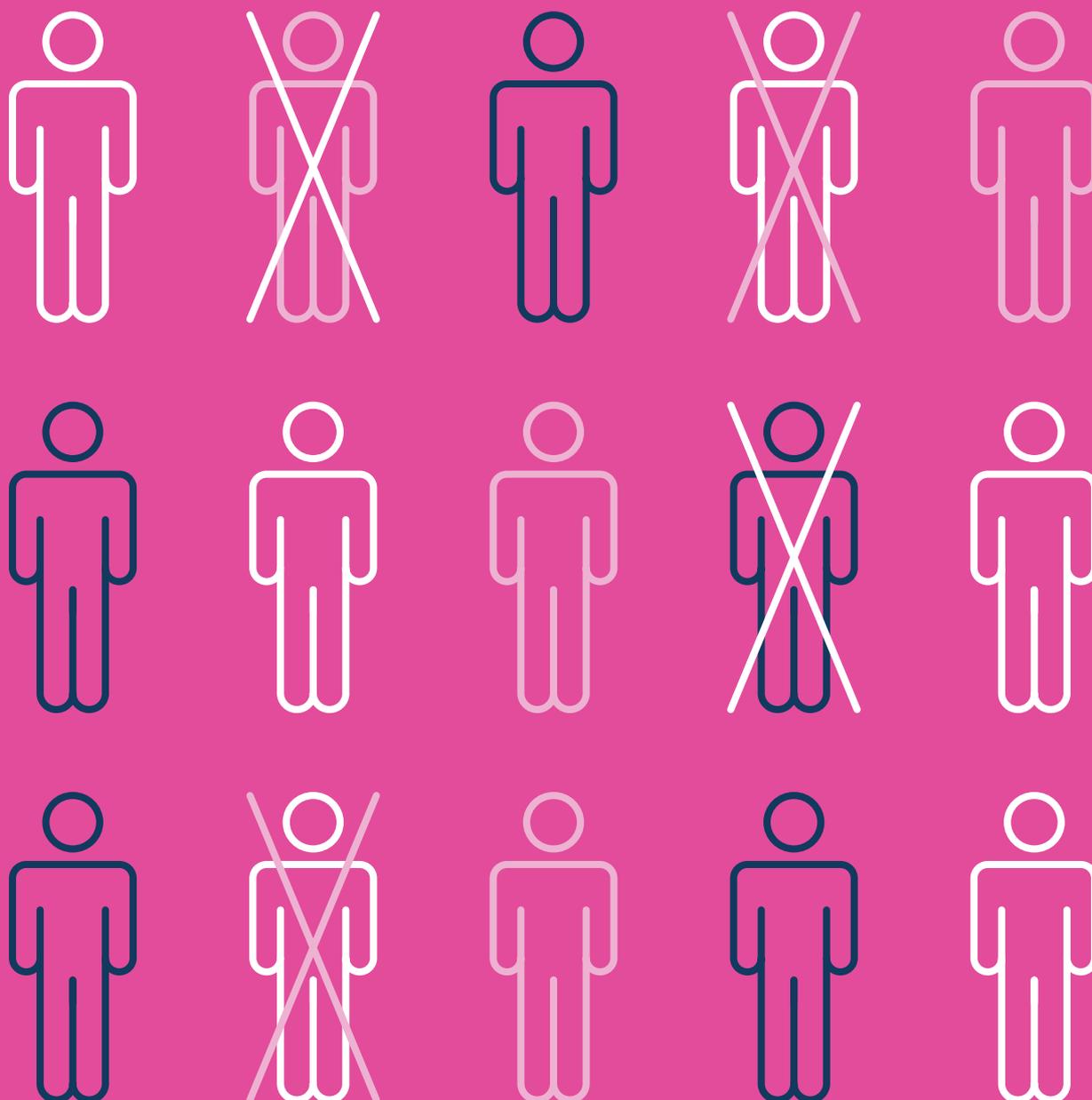


'Insecure and Uncertain': Precarious Work in the Republic of Ireland & Northern Ireland

Winter 2017



**CONGRESS
BRIEFING**

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Section One: Introduction & Summary

8%^{or} 158,190

of workers' hours varied considerably from week to week or month to month in the Republic of Ireland

43% 34%

increase in numbers of involuntary temporary employed in Northern Ireland

increase in part-time self-employed workers without employees in the Republic of Ireland

11.4%

of the workforce is self-employed without employees in Northern Ireland

Section One:

Introduction & Summary

Over the last decade precarious employment and its growth has emerged as an issue of major concern within politics, the media, academia and the trade union movement. In the aftermath of the recession as employment numbers have risen, so too has the incidence of precarious employment.

Although insecure employment continues to represent a minority of overall employment, there is growing concern that the traditional standard of secure, certain, regular employment is being replaced by employment that is insecure, uncertain, and unpredictable.

This report concentrates on changes in employment arrangements and the increase in precarious employment across the island of Ireland. It sets out the extent of and trends in precarious employment, and looks at who the precariously employed are and where they work. The report then turns to focus on the factors that are driving the rise of precarious employment and the negative impact of insecure work for individuals, their families, businesses, the economy and society as a whole.

The Problems with Precarious Employment

The growth of precarious employment has far-reaching negative consequences that go beyond the nature of work and people's work experience. A mounting body of evidence demonstrates that precarious employment has numerous negative effects on the well-being of workers and that of their families.

There is also increasing evidence that precarious employment has negative consequences for employers and businesses, with research showing that while the utilisation of insecure employment arrangements can bring short term gains in terms of cost savings, these need to be considered alongside the longer-term losses in productivity which are associated with the use of precarious employment practices.

Crucially, the combined negative impact of precarious employment for both workers and employers has important consequences for the labour market, the public purse, the economy and society at large.

The Extent of Precarious Employment

Our report shows that precarious work is pervasive throughout both the Republic of Ireland and Northern Ireland. In fact, there appears to be an increase in the use of precarious work in recent years. Interlinked with the spread of insecurity, has been the growth in involuntary temporary and involuntary part-time employment, with the proportion of the workforce who are seeking permanency and additional working hours rising significantly.

Republic of Ireland

The following is a summary of trends and patterns in precarious employment in the Republic of Ireland:

- In 2016, some 7% of the labour force was working in temporary employment.
- In 2016 over 1 in 10 workers in the Republic of Ireland were self-employed without employees.
- There has been a significant increase since 2008 in the number of workers in part-time temporary employment and in the overall share of the labour market which is comprised of part-time temporary workers.
- Part-time self-employed workers without employees has increased by 34% over the period 2008-2016.
- Despite recent increases in employment in 2016 there remain approximately 109,000 less workers in full-time permanent employment than there were in 2008.
- Over 1 in 2 or approximately 70,500 workers in 2016 said they were in temporary employment because they could not find permanent work - a 179% increase on 2008.
- Just over 8% of workers usual hours varied considerably from week to week or month to month.

Northern Ireland

The following is a summary of trends and patterns in precarious employment in the Republic of Ireland:

- Some 6% of the workforce is employed in temporary, non-permanent arrangements.
- In addition, 11.4% of the workforce is self-employed without employees, an increase of 1.6% as a share of the labour force over the period 2008 to 2016.
- The number of workers who are self-employed without employees has increased significantly since 2008. Most significant has been the more than doubling in the numbers who are part-time self-employed without employees.
- There has been a 25% increase in the number of workers who are in temporary employment, over the period 2008 to 2016.
- There has been a 43% increase in the numbers in involuntary temporary employment and a 35% increase in the numbers that are involuntary part-time employed, over the period 2008 to 2016.

Section Two: What is Precarious Employment?

"Precarious employment is employment which is insecure, uncertain or unpredictable from the point of view of the worker."

Section Two: What is Precarious Employment?

Despite not having a universally agreed upon definition, a review of the literature on precarious employment including on its philosophical roots, its use in various disciplines and empirical studies, shows that the most commonly held view is that precarious employment is **employment which is insecure, uncertain or unpredictable from the point of view of the worker**¹. It is in this way that precarious employment is understood in this report.

The term 'precarious employment' or 'precarious work' is often used more loosely by others to refer to all kinds of indecent or poor-quality work, including insecure work, low-paid work, work with limited or no benefits (health care, pension, bonuses, etc.), work in unsafe or unhealthy workplaces, work in the informal economy, work with no or inadequate access to training among others. Use of the term in this way comes from the point of view that precarious employment amounts to a deterioration of *all* working conditions.

However, Congress believes that the crux of precarious employment is the insecurity, uncertainty or unpredictability experienced by workers as a result of their employment arrangements/relations and attempts by employers to shift the social risks away from themselves and onto individual workers. This is not to say that these broader issues relating to working conditions or job quality are not important and do not require urgent attention by trade unions and policy makers. Rather it is thought that the issues of importance when assessing working conditions or job quality are much broader.

¹ Kalleberg, A.L. (2009) 'Precarious work, insecure workers: employment relations in transition', *American Sociological Association*, 74: 1-23.
Kalleberg, A. (2011) *Good jobs, bad jobs: The rise of polarized and precarious employment in the United States, 1970s to 2000s*, New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

Section Three: How do we Measure Precarious Employment?

"Those in temporary employment are easily defined as being in precarious employment because apart from the fact that such workers have no guarantee of the work continuing, their contracts are generally easier to terminate than permanent contracts."

Section Three: How do we Measure Precarious Employment?

To date, the preferred approach to measuring precarious employment has overwhelmingly been to use ‘non-standard employment relations’² or ‘atypical work’ as a proxy indicator.

Specifically, the tendency has been to identify an individual as facing heightened risk of employment precarity when they are employed in an arrangement which contrasts with the traditional ‘standard’ employment relationship, which can be characterised as secure, certain and predictable in nature i.e. permanent, full-time, direct and regular.

Underlying the use of non-standard employment as an indicator of precarious employment is an assumption that all ‘non-standard’, ‘non-traditional’, ‘atypical’ employment arrangements share the feature of having higher job insecurity risks than standard jobs, because standard employment arrangements were the basis within which employment securities were won and the framework within which labour law, collective bargaining, and social security systems were developed³.

Those in temporary employment are easily defined as being in precarious employment because apart from the fact that such workers have no guarantee of the work continuing, their contracts are generally easier to terminate than permanent contracts.

While all self-employed people may be regarded as carrying a risk, not all self-employed workers can be classed as precariously employed. It is, however, inherently difficult using existing data to distinguish precisely between self-employment which is precarious and that which is not.

Nevertheless, the increasing tendency for the self-employed to be without employees/own account workers and to work part-time suggests that the growth of self-employment may owe more to the spread of precarious employment than to a surge in entrepreneurial spirit⁴.

In addition, previous Congress research documents the surge in bogus or false self-employment in the construction industry, whereby it was found that many self-employed workers without employees work under the same conditions as dependent employees, but face much greater precarity because they do not benefit from the standard legal regulatory protections of being an employee. For example, self-employed workers have no right to paid sick, holiday, maternity or paternity leave, redundancy pay or protection against unfair dismissal. It is thus instructive to look at the incidence of self-employment without employees to get a sense of if and how the labour market is moving toward this more insecure employment arrangement.

² ‘Non-standard employment’ is an umbrella term for different employment arrangements that deviate from the traditional ‘standard’ employment arrangement i.e. permanent, full-time, direct and regular.

³ Kalleberg, A. (2009) ‘Precarious work, Insecure workers: Employment relations in Transition’, *American Sociological Review*, 74(1):1-22.

⁴ Gutierrez-Barbarrusa, T. (2016) ‘The growth of precarious employment in Europe: Concepts, indicators and the effects of the global economic crisis’, *International Labour Review*, 155(4):477-508.
Wilson, L. (2017) *Decent Work in Northern Ireland: The challenge of insecurity and low pay*, NERI Research InBrief no 48. Available online at: https://www.neri.institute.net/download/pdf/neri_research_inbrief_low_pay_and_insecure_lw_final.pdf.

More recently we have seen the shortcomings in relying solely on 'non-standard' or 'atypical' employment as an indicator of precarious employment, with research now also beginning to take account of uncertainty in working hours, to capture the issues presented by zero-hour contracts, 'if and when' contracts and the so-called 'gig economy', as well as changes in the working hours of those in more common forms of employment.

Following common approaches taken to assess the extent of precarious employment and the extent to which employment across the island of Ireland **is insecure, uncertain or unpredictable from the point of view of the worker**, this paper will look at evidence of insecurity as a result of the employment arrangements in which people work, as well as to evidence on the security, certainty or predictability of working hours.

Section Four: Trends and Patterns in Precarious Employment in the Republic of Ireland

7%

of the labour force were working
in temporary employment in 2016

109,000

less workers in full-time permanent
employment than there was in 2008

Section Four: Trends and Patterns in Precarious Employment in the Republic of Ireland

Summary of trends and patterns in precarious employment in the Republic of Ireland:

- In 2016, some 7% of the labour force were working in temporary employment.
- In 2016 over 1 in 10 workers in the Republic of Ireland were self-employed without employees.
- There has been a significant increase since 2008 in the number in part-time temporary employment and in the overall share of the labour market which is comprised of part-time temporary workers.
- Part-time self-employed workers without employees have increased by 34% over the period 2008-2016.
- Despite recent increases in employment in 2016 there remain approximately 109,000 less workers in full-time permanent employment than there was in 2008.
- Over 1 in 2 or approximately 70,500 workers in 2016 said they were in temporary employment because they could not find permanent work - a 179% increase.
- Just over 8% of workers' usual hours varied considerably from week to week or month to month.

This section examines patterns and trends in precarious employment in the Republic of Ireland since 2008 using the conceptual and measurement framework outlined in Section 3. For the analysis, we have used the Quarterly National Household Survey (QNHS), a large, nationally representative survey, carried out by the Central Statistics Office (CSO) and focus on working age adults aged between 15 and 64.

The decline of the traditional 'standard' of full-time permanent employment

Whilst the majority of those in employment are still employed in full-time, permanent employment, analysis shows a significant downward trend in the number of workers in permanent, full-time jobs over the period 2008 to 2016.

The data in Table 1 below shows that the number of permanent full-time jobs fell sharply in the years following the 2008 financial crisis, before levelling off in 2012. Since then the number of permanent full-time jobs has been increasing, although there is some way to go before the number of permanent full-time jobs matches the number in 2008.

Specifically, in 2016 there remained approximately 109,000 less workers in full-time permanent employment than there were in 2008.

Moreover, when we compare the structure of the labour market in 2008 and 2016, as shown in Table 1, we see an overall decline of 1.1% in the percentage of the labour market comprised of permanent full-time jobs.

Table 1: Permanent full-time employees as a proportion of labour force

	Number	Percentage as share of labour force
2008	1318013	64.2
2009	1177293	62.2
2010	1115876	61.6
2011	1081559	60.9
2012	1075772	61.1
2013	1084982	60.4
2014	1117129	61.3
2015	1161875	62.3
2016	1209511	63.1

The Extent of Precarious Employment

Temporary employment

Analysis of official statistics indicates that in 2016 just over 7% or close to 135,000 workers were in some form of temporary employment, the majority of whom were working part-time (58%) (See Table 2 below).

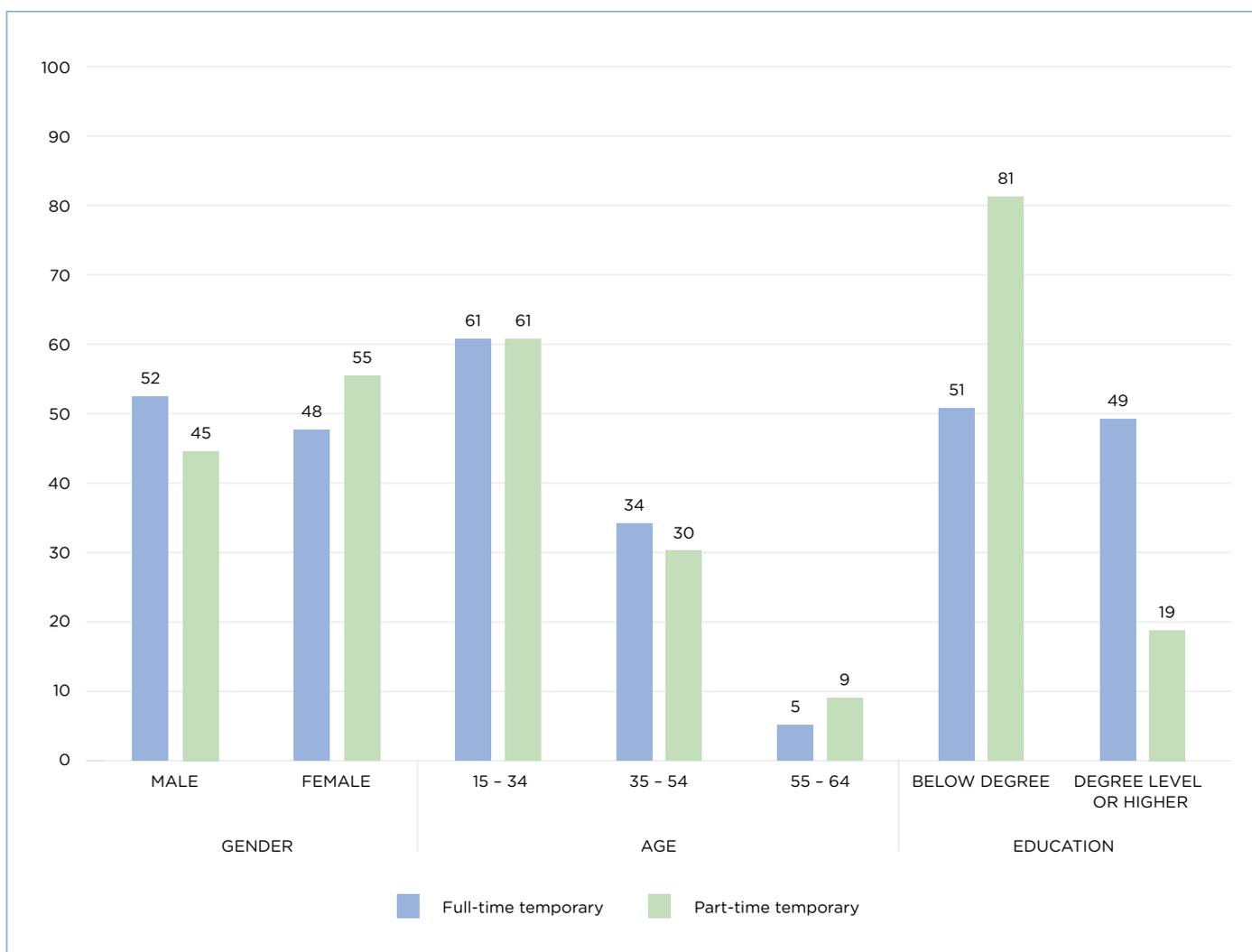
The number of temporary employees increased in the years following the recession, but has been falling in more recent years. Nevertheless, the lower number of temporary employees in 2016 compared with 2008 has been driven primarily by a decline in the number of full-time temporary employees. The number of part-time temporary employees has been declining since 2012. Despite this, in 2016 there remained close to 5,000 more part-time temporary employees than there were in 2008. This equates to a 7% increase in the number of part-time temporary employees.

Table 2: Temporary employees as a proportion of labour force in the Republic of Ireland

	Temp FT		Temp PT		All Temp	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
2008	75152	3.7	72832	3.5	147983	7.2
2009	63837	3.4	75691	4.0	139527	7.4
2010	63926	3.5	83428	4.6	147354	8.1
2011	68694	3.9	85604	4.8	154298	8.7
2012	64888	3.7	87456	5.0	152344	8.6
2013	67414	3.8	84218	4.7	151632	8.4
2014	60191	3.3	82890	4.5	143081	7.8
2015	58680	3.1	78768	4.2	137448	7.4
2016	56850	3.0	77699	4.1	134548	7.1

Who are the temporary employed?

Figure 1: Characteristics of those in temporary employment, 2016



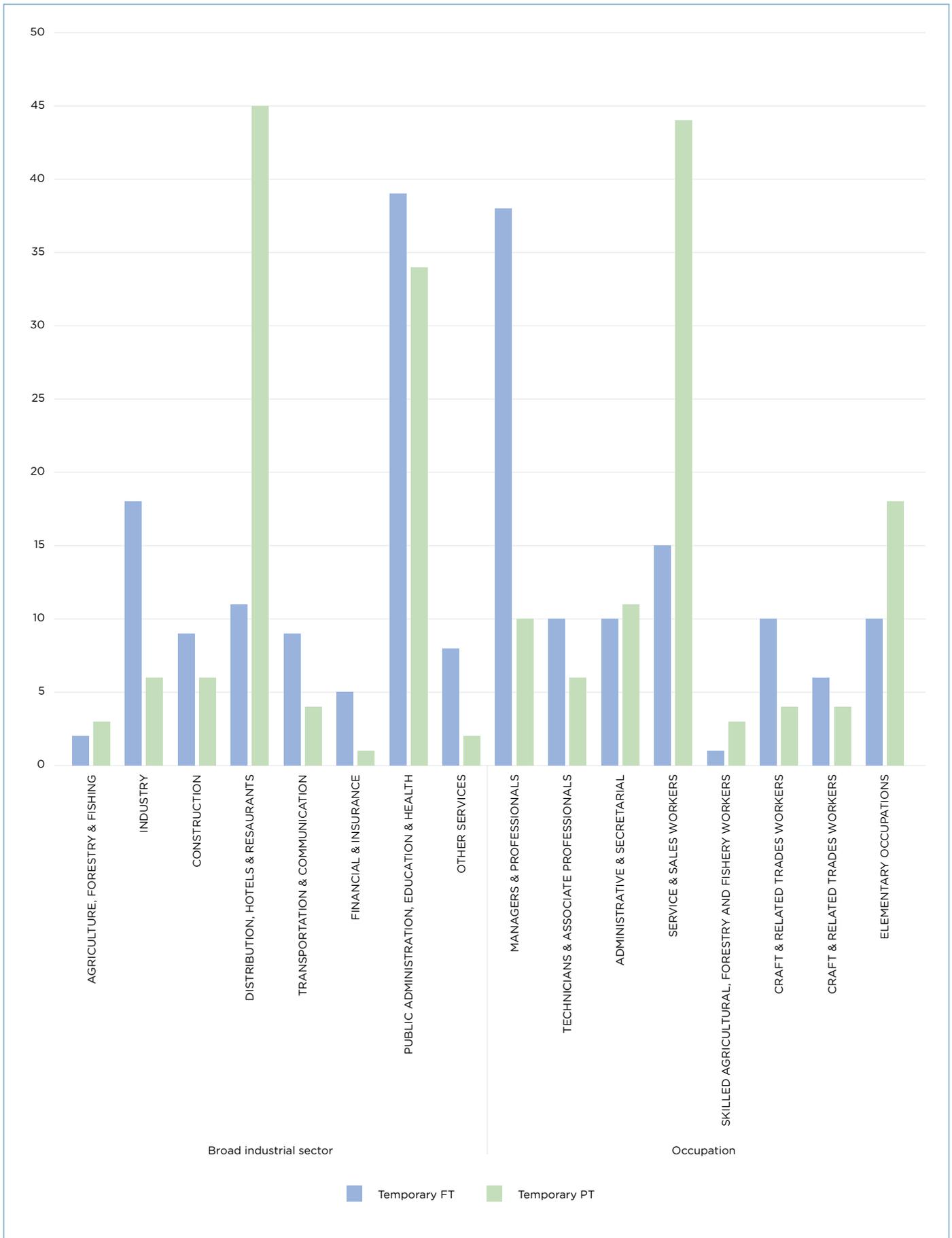
In terms of gender – whilst more women than men are in temporary employment, the majority of those in full-time temporary employment are male (52%). By contrast the majority of part-time temporary employees are female (55%, compared to 45% males). Importantly, however because there are more men than women in the labour market, women are at higher risk of being in both full- and part-time temporary employment.

In terms of age – close to two-thirds of the full-time temporary (61%) and part-time temporary (61%) employed are aged between 15 and 34. This equates to just under 35,000 of the 56,850 who are full-time temporary employed and 47,234 of the 77,698 who are part-time temporary employed and are aged between 15 and 34. The Sixth European Working Conditions Survey found that for workers aged 35 or under, the situation was even more precarious, with over one quarter of these (26%) saying they were on ‘other or no’ contracts – the third highest of the EU28 – while 17% said they were on fixed-term contracts and 3% were on temporary contracts. In total, nearly half (46%) of younger workers were on non-standard contracts. Around one third of the full-time temporary (34%) and part-time temporary employed are aged 35-54.

In terms of education – the majority of full-time (51%) and part-time (81%) temporary employees are educated to below degree level, equating to approximately 90,000 workers. Over 41,000 temporary workers have degree level or higher qualifications, 65% work full-time and 35% work part-time.

Where do the temporary employed work?

Figure 2: Where do the temporary employed work, 2016?



In terms of industrial sector – those working in public administration, education and health comprise close to two-fifths (39%) of the full-time temporary employed. Industry comprises close to 20% of full-time temporary workers. The remaining full-time temporary employees are concentrated in the distribution, hotels and restaurant sector (11%), construction sector (9%), and other services sector (8%).

Part-time temporary employees on the other hand are concentrated in two sectors - 45% of part-time temporary employees are in the distribution, hotels and restaurant sector while 34% are in the public administration, education and health sector.

In terms of occupation – managers and professionals (38%) comprise close to two-fifths of the full-time temporary employed which equates to around 21,600 workers. A further 15% of full-time temporary employees are services and sales workers. Each of the other occupations comprise about 10% of full-time temporary employees, with the exception on plant, machine, operators and assemblers who comprise 6% of full-time temporary employees (3,411 workers).

Some 44% of part-time temporary employees or 34,188 workers are employed as service and sales workers. A further 18% - or approximately 14,000 workers - are in elementary occupations. Managers and professionals and administrative and secretarial workers comprise 21% of part-time temporary workers.

Self-employment without employees

As is clear from Table 3 (below), despite a general decline in the numbers who are self-employed without employees over the period 2008 to 2016, we have seen a sharp increase in the numbers who are part-time self-employed without employees. In fact, comparing the number of part-time self-employed workers without employees in 2008 with that in 2016 shows an increase of 34%.

Part-time self-employment without employees has also been increasing as a proportion of overall self-employment without employees. In 2008 part-time self-employment without employees comprised 13% of total self-employment without employees. By 2016 this figure had increased to 18%. What is more, we have an increase in the share of the overall labour market which is comprised of part-time self-employed workers without employees. This is a worrying development in light of evidence which shows that this is the group of self-employed workers without employees who face the highest risk of precarity.

Table 3: Number of self-employed and percentage as share of labour force, 2008-2016

	S-E w/o emp FT		S-E w/o emp PT		S-E w/o emp	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
2008	184078	9	27073	1.3	211151	10.3
2009	164556	8.7	34654	1.8	199210	10.5
2010	152302	8.4	35174	1.9	187476	10.3
2011	147282	8.3	35396	2.0	182678	11.3
2012	142458	8.1	36280	2.1	178738	10.2
2013	158331	8.8	38161	2.1	196492	10.9
2014	161894	8.9	37336	2.0	199230	10.9
2015	162265	8.7	36374	1.9	198638	10.6
2016	162490	8.5	36201	1.9	198691	10.4

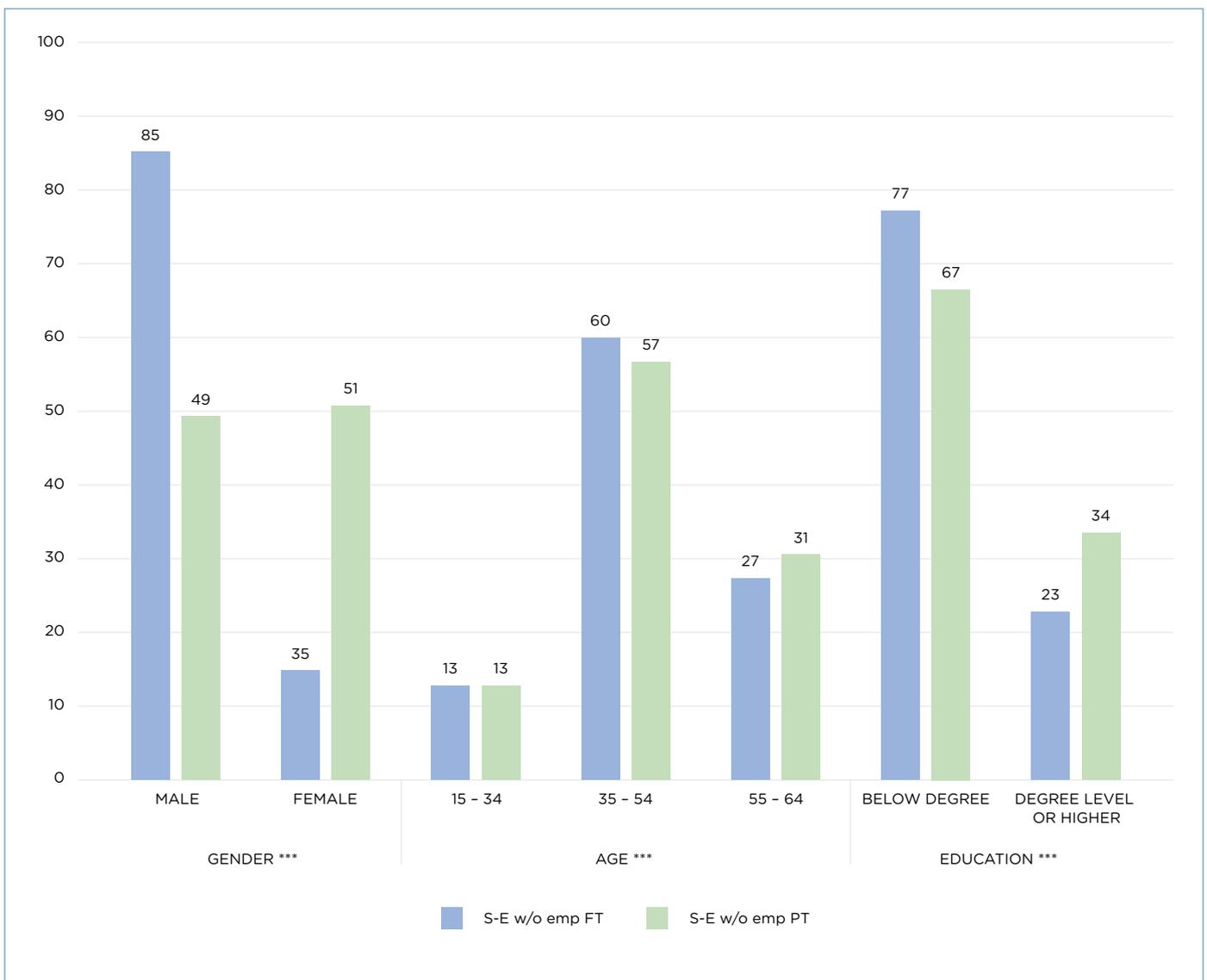
Who are the self-employed without employees?

In terms of gender – over four out of five of the full-time self-employed without employees are male (85%). In contrast, females represent the majority of the part-time self-employed without employees (51%).

In terms of age – the majority of the full-time self-employed without employees are aged between 35-54 with over three out five (60%) of the full-time self-employed without employees and over half of the part-time self-employed without employees, aged between 34-54. However, because there are less people aged 55-64 in the labour market this group is at highest risk of being in self-employment without employees.

In terms of education – the majority of the self-employed without employees are educated to below degree level. However, a higher proportion of the self-employed without employees who work full-time (77%) are educated to below degree level, than those who work part-time (67%).

Figure 3: Characteristics of those in self-employment without employees, 2016



Where do the self-employed without employees work?

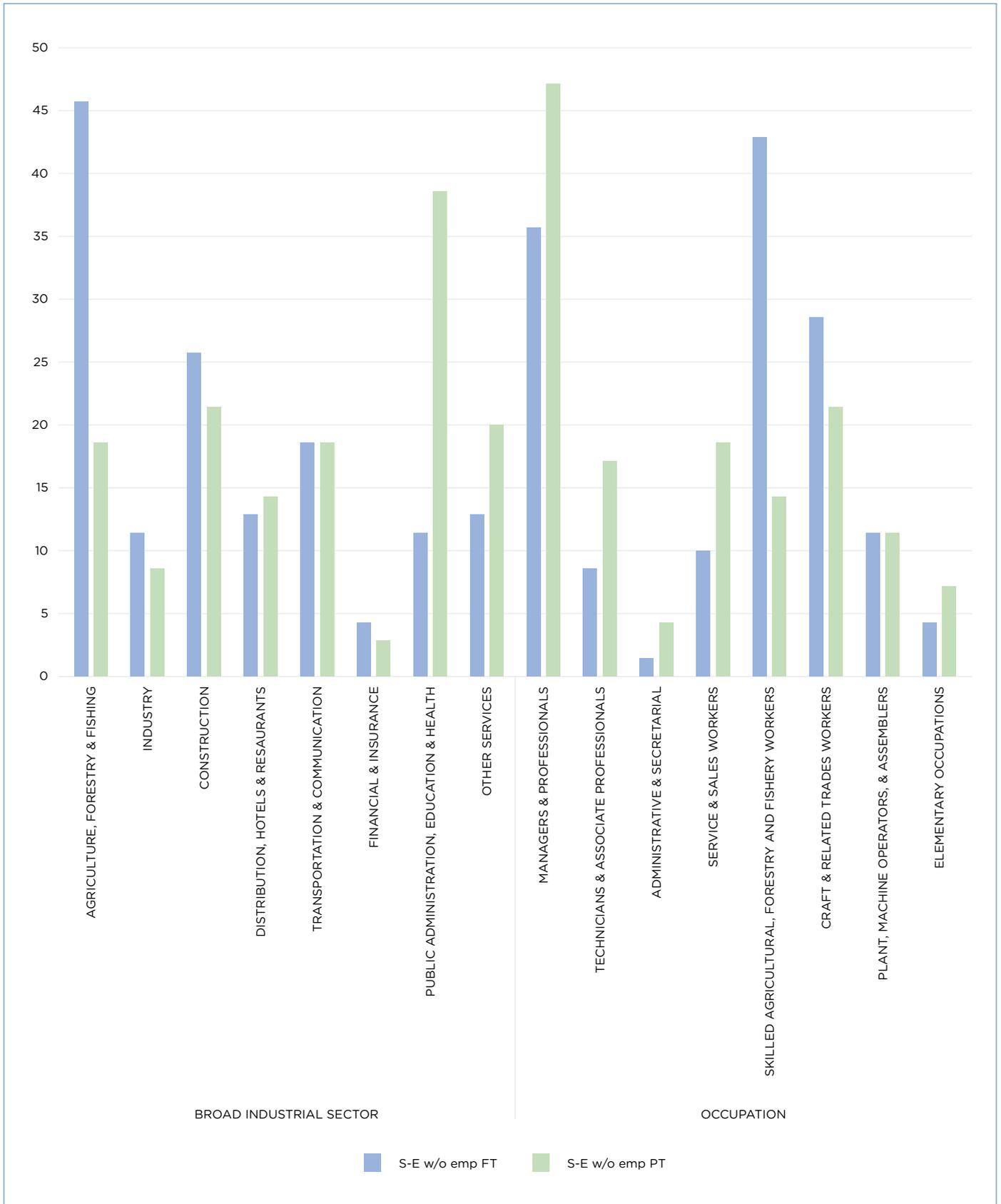
In terms of industrial sector – close to one third of the full-time self-employed without employees work in the agriculture, forestry and fishing sector (32%). A further one in five of the full-time self-employed without employees work in construction (18%). More than one in ten work in the transportation and communication sector (13%). Around 8% of the full-time self-employed without employees work in the following sectors, industry (8%), distribution hotels & restaurant (9%), public administration, education and health (8%), other services (9%). Only a small proportion of the full-time self-employed without employees work in the financial and insurance sector.

The spread of the part-time self-employed workers without employees across sectors differs. Over one in four works in public administration, education and health (27%). Around 1 in 7 works in the construction sector (15%). The rest are spread evenly across the other sectors, with the exception of industry (6%) and the financial and insurance sector (2%) where only a small proportion of the part-time self-employed without employee's work.

In terms of occupation – 75% of the full-time self-employed without employees are concentrated in just three occupations: 30% are skilled agriculture, forestry and fishery workers; 25% are in managerial and professional occupations; and 20% craft and related trade occupations.

Again, the spread of the part-time self-employed without employees across occupations differs from the full-time self-employed without employees. Whilst 1 in 3 of the part-time self-employed without workers is in managerial and professional occupations, only 10% are skilled agriculture, forestry and fishery workers. In contrast to the results for full-time self-employed workers without employees close to 1 in 8 are service and sales workers (13%).

Figure 4: Where do the self-employed without employees work, 2016?



Insecure Working Hours

Analysis of official statistics indicates that in 2016 just over 8%, or close to 163,000 workers were in a job in which they were not able to report their usual working hours because their usual working hours are not reliable and varied either on a week-to-week, or month-to-month basis.

In analysing the groups of workers who are most at risk of having weekly, or monthly hours that vary we see that it is those who are in temporary or own-account self-employment whom are most at risk. Moreover, these workers are most likely to be the wholesale/retail, accommodation/food and health and social work sectors – sectors which are also known to offer extremes of low and high hours⁵. This is particularly worrying because not only do these workers face the greatest level of precarity in terms of the security of their job, but also as a result of their working hours as it is much more difficult for such workers to be able to achieve any sense of security across all aspects of their lives. In essence they cannot plan for the present, or for the future.

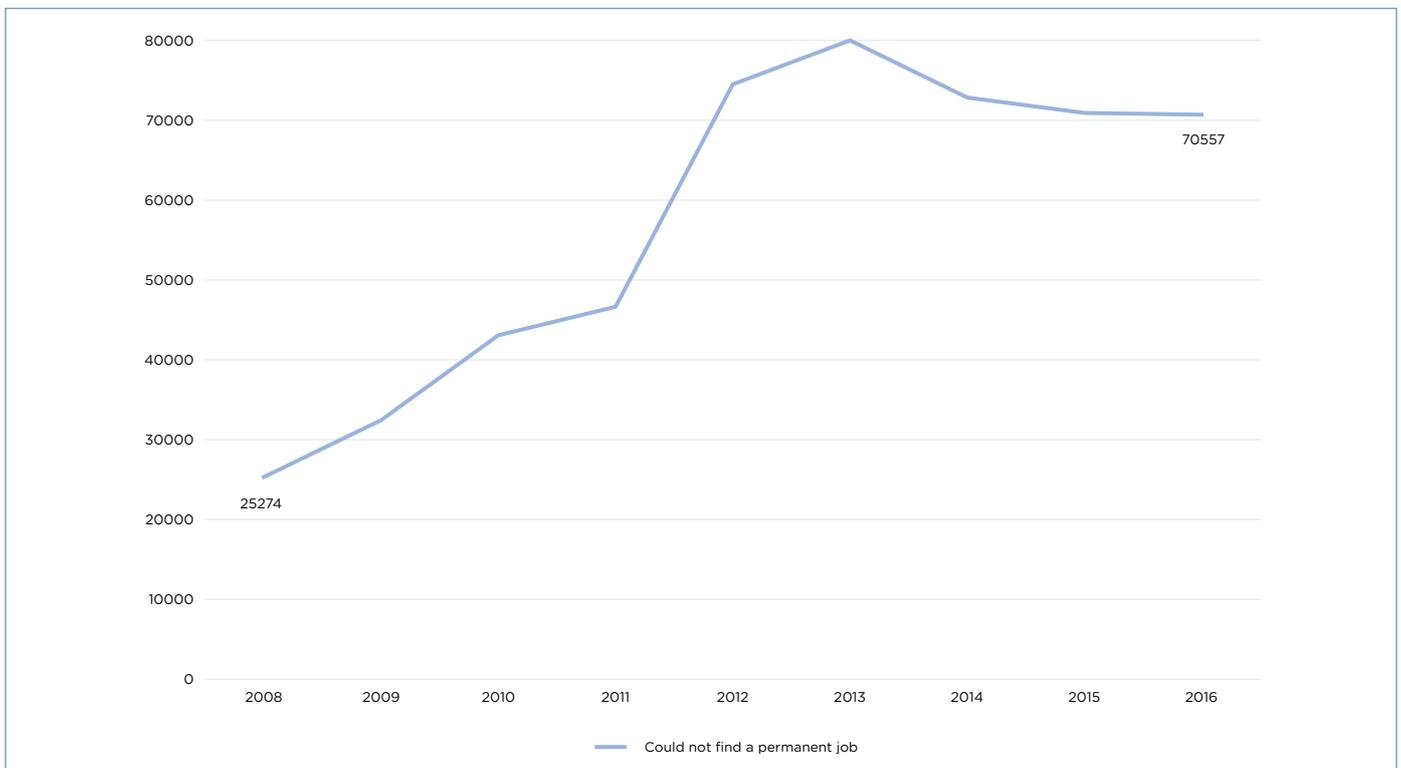
Other Forms of Insecure Employment

It has been argued that the lack of security and the rights and protections associated with the traditional ‘standard’ secure employment is the price that working people choose to pay for the greater flexibility that new forms of work can offer. But there is significant evidence that for a large proportion of workers these insecure forms of employment are not chosen, but rather are imposed on the worker.

Involuntary temporary employment

Analysis shows when asked their reasons for working in temporary employment over 1 in 2 or approximately 70,500 workers in 2016 said it was because they could not find permanent work. What is more, as can be seen from Figure 5 below, the number of workers in involuntary temporary employment has risen drastically since 2008 - increasing by over 45,000 workers. This equates to a 179% increase over the period.

Figure 5: Numbers in temporary employment because they could not find a permanent job, 2008-2016



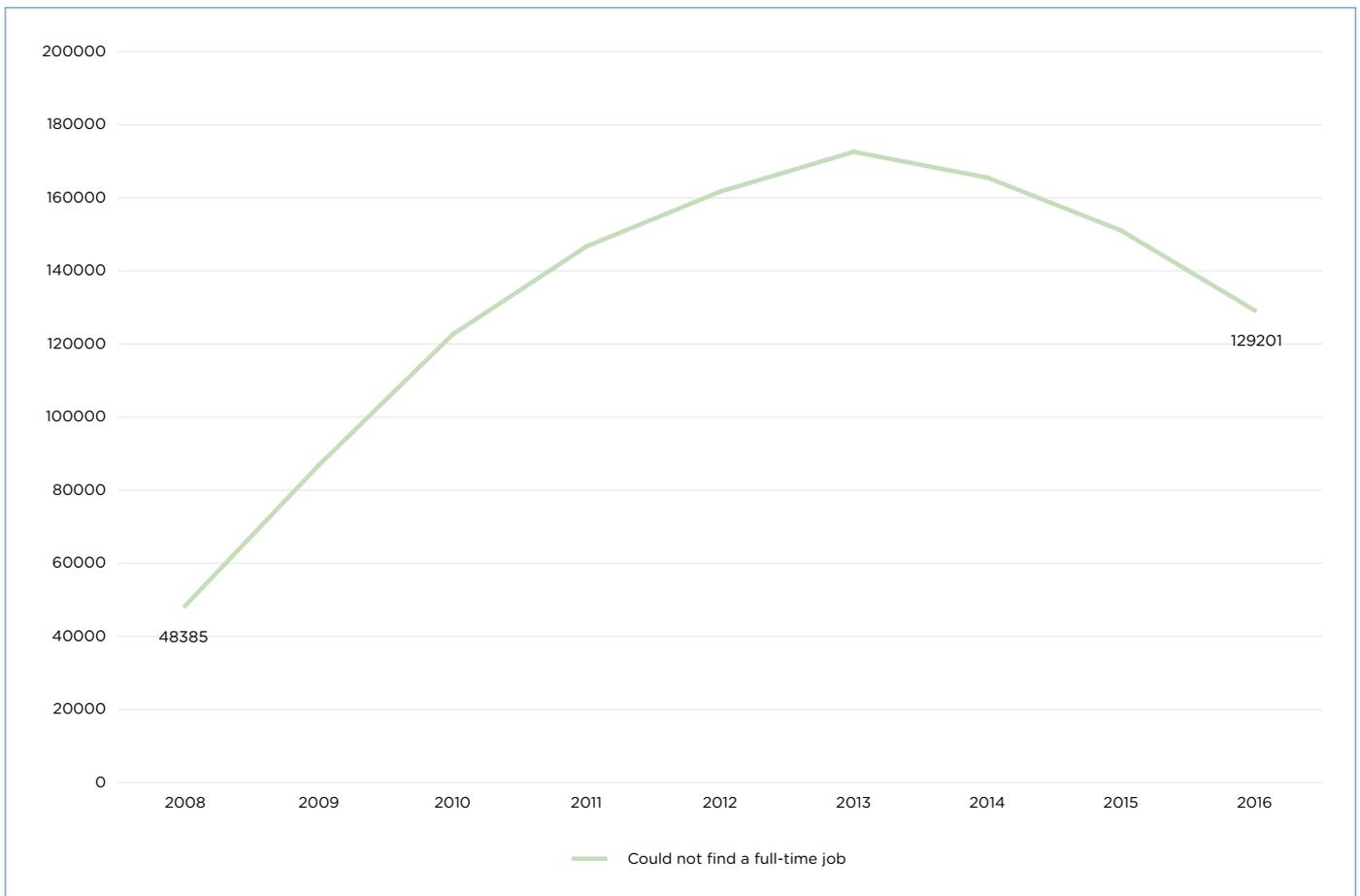
5 Murphy, M. P. (2017) 'Irish Flex In-security: The Post-crisis Reality for Vulnerable Workers in Ireland', *Social Policy and Administration*, 51(2): 308-327.

Involuntary part-time employment

In 2016, almost 1 in 3 or approximately 129,200 workers in part-time employment were not working in such arrangements out of choice or because of the flexibility that such employment arrangements offered, but rather were doing so because they could not find a full-time job.

Looking over time, as shown in Figure 6 below, we can see that there has been an increase since 2008 of approximately 80,000 workers who are involuntary part-time employed. In other words, a 167% increase. Thus whilst the numbers of involuntary part-time workers has started to decline in more recent years, there is still some way to go to recover lost ground and return to 2008 levels where just over 1 in 10 workers were involuntary part-time employed.

Figure 6: Numbers in part-time employment because they could not find a full-time job, 2008–2016



Section Five: Trends and Patterns in Precarious Employment in Northern Ireland

11.4%

of the workforce is self-employed without employees

6%

of the workforce are employed in
temporary, non-permanent arrangements

25%

increase in the number of workers who are in
temporary employment over the period 2008 to 2016

Section Five: Trends and Patterns in Precarious Employment in Northern Ireland

Summary of trends and patterns in precarious employment in Northern Ireland:

- 6% of the workforce are employed in temporary, non-permanent arrangements.
- 11.4% of the workforce is self-employed without employees, an increase of 1.6% as a share of the labour force over the period 2008 to 2016.
- The number of workers self-employed without employees has increased significantly since 2008. Most significant has been the more than doubling in the numbers who are part-time self-employed without employees.
- There has been a 25% increase in the number of workers who are in temporary employment over the period 2008 to 2016.
- There has been a 43% increase in the numbers involuntary temporary employed and a 35% increase in the numbers involuntary part-time employed over the period 2008 to 2016.

To examine patterns and trends in precarious employment we use the conceptual and measurement framework outlined in Section 3. For the analysis, we have used the Northern Ireland element of the UK Labour Force Survey, a large, nationally representative survey, carried out by the Office for National Statistics. Analysis is focused on those aged between 15 and 64.

The decline of the traditional 'standard' of full-time permanent employment

In Table 4 across we see that the vast majority of those in the labour market are in permanent full-time employment, with 61.5% of the labour force employed in this manner, in 2016. Nevertheless, looking over the period 2008 and 2016 we see that the trend is towards a decreasing number of 'standard' full-time, permanent jobs.

Thus, while we see an increase in the number of workers employed in permanent full-time employment over the period 2008 to 2016, when we compare the overall structure of the labour market in 2008 with 2016 - as shown in Table 4 across - we see a 1.6% decline in the percentage of the labour market comprised of full-time permanent jobs.

Table 4: Permanent full-time employees as a proportion of labour force, NI

	Number	Percentage as share of labour force
2008	484078	63.1
2009	474922	62.7
2010	470049	62.4
2011	467677	63.6
2012	490087	63.5
2013	482162	61.8
2014	476184	64.4
2015	500893	63.5
2016	499931	61.5

The extent of precarious employment

Temporary employment

The number of workers in temporary employment has risen significantly since 2008. In the last quarter of 2016 it is estimated that there were close to 46,000 workers in Northern Ireland in some kind of temporary non-permanent work, equating to just under 6% of the overall workforce, compared to approximately 36,600 workers or 4.8% of the overall workforce in 2008.

All in all, this represents a 25% increase in the number of workers who are in temporary employment over the period.

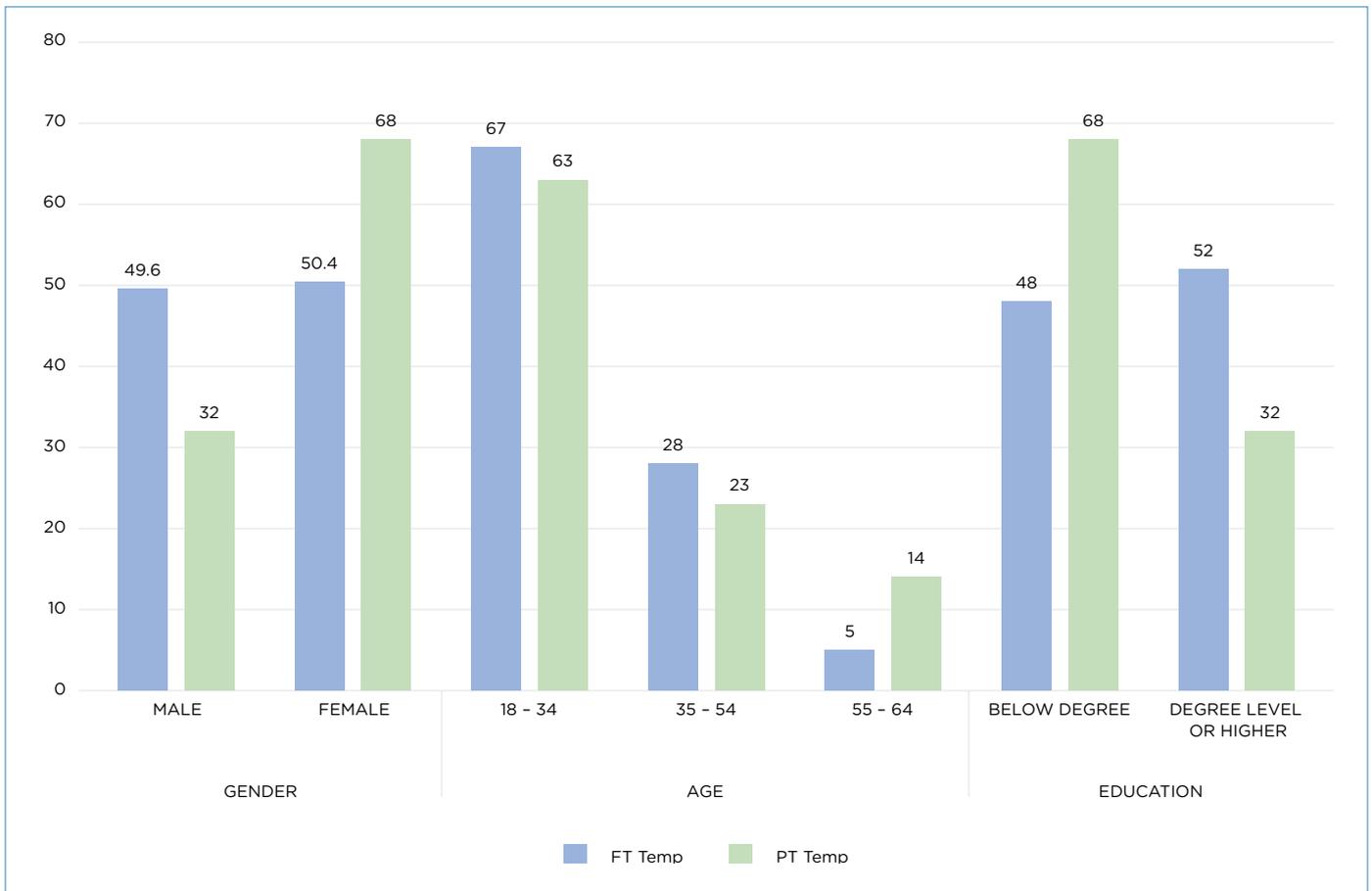
The recent fall back between 2015 and 2016 in the numbers of temporary employed appears to be driven almost entirely by a fall back in the number of workers in full-time temporary employment, with the number of workers who are part-time temporary employed continuing to rise. Indeed, looking at a breakdown of full-time and part-time temporary employees shows that the most significant form of temporary employment – and where the largest increases have taken place over time – is in part-time temporary employment. In the last quarter of 2016 it is estimated that there were over 26,000 workers in part-time temporary employment, up from 18,200 in the last quarter of 2008.

Table 5: Number of temporary employees and percentage as share of labour force, 2008-2016

	Temp FT		Temp PT		All Temp	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Oct-Dec '08	18381	2.4	18200	2.4	36581	4.8
Oct-Dec '09	13954	1.9	20805	2.8	34759	4.7
Oct-Dec '10	18907	2.5	18495	2.5	37402	5.0
Oct-Dec '11	16468	2.1	15187	2.0	31655	4.1
Oct-Dec '12	15631	2.1	23117	3.0	38748	5.1
Oct-Dec '13	21714	2.8	26314	3.4	48028	6.2
Oct-Dec '14	24451	3.1	22363	2.9	46814	6.0
Oct-Dec '15	24302	3.1	23737	3.0	48039	6.1
Oct-Dec '16	19469	2.4	26261	3.3	45730	5.7

Who are the temporary employed?

Figure 7: Characteristics of those in temporary employment, 2016



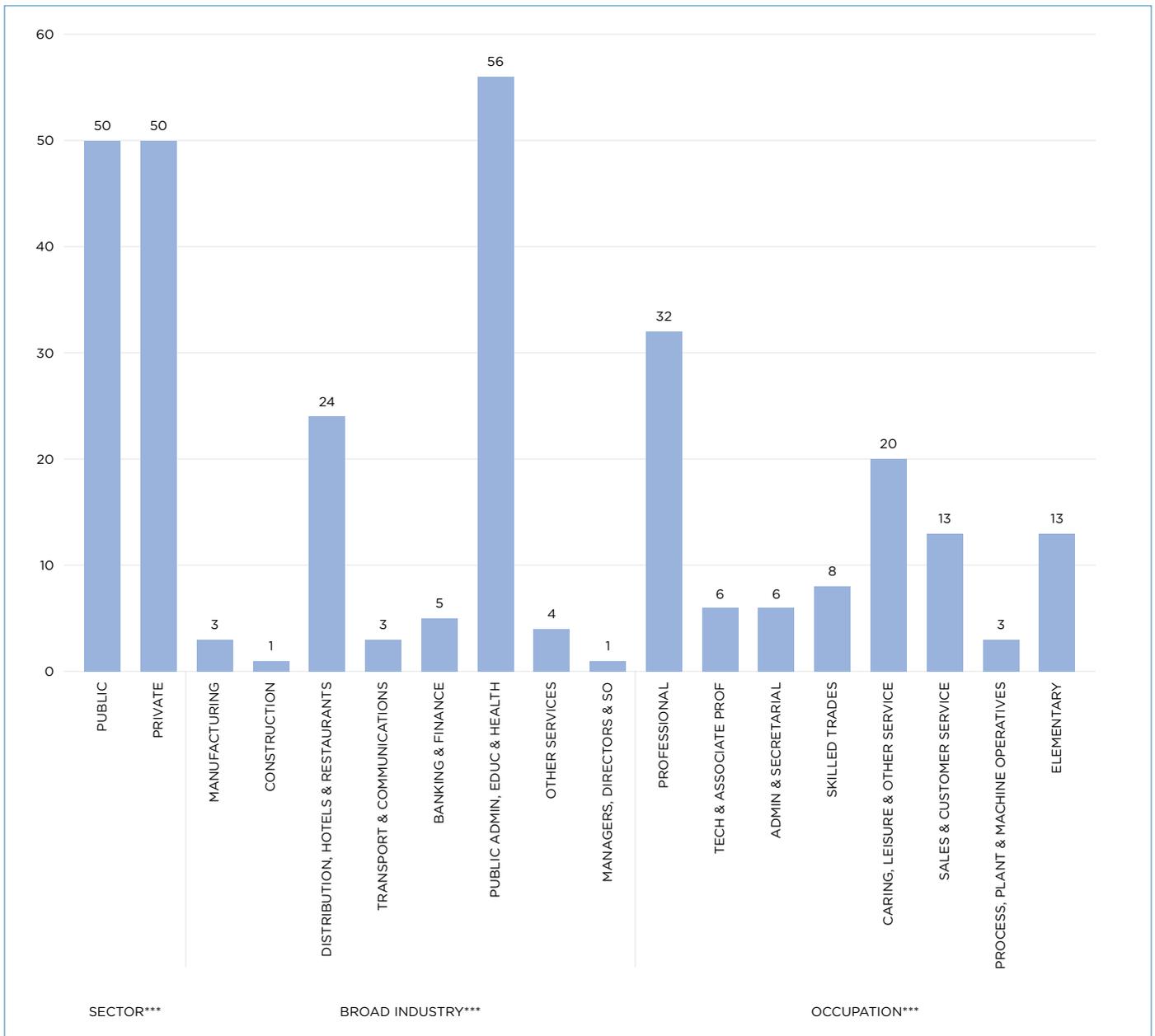
In terms of gender – on the whole females are much more likely to work in temporary employment than males, with approximately 27,700 females in temporary employment compared to approximately 18,000 males. Nonetheless, closely equal proportions of males (49.6%) and females (50.4%) comprise the full-time temporary employed. The difference is accounted for by the fact that the majority of part-time temporary employees are female (68%, compared to 32% males).

In terms of age – the majority of those who are in temporary employed are aged 18-34. Close to two-thirds of 18-34 comprise the full-time temporary and part-time employed. This equates to approximately 13,000 of the 19,469-full-time temporary employed, and approximately 16,500 of the 26,261-part-time temporary employed.

In terms of education – the majority of full-time temporary employees are educated to degree level or higher (52%). The opposite is the case for those in part-time temporary employment where over two-thirds have below degree level qualifications (68%).

Where do the temporary employed work?

Figure 8: Where do the temporary employed work, 2016



In terms of sector - in 2016, closely similar proportions of temporary workers are employed in the private and public sector. This is a striking development when we compare the 2016 figures with those for 2008 where 60% of temporary workers were in the private sector, and 40% were in the public sector.

In terms of industry - those working in public administration, education and health comprise over half of the temporary employed (56%). Close to a further quarter or approximately 10,100 of the 41,587 workers who are in temporary employment are employed in the distribution, hotels and restaurant sector (24%).

In terms of occupation - professionals comprise close to one-third of the temporary employed (32%) or approximately 14,600 workers. A further fifth work in caring, leisure and other service occupations (20%), while some 13% of temporary workers are in sales and customer service and elementary occupations.

Self-employment without employees

The number of people in self-employment without employees has risen substantially since 2008. By the end of 2016 there were 17,000 more people self-employed without employees than there was at the end of 2008. This equates to a 23% increase in the numbers self-employed without employees. As a share of the overall labour force self-employed workers without employees increased from 9.8% to 11.4%.

As shown in Table 6 below the majority of the increase in the numbers of people in self-employment without employment has been driven by those working part-time. The number of self-employed without employees working part-time has more than doubled between 2008 and 2016, from 9,318 to 20,060.

Table 6: Number of self-employed and percentage as share of labour force, 2008–2016

	S-E FT w/o employees		S-E PT w/o employees		Total S-E w/o employees	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Oct-Dec '08	64939	8.6	9318	1.2	74257	9.8
Oct-Dec '09	71274	9.5	12517	1.7	83791	11.2
Oct-Dec '10	66366	8.9	19221	2.6	85587	11.5
Oct-Dec '11	66967	8.7	16034	2.1	83001	10.8
Oct-Dec '12	57229	7.5	12887	1.7	70116	9.2
Oct-Dec '13	68259	8.9	16726	2.2	84985	11.1
Oct-Dec '14	65502	8.4	12714	1.6	78216	10
Oct-Dec '15	60976	7.7	15355	1.9	76331	9.6
Oct-Dec '16	71205	8.9	20060	2.5	91265	11.4

Note: S-E FT w/o employees = Self-employed full-time without employees; S-E PT w/o employees = Self-employed part-time without employees.

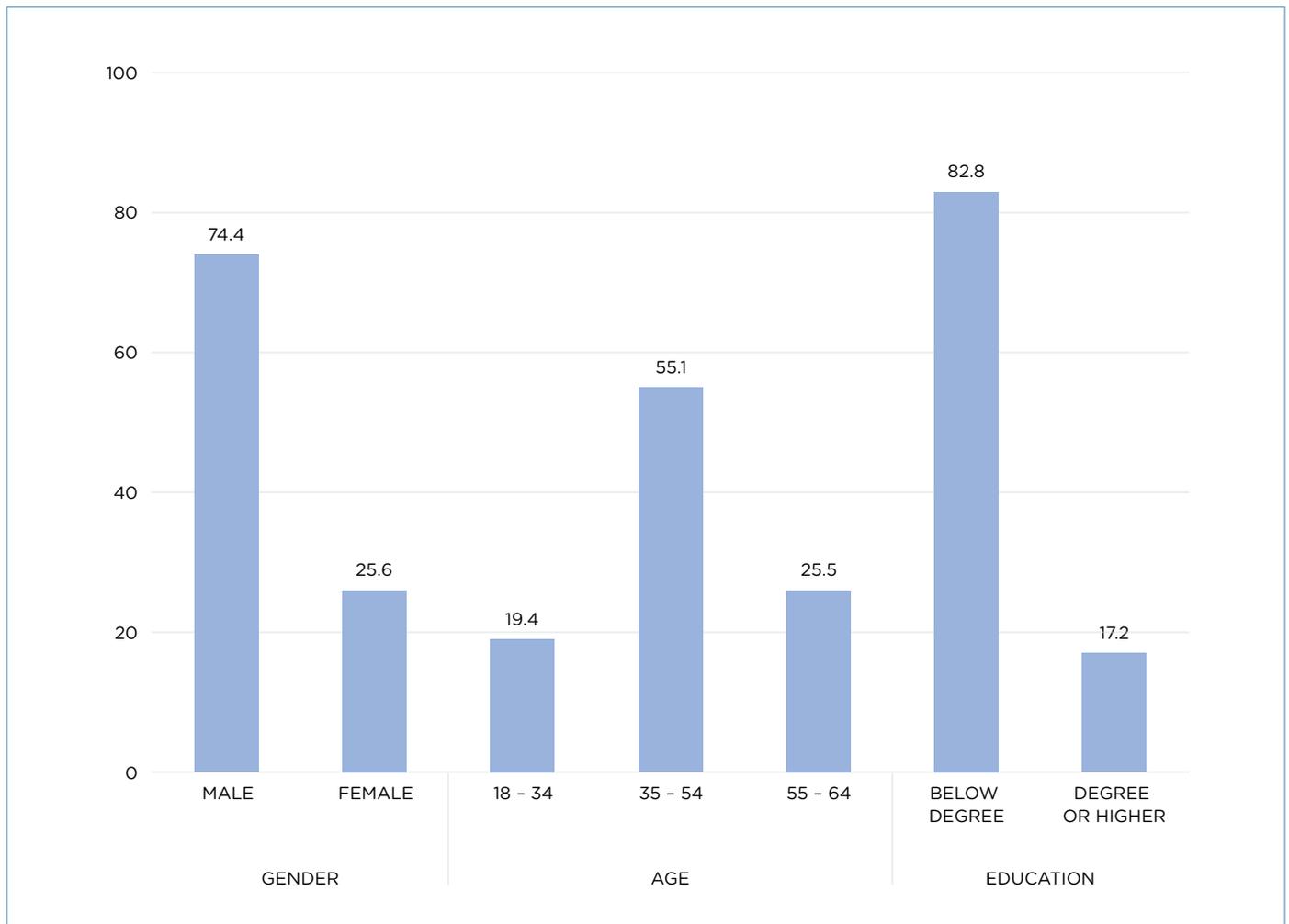
Who are the self-employed without employees?

In terms of gender – close to three out of four of the self-employed without employees are male (74%).

In terms of age – the majority of the self-employed without employees are aged between 35-54 with over one in two (55%) of the self-employed without employees between 34-54. However, because there are less people aged 55-64 in the labour market this group is at highest risk of being in self-employment without employees, with almost 1 in 5 of those aged 55-64 self-employed without employees.

In terms of education – over four out of five of the self-employed without employees are educated to below degree level (83%). Less than one out of five of the self-employed without employees have degree level or higher qualifications.

Figure 9: Characteristics of the self-employed without employees

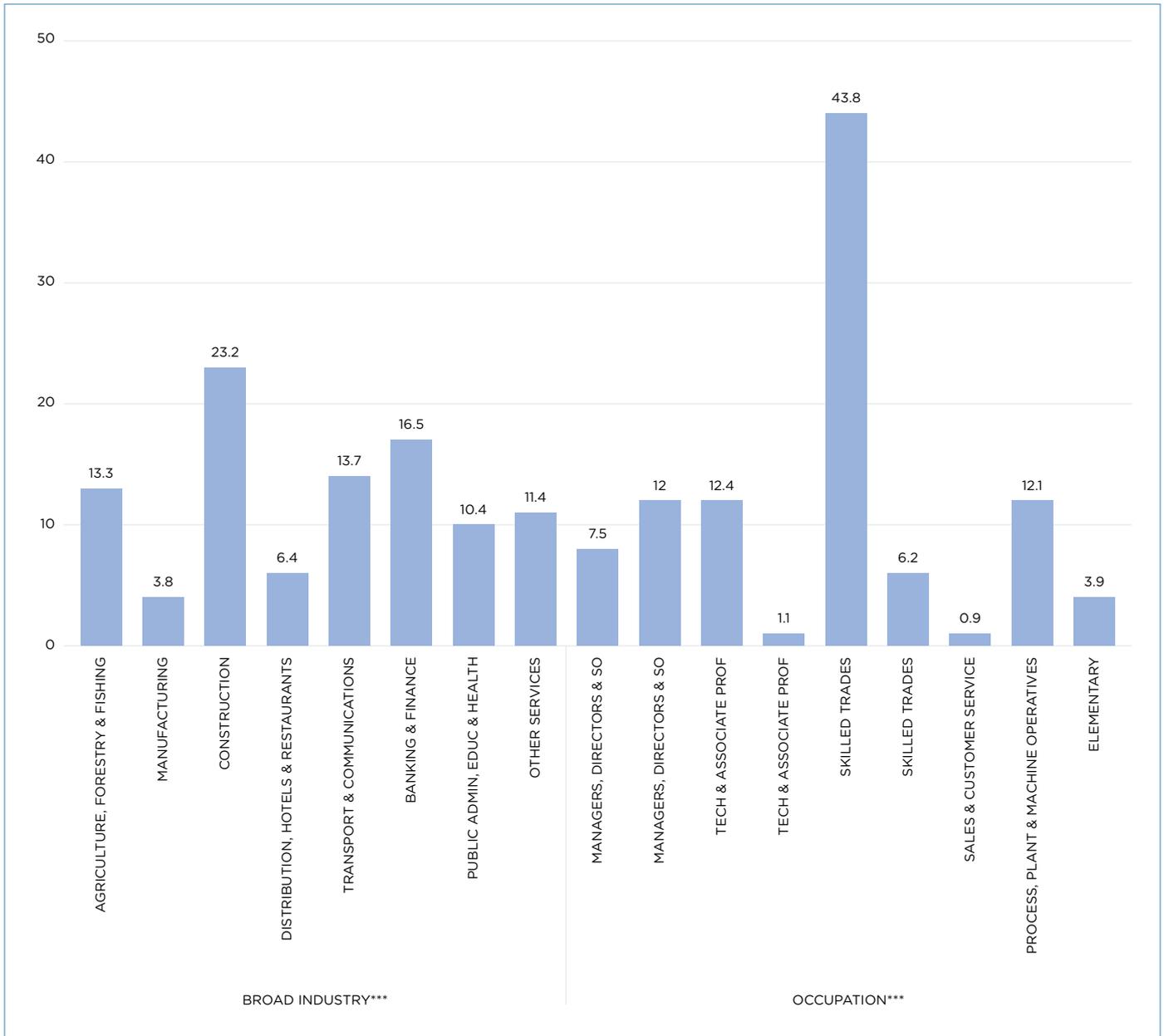


Where do the self-employed without employee's work?

In terms of industry – almost one in four of the self-employed without employees work in the construction sector (23%). A further one in six are in banking and finance (17%), with one in seven in the transport and communication sector (14%). The remainder of the self-employed without employees are spread fairly evenly across the other sectors, with the exception of manufacturing (4%) and distribution, hotels and restaurants (6%) where only a small proportion of the self-employed without employee's work.

In terms of occupation – just less than 1 in 2 of the self-employed without employees are in skilled trades occupations (44%). Together, over a third are in professional (12%); technical and associate professional occupations (12%); and process, plant and machine operative occupations (12%)

Figure 10: Where do the self-employed without employees work, 2016

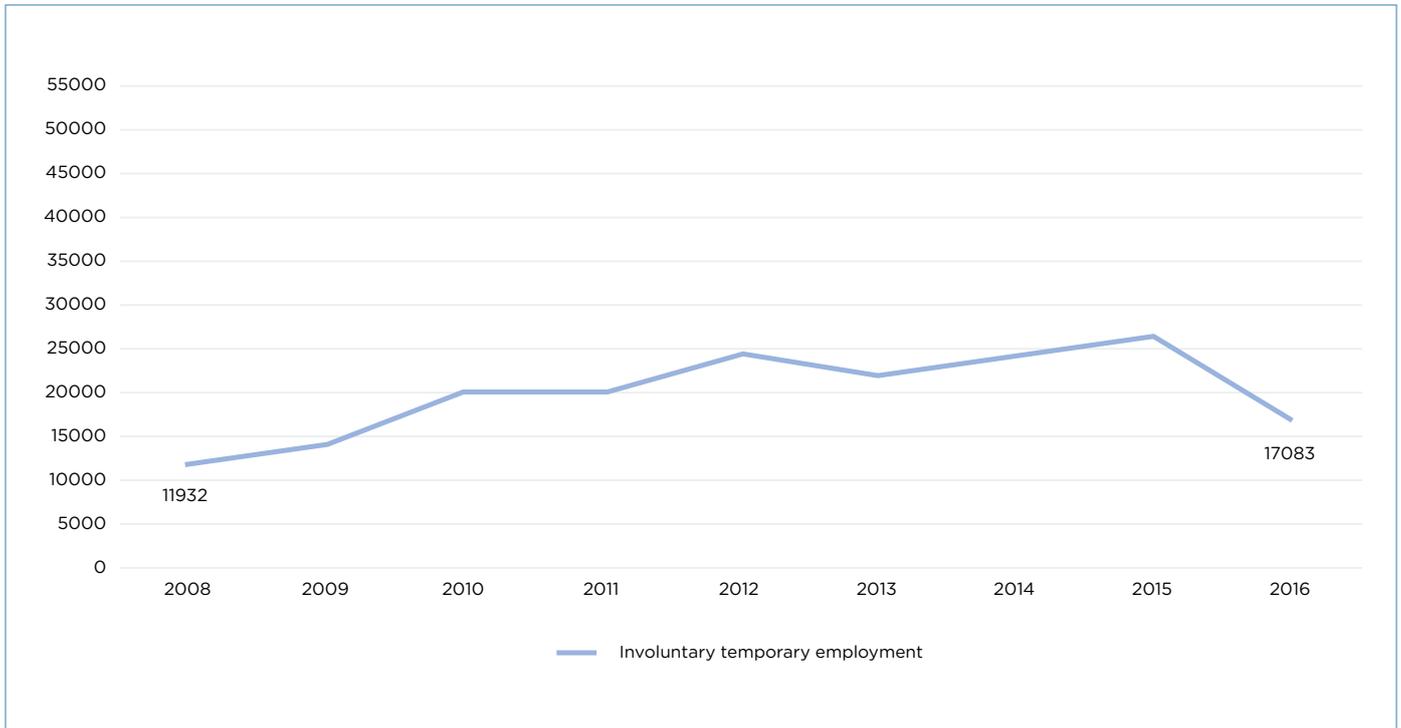


Other forms of insecure employment

Involuntary temporary employment

In 2016 over one in three workers in temporary employment or approximately 17,083 workers in Northern Ireland said that they only took a temporary job because no permanent job was available. Looking over time the analysis presented in Figure 11 below shows that despite a drop in the year 2015 to 2016, when we compare the figures for 2008 with those in 2016 we see an overall increase in the numbers involuntary temporarily employed of around 5,000 workers. This equates to a 43% increase in the numbers involuntary temporarily employed over the period.

Figure 11: Numbers of involuntary temporary employed, 2008–2016

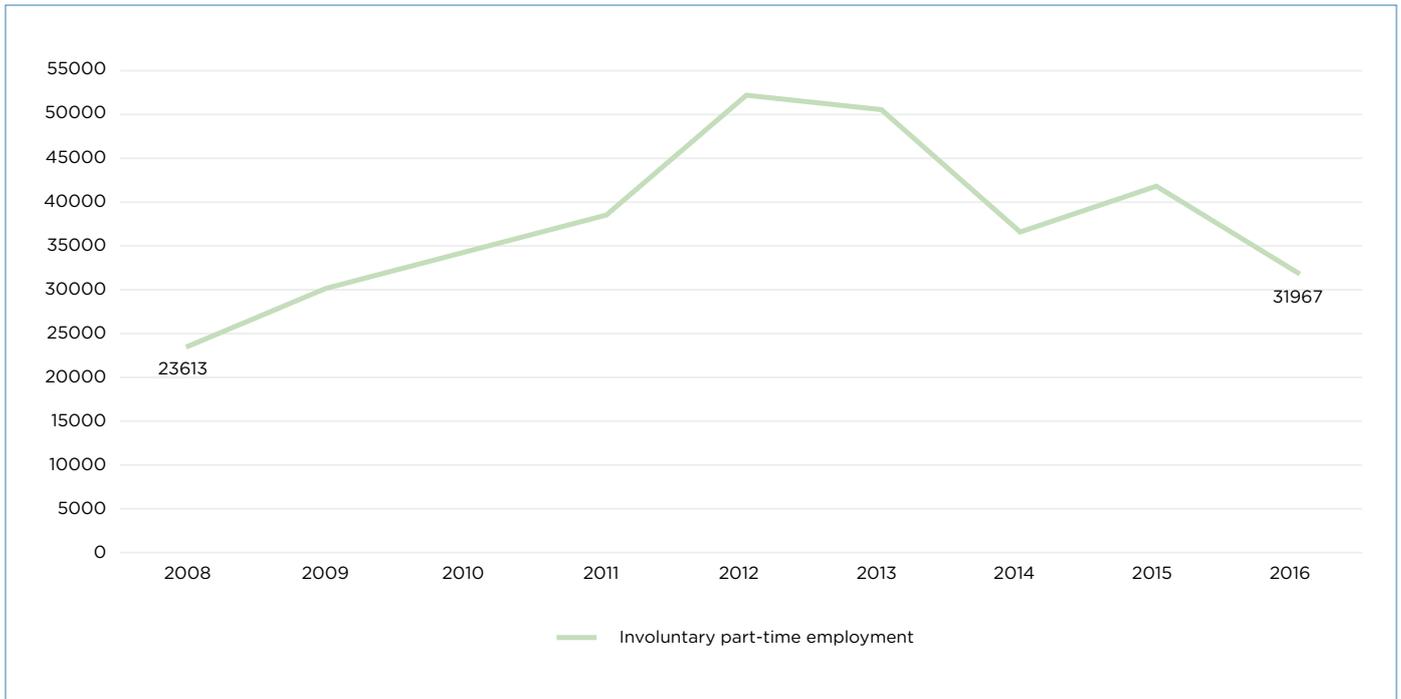


Involuntary part-time employment

In the last quarter of 2016 over one in six workers in part-time employment, or around 4% of the entire workforce, said that they were only working part-time because they could not find a full-time job.

Overall, there has been a substantial increase over time in part-time workers unable to find a full-time job. In particular we have seen increasing numbers of workers reporting to be in a part-time job because they could not find a full-time job between 2008 and 2012. Since then we have seen a general decline in the numbers of workers part-time employed because they are unable to find a full-time job. Nonetheless, the number of workers involuntarily part-time employed is still around 35% higher than it was in 2008. In 2008 there was approximately 23,600 workers involuntarily part-time employed. By 2016 this had increased to just under 32,000 workers.

Figure 12: Numbers of involuntary part-time employed, 2008- 2016



Despite a drop in recent years in the numbers of involuntary temporary and involuntary part-time employed, the fact that neither the proportions of involuntary temporary employed or involuntary part-time employed have returned close to their pre-recession rates even as employment has increased raises concerns that such undesirable situations have not tracked the recovery in terms of the numbers of people in employment and may remain as a more prominent feature of the labour market for the longer term.

Section Six: What is Driving the Rise in Precarious Employment?

"Although still relatively small in scale, platform work is largely-based on precarious employment arrangements whereby workers are generally employed on an on-demand, zero hours or 'pay-as-you-go' basis."

Section Six: What is Driving the Rise in Precarious Employment?

Globalisation

The growth of global supply chains and new technologies are key factors driving the growth in precarious employment. New information technologies, higher quality and lower cost infrastructure, and improvements in logistics and transportation have enabled businesses to manage, organise and compare the costs of suppliers at a global level. This has resulted in intense price competition between supplier firms at all points of the supply chain to respond to demands for low cost and speedy delivery (ILO, 2016). In response, many supplier firms have sought to take the 'low road' approach to production and employment at the expense of job security, job quality, and wages⁶.

Technological improvements

The increasing standardisation of production and simplification of tasks brought about by new technologies is also a key driving factor of precarious employment. With increased standardisation tasks can be performed by less skilled workers, who need less training, are paid less, and whom can be brought in at short notice for a temporary period of time. This facilitates the increased use of precarious employment practices as there is more of an incentive to cut costs wherever possible and less of an incentive to cultivate long-term employment relationships⁷.

More recent technological developments, such as the growth of digitally based work platforms have offered employers a way of matching demand and supply of specific working activities online or via mobile apps. Commonly cited examples of such platforms include Uber, AirBnB, and Task Rabbit. Although still relatively small in scale, platform work is largely-based on precarious employment arrangements whereby workers are generally employed on an on-demand, zero hours or 'pay-as-you-go' basis⁸ (OECD, 2016).

Changes in labour law, their enforcement and the loss of workers' rights

Throughout the last three decades we have seen an overall rolling back of workers' rights gained in the aftermath of the two world wars. The European Union recently played a key role here in terms of operationalising the ideas of labour market flexibility and deregulation, most notably evidenced through the Troika recommendations in Ireland and other programme countries, such as Greece and Spain.

⁶ Evans, J. and Gibb, E. (2009) *Moving from Precarious Employment to Decent Work*, Geneva: International Labour Organisation.

⁷ Smith, M. (2005) 'The incidence of new forms of employment in service activities', In Bosch, G. and Lehndorff, S. (eds) *Working in the service sector: A tale from different worlds*, New York: Routledge, p. 29-49. Uzzi, B. and Barsness, Z.I. (1998) 'Contingent employment in British Establishments: Organisational determinants of the use of fixed-term hires and part-time workers', *Social Forces*, 76(3): 967- 1005.

⁸ International Labour Organisation (2016) *The rise of the 'just-in-time workforce': On-demand work, crowdwork and labour protection in the 'gig-economy'*, Conditions of work and employment series No 71, Geneva, Switzerland: ILO.

Distorted incentives

State-led labour market activation programmes have been criticised for contributing to the rise of precarious work where it is argued that social security systems for workers under certain hours or income thresholds have created incentives for firms to employ workers in precarious arrangements to lower costs. For example, in the Republic of Ireland those in precarious employment can be entitled to Jobseekers' payments if they are working less than full-time. The Republic of Ireland government policy of reducing employers' PRSI on low-paid work, made part-time jobs cheaper for employers. This incentivises employers to hire two part-time workers rather than one full-time worker. The state tops up the earnings of individual workers and subsidises the employer by helping them cut PRSI costs and other employee benefits.

Social welfare is not a disincentive to work. People can feel pressured by the social protection system to accept work which they believe is insecure with non-guaranteed or low hours, according to a 2015 study from the University of Limerick.

Section Seven: The Impact of Precarious Employment

"A considerable amount of evidence shows that precarious employment has a causal negative effect on the physical and mental health outcomes of workers."

Section Seven: The Impact of Precarious Employment

For workers

The lack of employment security is a key indicator of employment quality in its own right but precarious employment has also been found to be linked to working conditions and a range of other aspects of employment quality. A large body of research evidence shows that those who are precariously employed have a much higher risk of having 'bad' or poor-quality employment when assessed across a range of other job quality dimensions⁹. The precariously employed have a high risk of:

- Low pay.
- Very short or very long working hours.
- Occupational safety and health risks.
- Lower job satisfaction.
- Less on-the-job training.
- Low social security coverage.
- Less worker representation.
- Not enjoying key rights at work such as holiday pay, parental leave and so on.
- Lower likelihood of promotion.

It is often said that participation in precarious employment is better for individuals than not participating in the labour market at all, as it at least offers opportunities for skills development, allows individuals to adapt to labour market participation, provides opportunities for workers to expand their social and professional networks and, ultimately, provides a 'stepping-stone' to a future career in a high-quality job. However, a number of studies investigating this issue have found that there is a significant long-term wage penalty of having held at least one precarious job¹⁰. One study estimates that even with 10

years of full-time experience men suffer a 12% wage penalty, and women workers suffer one of 9%¹¹.

Furthermore, precarious employment has also been found to have a negative impact on the living standards of workers with research showing that employment insecurity can result in income insecurity leaving workers and their families at higher risk of poverty¹².

Precarious employment also has a detrimental effect on a worker's ability to secure a home because of the uncertainty in employment and subsequent lack of security of income. Evidence shows that precarious workers find it more difficult to get access to credit, and housing, because banks and landlords prefer workers with stable jobs and regular incomes¹³.

Furthermore, a considerable amount of evidence shows that precarious employment has a causal negative effect on the physical and mental health outcomes of workers¹⁴. Worryingly, some studies have found that the extent of the negative impact of job insecurity on physical and mental health can be as large as the effect of unemployment. This directly contradicts the old maxim that 'any job is better than no job'¹⁵.

9 International Labour Organisation (2016) *Non-standard employment around the world: Understanding challenges, shaping prospects*, Geneva: ILO.

10 Booth, L., Francesconi, M. and Frank, J. (2002) 'Temporary Jobs: Stepping Stones or Dead Ends?', *The Economic Journal*, 112(480): 189-213.

Gagliarducci, S., (2005) 'The Dynamics of Repeated

Temporary Jobs', *Labor Economics*, 12(4): 429- 448.

11 Booth, A.L., Francesconi, M. and Frank, J. (2000) *Temporary jobs: Who gets them, what are they worth, and do they lead anywhere?*, No 2000-13, ISER Working Paper Series, University of Essex, Essex: Institute for Social and Economic Research.

12 Bradshaw, J., Bennett, F. and Mayhew, E. (2010) *In-work poverty and labour market segmentation: A Study of National Policies*, Peer Review in Social Protection and Social Inclusion and Assessment in Social Inclusion, European Commission.

13 ILO (2011) *Policies and Regulations to Combat Precarious Employment*, Geneva: ILO.

14 Green, F. *Health effects of job insecurity: Job insecurity adversely affects health but fair workplace practices and employee participation can mitigate the effects*, IZA World of Labour, UCL Institute of Education.

Sverke, M., Hellgren, J. and Naswall, K. 'No Security: A meta-analysis and review of job insecurity and its consequences', *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 7(3): 242-264.

15 László, K.D., Pikhart, H., Kopp, M.S., Bobak, M., Pajak,

Precarious employment also has been found to have a negative effect on a worker's social relationships and family formation with insecure workers reporting having to delay marriage and family formation until they can find secure employment. It is easy to understand the rationale influencing such decisions here, because clearly if one cannot predict or have certainty about the continuity of their work they are less likely to plan to have a child¹⁶. Furthermore, females in precarious employment may have difficulties in obtaining maternity leave.

For employers and business

It is often argued that the ability to utilise a flexible workforce via temporary, insecure forms of employment helps employers manage more efficiently fluctuations in supply and demand. However, a considerable body of research suggests that there are significant 'hidden managerial costs' associated with their use that are both rigid and costly to the employer in the long run¹⁷.

Specifically, research has found that extensive use of precarious forms of employment undermines competitiveness as administrative, managerial, human resource and capital costs can be higher, employee commitment lower, and team working and co-operation between staff lower¹⁸.

Research shows that whilst the utilisation of insecure employment arrangements can bring short term gains in terms of cost savings and matching of number of employees to the number that is needed, these need to be considered alongside the longer-term losses in productivity which are associated with use of employees who do not possess firm-specific skills, receive less training, and whose skills and abilities are poorly matched with the requirements of the firm.¹⁹

Other research has found that use of insecure forms of employment slows down innovation within businesses, not least because temporary workers by their very nature have a higher likelihood of moving from firm-to-firm for short periods of time, raising the likelihood that they will carry with them to competitors' firm-specific knowledge and know-how. In addition, clearly if an employer continually relies on temporary workers there will be a cumulative reduction in the firm-specific knowledge required for long-term innovation and productivity.

A., Malyutina, S., Salavec, G. and Marmot, M. 'Job insecurity and health: A study of 16 European countries', *Social Science & Medicine*, 70(6): 867-874.

Llena-Nozal, A. (2009) 'The effect of work status and working conditions on mental health in four OECD countries', *National Institute Economic Review*, 209(1): 72-87.

Virtanen, P., U. Janlert, and A. Hammarström. (2011) 'Exposure to temporary employment and job insecurity: A longitudinal study of the health effects', *Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, 68(8): 570-574.

Caroli, E., and Godard, M. (2013) 'Does job insecurity deteriorate health?', n2013-01. 2013, Paris: *Paris School of Economics*.

16 Bobek, A. (2017) *Social implications of precarious work: Possible consequences of atypical employment*, TASC Blog, Dublin: TASC.

17 Wilson, L. (2017) Patterns and trends in standard and non-standard employment arrangements in Northern Ireland, Working Paper No 45, Dublin: NERI. Available online at: https://www.nerinstitute.net/download/pdf/patterns_and_trends_in_standard_and_nonstandard_employment_in_northern_ireland_final.pdf.

18 International Labour Organisation (2016) *Non-standard employment around the world: Understanding challenges, shaping prospects*, Geneva: ILO.

19 Lisi, D. (2013) 'The impact of temporary employment and employment protection on labour productivity: Evidence from an industry-level panel of EU countries', *Journal for Labour Market Research*, 46(2): 119-144.
Nielen, S. and Schiersch, A. (2011) *Temporary Agency Work and Firm Competitiveness: Evidence from German manufacturing firms*, Discussion paper 1135, Berlin: DIW.

For labour market and the economy

The rise of precarious forms of employment can also have consequences for the labour market as a whole by reinforcing labour market segmentation, a situation in which one segment of the labour market is in insecure employment, while the other segment enjoys the employment security offered by permanent contracts.

A key concern when there is labour market segmentation is that there is an unequal sharing of risk between those in secure, standard employment arrangements and those in insecure employment in terms of unemployment, income security and quality of working conditions. In turn, a challenge emerges for policy makers to mitigate or minimise the negative impacts for some workers bringing huge costs to the public purse.

Indeed, a body of research also warns of the significant costs which an increase in precarious employment brings to the public purse as a result of substantial tax losses and increased reliance of insecure, low paid workers on state benefits. In fact, earlier this year Minister Paschal O'Donohoe announced that income tax receipts were below projections, despite increased employment and substantial growth in GDP. A conceivable explanation for this is that due to an increase in insecure, low paid work the contributions from income tax has been lower, whilst at the same time supplementary welfare supports have been higher.

A further consequence of this labour market segmentation, and of increased precarity in employment in general, is growing wage and income inequality because the gains from a growing economy are increasingly divided between those in 'good' jobs and those in 'bad' jobs. High levels of wage and income inequality have been shown to undermine economic growth and threaten economic stability which in turn holds back economic growth, productivity and social progress for all²⁰.

²⁰ Lansley, S. (2011) *The Cost of Inequality: Why Economic Equality is Essential for Recovery*, Gibson Square.

Section Eight: Addressing Precarious Employment

"Making insecure work more secure has become a prime object of trade union strategies in recent decades, with a variety of initiatives being put forward by Congress in an attempt to mitigate the growth and improve the conditions of insecure work."

Section Eight: Addressing Precarious Employment

Making insecure work more secure has become a prime object of trade union strategies in recent decades, with a variety of initiatives being put forward by Congress in an attempt to mitigate the growth and improve the conditions of insecure work.

Following the publication of a Congress report on Bogus Self Employment in the Republic of Ireland²¹ in 2016, the Government established a consultation process and invited submissions.

The Congress submission *False Economy: The Growth of 'Bogus Self-Employment' in the Construction Industry* - looked at how the problem could be addressed and made suggestions as to how good employment standards could be upheld. Specifically, the submission showed the surge in bogus or false self-employment, finding that many workers in the construction industry are classed as self-employed workers without employees, yet work under the same conditions as dependent employees. In this way, in Construction, Forestry and Meat Processing Industries, the Finance Act of 2007/2012 placed a statutory obligation on 'Principal Contractors' to submit to Revenue under electronic relevant contracts tax (RCT). Many sub-contractors nominated by the 'Principal Contractors' have little choice but to accept self-employment as a tax designation or risk not being in employment. They also relinquish all employment rights entitlements and are therefore placed in very insecure and precarious employment. Workers are classified as self-employed even though they do not possess the characteristics or features of self-employment.

Furthermore, we are seeing an increase in the use of intermediary-type structures as a means for workers to supply their labour. An intermediary refers to a worker, who might

otherwise be engaged as an employee by the employer, but is employed to provide their services through an intermediary. Intermediaries generally take the form of:

- i. A Personal Service Company (one person composed) of which the worker is a Director/employee.
- ii. A Management Service Company of which the worker is one of a number of Directors, unknown to one another.

Revenue research suggests that these structures are most common in Pharma-Chem, IT and Airline Industries. They also feature in sectors such as Media, Entertainment, Construction, Financial, Legal and Professional Services.

One consequence of these types of employment arrangements is that the application of the PAYE System becomes the responsibility of the worker. More problematic however is the fact that in a majority of these cases workers are being classified as self-employed even though they do not possess the characteristics or features of self-employment. While they may not have a contract of service, in all other cases they are treated in the same manner as an employee. In some cases, gaining employment is conditional on setting up an intermediary arrangement. These practices are clearly problematic because such workers' face much greater precarity as a result of their employment arrangements in that they do not benefit from the standard legal regulatory protections of being an employee.

²¹ https://www.ictu.ie/download/pdf/false_economy_the_growth_of_bogus_self_employment_in_construction.pdf

Moreover, Congress argues that the establishment and growth of these bogus/false self-employment arrangements results in significant reductions in PRSI contributions to the Social Insurance Fund, as well as leading to a substantial loss of Tax Revenue to the Exchequer.

Congress is aware that 23 submissions were made to the Government Consultation that was established on foot of the publication of our findings on bogus self-employment. We understand that a final report resulting from that process has been prepared. However, we are still awaiting its publication. Government should progress this issue and move to crackdown on bogus/false self-employment practices which are having negative effects on workers and the public purse.

Congress has also highlighted the issue of insecure and low hour contracts for the past number of years. Arising from our campaign the Government commissioned a study on the prevalence of low hour and zero-hour, insecure contracts in Irish workplaces. *A Study on the Prevalence of Zero Hours Contracts among Irish Employers and their Impact on Employees 2015*²² was carried out by the University of Limerick and found considerable evidence of low hour contracts in some sectors of the Irish economy. The report proposed a number of changes to legislation to give workers more certainty about their hours of work. Congress supported the recommendations in the University of Limerick Study and subsequently engaged extensively with officials from the Department of Jobs, Enterprise & Innovation (DJEI) over the course of 2016 and early 2017 to maximise their influence in the substance of the proposed legislation, which the Government say they are bringing forward.

²² <https://dbei.gov.ie/en/Publications/Publication-files/Study-on-the-Prevalence-of-Zero-Hours-Contracts.pdf>

The Department published a Draft Scheme of the Terms of Employment (Information) (Amendment) and Organisation of Working Time (Amendment) Bill 2016. The main provisions are:

- To amend the Terms of Employment (Information) Act 1994 to provide that employers must inform employees in writing by the 5th day of employment of the core terms of their employment, including the length of the employees normal working day or week. It further provides that an employee must remain in employment for 1 month before s/he is entitled to seek redress under the Act.
- It is proposed to create a criminal offence arising from a failure to provide a statement in accordance with this Head.
- What is proposed in the Amendment of Organisation of Working Time Act 1997 is to prohibit the fixing of a contractual entitlement to working hours at zero in two of three types of situation described in s18(1) of the 1997 Act. They propose that it will apply to s(a) and (c) and not s(b). s(a) and (c) apply where an employee is required to be available for a fixed number of hours per week, or for a fixed number of hours and such additional hours as the contract may specify. s(b) deals with what is referred to as an ‘*if and when required contract*’, casual, relief or seasonal work.
- There is also a stipulation providing that employees under s(a) and (c) above will be entitled to a minimum of 3 hours pay subject to a minimum of the appropriate JLC hourly rate, in a case where an employee is not, in fact, required to work.
- Finally, there is provision to provide that an employee whose contract of employment or statement of terms of employment does not reflect the number of hours of work normally worked in a week over a significant

period, shall, after a reference period be entitled to be placed in the band of hours as determined by the Bill.

However Congress does not think these amendments go far enough and is seeking changes to proposed legislation that would provide for the following:

- A right in law to a guaranteed minimum number of working hours and a legal prohibition on zero hour contracts.
- A right to be paid compensation if no work is made available;
- An amendment to the Terms of Information Employment Act to require an employer to provide a written statement of terms and conditions of employment, including working hours, from day one of employment.
- The right to claim an alteration to the contract of employment in respect of working hours if, over a specified reference period, their actual working hours were in excess of their contracted hours, as provided for in the Banded Hours Bill 2016.

Congress is calling on Government to take account of these amendments, thereby making legislation fit for purpose and calling to a halt precarious and low-hour employment practices.

Recently, agreements have been reached in sectors where there was a danger of precarious employment becoming the norm. Trade unions have secured Employment Regulation Orders (EROs) in security and contract cleaning and these are applicable throughout the industry. More recently a Sectoral Employment Order (SEO) has been concluded in the construction industry in the Republic of Ireland. Similar legislation provisions could apply in retail/ grocery and hospitality but employers refuse to engage.

Banded hours agreements have been negotiated with major retail employers to limit the fluctuation of working hours and it is significant that there has been an increase in the number of permanent workers in retail and a decline in the number of temporary workers.

In education, unions negotiated the implementation of the Ward Report²³, which made it easier for teachers on precarious contracts to access Contracts of Indefinite Duration (CID) and a fairer distribution of teaching hours. A broadly similar arrangement is contained in the Cush Report on the Third Level Sector.

In 2016 Congress drew attention in its publication on *Childcare Who cares? Report on Childcare Costs and Practices in Ireland*²⁴ to the operation of the Early Childhood and Care Education scheme which employed workers for only 38 weeks a year and saw them signing on for the 14 weeks. The Oireachtas Committee on Children and Youth Affairs recently drew on this work when they noted that the summer closure 'creates precarious working conditions' (Joint Committee on Children and Youth Affairs, 2017). Congress is still campaigning for measures to reduce precarious working conditions in this sector.

23 <https://www.education.ie/en/Circulars-and-Forms/Active-Circulars/Implementation-of-the-Recommendations-of-the-Expert-Group-on-Fixed-Term-and-Part-Time-Employment-in-Primary-and-Second-Level-Education-in-Ireland-Primary-.pdf>

24 https://www.ictu.ie/download/pdf/report_on_childcare_costs_practices_congress_2016.pdf

Conclusions

Our report shows that precarious work is pervasive throughout both the Republic of Ireland and Northern Ireland. What is more, there appears to be an increase in the use of precarious work over recent years. Interlinked with the spread of insecurity, has been the growth in involuntary temporary and involuntary part-time employment, with the proportion of the workforce who are seeking permanency and additional working hours rising significantly. Moreover, substantial number of workers are in jobs whose hours vary on a week to week or month to month basis.

Congress believes that precarious employment practices should not be tolerated. Workers in such conditions cannot plan for the present or the future. There is an urgent need to challenge precarious employment and to recognise that work should be secure and offer decent and reliable hours and pay.

To this end we call on Government to adopt and implement policies which deliver for workers. Congress has consistently called for an end to zero-hour contracts. Specifically, Congress is seeking changes to legislation that would provide:

- A right in law to a guaranteed minimum number of working hours and a legal prohibition on zero-hour contracts.
 - A right to be paid compensation at the pay rate if no work is made available.
 - An amendment to the Terms of Information Employment Act to require an employer to provide a written statement of terms and conditions of employment, including working hours, from day one of employment.
 - The right to claim an alteration to the contract of employment in respect of working hours if, over a specified reference period, their actual working hours were in excess of their contracted hours.
- Furthermore, Congress is calling for Government to take action on bogus/false self-employment practices. It must in the first instance publish the report of the public consultation on this issue which closed on March 31, 2016 and move forward to the development of regulations and the closure of loopholes in the tax system which facilitate their use.

Appendix

Table 7: Number of workers in different employment arrangements in Republic of Ireland, 2008-16

	Perm FT	Perm PT	S-E w/o emp FT	S-E w/emp FT	Temp PT	Temp FT	S-E w/o emp PT	S-E w/emp PT
2008	1318013	260947	184078	109242	72832	75152	27073	5726
2009	1177293	273222	164556	96264	75691	63837	34654	6132
2010	1115876	270783	152302	85000	83428	63926	35174	5249
2011	1081559	275143	147282	78233	85604	68694	35396	5073
2012	1075772	274403	142458	75357	87456	64888	36280	5327
2013	1084982	283118	158331	74707	84218	67414	38161	5922
2014	1117129	281775	161894	76999	82890	60191	37336	4944
2015	1161875	283888	162265	79977	78768	58680	36374	4562
2016	1209511	287902	162490	81647	77699	56850	36201	4274

Table 8: Number of workers in different employment arrangements in Northern Ireland, 2008-16

	S-E FT w/ emp	S-E FT w/o emp	S-E PT w/ emp	S-E PT w/o emp	Temp FT	Temp PT	Perm FT	Perm PT
Oct-Dec '07	35885	59339	2623	12318	17605	19321	484078	128183
Oct-Dec '08	31264	64939	975	9318	18381	18200	474922	134788
Oct-Dec '09	29613	71274	2221	12517	13954	20805	470049	128656
Oct-Dec '10	31152	66366	4569	19221	18907	18495	467677	123108
Oct-Dec '11	25780	66967	1222	16034	16468	15187	490087	139405
Oct-Dec '12	27186	57229	1193	12887	15631	23117	482162	139462
Oct-Dec '13	20508	68259	2040	16726	21714	26314	476184	138884
Oct-Dec '14	19836	65502	2086	12714	24451	22363	500893	129838
Oct-Dec '15	19111	60976	2001	15355	24302	23737	499931	142320
Oct-Dec '16	24974	71205	2684	20060	19469	26261	490286	142082

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