



Public Policy Institute for Wales
Sefydliad Polisi Cyhoeddus i Gymru

Improving Job Quality in Growth Sectors

March 2017

Improving Job Quality in Growth Sectors: A Review of the International Evidence

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Summary

- This report assesses the international evidence on approaches to job quality in growth sectors.
- Job quality should be a critical issue for policymakers. The nature of work exerts an important influence on individual well-being. Pay and conditions of employment affect overall household incomes and influence the likelihood of poverty. Opportunities for career development shape longer-term earnings. While flexibility and family friendly employment practices can be an important facilitator of dual household earning.
- Job quality is a multidimensional concept. Individuals will have a preference for some elements of job quality over others. Past studies have used both objective and subjective understandings of job quality.
- Job quality is the outcome of a range of influences at different levels. These influences include national level and other regulations, economic conditions, the role of institutions such as trade unions, individual employer practices and the characteristics of individual workers. There are gendered patterns of job quality.
- While some aspects of job quality have been the subject of significant policy consideration and action, such as minimum wages, other aspects such as job design have seen less attention.
- Overall, there is limited evidence on programmatic approaches to job quality in growth sectors.
- Where there is some evidence at sector level this has mainly been drawn from case studies of employers and/or policy strategies. This evidence relates to the care, tourism and hospitality sectors. The evidence is not based on robust evaluation but rather on a assessment of good practice.
- These studies highlight the importance of staff training, development activities, and the establishment of clear career pathways. They also point towards the importance of employer business models and job design.
- The approaches reviewed adopt one of several foci: seeking ways of linking job quality for workers with service improvement for employers; using procurement to improve job quality; encouraging changes in business models as a precursor to improving job quality; and, developing the potential of employer cooperatives to deliver worker empowerment and job quality.
- The findings suggest a need to pilot and trial different forms of activities aimed at driving improvements to jobs quality, but not to neglect the important role of wider national factors in influencing job quality.



Introduction

Contemporary changes in the structure of the labour market have seen commentators raise concerns about the issue of job quality in parts of the UK economy. Evidence suggests that the labour market has become more polarised (Goos and Manning, 2007). While concerns have been raised more widely about elements of declining job quality over time (Green, 2009; Gallie, 2017).

In the period since the 2008-09 recession, debates around issues of job quality have intensified. The importance of the issue has been partly framed in relation to the growth of in-work poverty in the UK. In 2013/14, some 6.8 million people in poverty were in families where someone was in employment (MacInnes et al., 2015). Recent concerns also relate to trends in wages. Real wages fell during the recession and early recovery and have only partially recovered since; meaning average real wage values are significantly lower than a decade ago (Blanchflower, 2015; Blanchflower and Machin, 2016). Pay is not the only area where concerns are apparent. Perceptions of a longer-term trend towards greater insecurity of employment has been another area of focus; most recently concerns have highlighted practices such as the growing use of zero hours contracts (Brinkley, 2013).

Job quality encompasses the pay and conditions of employment. Many definitions also include wider aspect of the employment experience such as flexibility, family-friendly working and factors such as job rotation, task discretion, and employee-voice. These elements are shaped by employer practices, market conditions, worker characteristics, labour market institutions and regulation. Job quality can be measured objectively or subjectively; definitions of job quality are considered more fully in the following section.

There are important reasons why poor quality jobs are of concern, aside from wider equity considerations. For individuals, low-quality work has been linked to the low-pay/no-pay cycle and the economic disadvantage, instability and poverty this can generate (Shildrick et al, 2012). Insecurity and poor-quality work has also been linked to poorer health and well-being outcomes (Marmot et al, 2010). From an economic perspective it has been argued that job quality also effects both productivity and employee commitment (OECD, 2014).

The focus of this report is on growth sectors and the evidence for approaches within these to improve elements of job quality. The analysis draws on a review of the international evidence on sector-focused programmatic approaches to job quality. This report is one of a number of research reports which analyse the potential of growth sectors to support poverty reduction aims. The growth sectors considered across the project are:

- Financial and professional services
- Manufacturing
- Energy and environment
- Construction
- Social care
- Hospitality (including tourism)

This report is structured as follows. In the following section an overview is provided of the evidence review process. Different elements of job quality are then discussed. Subsequently the role of public policy in job quality is considered. Evidence from growth sectors on initiatives to support job quality are then outlined. The final section provides conclusions and implications from the existing evidence.



Why Focus on Growth Sectors?

Following the economic crisis there has been a renewed interest in industrial strategy as part of attempts to stimulate economic growth (Mayhew and Keep, 2014; Sissons and Jones, 2016). This greater emphasis on industrial strategy is evidenced by the recent publication of the Green Paper 'Building our Industrial Strategy' (HM Government, 2017).

There are several reasons why the focus on growth sectors in this research offers potentially useful insights for policy and practice:

- Growth sectors are generating opportunities therefore understanding how these can be used to address poverty is an important aim.
- Where growth sectors are targeted by industrial strategy this can create opportunities for policy to help support the growth and widening of opportunity, for example through provision of business support services and integrated strategies for economic development and skills policy which encourage firms to upgrade strategies.
- Fast growing sectors are more likely to experience skills shortages, which can encourage employers to seek to engage with publicly funded skills and training provision.
- Where growing sectors experience high levels of staff turnover this may act as a driver to target approaches to make employment in the sector more attractive.
- More generally a sector focus is of interest because public policy may have more traction in some sectors than others (Schrock, 2013).

A full overview of growth sectors, including employment growth, economic growth and policy priority definitions is provided in Green et al (2017a).

Accessing and Assessing the Evidence Base

This section provides a summary of the process through which the international evidence base on job quality in growth sectors was sourced and assessed for this research.

Evidence search, screening and review

Each of the evidence review reports in the project followed the same format, using the principles of a systematic review to source, screen, collate and assess the evidence (based on an adapted version of the EPPI-Centre [2002]). Table A1 in Appendix 1 lists the academic sources searched for relevant literature. To facilitate searching a set of keywords were developed (see Table A2 in Appendix 1 for details of the keywords and for more details on the search strategy). A second phase of the searching aimed to compile relevant grey literature which would not be picked up through the academic search. This involved a somewhat different approach using standard searching software. Table A3 in Appendix 1 presents the search terms used. For this a second set of search terms was developed. A third phase of searching was to target specific repositories of research by relevant think tanks, research centres, Government Departments and international organisations (see Table A4 in Appendix 1 for details). Additional material has also been incorporated in this report based on further ad hoc searches of particular sectors, material already known to the research team, and citations followed-up from key papers.

Details of the screening strategy adopted to identify articles and reports of core relevance are provided in Table A5 in Appendix 1. Core relevance was assessed by whether the article or report provided evidence on a programme, project or intervention targeted at progression and which operated (at least in part) in one of the growth sectors. An established scientific scale – the Maryland Scale (see Table A6 in Appendix 1) – was used to assess the robustness of evidence. In practice, for this paper no sector-focused evidence was found which would be considered as robust according to the criteria of the Maryland Scale. This is in contrast to the evidence reviews on employment entry and progression which were also undertaken as part of the project.

Assessment of the evidence base

Evidence can be considered in relation to whether a policy or practice is:

- **Plausible** – makes sense theoretically but has not been tested empirically
- **Promising** – where outcomes from the practice appear positive but where evidence is not robust

- **Proven** – where practice has been subject to rigorous evaluation with positive benefits demonstrated

(Corbett and Weber, 2001)

As stated there was no evidence on sector-focused job quality programmes which would be categorised as proven. There is also comparatively little evidence that might be categorised as promising, as the papers found include more detail on process than on outputs and outcomes. The evidence that does exist is also limited to a couple of sectors.

Finally, it is important to note that the concern of the research project is on the relationship between growth sectors and poverty. In the main however, the programmes and projects reported here judge success on indicators which are largely at the individual level; as such the relationship to household poverty is not directly considered.

Overall there is a striking lack of evidence on initiatives targeting job quality within growth sectors. As such the paper necessarily draws on a relatively small number of studies. It is important to acknowledge that job quality is also powerfully framed by institutional and regulatory factors (often, but not exclusively, at national level) as well as by individual firm orientation and practice. Evidence on these factors is briefly reviewed in this paper.

Defining Job Quality

There is no agreed definition of a quality job. Job quality is a multidimensional concept (Findlay et al, 2013), and studies have used both objective and subjective assessments (for example see Holman and McClelland, 2011; Spencer, 2013). Table 1 provides several typologies developed by researchers for understanding job quality. The definitions include material aspects of job quality – pay and benefits; as well as measures of fairness and pay distribution. Wages are fundamental in meeting needs but also signify recognition for the job done and a ‘sense of fairness’ (Green, 2009; 9). The security of employment and contractual status are consistently featured. The nature of the way jobs are designed is also important including issues of autonomy, control and resources. Employee voice, work-life balance and opportunities for training/development are also core issues.

Subjective approaches to measurement of job quality are focused on an employee’s own assessment, their job satisfaction (Holman and McClelland, 2011). Objective approaches use an external assessment of elements of work (including work organisation, wage and pay systems, security and flexibility, skills and development, collective representation and employee voice) and their associated outcomes. The rationale for this approach being that high quality jobs ‘have objectively different features and produce different outcomes than low quality jobs’ (Holman and McClelland, 2011; 4). These concerns with different elements of job quality have led to an associated concern with how best to measure the various factors which are considered important (for an overview see Muñoz de Bustillo et al, 2009).



Table 1: Components of job quality

<i>Cazes et al [OECD] (2015)</i>	<i>Stuart et al (2016)</i>	<i>Anderton and Bevan (2014)</i>	<i>Holman and McClelland (2011)</i>
Earnings quality <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Level of pay • Distribution of pay across the workforce 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pay • Terms of employment • Health and safety 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Secure employment • Learning, development and skill use 	Wages and payment system <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wage level • Benefits
Labour market security Risk of becoming unemployment (and expected cost)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work-life balance • Intrinsic characteristics of work 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Varied and interesting work • Autonomy, control, ownership and task discretion 	Security and flexibility <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contractual status • Flexible working
Quality of working environment <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nature and content of work (including job resources and work autonomy) • Working time arrangements • Workplace relationships 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Effort-reward balance • A fair workplace • Employee voice • Strong working relationships 	Work organisation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Job design (discretions, demands, physical conditions) • Team design
			Skills and development <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Skills requirements • Training opportunities
			Collective representation and voice <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Union agreements • Employee participation

Research undertaken recently in Scotland sought to assess low-paid workers views on job quality (Stuart et al, 2016). Focus group participants when unprompted highlighted elements of the ‘intrinsic characteristics of work such as satisfying and sociable work...which affords dignity, and respect’ as well as pay and job security (page 39). When participants were asked to prioritise based on a list of factors of job quality – pay, job security, access to paid sick leave and holiday pay, a safe working environment and supportive line management were most widely cited.

Overall job quality is also subject to local variation; some areas have more high quality jobs than others (Jones and Green, 2009). Individual characteristics are also associated with job quality. In particular, women are at greater risk of ‘low quality’ employment than men (Holman and McClelland, 2011). Cross-national studies demonstrate that women continue to fair worse with reference to a range of job quality indicators, although the gap is closing (Green et al, 2013; Stier and Yaish, 2014; Grimshaw and Figueiredo, 2012). Describing the over-representation of women in low-paid employment, Grimshaw (2011; 34) sets-out the international evidence around four reasons for the gendered structure of low-paid work; these relate to:

- The undervaluation of women’s work – in relation to skills and status; because of the assumption of women as second earners; women’s concentration in the secondary labour market; and, because of perceptions of different patterns of working lives between women and men;
- The lower reservation wage of women – linked to biases in treatment in social security systems and presumption of family income pooling;
- The uneven effects of wage setting institutions – due to gendered patterns of collective bargaining; on the other hand women tend to benefit more from minimum wages and public sector employment; and
- Independent workplace effects – including gendered employer willingness to pay; monopsony; and cost minimisation in female dominated service sectors.

At a firm level the degree of insecurity and nature of pay and conditions are the outcome of a range of factors. These are linked to patterns of demand for goods and services, cost pressures, characteristics of labour supply, production characteristics including firm size, location and strategy, ethos and ownership and the wider institutional environment (Metcalf and Dhudwar, 2010).

There is evidence that some elements of job quality have declined in recent decades. Task discretion, a measure of autonomy at work, has declined since the early 1990s (Green, 2009). This is significant because low autonomy is associated with worse well-being

outcomes (Green, 2009). The number of high strain jobs (measured as those with high work effort but low task discretion) has also increased significantly since the 1990s (Green, 2009).

The extent to which the UK labour market has become more precarious in recent decades has been the subject of debate. There is a significant proportion of the workforce who are employed in what might be considered insecure and poor quality jobs (Bailey, 2016).

However this proportion does not appear to have grown significantly over the past 20 years, although the nature of insecurity for those in poor quality jobs may have deepened (Gregg and Gardiner, 2015). Job quality also appears to be cyclically related to unemployment, improving as the labour market tightens (Brown et al, 2007).

Job quality varies across sectors of the economy and so overall job quality is subject to the changing structure of the labour market. Holman and McClelland (2011) address the issue of job quality in growing sectors in a cross-country EU study. They find overall employment growth is spread across sectors with comparably better quality jobs (on average) such as business services, health, education and finance, as well as those characterised by lower quality work such as retail and hospitality. They suggest that between 2000 and 2008 high and low quality jobs were created in roughly even proportions.

In the UK there is a general picture of the skills demands of jobs increasing over time (Green, 2009). Yet there remains a significant tail of low-skill/low-paid work (Soskice and Finegold, 1988; Wilson and Hogarth, 2003; Sissons, 2013) and skills utilisation (the ability of workers to effectively use their skills in the workplace) remains uneven (Wright and Sissons, 2011).

Public Policy and Job Quality

Public policy exerts an important influence on job quality. At a broad level this includes issues concerning national labour market regulation and aspects such as statutory minimum wages. Osterman (2008) sets out a way of looking at the relationship between public policy and job quality (Table 2). He makes the distinction between policy aimed at improving the quality of existing jobs and seeking to shift the overall quality of jobs through creating different types of employment. He also makes the distinction between standard setting and programmatic approaches to doing this. The table is a useful conceptual lens through which to consider the nature and scope of potential policy action. The table also highlights the varying levels at which policy designed to support job quality aims can be developed. In the UK some of these areas are firmly national government responsibility, for example minimum wages. While others can potentially be influenced by more local policymakers. Indeed, additional opportunities are developing to do so under devolution deals agreed between central government and local areas. In this paper the focus is primarily on the evidence relating to programmatic interventions.

Table 2: Job quality policy matrix

	Standard setting	Programmatic
Make bad jobs good	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Minimum wages • Living wages • Unionisation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Career ladders • Labour market intermediaries • Sectoral programs
Create more good jobs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community benefit agreements • Managed tax incentives 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Extension services • Sectoral programs • Consortia or partnerships under business or union auspices

(Source: Osterman, 2008; 211)

Institutions, regulation and job quality

One area of job quality where a significant amount of attention has focused is on mandatory minimum wages, with considerable research undertaken into their impacts (for an overview see Ray et al, 2014). Minimum wages can have a direct effect on household incomes and can also incentivise work entry. The Low Pay Commission has established a large body of evidence on the UK National Minimum Wage (NMW) and its impacts on employment, earnings, hours, profit, productivity, practices and inequality. Importantly fears of a negative effect of the NMW on employment have not materialised (LPC, 2013).

The effects of NMW increases on poverty however tend to be relatively small because many workers who benefit are not in low-income households and because of interactions with the benefits system (Sutherland, 2001; Brewer et al, 2009; Brewer and De Agostini, 2013). This chimes with the international evidence which also finds a weak relationship between minimum wages and poverty outcomes (see Ray et al, 2014).

This does not mean there are not benefits to increasing minimum wages, as rises do benefit poor households and the poorest working households tend to benefit most (Ray et al, 2014). Over time, higher wages may also support savings and pensions contributions to help protect individuals from poverty over the lifecourse (Bradshaw et al, 2010). A higher NMW also benefits the exchequer (Brewer and De Agostini, 2013). The Government has re-branded the NMW to the National Living Wage which has a target of reaching the level of £9 an hour by 2020.

Another area of focus has been on the potential of (voluntary) living wages. While there is a long history of the living wage concept in the UK, in recent years a sizeable movement has been generated around the payment of living wages (Green et al, 2015). The Living Wage as developed in the UK is distinct from the National Minimum Wage as its payment is on a voluntary rather than mandatory basis. The living wage concept is about seeking to explicitly link wages to a reasonable standard of living (although in practice the calculation requires averaging across different populations). There is some descriptive evidence on the positive effect the living wage can have for workers in low-paid sectors (Wills and Linneker, 2012). A concern which mirrors those relating to minimum wages is the extent to which a national or statutory living wage would lead to higher wages for some workers but fewer jobs. Some exploratory calculations of the potential impact of a living wage being paid by all employers are published in a paper by Riley (2013). The estimates suggest that large numbers of workers (approximately 4 million) would benefit from higher wages, with the average benefit being around 15 per cent. However the paper also estimates that the introduction of a living wage (at £7.20 per hour, and for London workers £8.30 in 2013) would reduce demand in

the private sector overall by around 160,000 jobs, but with a considerably larger impact on young lower-skilled employment (of around 300,000). There is also evidence from the US of living wage ordinances in a number of US cities. It is however difficult to draw firm conclusions from this given the differing wage levels and coverage or reach of the policies (for an overview see Green et al, 2015).

Living wage campaigns have often played a part of broader local considerations of inequality which have developed through Fairness Commissions established in a number of cities. These Commissions have also sought to support approaches to increasing job quality through a range of activities including supporting family friendly working campaigns and campaigning against the use of zero hour contracts (Lyall, 2015).

Procurement by national and local governments has also been seen as a way to influence job quality in some parts of the economy. There are both national and international examples of developing practice in this area (see Green et al, 2015; Green et al, 2017b). For example, recent developments in Barcelona has seen the city extending the use of social value in procurement as well as using direct public sector employment as a way of increasing wages through the specification of minimum salaries (derived from a calculation of the cost of living) (Green et al 2017b).

Employment protection legislation (EPL) is important in structuring the contractual relationships between workers and firms. The UK has comparatively weak employment protection legislation (OECD, 2013). While there has been much written about the characteristics of EPL in different countries, the evidence overall on the relationship between EPL and employment levels across the economic cycle is ambiguous (Howell, 2007; OECD, 2013). EPL clearly influences employer practices, particularly in low-paid labour markets. The lightly regulated nature of the UK labour market is argued to have contributed to insecurity (Davies and Freedland, 2007); the scale of low-paid employed (Finegold and Soskice, 1988; Wilson and Hogarth, 2003); and particular models of 'hard' Human Resource Management (HRM) practices.

Trade unions have been important long-term actors seeking to improve job quality outcomes for workers. This includes representation around pay and working conditions. Trade union density however varies significantly across sectors. Studies show that countries with higher levels of union density, coverage and centralisation of collective bargaining tend to have a lower prevalence of low-paid work (Luciforia et al, 2005; Grimshaw, 2011; Schmitt, 2012). Paull and Patel (2012) in a cross-country study find that higher unionisation rates are associated with lower poverty and lower earnings and income inequality; with a higher unionisation rate of 10 percentage points associated with a 1 percentage point difference in

poverty. Within firms studies have similarly shown union membership reduces inequality (Metcalf, Hanson and Charlwood, 2001). UK studies also find a union wage premium for workers, although this seems to be declining over time (BIS, 2013; Bryson, 2002; Bryson and Forth, 2010).

Unions are also important social partners and can be supportive of innovation in workplace practices, such as High Performance Working (HPW) (Appelbaum et al, 2011). Unions also play a further role around access to learning and development opportunities. The Union Learning Fund was established in 1998 and since 2006 has been administered by Unionlearn. Across eleven rounds of the programme £121 million in funding has been delivered, supporting more than 600,000 learning opportunities and with more than 1,500 employers agreeing learning agreements (Stuart et al, 2010).

Policy and practice in job quality

In addition to the broad policy concerns discussed above there are a number of more practice focused areas of policy development.

Part-time work and job quality

One area of practice focus has been on job quality in part-time work (the issues around, and new approaches to, developing more quality part-time work are examined in more detail in the case studies published through this research project). Part-time work can be one way to help families balance work with caring responsibilities (Lyonette et al, 2011); and part-time earning by a second earner can reduce the household risk of poverty. Lyonette and Baldauf (2010; 8) define quality part-time working as that which:

1. 'provides the same (pro-rata) terms and conditions, development and progression opportunities as comparable full-time work;
2. enables the job-holder to maintain (or enhance) his or her skills;
3. enables the achievement of an acceptable work-life balance, meeting the needs of both; and
4. where a business case can be made, provides the opportunity to increase the number of hours to full-time work, if desired, at the same or a higher job level'

The Quality Part-time Work Fund supported twelve projects focused on employment in the private, public and third sectors and on provision of consultancy services to provide learning about what helps support quality part-time employment (Lyonette and Baldauf, 2010).

Drawing from across the projects the evaluation report found good or promising practice around:



- Researching the issues and identifying the problem – the challenges in delivering part-time work will vary across organisations and sectors and this context needs to be understood to support effective project/programme development;
- Identification and promotion of senior role models – to provide examples of how quality part-time work can work effectively;
- Training line managers – so they can make informed and constructive decisions in relation to quality part-time working;
- Wide dissemination of available part-time posts – in recognition that different communication channels may be more effective for different workers;
- Reviewing and disseminating HR policies – clear HR policies help to signal the importance of flexible working in organisational strategy; and
- Selling the business case to senior management – securing recognition at the top of organisation is critical in mobilising efforts to ‘increase and improve quality part-time work’ (Page 53)

Workforce development and job quality

Two other areas of policy where there has been a focus on workplace issues and skills relate to programmes aimed at supporting the development of High Performance Working (HPW) practices and through the development of licence to practice and occupational standards requirements.

HPW is concerned with improvements to firm performance and can include a range of practices around management and leadership, human resource management and organisational development. As such increasing and effectively harnessing the skills of the workforce is an important element of HPW (Belt and Giles, 2009; SQW, 2010). HPW therefore has implications for parameters of job quality such as training and development, employee voice and task discretion. The UK Commission for Employment and Skills (UKCES) was at the forefront of pressing the case for HPW in the UK. However the take-up of HPW practices by employers appears to have been relatively limited (see Keep, 2013 for a summary).

Licence to practice and occupational standards are another way in which public policy influences elements of job quality, specifically around training and development¹. A relevant example of this is the introduction of the Care Standards Act (2000). This had a significant role in increasing training within the social care sector, although evidence suggests it had

¹ The use of these is generally less developed in the UK than in much of continental Europe.

limited impact on generating ‘complementary HR practices’ or management practices required for high-performance working (Gospel and Lewis, 2011).

Public policy also has a wider role influencing employer investment in the skills system and in the provision of training and skill development opportunities. This can include strategies to compel industries to act through payment of training levies or through industry and occupational licensing, as well as strategies to increase provision through co-investment (Billet and Smith, 2003). This type of co-investment was the model of the UKCES Futures Programme which aimed to address a number of labour market issues (one strand of which is returned to subsequently). However, in the UK there has generally been comparatively little focus on skills demand and the way which skills are used in the workplace (see Keep et al, 2006; Wright and Sissons; 2012; Keep, 2013; Mayhew and Keep, 2014; Sissons and Jones, 2016). With issues such as job design being considered as largely off-limits to policymakers in the UK in a way which is not apparent in some other countries (Green, 2009; Keep, 2011). The broader issue here is that in national government there is no department with a ministerial responsibility for job quality (Warhurst, 2017).

New directions in job quality

In the UK context there is an interesting contrast between the more limited policy on job quality in England and the new approach being taken to develop a job quality agenda in Scotland. In Scotland the national *Economic Strategy* makes a commitment to ‘inclusive growth’ including a ‘fair and inclusive jobs market’. The concept of Fair Work is one of the priorities, which includes a commitment to policy supportive of greater job security, fairer rewards and opportunities for development. It also includes a focus on the workplace. In practical terms this means setting an example through the Scottish Government paying the Living Wage; supporting efforts to promote wider payment of the Living Wage; developing a Fair Work Convention to advance thinking and build partnerships and practice around Fair Work; and establishing a Scottish Business Pledge to support development of, and to recognise, good practice.

Job Quality in Growth Sectors

As has been described there is evidence relating to a range of ‘standard setting’ influences on job quality. However there is considerably less relating to programmatic approaches. Overall there is little evidence on sector-focused approaches aimed at improving job quality across our group of growth sectors. It is worth noting that much of what constitutes job quality is determined on a firm basis and therefore there are likely to be many interesting practices which would be unlikely to be subject to any form of formal published evaluation. Other elements which are more largely determined by public policy, such as minimum wages, have been widely evaluated but are not sectorally specific.

Approaches to job quality clearly link to wider economic development. For economic development policy job quality may be addressed through two mechanisms, either seeking to improve the stock of existing jobs (locally) or seeking to create new higher quality employment opportunities. The existing evidence for different sectors is detailed in this section.

The following bullets provide some context to the different sectors which are the focus of this study (for a fuller description see Sissons et al, 2016; Green et al, 2017a), although there is not evidence reported in this paper from all of these:

- Financial and professional services – A sector of projected employment growth. Significant employment in high-skilled/high-wage jobs but with a diversity of other functions such as customer services. There is a significant training and development infrastructure across the sector. However there are comparatively high barriers to entry.
- Manufacturing – A sector with wages above the national median but with some subsectors with lower-pay (such as food and drink production). Apprenticeships remain an important route into, and development route, within the sector.
- Energy and environment – A diverse sector with a broad range of occupations. The total employment potential as well as job quality potential is subject to debate.
- Construction – A relatively fragmented employment structure with high levels of self-employment.
- Social care – Characterised by low-pay, high levels of part-time working, and with a large proportion of small firms. There is evidence of relatively weak HR and management practice around workforce development and progression routes.

- Hospitality – A sector typified by low-pay and high turnover, as well as seasonality in parts of the sector. Limited opportunities for development have been identified as an important issue in the sector.

(summarised Sissons et al, 2016).

The evidence on job quality in growth sectors

One element of job quality where there is some evidence, including some robustly evaluated programmes is around in-work progression. This evidence base is fully detailed in Sissons et al (2016) so is not repeated here. In brief the evidence shows:

- A sizeable proportion of low-paid workers experience limited pay progression, even over extended periods of time. Yet traditionally progression has not been a focus for employment policy.
- Policy is beginning to shift in the UK, and recent changes suggest some greater role for a focus on progression.
- Overall, there is relatively little evidence relating to initiatives targeting progression that might be classified as ‘proven’ (i.e. robustly assessed). The most robust studies come largely from the US.
- The US evidence points to a potential benefit of a sector-focused approach to progression. However, there is insufficient evidence to identify the ‘best’ sectors to target. In some sectors, such as hospitality, the context to supporting progression is more challenging.
- Opportunities to integrate economic development strategy with initiatives targeted at progression can help to secure employer buy-in.
- More broadly, the issues around progression highlight the importance of the consideration of business models alongside employment policy.

Source: Sissons et al (2016).

Progression aside, across the sectors considered here only a small number of job quality initiatives which were targeted at particular growth sectors were found. The evidence base does not cover all the growth sectors focused on by the wider project, being essentially limited to care, tourism and hospitality. The evidence base is also largely descriptive in nature, there is a lack of robust studies of programmes targeting job quality interventions.

Health and social care and job quality

In the health and social care sector there are some examples of programmes which have targeted job quality. The Better Jobs/Better Care programme was developed in the US to try and improve care quality through addressing high workforce turnover and job quality concerns (Stone and Dawson, 2008). The programme was focused on frontline care staff and funded a range of practice and policy-based approaches to improving job quality and generating improved care outcomes. The evaluation results suggest that while the programme was able to develop partnerships of key stakeholders, policy changes (at state level) which would impact job quality were difficult to achieve (Robert Wood Johnson Foundation, 2011). Practice interventions were developed around management practices, training, skills development, career ladders and supervisor coaching, however implementation of these was inconsistent across providers. Overall the evaluation did not find evidence of improved job satisfaction/perceived job quality among care workers, although it is not clear the extent to which this was due to limited duration and incomplete implementation. In particular core concerns about low pay and associated high turnover remained.

Eurofound (2013) provide an overview paper focused on 'More and better jobs in home-care services' drawing from 30 case studies. This includes examples grouped thematically around improving conditions for existing employees and improving management and labour productivity. Examples relating to improving employment conditions include:

- Approaches aimed at 'professionalising the sector' – including development of management skills and human resource management practices to support staff development (Germany); developing new standards of practice linked to a financial incentive for working to this (Poland); and training grants to support management and worker quality development (UK).
- Training programmes – including additional skills and motivational provision for workers (Bulgaria; Poland); and providing more clinical skills to enable more complex tasks to be undertaken and to support career progression (Denmark).
- New approaches to employer education – including developing professional accreditation/certification for sector skills (France; Spain); and greater use of E-learning to support education and training (Germany).

Case studies aimed at improving management and labour productivity reported include:

- Developing new functions – taking on additional and/or more complex tasks (the Netherlands; Poland).



- New ways of organising work – including new methods of team working (the Netherlands); new direct payment systems (Spain); and use of cooperative models (Spain).
- Technology innovations – through the use of assistive technology (UK).

(Source: Summarised from Eurofound, 2013)

While the report highlights areas of interesting practice, the reported evidence base from across the initiatives is not strong. There is some evidence from case studies on outputs reported (number of participants, training courses delivered etc.) but not robust evidence on impacts on wages or other elements of job quality (such as security). For interventions aimed at improving job quality of current employees the report suggests that key elements are

- the need for measures aimed at professionalising the sector;
- accessible training (in terms of place and times of delivery);
- training that enables mobility across care and health sectors; and
- the development of new forms of delivery using E-learning and professional validation.

A new campaigning approach to the social care sector which is also focused on joint concerns for job quality and care quality is the work of Citizens UK in drafting a Social Care Charter. The Charter includes a focus on:

- Proper training – including in dealing with dementia, moving and handling and in mental health;
- Better relationships – with consistency of care worker to care recipient and building relationships with communities;
- Enough time – with least 30 minutes for Home Care visits, paid travel time between visits, and sufficient staffing in care homes; and
- Dignity in work – including a Living Wage, occupational sick pay scheme, and clear progression route.

(Source: www.livingwage.org.uk/sites/default/files/CareCharter_0.pdf)

However the sector is under significant financial pressure and take-up by local authorities is limited. Similarly, UNISON, have developed an Ethical Care Charter for councils. The Charter is designed to be supportive of high quality care standards and to ensure job quality for care workers. The Charter advocates three stages of activity:

Stage 1

- The starting point for commissioning of visits will be client need and not minutes or tasks. Workers will have the freedom to provide appropriate care and will be given time to talk to their clients.
- The time allocated to visits will match the needs of the clients. In general, 15-minute visits will not be used as they undermine the dignity of the clients.
- Homecare workers will be paid for their travel time, their travel costs and other necessary expenses such as mobile phones.
- Visits will be scheduled so that homecare workers are not forced to rush their time with clients or leave their clients early to get to the next one on time.
- Those homecare workers who are eligible must be paid statutory sick pay.

Stage 2

- Clients will be allocated the same homecare worker(s) wherever possible.
- Zero hour contracts will not be used in place of permanent contracts.
- Providers will have a clear and accountable procedure for following up staff concerns about their clients' wellbeing.
- All homecare workers will be regularly trained to the necessary standard to provide a good service (at no cost to themselves and in work time).
- Homecare workers will be given the opportunity to regularly meet co-workers to share best practice and limit their isolation.

Stage 3

- All homecare workers will be paid at least the [voluntary] Living Wage (as of November 2015 it is currently £8.25 an hour for the whole of the UK apart from London. For London it is £9.40 an hour. The Living Wage will be calculated again in November 2016 and in each subsequent November). If Council employed homecare workers paid above this rate are outsourced it should be on the basis that the provider is required, and is funded, to maintain these pay levels throughout the contract.
- All homecare workers will be covered by an occupational sick pay scheme to ensure that staff do not feel pressurised to work when they are ill in order to protect the welfare of their vulnerable clients.

(Source: <http://www.savecarenow.org.uk/ethical-care-charter/>)

These campaigning approaches to social care seek to utilise the power of procurement in pushing up employment standards. Other international evidence also points towards the possibility of procurement as a way of increasing job quality, although this evidence is less sector-focused (Green et al 2017a).

Tourism, hospitality and job quality

The tourism and hospitality sectors have a number of job quality challenges, including seasonality, job security, low pay and limited opportunities for development. The OECD published a review paper on 'Supporting Quality Jobs in Tourism' with a particular focus on jobs in SMEs (Stacey, 2015). The paper finds that in the tourism sector insufficient attention has been paid to 'identifying new ways of organising and managing human resources within the sector to support innovation, boost productivity and enhance competitiveness' (Page 25). Across the case studies are various ways in which sector and business improvement needs might be linked with job quality improvements. One of the suggestions from the paper is to focus more on a local area approach to tourism, encouraging integration and good practice across firms within the sector, building career pathways in the sector, seeking to diversify the tourism offer to reduce seasonality and helping to 'professionalise the tourism value chain' (Page 11). The report provides a number of country studies of attempts to improve job quality in tourism, although the impact of these strategies is not evaluated. These strategies involve:

- Efforts to support skills development and career pathways through:
 - Better coordination of education, employment and tourism strategy policies (Slovenia);
 - Business support (including skills) to improve the quality of and/or diversify tourism offers (Denmark, Blackpool UK, New Zealand, France);
 - Focusing on higher-value tourism markets (with related skills requirements);
 - Comprehensive apprenticeship and vocational training systems (Austria);
 - Provision for lifelong training (Portugal);
 - Simplifying qualification frameworks (New Zealand, France); and
 - Developing 'competency standards, qualification frameworks, occupational classification and skills certification structures' to support training, development and career progression ([Canada, France, US] Page 43).
- Work by sector employers and trade bodies to develop training infrastructure and supply of skills.
- Supporting SMEs:

- Including support for management practices (Mexico);
- Providing grant funding to compensate employers for provision of low-skill employee time for training (Germany);
- Development of training planner tools (Belgium, Iceland);
- Promotion and support for entrepreneurship (Portugal); and
- Supporting innovation and knowledge transfer in tourism SMEs (Finland).
- Developing local and regional approaches:
 - Developing localised plans to address workforce development issues and reduce the impact of seasonality (including through job sharing arrangements across business and sectors) (Australia, Austria, Denmark)
- Supporting flexible work-based approaches to skills development:
 - Apprenticeships and on-the-job training;
 - Flexible training delivery; and
 - E-learning.

Another relevant example is the work of the Restaurant Opportunities Center (ROC), a national restaurant sector partnership operating in the US (Jayarman, 2014). ROC is multi-pronged approach to improving job quality and worker conditions. The activities include seeking to increase opportunities for worker progression; providing legal support for workers in the sector facing exploitation; tackling discrimination in employment practices; promoting 'high road' approaches to restaurant owners (i.e. competing on the basis of quality and innovation rather than cost); supporting employer partnerships and workforce development; and, supporting cooperative forms of restaurant ownership. The activities around high-road business models has included developing an alternative restaurant association (Restaurants Advancing Industry Standards in Employment [RAISE]) for 'responsible employers' in the sector (Jayarman, 2014; 199). ROC provides an example of a sector-focused strategy targeted at job quality across various different dimensions.

In the UK as part of the UKCES supported UK Futures Programme, there was a stand of project activity focused on 'Productivity Challenge 3: Pay and Progression Pathways in Hospitality and Retail'. The programme committed £1.2 million of UKCES/DWP funding with co-investment (of money and in-kind contributions) of £1.1 million across seven projects. The programme ran between 2014 and 2016 and the qualitative evaluation findings are reported in Mackay et al (2016). Retail and hospitality sectors were selected due to their persistent challenges around low-pay and high turnover. The projects tackle a mixture of pay and progression issues. The support projects were:

- **Fifteen Cornwall**

Developing a tool kit to disseminate learning and practice on skills development and business performance to other small businesses.

- **Living Wage Foundation**

Building on 'The Good Jobs Strategy' (Ton, 2016) the aim of the project was to alter business practice and HR approach.

- **National Coastal Tourism Academy**

Testing the 'service-profit' chain principle which links quality customer service to better workplace practices, supporting better business performance and higher pay. Using a project manager to work with hotels on staff training and management practices.

- **People 1st**

Testing different progression models including those utilising analysis tools, behavioural and career coaching and multi-skilling of roles.

- **Realm**

Establishing an 'on-site skills academy' for retailers developing individual training plans and mentoring for employees to support their progression.

- **Rocco Forte Hotels**

Developing an app showing employees a career map, routes to progression and training materials as well as access to content and advice from career coaches.

- **Timewise Foundation**

Working with Pets at Home to seek to re-design jobs to create clearer routes to progression for part-time and flexible workers (particularly women).

(Source: summarised from <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/ukces-futures-programme-progression-pathways-in-hospitality-and-retail-competition-brief>)

There is no robust evidence of change relating to the programme however the evaluation was able to draw some generic lessons from across the projects around pay and progression (see Table 3).

Table 3: Enhancing pay and progression opportunities – What Worked?

What worked?	Why/how did this work?
Developing progression routes and pathways within firms	Clearly articulated career pathways are developed to provide a framework to facilitate progression
Communicating progression pathways to all staff	Progression pathways are only effective if they are clearly communicated to all staff, ideally at recruitment
Pathways that balance simplicity with relevance	Models of progression need to be clear and understandable, but not so over-simplified that they have limited relevance and applicability
Competency frameworks that take account of the full range of skills required within roles	These should include not just qualifications and technical skills, but consideration of the range of ‘softer’ skills that are so important in the retail and hospitality sectors
Encouraging businesses to think of themselves as year-round, rather than seasonal	By demonstrating the commercial benefits of investment in workforce development during low-season in terms of staff retention, reduced recruitment costs and improved standards of service

(Source: Quoted from Mackay et al, 2016; 18-19)

The evaluation presents some evidence of additional skills development, some business improvements and some evidence of better wage outcomes, although the nature of the evaluation does not allow these to be directly attributed to the programme (Mackay et al, 2016).

Other relevant insights

There are also examples which have developed of different forms of ownership models used to support job quality improvement across several sectors. In Cleveland (Ohio) this has involved the establishment of worker cooperatives as part of a new approach to economic development and the role of anchor institutions in the city. The strategic approach is set-out by the Cleveland Greater University Circle Initiative (GUCI), a partnership between a number

of the city's large anchor institutions, the public sector and the Cleveland Foundation (a philanthropic organisation) (Austrian et al, 2014). The strategy has a particular emphasis on supporting disadvantaged neighbourhoods in the city. There are many strands to the strategy but of particular interest here is the establishment of the Evergreen Cooperative Project. Launched in 2009 a group of 3 worker-owned cooperatives have been established to leverage procurement opportunities provided by anchor institutions. They are Evergreen Cooperative Laundry; Evergreen Energy Solutions; and Green City Growers. Two of these have reached the point of profitability, although the employment created across the three cooperatives is relatively small (at around 90 workers) (Austrian et al, 2014). The ROC which was discussed previously has also developed cooperative ownerships strands in the restaurant sector.

While not one of the sectors of focus for this project, the retail sector faces a range of similar challenges around low-pay and contractual relationships. A recent book by Zeynep Ton (2016) explores the relationship between business models and job quality in the sector, and draws on examples of organisation design in the low-cost retail sector to design a strategy for improving job quality. The book charts a way for firms to combine investment in staff with business strategy and job design to achieve profitability. The business strategy and operations element of the 'Good Jobs Strategy' comprises 4 factors:

- Offering less – fewer products and promotions and possibly fewer hours (reducing costs but potentially increasing customer satisfaction);
- Standardising terms and empowering employees – including supporting employees to contribute to incremental innovations in the workplace;
- Cross-training – enabling employers to utilise the functional flexibility of their employees (as opposed to numerical flexibility) enabling better utilisation of employee time; and
- Operating with slack – ensuring sufficient staffing and time for improvement.

An important element of the strategy is investment in staff including training, promotion and setting high performance standards. The increasing quality of jobs is argued to be associated with lower staff turnover and harder working and better performing employees. The strategy draws on experiences in a number of companies and in particular on four firms considered to provide effective models.

Wider economic development and job quality

The analysis presented above shows that there are some examples of efforts to improve job quality on a sectoral basis but that the evidence of their impacts is very limited. Another area where there has been some sector targeting with an emphasis on job quality has been on the wider integration of economic development and skills development programmes. This has been the focus of a number of programmes developed in the US which have various employment entry, progression and job quality aims. Programmes have been developed across a number of sectors, including manufacturing and construction, which have developed partnerships encompassing employers and employer bodies, training providers, and economic development and workforce development agencies to support growth in opportunity within specific sectors locally (Conway, 2011; 2014). There are however limits to the extent of the evaluation of these programmes, although there is some robust evidence of impact from some employment entry and progression programmes (Sissons et al, 2016). The integration of economic development and skills development is also a central emphasis of practices around skills policy development and growing good jobs in Queensland Australia where local and sector-based strategies have been developed (see Eddington and Toner, 2012). There are also some examples from other countries where linking economic development and skills approaches have been important in framing approaches to support innovation and job quality outcomes (see Sissons and Jones, 2016). However in both cases the evidence on tangible job quality outcomes is limited.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Job quality exerts a powerful influence on individual well-being as well as having implications for the wider economy. In other words, there are both economic and ethical reasons for wanting to improve job quality (Spencer, 2013).

The concept of job quality is broad, encompassing both objective and subjective understandings and measurement. Of particular relevance to poverty are the terms and conditions, particularly pay and job security. Employment practices such as flexible and family friendly employment can also be important in supporting the balancing of employment and caring responsibilities.

Job quality is influenced by a range of processes at national and firm levels. There are gendered patterns of job quality. Unions have been important institutions in seeking to improve job quality outcomes, and higher unionisations rates are associated with lower rates of poverty.

Some elements of the relationship between public policy and job quality, particularly minimum wages, have been subject to intensive study. There is less evidence on elements such as job design.

There is little evidence of job quality interventions adopted in growth sectors. The evidence there is draws on case study findings with limited reporting on tangible outcomes for employees. There is therefore limited scope to draw lessons for practice from across this evidence base. It is difficult to assess whether there is evidence to support the adoption of a specific sector-focus (rather than a sector neutral approach) relating to job quality. Job quality is a multidimensional concept and some elements of job quality may be more amenable to a sector-focus. There is evidence to suggest the benefits of a sector-focused approach to progression, efforts to link employment practices or organisational design and job quality may also benefit from a sector focus. This might be easier to achieve in more regulated sectors or occupations. However, job quality overall is strongly shaped by wider institutional and regulatory factors, mainly at national level, and horizontal policies are also needed to drive improvements.

The evidence that exists within sectors on policy and practice to improve job quality falls into several different categories.

1. Several of the papers reviewed seek ways of linking job quality for workers with service improvement for employers. This has included programmes and initiatives

developed in the social care sector in a range of countries. These have been geared towards either care standards or efficiency, with the recognition that poor employment quality in the sector can hold back both these things. These approaches have focused on training needs, career pathways, new standards and accreditation, leadership and management and work organisation. However there is a dearth of evidence on tangible benefits and how effective such models have been at effectively linking job quality and service improvement. Several of the UKCES Futures Programme projects also sought ways to link service delivery and job quality outcomes in hospitality and retail sectors. There is also case study evidence from the tourism sector of efforts to integrate economic and business development with job quality improvements. These include through approaches to skills development, management practices, support for business development and territorial approaches to employment issues in the sector. Again, though there is less evidence on employee benefits.

2. There are also approaches which seek to use the power of procurement to support job quality. There are examples from campaign work in social care, and procurement is also utilised in a number of international examples which cut across different sectors (Green et al 2017).
3. Other approaches seek to encourage changes in business models as a precursor to improving quality. The sector-focused work of the Restaurant Opportunities Center (ROC) has developed a strand of activity around high-road practices in the restaurant sector and the potential for these to generate better jobs. While not one of our sectors of focus, the work on retail by Zeynep Ton also demonstrates how organisation design can be a route to better quality job outcomes.
4. A final set of approaches are about ownership structures and the potential of employer cooperatives to deliver empowerment and job quality. This is seen in the work with anchor institutions and developing cooperative structures to deliver services in Cleveland as part of the Cleveland Greater University Circle Institution approach, although the job creation of the cooperatives is modest. A strand of the ROC also develops a number of cooperative enterprises as a way of seeking to deliver empowerment and improved job quality.

Overall, there are some examples of interesting practices operating at sector level but little by way of transformative strategies for particular sectors. These practices provide opportunities for incremental and/or firm level approaches to increasing job quality. The evidence suggests that progress can be made through work with individual firms, and in some cases across wider sectors, utilising drivers of employer engagement including service

quality, turnover, productivity and profitability, but there is less evidence on the tangible impacts or the scalability of such activities. It is difficult to draw a clear policy message from these activities. Perhaps the clearest message is the need to pilot and trial different forms of activities aimed at driving improvements to jobs quality. For some elements of job quality these might be sector-focused. However there is an important relationship between aspects of job quality and the wider labour market institutional and regulatory environment which shapes both the current context and the potential for future improvements.

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Appendix 1: Evidence Search Details

Table A1: Academic sources searched for relevant literature

<ul style="list-style-type: none">• ABI/Inform• ASSIA (Applied Social Science Index & Abstracts)• Business Source Premier (in EBSCO)• DOAJ Business and management• DOAJ Economics• Econlit (in EBSCO)• Emerald• Google Scholar• Index to Theses• International Bibliography of the Social Sciences• JSTOR• Scopus• Social Science Citation Index• Sociological Abstracts
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Table A2: Matrix of search terms for academic literature – abstract search

Employ* OR Work
AND
Poverty OR “low pay” OR “low-pay” OR “Low paid” or “Low-paid” OR “Low wage” OR “low-wage” OR “Low income” OR “Low-income” “Low earners” OR “Low-earners” OR “Low earning” OR “Low-earning” OR Benefits OR Welfare OR Unemploy*
AND
Entry OR Training OR Skills OR Recruit OR Retain OR Retention OR Progress* OR Advance* OR Apprentice* OR Promotion OR “Career ladder” OR “Internal labour market” OR “External labour market” OR “Job quality” OR “Work quality” OR Wages OR Pay OR “Job satisfaction” OR “Good job” OR “Bad job”
AND
“Financial services” OR “Professional services” OR “Call centres” OR “Business services” OR Insurance OR Manufacturing OR Environment OR “Low Carbon” OR “Green jobs” OR Construction OR “Social care” OR “Residential care” OR “Domiciliary care” OR Hospitality OR Hotel OR Restaurant OR Tourism

These keywords were used to search on the *abstract* for relevant studies focused on employment or skills policies in growth sectors. While the terms were applied as consistently as possible, some minor modifications had to be made to some parameters to fit within the design of searching facilities in some databases. For this evidence review paper the focus is on job quality, while other evidence review papers focus on employment entry and progression/advancement. Searches were limited by time – to years between 1995 and 2015 in the first instance; selected references published subsequent to the evidence review having been conducted have been introduced into this report where relevant. The search was restricted by geography to the UK, Europe, Australasia and North America.

Table A3: Matrix of search terms for grey literature

Low pay	Skills	Financial services	Evaluation
Low pay	Skills	Professional services	Evaluation
Low pay	Skills	Call centres	Evaluation
Low pay	Skills	Business services	Evaluation
Low pay	Skills	Manufacturing	Evaluation
Low pay	Skills	Environment	Evaluation
Low pay	Skills	Low carbon	Evaluation
Low pay	Skills	Green jobs	Evaluation
Low pay	Skills	Construction	Evaluation
Low pay	Skills	Social care	Evaluation
Low pay	Skills	Residential care	Evaluation
Low pay	Skills	Domiciliary care	Evaluation
Low pay	Skills	Hospitality	Evaluation
Low pay	Skills	Hotels	Evaluation
Low pay	Skills	Restaurant	Evaluation
Low pay	Skills	Tourism	Evaluation
Low pay	Retention		Evaluation
Low pay	Progression		Evaluation
Low pay	Advancement		Evaluation
Low pay	Job quality		Evaluation
Unemployed	Retention		Evaluation
Unemployed	Progression		Evaluation
Unemployed	Advancement		Evaluation
Unemployed	Job quality		Evaluation
Unemployed	Skills	Financial services	Evaluation
Unemployed	Skills	Professional services	Evaluation
Unemployed	Skills	Call centres	Evaluation
Unemployed	Skills	Business services	Evaluation
Unemployed	Skills	Manufacturing	Evaluation
Unemployed	Skills	Environment	Evaluation
Unemployed	Skills	Low carbon	Evaluation
Unemployed	Skills	Green jobs	Evaluation
Unemployed	Skills	Construction	Evaluation
Unemployed	Skills	Social care	Evaluation
Unemployed	Skills	Residential care	Evaluation
Unemployed	Skills	Domiciliary care	Evaluation
Unemployed	Skills	Hospitality	Evaluation
Unemployed	Skills	Hotels	Evaluation
Unemployed	Skills	Restaurant	Evaluation
Unemployed	Skills	Tourism	Evaluation
Low pay	Job quality	Financial services	Evaluation
Low pay	Job quality	Professional services	Evaluation
Low pay	Job quality	Call centres	Evaluation
Low pay	Job quality	Business services	Evaluation
Low pay	Job quality	Manufacturing	Evaluation
Low pay	Job quality	Environment	Evaluation
Low pay	Job quality	Low carbon	Evaluation
Low pay	Job quality	Green jobs	Evaluation

Low pay	Job quality	Construction	Evaluation
Low pay	Job quality	Social care	Evaluation
Low pay	Job quality	Residential care	Evaluation
Low pay	Job quality	Domicillary care	Evaluation
Low pay	Job quality	Hospitality	Evaluation
Low pay	Job quality	Hotels	Evaluation
Low pay	Job quality	Restaurant	Evaluation
Low pay	Job quality	Tourism	Evaluation

Note: For each of these combinations the first 20 pages of results from Google were screened; and for Google Scholar the first 10 pages were screened

These search terms were designed to have a particular emphasis on evaluation evidence.

Table A4: List of repositories searched

Brookings Institute
Brotherhood of St Laurence
Canadian Council on Social Development
CEDEFOP
Centre for Cities
Centre for Local Economic Strategies (CLES)
Centre for Poverty Research (University of Kentucky)
Centre for Study of Urban Policy (University of California)
CESI – Inclusion
Demos
Economic Policy Institute
Eurofound
European Trade Union Institute
ILO
Institute for Research on Poverty (University of Wisconsin-Madison)
ippr
Joseph Rowntree Foundation
LARIA
Local Government Association
Local Government Information Unit (LGIU)
Melbourne Institute of Applied Economic and Social Research
National Institute of Economic and Social Research (NIESR)
National Poverty Center (University of Michigan)
NESTA
New Economics Foundation (NEF)
Policy Exchange
Policy Studies Institute (PSI)
RAND
Rocket Science
Russell Sage Foundation
Smith Institute
Social Market Foundation (SMF)
The Work Foundation
Townsend Centre for International Poverty Research
Upjohn Institute
Young Foundation
UK Government
Cities Policy Unit
Department for Work and Pensions
Department for Business, Innovation and Skills
Department for Communities and Local Government

Table A5: Details of screening and assessment strategy

During the searching phase articles were initially shortlisted on the basis of title relevance. All references were then compiled and held in an Endnote database. References were then subject to a second sift based on a review of the abstract. This identified articles of core relevance, which were then reviewed in full using a data extraction template, and those of contextual relevance only. Core relevance was assessed by whether the article or report provided evidence on a programme, project or intervention targeted at progression and which operated (at least in part) in one of the growth sectors. A data extraction template (proforma) was developed to capture information on a number of important parameters. This included the strength/robustness of the evidence, recording information about evaluation methods including the establishment of a suitable counterfactual. In particular, the Maryland Scale was used to delineate evidence into robust and descriptive (non-robust) studies. The Maryland Scale is a way of assessing the strength of evidence on the basis of the approach to evaluation which is adopted (Sherman et al., 1998; What Works Centre for Local Economic Growth; undated). The Maryland Scientific Methods Scale as applied here is detailed in Table A6. Other details recorded from shortlisted articles included funding and delivery models, outputs and cost-benefit estimates where available. The extent to which the intervention was targeted at poverty (directly or indirectly) was recorded, as were important contextual factors. Finally, where interventions were operating outside the UK, an assessment was made of the extent of potential 'transferability'.

Table A6: The Maryland Scale of Scientific Methods

Maryland Scale: Level and Description

1 Observed correlation between an intervention and outcomes at a single point in time. A study that only measured the impact of the service using a questionnaire at the end of the intervention would fall into this level.

2 Temporal sequence between the intervention and the outcome clearly observed; or the presence of a comparison group that cannot be demonstrated to be comparable. A study that measured the outcomes of people who used a service before it was set up and after it finished would fit into this level.

3 A comparison between two or more comparable units of analysis, one with and one without the intervention. A matched-area design using two locations would fit into this category if the individuals in the research and the areas themselves were comparable.

4 Studies providing comparison between multiple units with and without the intervention, controlling for other factors or using comparison units that evidence only minor differences.

5 Experimental studies including random assignment and analysis of comparable units to intervention and control groups. A well conducted randomised controlled trial (RCT) fits into this category.

Source: Adapted from Sherman et al, 1998; Green et al, 2015

The Public Policy Institute for Wales

The Public Policy Institute for Wales improves policy making and delivery by commissioning and promoting the use of independent expert analysis and advice. The Institute is independent of government but works closely with policy makers to help develop fresh thinking about how to address strategic challenges and complex policy issues. It:

- Works directly with Welsh Ministers to identify the evidence they need;
- Signposts relevant research and commissions policy experts to provide additional analysis and advice where there are evidence gaps;
- Provides a strong link between What Works Centres and policy makers in Wales; and
- Leads a programme of research on What Works in Tackling Poverty.

For further information please visit our website at www.ppiw.org.uk

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