

UNIVERSITY OF WARWICK

CENTRE FOR RESEARCH IN ETHNIC RELATIONS



NATIONAL ETHNIC MINORITY DATA ARCHIVE

1991 Census Statistical Paper No 6

BLACK PEOPLE IN GREAT BRITAIN:
Social and economic circumstances

David Owen

E·S·R·C
ECONOMIC
& SOCIAL
RESEARCH
COUNCIL

February 1994

COMMISSION FOR
RACIAL EQUALITY



BLACK PEOPLE IN GREAT BRITAIN:

Social and economic circumstances

1991 Census Statistical Paper no. 6

by

David Owen

National Ethnic Minority Data Archive

Centre for Research in Ethnic Relations,
University of Warwick,
Coventry CV4 7AL.

February 1994

The Centre for Research in Ethnic Relations is a Research Centre of the Economic and Social Research Council. The Centre publishes a series of Research, Policy, Statistical and Occasional Papers, as well as Bibliographies and Research Monographs. The views expressed in our publications are the responsibility of the authors.

The National Ethnic Minority Data Archive is partly funded by the Commission for Racial Equality.

© Centre for Research in Ethnic Relations 1994

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system or transmitted in any form, or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recorded or otherwise, without the prior permission of the authors.

Orders for Centre publications should be addressed to the Publications Manager, Centre for Research in Ethnic Relations, Arts Building, University of Warwick, Coventry CV4 7AL. Cheques and Postal Orders should be made payable to the University of Warwick. Please enclose remittance with order.

ISSN 0969-2606
ISBN 0 948303 48 4

Acknowledgements

This paper uses the Local Base Statistics from the 1991 Census of Population aggregated to the regional and Great Britain levels. Census data is Crown Copyright, and made available to the academic community through the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC) purchase. The paper also includes information derived from the (1 per cent household and 2 per cent individual) Samples of Anonymised Records from the 1991 Census. These are also Crown Copyright, and are supplied by the University of Manchester Census Microdata Unit with the support of the ESRC and the Joint Information Systems Committee of the Universities Funding Council.

Contents	<i>Page</i>
Table of contents	i
List of tables and figures	ii
1. Introduction	1
2. Definitions	1
3. Demographic patterns	2
4. Geographical distribution of the Black ethnic groups within Great Britain	4
5. Households, family structure and housing characteristics	6
6. Differentials in health between white and Black ethnic groups	9
7. Economic activity, employment and unemployment	11
7.1 Labour Market participation	11
7.2 Employment	13
7.3 Unemployment	17
8. Participation in higher and further education and highest qualifications held	19
9. Conclusions	22
10. Notes and references	23

Table	<i>Page</i>
1. Great Britain: Composition of the 'Black' ethnic category, 1991.	1
2. Summary demographic characteristics of Black and white ethnic groups in Great Britain, 1991	3
3. Regional variations in ethnic composition, 1991	4
4. Largest local concentrations of Black ethnic groups within Great Britain, 1991	7
5. Household and family composition, housing tenure and housing amenities for Black and white ethnic groups in Great Britain, 1991	8
6. The incidence of limiting long-term illness among white and Black ethnic groups in Great Britain, 1991	10
7. Economic characteristics of Black ethnic groups in Great Britain, 1991	11
8. Employment of Black ethnic groups and white people in Great Britain, 1991	13
9. The industrial structure of work for Black ethnic groups and white people in Great Britain, 1991	15
10. The occupational structure of employment for Black ethnic groups and white people in Great Britain, 1991.	16
11. Unemployment among Black and white ethnic groups in Great Britain, 1991	18
12. Highest qualification held, and the characteristics of highly qualified Black and white people in Great Britain, 1991.	20

Figure	<i>Page</i>
1. Age and gender pyramid for Black ethnic groups, 1991	2
2. Districts with above average representation of all Black people, 1991	5
3. Districts with above average representation of Black-Caribbean people, 1991	5
4. Districts with above average representation of Black-African people, 1991	5
5. Districts with above average representation of Black-Other people, 1991	5
6. Rates of limiting long-term illness by age group	10
7. Percentage economically active by age group	12
8. Percentage in full-time education by single year of age	19

1. Introduction

This Statistical Paper is concerned with the social and economic circumstances of people in the three "Black" ethnic groups identified by the 1991 Census of Population as living within Great Britain. These are the "Black-Caribbean", "Black-African" and "Black-Other" groups, the definition of which is explained in the next section. This paper presents more detailed information on the socio-economic differentials between ethnic groups than appears in the Statistical Papers already published in this series, since it draws upon data sources which have only recently become available; primarily the OPCS "Country of Birth and Ethnic Group" report and the Samples of Anonymised Records drawn from the 1991 Census¹. These enable a number of topics which the Census Local Base Statistics do not cover to be analysed, including illness rates, family structures, types of employment and participation in higher and further education. Parallel statistical papers in this series consider the South Asian and "Chinese and Other" ethnic groupings and also analyse the characteristics of people born in Ireland.

2. Definitions

The ethnic group classification used in the 1991 Census defines three "Black" categories; "Black-Caribbean", "Black-African" and "Black-Other". The person responsible for filling the Census form in each household was asked to specify the ethnic group of each member of the household. The first two categories are simply taken from the box in the ethnic group question ticked by the respondent and are fairly self-explanatory. However, the "Black-Other" category is derived from processing of the information provided in the "write-in" section of the question, by those respondents who felt that the first two categories did not satisfactorily reflect the ethnic group of the household member. Thus, this category includes people who were identified as simply "British" under the "Black" heading, as well as those who are the offspring of parents from different ethnic groups, where one is from a Black ethnic group and the other is from a white or "mixed" ethnic group or where both parents are themselves from "mixed" ethnic groups. The ethnic question is designed to make the "Black" category correspond as closely as possible to "Afro-Caribbean" people, through the explicit use of geographical origin in the wording of the question, and by reclassifying those of Asian descent who identify themselves as Black, but write in the details of their ethnic background, to the "Other-Asian" or "Other-Other" categories.

Table 1 Great Britain Composition of the 'Black' ethnic category, 1991.

Ethnic group	Population	Percent
Black people	879,850	100.0
Black-Caribbean	493,339	56.1
Black-African	208,110	23.7
<i>Black-Other</i>	<i>178,401</i>	<i>20.3</i>
British	58,106	6.6
Mixed: Black/White parents	24,687	2.8
Mixed: Other	50,668	5.8
Other answers	44,940	5.1

Source: OPCS/GRO(Scotland) (1994) Country of Birth and Ethnic Group report (HMSO).

Table 1 details the population breakdown of the "Black" ethnic groups. More than half of Black people as defined by the Census are from the Black-Caribbean ethnic group and just under a quarter in the Black-African group. Within the Black-Other group, the "Black British" are the largest single category, though there are similar numbers of Black people of "Other Mixed" parentage and giving "other answers". The number of people reported as having White and Black parents is quite small, amounting to a total of under 25 thousand in Great Britain, though

many more people may simply have been identified on the Census form as "British" or have been assigned the ethnic group of one or other of their parents.

3. Demographic patterns

The age and gender structure of the three Black ethnic groups is summarised in the population pyramid in Figure 1. The shape of this pyramid is typical of a relatively youthful population, with a marked "bulge" in the 20-34 age range, and a wide base, indicative of an increasing birth rate (common to all sections of the British population) during the mid-to-late 1980s. Males are in the majority in the younger age groups, but there are more women than men in each age group in the 20-49 age range². In contrast with white people, men are in the majority amongst people aged over 50, though there are relatively few Black people of pensionable age (46.8 thousand in total).

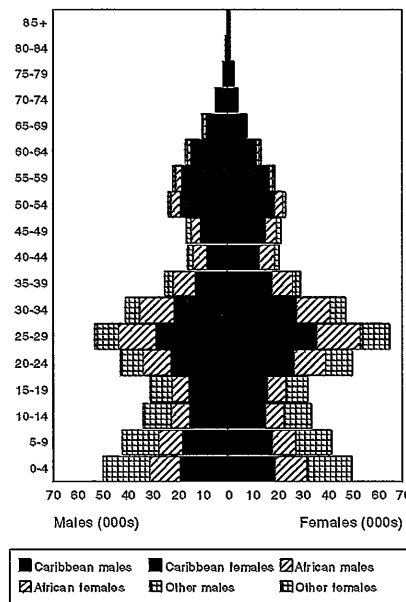


Figure 1: Age and gender pyramid for Black ethnic groups, 1991

There are clear differences in the age structures of the three Black ethnic groups. Black-Caribbeans are dominant amongst Black people aged over 50, and form a diminishing share of all Black people in the younger age groups. Many people from this ethnic group came to Britain in the early post-war decades, somewhat earlier than most Black-Africans, and the bulges in the population pyramid appear to indicate the presence of three generations of Black-Caribbean people. Black-Africans tend to be most prominent in the working age range, particularly amongst people aged 20-39. Black-Others are a much more youthful ethnic group, having their largest share of the Black population amongst the youngest age groups, notably pre-school age children (36.5 per cent, compared to 20.3 per cent of all Black people). Many Black-Other people are the children of "Black-Caribbean" parents, and their allocation to this ethnic category reflects both shifts in ethnic identification between generations and the tendency for many parents to identify their children as being British, rather than of Caribbean origin³.

Further details of the population structure of the three Black ethnic groups and a comparison with white people is presented in Table 2. This underlines the relative youth of Black people; half of all Black-Other males are aged under 15 years. The Black-Caribbean ethnic group tends to be older on average than the Black-African ethnic group. For both, the prime economically active ages (25-44) contain the largest share of the population, this being particularly marked for Black-Africans. While the number of pensioners is small relative to white

people in all three ethnic groups (with women in the majority), a substantial percentage of Black-Caribbean people are nearing retirement age.

It is notable that the percentage of single people amongst those aged 16 and over is far higher for all three Black ethnic groups than for white people. This is partly due to the greater youth of these ethnic groups, as demonstrated by the highest figure being experienced by the Black-Other group. However, it is notable that the percentage single is higher for Black-Caribbean women than for men in the same ethnic group, in marked contrast to white people. The percentage of men who are married is higher than that for women in all four ethnic groups presented in the table, mainly because of the larger size of the other categories for women. Thus, because of their older median age, a much higher percentage of white women than women in the Black ethnic groups are widows. The percentage divorced is also higher for women than men in the four ethnic groups presented. Divorce rates are comparable to white people for Black-Africans and Black-Others, but somewhat higher for Black-Caribbeans, with 10.7 per cent of Black-Caribbean women aged over 16 being divorced.

Table 2 Summary demographic characteristics of Black and white ethnic groups in Great Britain, 1991

Age group, marital category, birthplace, migrants	White People		Black Caribbean		Black African		Black Other	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Population (000s)	25,066.4	26,807.4	239.5	260.5	106.8	105.6	87.5	90.9
% aged 0-4	6.7	6.0	7.9	7.2	11.8	11.8	20.9	19.7
% aged 5-15	13.8	12.2	15.2	13.5	17.6	17.4	31.2	29.3
% aged 16-24	13.0	12.1	14.6	15.1	15.8	17.4	18.2	19.7
% aged 25-44	29.8	28.2	29.6	35.6	41.6	42.7	23.1	25.2
% aged 45-59/64	22.8	16.6	26.2	19.2	11.4	8.5	5.2	4.0
% of pensionable age	13.9	24.8	6.5	9.3	1.8	2.1	1.3	2.0
Median age in years	35.8	38.9	30.2	30.3	26.6	26.0	15.0	16.5
Percent aged 16 and over								
single	29.5	22.6	47.2	50.0	46.9	43.3	63.6	64.2
married	61.0	56.1	42.2	35.2	48.2	46.5	31.0	27.5
widowed	3.9	14.5	2.0	4.2	0.8	3.2	0.8	2.1
divorced	5.5	6.8	8.6	10.7	4.1	7.0	4.7	6.3
% born in the UK	96.0	95.7	53.6	53.7	35.9	36.9	84.1	84.8
% living outside UK one year before Census	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	7.9	6.7	1.8	1.6

Sources: 1991 Census Local Base Statistics (ESRC purchase); Crown Copyright. OPCS/GRO(Scotland) (1994) Country of Birth and Ethnic Group report (HMSO).

The percentage of the population born in the UK varies considerably between the three Black ethnic groups. The Black-Caribbean ethnic group contains some of the earlier migrants to Britain and is oldest on average, but more than half of both males and females were born in the UK. The Black-Other group is the youngest on average, and the vast majority of people from this ethnic group were born in the UK. In contrast, just over a third of Black-African people were born in the UK. This is because in-migration is still a significant influence upon the growth of this ethnic group; 7.9 per cent of men and 6.7 per cent of women in the Black-African ethnic group were living outside the UK one year before the Census, reflecting the movement of students and refugees (many of whom will not settle permanently in the UK). For Black-

Caribbean people, in-migration to the UK ran at a similar rate as that for white people during 1990-91 (Table 2).

4. Geographical distribution of the Black ethnic groups within Great Britain

The broad regional distribution of the three Black ethnic groups is presented in Table 3⁴. The great majority of people from Black ethnic groups live in the South-East of England, mainly in Greater London (particularly for Black-Africans; Black-Others are more likely than people from the other two groups to live in other parts of the South-East). The main concentrations of Black people outside this region are in the West Midlands, Greater Manchester and West Yorkshire metropolitan counties. The percentage share of Black ethnic groups in the resident population is greatest in Greater London and the West Midlands metropolitan county, with Black-Caribbeans more likely than people from the other two Black ethnic groups to be found outside the main concentrations of Black people.

Table 3 Regional variations in ethnic composition, 1991

Standard Region or metropolitan county	Total Population (000s)	Black People (000s)	(%)	Black Caribbean (000s)	(%)	Black African (000s)	(%)	Black Other (000s)	(%)
South East	17208.3	609.7	3.5	331.5	1.9	177.2	1.0	100.9	0.6
<i>Greater London</i>	6679.7	535.2	8.0	291.0	4.4	163.6	2.4	80.6	1.2
East Anglia	2027.0	14.5	0.7	5.0	0.2	2.4	0.1	7.2	0.4
South West	4609.4	21.8	0.5	12.4	0.3	2.8	0.1	6.6	0.1
West Midlands	5150.2	102.2	2.0	78.1	1.5	5.3	0.1	18.8	0.4
<i>West Midlands MC</i>	2551.7	92.0	3.6	72.2	2.8	4.1	0.2	15.7	0.6
East Midlands	3953.4	38.6	1.0	24.4	0.6	3.5	0.1	10.7	0.3
Yorks & Humberside	4836.5	36.6	0.8	21.5	0.4	4.9	0.1	10.2	0.2
<i>S Yorkshire MC</i>	1262.6	9.9	0.8	6.0	0.5	1.3	0.1	2.6	0.2
<i>W Yorkshire MC</i>	2013.7	23.9	1.2	14.8	0.7	2.6	0.1	6.6	0.3
North West	6243.7	47.0	0.8	21.7	0.3	9.3	0.1	16.0	0.3
<i>Greater Manchester</i>	2499.4	31.5	1.3	17.1	0.7	5.2	0.2	9.2	0.4
<i>Merseyside</i>	1403.6	9.4	0.7	2.2	0.2	2.9	0.2	4.3	0.3
North	3026.7	4.5	0.1	1.1	0.0	1.5	0.0	1.9	0.1
<i>Tyne & Wear</i>	1095.2	2.2	0.2	0.5	0.0	0.9	0.1	0.8	0.1
Wales	2835.1	9.5	0.3	3.3	0.1	2.7	0.1	3.5	0.1
Scotland	4998.6	6.4	0.1	0.9	0.0	2.8	0.1	2.6	0.1
Great Britain	54,888.8	890.7	1.6	499.0	0.9	209.6	0.4	175.8	0.3

Source: 1991 Census Local Base Statistics (ESRC purchase); Crown Copyright.

The local variations underlying these broad regional averages are revealed in Figures 2 to 5, which map those areas in which the percentage of the population from Black ethnic groups is greater than the national average, with the strongest local concentrations being given the darkest shading⁵. The maps emphasise that Black people as a whole mostly live in Greater London, in areas of rapid economic growth in the rest of the South East such as Reading, High Wycombe and Milton Keynes, in the West Midlands, in the larger cities of the East Midlands, and in the conurbations of northern England, around Manchester, Liverpool and Leeds. There is also a "port" effect, which can be seen from the highlighting of local concentrations in Bristol and Cardiff (Figure 2).

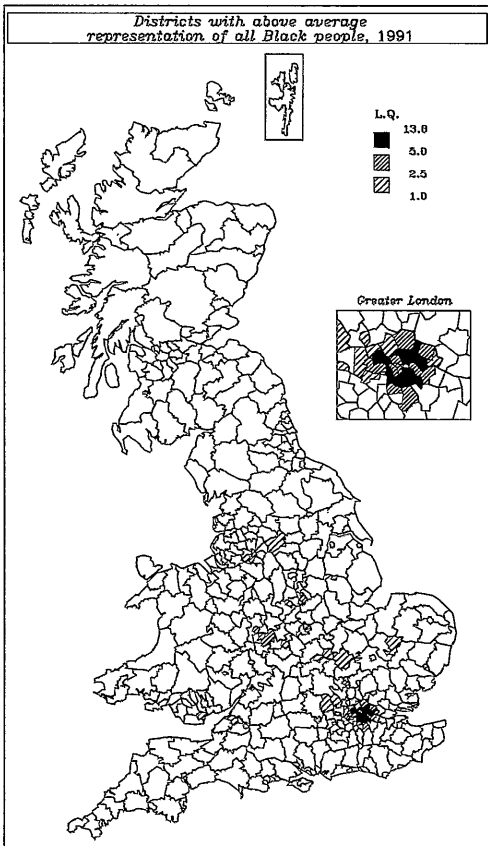


Figure 2

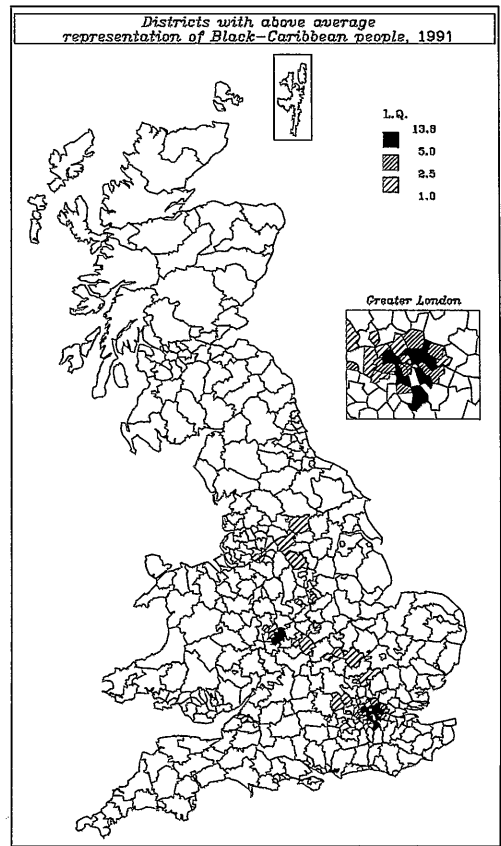


Figure 3

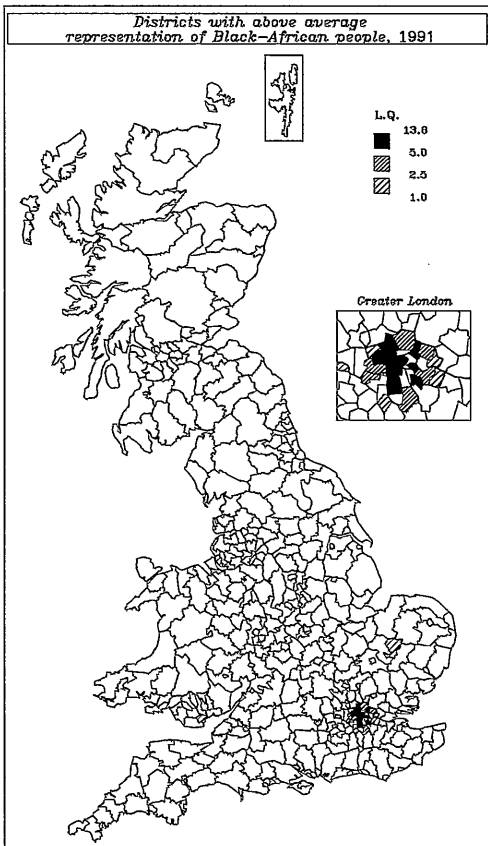


Figure 4

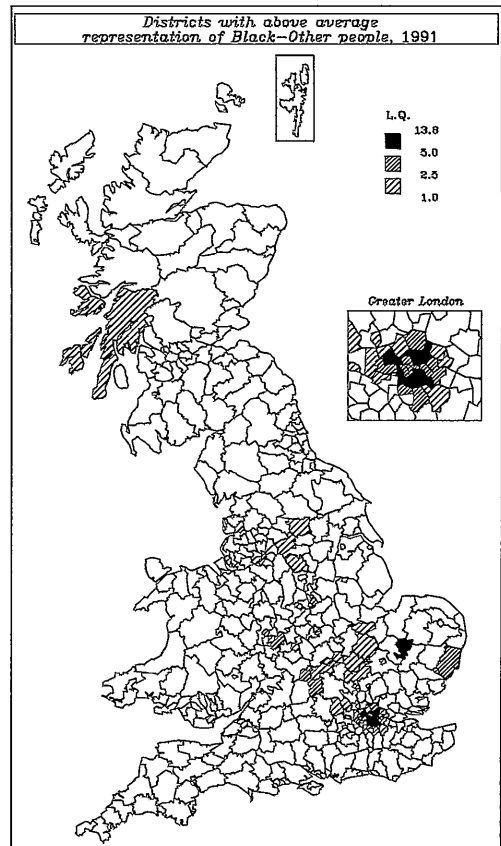


Figure 5

People from the Black-Caribbean ethnic group mainly live within the axis of greatest urbanisation running from London to Manchester, but have their strongest concentrations in inner and south London and Birmingham (Figure 3). In contrast, the spatial distribution of areas having more than the national average percentage of Black-African people is much more limited, occurring mainly in London, though local concentrations also appear in Liverpool, Manchester, Cardiff, Forest Heath, Oxford and Reading (Figure 4). Concentrations of the Black-Other ethnic group are more spatially dispersed than for the other Black ethnic groups, covering much of the Home Counties north and west of London, Cambridge, Peterborough, Suffolk, West and South Yorkshire, Argyll and Bute in addition to the areas highlighted for the Black-Caribbean ethnic group (Figure 5). Port cities are prominent, reflecting the relatively large number of people of mixed parentage in these areas in which Black communities have been longest established. The pattern also reflects the location of US military bases.

Table 4 presents an alternative perspective upon the geographical distribution of the three Black ethnic groups, focussing upon those administrative and political areas in which Black people are most prominent in the local population. The three types of area reported are local authority districts, parliamentary constituencies and local education authorities. For the first two entities, the ten areas in which the percentage of all residents from Black ethnic groups is largest are presented. Local Education Authority areas are ranked in terms of the percentage of all persons aged 5-15 from Black ethnic groups.

The largest local concentrations of people from the three Black ethnic groups tend to be found in the central London Boroughs, with south London particularly prominent. However, the Black-Other group also has a large representation in Forest Heath in Suffolk, reflecting the presence of American servicemen at two large military bases. When the focus switches to parliamentary constituencies (which have smaller populations than local authorities), local concentrations of Black-Caribbeans are identified in Birmingham and outer London in addition to central areas of London. It is in the areas at the top of the ranking that Black people potentially have greatest political influence, representing more than a quarter of the population in constituencies such as Tottenham. The ranking of LEAs highlights those areas in which Black children are most prominent within the school age population and therefore those areas in which the need for schools to respect their culture and particular needs is greatest. Once again, central London contains the greatest local concentrations of Black children. The share of Black ethnic groups in the 5-15 age group is greater than their corresponding share of the population as a whole, reflecting the youthful age structure of these three ethnic groups. The ranking is similar for all three, except for the appearance of children from the Black-Other ethnic group in Forest Heath; probably reflecting the presence of the children of Black American servicemen. In LEAs such as Lambeth, children from the three Black ethnic groups form over a third of the population of school age.

5. Households, family structure and housing characteristics

In the Census of Population, one person is requested to complete the form on behalf of all members of the household. A household may contain more than one family (for example, where a married couple live with one set of parents). Though families may be of more relevance in terms of social organisation, most of the information on housing characteristics and material deprivation in the Census is presented on the basis of households. Table 5 presents some key characteristics of Black and white households in Britain. Households headed by persons from the three Black ethnic groups are slightly larger on average than white-headed households, with Black-African headed households the largest across the four ethnic groups presented. This is in part because they contain a larger number of dependent children aged 0-18 on average (2 compared to 1.8 for the other three ethnic groups presented in Table 5). Since Black-African and Black-Other people are somewhat younger on average than white and Black-Caribbean people, the percentage of households containing pensioners is much smaller.

Table 4 Largest local concentrations of Black ethnic groups within Great Britain, 1991

Black-Caribbean		Black-African		Black-Other	
District	Percent	District	Percent	District	Percent
Local Authority Districts (all ages)					
Lambeth	12.6	Southwark	7.2	Hackney	4.0
Hackney	11.2	Hackney	6.8	Forest Heath	2.8
Brent	10.2	Lambeth	6.5	Lambeth	2.7
Lewisham	10.1	Newham	5.6	Lewisham	2.5
Haringey	9.3	Haringey	5.5	Haringey	2.3
Southwark	8.3	Brent	4.1	Southwark	2.2
Newham	7.2	Lewisham	3.7	Brent	2.2
Waltham Forest	6.8	Islington	3.6	Islington	1.9
Wandsworth	6.1	Wandsworth	2.9	Hammersmith&Fulham	1.8
Hammersmith&Fulham	5.9	Westminster	2.8	Wandsworth	1.7
Parliamentary Constituencies (all ages)					
Tottenham	14.6	Peckham	9.1	Hackney,S.&Shoreditch	4.8
Norwood	13.7	Hackney,S.&Shoreditch	8.9	Tottenham	3.2
Birmingham,Ladywood	13.6	Tottenham	8.5	Lewisham,Deptford	3.1
Hackney S.&Shoreditch	13.1	Vauxhall	8.0	Hackney N&Stoke Newington	3.1
Vauxhall	12.8	Newham NW	6.3	Norwood	2.9
Lewisham,Deptford	12.4	Lewisham,Deptford	6.2	Peckham	2.6
Brent South	11.8	Southwark&Bermondsey	5.9	Vauxhall	2.6
Croydon NW	10.1	Norwood	5.5	Westminster N.	2.4
Birmingham,Small Heath	9.8	Westminster N.	5.1	Hornsey&Wood Green	2.4
Peckham	9.6	Newham NE	5.1	Battersea	2.3
Local Education Authorities (5-15 year olds)					
Lambeth	17.5	Lambeth	10.3	Hackney	8.2
Lewisham	11.9	Southwark	9.1	Lambeth	6.7
Hackney	11.1	Hackney	7.7	Lewisham	6.0
Southwark	10.7	Haringey	6.6	Southwark	5.3
Haringey	10.7	Islington	5.8	Wandsworth	5.1
Brent	10.6	Brent	5.7	Hammersmith&Fulham	5.0
Hammersmith&Fulham	9.3	Newham	5.0	Haringey	4.8
Wandsworth	8.4	Wandsworth	4.9	Brent	4.7
Waltham Forest	7.2	Lewisham	4.7	Islington	4.6
Newham	6.9	Westminster	4.7	Forest Heath	4.5

Source: 1991 Census Local Base Statistics (ESRC purchase); Crown Copyright.

There are marked differences between white and Black people in housing tenure. Two-thirds of white households live in owner-occupied housing, compared to just under half of Black-Caribbeans, a third of Black-Others and only 28 per cent of Black-African households. All forms of renting are much more common among Black- than white-headed households, with the public sector (local authorities, New Towns and Scottish Homes) being the most common tenure type for Black-Africans. The percentage of households in each of the Black ethnic groups renting from Housing Associations is similar, but private renting is much more common amongst Black-Africans (which reflects the number of students and refugees in this ethnic group).

Table 5 also contains a number of measures derived from the Census which have commonly been used as indicators of physical housing deprivation and material need; overcrowding, lacking or sharing a bathroom or WC and access to a car. The greater prevalence of private renting may be responsible for the higher incidence of overcrowding (measured as the percentage of households with more than 1 person per room) experienced by households from the three Black ethnic groups compared to white households, despite their similarity in size. This is underlined by the very high levels experienced by Black-African headed households, amongst whom the percentage having to share a bathroom or WC is also much higher than for the white or other Black ethnic groups. This evidence for the existence of relatively high levels of material deprivation for Black-African households is confirmed by the very high percentage of households who do not have a car; nearly twice that for white households⁶. Moreover, more than half of all households headed by persons from each of the three Black ethnic groups do not possess a car, compared to a third of white-headed households. This strongly indicates that Black households have much lower income levels than white households.

Table 5 Household and family composition, housing tenure and housing amenities for Black and white ethnic groups in Great Britain, 1991

Household characteristics or family type	White	Black People	Black-Caribbean	Black-African	Black-Other
All Households (100%)	21,026,565	328,087	216,460	73,346	38,281
Mean household size	2.4	2.6	2.5	2.8	2.5
Mean no. of dependent children	1.8	1.8	1.8	2.0	1.8
Percent pensioner households	25.7	5.6	7.2	2.0	1.8
% households owner-occupied	66.6	42.3	48.1	28.0	36.7
% renting from private sector	7.0	9.2	5.6	17.8	13.6
% renting from Housing Associations	3.0	10.1	9.7	10.8	11.2
% renting from public sector	21.4	36.8	35.7	41.1	34.5
% with 1+ person per room	1.8	7.2	4.7	15.1	5.6
% lacking/sharing bathroom/WC	1.2	2.3	1.4	5.1	2.4
% without a car	33.0	56.1	54.8	62.0	52.0
All families (10% sample)	1,462,155	20,930	14,098	4,289	2,543
<i>Married couple families</i>	79.2	48.3	47.3	55.0	42.9
With no dependent children	35.6	14.1	15.6	13.5	11.9
With 1 or more dependent children	25.0	31.1	20.3	39.1	27.0
With non-dependent children	12.5	8.6	11.4	2.3	4.0
<i>Cohabiting couple families</i>	7.7	10.3	10.7	7.2	13.7
With no dependent children	4.9	5.1	5.0	4.0	7.3
With 1 or more dependent children	2.5	4.9	5.2	3.1	6.3
With non-dependent children	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.1	0.1
<i>Lone parent families</i>	13.1	41.3	42.0	37.9	43.4
With 1 or more dependent children	32.3	7.8	30.8	33.5	38.9
With non-dependent children	5.4	9.0	11.2	4.4	4.5

Sources: 1991 Census Local Base Statistics (ESRC purchase); Crown Copyright. OPCS/GRO(Scotland) (1994) Country of Birth and Ethnic Group report (HMSO).

The table presents the percentage of all families falling into the categories married couple, cohabiting couple and lone parents, each of which is further disaggregated according to whether

or not they have dependent children, or whether their children are no longer dependent. Married couples represent a substantially smaller percentage of Black families than they do of white families. It is notable that a much higher percentage of white than Black married couples have no dependent children, though the percentage of white and Black-Caribbean married couples with non-dependent children is similar. This is probably a reflection of the older age structure of the white population; many of these couples will be older, and their children will now be economically active. Black-Africans differ from white people and the other two Black ethnic groups in the relatively high percentage of all families who are married couples with children. While the percentage of married couples is lowest for Black-Others, most of these have dependent children.

The percentage of all families who are cohabiting couples is much more similar across the four ethnic groups. It is highest by far for people in the Black-Other ethnic group, probably reflecting the relative youth of this ethnic group. Most cohabiting couples do not have dependent children, the main exception being Black-Caribbeans, while cohabiting couples with children form the largest percentage of all families for the Black-Other group.

The most striking difference between white and Black people lies in the higher incidence of lone parent families in the Black ethnic groups. This percentage is more than three times higher for Black-Others than for white people, and only slightly lower for the Black-Caribbean ethnic group. While a large proportion of white lone parent families contain no dependent children (possibly reflecting a higher incidence of widowhood among white women; see Table 2), a third or more of all Black-African and Black-Other families consist of lone parents with dependent children (with the percentage for Black-Caribbeans only slightly smaller). The older age structure of Black-Caribbeans is also reflected in the higher percentage of lone parent families with non-dependent children for this ethnic group.

6. Differentials in health between white and Black ethnic groups

The 1991 Census included for the first time a question intended to yield information on the incidence of long-term illness and disability within the population. The wording of this question was "*Does the person have any long-term illness, health problem or handicap which limits his/her daily activities or the work he/she can do?*". The responses to the question can be regarded as quite a good indicator of the general level of health of the population, but the usefulness of the information yielded by the question is limited by the fact that all types of health problem are treated as being of equal severity.

The Census enables the proportions of males and females suffering a long-term health problem to be calculated for each ethnic group. Table 6 presents the incidence of long-term limiting illness for Black people, showing that the percentage suffering such illnesses amongst the Black-African and Black-Other ethnic groups is only half the corresponding figure for white people. The percentage of Black-Caribbean people with long-term health problems is also well below the figure for white people. Long-term illness affects a smaller percentage of households in the Black than in the white ethnic groups, but the number of ill persons per household tends to be higher.

However, health tends to deteriorate with age, and these differences are thus strongly influenced by the difference in age structure between white and Black ethnic groups. Therefore, a more meaningful comparison is between the rate of limiting long-term illness and the same rate standardised to take the age structure of an ethnic group into account. These rates can be calculated using the individual 1 per cent Sample of Anonymised Records; the results are presented in Table 5⁷. This shows a rather different picture. The percentage of white people with limiting long-term illnesses is very close (actually marginally below) that which would be expected from the age structure of the ethnic group, but illness rates for Black ethnic groups are higher than those which would be expected on the basis of their age structure. For males, this differential is greatest for the "Black-Other" ethnic group. This "poor health" differential is much stronger for females, and is wider for the "Black-Caribbean" and "Black-African" ethnic groups than for "Black-Others".

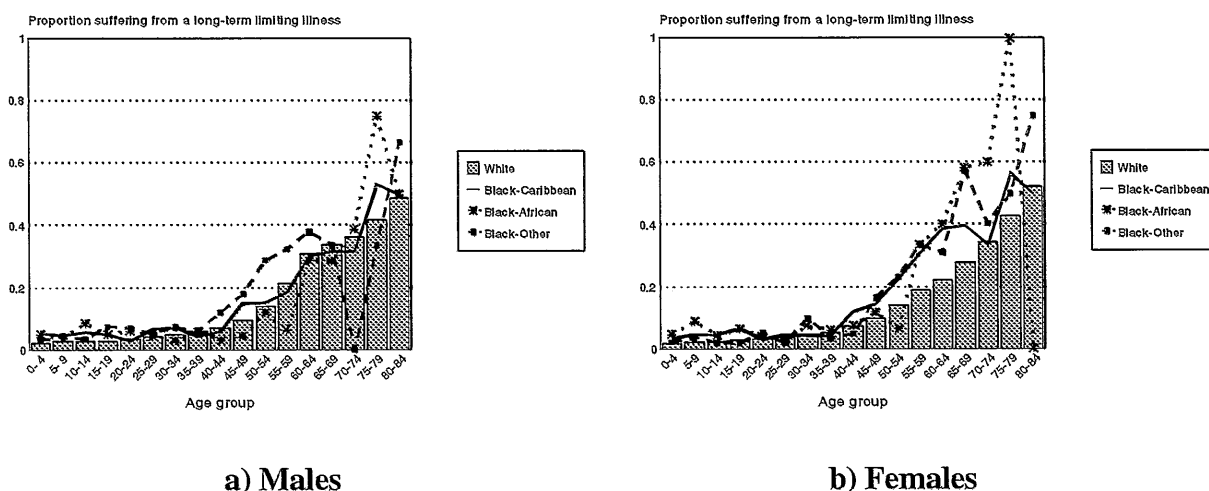


Figure 6: Rates of limiting long-term illness by age group

The influence of age upon health is demonstrated in Figures 6a and 6b, which plot the proportion of males and females with limiting long-term illnesses in each 5-year age group for each of the three Black ethnic groups and white people. Levels of ill-health are low for all four ethnic groups in the younger age ranges. The most rapid increases in this proportion occur from middle-age onwards, while in the oldest age groups, about half the population is suffering from a limiting long-term illness. The proportion of females in all three Black ethnic groups with a limiting long-term illness is greater than the corresponding figure for white females. Illness rates for Black-Caribbean men seem similar to those of white men throughout the age range, while men from the Black-African ethnic group have better health in the younger age ranges, in contrast to those from the Black-Other ethnic group.

Table 6 The incidence of limiting long-term illness among white and Black ethnic groups in Great Britain, 1991

Long-term ill persons and illness rates	White people	Black people	Black-Caribbean	Black-African	Black-Other
Persons suffering limiting long-term illness (000s)	6,949.7	84.4	57.9	15.5	10.9
Percent of all persons	13.4	9.5	11.6	7.3	6.1
Households containing a long-term ill person (000s)	5,227.4	62.4	47.0	9.4	6.0
Percent of all households	24.9	19.0	21.7	12.8	15.6
Mean no. ill per household	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.7	1.8
Male age standardised long-term illness rate	12.0	7.7	9.7	5.7	4.4
Female age standardised long-term illness rate	13.1	6.5	8.0	5.0	3.9
Male relative illness rate	0.99	1.13	1.09	1.03	1.49
Female relative illness rate	0.99	1.41	1.43	1.45	1.25

Sources: 1991 Census Local Base Statistics (ESRC purchase) and 2 % individual Sample of Anonymised Records; both Crown Copyright.

7. Economic activity, employment and unemployment

In this section, detailed information on the experience of the three Black ethnic groups in the labour market is presented for Great Britain as a whole. It covers three broad dimensions; contrasts in participation in the labour market by age and gender, differences in the industries and occupations in which men and women from Black ethnic groups work, and variations in unemployment between Black and white ethnic groups.

7.1 Labour Market participation

The main dimensions of economic participation by the three Black ethnic groups are presented in Table 7. The economic activity rate is an extremely important indicator, representing the percentage of people who participate in the labour market (either through being in work or by seeking work). However, the choice of the appropriate age range over which to calculate it has a considerable influence upon the result. The usual definition of the economically active age range is from 16 to retirement age (defined here as 59 for women or 64 for men), but many people remain in the labour force beyond conventional retirement age. The extension of economic activity beyond retirement age has led many analysts to base the calculation on all persons aged over 16, which clearly greatly depresses the white economic activity rate relative to that based on 16-59/64 year olds. Using the former method leads to the conclusion that a higher percentage of Black than white people are in the labour force; with the contrast especially marked for women. This is unrealistic, because the calculation for white people includes a large number of retired people; since Black people tend to be much younger, retirement has much less influence upon their economic activity rates (the only exception being for Black-Caribbean people, who tend to be older than other Black people).

Table 7 Economic characteristics of Black ethnic groups in Great Britain, 1991

Economic status	White People		Black Caribbean		Black African		Black Other	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
<i>Aged 16+</i>								
Total (000s)	19,927.7	21,918.7	184.1	206.4	75.4	74.7	41.9	46.4
Economically active	14,577.7	10,897.4	147.4	138.0	52.0	44.9	34.3	29.1
Economic activity rate	73.2	49.7	80.1	66.9	69.0	60.1	81.9	62.9
<i>Aged 16-59/64</i>								
Total (000s)	16,442.7	15,259.2	168.6	182.3	73.5	72.5	40.7	44.5
Economically active	14,299.4	10,422.8	145.7	133.7	51.8	44.5	34.1	28.8
Economic activity rate	87.0	68.3	86.4	73.3	70.5	61.4	83.8	64.7
<i>16-24 year olds</i>								
Total (000s)	3,262.1	3,246.6	35.0	39.3	16.9	18.4	16.0	17.9
Economically active	2,544.2	2,169.9	27.1	25.4	8.8	8.8	11.7	10.6
Economic activity rate	78.0	66.8	77.3	64.6	51.8	47.7	73.4	59.0
<i>Economically inactive aged 16 and over</i>								
Total (000s)	5,345.0	11,021.3	36.7	68.4	23.4	29.8	7.6	17.2
Inactivity rate	26.9	50.3	19.9	33.1	31.0	39.9	18.1	37.1
<i>Composition of the economically inactive</i>								
full-time students (%)	13.5	6.7	21.9	16.3	68.4	37.0	57.7	30.9
permanently sick (%)	18.5	6.6	27.4	14.9	7.4	5.4	18.3	7.6
retired (%)	65.2	42.9	43.0	25.8	8.7	5.2	14.6	7.4
other inactive (%)	2.7	43.9	7.8	42.9	15.5	52.4	9.3	54.2

Source: 1991 Census Local Base Statistics (ESRC purchase); Crown Copyright.

For 16 to 59/64 year olds, a higher percentage of Black-Caribbean men and women than persons from the Black-African and Black-Other ethnic groups participate in the labour market;

indeed, Black-Caribbean women are more likely to be economically active than white women. Black-Africans have by far the lowest economic activity rates of the three Black ethnic groups, in each of which economic activity rates are higher for men than women. Labour market participation rates are much lower for the 16-24 year old age group than for the working age population as a whole, since a large percentage of this age group are engaged in full-time education. The contrast is strongest for the Black-African ethnic group, within which only about half of 16-24 year old men and women are economically active, and weakest for white women. The difference in economic activity rates between the Black ethnic groups is more marked for 16-24 year olds than for the working population as a whole, with Black-Caribbeans having activity rates similar to white people and Black-Others having rather lower activity rates. The contrast between ethnic groups mirrors the differences in educational participation rates (described below).

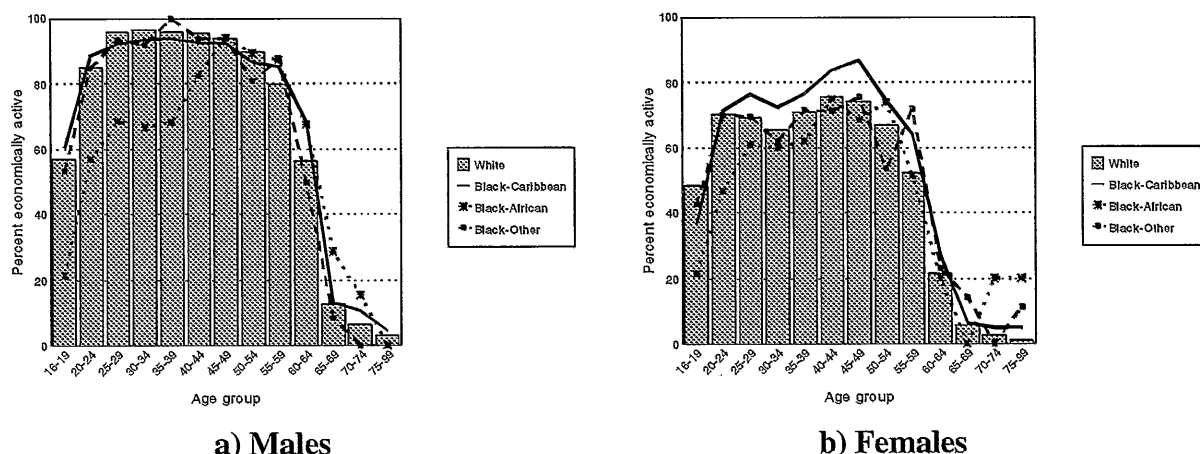


Figure 7: Percentage economically active by age group

The detailed variation in labour market participation within the working age range is illustrated in Figures 7a (for men) and 7b (for women). It shows that Black-Caribbean and Black-Other men have rates of labour market participation similar to white men throughout the age range, with a rapid increase from the (around) 60 per cent participation rates for 16-19 year olds to well over 90 per cent participation for men aged from 25 to 49. Participation rates then fall off rapidly with age. In marked contrast, the participation of Black-African men in the labour market increases much more gradually with age, starting from a much lower base. Only for men aged 45-59 are economic activity rates similar to those for white and other Black ethnic groups, though a higher percentage of older Black-African men are economically active. Black and white women share a similar trend of economic activity rates, initially low, rising gradually to a peak for women in their late twenties, falling again for those in their thirties and then reaching a higher peak in the 45-49 year age group before declining again (at a slower rate than for men). This pattern has been interpreted as reflecting the withdrawal of women from the labour market in order to rear children, but the decline in activity for women in their thirties is less pronounced than in previous years. Economic activity rates for women tend to be lower than for men throughout the age range for both white and Black ethnic groups. The ordering of these rates between the four ethnic groups presented remains fairly stable, with participation rates highest for Black-Caribbean women, followed by white women and Black-Other women, and lowest for Black-African women.

The table also provides some insight into the reasons underlying differences in labour market participation between white and Black ethnic groups, through a breakdown of the structure of the economically inactive. Economic inactivity rates (the percentage of those aged 16 and over neither employed nor seeking work) are higher for women than for men in both Black and white ethnic groups, and much higher for white women than Black women. For men, Black-Caribbeans and Black-Others have lower inactivity rates than white men, while nearly a third of Black-Africans are economically inactive. For white men, the main causes of inactivity

are retirement and permanent sickness (associated with industrial diseases and high unemployment). For Black-Caribbeans, the permanently sick account for the largest single part of the inactive, with a higher percentage than the white ethnic group in full-time education. In contrast, permanent sickness and retirement are much less important for Black-Africans and Black-Others, for both of which the majority of the inactive are in full-time education; over two-thirds of inactive Black-Africans are full-time students (again, this reflects the relative youth of these two ethnic groups). Turning to women, the white inactive are nearly all either retired or "other inactive" - in other words looking after a home or family full-time. The latter is the largest single category for all three Black ethnic groups, over half of Black-African and Black-Other women being "other inactive". Only for Black-Caribbeans are the categories "retired" and "permanently sick" substantial, while this ethnic group also displays the smallest percentage of economically inactive women in full-time education. Full-time students account for 37 per cent of Black-African and 30.9 per cent of Black-Other women who are economically inactive.

7.2 Employment

Table 8 outlines the broad dimensions of employment for men and women from Black ethnic groups, and compares them with white people. Black people are more likely to be employees than white people, since the self-employed form a smaller percentage of all in work in Black ethnic groups. This percentage is also lower for Black-Caribbean people than for the Black-African and Black-Other ethnic groups. Across the three Black ethnic groups and for white people, the self-employment rate is much higher for men than for women, with this differential greatest for Black-Caribbeans. Amongst employees, there are substantial differences between the genders and ethnic groups in the percentage who work part-time. This type of employment has grown rapidly in the last twenty years, at the expense of full-time jobs, and the bulk of part-time employment has been gained by women. Nearly 40 per cent of white women employees worked part-time in 1991, but the percentages for Black women were only about half as high, the maximum being 25.1 per cent for Black-African women. The percentage of male employees working part-time is far lower, at 4.2 per cent of white men, 4.5 per cent of Black-Caribbean men and 6.4 per cent of Black-Other male employees. However, the percentage of Black-African employees working part-time is much higher, at 11.8 per cent. These differences are also reflected in contrasts in the median working week for ethnic groups. On average, white men work for 5 hours longer per week than white women. Black men work slightly fewer hours per week than white men, but Black women work about 2 hours longer a week than white women.

Table 8 Employment of Black ethnic groups and white people in Great Britain, 1991

Economic status	White People		Black Caribbean		Black African		Black Other	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
All in work (000s)	12,822.4	10,087.9	108.8	116.1	34.8	31.9	24.2	22.7
Employees FT (000s)	10,121.9	5,677.0	93.2	89.7	27.0	22.9	19.9	17.1
Employees PT (000s)	444.9	3,743.6	4.4	24.2	3.6	7.7	1.4	4.7
%employed pt	4.2	39.7	4.5	21.2	11.8	25.1	6.4	21.5
Median hours worked	38.2	33.8	37.8	36.0	37.7	35.9	38.1	36.1
Self-emp w/e (000s)	737.2	241.5	2.3	0.7	1.1	0.4	0.8	0.2
Self-emp n/e (000s)	1,518.4	425.9	8.8	1.6	3.0	0.9	2.2	0.7
%working self-emp	17.6	6.6	10.2	1.9	11.9	4.0	12.1	4.1
%entrepreneurs	5.1	2.2	1.6	0.5	2.2	0.8	2.2	0.8
Econ active students (000s)	97.1	125.2	0.7	1.1	1.0	0.8	0.4	0.5

Source: 1991 Census Local Base Statistics (ESRC purchase) and OPCS/GRO(Scotland) (1994) Country of Birth and Ethnic Group report (HMSO); both Crown Copyright.

Self-employment grew by nearly a million during the 1980s, having received considerable encouragement from government policies aimed at encouraging people to be more "entrepreneurial" and start up their own businesses. However, much of this growth resulted from changes in employment contracts enforced by employers, rather than being a result of people starting their own businesses. By 1991, the growth of self-employment was beginning to slow down as a result of the return of economic recession. Census data provides some insight into the extent to which self-employment reflects small business formation, since it distinguishes whether the self-employed had employees or not. An "entrepreneurship rate" can be calculated, representing the percentage of economically active people in an ethnic group who were self-employed with employees (Table 8). There are strong white/Black and male/female contrasts. The entrepreneurship rate is higher for men than for women in each ethnic group presented in the table, being highest of all for white men. Entrepreneurship rates are higher for Black-African and Black-Other men than for Black-Caribbean men, and this pattern is repeated for women. Only 1 out of every 200 economically active Black-Caribbean women in Britain is self-employed with employees.

There are major contrasts between white and Black ethnic groups and between men and women in the type of work which they are engaged in. Two important dimensions of work are the industry (detailed in Table 9) and occupation (presented in Table 10) in which a person works⁸. Most white men work in four industrial sectors; engineering, construction, distribution (which includes hotels, catering and retailing) and business services. This contrasts strongly with white women, the great majority of whom work in the service sector, mainly in distribution and the health and education services. There are echoes of this gender distribution in the Black ethnic groups, but (with the exception of Black-Caribbeans) Black men are also more likely than white men to work in service sector industries. The most important sources of employment for Black-Caribbean men are the transport and communications, distribution, engineering and construction industries. The single largest industrial category of employment for both Black-African and Black-Other men is distribution. While the service industries are more substantial employers than manufacturing (with the exception of engineering for Black-Others) for both Black-Africans and Black-Others, Black-Africans are more strongly represented in the service industries which tend to offer "white-collar" jobs (such as business services and health & education), while the largest categories of service sector employment for Black-Others are public administration and transport and communications, which may provide less skilled jobs.

The industrial distribution of employment for Black women is similar to that for white women. However, a smaller percentage of Black-Caribbean and Black-African women work in distribution and a much higher percentage work in the education and health services (this may reflect the geographical concentration of these ethnic groups in London, and the fact that many early migrants to the UK were recruited to work in the National Health Service). For Black-Other women, the percentage working in business services is higher than for both white women and other Black women, while a smaller percentage work in the health and education services. The percentages of women from all three Black ethnic groups working in miscellaneous services and public administration are higher than those for white women.

Table 9 The industrial structure of work for Black ethnic groups and white people in Great Britain, 1991

Industrial category	White People		Black Caribbean		Black African		Black Other	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Agriculture, etc.	2.9	1.0	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.0
Mining	1.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.5
Utilities	1.8	0.7	1.0	0.8	0.5	0.4	1.0	0.5
Metals&minerals	2.1	0.7	1.4	0.2	0.7	0.4	1.0	0.2
Chemicals	1.7	0.9	1.2	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.7
Engineering	13.2	4.4	16.0	4.2	6.3	1.7	9.2	2.3
Food,drink,tobacco	2.4	2.1	2.8	1.9	2.8	1.3	2.7	2.1
Textiles&clothing	1.3	2.7	1.4	1.4	0.9	3.6	2.2	3.2
Other manufacturing	5.7	3.1	4.3	2.8	3.1	1.3	4.6	2.3
Construction	12.5	1.6	10.1	1.0	3.8	0.6	7.2	0.7
Distribution	16.7	24.1	16.1	11.7	19.0	15.7	20.0	19.5
Transport/comms.	8.7	3.3	17.7	5.6	12.9	6.5	11.4	3.7
Business services	11.2	13.6	9.5	13.6	13.4	14.2	9.9	18.1
Misc. services	5.7	14.1	6.7	18.0	11.7	16.5	7.0	17.6
Health&education	5.7	20.8	4.8	28.0	12.4	24.2	4.8	15.5
Public administration	7.3	6.9	6.5	10.4	11.7	12.9	18.1	13.0

Source: 1991 Census 2 % Individual Sample of Anonymised Records; Crown Copyright.

The occupational structure of work is partly determined by the industrial structure; thus there are more manual jobs in the manufacturing sector and more white-collar jobs in the service sector. However, there is a long term trend for a decline in manual work in all sectors of the economy and a growth in non-manual employment, while it should also be recognised that manufacturing firms carry out many 'service-like' functions, such as marketing and administration. Comparing the occupational structure of white men and white women highlights the strong gender division of work which exists in Britain (Table 10). The most common occupations for white men are corporate managers, other skilled trades, skilled engineering trades and industrial machine and plant operators (semi-skilled manual jobs), with "other elementary occupations" (unskilled manual work) and "managers and proprietors in agriculture and services" (self-employed farmers and business people) also important sources of work. In contrast, by the dominant types of work done by white women are clerical occupations, followed by personal service occupations (hairdressers, etc.), secretarial occupations, other elementary occupations (unskilled manual jobs) and sales occupations. The percentage of corporate managers is just over half that for white men, and women are also less likely to be scientists and engineers or work in skilled manual craft occupations. However, white women are more likely than white men to be teachers or nurses (health associate professionals).

This broad gender division of labour is repeated for the three Black ethnic groups, but a further division is imposed, with Black people tending to be in lesser skilled jobs than white people. For Black-Caribbean men, "other skilled trades", industrial plant and machine operators, other elementary occupations and skilled engineering trades are the most common categories of work, representing 47 per cent of all those in work. The percentage of managers and professionals is much lower than for white men, while the percentage working in lower status white collar jobs such as clerical occupations and personal services and in more routine manual tasks such as "drivers" is higher than for white men. Black-Caribbean women mainly work in clerical and personal service jobs, health associate professions, secretarial and other elementary occupations. They are much more strongly represented in the health service than white women and less likely to work in sales, education or management jobs.

The occupational distribution of Black-African men differs substantially from that of Black-Caribbeans, partly reflecting their greater representation in the service sector. The largest single occupational category is other elementary occupations, which just outnumbers those in clerical occupations, indicating that over a quarter of Black-African men work in routine and unskilled service occupations. However, 8 per cent (two-thirds of the white percentage) are corporate managers, and the percentages working in all the professional and associate professional occupations except science and engineering are higher than for white men. Black-Africans are less likely than other men to work in skilled and semi-skilled manual occupations, but are more likely to be in personal service occupations. For Black-African women, the most common occupation is again unskilled work (other elementary occupations), but among the remainder, health associate professions, clerical jobs, personal service and secretarial occupations are the main types of work done; their representation in the professions is much weaker than for men, though the percentage working in "other professions" and as corporate managers is higher than for other Black women.

Table 10 The occupational structure of employment for Black ethnic groups and white people in Great Britain, 1991.

Standard Occupational Classification sub-major group	White People		Black Caribbean		Black African		Black Other	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Corporate managers and administrators	12.4	6.6	4.9	4.6	8.0	5.3	8.7	5.3
Managers and proprietors agriculture & services	7.1	5.2	3.5	2.1	4.0	3.4	4.8	4.2
Science and engineering professionals	3.8	0.5	1.5	0.4	3.6	0.8	1.7	0.5
Health professionals	0.7	0.5	0.2	0.2	4.5	0.2	0.0	0.5
Teaching professionals	2.5	5.2	0.8	1.9	3.3	1.3	1.7	2.3
Other professionals	2.6	1.6	1.8	2.7	5.7	3.4	2.9	1.9
Science and engineering associate professionals	3.4	1.1	2.5	0.6	2.8	1.7	3.1	1.4
Health assoc. professionals	0.5	5.0	0.9	13.5	2.6	14.9	0.2	6.5
Other associate professionals	4.1	3.6	4.0	3.7	5.0	4.8	6.8	5.8
Clerical occupations	6.4	18.3	8.7	19.6	13.4	14.9	10.1	22.6
Secretarial occupations	0.2	10.3	0.2	11.2	0.5	7.4	0.5	12.1
Skilled construction trades	4.7	0.1	3.8	0.1	1.2	0.2	1.7	0.5
Skilled engineering trades	7.9	0.3	10.0	0.5	3.6	0.0	7.7	0.5
Other skilled trades	11.0	3.1	13.0	1.7	4.2	3.2	7.0	3.5
Protective service occs.	3.3	0.6	2.8	0.4	4.5	0.6	12.3	1.6
Personal service occs.	2.4	12.4	4.6	16.2	5.2	9.5	2.9	13.0
Buyers, brokers, sales reps	2.5	1.0	1.0	0.3	1.4	0.4	2.7	0.9
Other sales occupations	1.8	9.2	2.6	3.6	3.1	5.9	3.4	5.3
Industrial plant and machine operators, assemblers	7.7	4.6	12.3	5.5	5.0	3.2	8.0	5.1
Drivers and mobile machinery operators	6.7	0.4	9.2	0.4	4.7	0.8	5.1	0.5
Other occupations in agriculture, forestry and fishing	1.0	0.4	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.0
Other elementary occupations	7.1	9.9	11.7	10.8	13.5	17.9	8.2	6.0

Source: 1991 Census 2 % Individual Sample of Anonymised Records; Crown Copyright.

The occupational structure of Black-Other men combines elements of that of Black-Caribbeans and Black-Africans. The percentage of unskilled workers is lower than for other Black men, but the largest occupational category is protective service (armed forces, etc.; this may also reflect the presence of US servicemen) followed by clerical occupations, corporate managers and industrial plant and machine operatives. Manual occupations account for a larger share of employment than for Black-Africans, with the percentage in skilled manual jobs intermediate between Black-Caribbeans and Black-Africans. The percentage of professional workers is lower than for Black-Africans, but the percentage of lower status associate professionals is higher. The percentage of managers in agriculture and services is higher than for the other two Black ethnic groups, but (as is the case for corporate managers and professionals) well below the corresponding figure for white men. Black-Other women tend to be concentrated into three occupational groups; clerical, personal service and secretarial occupations account for 47.7 per cent of all those in work. Their occupational structure is therefore much more similar to white women than to other Black women. With the exception of teaching, the percentage in professional occupations is much smaller than for other Black women (the differential with white women is even greater), but on the other hand, the percentage working in unskilled jobs is much lower than for other Black women.

7.3 Unemployment

Table 11 contrasts the experience of unemployment between white people and the three Black ethnic groups, for men and women. Once again, there are both ethnic group and gender dimensions to the pattern of variation presented. Across all four ethnic groups presented, women experience lower unemployment rates than men, while people in Black ethnic groups suffer higher unemployment rates than white people. Amongst men, the unemployment rate for Black ethnic groups is around 2.5 times higher than the white unemployment rate, being highest for Black-Africans at 28.9 per cent (of the ten Census ethnic groups, only Pakistanis and Bangladeshis experience higher unemployment rates; see NEMDA 1991 Census Statistical Papers 3 and 7). Differentials in unemployment rates are far greater for women, with the unemployment rate being about twice the white rate for Black-Caribbeans, nearly three times higher than the white rate for Black-Others and almost four times as high as that for white women for Black-African women. The gender differential in unemployment rates is narrowest for white and Black-African people and widest for Black-Caribbean people. Men are slightly more likely than women to participate on government schemes, but Black people are much more likely than white people to be on such schemes. The percentage of economically active Black-African and Black-Other people on government training schemes is higher than the corresponding percentage for Black-Caribbean people, probably reflecting their greater youth (and perhaps the participation of African refugees on language training schemes).

Unemployment rates vary with age, being high for young people, then falling to a minimum for people in their forties, before rising again for older workers. Unemployment rates are higher for men than for women and higher for Black people than white people in all parts of the age range. Among 16-24 year olds, about two-fifths of economically active Black men and about a quarter of Black women are unemployed. Unemployment rates are highest for the Black-African ethnic group (which has the highest female unemployment rate), probably because high educational participation rates mean that the economically active population is relatively small, and those in the labour market will have the fewest educational qualifications. For Black women, unlike Black men and white women, unemployment rates decline continuously with age, and the differential in unemployment rates between white and Black women is narrowest in the older age groups.

It is also possible to analyse the incidence of unemployment by industry and occupation. The industrial pattern is less easy to interpret than that for occupation, because there are few Black people employed in some sectors, such as agriculture and energy. One common feature is the high unemployment rates experienced by both men and women and white and Black people working in the construction industry, where unemployment rates for Black-Africans and Black-Others are 2 to 3 times higher than those for white people. Unemployment rates are marginally higher in manufacturing industry than in the service sector. Unemployment rates for Black

people are about twice those for white people in both the manufacturing and the service sectors, with Black-Caribbean people experiencing lower rates than the other Black ethnic groups.

For white men, unemployment rates tend to rise as the level of skill in an occupation falls; managers and professional people experience the lowest unemployment rates while unskilled workers suffer the highest rates of unemployment. This pattern is also found for Black-Caribbean men, but skilled manual male workers in the Black-African and Black-Other ethnic groups experience very high unemployment rates. White collar unemployment rates are also particularly high for Black-African and Black-Other men. For women, unemployment rates are highest for skilled manual occupations in both white and Black ethnic groups. Unemployment rates for semi- and un-skilled occupations tend to be higher than those for white collar occupations, but the percentage of unskilled Black-African women unemployed is lower than for any other occupational grouping except "other white collar". Black-African women managers and professionals suffer higher unemployment rates than women in the same occupations in the white or other Black ethnic groups, with the differential slightly greater than for men from the same ethnic group.

Table 11 Unemployment among Black and white ethnic groups in Great Britain, 1991

Economic activity, age, industry and occupation groups	White People		Black Caribbean		Black African		Black Other	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Economically active	14577.7	10897.4	147.4	138.0	52.0	44.9	34.3	29.1
Unemployed	1556.5	689.7	35.1	18.7	15.0	11.1	8.7	5.3
Unemployment rate	10.7	6.3	23.8	13.5	28.9	24.7	25.5	18.3
On govt. scheme (000s)	198.8	119.8	3.5	3.2	2.2	1.9	1.4	1.1
% on schemes	1.4	1.1	2.4	2.3	4.3	4.3	4.1	3.7
<i>Unemployment rates by age</i>								
16-24	18.0	12.3	38.0	25.7	47.2	41.5	40.4	25.9
25-39	10.2	6.1	22.7	11.8	28.6	26.7	21.9	14.1
40-49	7.5	4.1	19.9	8.5	20.0	11.1	14.1	17.2
50-59/64	10.7	5.5	20.4	8.0	23.4	3.2	20.9	10.0
<i>Unemployment rates by previous industry of employment</i>								
Agriculture/energy	7.8	3.7	6.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	14.3	0.0
Manufacturing	9.1	7.8	17.8	14.4	21.2	11.5	20.2	17.5
Construction	15.8	6.7	26.7	15.4	37.1	25.0	42.3	25.0
Services	8.2	5.0	14.9	8.4	16.7	13.5	16.7	13.5
<i>Unemployment rates by previous occupation of employment</i>								
Managerial/professional	4.5	3.5	9.4	6.4	13.0	13.4	10.1	9.0
Other white collar	8.6	4.9	15.2	10.3	22.1	8.5	16.7	11.6
Skilled manual	9.6	10.1	16.6	32.4	31.6	18.2	28.4	26.9
Semi-skilled	11.1	7.6	18.8	9.1	15.6	18.0	16.6	19.7
Unskilled	19.1	5.6	19.7	9.0	21.2	11.3	35.7	25.7

Source: 1991 Census Local Base Statistics (ESRC purchase) and 2 % Individual Sample of Anonymised Records; both Crown Copyright.

8. Participation in higher and further education and highest qualifications held

With the recent expansion of the higher education system and the increasing awareness of the need to raise general levels of education and training in order to improve national economic competitiveness, young people are now being encouraged to stay in full-time education for longer, in order to gain additional qualifications. Asian young people (Indians in particular) displayed higher staying-on rates than white and Black young people at the start of the 1980s, but Labour Force Survey data reveals that the latter two ethnic groups had caught up to some extent during by the end of the decade⁹. The participation of young people from the three Black ethnic groups in further and higher education is illustrated in Figure 8 (a and b), which presents the percentage of young people who are full-time students for each single year of age from 16 to 29.

The general trend for both males and females is for the percentage involved in full-time education to decline with age, with a rapid fall associated with school leaving and then a more gradual decline up to the age of 25. The decline levels out after this point, with students representing a small but steady percentage of 25-29 year olds. Black-Caribbean and Black-Other men display a similar trend to white men. About three-quarters of 16 year olds are in full-time education, but participation declines rapidly with age, so that only about a fifth of 19-21 year olds (the prime age range for higher education) are full-time students. However, Black-African men display a much greater likelihood of staying in full-time education than other Black or white men across the 16-29 age range. They do not experience the rapid decline in the percentage in full-time education in the 17-18 age group, over 70 per cent of whom are students. The percentage of men in their late teens and early twenties in full-time education is at least double that for the other Black ethnic groups. Participation remains high throughout the rest of the 20-29 age group, with around a quarter of men in their late twenties still engaged in full-time education.

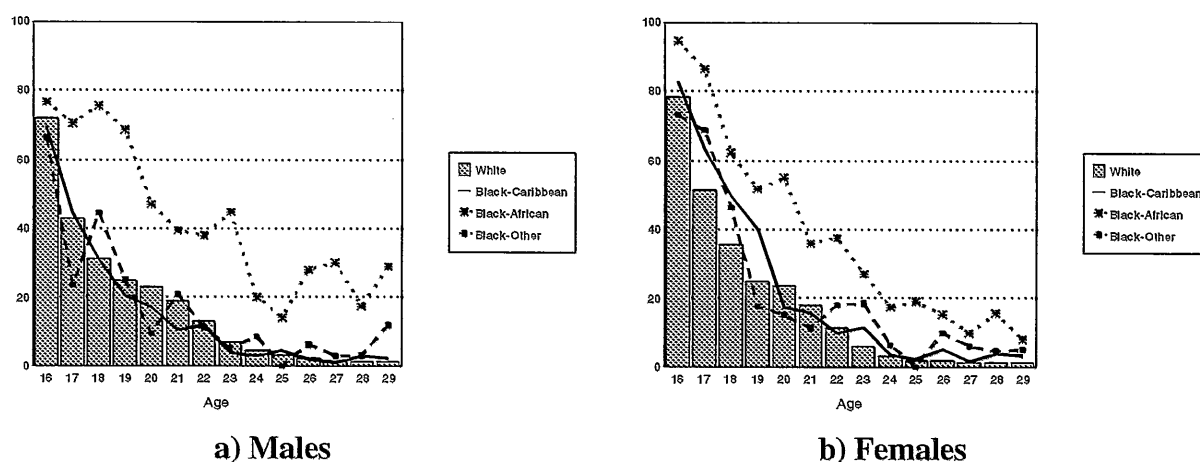


Figure 8: Percentage in full-time education by single year of age

Full-time students represent a higher percentage of women aged 16-18 than they do of men of the same age, with over three-quarters of 16 year old women staying in education in the white and Black ethnic groups. However, educational participation rates for men and women converge after the age of 18. The percentage of Black-Caribbean and Black-Other women who are full-time students remains slightly above the corresponding percentage for white women throughout the 16-29 age range. Black-African women are more likely than other Black women or white women to remain in full-time education, with full-time students representing over 90 per cent of 16 year olds. While the percentage of Black-African women in full-time education is higher than that for white women or other Black women, the differential is lower than for men, and the percentage of Black-African women in their twenties engaged in full-time education is well below the corresponding figure for Black-African men.

Table 12 Highest qualification held, and the characteristics of highly qualified Black and white people in Great Britain, 1991.

Qualifications, age groups and economic status	White people	Black people	Black-Caribbean	Black-African	Black-Other
Persons aged 18 and over(000s)	40,559.6	578.6	366.5	134.5	77.6
Persons with A-Level equivalent or better as highest qualification (000s)	5,416.6	79.2	33.7	35.7	9.8
persons with higher degree (000s)	365.0	7.0	1.6	4.6	0.8
persons with first degree (000s)	2489.3	27.4	8.7	14.5	4.2
persons with A-Level/Higher/Diploma (000s)	2,562.3	44.8	23.4	16.6	4.8
Percentage share of each age group:					
aged 18-29	21.4	29.9	26.7	30.0	40.6
aged 30-44	40.0	46.1	42.6	50.8	41.6
aged 45 up to pensionable age	26.2	21.3	26.6	17.9	15.3
of pensionable age	12.4	2.7	4.1	1.3	2.5
All aged 18 and over	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Percentage of all people in the age group with higher level qualifications:					
aged 18-29	12.5	10.5	7.1	17.0	8.3
aged 30-44	19.7	20.5	14.3	32.0	18.5
aged 45 up to pensionable age	14.0	11.9	7.9	30.3	18.4
Of pensionable age	6.6	4.5	3.5	11.7	8.2
All aged 18 and over	13.4	13.7	9.2	26.5	12.7
Qualified persons aged 18-59/64 (000s)	4,745.5	77.1	32.3	35.2	9.6
Total economically active (000s)	4,208.3	64.8	29.3	27.1	8.4
Percent economically active	88.7	84.1	90.9	76.9	87.7
Employed or self-employed (000s)	4,044.6	56.6	27.3	21.6	7.6
On a government scheme (000s)	14.3	1.5	0.3	1.1	0.1
Unemployed (000s)	149.5	6.7	1.7	4.4	0.7
Unemployment rate	3.6	10.3	5.6	15.8	7.3

Sources: 1991 Census Local Base Statistics (ESRC purchase); Crown Copyright and OPCS/GRO(Scotland) (1994) Country of Birth and Ethnic Group report (HMSO).

Note: This table is based on a 10 per cent sample of Census returns. The population estimates were obtained by multiplying the sample counts by 10.162.

Table 12 presents contrasts between the three Black ethnic groups and white people in their achievement of further and higher education qualifications. A notable feature is that the percentage of people aged 18 and over with higher education qualifications is about twice as high for Black-Africans as for white people. However, the percentages of both Black-Caribbean and Black-Other people with such qualifications are smaller than those for white people, with Black-Caribbean people having the smallest percentage of qualified people among the four ethnic groups presented.

The majority of people with A-levels and above as their highest qualification are aged between 30 and 44. Amongst Black-Caribbeans, more older people hold such qualifications, but the relative youth of two other Black ethnic groups is demonstrated by the smaller share of those aged over 44 amongst the highly qualified. The percentage of 30-44 year olds who are highly

qualified is higher than for either older or younger age groups in both Black and white ethnic groups¹⁰. A smaller percentage of Black-Caribbeans than the white and other Black ethnic groups are highly qualified in each of the age groups presented; in contrast, the percentage highly qualified is far higher for Black-Africans than for the other three ethnic groups presented in the table in each age band.

Of the highly qualified, a higher percentage of Black-Caribbean people than white people are economically active, while only just over three-quarters of Black-Africans are economically active. This is a reflection of the high rates of educational participation among older people in the Black-African ethnic group (perhaps because many have come to Great Britain to study for higher degrees). Though Black-Africans are clearly better qualified on average than white or other Black people, highly-qualified people from this ethnic group appear to fare worse than those from other groups in the labour market. The number unemployed and on government schemes is far higher than in the other Black ethnic groups, and the unemployment rate for the highly qualified is nearly 16 per cent, more than four times the corresponding figure for white people and nearly three times higher than that for Black-Caribbean people.

9. Conclusions

This Statistical Paper has extended the analyses of the socio-economic circumstances of people from Black ethnic groups presented in earlier papers in the series by looking at a number of topics in greater detail and covering a range of additional aspects of their experience. A number of findings may be highlighted;

- There were nearly 900 thousand people in the three Black ethnic groups in April 1991, representing 1.6 per cent of the British population;
- Black people tend to be younger on average than white people, though Black-Caribbean people are older than Black-African people;
- Half of all people in the Black-Other ethnic group are aged under 15, and the great majority were born in the UK;
- Most Black people live in the larger urban areas of Britain;
- Black-African people have the most concentrated spatial distribution, mostly living in the London area, together with port cities and Manchester;
- Black-Caribbean people mainly live in Greater London together with the West Midlands conurbation. There are lesser concentrations of this ethnic group in Greater Manchester, West Yorkshire, East Midlands cities and parts of the outer South-East;
- The percentage of Black people in the population tends to be highest in London Boroughs, but Black-Caribbeans have a significant presence in some parliamentary constituencies in Birmingham;
- Black households tend to be similar in size to white households, with Black-African households slightly larger on average;
- A much higher percentage of Black than white households live in rented accommodation. Black-Caribbeans are most likely to live in public sector property while Black-Africans are most likely to rent from the private sector;
- Black-Africans thus suffer poorer physical housing conditions than white people or other Black ethnic groups, with a greater degree of overcrowding and a higher incidence of shared bathrooms and WCs;
- A much higher percentage of Black than white families are headed by a lone parent. Cohabiting is also a more common form of family organisation than among white people;
- A smaller percentage of Black than white people suffer limiting long-term illnesses;
- However, when illness rates are standardised to take age structure into account, Black ethnic groups emerge as having poorer levels of health than white people;
- Black-Caribbean and Black-Other people have similar patterns of economic activity rates by age to white people, but Black-Africans have lower activity rates;
- Part-time working is less common for Black women than white women, and the percentage of entrepreneurs is smaller for Black people than white people;
- Black-Caribbean people tend to work in similar industries to white people, but overall Black people are more strongly represented in services than in manufacturing;
- A higher percentage of Black than white people work in lower level service jobs, though many Black-Africans work in professional occupations;
- Black people have higher unemployment rates than white people, across all age groups;
- The percentage of Black-African people with further and higher education qualifications is much higher than for white and other Black people;
- However, highly-qualified Black-African people tend to fare relatively badly in the labour market.

10. Notes and references

- 1 The Samples of Anonymised Records consist of the responses for a 2 per cent sample of all individuals and a 1 per cent sample of all households in Great Britain. They are a new development for the Census Offices, and permit a range of information not available from the standard tables released by OPCS and GRO (Scotland) to be derived.
- 2 One reason for this may be the differential response of women and men from the Black ethnic groups to the Census. In the population as a whole, underenumeration of men in this age range was much greater than that of women, while successive Labour Force Surveys have underestimated the number of Afro-Caribbean young men, suggesting a general tendency for this section of the population to be unwilling to cooperate with large scale surveys. This was reinforced by the tendency of people avoiding the "poll tax", to also avoid the Census. OPCS estimates from the known pattern of undercounting by age, sex and geography that the number of Black-Caribbean people was underestimated by 3 per cent, Black-Africans were underestimated by 5 per cent and Black-Others by 4 per cent. The number of men aged 20-29 in each ethnic group may have been underestimated by about 15 per cent (OPCS/GRO[S] [1994] **Country of Birth and Ethnic Group** (HMSO: London), p7).
- 3 This phenomenon was noted in some of the tests of the Census question conducted by OPCS during the 1970s. See Sillitoe, K. and White, P. (1992) 'Ethnic Group and the British Census: the Search for a Question', **Journal of the Royal Statistical Society A**, 155, 141-163.
- 4 The regional and county-level distribution of the Black ethnic groups has already been analysed in Owen, D. (1992) **Ethnic Minorities in Great Britain: Settlement Patterns**, NEMDA 1991 Census Statistical Paper no 1, Centre for Research in Ethnic Relations, University of Warwick.
- 5 These maps are based on the "location quotient" for each ethnic group. This is the ratio of the percentage of the population from a given ethnic group in an area to the percentage of the population of Great Britain from that ethnic group. Thus, values less than 1.0 occur where the representation of an ethnic group in an area is less than its share of the British population; values above 1.0 represent relative concentration of the ethnic group. The areas mapped are local authority districts.
- 6 Though it should be noted that this figure may be inflated by their location in London, where the lack of a car is a less serious limitation on the daily activity of a household due to the existence of better public transport than elsewhere.
- 7 This involves calculating the proportion of the entire population in an age group for Great Britain as a whole and applying this percentage to the age-disaggregated population of each ethnic group to yield a hypothetical number of long-term ill persons, if the ethnic group suffered the same age-specific illness rates as the population as a whole. The actual number of long-term ill persons can then be expressed as a ratio of the hypothetical number, and if greater than 1, the ethnic group can be said to have poorer health than the population as a whole. The calculation excludes persons in communal establishments, since these include hospitals, which would tend to artificially inflate illness rates.
- 8 These tables include both employees and the self-employed.
- 9 Jones, T. (1993) **Britain's Ethnic Minorities** (PSI: London).
- 10 This is because educational opportunities were more limited for older people, while younger people have had less time in which to obtain these qualifications, and many will not have completed their education.

COMMISSION FOR
RACIAL EQUALITY



E·S·R·C
ECONOMIC
& SOCIAL
RESEARCH
COUNCIL