

## **EGGE – EC’s Expert Group on Gender and Employment**

### **Supplementary information regarding policies to promote gender equality and employment**

**U.K.**

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**Supplementary information regarding policies to promote gender equality  
and employment : UK**

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**REPORT FOR THE EUROPEAN COMMISSION'S GROUP OF  
EXPERTS ON GENDER AND EMPLOYMENT**

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The Council of the European Union's (2001) evaluation of the UK Employment NAP established four recommendations for action. One of these was that the UK should

*'...strengthen efforts to reduce the gender pay gap and improve the balance of representation between women and men across occupations and sectors, by involving all relevant actors including the social partners and enabling monitoring with appropriate verifiable indicators and targets; further implement and monitor the impact of actions taken to improve the provision of affordable childcare facilities'. (Council of the European Union, 2001, Annex, p26)*

In order to assist the European Commission's Equal Opportunities Unit with their work in relation to the above, information on the following topics was requested for the UK:

- Gender segregation
- Childcare places
- The Employers for Work-Life Balance Initiative

Information on each of these topics is provided in the following three sections, followed by a short concluding section. All the tables referred to in this report are included in the Appendix.

## **1. Gender segregation**

Despite some changes over time in patterns of education, training and employment, gender segregation remains in the education and training systems and the labour market in the UK.

### **1.1 Gender segregation in education and training**

Education is compulsory from the age of 5-16 years in the UK. Government policy has encouraged an expansion in post-compulsory education enrolment during the last decade, and during this period women's enrolment has risen faster than that of men, producing a closure of the gender gap. By the end of 1999 around 75% of young men and women aged 16-18 years in England were in education and training, compared with 64% and 58% respectively in 1986 (National Statistics, 2001, p64).

During the late 1970s and mid-1980s there was a concerted period of equal opportunities activity in the education sector, led by local authorities, the teaching profession and the Equal Opportunities Commission. Most of these initiatives were aimed at promoting equal opportunities in teaching practices and the school environment generally, and at encouraging girls - and boys to a lesser extent - to follow non-traditional subjects (EOC undated). For example, the Engineering Council worked with the education sector to promote science and engineering careers as part of its broader *'Women into Science and Engineering'* (WISE) campaign.

Subsequently the Government introduced the National Curriculum that required all young people to study English, mathematics and science up to the age of 16. Tackling gender segregation in subject choice was not a major objective of the introduction of the National Curriculum, but its compulsory curriculum removed or reduced many of the previous gender inequalities in subject take-up (EOC undated, National Statistics 2001, p64).

From the age of 14 years young people study for public examinations (GCSEs in England, Wales and Northern Ireland, Standard Grades in Scotland). In education girls are now outperforming boys. In their last year of compulsory education, 56% of girls and 45% of boys

gained 5 or more A\*-C grades at GCSE (or grades 1-3 at SCE Standard grade in Scotland). Among those aged 17-19 years, 34% of girls and 27% of boys gained two or more A-level passes. For each subject and level of exam the pass rate is higher for girls than for boys (table 1).

However, subject choices remain strongly influenced by gender. The compulsory nature of core subjects in the National Curriculum has produced few gender differences in the main subjects taken for GCSE/SCE. However, gender differences emerge in some optional subjects including less traditional subjects such as computer studies, where the female proportion of exam entrants slips to 40% (table 1). Gender segregation becomes more pronounced in post-compulsory education in the subjects chosen for A-level examination. For example, table 1 shows that girls account for 60% or more of the candidates for English, French, Biological sciences, and Art and Design, and are under-represented in Mathematics and Physics, This reflects a traditional gender pattern that has changed little during the last ten years (EOC 2001, p3).

Gender segregation is even more pronounced among those students who enter university level education (table 2). Whereas women used to be in the minority among students at university, they now account for just over half of all under-graduates. Among part-time students the representation of women is slightly higher (59%), which reflects women's greater propensity to enter higher education as mature students after an interruption to their education for employment and/or raising young children, in part due to older generations of women having had fewer opportunities for education in the past. Degrees in nursing and other subjects allied to medicine, education, languages and veterinary sciences are heavily female-dominated. Women account for around one third or fewer of students in mathematics, physics, architecture and related subjects, computing, and engineering and technology. Their under-representation in these subjects is despite a shortage of students choosing to study engineering, physics and some areas of mathematics, and information campaigns and recruitment drives to encourage students to study in these areas, including specific campaigns targeted at girls, for example the *WISE* campaign of the Engineering council.

The gender differentiation in other subject areas is less pronounced at undergraduate level, and in some subjects such as medicine and law, this reflects a decline in male-domination over the last two decades, which has fed into the growing representation of women in certain professions (see 1.2 below).

Furthermore, male and female graduates with similar degree specialisms often enter quite different sectors, and the gender pay gap among graduates emerges very quickly after graduation. For example, among graduates with a first degree in a subject related to medicine, women are more likely to enter health or social work. Similarly among those with a degree in education, women are more likely to enter the education sector. Women who graduate in science, engineering and technology are more likely than men to enter teaching or an occupation where their degree subject was not directly applicable, while men are more likely to enter a scientific career, especially as a manager. Regardless of their degree, women were more likely to enter clerical and secretarial work than male graduates (EOC 2001, p4).

Within the Government's policy commitment to the expansion of post-compulsory education, there is a growing emphasis on promoting vocational training alongside more traditional academic paths. There are a number of government-supported training initiatives. *Work-based Training for Young People (WBTYP)* was introduced with the aim that all young people have access to post-compulsory education. This includes *National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs)* and more recently Advanced and Foundation Modern Apprenticeships were introduced in 1998 to develop technical, supervisory and craft-level skills among 16-24 year

olds. In 2000 48% of all young people on government-supported training in England were enrolled on Advanced Modern Apprenticeships, usually with full-time employment status (National Statistics 2001, p70). There is also the *Work-Based Learning for Adults* initiative to help the unemployed and disadvantaged find jobs through training and work experience, which is open to those aged over 25 years who have been unemployed for six months or longer.

Just over half of the vocational qualification awards received go to women, but there are marked differences in the occupational areas (table 3), reflecting the broader pattern of gender segregation in employment discussed in section 2.2 below. Thus, women account for over 70% of the recipients of vocational qualifications awarded in personal services and sales and less than 10% of those awarded in construction and plant and machine operating jobs. Women are also disproportionately represented among those receiving NVQs in managerial and professional occupations. The gender segregation in modern apprenticeships is even starker, although women hold half of all apprenticeships. Apprenticeships in construction, the motor industry, engineering and manufacturing are almost entirely filled by young men. Childcare, hairdressing, health and social care are largely the preserve of young women, who also dominated the apprenticeships in business administration and customer services. Overall, the Equal Opportunities Commission (EOC 2001, p4-5) concludes that all forms of vocational training for women are concentrated in the lowest paid sectors.

Recent reforms to the National Curriculum have allowed optional vocational subjects to be introduced into schools, and the choices made by pupils generally reflect the traditional pattern of gender segregation. The Equal Opportunities Commission is working with the careers education service and training organisations to encourage diversity and is lobbying the Government to promote equality in relation to work experience and in the school curriculum through the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) (EOC 2001, p1).

From this brief review it can be seen that gender segregation has largely disappeared in the level of qualification, but it persists in the subject or area of specialism selected, and this feeds into gender segregation in employment, discussed next. Widening the opportunities of young people to enter non-traditional areas of education and training is mentioned in government policy statements in these areas, but it is not a priority issue in that there are few new initiatives or detailed policy requirements placed on education and training providers.

## **1.2 Gender segregation in employment**

The employment rate for women has risen in recent decades while that for men has stagnated and declined. In 2001, 66% of women and 79% of men aged 16-64 years were in employment, while 4% of women and 5% of men were unemployed (ILO definition of unemployment). Of those in employment, 44% of women and only 9% of men were employed part-time. Only 27% of male part-timers were aged between 25-55, compared to 69% of female part-timers (EOC 2002, tables on page 6).

There are marked ethnic differences in employment rates in Britain. White and Black Caribbean women have the highest employment rates for women, while employment rates are lower for women from other ethnic groups, particularly for women of Pakistani & Bangladeshi origin (EOC 2002, p10). Part-time work is rare for non-White women (Dale and Holdsworth 1998). Among men, the White majority ethnic group have the highest employment rates.

Previous research undertaken for the European Commission showed that occupational segregation is a persistent feature of European labour markets (Rubery and Fagan 1993,

Rubery et al. 1999). The female share of the major occupational groups in 2001 shown in table 4a is very similar to that found in an earlier analysis of labour force survey data for 1991 (Rubery et al. 1992, table 1.1). The main change is that the personal services became even more female-dominated over this period. Women hold 69% or more of the jobs in administrative and secretarial, personal service, and sales and customer service occupations. Men hold 70% or more of the jobs in managerial and senior official posts, skilled trades, processing, and plant and machine operatives.

At this broad level of major occupational groups, the professional, associate professional and 'elementary' occupational categories are the most mixed, and the female share of each group is similar to their overall representation in employment. However, a more detailed breakdown reveals a strong pattern of gender segregation between more precise occupational categories (see also Rubery and Fagan 1993, Rubery et al. 1992 and 1999). Table 4b includes information for selected occupations to illustrate this pattern of segregation in more detail. For example, women hold less than 10% of driving or security jobs and constitute over 80% of cleaners, hairdressers and barbers, care assistants and receptionists.

In recent years women have increased their presence in a number of areas of managerial and professional activity in the UK, as in the rest of Europe (Rubery and Fagan 1993, Hakim 1996, chapter 6). This has resulted from a combination of factors, including the rise in qualification levels among women as cohorts have moved through the education system from the 1970s onwards (see section 1.1 above), equal opportunities legislation and policies, and the favourable economic climate of the growing demand for managerial and professional workers in the economy (Rubery and Fagan 1993). Recent trends for the UK are summarised in box 1. Women have significantly increased their presence in areas where they were under-represented, such as management, accountancy, law and medicine, and university-level teaching. They have also increased their presence slightly in school teaching, which was already female-dominated.

## **Box 1. Women's increasing representation in Management and in the Professions**

### ***Management***

Women's representation among managerial executives has doubled and among company directors it has tripled since the mid-1990s. However, women still comprise less than a quarter of executives and 10% of company directors. Only 8 of the FTSE 100 companies have a woman executive director.

By 2001, women held 22% of senior civil servants in the public sector, more than double their share in 1990.

By 2001, 12% of local authority chief executives were women, up from 1% in 1991.

By 2001, 7% of chief constables in the police service were women, compared to zero in 1990.

### ***Accountancy***

By 2000, women comprised 19% of the members of the Institute of Chartered Accountants, up from 10% in 1989.

### ***Education***

Women hold 84% of nursery and primary school teaching posts and 53% of full-time secondary posts. The female share of both these levels of teaching have increased gradually over the 1990s, up from 81% and 49% in 1990. Women remain under-represented in head posts: the proportion of primary/nursery school heads who are women rose from 49% in 1990 to 58% in 1999; while the proportion of secondary school heads who are women rose from 20% to 28% over the same period.

In higher education women hold 32% of full-time and 53% of part-time academic posts. Women are under-represented in the senior grades, and only hold 10% of professorial posts. They is marked gender segregation by subject area: women are over-represented in health and related, and virtually absent in engineering and technology.

### ***Engineering***

In engineering the number of women registered with the Engineering Council has risen from 478 in 1984 – when the *Women into Science and Engineering (WISE)* initiative was launched - to 5,728 in 1999. This represents a twelve-fold increase in the number of female engineers, but women still comprise only 2% of registered engineers.

### ***Law***

In 1999, 35% of solicitors were women, compared to 21% in 1989. Women are still very under-represented at the senior levels of the profession, although their presence is increasing

### ***Medicine***

In 1999, 34% of hospital doctors were women, compared to 26% in 1989. Women are still under-represented at the senior levels, holding only 20% of consultant posts and 5% of consultant surgeons. Among consultants, women are better represented in particular specialisms, such as paediatrics and psychiatry and more severely under-represented in others such as surgery.

Women have also increased their representation among non-hospital based General Practitioners (GPs), from 25% in 1989 to 34% in 1999. Compared to hospital-based doctors the working hours are better and opportunities to work part-time are more established. In 1999 41% of female GPs were on half-time or jobshare contracts, compared to 6% of male GPs.

Source: EOC (2002a, 2002b), Business in the Community 'facts and figures' (2002) for the FTSE 100 data, data for teachers taken from National Statistics (2001) table 3.1, derived from Department for Education and Employment statistics.

However, women's inroad into different areas of managerial and professional activity remains uneven. The majority of managers in personnel, office managers in financial institutions and managers in health and social services are women, yet women hold less than a quarter of managerial posts in production, ICT, marketing and sales or as corporate managers (see table 4c). Women account for a higher proportion of managers in the public sector than the private



sector (40% compared to 28%)(EOC 2002a, page 3). Among professionals, little progress has been made in engineering, for example, despite sustained campaigns and women's representation is low among software professionals, scientists and architectural and related activities as well (table 4d). Women continue to predominate among school-teachers, nurses and social welfare and community workers, which is where women's professional activities have traditionally been concentrated.

Within professional and managerial career ladders vertical segregation is pervasive and women are under-represented in the more senior levels or in the better-paid, more prestigious specialist functions (see box 1 for examples). This vertical segregation cannot simply be explained as a result of the younger average ages and lower levels of 'human capital' of new entrants and that gender differences will be eroded as women become more established in these professions; it is also to do with discrimination and 'glass ceiling' barriers to advancement (e.g. see Wajcman 1998). For example, women have a long and established position in school teaching, yet are still under-represented as school heads, despite some improvement in recent years (see Box 1).

A large proportion of women's employment is part-time in the UK, and women in part-time jobs are even more segregated from male workers than are women who work full-time (Rubery and Fagan 1993). Part-time work is particularly established in the low paid areas of elementary jobs, sales and personal services, and in some female-dominated professions, but generally at the lower grades. Part-time work is rare in many professions and in management.

The occupational segregation of women and men is also reflected in their distribution across sectors (table 5). The health and education sectors are female-dominated, while women are particularly under-represented in transport, storage and communication, in construction and in manufacturing. Women's under-representation in formal political office should also be noted here. Only 18% of Members of Parliament are women, although women's representation at the local authority and European level is better, for they account for around a quarter of the UK's local authority councillors and Members of the European Parliament (table 6). The financial cost of segregation is high for women. Women employees working full-time earn on average 82% of the average hourly earnings of male full-time employees (table 7). The hourly ratio is much lower for women in part-time jobs, on average 59% of the average hourly earnings of men.

Reducing gender segregation in employment is not a direct focus of any particular government policy at present. However, the expansion of childcare services and the '*Work-Life Balance Initiative*' discussed in sections 2 and 3 below are directly relevant for they aim to make it easier for women to combine employment with family responsibilities and in this way should help to reduce vertical segregation. Policy and promotional work in relation to segregation is mainly being undertaken by the Women's Unit of the Cabinet Office, by the Equal Opportunities Commission and by '*Opportunity Now*' (previously known as Opportunity 2000), a business-led campaign that was set up in 1981.

The Equal Opportunities Commission lobbies government and works with employers, trade unions and professional associations to promote a number of equal opportunities policies with the aim of reducing gender segregation. It recommends:

- Accessible training systems
- Positive action by employers to encourage women and men into non-traditional job areas
- Improvements in recruitment procedures to remove sex discrimination

- An end to the long hours culture, which is particularly endemic in management and certain professions, including health and education
- Regular workplace reviews to identify gender inequalities in pay and promotion among all workers including managers
- Better implementation of Equal Pay and Equal Treatment for part-timers in order to reduce the financial penalties of gender segregation
- Increased opportunities for more flexible working arrangements, including opportunities to work part-time in professional and managerial positions
- The expansion and targeted funding of childcare services

See [www.eoc.org.uk](http://www.eoc.org.uk) for further details. A similar set of policy recommendations are presented by the Women's Unit in its advisory role to government.

The '*Opportunity Now*' campaign is run by Business in the Community (BIC), a not-for-profit organisation representing over 300 influential companies drawn from the private, public and education sectors across the UK that are 'committed to improving their positive impact on society' (BIC 2002, 'about us'). It works with employers to tackle the barriers that exist to women's advancement in employment. It disseminates information materials, including 'business case' cost estimates and best practice examples of equal opportunities initiatives to recruit, retain and promote women, organises conferences and publicises 'success stories' through annual awards. One of the initial innovations of this campaign – introduced in its previous guise as '*Opportunity 2000*' – was that companies are encouraged to establish targets to monitor their progress over time. An early evaluation of the impact of this initiative showed that the rate of advance of women in companies into non-traditional occupation or more senior posts was better than that occurring in companies which were not members of the campaign. Furthermore, that the best rate of progress was found in companies with comprehensive positive action plans in place (Hammond 1994). However, the emphasis on target setting and monitoring is rather low key in the current materials of the campaign, suggesting that some companies may have become reluctant to having their performance assessed in this way (see <http://www.opportunitynow.org.uk> for further details).

## **2. Childcare places**

The first part of this section discusses how European comparisons of the level of childcare places can misrepresent the situation in the UK unless information on the types of childcare services and their opening hours are explicitly included, as well as other more qualitative indicators of standards and affordability. The second part provides more information on childcare in the UK and associated policy developments.

### **2.1 International comparisons of childcare statistics – issues of comparability**

A number of international comparative studies have shown that provision of childcare services in the UK is much lower than in many other countries. For example, Deven et al.'s (1997) comparison of publicly funded childcare services in the mid 1990s reported that the provision in the UK covered only 2% of the under three year olds, 60% of those aged 3-6 years and that out-of-school care catered for only 5% of 6-10 year olds. This situation is in contrast to higher levels of provision in the Nordic countries, Belgium and France (cited in Bettio and Prechal 1998). More recent data reported by the OECD (2001) and referred to by the European Commission (2001) in its evaluation of the 2001 NAPs compares the proportion

of children using all forms of formal childcare services provide by public and private services in the Member States. In these reports the 1998 data reported for the UK shows that the proportion of 0-2 year olds using formal childcare arrangements of any sort is 34%, rising to 60% of those aged from three until mandatory school age (5 years). Although this is a more inclusive definition of childcare that that used in the earlier study by Deven et al. (1997), the higher rates of provision reported for the under threes does in part reflect an expansion in formal childcare in the UK in recent years. This expansion in formal childcare provision has been stimulated by Government policy under the *National Childcare Strategy* initiative, which is discussed in more detail below.

### **Box 2. The types of childcare provision in the UK**

**Playgroups and pre-school** largely provide part-time places are part-time for only a few hours a day or week, and largely used by young toddlers (under 2 years and rising 3 years). Often the parents are involved in helping to run these sessions on a voluntary basis, and so this form of childcare is not designed to enable parents to undertake employment. The price varies, but most are low cost.

A national survey of childcare providers undertaken in 1998 and 1999 revealed that the voluntary sector provided over half of all playgroup and pre-school services, and over 70% of provision is for 3-4 hours a day (Callender 2000).

**Day nurseries and childminders** provide full-time, year round places, typically for at least 7 hours a day (Callender 2000), but some also provide part-time places. This form of childcare covers all the pre-school years, although some nurseries do not take children until they are 6 months or 12 months old. Most of these places are provided by the private sector (with standards regulated by the state) on a fee basis. Local authorities provide nursery places on a subsidised basis, where priority is given to children from low-income or disadvantaged families. The proportion of nurseries places provided by the local authorities is declining due to the expansion of private sector provision (see below).

**Nursery and reception class places in primary schools** are often part-time and term-time, typically for mornings or afternoons, and even if full-time the hours are usually shorter than those provided by day nurseries and childminders. These classes mainly take 4-year olds prior to compulsory school enrolment at five years, but attendance by three year olds is increasing as part of the government's strategy to expand childcare. Most of these places are provided free in the state education system.

**Out-of-school care** is designed for school age children (compulsory school age is 5 years, but it is increasingly common for children to start school at 4 years). It typically lasts for 3-4 hours a day (school hours are usually 9-1530, Monday to Friday) (Callender 2000). The cost varies and is generally higher if provided by private companies than if provided by the voluntary sector or in partnerships with schools.

However, it is important to qualify these broad comparisons of childcare places with more precise information on the types of childcare provision and the hours of attendance to fully appreciate the situation in any one country and to draw comparisons with the different system found in other member states. This is addressed in Deven et al.'s (1997) analysis and in Bettio and Prechal's (1998) report, and is reported in a more limited fashion in the more recent OECD (2001) comparison, but this important supplementary information is not included in the European Commission's comparison of childcare coverage in the member states (2001, table 11). When this information is not explicitly taken into account then comparisons across countries can be misleading. For example, the comparative data presented in the European NAP evaluation (2001, table 11) shows that coverage of the under three years in the UK exceeds that in Belgium (30%) and France (29%), yet in both these countries childcare is largely on a full-time basis in publicly funded services (Deven et al. 1997, Bettio and Prechal 1998). In contrast, in the UK formal pre-school childcare is delivered through the private, public and voluntary sectors and comprises a combination of playgroups and pre-schools, day nurseries, childminders, and nursery and reception classes in schools. It is important to

differentiate the proportion of children attending each form of childcare, because the hours of attendance are quite different, as are the costs (see box 2).

This more detailed information is essential if comparable childcare statistics are to be developed for the European Union, which is explored in a recent feasibility study by Eurostat (undated). This preliminary study identifies the problems of compatibility between different existing national sources and concludes that 'it is possible only to build a comparative table with enrolment ratios by age or age bands' for all forms of childcare facilities (p4). The comparative table produced (Eurostat, undated: table 3) suggests near universal coverage in the UK, equal to or exceeding enrolment rates in most of the other member states. Namely, according to this table in the UK 88% of children aged 0-2 years and 95% of 3-4 year olds are enrolled in some form of childcare, with similarly high enrolment rates for school age children (5 year and above), presumably in out-of-school facilities. This table misrepresents the situation in the UK, as we shall see below in section 2.2. Eurostat is aware of the limitations of the comparable data that they present, for the report makes a number of recommendations as to how the data should be collected across countries to improve the comparability. This includes indicators of quality and affordability as well as the coverage of services, as well as presenting this data in relation to alternative forms of childcare that vary between countries, such as leave entitlements. However, one comparability issue that is not explicitly mentioned is the opening hours (weekly and number of years per week) of different forms of childcare, and it is vital that this is included in the design of comparable childcare statistics.

## **2.2 Childcare places in the UK**

The employment rate gap for men and women without dependent children is quite small at only seven percentage points. There is a wide gap in the employment rates of parents with dependent children, although maternal employment rates have been rising for some years (table 8). Women whose youngest child is aged less than 5 years have the lowest employment rate at 54%, and full-time employment is rare for mothers with a child aged less than 11. Lone parents have markedly lower employment rates than married or cohabiting parents.

Access to childcare is a key influence on mother's employment patterns, although it is not the only one, for normative attitudes as well as employment opportunities also influence labour market decisions. Surveys show that most mothers in the UK express a preference for informal childcare provided by family members or friends, even in an 'ideal scenario' where they are unconstrained by cost or availability (La Valle et al., 2000). However, these preferences have developed in the context of limited formal provision and preferences are likely to shift if good quality and affordable childcare becomes more available in a real rather than hypothetical situation.

A 1998 survey by the Cabinet Office found that about two-thirds of mothers in the UK who were not employed felt that it was 'very important' not to work in order to spend time with their children. However, the responses from these mothers also indicated that this choice was partly constrained: nearly half thought that suitable childcare was too costly, and one third were unable to find the sort of childcare they would like. Nearly 40% said they could not find work with suitable hours and a significant minority mentioned reasons such as the pressures of juggling employment and family work, or the lack of local employment opportunities (cited by National Statistics 2001, p91). The same study found that the key factors that influenced mothers' decisions to use formal childcare services were high quality care in a safe environment, affordability and accessibility in accommodating irregular working hours and school holidays (cited by National Statistics 2001, p62).

Another national survey of parents in 1999 (La Valle et al., 2000) also found that while the majority of non-employed mothers said they had chosen to stay at home, one quarter said that they were unable to work because they lacked available and affordable childcare. Overall two thirds of all non-employed mothers said they would prefer to work if they had better childcare, 40% also mentioned that they would have to earn enough to make it worthwhile, and many mentioned their desire for flexible working arrangements. Nearly three quarters of parents who worked or studied outside of the home said that their current childcare arrangements were not ideal, particularly those from low-income households and lone parents. The main reasons cited were lack of local provision and inability to afford more adequate childcare.

A national survey of childcare providers undertaken in 1998 and 1999 (Callender 2000) revealed that in all types of provision, childcare places were more widely available for 4 year olds than for younger age groups. Over one third of providers had both vacancies and waiting lists, but this was mainly due to a mismatch of supply and demand according to the child's age. There was a general shortage of places for babies and young toddlers, but some spare capacity for three year olds. Childminders were more likely than nurseries to have space capacity for babies less than 12 months old.

### **Box 3. The aims of the National Childcare Strategy**

- **Enhance education** so that all children should begin school with a basic foundation in literacy and numeracy by establishing Early Learning Standards
- **Raise the quality of care** by improving regulation of standards, development of best practice models in 'Early Excellence' centres, introducing new vocational training and qualifications framework for childcare workers and more investment in training opportunities (including training under the 'New deal' initiative for the unemployed)
  - o *This includes the introduction of national standards for childminders, nursery and pre-school playgroup providers, with regulatory responsibility for children passing to the Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED) from Social Services*
- **Make childcare more affordable** for low income families via the Working Families Tax Credit and for parents in education and training through increases in Access Funds in further and higher education and help with childcare costs for those training under the 'New Deal'
- **Make childcare more accessible by increasing the number of places and improving information**
  - o *increase the number of childcare places and provide good quality, affordable childcare for children aged 0-14 years in every neighbourhood*
  - o *Made £300 million available in England to set up new out-of-school childcare places.*
  - o *From September 1998 every four year old is guaranteed a free education place [note that the Government does not specify that this must be full-time], and in the longer term the aim is to extend this to three year olds*
  - o *Introduce a new national helpline and web-site in 1999 which will link parents with local childcare information services that meet national standards*
- **Encourage more family-friendly working arrangements** so that parents can spend more time with their children

There has been a major expansion of pre-school education investment and provision in recent years, stimulated by the Government's launch of the *National Childcare Strategy* in May 1998 (DfEE 1998), the details of which are summarised in box 3.

A key element of the strategy was that early years and childcare services should be developed and delivered through local partnership initiatives – the *Early Years Development and Childcare Partnerships*. The Department for Education and Skills<sup>1</sup> (2002) provides funding, information and advice for the establishment of these partnerships (local authorities, private and voluntary childcare providers, schools, training organisations, employers, parents) and for organisations providing childcare services and reports that 150 such partnerships were in operation by 2002.

The expansion in childcare services in the UK has involved a large growth in private sector day nurseries. In 1999 there were four times as many day nursery places as there were in 1987, an increase from 62,000 to 262,000 (rising again to 285,000 by 2001/2, see table 9). The number of childminders more than doubled over the same period, although most of this increase was in the first half of the 1990s and the number of childminders has fallen back post-1998. There has been a proportional and absolute decline in state provision. Local authority provision of day nursery places in England, Wales and Northern Ireland fell from 29,000 in 1987 to 16,000 in 1999 (National Statistics 2001, p156). Day nurseries still only cater for a minority of pre-school children, for example the proportion of three and four year olds attending day nurseries has risen from 7% in 1997 to 10% in 2000 (Blake et al. 2001).

School enrolment in nursery and reception classes has also increased. In 1970/71 21% of three and four year olds in the UK attended schools, by 1999/00 this had risen to 64%, which includes 28% who are in reception classes. Another 16% of all four year olds in England were enrolled in non-school education settings in the private and voluntary sector, such as local playgroups (National Statistics 2001, p59 and 156). Overall, by 2000, 91% of three year olds and 98% of four year olds attended some form of nursery education, when playgroups and pre-school are included alongside day nurseries and school reception classes (Blake et al. 2001). The rate of full-time participation increased with the child's age, and the type of service used shifted as they approached school entry:

- For the *younger three year olds* the main form of service used was playgroups or pre-school (41%), 17% attended a nursery class in a primary school, 15% attended a day nursery, and 7% attended a nursery school.
- *Older 3 year olds and younger 4 year olds* were mainly attending nursery classes at primary schools (45%) but 26% were also in playgroups and 13% in nursery schools.
- Over 80% of the *older 4 year olds and younger 5 year olds* were in reception classes in primary schools.

Provision in out-of-school clubs has also grown substantially. These clubs provide care for four or five days a week before and/or after school. The government introduced start-up funds to stimulate this provision in 1993 (O'Brien and Dench 1996, Gatenby 1998), with further funding sources introduced more recently as part of the National Childcare Strategy. By 2000 there were around 4,000 such clubs in England, providing 141 thousand places for children aged five to seven. The number of places available was almost 12 times higher than in 1992. Holiday play schemes or clubs provide care all day during school holidays and sometimes at half-term breaks. In 2000 there were 11.5 thousand holiday schemes providing 490 thousand places – ten times more than in 1992, with half the increase taking place since 1998 (National Statistics 2001, p62).

Overall, in 1998 when the childcare strategy was launched there were an estimated 830,000 registered places for the 5.1 million children aged under eight in England (16.3 children per

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<sup>1</sup> The Department for Education and Skills replaced the Department for Education and Employment following a restructuring of Ministries.

place) (DfEE 1998, p6). By 2001 coverage had grown rapidly, but there is still only one place in a day nursery, with a registered childminder or at an out-of-school club for every 6.6 children aged under 8 years (table 9). A national survey this year (Daycare Trust, 2002) found that the vast majority of parents still report a lack of quality, affordable childcare in their area, particularly for children under two and after-school clubs.

The government remains committed to further expansion of childcare places, but a number of factors may limit the success of the strategy in its current form. Firstly, the affordability of childcare is a major obstacle. Parents pay between 75-93% of the cost of childcare in the UK, with the Government paying most of the rest plus a small contribution by employers. This is in contrast to the situation in most other European countries where parents pay closer to 25-30% of the costs (Daycare Trust 2002, 2002a). The typical cost of a full-time nursery place for a child under two is now £120 a week (£6,200 per year) up almost 10% in the last year, and places with childminders are only slightly cheaper. These costs represent a high proportion of average earnings (see table 9).<sup>2</sup>

Working families on low incomes can obtain help towards their childcare bill through the childcare tax credit, providing that they pay a minimum of 30% of the cost of childcare. The current average childcare tax credit is £37.30 a week, or less than a third of the typical cost of a nursery place (table 9). According to the Daycare Trust 'British parents face the highest childcare bills in Europe' (2002). In April 2002 the Chancellor announced that childcare tax credits are to be extended to middle/higher income households, but childcare costs will remain high in the UK relative to the situation in many other European countries.

Furthermore, 3 million children live in families where there is no employed adult, and of these only 20,000 children can access childcare services paid for by their local authority. Thus, the majority of children in very low-income households miss out on the learning and development benefits of childcare (Daycare Trust 2002).

Childcare providers also cite costs as major obstacles to expansion, in terms of the prices that parents could afford relative to the wages and other costs of providing the service (Callender 2000). All types of childcare provider favoured childcare subsidies for parents as a means of supporting expanded provision. The majority also wanted fiscal subsidies for businesses to reduce their costs (VAT free purchases, reductions in the business rates (local authority taxes)), harmonisation of regulations and inspection standards across different types of provision and increased training provision to raise the number and quality of childcare workers.

A second and related funding issue is the complexity and largely short-term nature of the government funds that do exist. In total 45 different sources of funds are available for setting-up childcare services, most of which provide for set-up costs and initial funding only. Not-for-profit nurseries providing childcare services in disadvantaged areas face the greatest problems. Currently 256 exist, but half say their funding is insecure and two thirds report that they are threatened with closure (Daycare Trust 2000). Similar problems are reported by the *Kids' Club Network* which represents 7,000 out-of-school clubs. Two thirds of the out-of-school clubs said their funding was not secure even for next year and 8 in 10 worried about their future (Hinsliff 2002). Even the government's own evaluations found that out-of-school schemes in areas of low income and high unemployment faced particularly challenges to their

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<sup>2</sup> Typically the average amount of childcare paid by families is much lower when averaged across all the types of provision that they use, for only a minority of families purchase full-time childcare. In 1999 40% of families had paid fees or wages for some form of childcare in the previous week (La Valle et al., 2000). Overall, the average costs were low, with a median of £19 per week (this includes full-time and part-time attendance at all forms of childcare).

viability once grants were exhausted (O'Brien and Dench 1996, Gatenby 1998). *Kids' Club Network* estimate that it would cost about £90 million per annum to secure the future of out-of-school clubs (Hinsliff 2002).

The third constraint is the supply of childcare workers, over 90% of which are women. The Daycare Trust (2001) estimate that at least 150,000 additional childcare workers must be recruited if the Government is to meet its target, and argues that the training, pay and employment conditions of childcare workers need to be raised to attract the necessary entrants. The report shows that childcare workers are low paid, particularly those employed in the private and voluntary sectors. Average pay is less than £11,000 per annum and 80% of staff earn less than £13,000, making this one of the lowest paid jobs in Britain, with earnings typically lower than gardening or cleaning. In the particular case of childminding, after an expansion in the first half of the 1990s, the number of childminders registered in 1999 had fallen back to below the 1997 level (National Statistics 2001, table 8.23). Research carried out in 1999-2000 shows that most childminders are women, caring on average for 3.5 children. They work on average 34 hours per week, but a third worked between 41-50 hours. It is one of the lowest paid occupations, with an average gross weekly income of £103 per week. More than half saw childminding as their chosen career or stepping stone to related work with children, while the rest saw it as a convenient option while their own children were young. Lack of career progression and low and unreliable income were the main sources of dissatisfaction (Mooney et al 2001). Callender (2000) also reports that low and unreliable earnings were the main obstacle that childminders' saw in continuing or expanding their childminding activities.

### **3. The Work-Life Balance Initiative**

The importance of working practices that allow individuals to combine employment with caring responsibilities is a theme that has grown in emphasis in government policy since the end of the 1990s. It appears, for example, in two government papers in 1998 that set out new legislation and policy concerning employment standards and childcare provision: *Fairness at Work* and *Meeting the Childcare Challenge*. The government has also emphasised that one of the benefits of the adoption of the Parental Leave Directive, the Working Time Directive and the Atypical Work Directive are that they help parents to spend more time with the families. It has also extended maternity leave for this purpose.

It should be noted, however, that the emphasis of government policy is on stimulating employers to voluntary action, rather than direct introduction of entitlements, in line with the liberal tradition of intervention in British politics. For example, the adoption of the Directives has introduced the minimum regulations required by the EU. The government has resisted calls to set a lower threshold on weekly hours below the 48-hour limit set in the Directive and parental leave has been introduced on an unpaid basis.

In March 2000 the Prime Minister launched a 'work-life balance' campaign to encourage employers to provide working arrangements that enable individuals to combine employment with care responsibilities (DTI 2000). There are three major elements of the campaign:

- The setting up of *Employers for Work-Life Balance*, an independent alliance of 22 leading employers committed to working in partnership with Government to promote good practice in the business community ([www.EmployersforWork-LifeBalance.org.uk](http://www.EmployersforWork-LifeBalance.org.uk))



- A £1.5 million *Challenge Fund* to help employers explore how work-life balance policies can help them deliver goods and services more efficiently and flexibly
  - In addition the Department of Trade and Industry has established a *Partnership Fund* (£5 million over the 2001-5 year period) for projects that foster new attitudes and approaches to partnership in the workforce. Projects that tackle work-life balance issues in partnership with the workforce are eligible to apply for support
- The publication of the discussion document '*Work-Life Balance: Changing Patterns in a Changing World*' (DfEE 2000) and the establishment of a website ([www.dfes.gov.uk/work-lifebalance](http://www.dfes.gov.uk/work-lifebalance)).

The document presents a checklist as to what is meant by work-life balance, which the government drew up in partnership with *Employers for Work-Life Balance*. The checklist is presented in box 4.

**Box 4. Work-Life Balance: a checklist for employers produced by the UK government and the *Employers for Work-Life Balance* association**

An organisation that is committed to work-life balance:

- Recognises that effective practices to promote work-life balance will benefit the organisation and its employees (understanding the 'business case')
- Acknowledges that individuals at all stages of their lives work best when they are able to achieve an appropriate balance between work and all other aspects of their lives
- Highlights the employer's and employee's joint responsibility to discuss workable solutions and encourages a partnership between individuals and their line managers
- Develops appropriate policies and practical responses that meet the specific needs of the organisation and its employees, having regard to
  - *Fairness and consistency*
  - *Valuing employees for their contribution to the business, not their working pattern*
  - *Monitoring and evaluation*
- Communicates its commitment to work-life strategies to its employees
- Demonstrates leadership from the top of the organisation and encourages managers to lead by example

Source: DfEE (2000)

The emphasis of the Government's campaign is promoting the 'business case' for introducing work-life balance policies to companies through commissioning and disseminating research evidence (e.g. Bevan et al. 1999, Hogarth et al. 2001), funding and disseminating good practice examples, encouraging workplace consultation and setting a good example in the public sector. The types of policies listed are (DfEE 2000, p15-16):

- Adjustments to the volume of working hours – with an emphasis on part-time work, jobsharing and term-time working rather than reductions in full-time hours
  - the notion of '*V-time*' working is introduced which refers to employees reducing their hours for an agreed period and at a reduced salary with a guarantee that they can return to full-time work at the end of the period

- the issue of long hours of work has a lower profile in the document, and is not highlighted in the prominent list of policies to consider, although it is discussed in paragraph 3.15 and 5.24
- Adjustments to working patterns, including flexitime, compressed working hours, annualised hours, shift swapping, working outside 'normal' hours and self-rostering
- Adjustments to where people work, such as working from home
- Adjustments that allow employees to take leave (maternity, paternity, parental, unpaid career breaks and sabbaticals)
- Other packages that increase employee's choices, such as childcare or eldercare vouchers, phased or flexible retirement

The purpose of the *Employers for Work-Life Balance alliance* is to raise awareness of the business benefits of work-life policies and to share best practice through disseminating case studies and information manuals, establishing a website and telephone advice line and running seminars and conferences and introducing 'Employer of the Year' awards. The founding organisations are listed in box 5.

**Box 5. The companies that are founding members of the Employers for Work-Life Balance**

The companies range from large blue-chip organisations to small and medium-sized businesses:

ASDA Stores Ltd	Littlewoods Organisation plc
BBC	Lloyds TSB group plc
BMW Group	Marks and Spencer
British Telecommunications plc	Nationwide Building Society
Classic Cleaners	NatWest Group
Druid	Northern Foods plc
Eli Lily & Company	Prudential plc
Heygate & Sons	PricewaterhouseCoopers
HSBC Bank plc	Shell Companies in the UK
J Sainsbury plc	Unilever
KPMG	Xerox (UK) ltd

**Partner organisations**

These include the key voluntary organisations and lobby groups concerned with work and family issues

National Carers Association	Kids' Club Network
Ceridian Performance Partners	The National Work-Life Forum
Daycare Trust	New Ways to Work
Equal Opportunities Commission	Opportunity Now
Federation of Small Businesses	Parents at Work
The Industrial Society	TUC
Chartered Institute of Personnel & Development	Work-Life Research Centre

Source: [www.EmployersforWork-LifeBalance.org.uk](http://www.EmployersforWork-LifeBalance.org.uk)

The government has also set up a *Ministerial Advisory Committee on Work-Life Balance*, chaired by the Minister for Employment and Equal Opportunities. It brings together

representatives from business, the trade unions, and the voluntary sector to advise Ministers. The Department of Health is also funding the Carers' National Association's *Carers and Employment Project* that will produce an information pack and training for employers on carer-friendly employment policies (for those with responsibilities for caring for the elderly or disabled)

The Work-Life Balance initiative is a high profile government policy, and the amount of promotional activity, advice and website information available from both the government and the *Employers' Work-Life Balance* alliance is impressive. However, it is too early to assess the actual impact on companies' practices. Furthermore, the emphasis is upon voluntary compliance and the government has made no undertakings to introduce new statutory entitlements beyond implementation of the various Directives and the recent extension to statutory maternity leave. The danger of the voluntary approach is that policies spread unevenly and become more established in large private sector firms and the public sector, and often targeted at high skill employees for recruitment and retention purposes, with access more restricted for lower status employees (Cully et al. 1999, Evans 2001, Forth et al. 1999).

#### **4. Conclusions**

This report has examined the pattern of gender segregation in education, training and employment in the UK, and found that gender segregation is persistent, although this coexists with women making some important, but uneven inroads into some areas of professional and managerial activity. It then focussed on two government initiatives which are intended to make it easier for individuals to combine employment with family responsibilities: the *National Childcare Strategy* and the *Work-Life Balance campaign*. There has been a sizeable expansion of childcare places in the UK, but there is still a long way to go, and issues of childcare funding and the supply of childcare workers may create obstacles to further expansion. The 'Work-Life Balance' campaign has produced a lot of high profile activity from the government and various social partners and stimulated public debate and awareness of this topic, but it is too early to evaluate the full impact on companies' practices. Furthermore, without an extension of entitlements to underpin voluntary agreements the danger is that parents will have unequal access to work-life working policies, depending on their occupational status and the company that they work for.

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## Appendix - Tables

**Table 1. School education subject entry and examination results, by gender, 1999/2000**

	GCSE/SCE standard <sup>1</sup>			GCE A level/SCE higher grade <sup>2</sup>		
	% Female share of entrants	% Pass rate:		% Female share of entrants	% Pass rate:	
		<i>Girls</i>	<i>Boys</i>		<i>Girls</i>	<i>Boys</i>
<b>Selected subjects</b>						
English	50	68	52	61	64	62
French	52	60	44	72	69	71
Mathematics	50	52	50	40	70	66
Science single award/general	48	23	19	..	..	..
Science double award	51	54	50	..	..	..
Biological sciences	..	..	..	63	61	56
Chemistry	..	..	..	49	70	66
Physics	..	..	..	24	71	64
Computer studies	40	62	55	..	..	..
Design & technology	46	60	45	..	..	..
Business studies	51	60	53	51	65	59
Art & design	44	76	56	64	74	65
Geography	51	62	56	46	70	63
History	51	65	59	55	64	63
<b>At least one of any subject<sup>4</sup></b>	50	81	72	-	-	-
<b>5+ at grades A*-C (1-3 SCE)</b>	-	56	45	-	-	-
<b>2+ at grades A*-C (3+ at SCE)</b>	-	-	-	-	34	27

Notes:

1. GCSE examinations achieved by pupils in England, Wales and Northern Ireland in their last year of compulsory education, which is 16 years, the SCE standard is the equivalent in Scotland.

2. GCE A-level examinations achieved by pupils in England and Wales in Further Education aged 17-19 years at the end of the academic year in England, Wales and Northern Ireland as a percentage of the 18-year old population; and of pupils in Years S5/S6 in Scotland as a percentage of the 17 year old population.

3. '.' indicates data not available or examinations in this subject do not exist at this level, '-' indicates not applicable.

4. Includes those subjects not listed in the table.

Source: EOC (2002) pages 3-4; derived from the Education and Training Statistics for the UK 2001 edition, Department for Education and Skills

**Table 2. Gender segregation in university level education, 1999/2000**

	<b>% Female share of undergraduate (first degree) subject areas</b>
<b>Subjects allied to medicine (nursing etc.)</b>	80
<b>Education</b>	77
<b>Languages</b>	72
<b>Veterinary sciences</b>	69
<b>Biological sciences</b>	62
<b>Librarianship &amp; information sciences</b>	62
<b>Social, economic &amp; political studies</b>	60
<b>Creative arts &amp; design</b>	60
<b>Law</b>	59
<b>Combined</b>	58
<b>Agricultural &amp; related subjects</b>	57
<b>Medicine &amp; dentistry</b>	54
<b>Humanities</b>	54
<b>Business &amp; administrative studies</b>	52
<b>Mathematical sciences</b>	38
<b>Physical sciences</b>	37
<b>Architecture, building &amp; planning</b>	25
<b>Computer science</b>	20
<b>Engineering &amp; technology</b>	15
<b>All subjects</b>	53
<b>All full-time students</b>	53
<b>All part-time students</b>	59

Source: EOC (2002) page 5; derived from Students in Higher Education Institutions 1999/2000, Higher Education Statistics Agency



**Table 3. Gender segregation in vocational training, 1999/2000**

	<b>% Female share of awards</b>
<b>Vocational Qualification Awards 1999/2000<sup>1</sup></b>	
Management & administration	67
Professional	69
Associate professional	44
Clerical & secretarial	62
Craft & related	10
Personal & protective services	79
Sales	74
Plant & machine operatives	10
Miscellaneous	45
Total	52
<b>Modern Apprenticeships 2000/1, selected sectors<sup>2</sup></b>	
Construction	1
Motor industry	1
Engineering manufacturing	3
Hotels & catering	50
Retailing	58
Customer services	69
Business administration	81
Health & social care	89
Hairdressing	93
Childcare	98
All sectors (including those not listed above)	49

Notes:

1. National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs)/Scottish Vocational Qualifications (SVQs)

2. Advanced level, in England only

Source: EOC (2002) pages 4-5; derived from Statistics of Education: Vocational Qualifications in the United Kingdom 1999/00, 05/01, Department for Education and Skills and TEC/LSC delivered Government supported work-based learning – England: volumes and outcomes, SFR 47/2001, Department for Education and Skills

**Table 4. Gender segregation by occupation, 2001**

**(a) Major occupational groups**

	<b>% Female share of employment - employees and self-employed</b> <i>[% employed part-time]</i>
<b>ISCO major occupational groups</b>	
Managers & senior officials	30 [17]
Professionals	40 [27]
Associate professional & technical	46 [31]
Administrative & secretarial	79 [40]
Skilled trades	8 [43]
Personal service	85 [52]
Sales & customer service	69 [67]
Process, plant & machine operatives	17 [25]
Elementary occupations	46 [74]
<b>All occupations</b>	<b>45 [44]</b>

**(b) Selected occupations – excludes managers and professionals**

	<b>% Female share of employment - employees and self-employed</b>
<b>Selected occupations</b>	
Taxi/cab drivers & chauffeurs	7
Security guards & related	8
Police officers up to sergeant	20
IT operatives & technicians	29
Sales representatives	37
Chefs & cooks	46
Shelf fillers in retail	48
Sales & retail assistants	72
Waiting staff	77
General office assistants & clerks	81
Cleaners & domestics	81
Hairdressers & barbers	88
Care assistants & home carers	90
Receptionists	95
<b>All occupations</b>	<b>45</b>

**(c) Selected managerial occupations**

	<b>% Female share of employment - employees and self-employed</b>
Production	6
ICT	17
Corporate managers and senior officials	21
Marketing & sales	21
Quality and customer care	33
Retail & wholesale managers	35
Financial institution managers	37
Restaurant & catering managers	43
Advertising and PR managers	45
Personnel & training	57
Office managers in financial institutions	66
Health & social services managers	73
<b>All managers and senior officials</b>	<b>30</b>

.../continued

**(d) Selected professional and associate professional occupations**

	<b>% Female share of employment - employees and self-employed</b>
Engineers & technologists (including software)	6
Architects, town planners & surveyors	13
Accountants	26
Solicitors	33
Business analysts & management consultants	34
Natural scientists	35
Medical practitioners	38
Teachers in universities	38
Teachers in secondary schools	53
Pharmacists/pharmacologists	61
Teachers in primary/nursery schools	86
<b>All professional occupations</b>	<b>40</b>
Draughtspersons, quantity & other surveyors	9
Computer analysts/programmers	21
Scientific technicians	24
Financial brokers & investment analysts	30
Literary, artistic & sports professionals	38
Social welfare, community and youth workers	73
Personnel & industrial relations officers	79
Nurses	90
<b>All associate professional &amp; technical</b>	<b>51</b>

Source: Labour Force Survey 2001, Office for National Statistics (<http://www.statistics.gov.uk/downloads/theme-employment>, tables QS16 and QS18) and further analysis of the Labour Force Survey by the EOC - selected occupations (EOC 2002, page 8); selected managerial occupations (EOC 2002a, page 2); selected professional occupations from (EOC 2002b), page 2

**Table 5. Gender segregation by sector, 2001**

	<b>% Female share of employment – employees and self-employed [% employed part-time]<sup>1</sup></b>
Agriculture & fishery	21 [51]
Energy & water	20 [17]
Manufacturing	25 [23]
Construction	9 [46]
Wholesale, retail & motor trade	50
Hotels & restaurants	58 >[60]
Transport, storage & communication	25 [31]
Banking, insurance & pension funding	52
Real estate, renting and business services	41 >[33]
Public administration & defence	47
Education	72 > [44]
Health & social work	80
Other services	52 [52]
Public sector	63 [44]
Private sector	40 [44]
<b>All sectors</b>	<b>45 [44]</b>

Note:

1. The aggregate average part-time rate for the standard major sector is shown where the rate of part-time employment for each sub-sector was not available from the published sources.

Source: Labour Force Survey 2001, Office for National Statistics (<http://www.statistics.gov.uk/downloads/theme-employment>, tables QS21 and QS22); and more detailed sector breakdown for all employment taken from EOC (2002) page 9, derived from the Labour Force Survey 2001, Office for National Statistics

**Table 6. Gender segregation in political life, 2001**

	% Female share of positions
<b>Local authority councillors, 2001<sup>1</sup></b>	
Conservative	27
Labour	27
Liberal Democrats	35
Independent	23
Other parties	24
All local authority councillors	28
<b>Members of Parliament, 2002</b>	
Conservative	9
Labour	23
Liberal Democrats	9
Other parties	16
All Members of Parliament	18
<b>Members of the European Parliament, 2001</b>	
Conservative	9
Labour	34
Liberal Democrats	45
Other parties & Independents	25
All Members of the European Parliament	24

1. In England and Wales only.

Source: EOC (2002) page 12; derived from the National Census of Local Authority Councillors 2001, Employers' Organisation for Local Government; House of Commons Weekly Information Bulletin, 12 January 2002; Vacher's Parliamentary Companion number 1104, December 2001.

**Table 7. The gender pay gap, 2001**

	% Ratio of female: male earnings
<b>Average gross hourly earnings (£ per hour)<sup>1</sup></b>	
Full-time employees	82
Part-time employees	91
Female part-timers: male full-timers	59
<b>Average gross weekly earnings (£ per week)</b>	
Full-time employees	75
Female part-timers: male full-timers	28
<b>Average gross weekly earnings (£ per week)</b>	
Male full-time	£490
Female full-time	£367
Female part-time	£136

1. Excludes the effects of overtime; for employees on adult rates. The coverage of part-time employees is not comprehensive, for many of those with earnings below the income tax threshold (equivalent to £87.21 per week in April 2001) are excluded by the survey

Source: EOC (2002) page 11; derived from the New Earnings Survey 2001, Office for National Statistics, and data released by the Office for National Statistics (<http://www.statistics.gov.uk/downloads/theme-earnings>)

**Table 8. Employment rates by age of youngest dependent child and family type, 2001**

	% Employed		
	Full-time	Part-time	Total
<b>Women</b>			
With a child aged 0-4 years	18	36	54
Mother with a youngest child aged 5-10 years	25	45	70
Mother with a youngest child aged 11 or over	39	38	77
Without dependent children	45	22	67
Lone mothers	27	22	49
Married or cohabiting mothers	28	43	71
<b>Men</b>			
With a child aged 0-4 years	88	3	91
Mother with a youngest child aged 5-10 years	86	3	89
Mother with a youngest child aged 11 or over	84	3	87
Without dependent children	66	8	74
Lone fathers	8	53	61
Married or cohabiting fathers	3	87	90

Source: EOC (2002) page 13; derived from the Labour Force Survey 2001, Office for National Statistics

**Table 9. Children's day care availability and cost, 2001/2**

	Number of places (thousands)	% Of places
Day nurseries	285	27
Childminders	305	28
Playgroups & pre-schools <sup>1</sup>	330	31
Out-of-school clubs	153	14
Total places	1,073	100
Number of children aged under 8 years	4,896	
Number of children for each place <u>excluding</u> playgroups & pre-schools	6.6	

<b>Average costs in 2002</b>	
Full-time nursery place for a child under 2 years <sup>2</sup>	£120 per week
Full-time place with a childminder for a child under 2 years	£113 per week
Full-time nursery place for a child over 2 years	£112 per week
Full-time place with a childminder for a child over 2 years	£112 per week
After school club for 15 hours a week	£26 per week
Average childcare tax credit for low income working families	£37.30 per week
Average contribution to childcare costs paid by parents	75-93%
<b><u>Average costs of a nursery place as a % of average earnings<sup>3</sup></u></b>	
Average male full-time earnings (£490 per week)	24%
Average female full-time earnings (£367 per week)	33%
Average dual full-time employed couple (£490+£367 per week)	14%

Note:

1. Playgroups and pre-school places are usually part-time for a few hours per day or week only. In most playgroups parents attend with their children or help to run the scheme, such schemes are not intended to provide childcare to enable parents to be employed.

2. Average costs are much higher in some parts of the country, particularly London and the South-East, reaching £149 per week on average in inner London.

3. Average earnings data are from the New Earnings Survey (see table 7 above), note that this has not been adjusted for contributions paid by the government or those made by a small proportion of employers.

Source: EOC (2002) page 13; derived from Statistics of Education: Children's Day Care Facilities at 31 March 2001 England, Department for Education and Skills; Mid-2000 Population Estimates, Office for National Statistics. Data on the costs of childcare are from the Daycare Trust (2002, 2002a).