WARWICK INSTITUTE *for* EMPLOYMENT RESEARCH

# *Changing Patterns of Employment by Ethnic Group and for Migrant Workers*

## National Report

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## *Acknowledgements*

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# Executive Summary

### *Aims and objectives*

- The aim of the analyses presented here is to provide details at national and regional scales of changing patterns of employment by ethnic group and for migrant workers.
- The results presented are intended to inform high level policy makers, planners and administrators within the LSC, although the findings are likely to be of interest more broadly to those concerned with regional, sectoral and skills development.

### *Definitional issues*

- The standard classification of *ethnic groups* is used in the analyses, with the broad categories ‘Mixed’, ‘Asian/Asian British’, ‘Black/Black British’ and ‘Chinese and Other’ together comprising the ‘Black and Minority Ethnic’ (BME) population, being disaggregated into component ethnic groups where data availability allows.
- The terms ‘migration’ and ‘migrant’ tend to be used loosely, and the fact that they are used in different ways in the academic and policy literature means that there are alternative estimates of the volume of migrants. In the statistical analyses presented here the term ‘migrant’ is used to denote those born outside the UK.
- Migrants may be from White or BME groups.

### *Sources and methods*

- The analyses presented in the report draw on data from:
  – the Labour Force Survey (LFS);
  – *Working Futures* projections; and
  – the 2001 Census 3% Sample of Anonymised Records (SARs).
- The LFS data relates to place of residence (i.e. ‘heads’), while the Working Futures data relates to workplaces (i.e. ‘jobs’).
- There is scope to extend the analyses presented in this report when projections of population by ethnic group are due to be published.

### *Key findings*

*Ethnic minorities and migrants in the workforce*

- The UK has witnessed rapid growth of the BME population, as a result of relatively high birth rates and international migration: the BME population reached 1 million in 1967, 3.1 million in 1991 and 4.6 million in 2001.
- All ethnic groups shared in the ageing of the workforce between 1994 and 2004, but BME groups have a youthful age structure – most notably the Bangladeshi, Pakistani and Mixed parentage groups.
- The share of BME groups in employment increased from 4.8% in 1994 to 8.1% in 2004: the number of BME people in employment doubled over this period.
- Men from BME groups are more likely to work part-time and women from BME groups are less likely to work part-time than their White counterparts.

- 2.1% of all people in work moved between regions during the year 2000-1, and only 0.6% were international migrants.
- International migration is most prevalent:
  – in the youngest working age groups;
  – in the service sector – particularly financial intermediation, real estate and hotels & restaurants; and
  – in London.

*The picture for England*

- The ethnic group composition of employment varies across *occupations*:
  – BME groups are under-represented amongst managers & administrators, associate professional, administrative & clerical and skilled manual occupations;
  – they are over-represented in sales, operative and elementary occupations.
- The ethnic group composition of employment varies across *industries*:
  – BME groups are under-represented in agriculture, construction and public administration & defence;
  – they take up a more than proportionate share of jobs in food & drink, transport & communications, energy industries and health & social work.

*The regional picture:* London:

- Ethnic minorities accounted for 27.2 % of employment in London in 2004 (more than three times the national average), up from 17.4 % in 1994. The largest single ethnic minority group is people of Asian and Asian British (mainly Indian) origin, accounting for 6.7 % of total employment in 2004.
- All ethnic minority groups account for a greater share of employment in London than nationally, underlining the far greater concentration of ethnic minority groups in London than in any other region.
- In London ethnic minorities are over-represented in several occupations with relatively low skills requirements, including elementary occupations, machine & transport operatives, sales & customer service occupations and personal service occupations.
- By contrast, they are under-represented in managerial, professional and associate professional & technical occupations with higher level skill requirements, and to a lesser extent in skilled manual occupations.
- Around 31 % of workers in London were born outside the UK.

South East:

- Ethnic minorities accounted for 5.4 % of employment in the South East in 2004, up from 2.5 % in 1994. The largest single ethnic minority group is people of Asian and Asian British (mainly Indian) origin, accounting for 1.2 % of total employment in 2004.
- All ethnic minority groups account for a smaller share of employment in the South East than nationally, with the exception of the Other Asian group which comprises the same proportion of employment regionally as nationally.

- In the South East ethnic minorities are over-represented at both ends of the skills continuum: in professional and associate professional & technical occupations at one end, and as operatives and in elementary occupations at the other end.
- By contrast, they are under-represented in managerial occupations, which in any case has an older than average age structure, in skilled manual occupations and in administrative & clerical occupations.
- Around 9 % of workers in the South East were born outside the UK.

East of England:

- Ethnic minorities accounted for 4.4 % of employment in the East of England in 2004, up from 2.7 % in 1994. The largest single ethnic minority group is people of Asian and Asian British (mainly Indian) origin, accounting for 0.9 % of total employment in 2004.
- All ethnic groups account for a smaller share of employment in the East of England than nationally.
- In the East of England ethnic minorities are markedly over-represented in professional and associate professional & technical occupations, and to a less marked degree in personal service and sales & customer service occupations.
- By contrast, they are particularly under-represented in skilled manual occupations, and in administrative & clerical and operative occupations.
- Around 7 % of workers in the East of England were born outside the UK.

South West:

- Ethnic minorities accounted for 2.5 % of employment in the South West in 2004, up from 1.2 % in 1994. The largest single ethnic minority group is people of Asian and Asian British (mainly Indian) origin, accounting for 0.6 % of total employment in 2004.
- All ethnic minority groups account for a smaller share of employment in the South West than nationally.
- In the South West ethnic minorities are over-represented in professional and associate professional & technical occupations (i.e. occupations with relatively high skills requirements).
- By contrast, they are especially under-represented in skilled manual occupations and in administrative & clerical occupations.
- Around 5 % of workers in the South West were born outside the UK.

West Midlands:

- Ethnic minorities accounted for 8.3 % of employment in the West Midlands in 2004, up from 6.0 % in 1994. The largest single ethnic minority group is people of Asian and Asian British (mainly Indian) origin, accounting for 3.1 % of total employment in 2004.

- Ethnic groups accounting for a greater share of employment in the West Midlands than nationally are Indian, Pakistani and Black-Caribbean. (Note the national picture is dominated by the far greater concentration of ethnic minority groups in London than in any other region.)
- In the West Midlands ethnic minorities are over-represented in several occupations with relatively low skills requirements, including elementary occupations, machine & transport operatives and sales & customer service occupations.
- By contrast, they are under-represented in managerial occupations, which in any case has an older than average age structure, in skilled manual occupations and in administrative & clerical occupations.
- Around 6 % of workers in the West Midlands were born outside the UK.

East Midlands:

- Ethnic minorities accounted for 5.6 % of employment in the East Midlands in 2004, up from 3.4 % in 1994. Easily the largest single ethnic minority group is people of Asian and Asian British (mainly Indian) origin, accounting for 2.6 % of total employment in 2004.
- The only ethnic minority group accounting for a greater share of employment in the East Midlands than nationally is the Asian and Asian British (mainly Indian) group.
- In the East Midlands ethnic minorities are over-represented in several occupations with relatively low skills requirements, including sales & customer service occupations, operatives and elementary occupations, but they are also over-represented in professional occupations.
- By contrast, they are under-represented in skilled manual occupations and in associate professional & technical occupations.
- Nearly 6 % of workers in the East Midlands were born outside the UK.

Yorkshire & the Humber:

- Ethnic minorities accounted for 5.5 % of employment in Yorkshire & the Humber in 2004, up from 2.5 % in 1994. The largest single ethnic minority group is people of Pakistani origin, accounting for 1.8 % of total employment in 2004.
- The Pakistani group is the only ethnic minority group accounting for a greater share of employment in Yorkshire & the Humber than nationally.
- In Yorkshire & the Humber ethnic minorities are over-represented at both ends of the skills continuum: in professional and associate professional & technical occupations at one end, and in elementary occupations and sales & customer service occupations at the other end.
- By contrast, they are under-represented in managerial occupations, which in any case has an older than average age structure, in skilled manual occupations and in administrative & clerical occupations.
- Around 5 % of workers in Yorkshire & the Humber were born outside the UK.

North West:

- Ethnic minorities accounted for 4.6 % of employment in the North West in 2004, up from 2.6 % in 1994. The largest single ethnic minority group is people of Pakistani origin, accounting for 1.2 % of total employment in 2004.
- The only ethnic minority group accounting for a greater share of employment in the North West than nationally is the Pakistani group.
- In the North West ethnic minorities are over-represented in both professional occupations (with high skill requirements) and in sales & customer service occupations and elementary occupations (with low skill requirements).
- By contrast, they are under-represented in associate professional & technical and personal service occupations (which are among the occupations projected to see fastest employment growth over the medium term) and in skilled manual occupations.
- Around 4 % of workers in the North West were born outside the UK.

North East:

- Ethnic minorities accounted for 2.3 % of employment in the North East in 2004, up from 1.2 % in 1994. The largest single ethnic minority group is people of Pakistani origin, accounting for 0.6 % of total employment in 2004.
- All ethnic minority groups account for a smaller share of employment in the North East than nationally.
- In the North East ethnic minorities are over-represented in higher level non-manual occupations and as operatives.
- By contrast, they are under-represented in administrative & clerical occupations, skilled manual occupations, personal service occupations and elementary occupations.
- Just over 3 % of workers in the North East were born outside the UK.

*Migration review*

- The UK government embraces the principle of ‘managed migration’ – making explicit recognition of the potential role for migration to address labour market deficiencies.
- The overall picture of migration in the UK in recent years is one of overall net gains, although there has been a marked reduction in asylum applicants since 2002.
- Migrants have always been more concentrated in London than in other regions.
- Migrants are very heterogeneous. They experience mixed success in the labour market and are found at both ends of the skills continuum.

*Migrant case studies*

- Two small-scale case studies, involving literature review and discussion with local contacts, were undertaken to provide an insight into some of the key issues pertaining to migrants/migration in specific sub-regions and local areas. The case study areas were:

  - *Norfolk* – a predominantly rural area in the East of England, selected to concentrate on the impact on the local LSC, its providers and the economy of an influx of migrant workers from outside the UK; and
  - *The Thames Gateway* – selected to provide insights into what needs to be considered when planning for a large-scale development, bearing in mind demographics, employment patterns, and current skills and training levels of local residents.
- The local economies of Norfolk and the Thames Gateway are different, yet both have proved attractive to migrants:
  - in *Norfolk* migrants are concentrated in “3-D” (dirty, dangerous and demanding) jobs shunned by many local residents;
  - in the *Thames Gateway* migrants are present at both ends of the skills continuum and a key issue for policy is getting some local residents into jobs that are geographically within reach.
- The volatility of migrant flows and the transience of some migrants poses problems for planning, as does the lack of information on migrant needs and requirements.
- There is a tension between responding flexibly to migrant and employer needs on the one hand, and of funding constraints and the emphasis on certified training on the other.

## Conclusions and policy implications

- Due to changes in the volume and volatility of migration, it is difficult to achieve a timely picture of the number of migrants at local level, their profile and their characteristics. This poses challenges for planning.
- The review of migration and the migrant case studies highlight that:
  - migrants are diverse and have some have wide-ranging needs;
  - an emphasis on work-related English is crucial, but some migrants also have basic skills needs;
  - the ‘ideal’ is one of tailored provision to meet individual requirements; but
  - greater flexibility, individualisation and specialisation have cost and resource implications.
- The analysis across the various English region confirms that there is considerable diversity. Some regions, especially London, have very high proportions of migrant workers and ethnic minorities in employment. In other regions, such as the South West, overall proportions in these categories remain small. However, even in such areas there can be local pockets where such cases are much more significant as the case study in Norfolk illustrates.
- Given the high political profile that issues such as migration and ethnicity can attain, there is a strong case for continued monitoring and analysis of key trends.

# 1. NATIONAL & REGIONAL STATISTICAL OVERVIEW

## *1.1 Introduction, Background, Aims and Objectives*

The aim of this project is to provide a succinct analysis of changing patterns of employment by ethnic groups and for migrant workers. A key objective is to provide a set of national and regional profiles of employment patterns, focusing upon gender, age and ethnic group, including variations across occupation and sector dimensions (as far as the data will allow).

The prime audience is high level policy makers and administrators within the LSC although the intention is to provide reports which will be of interest and value to a broader audience, including the Sector Skills development Agency (SSDA), Sector Skills Councils (SSCs) and other employer bodies, Regional Development Agencies (RDAs), the Department for Education and Skills (DfES), etc.

The present work builds upon *Working Futures 2004-2014. Working Futures* presents the most detailed and comprehensive set of employment and labour market projections ever produced for the UK.[1,2] *Working Futures* already provides a comprehensive analysis of changing patterns of employment by gender, status, sector and occupation for all the countries of the UK and the English regions. The present report adds value to this by extending the analysis in a number of important respects.

The results of the research are presented in a series of documents. The *National Report* (this document) provides and overview and summary. This is complemented by a series of *Regional Profiles*, covering each of the English Regions.

The present document is divided into 3 main sections. Section 1 contains:

- 1.1 This brief general introduction;
- 1.2 An overview of migration and setting out
  - what migration is and why it is important;
  - key messages for the LSC emerging from the review of migration and previous research; and
  - some important issues to consider for planning.
- 1.3 A review of recent research evidence on migration issues and related government policy, focussing upon:
  1. *UK Government policy of relevance to migration* – encompassing:
     - managed migration policy;
     - refugees and asylum seekers;
     - policy development.
  2. *Facts and figures on migrants in the labour market* – covering:
     - migration trends;
     - impacts of migration;
     - location of migrants;
     - labour market performance and integration of migrants.

[1] The results of *Working Futures* are available in 5 separate volumes.

[2] *Working Futures* was commissioned by the SSDA and funded by the SSDA and its partners (including the LSC).

*1.4* An assessment of some of the key issues relating to learning, training and skills – encompassing English language provision, (unfulfilled) demands for education and training, recognition of qualifications and 'signposting' around the system.

Section 1.5 provides a more extensive *Statistical Overview*, including some detailed cross-regional comparisons. A detailed analysis of historical patterns of employment, distinguishing ethnic groups and migrant workers is conducted across the 9 regions of England and at national (England, and in some cases at a GB) level. This is based on an interrogation of data from the Labour Force Survey (LFS) and the Census of Population (CoP), focussing upon industry and occupation of employment.

Where possible (given data limitations) an analysis of patterns by age and ethnicity or migrant groups is also undertaken. These enable some implications for replacement demands to be explored. However, the data available are very limited and this is not comprehensive.

Section 2 provides a standard *Regional Profile* for the whole of England. This adopts the same structure as in the individual *Regional Profiles*, for easy comparison. The common structure adopted for all the *Regional Profiles*, including the one presented here for England, is as follows:

1. *Structure of Employment by Ethnic Group:*
   A brief overview of ethnic employment patterns by industry and occupation.
2. *Shift-share analysis of employment change by Ethnic Group:*
   This covers the historical period 1994-2004. It is based on LFS data but scaled so as to be consistent with information from *Working Futures 2004-2014*.[3]
3. *Migrants:*
   Here, migrants are defined as workers born outside the UK. The tables on migrant workers are based on Labour Force Survey data for 1994 and 2004.
4. *Key Structural Features of the Labour Market:*
   Brief summary of the key features of general employment patterns in the geographical area concerned, focussing upon historical patterns and projected future changes by:
   - gender & status;
   - sector; and
   - occupation.
5. *Demographic structure*
   Profiles of population and the workforce by age and gender, in the form of tables and charts presenting a detailed analysis of current and projected future patterns by age and gender.

The material under heading 4 is based on *Working Futures,* repackaged in a novel fashion to focus attention on the different patterns of employment, both historical and projected, in the 9 regions of England. This analysis focuses upon gender, status, sector and occupation.

[3] *Working Futures 2004-2014* comprises the most detailed and comprehensive analysis of historical and projected future trends in employment structure ever published in the UK. Details can be found in Wilson *et al.,* (2005).

Under heading 5, the *Working Futures* analysis of labour supply has also been extended to cover age as well as gender. Again this covers both historical patterns and expected future trends for each of the English regions. It is important to note that at present no projections of labour supply by ethnic group have been produced as part of this project. At present ONS do not produce projections of population by ethnic group although such analysis is planned. Once available this will enable projections of labour supply by ethnic group to be produced. This will also facilitate projections of **employment** by combining the labour force projections with the shift share analysis presented in Section 2.

A standard set of “profiles” is therefore developed for each region and the whole of England. These present information in a consistent and comparable format, enabling direct comparisons to be made. These profiles are primarily in the form of a standard set of tables and charts, with only limited text. The latter is confined to a few bullet points highlighting key features.

The main period for analysis is 1994-2004 reflecting the period covered by the data from *Working Futures*. Historical data are also exploited from a variety of other sources in addition to the LFS and the CoP in order to add insights into changing patterns by ethnicity, age and migrant workers which are not covered in the main *Working Futures* database. It should be recognised that data limitations preclude producing comprehensive analyses of ethnicity and age across all the other dimensions currently covered in *Working Futures*. Rather, the aim is to provide a summary of national and regional ethnic profiles, exploiting the data as far as possible to provide detail across all the other dimensions.

Finally in Section 3 the quantitative analysis is complemented by 2 brief case studies which are intended to illustrate some of the key issues facing local LSCs (and others) in dealing with issues relating to ethnicity and migration. These case studies examine, briefly, the potential impact of a large scale development (the Thames Gateway) and explore, briefly, the position of an exemplar rural area reliant on migrant workers in some sectors/occupations (Norfolk). The selection of the case studies was made by the researchers, in conjunction with the project Steering Group.

The *National Report* and *Regional Profiles* are complemented by a *Technical Report*. This explains the data sources used, outlines definitional issues and problems and describes the general methodological approach employed.

In combination, this set of reports provides new information on a consistent and comparable basis across regions which highlight some of the key features of the industrial, occupational and geographical profiles by ethnic group and migrant workers.

### *1.2 What is Migration and Why is it Important?*

'Migration' and 'migrant' are terms that are used loosely, so that meanings are not clear. Hence, it is appropriate to define the way that they are used in this section at the outset. 'Migration' is a *sub-category* of a more general concept of '*movement'*, which embraces a wide variety of forms and types of *geographical mobility*[4] (Green and Canny, 2003; Salt and Clarke, 2005). Various typologies of migration have been produced – based on duration, distance moved or motivation for moving (Dobson *et al*., 2001). Both short-term and longer-term (usually defined as 12 months or more) moves are of interest from a labour market and skills perspective in terms of meeting labour demand, but from an LSC perspective of training and labour market integration longer-term moves are of particular importance. Likewise, from a labour market and skills perspective long-distance (as opposed to short-distance) moves involving a change of employment are of primary interest. It should be noted that the term 'migrant' is used in different ways in the academic and policy literature, but *for current purposes, in the migrant case studies, the term '<u>migrant'</u> is used to refer to people from outside the UK who have moved to the UK primarily for employment purposes*.[5]

The discourse and public debate on migration in the UK fuses and confuses:

a) the black and minority ethnic (BME) population - some of whom were born in the UK and some who were born outside the UK;
b) the role of migrants in the labour market;
c) refugees; and
d) asylum seekers.

Box 1.1 provides detailed definitions.

The LSC has an interest in the BME population, migrants and refugees as sources of current labour supply. It should be noted that migrants may be from white as well as from non-white ethnic groups.

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4 In terms of geographical mobility, a distinction may be made between *migration* (involving a permanent relocation of residence) and *circulation* (involving no permanent change of residence – e.g. daily commuting, short-term business assignments, etc).

5 In the broadest definition, the term 'migrant' is used to describe someone who has changed their place of residence within a pre-defined period (e.g. 1 year in the case of the Census of Population). Note that this broad definition encompasses inter-regional and intra-regional migrants within the UK.) Such inter- and intra-regional migration within the UK is also of central concern to the LSC, although it is not the main focus in this report.

### *Box 1.1: Key definitions used in this report*

| *Term* | *Definition used in this report* | *Comments* |
|---|---|---|
| Migrant | A person from outside the UK who has moved to the UK primarily for employment purposes. | In the literature on migration references are made to:<br>[i] those born outside the UK<br>[ii] foreign nationals within the resident population.<br>(There is an overlap between [i] and [ii]: based on analysis of the 2001 Labour Force Survey, it is estimated that about half of those born outside the UK have UK nationality (see Haque [2002]).[6] |
| Refugee | Someone who receives a positive decision on their asylum claim and is granted leave to stay in the UK. | Refugees have full employment rights and may claim benefits |
| Asylum seeker | Someone who has fled their country of origin due to a well founded fear of persecution and who seeks safety in another country. They have applied for recognition of refugee status and are either awaiting an initial decision or appealing against a rejection of their claim. | Asylum seekers do not have a right to work in the UK. |
| Ethnic minority/ BME | Non-white ethnic groups | People from Mixed, Asian / Asian British, Black / Black British, and Chinese and other ethnic groups |

6 It is important to note that definitions of ‘migrants’ vary between data sources. Hence, the various definitions of migrants mean that data sources may have different numbers of migrants for the same time period.

*Key messages for the LSC from the Migrant Case Studies*

Many migrants and refugees have valuable skills and experience. Yet migrants and refugees are very *diverse* and there are marked differences in the level of language skills, qualifications and experiences of employment. Hence they have a *wide range of needs*.

In summary, *key themes* from previous national and local studies[7] are:

- the need for *greater* flexibility – in terms of *delivery in a wide range of settings* and at *different times* (i.e. greater use of outreach provision) – in order to facilitate access for the most disadvantaged;
- the need for *enhanced packages of support* to cover costs of travel and materials, provision of childcare, etc;
- *tailored provision* to meet *individual requirements*;
- the need for an *emphasis on work-related English*;
- a demand for improved *guidance* on *vocational training* with *clear career outcomes*; and
- the demand for training to enhance *acculturation to UK society* and *understanding and knowledge of how the UK labour market operates* and *the role of different service providers*.

The themes of greater *flexibility*, *individualisation* and *specialisation* all have cost and resource implications.

At local level *learning providers* point to *financial restraints*, the *diversity* of migrants' and language *needs* encountered, staffing shortages *and lack of co-ordination* amongst agencies working with refugees and asylum seekers as barriers to realising plans for developing their provision (Phillimore *et al*., 2003).

*Improved co-ordination* between non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and refugee and community organisations (RCOs) is a key issue if a limited amount of resources are to be used more efficiently and effectively. In some local areas, given the history and quantity of migration, there will be greater experience and greater diversity of provision for migrants than in other local areas. However, many of the issues faced by the LSC and other providers are generic, and so apply across local areas.

*Employers* require information on the permission to work documentation and legal situation surrounding employment of migrants and refugees. In the face of changes in the legal framework, this becomes a more prominent issue. Lack of familiarity and comparability of qualifications and work experience also remains a barrier to hiring. While issues surrounding employment of refugees, in particular, remains an emotive issue with a negative media image, some employers may be unwilling to come

[7] It is salient to note that local studies drawn on here – for Learning and Skills Councils in Tyne & Wear (Bow Community Projects, 2003), Coventry and Warwickshire (Phillimore *et al.*, 2003) and North London (Africa Educational Trust, 2002) – were undertaken at a time of historically high levels of asylum seekers into the UK, and when migrant and refugee profiles (especially in the two former areas) were dominated by NASS dispersal policies. It should be noted that since that time the number of asylum applicants to the UK has diminished (as outlined in Section 3.3).

forward as role models to publicise the business (and other) benefits from such employment.

*Issues to consider for planning*

A review of the migration literature and findings from the migrant case studies undertaken for this project highlight the difficulty in keeping up to date with the number of migrants at local level, their profile and their characteristics. It is clear that in some local areas numbers of migrants are rapidly changing – some migrants intend to stay for a relatively short period only, whereas others intend to stay permanently. Moreover, not only is the number of migrants subject to change, but so is the profile of migrants – in terms of country of origin, learning/training needs and socio-economic position. Sharing of information between agencies can help in helping to keep abreast of migration dynamics and associated learning/training needs.

Not only is it difficult to establish the number of migrants in an area ‘currently’, but it is also difficult to project levels of migration into the future. Trends in migration are influenced by:

- the tightness of local, regional and national labour markets in the UK;
- economic conditions in the UK vis-à-vis migrants’ origin countries and alternative destination countries; and
- migration policy.

Labour market policy also has a role in influencing the number of migrants who are working.

A lack of information on numbers of migrants and volatility in the size and nature of flows poses problems for planning. Ideally, for planning purposes, it would be desirable to know (in advance):

- the number of migrants with learning/skills needs in the local area;
- their English language competence;
- basic skills needs;
- cultural background (this may have implications for class profiles);
- sectors/occupations in which they are / will be working (in order to tailor training to vocational needs); and
- employer requirements.

An increased emphasis on certification means that the logistics of testing have to be taken into account when planning. It is easier to deal with a stable migrant population than a more volatile one. In areas with smaller numbers of migrants and more volatile migrant flows it is likely to be especially difficult to plan ahead. In areas with a greater volume of migrants there may (at least in theory) be greater scope for teaching vocational skills alongside English language skills, but in such areas it is likely that migrants will have more diverse needs.

In all areas, funding, accommodation and staffing constraints mean that providers do not necessarily have the capacity or capability to respond as flexibly as they might desire to employer and learner requirements. However, there are examples of customised training to meet specific occupational and sectoral needs.

### *1.3 Review of Research on Migration and Related UK Government Policy*

Managed migration

The UK government embraces the principle of *managed migration*, coupled with *measures to tackle abuse of the asylum system and illegal immigration*. This policy makes explicit recognition of the potential role for migration to address labour market deficiencies, especially in key professions and some unskilled jobs. Migration from outside the UK is also increasingly being viewed as a solution for replacing workers who are retiring and are not being replaced at the younger end of the workforce due to falling birth rates (Stanfield *et al*., 2004).

There is also recent evidence that the majority of employers will not recruit from the core jobless and often look to migrants from outside the UK, with consequent implications for the ability to meet targets relating to reducing joblessness amongst 'hard-to-help' groups and raising skills levels and promoting workforce development amongst those with poor skills. A survey published by the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) in August 2005 reported that more than six out of ten employers deliberately exclude people from 'core jobless' groups (including those with criminal records, a history of alcohol and drug dependence or long-term sickness, and homelessness) when recruiting, preferring to recruit older people, lone parents or migrants. A survey of 1,300 employers in May 2005 showed that 27% of employers intended to recruit from abroad, with the dominant reasons cited being a shortage of recruits with the desired experience (59%) or the desired skills (56%). Around a fifth of employers reported a greater level of commitment and willingness to work than UK-based job seekers. Employers recruiting from outside the UK were looking to fill vacancies at all levels of the skills spectrum: 48% of employers surveyed reported that they were recruiting professional vacancies, 8% were seeking to fill vacancies in skilled trades occupations, 19% were looking to fill manual vacancies and 5% were recruiting to unskilled vacancies.

Citizens of the EU do not need permission to work in the UK, and there are similar arrangements with other countries within the European Economic Area (EEA). Foreign nationals from these countries are not always counted as labour migrants, but they make up a significant proportion of all migrant workers in the UK (ippr, 2004). Currently, there are *several managed migration routes* of special relevance from a labour market perspective for those from outside the EEA.[8] These include:

- Work Permits: *a permit for a person a do a specific job at a specific location*. Work permits are designed to strike the right balance between recruiting or transferring people from abroad and safeguarding the interests of the resident workforce (McLaughlan and Salt, 2002). The work permit system is employer driven, in that they can only be applied for and obtained by employers on behalf of the foreign worker they wish to employ. With some exceptions,[9] the employer must show that the vacancy was advertised widely and there were no suitable resident workers to fill the vacancy.

[8] For details of the various schemes see http://www.workingintheUK.gov.uk.
[9] Some shortage occupations, intra-company transfers, board level posts and inward investment.

- At the lower end of the labour market there are a number of *Special Worker Schemes* focusing on *specific sectors* – including *Sector Based Scheme* (covering hospitality and food processing) and the *Seasonal Agricultural Workers Scheme (SAWS)* - mainly focusing on younger workers. The latter scheme forms an important underpinning for some local economies in rural areas.
- *Highly Skilled Migrant Programme*: *designed to facilitate entry of the highly qualified into the UK to meet labour market needs* – especially in finance, business management, ICT and medical occupations. The Programme started in 2002 and the individual concerned does not require a job or work permit before entry. (Along with Australia and Canada, the UK has moved far and fast in terms of the range of schemes and initiatives designed to attract highly qualified workers in a global market.)

Other people enter the UK as *students*, as *working holidaymakers* or through *family formation and reunion*.

In May 2004 the UK put in place transitional measures to regulate access to labour market by nationals of eight EU accession countries – the 'Accession 8' (or '*A8*') – via the *Worker Registration Scheme* and to restrict access to benefits. About 176,000 A8 migrants entered the UK in the first eleven months after accession (a number far above the 5,000-13,000 estimated by the Home Office), although a large number of these are thought to be existing migrants already working in the country illegally. Over the period between 1 May 2004 and 30 June 2005 there were 232,000 applications to the Worker Registration Scheme, of whom it is estimated that up to 30% may have been in the UK before May 2004. The vast majority of registered workers are young and single: 82% were aged 18-34 years and 95% of registered workers have no dependants living with them. There has been a disproportionate flow of migrants into the agricultural sector (especially in the East if England, although many of these are temporary workers), with other concentrations in administration, business and management, hospitality and catering (especially in London), agriculture, health and construction.[10] Migrant wages are low, with around four-fifths earning between £4.40 and £6.00 an hour. Information is provided on the geographical distribution of registered workers by 'region'.[11] The main geographical concentrations are in London and the South East (see below for more details on the location of migrants), although there is evidence that more are moving to areas less traditionally associated with migrant workers (for further details see Portes and French, 2005; Home Office, Department of Work and Pensions, HM Revenue and Customs and the Office of the Deputy Prime Minister, 2005).[12]

The LSC has commissioned the LSDA to conduct a research project to collect and map relevant information about learning and skills planning and provision for migrants from EU accession states (A8 workers), in particular to identify ways that the learning and skills sector is linking learning to employment needs for this group.

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[10] Statistics are disaggregated by sector and occupation, but the disaggregations are not the same as used in the *Regional Profiles*. A breakdown of 'region' by sector and of nationality by sector is also provided in the statistics.

[11] 'Regions' identified are London, Anglia, Central, Midlands, South East, South West, North West and North East (within England).

[12] Statistics are updated on a quarterly basis.

*Refugees and asylum seekers*

In relation to the development of the *asylum system*, the UK was one of the original signatories to the 1951 Geneva Convention relating to the Status of Refugees. Under the UK asylum system, if an individual is found to have a well founded fear of persecution under the Convention, (s)he will be granted *refugee* status. If (s)he does not fall within a Convention ground, consideration is given to whether (s)he should be granted temporary leave to remain in the UK for 3 years on human rights grounds. While asylum claims are being processed, claimants are allowed to claim support from the *National Asylum Support Services (NASS)*, who provide services such as accommodation and financial support. There has been forced dispersal of asylum seekers receiving accommodation support under the Immigration and Asylum Act 1999. The stated aim was to relieve pressure on Councils in key areas such as London and Dover. Originally, NASS planned to allocate dispersal accommodation according to applicants' cultural and social needs in 'cluster areas' in large cities where there was an existing multi-ethnic population and a supporting infrastructure of voluntary and community groups, but in practice allocations have been driven primarily by housing availability. The majority of asylum seekers remain concentrated in London.

From the 1990s there was a marked growth in the number of asylum claims, and in the numbers of asylum seekers not found to have genuine protection needs. The Government responded by taking a number of legislative and other measures to deter unfounded asylum applications. From a labour market perspective, a crucial reform was the *withdrawal of the employment concession* - whereby asylum seekers who had not had an initial decision on their claim within 6 months had a right to work - in July 2002. This was done because it was considered that access to the labour market was acting as a pull factor encouraging economic migrants to claim asylum in the UK. Refugees have full rights to work in the UK.

*Policy development*

The *shape and direction of UK migration and asylum policy is set to change further* in the short-term (and also probably in the medium-term). In February 2005 the Government announced a 5-Year Strategy on asylum and immigration: *'Controlling our borders: making migration work for Britain'* (Home Office, 2005a). The Strategy endorsed the Government's managed migration policy. Key measures in the strategy relating to migration and the labour market include:

- a transparent points system for those entering the UK to work or study – comprising four tiers:
    - tier 1 – the highly skilled (can enter the UK with no job offer);
    - tier 2 – those with qualifications above NVQ level 2;
    - tier 3 – low skilled migration (to be phased out);
    - tier 4 – specialist categories (including footballers and journalists).

  It is intended that points system associated with these tiers will be adjusted in response to changes in the labour market by an independent skills advisory body;

- financial bonds for specific categories where there has been evidence of abuse, to guarantee that migrants return home;
- only skilled workers are to be allowed to settle long-term in the UK and there will be tests on English language (oral and written) and knowledge of the UK for everyone who wants to stay permanently;
- fixed penalty fines for employers for each illegal worker they employ.

March 2005 saw the publication *Working to Rebuild Lives: Refugee Employment Strategy* and *Integration Matters: National Strategy for Refugee Integration* as part of a cross-government strategy, requiring co-ordination across government and a wide range of support agencies, designed to ensure that refugees are able to make ‘a full and positive contribution to society’ (Home Office, 2005b). The strategic policy framework focuses on *integration through employment*.

*Key facts and figures on migrants in the labour market: Migration trends*
The overall picture of migration in the UK in recent years is one of *rising overall net gains*. These net gains are a result of *larger gross flows out of and into the UK*. From 1971 to 1982 out flows from the UK exceeded in flows to the UK, but since 1983 there has been a net in flow to the UK (except in 1988, 1992 and 1993). From 1995 the net gains have increased, peaking at a maximum of nearly 172 thousand in 2001 and falling to just over 150 thousand in 2003 (the latest year for which data are available) (Centre for Research and Analysis of Migration, 2005; Salt and Clarke, 2005). The net gain is a result of net losses of British nationals[13] and net gains of foreign nationals, with underlying fluctuations in the nationality composition of the flows. In 2004 (prior to EU enlargement), there were nearly 2.86 million foreign nationals living in the UK, making up 4.9% of the UK population. Europe was the largest source of foreign nationals (43% of the total), followed by Asia (25%) and Africa (17%). Dobson *et al.* (2001) estimate that between 1981 and 1999 there was a net addition to the UK population of 1.2 million through international migration.

Factors associated with increases in migration to the UK from the 1990s include the current strength of the UK labour markets, economic globalisation, increasing economic migration and labour migration within the EU and increased political instability around the world. This suggests that migration may be on a *secular upward trend* (Glover *et al*., 2001).

There has been an upward trend in the number of Work Permit holders entering the UK since the mid 1990s, from an annual inflow of around 40 thousand in 1995 to over 80 thousand annually since 2001 (see Figure 1.1).[14] Between 2003 and 2004 annual increase was confined to work permit holders coming for less than 12 months,

[13] Outflows from the UK to other countries tend to have fluctuated less than inflows, and in debates on migration have tended to become ‘invisible’. However, they are of relevance from a skills perspective.

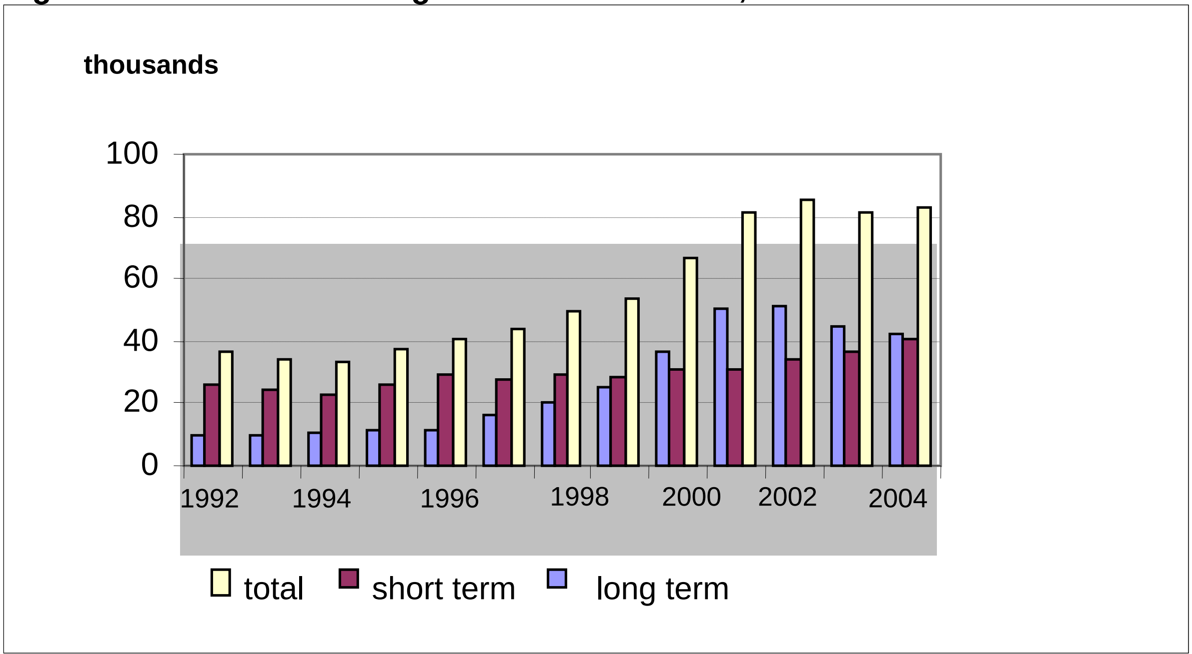
[14] Work Permits are not part of National Statistics. Information on Work Permits by region may be sought from Work Permits (UK) by request under the Freedom of Information Act. Analyses of Work Permit data relating to 2002 showed that the top three industries for which work permits were issued were health and medical services, computer services and administration, business and managerial services (Clarke and Salt, 2003).

with the most marked increase in admissions being from the Indian sub-continent (Dudley *et al*., 2005).

Likewise, from the mid 1990s there was an increase in inflows of seasonal workers (under the SAWS). Inflows rose from 4-5 thousand per year in 1993-1996, to 9-10 thousand per year from 1997 to 2000, over 15 thousand in 2001 and over 23 thousand in 2003. Quotas for the SAWS were cut from 2004/2005 following the accession of 10 further states to the EU; (many workers under these schemes came from countries that joined the EU in May 2004).

Inflows of asylum seekers rose markedly in the late 1990s, peaking in the early years of the 21st century. Since this time the UK Government has introduced a number of measures to deter unfounded asylum claims and has taken steps to streamline the system of asylum applications. Since 2002 there has been a marked reduction in asylum seekers entering the UK (see Figure 1.2). This reflects a reduction in asylum seekers globally, but the recent proportionate fall in numbers of asylum seekers in the UK are amongst the largest of major European countries (Heath and Jeffries, 2005). From a labour market perspective it should be noted that not all asylum applications are successful.[15]

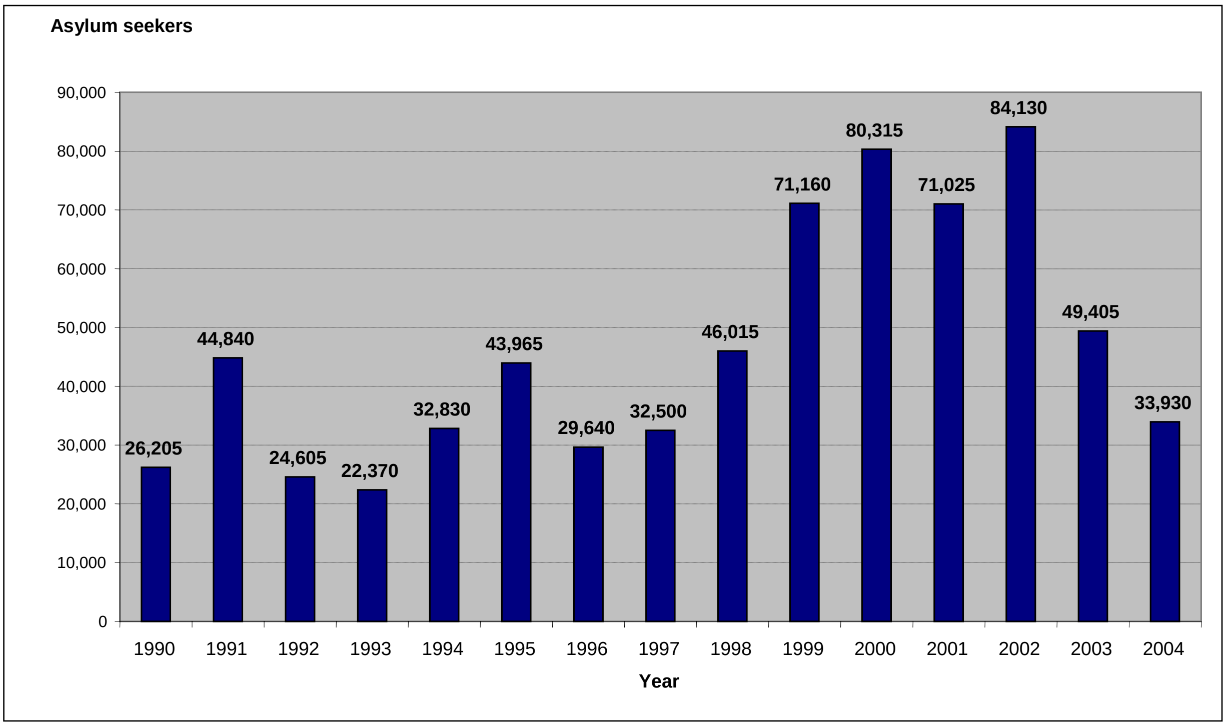
**Figure 1.1: Inflows of Foreign Workers to the UK, 1992-2004**




*Source*: Based on grants of Work Permits (excluding dependants).
Notes: Long-term is 12 months or more; short-term is less than 12 months. Data exclude EU nationals up to 1993, and EEA nationals since 1994. Figures include extensions and changes of employment.

15 The proportion that are successful has varied over time. Recently, considerable emphasis has been placed on speeding up the asylum decision-making process. In 2003-04 nearly 35 thousand people were estimated to have been unsuccessful in their asylum application (National Audit Office, 2005).

**Figure 1.2: Applications for Asylum in the UK (excluding dependants), 1990-2004**




*Source*: Home Office data.

Some people enter the UK illegally. In June 2005 the Home Office published a central estimate for the illegal population of the UK of 430 thousand (within a range from 310 thousand to 570 thousand) (Woodbridge, 2005). It is not known how many of the illegally population work illegally, nor how many of migrants entering the UK legally engage in illegal work. Figures on migrant numbers from the A8 have been called into question by the failure of many to register as required, although an early official assessment points to a reduction in illegal working amongst A8 nationals (Portes and French, 2005). Moreover, many migrants entitled to work freely in the UK switch in and out of (il)legality, as do employers.

An insight into numbers of migrant workers in the UK is available from statistics on National Insurance Number (NINo) allocations to overseas nationals entering the UK (ONS and DWP, 2005). The NINo registration date is sometimes thought of as a proxy for when migrants become active in the labour market. Easily the largest proportion of such migrants is in London, which accounts for around 40% of the total (see Table 4.1). In 2004/05 the total number of NINo registrations to overseas nationals was 440 thousand.[16]

**Table 1.1: Overseas Nationals Entering the UK and Allocated a NINo, by Year of Registration and Region of Residence (percentages)**

*Percentages*

| | 2002/03 | 2003/04 | 2004/05 |
|---|---|---|---|
| **All** | **100%** | **100%** | **100%** |
| North East | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| North West | 6 | 6 | 7 |
| Yorkshire and the Humber | 5 | 5 | 5 |
| East Midlands | 4 | 4 | 5 |
| West Midlands | 7 | 6 | 6 |
| East of England | 8 | 7 | 8 |
| London | 43 | 42 | 39 |
| South East | 11 | 12 | 12 |
| South West | 4 | 4 | 5 |
| Wales | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| Scotland | 4 | 4 | 5 |
| Northern Ireland | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Unknown | 4 | 4 | 2 |

Source: 100% extract from National Insurance Recording System at 25th June 2005. Figures are rounded to the nearest hundred and may not sum due to rounding.

*Impacts of migration*

There is *little evidence* that British workers are *harmed by migration*. Rather there is considerable support for the view that migrants create businesses and jobs and fill labour market gaps, improving productivity and reducing inflationary pressures (Glover *et al*., 2001). If there is an impact of immigration on unemployment then it is statistically poorly determined and probably small in size. The perception that immigrants take jobs away from the existing population does not find confirmation in

[16] Annual statistics on NINo allocations to overseas (non-UK) nationals entering the UK are available via the DWP website.

economic analyses, although in some local areas (especially in areas where immigrants are highly concentrated, such as London) it is acknowledged that it is likely that immigration has had economic effects on the resident population (Dustmann *et al.*, 2003).

In *fiscal terms*, in 1999/2000 it was estimated that migrants in the UK contributed £31.2 billion in taxes and consumed £28.8 billion in benefits and state services (Gott and Johnston, 2002). Recent estimates suggest that total revenue from immigrants grew in real terms from £33.8 billion in 1999-00 to £41.2 billion in 2003-04 (this 22% increase compares to a 6% increase for the UK-born) (Sriskandarajah *et al*., 2005). Immigrants made up 8.7% of the population but accounted for 10.2% of all income tax collected in 2003-04; (in part this reflects the younger age profile of the immigrant population). Immigrants earn about 15% more in average weekly income than UK-born. This reflects the fact that not only are many migrants in high-skilled, highly paid jobs but that even those in low skill, low wage jobs, work long hours and pay not insignificant amounts of tax. Each immigrant generated £7,203 in government revenue on average in 2003-04, compared to £6,861 per non-immigrant. Similarly each immigrant accounted for £7,277 of government expenditure on average, compared to £7,753 per non-immigrant.

*Location of migrants*

Where migrants settle is likely to be a complex decision. However, migrants have always been *concentrated in London*. A recent study by Kyambi (2005) estimated that 42% of immigrants[17] are based in London, and that London took over half of the increase in immigrants between 1991 and 2001. This reflects the size and openness of the London labour market, its role as a global city (making it attractive to highly skilled workers and high level corporate transferees) and its role as an international transport hub. Inner London has over five times more foreigners than it would have were they evenly distributed across the UK. In 2005 Over 2 million Londoners (around 30% of the total population) were born outside the UK. Of these 7% were born in Ireland, 12% in other EU15 countries, 6% in other EU25 countries, 6% elsewhere in Europe, 12% in the Americas and Caribbean, 26% in Africa, 17% in the Indian sub-continent, 11% in the remainder of Asia and 3% in Australasia and elsewhere. London's migrants are more likely to be from developing countries and more likely to be from BME groups than those living outside London. They are also more likely to be recent arrivals or foreign nationals than migrants living in the rest of the UK.

Outside London, migrants are concentrated in areas of housing availability/low housing costs and where there are others from their home country. Often these are areas of relative deprivation. Migrants tend to be *concentrated in cities*. However, concerns about immigration are often highest in rural and other areas with relatively small migrant populations.

More details at regional and local level about numbers and profile of people in Britain born abroad may be found at www.bbc.co.uk/bornabroad.

[17] Defined by Kyambi (2005) as people born outside the British Isles (i.e. people born the in the Republic of Ireland are not defined as immigrants).

*Labour market performance and integration of migrants*

*Migrants are very heterogeneous* – differing as much from each other as from the general population (Kirk, 2004). Currently, *migrants experience mixed success in the labour market*, and are found disproportionately at *both ends of the skills continuum*: i.e. in professional occupations and in unskilled occupations. They are more likely to have degrees than the UK-born, and are also more likely to have no qualifications. A large number of migrants also have unnamed (or unrecognised) qualifications.

Where migrants find themselves on the skills continuum is correlated with a number of factors, including:

- *method of entry* to the UK – with those entering by legal means tending to experience greatest success in the labour market;
- *level of education* – with those who have highest levels of education, and qualifications that are recognised as transferable to the UK, tending to enjoy greatest success in labour market terms;
- *English language fluency* – a crucial determinant of labour market success: language proficiency is likely to reduce the gap between the UK-born and migrants considerably;
- *years since in-migration* – generally labour market outcomes improve with length of stay in the UK (Haque, 2002).

Other factors are also likely to be important, but may be difficult to quantify.

Those entering the UK on work permits have a job to go to. A substantial number of work permits go to *corporate transferees*. The work permit system has served to bring into the UK *highly skilled people* from a limited number of countries – especially Americans and Japanese. Associate professional occupations accounted for 52% of work permits issued in 2000, with a further 24% to professional occupations and 21% to managers & administrators. In industrial terms, health & medical services and computer services were dominant (Dobson *et al*., 2001). For these 'knowledge migrants' career advancement and personal development are key influences on decisions to migrate. It is anticipated that linkages with the source country while in the UK, and the building of bridges by those returning to source countries, will lead to a degree of 'brain circulation' (NOP Business/Institute for Employment Studies, 2002).

Research on the experience of *refugees* and asylum seekers has highlighted *relatively low levels of labour market participation* – for example, Haque (2002) reports estimates from the 2001 Labour Force Survey that the employment rate amongst migrants is around 64% compared with 75% for the UK-born. For refugees there is often and 'occupational downgrading' amongst those in employment – suggesting that their skills and previous work experience are not being used to their full potential, especially in the case of those with involvement in professional jobs prior to migration (Bloch, 2002; Jonker, 2004). A study of asylum seekers and refugees in Coventry and Warwickshire suggests that typically they were keen to take any kind of job and perhaps work towards improving their position from within the workforce, but they were frustrated by the fact that they were not using their skills and experience, job insecurity and poor pay (Phillimore *et al*., 2003). Migrants are more likely to be self-employed than the UK-born; (this is especially the case for those from less developed countries).

There are large variations in economic performance between migrants from different origins. Very low employment rates are recorded by people from Somalia (12.2%), Angola (30%), Iran (31.7%), Albania (31.9%) and Ethiopia (32.3%) (Kyambi, 2005). More detailed analysis of labour market outcomes by country of birth in London using Labour Force Survey and 2001 Census of Population data shows that 61% of the migrant population were in employment in 2002/03 compared with 74% of UK-born Londoners (Spence, 2005). While those born outside the UK make up 35% of persons of working age in London, they comprise 42% of the unemployed and 45% of the economically inactive. At national level, qualification levels also differ markedly by country of birth – large proportions of those from Canada, Nigeria and Greece have high-level qualifications, while 40%-50% of those from Somalia, Albania, Turkey, Portugal and Bangladesh have no qualifications. Around 60% of those from New Zealand, Australia and the USA have ‘other’ qualifications, causing difficulties in comparisons of education levels (Kyambi, 2005). Hence, qualification levels and training needs are likely to differ markedly according to the origin and socio-economic profile of the migrant population in a local area.

The *problems some migrants (and refugees especially) face in entering and moving within the UK labour market* are many and varied. They may include legal and technical issues, a lack of understanding of the labour market, a lack of knowledge of job search processes in the UK (including how vacancies occur, how to present CVs, interview etiquette, etc), a lack of appropriate work experience and discrimination. Arguably most fundamentally, they include problems with *English* and a lack of more advanced language skills: it is salient to note that lack of language emerges repeatedly in research studies as a problem as a barrier to participation in training and employment, and to mobility within the labour market. Research with employers reiterated the importance placed on English language training relevant to employment and on work experience (IES, 2004).

## *1.4 Key Issues Relating to Learning, Training and Skills*

There are a range of activities across various agencies in the UK concerned with supporting migrants and skills training. Arguably, those on Work Permits should receive necessary training and skills development from their employers. Hence, the main focus here is on those who are more disadvantaged in the labour market.

For refugees and recent immigrants with no job to go to, Refugee and Community Organisations (*RCOs*) often play an important role as 'first port of call' for building social and community capital, and providing labour market support. For those migrants who are unwilling or unable to access mainstream provision, many RCOs are active in providing training in familiar local settings – especially in areas, such as London, with large migrant concentrations. Focus groups conducted in a study in North London suggested that many participants felt that the courses run by RCOs were more suited to their needs than those of other providers, and more generally, they considered that RCOs were the most helpful service providers (Africa Educational Trust, 2002).

*English language skills* – especially at intermediate level or above - are crucial in labour market participation and advancement. In London – an area of immigrant concentration – there is a wide range of English for Speakers of Other Languages (*ESOL*) provision, but even so local studies reveal that there is a need for more (Africa Educational Trust, 2002). In local areas with smaller concentrations, or more recent inflows (perhaps as a result of NASS dispersal policies), there is likely to be a less established network of ESOL provision. A survey conducted for the Learning and Skill Council Tyne and Wear by Bow Community Projects (2003) suggested that there were 100 ESOL courses operating in the area at the time, of which around four-fifths was provided by Colleges of Further Education, with the majority of funding being provided by the LSC, and a small proportion funded by the European Social Fund (ESF). Demand for ESOL outstripped supply at the time of the survey, and there was a shortage of well-qualified ESOL tutors.

Over the last few years expenditure on ESOL has risen significantly, with most of this provision not directly leading to approved qualifications and the Skills for Life PSA target. A recent review of ESOL suggests that provision has grown at a significant rate – driven by FE providers increasing supply to meet what in some cases is claimed to be massive demand, with availability of funding and teaching accommodation acting as the only constraints (KPMG, 2005). The review suggests that for the majority of providers planning for ESOL appears to be driven by available funding and allocation models rather than by local needs, and is not consistently reflected in the planning of local LSCs.

Competence in English is important for taking further steps forward in participating in education and training: a study of barriers faced by refugees suggested that participation was positively correlated with proficiency in English (Bloch, 2002). Moreover, the Immigration, Asylum and Nationality Act 2002 introduced a new requirement for those wishing to settle in the UK to take a citizenship test with a language component. In Summer 2004 Home Office confirmed that, in order to gain *citizenship*, individuals would have to be able to demonstrate achievement of English language at Entry Level 3 or higher. Hence, demand for ESOL is likely to increase, although it is difficult to quantify what the demand will be for citizenship tests.

There is an unfulfilled *demand for education and training*. A study of refugees and asylum seekers from Somalia, Iraq, Kosova, Sri Lanka and Turkey indicated that 60% wanted to participate in training: especially IT, languages and dressmaking/sewing (Bloch, 2002). *Reasons for not participating in training* included lack of language skills or wanting to learn English first (28%), not knowing what was available (18%), lack of childcare (14%), not knowing what they were entitled to (6%) and family commitments (4%). *Not knowing what provision was available* is a recurrent theme in local studies of refugees and asylum seekers, and issues of lack of childcare, difficulties in paying for courses and travel costs incurred are also highlighted.

*Recognition of qualifications gained abroad* is one key component in the process of ensuring that maximum advantage can be taken of the previous knowledge, training, skills and experience that migrants bring to the UK. Such a service is provided by *UK NARIC* (National Academic Recognition Information Centre) – a private organisation in receipt of central government and other funding. However, recognition of qualifications might only be one step: migrants may need advice on training/learning plans to facilitate their further investment in skills and work experience in order that they can better integrate into the labour market at a level commensurate with their skills and aspirations.

In theory, migrants' access to education and training in the UK should be facilitated by a relatively open and flexible training system offering a wide range of opportunities for lifelong learning. However, research suggests migrants face *difficulty in comprehending and navigating what seems a complex system*; (i.e. the 'not knowing what is available' issue highlighted above). In response to such difficulties, RETAS (the Refugee Education and Advisory Service) provides a range of advice services and has produced a series of handbooks for refugees.

At a strategic level the Employability Forum has been active in engaging with policy makers and *employers* regarding key issues affecting employment. There are some good examples of support for professional refugees in sectors such as engineering and health. Mentoring plays an important role in such initiatives. An issue for employers is ensuring that they are aware of the legal issues surrounding employment of migrants.

The success (or otherwise) of skills and employment initiatives for migrants and refugees at local level rests not only on the extent to which they achieve their goals, but also on whether they can successfully '*signpost'* individuals to more relevant and/or further support provided by other organisations, and assistance in other spheres relevant to integration – such as health, housing, etc. In London, LORECA (London Refugee Economic Action) has been established as the lead body on employment, enterprise and training for refugee & asylum seekers in London to help fulfil this function (Green, 2005).

### *1.5 Ethnic Minorities and Migrants in the Workforce: A Statistical Overview*

This part of the report presents results for Government Office Regions, compared with a benchmark for England. Contextual information for the whole of GB or the UK is also presented).

The Black and Minority Ethnic (BME) population of the UK is increasing rapidly. While (relatively small numbers of) BME people lived in the UK during the period of Empire, the growth of this population has mainly occurred since the end of the Second World War, when there were around 100 thousand BME people in England and Wales. The BME population reached 1 million around 1967, 3.1 million in 1991 and 4.6 million in 2001.

The rapid growth of the BME population results from relatively high birth rates (in a youthful population) and international migration. Rates of international migration have increased since the mid-1990s, with net immigration to the UK now running at record rates. High rates of net immigration are a response to high rates of employment growth and direct overseas recruitment by UK employers (e.g. in the National Health Service). Most post-war immigration was from the Old and New Commonwealth, but the range of national origins of migrants has increased substantially over the last decade, with substantial flows from Africa and the Middle East (many of whom are refugees and asylum seekers and, if in the latter category, are not officially permitted to work) and eastern Europe.

*Demographic structure*

**Table 1.2: Age Structure of each Ethnic Group (%), England 1994, Employed Workforce**

| | 16-24 | 25-44 | 45-59 | 60-64 | 65+ | All aged 16+ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| White | 15.0 | 49.7 | 29.6 | 3.9 | 1.8 | 20,241,194 |
| BME | 15.7 | 62.0 | 19.3 | 2.5 | 0.5 | 1,019,437 |
| Mixed parentage | 25.5 | 57.8 | 14.8 | 2.0 | 0.0 | 64,550 |
| Asian | 17.3 | 60.9 | 19.6 | 1.9 | 0.3 | 558,262 |
| Indian | 13.9 | 63.5 | 20.5 | 2.0 | 0.1 | 361,736 |
| Pakistani | 25.6 | 59.7 | 13.4 | 1.3 | 0.0 | 104,552 |
| Bangladeshi | 42.5 | 44.2 | 10.9 | 2.4 | 0.0 | 30,151 |
| Other Asian | 11.2 | 55.5 | 29.3 | 2.1 | 1.9 | 61,824 |
| Black | 11.6 | 63.9 | 20.0 | 3.7 | 0.7 | 298,689 |
| Black-Caribbean | 10.5 | 61.8 | 21.8 | 4.9 | 1.0 | 197,554 |
| Black-African | 12.8 | 68.7 | 16.9 | 1.4 | 0.3 | 78,990 |
| Black-Other | 17.7 | 66.0 | 15.0 | 1.2 | 0.0 | 22,145 |
| Other | 11.9 | 65.5 | 18.5 | 3.1 | 1.1 | 97,936 |
| Chinese | 13.7 | 68.4 | 16.3 | 1.7 | 0.0 | 58,448 |
| Other | 9.2 | 61.3 | 21.7 | 5.1 | 2.7 | 39,487 |
| All | 15.0 | 50.3 | 29.1 | 3.8 | 1.7 | 21,260,630 |

Source: IER estimates based on LFS data.
Notes: Residence basis (heads).

**Table 1.3: Age Structure of each Ethnic Group (%), England 2004, Employed Workforce**

| | 16-24 | 25-44 | 45-59 | 60-64 | 65+ | All aged 16+ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| White | 13.7 | 47.2 | 32.2 | 4.8 | 2.1 | 21,578,167 |
| BME | 15.5 | 59.5 | 21.8 | 2.3 | 0.9 | 1,893,102 |
| Mixed | 34.2 | 49.1 | 15.4 | 0.9 | 0.3 | 157,965 |
| Asian | 16.0 | 59.7 | 21.8 | 1.9 | 0.6 | 920,040 |
| Indian | 13.6 | 57.1 | 26.1 | 2.4 | 0.9 | 486,976 |
| Pakistani | 22.0 | 61.7 | 15.2 | 0.9 | 0.2 | 214,352 |
| Bangladeshi | 25.3 | 66.7 | 8.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 70,491 |
| Other Asian | 10.9 | 62.2 | 23.8 | 2.4 | 0.8 | 148,222 |
| Black | 10.3 | 62.0 | 22.2 | 3.6 | 2.0 | 490,476 |
| Black-Caribbean | 10.8 | 57.7 | 23.4 | 4.8 | 3.3 | 249,133 |
| Black-African | 10.1 | 66.8 | 19.9 | 2.5 | 0.7 | 220,948 |
| Black-Other | 7.2 | 61.0 | 31.8 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 20,396 |
| Other | 12.8 | 60.3 | 24.1 | 2.1 | 0.6 | 324,620 |
| Chinese | 18.3 | 55.4 | 24.4 | 1.5 | 0.4 | 91,317 |
| Other | 10.7 | 62.2 | 24.0 | 2.4 | 0.7 | 233,303 |
| All | 13.9 | 48.2 | 31.3 | 4.6 | 2.1 | 23,471,269 |

Source: IER estimates based on LFS data.
Notes: Residence basis (heads).

The period 1994-2004 saw a general ageing in the employed workforce, with a fall in the percentage aged under 45 and an increase in the percentage aged 45 and over. This general trend was experienced by both white and minority ethnic groups. In all ethnic groups, the percentage in work aged over 60 is very low, but increased slightly over the decade. This percentage is highest for the white and Black-Caribbean ethnic groups.

Just over half of white people and over three-fifths of BME people in work in 1994 were aged 25-44. These shares were slightly smaller in 2004. The youngest ethnic groups in 1994 were the Bangladeshi, Pakistani and mixed parentage groups; more than a quarter of workers from each of these ethnic groups (and two-fifths of Bangladeshis in work) were aged 16-24. These were also the most youthful ethnic groups in 2004, when a third of mixed parentage workers were aged 16-24.

**Table 1.4: Percentage of Ethnic Groups in each Age Group, Employed Workforce England 1994**

| | 16-24 | 25-44 | 45-59 | 60-64 | 65+ | All aged 16+ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| White | 95.0 | 94.1 | 96.8 | 96.8 | 98.7 | 95.2 |
| BME | 5.0 | 5.9 | 3.2 | 3.2 | 1.3 | 4.8 |
| Mixed | 0.5 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.0 | 0.3 |
| Asian | 3.0 | 3.2 | 1.8 | 1.3 | 0.4 | 2.6 |
| Indian | 1.6 | 2.1 | 1.2 | 0.9 | 0.1 | 1.7 |
| Pakistani | 0.8 | 0.6 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.0 | 0.5 |
| Bangladeshi | 0.4 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.1 |
| Other Asian | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.3 |
| Black | 1.1 | 1.8 | 1.0 | 1.4 | 0.6 | 1.4 |
| Black-Caribbean | 0.6 | 1.1 | 0.7 | 1.2 | 0.5 | 0.9 |
| Black-African | 0.3 | 0.5 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.4 |
| Black-Other | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 |
| Other | 0.4 | 0.6 | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.5 |
| Chinese | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.3 |
| Other | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.2 |
| All | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

Source: IER estimates based on LFS data.
Notes: Residence basis (heads).

**Table 1.5: Percentage of Ethnic Groups in each Age Group, Employed Workforce England 2004**

| | 16-24 | 25-44 | 45-59 | 60-64 | 65+ | All aged 16+ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| White | 91.0 | 90.0 | 94.4 | 96.0 | 96.3 | 91.9 |
| BME | 9.0 | 10.0 | 5.6 | 4.0 | 3.7 | 8.1 |
| Mixed | 1.7 | 0.7 | 0.3 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.7 |
| Asian | 4.5 | 4.9 | 2.7 | 1.6 | 1.2 | 3.9 |
| Indian | 2.0 | 2.5 | 1.7 | 1.1 | 0.9 | 2.1 |
| Pakistani | 1.4 | 1.2 | 0.4 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.9 |
| Bangladeshi | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.3 |
| Other Asian | 0.5 | 0.8 | 0.5 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.6 |
| Black | 1.6 | 2.7 | 1.5 | 1.6 | 2.0 | 2.1 |
| Black-Caribbean | 0.8 | 1.3 | 0.8 | 1.1 | 1.7 | 1.1 |
| Black-African | 0.7 | 1.3 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 0.3 | 0.9 |
| Black-Other | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 |
| Other | 1.3 | 1.7 | 1.1 | 0.6 | 0.4 | 1.4 |
| Chinese | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.4 |
| Other | 0.8 | 1.3 | 0.8 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 1.0 |
| All | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

Source: IER estimates based on LFS data.
Notes: Residence basis (heads).

The share of minority ethnic groups in employment increased from 4.8% in 1994 to 8.1% in 2004. Each individual minority group also increased its share of employment, with the shares of people of mixed parentage and from “Other” ethnic groups increasing most rapidly. The share of minority ethnic groups in the workforce declines with age, being much higher for those aged under 45 than for older workers. However, their share of workers aged 16-24 is slightly smaller than that of 25-44 year olds, reflecting the higher participation of BME people than white people in further and higher education. The most notable exception is people of mixed parentage, whose share of the workforce is highest among 16-24 year olds; this reflects the very young age structure of this ethnic group and its low educational participation rates.

**Table 1.6: Percentage Employment Change by Age Group, England 1994-2004**

| | 16-24 | 25-44 | 45-59 | 60-64 | 65+ | All aged 16+ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| White | -2.3 | 1.1 | 15.8 | 31.4 | 26.8 | 6.6 |
| BME | 83.8 | 78.2 | 109.0 | 66.9 | 283.0 | 85.7 |
| Mixed | 228.5 | 108.1 | 155.9 | 8.1 | - | 144.7 |
| Asian | 51.9 | 61.7 | 82.7 | 65.3 | 292.3 | 64.8 |
| Indian | 31.1 | 21.0 | 71.0 | 63.9 | 1627.0 | 34.6 |
| Pakistani | 76.0 | 111.9 | 132.0 | 54.5 | - | 105.0 |
| Bangladeshi | 39.4 | 252.8 | 71.2 | -100.0 | - | 133.8 |
| Other Asian | 132.6 | 168.6 | 94.5 | 180.4 | -4.4 | 139.7 |
| Black | 45.6 | 59.1 | 82.1 | 58.0 | 347.4 | 64.2 |
| Black-Caribbean | 29.4 | 17.8 | 35.3 | 23.2 | 327.8 | 26.1 |
| Black-African | 120.4 | 172.3 | 230.4 | 413.3 | 506.3 | 179.7 |
| Black-Other | -62.4 | -15.0 | 95.0 | -100.0 | - | -7.9 |
| Other | 258.7 | 204.9 | 333.5 | 129.9 | 91.2 | 231.5 |
| Chinese | 109.3 | 26.5 | 134.6 | 36.7 | - | 56.2 |
| Other | 587.7 | 499.7 | 554.1 | 174.7 | 56.5 | 490.8 |
| All | 2.0 | 5.7 | 18.8 | 32.5 | 30.0 | 10.4 |

Source: IER estimates based on LFS data.
Notes: Residence basis (heads).

The number of Black and Minority Ethnic people employed nearly doubled between 1994 and 2004, while overall employment only increased by 10.4%. The fastest rate of increase was for people from “other ethnic groups”, followed by Black-African, Other-Asian, mixed parentage and Bangladeshi people. Among BME groups, the rate of employment increase was slowest in the Black-Caribbean, Chinese and Indian ethnic groups. Rates of employment increase were highest for workers aged 45 to 59 (the higher rate of increase for workers aged 60 and over involved very small numbers).

*Structure of employment by ethnic group*

National and regional summaries of employment patterns by ethnic group are presented here by:

- Industry x ethnic group; and
- Occupation x ethnic group.

For England as a whole, the occupational and industrial division of employment by ethnic group are illustrated in Tables 1.7-1.10. These estimates are a combination of information from the LFS and estimates of occupational employment from *Working Futures*. The latter focuses upon workplace employment (jobs).

**Table 1.7** **Percentage of Each Ethnic Group, in Each Occupation, 2004**

| England | All | White | All Ethnic Minorities | Mixed | Asian | Black | Other |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Occupations** | | | | | | | |
| 11 Corporate Managers | 100.0 | 94.4 | 5.6 | 0.4 | 3.0 | 1.0 | 1.1 |
| 12 Managers & Proprietors | 100.0 | 88.2 | 11.8 | 0.6 | 7.2 | 1.5 | 2.4 |
| 21 Science/Tech Professionals | 100.0 | 90.6 | 9.4 | 0.6 | 4.5 | 2.0 | 2.2 |
| 22 Health Professionals | 100.0 | 74.6 | 25.4 | 0.6 | 16.7 | 3.2 | 4.9 |
| 23 Teaching/Research Prof. | 100.0 | 93.5 | 6.5 | 0.8 | 2.7 | 1.7 | 1.4 |
| 24 Business/Public service Prof. | 100.0 | 89.5 | 10.5 | 0.8 | 5.5 | 2.1 | 2.0 |
| 31 Science/Tech Associate Prof. | 100.0 | 90.5 | 9.5 | 0.8 | 4.8 | 2.5 | 1.4 |
| 32 Health Associate Prof. | 100.0 | 88.1 | 11.9 | 1.1 | 3.8 | 4.5 | 2.5 |
| 33 Protective Service Occs | 100.0 | 95.6 | 4.4 | 0.8 | 1.8 | 1.2 | 0.6 |
| 34 Culture/Media/Sport Occs | 100.0 | 93.8 | 6.2 | 1.4 | 1.2 | 2.0 | 1.6 |
| 35 Bus/Public Serv. Assoc Prof. | 100.0 | 92.9 | 7.1 | 0.9 | 3.4 | 1.8 | 1.0 |
| 41 Administrative Occupations | 100.0 | 92.1 | 7.9 | 0.7 | 4.1 | 2.3 | 0.8 |
| 42 Secretarial & Related Occs | 100.0 | 94.1 | 5.9 | 0.3 | 2.8 | 1.7 | 1.1 |
| 51 Skilled Agricultural Trades | 100.0 | 99.6 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 |
| 52 Skilled Metal/Elec Trades | 100.0 | 95.1 | 4.9 | 0.5 | 1.9 | 1.8 | 0.6 |
| 53 Skilled Construct. Trades | 100.0 | 97.1 | 2.9 | 0.4 | 1.4 | 0.7 | 0.3 |
| 54 Other Skilled Trades | 100.0 | 86.5 | 13.5 | 0.8 | 6.4 | 2.3 | 4.0 |
| 61 Caring Personal Service Occs | 100.0 | 92.0 | 8.0 | 0.7 | 2.9 | 3.3 | 1.1 |
| 62 Leisure/Oth Pers Serv Occs | 100.0 | 92.9 | 7.1 | 0.6 | 2.3 | 1.9 | 2.3 |
| 71 Sales Occupations | 100.0 | 88.6 | 11.4 | 1.2 | 6.5 | 2.1 | 1.6 |
| 72 Customer Service Occupations | 100.0 | 89.6 | 10.4 | 1.2 | 5.6 | 2.2 | 1.3 |
| 81 Process, Plant & Mach Ops | 100.0 | 91.3 | 8.7 | 0.5 | 5.7 | 1.5 | 0.9 |
| 82 Transport Drivers and Ops | 100.0 | 91.7 | 8.3 | 0.4 | 4.7 | 2.2 | 1.0 |
| 91 Elementary: Trades/Plant/Stor | 100.0 | 92.3 | 7.7 | 0.5 | 3.9 | 2.2 | 1.2 |
| 92 Elementary: Admin/Service | 100.0 | 89.0 | 11.0 | 0.7 | 4.7 | 3.4 | 2.1 |
| Unknown Occupation | 100.0 | 79.5 | 20.5 | 2.4 | 7.3 | 9.1 | 1.7 |
| Total | 100.0 | 91.8 | 8.2 | 0.7 | 4.0 | 2.1 | 1.4 |

Source: IER estimates based on LFS and *Working Futures* (Ind6RAW.xls Sheet “OccReg tables”).
Notes: Shares by ethnic group from the LFS are applied to *Working Futures* workplace employment estimates (jobs).

**Table 1.8** **Occupational Structure of Each Ethnic Group (%)**

| England | All | White | All Ethnic Minorities | Mixed | Asian | Black | Other |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Occupations** | | | | | | | |
| 11 Corporate Managers | 12.2 | 12.5 | 8.3 | 7.6 | 9.2 | 5.8 | 9.6 |
| 12 Managers & Proprietors | 3.1 | 2.9 | 4.4 | 2.8 | 5.5 | 2.2 | 5.2 |
| 21 Science/Tech Professionals | 3.6 | 3.5 | 4.1 | 3.3 | 4.0 | 3.5 | 5.6 |
| 22 Health Professionals | 1.0 | 0.8 | 3.1 | 0.9 | 4.2 | 1.5 | 3.5 |
| 23 Teaching/Research Prof. | 4.8 | 4.9 | 3.8 | 5.7 | 3.2 | 3.8 | 4.6 |
| 24 Business/Public service Prof. | 3.2 | 3.1 | 4.1 | 3.9 | 4.4 | 3.2 | 4.6 |
| 31 Science/Tech Associate Prof. | 1.8 | 1.8 | 2.1 | 2.1 | 2.2 | 2.2 | 1.8 |
| 32 Health Associate Prof. | 3.5 | 3.4 | 5.1 | 5.8 | 3.3 | 7.5 | 6.2 |
| 33 Protective Service Occs | 1.2 | 1.3 | 0.7 | 1.4 | 0.5 | 0.7 | 0.5 |
| 34 Culture/Media/Sport Occs | 2.2 | 2.2 | 1.6 | 4.4 | 0.7 | 2.0 | 2.4 |
| 35 Bus/Public Serv. Assoc Prof. | 5.3 | 5.4 | 4.6 | 6.5 | 4.5 | 4.5 | 3.6 |
| 41 Administrative Occupations | 9.3 | 9.4 | 9.0 | 9.8 | 9.4 | 10.1 | 5.5 |
| 42 Secretarial & Related Occs | 3.1 | 3.2 | 2.3 | 1.5 | 2.1 | 2.6 | 2.5 |
| 51 Skilled Agricultural Trades | 0.9 | 1.0 | 0.0 | 0.4 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 |
| 52 Skilled Metal/Elec Trades | 4.4 | 4.6 | 2.6 | 3.1 | 2.2 | 3.9 | 2.0 |
| 53 Skilled Construct. Trades | 4.0 | 4.2 | 1.4 | 2.5 | 1.3 | 1.4 | 1.0 |
| 54 Other Skilled Trades | 2.0 | 1.9 | 3.3 | 2.2 | 3.2 | 2.2 | 5.7 |
| 61 Caring Personal Service Occs | 5.7 | 5.7 | 5.6 | 5.4 | 4.1 | 9.0 | 4.6 |
| 62 Leisure/Oth Pers Serv Occs | 1.9 | 1.9 | 1.7 | 1.8 | 1.1 | 1.7 | 3.1 |
| 71 Sales Occupations | 6.3 | 6.1 | 8.7 | 11.0 | 10.2 | 6.4 | 7.0 |
| 72 Customer Service Occupations | 1.4 | 1.3 | 1.7 | 2.4 | 1.9 | 1.4 | 1.3 |
| 81 Process, Plant & Mach Ops | 3.7 | 3.7 | 3.9 | 2.7 | 5.3 | 2.7 | 2.4 |
| 82 Transport Drivers and Ops | 3.8 | 3.8 | 3.9 | 2.0 | 4.5 | 4.1 | 2.7 |
| 91 Elementary: Trades/Plant/Stor | 3.5 | 3.5 | 3.3 | 2.4 | 3.4 | 3.6 | 2.9 |
| 92 Elementary: Admin/Service | 7.7 | 7.5 | 10.3 | 7.7 | 9.1 | 12.7 | 11.4 |
| Unknown Occupation | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.6 | 0.9 | 0.5 | 1.1 | 0.3 |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

Source: IER estimates based on LFS and *Working Futures* (Ind6RAW.xls Sheet “OccReg tables”)
Notes: Shares by ethnic group from the LFS are applied to *Working Futures* workplace employment estimates (jobs).

**Table 1.9** **Percentage of Ethnic Group, in Each Sector, 2004**

| England | All | White | All Ethnic Minorities | Mixed | Asian | Black | Other |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Sector** | | | | | | | |
| Agriculture etc [01-05] | 100.0 | 99.2 | 0.8 | 0.0 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.1 |
| Mining, quarrying & utilities [10-14,40,41] | 100.0 | 95.1 | 4.9 | 0.4 | 3.7 | 0.5 | 0.2 |
| Food, drink & tobacco [15,16] | 100.0 | 89.6 | 10.4 | 0.6 | 6.1 | 1.9 | 1.8 |
| Textiles & clothing [17-19] | 100.0 | 86.1 | 13.9 | 0.2 | 13.0 | 0.2 | 0.5 |
| Wood, paper & publishing [20-22] | 100.0 | 95.8 | 4.2 | 0.8 | 1.7 | 1.0 | 0.7 |
| Chemicals & non-metal minerals [23-26] | 100.0 | 94.0 | 6.0 | 0.3 | 2.6 | 1.8 | 1.2 |
| Metal & metal goods [27-28] | 100.0 | 97.1 | 2.9 | 0.2 | 1.6 | 0.8 | 0.2 |
| Engineering [29-33] | 100.0 | 93.7 | 6.3 | 0.6 | 3.6 | 0.8 | 1.2 |
| Transport equipment [34,35] | 100.0 | 95.7 | 4.3 | 0.1 | 2.7 | 0.9 | 0.6 |
| Manufacturing nes & recycling [36,37] | 100.0 | 94.6 | 5.4 | 0.8 | 3.6 | 0.7 | 0.2 |
| Construction [45] | 100.0 | 97.0 | 3.0 | 0.4 | 1.3 | 0.8 | 0.5 |
| Distribution relating to motors [50] | 100.0 | 94.0 | 6.0 | 0.7 | 3.2 | 1.2 | 1.0 |
| Wholesale distribution nes [51] | 100.0 | 93.2 | 6.8 | 0.4 | 4.1 | 1.2 | 1.2 |
| Retailing distribution nes [52] | 100.0 | 89.1 | 10.9 | 0.9 | 6.6 | 2.1 | 1.3 |
| Hotels and catering [55] | 100.0 | 83.7 | 16.3 | 1.2 | 7.7 | 2.2 | 5.1 |
| Transport and storage [60-63] | 100.0 | 90.1 | 9.9 | 0.6 | 5.4 | 2.7 | 1.1 |
| Post & telecommunications [64] | 100.0 | 89.8 | 10.2 | 0.8 | 5.6 | 2.4 | 1.5 |
| Banking & insurance [65-67] | 100.0 | 91.8 | 8.2 | 0.9 | 4.6 | 1.5 | 1.3 |
| Professional services [70,71,73] | 100.0 | 92.8 | 7.2 | 0.9 | 2.8 | 2.4 | 1.1 |
| Computing & related services [72] | 100.0 | 88.2 | 11.8 | 0.5 | 6.7 | 2.6 | 2.0 |
| Other business services [74] | 100.0 | 90.6 | 9.4 | 0.8 | 3.9 | 2.8 | 1.9 |
| Public admin and defence [75] | 100.0 | 92.5 | 7.5 | 0.7 | 3.4 | 2.5 | 1.0 |
| Education [80] | 100.0 | 93.7 | 6.3 | 0.6 | 2.8 | 1.7 | 1.2 |
| Health & social work [85] | 100.0 | 88.9 | 11.1 | 0.9 | 4.2 | 4.1 | 1.9 |
| Miscellaneous services [90-99] | 100.0 | 93.8 | 6.2 | 0.7 | 2.1 | 1.8 | 1.7 |
| Unknown Industry [?] | 100.0 | 79.0 | 21.0 | 2.1 | 6.3 | 9.4 | 3.1 |
| Total | 100.0 | 91.8 | 8.2 | 0.7 | 4.0 | 2.1 | 1.4 |

Source: IER estimates based on LFS and *Working Futures* (Ind6Raw.xls Sheet “SectReg tables”)

**Table 1.10** **Sectoral Deployment of Each Ethnic Group (%), 2004**

| England | All | White | All Ethnic Minorities | Mixed | Asian | Black | Other |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Sector** | | | | | | | |
| Agriculture etc [01-05] | 1.1 | 1.2 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| Mining, quarrying & utilities [10-14,40,41] | 0.8 | 0.8 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.7 | 0.2 | 0.1 |
| Food, drink & tobacco [15,16] | 1.4 | 1.4 | 1.8 | 1.2 | 2.1 | 1.3 | 1.7 |
| Textiles & clothing [17-19] | 0.6 | 0.6 | 1.1 | 0.2 | 2.1 | 0.1 | 0.2 |
| Wood, paper & publishing [20-22] | 2.1 | 2.2 | 1.0 | 2.3 | 0.9 | 1.0 | 1.0 |
| Chemicals & non-metal minerals [23-26] | 2.6 | 2.6 | 1.9 | 1.3 | 1.7 | 2.3 | 2.1 |
| Metal & metal goods [27-28] | 1.7 | 1.8 | 0.6 | 0.6 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.3 |
| Engineering [29-33] | 3.0 | 3.1 | 2.3 | 2.8 | 2.7 | 1.1 | 2.6 |
| Transport equipment [34,35] | 1.8 | 1.9 | 0.9 | 0.4 | 1.2 | 0.7 | 0.8 |
| Manufacturing nes & recycling [36,37] | 0.8 | 0.8 | 0.5 | 0.8 | 0.7 | 0.3 | 0.1 |
| Construction [45] | 7.8 | 8.2 | 2.8 | 4.2 | 2.6 | 3.1 | 2.5 |
| Distribution relating to motors [50] | 2.0 | 2.0 | 1.4 | 1.9 | 1.5 | 1.2 | 1.3 |
| Wholesale distribution nes [51] | 2.6 | 2.6 | 2.2 | 1.5 | 2.6 | 1.5 | 2.2 |
| Retailing distribution nes [52] | 10.8 | 10.5 | 14.4 | 13.6 | 17.9 | 11.1 | 9.6 |
| Hotels and catering [55] | 4.2 | 3.8 | 8.3 | 7.5 | 8.0 | 4.5 | 15.1 |
| Transport and storage [60-63] | 4.9 | 4.8 | 5.8 | 4.0 | 6.6 | 6.3 | 3.9 |
| Post & telecommunications [64] | 2.3 | 2.2 | 2.8 | 2.6 | 3.1 | 2.6 | 2.3 |
| Banking & insurance [65-67] | 4.3 | 4.3 | 4.3 | 5.6 | 4.9 | 3.0 | 3.9 |
| Professional services [70,71,73] | 2.2 | 2.3 | 2.0 | 2.9 | 1.6 | 2.5 | 1.8 |
| Computing & related services [72] | 2.0 | 2.0 | 2.9 | 1.6 | 3.4 | 2.5 | 2.9 |
| Other business services [74] | 7.4 | 7.3 | 8.4 | 8.5 | 7.2 | 9.9 | 9.7 |
| Public admin and defence [75] | 6.7 | 6.8 | 6.2 | 6.5 | 5.6 | 8.0 | 4.8 |
| Education [80] | 9.1 | 9.3 | 6.9 | 7.7 | 6.4 | 7.4 | 7.4 |
| Health & social work [85] | 11.6 | 11.2 | 15.6 | 15.0 | 12.1 | 22.4 | 15.9 |
| Miscellaneous services [90-99] | 6.0 | 6.1 | 4.5 | 6.1 | 3.0 | 5.0 | 7.0 |
| Unknown Industry [?] | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.7 | 0.9 | 0.4 | 1.3 | 0.6 |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

Source: IER estimates based on LFS and *Working Futures* (Ind6RAW.xls Sheet "SectReg tables")

*Employment status*

In 1994, men from BME groups were more likely than average while BME women were less likely than average to work part-time (Table 1.10). Men from the Bangladeshi, mixed parentage and Black-African ethnic groups were most likely to work part-time, while Indian men were least likely to be in part-time employment. Among women, the highest rate of part-time working was experienced by Bangladeshi women. Among BME women, those of mixed parentage, Black-Other and Black-African women were most likely to work part-time, and Chinese and Indian women were least likely to work part-time.

The average percentage of BME men self-employed was the same as that for white men, but this concealed a wide variation, from 34.9% for Chinese men, to 11.4% for men of mixed parentage and from the Black-Caribbean ethnic group. Pakistani and Indian men were much more likely than average to be self-employed. Women were much less likely than men to be self-employed, and BME women were on average less likely than white women to be self-employed. However, Chinese (20.3%) and Indian (11.9%) women were far more likely than average to be self-employed. Black and Black British women were least likely to be self-employed.

**Table 1.11: Employment Status by Ethnic Group, England 1994**

| | Men in work (000s) | Percentage in work | | | Women in work (000s) | Percentage in work | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Full-time | Part-time | Self-employed | | Full-time | Part-time | Self-employed |
| White | 10888.2 | 75.7 | 5.1 | 19.2 | 9049.6 | 51.1 | 40.6 | 8.3 |
| ***Black and Minority Ethnic*** | ***508.7*** | ***72.8*** | ***8.0*** | ***19.2*** | ***438.8*** | ***63.0*** | ***30.1*** | ***6.9*** |
| Mixed | 26.7 | 74.9 | 13.6 | 11.4 | 35.2 | 55.0 | 35.7 | 9.3 |
| *Asian and Asian British* | *326.1* | *69.5* | *6.7* | *23.8* | *219.4* | *61.3* | *27.9* | *10.9* |
| Indian | 200.5 | 71.4 | 5.1 | 23.5 | 154.3 | 62.1 | 26.1 | 11.9 |
| Pakistani | 72.5 | 60.2 | 8.3 | 31.5 | 28.4 | 59.5 | 30.2 | - |
| Bangladeshi | 22.6 | 72.6 | 13.7 | 13.7 | 6.3 | - | 50.7 | - |
| Other Asian | 30.5 | 77.1 | - | 14.6 | 30.5 | 62.1 | 30.1 | - |
| *Black and Black British* | *140.6* | *79.0* | *7.6* | *13.4* | *149.3* | *65.8* | *30.7* | *3.5* |
| Black-Caribbean | 89.9 | 82.5 | 6.1 | 11.4 | 103.4 | 68.3 | 29.0 | - |
| Black-African | 39.4 | 71.9 | 11.8 | 16.3 | 36.0 | 59.4 | 34.4 | - |
| Black-Other | 11.2 | 75.5 | - | - | 9.9 | 62.0 | 35.1 | - |
| *Chinese and Other* | *57.3* | *63.9* | *7.4* | *28.7* | *37.9* | *57.4* | *25.3* | *17.3* |
| Chinese | 31.7 | 55.2 | 9.9 | 34.9 | 24.7 | 54.7 | 24.9 | 20.3 |
| Other | 25.6 | 74.6 | - | 21.1 | 13.2 | 62.4 | 26.1 | - |
| **All ethnic groups** | **11438.9** | **75.5** | **5.2** | **19.3** | **9491.5** | **51.6** | **40.1** | **8.3** |

Source: IER estimates based on LFS data.

Notes: Shares by ethnic group from the LFS are applied to *Working Futures* workplace employment estimates (jobs).

By 2004, the percentage of men working part-time had increased by over 50% (Table 1.11). BME men were nearly twice as likely as white men to work part-time. Over a third of Bangladeshi men and more than a fifth of Chinese men work part-time, with rates of part-time working also high for Black-African, Pakistani and mixed parentage men. The percentage of women working part-time fell slightly, but the percentage of BME women working part-time fell substantially. Only Pakistani women (43.5%) were more likely than white women to work part-time. Other-Asian and Black-Caribbean women were least likely to work part-time.

**Table 1.12: Employment Status by Ethnic Group, England 2004**

| | Men in work (000s) | Percentage in work | | | Women in work (000s) | Percentage in work | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Full-time | Part-time | Self-employed | | Full-time | Part-time | Self-employed |
| White | 11,513.6 | 74.9 | 7.3 | 17.8 | 9,914.1 | 52.0 | 40.0 | 8.0 |
| ***Black and Minority Ethnic*** | ***1,060.4*** | ***69.8*** | ***13.9*** | ***16.3*** | ***807.1*** | ***62.0*** | ***32.0*** | ***6.1*** |
| Mixed | 71.2 | 73.1 | 14.5 | 12.5 | 83.9 | 59.2 | 36.9 | 3.9 |
| *Asian and Asian British* | *566.0* | *66.7* | *13.6* | *19.7* | *342.1* | *60.0* | *32.6* | *7.4* |
| Indian | 280.9 | 71.3 | 9.8 | 18.9 | 199.4 | 61.7 | 31.1 | 7.1 |
| Pakistani | 152.3 | 58.8 | 15.7 | 25.5 | 58.0 | 48.2 | 43.5 | 8.2 |
| Bangladeshi | 51.2 | 50.5 | 34.4 | 15.0 | 19.1 | 57.0 | 36.4 | - |
| Other Asian | 81.7 | 75.7 | 9.9 | 14.5 | 65.6 | 66.1 | 26.4 | 7.5 |
| Black and Black British | 239.1 | 75.2 | 14.0 | 10.8 | 243.7 | 67.1 | 29.8 | 3.1 |
| Black-Caribbean | 118.4 | 79.2 | 9.2 | 11.6 | 126.7 | 67.6 | 29.3 | 3.1 |
| Black-African | 110.1 | 72.5 | 18.4 | 9.1 | 107.2 | 66.8 | 30.3 | 2.9 |
| Black-Other | 10.6 | 59.4 | - | - | 9.8 | 63.7 | - | - |
| Chinese and Other | 184.1 | 71.2 | 14.3 | 14.5 | 137.4 | 59.5 | 31.0 | 9.4 |
| Chinese | 47.1 | 62.9 | 21.1 | 15.9 | 43.6 | 53.1 | 33.1 | 13.8 |
| Other | 137.0 | 74.0 | 12.0 | 14.1 | 93.8 | 62.5 | 30.1 | 7.4 |
| All ethnic groups | 12,574.0 | 74.5 | 7.9 | 17.7 | 10,721.2 | 52.7 | 39.4 | 7.8 |

Source: IER estimates based on LFS data.
Notes: Shares by ethnic group from the LFS are applied to *Working Futures* workplace employment estimates (jobs).

The percentage of both men and women self-employed was lower in 2004 than 1994. BME men as a whole are now less likely than white men to be self-employed. The percentage of Chinese men self-employed fell substantially, but Pakistani and Indian men are still more likely than men from other ethnic groups to be self-employed. Chinese women are much more likely than women from other ethnic groups to be self-employed. Black women and women of mixed parentage are least likely to be self-employed.

*The migrant labour force*

The following tables use the 2001 Census 3% Sample of Anonymised Records to present a snap-shot of the percentage incidence among people in work of inter-regional and international migration during the year 2000-1. Tables are presented by age group, industry, occupation and region.

While 2.1% of all people in work moved between regions, only 0.6% were international migrants during the year 2000-1 (Table 1.13). Inter-regional migration is most likely for people aged 16-24, and declines with increasing age. International migration is also most prevalent in the youngest age group, but much less common. Migration was most prevalent in the service sector, particularly financial intermediation, real estate etc. and hotels and restaurants (Table 1.14).

Rates of inter-regional migration are highest for skilled and semi-skilled manual workers (Table 1.15). Rates of international migration are highest for associate professionals.

Highest rates of inter-regional migration occurred in the West Midlands, London and the South East and Wales (Table 1.16). Migration rates were highest in business services across all regions. London stands out as having the highest rates of international migration across all sectors (Table 1.17).

Rates of inter-regional migration are highest for professional and associate professional workers (SOCs 2 and 3) and are lowest for the semi-skilled. (Table 1.18). Rates of international migration are highest for professional workers, and double the UK average in this SOC major group for London (Table 1.19). The rate of international migration is ten times higher in London than in most of northern England and the West Midlands, and twice as high as in the South east, the second most popular destination for international migrants.

**Table 1.13: Migrants 2000-1 as a Percentage of People Working, by Age Group**

| | | | Geographical origin | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Inter-regional | International | Ireland | Europe | Elsewhere |
| Aged 16-24 | 4.6 | 1.0 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.4 |
| Aged 25-44 | 2.4 | 0.8 | 0.3 | 0.1 | 0.4 |
| Aged 45-59 | 0.7 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.1 |
| Aged 60-64 | 0.5 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Aged 65+ | 0.5 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| All ages | 2.1 | 0.6 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.3 |

Source: IER estimates based on 2001 Census (SARs).

**Table 1.14: Migrants 2000-1 as a Percentage of People Working, by Industry**

| | Inter-regional | International | Geographical origin | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Ireland | Europe | Elsewhere |
| Agriculture, Hunting and Forestry | 0.9 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.1 |
| Fishing | 1.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Mining and Quarrying | 1.9 | 1.3 | 0.5 | 0.3 | 0.5 |
| Manufacturing | 1.5 | 0.4 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| Electricity, Gas and Water Supply | 2.5 | 0.6 | 0.3 | 0.1 | 0.2 |
| Construction | 1.0 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.0 | 0.1 |
| Wholesale and Retail Trade; Repair of Motor Vehicles, Motorc | 1.7 | 0.4 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.2 |
| Hotels and Restaurants | 2.5 | 1.0 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.4 |
| Transport, Storage and Communication | 2.0 | 0.6 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.2 |
| Financial Intermediation | 3.1 | 1.0 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.5 |
| Real Estate, Renting and Business Activities | 3.3 | 1.1 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.5 |
| Public Administration and Defence | 2.9 | 0.7 | 0.5 | 0.0 | 0.2 |
| Education | 2.1 | 0.7 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.3 |
| Health and Social Work | 1.9 | 0.6 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.3 |
| Other Community, Social and Personal Service Activities | 2.7 | 0.6 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.2 |
| Private Households Employing Domestic Staff | 2.3 | 6.0 | 0.1 | 4.8 | 1.1 |
| Extra - Territorial Organisations and Bodies | 2.6 | 13.6 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 11.4 |
| All industries | 2.1 | 0.6 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.3 |

Source: IER estimates based on 2001 Census (SARs).

**Table 1.15: Migrants 2000-1 as a Percentage of People Working, by SOC Major Group**

| | | | Geographical origin | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Inter-regional | International | Ireland | Europe | Elsewhere |
| Managers and senior officials | 0.9 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.1 |
| Professional occupations | 1.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| Associate professional and technical | 1.9 | 1.3 | 0.5 | 0.3 | 0.5 |
| Administrative, clerical and secretarial | 1.5 | 0.4 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| Skilled trades | 2.5 | 0.6 | 0.3 | 0.1 | 0.2 |
| Personal service occupations | 1.0 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.0 | 0.1 |
| Sales and customer service occupations | 1.7 | 0.4 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.2 |
| Machine and transport operatives | 2.5 | 1.0 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.4 |
| Elementary occupations | 2.0 | 0.6 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.2 |
| All industries | 2.1 | 0.6 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.3 |

Source: IER estimates based on 2001 Census (SARs).

**Table 1.16: Percentage of People in Work who were Inter-regional Migrants, by Region and Industry Sector**

| | Primary | Manufacturing | Construction | Distribution | Business services | Non-market services | All |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| North East | 0.9 | 0.7 | 0.8 | 1.1 | 1.5 | 1.4 | 1.2 |
| North West | 1.1 | 1.1 | 0.7 | 1.2 | 1.9 | 1.4 | 1.3 |
| Yorks & the Humber | 1.2 | 0.8 | 0.8 | 1.6 | 2.7 | 1.9 | 1.7 |
| East Midlands | 2.1 | 1.6 | 1.3 | 2.1 | 3.3 | 2.6 | 2.3 |
| West Midlands | 2.5 | 2.9 | 1.6 | 3.2 | 5.8 | 3.1 | 3.4 |
| Eastern | 1.3 | 1.1 | 0.9 | 1.6 | 2.4 | 2.0 | 1.7 |
| London | 4.7 | 2.8 | 1.1 | 2.5 | 4.5 | 2.5 | 3.2 |
| South East | 2.3 | 2.2 | 1.5 | 2.6 | 3.5 | 2.8 | 2.8 |
| South West | 1.0 | 1.9 | 1.1 | 2.3 | 3.1 | 3.0 | 2.5 |
| Wales | 1.1 | 2.4 | 1.8 | 3.1 | 4.4 | 3.6 | 3.1 |
| Scotland | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.5 |
| N. Ireland | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.6 | 0.7 | 0.9 | 0.7 |
| UK | 1.5 | 1.5 | 1.0 | 1.9 | 3.1 | 2.2 | 2.1 |

Source: IER estimates based on 2001 Census (SARs).

**Table 1.17: Percentage of People in Work who were International Migrants, by Region and Industry Sector**

| | Primary | Manufacturing | Construction | Distribution | Business services | Non-market services | All |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| North East | 0.3 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.2 |
| North West | 0.0 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.3 |
| Yorks & the Humber | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.5 | 0.3 |
| East Midlands | 0.4 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.5 | 0.3 |
| West Midlands | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.5 | 0.9 | 0.7 | 0.6 |
| Eastern | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.4 | 1.1 | 0.7 | 0.6 |
| London | 2.2 | 1.3 | 0.8 | 1.6 | 2.6 | 1.3 | 1.8 |
| South East | 1.0 | 0.6 | 0.4 | 0.7 | 0.9 | 0.9 | 0.7 |
| South West | 0.2 | 0.5 | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.5 | 0.6 | 0.5 |
| Wales | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.3 |
| Scotland | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.5 |
| N. Ireland | 0.1 | 0.5 | 0.1 | 0.4 | 0.7 | 0.4 | 0.4 |
| UK | 0.4 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.5 | 1.0 | 0.6 | 0.6 |

Source: IER estimates based on 2001 Census (SARs).

**Table 1.18: Percentage of People Working in each SOC Major Group who were Inter-regional Migrants, 2001**

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | All |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| North East | 1.4 | 2.2 | 2.2 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.9 | 1.0 | 0.6 | 1.0 | 1.2 |
| North West | 1.7 | 2.6 | 2.1 | 1.4 | 0.6 | 0.8 | 1.3 | 0.6 | 0.8 | 1.3 |
| Yorks & the Humber | 2.2 | 3.4 | 2.7 | 1.6 | 0.8 | 1.0 | 1.8 | 0.6 | 1.2 | 1.7 |
| East Midlands | 2.6 | 4.4 | 4.1 | 2.0 | 1.2 | 1.8 | 2.1 | 0.9 | 1.4 | 2.3 |
| West Midlands | 2.1 | 3.5 | 2.5 | 1.2 | 0.6 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 0.6 | 1.0 | 1.5 |
| Eastern | 2.9 | 4.6 | 3.9 | 2.2 | 1.5 | 1.9 | 2.0 | 1.5 | 1.6 | 2.6 |
| London | 2.9 | 5.0 | 4.8 | 3.2 | 1.3 | 1.7 | 2.6 | 1.3 | 1.7 | 3.2 |
| South East | 3.1 | 4.5 | 4.0 | 2.6 | 1.8 | 1.9 | 2.3 | 1.4 | 1.5 | 2.8 |
| South West | 3.1 | 4.6 | 3.8 | 2.0 | 1.3 | 1.4 | 2.4 | 1.2 | 1.6 | 2.5 |
| Wales | 3.8 | 5.3 | 4.9 | 3.2 | 1.6 | 2.6 | 3.1 | 2.0 | 1.7 | 3.1 |
| Scotland | 1.0 | 1.4 | 1.2 | 0.7 | 0.5 | 0.6 | 0.9 | 0.4 | 0.5 | 0.8 |
| N. Ireland | 0.5 | 1.3 | 1.1 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.6 | 0.4 | 0.6 | 0.7 |
| UK | 2.5 | 3.9 | 3.4 | 2.0 | 1.1 | 1.4 | 1.8 | 0.9 | 1.2 | 2.1 |

Source: IER estimates based on 2001 Census (SARs).
Note: Occupations are based on SOC 2000 categories:

| | |
|---|---|
| 1 | Managers and senior officials |
| 2 | Professional occupations |
| 3 | Associate professional and technical |
| 4 | Administrative, clerical and secretarial |
| 5 | Skilled trades |
| 6 | Personal service occupations |
| 7 | Sales and customer service occupations |
| 8 | Machine and transport operatives |
| 9 | Elementary occupations |

**Table 1.19: Percentage of People Working in each SOC Major Group who were International Migrants, 2001**

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | All |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| North East | 0.2 | 0.8 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.4 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.2 |
| North West | 0.3 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.3 |
| Yorks & the Humber | 0.2 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.4 | 0.2 |
| East Midlands | 0.4 | 0.9 | 0.4 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.4 |
| West Midlands | 0.2 | 0.7 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 |
| Eastern | 0.6 | 1.1 | 0.8 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.5 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.6 |
| London | 2.0 | 2.9 | 2.2 | 1.5 | 0.9 | 1.7 | 1.5 | 0.5 | 1.7 | 2.0 |
| South East | 0.9 | 1.5 | 0.9 | 0.5 | 0.3 | 0.8 | 0.5 | 0.3 | 0.6 | 0.9 |
| South West | 0.5 | 0.8 | 0.8 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.4 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.5 |
| Wales | 0.3 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.3 |
| Scotland | 0.4 | 1.3 | 0.7 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.2 | 0.4 | 0.4 |
| N. Ireland | 0.4 | 0.7 | 0.8 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.4 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.4 |
| UK | 0.7 | 1.3 | 0.9 | 0.5 | 0.3 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.2 | 0.5 | 0.7 |

Source: IER estimates based on 2001 Census (SARs).
Note: Occupations are based on SOC 2000 categories:

| | |
|---|---|
| 1 | Managers and senior officials |
| 2 | Professional occupations |
| 3 | Associate professional and technical |
| 4 | Administrative, clerical and secretarial |
| 5 | Skilled trades |
| 6 | Personal service occupations |
| 7 | Sales and customer service occupations |
| 8 | Machine and transport operatives |
| 9 | Elementary occupations |

*Cross-Regional Comparisons*

On this basis the overall scale of employment in ethnic minorities was around 1.2 million in 1994, increasing by a similar order of magnitude over the next decade. London accounts for over half of these. Many other regions have experienced faster rates of growth over the last decade, most notably the South East, South West and Yorkshire and the Humber.

In order to set the analysis above into a broader context, the information from the LFS on shares of employment in the different ethnic groups has been combined with data from *Working Futures*. This enables the information on ethnic employment to be seen in a broader context, including prospects for the next 10 years or so.

Tables 20a – 20g present summary information on workplace employment for each ethnic group in turn, showing how these patterns vary across regions. The estimates are formed by applying the shares of total employment from the LFS residents/head to the workplace employment estimates from *Working Futures*.[18]

Those of mixed percentage account for only a small proportion of total employment, reaching around 200 thousand by 2004. Again London accounts for the lion’s share, but many other regions have shown much faster growth rates.

Those of Asian and Asian British descent represent one of the largest ethnic minority groups. London again accounts for the largest share. The rates of growth are less dramatic for this category than for some other ethnic groups. The South East and Yorkshire and the Humber have shown the fastest rates of increase over the period 1994-2004.

Employment in the Black and Black British category reached over half a million by 2004. London accounted for almost 70 % of employment in this group in 1994, but this share had declined by 2004 as many other regions, notably the South East and East of England, have experienced more rapid rates of growth.

Other ethnic groups have seen some of the most rapid rates of increase in employment. In all regions annual rates of increase over the past decade have been at least 10 per cent, in many cases rates of approaching 15 % per annum or more have been reached. The East and West Midlands have seen some of the fastest increases.

[18] Differences between the two definitions of employment include double jobbing and commuting.

*Cross-Regional Comparisons*

**Table 20: Employment Change by Ethnic group (White)**

| Region | 000s | % share | 000s | *% p.a.* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1994 | | 1994-2004 | |
| London | 3,148 | 12.6 | 121 | 0.4 |
| South East | 3,545 | 14.2 | 454 | 1.2 |
| East of England | 2,290 | 9.2 | 338 | 1.4 |
| South West | 2,206 | 8.9 | 275 | 1.2 |
| West Midlands | 2,241 | 9.0 | 142 | 0.6 |
| East Midlands | 1,780 | 7.2 | 111 | 0.6 |
| Yorks & the Humber | 2,185 | 8.8 | 124 | 0.6 |
| North West | 2,916 | 11.7 | 288 | 0.9 |
| North East | 1,032 | 4.1 | 36 | 0.3 |
| *England* | 21,343 | 85.7 | 1,889 | 0.9 |
| Great Britain | 24,895 | 100.0 | 2,066 | 0.8 |

**(All ethnic minorities)**

| Region | 000s | % share | 000s | *% p.a.* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1994 | | 1994-2004 | |
| London | 670 | 54.2 | 557 | 6.2 |
| South East | 92 | 7.5 | 135 | 9.4 |
| East of England | 64 | 5.2 | 58 | 6.7 |
| South West | 27 | 2.2 | 37 | 9.1 |
| West Midlands | 143 | 11.6 | 74 | 4.2 |
| East Midlands | 62 | 5.0 | 51 | 6.2 |
| Yorks & the Humber | 57 | 4.6 | 78 | 9.1 |
| North West | 79 | 6.3 | 76 | 7.0 |
| North East | 13 | 1.0 | 12 | 6.9 |
| *England* | 1,207 | 97.6 | 1,079 | 6.6 |
| Great Britain | 1,237 | 100.0 | 1,113 | 6.6 |

Source: IER estimates based on LFS and *Working Futures* (Ind6RAW.xls Sheet "OccReg tables")
Notes: Shares by ethnic group from the LFS are applied to *Working Futures* workplace employment estimates (jobs).

*Cross-Regional Comparisons*

**Table 20 (continued)**

**(Mixed parentage)**

| Region | 000s 1994 | % share | 000s 1994-2004 | *% p.a.* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| London | 37 | 48.0 | 37 | 7.2 |
| South East | 10 | 13.0 | 23 | 12.7 |
| East of England | 6 | 7.9 | 5 | 6.5 |
| South West | 3 | 3.7 | 10 | 16.1 |
| West Midlands | 6 | 7.3 | 11 | 11.5 |
| East Midlands | 3 | 4.2 | 7 | 12.3 |
| Yorks & the Humber | 3 | 3.5 | 11 | 17.9 |
| North West | 6 | 8.3 | 5 | 6.1 |
| North East | 1 | 1.9 | 1 | 6.2 |
| *England* | 76 | 97.7 | 112 | 9.5 |
| Great Britain | 78 | 100.0 | 122 | 9.9 |

**(Asian and Asian British)**

| Region | 000s 1994 | % share | 000s 1994-2004 | *% p.a.* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| London | 323 | 48.4 | 218 | 5.3 |
| South East | 50 | 7.5 | 57 | 7.9 |
| East of England | 35 | 5.3 | 16 | 3.8 |
| South West | 11 | 1.6 | 9 | 6.3 |
| West Midlands | 99 | 14.8 | 32 | 2.9 |
| East Midlands | 44 | 6.6 | 28 | 5.0 |
| Yorks & the Humber | 35 | 5.2 | 42 | 8.3 |
| North West | 48 | 7.2 | 39 | 6.1 |
| North East | 8 | 1.2 | 5 | 5.2 |
| *England* | 653 | 97.7 | 447 | 5.4 |
| Great Britain | 669 | 100.0 | 464 | 5.4 |

Source: IER estimates based on LFS and *Working Futures* (Ind6RAW.xls Sheet “OccReg tables”)
Notes: Shares by ethnic group from the LFS are applied to *Working Futures* workplace employment estimates (jobs).

**Table 20 (continued)**

**(Black and Black British)**

| Region | 000s 1994 | % share | 000s 1994-2004 | *% p.a.* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| London | 251 | 68.2 | 149 | 4.8 |
| South East | 17 | 4.6 | 28 | 10.1 |
| East of England | 15 | 4.2 | 17 | 7.6 |
| South West | 8 | 2.1 | 5 | 5.0 |
| West Midlands | 34 | 9.1 | 14 | 3.5 |
| East Midlands | 12 | 3.2 | 6 | 4.3 |
| Yorks & the Humber | 13 | 3.6 | 9 | 5.4 |
| North West | 13 | 3.6 | 10 | 5.8 |
| North East | 1 | 0.4 | 1 | 5.6 |
| *England* | 364 | 99.0 | 238 | 5.2 |
| Great Britain | 367 | 100.0 | 241 | 5.2 |

**(Other ethnic groups)**

| Region | 000s 1994 | % share | 000s 1994-2004 | *% p.a.* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| London | 59 | 47.6 | 153 | 13.7 |
| South East | 15 | 12.5 | 27 | 10.7 |
| East of England | 7 | 6.1 | 20 | 14.0 |
| South West | 5 | 4.3 | 13 | 13.5 |
| West Midlands | 5 | 4.3 | 16 | 15.1 |
| East Midlands | 3 | 2.6 | 10 | 15.1 |
| Yorks & the Humber | 6 | 4.7 | 16 | 14.0 |
| North West | 10 | 8.5 | 21 | 11.6 |
| North East | 2 | 1.9 | 5 | 11.8 |
| *England* | 114 | 92.4 | 281 | 13.2 |
| Great Britain | 123 | 100.0 | 286 | 12.7 |

Source: IER estimates based on LFS and *Working Futures* (Ind6RAW.xls Sheet “OccReg tables”)
Notes: Shares by ethnic group from the LFS are applied to *Working Futures* workplace employment estimates (jobs).

**Table 20 (continued)**

**(All categories)**

| **Region** | **000s 1994** | **% share** | **000s 1994-2004** | *% p.a.* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| London | 3,818 | 14.6 | 678 | 1.6 |
| South East | 3,638 | 13.9 | 589 | 1.5 |
| East of England | 2,354 | 9.0 | 397 | 1.6 |
| South West | 2,233 | 8.5 | 312 | 1.3 |
| West Midlands | 2,384 | 9.1 | 215 | 0.9 |
| East Midlands | 1,842 | 7.1 | 162 | 0.8 |
| Yorks & the Humber | 2,241 | 8.6 | 203 | 0.9 |
| North West | 2,994 | 11.5 | 364 | 1.2 |
| North East | 1,045 | 4.0 | 48 | 0.5 |
| *England* | 22,550 | 86.3 | 2,968 | 1.2 |
| Great Britain | 26,132 | 100.0 | 3,178 | 1.2 |

Source: IER estimates based on LFS and *Working Futures* (Ind6RAW.xls Sheet “OccReg tables”)
Notes: Shares by ethnic group from the LFS are applied to *Working Futures* workplace employment estimates (jobs).

# 2. REGIONAL PROFILE: ENGLAND

This Section presents a standard *Regional Profile* adopted for the national (England) level and then for each region in turn. Separate *Regional Profiles* cover each of the 9 English regions in turn. In all cases the data are presented in a common set of tables and charts with brief commentary.

A common structure is adopted for all the *Regional Profiles*:

1. *Structure of Employment by Ethnic Group:* A brief overview of employment (jobs), by industry and occupation, by ethnic group.

2. *Shift-share analysis of employment change by Ethnic Group:*
   This covers the historical period 1994-2004. It is based on LFS data but scaled so as to be consistent with information from *Working Futures 2004-2014*. *Working Futures 2004-2014* comprises the most detailed and comprehensive analysis of historical and projected future trends in employment structure ever published in the UK. Details can be found in Wilson *et al.* (2005).

3. *Migrants:*
   Migrants are defined as workers born outside the UK. The tables on migrant workers are based on Labour Force Survey data for 1994 and 2004. A summary of the limited data available is presented, including breaks by age and deployment by industry and occupation.

4. *Key Structural Features of the Labour Market:*
   Brief summary of the key features of general employment patterns in the geographical area concerned, focussing upon historical patterns and projected future changes by:
   - gender & status;
   - sector; and
   - occupation.

5. *Demographic structur*e
   Profiles of population and the workforce by age and gender, in the form of tables and charts present a detailed analysis of current and projected future patterns by age and gender.

### *2.1 Structure of Employment by Ethnic Group*

The estimates in Sections 2.1 and 2.2 are based on a combination of data from the Labour Force Survey (LFS) and *Working Futures 2004-2014*. The latter represents the most comprehensive and consistent set of employment estimates and projections available for the UK, providing detailed breaks by sector and geographical area as well as occupation, gender and employment status. It does not, however, include anything on ethnicity. The present report combines the *Working Futures* data with information on the ethnic structure of employment from the LFS to provide a consistent picture. The *Working Futures* employment data are on a workplace (jobs) basis. The data on ethnicity from the LFS are on a residence (heads) basis. The present results assume that the same patterns of ethnicity apply on workplace and residence bases. The profiles also include (in Section 2.3) information on migrants based solely on LFS data.

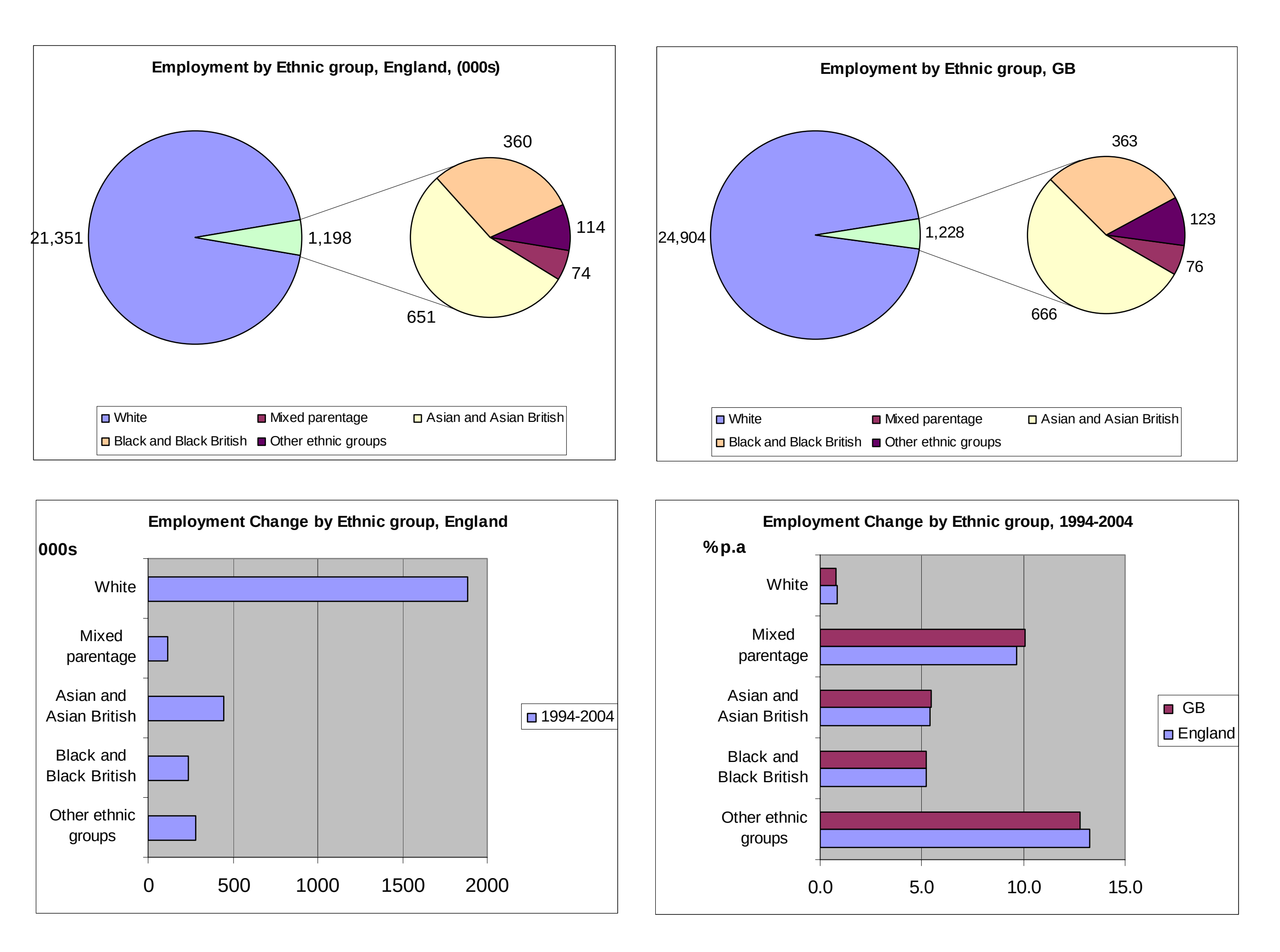
The overall pattern of employment by ethnicity in the England is summarised in Table 2.1. Together with Figure 2.1, this provides an overview of the patterns of ethnic employment in the region. The first panel of the figure shows the significance of ethnic minority employment in the region. Comparable information is also shown for Great Britain as a whole. The other two panels illustrate how these patterns are changing. The bottom left panel shows the absolute changes in employment over the next decade, while the bottom right panel illustrates how this compares in terms of percentage growth rates with the position in the whole of Great Britain.

## Table 2.1: Workplace Employment (Jobs) by Ethnic Group, England, (000s)

| | 1994 | | | 2004 | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | England | | GB | England | | GB |
| **Ethnic group** | **000s** | **% share** | **% share** | **000s** | **% share** | **% share** |
| White | 21,351 | 94.7 | 95.3 | 23,239 | 91.1 | 92.0 |
| *All ethnic minorities* | *1,198* | *5.3* | *4.7* | *2,278* | *8.9* | *8.0* |
| Mixed parentage | 74 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 186 | 0.7 | 0.7 |
| *Asian and Asian British* | *651* | *2.9* | *2.5* | *1,099* | *4.3* | *3.9* |
| Indian | 424 | 1.9 | 1.6 | 584 | 2.3 | 2.0 |
| Pakistani | 116 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 245 | 1.0 | 0.9 |
| Bangladeshi | 36 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 89 | 0.4 | 0.3 |
| Other Asian | 75 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 180 | 0.7 | 0.6 |
| *Black and Black British* | *360* | *1.6* | *1.4* | *598* | *2.3* | *2.1* |
| *Black-Caribbean* | 235 | 1.0 | 0.9 | 296 | 1.2 | 1.0 |
| Black-African | 98 | 0.4 | 0.4 | 276 | 1.1 | 1.0 |
| Black-Other | 27 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 26 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| *Other ethnic groups* | *114* | *0.5* | *0.5* | *395* | *1.5* | *1.4* |
| Chinese | 68 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 111 | 0.4 | 0.4 |
| Other | 46 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 284 | 1.1 | 1.0 |
| *Total* | *22,550* | *100.0* | *100.0* | *25,517* | *100.0* | *100.0* |

Source: IER estimates based on LFS data and information from *Working Futures 2004-2014*.
Notes: a) The LFS data are in terms of numbers of people (residents/heads). Shares are applied to *Working Futures* estimates of workplace employment (jobs). The estimates in this table are in therefore terms of numbers of jobs. Estimates based on numbers below 1,000 should be discounted as insignificant. Estimates based on numbers below 6,000 should be regarded as indicative.

## Figure 2.1:  Employment by Ethnic Group




Source:  IER estimates based on LFS data and information from *Working Futures 2004-2014*.

Notes: a) The LFS data are in terms of numbers of people (residents/heads).  Shares are applied to *Working Futures* estimates of workplace employment (jobs). The estimates in this table are in therefore terms of numbers of jobs.   Estimates based on numbers below 1,000 should be discounted as insignificant. Estimates based on numbers below 6,000 should be regarded as indicative.

## Table 2.2: Occupational Employment by Ethnic Group, 2004

| England | All | | White | | All Ethnic Minorities | | Mixed | | Asian | | Black | | Other | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 000s | % | 000s | % | 000s | % | 000s | % | 000s | % | 000s | % | 000s | % |
| **Occupations** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Managers and Senior Officials | 3,445 | 15.3 | 3,210 | 15.5 | 235 | 12.7 | 16 | 10.4 | 134 | 14.8 | 38 | 8.1 | 48 | 14.9 |
| Professional occupations | 2,841 | 12.6 | 2,561 | 12.4 | 280 | 15.1 | 22 | 13.9 | 143 | 15.8 | 57 | 12.2 | 59 | 18.3 |
| Associate Professional and Technical | 3,168 | 14.0 | 2,907 | 14.0 | 261 | 14.1 | 32 | 20.4 | 102 | 11.3 | 80 | 17.1 | 47 | 14.7 |
| Administrative and Secretarial | 2,814 | 12.5 | 2,605 | 12.6 | 209 | 11.3 | 18 | 11.4 | 105 | 11.6 | 60 | 12.8 | 26 | 8.0 |
| Skilled Trades Occupations | 2,580 | 11.4 | 2,442 | 11.8 | 138 | 7.4 | 13 | 8.2 | 61 | 6.8 | 35 | 7.6 | 28 | 8.8 |
| Personal Service Occupations | 1,727 | 7.7 | 1,592 | 7.7 | 134 | 7.3 | 11 | 7.2 | 48 | 5.3 | 51 | 10.9 | 25 | 7.7 |
| Sales and Customer Service Occupations | 1,733 | 7.7 | 1,539 | 7.4 | 195 | 10.5 | 21 | 13.5 | 110 | 12.2 | 37 | 7.9 | 26 | 8.3 |
| Machine and Transport Operatives | 1,703 | 7.6 | 1,558 | 7.5 | 145 | 7.8 | 7 | 4.7 | 89 | 9.8 | 32 | 6.9 | 16 | 5.1 |
| Elementary Occupations | 2,537 | 11.3 | 2,284 | 11.0 | 253 | 13.7 | 16 | 10.2 | 114 | 12.6 | 77 | 16.5 | 46 | 14.3 |
| Total | 22,548 | 100.0 | 20,698 | 100.0 | 1,849 | 100.0 | 155 | 100.0 | 905 | 100.0 | 468 | 100.0 | 320 | 100.0 |

Source: IER estimates based on analysis of LFS, etc.
Note: Estimates are numbers of people (residents/heads). Any estimates below 6,000 should be regarded as unreliable.

## Table 2.3: Industrial Employment by Ethnic Group, 2004

| England | All | | White | | All Ethnic Minorities | | Mixed | | Asian | | Black | | Other | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 000s | % | 000s | % | 000s | % | 000s | % | 000s | % | 000s | % | 000s | % |
| **Sector** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Agriculture etc | 245 | 1.1 | 243 | 1.2 | 2 | 0.1 | 0 | 0.0 | 1 | 0.1 | 1 | 0.2 | 0 | 0.1 |
| Mining & quarrying | 43 | 0.2 | 41 | 0.2 | 2 | 0.1 | 0 | 0.0 | 1 | 0.2 | 0 | 0.1 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Food, drink & tobacco | 316 | 1.4 | 283 | 1.4 | 34 | 1.2 | 2 | 1.2 | 19 | 2.1 | 6 | 1.3 | 6 | 1.7 |
| Engineering | 689 | 3.1 | 646 | 3.1 | 47 | 1.6 | 4 | 2.8 | 25 | 2.8 | 5 | 1.2 | 9 | 2.7 |
| Rest of manufacturing | 2,141 | 9.5 | 2,030 | 9.8 | 123 | 4.2 | 9 | 5.6 | 66 | 7.2 | 23 | 5.0 | 14 | 4.5 |
| Electricity, gas & water | 138 | 0.6 | 131 | 0.6 | 31 | 1.1 | 1 | 0.5 | 5 | 0.6 | 1 | 0.1 | 0 | 0.1 |
| Construction | 1,764 | 7.8 | 1,711 | 8.3 | 76 | 2.6 | 7 | 4.2 | 24 | 2.6 | 15 | 3.1 | 8 | 2.5 |
| Distribution | 3,483 | 15.5 | 3,148 | 15.2 | 363 | 12.5 | 27 | 17.2 | 201 | 22.1 | 65 | 13.9 | 42 | 13.2 |
| Hotels and catering | 947 | 4.2 | 792 | 3.8 | 216 | 7.4 | 12 | 7.6 | 73 | 8.1 | 21 | 4.6 | 48 | 15.2 |
| Transport & telecommunications | 1,609 | 7.1 | 1,448 | 7.0 | 239 | 8.2 | 10 | 6.7 | 88 | 9.7 | 42 | 9.0 | 20 | 6.3 |
| Banking & insurance | 978 | 4.3 | 897 | 4.3 | 176 | 6.1 | 9 | 5.6 | 45 | 4.9 | 14 | 3.1 | 13 | 3.9 |
| Other business services | 2,646 | 11.7 | 2,398 | 11.6 | 353 | 12.2 | 20 | 13.1 | 111 | 12.2 | 71 | 15.2 | 46 | 14.5 |
| Public admin and defence | 1,520 | 6.7 | 1,405 | 6.8 | 244 | 8.4 | 10 | 6.6 | 51 | 5.7 | 38 | 8.1 | 15 | 4.8 |
| Education | 2,055 | 9.1 | 1,926 | 9.3 | 269 | 9.3 | 12 | 7.7 | 58 | 6.4 | 35 | 7.5 | 24 | 7.5 |
| Health and social work | 2,617 | 11.6 | 2,326 | 11.2 | 446 | 15.4 | 23 | 15.1 | 110 | 12.2 | 106 | 22.7 | 51 | 16.0 |
| Miscellaneous services | 1,350 | 6.0 | 1,266 | 6.1 | 281 | 9.7 | 10 | 6.1 | 28 | 3.1 | 24 | 5.1 | 23 | 7.1 |
| Total | 22,540 | 100.0 | 20,693 | 100.0 | 2,903 | 100.0 | 155 | 100.0 | 905 | 100.0 | 467 | 100.0 | 319 | 100.0 |

Source: IER estimates based on analysis of LFS, etc.
Note: Estimates are numbers of people (residents/heads). Any estimates below 6,000 should be regarded as unreliable.

Table 2.2 and Figure 2.2 illustrate how pattern of ethnicity vary across occupations. On average, in the UK as a whole, around 8 per cent of all jobs are filled by people from ethnic minorities. In England the share is similar.

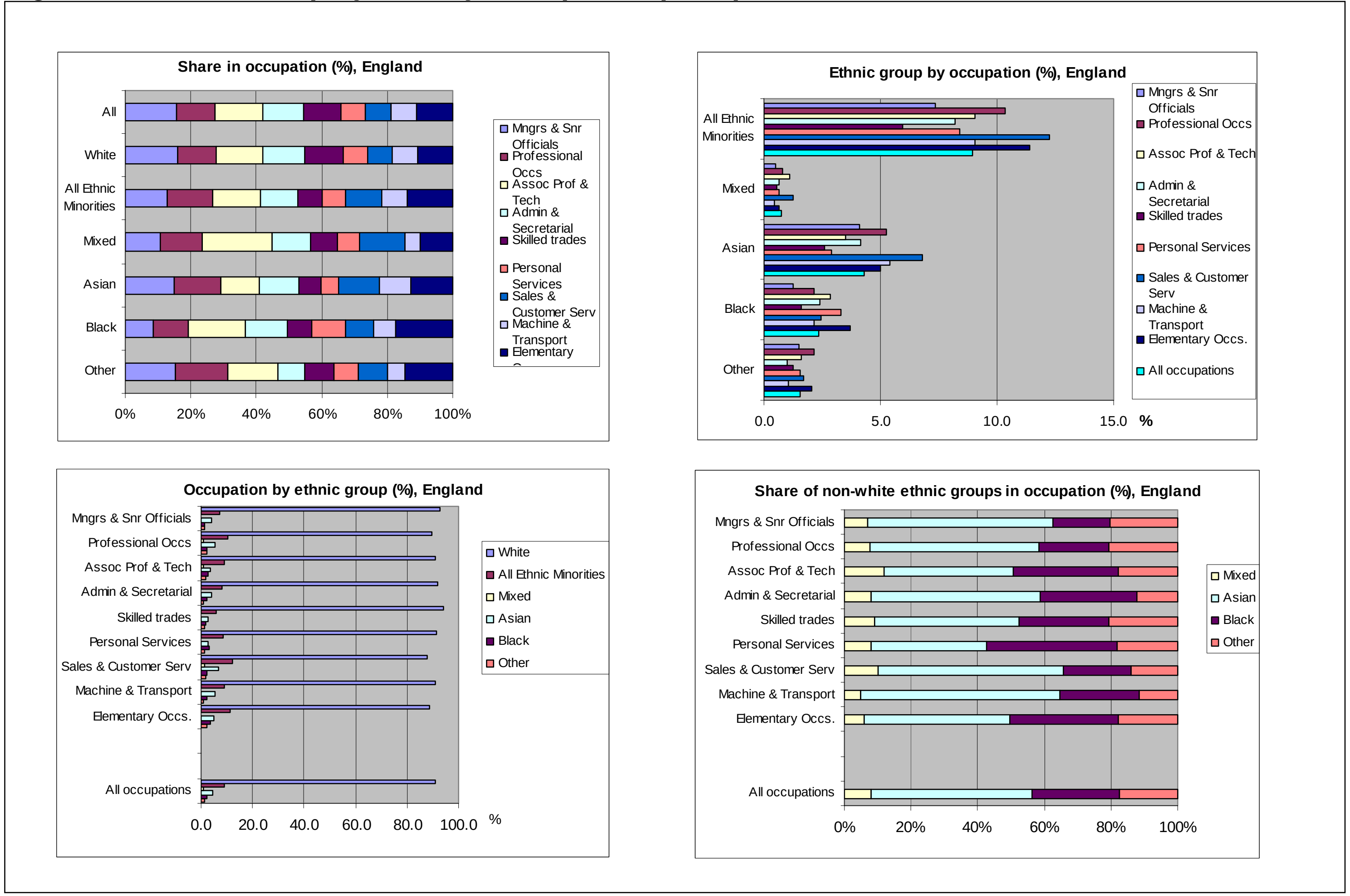
These patterns vary significantly across occupations. Ethnic minorities are under-represented in occupations such as managers & administration, associate professional, administrative & clerical and especially skilled manual. In contrast ethnic minorities are over-represented in occupations such as sales, machine & transport operatives and elementary occupations.

Figure 2.3 and Table 2.3 present a similar analysis, but this time focussing upon industries.

Ethnic minorities are significantly under-represented in industries such as agriculture and construction and to a lesser extent in engineering and public administration & defence.

In contrast they take up a more than proportionate share of the jobs in food, drink & tobacco, transport & communications and electricity, gas & water and health & social work.

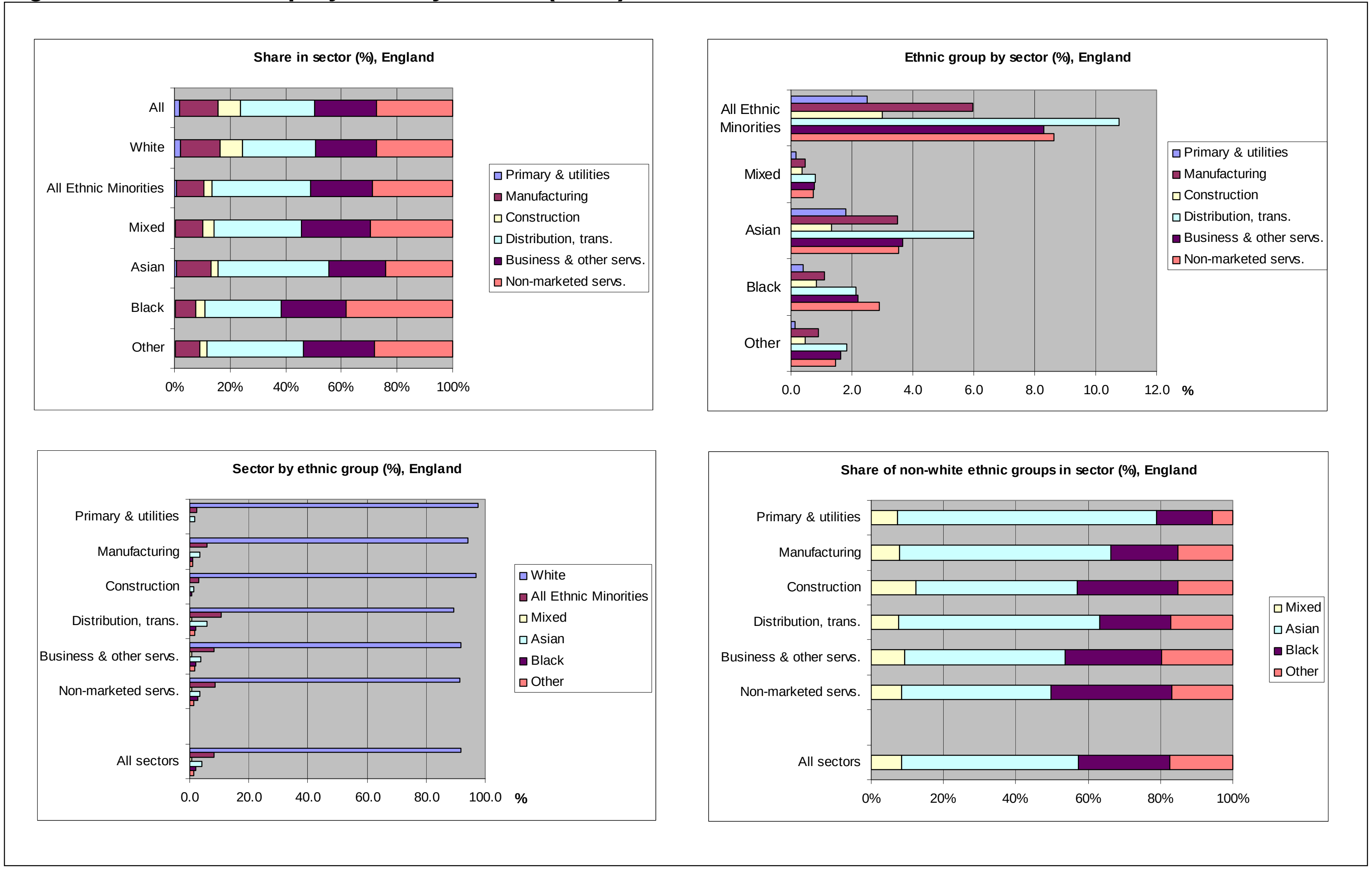
**Figure 2.2: Ethnic Employment by Occupation (Jobs), 2004**




Source: IER estimates based on LFS data and information from *Working Futures 2004-2014*.

Notes: a) The LFS data are in terms of numbers of people (residents/heads). Shares are applied to *Working Futures* estimates of workplace employment (jobs). The estimates in this table are in therefore terms of numbers of jobs. Estimates based on numbers below 1,000 should be discounted as insignificant. Estimates based on numbers below 6,000 should be regarded as indicative.

## Figure 2.3: Ethnic Employment by Sector (Jobs), 2004




Source: IER estimates based on LFS data and information from *Working Futures 2004-2014*.

Notes: a) The LFS data are in terms of numbers of people (residents/heads). Shares are applied to *Working Futures* estimates of workplace employment (jobs). The estimates in this table are in therefore terms of numbers of jobs. Estimates based on numbers below 1,000 should be discounted as insignificant. Estimates based on numbers below 6,000 should be regarded as indicative.

## *2.2 Shift Share Analysis of Employment Change by Ethnic Group*

Historical changes in employment by ethnic group cross-classified by industry and by occupation are illustrated in Tables 2.4 and 2.5. These changes can be analysed using shift-share techniques in order to assess the extent to which different ethnic groups have benefited or suffered from structural shifts in employment.

The shift share analysis separates the total change into three parts:

- a scale effect – what would have happened if employment in all groups and categories had grown (or declined) in line with the change in total employment;
- an industry (or occupational) effect which shows how particular groups have benefited because of structural changes affecting particular industries or occupations I which they may be concentrated (assuming the share of employment by ethnic group remains as in the base year);
- an ethnicity effect - the residual.

The industry analysis is shown in Table 2.4 while the occupational analysis is presented in Table 2.5. In both cases the change in employment by ethnic group is dominated by the ethnicity effect. By contrast, the industry or occupational effect is trivial.

The implication is that it is supply side pressures (the growth of the population and labour supply) from different ethnic groups that dominate changing employment patterns by ethnic group, rather than a demand side structural shift.

This means that in order to make robust projections of employment by ethnic group it is essential to have good demographic models. Such work is ongoing within ONS.

Once these results are available it will be possible to extend this historical analysis and produce indicative projections.

## Table 2.4: Employment Change by Ethnic Group (England)

| Ethnic group | 000s | % share | 000s | % share |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1994 | | 2004 | |
| White | 21,343 | 94.6 | 23,232 | 91.0 |
| *All ethnic minorities* | *1,207* | *5.4* | *2,286* | *9.0* |
| Mixed parentage | 76 | 0.3 | 187 | 0.7 |
| *Asian and Asian British* | *653* | *2.9* | *1,101* | *4.3* |
| Indian | 425 | 1.9 | 585 | 2.3 |
| Pakistani | 117 | 0.5 | 247 | 1.0 |
| Bangladeshi | 37 | 0.2 | 89 | 0.3 |
| Other Asian | 75 | 0.3 | 180 | 0.7 |
| *Black and Black British* | *364* | *1.6* | *602* | *2.4* |
| *Black-Caribbean* | 236 | 1.0 | 298 | 1.2 |
| Black-African | 100 | 0.4 | 279 | 1.1 |
| Black-Other | 28 | 0.1 | 25 | 0.1 |
| *Other ethnic groups* | *114* | *0.5* | *395* | *1.5* |
| Chinese | 68 | 0.3 | 111 | 0.4 |
| Other | 46 | 0.2 | 284 | 1.1 |
| *Total* | *22,550* | *100.0* | *25,517* | *100.0* |

Source: IER estimates based on LFS data and information from *Working Futures 2004-2014*.
Notes: a) The LFS data are in terms of numbers of people (residents/heads). Shares are applied to *Working Futures* estimates of workplace employment (jobs). The estimates in this table are in therefore terms of numbers of jobs. Estimates based on numbers below 1,000 should be discounted as insignificant. Estimates based on numbers below 6,000 should be regarded as indicative.

**Table 2.5: Shift-share Analysis of Employment Change by Industry and by Ethnic Group (England)**

| Ethnic group | 000s | *% p.a.* | 000s | % | 000s | % | 000s | % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total change 1994-2004 | | Industry effect | | Ethnicity effect | | Scale effect | |
| White | 1,889 | 0.9 | -23 | -0.1 | -897 | -4.2 | 2,809 | 13.2 |
| *All ethnic minorities* | *1,079* | *6.6* | *23* | *1.9* | *897* | *74.3* | *159* | *13.2* |
| Mixed parentage | 112 | 9.5 | 1 | 1.4 | 101 | 132.7 | 10 | 13.2 |
| *Asian and Asian British* | *447* | *5.4* | *11* | *1.7* | *351* | *53.6* | *86* | *13.2* |
| Indian | 161 | 3.3 | 6 | 1.4 | 99 | 23.3 | 56 | 13.2 |
| Pakistani | 130 | 7.7 | 1 | 0.8 | 113 | 96.7 | 15 | 13.2 |
| Bangladeshi | 52 | 9.3 | 1 | 4.1 | 46 | 125.2 | 5 | 13.2 |
| Other Asian | 105 | 9.1 | 2 | 3.3 | 92 | 123.4 | 10 | 13.2 |
| *Black and Black British* | *238* | *5.2* | *8* | *2.2* | *182* | *50.1* | *48* | *13.2* |
| *Black-Caribbean* | 61 | 2.3 | 4 | 1.6 | 27 | 11.3 | 31 | 13.2 |
| Black-African | 179 | 10.8 | 3 | 3.4 | 162 | 162.2 | 13 | 13.2 |
| Black-Other | -2 | -0.8 | 1 | 3.3 | -7 | -24.3 | 4 | 13.2 |
| *Other ethnic groups* | *281* | *13.2* | *3* | *2.8* | *263* | *231.0* | *15* | *13.2* |
| Chinese | 43 | 5.0 | 1 | 2.1 | 32 | 47.5 | 9 | 13.2 |
| Other | 239 | 20.0 | 2 | 3.7 | 231 | 503.0 | 6 | 13.2 |
| *Total* | *2,968* | *1.2* | *0* | *0.0* | *0* | *0.0* | *2,968* | *13.2* |

Source: IER estimates based on LFS data and information from *Working Futures 2004-2014*.
Notes: a) The LFS data are in terms of numbers of people (residents/heads). Shares are applied to *Working Futures* estimates of workplace employment (jobs). The estimates in this table are in therefore terms of numbers of jobs. Estimates based on numbers below 1,000 should be discounted as insignificant. Estimates based on numbers below 6,000 should be regarded as indicative.

## Table 2.6: Shift-share Analysis of Employment Change by Occupation and by Ethnic group (England)

| | 000s | *% p.a.* | 000s | % | 000s | % | 000s | % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Ethnic group** | **Total change 1994-2004** | | **Occupation effect** | | **Ethnicity effect** | | **Scale effect** | |
| White | 1,888 | 0.9 | -23 | -0.1 | -899 | -4.2 | 2,810 | 13.2 |
| *All ethnic minorities* | *1,080* | *6.6* | *23* | *1.9* | *899* | *75.0* | *158* | *13.2* |
| Mixed parentage | 112 | 9.7 | 1 | 1.4 | 101 | 136.8 | 10 | 13.2 |
| *Asian and Asian British* | *448* | *5.4* | *11* | *1.7* | *352* | *54.0* | *86* | *13.2* |
| Indian | 160 | 3.3 | 6 | 1.4 | 99 | 23.2 | 56 | 13.2 |
| Pakistani | 129 | 7.8 | 1 | 0.8 | 113 | 97.4 | 15 | 13.2 |
| Bangladeshi | 54 | 9.6 | 1 | 4.2 | 47 | 132.9 | 5 | 13.2 |
| Other Asian | 105 | 9.1 | 2 | 3.3 | 93 | 123.3 | 10 | 13.2 |
| *Black and Black British* | *238* | *5.2* | *8* | *2.2* | *183* | *50.8* | *47* | *13.2* |
| *Black-Caribbean* | 61 | 2.4 | 4 | 1.6 | 27 | 11.4 | 31 | 13.2 |
| Black-African | 178 | 10.9 | 3 | 3.3 | 162 | 165.5 | 13 | 13.2 |
| Black-Other | -2 | -0.6 | 1 | 3.3 | -6 | -22.4 | 4 | 13.2 |
| *Other ethnic groups* | *281* | *13.3* | *3* | *2.8* | *263* | *231.7* | *15* | *13.2* |
| Chinese | 43 | 5.0 | 1 | 2.1 | 33 | 47.9 | 9 | 13.2 |
| Other | 238 | 20.1 | 2 | 3.7 | 231 | 505.6 | 6 | 13.2 |
| *Total* | *2,968* | *1.2* | *0* | *0.0* | *0* | *0.0* | *2,968* | *13.2* |

Source: IER estimates based on LFS data and information from *Working Futures 2004-2014*.
Notes: a) The LFS data are in terms of numbers of people (residents/heads). Shares are applied to *Working Futures* estimates of workplace employment (jobs). The estimates in this table are in therefore terms of numbers of jobs. Estimates based on numbers below 1,000 should be discounted as insignificant. Estimates based on numbers below 6,000 should be regarded as indicative.

## 2.3 Migrants

In the following tables, migrant workers are defined as people in work (employed or self-employed), who were born outside the United Kingdom. Three categories of people born outside the UK are distinguished: those born in the rest of the 15-member EU; those born in the 10 “accession countries” which joined the EU in 2004 and those born elsewhere in the world. In most tables, percentages of males and females who are migrants are presented. The source for these tables is the quarterly Labour Force Survey.

Due to the high degree of sampling error associated with small numbers derived from a sample survey, percentages based on fewer than 6 thousand individuals are suppressed in these tables (and replaced by the symbol “-“).

### a) Age group

Overall, the percentage of migrant workers increased by around half between 1994 and 2004 (Table 2.7); from 6.8 per cent of males in 1994 to 10.2 per cent in 2004, and from 6.8 per cent in 1994 to 9.4 per cent in 2004 for females. This increase was most rapid for people aged 25-34.

In Table 2.8 the percentages of workers from the UK and the three regions of the world described above in 1994 is presented by gender. For both men and women, migrant workers were most common in the 35-44 age group, and least common for 16-24 year olds. The percentage born in the rest of the world was highest in the 35-44 age group, but those born in the EU15 were more youthful, with highest percentages for men aged 25-34 and women aged 16-24.

The increase in the percentage of migrant workers by 2004 was mainly due to increasing numbers of workers born in the rest of the world, representing 8 per cent of male and 7.1 per cent of female workers in 2004, with 1.5 per cent of men and 1.7 per cent of women born in the other countries of EU25 (Table 2.9). The percentage of migrants in the workforce was highest for people aged 25-34, followed by those aged 35-44, and lowest for 45-59 year olds. The number of workers born in the 10 accession countries doubled, to 0.6 per cent of the workforce.

### b) Industry

Table 2.10 presents change in the percentage of workers born in the UK and each region of the world between 1994 and 2004 by industry. For men, migrant workers were most common in hotels & catering and health & social work in 1994. For women, (ignoring the very small mining & quarrying industry), the percentage of foreign-born workers was highest in transport and telecommunications, miscellaneous services, hotels and catering and health and social work.

By 2004, the industrial profile of migrants had changed. For men, the percentage of workers foreign-born was highest in hotels and catering, health & social work, other business services, food, drink & tobacco, transport & telecommunications and distribution. For women, the percentage foreign-born was highest in food, drink &

tobacco, other business services, hotels and catering, transport & telecommunications and health & social work (over 10 per cent in each case).

In 1994, nearly all non-UK born workers had origins outside Europe (Table 2.11). For men, the largest sources of employment for those born in the rest of the world were hotels and catering and health and social work. Those born in EU15 were also most likely to be working in hotels and catering. The percentage of women born in the rest of the world was highest in transport & telecommunications and health & social work, while the share of those born in EU15 was highest in education, hotels and catering and miscellaneous services.

The pattern was similar for men in 2004 (Table 2.12), but over 10 per cent of those working in banking and insurance and other business services had been born in the rest of the world. The largest share of workers born in the EU15 was found in hotels and catering and banking & insurance. Men born in the 10 accession countries tended to work in hotels and catering and construction. Women born in the rest of the world were most common in health & social work, other business services and transport & telecommunications. Those born in the rest of the EU15 tended to work in hotels and catering and other business services, while women born in the 10 accession countries were most common in hotels and catering and miscellaneous services.

c) Occupation

In 2004, the percentage of workers born outside the UK was highest for among professional occupations, elementary occupations and associate professional and technical occupations. The percentage born in the rest of the world was highest in the same three occupations, while the percentage born in the EU15 was highest in professional occupations followed by managers and senior officials. The percentage born in the 10 accession countries was highest for elementary occupations and skilled trades.

d) Ethnic group

In 2004, 5 cent of white workers had been born outside the UK, with 2.7 per cent born in the rest of the world and 2.3 per cent born in the rest of the EU (Table 2.14). Over three-quarters of Other-Asian, Black-African, Bangladeshi and ‘Other’ workers had been born in the rest of the world. Two-thirds of Indian and three-fifths of Chinese and Pakistani workers were born in the rest of the world. A majority of workers of mixed parentage and from the Black-Caribbean and Black-Other ethnic groups were UK-born.

## Table 2.7: Change in Percentage of Workers, Non-UK Born, 1994-2004, by Age Group

| | Workers 1994 | | | | Workers 2004 | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Males (000s) | Percent Non-UK born | Females (000s) | Percent Non-UK born | Males (000s) | Percent Non-UK born | Females (000s) | Percent Non-UK born |
| 16-24 | 1,536 | 3.8 | 1,478 | 5.3 | 1,632 | 5.9 | 1,541 | 6.7 |
| 25-34 | 3,075 | 7.1 | 2,446 | 6.9 | 2,731 | 14.4 | 2,334 | 12.7 |
| 35-44 | 2,697 | 9.0 | 2,272 | 8.1 | 3,303 | 11.1 | 2,808 | 9.8 |
| 45-59 | 3,271 | 6.1 | 2,760 | 6.3 | 3,847 | 8.7 | 3,398 | 8.2 |
| 60-64 | 506 | 6.6 | 273 | 6.5 | 675 | 7.4 | 370 | 7.4 |
| Total | 11,086 | 6.8 | 9,229 | 6.8 | 12,364 | 10.2 | 10,549 | 9.4 |

Source: IER estimates based on the LFS.
Note : Following ONS guidelines, percentages based on numbers below 6,000 individuals have been suppressed and replaced by the symbol “-“.

## Table 2.8: Percentage of Migrants in the Employed Workforce by Age Group, 1994

| Age group | Males in work (000s) | Country of birth | | | | Females in work (000s) | Country of birth | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | UK | Other EU 15 | Accession 10 | Rest of world | | UK | Other EU 15 | Accession 10 | Rest of world |
| 16-24 | 1,536 | 96.2 | 1.0 | - | 2.7 | 1,478 | 94.7 | 1.8 | - | 3.3 |
| 25-34 | 3,075 | 92.9 | 1.4 | 0.3 | 5.4 | 2,446 | 93.1 | 1.6 | 0.3 | 5.1 |
| 35-44 | 2,697 | 91.0 | 1.1 | 0.4 | 7.6 | 2,272 | 91.9 | 1.2 | 0.4 | 6.6 |
| 45-59 | 3,271 | 93.9 | 0.9 | 0.4 | 4.7 | 2,760 | 93.7 | 1.4 | 0.5 | 4.5 |
| 60-64 | 506 | 93.4 | - | - | 5.1 | 273 | 93.5 | - | - | 4.0 |
| Total | 11,086 | 93.2 | 1.1 | 0.3 | 5.4 | 9,229 | 93.2 | 1.5 | 0.4 | 4.9 |

Source: IER estimates based on the LFS.
Note : Following ONS guidelines, percentages based on numbers below 6,000 individuals have been suppressed and replaced by the symbol “-“.

## Table 2.9: Percentage of Migrants in the Employed Workforce by Age Group, 2004

| Age group | Males in work (000s) | Country of birth: UK | Other EU 15 | Accession 10 | Rest of world | Females in work (000s) | Country of birth: UK | Other EU 15 | Accession 10 | Rest of world |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 16-24 | 1,632 | 94.1 | 1.0 | 0.5 | 4.4 | 1,541 | 93.3 | 1.4 | 0.9 | 4.3 |
| 25-34 | 2,731 | 85.6 | 2.5 | 1.0 | 10.9 | 2,334 | 87.3 | 2.5 | 1.0 | 9.1 |
| 35-44 | 3,303 | 88.9 | 1.8 | 0.5 | 8.8 | 2,808 | 90.2 | 1.9 | 0.5 | 7.5 |
| 45-59 | 3,847 | 91.3 | 0.9 | 0.5 | 7.3 | 3,398 | 91.8 | 1.2 | 0.4 | 6.7 |
| 60-64 | 675 | 92.6 | 1.2 | - | 5.6 | 370 | 92.6 | - | - | 5.8 |
| Total | 12,364 | 89.8 | 1.5 | 0.6 | 8.0 | 10,549 | 90.6 | 1.7 | 0.6 | 7.1 |

Source: IER estimates based on the LFS.
Note : Following ONS guidelines, percentages based on numbers below 6,000 individuals have been suppressed and replaced by the symbol “-“.

## Table 2.10: Change in Percentage of Workers, Non-UK Born, 1994-2004, by Industry

| | Workers 1994 | | | | Workers 2004 | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Males (000s) | Percent Non-UK born | Females (000s) | Percent Non-UK born | Males (000s) | Percent Non-UK born | Females (000s) | Percent Non-UK born |
| Agriculture etc | 265 | 1.6 | 88 | 4.5 | 199 | 3.0 | 62 | 2.2 |
| Mining & quarrying | 59 | 3.8 | 7 | 12.6 | 39 | 6.4 | 5 | - |
| Food, drink & tobacco | 258 | 6.4 | 139 | 5.4 | 217 | 12.5 | 103 | 12.1 |
| Engineering | 694 | 4.8 | 234 | 8.4 | 534 | 7.6 | 162 | 8.4 |
| Rest of manufacturing | 1,897 | 6.1 | 771 | 8.0 | 1,642 | 6.6 | 541 | 8.6 |
| Electricity, gas & water | 140 | 2.3 | 45 | 3.5 | 98 | 4.7 | 39 | 5.2 |
| Construction | 1,295 | 2.9 | 141 | 3.8 | 1,586 | 5.5 | 181 | 6.8 |
| Distribution | 1,670 | 7.0 | 1,637 | 5.2 | 1,810 | 10.0 | 1,781 | 7.5 |
| Hotels and catering | 325 | 22.3 | 537 | 7.8 | 420 | 29.3 | 533 | 10.7 |
| Transport & telecommunications | 1,024 | 7.4 | 313 | 8.6 | 1,237 | 10.9 | 388 | 10.6 |
| Banking & insurance | 472 | 6.8 | 510 | 5.0 | 483 | 14.1 | 500 | 9.6 |
| Other business services | 1,118 | 7.8 | 890 | 7.2 | 1,601 | 12.6 | 1,124 | 12.0 |
| Public admin and defence | 673 | 4.9 | 554 | 5.8 | 789 | 7.4 | 756 | 7.8 |
| Education | 455 | 7.3 | 1,065 | 6.6 | 583 | 9.9 | 1,534 | 8.4 |
| Health and social work | 406 | 14.5 | 1,749 | 7.6 | 561 | 17.9 | 2,154 | 10.5 |
| Miscellaneous services | 539 | 8.3 | 668 | 8.2 | 661 | 9.2 | 751 | 10.0 |
| Total | 11,292 | 6.8 | 9,351 | 6.8 | 12,460 | 10.1 | 10,614 | 9.3 |

Source: IER estimates based on the LFS.
Note : Following ONS guidelines, percentages based on numbers below 6,000 individuals have been suppressed and replaced by the symbol “-“.

## Table 2.11: Percentage of Migrants in the Employed Workforce by Industry, 1994

| | Males in work (000s) | Country of birth: UK | Other EU 15 | Accession 10 | Rest of world | Females in work (000s) | Country of birth: UK | Other EU 15 | Accession 10 | Rest of world |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Agriculture etc | 265 | 98.4 | - | | - | 88 | 95.5 | - | - | - |
| Mining & quarrying | 59 | 96.2 | - | | - | 7 | 87.4 | - | | - |
| Food, drink & tobacco | 258 | 93.6 | - | - | 4.8 | 139 | 94.6 | - | - | - |
| Engineering | 694 | 95.2 | 0.9 | - | 3.6 | 234 | 91.6 | - | - | 6.1 |
| Rest of manufacturing | 1,897 | 93.9 | 0.8 | 0.4 | 4.9 | 771 | 92.0 | 1.5 | 0.8 | 5.7 |
| Electricity, gas & water | 140 | 97.7 | - | - | - | 45 | 96.5 | | | - |
| Construction | 1,295 | 97.1 | 0.6 | - | 2.2 | 141 | 96.2 | - | | - |
| Distribution | 1,670 | 93.0 | 0.9 | 0.4 | 5.7 | 1,637 | 94.8 | 0.9 | - | 3.9 |
| Hotels and catering | 325 | 77.7 | 5.5 | - | 15.2 | 537 | 92.2 | 2.1 | - | 5.0 |
| Transport & telecommunications | 1,024 | 92.6 | 0.9 | - | 6.3 | 313 | 91.4 | - | - | 6.6 |
| Banking & insurance | 472 | 93.2 | 1.4 | - | 5.1 | 510 | 95.0 | 1.4 | - | 3.5 |
| Other business services | 1,118 | 92.2 | 1.5 | - | 5.9 | 890 | 92.8 | 1.5 | - | 5.5 |
| Public admin and defence | 673 | 95.1 | - | - | 3.7 | 554 | 94.2 | - | - | 4.8 |
| Education | 455 | 92.7 | - | - | 5.8 | 1,065 | 93.4 | 2.3 | - | 3.9 |
| Health and social work | 406 | 85.5 | 1.6 | - | 12.6 | 1,749 | 92.4 | 1.2 | - | 6.1 |
| Miscellaneous services | 539 | 91.7 | 1.6 | - | 6.3 | 668 | 91.8 | 2.2 | - | 5.4 |
| Total | 11,292 | 93.2 | 1.1 | 0.4 | 5.3 | 9,351 | 93.2 | 1.5 | 0.4 | 4.9 |

Source: IER estimates based on the LFS.
Note : Following ONS guidelines, percentages based on numbers below 6,000 individuals have been suppressed and replaced by the symbol “-“.

## Table 2.12: Percentage of Migrants in the Employed Workforce by Industry, 2004

| | Males in work (000s) | Country of birth: UK | Other EU 15 | Accession 10 | Rest of world | Females in work (000s) | Country of birth: UK | Other EU 15 | Accession 10 | Rest of world |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Agriculture etc | 199 | 97.0 | - | - | - | 62 | 97.8 | - | - | - |
| Mining & quarrying | 39 | 93.6 | - | - | - | 5 | - | | | |
| Food, drink & tobacco | 217 | 87.5 | - | - | 9.6 | 103 | 87.9 | - | - | 8.6 |
| Engineering | 534 | 92.4 | 1.4 | - | 6.0 | 162 | 91.6 | - | - | 6.2 |
| Rest of manufacturing | 1,642 | 93.4 | 1.0 | - | 5.3 | 541 | 91.4 | 2.0 | - | 6.2 |
| Electricity, gas & water | 98 | 95.3 | | - | - | 39 | 94.8 | - | - | - |
| Construction | 1,586 | 94.5 | 0.7 | 1.3 | 3.5 | 181 | 93.2 | - | - | 4.9 |
| Distribution | 1,810 | 90.0 | 1.3 | 0.6 | 8.2 | 1,781 | 92.5 | 1.4 | 0.5 | 5.7 |
| Hotels and catering | 420 | 70.7 | 4.6 | 2.0 | 22.7 | 533 | 89.3 | 2.6 | 1.6 | 6.5 |
| Transport & telecommunications | 1,237 | 89.1 | 1.3 | 0.6 | 9.0 | 388 | 89.4 | 1.9 | - | 7.9 |
| Banking & insurance | 483 | 85.9 | 3.5 | - | 10.3 | 500 | 90.4 | 2.1 | - | 7.1 |
| Other business services | 1,601 | 87.4 | 2.1 | 0.5 | 10.0 | 1,124 | 88.0 | 2.6 | 0.9 | 8.4 |
| Public admin and defence | 789 | 92.6 | 1.1 | - | 5.8 | 756 | 92.2 | 0.9 | - | 6.6 |
| Education | 583 | 90.1 | 2.2 | - | 7.3 | 1,534 | 91.6 | 1.8 | 0.4 | 6.2 |
| Health and social work | 561 | 82.1 | 1.9 | - | 15.6 | 2,154 | 89.5 | 1.2 | 0.5 | 8.8 |
| Miscellaneous services | 661 | 90.8 | 1.5 | - | 7.2 | 751 | 90.0 | 1.8 | 1.4 | 6.7 |
| Total | 12,460 | 89.9 | 1.5 | 0.6 | 8.0 | 10,614 | 90.7 | 1.7 | 0.6 | 7.0 |

Source: IER estimates based on the LFS.
Note : Following ONS guidelines, percentages based on numbers below 6,000 individuals have been suppressed and replaced by the symbol "-".

## Table 2.13: Percentage of Migrants by Occupation, 2004

| | All in work (000s) | Born in UK | Born in EU 15 | Born in Accession 10 | Born in rest of world |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Managers and Senior Officials | 3,506 | 90.2 | 2.0 | 0.5 | 7.3 |
| Professional occupations | 2,897 | 86.9 | 2.3 | 0.4 | 10.5 |
| Associate Professional and Technical | 3,227 | 89.4 | 1.9 | 0.4 | 8.3 |
| Administrative and Secretarial | 2,911 | 91.9 | 1.3 | 0.5 | 6.3 |
| Skilled Trades Occupations | 2,607 | 93.0 | 1.0 | 1.1 | 4.9 |
| Personal Service Occupations | 1,776 | 90.4 | 1.5 | 0.8 | 7.3 |
| Sales and Customer Service Occupations | 1,788 | 91.9 | 1.3 | 0.3 | 6.4 |
| Machine and Transport Operatives | 1,728 | 91.0 | 0.9 | 0.5 | 7.6 |
| Elementary Occupations | 2,641 | 88.7 | 1.5 | 1.2 | 8.5 |
| All occupations | 23,081 | 90.2 | 1.6 | 0.6 | 7.5 |

Source: IER estimates based on the LFS.
Note : Following ONS guidelines, percentages based on numbers below 6,000 individuals have been suppressed and replaced by the symbol “-“.

## Table 2.14: Percentage of Migrants by Ethnic Group, 2004

| | All in work (000 | Born in UK | Born in EU 15 | Born in Accession 10 | Born in rest of world |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| White | 21,257 | 95.0 | 1.7 | 0.6 | 2.7 |
| Mixed | 154 | 71.0 | 2.4 | - | 25.7 |
| Indian | 480 | 33.8 | | | 66.2 |
| Pakistani | 210 | 39.7 | - | | 59.9 |
| Bangladeshi | 70 | 22.3 | | | 77.7 |
| Other Asian | 146 | 12.2 | | | 87.8 |
| Black-Caribbean | 245 | 59.5 | - | | 40.2 |
| Black-African | 217 | 14.7 | - | | 84.6 |
| Black-Other | 20 | 63.9 | - | | 32.9 |
| Chinese | 50 | 38.3 | - | | 60.3 |
| Other | 229 | 16.9 | 3.7 | 3.3 | 76.2 |
| All Ethnic groups | 23,080 | 90.2 | 1.6 | 0.6 | 7.5 |

Source: IER estimates based on the LFS.
Note : Following ONS guidelines, percentages based on numbers below 6,000 individuals have been suppressed and replaced by the symbol “-“.

### *2.4 Key Structural Features of the Labour Market*

This section presents some more general information on labour market trends and prospects, across **all** ethic groups. This is based on data from *Working Futures* and is consistent with the material presented above. It is intended to provide a context for the developments in employment patterns by ethnic group and, etc discussed above.

Figures 2.4 and 2.5 provide a brief summary of the key features of general employment patterns in the geographical area concerned, focussing upon patterns and projected future changes by:

- gender & status;
- sector; and
- occupation.

Figure 2.4 presents an overview of the current position. Figure 2.5 shows the projected position in 2014, based on *Working Futures*.

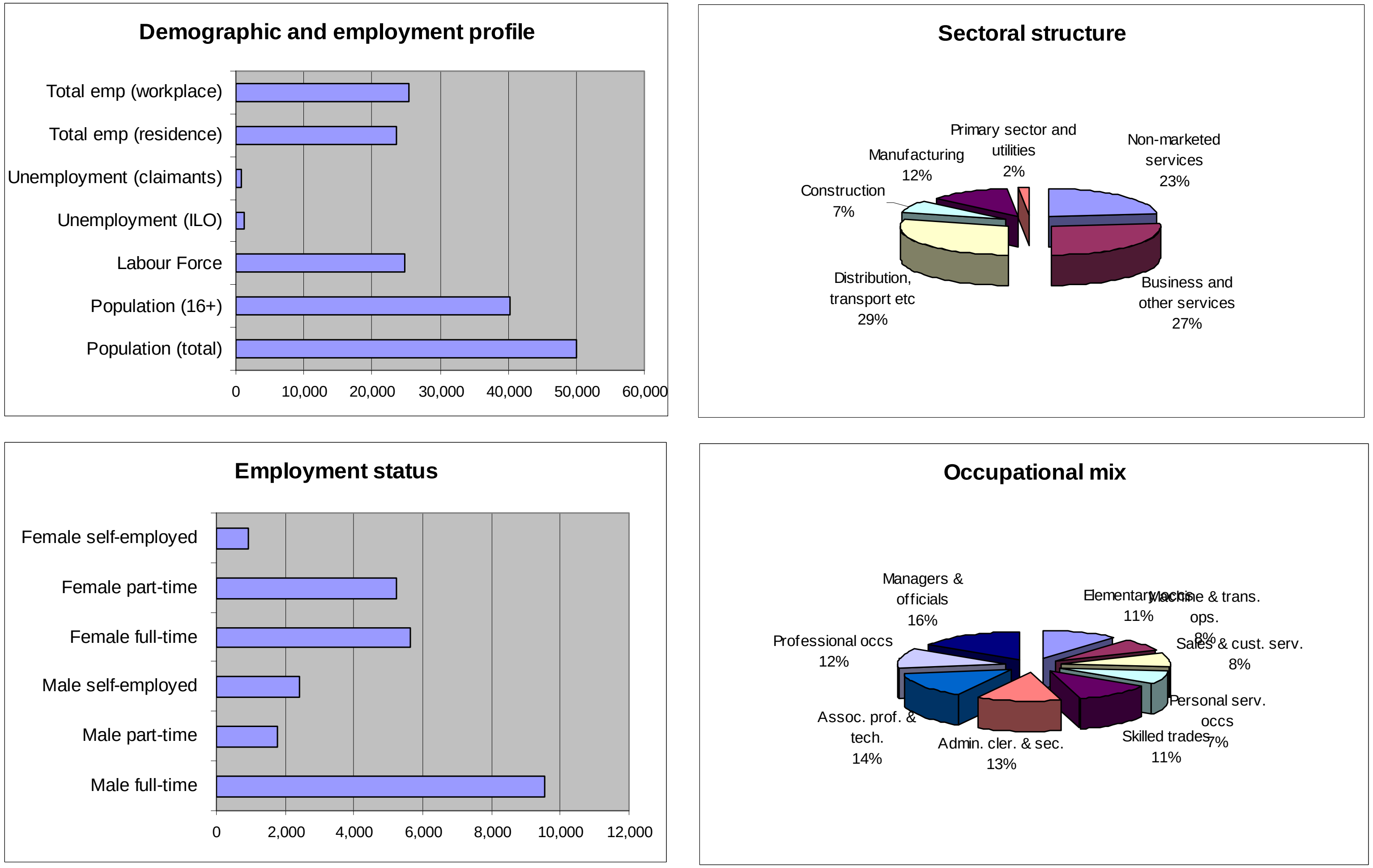
The first panel of each figure shows the size of the population in the region, the population aged 16+ and the labour force. Further details of demographic and labour force trends by age and gender are provided in Section 2.5. This first panel also shows the two main measures of employment used in this study. Total workplace employment is a measure of the number of jobs in the region. The second measure is the number of employed residents (heads). The former is the main measure of employment used in *Working Futures*. The second measure is more directly comparable with the labour supply indicators such as population and the labour force which also focus on 'heads' and are residence based. Finally the first panel shows two measures of unemployment. The first is the claimant count. The second is the more comprehensive ILO measures which cover all those actively searching for work. Further details of the various definitions used are given in Box 2.1.

Figures 2.6 and 2.7 show how these patterns of change vary. Figure 2.6 illustrates the absolute changes. Figure 2.7 presents percentage increases, including the corresponding rate of change in Great Britain as a whole, so that the region's experience can be compared to the general position.

The three other panels of Figures 2.6 and 2.7 illustrate the structure of employment by:

- sector;
- employment status and gender; and by
- occupation.

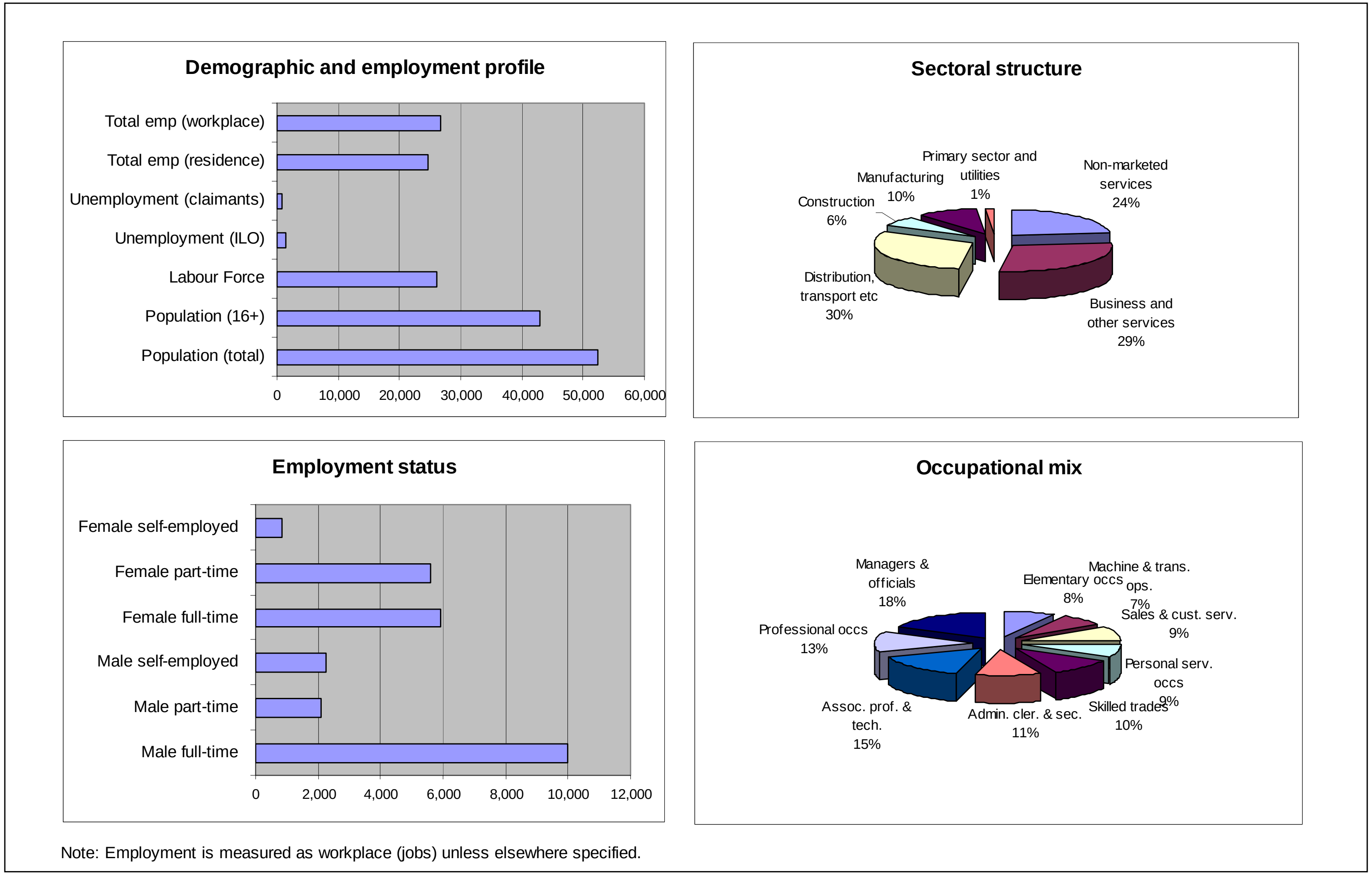
## Figure 2.4: General Labour Market Profile, 2004, England




Note: Employment is measured as workplace (jobs) unless elsewhere specified.

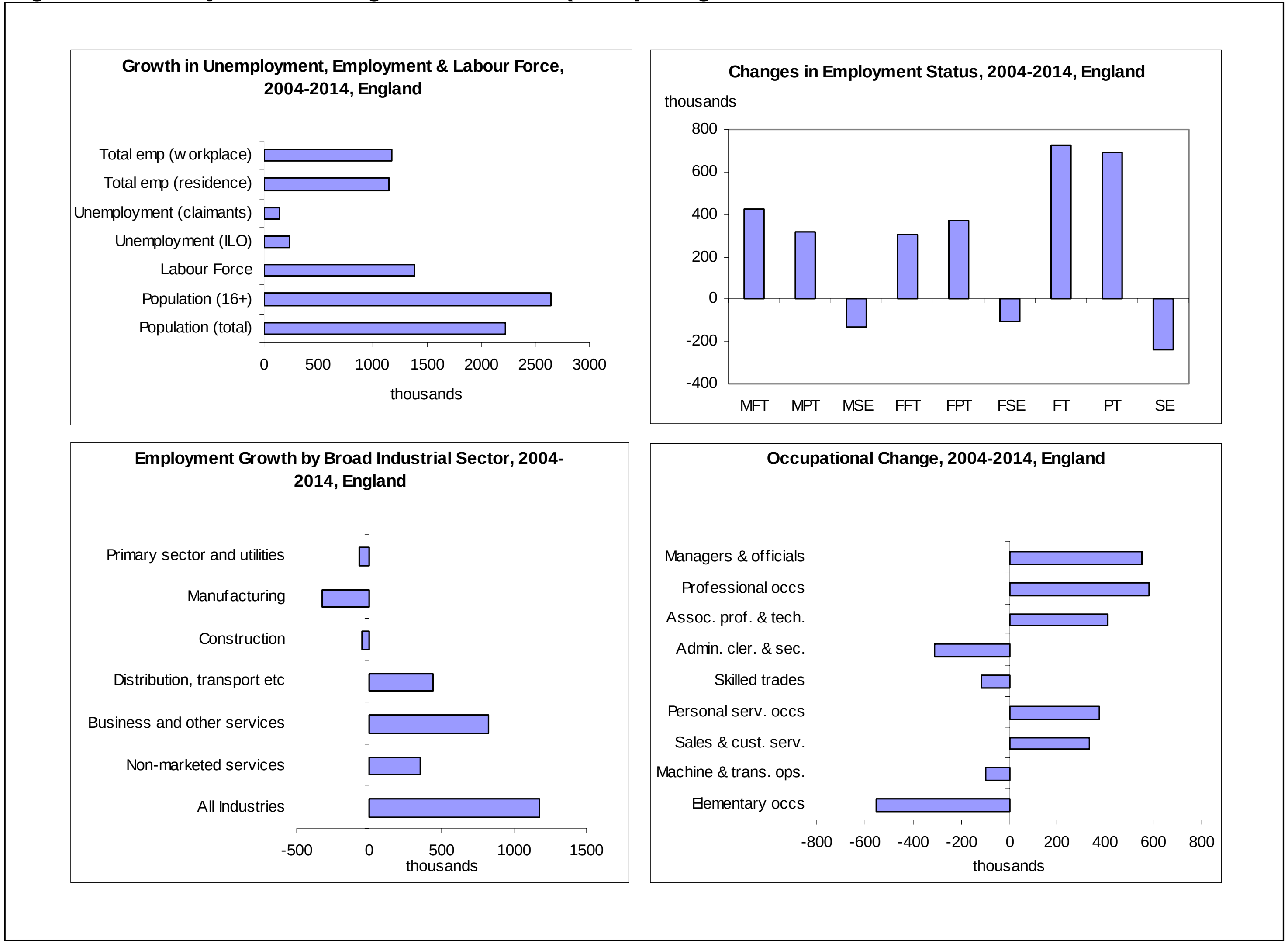
Source: IER estimates based on *Working Futures 2004-2014.*
Notes: Employment estimates are workplace (jobs) unless elsewhere specified.

**Figure 2.5: General Labour Market Profile, 2014, England**




Source: IER estimates based on *Working Futures 2004-2014.*
Notes: Employment estimates are workplace (jobs) unless elsewhere specified.

**Figure 2.6: Projected Changes 2004-2014 (000s), England**




Source: IER estimates based on *Working Futures 2004-2014.*
Notes: Employment estimates are workplace (jobs) unless elsewhere specified.

## Figure 2.7: Projected Changes 2004-14 (%p.a.), England


Source: IER estimates based on *Working Futures 2004-2014.*
Notes: Employment estimates are workplace (jobs) unless elsewhere specified.

## 2.5 Demographic Structure

*Profiles of population and the Labour Force by age and gender*

Table 2.15 presents estimates and projections of population by gender and broad age group for the region. These are based on official ONS/GAD estimates although the projections have been modified to reflect migration patterns between regions as developed in the CE multisectoral regional model (MRM). They do not include a breakdown by ethnic group. At present there are no official projections of labour supply by ethnic group. ONS do plan to produce such projections in the near future. Once available this will enable projections of labour supply by ethnic group to be produced.

The results suggest that patterns of change for England are similar to those for UK a whole. Declines are projected the 0-15 age categories and for prime age persons (35-44). The fastest increases are for those aged 45+.

*The Labour Force*

The projections of the labour force are based on estimates developed by Cambridge Econometrics which extend those developed for *Working Futures* by adding an age dimension. They are based upon a disaggregated model which relates the proportion of the population that is economically active to unemployment rate. Details of the various indicators used are given in Box 2.1. The results in Table 2.16 presents historical estimates and projections of the total numbers economically active (the labour force).

The labour force as a whole is projected to grow by about 5½ % but the numbers of persons of prime age (35-44) is expected to fall quite sharply. This reflects the demographic changes already discussed.

*Activity Rates*

Table 2.17 illustrates patterns of economic activity rates (labour force as a percentage of the population). Activity rates are generally expected to rise for most gender/age categories. Especially large increases are projected for females aged 25-34 (just over 6 percentage points). This reflects growing concerns about the pension crisis and the need for people to work longer.

### Box 2.1: Definitions of Employment and Related Labour Market Indicators

**Alternative Definitions**
There are various ways of looking at employment. For example, a distinction can be made between the number of people in employment (head count) and the number of jobs. These two concepts represent different things, as one person may hold more than one job. In addition, a further distinction can be made between area of residence and area of workplace.
Similarly there are various different definitions of unemployment, the labour force, workforce and population. In *Working Futures 2004-2014* the following definitions are used:

**Residence basis:** measured at place of residence (as in the Labour Force Survey (LFS)).
**Workplace basis:** measured at place of work (as in the Annual Business Inquiry (ABI)).

**Workplace employment** (number of jobs): these are typically estimated using surveys of employers, such as the ABI, focussing upon the numbers of jobs in their establishments. In this report references to employment relate to the number of jobs unless otherwise stated.
**Employed residents (head count)**: the number of people in employment. These estimates are based primarily on data collected in household surveys, e.g. the LFS. People are classified according to their main job. Some have more than one job.

**ILO unemployment**: covers people who are out of work, want a job, have actively sought work in the previous four weeks and are available to start work within the next fortnight (or out of work and have accepted a job that they are waiting to start in the next fortnight).
**Claimant Unemployed:** measures people claiming Job Seeker's Allowance benefits.

**Workforce**: the total number of workforce jobs, and is obtained by summing workplace employment (employee jobs and self-employment jobs), HM Forces, government-supported trainees and claimant unemployment.
**Labour Force:** employed residents plus ILO unemployment.
**Labour market participation** or **Economic activity rate**: the number of people who are in employment or (ILO) unemployed as a percentage of the total population aged 16 and over.

**Labour Market Accounts Residual:** workplace employment minus Residence employment. The main cause of the residual at national level is "double jobbing". At a more disaggregated spatial level, net commuting across geographical boundaries is also very significant. The difference will also reflect data errors and other minor differences in data collection methods in the various sources.

**Total Population:** the total number of people resident in an area (residence basis).
**Population 16+:** the total number of people aged 16 and above (residence basis).
**Working-age population:** the total number of people aged, (residence basis).

## Table 2.15: Population, England

| Total | | | | (000s) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 2004 | 2014 | 2004-2014 | % increase |
| 1 | 0-15 | 9,755 | 9,333 | -422 | -4.3 |
| 2 | 16-24 | 5,739 | 5,942 | 203 | 3.5 |
| 3 | 25-34 | 6,727 | 7,011 | 284 | 4.2 |
| 4 | 35-44 | 7,725 | 6,862 | -863 | -11.2 |
| 5 | 45-59 | 9,622 | 10,755 | 1,133 | 11.8 |
| 6 | 60-64 | 2,510 | 2,899 | 389 | 15.5 |
| 7 | 65+ | 8,014 | 9,514 | 1,500 | 18.7 |
| | All ages | 50,092 | 52,316 | 2,224 | 4.4 |

| Males | | | | (000s) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 2004 | 2014 | 2004-2014 | % increase |
| 1 | 0-15 | 4,996 | 4,769 | -227 | -4.5 |
| 2 | 16-24 | 2,919 | 3,023 | 104 | 3.6 |
| 3 | 25-34 | 3,362 | 3,541 | 179 | 5.3 |
| 4 | 35-44 | 3,841 | 3,430 | -411 | -10.7 |
| 5 | 45-59 | 4,765 | 5,329 | 564 | 11.8 |
| 6 | 60-64 | 1,231 | 1,414 | 183 | 14.9 |
| 7 | 65+ | 3,439 | 4,290 | 851 | 24.7 |
| | All ages | 24,553 | 25,796 | 1,243 | 5.1 |

| Females | | | | (000s) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 2004 | 2014 | 2004-2014 | % increase |
| 1 | 0-15 | 4,759 | 4,564 | -195 | -4.1 |
| 2 | 16-24 | 2,820 | 2,919 | 99 | 3.5 |
| 3 | 25-34 | 3,365 | 3,470 | 105 | 3.1 |
| 4 | 35-44 | 3,884 | 3,432 | -452 | -11.6 |
| 5 | 45-59 | 4,857 | 5,426 | 569 | 11.7 |
| 6 | 60-64 | 1,279 | 1,485 | 206 | 16.1 |
| 7 | 65+ | 4,575 | 5,224 | 649 | 14.2 |
| | All ages | 25,539 | 26,520 | 981 | 3.8 |

Source: *Working Futures 2004-2014*, extended (CE MRM).

## Table 2.16: Labour Force, England

| Total | | (000s) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 2004 | 2014 | 2004-2014 | % increase |
| 1 | 0-15 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| 2 | 16-24 | 3,769 | 4,004 | 235 | 6.2 |
| 3 | 25-34 | 5,513 | 6,040 | 527 | 9.6 |
| 4 | 35-44 | 6,398 | 5,726 | -672 | -10.5 |
| 5 | 45-59 | 7,548 | 8,544 | 996 | 13.2 |
| 6 | 60-64 | 1,042 | 1,235 | 193 | 18.5 |
| 7 | 65+ | 479 | 590 | 111 | 23.2 |
| | All ages | 24,749 | 26,139 | 1,390 | 5.6 |

| Males | | (000s) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 2004 | 2014 | 2004-2014 | % increase |
| 1 | 0-15 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| 2 | 16-24 | 1,966 | 2,092 | 126 | 6.4 |
| 3 | 25-34 | 2,974 | 3,205 | 231 | 7.8 |
| 4 | 35-44 | 3,450 | 3,084 | -366 | -10.6 |
| 5 | 45-59 | 4,035 | 4,542 | 507 | 12.6 |
| 6 | 60-64 | 651 | 763 | 112 | 17.2 |
| 7 | 65+ | 308 | 385 | 77 | 25.0 |
| | All ages | 13,384 | 14,071 | 687 | 5.1 |

| Females | | (000s) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 2004 | 2014 | 2004-2014 | % increase |
| 1 | 0-15 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| 2 | 16-24 | 1,803 | 1,912 | 109 | 6.0 |
| 3 | 25-34 | 2,539 | 2,835 | 296 | 11.7 |
| 4 | 35-44 | 2,948 | 2,642 | -306 | -10.4 |
| 5 | 45-59 | 3,513 | 4,002 | 489 | 13.9 |
| 6 | 60-64 | 391 | 472 | 81 | 20.7 |
| 7 | 65+ | 171 | 205 | 34 | 19.9 |
| | All ages | 11,365 | 12,068 | 703 | 6.2 |

Source: *Working Futures 2004-2014*, extended (CE MRM).
Note: Numbers of people (residents/heads).

## Table 2.17: Activity rates, England

| Total | | 2004 | 2014 | 2004-2014 % |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 0-15 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 2 | 16-24 | 65.7 | 67.4 | 1.7 |
| 3 | 25-34 | 82.0 | 86.2 | 4.2 |
| 4 | 35-44 | 82.8 | 83.4 | 0.6 |
| 5 | 45-59 | 78.4 | 79.4 | 1.0 |
| 6 | 60-64 | 41.5 | 42.6 | 1.1 |
| 7 | 65+ | 6.0 | 6.2 | 0.2 |
| | All ages | 49.4 | 50.0 | 0.6 |

| Males | | 2004 | 2014 | 2004-2014 % |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 0-15 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 2 | 16-24 | 67.4 | 69.2 | 1.9 |
| 3 | 25-34 | 88.5 | 90.5 | 2.1 |
| 4 | 35-44 | 89.8 | 89.9 | 0.1 |
| 5 | 45-59 | 84.7 | 85.2 | 0.6 |
| 6 | 60-64 | 52.9 | 54.0 | 1.1 |
| 7 | 65+ | 9.0 | 9.0 | 0.0 |
| | All ages | 54.5 | 54.5 | 0.0 |

| Females | | 2004 | 2014 | 2004-2014 % |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 0-15 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| 2 | 16-24 | 63.9 | 65.5 | 1.6 |
| 3 | 25-34 | 75.5 | 81.7 | 6.2 |
| 4 | 35-44 | 75.9 | 77.0 | 1.1 |
| 5 | 45-59 | 72.3 | 73.8 | 1.4 |
| 6 | 60-64 | 30.6 | 31.8 | 1.2 |
| 7 | 65+ | 3.7 | 3.9 | 0.2 |
| | All ages | 44.5 | 45.5 | 1.0 |

Source: *Working Futures 2004-2014*, extended (CE MRM).

# 3. MIGRANT CASE STUDIES

This section presents some *key findings* for two *case studies* intended to provide an insight into some of the issues pertaining to migrants/migration in two contrasting areas: *Norfolk* and the *Thames Gateway*.

In the context of an increasing demand for labour and changes in labour supply migration is a topic of concern for the LSC and its partners and for ongoing policy development more generally. Recent years have witnessed a growth in migration to the UK and increased recognition of the impacts of migrants on the labour market and skills. The discussion in this Section provides:

- an introduction to the two case studies – including selection of case study areas, methodology and summary of key issues in each area (3.1),
- the local economic context, nature of migration and profile of migrants in the two case study areas (3.2),
- the learning, training and labour market needs of migrants (3.3) -encompassing English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL), basic skills needs, learner support and customised training,
- planning learning provision – covering issues of lack of information on numbers and needs of learners, the volatility of migrant flows and the transience of migrants, and issues of funding and accommodation / staffing constraints (3.4),
- delivery of services – emphasising the diversity of learner abilities and needs, and issues relating to flexibility required to meet learner needs and employer requirements (3.5),
- the role of inter-agency working (3.6).

## 3.1 *Migrant Case Studies of Norfolk and the Thames Gateway*

Two small scale case studies were undertaken to provide an insight into some of the key issues pertaining to migrants/migration in specific sub-regions and local areas. As such, they might provide a basis for more detailed/focused research in the future, involving data collection; (such primary data collection and quantitative analysis is outwith the scope of the current case studies).

*Selection of areas:* The two case study areas selected were:

1. *Norfolk* – a predominantly rural area in the East of England, selected to concentrate on the impact on the local LSC, its providers and the economy of an influx of migrant workers from outside the UK, with a focus on what planning and changes to provision need to occur to accommodate demographic changes.
2. *Thames Gateway* – a sub-region spanning three Government Office Regions (London, the East of England and the South East) selected to provide insights into what needs to be considered when planning for a large scale development bearing in mind demographics, employment patterns, and current skills and training levels of the local population.

*Structure of the case studies*: The two cases provide contrasting contexts. In the following sub-sections, the emphasis is on both *contrasts* and *similarities* and in the experience of, issues raised by and challenges associated with planning and delivery of learning, training and labour market services to migrants and the local population.

Following a brief summary of the characteristics, circumstances and key issues emerging from each of the case studies, a number of key *topics* are addressed in turn (with the two case study areas identified by different style bullet points):

- context – the local economic context and the nature of migration and migrants
- learning / training and labour market needs of migrants
- planning learning provision
- delivery of services
- inter-agency working

Under each topic heading, reference is made to material from both Norfolk and the Thames Gateway, in order to highlight contrasts and similarities in characteristics, experience and challenges faced.

*Methodology*: The methodology adopted for the case studies encompasses literature review and discussion with local contacts.

In *Norfolk* the LSC Strategy Manager identified and sent through relevant background reports on migrants in Norfolk. Key reports included a literature review (McKay and Erel, 2004) and report on migrant workers in the East of England (commissioned by the East of England Development Agency [EEDA]) (McKay and Winkelmann-Gleed, 2005), a report on migrant working in West Norfolk (commissioned by Norfolk County Council) (Rogaly and Taylor, 2003) and a qualitative study on Chinese migrant communit(ies) in West Norfolk (commissioned by the Norfolk Constabulary) (Pemberton and Ling, 2004). Interviews were undertaken with:

- a Further Education (FE) College contact concerned with ESOL provision and with good working links with the local Portuguese community;
- a Jobcentre Plus contact;
- a County Council context responsible for co-ordinating services relating to migrant workers in Norfolk;
- the LSC Strategy Manager; and
- a Refugee Council contact.

Questions used to guide are listed in Appendix 4.

In the *Thames Gateway* the Thames Gateway LSC Skills Director and colleagues assisted in providing literature and contacts for the case study. Amongst the key reports reviewed were the Thames Gateway Skills Audit (report commissioned by the LSC from CESI and DTZ Pieda) (CESI/DTZ Pieda Consulting, 2005), the Thames Gateway Business Plan (LSC, 2004), the Thames Gateway Knowledge Economy Audit (commissioned from Local Futures) (Binks, 2005), reports of the Newham Household Panel Survey (ISER, 2004; Jackle and Taylor, 2004) and associated research North *et al*., 2004), and a report on entry level skills in the City of London (Corporation of London, 2005). Interviews were conducted with:

- a Further Education (FE) College contact;
- a Jobcentre Plus District manager;
- LSC representatives – with responsibility for Skills, and Policy and Planning; and

- a local authority economic development manager.

Discussion focused around the issues identified in the aide memoire in Appendix 4

*Summary of the case study areas*: Box 3.1 provides an overview of issues relating to migrants in Norfolk, while Box 3.2 provides a similar overview for the Thames Gateway.

***Box 3.1: Norfolk – overview and key issues***

- The migrant labour force in Norfolk is becoming more diverse, comprising East European, Portuguese and Chinese labour. Work is being undertaken with the Portuguese community, some of whom are recruited directly from Portugal. It is estimated that there is a population of 6,000 Portuguese temporary workers in the Thetford and Swaffham areas. The Chinese community has seen recent growth – with approximately 1,000-1,500 Chinese migrants estimated to have taken up residence in the Kings Lynn area since 2003. The number of East European migrants is increasing.
- The migrant labour force in Norfolk is concentrated in "3-D jobs" (dirty, dangerous and demanding work) which are shunned by the local population. There is *insufficient local labour* willing to work in agriculture, food processing and packing industries; hence migrants play a vital role in the local economy. Agriculture and food processing are associated with temporary working, and agencies play an important role in these sectors.
- Lack of English is a key issue for experience of working in the UK, and is a key factor in some communities of migrants remaining 'hidden'. Given the ways of working in sectos in which many migrants are employed, it has proved difficult for some individuals to complete English language courses and gain a qualification. There are important interconnections between employment, housing and health – hence the need for multi-agency working. There is a trend towards use of outreach workers in service delivery, reliant on short-term funding – but this may lead to gaps in provision.

***Box 3.2: Thames Gateway – overview and key issues***

- The Thames Gateway is the largest regeneration initiative in Europe, encompassing plans for 120,000 new homes, a new river crossing, new business space giving rise to 194,000 new jobs by 2016 and expected population growth of 300,000. However, the precise nature and phasing of developments is unclear, but has important implications for skill needs – i.e. for what skills are required, when and where. The success of the London 2012 Olympics bid will alter the timing and phasisng of developments. The new developments will generate demand for temporary (e.g. construction-related) and permanent employment. The phasing of construction projects is such that some workers may come from Heathrow Terminal 5 and the Channel Tunnel Rail Link to work on Thames Gateway (and Olympics) developments.
- The Thames Gateway – especially the London part (which is rather different from the Essex and Kent parts) - has a long history of in-migration, as reflected in an ethnically diverse, relatively youthful and transient population, with relatively low employment rates and poor skills. There is volatility in the waves of in-migrants, but there is a trend towards a shortening in the periodicity of these waves – posing challenges for the planning and delivery of services.
- *Currently demand for labour in the Thames Gateway is being met* and there is *difficulty in getting local residents into* some of the *jobs* that are geographically within reach. The LSC and partners are concentrating on raising the skills base and linking current residents of the area to existing and new jobs; which will otherwise be taken by in-commuters and in-migrants (as is currently the case for many of the more skilled jobs.

### 3.2 The Local Economic Context and the Nature of Migration and Migrants

Local economic context: Norfolk and the Thames Gateway offer different local economic contexts, yet both have proved *attractive to migrants*.

- *Norfolk* has *low unemployment generally (although there are intra-county differences and pronounced seasonal variations in some areas), and there are vacancies to be filled.* In Norfolk there is a plentiful supply of seasonal, temporary and unskilled work, characterised by high turnover. The migrant labour force in Norfolk is concentrated in “3-D jobs” (dirty, dangerous and demanding work) which are unattractive to the local population, and which attract only minimum level wages. Since there is insufficient local labour willing to work in horticulture and assciated industries; migrants play a vital role in the local economy – especially in agriculture, horticulture and food processing. Much of the emphasis of recent studies has been on the role of migrants in agriculture, food processing and packing industries, although migrants are not confined to these industries or to unskilled work: hospitals, social work, hospitality and construction also make use of migrant labour. In terms of planning provision and delivery of learning/training it is salient to note that these industries are characterised by temporary working, and that agencies play an important role in managing the workforce to meet employer demands.

- The *Thames Gateway* stretches from East London along the northern and southern sides of the Thames estuary into Essex and Kent. Historically, the Thames Gateway has been the industrial centre of south-eastern England, but as port-related and heavy industry moved away, legacies have remained of manufacturing skills that are often inappropriate for new service sectors, a poor quality environment, contaminated land, coupled with problems of poor quality social housing and inadequate public transport. *Currently demand for labour in the Thames Gateway is being met. No significant skills shortages are reported by employers. Migrants from the rest of the UK and overseas are disproportionately filling higher level skills gaps. Migrants and in-commuters help to create a vibrant labour market.*
    - The City of London / Canary Wharf has over 25,000 jobs in finance and business services. 481 foreign banks are based there. Growth of financial services sector, particularly in Canary Wharf, has brought in-migration from educated white-collar financial skills sectors from rest of UK and from overseas.
    - The growth of the construction industry has attracted a small but significant presence of high skilled workers from the north of England and western Europe. There is also an increasing number of medium- and low-skilled Eastern European workers (especially from the A8 countries) engaged in the construction industry.
    - The NHS and care sector has increasingly brought in overseas workers.
    - The hospitality sector, employing a low skilled service workforce on low wages, is a key employer of migrants.

- The employment rate in the Thames Gateway is (at just under 70%) very low relative to the Great Britain average: if the employment rate in the Thames Gateway matched the UK average there would be 90 thousand more people in employment. Average earnings in the Thames Gateway are significantly lower than in London and the South East. The demand for skills and the supply of skills is more skewed towards lower skill levels than in London as a whole: *a low skills equilibrium persists in the Thames Gateway*.

- o National and regional regeneration policy have earmarked the Thames Gateway as the *largest regeneration initiative in the UK* (and also in Europe), encompassing plans for 120 thousand new homes, a new river crossing, new business space giving rise to 194 thousand new jobs by 2016 (a large majority of which will be at Level 3, with around a third at degree level) and expected population growth of 300 thousand. It is salient to note here that the Thames Gateway Skills Audit relied on a 'top down' approach (involving use of a formula to translate floorspace into jobs) to generate estimates of jobs associated with developments – hence, estimates need to be treated with caution. The success of the London 2012 Olympic bid is set to bring additional development to the area. The Sustainable Communities agenda is about *reducing inward migration and in-commuting, and <u>connecting local people to jobs</u>* (i.e. linking local residents to the dynamic labour market) – (see Box 3.3 for an example of a local initiative in Greenwich). The LSC is concentrating on raising the skills base and linking current residents of the area to existing and new jobs; (otherwise new jobs will be taken by in-commuters and in-migrants).

***Box 3.3: Linking local people to jobs in Greenwich***

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| Greenwich suffered some of the worst manufacturing job losses in London on the 1980s and early 1990s, leading to high levels of unemployment and deprivation. In response, Greenwich Council has been active in trying to link local people to local jobs, so as not to repeat the experience of Docklands where there where local people had not gained from local developments. Greenwich is a *Beacon Council* in terms of 'Removing Barriers to Work'. Greenwich Local Labour and Business (GLLaB) is a *local labour initiative that works in partnership with employers and a range of organisations to maximise job opportunities for local people* and secures business opportunities for local companies. GLLaB was established by the council in 1996 as a key mechanism for linking local people to new employment opportunities – especially in regeneration and renewal projects. The Council makes use of the planning process through section 106 agreements agreements to secure commitment from developers for using GLLaB to source local labour from construction through to end use employers. In return GLLaB offers a job brokerage service and trains local residents to match their specific skill requirements. GLLaB works in partnership with Jobcentre Plus and organisations in the private and voluntary sectors. |

<u>*Nature of migration*</u>: As noted in previous sub-sections, there is no *single accepted definition of a migrant worker*, and in both Norfolk and the Thames Gateway there are *no reliable estimates of numbers of migrant workers*.

- o The very concept of 'migrant' poses difficulties in some parts of the Thames Gateway (especially in the East End). The whole area of the East End is traditionally a 'migrant community', and has been attracting migrants for many years: both past and present, it is a "migrant community".
- In Norfolk difficulties in ascertaining numbers of migrants is illustrated by the fact that an informal survey conducted at Kings Lynn railway station in summer 2003 suggested that the number of Chinese arrivals rose by between 1.5 thousand and 2 thousand. Other claims were of 350-500 Chinese migrants.

Estimating numbers of migrants is made more difficult by the fact that in both Norfolk and the Thames Gateway the picture is described as *"rapidly changing"/"fast moving".*

- In Norfolk, for example, up to a year or so ago the main groups of migrants were Portuguese speaking (albeit some were from Brazil, not Portugal), alongside growing numbers of Chinese, but in recent months an increased influx of Eastern Europeans (from A8 countries – especially Poland, Lithuania and Latvia) was reported.

o Historically, in the Thames Gateway (particularly the London part) there have been successive 'waves' of migrants. Interviewees reported that the 'frequency' of the waves is increasing, with front line workers and community groups often having first contacts with new waves. Insights into 'waves' of migrants may also be gleaned by analysis of 'first language' data collected by Colleges on recruitment to ESOL courses.

The fact that no one really knows the size or profile of migrant labour poses problems for planning and provision of services.

The migrant labour force comprises documented (legal) and undocumented (illegal migrants). Some migrants are working on a *temporary* basis; others are seeking to integrate *permanently*.

- In Norfolk some migrants enter on the Seasonal Agricultural Workers Scheme (SAWS) and intend to stay for a short period only. This contributes to a relatively *high turnover* of migrants (referred to be interviewees as "a lot of coming and going").

Both temporary and permanent migrants contribute to the local economy, but in the context of limited resources, in general, the main emphasis for planning and delivery of learning and training is on those who intend to remain,

<u>*Profile of migrants*</u>: Again, as noted in previous sub-sections, migrant workers are a *heterogeneous group* in both Norfolk and the Thames Gateway, but especially so in the latter. This heterogeneity is manifested in terms of ethnic group, country of origin, skill level, duration of stay, etc.

o Heterogeneity is especially marked in the Thames Gateway, where there are 80-100 different languages spoken. Historic in-migration of Huguenots, East European Jews and Chinese, coupled with in-comers to London from around the world helped set the foundation for a diverse community. Currently, the Thames Gateway has a substantial Bengali community, a growing Somali community and there are increasing numbers of East Europeans working in the construction industry. There are also more asylum seekers and refugees in the Thames Gateway than in Norfolk.

There is a general trend towards *increasing diversity* of migrant labour. However, there are also specific local concentrations. For example:

- In Norfolk there are three main residential concentrations of migrant workers: (1) in Thetford/Dereham/Swaffham; (2) Kings Lynn; (3) Great Yarmouth. Some migrants enter on the Seasonal Agricultural Workers Scheme (SAWS) and intend to stay for a short period only. However, for work purposes there is considerable movement around the county – particularly for those working for agencies.

- Within the Thames Gateway there are some specific concentrations of ethnic groups and migrants – especially the Bengali community in Tower Hamlets. In Newham 61% of the population is from non-White ethnic groups. However, many parts of the Thames Gateway (such as Havering, Essex, Barking & Dagenham have high White populations).

### *3.3 Learning, Training and Labour Market Needs of Migrants*

*English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL)*: In both Norfolk and the Thames Gateway the key learning need is *English*. While there are some jobs requiring little English, the growth of customer service occupations highlights the importance of English. Interviewees also acknowledged a need for sufficient English to 'get by' in everyday life, and this is likely to involve some awareness of popular culture. In the future, interviewees expected an increased demand for English for citizenship purposes also.

The *continuing demand for ESOL provision* is particularly apparent in the London part of the Thames Gateway, reflecting the importance of London as a magnet for migrants.

- In the Thames Gateway the continued flow of in-migrants means that there will be a continued need for ESOL – one interviewee described ESOL as a "bottomless pit".
- In Norfolk some concerns were raised that due to funding constraints on FE Colleges it had been necessary to put up prices for other classes and to make cuts in other language classes (e.g. Spanish) – yet ESOL is provided free.[1]

The nature of in-migration to both Norfolk and the Thames Gateway means that *ESOL needs are diverse* (as highlighted in the discussion of basic skills below). In the Thames Gateway the volume of migrants and of ESOL provision means that there is scope for streaming of individuals in English classes according to ability, but there is somewhat less scope for this in Norfolk.

*Certification* is an issue of increasing policy importance in discussions of ESOL provision. The KPMG review of ESOL highlighted that most ESOL provision has not directly led to approved qualifications and the Skills for Life PSA target.[2] There is increased pressure for certification, but several interviewees indicated that this can be difficult to achieve – for reasons of poor basic skills at the outset (discussed below) and / or of logistics in securing attendance at classes and conducting tests:

- At Great Yarmouth College ESOL students are entered for City & Guilds qualifications. It is estimated that around 250 individuals pass through ESOL classes at the College each year, but of those who start a course in September, only around half may be still around in May (some of these will have moved to another area, others will have experienced a change in shift patterns such that they are no longer able to attend classes, etc), and so 120-130 people may be expected to gain a qualification.

[1] The issue was raised as to whether the fact that participants in ESOL are not paying for their course means that they do not value a course as much as they should; (however, there are also important issues surrounding ability to pay here).

[2] ESOL is one of three main strands – literacy, numeracy and language – of the Skills for Life strategy. ESOL achievements at Entry 3, Level 1 or Level 2 count towards the basic skills target.

*Basic skills needs*: Alongside English, *basic skills* needs were highlighted in Norfolk and (more especially) the Thames Gateway; indeed, in the latter area some interviewees highlighted basic skills provision as more of a problem than ESOL provision. Some migrants have poor language, literacy and writing skills in their mother tongue, such that they are at pre-entry level (in terms of ESOL provision). Other barriers facing migrants with basic skill needs in competition for jobs include a lack of confidence and a lack of knowledge and understanding of the world of work.

o In the Thames Gateway people from BME groups may also face problems of racism, different cultural expectations (especially for women) and 'bounded horizons' – concerning where they might go and what they might achieve.

Some of these barriers are of relevance to more highly qualified migrants and people from BME groups, and may be apparent in difficulties in accessing jobs commensurate with individuals' qualification levels and *over-qualification* for the jobs in which they are engaged:

o In the Thames Gateway graduates from the University of East London (particularly those of Bangladeshi origin) face relatively high levels of unemployment, and transitions to 'graduate jobs' take longer than elsewhere.

For skilled migrants not utilising their qualifications, some see more tailored English lessons and mentoring as being of use in helping to integrate better into the labour market and society.

*Learner support*: Learner support is an important consideration alongside ESOL and basic skills needs. One interviewee claimed that *ESOL is only a "small part of the deal"*: not only is English language important, so is learner support – and a lack of such support can mean that English language training is less effective. Learner support costs (e.g. travel, childcare, etc) may be overlooked, but they are very important for success and retention in ESOL, and for successful integration.

*Customised training*: In both Norfolk and the Thames Gateway there is evidence of attempts to meet needs for more customised training. For example:

- In Norfolk a FE College, with funding from the Primary Care Trust, has put on short courses with an emphasis on 'health related language' for local nurses, doctors and dentists.
- In Norfolk one interviewee suggested that there is scope for more English teaching tied to skill shortage occupations – for example, car maintenance with English.

o In the Thames Gateway in order for local people to be linked to local jobs interviewees placed a good deal of emphasis on building on the economic argument (including workforce diversification, greater efficiency, enhanced retention, etc) for using local workers. This highlights a need for employer-led customised training that is sector-specific and related to local vacancies with opportunities for in work development and advancement. In the Thames Gateway there is an economic tension between investing in local communities to 'bridge skills gaps' an enabling skilled in-migration to fill skills shortages. For example:
  - The NHS has been eager to work with EURES (European Employment Services) who work on pan-European recruitment, when there are local communities on their doorstep needing investment and skills training, including

many refugee nurses unable to access Supervised Practice places, or grade D nurses in need to workforce advancement through the NHS skills escalator.

- In the construction sector, employers are increasingly requesting East European workers through Jobcentre Plus's Docklands Recruitment Centre as a quick solution to labour or skills shortages, with little investment in local communities to develop skills or the supply chain

### *3.4 Planning Learning Provision*

*Lack of information on numbers, needs and requirements*: In both Norfolk and the Thames Gateway one of the foremost challenges facing those concerned with planning learning and skills provision for migrants (and other groups) is a *lack of up-to-date information* – on numbers of migrants, individual skill needs and employer requirements.

- In Norfolk a lack of information on numbers of migrants at a strategic level was identified, leading to provision that is short-term and responsive to immediate needs, rather than a longer-term planned approach. However, given the nature of migration to Norfolk (described above and in the sub-section below in relation to 'transience'), it is questionable to what extent a longer-term view, however desirable, would be feasible.

- In the Thames Gateway, in the face of major development plans, the situation is somewhat more complex:
  - As in Norfolk, there is volatility in the need for ESOL and a more diverse range of migrant origins to cope with, although the nature of the area means that there is a continuing substantial demand for ESOL (as outlined above).
  - Unlike in Norfolk, the plans for major development in a sense add to uncertainty regarding planning of provision. There have been many different plans for development in the Thames Gateway over the years. Even with current plans, a considerable element of 'uncertainty' in matters of considerable significance for the planning of learning and skills provision remains. As outlined in Box 3.2, the phasing of development in the Thames Gateway is important in determining the size and characteristics of the workforce required at different points in time;[3] (and time taken in negotiations with developers and local authorities in the planning process can have implications for phasing too). Phasing of developments within the Thames Gateway will also be influenced, to some extent, by developments elsewhere in London (and the surrounding area) with which Thames Gateway developments are 'in competition' in some sense, and by property values, more generally. Hence, it is appropriate to think in terms of a "continuum of uncertainty" – with some developments being more (un)certain than others.
  - Furthermore, lack of a detailed housing strategy for the Thames Gateway means that relatively little is known about the character of the 'new' population. Yet housing type has implications for the character of the local population (in age, social class, ethnic group and skills terms). In this respect it is salient to note that the Thames Gateway covers a large area, such that learning provision

[3] The approach taken in the Thames Gateway Skills Audit to translate development into jobs, by taking volumes of workplace floorspace available for development at different sites and applying a formula to translate this into jobs, is itself subject to uncertainty.

at one or two Colleges can in no way serve the entire population of the Thames Gateway.

- o Despite the uncertainties outlined above, it is clear that the Thames Gateway will need skills in construction (although here planning for learning and skills needs is not straightforward [as outlined in Box 3.4]), retail and commerce.

***Box 3.4: Construction workforce and skill needs in the Thames Gateway***

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| The workforce in construction has always been relatively mobile – i.e. a 'migrant labour force' (from other parts of the UK and beyond). The phasing of development is such that there may not be a need for large numbers of extra workers, because work on the Channel Tunnel Rail Link and Heathrow Terminal 5 will be finishing. However, there are likely to be skill shortages in specific fields – e.g. technical and related skills for surveyors, traditional 'development' skills in planning, etc. For migrants from outside the UK working in construction there are certain minimum requirements (e.g. health and safety, how construction sites in the UK operate, etc). The changing nature of construction sites and changes in technology of the industry have implications for the types of jobs and of skills required - e.g. more steel fixers are required. Technological changes in the industry (e.g. more steel structures and wood frames) are such that many construction workers from eastern Europe have requisite skills *now* (because of the construction techniques in their 'home' countries). |

However, as noted above, the prevailing tendency is for local employers to recruit skilled labour from elsewhere, rather than to articulate their requirements such that local people can be trained to fill local jobs that are available. Ad hoc evidence from the case study suggests that use of the internet has transformed recruitment for specialist jobs, making it easier to recruit people from abroad. Moreover, there is no single 'business community' in the Thames Gateway, so posing considerable challenges for employer engagement – across multinational and foreign-owned firms in financial services, several large local authorities and health authorities, and smaller firms.

<u>*Volatility, transience and permanence*</u>: Volatility in the size and nature of migrant flows poses problems for planning. Meeting the needs of 'nomadic'/'transient' populations poses particular difficulties, with migrants who move from one area to another within the country likely to face particular difficulties in accessing services – particularly in the face of the limited budgets of providers. Some migrants want to work for a fixed period of time, save up money, and return to their country of origin, whereas others want to settle. Some interviewees considered that some economic migrants were coming to the UK with the intention of learning the language, so raising questions about eligibility for training provision[4] – which in some cases may be difficult to make judgements about. So:

- In Norfolk planning provision for a sizeable, and relatively stable, Portuguese community in Thetford, working in a limited number of sectors, is much easier than for, say, Polish workers in agriculture or construction.

4 To attend a LSC-funded ESOL class a learner should be permanently residing in the UK. For those who do not permanently reside in the UK the relevant provision is EFL (English as a Foreign Language). It is the responsibility of Colleges to check the eligibility of learners for ESOL. In the Norfolk case study a more general issue of the complexity of eligibility criteria and of comparability of qualifications gained abroad was raised. The the new Level 2 Entitlement for adults there has been some confusion about what can count as an existing Level 2 qualification, therefore determining eligibility for free provision. Not all providers have been happy with the response from the LSC that they should use their own discretion on this question.

- The 'nomadic' nature of migrants in sectors such as food processing causes difficulties for FE colleges. It was reported that employers are not always sure in advance where they will sources their labour needs from. In this context of a lack of information and the 'nomadic' nature of migrants, in practice Colleges may have to resort to planning for the next year based on the experience of the previous year and knowledge that there will be some 'late starts' (i.e. people joining courses after the start of the academic year) during the year.
- In the Thames Gateway there are also issues about 'transient' and 'more permanent' populations, but because of the nature of the area as a historic magnet for in-migration and the volume of recent and not so recent migrants, planning for migrant needs is a more central element of total provision. However, the fact that there is considerable ESOL and basic skills capacity in London "does not mean that there is no need for increasing capacity or that the balance of language, literacy and numeracy provision is right to meet the social inclusion and economic needs of London" (CTAD, 2004, p. 3). In the Essex part of the Thames Gateway it is felt that demand for ESOL and basic skills provision for migrant workers is currently being met.

*Funding, accommodation and staffing constraints*: Colleges faced internal and external constraints on their flexibility in meeting ESOL, basic skills and other learning needs.

- In Norfolk an interviewee from a FE college reported that establishment of a fixed intake of students on a College-wide basis meant that there was difficulty in setting up extra classes, despite a waiting list. Furthermore, there were accommodation constraints in expanding provision. Moreover, taking English language training to work sites is not necessarily straightforward, because many migrants are controlled by agencies, and are moved from one work site/employer to another.

In both Norfolk and the Thames Gateway the issue of staffing constraints was raised also.

- In Norfolk difficulties in meeting demand because of a *lack of qualified ESOL lecturers* was reported. Targets have been set and funding provided for increasing the number of trained ESOL practitioners.
- In London concerns have been raised about the *age profile of staff* engaged in Skills for Life (SfL) delivery. In every CTAD Capacity audit to date, 66% or more of teachers are aged 40 or over, with at least 25% of staff being aged over 50: "there is an urgent need for a strategic and joined up approach to building the capacity and capability of the SfL workforce in London" (CTAD, 2004, p.4).
- In London a need to improve the skills of teachers to engage, retain and help learners achieve recognised qualifications has also been identified.

### *3.5 Delivery of Services*

*Diversity of learner abilities and needs*: The diversity of learner abilities and needs poses challenges for the delivery of learning and training. Delivery of ESOL and other training at a range of different levels is helpful. Team teaching, involving language teachers to deal with language skills and other teachers to deal with vocational/non-language skills, was also reported to worker well when sufficient staff and resources are available.

Interviewees stressed that for those *learners in greatest need* (i.e. for those with basic skills and ESOL needs) it is necessary to have *small classes* and *specifically tailored materials*, in order to get best results. However, this is *expensive*.

In terms of learner abilities and needs, some concern was expressed about the greater emphasis in Jobcentre Plus on provision of services by phone, which is difficult for people with poor English, and over the internet, rather than in face-to-face interviews. In the Thames Gateway this is especially problematic in the context of the vast range of languages spoken. In Norfolk, attempts are being made to inform partner organisations and RCOs about this trend through provision of briefing packs so that they can advise migrants / other clients accordingly.

*Striving for flexibility – meeting learner needs and employer requirements*: One of the major challenges for providers of learning/training is to be flexible to meet the needs of employers. Most LSC-funded provision in both Norfolk and the Thames Gateway is provided through Colleges and delivered on a term-time basis. Arguably, to meet their immediate skills requirements, employers require the flexibility of 'roll on, roll off' provision with delivery customised to their own requirements – in terms of timing and content of delivery. However, funding pressures impact on the scope for providing more flexible, non qualification bearing courses.

Some interviewees argued that delivery of training can be more closely tailored to employer requirements the more 'customised' and more 'specific' such training is.

- In the area covered by Thames Gateway, Greenwich Local Labour and Business (GLLaB) (see Box 3.3) does not place as much emphasis on certification as LSC-funded provision. Rather, GLLaB attempts to minimise "prescription" (of training content) and "bureaucracy" by aiming for "shorter, sharper training" designed specifically to meet employer requirements.[5] GLLaB places great emphasis on a high quality customer focused service, trusted by both local residents and employers. The approach is predicated on the belief that good relationships with employers are crucial in relation to vacancies, training, post employment support and potential to influence employment practices.

In terms of *logistics of delivery*, there were examples from both Norfolk and the Thames Gateway of attempts by LSC-funded providers to exercise flexibility to meet learner availability. For example:

- In Norfolk an attempt is made to organise delivery to suit shift patterns (e.g. by holding classes in the morning). However, sometimes individuals' shift patterns change at short notice and consequent irregular attendance at classes has implications for attainment. Moreover, shifts, long working hours and travel time to the workplace mean that those attending classes are often tired, making learning English more difficult.
- Most courses run for the duration of the academic year, and there is some 'roll on, roll off' of students throughout the year. However, ESOL tests were reported to be "unwieldy" logistically in terms of time taken in administering the tests (since they involve speaking, listening, reading and writing) and in marking, such that

[5] One interviewee described such an emphasis in training delivery as "employer-focused" rather than "povider-focused".

Colleges do not necessarily have resources to conduct tests more than once per year.

- At Tower Hamlets College (a major ESOL provider in the Thames Gateway) there is ‘real time’ updating of ESOL course and vacancies in order that learners can be matched to available learning opportunities.

However, some interviewees reported that the LSC and providers were insufficiently flexible in their provision, in terms of delivery at certain times of day and recruitment and testing at particular times in the academic year. There was general acknowledgement that in order to be more responsive, providers require extra funding, and that there was *insufficient money for a fully responsive learning infrastructure*. The point was also raised that inconsistent funding from the LSC means that it is not always possible for Colleges to secure continuous employment for tutors – leading to use of agency staff.

Other than funding issue, other external constraints may compromise the ability of those planning and delivering learning and training to balance what may, in practice, be conflicting requirements - for example, for vocational training and ESOL: Colleges delivering courses involving a lot of benefit claimants have to comply with the ’16 hours rule’.[6] Most vocational courses involve 15-16 hours of vocational training. A loss of 5-6 hours from such a course for ESOL means that vocational training time is lost, such that it is necessary to extend training over a longer period. In turn this has implications for attendance and progression.

- In the Thames Gateway area, Tower Hamlets College has been involved in the East London Pathfinder on Embedded ESOL, which is concerned with ways of embedding ESOL in other curriculum areas.

It was reported that currently little resource is put into *tracking* of individuals and of measuring the effectiveness of participation in different types of learning and training in helping individuals into sustainable employment. The provision of Unique Learner Numbers should help this process.

### *3.6 Inter-agency Working*

In both Norfolk and the Thames Gateway the need for inter-agency working to address the skills and learning needs of migrants, and employers’ skills requirements, is recognised and is evident in practice. A range of different agencies (including the LSC, Connexions, IAG providers, Jobcentre Plus, other labour market intermediaries, local authorities, training providers, trade unions, Primary Care Trusts (PCT), Regional Development Agencies (RDAs), RCOs and the voluntary, sector, etc) is involved in provision of learning, training and labour market related services. Some of these agencies have strict eligibility criteria in terms of who can access their services. In order to tackle barriers to employment and ease integration into the labour market a broad strategic approach is required that is capable of integrating all relevant actors in economic and social policy to achieve long-term, sustainable solutions, targeted to sub-regional and local circumstances.

[6] A concession in the benefit regulations allows the unemployed to study part-time for up to 16 hours a week, providing they are still seeking, and are still available for, full-time work. Any study above 16 hours renders one ineligible for benefit.

In the Thames Gateway the local governance context[7] and the operation of the regional, sub-regional and local labour markets is more complex than in Norfolk.

- In Norfolk there is a multi-agency migrant support group, co-ordinated from Norfolk County Council. Following a conference on migrant workers in June 2004 a strategy and action plan for work with migrant workers (see Box 3.5 for learning, training and labour market-related actions[8]) was drawn up; (a follow-up event is scheduled in October 2005 – to review progress and assess future activity).

7 The Thames Gateway straddles three different regions: London, the East of England and the South East.

8 Other objectives include promoting health and social care for migrant workers, promoting access to adequate and safe housing, and improving community cohesion.

***Box 3.5: Strategy and action plan for migrant workers in Norfolk***

| Objectives | Actions (selected only) |
|---|---|
| Develop and implement a communications strategy. | Research factual information on migration to Norfolk, and economy of Norfolk<br>Review media coverage of migrant working in Norfolk.. |
| Mainstream the principles of community cohesion into work with migrant workers. | Produce database of ongoing projects with brief description. |
| Work effectively in partnerships | Facilitate the sharing of good practice through the county migrant worker support group. Discuss potential funding, regularly review action plan. |
| Provide support for front-line staff | Facilitate the development of shared training for frontline staff through the county migrant worker support group, using a professional trainer. Ensure this links to all other training being implemented by agencies. |
| Engage local host and migrant communities in initiative planning, and identify needs through research and consultation. | Identify needs through research and consultation, building on existing research.<br>EEDA research is mapping the scale, geography and characteristics of the current migrant workers in the East of England, describing recent trends and highlighting any likely future scenarios.<br>Facilitate active involvement of migrant communities in all initiatives and their planning processes. |
| Work with employers (including in farming and food processing industries), employment agencies, supermarkets on improving living and working conditions. | Involve unions as partners in working in areas of employment.<br>Work with employers to develop the skills of workers.<br>Promote use of Code of Practice to labour providers and labour users.<br>Develop good practice to enhance the skills and knowledge of employees.<br>Encourage registration of agencies through developing effective links.<br>Identify funding source for provision of employment-related information in meeting workers' needs.<br>Develop access to services through employment of staff who have language skills, eg in one-stop shops, call centres. |
| Improve the employment opportunities and career prospects for migrant workers and other seasonal and casual workers | Provide training and development opportunities in venues and at times to make them accessible to migrant workers: English for speakers of other languages, basic skills and vocational courses. (Norfolk Learning Partnership: Norfolk Learning and Skills Council, Adult Education, City College Norwich, College of West Anglia, Easton College, English language Support Services, Great Yarmouth College, Great Yarmouth learning Centre, learndirect, Norfolk ACRO, Paston College, Poultec Training, YMCA Training).<br>*The ESOL Pathfinder Project (Oct 2002 to Sept 2003) - The Norfolk Learning Partnership , representing a consortium of local ESOPL providers, secured one of the eleven pilots and has managed and co-ordinated the local project.*<br>*ESOL - the way forward: a new project established through European Social Fund LSC Co-financing. This project continues to discuss issues and promote good practice.*<br>Influence/develop work on qualification equivalence.<br>Improve access for advice on employment opportunities and career prospects. (Job Centre Plus, CABs, Connexions).<br>Promote "investing in employees" approach to employers. |
| Provide education, information and advice for host and migrant communities. | Produce and distribute information booklets in appropriate languages on educational matters.<br>Produce and distribute newsletters for migrant communities.<br>Develop guide to services for newcomers to Norfolk. |

## Appendix for Section 3

### *Box A3.1: Key definitions used in this report*

| *Term* | *Definition used in this report* | *Comments* |
|---|---|---|
| Migrant | A person from outside the UK who has moved to the UK primarily for employment purposes. | In the literature on migration there is references are made to:<br>[i] those born outside the UK<br>[ii] foreign nationals within the resident population.<br>(There is an overlap between [i] and [ii]: based on analysis of the 2001 Labour Force Survey, it is estimated that about half of those born outside the UK have UK nationality (see Haque [2002]). |
| Refugee | Someone who receives a positive decision on their asylum claim and is granted leave to stay in the UK. | Refugees have full employment rights and may claim benefits |
| Asylum seeker | Someone who has fled their country of origin due to a well founded fear of persecution and seeks safety in another country. They have applied for recognition of refugee status and are either awaiting an initial decision or appealing against a rejection of their claim. | Asylum seekers do not have a right to work in the UK. |
| Ethnic minority | Non-white ethnic groups | People from Mixed, Asian / Asian British, Black / Black British, and Chinese and other ethnic groups |

## Aide Memoire for Migrant Labour Force Case Studies - Norfolk

*Aim of case studies*: To provide an insight into key issues pertaining to migrants/ migration in the specific sub-regions and local areas.
*Nature of study*: Literature review and discussion with local contacts.
*Norfolk case study*: This case study has been selected to concentrate on the impact on the local LSC, its providers and the economy of an influx of migrant workers from outside the UK. The focus should be on what planning and changes to provision needed to occur to accommodate the demographic changes.

### Questions

*Context*

1. What is the size and nature of migrant workers in Norfolk, by:
   - origin (what countries outside the UK? how is this changing? how much movement is there within the UK?)
   - how are flows of migrant workers changing – temporally, spatially (by origin and destination)?
   - skills levels
   - sectors working in
   - legal / illegal
   - implications for labour market integration needs
2. What learning / training and other labour market related provision is needed for migrant workers? (e.g. English, health & safety, other, etc)
3. What partners / agencies are involved in such provision?

*Planning*

4. What *challenges* do migrant workers pose for planning of learning / training and any other labour market related provision for migrant workers?
5. What are the main *constraints* on planning of learning / training and any other labour market related provision for migrant workers?

*Delivery*

6. What *challenges* do migrant workers pose for *delivery* of learning / training and any other labour market related provision for migrant workers?
7. What are the main *constraints* on *delivery* of learning / training and any other labour market related provision for migrant workers?

*Lessons learned and changes needed*

8. What lessons have been learned from experience to date?
9. How is it expected that learning / training provision will change:
   - geographically? by content of training? methods of delivery?
10. How does the infrastructure of learning / training and any other labour market related provision need to change to adapt to the needs for migrant workers?
11. Are there tensions / challenges in balancing the learning / training needs of existing population and migrant workers?
12. Evidence of innovative and good practice (in Norfolk [or elsewhere]):
    - to date
    - at planning stage

*Recommendations and contacts*

13. Do you have any recommendations (including wish lists of things that could be changed) for the future?
14. Ideas for further contacts (if any)

**Aide Memoire for Migrant Labour Force Case Studies – Thames Gateway**

*Aim of case studies*: to provide an insight into key issues pertaining to migrants/ migration in the specific sub-regions and local areas.
*Nature of study*: Literature review and discussion with local contacts.
*Thames Gateway case study*: to provide insights into what needs to be considered when planning for a large scale development bearing in mind:

- Demographics
- Employment patterns
- Current skills and training levels of the local population

**Questions**

*Context*

1. What is the nature of in-migration, by:
   - origin (rest of UK [what countries], elsewhere)
   - nature of flows
   - skills levels
   - sectors working in
   - implications for labour market integration needs

*Provision*

2. What challenges does in-migration pose for the infrastructure of learning / training provision?
3. How does the infrastructure of learning / training provision need to adapt to an influx of in-migrants?

*Challenges*

4. Are there challenges in balancing the learning / training needs of existing population and in-migrants?

*Delivery*

5. How is it expected that learning / training provision will change:
   - geographically
   - content of training
   - methods of delivery

*Challenges and opportunities*

6. What are the key *challenges* facing the LSC / training providers in the face of large scale development?
7. What are the major *opportunities* facing the LSC / training providers in the face of large scale development?

*Lessons learned*

8. Evidence of innovative and good practice:
   - to date
   - at planning stage

*Recommendations and contacts*

9. Do you have any recommendations (including wish lists of things that could be changed) for the future?
10. Ideas for further contacts

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## GLOSSARY

| | |
|---|---|
| A8 | Accession 8 countries: 8 of the 10 countries entering the EU in 2004 – the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia; (Malta and Cyprus were the other 2 new entrants to the EU) |
| BME | Black and Minority Ethnic |
| EEA | European Economic Area |
| EEDA | East of England Development Agency |
| ESF | European Social Fund |
| ESOL | English for Speakers of Other Languages |
| FE | Further Education |
| GLLaB | Greenwich Local Labour and Business |
| IAG | Information Advice and Guidance |
| LORECA | London Refugee Economic Action |
| NARIC | National Academic Recognition Information Centre |
| NASS | National Asylum Support Services |
| NGO | Non-Governmental Organisations |
| NINo | National Insurance Number |
| PCT | Primary Care Trust |
| PSA | Public Service Agreement |
| RCO | Refugee and Community Organisations |
| RDA | Regional Development Agency |
| SAWS | Seasonal Agricultural Workers Scheme |

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