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|  | date: 09 April 2014embargo: 09 April 2014TUC logo mono |
|  | Casualisation and Low Pay |
|  | A report for the TUC |
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Acknowledgements

This report was prepared for the TUC by Dr Maria Hudson who is an Employment and Social Policy Researcher at Hudson Research.

Contents

5 Introduction

7 Casualisation, low pay and working hours

2.1 The incidence of casual working arrangements

 Temporary work

 Involuntary temporary employment

 Sectoral distribution of temporary workers

 Agency temps

 Zero-hours contracts

2.2 Casualisation and low pay

 Casualisation and weekly and hourly pay

 Casualisation and the National Minimum Wage

 Casualisation and the Living wage

2.3 Casualisation and working hours

2.4 The equalities impact of casualisation

26 Casualisation and low pay: the implications

Section one

1. Introduction

The onset of recession in 2008 and its aftermath heralded a growth in the casualisation of the UK workforce. Whilst recession has brought lower levels of unemployment than might have been expected from previous economic downturns in the 1980s and 1990s, it brought higher levels of temporary and part-time employment and zero-hours contracts. The number of UK residents filling low-skilled jobs grew.[[1]](#footnote-1)

The UK has a low pay problem.[[2]](#footnote-2) The annual report Monitoring Poverty and Social Exclusion shows that the proportion of employees that are low paid is increasing again after falling in the first half of the last decade.[[3]](#footnote-3) Employers’ search for flexible employment systems appears to have fuelled an increase in the volume of low paid work characterised by casual and part-time jobs and underemployment for workers who are vulnerable to power imbalances in the labour market.[[4]](#footnote-4)

Inter-twined with the spread of casualisation, falling real wages and rising costs of living, there has been a growth in the number of people willing to work more hours than their employers are prepared to offer.[[5]](#footnote-5) It has been estimated that the proportion of the workforce wishing to extend their working hours rose from 7.4 per cent of the UK workforce in 2008 to 9.9 per cent in 2012.[[6]](#footnote-6) This trend was largely driven by a growth in part-time employment. Cuts to overtime and contracted hours amongst full-time workers has been part of the story of the rise in involuntary part-time working.

For those occupying positions at the bottom end of the labour market, the struggle for a fair days work for a fair days pay appears to have intensified, with adverse consequences for individuals and families. For the first time the majority of people in poverty are in working families, a development strongly associated with low pay, too few working hours and an unprecedented fall in living standards. Those in insecure work are particularly affected.[[7]](#footnote-7)

This report explores some of the contours of this labour market change, engaging with trends as well as the current position. In so doing, it provides an overview of the links between casualisation and low pay in the UK, engaging with the incidence of casual working arrangements, as well as the patterns of pay and working hours that are associated with them.

Section two

1. Casualisation, low pay and working hours

We begin by exploring the incidence of casual working arrangements, looking in turn at temporary, agency and zero-hours contract working.

2.1 The incidence of casual working arrangements

Temporary work

The Workplace Employment Relations Survey (WERS) indicates that the use of fixed-term or temporary contracts grew in both the public and private sectors with five or more employees between 2004 and 2011. Their use rose from 51 to 53 per cent of in the private sector and from 17 to 21 per cent in the public sector.[[8]](#footnote-8)

Drawing on data from the Office for National Statistics Labour Force Survey (LFS), Table 1 charts the steady growth in temporary employment from the start of the recession in 2008 until early 2013 with the latest figures available for 2013 showing a slight fall. Over one and a half million workers (6.2 per cent of employees) report that they are engaged in temporary jobs.

The Quarterly LFS indicates that non-permanent working arrangements include agency temps (18.1 per cent of temporary workers), casual workers (20.8 per cent), seasonal workers (3.6 per cent), as well as workers on fixed term contracts (45.4 per cent); and 12 per cent of temporary workers that are not permanent in some other way.[[9]](#footnote-9)

Table 1: Temporary employees (reasons for temporary working)

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Temporary employees(000s) | Total as % of all employees | Could not find permanent job(000s) | % that could not find permanent job |
| **2008 (Jan-Mar)** | 1425 | 5.6 | 360 | 25.3 |
| **2009 (Jan-Mar)** | 1416 | 5.6 | 415 | 29.3 |
| **2010 (Jan-Mar)** | 1481 | 6.0 | 507 | 34.2 |
| **2011 (Jan-Mar)** | 1588 | 6.3 | 571 | 36.0 |
| **2012 (Jan-Mar)** | 1564 | 6.3 | 619 | 39.6 |
| **2013 (Dec-Feb)** | 1595 | 6.3 | 641 | 40.2 |
| **2013 (Mar-May)** | 1581 | 6.8 | 622 | 39.4 |
| **2013 (June-Aug)** | 1572 | 6.2 | 611 | 38.9 |
| **2013 (Sept-Nov)** | 1591 | 6.2 | 586 | 36.8 |

Source: ONS Labour Market Statistical Bulletins drawing on Labour Force Survey[[10]](#footnote-10)

Involuntary temporary employment

What is striking about Table 1 is the quarter of a million rise in the proportion of temporary workers who could not find a permanent job between 2008 and 2013. This involuntary temporary employment has only recently seen the first fall since 2008 and is still at around 39 per cent of overall temporary employment.

The scale of involuntary unemployment remains a cause for considerable concern; despite the fact that the peak of this measure, 40 per cent of employees on temporary contracts in 2012, remained lower than the previous peak of 43 per cent of employees on temporary contracts in 1995.[[11]](#footnote-11) The persistence of involuntary temporary employment at least in part reflects a lack of worker power and influence in the face of employer labour use strategies.

Sectoral distribution of temporary workers

Use of temporary workers continues to be spread across a range of industrial sectors and with a high concentration across public administration, education and health (see Table 2). Almost 60 per cent of fixed term contract workers are in these areas of public service delivery. This snap shot may reflect how public sector workplaces were more likely to make changes to the organisation of work as a result of the recession and government spending cuts than establishments in the private sector.[[12]](#footnote-12) We also know that outsourcing is blurring the boundaries between the public and private (and indeed voluntary) sectors.[[13]](#footnote-13)

Table 2: Distribution of temporary workers by industry sector (for main job held)

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | All employees/ workers (aged 16 plus) | All temporary workers | Workers with contract for fixed period or fixed task |
| **Agriculture, forestry and fishing** | 1 | 0.7 | 0.5 |
| **Energy and water** | 1.8 | 1.6 | 1.4 |
| **Manufacturing** | 9.7 | 8.3 | 5.8 |
| **Construction** | 7.3 | 3.4 | 2.6 |
| **Distribution, hotels and restaurants** | 18.7 | 16 | 6.8 |
| **Transport and communication** | 8.8 | 6.3 | 6 |
| **Banking, finance and insurance etc** | 16.7 | 14.3 | 12.5 |
| **Public admin, education and health** | 30.4 | 42.7 | 59.3 |
| **Other services** | 5.5 | 6.7 | 5 |

Source: Quarterly Labour Force Survey, April-June 2013

Agency temps

Agency temps have long been a means by which employers manage peaks and troughs of work in the short-term and have been linked to lower levels of training and poorer job satisfaction.[[14]](#footnote-14) The Quarterly Labour Force Survey (QLFS) suggests that the number of agency temps has grown from 241,293 in January-March 2008 to 293,353 in January-March 2013 (See Table 3), an increase of 21.6 per cent.

Table 3: Growth in agency workers in the UK: 2008-2013

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | Agency workers  | Total as % of all employees |
| **2008 (Jan-March)** | 241,293 | 0.76 |
| **2009 (Jan-March)** | 247,936 | 0.78 |
| **2010 (Jan-March)** | 216,041 | 0.68 |
| **2011 (Jan-March)** | 269,551 | 0.85 |
| **2012 (Jan-March)** | 279,951 | 0.87 |
| **2013 (Jan-March)** | 293,353 | 0.90 |

Source: Quarterly Labour Force Survey, January-March quarters 2008-2013

However, the QLFS statistics for agency working significantly differ from those presented by the main employer organisation for recruitment agencies, the Recruitment and Employment Confederation (REC). The QLFS indicates that in the period April-June 2013 just under 300,000 workers were agency temps. Over four-fifths of agency workers were in the private sector (81.5 per cent) compared with just under one-fifth (18.5 per cent) in the public sector. In 2012 both the government and REC jointly estimated the number of agency workers at the much higher level of 1.1 million.[[15]](#footnote-15)

A more detailed breakdown of industry sector in the LFS suggests that there continues to be sizeable proportions of agency temps in manufacturing (17.9 per cent), distribution, hotels and restaurants (14.9 per cent), banking, insurance and finance (20.3 per cent) and public administration, education and health (25.5 per cent) (see Table 4). Agency temps also continue to be concentrated in particular occupations: with the majority (67.4 per cent) found in clerical, semi-skilled and unskilled occupations.[[16]](#footnote-16)

Table 4 : Distribution of agency workers by industry sector (for main job held)

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | All employees/ workers aged 16 plus(%) | Agency workers(%) |
| **Agriculture, forestry and fishing** | 1 | 1.8 |
| **Energy and water** | 1.8 | 3.2 |
| **Manufacturing** | 9.7 | 17.9 |
| **Construction** | 7.3 | 3.5 |
| **Distribution, hotels and restaurants** | 18.7 | 14.9 |
| **Transport and communication** | 8.8 | 9.8 |
| **Banking, finance and insurance etc** | 16.7 | 20.3 |
| **Public admin, education and health** | 30.4 | 25.5 |
| **Other services** | 5.5 | 3 |

Source: Quarterly Labour Force Survey, April-June 2013

Zero-hours contracts

Alongside a growth in temporary jobs, there has been a movement from full-time to part-time jobs (and an increase in the proportion of part-time employees who would prefer to be working full-time).[[17]](#footnote-17) A feature of this movement from full-time to part-time work has been zero-hours contracts. While casual, ‘spot contracting’ has a long history in the UK (notably associated with dock workers), zero-hours contracts began to attract greater attention in the 1990s when there was evidence of their growing use in the retail, banking and financial service sectors. They continue to emerge in a wider range of sectors that are historically less known for their use of such contractual arrangements. For example, a freedom of information request by the Financial Times, to which 159 of the 164 NHS acute trusts in England responded, found that almost 100 000 zero hours contracts are in use in hospitals around the country. It also found that the number of these contracts has grown by 24 per cent over a two year period, at the same time as full-time equivalent staff numbers have risen by six per cent.[[18]](#footnote-18) Against the backdrop of the squeeze in public spending and employer responses, UNISON notes that almost all areas of public service are now seeing a rise in zero-hours contracts.[[19]](#footnote-19) The new commissioning system means that providers are not guaranteed any minimum level of work and is in turn having the knock-on effect of pushing employers towards contracts that mirror such arrangements. This trend is taking place in areas traditionally vulnerable to zero-hours arrangements, such as cleaning, but also hitting new areas, such as cardiac services, physiotherapy, psychiatric therapy, and hearing services. It is evident that zero-hours contracts are not solely associated with low skilled work.

Ongoing concerns surround how under zero-hours working arrangements, people are unpaid while not working whilst put on standby, ‘on-call’, to meet the peaks and troughs of work. While flexible working arrangements can potentially support caring responsibilities, the lack of a work guarantee, and related unpredictability of work from week to week (and day to day); can put a strain on families, having adverse implications for household income and childcare.[[20]](#footnote-20)

Analysis of the LFS shows a steady fall in the number of zero-hours contract workers in the first half of the 2000s, but a significant rise since 2006. In 2012, the ONS provided an official estimate of 250,000 zero-hours contract workers (0.7 per cent of the workforce) compared with 134,000 in 2006 (0.5 per cent of the workforce).[[21]](#footnote-21) In March 2014 the ONS released a newly revised estimate suggesting that 583,000 people were employed on zero-hours contracts in 2013.[[22]](#footnote-22) There however remains considerable controversy surrounding the measurement of zero-hours contracts within the LFS, questioning the reliability of the data.[[23]](#footnote-23) The Chartered Institute of Personnel Development (CIPD) estimates that there are just over one million zero-hours contract workers, or 3.1 per cent of the UK workforce; four times the ONS estimate (CIPD, 2013).[[24]](#footnote-24) In a recent survey of 5000 of its members UNITE found that 22 per cent of workers employed by private firms were on zero hours contracts, again suggesting much higher presence in the workforce compared with official estimates.[[25]](#footnote-25)

The LFS suggests that the majority of workers on zero-hours contracts are indeed in the private sector (83 per cent) while a sizable minority is in the public sector (17 per cent).[[26]](#footnote-26) However, the CIPD found that voluntary and public sector employers were among the most likely to deploy zero hours contracts, with 35 per cent of education and 27 per cent of healthcare employers using these work arrangements.[[27]](#footnote-27) The LFS also suggests that there is little overlap between being an agency temp and having a zero-hours contract. Just under one per cent of agency temps report that they have zero-hours contracts, while only two per cent of zero-hours contract workers say that they are also agency temps. Like agency temps, most zero-hours contract workers (70.1 per cent) are located in clerical, semi-skilled and unskilled occupations.

As noted above, employers can, and do, use different types of work arrangements that allow them to adjust their workforces in response to fluctuating demand. The 2011 Workplace Employment Relations Survey (WERS) found there was a marked increase in the proportion of private sector employers drawing on two or more forms of numerical flexibility between 2004 and 2011, while 15 per cent cut basic hours in response to the recession.[[28]](#footnote-28) WERS suggests that 8 per cent of workplaces use zero-hours contracts across a wide range of sectors including retail, hospitality, higher education and health. Recent analysis of the LFS found that 20 per cent of those on zero-hours contracts are in the health and social work sector, 19 per cent in hospitality, 12 per cent in administration, 11 per cent in retail and 8 per cent in arts, entertainment and leisure.[[29]](#footnote-29)

Retail and hospitality have provided high profile examples of the use of zero-hours contracts. The fast-food outlets Subway, McDonalds, Dominoes and Burger King recruit nearly their entire workforce on zero-hours contracts; as does the retailer Sports Direct. These companies are amongst seven private sector companies exposed as zero-hours employers by the Guardian newspaper and are estimated to employ at least 75 per cent of the 2012 250,000 official ONS estimate of zero-hours contract workers.[[30]](#footnote-30) Burger King has 1,400 restaurants across the UK. It employs its entire non-management staff on the contracts, which leave workers with no guaranteed hours of work each week. Research for the Low Pay Commission found that nearly 60 per cent of domiciliary care workers and around a quarter of their managers and supervisors are on zero hours contracts.[[31]](#footnote-31)

2.2 Casualisation and low pay

Casualisation and weekly and hourly pay

Low pay is an important element of in-work poverty.[[32]](#footnote-32)

Across a number of pay measures, temporary workers experience a pay penalty compared with permanent workers (see Table 5a). Average gross weekly pay for permanent workers on more conventional contracts is £478.51 compared with £290.98 for temporary workers. While average gross weekly pay also captures the impact of shorter working hours, average gross hourly pay is £13.39 for permanent workers compared to £10.77 for temporary workers and £8.83 for zero-hours contract workers. Median hourly pay[[33]](#footnote-33) reinforces this picture of a pay penalty, with a gap of £2.64 per hour separating permanent and temporary workers. More than three-fifths (62.4 per cent) of workers in temporary jobs earn less than the median hourly pay for all employees compared with 49.1 per cent of those in permanent jobs (see Table 5b).

The on-going lack of pay equality for agency workers, remains a key area of contention.[[34]](#footnote-34) In September 2013, the TUC complained to the European Union Commission that the UK government had failed to implement the Agency Worker Regulations. The TUC is particularly concerned about the use of the so-called ‘Swedish derogation’ or pay between assignments contracts. Individuals employed on such contracts are not entitled to equal pay even where they have been on an assignment for more than 12 weeks. The TUC discovered that in some workplaces agency workers employed on such contracts were paid up to £135 less a week than permanent staff doing the same job.[[35]](#footnote-35)

Analysis across a number of measures show that zero-hours contract workers appear to experience a worse pay penalty (again see Table 5a) than agency workers and other workers in temporary employment. The data suggests that they have a markedly lower median hourly pay (£6.86 per hour) compared with permanent, temporary and agency workers. In addition, more than three quarters of zero-hours contract workers (79.1 per cent) appear to earn less than the median hourly pay for all employees.

Table 5a: Pay for all employees and selected employment statuses

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Average gross weekly pay | Average gross hourly pay | Median hourly pay |
| **All employees** | £467.30 | £13.23 | £10.60 |
| **Permanent workers** | £478.51 | £13.39 | £10.78 |
| **Temporary workers** | £290.98 | £10.77 | £8.14 |
| **Agency workers** | £387.42 | £10.93 | £8.33 |
| **Zero-hours contract workers** | £247.15 | £8.83 | £6.86 |

Source: Quarterly Labour Force Survey, April-June 2013[[36]](#footnote-36)

Table 5b: Percentage of permanent and temporary workers and

Zero-hours contract workers earning below median hourly pay

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  | Hourly pay<£10.60(% of employees/ workers) |
| **In permanent jobs** | 49.1 |
| **In temporary jobs** | 64.2 |
| **Zero-hours contract workers** | 79.1 |

Source: Analysis of Quarterly Labour Force Survey, April-June 2013

1. £10.60 was the median hourly pay for all employees.

Casualisation and the National Minimum Wage

Analysis of the 2011 Workplace Employment Relations Survey provide some insight to the relative low pay of zero-hours contract workers in suggesting that workplaces using zero-hours contracts had a higher proportion of staff paid between the NMW of £6.19 per hour and £7.50 per hour than companies that did not use this type of contract.[[37]](#footnote-37) There is also evidence that a higher proportion of part-time jobs, temporary jobs and jobs held for less than a year are paid at the National Minimum Wage (NMW), particularly in the private sector.[[38]](#footnote-38)

The real value of the NMW has fallen in recent years as it has not risen in line with the cost of living.[[39]](#footnote-39) Between 2001 and 2004, when the low-paid numbers were falling, the minimum wage increased by 18 per cent. Between 2009 and 2012, when low-paid numbers were rising, it increased by 7 per cent.[[40]](#footnote-40)

Data sources on earnings do not allow us to gauge whether an individual is eligible for the minimum wage. Thus while low pay estimates attempt to measure the number of jobs that are paid below the NMW, they cannot be used as a measure of non-compliance with the legislation.[[41]](#footnote-41)

While it is difficult to gauge the extent to which zero-hours contract workers are affected by employers’ non compliance with NMW regulations, clearly some employers are consciously, as well as unwittingly, circumventing the NMW regulations. This is perhaps most evident in publicity surrounding the extensive use of zero-hours contracts in the private domiciliary care sector with workers subject to extensive unpaid travel time and payment below the NMW. There is now considerable evidence of the vulnerability of care workers to exploitation, intensified by local authority budgetary cuts.[[42]](#footnote-42) HMRC can impose a civil penalty of up to £5,000 on underpaying employers without having to go to court. The problem is that these penalties are not made public so justice is not seen to be done. The government has sought to establish a “naming and shaming” mechanism for non-compliant employers, but has so far only managed to name six employers,[[43]](#footnote-43) despite 708 penalties being issued in the past year.[[44]](#footnote-44)

Casualisation and the Living wage

The National Minimum Wage has had a positive impact on low pay since its introduction in 1999 but it has not been set at a rate high enough to curtail worrying rates of in-work poverty. The demand for a Living Wage has been around for over one hundred years, first surfacing in the coalfield areas of the UK during the 1870s when workers sought to organise to improve their terms and conditions of work.[[45]](#footnote-45) It embodies the principle of a ‘fair day’s pay for a fair day’s work’.[[46]](#footnote-46)

The Living Wage is based on a calculation of a Minimum Income Standard; and is the minimum hourly wage required to allow a worker to support themselves and their dependents. It should cover the cost of food, housing and basic needs.[[47]](#footnote-47) Currently set at £8.80 in London and £7.65 in the rest of the UK, it is in London that there is most extensive take-up of a living wage; amongst larger employers. Concerns about in-work poverty[[48]](#footnote-48) are leading to closer scrutiny of wages rates. Bolstered by arguments that the minimum wage has not been set at a high enough rate to stem the rising tide of in-work poverty, though it has clearly had a very positive impact on the incidence of low pay and income inequality in the UK since 1999,[[49]](#footnote-49) the Living Wage Commission is examining the case for a Living Wage and the role that it can play in tackling the UK’s low pay problem. It estimates that one in five workers are paid less than the amount they need to enjoy a basic, but socially acceptable standard of living.[[50]](#footnote-50)

While again there are weaknesses with LFS earnings data, a higher proportion of zero-hours contract workers appear to be earning below the living wage compared with temporary and agency workers, though agency workers also fare badly against this measure of low pay and living standards[[51]](#footnote-51) (see Table 6).

**Table 6: Proportion of employees, zero-hours contract workers, agency workers and all workers who are not permanent in some way earning below the Living Wage1**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | All employees(%) | Temporary workers earning below the living wage (%) | Agency workers earning below the living wage (%) | Zero-hours contract workers earning below the living wage (%) |
| **London** | 15.5 | 19.2 | 47.9 | 75.8 |
| **Rest of UK** | 26.9 | 25.3 | 39.5 | 57.6 |

Source: Analysis of Quarterly Labour Force Survey, April-June 2013

1. Analysis based on Living wage rates prevailing at time of QLFS April-June 2013 (that is £8.55 in London and £7.45 in the rest of the UK).

2.3 Casualisation and working hours

Working hours underemployment can compound in-work poverty. The European Foundation for Living and Working Conditions estimated that the UK had the second highest prevalence in Europe of very short hours contracts of less than 10 hours per week (8 per cent).[[52]](#footnote-52) Recent LFS data suggests that 4 per cent of employees typically work very short hours of less than 10 hours per week.[[53]](#footnote-53) Just over 14 per cent of zero-hours contract workers report typical weekly working hours of less than 10 per week. It is clear that the typically weekly hours of people on zero-hours contracts is much less than for workers not on these contracts (see Figure 1). Reinforcing this picture, it has been estimated that while between 2000 and 2012, average weekly hours actually worked by all employees fell from around 33 hours to 32 hours, the average number of weekly hours actually worked by those on zero-hours contracts fell sharply; from 28 hours per week in 2000 to 21 hours per week in 2012.[[54]](#footnote-54)



Source: Quarterly Labour Force Survey, April-June 2013

Zero-hours contract workers appear to have much lower weekly hours compared with agency temps (see Table 7). Nearly 8 per cent of zero-hours contract workers work less than 8 hours per week compared with 1.5 per cent of agency temps. Almost 30 per cent of zero-hours contract workers work less than 16 hours per week compared with 8.6 per cent of agency workers and 2.6 per cent of all employees. Fifty- per cent zero-hours contract workers work for less than 30 hours per week, compared with 26 per cent of all working age employees and 19 per cent of agency workers.

Table 7: Typical weekly working hours for all employees, agency workers and Zero-hour contract workers (percentage)

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Typical weekly working hours | All employees (%) | Agency workers (%) | Zero-hour contract workers (%) |
| 1-7 hours | 2.2 | 1.5 | 7.9 |
| 8-15 hours | 6.3 | 7.1 | 21.5 |
| 16-23 hours | 11.1 | 8.7 | 21.5 |
| 24-30 hours | 10.1 | 10.2 | 13.8 |
| 31-35 hours | 10.4 | 9.1 | 7.5 |
| 35plus hours | 59.8 | 63.3 | 27.6 |

Source: Quarterly Labour Force Survey, April-June 2013

On top of issues of low pay and short-hours working for zero-hours contract workers, the QLFS reveals signs of the lack of security of weekly income that some of them may experience. When zero-hours contract workers were asked whether their gross weekly pay in the reference week was the same as usual, 39 per cent indicated that they had ‘no usual amount’ of weekly pay compared with seven per cent of those in other kinds of work arrangement.[[55]](#footnote-55) While some workers may benefit from the flexibility afford by zero-hours contracts,[[56]](#footnote-56) it is not difficult to see why they can intensify underemployment and income insecurity. It is reported that at Burger King the work rotas are decided a week in advance but can be subject to changes at the last minute. Staff can also be sent home early if there is not enough business. Similarly, at Dominos Pizza, the 20,000 staff on zero-hour contracts are given a rota a week in advance. Despite this hours can change with some workers sent home shortly after arriving, with no pay.[[57]](#footnote-57)

Survey evidence reinforces concerns about a lack of certainty around working hours. In the recent CIPD survey of 1000 zero-hours contract workers, 40 per cent reported that they had been informed only hours before starting work that a shift had been cancelled. A further six per cent of workers had been told of cancellation just as their shift was about to begin.[[58]](#footnote-58) Such insecurities in working lives may be part of the explanation of the explosion in personal debt[[59]](#footnote-59) a disturbing feature of which is the growth in pay day loans.

One way in which workers in part-time low paid jobs can try to supplement their incomes is by taking a second job. The QLFS survey suggests that just over 11 per cent of zero-hours contract workers hold second jobs compared with 4 per cent of those not on these contracts.

Adding to the picture of insecurity, according to the UNITE survey of 5000 of its members, over a third of zero-hours contract workers (36 per cent) did not receive holiday pay and an even higher proportion (77 per cent) received no sick pay.

2.4 The equalities impact of casualisation

Gender, ethnicity and age interact with the landscape of casualisation and low pay. Women constitute two-thirds of those on low pay and it has been estimated that the introduction of a UK living wage would disproportionately benefit low paid women.[[60]](#footnote-60) Part-time employment has traditionally been feminized, though accompanying the shift from full to part-time employment (and manufacturing to services) has been a growing male presence in part-time jobs.

The Quarterly LFS indicates that approximately 55 per cent of zero-hours contract holders are women. A high proportion of women on zero-hours contracts (65.4 per cent) report that they are working part-time because they do not want a full-time job. And almost one fifth (18.8 per cent) of women on zero-hours contracts indicate that they are working part-time because they cannot find a full-time job. By contrast a much higher proportion of men on zero-hours contracts (45.4 per cent) report involuntary part-time employment; while 26.2 percent do not want a full-time job. Domestic commitments are given as the reason for not wanting a full-time job by 23.7 of women on zero-hours contracts working part-time, compared with18.9 per cent of men. A high proportion of men and women on zero-hours contracts report that their weekly hours tend to vary, with a higher proportion of women (68.4 per cent) than men (63.8 per cent) reporting weekly hours variability.[[61]](#footnote-61) The unpredictability of work from week to week (and day to day) can put a strain on families and their ability to arrange child care or elder care.

There are unsurprising signs of the over-representation of women on zero-hours contracts in feminised areas of work. In the domiciliary care sector, where we have seen that zero-hours contracts are the predominant work arrangement, 84 per cent of workers are female and 20 per cent were born outside the UK.[[62]](#footnote-62) In this sector, non-British workers are employed on lower average hourly rates than their British-born colleagues while there is no difference in the average hourly rates of women and men. However, men have higher weekly pay than women and non British workers higher weekly pay than British, due to longer hours worked.[[63]](#footnote-63)

Low pay is linked to the poverty experienced by ethnic minority groups.[[64]](#footnote-64) Migrant workers are amongst the groups that continue to be over-represented in minimum wage jobs and experience the most exploitative aspects of casualisation, across a range of sectors. For example, one third of the permanent workforce and 70 per cent of the agency workers in the meat and poultry processing industry are migrant workers. The Equality and Human Rights enquiry into this sector found mistreatment and discrimination particularly against migrant and agency workers working in minimum wage jobs; including coercion, physical and verbal abuse.[[65]](#footnote-65)

A recent report from the Intergenerational Foundation suggests that the pay gap between the over-50s and under-21s has grown by 50 per cent in the past decade and a half; and highlights the struggles of younger generations.[[66]](#footnote-66) Two-fifths of low paid jobs in 2012 were being done by the under 30s predominantly in the hospitality sector (restaurants and hotels)[[67]](#footnote-67) where we have seen that zero-hours contracts appear to be prevalent.

The LFS suggests that a high proportion of zero-hours contract working is done by younger and older people. Twenty-eight per cent of zero-hours contract workers are under the age of 25 as well as 31 per cent of temporary workers (see Table 8). In July 2013, the ONS reported that the number of 65plus in the workforce had exceeded one million for the first time. Eight per cent of zero-hours contract workers are aged 65plus compared with around six per cent of temporary workers and just over two per cent of agency workers (see Table 8).

Table 8: The distribution of permanent, zero-hours contract, agency and temporary employees by age, compared with the working age population.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | 16-19 yrs | 20-24 yrs | 25-29 yrs | 30-34 yrs | 35-39 yrs | 40-44 yrs | 45-49 yrs | 50-54 yrs | 55-59 yrs | 60-64 yrs | 65-69 yrs | 70+ yrs |
| **Working age population** | 7.4 | 10.6 | 11.3 | 10.3 | 9.6 | 11 | 11.5 | 10.6 | 9.1 | 8.6 | n/a | n/a |
| **Permanent workers (%)** | 3 | 8.9 | 12.5 | 11.9 | 10.8 | 12.4 | 13 | 11.7 | 8.7 | 4.9 | 1.7 | 0.6 |
| **Zero-hours contract workers (%)** | 11.3 | 16.5 | 10.3 | 5.2 | 6.8 | 6.6 | 9.7 | 11.2 | 9.2 | 5.2 | 5.7 | 2.4 |
| **Temporary workers (%)** | 11.9 | 18.7 | 14.1 | 9 | 7.6 | 7.5 | 7 | 7.5 | 6.5 | 4.5 | 3.8 | 1.9 |
| **Agency workers (%)** | 3.1 | 12.5 | 18.5 | 15.3 | 10.1 | 8.7 | 9.3 | 9.9 | 5.8 | 4.6 | 2.1 | 0.2 |

Source: Quarterly Labour Force Survey, April-June 2013

Earlier in this report (section 2), we saw the high level of involuntary temporary employment in the UK. As shown in Table 9 below, rates of involuntary temporary working (those in temporary work because they cannot find a permanent job) are high across most age groups except the very young (aged 16-19) many of whom are still in full-time education and older people (60plus). Insecurity seems more pronounced for those most likely to have left full-time education.

Table 9: Reasons given for taking temporary work by age

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | 16-19 yrs | 20-24 yrs | 25-29 yrs | 30-34 yrs | 35-39 yrs | 40-44 yrs | 45-49 yrs | 50-54 yrs | 55-59 yrs | 60-64 yrs | 65-69 yrs | 70+ yrs |
| Contract included training (%) | 10.6 | 7.6 | 14.1 | 9.2 | 4.1 | 6.9 | 4.6 | 0.4 | 1.8 | 0.4 | 0.9 | 0 |
| Contract for probationary period (%) | 4.7 | 5.2 | 6.1 | 4.1 | 5 | 2.3 | 4.9 | 2.5 | 2.4 | 0.5 | 0 | 0 |
| Could not find permanent job (%) | 14 | 42.7 | 44 | 46.4 | 44.4 | 42.8 | 51.3 | 45.9 | 44.7 | 18.8 | 9.1 | 2 |
| Did not want permanent job (%) | 41.5 | 25.1 | 5.9 | 7.4 | 9.5 | 12.7 | 14.8 | 14.9 | 22 | 40.1 | 45 | 78 |
| **Some other reason (%)** | 29.3 | 19.4 | 29.9 | 33 | 37.1 | 35.3 | 24.4 | 36.3 | 29.2 | 40.3 | 45 | 20 |

Source: Quarterly Labour Force Survey, April-June 2013

It is the young (and unqualified) that appear to have been disproportionately affected by involuntary part-time working.[[68]](#footnote-68) While the vast majority of 16-19 years olds work part-time because they are students or at school, high proportions of people in their 20s and in temporary work or on zero-hours contracts report that they are in part-time work because they cannot find full-time jobs. Around 40 per cent of temporary workers aged 20-24 and 45 per cent of workers aged 24-29, report involuntary part-time working (see Table 10a). Similarly, over 40 percent of zero-hours contract workers in their twenties report involuntary part-time working (see Table 10b).

Table 10a: Reasons given by temporary workers for working part-time, by age

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | 16-19 yrs | 20-24 yrs | 25-29 yrs | 30-34 yrs | 35-39 yrs | 40-44 yrs | 45-49 yrs | 50-54 yrs | 55-59 yrs | 60-64 yrs | 65-69 yrs | 70+ yrs |
| **Student or at school (%)** | 85.5 | 50.1 | 25.6 | 8 | 6.9 | 4.4 | 4.2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| **Ill or disabled (%)** | 0.4 | 0 | 2.6 | 3.1 | 1.6 | 1.1 | 3.5 | 1.9 | 3.7 | 1.2 | 0 | 0 |
| **Could not find full-time job (%)** | 10.7 | 40.7 | 44.7 | 35.2 | 24.5 | 31.2 | 27.2 | 40.1 | 37.2 | 10.5 | 3.2 | 0 |
| **Did not want full-time job (%)** | 3.4 | 9.2 | 27.1 | 53.7 | 67 | 63.3 | 65.2 | 58 | 59.1 | 88.3 | 96.8 | 100 |

Source: Quarterly Labour Force Survey, April-June 2013

Table 10b: Reasons given by zero-hour contract workers for working part-time, by age

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | *16-19 yrs* | *20-24 yrs* | *25-29 yrs* | *30-34 yrs* | *35-39 yrs* | *40-44 yrs* | *45-49 yrs* | *50-54 yrs* | *55-59 yrs* | *60-64 yrs* | *65-69 yrs* | *70+ yrs* |
| ***Student or at school (%)*** | *78.3* | *46.7* | *7.4* | *0* | *0* | *0* | *0* | *0* | *0* | *0* | *0* | *0* |
| ***Ill or disabled (%)*** | *0* | *0* | *0* | *0* | *0* | *0* | *5.9* | *5.7* | *7.1* | *0* | *0* | *0* |
| ***Could not find full-time job (%)*** | *18.4* | *42.1* | *44.2* | *0* | *24.2* | *43.7* | *27.4* | *35.5* | *36* | *11.4* | *0* | *62.4* |
| ***Did not want full-time job (%)*** | *3.3* | *11.2* | *48.4* | *100* | *75.8* | *56.3* | *66.7* | *58.8* | *56.8* | *88.6* | *100* |  *37.6* |

Source: Quarterly Labour Force Survey, April-June 2013

Section three

1. Casualisation and low pay: the implications

Employers’ search for flexibility continues to fuel arguments that the UK has a polarized labour market. It seems that the number of workers for whom paid work is more about social exclusion than social inclusion is growing. The increased prominence of zero-hours contracts as a feature of casualisation represents a stark shift in the balance of risk in labour market activity towards low paid workers. It is a process that reinforces concerns about job quality and a ‘precarity trap’ and risk-strewn existence for the low paid.[[69]](#footnote-69) In the current labour market and industrial context, arguments that work is a solution to poverty arguably rest on fragile foundations.

The recent announcement of a three per cent rise in the National Minimum Wage (NMW) is to be welcomed as the NMW remains a valuable instrument for fostering fair labour standards across the UK labour market. However, as noted in a recent report from the Resolution Foundation,[[70]](#footnote-70) the National Minimum Wage framework as it currently stands is no longer strong enough to tackle the country’s low pay problems.

More attention needs to be given to the NMW alongside other dimensions of casualisation and low pay in order to help address the worst faces of insecurity and underemployment; and tackle in-work poverty. Issues to be addressed include:

* **Greater regulation of the use of zero-hours contracts.** Heightened debate, over the extent to which the growth in zero-hours contracts has negative consequences for individuals and the economy, has led to a government review. The review provides a timely opportunity for rigorous scrutiny of labour market restructuring; the ‘winners’ and the ‘losers’. Greater regulation of their use would be a welcome step change in approach, which appears to be needed in order to address the insecurities of zero-hours contract workers in a labour market position which is not of their choice or a constrained choice. Employers do have room for manoeuvre. In the 2011 Workplace Employment Relations Survey, workplaces that had been strongly affected by the recession were no more likely to use flexible working practices than those that had been less affected.[[71]](#footnote-71)
* **Better enforcement of the national minimum wage and greater efforts to reduce pay inequalities.** For example, enforcement by civil penalty is still largely invisible and the record for prosecutions is woefully low[[72]](#footnote-72) and must be fuelling employer complacency with regard to their legal obligations. The work of the Living Wage Commission is important in engaging with wider pay inequalities and low income.
* **Greater transparency and certainty around hours, so that workers are able to budget and coordinate childcare for their families.** To this end we need to reduce the extent to which workers are on call without payment. This certainty may also contribute to the introduction of universal credit being effective for vulnerable workers; given concerns about the negative interactions between in-work benefits and irregular hours working.
* **Engagement with the impact of casualisation on individual and family livelihoods, labour market progression and future prospects.** As more and more people hit the glass ceiling in British society,[[73]](#footnote-73) data on involuntary temporary employment and working hours underemployment is indicative of the desire of many working age adults to work to improve livelihoods. However, the low paid landscape in which they are trying to fulfil these aspirations is a bleak one. There is an urgent need to look at issues of job quality.

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1. See All-Party Parliamentary Group on Migration (2014) ‘How can we ensure a level playing field for all workers?’ APPG Migration Briefing. [↑](#footnote-ref-1)
2. See interim report of the Living Wage Commission (2014) Working for Poverty: The Scale of the Problem of Low Pay and Working Poverty in the UK. Available at: <http://livingwagecommission.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/2014/02/Living-Wage-Commission-Report-v2_f-1.pdf> [↑](#footnote-ref-2)
3. See MacInnes, T. Aldridge, H. Bushe, S. Kenway, P. and Tinson, A. (2013) Monitoring Poverty and Social Exclusion 2013. Available at: <http://www.npi.org.uk/publications/income-and-poverty/monitoring-poverty-and-social-exclusion-2013/> [↑](#footnote-ref-3)
4. See Pennycook, M. Cory, G. and Alakeson, V. (2013) A Matter of Time: The Rise of Zero Hours Contracts. Resolution Foundation, June. Available at: <http://www.resolutionfoundation.org/publications/matter-time-rise-zero-hours-contracts>. See also Bell and Blanchflower, 2013. Ibid; and Poinasamy, D. (2011) When work won’t pay: in-work poverty in the UK. Oxfam. Available at: <http://policy-practice.oxfam.org.uk/publications/when-work-wont-pay-in-work-poverty-in-theuk-197010> [↑](#footnote-ref-4)
5. See Bell, D. and Blanchflower, D. (2013) ‘Underemployment in the UK Revisited’. *National Institute Economic Review* May 1 (224) [↑](#footnote-ref-5)
6. See Bell, D. and Blanchflower, D. (2013) Ibid. [↑](#footnote-ref-6)
7. McInnes et al Ibid. [↑](#footnote-ref-7)
8. See Van Wanrooy, B. et al, 2013. Ibid. Bewley, H. Bryson, A. Forth, J. Freeth, S. Stokes, L. and Wood, S. (2013) Employment Relations in the Shadow of Recession: Findings from the 2011 Workplace Employment Relations Study. Palgrave MacMillan. [↑](#footnote-ref-8)
9. The data for the proportion of temporary employees in non-permanent working arrangements is drawn from analysis of the Office for National Statistics (ONS) Quarterly Labour Force Survey (QLFS), April-June 2013. [↑](#footnote-ref-9)
10. ONS Labour Market Statistical Bulletins available at: <http://www.ons.gov.uk/ons/rel/lms/labour-market-statistics/index.html>. [↑](#footnote-ref-10)
11. See McInnes et al (Ibid). [↑](#footnote-ref-11)
12. See Van Wanrooy, B. et al, 2013. Ibid. p.44-45. [↑](#footnote-ref-12)
13. See Overall, S. (2012) The blurring of control and responsibility: a response to the Acas paper outsourcing and the fragmentation of employment relations. Acas Employment Relations Comment, December. Available at: <http://www.acas.org.uk/media/pdf/k/b/The-blurring-of-control-and-responsibility-accessible-version.pdf> [↑](#footnote-ref-13)
14. See Forde, C. Slater, G. Green, F. (2010) Agency working in the UK: what do we know? Centre for Employment Relations, Innovation and Change. Policy Report No. 2. Available at: <http://lubswww.leeds.ac.uk/fileadmin/user_upload/NEWS/ceric_agency_workers_report_01.pdf> [↑](#footnote-ref-14)
15. For an overview of discrepancy in the figures, see Voss, E. Vitols, K. Farvaque, N. Broughton, A. Behling, F. Dota, F. Leonardi, A. and Naedenoen, F. (2013) The Role of Temporary Agency Work and Labour Market Transitions in Europe: Institutional frameworks, empirical evidence, good practice and the impact of social dialogue Final Report for the Joint Eurociett / UNI Europa Project: “Temporary Agency Work and Transitions in the Labour Market”. Available at: <http://www.ciett.org/fileadmin/templates/eurociett/docs/Social_dialogue/Transitions_project/Report/2013.02.08_-_Full_report_on_the_role_of_TAW_and_labour_market_transitions.pdf>. See also Department for Business Enterprise Regulatory Reform (2008) Agency working in the UK: a review of the evidence. Employment Relations Research Series No43. Available at: <http://www.berr.gov.uk/files/file48720.pdf>. [↑](#footnote-ref-15)
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17. Bell and Blanchflower, 2013. Ibid. [↑](#footnote-ref-17)
18. See Jacques, H. (2013) ‘What do zero-hours contracts mean for doctors?’. Available at: <http://careers.bmj.com/careers/advice/view-article.html?id=20012882> [↑](#footnote-ref-18)
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22. See Watt, N. (2014) ‘Figures show huge rise in zero-hours contracts’. The Guardian. Monday 10 March. Available at: <http://www.theguardian.com/uk-news/2014/mar/10/rise-zero-hours-contracts> [↑](#footnote-ref-22)
23. The ONS estimate is based on survey responses provided by individuals and it is highly likely that some respondents may be unaware of their contractual arrangements or may not recognise the term zero-hours contract (Pyper and McGuiness, Ibid). In autumn 2013, one of ONS’s large-scale monthly business surveys began to include some questions on zero-hours contracts so as to obtain robust data directly from employers. The first results will be available in early 2014 (ONS, 2013). [↑](#footnote-ref-23)
24. The ONS estimate is based on survey responses provided by individuals and it is highly likely that some respondents may be unaware of their contractual arrangements or may not recognise the term zero-hours contract (Pyper and McGuiness, Ibid). In autumn 2013, one of ONS’s large-scale monthly business surveys began to include some questions on zero-hours contracts so as to obtain robust data directly from employers. The first results will be available in early 2014 (ONS, 2013). [↑](#footnote-ref-24)
25. See Butler, S. (2013) ‘Zero-hours contracts: 5.5m Britons 'are on deals offering little guaranteed work'. The Guardian 8th September. Available at: <http://www.theguardian.com/uk-news/2013/sep/08/zero-hours-contracts-unite-survey> [↑](#footnote-ref-25)
26. Based on analysis of QLFS April-June 2013. [↑](#footnote-ref-26)
27. See CIPD, 2013. The discrepancies between the CIPD and LFS surveys is perhaps also indicative of weaknesses in the LFS in capturing voluntary sector working lives. [↑](#footnote-ref-27)
28. For a discussion of employment and flexible working in the 2011 Workplace Employment Relations Survey, see Van Wanrooy, B.et al. Ibid. Chapter 3. [↑](#footnote-ref-28)
29. See Pennycook et al, 2013. Ibid. [↑](#footnote-ref-29)
30. See Neville, S. (2013) ‘Burger King and Domino's Pizza also using zero-hours contracts’. The Guardian, 6th August. Available at: <http://www.theguardian.com/uk-news/2013/aug/06/burger-king-dominos-zero-hour> [↑](#footnote-ref-30)
31. see Bessa, I. Forde, C. Moore, S. and Stuart, M. 2013) The National Minimum Wage, earnings and hours in the domiciliary care sector, University of Leeds (February 2013). Available at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/227614/LPC_-_Final_Leeds_University_Report_-_26_February_2013SM2.pdf> [↑](#footnote-ref-31)
32. The Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings (ASHE) provides the most accurate estimates of low pay, drawing on information provided by employers from actual pay records. However, ASHE does not collect information on zero-hours contract workers. LFS responses are recalled by the respondents, often without reference to wage documentation. While respondents tend to know their hourly rate fairly accurately, in around 30 per cent of cases the respondent is not available when the survey is carried out, and a “proxy response” is provided by another member of the household, typically without referring to payslips. Both the reliance on recall and proxy responses is thought to overestimate low pay. However, the LFS does contain data on the incidence of zero-hours contract workers and for this reason this section draws on the LFS rather than ASHE. [↑](#footnote-ref-32)
33. The median is often a preferred measurement of low pay as the average often obscures the extent of lower wage rates due to being easily skewed by a minority of extremely high earnings. [↑](#footnote-ref-33)
34. Forde et al, 2010. Ibid. [↑](#footnote-ref-34)
35. <http://www.tuc.org.uk/workplace-issues/employment-rights/proposed-changes-law/basic-rights-work/tuc-lodges-complaint>. [↑](#footnote-ref-35)
36. It should be noted that there are concerns around the reliability of LFS data on earnings as the LFS is self-reported and based on small sample sizes. Earnings data is further discussed in the next section. [↑](#footnote-ref-36)
37. Cited in Pennycook et al, 2013. Ibid [↑](#footnote-ref-37)
38. See Low Pay Commission (2013) National Minimum Wage. Low Pay Commission Report 2013. Available at: <http://www.official-documents.gov.uk/document/cm85/8565/8565.pdf> [↑](#footnote-ref-38)
39. See Low Pay Commission (2013) Ibid. [↑](#footnote-ref-39)
40. McInnes et al, 2013. Ibid [↑](#footnote-ref-40)
41. See Omerod and Ritchie, 2007, Ibid. [↑](#footnote-ref-41)
42. For example see Ramesh, R. (2013) ‘How private care firms have got away with breaking the law on pay’. The Guardian, 13th June. Available at: <http://www.theguardian.com/society/2013/jun/13/care-firms-law-on-pay> and also Bessa et al. Ibid. and Low Pay Commission, Ibid. [↑](#footnote-ref-42)
43. 1 in 2012 and 5 in 2014. See:  <http://news.bis.gov.uk/Press-Releases/Lamb-names-employer-for-flouting-the-National-Minimum-Wage-67f74.aspx>  [https://www.gov.uk/government/news/government-gets-tough-with-employers-failing-to-pay-minimum-wage](https://www.gov.uk/government/news/government-gets-tough-with-employers-failing-to-pay-minimum-wage%20%20)  [↑](#footnote-ref-43)
44. See Government final evidence to the Low Pay Commission 2014, p66, table D1 – figures refer to 2012/2013. [↑](#footnote-ref-44)
45. See Wills, J. and Linnekar, B. (2012) The costs and benefits of the London living wage. London: Queen Mary University of London. Available at: <http://www.geog.qmul.ac.uk/livingwage/pdf/Livingwagecostsandbenefits.pdf> [↑](#footnote-ref-45)
46. For a discussion of the Living Wage and other options for reform see Manning, A. (2012) Minimum Wage: Maximum Impact. Resolution Foundation. Available at: <http://www.resolutionfoundation.org/media/media/downloads/MinimumWageMaximumImpact.pdf> [↑](#footnote-ref-46)
47. See Wills and Linnekar (2012) Ibid. [↑](#footnote-ref-47)
48. See McInnes et al (Ibid) [↑](#footnote-ref-48)
49. See Wills and Linnekar (2012) Ibid. See also Pennycook, M. (2012) What price a living wage?

Understanding the impact of a living wage on firm-level wage bills. London: Resolution

Foundation and IPPR. [↑](#footnote-ref-49)
50. Living Wage Commission (2014) Ibid. [↑](#footnote-ref-50)
51. It should be noted that the estimation of poverty risk is a complex area. While being paid the living wage reduces the risk of being in poverty, two-fifths of adults in working families and in poverty have been found to be in families where the earner was paid over the living wage. In-work benefits being received by the family, the income of the spouse, family size, and housing costs all influence the poverty risk. See McInnes et al, 2013. Ibid [↑](#footnote-ref-51)
52. See European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (2010) Flexible forms of work: “very atypical‟ contractual arrangements. Cited in Poinasamy, D. (2011) When work won’t pay: in-work poverty in the UK. Oxfam. Available at: <http://policy-practice.oxfam.org.uk/publications/when-work-wont-pay-in-work-poverty-in-theuk-197010> [↑](#footnote-ref-52)
53. Analysis draws on the QLFS April-June 2013. [↑](#footnote-ref-53)
54. See McInnes et al, 2013. Ibid [↑](#footnote-ref-54)
55. Data drawn from Quarterly Labour Force Survey April-June 2013. [↑](#footnote-ref-55)
56. See CIPD, 2013. Ibid. [↑](#footnote-ref-56)
57. See Neville, 2013. Ibid. [↑](#footnote-ref-57)
58. CIPD, 2013, Ibid. [↑](#footnote-ref-58)
59. See Centre for Social Justice (2013) Maxed Out: serious personal debt in Britain. Available at: <http://www.centreforsocialjustice.org.uk/publications/maxed-out> [↑](#footnote-ref-59)
60. For a discussion see Fawcett Society (2013) The changing labour market: delivering for women, delivering for growth’. April. Available at http://www.fawcettsociety.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/2013/04/Fawcett-The-changing-labour-market.pdf [↑](#footnote-ref-60)
61. Draws on analysis of Quarterly Labour Force Survey, April-June 2013. [↑](#footnote-ref-61)
62. See Bessa et al, 2013. Ibid. [↑](#footnote-ref-62)
63. See Bessa et al, 2013. Ibid. [↑](#footnote-ref-63)
64. See Palmer, G. and Kenway, P. (2007) Poverty among ethnic minority groups: how and why does it differ? York: Joseph Rowntree Foundation. Available at: <http://www.jrf.org.uk/sites/files/jrf/2042-ethnicity-relative-poverty.pdf> [↑](#footnote-ref-64)
65. The inquiry report is available at: <http://www.equalityhumanrights.com/uploaded_files/Inquiries/meat_inquiry_report.pdf> [↑](#footnote-ref-65)
66. See Kingman, D. and Seager, A. (2014) Squeezed Youth: The Intergenerational Pay Gap and the Cost of Living Crisis, Intergenerational Foundation. Available at: <http://www.if.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/2014/02/Squeezed-Youth_Final.pdf> [↑](#footnote-ref-66)
67. See McInnes et al, 2013. Ibid. [↑](#footnote-ref-67)
68. See Bell and Blanchflower (2013) Ibid. [↑](#footnote-ref-68)
69. See Standing, G. (2011) The Precariat: The New Dangerous Class. Bloomsbury Publishing. Page.48-9. See also New Economics Foundation (2011) Good Jobs for Non Graduates. Available at <http://www.neweconomics.org/publications/entry/good-jobs-for-non-graduates> [↑](#footnote-ref-69)
70. Plunkett, J. Wilson, T. and D’Arcy, C. (2014) Minimum Wage Act II: Options for Strengthening the UK Minimum wage. A Resolution Foundation policy discussion paper. February. Available at: <http://www.resolutionfoundation.org/media/media/downloads/Minimum_Wage_ACT_II.pdf> [↑](#footnote-ref-70)
71. See van Wanwrooy, B. et al. 2014 Ibid. [↑](#footnote-ref-71)
72. Across all sectors, only two employers have been prosecuted for non-payment of the National Minimum Wage since 2010. This is despite the fact that 700 penalties have been issued in the same period. See All-Party Parliamentary Group on Migration (2014) ‘How can we ensure a level playing field for all workers?’ APPG Migration Briefing [↑](#footnote-ref-72)
73. See speech by Alan Milburn at: <https://www.gov.uk/government/speeches/living-standards-working-poverty-and-social-mobility> [↑](#footnote-ref-73)