



UPDATE –

**News from the
LS User Group**

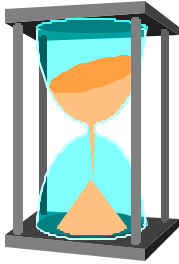
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This newsletter is designed to provide information on the ONS Longitudinal Study (LS) and a forum for the exchange of users' views and comments. It is produced by the LS User Support Programme at the Centre for Longitudinal Studies (CLS), Institute of Education. All comments and contributions should be sent to Rosemary Creeser, LS User Support Programme, Centre for Longitudinal Studies, Institute of Education, 20 Bedford Way, London WC1H 0AL (tel: 020 7612 6877 email: rc@cls.ioe.ac.uk)

1 Diary



This section highlights forthcoming events of interest to LS Users.

If you are arranging an event and wish to publicise it in *Update* please send details to Dina Maher, the LS Administrator at CLS.

LS Workshop

On Wednesday 27th/Thursday 28th September 2000 the LS User Support Programme will be holding a 2-day LS workshop. LS workshops provide detailed information on the ONS Longitudinal Study, and the methods of analysis and software available to LS researchers. They are also an ideal opportunity to meet members of the LS Support Team and to discuss the suitability of the LS for exploring specific research questions. As part of the hands-on element of the workshop participants are able to specify an analysis of their choice using a small sub-set of variables from the LS.

While LS workshops are open to all, places are limited, to ensure that participants get sufficient individual attention and hands-on experience. A non-refundable fee of £50 (£20 for students) is charged to cover documentation, lunch and refreshments. For further details and to reserve a place please contact LS Administrator Dina Maher (tel: 020 7612 6875, email: dm@cls.ioe.ac.uk).

2 Technical Issues

2.1 CURDS rural housing classification

Simon Raybould, Centre for Urban and Regional Development Studies (CURDS), Newcastle University, Brian Dodgeon, LS User Support Programme, Centre for Longitudinal Studies, Institute of Education and Mike Coombes, CURDS

In 1999 Mike Coombes and Simon Raybould of Newcastle University's Centre for Urban and Regional Development Studies (CURDS), undertook a Rowntree-funded LS project to look at the role of social housing in rural areas, with particular reference to young people's housing needs.

The project involved the derivation of an urban/rural indicator, further sub-divided to reflect local housing market issues. This article summarises aspects of the classification, which could be of interest, possibly in an aggregated form, to other researchers working with area-based data in the LS.

The focus of this article is the six types of rural areas included in the classification. The ten categories of urban areas will be explained in more detail in a future issue of *Update*. The classification uses data on the way in which areas changed between 1981 and 1991 – particularly to highlight where large-scale council house sales occurred. Figure 1 illustrates how the six rural area classes were defined.

Defining areas in this way is difficult because of the problem of small area boundaries changing from one census to the next. The CURDS researchers approached this problem using a look-up table mapping 1991 wards as closely as possible in terms of clusters of 1981 enumeration districts (EDs).

Figure 1: Definition of the rural area classes used in the CURDS classification				
Axis 3: Was the social housing share of 1991 housing stock over 20%?				
Yes	No Was the social housing share in 1981 over 20% but declining 1981-1991 by over 7.5%?			
	Yes	No		
class 1	class 2	class 4	class 6	Axis 1: lower supply constraints
		class 3	class 5	higher supply constraints
		out-commuters make up the main in-migrant housing demand Axis 2:	holiday making and retiring is the main external housing demand	

The areas were first distinguished as either urban or rural. Coombes and Raybould used the Countryside Agency's definition of rural areas as being *all* areas other than settlements of 10,000 people or more (Countryside Agency, 1999). This was operationalised by taking as "settlements" the 1991 Urban Areas defined by the former Department of Environment (DoE). These settlement definitions (DoE, 1993) are at ED level: thus wards are here defined to be rural if the majority of their population live in EDs which are *not* part of settlements with a 1991 population of 10,000 or more.

The rural areas were then sub-divided into six categories by taking into account three broad ways in which local housing markets differ, building upon earlier joint work with Aberdeen University for the DoE (Shucksmith *et al*, 1995). A full description of the methods used for this classification will be included in the research report to be published by Rowntree later this year. Below we include a short summary of the six classes of rural areas.

Class 1 areas had a high share of social housing in 1991 (as well as 1981). They include parts of the country associated with coal mining, most notably the North East and either side of the Yorkshire/Nottinghamshire border, but also some small former coalfields (eg the Forest of Dean). An example of a Class 1 area is Trimdon in County Durham, which is in Prime Minister Tony Blair's home constituency.

Class 2 areas had had a substantial share of social housing in 1981. However, by 1991 this had been substantially reduced by, in most cases, the impact of right-to-buy policies. The large village of Winslow in north Buckinghamshire is a representative example.

The other classes cover areas in which social housing had not been a very significant feature of the local housing market. These areas are subdivided first according to the "availability" of housing supply, with house prices providing one key indicator. Areas of low supply-side pressure lie to the north of an arc from the Severn Estuary via the Chilterns to the Suffolk coast.

The final aspect of the classification separates those areas where in-migrants are predominantly in the family-building age groups (and where out-commuting from the immediate area is a notable feature), as against those where the in-migrants are often of retirement age (and where many houses are used as second homes or holiday cottages).

Class 4 and 6 areas all have relatively low supply-side constraints – and so are all in the Midlands or northern England – but differ in relation to the demand-side issues related to in-migration in particular. Class 4 includes those with the younger in-migrants and the higher level of out-migration: an example here is Haworth (the Brontë village). Class 6 covers the more remote areas popular with holiday-makers and retiring people: Belvoir in Leicestershire is an example.

By contrast, Class 3 and 5 areas have more severe housing supply constraints and are primarily in the south. Class 3 includes the areas with substantial numbers of younger in-migrants and out-commuters (mainly to London). An example of village in Class 3 is Lingfield in Surrey but many others could have been chosen from throughout the Home Counties. Class 5 includes those areas with strong constraints on their housing supply, but where the people moving in are more likely to be retired people, or to be using the village solely for a holiday. These areas are largely in the south, but also include some parts of the northern National Parks (such as the Lake and Peak Districts). The north Devon coastal village of Lynton is a typical Class 5 area.

These six rural categories (plus a seventh category for urban areas) are now available in the LS and may be used in conjunction with either 1981 or 1991 Census data.

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2.2 ICD10 coding of LS mortality and morbidity data

Researchers who use LS mortality data need to be aware that from January 2001 ONS plan to start coding mortality data to the tenth revision (ICD-10) of the International Classification of Diseases, Injuries and Causes of Death (ICD). ONS have been coding cancer registration data to ICD-10 since 1995. However, to date this has not impacted on the LS as cancer data in the study are only available to the end of 1994. Currently, LS information on cause of death is classified according to the eighth revision (ICD-8) for the period 1971-8 and to the ninth revision (ICD-9) from 1979 onwards. As highlighted in the “LS Technical Volume”, ICD-10 is substantially different from ICD-9 and its predecessors (see Hattersley and Creeser, 1995, pages 103-4). The major changes include the introduction of an alphanumeric coding scheme (which has the effect of increasing the number of available codes) and a growth in the number of chapters from 17 to 21.

In an attempt to minimise the comparability problems associated with this change ONS will be coding LS mortality data to both ICD-9 and ICD-10 to the end of 2001. This bridge coding exercise will be particularly useful for LS researchers who routinely work with five-year bands of data after excluding the first five years of deaths to control for the effects of “health selection”. Dual coding will also be carried out in cases where there is a discrepancy between the “year of registration” and “year of death”. For example, if an LS member dies in 2000 but their death is not registered until 2001, then cause of

death will be coded to both ICD-9 and ICD-10. Further information on the introduction of ICD-10 will be supplied in future issues of *Update*.

3 LS Research

Occupational segregation and disadvantage in women's working lives

Louisa Blackwell, Centre for Longitudinal Studies, Institution of Education

Background

The 1991 Census included, for the first time, a question on ethnicity. Out of a total population of 52 million in England and Wales, 5.5% were in the minority ethnic groups. The Indian group was the largest of these, with 1.5% of the population. Bangladeshis and Black Others were the smaller groups, each with 0.3% of the total population (Owen 1996). The Census is an important source for quantitative research into minority ethnic groups since it aims for comprehensive coverage. Survey data can “miss” ethnic groups that are heavily concentrated in particular geographical areas. The benefits of the Census extend to other census-derived data, including the LS.

This research compared the employment experiences of women in different ethnic groups over child bearing. Previous research (Blackwell, 1998) examined the role of part-time employment in maintaining high levels of occupational sex segregation in the British labour force. Longitudinal analysis revealed how transitions to part-time work over childrearing (a path most mothers follow) commonly involved downward occupational mobility, often into low-skilled, very feminised occupations. The cultural contingency of this model was revealed by a comparison with France, where most women tend to continue in full-time employment when their children are young. Holdsworth and Dale (1997a) have already established that women in the minority ethnic groups in Britain are less likely to be employed part-time than White women. This project looked for ethnic differences within the longitudinal information and asked whether their increased economic activity and, in particular, full-time hours, kept minority women out of highly feminised, low-status jobs.

The study was undertaken in the context of an occupationally segregated labour market. The project's working definition of occupational segregation is the relative distributions of different groups across occupational structure *as a whole* (Siltanen, Jarman and Blackburn, 1992).

Methods

The LS was used to analyse the occupational and other transitions of women in the different ethnic groups as they encountered childbearing. The focus was on 20-59 year olds. The LS was accessed through the Centre for Longitudinal Studies, by extracting large tables. These were then analysed either in Excel or SPSS.

The research used LS data cross-sectionally for 1981 and 1991 and 1981/91 linked data, including birth registration information. This enabled a comparison between the longitudinal sample and the 1991 sample, which included LS members who were absent in 1981. It was not possible to compare the 1981 characteristics of the longitudinal sample with LS members present in 1981 but absent in 1991 because we have no ethnicity data for the latter group. Information from census and birth registration was used to construct a variable reflecting women's “maternal status”. The categories were defined as follows:

Childless women: no record of live births and no dependent children in the household in a parent/child relationship with LS member.
New mums: had children in the household under ten years old in a parent/child relationship with LS member.
Mother of youths: had dependent children (as above) over 10 years of age.
Mature mums: had non-dependent children (based on household data and birth records).

The first stage was to assess the representativeness of the 1981/91 longitudinal sample. The analysis then focused on women in the LS who were present at both Censuses: the 81/91 "stayers". Their cross-sectional characteristics in 1981 and 1991 were examined to 1) compare the characteristics of the different ethnic groups, and 2) identify the important changes over time.

Linked data were used for exploratory cross-tabulations to identify the employment participation levels of women in each of the ethnic groups as they became mothers. Focusing on those who were in employment at both Censuses, a series of cross-tabulations examined occupational mobility patterns (vertically and between different types of occupation) for ethnic variations. The relationship between vertical mobility and transitions to part-time work was also explored.

For the longitudinal analysis occupational attainment was measured using a four-class schema based on the Registrar General's occupational social classes:

- Class 1** R.G.'s social class I, Professional
- Class 2** R.G.'s social class II, Managerial and Technical
- Class 3** R.G.'s social classes IIIN and IIIM combined, since the vertical direction of flows between skilled manual and non-manual occupations is not always clear. Sales workers are not included.
- Class 4** R.G.'s social classes IV and V. Sales workers are included with the semi-skilled and unskilled, reflecting women's mobility patterns and evaluations (Dex, 1987) and earnings levels in sales jobs (Joshi, 1984).

The full-time/part-time distinction was based on self-definition, except for self-employed workers in 1991, for whom hours worked was used. Self-employed people working 31 or more hours a week (25 or more in teaching-related occupations) were classified as full-time.

Results

Ethnic variations in patterns of occupational segregation experienced by women through childrearing

The first task was to identify 1981/91 trends in the occupational structures of women in the different ethnic groups. The 1981 distributions were those of the 81/91 longitudinal sample, which used 1991 information on ethnicity. This work had to address the problem of the representativeness of the longitudinal sample. Table 1 compares key characteristics of the 81/91 longitudinal sample and LS members present in 1991 only. The main concern was that confounding factors associated with ethnicity (migration in particular) cause significant reductions in the size of the longitudinal sample for certain ethnic groups. For this study, and especially where a number of variables are introduced into the analysis, the comparisons were restricted to the larger ethnic groups: Whites, Black Caribbeans and

Indians. In addition, the longitudinal data refers to established members of each ethnic group: “newcomers” have different characteristics. It is important not to generalise from the longitudinal analysis to those present at any one time.

Ethnic differences in women’s employment participation and in their 81/91 trends were found to be strongly associated with the different and in some cases rapidly changing age structures. These are described in Blackwell (forthcoming). To summarise, the age distribution among White people of working age is fairly uniform whilst the minority groups are experiencing population growth and an ageing bulge, reflecting primary immigration, largely in the 50s and 60s. These differences are likely to be particularly important in the context of women’s employment where child rearing has an impact on employment and occupational attainments. However, employment among certain ethnic minority women has been found to be more robust over child-rearing than among White women.

An analysis by child-rearing stage revealed diversity between the different ethnic groups. (Figure 1 shows the patterns in 1991.)

The youthfulness of the Black Other group implied high levels of childlessness and “mothers of infants”. There were fewer “mature mums” among all but the White, Black Caribbean and Indian women, reflecting the more established nature of these groups. Pakistani and Bangladeshi women were very likely to be new mums.

Holdsworth and Dale (1997, a,b) have already established that, with the exception of Pakistani and Bangladeshi women, women in the minority groups are more likely than White women to work full-time. This applies to every stage of the life cycle. It is demonstrated here in Figures 2 and 3, which also show how economic activity levels for childless women and “new mums” changed between 1981 and 91.

Bangladeshi women are excluded from Figure 2 because so few are childless. Figures 2 and 3 show that full-time employment among both childless women and new mothers increased between 1981 and 91 (Black African new mothers were the only exception). Between 1981 and 91 women’s labour force participation generally increased, and in all ethnic groups there was a fall in the percentage that were housewives. Part-time employment rose for every ethnic group except the Black Others, reflecting the latter group’s youthfulness and the tendency for part-time work to be concentrated among older women.

Trends in women’s shares of the occupational social classes are consistent with broader structural change in the labour market over the 1980s, when there was expansion in higher-level jobs and a reduction in semi- and unskilled work (Table 2). Two major shifts are noteworthy and could be investigated further: movements of Black Other and Pakistani women out of semi- and unskilled work. The former entered skilled occupations whilst the latter entered intermediate occupations, though the numbers of Pakistani women at the 1981 Census are so low that caution is needed with interpretation here. Indian women had the highest proportion in semi- and unskilled work, though this fell between 1981 and 91. Among White women, with the second highest proportion, this low-skilled work was concentrated among part-timers, whilst it was also common among Indian full-timers.

The longitudinal analysis

Part-time employment is common among White women when they have children, and less common among most women in the minority ethnic groups. This research was concerned with whether the lower levels of part-time employment among minority ethnic women kept them out of low skilled, highly feminised part-time work. The results are summarised in Table 3. White women were both more likely to work part-time and to be employed in the lowest-status, feminised jobs. However Indian, Pakistani and Black Caribbean women were almost as likely as White women to work in these low-status jobs, despite much lower levels of part-time work. In these groups full-timers were more likely than White

full-timers to have the less desirable jobs. The Black Others are distinctive in that they had the smallest part-time work force and were least likely to be in the feminised, low-status jobs.

The occupational distributions of women in the different ethnic groups were compared, controlling for maternal status, to identify the occupations in which women managed to sustain full-time employment over child rearing. Because of the level of detail involved (371 SOC unit groups) this analysis was confined to the larger groups: Whites, Black Caribbeans and Indians. A clear pattern emerged. The main favoured occupations in which mothers of young children maintained full-time employment were: for White women, primary and secondary school teaching and nursing, for Black Caribbean women, nursing, and for Indian women, shopkeeping and factory work (SOC 862=packers, bottlers, canners, fillers). The Black Caribbean mothers of young children were also over-represented among SOC 459 (secretaries, Personal Assistants, typists and word-processor operatives) and among social workers and probation officers, though cell sizes are too small to be confident.

If we consider transitions between full-time, part-time and housewife status, White women had the lowest levels of “continuous” full-time employment over child rearing, Black women (Black African, Black Caribbean, Black Other) the highest. White women and Black Africans had the highest proportions going into part-time work (Table 4).

Unfortunately it was not feasible to examine the vertical mobility patterns of the smaller ethnic minority groups over childbearing. Economic activity levels among Bangladeshis and Pakistanis were too low to permit meaningful analysis. Holdsworth and Dale (1997a), with a lower age qualification, worked with a sample size of fewer than 40 for Pakistani and Bangladeshi women combined (Dale, 1996). The total number in these combined ethnic groups, with an older qualifying age, who were in employment at both Censuses was under 30, making longitudinal patterns too unreliable. Similarly the numbers of economically active “new mums” were too low in all but White, Black Caribbean and Indian Groups for meaningful analysis.

Among these groups, the model of downward occupational mobility over child rearing was found to apply to those moving into part-time work (Table 5). Almost a third of White “new mums” moving from full-time to part-time work were downwardly mobile. Just 12% moved up. Downward mobility for Black Caribbean and Indian women moving into part-time work was also high (16% and 18% respectively), though less so than among Whites. In contrast “new mums” who remained in full-time employment were more likely to be upwardly than downwardly mobile. It is instructive to compare mobility patterns for new mums with those of childless women. White women who appeared to maintain full-time employment over childbearing experienced slightly less upward and the same downward mobility as White childless women. In contrast, Black Caribbean and Indian new mums who stayed in full-time employment were more likely to be upwardly mobile than their childless counterparts.

Some conclusions on how segregation by sex and by race shape the occupational structure can be drawn. The heterogeneity of the minority ethnic populations must be emphasised. The longitudinal analysis demonstrated the pitfalls of generalisation, since even within the same ethnic group, new and established residents may have different characteristics. Turning to women’s experiences over childbearing, downward occupational mobility into part-time work describes White women’s experiences, rather than being a generally applicable model. There is less part-time work among the minority ethnic groups, who are more commonly upwardly mobile over childbearing. Higher rates of full-time employment do not automatically protect minority women from the lowest status jobs.

Acknowledgements

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Table 1: Characteristics of the sample, by presence in both 1981 and 1991 Censuses or 1991 only.

	White	Black Caribbean	Black African	Black Other	Indian	Pakistani	Bangla- deshi	Chinese	Other Asian
1981/91 Longitudinal sample									
Maternal status									
Childless	26	28	27	40	16	15	8	25	27
New mums	31	32	39	42	41	55	67	42	40
Mothers of youths	13	11	16	9	20	18	11	19	17
Mature mothers	30	29	19	9	23	13	13	14	15
Economic activity									
In employment	66	68	67	57	58	22	17	53	68
Full-time	41	55	50	48	45	18	13	40	52
Part-time	26	13	17	9	12	5	5	13	16
Housewife	25	15	16	22	26	63	71	33	21
Total no.	117532	1364	218	277	2347	803	150	221	295
1991 Newcomers									
Maternal status									
Childless	42	40	43	37	24	17	11	45	41
New mums	32	31	47	47	48	66	71	43	44
Mothers of youths	10	10	6	9	13	10	11	9	10
Mature mothers	15	20	4	8	15	8	5	4	4
Economic activity									
In employment	62	59	42	59	47	11	8	46	40
Full-time	44	47	32	48	38	8	5	37	31
Part-time	18	12	10	12	9	3	3	9	9
Housewife	26	19	25	27	36	74	79	31	43
Total no.	12081	421	509	103	1193	819	489	268	488

Source: ONS Longitudinal Study, 1991 (1981).

Table 2: Ethnic variations in the percentages of employed women in each occupational social class (collapsed version): Longitudinal Sample 1991 (1981)

Class	White	Black Caribbean	Black African	Black Other	Indian	Pakistani	Chinese	Other Asian	Total
<i>(column percentages)</i>									
Professional	2 (1)	1 (0)	4 (5)	2 (0)	4 (3)	2 (3)	4 (5)	4 (1)	2 (1)
Intermediate	29 (22)	34 (30)	41 (34)	35 (34)	24 (15)	35 (12)	39 (44)	38 (32)	29 (22)
Skilled	38 (40)	36 (30)	28 (25)	43 (28)	30 (30)	34 (34)	34 (24)	32 (32)	38 (40)
Semi & Unskilled	31 (36)	29 (39)	26 (31)	19 (36)	43 (50)	29 (46)	23 (25)	26 (34)	31 (36)
Total No =100%	77638 (65405)	914 (760)	144 (105)	155 (83)	1331 (982)	175 (89)	116 (84)	195 (146)	80668 (67654)

1981 percentages in parenthesis

Source: ONS Longitudinal Sample 1991 (1981).

Table 3: Highly feminised, low skill occupations: ethnic variations and part-time work in 1991

	White	Black Caribbean	Black African	Black Other	Indian	Pakistani	Chinese	Other Asian	Total
No. women	77638	914	144	155	1331	175	116	195	80688
% in part-time work	38	19	26	16	21	21	24	23	38
% in very feminised, low skilled work*	23	20	19	12	22	21	17	17	23
% of part-timers in very feminised, low skilled work*	43	44	51	20	38	44	43	33	43
% of full-timers in very feminised, low skilled work*	10	15	8	11	17	14	9	12	10

* over 80% female and R.G.'s semi-or un-skilled classes

Source: ONS LS 1991 (1981) longitudinal sample, in employment

Table 4: 1981/91 Economic activity over child-bearing

Ethnic group	% of "new mothers"* Full-time in 1981 & 91	% of "new mothers"* Full-time in 1981 and part-time in 91	Total no. "new mothers"
White	11	18	25904
Black Caribbeans	30	15	234
Black Africans	33	18	45
Black Other	27	13	48
Indian	25	8	655
Chinese	19	1	72
Pakistani	2	1	334
Bangladeshi	3	0	79
Other Asian	22	12	87

* "new mothers" were childless in 1981 and had under 10(s) in 1991

Source: ONS 1991 (1981) Longitudinal Sample

Table 5: 1981/91 Vertical mobility among childless women and “new mums” in full-time employment in 1981, by full-time or part-time in 1991

“New mum s” in 1991					Childless in 1991				
Full-time in 1991					Full-time in 1991				
Group	No.	Up (%)	Same (%)	Down (%)	Group	No.	Up (%)	Same (%)	Down (%)
White	2811	23	70	8	White	8992	24	68	8
Black Caribbean	70	26	71	3	Black Caribbean	85	20	73	7
Indian	163	28	63	9	Indian	71	23	68	10
Part-time in 1991					Part-time in 1991				
Group	No.	Up (%)	Same (%)	Down (%)	Group	No.	Up (%)	Same (%)	Down (%)
White	4601	12	60	29	White	855	15	63	22
Black Caribbean	32	19	66	16	Black Caribbean	3	*	*	*
Indian	49	8	74	18	Indian	3	*	*	*

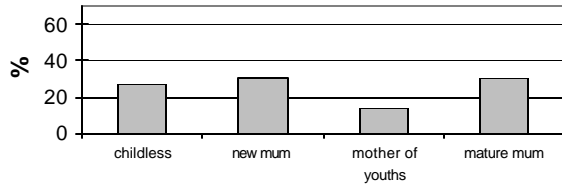
Source: ONS Longitudinal Sample 1991 (1981), in employment

Vertical mobility is measured between four “social classes”:

- Class 1 R.G.s social class I, Professional
- Class 2 R.G.’s social class II, Managerial and Technical
- Class 3 R.G.’s social classes IIIN and IIIM combined. Sales workers are not included.
- Class 4 R.G.’s social classes IV and V, and Sales workers.

Figure 1: Ethnic variations in child-rearing categories

White women



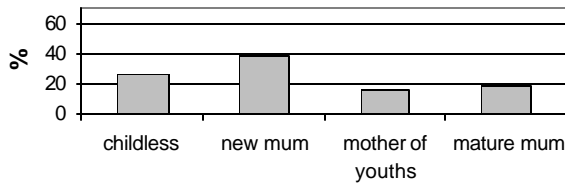
total=117532 women

Black Caribbean women



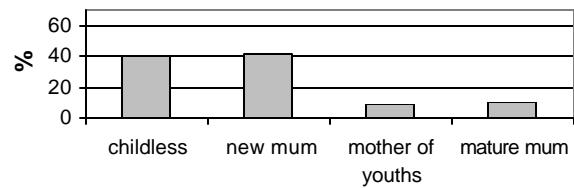
total=1364 women

Black African women



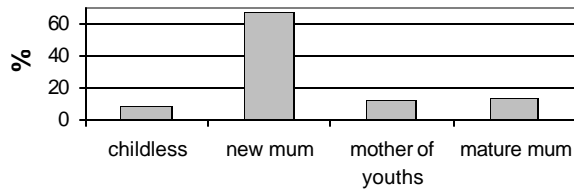
total=218 women

Black Other women



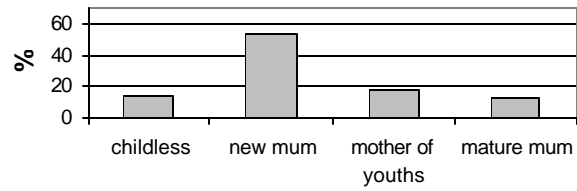
total=277 women

Bangladeshi women



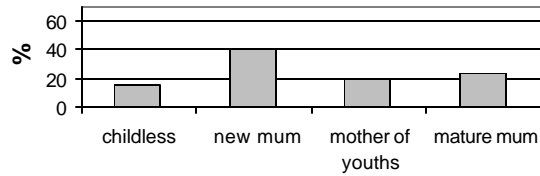
total=150 women

Pakistani women



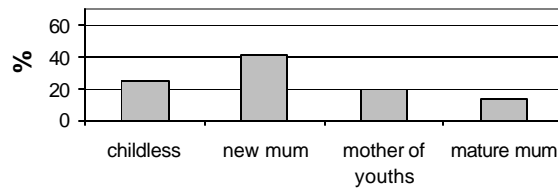
total=803 women

Indian women



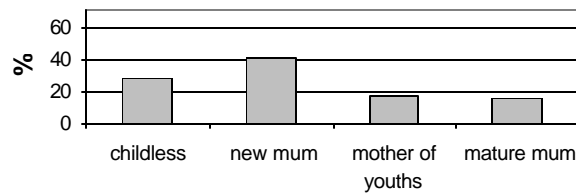
total=2347 women

Chinese women



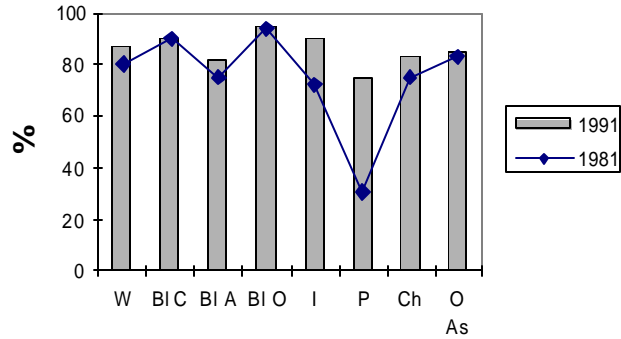
total=221 women

Other Asian women



total=295 women

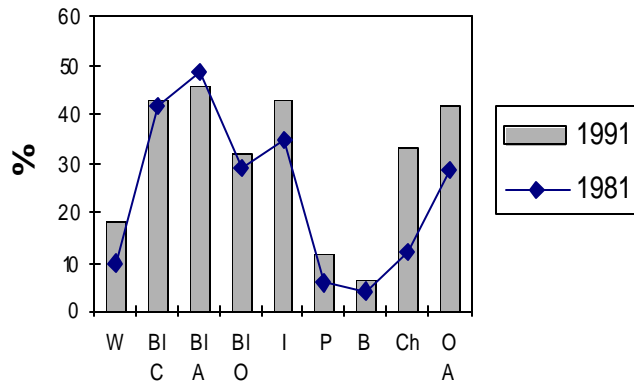
Figure 2 Full-time employment among childless women: 1981/91 trends



Notes

This figure shows the percentages of childless women in each ethnic group who were in full-time employment. "Childless" women had no children living with them in the household in a parent/child relationship, and had no history of live births since 1971. The denominator is women who were full-time, part-time or housewives, listed below for each group. Thus the unemployed, students, permanently sick, retired and those on government schemes are not included. Totals 1991 (81): White, 26830 (23832), Black Caribbean, 296 (199), Black African, 45 (28), Black Other, 81 (36), Indian, 284 (284), Pakistani, 73 (65), Chinese, 36 (41), Other Asian 62 (55).

Figure 3 Full-time employment among new mums: 81/91 trends



Notes

This figure shows the percentages of "new mums" in each ethnic group who were in full-time employment. "New mums" are women who in 1981 had no children living with them in the household in a parent/child relationship, and had no history of live births since 1971, but by 1991 had either had a live birth or had child(ren) under 10 years of age living with them in the household in parent/child relationship. The denominator is women who were full-time, part-time or housewives, listed below for each group. Thus the unemployed, students, permanently sick, retired and those on government schemes are not included. Totals 1991 (81): White, 34689(36307), Black Caribbean, 378 (354), Black African, 70 (80), Black Other, 94 (45), Indian, 843 (1035), Pakistani, 403 (469), Chinese, 87 (99), Other Asian 112 (112).