SUMS Consulting

Comparative Study of Higher Education Academic Staff Terms and Conditions

Higher Education Policy Institute (HEPI)

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List of Abbreviations

ASHE	Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings
BAME	Black, Asian, or Minority Ethnic
BIS	Business Innovation & Skills
BME	Black and Minority Ethnic
CIPD	Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development
CIPFA	Chartered Institute of Public Finance and Accountancy
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
CPI	Consumer Prices Index
EAP	Employee Assistance Programme
ECC	Education Competencies Consortium Ltd
EHRC	Equality and Human Rights Commission
EVP	Employee Value Proposition
FTC	Fixed Term Contract
FTE	Full Time Equivalent
HE	Higher Education
HECoS	Higher Education Classification of Subjects
HEPI	Higher Education Policy Institute
HERA	Higher Education Role Analysis
HESA	Higher Education Statistics Authority
ICE	Information and Consultation of Employees
JES	Job Evaluation Schemes
JNCHES	Joint Negotiating Committee for Higher Education Staff
L&D	Learning and Development
NFA	National Framework Agreement
NMC	The Nursing and Midwifery Council
ONS	Office for National Statistics
REF	Research Excellence Framework
RIBA	The Royal Institute of British Architects
SIC	Standard Industrial Classification
SPA	State Pension Age
SME	Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises
SSP	Statutory Sick Pay
THE	Times Higher Education
TPS	Teachers' Pension Scheme
UCEA	Universities and Colleges Employers Association
UCU	University and College Union
USS	Universities Superannuation Scheme

1. Foreword by Nick Hillman (HEPI)

Many years ago, I fell into a conversation about the terms and conditions of staff in higher education with an influential figure from another think tank (who wishes to remain anonymous). We both sensed that many academic staff might be better off relative to other professionals than the University and College Union (UCU) and others sometimes imply.

Clearly, the basic salaries of academics often run behind those who have entered other leading professions (and even if the average salary of some other professions has sometimes been exaggerated in public consciousness). But other job-related benefits, such as access to generous occupational pension schemes of the type that largely disappeared years ago for staff in the private and charitable sectors, seemed to alter the overall picture for academics in important ways.

We also knew that many younger academics were finding it exceptionally hard, and quite possibly harder than those who came before them, to find secure and long-term positions. This was subsequently confirmed by HEPI's own output (and we plan to publish further work on this is due course too).[1]

However, when we two think tankers spoke, we were at the edges of our knowledge and neither of us were aware of any reliable publicly available information that would either confirm or deny our general perceptions. This led to the idea that HEPI might publish research on the issue, producing a seed that was just beginning to germinate before the world was disrupted by COVID.

So it was not until the summer of 2022 that, on the advice of a HEPI Trustee, I visited the University of Reading campus to discuss the idea with the consultancy SUMS. They confirmed the importance of the project and were even willing to invest some of their own resources in painting a more detailed picture of academics' terms and conditions. So I finally gained confidence that the original seed would eventually bear fruit.

The following pages show just how numerous the pickings are. Crucially, the facts uncovered are not generally of the counter-intuitive kind. As we expected at the outset, following the evidence on academics and comparing it to what we know about other professionals shows clearly that academics tend to have some considerable advantages in their terms and conditions, particularly around pensions, sick pay and leave (including sabbaticals as well as regular leave).

For example, on average academics are entitled to sick pay that is 13 times more generous that the statutory minimum and the employers' contribution into the Universities Superannuation Scheme, at 21.6% of salary, is over four times more generous than the average employer pension contribution of 5%. Those in the Teachers' Pension Scheme get even more (23.7%).

This does not mean academics have easier lives – most academics say their work has a negative impact on their mental health. My informed guess is that the combination of a considerable level of day-to-day autonomy and the knowledge that there is always more to learn or uncover in any specialist field plus heavy teaching responsibilities, not to mention routine but time-consuming administrative tasks, make the role feel like it can never be adequately completed – especially when most academics are so committed they want to feel pride in the role they are fulfilling. In recent years, additional important expectations have been levied on staff too, for example around the use of edtech. In a very real sense, many academics tend to feel they are never off duty.

This all helps to explain why evidence HEPI published during the height of the pandemic on access to counselling and occupational health services by higher education staff showed a problem of epidemic proportions, often on a par with the more widely discussed mental health crisis among students.[2] Some staff feel the care that universities are morally bound to offer has on occasion been found wanting.

One challenging issue highlighted by this new research is the structural inequalities that mean what is on offer to some is not on offer to all. The gender pay gap in higher education is considerable, for example, and – even while recent improvements have occurred here – it should embarrass a sector which tends to regard itself as progressive. Moreover, there is often a lack of representation of people with minority ethnic backgrounds in the higher echelons of universities.

Some might nonetheless draw the overall conclusion from this new work, which shows the generally favourable formal terms and conditions enjoyed by many academics, that there are no grounds for the sort of regular industrial action that has come to plague the higher education sector. Yet the complete picture is not so straightforward.

The total pay, benefits and conditions for someone on a permanent contract are so (relatively) good that institutions simply cannot afford to share them across the board. In fact, only two-thirds (67%) of academics are in permanent employment, compared to 94% of people in the labour market as a whole. The rest do not have access to the same stability on offer to others.

The large gaps in conditions between permanent and temporary staff are reminiscent in some respects of the polarisation that is said to have plagued the wider French labour market and it stands in stark contrast to the commonly expressed view that the UK has an easy-come and easy-go flexible labour market. In short, the lower rungs of the academic ladder are very slippery and, unlike a real ladder, the steps become much sturdier the higher up you are able to climb.

"the lower rungs of the academic ladder are very slippery and, unlike a real ladder, the steps become much sturdier the higher up you are able to climb"

The question that must now be faced up to by union leaders, institutional managers and policymakers is whether it is better to continue prioritising and protecting the position of permanent university staff or whether it is better to tackle more precarious contracts, with half-an-eye on the future talent pipeline. Some will say both issues should be tackled in lockstep (although this point is confusingly often made by people who also want to see the abolition of tuition fees, cutting off one of the most important income streams for higher education institutions, meaning less money would be available to pay salaries). When England's regulator, the Office for Students, is warning about long-term financial sustainability, especially at some institutions, and the situation is even worse elsewhere, such as in Scotland, it seems likely that some rebalancing would be wise.

The debate can become focused, at this point, on the salaries of vice-chancellors. They are high in absolute terms or relative to average salaries in higher education or outside, although they are not over-blown in comparison with those at the top of other sectors. Either way, the issue is a red herring: in the unlikely event that every vice-chancellor were to start working for free, it would reduce total spending in the higher education sector by only a minimal amount and the savings would be worth very little (about £100 a year) if they were to be spread equally across all other (academic and non-academic) staff. If the savings were to be given to the millions of students instead, it would work out at around £1.50 each – not even enough to buy a flat white.

The debate also sometimes dwells on 'shiny new buildings'. It is true that campuses often boast fantastic new environmentally friendly buildings (many of which are cheaper to run than historic buildings), but it is not clear why this is a bad thing. Students and staff deserve to research, teach and learn in good, fit-for-purpose and safe facilities – and ones that help provide an institution with a sense of community and pride. Moreover, the expansion of the higher education sector has necessitated much of the new building that has occurred – and yet we still, for example, do not have enough student beds in many university cities to cope with the continuing growth in UK school leavers and the rising number of international students. Besides, at most university estates eat up only around 20% of expenditure on average, far below the 60% or so that goes on staffing.[3]

The pages that follow do not set out a detailed plan for rebalancing resources from permanent staff to those currently on less secure contracts. Rather, we hope the evidence brought together so skilfully here by Emma Ogden, the lead researcher, will start a debate about which higher education staff deserve a better deal, to what degree this should come at the expense of longer-serving staff currently on superior terms and conditions and how to deliver any changes deemed necessary.

For reasons of expense and to keep this project to a manageable size, we have looked only at academics. This leaves out four-in-10 higher education staff. No one involved in this project believes that the professional services staff excluded from the following pages are any less important than their professorial colleagues: institutions would

collapse, and very swiftly, without all the committed work that professional services staff do.

So if any other organisation now wishes to pick up the baton to compare the conditions for professional services staff to those for others working in higher education and elsewhere, or to fund further work by SUMS and HEPI in this area, we would be keen to speak with them.

Nick Hillman
HEPI Director
May 2023

2. Executive Summary

The Higher Education Policy Institute (HEPI) commissioned SUMS Consulting to undertake a comparative study of reward, the financial and non-financial benefits being offered to academic staff by higher education institutions. The analysis took place over the period October to December 2022.

The study aims to identify how benefits compare with other sectors and to promote a discussion on the range of benefits and good practice offered within higher education in the UK. The study finds several areas where the sector offers more generous benefits than employers elsewhere, and also some where the sector falls behind other industries, such as the increased use of fixed-term and casual contracts.

This report benchmarks different types of pay and benefits based on the seven drivers of 'Good Work', as defined by the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) in their Good Work Index. It finds the more generous provisions offered within the sector, as outlined by the UCEA Benefits of Working in HE survey, include:

1. **Pensions:** An employer contribution rate of 21.6% (Universities Superannuation Scheme), 23.7% (Teachers' Pension Scheme) and between 20.7% to 20.9% (NHS) compared to the median contribution rate in the UK of 5%.
2. **Annual leave:** The median number of days offered within higher education is 33 (excluding Bank Holidays and closure days, which are on average four days per year). The statutory rate is 20 days and the average number of days offered in the UK is 25 (both excluding Bank Holidays).
3. **Family-friendly leave:** Higher education offers enhanced entitlements for maternity, paternity and shared parental leave.
4. **Sickness allowances:** The average entitlement in higher education is 13 weeks' full pay and 13 weeks' half pay after one year's service. Only 20% of organisations in the UK offer three months or more entitlement.
5. **Sabbatical leave:** 66% of institutions offer sabbatical leave, compared to 26% in other sectors within the UK.
6. **Wellbeing:** 94% of higher education institutions offer counselling services or Employee Assistance Programmes (EAP) (compared to 73% in the UK) and 76% offer subsidised gym or sports access (compared to 30%). Higher education institutions offer enhanced levels of Occupational Sick Pay compared to the statutory minimum too.

A score-card summary of some of the directly comparable terms, conditions, and benefits are summarised in Figure 1 below. An 'amber' rating denotes that the provision is at least comparable to other sectors.

Figure 1: Score-card summary of comparable terms, conditions, and benefits within HE and non-sector

'Good Work' dimension	Provision and average figure for the UK	Red, Amber, Green (RAG) comparison rating
Pay and benefits	Median Pay (£33,000)	
	Gender Pay Gap (14.9%)	
	Pensions (5% employer contribution and 4.5% employee contribution)	
	Annual Leave (25 days excluding Bank Holidays)	
	Sick Pay (statutory entitlement)	
	Maternity, Paternity, Adoption and Shared Parental Leave and Pay (statutory entitlements)	
	Sabbatical leave	
Contracts	Those on a permanent contract (94%)	
	Those on a temporary contract (e.g., Fixed Term) (6%)	
	Those on a zero-hour contract (3.2% and growing)	
Health and wellbeing	Health and wellbeing benefits offered	

After a couple of challenging years due to the COVID-19 pandemic, organisations are adjusting to new ways of working and the shift this has created in terms of employee expectations. New challenges are now emerging, such as the cost-of-living crisis and notions such as the 'Great Resignation'.

Contextualising the insight, this report references how employee attitudes and expectations are likely to change in the future because of these drivers.

3. Introduction

3.1 Background

Pay and benefits are integral to an overall reward package. Although some conditions of employment are prescribed by legislation, many employers chose to provide benefits which exceed the statutory minimum.

There is shifting organisational focus on employee engagement, quality of jobs and pay and benefits, to ensure 'good work' is accessible for all, irrespective of job type or background. The Chartered Institute for Personnel and Development (CIPD) states good work should:

1. be fairly rewarded and give people the means to make a secure living
2. allow for work-life balance
3. give opportunities to develop
4. provide a sense of fulfilment
5. give employees the voice and choice they need to shape their working lives
6. be physically and mentally healthy for all.

This study seeks to compare how good work is defined and enabled within the higher education sector, with comparisons drawn from outside of the sector.

3.2 Terms of Reference for the Study

The Higher Education Policy Institute (HEPI) commissioned SUMS Consulting to undertake a comparative study of reward, the financial and non-financial benefits, being offered to staff by higher education institutions. The analysis took place over the period October to December 2022. The study aims to stimulate an informed deliberation and consideration of existing terms and conditions and working practices within the higher education sector, within the UK.

The specific objective of the analysis was to draw upon appropriate referenced benchmarks, existing data and studies from commercial and other sectors in the UK. While the study looks at current, or as recent as possible data, some longitudinal patterns emerge which influence the analysis. SUMS has not undertaken new primary research and does not draw comment on the outcomes of this research.

3.3 Approach to the Study

SUMS took a mixed methods approach for the review, drawing on a range of research and evaluation techniques. Our approach took account of, and sought to build upon, the key research, reports and guidance developed over recent years, including:

1. Office for National Statistics (ONS) data on labour trends
2. Chartered Institute for Personnel and Development (CIPD) data on UK-wide trends for pay and benefits
3. University and Colleges Employers Association (UCEA) data on higher education-specific trends.

The study references these throughout the report. Relevant datasets are detailed within Appendix A and are cited throughout.

The analysis in the report combines the use of the UK Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) hierarchy alongside the cost-centre classification used for Higher Education Statistics Authority (HESA) staff reporting. Both measures are used as they offer differing insights, both inside and out of the higher education sector, with a focus on the types and skill levels of jobs. Mapping to the Higher Education Classification of Subjects (HECoS), which relates to academic subject provision, is included in Figure 2 in Appendix A for completeness.

3.4 Scope and Definitions Used

The scope of the study was contained to UK comparisons, drawn from the breadth of HE sector institutions, including research-intensive, teaching-focused, small specialist and HE in FE. The focus of the study was academic staff.

The comparative analysis represents data within the 2020/21 HESA staff record, which relate to 283,650 academic staff (including academic atypical and research-active academics).[4] Atypical staff are defined by HESA as 'those members of staff whose contracts involve working arrangements that are not permanent, involve complex employment relationships and / or involve work away from the supervision of the normal work provider'. Figure 3 provides a breakdown of staff across the different categories:

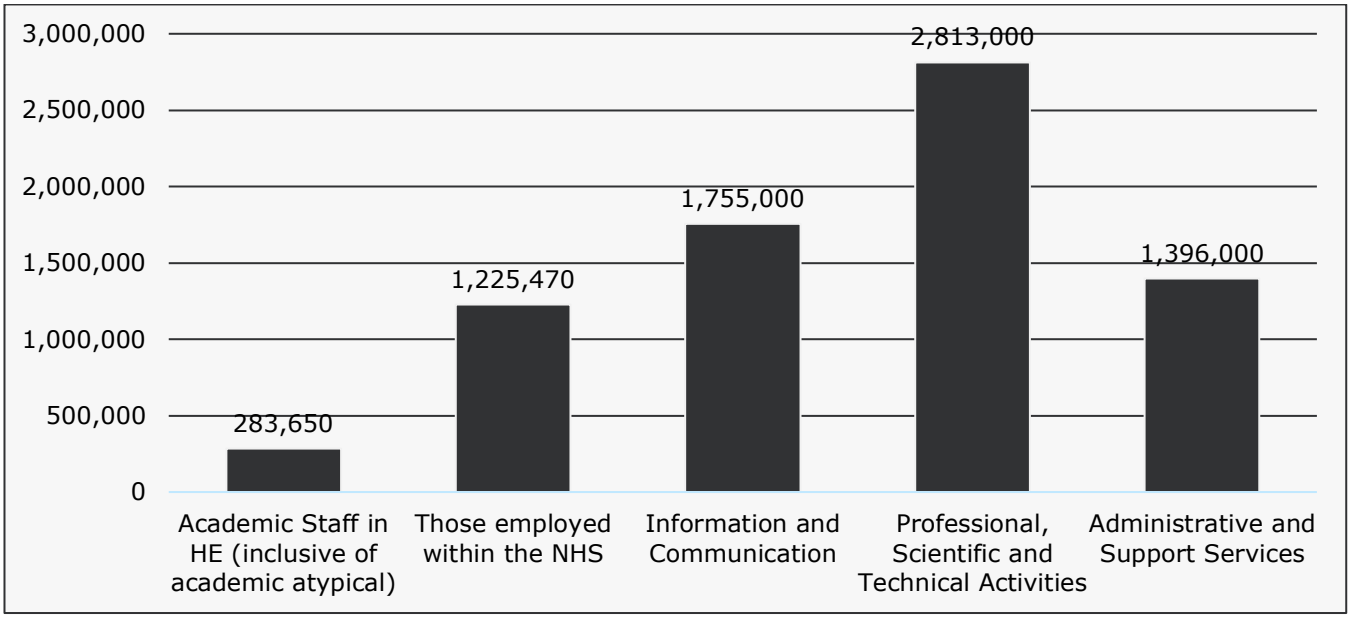
Figure 3: HESA categorisation and number of academic staff (2020/21)

Category	2020/2021
Managers, directors, and senior officials	540
Professional occupations	281,430
Associate professional and technical occupations	1,675
Clerical and manual occupations	5
	283,650

HESA, Higher Education Staff Statistics: UK, 2020/21, 2022

By way of comparison, Figure 4 provides a breakdown of the size of employment within other sectors.[5] The data include a specific comparison with other industries and the NHS.[6]

Figure 4: Size of employment within other sectors



Office for National Statistics (ONS), EMP13: Employment by industry, 2022

The comparative assessment is aligned to the CIPD seven dimensions of good work, as defined in their Good Work Index.[7] The Index provides an indicator of the current state of work in the UK and a representative view of workers across job types, occupations and sectors. These dimensions are summarised in Figure 5 below.

Figure 5: Dimensions of Good Work

Dimension	Areas included
Pay and benefits	Subjective feelings regarding pay, employer pension contributions and other employee benefits.
Contracts	Contract type, underemployment and job security.
Work-life balance	Overwork, commuting time, home / personal life and flexible working.
Job design and the nature of work	Job complexity and how well this matches the person's skills and qualifications and development opportunities.
Relationships at work	Social support, psychological safety, and the quality of people management.
Employee voice	Channels and opportunities for feeding views to one's employer and managers' openness to employee views.
Health and wellbeing	Positive and negative impacts of work on physical and mental health.

Dan Wheatley, *CIPD Good Work Index 2022*, 2022

4. Changes in the External Landscape

Even in 2022, the pandemic continued to have an influence on the workplace and drivers of 'Good Work'. As we adapted to new ways of working, we learned new behavioural patterns and generated new expectations. This had an impact on the focus and priorities of organisations to retain staff in the future. The key influencers of change are outlined below.

4.1 The 'Great Resignation' and a Shrinking Talent Pool

In the period June to August 2022, the UK employment rate was 75.5%.[8] This percentage is 319,000, or 1 percentage point lower than the rate of employment pre-pandemic.

While there is a decrease in the unemployment rate from the previous quarter, there is an increase in the UK economy inactivity rate, which, in 2022, is 21.7%, or 1.4 percentage points higher, than pre-2019. UK economy inactivity is defined by the Office for National Statistics (ONS) as 'people aged 16 and over without a job who have not sought work in the last four weeks and/or are not available to start work in the next two weeks.' The 50-to-64 group had a 60% increase in economic inactivity during the pandemic. Looking ahead, the CIPD Good Work Index notes a substantial portion of workers in the 18-to-24 bracket (44%) and those aged 65 and over (32%) report being either likely or very likely to leave their job voluntarily in the next twelve months.

Figure 6 in Appendix A outlines economic inactivity by reason, dating from pre-pandemic to current. Those who are economically inactive due to not looking for work and those who do not need or want employment had the greatest increase of inactivity during the pandemic. This gives an indication that many have decided to entirely leave employment and may be contributing to the shrinking talent pool.

A House of Lords Economic Affairs Committee report, published in December 2022 explored economic inactivity and found the four factors contributing to inactivity are:

1. earlier retirement;
2. increasing sickness;
3. changes in the structure of migration; and
4. an ageing UK population.[9]

Lord Bridges of Headley, Chair of the Committee, said:

> *Taken together these findings are, like mid-winter, bleak. The rise in economic inactivity makes it harder to control inflation; damages growth, and puts pressure on already stretched public finances.*

An Edenred study in 2022 found that 6% of employees plan to leave their jobs in the next month and 12% in the next six months.[10] The CIPD Good Work Index identified the drivers to resignation include:

1. better pay and benefits (34%);
2. increased job satisfaction (26%); and
3. a better work-life balance (23%).

Within HE, a University and College Union (UCU) survey of members in UK higher education in 2022 found that 60% of respondents said they were likely or very likely to leave the sector in the next five years due to a lack of progress on pay and working conditions.[11] Specifically, 81% of those are aged between 18-to-29.

4.1.1 Market Movement

In 2020/21, there were a total of 36,810 starters and 35,810 leavers among staff in higher education. Figure 7 outlines the outflow of, and destination of, leavers. The turnover rate was around 1% lower than the previous year, however the new starter rate was 15% lower. This may be down to two factors:

1. as a post-pandemic measure, many institutions introduced recruitment freezes to preserve financial security; and
2. in 2019/20, additional English higher education providers fall within the coverage of the Staff record, although the total was only marginally higher than the previous year.

Figure 7: Destination of leavers in 2020/21

Outflow from UK HE academic staff population		**2020/21**
UK		
Leavers	Other education provider	530
Leavers	Student	1,075
Leavers	Research institute	400
Leavers	NHS/General medical or dental practice	735
Leavers	Public sector	350
Leavers	Private sector	1,495
Leavers	**Total UK**	**4,590**
Overseas		
Leavers	Other higher education provider	1,170
Leavers	Other education provider	190
Leavers	Student	50
Leavers	Research institute	370
Leavers	Health service	5
Leavers	Other employment	315
Leavers	**Total overseas**	**2,100**

Outflow from UK HE academic staff population		2020/21
Other		
Leavers	Retired	1,880
Leavers	Not in regular employment	3,410
Leavers	Not known	19,180
Leavers	Death	200
Leavers	**Total outflow from UK HE academic staff population**	**31,355**
Leavers	**(Total outflow to) Other UK higher education provider**	**4,455**
Leavers	**Total leavers**	**35,810**

HESA, *Higher Education Staff Statistics: UK, 2020/21*, 2022

The number of leavers who have moved to another higher education provider has remained at a similar level over the previous three years, although increasing by 11% since 2016/17. The proportion of those moving to another sector (either public or private) has decreased by 10% since 2019/20. The greatest increase was among those who had retired, increasing by 14% between 2019/20 and 2020/21.

Those joining the higher education sector from the private sector have significantly reduced since 2019/20, down 27%. Those joining from the NHS also fell by 6%.

4.1.2 Impact on Equality Characteristics

Figure 8 in Appendix A outlines the equality characteristics for academic staff (the data exclude atypical workers). Using the UCU data as the basis for modelling, a 60% reduction in the current workforce could suggest:

1. Shift in the age demographic both inside and out of the sector; with high numbers of those within the 'Baby Boomer' generation (those born between 1946 and 1964) likely to leave employment in the next few years.
2. Within higher education, this represents a high proportion of professors, with almost half aged 56 or over.
3. A high number of younger staff are reporting to leave, making the market for 20-to-30-year-olds more competitive within higher education. Just 3% of academics are currently aged 25 and under.
4. Those leaving employment could have a detrimental impact on diversity:
    a. Ethnicity: Black and Minority Ethnic (BME) staff currently represents 17% of all staffing.
    b. Gender: HESA data reports in 2020/21 there were more male than female academic staff (118,695 and 105,440 respectively).
    c. The staffing profile: HESA data show 66% of part-time staff are female.

4.1.3 Earnings Growth

In 2021, average hourly earnings growth was 6.6 percentage points higher for employees who had changed jobs compared with those who stayed in their current role.[12] Those who left the 'Education' industry (classed through SIC coding) for a role

outside of the sector had an earnings growth of 13%. This suggests career development may not necessarily be solely aligned to movement within the sector. These factors reinforce the requirement for organisations to understand their workforce differences better and to rethink their Employee Value Proposition (EVP) (for example, factors influenced by the CIPD Good Work Index) to retain and engage staff better.

4.2 Inflation

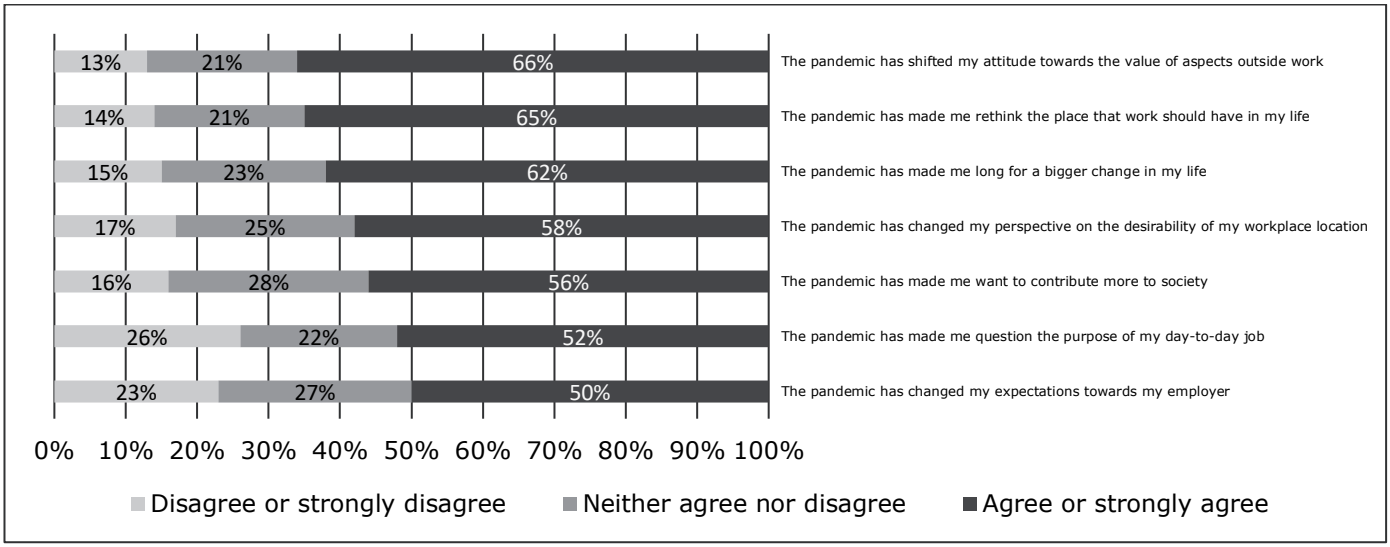
In October 2022, the Consumer Prices Index (CPI) was 10.5% based on the previous 12 months.[13] This is estimated to be the highest rate since 1982.

According to data collected by the ONS between 12 and 23 October 2022, 93% of adults reported their cost of living had increased compared with a year ago.[14] This has had an impact on pay expectations and affordability. While the median monthly pay appears to be increasing since the pandemic, ONS data from August to October 2022 found adjusted pay to account for inflation fell 3.9% for total pay and real pay.[15] This is one of the largest falls in growth since comparable records began.[16] The same ONS research found 20% of working adults were looking for a job that pays more money because of the increases in the cost of living.

The rise in inflation and cost of living is going to continue to have an impact on the reality of adjusted pay increases, resulting in less disposable income for employees. As a result, pay increases are likely to be a continuing driver for employees seeking new roles, both inside and out of the sector.

4.3 Employee Expectations and Culture

Figure 9: What employees say about how the pandemic has changed their feelings about work and life



Jackie Wiles (Gartner), *Employees Seek Personal Value and Purpose at Work. Be Prepared to Deliver*, 2022

The pandemic was a catalyst to elevate personal purpose, values, and expectations from work. A Gartner (2022) study outlined the reasons the pandemic has changed employee feelings about work and life.[17]

Employee attitudes towards benefits have also changed since the pandemic. An Edenred survey of 2,000 UK workers found employee demands are most influenced by a desire to:

1. have a better work-life balance (64%), which may include flexible working hours (37%) and having the opportunity to work from anywhere (31%); and
2. seek pay rises (47%) and more support to improve their financial wellbeing (38%) due to the cost-of-living crisis.

The full analysis is available in Figure 10 in Appendix A.

To address some of these changing expectations, a renewed focus on company culture is needed to retain talent. The insight from published research suggests the following will become a priority in the future:

1. flexible working, based on working location and hours;
2. employee recognition, pay and benefits; and
3. employee development and progression opportunities.

5. Pay and Benefits

5.1 Pay

The median annual pay for full-time employees was £33,000 for the tax year ending 5 April 2022, up 5.6% on the previous year.[18] For the purposes of this data, 'full-time' represents an employee paid for more than 30 paid hours per week.

Figure 11 in Appendix A shows the median full-time average earnings in 2021, based on a selection of SOC occupations which relate both to higher education professionals and equivalent mapped professional roles. Within the sector, higher education teaching professionals have one of the highest average earnings (£47,300). Further education teaching professionals have a lower average salary at £38,281. Comparing higher education professionals with those working outside of the sector:

1. architects, veterinarians and engineers earn a similar amount;
2. nurses, therapists and midwives earn significantly less; and
3. specialist medical practitioners and barristers and judges earn a higher average salary (31% and 11% respectively).

Using the HESA cost centres, data from 2020/21 has been mapped to SOC occupation salaries against average salaries for academic staff. In 2020/21:

1. 57% of full-time academic staff had an annual salary equal to or greater than £46,718;
2. according to HESA 2020/21 data, 97% of full-time professors are paid a salary greater than £62,727;
3. 10% of academics are receiving pay less than £34,804 across all cost centres, suggesting some are receiving significantly less than the average for their profession, this is exclusive of Associate or casual Teachers but may include early-career academics; and
4. out of the 10% who are receiving less pay than the average, the greatest proportion of them work in the medicine, dentistry and health cost centre group and engineering and technology.

There is no national salary scale for professors, but there is a nationally agreed minimum salary for the pre-1992 sector.

5.1.1 Pay Negotiation and Market Supplements

The National Framework Agreement for the modernisation of pay structures in HE (NFA) resulted in a more standardised approach to pay across higher education. This was an enabling framework, developed by UCEA and higher education trade unions through the Joint Negotiating Committee for Higher Education Staff (JNCHES), with the aim of improving pay arrangements in the sector through a set of principles for HEIs to follow, but with significant local flexibility. One of these principles was the establishment of a single pay spine. The New Joint Negotiating Committee for Higher Education Staff (New JNCHES) stems from the NFA and is the central committee for multi-employer negotiations and dialogue on pay and pay-related issues and is the negotiating arrangement for annual cost-of-living pay increases for most employers in the higher education sector. The principles of the NFA allowed for local level flexibility, resulting in differing grading structures across the sector. Given the broader market and concerns for competition between the private sector for staff, the NFA also allowed institutions to award supplements that reflect labour market conditions.

5.1.2 Pay Progression

The CIPD Reward Management survey conducted in 2022 found that 88% of private sector, 92% of public sector and 82% of not-for-profit sector employers believed they have a responsibility to support in-work progression for people to increase their earning potential.[19] However, another report commissioned by the CIPD in 2014 found the following factors often prevented pay progression:

1. gender (female)
2. location (living outside of London)
3. working hours (part-time)
4. role type (working in a low-wage industry)
5. working in Small and Medium-Sizes Enterprises (SMEs).[20]

The 2003 JNCHES guidance on the modernisation of pay in higher education stated that all staff covered by the NFA will have pay progression opportunities within the pay range of their grade. While institutions have autonomy on the detailed arrangements for progression, it is understood that the principles from the NFA are still used to inform decision making at local institution level.

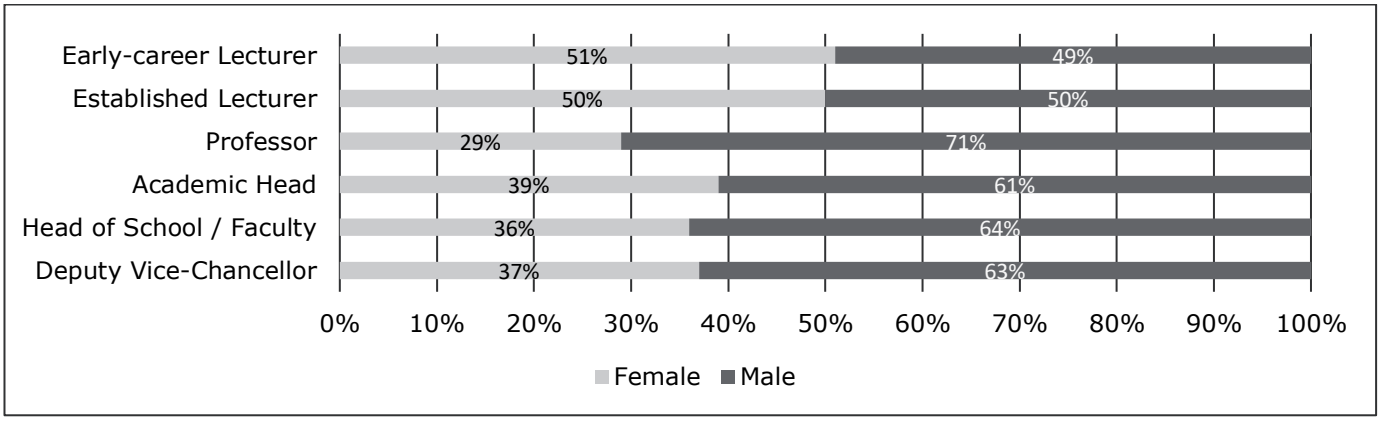
Separately, New JNCHES conducts collective pay negotiations to address the uplift to the national pay spine on an annual basis. The 2022 final offer was 9% for staff on the lowest spine points and 3% for staff on or above spine point 20.[21] This offer was rejected by Unions which contributed to nationwide strikes in November 2022.

5.1.3 *Gender, ethnicity, and disability pay gaps*

The 2022 total gender pay gap in the wider UK economy was 14.9%, which is aggregated by contract status and age and available in Figure 12 in Appendix A. The pay gap across all employees is higher for than that for the gaps reported for part-time and full-time employees in isolation. This is because a higher proportion of women are in part-time roles and that part-time roles have a lower hourly median pay than full-time roles.

In higher education, the median gender pay gap for 2021-22 was 13.7% (inclusive of professional services), indicating that this sector is outperforming the broader economy. Gender pay gaps have closed considerably in higher education, down from 20.7% in 2011-12.[22] Using 'vertical segregation' women are underrepresented in senior levels and over represented in lower levels. Vertical segregation is the concentration of men and women at different job levels. This segregation, another influence of the gender pay gap, is outlined in Figure 13. This demonstrates another example of pay differentiation between males and females.

Figure 13: Vertical segregation based on gender



University and Colleges Employers Association (UCEA), *Examining the gender pay gap in Higher Education*, 2022

In 2017, the Equality and Human Rights Commission conducted research into the ethnicity and disability pay gaps. The ethnicity pay report found:

1. White British males tended to outperform ethnic minorities in pay, except for foreign-born and British Indian and Chinese men and British-born Black African men, who had similar earnings.
2. Pakistani and Bangladeshi males had severe pay gaps, especially those born outside the UK, at around 31% and 48% respectively.
3. Ethnic minority women earned more than White British women (Indian, Chinese, British-born Black Caribbean and British-born Black African women having notable pay advantages).
4. Pakistani and Bangladeshi immigrant women had pay disadvantages, with a 12% pay gap (but British-born Pakistani and Bangladeshi women did not).[23]

Ethnicities and gender have occupational variances, age variances, and location variances:

1. Bangladeshi and Pakistani, Black African men and women are more likely to be in low-paid occupations;
2. Pakistani and Bangladeshi men tend to be younger than their White British counterparts; and
3. London has the highest numbers of people from ethnic minorities, but as salaries in London are generally higher this narrows the pay gap, but masks pay differences within regions.

Findings from the disability pay report include:

1. The disability pay gap in the period from 1997 to 2014 was 13% for men and 7% for women.
2. The size of the pay gap varied depending on the nature of the disability. Those with neurological disorders, mental illness, learning difficulties or disabilities tended to have greater pay gaps. Pay gaps for those with physical impairments range from 15 to 28% for men and 8 to 18% for women.
3. Where ethnic pay gaps existed, they tended to become larger when a disability was factored in. Disabled Bangladeshi and Pakistani men experienced large pay gaps of 56% and 36% respectively.[24]

Unlike gender pay gaps, it is not a statutory requirement to report ethnicity, disability, or intersectional pay gaps. According to HESA data, 5% of academic staff (excluding atypical) are disabled and 17% are Black, Asian or Minority Ethnic (BAME). This figure does not include the 9% who did not disclose their ethnicity. While the ethnicity and disability pay gap report is not aggregated by sector, Advance HE reported that in 2014/15 the mean ethnicity pay gap was estimated to be 2.2% and the mean disability pay gap was 6.9%.[25]

Across the sample of the 89 HEIs reported through UCEA research published in February 2023, the median ethnicity pay gap for the sector as at March 2021 is 3.9% (inclusive of professional services), down from 5.7% in March 2020. This analysis indicates that ethnic minority women experience a pay gap of 16% relative to White men and argues for the importance of intersectional approaches to tackling pay equity.

5.2 Financial Benefits

The CIPD Reward Management survey specifically looked at types of benefits offered, which are outlined in Figure 14 in Appendix A. The most common paid benefit was pension schemes.

The public sector is more likely than any other to offer discounts on shopping (71%) and leisure (71%) activities, perhaps due to limited pay budgets and spending limits. However, the sector is also the most likely expected to reduce their budgets on benefits (10%), compared to the voluntary sector (3%) and the private (6%).

Within higher education, UCEA have produced an infographic of the types of benefits offered for academic staff.[26] In addition to enhanced sickness and holiday pay entitlement and above the statutory minimum entitlement for family friendly pay, insight suggests higher education is more likely to offer:

1. childcare vouchers (offered by 96%, compared to 83.5% of UK-wide employers). While the government scheme ended in 2018 some universities still offer this benefit to staff that joined the scheme while it still existed;
2. salary sacrifice arrangements (94% compared to 60% average).

Comparisons of specific benefits are outlined below.

5.2.1 Pensions

In 2022, the workplace pension participation rate was 79%, with 75% participation in the private sector.[27] This figure has been increasing since the introduction of auto-enrolment in 2012. For employees with a workplace pension, the average value was £65,400 in the public sector, compared to £10,300 in the private sector.

Figure 15 in Appendix A provides a breakdown of participation by age group and sector. The highest participation rate is for those aged 40-to-49 years. There are variances in participation between the public and private sectors, with 16% of those aged 16-to-21 participating in the private sector and 82% in the public sector. Full-time employees are more likely to have a workplace pension (87%) compared to part time (61%).

A 2021 XpertHR Benefits and Allowances survey reported that 83% of organisations offer defined contribution schemes, with the median employer contribution rate being 5% and the median employee contribution rate being 4.5%.[28]

Within higher education, the main pension schemes available for academic staff are the Teachers' Pension Scheme (TPS), the Universities Superannuation Scheme (USS) and the NHS Pension Scheme for clinical academics who had already been employed by the NHS. According to the UCEA Benefits of Working in HE survey in 2022, 64% of respondents offered USS, 45% offered TPS, 28% offered NHS and 17% offered a combination. In total, 98% of HEIs offer a defined benefits scheme.

The current contribution rates for the various schemes are as follows:

1. USS is 9.8% for employees and 21.6% for employers.[29]
2. TPS is between 7.4% and 11.7% for employees, depending on salaries and the employer contribution rate is 23.7%.
3. NHS is between 5% and 14.5% for employees, depending on salaries and the employer contribution rate is 20.7% in England and Wales and 20.9% in Scotland.

Not only are pension schemes more commonly offered within both the HE and public sectors, but the benefits offered greatly outweigh UK averages.

5.2.2 Annual Leave

The CIPD Reward Management Survey, stated that 82% of organisations offered employees at least 25 days annual leave (excluding Bank Holidays). According to the UCEA Benefits of Working in HE survey, the entitlements for annual leave in higher education exceed this amount, with the median number for academics being 33 days (excluding Bank Holidays, which make up 8 days per year, and closure periods, which make up on average 4 days of additional leave per year). The statutory holiday entitlement is 20 days (excluding Bank Holidays).

5.2.3 Sickness absence pay allowances

In 2019, XpertHR undertook a benchmarking survey of occupational sick pay policies, practices and procedures.[30] The research found 92% of respondents offered occupational sick pay schemes greater than the Statutory Sick Pay (SSP) entitlement. Out of this figure:

1. 78% offer this to all staff
2. 35% offer it as a 'day one' right
3. 20% offer three months or more at a full pay entitlement.

Conversely, the UCEA Benefits of Working in HE survey found higher education institutions offer a median of 13 weeks' full pay entitlement after the first year of service, with many schemes increasing to up to six months' full pay and six months' half pay after five years. According to HESA's average salary data, those with 5 years' service or more, this entitlement would equate to £35,038.50. The SSP entitlement

is currently £99.35 for up to 28 weeks, which equates to a benefit of £2,781.80, making higher education institutions typically 13 times more generous.[31]

5.3 Family Friendly Policies

Figure 16: Family friendly benefits

Benefit	Statutory leave entitlement	Statutory pay entitlement	Non sector average	Sector average
Maternity	52 weeks of leave	90% of average weekly earnings for the first 6 weeks followed by the lower minimum of either the statutory rate or 90% of average weekly earnings for the following 33 weeks	13 weeks at full pay	18 weeks at full pay
Paternity	Up to 2 weeks	The lower minimum of either the statutory rate or 90% of average weekly earnings	11% offer greater than statutory entitlement and 75% offered full pay for entire period	73% offer enhanced leave and pay
Adoption / Surrogacy	52 weeks of leave	90% of average weekly earnings for the first 6 weeks followed by the lower minimum of either the statutory rate or 90% of average weekly earnings for the following 33 weeks	No data available	18 weeks at full pay
Shared parental leave	The remainder of maternity / adoption leave can be taken as shared parental leave	90% of average weekly earnings for the first 6 weeks followed by the lower minimum of either the statutory rate or 90% of average weekly earnings for the following 33 weeks	13 weeks at full pay	18 weeks at full pay

University and Colleges Employers Association (UCEA), *The benefits of working in HE*, 2022
XpertHR, *Maternity leave and pay: XpertHR survey 2021*, 2021
XpertHR, *Paternity and shared parental leave and pay: XpertHR survey 2021*, 2021
Gov.UK, *Maternity pay and leave,* 2022
Gov.UK, *Paternity pay and leave,* 2022

Figure 16 outlines the differences in family-friendly benefits both inside and out of the sector, based on findings from the UCEA Benefits of Working in HE survey, with relevant XpertHR reward survey and statutory entitlement benchmarking.[32]

The UCEA Benefits of Working in HE survey found 84% of responding institutions offered more generous maternity leave or pay than the statutory rate, with 11% of respondents offering 26 weeks at full pay. The value of the paid leave against the statutory rate further highlights the benefit of such policies within the sector. Outside of the sector, an XpertHR survey in 2021 found 64% of respondents offered maternity leave or pay which is more generous than the statutory rate.[33] The XpertHR survey of paternity leave and pay, also conducted in 2021, found only 11% of respondents offer a leave policy which is greater than the statutory entitlement.[34]

5.4 Sabbatical Leave

The UCEA Benefits of Working in HE survey shows 66% of institutions offer either paid or unpaid sabbatical leave for either some or all their staff. Of those institutions, 54% made sabbaticals available to academic staff exclusively. The remaining 46% offered it to both academics and professional services staff or offered each group similar career breaks / study leave. While this entitlement tends to be conditional on length of service (with the median length being just over 2 years), the median entitlement was 44 weeks off.

Conversely, the CIPD Reward Management survey found 26% offered unpaid sabbatical leave and 12% offered paid sabbatical leave.

6. Contracts

The 2021 Annual Population Survey outlined that 94% of all working people (aged between 16 and 64) employed in 2021 were in permanent employment, with 6% in temporary employment.[35] Other insights of these data include:

1. 95% of employees from white-British and Asian 'other' ethnic groups were in permanent employment (the highest percentage out of all ethnic groups);
2. 11% of black employees were in temporary employment (the highest percentage out of all ethnic groups) – this figure has been decreasing since 2004; and
3. 5% of white British females were in temporary employment, compared with 4% of white British males.

The ethnic groupings are based on the ethnic categories from the 2011 Census.

In the period July to September 2022, 75% of people were working full-time (stable figure since 2021).[36]

HESA data from 2020/21 shows that within higher education 66% of academic staff (exclusive of atypical) are full-time. 67% of academics are in permanent employment, with 33% on a fixed-term contracts. 1.9% of academic staff (exclusive of atypicals) are on a zero-hour contracts. Furthermore, 68% of research-only

academics were employed on a fixed-term contract.[37] Over a fifth (22%) of academic staff (excluding atypical) were funded through other sources of finance, rather than core funds, which may contribute to the higher use of fixed-term posts.

HESA classifies types of academic employment function by those on a Teaching-only, Research-only, or Teaching and Research contract. In 2020/21, 44% of academic staff were employed in both Teaching and Research and 32% of staff were on a Teaching-only contract.

Analysis of the HESA data suggests the highest percentage of academics who are part-time and on a Teaching-only contract are:

1. Agriculture, Forestry and Veterinary Science (25%)
2. Design, Creative and Performing Arts (13%)
3. Medicine, Dentistry and Health (9%).

While the use of Teaching-only contracts is often attributed to the Research Excellence Framework (REF) and a 'tactic' to restrict the number of submitted staff to those with the best research records, it also could suggest a link between those who continue to work within their professional field, alongside an academic role.[38] There is a suggestion that Research-only contracts have a higher rate of precarity due often to being funded externally or for a limited period. Those employed based on funding have additional pressure to secure grants and research bids.

6.1 Zero-hour Contracts

According to the 2022 Labour Force Survey, 3.2% of people in employment in the period July to September 2022 were on zero-hour contracts.[39] This figure has been increasing since records began in 2000. Within higher education the figure for zero-hour contracts is 1.9%. Furthermore, their usage is lessening in higher education: having declined from 3.1% in 2017/18 in contrast to the continuing increase in usage elsewhere.

Figure 17 in Appendix A provides a breakdown of those on zero-hour contracts in the wider economy based on different equality data. It is worth noting the data are seasonally adjusted, but trends have been captured over a two-year period.

1. There has been a decrease of those aged 25-to-34 working on zero-hour contracts and the highest increase has been among those aged over 65.
2. The highest age group working on zero-hour contracts is 16-to-24, which is a consistent trend.
3. More females work zero-hours than men, which is a growing trend.
4. 21.6% of those on zero-hour contracts are also in full-time education.
5. Managers, Directors, and Senior Officials are least likely to be on a zero-hour contract (0.6%).

A report commissioned by the CIPD in August 2022 has examined the use and quality of zero-hour or short-term contracts.[40] Key findings include:

1. 45% of employers that use zero-hour contracts engaged workers for 21 or more hours per week.
2. 31% of employers said zero-hours contract working hours are broadly the same each week.
3. Over 40% of employees with zero-hour contracts had been with their employer for over 2 years (length of service required for protection from unfair dismissal).

A concern within higher education is the use of zero-hour, or 'precarious contracts' (defined by UCU as contracts of short duration, variable-hour, zero-hour, hourly-paid and 'bank' workers), which is categorised by the UCU into three types of worker:

1. PhD students who teach during their studies;
2. professionals substantively employed elsewhere but who teach in their field; and
3. those who are substantively employed on limited terms or precarious contracts, inclusive of research staff (or those whose contract is dependent on short-term funding), and teaching staff on fixed-term or hourly paid contracts.[41]

In March 2020, the Russell Group published a joint statement on contractual and working practices for staff at universities, with specific reference to the use of short-term contracts:

> *An area we are all concerned about is how some short-term contracts are used. On the one hand there will always be a need for flexibility: institutions need this, some staff prefer this and it can also create real opportunities. However, we recognise that over-reliance on some forms of employment models and associated contractual arrangements may not serve the best interests of staff, for example in supporting their development and career aspirations.*[42]

The CIPD report on zero-hour working stated that these types of working arrangements favour those who need flexibility, which tends to be more likely for employers.[43] Zero-hour workers are less likely to be satisfied with their contractual arrangements, according to measures of the Good Work Index, than other workers, and are more likely to want more hours. It was expected the Government would introduce the right to request a more stable contract after 26 weeks to address this issue, however it was omitted from the Queen's Speech in May 2022.

6.2 Job Security

ONS data record the number of people who were made redundant in a particular quarter.[44] In July to September 2022:

1. 75,000 people were made redundant.
2. This is the highest figure for 2022 but has decreased since the height of the pandemic (402,000 people were made redundant in the period September to November 2020).
3. More men were made redundant in this period (53,000) than women (22,000).

Research by Edvoy in 2021 found that during the first wave of the pandemic, over 3,000 employees at UK universities were made redundant, many of whom were on Fixed Term Contracts (FTCs).[45] This further suggests that those working on non-permanent contracts have more precarious working conditions.

7. Work-life Balance

The CIPD Good Work Index measures the management of boundaries between work and personal life through three mechanisms:

1. the degree to which a job makes it difficult to fulfil commitments outside of work
2. the degree to which commitments outside of work make it difficult to do the job properly
3. how work impacts relaxation.

The Index saw a slight increase, which is good, in mean scores for work-life balance when compared with 2019 and 2020 (in 2019, the mean score was 0.54 out of 1, which has increased to 0.56 in 2022). Pre-pandemic, women scored higher on the Index, but this has subsequently decreased to below men.

1. Prior to 2022, there was a reduction in employees perceiving their job affected their personal commitments, suggesting an improvement since the pandemic between boundaries of work and life (21.2% agreement in 2021).
2. This figure rose to 25.4% in 2022.
3. Additionally, there was a higher rate of employees saying that they found it hard to relax due to work (26.2%) which was the highest response since 2019.
4. Within higher education, a *Times Higher Education* survey on work-life balance in 2022 found 28% of academics feel that they can never 'switch off' from work.[46] The nature of academia may be a factor (employees are undertaking activities they feel personally or intellectually invested in), or it may be due to broader factors such as workload.

Those working a hybrid working pattern report greater difficulties in balancing their home and work life, suggesting the impact of blurred boundaries and an inability to switch off from work.

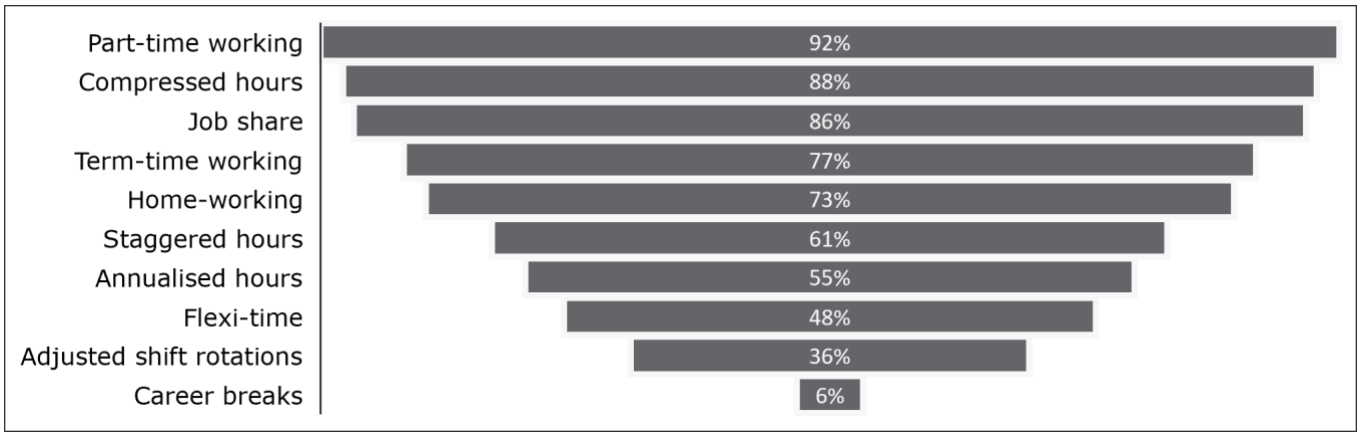
Types of flexible benefits offered to improve the drivers of work-life balance are outlined below.

7.1 Flexible Working

Since the introduction of the Flexible Working Regulations in 2003, there has been an increase in the use and availability of flexible working.

Figure 19 in Appendix A outlines respondents' views in the Good Work Index about the availability and use of different types of flexible working arrangements. The use of working from home has increased both in availability and use, followed by flexi-time and reduced working hours. Arrangements such as compressed hours, job sharing, and term-time working are the most unavailable types of flexible working arrangement for staff.

Figure 20: Types of requests for flexible working considered in HE



University and Colleges Employers Association (UCEA), *The benefits of working in HE*, 2022

Figure 20 below outlines the most common types of considerations for flexible working in the sector.

Figure 21 in Appendix A outlines trends in flexible working arrangements across different sectors in 2022.[47] In particular:

1. annualised hours and flexi-time has relatively equal use across genders and age ranges;
2. job share is used predominantly by women between the ages of 35 and 49; and
3. part-time working, nine-day working fortnight, and term-time working is predominately used by women, but equally across all age ranges.

In the UK, there has been a growing popularity in the take-up of a four-day, 32-hour working week with no loss of pay.[48] To date, 103 UK companies have moved permanently to this arrangement, with a further 70 trialling the approach in collaboration with research at Cambridge University, Oxford University and Boston College. While those who have engaged are mainly private sector organisations, it is

expected that there will be an increased popularity as an employee benefit. The four-and-a-half day working week typically has a greater number of males using the arrangement over the age of 45 than women and younger people.

7.2 Contractual Working Hours

According to the Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings (ASHE), the median number of basic paid hours worked in 2021 was 37.[49] However, ONS data also shows in the period July to September 2022, 15.8% of people were working in excess of 45 hours a week (although this has steadily decreased since 2021). The UCEA Benefits of Working in HE survey found the median number of contractual hours worked was also 37.

Within higher education, the post-92 contract of employment does not specify contracted working hours, but states employees 'are expected to work such hours as are reasonably necessary in order to fulfil their duties and responsibilities.'[50] Those working less than full-time are often shown as a proportion of total Full-Time Equivalents (FTE) rather than by agreed hours. This has led to criticism about the number of hours being worked by academic staff. The *THE* survey on work-life balance found 44% of respondents who are likely to leave higher education in the next five years ascribe this to excessive workloads. In the survey, 28% of academic respondents reported working more than 10 hours per day and 41% stated their hours had increased compared to three years ago.

7.3 Work Location

Since the pandemic, the Good Work Index has noted a shift in changes to work location and time split between work location(s). In 2022:

1. 42% of work time was spent working from home;
2. 34% of employees reported working at their employer premises all the time; and
3. the most common approach is hybrid working, with most respondents spending at least three-quarters of their time at an employer's premises (43%).

Within higher education, the *THE* survey noted that while 77% of respondents agreed flexible working or working from home improved their work-life balance, 14% of respondents were still travelling into work five days per week. Additionally, 23% stated their commute takes over an hour.

7.3.1 *Hybrid working*

An ONS survey on working practices, published in 2021, showed:

1. 85% of those working from home post-pandemic expected to shift to hybrid working in the future;[51]

2. those with higher incomes were more likely to make this shift (93% of those earning £50,000 or more) compared to the national average (85%); and
3. to support the shift back to the workplace, only 11% of organisations in 2022 identified they were specifically using benefits (such as meals, drinks, and subsided travel) to encourage employees back to the workplace.

According to the UCEA Benefits of Working in HE survey, within higher education, 38% of institutions stated they had introduced a hybrid working policy for some or all staff, and 73% had introduced measures to support hybrid working, such as manager training, advertising flexible working or having short timescales for considering requests.

While hybrid work tends to have higher levels of perceived job quality, hybrid workers also have the biggest difficulties in work-life balance and work longer hours than preferred.

7.3.2 Working from home

In recent years there has been a shift to more regular and consistent working-from-home arrangements. On average, in 2019, 27% of the workforce worked from home. This increased to 37% in 2020 for all sectors.

Within Education specifically, in April 2021, 48% of the workforce was working solely from home, with those in the Information and Communication Industry having the highest (81%) proportion working from home. Despite this, in May 2021, the number of job adverts which mentioned working from home was just 8%. The same ONS report found the Charity and Voluntary sector adverts mentioned home working the most, at 23.4%.

The CIPD Index found:

1. working from home is least common among younger workers, with only 31% of working time being spent at home among those aged 18-to-24;
2. workers who solely work from home experience lower job quality in dimensions such as pay, contracts, job design and employee voice than those working in a hybrid manner; but
3. they have higher scores of work-life balance and health and wellbeing.

Additionally, a 2021 study by Glint found those who predominantly worked from home had higher perceived levels of 'psychological safety'.[52] Psychological safety is defined as 'the belief that one will not be punished or humiliated for speaking up with ideas, questions, concerns, or mistakes'.

Insight from this research indicates the following factors:

1. there is a steady rise post-pandemic to more flexible forms of working arrangement, both in relation to location and hours of work; and
2. the 'Education' industry (SIC coding) offers a significant proportion of these benefits, but all industries are not publicising this, particularly through job advertisements; and
3. more measures are needed to ensure these new ways of working do not negatively impact health, wellbeing, and employee voice; and
4. if new approaches for flexible working are to become more popular in the future (for example, the four-day working week), it is imperative that the perception of work-life balance is adequately monitored and supported, particularly noting that outputs are likely to be expected at a similar level, albeit through reduced 'visibility' of working hours.

8. Job Design and the Nature of Work

A CIPD survey in 2018 found 37% of respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed that jobs are designed to make use of employees' skills.[53] The same research found that over-skilling mainly impacted younger employees and those on part-time contracts but decreased with age and job tenure. The resulting impact of over-skilling is large salary penalties, higher rate of turnover and fewer instances of promotion.

The Equality and Human Rights Commission (EHRC) state that

> *Although not mandatory, job evaluation is one of the most important tools for reviewing and assessing your whole pay system… Having a consistent, gender-neutral method for assessing and comparing the value of different jobs is vital to achieving equal pay.*[54]

There are several schemes designed to comply with good equal value practice. Examples include the Local Government (Single Status) scheme and the (Agenda for Change) NHS scheme. Within higher education, job design most commonly uses the Higher Education Role Analysis (HERA) process, developed by the Education Competencies Consortium (ECC). According to the Framework Agreement on Modernisation of HE Pay Structures, these processes aim to 'support the achievement of equal pay for work of equal value, with the application of pay points to staff being transparent, consistent and fair.'[55] Supporting the Framework Agreement is a library of indicative role profiles used to support grading decisions for academic staff.[56]

Research commissioned by the Educational Competencies Consortium (ECC) found the use of HERA job evaluation in higher education positively contributed to improving job design (61%).[57] This is aligned with the EHRC recommendations and is well established within the sector as common practice.

8.1 Learning and Career Development

The CIPD Good Work Index identified the key influencers of career progression as:

1. access to training and development (27% agreement that it was a key influencer);
2. quality of line management (36% agreement);
3. opportunities to develop skills (36% agreement);
4. defined career pathways (31% agreement); and
5. relationships and networks (30% agreement).

When absent, these become blockers to career development.

A 2021 study by Glint found the top drivers of work culture were:

1. opportunities to learn and grow;
2. having a feeling of belonging; and
3. having opportunities to collaborate.

Despite this, learning opportunities are not necessarily a strategic focus in organisations. A CIPD survey in 2020 found that while the improvement of line-manager capabilities was the highest priority (22%), career pathway development (16%) and addressing skills gaps (16%) featured lower.[58] The same research found 36% of respondents either disagreed or strongly disagreed that there was learning strategy in their organisation. Previous CIPD research found fewer than half (47%) of UK employees agreed their jobs offer good opportunities to develop and use their skills.

8.1.1 *Learning and Development Budget Allocation*

Private sector organisations are more likely to have larger learning and development (L&D) budgets compared to public organisations. 26% of private organisations have a budget of over £750 per employee. This is compared to just 15% of public organisations with a budget of this figure. Looking ahead, 28% of public sector organisations expect a reduction of L&D budgets in the future. This is compared to 16% of firms in the private sector.

Figure 22 in Appendix A shows how L&D budgets are split by activity. The most common is to improve performance in existing roles, with less focus on non-role specific development.

8.1.2 *Professional Accreditation*

Many professions require accreditation with a professional body, which stipulate requirements of continuing professional development (CPD). Academics with both a professional discipline and accreditation would be expected to maintain these alongside their academic development. Some examples of CPD requirements for professional bodies are outlined in Figure 23 below.

Figure 23: CPD requirements for different professional bodies.

Professional Body	CPD requirement
RIBA	1. Undertake at least 35 hours of relevant learning per year. 2. Ensure at least 50% of CPD is structured (for example, face to face or online). 3. Spend at least 20 of the 35 hours on 10 mandatory RIBA Core Curriculum CPD topics. 4. Acquire at least 100 learning points (reflecting on assessment). 5. Recording and tracking CPD via the RIBA online recording tool.
CIPFA	1. A minimum of 20 hours or verifiable CPD activities over a 12-month period. 2. Reflect on learning and outputs achieved.
Social Work England	1. Record a minimum of 2 pieces of CPD. 2. One piece must include a peer reflection.
NMC	1. A minimum of 35 hours CPD relevant to scope of practice in the three-year period since registration was last renewed / joined the register. 2. At least 20 of those hours must be participatory learning.

The Royal Institute of British Architects (RIBA), *Your CPD obligations as a RIBA Member*, 2022
Chartered Institute of Public Finance and Accountancy (CIPFA), *Continuing Professional Development,* 2022
Social Work England, *CPD guidance for social workers,* 2022
The Nursing and Midwifery Council, *Continuing professional development,* 2022

Higher education has influencers for academics to support their learning and career development. Those who sign up to the Researcher Development Concordat, developed by Universities UK, must:

1. provide opportunities, support, and time for researchers to engage in a minimum of 10 days' professional development pro rata per year;
2. provide training, support, and time for managers to engage in meaningful career development reviews;
3. ensure researchers have access to professional advice on career management, across a breadth of careers;
4. provide researchers with opportunities, and time, to develop their research identity and broader leadership skills; and
5. monitor, and report on, the engagement of researchers and their managers with professional development activities, and researcher career development reviews.[59]

Learning and Teaching professionals can access development programmes accredited by Advance HE, which are articulated through the Professional Development Framework (HEA Teaching Fellows).[60]

The insight gained from this analysis could provide the following indicators:

1. There is a clear correlation between the nature of work and a positive working culture.
2. The use of job evaluation schemes in the higher education sector can be attributed to improved job design and equity.
3. There is more likely to be a reduction in L&D budgets within the public sector (inclusive of universities), which could be a detrimental factor to retention and engagement.
4. The sector has many professional development frameworks which outline learning and career progression opportunities for academics, alongside any professional CPD requirements stipulated for accredited bodies. This increases the requirement for the sector to invest in meaningful learning and development.
5. Career development may not necessarily be solely aligned to movement within the sector.

9. Relationships at Work

9.1 Employee Relations

The Taylor Review of Modern Working set out a range of recommendations to create good work in UK workplaces. Within that report, good management relationships are seen as key to good work, particularly ensuring employee voice and transparency of decision-making.[61] Research conducted by the Department for Business Innovation & Skills (BIS) of SMEs found deficiencies in leadership and management skills have a direct impact on turnover and productivity.[62]

Research conducted by the CIPD found:

1. 87% of employers described relations between managers and employees as 'very good' or 'good'
2. A smaller number (3%) perceived that relations are poor
3. Employers in the public sector are less likely to rate relations as good (81%) than those within the private and voluntary sector (88% and 94% respectively).[63]

9.2 Employee Voice

The Taylor Review recognises the importance of having a greater voice in organisational decisions. The review notes having this voice can 'add to a more collegiate environment between management and staff, boosting the feeling of fulfilment and increasing productivity.'

Effective worker voice can support an ongoing discussion on common issues and enable leaders to receive timely feedback. This can be enhanced by formal trade union representation, which supports collective bargaining and ensuring good employee representation. Collective employee voice is key to improving performance and facilitating genuine dialogues.

The Information and Consultation of Employees (ICE) Regulations encourage long-term information and consultation between employers and employees. Currently, the Regulations only apply to organisations with 50 or more employees and at least 2% of employees must support it.[64]

Figure 24 in Appendix A shows the proportion of organisations which have representative arrangements for informing and consulting employees. The findings show that:

1. Under half have representative arrangements, which is lower (66%) than the 2011 survey.
2. Public sector organisations are more likely to have representative arrangements in place, as well as large organisations.

9.2.1 Enabling Employee Voice

A CIPD Good Work Index explores employees' experience of employee voice including the range of channels to express views. Individual voice channels, such as one-to-one meetings with line managers still heavily dominate. Collective channels which involve employee representation are less common. Figure 25 below outlines the outcomes of this research.

Figure 25: Voice channels in organisations

Voice channel	All	Private Sector	Public Sector	Voluntary Sector
Trade Union	21%	14%	49%	24%
Non-union staff association or consultative committee	7%	6%	9%	15%
Employee survey	54%	52%	64%	54%
Online forum or chat room for employees	17%	17%	18%	18%
Employee focus groups	16%	15%	17%	19%
One-to-one meetings with line manager	71%	69%	74%	80%
Team meetings	58%	55%	69%	70%
All department or all organisation meetings	29%	26%	37%	46%
Other	3%	3%	1%	3%

Dan Wheatley*, CIPD Good Work Index 2022*, 2022

A recommendation from a CIPD Working Lives Survey in 2022 was to use engagement surveys to understand where job quality can be improved. Using the CIPD Good Work Index, employee voice received the lowest mean score out of all the dimensions of good work.

According to the UCEA Benefits of Working in HE survey, 60% of institutions conduct staff engagement and satisfaction surveys to measure the benefits of working in higher education and to encourage employee feedback. Within this data, 45% of institutions particularly seek feedback on pay and benefits.

Based on their reporting, institutions stated the highest perceived value of benefits for their staff included:

1. a positive working environment (84%)
2. worthwhile work (81%)
3. working with like-minded people (54%).

Other comments included the ability to have flexibility and hybrid working and positive experiences of equality, diversity, health, and wellbeing.

9.2.2 Trade union membership

In 2021, 23.1% of UK employees were trade union members, down from 23.7% in 2020.[65] This is the lowest overall membership rate among UK employees on record. The greatest decrease was for females; whose membership rate fell from 27.2% to 26.3% from 2020 to 2021. Comparatively, male membership fell by just 0.3 percentage points in the same period.

The decrease in membership varies between sectors. Within the public sector, membership numbers fell by 58,000 between 2020 and 2021 and by 4,000 within the private sector. Within the public sector, union membership density is now at 50.1%. Using the SIC coding:

1. those who work within Education have the highest proportion of trade union membership;
2. this is followed by Human Health and Social Work; and
3. outside of the public sector dominated industries, the Transport and Storage sector have 36.6% membership.

Within higher education, the most prevalent union representing academics is the UCU, which states membership of over 120,000.[66] According to data published by Statista, this is lower than their membership in 2019/20, which was 129,174.[67] For HE, they represent around 68,000 academics (which is about 30% density). This is lower than the rate for the public sector.

9.2.3 Industrial disputes

Industrial disputes and strike action have been steadily rising over the past few years. In September 2019, 9,000 days was lost in the UK due to strike action, compared to 205,000 days in September 2022.[68] In November 2022 and February 2023, UCU announced that university staff at 150 universities would strike over pay, working conditions and pensions.[69] This followed two ballots in October 2022 which saw a 57.8% turnout and 'yes' vote of 81.1% for the pay and working conditions ballot and a 60.2% turnout and 84.9% 'yes' vote for pensions.[70]

The *Engage for Success* report shows synergies between engagement approaches and partnership working between unions and employers, which has a positive impact on overall employee satisfaction and a perception of equity.[71] The report highlights best practice at the NHS which has developed partnership relations with unions to enable enhanced engagement.

These insights offer the following recommendations:

1. enabling a strong employee voice through individual and collective channels enables enhanced engagement, satisfaction, and reduced turnover
2. organisations who have adopted a joint working approach with unions ensure collaborative and effective dialogue
3. a culture which values employee engagement and communication is more likely to build trust, improve decision-making and increase the quality of work.

10. Health and Wellbeing

Health and wellbeing have a relationship with measures of engagement, satisfaction and motivation at work. The ability to provide and implement initiatives within the workplace, such as managing ill-health, supporting long-term health conditions and early intervention are key to enabling 'Good Work'. According to research by the CIPD in 2012, there is a difference between those who are emotionally attached to their roles and those who are doing their jobs solely due to the benefits and rewards which are offered.[72] Emotionally engaged employees perform tasks to a higher level and are less likely to indulge in damaging behaviours.

Key drivers to supportive mental health and wellbeing, alongside some examples of benefits offered are outlined below.

10.1 Personal Health and Wellbeing

An ONS bulletin, released in late November 2022 outlined respondents' views of their personal wellbeing.[73] According to the data, the mean score for life satisfaction, happiness, and anxiety have all decreased since the summer of 2022. This may be attributable to seasonal variations, or aligned to broader external influences, as outlined in section 3.

1. Around a quarter of adults reported they were feeling lonely always, often, or some of the time.
2. While men and women reported similar levels of loneliness, those aged 16 to 29 had the highest levels, with those ages 50 and over reporting the lowest.

'Personal wellbeing' relates to job satisfaction, satisfaction with leisure time, financial wellbeing and levels of disposable income. Figure 26 in Appendix A outlines the satisfaction rates of these drivers according to ONS research.[74] While the figures have remained stable in the reporting period, on average only 50% of the population feel satisfied with these drivers. There could be a correlation between these and the Index, particularly ways of working, pay, and benefits.

10.2 Workplace Health and Wellbeing

According to the Mind Index, in 2020/21 58% of employees stated they had experienced poor mental health at work.[75]

1. Anxiety rates in the workplace between April to June 2022 are highest amongst under 30-year-olds (25.5% reporting high anxiety compared to 22.9% for 40-to-50-year-olds).
2. Anxiety rates were also highest for women (26% reporting high anxiety compared to 19% for men).
3. Within higher education, the 2022 *THE* work-life balance survey found 74% of academics felt working in HE had a negative impact on their mental health.

Workplace wellbeing should be integral to ensure boosted employee engagement, satisfaction and productivity.

1. A CIPD Survey in 2022 evaluated trends and practices in UK workplaces and found health and wellbeing was a declining strategic priority.
2. The same survey found 19% of employers are not currently doing anything to improve employee health and wellbeing.
3. However, 41% of organisations surveyed expected their health and wellbeing budget to increase in the next 12 months.
4. In 2020/21, 71% of employees surveyed for the Mind Index reported that their employer had supported their mental health. This is an increase of 14% from the 2019/20 Index.

10.3 Health and Wellbeing Benefits

Figure 27 in Appendix A outlines the types of wellbeing benefits offered by each sector. The public sector provides higher than average and above private and non-profit benefits for free eye tests, access to counselling and employee assistance programmes (EAP) and occupational sick pay. However, they provide significantly less coverage of private medical insurance, with just 3% providing this compared to 31% in the private sector.

Within higher education, 94% of respondents to the UCEA Benefits of Working in HE survey stated they offered counselling services or Employee Assistance Programmes. Additionally, 76% offered subsidised gym or sport access and 51% offered free eye tests.

UCEA also published results of its annual survey on sickness absence reporting in March 2023, with the latest round covering the period 1 August 2021 to 31 July 2022.[76] This report indicates institutions in the sector recognise the importance of mental health and wellbeing support for their staff, providing investment in mental health services such as wellbeing hubs, annual stress assessments, and psychological care. Many programmes and policies to improve staff mental health were introduced in response to the Covid-19 pandemic, including employee assistance programmes, facilitating phased returns to work, and access to counselling services. There was a moderate reduction in the proportion of sickness absence that was stress related, declining to 13.8% in 2021-22 from 15.7% in 2020-21.

The CIPD Reward Management survey found a difference between these benefits and whether they are available for all staff, or dependent on grade / seniority. The most common benefit which is available for senior staff is private medical insurance at 25%, compared to all staff (18%). Within the public sector, this is an option for 7% of senior staff, compared to 32% in the private and 9% for the non-profit sectors.

10.4 Specific Wellbeing Support

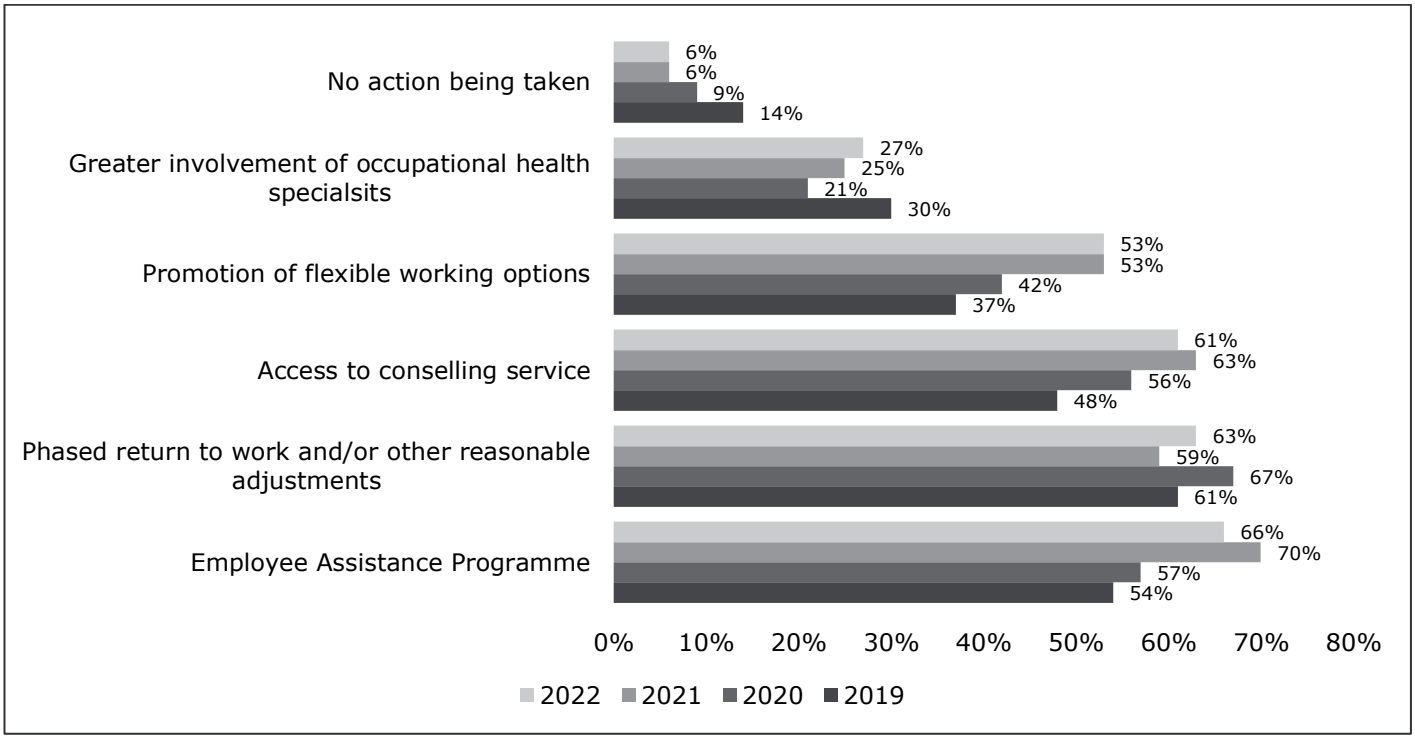
The CIPD Reward Management survey found organisations are investing more time and money for specific issues and groups of employees, including:

1. Working parents / carers of children
2. Bereavement
3. Suicide risk and prevention
4. Menopause.

The public sector is more likely to include provision for these issues compared to the private, or non-private sector. Figure 28 in Appendix A provides examples of some of these differences.

There has been a rise of the types of actions taken to support employee mental health at work. While the growth has stalled since the pandemic, the longer-term trend suggests greater investment. Figure 29 outlines changes in types of provision since 2019.

Figure 29: Actions taken to manage employee mental health at work



Chartered Institute for Personnel and Development (CIPD), *Health and wellbeing at work 2022*, 2022

These measures are key contributors to positive workplace culture and a perception of psychological safety, which is regarded as a significant contributor to performance, engagement, and attendance.[77] In 2021, the British Standards Institution (BSI) awarded its first certificate to a private sector organisation which was deemed to provide positive psychological health and safety at work.[78]

The pandemic has had widespread implications for people's wellbeing. While the rate of anxiety hit its highest level during the pandemic, this figure remains high at 23% in April to June 2022.

The CIPD Reward Management survey found Covid-19 has had a positive impact on organisations providing increased support and benefits for health and wellbeing (52%), and a third of organisations have increased their budget for wellbeing benefits since 2021.

11. Conclusions

This study has identified areas where the higher education sector offers both enhanced and less favourable terms, conditions and benefits than their non-sector comparators.

Looking at the external landscape, there are increases in UK inactivity. Based on the age group seeing the largest increase of inactivity (50-to-64-year-olds), there is a suggestion that more may leave employment in the next twelve months. This is

supported by CIPD research, an Edenred study, a UCU study and HESA 2020/21 leaver data for those who are retiring.

Within higher education, this represents a high proportion of professors. CIPA and UCU data also suggests a high turnover rate for those under the age of 29. This is perceived to be linked to concerns around pay and conditions for those in the sector. Those leaving the 'Education' industry (based on SIC coding, inclusive of Primary and Secondary Teachers) have a potential earnings growth of 13%. Those joining higher education from the private sector and NHS has decreased, so the market for this age bracket is going to be more competitive. The resulting impact suggests a need for institutions to ensure good succession planning, training and development initiatives (particularly where the benefits and conditions cannot be matched with those outside of the sector).

There is a shift in employee expectations, driven by:

1. a rise in inflation and cost of living
2. the pandemic (with a shift in attitude towards the value of activities outside work and the place work has in life).

There are shifting demands for a better work-life balance, flexibility and pay increases, all of which have been recognised through the CIPD Good Work Index.

Considering pay within the higher education sector, gender, ethnicity, and disability pay gap reporting suggests females, ethnic minorities and those with declared disabilities are earning less. Data from 2021/22 indicates that the gender pay gap in higher education (13.7%) is lower than the national average (14.9%). The gender pay gap within higher education is closing having been 20.2% in 2011/12 (with the national average 19.6%). Pay inequities in the sector can be attributed to vertical segregation. There is less female representation at more senior levels, 29% of professors are female with a gender pay gap of 6.2% and 11% of professors are BAME. UCEA's reporting across 89 HEIs indicated an ethnicity pay gap of 3.9% as at March 2022.

Analysis of the types of contracts suggest that the higher education sector provides less favourable terms than their non-sector comparators. A lower proportion of academic staff are in permanent employment (67%) than the average (94%). In higher education in 2020/21, 1.9% of staff were on zero-hour contracts, having fallen from 3.1% in 2016/17. This is lower than the national average of 3.2% which is growing year-on-year.

In the post-pandemic landscape, there is a stronger view that jobs are impacting personal commitments and blurring boundaries between home and life. This is echoed by the 2022 *THE* survey, which found 28% of academics felt unable to switch off from work, and 74% stated that working in higher education had a negative impact on their mental health. While the average working hours was 37 (non-sector)

with 16% of people working more than 45 hours per week, in higher education, 28% noted they work over 47 hours per week.

There is a steady rise of more flexible forms of working arrangement, both in relation to location and hours. Higher education offers a significant proportion of these benefits. More measures are needed to ensure that these new ways of work do not negatively impact health, wellbeing and employee voice. If new approaches for flexible working are to become more popular in the future (for example, the four-day working week), how to achieve effective work-life balance needs to be considered.

Enabling progression is a key benefit for staff, as outlined within the CIPD Good Work Index, supported by skills development, defined pathways and access to training. The private sector has the larger learning and development budgets. There are many professional development frameworks which outline learning and career progression opportunities for academics (Researcher Concordat and the Advance HE framework), alongside professional Continuing Professional Development requirements for accredited bodies. This increases the requirement for the sector to invest in meaningful learning and development.

Another driver of Good Work is ensuring that staff can have a voice and provide feedback. The 2022 UCEA Benefits of Working in HE survey shows 60% of universities conduct staff engagement and satisfaction surveys. Enabling strong employee voice through individual and collective channels is shown to enhance engagement, satisfaction and reduce turnover. Additionally, ensuring a culture that values employee engagement and communication is more likely to build trust, improve decision-making and increase the quality of work.

Finally, there have been growing rates of poor mental health and anxiety, both inside and outside of the sector. Mind research shows 58% of employees in the UK state they have had poor mental health at work. A high proportion of HE providers provide counselling services or Employee Assistance Programme (94%), against a national picture of 73% offering counselling, and 72% offering Employee Assistance Programme services. Higher education also offers higher-than-average levels of occupational sick pay.

There is a correlation between perception of health and wellbeing and other key drivers for 'Good Work', particularly ways of working, pay and benefits. People who experience positive health and wellbeing at work have high levels of engagement.

12. Appendices

Appendix A: Data referenced in the Study

Figure 2: Mapping of HECoS and HESA data

HECoS (CAH 3 included when required)	HESA cost centre	SIC Sections (excludes divisions and groups)
CAH 06 agriculture, food and related studies	110 agriculture, forestry & food science	Section A: agriculture, forestry and fishing
food and beverage production	134 catering & hospitality management	Section I: accommodation and food service activities
food and beverage studies (non-specific)	135 catering & hospitality management	Section I: accommodation and food service activities
food sciences	135 catering & hospitality management	Section I: accommodation and food service activities
CAH 13 architecture, building and planning	123 architecture, built environment & planning	Section F: Construction
planning (urban, rural and regional)		Section L: real estate activities
CAH 03 biological and sport sciences		Section M: professional, scientific and technical activities
ecology and environmental biology		Section E: water supply; sewerage, waste management and remediation activities
hair and beauty sciences		Section S: other service activities
sport and exercise sciences	108 sports science & leisure studies	Section S: other service activities
CAH 17 business and management	133 business & management studies	Section G: wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles
accounting		Section M: professional, scientific and technical activities, Section K: financial and insurance activities
finance		Section M: professional, scientific and technical activities, Section K: financial and insurance activities
human resource management		Section N: administrative and support service activities
management studies		Section M: professional, scientific and technical activities

HECoS (CAH 3 included when required)	HESA cost centre	SIC Sections (excludes divisions and groups)
marketing		Section M: professional, scientific and technical activities
tourism, transport and travel		Section N: administrative and support service activities
CAH 23 combined and general studies		
CAH 11 computing	121 it, systems sciences & computer software engineering	Section J: information and communication
CAH 25 design, and creative and performing arts		Section R: arts, entertainment and recreation
creative arts and design (non-specific)	143 art & design	
art	144 art & design	
design studies	145 art & design	
others in creative arts and design	143 art & design	
performing arts (non-specific)	144 music, dance, drama & performing arts	
music	145 music, dance, drama & performing arts	
drama	146 music, dance, drama & performing arts	
dance	145 music, dance, drama & performing arts	
CAH 22 education and teaching	136 continuing education	Section P: education
education	135 education	
CAH 10 engineering and technology		Section M: professional, scientific and technical activities
aeronautical and aerospace engineering	120 mechanical, aero & production engineering	Section H: transportation and storage
chemical, process and energy engineering	116 chemical engineering	
civil engineering	118 civil engineering	Section F: construction
electrical and electronic engineering	119 electrical, electronic & computer engineering	Section D: electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply
engineering (non-specific)	115 general engineering	
maritime technology		Section H: transportation and storage
materials science	117 mineral, metallurgy & materials engineering	
materials technology	118 mineral, metallurgy & materials engineering	

HECoS (CAH 3 included when required)	HESA cost centre	SIC Sections (excludes divisions and groups)
mechanical engineering	120 mechanical, aero & production engineering	Section H: transportation and storage
minerals technology	118 mineral, metallurgy & materials engineering	Section B: mining and quarrying
naval architecture		Section H: transportation and storage
polymers and textiles	118 mineral, metallurgy & materials engineering	
production and manufacturing engineering	120 mechanical, aero & production engineering	Section C: manufacturing
CAH 26 geography, earth and environmental studies		Section M: professional, scientific and technical activities
earth sciences	111 earth, marine & environmental sciences	
environmental sciences	124 geography & environmental studies	
geography (non-specific)	125 geography & environmental studies	
human geography	126 geography & environmental studies	
others in geographical studies	127 geography & environmental studies	
physical geographical sciences	128 geography & environmental studies	
CAH 20 historical, philosophical and religious studies		Section R: arts, entertainment and recreation
archaeology	126 archaeology	
classics	140 classics	
history	139 history	
philosophy	141 philosophy	
theology and religious studies	142 theology & religious studies	
CAH 19 language and area studies	137 modern languages, 125 area studies	Section J: information and communication
English language	138 english language & literature	
literature in English	138 english language & literature	
CAH 16 law	130 law	Section M: professional, scientific and technical activities
CAH 09 mathematical sciences	122 mathematics	Section M: professional, scientific and technical activities
CAH 24 media, journalism and communications		Section J: information and communication

HECoS (CAH 3 included when required)	HESA cost centre	SIC Sections (excludes divisions and groups)
media studies	145 media studies	
CAH 01 medicine and dentistry		Section Q: human health and social work activities
dentistry	102 clinical dentistry	
medicine (non-specific)	100 clinical medicine	
medicine by specialism	101 clinical medicine	
CAH 07 physical sciences		Section M: professional, scientific and technical activities
chemistry	113 chemistry	
physics	114 physics	
CAH 04 psychology	104 psychology & behavioural sciences	Section Q: human health and social work activities
CAH 15 social sciences		Section Q: human health and social work activities
anthropology	127 anthropology & development studies	
development studies	127 anthropology & development studies	
economics	129 economics & econometrics	Section O: public administration and defence; compulsory social security
health studies	105 health & community studies	
politics	128 politics & international studies	Section O: public administration and defence; compulsory social security
social policy	131 social work & social policy	Section O: public administration and defence; compulsory social security
social work	131 social work & social policy	Section O: public administration and defence; compulsory social security
sociology	132 sociology	
CAH 02 subjects allied to medicine	103 nursing & allied health professions	Section Q: human health and social work activities
anatomy, physiology and pathology	106 anatomy & physiology	
environmental and public health		Section O: public administration and defence; compulsory social security
health sciences (non-specific)	104 health & community studies	
healthcare science (non-specific)	105 health & community studies	
pharmacology	107 pharmacy & pharmacology	

HECoS (CAH 3 included when required)	HESA cost centre	SIC Sections (excludes divisions and groups)
pharmacy	107 pharmacy & pharmacology	
CAH 05 veterinary sciences	109 veterinary science	Section M: professional, scientific and technical activities
Not applicable	201 total academic services	Section T: activities of households as employers; undifferentiated goods- and services-producing activities of households for own use
	202 central administration & services	Section U: activities of extraterritorial organisations and bodies
	204 staff & student facilities	
	205 premises	
	206 residences & catering	

Figure 6: UK economic inactivity by reason, people aged 16 to 64 years, seasonally adjusted, cumulative change from March 2020 up to June to August 2022.

	Number (in thousands)							
Reason	Economically inactive (16 to 64)	Student	Looking after family or home	Temp sick	Long-term sick	Discour aged workers [note 1]	Retired	Other [note 2]
Jan to Mar 2020	76.3	14.172	-13.659	4.872	15.112	1.856	23.138	30.809
Aug to Oct 2020	348.483	226.417	-209.124	-12.434	105.968	29.773	5.525	202.359
Jan to Mar 2021	460.637	363.696	-247.444	3.891	95.87	46.086	17.892	180.647
Aug to Oct 2021	442.764	210.216	-161.92	26.373	182.094	-2.439	45.949	142.491
Jan to Mar 2022	494.84	187.337	-99.25	27.1	202.898	-15.509	53.575	138.69
Jun to Aug 2022	629.652	288.783	-113.547	-4.749	377.681	-14.466	59.304	36.645

Office for National Statistics (ONS), *Employment in the UK: October 2022*, 2022

Notes

1. Discouraged workers are those who are not looking for work because they believe no jobs are available.
2. Other reasons for being economically inactive include those who are waiting for the results of a job application, those who have not yet started looking for work, those who do not need or want employment, those who have given an uncategorised reason for being economically inactive, or those who have not given a reason for being economically inactive.

Figure 8: Academic staff (excluding atypical) by equality characteristics

Category	Professor	Other senior academic	Other contract level	Total
Age group				
25 and under	0	0	6,480	**6,480**
26-35	100	95	56,730	**56,925**
36-45	3,125	1,050	59,785	**63,955**
46-55	8,880	2,675	42,505	**54,055**
56-65	8,175	2,145	24,605	**34,930**
66 and over	2,580	255	5,350	**8,180**
				Disability status
Known to have a disability	810	255	10,330	**11,395**
No known disability	22,045	5,965	185,125	**213,135**
				Ethnicity
White	18,710	5,435	141,865	**166,010**
Black	160	60	4,980	**5,205**
Asian	1,580	300	21,140	**23,020**
Mixed	335	75	5,005	**5,410**
Other	350	85	4,870	**5,310**
Not known	1,720	260	17,595	**19,575**
				Nationality
UK	17,035	5,405	128,955	**151,395**
European Union	3,545	495	34,185	**38,230**
Non-European Union	2,165	290	30,815	**33,270**
Not known	110	25	1,500	**1,635**
				Sex
Female	6,510	2,515	96,420	**105,440**
Male	16,300	3,700	98,695	**118,695**
Other	50	5	340	**390**
Total	**22,855**	**6,220**	**195,455**	**224,530**

HESA, Higher Education Staff Statistics: UK, 2020/21, 2022

Figure 10: What UK workers want in the year ahead survey results

Factor	Agreement
Support to achieve a better work / life balance	64%
Pay rise	47%
Improved mental wellbeing support	46%
Help from their employer to improve their financial wellbeing	38%
Flexible hours	37%
Flexible work location	31%
More perks and benefits	30%

Factor	Agreement
Line manager appreciation	25%
Annual bonus	24%
Increased annual leave entitlement	24%
More engaging tasks	16%

Edenred, *Employee trends 2022*, 2022

Figure 11: Annual full-time gross pay by occupation in 2021

Job Title	Annual full-time gross pay
Biological scientists	£33,477
Occupational therapists	£34,249
Children's nurses	£35,492
Community nurses	£35,644
Nurse practitioners	£39,135
Mental health nurses	£39,887
Midwifery nurses	£40,563
Clinical psychologists	£41,591
Medical radiographers	£42,848
Biochemists and biomedical scientists	£43,376
Architects	£43,486
Generalist medical practitioners	£43,514
Civil engineers	£44,341
Veterinarians	£44,489
Higher education teaching professionals	£47,300
Barristers and judges	£53,110
Specialist medical practitioners	£68,614

Office for National Statistics (ONS), *Employee earnings in the UK: 2022*, 2022

Figure 12: Gender Pay Gap

Category	Gender Pay Gap
Full time	8.3
Part time	-2.8
	Age group
18-21	0.9
22-29	2.1
30-39	3.2
40-49	10.9
50-59	11.7
60 and over	13.9

Office for National Statistical (ONS), *Gender pay gap in the UK: 2022*, 2022

Figure 14: Financial benefits offered by sector, 2022

	Sector providing benefit		
Benefit	Public	Private	Non-profit
Pay voluntary Living Wage	65%	59%	55%
Pension scheme (with a minimum employer contribution of 6%)	90%	42%	73%
Discounted shopping	71%	39%	45%
Discounted leisure and hospitality	71%	40%	42%
Workplace pension salary-sacrifice plan	35%	39%	36%
Workplace pension contribution matching plan	39%	25%	27%
University tuition repaid	6%	7%	3%

Chartered Institute for Personnel and Development (CIPD), *Reward Management Survey 2022*, 2022

Figure 15: Pension utilisation, aggregated by age, 2022

Age	All employees	Private sector	Public sector
16-21	20.4%	15.6%	82.3%
22-29	81.3%	78.9%	90.3%
30-39	84.5%	81.7%	91.6%
40-49	85.5%	81.9%	93.6%
50-54	85.7%	81.4%	94.1%
55-59	84.0%	79.7%	92.2%
60 < State Pension Age (SPA)	78.3%	74.5%	86.8%
SPA and over	39.5%	32.6%	59.0%

Office for National Statistics (ONS), *Employee workplace pensions in the UK: 2021 provisional and 2020 final results*, 2022

Figure 17: People on zero-hour contracts by equality data

Category	% employed on a zero-hours contract
Age group	
16-24	10.2 (6% increase since 2020)
25-34	2.2 (15% decrease since 2020)
35-49	1.9 (12% increase since 2020)
50-64	2.4 (4% increase since 2020)
65+	5.4 (39% increase since 2020)

Category	% employed on a zero-hours contract
	Full- or part-time status
In employment on a zero-hours contract and full-time	31.7% (8% decrease since 2020)
In employment on a zero-hours contract and part-time	67.9% (4% increase since 2020)
	In full-time education
In full-time education on a zero-hours contract	21.6% (11% increase since 2020)
	Nationality
UK people in employment on a zero-hours contract	3% (7% increase since 2020)
Non-UK people in employment on a zero-hours contract	4.7% (7% increase since 2020)
	Sex
Female	3.6% (6% increase since 2020)
Male	2.8% (8% increase since 2020)

Office for National Statistics, *EMP17: People in employment on zero hours contracts*, 2022

Figure 19: Availability and use of flexible working arrangements, 2022

Type of provision	Used this arrangement	Available to me but I do not use it	Not available to me	Don't know
Flexi time	36%	14%	46%	4%
Job sharing	2%	11%	83%	4%
Reduced working hours	9%	31%	49%	11%
Compressed hours	11%	19%	62%	8%
Working from home	55%	5%	33%	2%
Term time working	4%	14%	71%	11%

Dan Wheatley, *CIPD Good Work Index 2022*, 2022

Figure 21: Trends in flexible working arrangements, 2022

Term	Definition	% of using benefit	Number using benefit in the Education Industry	Number using benefit in the Health and Social Work Industry	Number using benefit in the Professional, Scientific and Technical Industry
Annualised Hours	Employees have a set number of hours within the year but may work more or less on a given week in order to meet demand.	5.50%	222,272	293,429	124,537
Flexi-time	Employees decide the start and end times of their day as well as their breaks (often within certain limits)	13.10%	285,851	515,956	507,697
Four-and-a-half-day week	Employees typically work the normal working week but finish early one day per week. The working pattern is full-time with compressed hours.	0.60%	12,070	19,993	11,074
Job shares	A full-time job is divided between, usually, two people. The job sharers work at different times although there may be a changeover period.	0.30%	31,622 (highest)	20,942	10,156

Term	Definition	% of using benefit	Number using benefit in the Education Industry	Number using benefit in the Health and Social Work Industry	Number using benefit in the Professional, Scientific and Technical Industry
Nine-day fortnight	Employees have one day off every other week. The working pattern is full time with compressed hours.	0.40%	4,244	35,106 (highest)	17,209
Part-time working	Employees work a fraction of the hours of a full-time employee.	24.70%	1,157,995	1,453,529 (highest)	450,671
Term-time working	Employees work during the school of college term. Unpaid leave is taken during the school holidays, although their pay may be spread equally over the year.	4.30%	1,216,490 (highest)	49,001	6,378

Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD), *Trends in flexible working arrangements*, 2022

Figure 22: Budget split for L&D by area of focus

Category	% of budget split
Area of focus	
Induction and onboarding	15%
Leadership and management development (non-apprentice)	20%
Improving individuals' performance in existing roles	28%
Non-role-specific personal development	11%
Apprenticeships	9%
Meeting compliance and regulations (including H&S)	17%

Chartered Institute for Personnel and Development (CIPD), *Learning and Skills at Work 2020*, 2020

Figure 25: Proportion of organisations that have representative arrangements for informing and consulting employees

Sector	Yes	No	Don't know
All	45%	52%	3%
Private	38%	59%	3%
Public	79%	18%	3%
Voluntary	35%	63%	1%
SME	22%	76%	1%
Large	63%	35%	3%

Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD), *Collective Employee Voice: Recommendations for working with employee representatives for mutual gain*, 2022

Figures 26: Drivers of personal well-being

Driver	Satisfaction rate (current)	Satisfaction rate (previous
Job satisfaction	58.4%	57.9%
Satisfaction with leisure time	45%	43.7%
Satisfied with household income	44.5%	43.8%

Office for National Statistics (ONS), *Measures of National Well-being Dashboard: Quality of Life in the UK*, 2022

Figure 27: Health and Wellbeing provision in the public, private and non-profit sectors

	Sector providing provision (policies, guidance, training) to a large or moderate extent.		
Provision	Public	Private	Non-profit
Domestic abuse support	51%	20%	37%
Menopause	50%	19%	32%
Employees with caring responsibilities for elderly / ill relatives	53%	26%	35%

Chartered Institute for Personnel and Development (CIPD), *Health and wellbeing at work 2022*, 2022

Figure 28: Wellbeing benefits offered by sector

Benefit	All	Public	Private	Non-profit
Free eye tests	63%	70%	57%	68%
Free flu vaccinations	48%	68%	43%	36%
In-house gym and / or subsidised gym membership	30%	40%	28%	23%
Wellbeing days (for example, a day devoted to promoting health and wellbeing services)	21%	30%	16%	26%
Access to counselling service	73%	87%	63%	85%
Employee assistance programme	72%	79%	66%	83%
Occupational sick pay	66%	86%	52%	77%
Health cash plans	21%	11%	24%	24%
Private medical insurance	18%	3%	31%	11%
Dental cash plans	17%	19%	12%	18%
Critical illness insurance	10%	5%	14%	9%

Chartered Institute for Personnel and Development (CIPD), *Health and wellbeing at work 2022*, 2022

Appendix B: Survey Dates and Sources

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