comparable quality for the population of local areas and minority ethnic groups, planning for the needs of minority ethnic groups in the latter part of the inter-censal period is dependent upon information which may no longer accurately represent the character of the local population. In the 1960s, this problem was addressed by holding a 10 per cent sample survey in 1966, but this has not been repeated. In the absence of this, analyses of the living conditions of minority ethnic groups must either use 1991 data, estimates based on procedures such as that described in Appendix 1, or specially commissioned surveys. A further problem is that given that the 1991 Census is the only one to have collected data on ethnic group, it is not possible to analyse trends in socio-economic conditions over time for minority ethnic groups. This may be possible for the period 1991-2001, but the comparison will be complicated by the change in the ethnic group classification as well as changes in the definition of the resident population of an area in 2001.

### 9.3.2 Survey data sets

The main survey providing information on the participation and attainment of different ethnic groups in education, training and employment is the Labour Force Survey. The LFS is gaining increasing prominence in labour market studies. Key advantages and disadvantages of the LFS include:

- *advantages:*
  - a) ongoing survey providing up-to-date information on a quarterly basis;
  - c) wide topic coverage – detailed information on economic position, employment (by occupation and industry) and employment.
- *disadvantages:*
  - e) small sample sizes for minority ethnic groups means estimates are subject to sampling variability, and it is not necessarily possible to generate disaggregations desired due to sample size constraints.
  - g) limited possibilities for disaggregation at regional and sub-regional level.

Chapter 6, in which many of the cells in the tables presented were suppressed because of small sample size (and hence high associated sampling errors) illustrates the degree of difficulty involved in extracting useful labour market indicators for minority ethnic groups from the Labour Force Survey, even for Great Britain as a whole. Again, small LFS sample sizes greatly limited the analysis of National Learning Targets presented in Chapter 8. The much larger sample sizes used since the quarterly Labour Force Survey was first released in Spring 1992 and the change to a random rather than clustered sampling strategy have improved the quality of the data and make it possible to generate annual or quarterly estimates of certain labour market indicators for minority ethnic groups. However, the degree of year-on-year variability in the annual estimate of the total minority population in the 1990s (Figure 2.2) illustrates the continuing problems in using this data source. Problems of small sample size for minority ethnic groups are almost inevitable, given that financial constraints limit the overall number of interviews undertaken and the need for the survey to be representative of the entire population (and minority ethnic groups should therefore represent only just over 6 per cent of the sample). Small sample sizes mean it is not possible to generate reliable information for minority ethnic groups for small geographical areas.

The difficulty of generating useful information for minority ethnic groups is even greater for official surveys (such as the General Household Survey) with smaller sample sizes, where the sample is intended to reflect the general population. These limitations were found to be particularly severe when using the various Youth Cohort Studies (see Chapter 4). This survey has the potential to yield extremely important information on the linkage between school performance and the experience of young people as they move through further education and training into higher education or employment, and has the added benefit of having a longitudinal element. Unfortunately, too often the sample sizes are too small for anything more than a white/minority ethnic group distinction to be made. The average of minority ethnic groups conceals major variations in experience between individual ethnic groups and complicates the search for explanation of the experience of minority ethnic groups.

One response to the problem of small sample sizes for minority ethnic groups is to add an ‘ethnic boost’. This involves an additional sample of people from minority ethnic groups, and the calculation of a set of weights to adjust the data to take account of this over-sampling. This approach was taken by the Family and Working Lives Survey, conducted on behalf of a consortium of government departments during 1994/5. An objection often raised to adding an “ethnic boost” to a general survey is that the additional financial and resource costs of doing so would be prohibitive. However, given that minority ethnic groups still represent a small percentage of the British population, doubling the number of interviews with minority households would not greatly increase the scale of the effort for a survey like the Labour Force Survey, yet could yield much more reliable information.

Another approach to the production of information on minority ethnic groups is a bespoke survey specifically targeted on minority ethnic groups, such as the series of four National Surveys of Ethnic Minorities, undertaken by the Policy Studies Institute and its predecessor, Political and Economic Planning. These have the advantage of making a specific effort to identify households from minority ethnic groups within the geographical areas in which these ethnic groups are concentrated. With a specific focus on the characteristics of these ethnic groups and the use of ethnically-matched interviewers, these surveys have been able to yield much richer information, more relevant to the specific circumstances of minority ethnic groups, than general population surveys. The latest survey conducted in 1994/5 also added a large number of questions related to culture and identity and explored health, racial violence and self-employment in considerable detail.

Unfortunately, because of the sampling strategy used and the small size of the comparative white sample, these surveys have not been able to yield information which can be grossed to produce population estimates, and there is thus no information on how representative the samples of people from minority ethnic groups contacted were of the entire minority population. A further drawback is that the latest survey did not include some significant minority ethnic groups, such as Black-African people or south-east Asian people. Though the fourth in the series yielded particularly rich information, this is now becoming out of date, and the substantial effort (and cost) involved in carrying out such a large survey means that it is difficult to repeat, except at extended intervals of time (there was a 12-year gap between the collection of the third and fourth surveys).

### 9.3.3 *Administrative sources*

Administrative records/returns are a third important data source: in this report information presented on work-related training and experience of New Deal was based on administrative sources. 'Ethnic group' information is routinely collected, but there remain problems of incomplete returns. Advantages and disadvantages of administrative sources include:

- *advantages:*
  - a) virtually complete coverage of the population of interest;
  - c) generally available on a regular and up-to-date basis.
- *disadvantages:*
  - e) inconsistent ethnic group classifications (in some cases);
  - g) problem of incomplete records in some cases;
  - i) often difficulties of 'tracking' of individuals on a 'before' and 'after' basis.<sup>3</sup>

These problems are illustrated by the Careers Activity Survey (CAS) which collects data on the destinations of young people completing Year 11. Though the Survey is intended to cover all schools (including special schools, grant-maintained and independent schools) coverage of independent schools is known to be patchy. There is some variation in methodologies used by Careers Companies for conducting the CAS, which may account for some of the differences in response rates between areas. Additionally, ethnic group information is not provided for some respondents, while people from minority ethnic groups (those from especially Black ethnic groups) were particularly likely to have lost contact.

The problem of incomplete records of the population by ethnic group was encountered when using data (in Chapter 5) on the participation of minority ethnic groups in higher education compiled by the Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA). Ethnic group information was not available for a quarter of all

---

<sup>3</sup> An example is the difficulty of tracing through the impact of training on gaining a job; (although it is acknowledged that such issues can be addressed to some extent by using 'follow-up' surveys in conjunction with administrative records).

students in 1994/5. This percentage was still quite high in 1997/8 (14 per cent), but was likely to diminish as universities extend the ethnic monitoring of students (e.g. at admission to courses). A similar problem was encountered with the Individualised Student Record (ISR), which details the characteristics of students enrolled in FE colleges (see Chapter 4). Ethnic group information was not known or not provided for an eighth of all FE students, but for only 8 per cent of those attending full-time, suggesting that older people attending college part-time were less likely than full-time students to report their ethnic group. In Chapter 7, information was presented on participation by ethnic group in training programmes supported by the European Social Fund (ESF), based on administrative returns, in which ethnic group was unknown for a fifth of beneficiaries.

## 9.4 Problems associated with non-response

Reference has already been made to issues of *survey non-response*. Non-response to a survey (perhaps resulting from a refusal to take part or inability of the survey contractor to contact the respondent) obviously reduces sample size, which in turn limits the scope for further disaggregation. Although in large scale social surveys considerable effort is made to reduce levels of non-response, non-response remains an important issue. If non-respondents were representative of the population as a whole, the issue of non-response would be less crucial. However, as noted above, non-respondents tend to be younger than the population as a whole and more likely to live in urban areas – characteristics shared by the minority ethnic group population.

Over and above survey non-response to surveys, a further aspect of non-response highlighted in analyses of many of the data sources referred to in this report is ‘ethnic group non-response’ (i.e. lack of information on ethnic origin). In several instances, the ‘ethnic group not stated/unknown’ category identified in the data source contains as many respondents as all minority ethnic groups aggregated together. Moreover, the ‘ethnic group not stated/unknown’ category is often fairly distinctive in terms of other characteristics of interest – including participation and attainment. From the perspective of comparing the experience of different ethnic groups, it is difficult to know whether the presence of a large ‘unknown’ category serves to accentuate or diminish observed differences between different ethnic groups.

In the case of many of the data sources referred to in this report there would seem to be scope for improving non-response – particularly *‘ethnic group non-response’*.

## 9.5 Lack of accurate benchmark information for use as denominators

While administrative (and other) sources may provide information on participants in a particular programme, in order to ‘add value’ to this information it is necessary to have information on the size, characteristics and location of the population from which the participants are drawn, (in order to calculate rates, etc). In general, the *numerators* for use in calculating rates (e.g. participation rates in FE/HE) are generally more readily available than *denominators*. The lack of geographically disaggregated accurate and up-to-date estimates of population by ethnic group, age and gender for inter-censal years is a key information gap.

Though the 2001 Census will yield more up-to-date denominator information, it is difficult to see this situation changing during the inter-censal decade 2001-2011. In the likely absence of a mid-term sample Census, the best chance for an improvement in this situation is probably for the sample size of the Labour Force Survey to be greatly increased, with local estimates being produced by linking this data source to the

statistical models devised for the 'One Number Census' procedure, so that survey data for larger geographical areas can be transformed into estimates for the smaller areas which nest within them. Alternatively, an increase in the number of local authorities carrying out annual local Censuses might yield useful denominator information if they could be persuaded to use a standardised methodology. In some continental countries such denominator information can be derived from population registration systems, but it is highly unlikely that such a system would be adopted by the UK.

## 9.6 Tracking of individuals

The majority of data sources referred to in this report provide a cross-sectional perspective on the experience of minority ethnic groups. From a policy perspective there is a growing interest in tracking individuals over time – in order that their experiences (of education, training, employment, etc) can be linked (i.e. a longitudinal perspective). The DfEE proposals for the development of a Common Basic Data represent a step in this direction. Similarly, at the local level, with increasing emphasis on 'joined up' policy attention is being devoted to developing 'individual records' for tracking purposes. Such mechanism for 'tracking' may also aid examination of issues such as *retention and completion* (which are increasingly prominent concerns in FE, training programmes, etc). Mechanisms for tracking of individuals would also aid examination of links between attainment in education/training and subsequent employment experience by ethnic group.

## 9.7 Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed the drawbacks of the data sets used in the preparation of this report. Some of the problems faced are common to different data sets. A major problem is that of biased non-response in Census, survey and administrative data sets. Unfortunately, the sections of the population most susceptible to social exclusion, and for whom policy intervention on the basis of data analysis is most pressing, are also those which these data sets are most likely to miss.

The limited degree of disaggregation of the available data sets - in terms of geography, time periods and topics covered - poses further problems for analysis. The Census provides the best coverage, but as a self-completion survey, is unable to collect the detail of information which would ideally be required. The Labour Force Survey can yield very sophisticated variables, but it is difficult to increase its sample size to provide greater detail for smaller geographical areas or more statistically robust information on minority ethnic groups. Potentially invaluable longitudinal information, such as from the Youth Cohort Study, is also limited by small sample sizes and the difficulty of maintaining contact with survey members over long periods.

However, data availability from administrative systems is improving, as shown by the increased percentage of student monitoring returns which can be classified by ethnic group, and the improvement in the quality of the DfEE Schools Census. Initiatives such as the common basic dataset holding individual pupil data will enhance the potential to produce analyses of the experience of people from minority ethnic groups which identify the deeper social and economic factors underlying differences in performance by ethnic group.

## References

Courtenay, G. and McAleese, I. (1994) 'Cohort 4: young people 17-18 years old in 1990 - Report on Sweep 2', Employment Department Research Series, Youth Cohort Report No. 27.

Drew, D., Gray, J. and Sime, N. (1992) 'Against The Odds: The Education and Labour Market Experiences of Black Young People', Youth Cohort Study research paper 68, Employment Department.



## Chapter 10

### Conclusion

#### 10.1 Introduction

This report has endeavoured to present a picture of the current experience of people from minority ethnic groups as they progress through the education system and participate in the labour market, using a range of data sources from the Office for National Statistics, the Department for Education and Employment and other official bodies. It has demonstrated the diversity of the minority ethnic group population, and the need to consider the specific needs and achievements of individual ethnic groups.

This chapter provides a synthesis of the findings presented in the substantive chapters of this report. The first part of the chapter contains an overview of the evidence for all minority ethnic groups, working through each chapter in turn. The second part of the chapter presents a set of profiles of individual ethnic groups, summarising the characteristics of each.

#### 10.2 Overview

It was shown in Chapter 2 that the *minority population of Great Britain* (the great majority of whom live in England) *has grown rapidly* over the last half century and is set to continue to increase its share of the national population well into the 21st Century. As such, the concerns of these sections of the population for fair treatment in the education system and employment are of paramount importance. This is currently a youthful population and large numbers of young people from minority ethnic groups are, and will continue, to enter further and higher education and the labour market. They should find new opportunities in employment<sup>1</sup> as the ageing of the white population means that the number of young white people entering the labour market is declining.

The ability of people from minority ethnic groups to obtain employment also depends upon their experience in the education system. In the *school system*, pupils from minority ethnic groups tend to be over-represented in areas of socio-economic disadvantage, in which performance in examinations tends to be poorest (Chapter 3). The percentage of pupils who pass GCSE examinations has increased in recent years across all ethnic groups, but there are still marked differences in examination achievement at the end of the period of compulsory education. Indian and “Other” ethnic groups have the best performance in GCSE examinations, and Black, Pakistani and Bangladeshi pupils display the poorest performance. Boys were also likely to perform less well than girls in these examinations.

Family background appears to have a strong influence upon educational attainment across ethnic groups, with people whose fathers are in non-manual occupations tending to display higher levels of achievement (though this effect was stronger for white than minority ethnic groups), while pupils from all ethnic groups attending Independent and Grant Maintained Schools performed better in their GCSE examinations than those attending LEA-controlled schools. Another suggested factor underlying the poor performance of some minority ethnic groups in school has been the limited representation of these ethnic groups among the teaching staff. The analysis in Chapter 5 showed that the proportion of trainees in their final year of teacher training in 1996/97 from minority ethnic groups is still lower than the proportion of pupils in schools from minority ethnic groups.

The *transition from school to the labour market* is now quite extended, with a relatively large percentage of young people remaining in full-time education for longer periods of time than was formerly the case.

---

<sup>1</sup> If the extent of discriminatory hiring and employment practices is reduced.

People from minority ethnic groups are more likely than white people to remain longer in full-time education, though Black people are less likely to do so than those from other minority ethnic groups. People with better examination performance tend to stay in education longer, while those with poorer qualifications are more likely to be seeking work, rather than staying in education. The analyses presented in Chapter 4 suggest that while Indian young people stay on longer in education to improve their occupational prospects, Black and Pakistani/Bangladeshi young people may need to stay in education and training for longer in order to make up for poorer performance in their earlier education.

In the *higher education system* (Chapter 5), Black students tend to be older than average (i.e. there are more mature students), are more likely than average to have qualifications below A level or equivalent on entry to higher education, and are more likely to study on a part-time basis, but South Asian students are younger on average (and thus more likely to have entered directly from school or further education college). Students from minority ethnic groups (with the exception of Chinese and Other Asian students) are more likely than white students to be studying at the 'new' universities. White students are also more likely than students from minority ethnic groups to attain first or upper second class degrees, and to obtain permanent employment soon after graduating.

Once in the *labour market*, people from minority ethnic groups taken as a whole face similar inequalities (Chapter 6). In the younger age groups, they are more likely to stay in education longer than white people, and hence economic activity rates are lower, though these become much more equal across ethnic groups for men in the prime economically active age range (25 to 44 years of age). Women in all ethnic groups are more likely to withdraw from the labour market in order to bring up a family in this age range, but Pakistani and Bangladeshi women appear to withdraw from the labour force in their early twenties and not return. This is in marked contrast to Black-Caribbean women, who display the highest degree of attachment to the labour market across the age range. Economic activity rates fall off dramatically after the age of 55 for people from all ethnic groups. A marked increase in the number of older people from minority ethnic groups in the early 21st century means that action to combat ageism in the workplace and to promote lifelong learning should consider minority ethnic groups as well as white people.

Mean *unemployment* rates for minority ethnic groups are still at least double those for white people. However, there is great diversity in the experience of individual ethnic groups. Indian and Chinese people experience unemployment rates not much higher than those for white men and women, but Black-African, Bangladeshi and Pakistani people still experience extremely high rates of unemployment. Youth unemployment rates are higher than for those aged 25 and over, and reach extreme levels for some minority ethnic groups. Evidence from the New Deal suggests that this policy is not helping young people from minority ethnic groups to find employment to the same degree as young white people.

In terms of *employment*, Chinese and Pakistani people are distinctive in terms of the high percentage who are self-employed. In the former case, this might contribute to the continuing high proportion of Chinese men who work in the distribution sector. This sector also dominates employment for Bangladeshi men. Men from minority ethnic groups tend to be more likely to work in the service sector as a whole than white men. The percentage of women from minority ethnic groups working in public sector services is well above the corresponding figure for white women.

A relatively high percentage of South and South-East Asian people and Black-African people are employed in high-status occupations, including the professions. However, people from minority ethnic groups as a whole are less likely than white people to work in high status white-collar occupations or skilled manual jobs and are more concentrated into occupations such as 'associate professionals' or 'personal and protective

service'. White men are still paid more than men from minority ethnic groups, but outside London, white women are paid less on average than people from many minority ethnic groups. Amongst these groups, Chinese and Indian people tend to be paid most and Pakistani and Bangladeshi people experience the lowest rates of pay. This reflects the occupational specialisation of these ethnic groups, with a higher percentage of people in the poorest-paid ethnic groups working in poorly paid occupations, such as personal service (e.g. waiters in restaurants), while in the better-paid ethnic groups, a higher percentage work in higher status non-manual occupations.

On the whole, the evidence is for continued progress in the labour market for Indian, Chinese and Other-Asian people, but persistent disadvantage for Black (particularly Black-African), Pakistani and Bangladeshi people.

The disadvantage in employment faced by people from minority ethnic groups could be combated through *work-related training* and *lifelong learning* (Chapters 7 and 8). However, they appear to be less likely to achieve 'positive outcomes' than white trainees, with the Black-Caribbean group tending to fare particularly badly. However, trainees from minority ethnic groups are more likely to be on Pre-Vocational Training courses than white trainees, and these may play an important role in confidence building for participants from minority ethnic groups. Indeed, trainees from minority ethnic groups were more likely to have considered their participation in such programmes as a valuable experience. A higher percentage of people from minority ethnic groups than white ethnic groups have NVQ Level 5 qualifications and the Chinese, Other-Asian and Black-African ethnic groups display very high percentages of people with high-level qualifications, but people from minority ethnic groups tend to be less likely than white ethnic groups to possess lower NVQ level qualifications, and some minority groups (such as Pakistani and Bangladeshi people) display very low levels of qualifications (Chapter 8).

While this report has synthesised most of the contemporary evidence on the contrasting experience of ethnic groups in education, training and the labour market, large *gaps in knowledge* remain, due to the deficiencies in data sets highlighted in Chapter 9. Even major data sources such as the Census of Population and Labour Force Survey can be very limited in the amount of labour market intelligence they yield for minority ethnic groups, and administrative data sources, though improving, also are often highly limited. Improvements can be made, but the problem of small sample sizes in smaller population sub-groups is always likely to limit the degree of detail available, though improvements in administrative data sets offer the potential for more sophisticated analyses.

### **10.3 Profiles of individual ethnic groups**

In this section, the key features of the experience of the individual ethnic groups for which information has been presented is brought together to provide a profile of the experience of each. Given that the ethnic classifications adopted by individual data sets differ, it is not always possible to present a complete picture for each ethnic group, and therefore in some instances, ethnic groups are amalgamated with those most similar.

#### *10.3.1 White people*

White people account for nearly 94 per cent of the population of Great Britain, and thus their experience dominates the overall averages against which the experience of minority ethnic groups is compared. It should be stressed that the 'white' category is even less cohesive as an ethnic group than the minority ethnic groups discussed below, since it covers a range of nationalities and some sections of the white population (notably Irish and Jewish people) regard themselves as distinct ethnic groups, subject to some of the same discriminatory practices as more visible minority ethnic groups.

Nevertheless, there are some distinctive features of the white population which are worthy of mention. In terms of population structure, white people are older on average than people from minority ethnic groups, and the percentage of older people in the population is much greater. Conversely, the percentage of children is smaller, since the white population is growing at a very slow rate. The effect of the “demographic time-bomb” of the 1990s was greatest for white people, and the rate of increase in the white labour force will be slower than that of the minority labour force in the early 21st Century. The attainment of white pupils in school is poorer than that of Indian and Chinese pupils (but better than that of Black and Pakistani/Bangladeshi pupils), and this pattern is repeated in further and higher education, with staying-on rates lower for white than minority young people. The percentage of white people with higher-level qualifications is lower than for Black-African, Chinese and Other-Asian people.

However, the experience of white people in the labour market, as measured by the unemployment rate, is better than that of any of the minority ethnic groups, and the degree of participation of white people in the labour market is greater than that of people from minority ethnic groups (though Black-Caribbean women display economic activity rates comparable to or greater than those of white women). The hourly earnings of white male employees are higher than those from minority ethnic groups. In part this reflects their greater concentration in high status and skilled manual occupations. This general picture of ‘advantage’ in the labour market is also evident in the early experience of the New Deal and other work-related training programmes, with white participants being more likely than those from minority ethnic groups to enter employment.

Overall, the evidence suggests that white people are better able than people from most minority ethnic groups to “translate” achievements in education and training into employment.

### *10.3.2 Black ethnic groups*

The Census of Population and the Labour Force Survey adopt an ethnic group classification which divides this broad category into Black-Caribbean, Black-African and Black-Other. Unfortunately, some of the data sets upon which this report is based use a single “Black” category, despite the marked differences in experience between Black-African people and people from the other two ethnic groups (which might legitimately be treated as one, since many children of Black-Caribbean parents identify themselves as Black British, which falls within the Black-Other group). Therefore a profile is presented for all Black people taken together, with some of the key features of the three constituent ethnic groups highlighted.

Over two-thirds of people from all three Black ethnic groups identified above live in London. Black-Caribbean people are the second largest of all minority ethnic groups identified (after Indians), comprising half a million people. People from the Black-Caribbean group are older than the average for minority ethnic groups, and the percentage of retirement age is greater than for any other minority ethnic group. Contrary to the general trend of increase in minority ethnic group populations, there was a decline in the size of this ethnic group *between 1991 and 1999* (but this may be a feature of the classification system, with many choosing to identify themselves as Black-Other). In contrast, the Black-Other group is the most youthful of all the minority ethnic groups identified - over 96 per cent were aged under 45 and more than half were aged 0-15 in 1999. In the 1991 Census of Population, 86 per cent of people from this ethnic group had been born in the UK; a larger percentage than for any minority ethnic group. The Black-African group was one of the fastest growing ethnic groups between 1991 and 1999, with the largest numerical increase in the population of working age.

At school level, Black pupils have relatively poor attainment of GCSE passes A\*-G. Moreover, Black pupils have highest exclusion rates from schools of any ethnic group. After the age of 16, young people from the

Black ethnic groups are more likely than average to choose to attend a College of Further Education rather than remain at school. Two years on, 17 per cent of 18/19 year olds from Black groups had achieved Level 3 qualifications in 1998, and a lower than average proportion of those from the Black ethnic group two years after compulsory education attended University. Black students in higher education are more likely than those from other ethnic groups to be mature students - more than half are over 25, compared with an average of around a third of all students, and they are more concentrated than average in the post-1992 'new' universities. Black undergraduates are more likely to have non-standard entry qualifications to higher education than other groups, and Black students in higher education are more likely to study part-time than other ethnic groups. However, there are important differences between Black groups: Black-Caribbean people have amongst the lowest proportions holding higher level qualifications of any minority ethnic group, while the Black-African group has one of the highest representations in higher education of any of the minority ethnic groups. However, participation in higher education is not necessarily translated into labour market success: Black African male higher education graduates have a particularly high unemployment rate (nearly 22 per cent).

Unemployment rates for Black people are higher than the national average, indicating continuing disadvantage in the labour market. This is particularly the case for the Black-African group, experiencing unemployment rates well above the average for all minority ethnic groups. Disadvantage is also illustrated by the fact that early experience of the New Deal suggests that people from Black groups are least likely to enter unsubsidised employment on leaving the Gateway. Moreover, and more generally, Black people tend to fare particularly badly in terms of 'positive outcomes' from work-based training programmes.

Such high unemployment rates for Black people may be, at least in part, a function of strong labour market attachment. Black-Caribbean people in particular, display higher rates of economic activity than people from other minority ethnic groups – this is particularly pronounced for women (i.e. they have a stronger attachment to the labour market than those from other minority ethnic groups).

### *10.3.3 South Asian ethnic groups*

This category comprises people from the Indian, Pakistani and Bangladeshi ethnic groups. These are usually presented separately in the sources used in the compilation of this report, but Pakistani and Bangladeshi people are often amalgamated together, especially where sample sizes are small, since on many dimensions their experience of education, training and employment is similar, and contrasts with the patterns of participation and achievement exhibited by Indians.

#### *The Indian group*

The Indian group is the largest single minority ethnic group. It displays a more widespread geographical distribution than other South Asian groups.

Overall, statistics on participation and achievement in education and training paint a positive picture. At school level the percentage of Indian pupils achieving GCSE grades A\*-C is higher than for any other ethnic group, and the percentage of young Indian people staying on in education post Year 11 is higher than in any other ethnic group. 47 per cent of 18/19 year olds had achieved Level 3 qualifications in 1998. Indians are more highly represented in higher education than any other minority ethnic group.

This aggregate picture of high levels of participation and achievement in education and training is carried forward into 'success' in the labour market. Unemployment rates are relatively low for both men and women. Indian people who were unemployed and participated in the New Deal, were more likely than people from other minority ethnic groups to enter unsubsidised employment on leaving the New Deal

Gateway. Economic activity rates for Indian males are similar to those for the white group. Wages for Indian people are higher than those for most other minority ethnic groups, notably in London. Indian economically active adults display higher attainment rates at NVQ level 4 than the white group, and the percentage of men working in managerial & administrative and professional occupations is above average. Overall, Indian people display the clearest evidence of progress in the wider labour market.

#### *Pakistanis and Bangladeshis*

Pakistanis comprise the third largest minority ethnic group (after Indian and Black-Caribbean people) with a population of half a million. This is the fastest-growing of the larger minority ethnic groups, while the Bangladeshi group is increasing in population at twice the average rate for minority ethnic groups.

From school level to higher education, and in lifelong learning, levels of achievement are lower than average. At school level Pakistani and Bangladeshi pupils had the largest percentage point rise in attainment rates between 1995 and 1998, but still have relatively poor attainment of GCSE passes A\*-G. Both Pakistani and Bangladeshi young people have a greater than average likelihood of being unemployed after Year 11. Bangladeshi women are one of the most under-represented groups in higher education, and Pakistani and Bangladeshi students have proportionately lower acceptances to initial teacher training at undergraduate level than other ethnic groups. Pakistanis and Bangladeshis have amongst the lowest proportions holding higher level qualifications of any minority ethnic group. Only 19 per cent of 18/19 year olds had achieved Level 3 qualifications in 1998, while overall, 29 per cent of Pakistanis and Bangladeshis had no qualifications. Amongst adults, only 35 per cent of those with NVQ level 3 as their highest qualification and 21 per cent of those qualified to NVQ level 4 are economically active.

Pakistani and Bangladeshi people face considerably higher than average unemployment rates, and women from these ethnic groups display extremely low economic activity rates. Graduates from these ethnic groups have an unemployment rate almost double that of white graduates. A relatively high percentage of working men in these groups are self-employed. Bangladeshi men are particularly disadvantaged as a result of very high levels of concentration in the distribution sector, one consequence of which is that their average hourly earnings are much lower than those of any other ethnic group.

Overall, the picture is one of low levels of achievement in education and training. Despite recent improvements a considerable gap between them and other ethnic groups remains. Labour market experience is characterised by high levels of unemployment and low wages.

#### *10.3.4 Chinese and Other ethnic groups*

This broad grouping is extremely diverse, including Chinese and other South-East Asian (Other-Asian) ethnic groups as well as numerous smaller ethnic groups and people of mixed parentage, who fall within the Other-Other category (sometimes termed simply "Other").

#### *Chinese*

The Chinese are the least geographically concentrated of all minority ethnic groups. People from this ethnic group are older than average for minority ethnic groups, but with fewer elderly people than the Black-Caribbean or Indian ethnic groups.

The overall picture is one of relatively high levels of participation and achievement in education, training and the labour market. A higher than average proportion of young people from the Chinese group stay on in education post Year 11. Chinese people are well-represented in higher education - women are particularly concentrated in business studies, while a greater than average proportion of men taking courses in engineering and technology. However, while a third of Chinese economically active adults have degrees, a higher than average share also have no qualifications.

Unemployment rates for Chinese people are lower than for any other minority ethnic group except Indians. The earnings of Chinese (and Other) people are well above those of other minority ethnic groups, and outside London, exceed those of white people. A higher than average proportion of men from this ethnic group work in managerial & administrative and professional occupations. A relatively high percentage of Chinese men are self-employed, and are highly likely to work in the distribution sector.

*Other-Asian and Other-Other*

As is the case for the Chinese ethnic group, the overall picture of participation and achievement in education, training and employment for these diverse groups is a positive one. This is highlighted by the fact that people from this Other-Other category are most likely of all minority ethnic groups to be in employment post Year 11, and that a higher than average proportion of men in the Other-Asian groups are in managerial & administrative and professional occupations.





## Appendices

<b>Content</b>	<b>Page</b>
Appendix 1	A1
Appendix 2	A4
Appendix 3	A12

### Appendix 1: Supplementary Tables for Chapter 3

**Table 1: Maintained primary schools: proportion of pupils\* by ethnic group, January 1999 by Government Office Region in England**

	White	Black Caribbean	Black African	Black Other	Indian	Pakistani	B'ladeshi	Chinese	Other	Unclassified	Total
England	88.2	1.6	1.2	0.9	2.3	2.5	1.0	0.3	2.1	1.3	3,588,967
North East	97.4	*	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.9	0.5	0.2	0.5	0.3	184,415
North West	91.7	0.5	0.2	0.4	1.5	3.7	0.8	0.3	0.8	0.7	430,376
Merseyside	97.4	0.1	0.2	0.7	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.6	1.1	111,848
Yorkshire & Humberside	91.5	0.6	0.2	0.6	1.1	4.6	0.4	0.2	0.8	0.7	374,719
East Midlands	91.7	0.8	0.3	0.9	3.5	1.2	0.3	0.2	1.1	1.1	308,332
West Midlands	84.1	2.1	0.2	0.5	4.0	5.1	1.1	0.2	2.7	1.4	406,619
Eastern	94.0	0.7	0.3	0.6	0.9	1.5	0.6	0.3	1.1	1.9	377,038
Inner London	43.5	11.9	14.0	5.1	3.5	2.7	9.0	1.0	9.3	0.9	175,090
Outer London	69.8	4.1	4.2	2.5	8.3	3.4	0.8	0.7	6.2	1.5	321,451
South East	94.5	0.4	0.2	0.3	1.1	1.4	0.3	0.3	1.6	1.1	560,097
South West	97.3	0.3	0.1	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	1.0	3.5	338,982

\*Pupils of compulsory school age and above

Note: \* =less than 1 per cent

Source: DfEE, Annual Schools Census, January 1999

**Table 2: Maintained secondary schools: number of pupils\* by ethnic group, January 1999 by Government Office Region in England**

	White	Black Caribbean	Black African	Black Other	Indian	Pakistani	B'ladeshi	Chinese	Other	Unclassified	Total
England	88.5	1.4	1.0	0.7	2.7	2.6	0.9	0.4	1.8	2.5	3,121,901
North East	97.9	*	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.7	0.4	0.2	0.3	1.3	179,750
North West	92.2	0.4	0.2	0.5	1.5	3.6	0.7	0.3	0.7	1.8	351,269
Merseyside	97.5	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.5	0.5	1.6	98,279
Yorkshire & Humberside	90.3	0.5	0.2	0.4	1.3	6.0	0.5	0.2	0.6	1.1	340,185
East Midlands	91.7	0.6	0.3	0.7	3.5	1.0	0.3	0.3	1.6	3.1	277,995
West Midlands	84.2	2.2	0.2	0.4	5.0	4.7	1.0	0.3	1.9	1.9	358,364
Eastern	93.9	0.6	0.3	0.4	1.2	1.4	0.6	0.4	1.3	4.1	357,197
Inner London	42.0	10.8	12.0	5.4	4.2	3.1	11.3	1.2	9.9	2.5	122,165
Outer London	67.9	4.4	4.0	2.0	10.8	3.5	0.9	0.9	5.6	3.2	265,339
South East	94.2	0.4	0.3	0.3	1.5	1.5	0.3	0.4	1.3	1.9	471,304
South West	97.8	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.7	4.3	300,054

\*Pupils of compulsory school age and above

Note: \* =less than 1 per cent

Source: DfEE, Annual Schools Census, January 1999

## Appendix 2: Supplementary Tables for Chapter 5

**Table 1: Ethnic group of home domiciled, full & part-time higher education students<sup>1</sup> in Great Britain higher education institutions, including the Open University - 1998/99, by Government Office Region of domicile**

	North East	North West	Mersey-side	Yorks' & Humber <sup>1</sup>	East Midlands	West Midlands	Eastern	Greater London	South East	South West	Eng.nk	England	Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland	UK.nk	UK total
White	83.9	79.9	78.0	80.1	81.7	73.6	83.9	51.8	81.3	84.5	50.2	74.7	85.3	84.9	89.0	62.5	76.3
Black Caribbean	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.5	0.8	1.9	0.6	4.5	0.4	0.2	0.8	1.3	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.3	1.1
Black African	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5	8.8	0.5	0.2	1.8	1.9	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.4	1.6
Black other	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	1.8	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.5
Indian	0.7	1.7	0.5	1.8	4.8	6.6	1.7	7.3	1.6	0.4	1.4	3.2	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.8	2.7
Pakistani	0.7	2.3	0.2	2.8	0.9	2.8	0.9	2.4	0.8	0.2	0.8	1.5	0.3	0.8	0.1	0.5	1.4
Bangladeshi	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.5	0.3	1.4	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.4
Chinese	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.8	1.7	0.6	0.4	1.4	0.8	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.7
Asian other	0.3	0.5	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.9	0.8	3.4	0.8	0.3	1.3	1.1	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.5	1.0
Other	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.2	4.5	1.2	0.7	1.5	1.6	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.8	1.4
Unknown	12.7	12.8	18.4	12.2	8.7	11.3	8.9	12.5	12.4	12.8	40.1	12.8	12.0	12.3	9.6	33.4	12.8
Total inc.M	60,069	135,912	35,583	115,579	104,433	128,036	129,799	236,528	217,743	123,447	42,070	1,329,209	86,307	147,891	17,943	9,025	1,589,375

Source: HESA (DFEE)

<sup>1</sup> Includes undergraduate and postgraduate students.

**Table 2: Distribution of full- and part-time undergraduate and postgraduate students in Great Britain HE institutions, including the OU, by subject area, 1998/99**

Ethnic group	Gender	Medicine and dentistry	Subjects allied to medicine	Biological science	Agriculture (inc. veterinary) and related	Physical sciences	Mathematical sciences	Computer Science	Engineering and technology	Architecture, building & planning	Social, economic & political studies
White	Male.	1.7	3.6	4.5	1.1	5.8	1.6	7.0	11.2	4.0	5.6
	Female.	1.7	16.1	5.4	1.1	2.6	0.7	1.3	1.4	1.0	7.7
Black Caribbean	Male.	0.7	3.7	3.6	0.2	1.3	0.6	14.2	11.5	4.3	8.4
	Female.	0.5	19.5	4.1	0.2	0.7	0.2	3.3	1.4	1.5	14.4
Black African	Male.	1.6	7.7	2.3	0.2	1.7	1.0	13.6	14.7	3.3	7.3
	Female.	1.6	23.0	3.7	0.4	1.2	0.6	7.9	2.6	1.6	9.2
Black other	Male.	1.3	4.1	3.4	0.1	1.9	0.6	11.5	10.1	3.8	7.9
	Female.	0.8	12.6	4.0	0.3	1.0	0.3	3.8	1.7	1.6	12.4
Indian	Male.	8.0	5.6	3.0	0.1	3.3	2.4	20.1	11.1	2.1	5.5
	Female.	6.3	11.6	6.5	0.2	2.2	1.5	7.5	2.3	0.7	8.8
Pakistani	Male.	5.0	5.5	3.5	0.1	3.9	1.4	21.4	13.2	2.1	5.2
	Female.	4.6	11.4	8.2	0.2	3.3	1.1	6.6	2.1	0.7	9.9
Bangladeshi	Male.	4.4	4.2	3.8	0.0	4.3	2.1	15.1	14.1	2.0	7.7
	Female.	5.6	8.8	8.1	0.0	3.3	1.5	4.8	1.9	0.8	13.1
Chinese	Male.	4.4	3.4	3.7	0.2	3.9	3.6	15.9	18.3	5.2	4.1
	Female.	4.2	10.7	4.2	0.4	2.9	3.1	6.5	4.8	2.3	5.4
Asian other	Male.	7.4	5.2	3.7	0.2	3.0	2.4	12.8	16.0	2.1	5.0
	Female.	6.9	11.5	6.3	0.2	2.5	1.6	4.9	2.4	0.8	7.1
Other	Male.	3.9	5.7	4.5	0.3	4.0	1.6	10.5	14.0	2.7	6.7
	Female.	3.7	11.9	6.4	0.4	2.4	1.0	3.5	2.6	1.0	9.7
Not known	Male.	4.0	4.0	4.3	0.8	5.8	1.0	6.3	10.7	3.2	6.0
	Female.	3.4	17.0	5.2	0.9	2.6	0.5	2.0	1.7	1.1	7.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>Male.</b>	<b>2.4</b>	<b>3.8</b>	<b>4.4</b>	<b>1.0</b>	<b>5.5</b>	<b>1.5</b>	<b>8.0</b>	<b>11.4</b>	<b>3.8</b>	<b>5.8</b>
	<b>Female.</b>	<b>2.2</b>	<b>16.0</b>	<b>5.4</b>	<b>1.0</b>	<b>2.6</b>	<b>0.7</b>	<b>1.8</b>	<b>1.5</b>	<b>1.0</b>	<b>7.9</b>
Missing	Male.	2.1	5.2	8.3	0.0	1.4	1.7	20.6	6.4	5.2	4.3
	Female.	0.8	18.6	7.0	0.8	0.2	0.8	5.5	0.2	3.2	14.6

Source: HESA (DfEE)

Table 2 contd.

Ethnic group	Gender	Law	Business and administration studies	Librarianship & information science	Languages	Humanities	Creative arts & design	Education	Combined
White	Male.	2.5	12.3	1.1	3.3	3.6	5.6	4.8	20.8
	Female.	2.7	10.2	1.4	6.2	3.6	6.0	10.5	20.5
Black Caribbean	Male.	5.3	14.3	1.6	1.5	1.6	7.2	4.4	15.6
	Female.	5.8	14.2	1.6	2.8	1.0	5.0	7.4	16.3
Black African	Male.	7.2	17.7	1.2	1.1	0.9	2.1	1.9	14.5
	Female.	7.3	17.0	1.6	1.6	0.5	2.5	3.0	14.8
Black other	Male.	3.8	12.4	1.1	2.3	1.0	6.4	3.1	25.2
	Female.	5.2	11.7	1.7	3.3	1.3	6.5	5.6	26.2
Indian	Male.	4.9	18.4	0.8	0.7	0.6	2.4	1.0	10.2
	Female.	7.6	20.9	1.3	2.4	0.9	3.1	3.9	12.4
Pakistani	Male.	6.9	17.3	0.6	0.8	0.6	1.4	1.3	9.7
	Female.	11.4	15.4	1.0	2.3	1.6	2.1	4.7	13.6
Bangladeshi	Male.	6.5	15.9	0.5	1.2	0.9	1.8	1.4	13.9
	Female.	8.7	11.7	1.7	3.5	1.7	2.6	5.0	17.2
Chinese	Male.	2.3	15.7	0.5	1.6	0.4	5.0	1.0	10.9
	Female.	4.1	21.8	1.2	4.0	0.9	7.4	2.4	13.8
Asian other	Male.	3.2	12.9	0.7	1.8	1.2	2.7	1.5	18.3
	Female.	5.1	12.5	1.1	4.4	1.6	5.1	3.9	22.2
Other	Male.	4.2	12.2	1.0	4.1	2.5	5.6	2.6	13.7
	Female.	5.1	11.3	1.7	7.7	2.9	7.7	5.8	15.3
Not known	Male.	2.6	12.4	0.8	3.8	3.9	3.7	6.3	20.4
	Female.	2.5	8.2	1.0	6.1	3.9	4.3	12.2	19.7
Total	Male.	2.8	12.7	1.0	3.2	3.3	5.1	4.6	19.8
	Female.	3.1	10.5	1.3	5.9	3.4	5.6	10.1	19.9
Missing	Male.	2.4	15.6	0.5	5.7	3.8	3.1	1.9	12.1
	Female.	1.9	8.9	0.8	6.4	3.6	2.5	8.1	15.9

Source: HESA (DfEE)

**Table 3: Destinations of first-degree graduates, 1998/99 (percentages of all graduates)**

	Female											Total
	White	Black Carib'h	Black African	Black Other	Indian	Pakis'i	B'ladeshi	Chinese	Asian Other	Other	Unknown	
Permanent - UK	47.0	44.5	39.3	45.9	43.3	33.9	41.8	33.7	40.3	41.1	40.9	45.7
Temporary - UK	19.8	18.1	14.3	16.5	19.0	18.1	19.7	15.8	17.1	19.4	24.0	20.1
Self-employed	1.4	0.9	1.5	1.5	0.6	0.7	2.0	1.4	1.8	1.9	1.3	1.4
Unemployed - overseas employment	2.5	0.5	0.9	2.1	1.0	0.9	0.0	3.8	1.4	2.1	3.2	2.5
Education or training - UK	18.4	20.5	21.2	15.9	21.4	28.3	18.1	22.6	25.6	20.8	18.2	18.7
Education or training overseas	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.3	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.4
Overseas leaving UK	0.1	0.5	1.8	0.3	0.2	0.7	0.4	4.0	1.4	0.9	0.4	0.2
N/a	5.1	5.0	5.9	7.4	3.8	5.6	5.6	7.0	4.3	4.6	5.5	5.1
Seeking employment or training - unemployed	4.2	8.2	13.0	8.2	8.9	10.8	9.6	8.2	6.2	7.0	4.8	4.7
Seeking employment or training - other	1.2	1.5	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.1	2.4	3.2	1.4	1.7	1.2	1.2
<b>All destinations</b>	<b>73217</b>	<b>878</b>	<b>782</b>	<b>340</b>	<b>2712</b>	<b>1023</b>	<b>249</b>	<b>730</b>	<b>724</b>	<b>1140</b>	<b>9862</b>	<b>91657</b>

Source: HESA (DFEE)

**Table 3: Destinations of first-degree graduates, 1998/99 (percentages of all graduates) Cont.**

	Male											Total
	White	Black Carib'n	Black African	Black Other	Indian	Pakisi	B'ladeshi	Chinese	Asian Other	Other	Unknown	
Permanent - UK	49.9	46.7	33.9	43.5	46.2	42.0	35.8	36.9	42.5	38.7	46.2	48.7
Temporary - UK	15.5	12.7	11.9	15.1	16.6	14.1	16.8	11.3	16.3	14.6	19.5	15.9
Self-employed	2.0	3.4	1.1	4.3	1.4	1.0	1.6	1.1	1.6	3.5	1.9	2.0
Unemployed - overseas employment	2.4	0.8	1.6	1.1	1.0	0.4	0.3	3.5	2.3	2.2	2.9	2.3
Education or training - UK	17.0	17.0	26.6	17.7	20.2	26.3	25.2	25.6	21.4	23.9	16.2	17.5
Education or training overseas	0.4	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.4	0.3	0.0	0.5	0.4	0.8	0.7	0.5
Overseas leaving UK	0.1	0.0	3.3	1.6	0.2	0.1	0.3	4.1	1.8	1.3	0.5	0.3
N/a	4.6	3.4	1.8	4.8	3.2	3.4	3.2	4.9	2.1	4.4	4.3	4.5
Seeking employment or training - unemployed	6.7	12.7	16.9	11.3	9.2	11.0	13.2	9.9	10.2	8.6	6.2	7.0
Seeking employment or training - other	1.3	3.1	2.8	0.5	1.6	1.4	3.5	2.1	1.4	2.0	1.5	1.4
<b>All destinations</b>	<b>60726</b>	<b>353</b>	<b>738</b>	<b>186</b>	<b>2292</b>	<b>1035</b>	<b>310</b>	<b>628</b>	<b>706</b>	<b>896</b>	<b>9108</b>	<b>76978</b>

Source: HESA (DFEE)



**Table 3 (continued): Destinations of first-degree graduates, 1998/99 (percentages of all graduates)**

	Total											
	White	Black Carib'n	Black African	Black Other	Indian	Pakis'i	B'ladeshi	Chinese	Asian Other	Other	Unknown	Total
Permanent - UK	48.3	45.2	36.6	45.1	44.6	38.0	38.5	35.2	41.4	40.1	43.4	47.1
Temporary - UK	17.8	16.6	13.2	16.0	17.9	16.1	18.1	13.7	16.7	17.3	21.8	18.2
Self-employed	1.7	1.6	1.3	2.5	1.0	0.8	1.8	1.3	1.7	2.6	1.6	1.7
Unemployed - overseas employment	2.4	0.6	1.3	1.7	1.0	0.6	0.2	3.7	1.8	2.2	3.0	2.4
Education or training - UK	17.8	19.5	23.8	16.5	20.8	27.3	22.0	24.0	23.5	22.2	17.2	18.2
Education or training overseas	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.4
Overseas leaving UK	0.1	0.3	2.5	0.8	0.2	0.4	0.4	4.1	1.6	1.1	0.4	0.3
N/a	4.9	4.5	3.9	6.5	3.5	4.5	4.3	6.0	3.2	4.5	4.9	4.8
Seeking employment or training - unemployed	5.3	9.5	14.9	9.3	9.1	10.9	11.6	9.0	8.2	7.7	5.5	5.7
Seeking employment or training - other	1.2	1.9	2.2	1.3	1.6	1.3	3.0	2.7	1.4	1.8	1.4	1.3
<b>All destinations</b>	<b>133943</b>	<b>1231</b>	<b>1520</b>	<b>526</b>	<b>5004</b>	<b>2058</b>	<b>559</b>	<b>1358</b>	<b>1430</b>	<b>2036</b>	<b>18970</b>	<b>168635</b>

Source: HESA (DFEE)

**Table 4: Occupation of first degree graduates six months after graduating, 1998/99  
(percentages of all graduates)**

	White	Black Carib'n	Black African	Black Other	Indian	Pakis'i	B'ladeshi	Chinese	Asian Other	Other	Not known	Total
MANAGERS AND ADMINISTRATORS	17.4	18.6	16.6	15.3	16.0	15.6	18.4	12.0	14.6	17.6	14.2	16.9
PROFESSIONAL OCCUPATIONS	27.6	19.0	22.0	24.0	34.6	34.6	26.1	35.4	34.5	27.4	40.0	29.3
ASSOCIATE PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL OCCUPATIONS	21.5	26.5	21.5	21.3	17.7	18.7	18.1	21.3	19.1	18.3	18.4	20.9
CLERICAL AND SECRETARIAL OCCUPATIONS	16.6	20.5	22.3	19.2	18.2	17.1	19.3	16.4	16.7	17.9	13.2	16.4
CRAFT AND RELATED OCCUPATIONS	1.1	0.9	0.8	1.8	0.8	0.8	0.3	0.4	1.2	0.9	0.9	1.1
PERSONAL AND PROTECTIVE SERVICE OCCUPATIONS	4.7	5.5	4.0	5.7	1.7	1.4	3.4	4.0	2.1	4.3	3.8	4.5
SALES OCCUPATIONS	6.9	6.4	6.9	6.0	8.2	8.5	12.0	6.3	6.8	8.4	5.6	6.9
PLANT AND MACHINE OPERATIVES	0.7	0.5	1.2	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.7
OTHER OCCUPATIONS	1.5	0.5	2.6	1.5	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.9	1.5	1.0	1.3	1.4
NOT KNOWN	1.9	1.5	2.2	4.8	1.9	2.3	1.5	2.8	3.0	3.9	2.1	2.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>90833</b>	<b>780</b>	<b>777</b>	<b>334</b>	<b>3176</b>	<b>1130</b>	<b>326</b>	<b>681</b>	<b>855</b>	<b>1221</b>	<b>12685</b>	<b>112798</b>

Source: HESA (DFEE)

**Table 5: Sector of first degree graduates six months after graduating, 1998/99 (percentages of all graduates)**

	White	Black Carib'n	Black African	Black Other	Indian	Pakis'i	B'ladeshi	Chinese	Asian Other	Other	Not known	Total
AGRICULTURE AND FORESTRY	0.6	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.5	0.5
FISHING	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0
MINING AND QUARRYING	0.5	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.2	0.4	0.0	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.8	0.5
MANUFACTURING	11.7	6.0	7.2	7.8	8.5	8.8	6.1	9.8	9.2	9.0	9.0	11.1
ELECTRICITY, GAS AND WATER SUPPLY	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.5	1.4	1.8	0.0	0.7	1.5	0.7	1.1	1.4
CONSTRUCTION	2.0	0.8	1.7	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.6	1.9
WHOLESALE AND RETAIL TRADE	10.0	11.0	13.8	7.8	16.0	17.4	18.4	9.8	11.8	11.2	7.3	10.1
HOTELS AND RESTAURANTS	3.6	1.2	2.1	2.7	1.0	1.5	2.5	6.8	1.9	4.2	2.6	3.3
TRANSPORT, STORAGE AND COMMUNICATION	4.4	4.9	6.6	4.8	6.0	5.1	3.1	4.1	5.8	4.3	3.9	4.4
FINANCIAL ACTIVITIES	7.6	7.2	7.2	6.6	11.2	11.6	12.0	11.0	8.8	7.7	6.7	7.7
PROPERTY DEVELOPMENT, RENTING, BUSINESS AND RESEARCH	21.3	19.9	23.6	21.0	24.0	21.8	21.2	31.7	25.0	23.3	20.8	21.4
PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND DEFENCE	6.5	9.5	7.5	9.3	4.2	5.0	12.3	3.5	4.3	5.7	5.0	6.3
EDUCATION	11.3	9.7	3.5	12.6	3.8	5.3	8.6	2.9	4.9	8.4	7.9	10.4
HEALTH AND SOCIAL WORK	10.9	20.6	17.4	14.7	18.0	16.1	11.7	12.5	17.7	14.8	25.7	13.0
OTHER COMMUNITY, SOCIAL AND PERSONAL SERVICE ACTIVITIES	7.0	6.0	5.5	8.1	2.8	2.3	1.8	3.8	4.7	6.8	5.8	6.6
PRIVATE HOUSEHOLDS WITH EMPLOYED PERSONS	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1
INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS AND BODIES	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0
NOT KNOWN (CODE 9999)	1.1	1.8	2.2	2.4	1.9	2.0	1.5	1.6	2.7	2.1	1.1	1.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>90833</b>	<b>780</b>	<b>777</b>	<b>334</b>	<b>3176</b>	<b>1130</b>	<b>326</b>	<b>681</b>	<b>855</b>	<b>1221</b>	<b>12685</b>	<b>112798</b>

Source: HESA (DfEE)

### Appendix 3: Supplementary Tables for Chapter 7

**Table 1: Starts by ethnic origin and region**

1998-99	South East	London	Eastern	South West	West Midlands	East Midlands	York & Humb	NW & Mersey'e	NE	England	Wales	England & Wales
	White	92	50	92	96	83	89	91	92	98	82	97
Afro-Caribbean	2	28	3	2	7	3	3	2	-	9	1	9
Asian	3	10	3	1	7	6	4	4	1	5	1	5
Other	3	12	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	4	2	4
<b>November '98-October '99</b>												
White	90	50	94	96	83	87	92	92	98	81	97	82
Afro-Caribbean	3	28	2	2	8	4	3	2	1	9	1	9
Asian	4	8	2	1	7	7	4	4	-	5	1	5
Other	4	14	2	1	2	2	1	2	1	5	1	5

Source: WBTA Starts Database  
Extract from DfEE - WBLA Quarter Three Report, Table 2n, p.29.

**Table 2: Outcomes and Qualifications by characteristic by Region – May 1998 to April 1999**

1998-99	Percentages											
	South East	London	Eastern	South West	West Midlands	East Midlands	York & Humb	NW & Mersey'e	NE	England	Wales	England & Wales
In a job	45	41	43	45	37	40	37	39	35	40	39	40
In a positive outcome	50	46	47	50	43	44	42	43	40	45	47	45
Gained full qual	40	38	48	39	38	40	38	43	42	40	55	41
Completers	73	76	72	68	70	69	66	71	67	71	75	71
<b>White</b>												
In a job	45	44	44	45	38	40	37	40	35	41	39	41
In a positive outcome	50	48	47	50	43	44	42	44	40	45	47	45
Gained full qual	40	42	48	39	39	41	39	43	42	41	55	42
Completers	73	77	72	68	69	69	66	71	67	70	75	70
<b>Non-White *</b>												
In a job	-	37	-	-	38	38	31	33	-	37	-	36
In a positive outcome	-	43	-	-	47	44	37	39	-	43	-	43
Gained full qual	-	33	-	-	35	29	23	34	-	33	-	33
Completers	-	77	-	-	76	70	63	69	-	74	-	74

\* Non- White provides figures for August 1998 to July 1999 only.  
- figures not available.

Source: WBTA Follow-up Survey.

Extract from DfEE - WBLA Quarter Three Report, Table 3u, p.53.

Non-White figures replace part of the Table 3u.