NESC REPORT NO. 25

TOWARDS A SOCIAL REPORT

Price: £5.50

NATIONAL ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL

CONSTITUTION AND TERMS OF REFERENCE

1. The main task of the National Economic and Social Council shall be to provide a forum for discussion of the principles relating to the efficient development of the national economy and the achievement of social justice, and to advise the Government, through the Minister for Finance, on their application. The Council shall have regard, *inter alia*, to:

(i) the realisation of the highest possible levels of employment at adequate reward,
(ii) the attainment of the highest sustainable rate of economic growth,
(iii) the fair and equitable distribution of the income and wealth of the nation
(iv) reasonable price stability and long-term equilibrium in the balance of payments,
(v) the balanced development of all regions in the country, and
(vi) the social implications of economic growth, including the need to protect the environment.

2. The Council may consider such matters either on its own initiative or at the request of the Government.

3. Members of the Government shall be entitled to attend the Council's meetings. The Council may at any time present its views to the Government, on matters within its terms of reference. Any reports which the Council may produce shall be submitted to the Government and, together with any comments which the Government may then make thereon, shall be laid before each House of the Oireachtas and published.

4. The membership of the Council shall comprise a Chairman appointed by the Government in consultation with the interests represented on the Council,

Ten persons nominated by agricultural organisations,
Ten persons nominated by the Confederation of Irish Industry and the Irish Employers' Confederation.
Ten persons nominated by the Irish Congress of Trade Unions,
Ten other persons appointed by the Government, and
Six persons representing Government Departments comprising one representative each from the Departments of Finance, Agriculture and Fisheries, Industry and Commerce, Labour and Local Government and one person representing the Departments of Health and Social Welfare.

Any other Government Department shall have the right of audience at Council meetings if warranted by the Council's agenda, subject to the right of the Chairman to regulate the numbers attending.

5. The term of office of members shall be for three years renewable. Casual vacancies shall be filled by the Government or by the nominating body as appropriate. Members filling casual vacancies may hold office until the expiry of the other members' current term of office and their membership shall then be renewable on the same basis as that of other members.

6. The Council shall have its own Secretariat, subject to the approval of the Minister for Finance in regard to numbers, remuneration and conditions of service.

7. The Council shall regulate its own procedure.

NATIONAL ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL

Towards a Social Report

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NATIONAL ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL

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CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION[1]

1.1. This country has no comprehensive set of social statistics. There is no Government procedure for periodic stocktaking of the social state of the nation. On the other hand, a reasonably comprehensive set of economic indicators, widely acceptable as reliable, has been compiled for many years. Statistics on the National Income, on employment and unemployment, on prices and on the balance of payments are collected regularly, and closely watched and analysed by Government officials and private citizens.

1.2. The Council has been conscious of the need for some document which would chart social change over the last few decades in this country. In its report on *Statistics for Social Policy*, the Council indicated its intention of producing such a report on a pilot basis. This report is the result.

1.3. The measurement of social change is complex and difficult. It is relatively easy to collect statistics concerning particular social services—their development, their coverage and their cost. It is less easy to measure their effectiveness over time—to establish, for example, whether they are meeting the needs they were established to fulfil. In an earlier report,[2] the Council stated its belief that the policies of government have social implications "to the extent that they influence the distribution of resources and opportunities between different groups and categories

[1]A draft of this Chapter was prepared by the Social Policy Committee and discussed and amended by the Council at its meeting on 22 July 1976. The Chapter was drafted by Ms. Catherine Keehan of the Council's Secretariat.

[2]NESC Report No. 8: *An Approach to Social Policy.*

of people". The extent of these implications are, however, difficult to measure statistically. It is even more difficult to measure changes which may have occurred in the quality of life enjoyed by the community as a whole or by particular sections of it.

1.4. Ideally a social report should:

—measure and evaluate the basic social changes which occur over time, notably changes in the demographic and employment structure;

—measure the coverage and extent of social services offered to meet social needs;

—evaluate the effectiveness of the services provided, both in terms of value for money, and their efficiency in meeting the needs they were established to fulfil;

—review the policy objectives on which the services are based, in order to ensure that these objectives and services respond adequately to changing needs;

—evaluate the public expenditure implications of social policies. In particular, an attempt should be made to assess the extent to which public expenditure costs fall on different income categories, and the general re-distributive aspects of fiscal policy and social policy, and should consider the alternative bases for financing social development;

—attempt to evaluate the social consequences of these government policies which are not specifically labelled "social";

—attempt to measure the changes in the quality of life and standards of living enjoyed by the community as a whole and by different social groups within it. This could probably best be done by the development of social indicators;

—inform the public about the developments in social policies, and in particular in social services.

1.5. A social report along these lines could improve public policy making in two ways: first, it could highlight social problems, and make

possible more informed judgements about national priorities. Second, by providing insight into how different measures of national well-being are changing, it might ultimately make possible a better evaluation of what State-sponsored (and financed) programmes are accomplishing.

1.6. This report is not a "social report" in this sense. The time, data and resources for such an undertaking are not available to the Council. It attempts only to cover some of the points raised in paragraph 1.4 above. Since this is the first attempt at the preparation of a social report in this country, it must be regarded as tentative—as a basis on which future reports might be developed and improved.

1.7. The report draws together statistics and policy developments in a number of selected fields. It is divided into 9 sections. The first deals with population trends both nationally, and regionally. The second deals with changes in the structure of employment and related matters. The third deals with developments in incomes. The following five sections examine trends in incomes as well as trends in each of the main social services—health, education, housing and social welfare services. The period covered by these sections varies somewhat, but attention is focused mainly on the last fifteen years or so. The final section gives some indication of developments in crime rates. Each of the sections is limited to an examination of the statistical data and the policy developments underlying them. There is no attempt at policy evaluation, either in economic or in social terms. The Council has already stated elsewhere[1] that the responsibility for the assessment of the efficiency and effectiveness of individual programmes can only be done by the Government Departments concerned, who are the only bodies with all the necessary information.

The Social Services

1.8. Over the past twenty-five years or so, the social services in this country have developed significantly. At the same time, dissatisfaction about provision by the State of many social services has increased. Currently, for example, the health, housing and education services are

[1]NESC Report No. 21: *Report on Public Expenditure.*

being criticised by the media, by politicians and by "consumers", and pressure groups have been established not only to improve the standards of existing services, but also to campaign for new ones.

1.9. There are at least two reasons for the fact that dissatisfaction increases as the services multiply and improve. First, there is a lack of awareness of the extent and nature of the services which have been developed, and the number of people benefiting from them. An associated problem is the increasing number and complexity of the services being developed and the consequent difficulties arising in making people aware of their entitlements. Second, as services develop and standards of living improve over time, new expectations have been generated—expectations that have risen faster than the capacity to fulfil them. Alexis de Tocqueville observed such a relationship in eighteenth-century France: "The evil which was suffered patiently as inevitable seems unendurable as soon as the idea of escaping from it crosses men's minds. All the abuses then removed call attention to those that remain and they now appear more galling. The evil, it is true, has become less, but sensibility to it has become more acute."

1.10. A further reason for dissatisfaction with social change may be the way in which it is presented to those most concerned—the users of the services. Much publicity is given, for example, to "free" education at primary and secondary level, and to "free" medical services for lower income groups. The same amount of attention is not, however, given to the fact that those who receive the benefits of such services are in fact paying for them in another form—through direct or indirect taxation, or through social insurance. The costs of such services are not presented in a way which makes it easy for ordinary citizens to relate them either to the taxes they are paying or the benefits they are receiving. The Council has already drawn attention to this relationship in its *Report on Income Distribution*,[1] and discussed it at length in its *Report on Public Expenditure*.[2]

Future Social Reports

1.11. The limitations of this report and the reasons for them have already been pointed out. The possible structure and coverage of the ideal social report have also been suggested. The development of social reports to reach this ideal will probably take some time, and a considerable amount of effort. The Council hopes, however, that the next social report will address itself to two aspects of social development which are not covered in this one. The first of these has already been mentioned—viz. the public expenditure implications of social policies (see paragraph 1.4 above). The second is some attempt to measure the quality of life of Irish citizens. It has already been mentioned that there are problems in such measurement. The next social report could, however, contain some attempt to assess how people spend their leisure time, and the facilities which are provided—either publicly or privately—for people to pursue hobbies, or engage in further non-academic education. Knowledge of the extent to which these facilities are provided and used by different sections of the population would give at least some indication of the quality of life in the country as a whole, and the differences which may exist in this regard between different sections of the community.

1.12. It is the Council's hope that this report will be of value in enabling some overview to be taken of social policies. It is also hoped that those with an interest in social policies and the measurement of their effectiveness will make suggestions as to how future social reports could be improved and developed.

[1]Report No. 11.
[2]Report No. 21.

Chapter 2

POPULATION[1]

2.1. An understanding of the changes in the size and structure of the population is an essential prerequisite to any review of economic and social progress. Trends in the number of births and deaths, changes in the proportions in various age groups, patterns of migration, both internal and external, all affect both the economic and social environment.

2.2. This section of the report includes basic information on the structure of the population, and changes due to births, deaths and migration. It also includes more detailed information on regional population structure, and trends in marriages, births, and household formation. The data for the tables were derived from the Census of Population and the Reports on Vital Statistics.

2.3. Trends in demographic change only become apparent over a fairly long time span, although some short-term patterns of importance may also emerge. Thus, in some tables, data going back to 1926 are given for comparative purposes. In all the tables, the latest available data are presented. In most cases, this refers to 1971, as much of the information is derived from the Census of Population taken in that year.

2.4. Table 2.1 shows the age and sex structure of the population from 1926, and projections to 1986. One feature to emerge from this table is that total population in 1971 was only just above the 1926 level. In fact the numbers of both men and women in the active age group

[1]A draft of this Chapter was prepared by the Social Policy Committee and discussed and amended by the Council at its meeting on 22 July 1976. The Chapter was drafted by Ms Catherine Keehan of the Council's Secretariat.

(15–64) in 1971 were lower than in 1926. Thus the dependency ratio has increased (from 62% to 73%) in that period.

2.5. Table 2.2 examines the change in the population over the same period. This shows that while there was a consistent natural increase in the population there was a consistent decrease in the actual population as a result of net emigration. It is unfortunately not possible to get comparable figures for any year later than 1971.

2.6. Table 2.3 examines what happened to the population in the regions in the period 1946–71. The regions used are the IDA's planning region. The population fell in all except the East region, although the extent of the decrease varied considerably. The largest percentage decrease in population (20%) occurred in the North-West Region while the smallest (5·0%) occurred in the South-East Region. These regional figures conceal what has happened within each region. For example, the population of the South-West Region fell by 5·6% between 1946 and 1971. In its two constituent counties, Cork and Kerry, the population rose by 2·7% and fell by 15·7% respectively.

2.7. This table also illustrates the change in the percentage of the population living in rural areas. Between 1946 and 1971, the proportion of the population living in rural areas fell from 62% to 47%. Such a figure, however, conceals very wide variations between the regions. Leaving aside the East region which includes Dublin, and where the proportion of the population living in rural areas fell from 27% to 16%, the largest fall in the numbers living in rural areas occurred in the Mid-West Region (from 74% to 61%) and the smallest in Donegal and the North-West (from 92% to 86% and from 87% to 79% respectively).

2.8. Table 2.4 indicates the trends in the dependency ratio over the period 1926–1974. This shows that there has been no change in the overall ratio during the period 1961–74, and very little in the young and old dependency ratios. This trend also accords with the projections of dependency ratios in *Population and Employment Projections: 1971–86.*[1] The relevant projections for 1976, 1981 and 1986 are given in the table, using the same assumptions as those used in Table 1.

[1]NESC, Report No. 5, February 1975.

2.9. Table 2.5 gives birth, death and marriage rates for selected years since 1960. This shows that the crude birth rate continued to rise from 1960 to 1973, while the rate in 1974 was similar to that in 1973. Table 2.6 gives a more detailed picture of what has happened to fertility in the period 1960–72. It is clear from this table that women are starting and completing their families at progressively earlier ages. A more detailed discussion of this point is contained in Chapter 4 (Health).

2.10. The death rate data given in Table 2.5 show little change in the rate among the general population in the period 1960–1974. There has, however, been a significant drop in the rate of infant mortality, the 1974 rate being the lowest ever recorded, although there was a slight increase in 1975.

2.11. The data on marriages given in Table 2.5 show that there has been a significant increase in the marriage rate, and a consistent lowering of the average age at marriage. This is in line with trends in other European countries. However, the average age at marriage is still higher in this country than in most others. There was a significant drop in the number of marriages between 1974 and 1975.

2.12. The last table (Table 2.7) shows the changes in the number of households in the ten-year period 1961–1971. During that period there was an increase in one-person households, and a slight increase in multiple family households. It can also be seen that there was a significant drop in the percentage of households formed by lone parents with children, although there was a slight increase in the number of lone-parent families with children aged under 14. It is unfortunately not possible from Census data to obtain a break-down of lone parent families by sex of head, and thus no reasons can be advanced as to why this drop occurred.

2.13. To summarise: the most striking features which emerge from this discussion of population trends are:

(a) the overall population is increasing;

(*b*) there has been a consistent decrease in the proportion of the population living in rural areas;

(*c*) the dependency ratio has remained more or less stable between 1961 and 1974;

(*d*) the birth rate is showing signs of decreasing;

(*e*) the infant mortality rate has shown a significant decrease;

(*f*) the age at marriage is consistently falling, bringing this country more in line with our European partners;

(*g*) the death rate has shown a small but consistent decrease over the period under review.

TABLE 2.1

Sex and Age Structure of Population
(Thousands)

	Census Enumerated					Mid-Year Estimates (April)				Projections		
	1926	1946	1961	1966	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1981	1986
Total Population												
All Persons	2,972·0	2,955·1	2,818·3	2,884·0	2,978·2	3,013·7	3,050·9	3,089·4	3,127·0	3,168·1	3,360·4	3,568·5
By Age/Sex Group												
Males												
0–14	441·8	419·0	448·7	459·4	475·8	481·0	486·4	492·0	501·5	505·2	543·0	590·2
15–29	377·2	350·0	273·0	303·1	334·5	574·7	586·6	599·0	369·6	397·2	430·3	439·1
30–44	265·9	285·7	241·7	231·2	228·7				241·0	237·7	273·0	329·4
45–64	293·5	284·7	303·8	305·4	306·1	304·7	303·3	301·8	301·5	298·1	284·9	276·6
65 +	128·6	155·6	149·3	149·9	150·6	152·7	154·9	156·9	154·6	153·5	159·5	161·8
All Ages	1,507·0	1,494·9	1,416·5	1,449·0	1,495·8	1,513·1	1,531·2	1,549·7	1,568·2	1,591·7	1,690·7	1,797·1
Females												
0–14	426·1	404·0	428·5	441·0	455·4	460·1	465·2	470·5	478·6	476·6	506·3	546·0
15–29	364·6	341·0	264·2	290·9	321·4	556·8	568·0	579·6	354·8	381·9	415·3	423·9
30–44	262·2	276·5	248·2	233·0	224·5				235·9	232·2	263·5	317·7
45–64	269·0	280·0	295·2	297·0	302·0	302·1	302·4	302·7	304·2	301·9	291·1	281·8
65 +	143·1	158·7	165·8	173·1	179·2	181·6	184·1	186·9	185·7	183·8	193·5	202·0
All Ages	1,465·0	1,460·2	1,401·9	1,435·0	1,482·5	1,500·6	1,519·7	1,539·7	1,559·1	1,576·4	1,669·7	1,771·4
Sex Ratio: Females per 1,000 Males:												
All Ages	972	977	990	990	991	991	992	993	994	990	987	985
0–14	965	964	955	960	957	950	956	956	954	943	932	925
15–29	967	974	967	960	961	968	968	967	960	961	965	965
30–44	986	968	1,027	1,008	981				979	976	965	965
45–64	917	984	972	972	986	991	997	1,003	1,009	1,012	1,021	1,018
65 +	1,113	1,020	1,110	1,154	1,189	1,189	1,188	1,191	1,201	1,197	1,213	1,248

(a) Sources: Census figures: Census of Population, 1971, Vol. II.
Mid-Year Estimates: Report on Vital Statistics 1972, and unpublished data supplied by the CSO.
Projections: NESC Report No. 5: Population and Employment Projections 1971–86, and detailed work-sheets supplied by ESRI.

(b) The projections are based on the following assumptions used by Professor Walsh:
Emigration: zero net emigration 1971–76; 5,000 p.a. net emigration 1976–86, distributed by age and sex on the basis of the 1966–71 migration distribution.
Fertility: Low.
Nuptiality: High.

These assumptions are used in Projection Number I in NESC Report No 5.

TABLE 2.2

Average annual change in population; natural increase and net emigration, 1926–36 to 1966–71

'000

Intercensal Period	Annual Average Change			Annual Average Natural Increase			Average Annual Net Emigration		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
1926–36	−0·4	+1·4	−1·7	16·3	8·6	7·7	16·7	7·2	9·4
1936–46	−1·3	−2·6	−1·2	17·4	8·7	8·7	18·7	11·2	7·4
1946–51	+1·1	+2·4	−1·3	25·5	12·7	12·8	24·4	10·3	14·1
1951–56	−12·5	−8·7	−3·7	26·9	12·9	13·9	39·3	21·6	17·7
1956–61	−16·0	−9·3	−6·7	26·4	12·6	13·8	42·4	21·9	20·5
1961–66	−13·1	+6·5	+6·6	29·2	14·0	15·2	16·1	7·5	8·6
1966–71	+18·8	+9·3	+9·5	29·6	14·3	15·3	10·8	4·9	5·8

TABLE 2.3—Regional details

Region	Population			Density per sq mile			% of population living in rural areas		
	000's						%		
	1946	1961	1971	1946	1961	1971	1946	1961	1971
Donegal	136·4	113·8	108·3	71	63	57	92	90	86
North-West	106·9	87·0	78·6	82	66	60	87	85	79
Leitrim	44·6	33·5	28·3	74	55	47	100	100	95
Sligo	62·3	53·5	50·3	89	76	71	79	76	71
West	313·1	273·1	258·7	71	62	58	85	81	76
Galway	165·1	149·8	149·2	69	65	64	80	75	71
Mayo	148·0	123·3	109·5	70	58	52	90	87	84
Mid-West	285·5	260·7	269·7	95	86	89	74	68	61
Clare	85·0	73·7	75·0	70	61	62	90	83	77
Limerick	142·5	133·3	140·4	142	133	140	66	58	52
Tipperary N.R.	58·0	53·7	54·3	72	76	77	73	70	66
South-West	477·5	446·8	465·7	101	95	99	65	58	53
Cork	343·6	330·4	352·9	118	118	126	59	51	46
Kerry	133·9	116·4	112·8	74	64	62	83	79	76
South-East	345·9	319·8	328·4	97	91	93	67	65	61
Carlow	34·1	33·4	34·2	113	111	114	67	63	58
Kilkenny	66·1	61·6	61·4	82	77	76	82	80	78
Tipperary S.R.	77·9	70·1	69·2	86	86	76	66	64	62
Waterford	76·0	71·4	77·3	108	102	110	51	48	47
Wexford	91·8	83·3	86·3	102	92	95	71	69	67

TABLE 2.3—Regional details—*continued*

Region	Population 000's 1946	Population 000's 1961	Population 000's 1971	Density per sq. mile 1946	Density per sq. mile 1961	Density per sq. mile 1971	% of population living in rural areas % 1946	% 1961	% 1971
North-East	193·7	171·0	173·7	129	114	115	71	65	62
Cavan	70·3	56·6	52·6	100	80	75	91	89	89
Louth	66·2	67·3	74·9	220	224	249	44	39	37
Monaghan	57·2	47·1	46·2	114	94	92	79	75	73
East	827·6	906·3	1,061·5	318	348	408	27	21	16
Dublin	636·2	718·3	852·1	2,120	2,394	2,840	11	7	4
Kildare	64·8	64·4	71·9	108	107	119	80	75	65
Meath	66·2	65·1	71·7	73	72	79	88	87	81
Wicklow	60·4	58·5	66·3	73	73	82	65	59	53
Midlands	266·7	239·3	232·3	76	68	66	83	79	73
Laois	49·6	45·1	45·2	82	75	75	85	83	74
Longford	36·2	30·6	28·2	90	76	70	85	86	83
Offaly	53·6	51·5	51·8	67	64	64	73	72	66
Roscommon	72·4	59·2	53·5	72	59	53	94	90	87
Westmeath	54·9	52·9	53·6	78	75	76	75	67	62
Republic of Ireland	2,955	2,818	2,978	109	104	110	62	56	47

Source: Census of Population, 1946, 1961, 1971.

TABLE 2.4

Dependency Ratio

Year	Persons aged under 15 as % of Active Population	Persons aged 65 + as % of Active Population*	% of total population aged under 15 and 65 or over	Dependent age groups as % of active age groups
1926	47·3	14·8	38·3	62
1946	45·3	17·3	38·5	62
1961	53·0	19·4	42·3	72
1971	54·2	19·2	42·3	73
1972†	54·1	19·2	42·3	73
1973†	54·0	19·2	42·3	73
1974†	54·0	19·3	42·3	73
1976‡	53·0	18·0	41·6	71
1981‡	54	18	41·7	72
1986‡	55	18	42·0	73

*The active population is defined as males and females aged between 15 and 64 years.

†Based on mid-year population estimates.

‡*Source:* NESC Report No. 5.

B

TABLE 2.5

Births, marriages and deaths

	1961	1966	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975
Births:							
Number of Live Births (000's)	59·8	62·2	67·5	68·5	68·7	68·9	67·5
Live Births per 1,000 population	21·2	21·6	22·7	22·7	22·3	22·3	21·6
Births to unmarried mothers as % of total births	1·6	2·3	2·7	2·9	3·1	3·3	3·7
Births per 1,000 married women in certain age groups:							
15–19	608·6	635·5	678·7	779·4	827·1	N.A.	N.A.
20–24	474·6	480·9	457·2	475·6	480·3	N.A.	N.A.
25–29	289·5	366·8	349·0	360·9	367·0	N.A.	N.A.
30–34	296·5	278·8	248·0	243·7	247·5	N.A.	N.A.
35–39	201·0	184·6	160·0	155·7	146·2	N.A.	N.A.
40–44	76·5	70·1	58·4	54·4	52·1	N.A.	N.A.
45–49	5·8	5·7	4·3	4·3	3·4	N.A.	N.A.
Marriages:							
Number of Marriages (000's)	15·3	16·8	22·0	22·3	22·7	22·6	20·5
Marriages per 1,000 estimated unmarried population aged 15–64		20·4	26·7	27·1	27·7	27·6	N.A.
Average age at marriage—Male	30·6	29·0	27·5	27·3	27·2	N.A.	N.A.
—Female	26·9	25·7	25·0	24·8	24·8	N.A.	N.A.

TABLE 2.5

Births, marriages and deaths—*continued*

	1961	1966	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975
Deaths:							
Infant Mortality							
Actual Numbers (000's)	1·8	1·6	1·2	1·2	1·2	1·2	1·2
Deaths per 1,000 live Births	30	25	18	18	18	17	18
Crude Death Rates							
Actual Numbers (000's)	34·8	35·1	31·9	34·4	33·3	34·4	33·5
Deaths per 1,000 population all ages	12·3	12·2	10·7	11·4	10·9	11·2	10·7

TABLE 2.6

Births

Births per 1,000 women in each age group (all births)

	1960	1966	1971	1972	1973
15–19	8·9	13·5	19·0	21·3	23·2
20–24	101·5	128·1	149·6	151·6	158·0
25–29	205·0	232·5	242·6	241·3	255·2
30–34	217·9	213·0	199·5	190·1	199·2
35–39	157·8	144·4	131·1	127·1	120·0
40–44	54·2	54·9	46·4	43·6	41·4
45–49	4·1	4·3	3·3	3·3	2·5
Total: 15–49	100·0	102·5	107·3	107·2	109·3

TABLE 2.7

Households

Household—by type	1961		1971	
	Households '000	Percentage of households	Households '000	Percentage of households
No family households	156·6	23·1	169·0	23·3
One family household				
Married couple, no children	79·4	11·7	91·1	12·5
Married couple, with children	320·7	47·4	359·9	49·5
Lone parents with children under 14	16·3	2·4	18·3	2·5
Lone parents with children over 14	81·2	12·0	62·8	8·6
Total	497·6	73·5	532·1	73·2
Two or more family households	22·2	3·3	25·2	3·5
Total all households	676·4	100·0	726·3	100·0

Household—by size	1961		1971	
	Households '000	Percentage of households	Households '000	Percentage of households
1 person	85·4	12·6	102·9	14·2
2 persons	137·3	20·3	149·4	20·6
3 persons	116·7	17·2	115·7	15·9
4 persons	98·0	14·5	102·2	14·1
5 persons	78·3	11·5	84·0	11·6
6 persons	59·0	8·7	64·9	8·9
7 persons	40·8	6·0	44·0	6·0
8 persons	29·1	4·3	26·9	3·7
9 or more persons	32·8	4·8	36·3	5·0
Total all households	676·4	100·0	726·3	100·0

Source: Census of Population and unpublished data supplied by CSO.

Chapter 3

EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT[1]

3.1. Table 3.1 shows the overall participation rate and the rate for each age group for both males and females aged 14 years and over. The overall rate fell between 1961 and 1971 from 82·4 to 79.2% for males and for females from 28·6 to 27·3%. The fall was most pronounced in the younger age group (14–19) and the older age groups (65 years and over). The rate in the former fell from 53·8 to 43·2% for males and from 46·6 to 38·6% for females, mainly as a result of the higher number continuing in full time education. The decline in the rate in the older age group was due to earlier retirement and to the decline in the number of persons gainfully occupied in the agricultural sector, where there is a tendency to continue at work longer than in other sectors. In the other age groups the participation rate for females showed greater variation than that for males.

3.2. A regional breakdown of the number of people at work, for the census years 1961, 1966, and 1971, is given in Table 3.2. All regions, except Dublin, suffered a decrease in the total number of people at work. The reduction was not spread evenly over the regions: 57·0% of the decline occurred in two regions: the West Region (Galway and Mayo) and the Midlands Region (Laois, Offaly, Longford, Roscommon and Westmeath). These two regions combined also experienced the largest increase in non-agricultural employment from 79,404 to 89,686, equivalent to an increase of 12·9%. This performance was offset by a substantial reduction in agricultural employment, totalling 31,100 persons, or one third of all the people who left agriculture during 1961–1971 in the country as a whole.

[1]A draft of this Chapter was prepared by the Social Policy Committee and discussed and amended by the Council at its meeting on 22 July 1976. The Chapter was drafted by Mr Roddy Jones of the Council's Secretariat.

3.3. Resulting from the economic development of the sixties, there were significant changes in the structure of the labour force, with respect to the employment status and the distribution of employees by industry. Table 3.3 shows that the number of persons classified as employers and self-employed fell from 285,900 to 258,900 between 1961 and 1971, and the number of relatives assisting fell from 116,900 to 58,900. The decrease in these categories is due to the fall in the number of persons at work in agriculture, where there tended to be a high proportion of relatives assisting and self-employed. The increase in the employee population of 87,500 during 1961–1971 is mostly of male employees. This increase in the number of employees has not altered significantly the percentage distribution of employees amongst industries. The expected decrease in the agricultural percentage was absorbed by the construction and the manufacturing industries, with the percentage of employees in the other groups remaining roughly constant. Table 3.4 shows the number of persons at work in the main branches of economic activity from 1961 to 1974. During 1961–1966, total employment grew rapidly to 1,071,000 in 1964, the highest ever reached; total employment remained at this level until 1969, when there was a substantial fall in the number employed, reaching its nadir in 1972 at 1,046,000. The effect of the fall was not reversed until 1974 when employment stood at 1,058,000, some 5,500 higher than it had been in 1961.

3.4. The Irish economy experienced considerable structural changes during 1961–74. These are most visible in the change in the sectoral employment shares. During 1961–1971, the share of agricultural employment in the total declined by 12·1 percentage points from 36·1 to 24·0%, equivalent to 125,500 jobs. This fall was offset by increases in the other two sectors—68,800 in manufacturing and 62,200 in services. As stated above, the overall growth in employment showed two distinct phases, the first being one of growth, followed by a plateau and then a sharp decline. It is useful to split the period 1961–1974 into two sub-periods. Since average annual growth rates are sensitive to the choice of the beginning and the end years, it is necessary to justify the selection of any dividing year. The year chosen is 1966, a year of relatively slow growth in output, due mainly to deflationary measures applied to correct the adverse balance of payments that had developed during 1964/1965. These measures included a sharp cut-back in the public capital programme in 1966, which reduced it below the 1965 level in real terms: there were also increases in income tax and in many indirect taxes. At that time there were also unfavourable developments abroad, (mainly, the British import levy) and there was a substantial reduction in net capital inflows in 1965. The combined effects of these may have caused a downturn in employment, especially in the construction industry.

3.5. Between the two periods 1961–1966 and 1966–74 there were significant differences in the changes in the sectoral employment shares (see Tables 3.5 and 3.8). The share of agricultural employment fell by 3.9 percentage points during 1961–66; in the second period the decrease was 12·1 points. In terms of numbers leaving agriculture, 9,000 per annum left in the first period and 9,900 per annum in the second. During 1961–1974 the shares of employment in the industrial and service sectors increased by around 6 percentage points each. Comparing the two periods, industry's share increased by 3 percentage points in both periods; the service employment share rose by 4·0 points between 1966 and 1974 but by only 1·7 points in the earlier years.

3.6. Changes in shares over time indicate differential growth rates for the sectors, but comparison of the different growth rates will not show the relative contribution of any sector to the overall growth in employment. It is therefore necessary to weight the sectoral growth rates. The weights chosen are the simple averages of the percentage shares of the sectors at the beginning and end of the period.

3.7. The relative contribution of each sector's average annual growth rate to the total growth rate of employment is shown in Table 3.12. In both sub-periods the contribution of agriculture was negative, but in the first period, 1961–1966, the combined contributions of the other two sectors was sufficient to offset it. Looking at the change in the contributions of the sectors between the two sub-periods, the service sector was the only sector to contribute positively to the growth in employment, whilst the change in the contribution of the industrial sector was negative.

3.8. It might be argued that the classification used is too broad to capture all the movements in employment, especially to see which constituents of the industrial and service sector had the greatest influence. For this purpose industry has been divided into three constituents: manufacturing, construction and the remainder of the sector; and the service sector into: commerce, transport, storage and communication, public administration and defence, and the remainder of the sector. The first two constituents of the industrial sector, combined, accounted for over 92.0% of employment (see Table 3.6) and manufacturing accounted for just under 70·0% in all years. Any alterations in the relative contributions of the constituents to overall growth in employment in the sector are therefore due to changes in the average annual growth rate (see Tables 3.10 and 3.13). The annual growth rate of manufacturing fell from 2·22% during 1961–1966 to 1·42% in the second period. The effect of this drop in the growth rate can be seen in the number of jobs created. During 1961–1966, 4,120 net new jobs per annum were created on average in manufacturing industries, but the average had fallen to 2,900 per annum in the second period (1966–1974). The performance was worse in the construction industry where the average number of net new jobs per annum fell from 2,900 in the first period 1961–1966, to 7/37 during 1966–1974.

3.9. The Industrial Development Authority approved 78,000 new jobs between 1970 and 1974—more than in the previous eighteen years. Nevertheless, the number of industrial jobs has fallen over the past few years. It is pertinent to ask why this happened even before the full onset of the recession. The main source of information on jobs lost in industry comes from the notifications of redundancies to the Department of Labour. These data exist only from 1968 and the figures are given in Table 3.15. The total number of redundancies in manufacturing industry during the period 1968 to 1974 was 24,171, or about 12·0% of the jobs that existed in 1968 in the manufacturing sector. Three industries within the manufacturing sector accounted for approximately 40·0% of the total redundancies, namely, textiles, clothing and footwear and leather goods. The figures for redundancies may underestimate the total number of jobs lost, because they refer only to those who qualified for redundancy payments under the Redundancy Payments Scheme Act, 1968. The degree of underestimation can only be surmised, but an indication of it is available from the Industrial Development Authority's estimate of job losses in manufacturing industry. These estimates show that for the period 1971–1974, 53,000 jobs were lost: this is approximately 25·0% of the number of jobs that existed in 1970. The true number of job losses is most probably in between these two estimates, but the magnitude of the number implies that job losses were a powerful influence in reducing the number of net jobs created.

3.10. Table 3.7 shows the employment shares of the constituents of the service sector. There was little alteration in the shares during 1961–1966, but between 1966 and 1974 the share of public administration and defence increased from 9·9 to 12·1%. This was offset by a fall in the employment shares of the other two constituents. From Table 3.14, which shows the relative contribution of each constituent, it can be seen that the contribution of public administration and defence was the only reason for the sustained growth in employment in the service sector. The contribution of public administration and defence was not spread evenly over 1966–1974, but was skewed in favour of the latter years in the period. During 1969–1974, public service employment rose from 46,000 to 58,000—double the increase which had occurred in the nine years previously.

3.11. Irish non-agricultural unemployment has not only been exceptionally high since 1961 but has shown a consistent upward movement, which tended to accelerate after 1969. This has occurred despite continuing growth in output during most of the period 1961–1974. Tables 3.16 and 3.17 show the levels and rates, respectively, of unemployment in the different activities. The national rate of non-agricultural unemployment rose from 5·7% in 1961 to 7·9 in 1974, the increase in the rate was not continuous, but each successive peak and trough was higher than the previous one, except in 1965 when the lowest rate of non-agricultural unemployment occurred (5·4%). Generally, the levels and rates of unemployment in the different activities moved in sympathy with the national figures. But the increases were not uniform: manufacturing industry experienced a substantial increase both in its level and rate of unemployment, the level rising from 6,743 to 16,002 persons or 38·0% of the total increase in the number of persons unemployed, some 24,000 persons. Commerce also exhibited

a sharp rise in the level of unemployment. These movements have been counteracted by the improvement in the level and rate of unemployment in the construction and transport industries relative to the national situation.

3.12. Table 3.17A gives the regional unemployment rates for the eight Trend of Employment and Unemployment regions (which are not identical with the planning regions). The most striking feature is the similarity in the cyclical pattern in each area as compared with the national rate. A further feature of the regional rates is the higher rates experienced the further the region is from Dublin. Thus Ulster (part of) has the highest rate of unemployment while Dublin had a consistently low rate, the other regions falling in between depending on their geographical location. This is to be expected—in an area like Ulster with a relatively small labour force spread over a wide area, the level of frictional unemployment, even at full employment, is likely to be higher than that experienced by a similar sized labour force resident in a city. Professor Walsh in his work on the structure of unemployment found that there was evidence of a significant deterioration in the structural problem ". . . this is serious evidence of a growing regional imbalance between labour markets, and suggests that either manpower policies must be directed to encouraging labour migration into Dublin and Munster, or that more vigorous efforts must be made to encourage industries and services to establish outside Dublin and Munster. . . ."[1]

3.13. Together with the high level of unemployment, there is the problem of the duration of unemployment, and how it affects different age groups. It is not possible to examine this problem for the country as a whole, since age specific data are only collected for urban males who are on the live register, showing their employment experience during the twelve months preceding a date in September (October in 1974). Table 3.18 shows the average number of weeks of employment by age. It can be seen that the overall average fell from 16 to 12 weeks during 1961–1973, and then returned to the 1961 average of 16 weeks. One reason for this turnabout in the trend is the large increase in the

[1]Brendan M. Walsh, *The Structure of Unemployment in Ireland.* ESRI Paper No. 77. Dublin 1974.

number of unemployed in 1974, which had the effect of increasing the percentage of persons who had more than 6 months employment in the previous 12 months. For this reason it is better to omit 1974. The decline in the average number of weeks of employment was most pronounced in the three younger age groups, under 21 years, 21–25 and 25–30 years. For the first group the average fell from 28 to 16 weeks (42·8%), and from 20 to 13 weeks for the other two groups (a drop of 35·0%). In the other age groups the average number of weeks of employment showed only minor changes between 1961 and 1973. A further disturbing fact emerges from Table 3.19, which shows the percentage of males in urban areas on the Live Register in each age group. Again, it is the younger age groups that have experienced the biggest increases. This coupled with the fall in the average number of weeks of employment implies that an increasing proportion of young members of the labour force are experiencing less than 15 weeks employment in a twelve-month period. This could have an effect of making some of them part of a "hard-core of unemployables" simply by "unlearning by not doing".

3.14. Table 3.20 shows the percentage of males who had no employment experience in a year by age. The percentage for all ages rose in most years, the lowest being in 1964 at 15·3% and the highest 37·8% in 1973. There was also a marked rise in the percentage after 1968 and again in 1972. This increase was concentrated in the lower age groups, the largest increase (74 per cent) being in the 30–40 year age group. These two trends resulted in one in four of unemployed males under 21 years having had no employment in 1973. In 1968 two changes occurred that could help to explain the rise in the number experiencing long periods of unemployment—the extension of the period of payment of unemployment benefit from 156 to 312 days, and the introduction of redundancy payments. The introduction of pay-related benefit in 1974 also considerably increased the income of those who became unemployed, and reduced the difference between the benefit given to a married man with dependants and those given to single persons, thus having the biggest impact on the income of those most likely to become unemployed since in 1974 at least 38·0% of claims for unemployment benefit were by persons with no dependants. These significant increases in the level of income maintenance may have influenced the unemployed

in their decisions about searching out, and accepting, new employment, since the first £32 per week of a married man's earnings are effectively taxed at 100% by the loss of combined unemployment benefits.

3.15. Tables 3.22 and 3.23 give details of the number of man-days lost and the number of work people involved in a dispute classified according to the duration of the dispute, further information is given in graphical form in Charts 3.2, 3.3 and 3.4 showing the numbers of work people involved, the number of disputes and the number of man-days lost, classified by cause of dispute. In the 1970s the number of disputes has remained at around 120 a year while the number of man-days lost and the workers involved has fallen. This may be due to the existence of the national agreements. Prior to their introduction strikes caused by pay disputes tended to account for most of man-days lost and work people involved.

3.16. In most developed countries permanent systems for training and re-training are in operation. These are a major instrument of manpower policy. Responsibility for training and re-training lies with ANCO (The Industrial Training Authority). AnCO operates training centres, in which a wide range of courses is provided for persons over 18 years who get allowance while being trained. In addition to these courses, sponsored courses are provided at the request of industrialists. The number of persons in training centres is given in Table 3.26. There has been a substantial increase in the number of adults attending, especially since 1972/1973. In 1975 there were 6,717 of which 5,901 were unsponsored. The growth in the number of apprentices being trained has been of a similar order.

Conclusion

3.17. The growth in employment has two distinct phases—1961–1966 was a period of rapid growth in most sectors; 1966–1974 was characterised by a quickening in the rate of decline in agricultural employment, putting further stress on the other two sectors in terms of jobs needed, which they were not able to meet. The rate of job creation in the industrial sector declined mainly because of the growing number of redundancies in the established industries and the failure of employment to continue to rise in the building and construction industry. The continued growth in the service sector has been due to the rapid expansion in employment in public administration and defence in recent years. There has been a steady increase in the number of unemployed, and a worsening of the long-term unemployment problem, especially amongst the younger age groups. A further cause was the falling off in the number of emigrants. There is some evidence that emigration for the under 21 year olds is no longer an alternative to prolonged periods of unemployment in Ireland.

CHART 3.1

Number of persons at work, classified by main industrial groups, 1961-1974

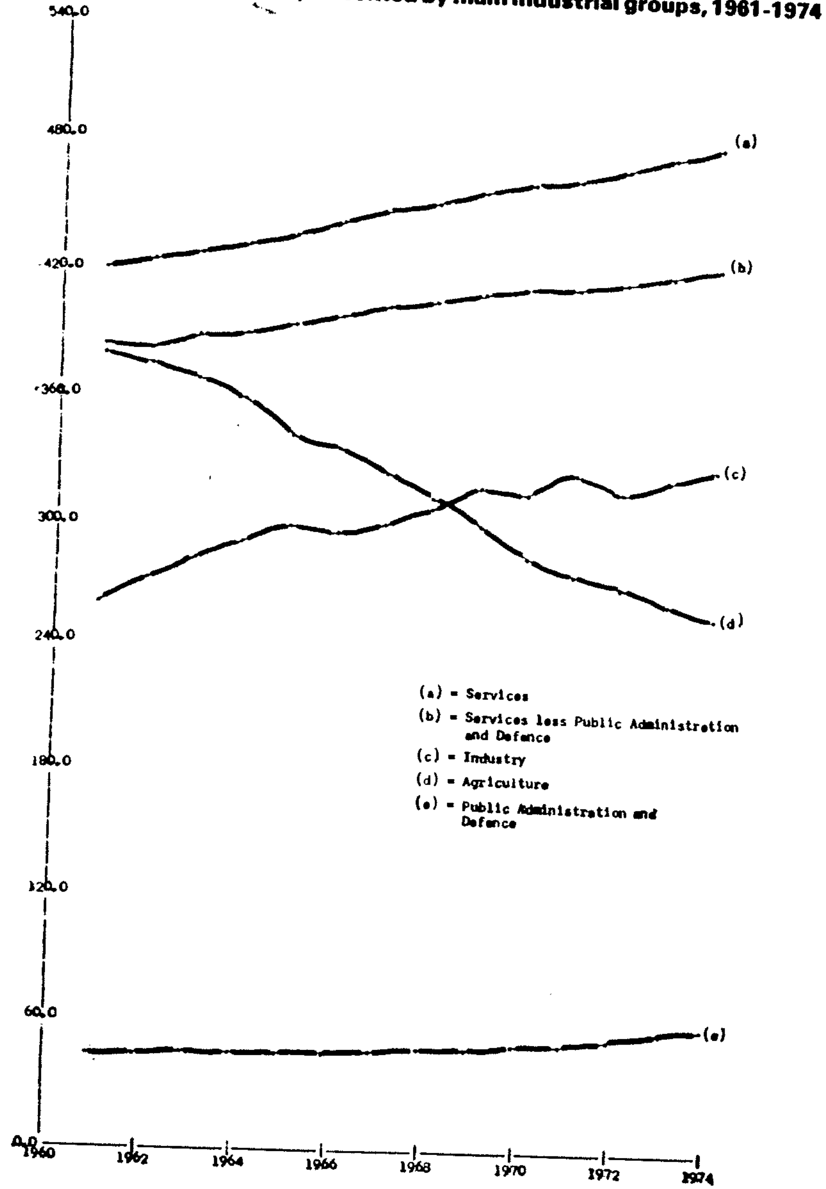

CHART 3.2

Number of work-people involved in an industrial dispute, classified by cause of dispute (000)

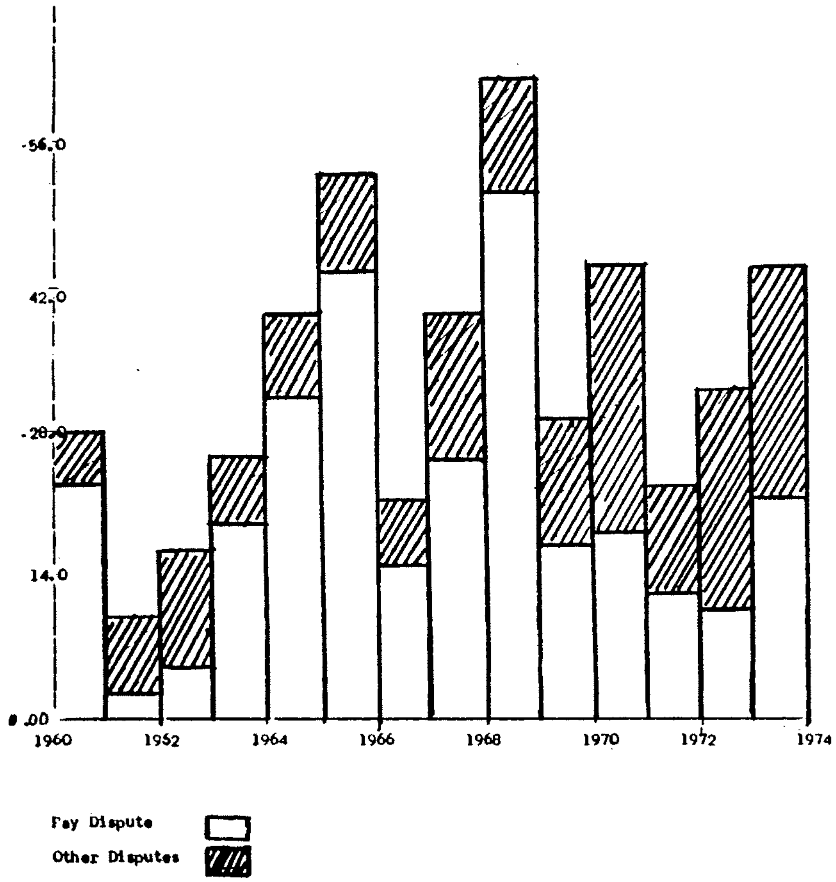

CHART 3.3

Number of man-days (000) lost in an industrial dispute, classified by cause of dispute (000)

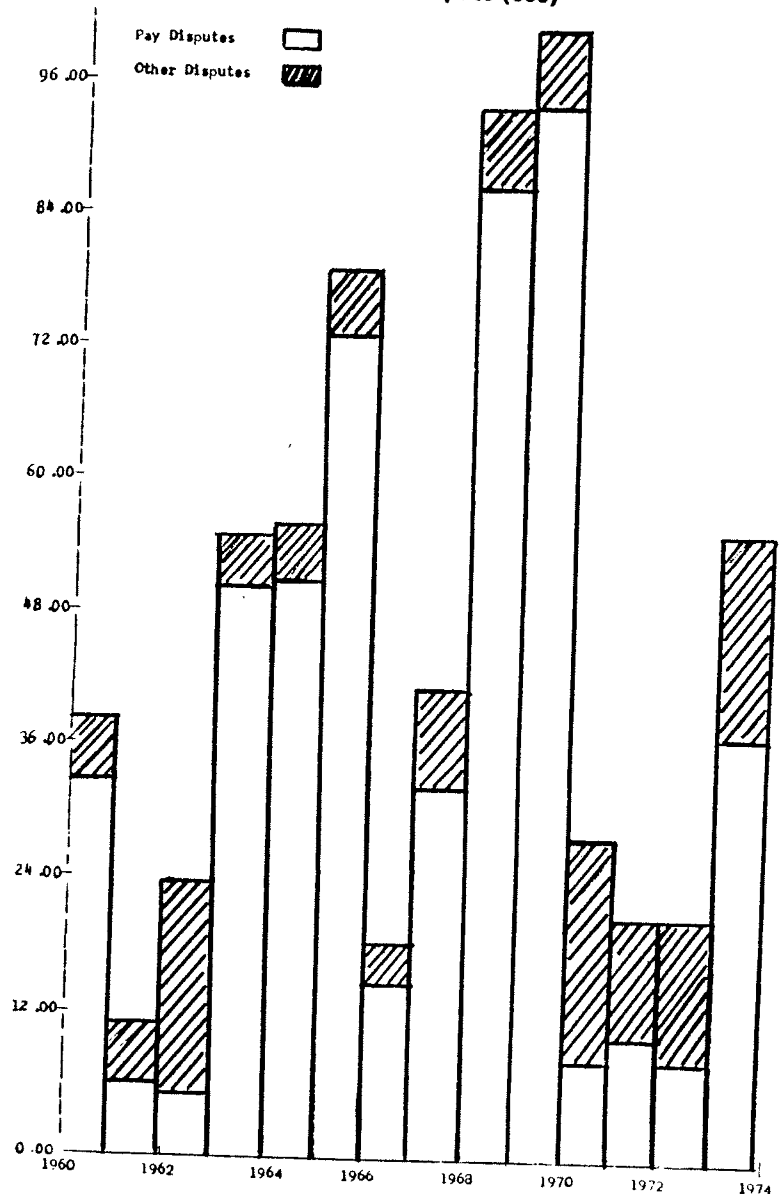

CHART 3.4

Number of industrial disputes begun in a year classified by cause

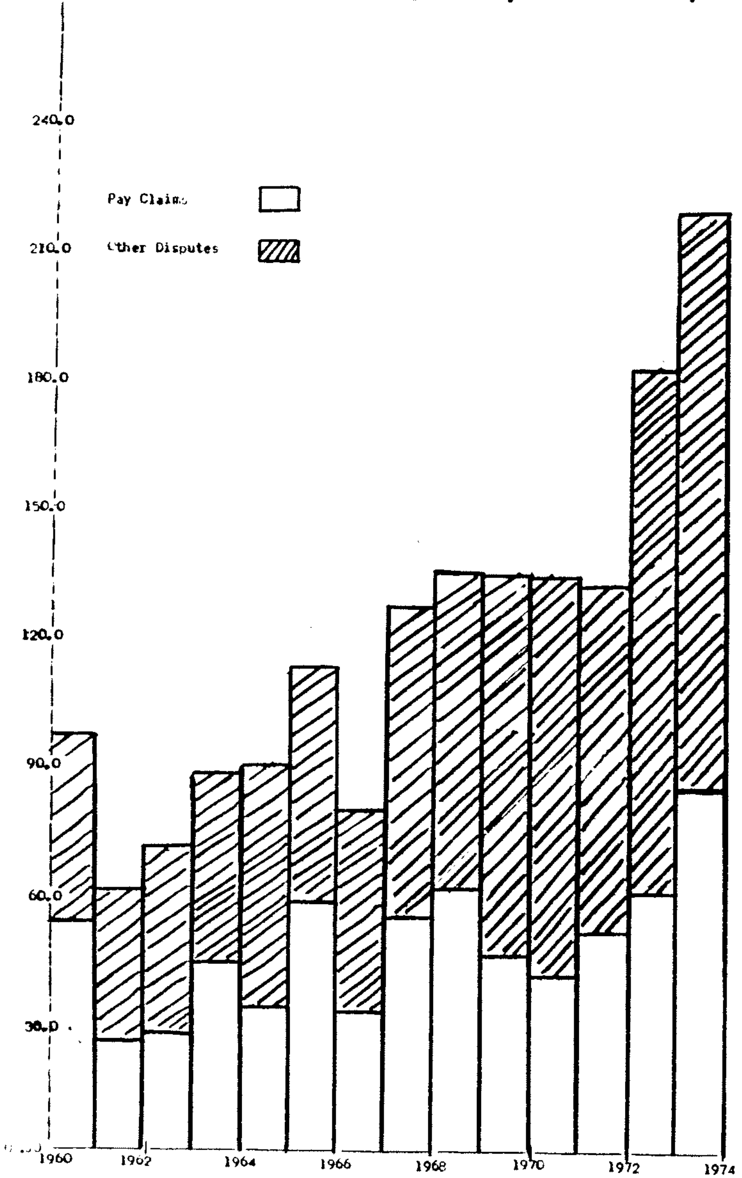

TABLE 3.1

Participation rates for males and females 1961, 1966 and 1971

Age Group	1961	1966	1971
Males:			
14–19	56·2	53·8	43·2
20–24	90·0	89·4	88·9
25–29	96·3	96·7	96·8
30–34	97·4	97·9	97·8
35–39	97·5	97·7	97·8
40–44	97·4	97·2	97·5
45–54	96·4	96·8	96·6
55–64	88·9	89·5	90·8
65–69	69·6	65·6	63·9
70–74	50·4	46·1	40·0
Over 75	35·3	32·4	26·2
Total all ages	82·4	81·4	79·2
Age Group	**1961**	**1966**	**1971**
Females:			
14–19	46·6	46·6	38·6
20–24	67·0	66·8	65·0
25–29	38·7	35·6	34·6
30–34	24·0	22·2	21·6
35–39	19·0	19·0	18·9
40–44	19·2	17·9	19·3
45–54	21·0	20·3	20·8
55–64	22·5	21·8	21·3
65–69	18·9	17·2	15·9
70–74	15·0	13·0	10·9
Over 75	11·8	9·8	7·8
Total all ages	28·6	28·3	27·3

Source: Census of Population.

TABLE 3.2

Number of people at work in main economic activities classified by regions

		Agri-culture	Manu-facturing	Building and Con-struction	Services	Total
East Region	1961	36,893	105,025	24,536	203,760	370,214
	1966	33,204	112,205	32,429	220,575	398,413
	1971	27,591	117,498	36,106	234,527	415·722
South East Region	1961	50,193	17,080	5,717	41,692	114,682
	1966	44,779	18,734	7,299	43,020	113,832
	1971	37,333	21,414	8,724	44,170	111,641
South West Region	1961	63,633	27,926	9,729	61,768	163·056
	1966	56,515	30,929	11,670	64,106	163,220
	1971	47,009	33,028	13,691	67,180	160,908
Mid West Region	1961	44,630	11,083	5,426	32,977	94,116
	1966	38,742	15,445	6,852	34,843	95,882
	1971	32,070	17,041	7,579	36,360	93,050
North West Region	1961	21,171	2,493	1,403	8,951	34·018
	1966	18,249	2,518	1,355	8,993	31,115
	1971	14,436	2,987	1,851	9,527	28,801
West Region	1961	66,321	4,009	4,416	29,215	103,961
	1966	58,424	7,511	4,773	28,591	99,299
	1971	46,799	8,597	5,887	29,388	90,671

TABLE 3.2—*continued*

Number of people at work in main economic activities classified by regions

		Agri-culture	Manu-facturing	Building and Con-struction	Services	Total
Donegal Region	1961	22,402	4,457	2,031	11,878	40,768
	1966	19,713	5,042	2,481	12,260	39,496
	1971	15,140	5,667	2,630	12,311	35,748
North Region	1961	24,829	3,508	1,677	11,117	41,131
	1966	21,538	4,310	2,017	10,918	38,783
	1971	17,786	5,966	2,349	11,374	37,475
Midland Region	1961	48,671	11,109	4,654	26,081	90,515
	1966	42,363	10,988	5,264	27,332	85,947
	1971	34,915	11,855	5,716	28,243	80,729
Total at Work	1961	378,732	189,073	59,589	425,145	1,052,539
	1966	333,527	207,682	74,140	450,638	1,065,987
	1971	273,079	224,053	84,533	473,174	1,054,839
Out of Work	1961	11,049	9,158	14,084	21,278	55,569
	1966	10,016	9,694	12,862	19,645	52,217
	1971	11,486	13,229	15,506	24,471	64,692
Total Labour Force	1961	389,781	198,231	73,673	446,423	1,108,108
	1966	343,543	217,376	87,002	470,283	1,118,204
	1971	284,565	237,282	100,039	497,645	1,119,531

Source: Census of population.

TABLE 3.3

Distribution of total working population

Employment Structure (000)	1961	1966	1971
Employees in employment:			
Males	434·5	472·5	498·8
Females	215·1	229·5	238·2
Total	649·6	702·0	737·0
Employers and self-employed	285·9	272·8	258·9
Assisting relatives	116·9	91·2	58·9
Total at work	1,052·5	1,066·0	1,054·8
Out of work	55·6	52·2	64·7
Total Labour Force	1,108·1	1,118·2	1,119·5
Industrial Structure	%	%	%
Percentage of total employees in employment			
Agriculture	8·9	6·5	4·8
Mining and quarrying	1·4	1·3	1·4
Manufacturing	25·8	26·9	27·7
Construction	8·1	9·4	9·8
Gas, electricity and water	1·6	1·7	1·9
Commerce	17·3	17·8	18·0
Transport, communication and storage	7·6	7·5	7·4
Public Administration and Defence	6·2	6·1	6·6
Other non-agricultural activity	23·0	22·6	22·2
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0

Source: Census of Population.

TABLE 3.4

Estimated total labour force and number of persons at work in the main branches of economic activity at mid-April 1961–1975

Branch of Economic Activity	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975 *(a)*
	000's	000's	000's	000's	000,s	000's	000's	000's	000's	000's	000's	000's	000's	000's	000's
Mining, quarrying and turf production	10	9	9	9	10	9	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
Manufacturing industries	178	185	189	194	197	198	201	204	211	213	214	212	217	222	210
Building and construction	60	65	70	75	77	74	74	78	81	76	85	78	79	80	73
Electricity, gas and water	10	10	11	11	12	12	12	13	13	13	14	14	14	14	14
Commerce	159	160	162	164	165	166	168	169	171	172	172	173	174	175	173
Transport, communication and storage	54	56	55	55	57	57	58	59	59	60	60	61	61	62	63
Public administration and defence	40	41	42	42	42	43	44	45	46	48	49	52	55	58	60
Other non-agricultural economic activity	162	163	165	167	169	172	174	175	177	178	178	179	181	183	187
Non-agricultural activity	673	689	703	717	729	731	741	753	768	770	782	779	791	804	790
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	379	371	363	354	340	334	322	310	298	283	273	267	260	254	252
Total at Work	1,052	1,060	1,066	1,071	1,069	1,065	1,063	1,063	1,066	1,053	1,055	1,046	1,051	1,058	1,042
Out of Work	56	54	56	53	51	52	57	60	56	65	64	71	66	64	90
Total Labour Force	1,108	1,114	1,122	1,124	1,120	1,118	1,120	1,123	1,122	1,118	1,119	1,117	1,117	1,122	1,132

Source: Trend of Employment and Unemployment.
(a) Economic Review and Outlook 1976, these figures are provisional and so subject to revision.

TABLE 3.5

Percentage shares of sectors in total employment in 1961, 1966 and 1974

	1961	1966	1974
Agriculture	36·1	32·3	24·0
Industry	24·4	27·5	30·8
Services	39·5	41·2	45·2
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0

TABLE 3.6

Percentage shares of the constituents in the industrial sector

	1961	1966	1974
Manufacturing	69·1	67·6	68·1
Construction	23·2	25·2	24·5
Rest of sector	7·7	7·2	7·4
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0

TABLE 3.7

Percentage shares of the constituents in the service sector

	1961	1966	1974
Commerce, transport, communication and storage	51·3	50·9	49·6
Public Administration and Defence	9·8	9·9	12·1
Rest of sector	38·9	39·2	38·3
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0

TABLE 3.8

Change in the percentage Sectoral shares

	1961–1974	1961–1966	1966–1974
Agriculture	−12·1	−3·8	−8·1
Industry	6·4	3·1	3·3
Service	5·7	1·7	4·0

TABLE 3.8A

Total number of persons at work in 1961, 1966, 1974 (000)

	1961	1966	1974
Agriculture	379·5	333·5	254·0
Industry	257·2	293·7	326·0
Service	415·8	438·8	478·0

TABLE 3.9

Average annual growth rates of the sectors

	1961–1974	1961–1966	1966–1974
Agriculture	−3·0	−2·5	−3·3
Industry	1·9	2·7	1·3
Services	1·08	1·08	1·07
Total growth rate	0·04	0·26	−0·1

TABLE 3.10

Average annual growth rates within the industrial sector

	1961–1974	1961–1966	1966–1974
Manufacturing	1·73	2·22	1·42
Building and construction	2·45	4·56	1·14
Rest of sector	1·57	1·52	1·6
Total growth rate	1·9	2·7	1·3

TABLE 3.11

Average annual growth rates within the service sector

	1961–1974	1961–1966	1966–1974
Commerce, transport, communication and storage	0·82	0·94	0·74
Public Administration and Defence	2·8	1·26	3·77
Rest of sector	0·94	1·23	0·76
Total growth rate	1·08	1·08	1·07

TABLE 3.12

The relative contributions of each sector to the overall performance of employment

	1961–1966	1966–1974	Change between periods
Agriculture	−0·87	−0·94	−0·07
Industry	0·70	0·38	−0·32
Services	0·43	0·46	0·03
Total growth rate	0·26	−0·10	−0·36

TABLE 3.13

Contribution of the constituents' growth rates to the total growth rate of the industrial sector

	1961–1966	1966–1974	Change between periods
Manufacturing	1·5	0·93	−0·57
Building and construction	1·1	0·27	−0·83
Rest of the industrial sector	0·11	0·12	0·01
Total growth rate	2·71	1·32	−1·36

TABLE 3.14

Contribution of the constituents' growth rates to the total growth rate of the service sector

	1961–1966	1966–1974	Change between periods
Commerce, transport, communication and storage	0·48	0·37	−0·11
Public Administration and Defence	0·12	0·41	0·29
Rest of service sector	0·48	0·29	−0·19
Total growth rate	1·08	1·07	−0·01

TABLE 3.15

Number of redundancies notified by employers as qualified

	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975
Males								
Agriculture	130	236	322	684	446	302	307	353
Industry	1,173	1,442	1,373	3,300	3,497	2,565	3,658	8,689
Building and Construction	189	304	286	741	1,300	867	1,656	2,819
Services	1,614	991	934	1,907	1,698	1,621	1,862	2,902
TOTAL	3,106	2,973	2,915	6,632	6,941	5,355	7,483	14,763
Females								
Agriculture	9	10	7	12	25	13	30	22
Industry	278	303	441	1,075	1,795	988	2,283	2,992
Building and Construction								
Services	470	410	533	837	1,398	1,148	1,406	1,227
TOTAL	757	723	981	1,924	3,218	2,149	3,719	4,241
Males and Females								
Agriculture	139	246	329	696	471	315	337	375
Industry	1,451	1,745	1,814	4,375	5,292	3,553	5,941	11,681
Building and Construction	189	308	290	756	1,325	895	1,714	2,861
Services	2,084	1,397	1,463	2,729	3,071	2,741	3,210	4,087
TOTAL	3,863	3,696	3,896	8,556	10,159	7,504	11,202	19,004

Source: Department of Labour and Irish Statistical Bulletin.

TABLE 3.16

Annual average number on the live register in main industrial groups (*a*)

	Mining	Manu-facture	Construc-tion	Water, etc.	Com-merce	Trans-port	Services	Other	Total (*b*)
1961	190	6,743	8,919	241	3,996	2,955	4,123	774	27,941
1962	248	7,263	8,314	258	4,124	3,173	4,164	743	28,287
1963	282	7,771	9,158	285	4,270	3,532	4,487	805	30,590
1964	240	7,565	8,752	245	4,265	3,319	4,547	809	29,742
1965	374	8,816	8,251	262	4,098	3,164	4,550	900	30,415
1966	250	9,108	9,246	295	4,754	3,203	5,079	994	32,929
1967	267	10,923	10,308	311	5,213	3,519	5,844	1,269	37,654
1968	272	10,727	10,557	338	5,737	3,530	6,485	1,475	39,121
1969	355	10,520	10,018	361	5,389	3,523	6,381	1,587	38,134
1970	492	12,150	12,791	443	5,832	3,562	6,900	1,861	44,031
1971	434	13,723	11,816	383	5,839	3,405	7,186	1,833	44,619
1972	435	15,296	13,968	447	6,550	3,609	8,075	2,425	50,805
1973	409	13,464	12,465	394	6,177	3,457	7,839	2,576	46,781
1974	453	16,002	13.484	434	6.523	3,487	8,325	2,761	51,469

Source: Trend of Employment and Unemployment.
(*a*) =based on mid-month figures.
(*b*) =excludes agriculture. forestry and fishing.

TABLE 3.17

Percentages of insured persons on the Live Register, 1961–1974, classified by industrial group

	Mining	Manu-facture	Building	Gas, etc.	Com-merce	Trans-port	Services	Total	Agri-culture
1961	4·0	3·9	13·0	3·8	4·4	8·2	4·0	5·7	8·6
1962	5·0	4·1	12·3	3·9	4·5	8·7	4·0	5·7	8·4
1963	5·6	4·3	13·6	4·3	4·6	9·3	4·2	6·1	9·6
1964	5·2	4·0	12·7	3·5	4·6	8·7	4·1	5·7	9·7
1965	8·3	4·2	11·5	3·5	4·4	8·0	4·0	5·6	9·4
1966	5·7	4·6	12·6	3·8	5·0	8·4	4·3	6·1	10·6
1967	5·8	5·3	13·7	3·9	5·3	8·9	4·7	6·7	12·6
1968	5·5	5·1	14·1	4·2	5·8	9·0	4·9	6·7	14·3
1969	6·9	4·9	13·2	4·4	5·5	8·9	4·5	6·4	14·4
1970	9·6	5·5	16·7	5·3	5·8	9·3	4·7	7·2	16·1
1971	8·1	6·0	15·1	4·1	5·8	9·2	4·8	7·2	15·1
1972	8·8	6·8	16·1	5·4	6·7	9·1	5·4	8·1	18·2
1973	8·1	5·8	13·8	4·6	6·4	8·2	5·1	7·2	17·8
1974	8·4	6·8	15·0	4·9	6·9	9·0	5·4	7·9	18·1

Source: TEU.

TABLE 3.17A

Annual average rates of non-agricultural unemployment in eight regions 1961–1974

	Dublin	North Leinster	South Leinster	North Munster	South Munster	North Connacht	South Connacht	Ulster	Total
1961	4·2	6·0	5·9	7·0	5·9	8·9	5·6	10·6	5·5
1962	4·1	6·6	6·4	7·0	5·8	8·8	5·6	10·6	5·5
1963	4·2	6·5	6·5	7·4	6·1	10·2	6·0	10·5	5·7
1964	4·2	6·6	6·4	6·9	5·6	10·1	5·7	10·2	5·6
1965	3·8	7·0	6·7	6·3	5·6	9·9	5·6	10·7	5·4
1966	4·4	7·2	7·8	7·4	6·0	9·8	6·3	11·3	6·0
1967	5·0	7·8	8·0	8·5	6·1	10·1	6·6	12·2	6·5
1968	5·2	7·8	7·2	7·6	5·8	10·6	7·2	12·5	6·5
1969	5·1	7·0	7·3	7·4	5·7	13·2	7·1	12·2	6·4
1970	5·6	8·4	8·8	8·7	6·0	11·7	8·8	13·6	7·2
1971	5·8	7·8	8·7	8·2	7·8	11·6	7·8	13·6	7·2
1972	6·8	9·0	8·8	8·9	7·4	12·2	8·3	14·2	8·1
1973	6·2	7·7	7·3	7·7	6·2	11·0	7·3	13·0	7·2
1974	7·1	9·2	8·3	8·5	6·8	10·7	7·5	14·9	7·9

Source: Trend of Employment and Unemployment.
The rates are annual averages of the quarterly mid-month percentages (i.e. March, June, September, December) of insured persons on the Live Register. Dublin includes Dublin Co. Borough and Dun Laoghaire Borough.

TABLE 3.18

Average number of weeks of employment experienced by male claimants to unemployment benefit and assistance, residing in towns (*a*), in the twelve months prior to a specified date in September

	Under 21	21–25	25–30	30–40	40–50	50–60	60–65	over 65	all ages
1961	28	20	20	18	16	14	11	7	16
1962	28	22	20	19	17	15	13	8	17
1963	26	22	19	18	16	15	13	9	17
1964	26	22	23	20	18	15	13	8	18
1965	26	20	20	19	17	15	13	9	17
1966	25	21	20	18	17	15	13	8	17
1967	23	19	17	17	16	15	13	9	16
1968	22	17	17	16	15	15	14	9	16
1969	19	16	15	14	13	13	12	8	13
1970	18	15	15	14	14	13	13	6	13
1971	18	16	16	15	15	14	13	8	15
1972	17	16	16	15	14	14	13	8	14
1973	16	13	13	12	13	10	12	8	12
1974	20	18	16	16	12	14	14	11	16

Source: Trend of Employment and Unemployment.
(*a*) Towns = County or other Borough, Urban District or Other Incorporated town.

TABLE 3.19

Percentage distribution of males, claiming unemployment benefit and assistance, on the Live Register, in each age group, residing in towns

	Under 21	21–25	25–30	30–40	40–50	50–60	60–65	over 65	all ages
1961	8·7	7·6	10·0	16·1	15·9	18·8	9·8	12·0	100·0
1962	9·6	8·0	9·7	16·5	15·4	18·9	9·8	12·2	100·0
1963	9·1	8·5	10·8	15·8	16·0	18·2	10·5	11·1	100·0
1964	9·5	8·5	10·8	15·8	16·0	18·2	10·5	11·1	100·0
1965	9·6	1·9	11·3	15·3	16·4	16·6	10·2	12·7	100·0
1966	10·4	8·6	11·1	16·2	16·3	16·4	9·3	11·9	100·0
1967	11·1	10·1	12·2	16·0	15·9	15·7	8·0	11·2	100·0
1968	9·4	9·1	12·2	15·7	16·5	15·8	8·9	12·5	100·0
1969	8·4	8·3	12·0	14·9	17·0	15·5	9·2	14·7	100·0
1970	9·5	9·6	14·5	15·1	15·8	14·4	8·4	12·7	100·0
1971	10·4	10·4	14·9	15·6	16·3	15·3	8·6	8·5	100·0
1972	9·6	10·5	15·1	17·1	15·1	14·6	8·8	9·2	100·0
1973	8·2	9·7	15·7	16·3	15·9	15·5	9·6	9·1	100·0
1974	9·0	11·7	18·6	17·8	15·4	14·1	9·3	4·1	100·0

Source: TEU.

TABLE 3.20

Proportion of males claiming unemployment benefit and assistance, with no employment experience in twelve months, residing in towns

	Under 21	21–25	25–30	30–40	40–50	50–60	60–65	over 65	all ages
1961	2·9	7·8	8·7	11·2	14·8	20·4	30·6	54·2	19·3
1962	3·7	6·7	6·3	9·5	14·2	18·4	25·8	52·5	17·6
1963	4·8	7·0	10·3	11·4	13·2	18·6	26·8	48·6	17·7
1964	3·5	6·5	6·0	9·4	12·1	16·9	16·9	49·8	15·3
1965	4·1	8·9	7·7	11·7	14·8	18·2	25·7	52·8	18·5
1966	7·3	8·5	9·3	14·2	16·2	19·6	27·1	54·1	19·6
1967	9·3	10·4	11·3	11·9	16·9	20·2	26·1	58·2	19·8
1968	8·5	13·0	11·6	13·1	17·4	19·9	25·9	56·2	20·8
1969	12·7	17·5	17·8	22·8	15·3	28·2	32·8	63·6	29·1
1970	16·5	21·9	20·8	25·9	29·4	31·7	35·4	71·5	31·8
1971	15·8	19·3	16·8	22·9	27·0	29·5	33·8	57·9	26·5
1972	20·9	20·0	18·0	25·4	17·4	32·4	36·8	60·3	29·0
1973	24·2	31·9	28·0	38·0	39·2	42·5	38·8	61·3	37·8
1974	18·8	22·0	24·9	31·5	33·9	37·9	28·7	53·7	29·9

Source: TEU.

TABLE 3.21

Analysis by age of the number of male claimants to unemployment benefit and applicants for unemployment assistance resident in County Boroughs, Urban Districts and Towns showing duration of employment in year preceding the date specified

Age Group	25 October 1974						19 September 1969					
	None	Under 1 month	1–3 months	3–6 months	6–9 months	9 months and over	None	Under 1 month	1–3 months	3–6 months	6–9 months	9 months and over
Under 21	455	267	354	397	473	458	171	172	255	302	242	208
21–25	686	388	513	556	425	544	233	175	283	307	173	158
25–30	1,233	620	857	806	732	720	343	276	421	463	256	165
30–40	1,513	552	623	668	701	701	545	332	464	527	322	197
40–50	1,381	503	573	604	514	524	691	407	514	590	307	219
50–60	1,423	441	485	459	447	510	699	430	423	437	289	202
60–65	716	379	421	357	331	292	482	212	245	268	158	103
65+	588	100	98	84	75	149	1,499	186	188	162	135	188
Total	7,995	3,250	3,924	3,931	3,698	3,898	4,663	2,190	2,793	3,056	1,882	1,440

TABLE 3.21—*continued.*

18 September 1964

Age Group	None	Under 1 month	1–3 months	3–6 months	6–9 months	9 months and over
Under 21	48	107	211	288	357	366
25–30	78	126	318	318	228	231
30–40	105	216	281	403	362	390
40–50	267	305	443	537	366	294
50–60	430	402	538	579	365	227
60–65	259	255	332	360	216	109
65 +	813	255	204	149	134	76
Total	2,000	1,666	2,327	2,634	2,028	1,693

TABLE 3.22

Number of man days lost during year as a percentage of total man days lost classified by duration of dispute

Duration	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969 (a)	1970 (b)	1971	1972	1973	1974 (c)
1–2 days	2·2	2·7	3·2	4·0	3·4	1·3	1·2	5·0	5·2	6·6	4·1
3–5 days	2·0	3·2	3·1	10·0	7·8	3·5	1·4	23·3	10·4	25·6	8·5
6–10 days	2·7	20·9	3·7	8·4	8·3	2·4	1·1	19·6	4·7	15·9	11·6
11–20 days	1·6	9·8	22·6	40·3	30·2	16·8	3·3	7·3	25·7	13·7	11·7
21–30 days	9·2	1·8	5·9	28·6	31·7	70·7	3·2	10·5	7·8	10·5	5·3
Over 30 days	82·1	61·6	61·6	8·8	18·7	5·3	90·0	34·3	46·2	27·6	58·7
Total man days lost	545,384	556,475	783,635	182,645	405,686	935,700	1,007,714	273,770	206,955	206,725	551,833

Number of people involved classified by duration of dispute as a percentage of total work people involved

Duration	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969 (a)	1970 (b)	1971	1972	1973	1974 (c)
1–2 days	29·8	26·6	44·4	20·5	24·7	12·9	25·1	20·1	39·8	29·9	27·6
3–5 days	13·6	11·4	10·8	21·9	23·0	12·4	15·7	33·8	24·0	43·2	27·5
6–10 days	6·7	31·8	7·7	10·6	13·9	5·3	5·9	32·2	5·4	12·8	16·2
11–20 days	2·5	10·3	19·3	35·3	22·6	14·1	7·9	3·9	20·4	6·9	10·6
21–30 days	6·8	1·0	3·0	10·0	12·2	54·0	5·1	2·6	2·9	2·6	2·4
Over 30 days	40·5	18·8	14·8	1·6	3·6	1·2	40·2	7·4	7·6	4·6	15·7
Total work people Involved	25,245	38,917	52,238	20,925	38,880	61,760	28,752	43,783	33,374	31,761	43,459

Source: Irish Statistical Bulletin.
(a) Affected by the maintenance craft unions dispute. (b) Affected by dispute in commerce industry.
(c) Affected by dispute in transport, storage and communication industrial group.

TABLE 3.23

Number of man-days lost due to strikes classified by industry group

	Agriculture	Manu-facturing	Construction	Services	Total
1961	1,239	129,617	1,517	244,891[7]	377,264
1962	—	62,303	1,867	39,854	104,024
1963	—	50,553	925	182,139[8]	233,617
1964	—	50,493	420,823	74,068	545,384
1965	—	390,416[5]	11,884	154,174	556,474
1966	—	326,647[6]	6,903	450,085[9]	783,635
1967	149	159,139	8,567	14,790	182,645
1968	204	213,461	75,399[4]	116,622	405,686
1969[10]	—	726,325	10,127	199,548	935,900
1970	20	122,368	7,681	877,745[3]	1,007,814
1971	—	156,654	14,053	103,063	273,770
1972	640	165,336	22,494	18,485	206,955
1973	27	92,364	12,963	101,371	206,725
1974	2,100	184,210[1]	8,082	357,541[2]	551,933
1975	—	215,130	52,614	27,972	295,716

Source: Irish Statistical Bulletin.

(1) Due to dispute in the Drink and Tobacco Industry involving 49,838 man-days.
(2) ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, Transport industry, involving 247,222 man-days.
(3) ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, Commerce industry involving 791,128 man-days.
(4) ,, ,, ,, by electrical contractors involving 47,809 man-days.
(5) ,, ,, ,, ,, the Paper and Printing industry involving 315,608 man-days.
(6) ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, Transport industry involving 173,254 man-days.
(7) ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, Electricity, Gas and Water industry involving 122,612 man-days.
(8) ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, Food industry (118,245 man-days), Paper and Printing (154,040).
(9) ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, Commerce (327,007), Transport industry (114,701).
(10) Due to the dispute involving the maintenance craft unions, which caused 628,848 man-days to be lost in a variety of industries.

TABLE 3.24

Trade union membership and the number of unions in 1960, 1966, 1970 and 1974 classified by type of union (*b*)

	1960	1966	1970	1974
General unions (*a*)		6	6	6
Membership		203,900	216,600	232,000
White-collar unions		46	48	46
Membership		79,100	89,600	127,700
Other unions		45	41	36
Membership		76,500	80,600	81,300
Total number of unions	97	97	95	88
Membership	328,000	359,400	386,800	441,000
Unions affiliated to ICTU	67	77	77	75
Membership	304,500	341,300	371,500	417,000
Other unions	30	20	18	13
Membership	23,500	18,100	15,300	24,000
Unions with head offices in Ireland	68	70	71	71
Membership	287,800	309,000	332,000	372,800
Britain	29	27	24	17
Membership	40,200	50,400	54,800	68,200

Source: Trade Union Information, Irish Congress of Trade Unions.

(*a*) There are six General unions: Irish Transport and General Workers Union, Workers' Union of Ireland, Amalgamated Transport and General Workers Union, Marine Port and General Workers Union and the Irish Women Workers' Union.

(*b*) These figures are estimates and as such give only a rough indication of the union membership.

TABLE 3.25

Trade unions in the Republic in 1966, 1970 and 1974 classified by size

	1966			1970			1974		
	Number of Unions	Membership Number	%	Number of Unions	Membership Number	%	Number of Unions	Membership Number	%
100 members or less	15	800	0·2	12	600	0·1	10	570	0·1
101 to 250 members	15	2,300	0·6	11	1,700	0·4	7	1,353	0·3
251 to 500 members	11	4,400	1·2	11	4,100	1·1	8	2,511	0·6
501 to 1,000 members	10	7,100	1·9	15	11,300	2·9	19	14,754	3·3
1,001 to 1,500 members	9	11,500	3·1	5	6,800	1·8	—	—	—
1,501 to 2,000 members	9	15,900	4·4	11	19,200	5·0	8	13,697	3·1
2,001 to 3,000 members	7	17,300	4·7	6	15,800	4·1	11	27,288	6·2
3,001 to 5,000 members	6	24,800	6·8	10	40,200	10·4	5	18,822	4·3
5,001 to 7,000 members	8	46,600	12·9	6	34,600	9·0	6	34,471	7·8
7,001 to 10,000 members	2	19,100	5·3	3	26,000	6·7	8	69,722	14·8
10,001 to 20,000 members	3	44,200	12·2	3	45,000	11·6	2	23,145	5·2
Over 20,000 members	2	170,000	46·7	2	181,400	46·9	4	234,690	53·2
Total all unions	97	364,000	100·0	95	386,700	100·0	88	441,023	100·0

Source: Trade Union Information.

TABLE 3.26

Number of adults and apprentices in training under AnCO, whether sponsored or unsponsored

	Adults		Apprentices	
	Sponsored	Unsponsored	Sponsored	Unsponsored
1969–1970		446		119
1970–1971	11	380	46	136
1971–1972	90	388	28	156
1972–1973	255	780	86	223
1973–1974	671	3,345	87	243
1974 (9 months)	613	3,945	187	348
1975	816	5,901	340	486
1976 (4 months)	354	1,713	11	80

Sponsored trainees are sent by their employers who continue to pay them as well as a fee to AnCO towards the costs involved.

TABLE 3.27

Average hours worked in a week in September

	Mining	Manufacturing	Building and Construction
1961	47·1	45·2	45·0
1962	45·9	44·6	45·1
1963	45·5	44·6	45·0
1964	45·4	44·1	44·2
1965	45·7	44·0	45·5
1966	46·1	43·8	44·6
1967	45·5	43·4	44·4
1968	44·7	43·3	46·3
1969	47·6	42·9	47·2
1970	47·2	42·7	46·8
1971	48·2	42·3	46·2
1972	47·9	42·3	45·4
1973	48·0	42·3	n.a.
1974	44·4	41·5	n.a.
1975	43·7	41·3	n.a.

n.a. = not available.
(*a*) includes building and construction.
Source: Irish Statistical Bulletin.

TABLE 3.28

Distribution of fatal and non-fatal accidents by sex

	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974
Fatal Accidents:											
Male	14	13	20	22	20	19	22	30	24	32	25
Female	1	1	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	—	—
Total	15	14	20	22	20	19	22	32	24	32	25
Non-Fatal:											
Male	2,045	1,945	2,190	2,405	2,448	2,492	2,428	2,618	2,664	3,053	3,318
Female	331	370	339	310	243	327	310	290	220	269	324
Total	2,376	2,315	2,529	2,715	2,691	2,819	2,738	2,908	2,884	3,322	3,642

Distribution of all accidents by industry

	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974
Food, Drink and Tobacco	582	564	670	732	745	737	690	764	704	779	934
Textiles and Clothing	270	259	243	276	255	242	236	209	193	214	249
Woodworking and Furniture	102	103	110	95	117	173	132	146	97	149	120
Metals, Engineering and Vehicles	505	506	553	558	521	531	652	551	561	573	609
Docks, Building and Warehouses	257	216	228	242	347	414	325	386	485	510	540
Other	675	681	745	834	723	741	725	877	868	1,129	1,215
Total All Accidents	2,391	2,329	2,549	2,737	2,708	2,838	2,760	2,933	2,908	3,354	3,667

Source: Report of Industrial Inspectorate
Note: These statistics refer to all accidents and dangerous occurences notified to the Industrial Inspectorate

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Chapter 4

HEALTH[1]

Introduction

4.1. This chapter presents statistics on some aspects of the state of health of people in this country, and the services provided for those in need of care. In order to examine trends in the health of people, statistics going back quite some time (for example, to 1925 in the case of Table 4.1) have been used. In the section on policy developments, however, these have been traced only from the mid-1960s, as the most important changes for some decades in health policy occurred within the last ten years.

4.2. Some statistics are given on the use of services, but the number of tables on this is limited. It is difficult to draw any valid conclusion about the state of the nation's health from statistics on the provision or use of services, because these are influenced as much by their availability as by the need for them. Use of services is also influenced by changes in public expectations, often as a result of increased education or technological changes.

4.3. Table 4.1 shows how people's life expectancy has changed at various ages over the period 1925–27 to 1965–67 (the latest period for which life figures are available). Apart from the fact that life expectancy has increased for both sexes in all ages under 65, two interesting features emerge from the table. First, life expectancy has increased far more in the younger age groups—for example, in the period examined,

[1]A draft of this Chapter was prepared by the Social Policy Committee and discussed and amended by the Council at its meeting on 22 July 1976. The Chapter was drafted by Ms Catherine Keehan of the Council's Secretariat.

life expectancy at birth increased by nearly 20% for men and 26% for women. This to some extent reflects the drop in infant mortality rates (which are shown in Table 4.3). The second feature is that life expectancy for women has increased far more than for men. In fact, in the older age groups (65 and over) life expectancy for men actually fell in the period under examination.

4.4. Table 4.2 examines statistics on births for the period 1961–75. There are a number of factors which influence the birth rate, the most important of which are the number of marriages, age at marriage, emigration and fertility[1]. In recent years, changes in the first three of these factors have favoured an increase in the number of births. Emigration has ceased, and there is now net immigration; the marriage rate has increased from 5·4 in 1961 to 7·5 in 1973; the average age of bride at marriage has fallen consistently from 26·9 years in 1961 to 24·8 years in 1973. The influence of these factors was pronounced during the years 1968 to 1972, when the number of births was rising rapidly. At the same time, the fourth factor, fertility, was beginning to work in the opposite direction. During the 1970s its effect grew until it equalled the combined effect of the other three factors. It now shows signs of becoming the dominant influence on the number of births.

4.5. Table 4.2 shows that the crude birth rate (i.e. births per 1,000 population) rose between 1961 and 1971 and fell back between 1971 and 1975 to the 1961 level. The really interesting features emerge, however, when the figures are examined in finer detail. While average age at maternity dropped from 31·5 in 1961 to 29·0 in 1973, the percentage of births to mothers aged under twenty-five increased very significantly (from 15·89 in 1961 to 28·7% in 1974) and the percentage of births to mothers aged over 35 did exactly the reverse—dropping from 30·5% in 1961 to 17·4% in 1974. There was a slight increase between 1961 and 1974 in the percentage of births to mothers with one, two or three previous children, but a very dramatic drop (from 32% to 18%) in the percentage of births to mothers with 4 or more previous

[1]Fertility may be defined as the actual reproductive performance whether applied to an individual, group or nation. For the purpose of this discussion, it can be taken as the average number of births to a married woman in the child-bearing age group.

children. The table shows that those trends have been consistent over the whole period.

4.6. Table 4.3 deals with death rates. The crude death rate dropped between 1961 and 1975 from 12·3 to 10·7, but as in the case of the crude birth rate, such a figure conceals some interesting trends. The infant mortality and maternal mortality rates dropped very significantly over the period. The death rate from heart disease also dropped for the population as a whole. As against that, however, it increased for men in the 45–64 age-group from 456·3 (per 100,000 males in that age-group) to 575·6. The death rates from cancer and motor accidents also increased over the period. Table 4.4 illustrates that these trends mean that Ireland now compares very favourably with other West European countries with regard to infant and maternal mortality rates.

4.7. Table 4.5 shows figures for hospital care for period 1960–74. It indicates that while for acute hospitals, the number of beds decreased slightly, there was a large increase in the number of patients treated. This was possibly due to the fact that the average duration of stay fell from 18·7 to 11·6 days. With regard to psychiatric hospitals, the number of beds dropped very dramatically from 7·2 per 1,000 population to 4·9, but the number of patients treated increased from 4·4 per 1,000 population to 8·0 per 1,000 population. It is clear that there is an increasing number of patients with a relatively short duration of stay in psychiatric hospitals. Table 4.6 indicates that the percentage of patients in such hospitals for over three months dropped slightly between 1963 and 1975. This may be due to the increased tendency to treat psychiatric patients while they remain in the community, or to return them to the community sooner than was the practice in the past. As a result, the number of beds required in psychiatric hospitals has fallen.

4.8. Tables 4.6 and 4.7 deal with psychiatric hospital care in more detail. These show that there was a drop in the percentage of patients aged between 25 and 64 between 1963 and 1971, the latest date for which figures are available, and an increase in the percentage of patients aged 65 and over in the same period. The tables also show that while there was a drop in the percentage of admissions who were single, there was an increase in the percentage of admissions who were married. In dealing with these tables, it must be remembered that the absolute number of patients in psychiatric hospitals decreased over the period in question. Thus, while the *percentage* of patients aged over 65 increased, the *absolute number* of such patients decreased, reflecting the fact that the decline in that age group has not been as rapid as that experienced by other age groups.

4.9. Table 4.8 shows how trends have developed with regard to medical protection in recent years. The table shows a very marked increase in the period 1966–75 in the number of people covered both by medical cards, or by Voluntary Health Insurance. The table is somewhat unsatisfactory, in that it does not show the *numbers* of people covered by limited eligibility in either period. No accurate figures are available from any source on the numbers of people in this category, although official sources suggest that about 85% of the population are covered either by medical cards or limited eligibility (36% and 49% respectively).

4.10. Table 4.9 shows the changes which have taken place in the number of doctors, nurses, dentists over the period 1961–71. The number of doctors and dentists per 10,000 population increased only slightly during the period while the number of nurses showed a more substantial increase. It is unfortunately not possible to give details of the number of other staff—physiotherapists, psychologists and social workers etc.—in the same way. There is however some (albeit incomplete) information available about social workers: between 1972 and 1975, the number of approved health board posts for social workers increased from 68 to 190, and the number of posts actually filled increased from 43 to 120.

Health Policy Developments 1961–75

4.11. The Council will shortly be publishing a review of health policy in Ireland. This section will therefore be fairly brief. The fifteen-year period under review was one which saw major changes in health policy, both in terms of the policy itself, and in the form of administration. The period between 1961 and 1971 was especially important and is best summed up by a quotation from "The Health Services in Ireland".[1]

[1]Hensey: The Health Services in Ireland (2nd edition) Institute of Public Administration, 1972.

"It was a decade of scrutiny of the existing services, of identification of problems and of recommendations—sometimes contradictory—for solutions. It was a period of uncertainty for some existing services pending decisions on changes. It was a period of new medical discoveries and of a change in emphasis in the aims of the health services, because of the decline in some former problems, the magnification of others and the emergence of some new ones. Heart disease, cancer, psychiatric conditions (including those associated with alcoholism and drug dependence), diseases associated with ageing and accidents emerged as the main concerns for the nineteen-seventies. Just as was the case with tuberculosis in earlier times, these were problems rooted in the way of life of the people, but because the way of life had become so much more complex, solutions to these problems were clearly going to be much more difficult.

The decade saw a dawning realisation and acceptance of the fact that the increasing fruits of medical science could not easily be made available to all who could benefit from them and that, because of the complications of modern medical organisation, changes and new involvements in health administration were called for".

4.12. There was probably more written and spoken about health services in Ireland in that decade than any other policy. Between 1965 and 1971, no less than seven reports (including the 1966 White Paper) on various aspects of health were published (for full list, see the bibliography at the end of this chapter.)

4.13. The 1966 White Paper was the basis for the 1970 Health Act, which, when it became operational in April 1971 brought about major changes in the administration of the Health Services. The Act transferred responsibility for the health services from local authorities to eight new area health boards. The Act also replaced the old dispensary system by a choice-of-doctor scheme for those entitled to free medical care. Finally, the Act provided for improvements and adjustments in a number of other services. In-patient and out-patient hospital care for a number of long term conditions in children were made available free to all, and drugs for certain long-term ailments were also made available (the list of ailments has been extended on a number of occasions since the passing of the Act).

4.14. As in the case among other countries, the problem of financing the health services was being given much attention. In 1971, the Health Contributions Act introduced a new source of finance to meet part of the cost of the provision of services by the health boards. This provided for a weekly contribution to be collected from insured employees who were entitled to limited eligibility. The contribution was included in the Social Welfare stamp. For those persons who were covered by limited eligibility, but who were not in insured employment (notably, self-employed persons and those with private means) an annual sum is collected by the Revenue Commissioners. Similar contributions from farmers are collected by the health boards. Finally, for those insured persons with full eligibility for health services, the health contribution element of the Social Welfare stamp is paid by employers. The present (August 1976) cost of the health contribution is £0·33 per week for insured persons (£17·1 per annum), and £15 per annum for all others. At the same time as these changes were introduced charges for hospital services formerly payable by those with limited eligibility were abolished. This scheme became operational in October 1971.

4.15. In April 1974, a change in the social insurance system occurred which had a major bearing on a number of people entitled to limited eligibility. The income ceiling for those obliged to pay social insurance was abolished, and all employees became liable to pay social insurance. At the same time, the income ceiling for those with limited eligibility was increased to £2,250 per annum in the case of the socially insured, and £1,600 per annum in the case of others. The Minister for Health increased these income limits to £3,000 per annum for all categories entitled to limited eligibility from 1 July 1976.

4.16. The policy changes described so far were mainly concerned with administration and finance. From the point of view of the consumer, however, other and perhaps more important policy changes also took place. There was an increased recognition of the special problems of

age and of the need to develop specialised services for them. An Inter-departmental committee on the Care of the Aged reported in 1968 and many of its recommendations were put into effect. The general responsibility for the co-ordination of activities of this area was assigned to the Minister for Health, although a number of other agencies and Government Departments are also involved. Since the early 1970s there has been a considerable expansion in services for the aged—the provision of meals-on-wheels, home help services, and the building of welfare homes for old people. Many of these activities are carried out by Voluntary organisations. In 1971, the National Social Service Council was established by the Minister to co-ordinate the activities of voluntary and statutory agencies in this and other fields of health and social welfare areas.

4.17. The establishment of Community Care programmes under the health board areas has led to an expansion in the field of personal social services. There has been an increase in the number of social workers employed by statutory authorities since the establishment of health boards and a greater number of non-hospital services have been provided. There has also been increasing co-operation between voluntary and statutory agencies, and a consequent improvement in the delivery of health care to the consumer.

4.18. There has also been in the past few years greater emphasis on preventive care. This is particularly obvious in the area of medical examinations of school and pre-school children, and on an increased recognition of the need for special services for the elderly.

TABLE 4.1

Life expectancy

Further number of years a person can expect to live	Males			Females		
	1925–27	1945–47	1965–67	1925–27	1945–47	1965–67
At birth	57·4	60·5	68·6	57·9	62·4	72·9
At age 5 years	59·5	61·5	65·7	59·2	62·5	69·6
At age 10 years	55·2	56·9	60·8	54·9	57·9	64·8
At age 15 years	50·7	52·2	56·0	50·5	53·2	59·8
At age 20 years	46·4	47·8	51·2	46·4	48·8	54·9
At age 25 years	42·4	43·5	46·4	42·2	44·7	50·1
At age 35 years	34·4	34·9	36·9	34·7	36·3	40·4
At age 45 years	26·5	26·4	27·7	27·0	28·0	31·1
At age 55 years	19·1	18·6	19·3	19·6	20·1	22·4
At age 65 years	12·8	12·0	12·4	13·4	13·1	14·7
At age 75 years	7·7	6·9	7·3	8·4	7·7	8·4

TABLE 4.2

Births: numbers and rates, illegitimate births, age at maternity, previous children and place of occurrence 1961, 1971 and 1975

	1961	1971	1975
Total births	59,825	67,551	67,508
Crude birth rate (per 1,000 population)	21·2	22·7	21·6
Births to single mothers			
Total	975	1,842	2,514
As a percentage of total births	1·6	2·7	3·7
Age at Maternity			
Average age at maternity	31·5	29·4	29·0*
Percent of births to mothers aged under 25 years	15·8	27·1	28·7
Percent of births to mothers aged 35 years and over	30·5	20·1	17·4
Previous children			
Percent of births to mothers with no previous children	21·0	28·3	29·9
Percent of births to mothers with 1, 2 or 3 previous children	47·1	49·9	52·4
Percent of births to mothers with 4 or more previous children	31·9	21·8	17·7
Place of occurrence			
Percent of births which were domiciliary	20·4	2·1	0·8
Percent of births which took place in hospitals (excluding private maternity homes, special homes etc.)	59·6	80·7	86·9

*1973

TABLE 4.3

Death rates

	1961	1971	1975
Number of deaths	34,763	31,890	33,532
Crude death rate	12·3	10·7	10·7
Deaths from selected causes	**1961**	**1971**	**1974**
Infant mortality			
Number of deaths (live born infants under 1 year)	1,827	1,214	1,227
Infant mortality rate (infant deaths per 1,000 live births)	30·5	18·0	17·8
Maternal deaths			
Number of deaths	27	17	6
Rate (per 100,000 live and still births)	45	25	6
Heart disease			
Number of deaths	11,723	10,275	11,066
Rate (per 100,000 population)	416·0	345·0	353·9
Rate for men aged 45–64 (per 100,000 male population aged 45–64)	456·3	505·7	575·6
Cancer			
Number of deaths (from malignant cancers only)	4,704	5,680	6,098
Rate (per 100,000 population)	166·9	190·7	197·6
Motor vehicle accidents			
Number of deaths	286	561	569
Rate (per 100,000 population)	10·1	18·8	18·2
Tuberculosis			
Number of deaths	420	183	155
Rate (per 100,000 population)	14·9	6·1	5·0

TABLE 4.4

International comparisons of death rates, by cause, with selected countries

		Crude death rate (per 1,000 population)	Maternal deaths (per 100,000 females)	Infant mortality (per 1,000 live births)	Peri-natal mortality (per 1,000 live births)	Cancer death rate (per 100,000 population)	Heart-disease death rate (per 100,000 population)	Tuberculosis death rate (per 100,000 population)
Belgium	(1971)	12·3	0·6	19·7	22·9 (1970)	247·9	331·9	6·1
Denmark	(1972)	10·1	0·1	12·2	16·2	236·7	352·6	2·6
France	(1970)	10·7	0·5	18·2	20·7	207·4	208·7	8·2
West Germany	(1972)	11·9	0·9	22·7	24·1	233·7	331·7	6·8
Italy	(1972)	9·6	1·5	27·0	29·6	187·0	276·7	6·2
Luxembourg	(1973)	11·9	1·1	14·3	17·7	248·8	261·1	2·3
Netherlands	(1972)	8·5	0·3	11·7	16·7	197·5	263·9	1·5
Sweden	(1972)	10·3	0·2	10·8	14·4	227·3	404·9	4·3
England and Wales	(1973)	11·9	0·3	16·9	21·3	244·1	397·7	2·7
Scotland	(1973)	12·4	0·6	19·0	22·7	248·1	430·2	3·4
Northern Ireland	(1973)	11·4	0·6	20·9	25·9	189·0	395·4	4·3
Ireland	(1973)	11·2	0·5	18·0	22·9	190·2	363·9	5·7

TABLE 4.5

Class of hospital	1960			1974		
	Per thousand population		Average duration of stay (days)	Per thousand population		Average duration of stay (days)
	Number of beds	Patients treated		Number of beds	Patients treated	
Acute short stay	6·3	89·7	18·7	5·8	141·0	11·6
Psychiatric	7·2	4·4	—	4·9	8·0	—

Note: In deriving the statistics for patients treated in acute hospitals, no figures were available for inclusion in respect of those treated in private hospitals. In the case of psychiatric hospitals, the statistics for patients treated are based on admissions for the years in question and duration of stay figures are not available.

TABLE 4.6

Psychiatric care

	1963	1975
Number of patients in hospital on 31 December	19,246	14,967
% of patients on 31 March aged under 25	5·0	5·9 (1971)
aged 25–64	70·1	63·7 (1971)
aged 65 and over	24·9	30·4 (1971)
% of patients on register for over 3 months	88·1	86·4

TABLE 4.7

Admission to psychiatric hospitals by age and conjugal condition of patients 1966 and 1970

	1966	1970
% of all admissions which were first admission	40·4	37·8
% of admissions who were single	56·0	51·9
% of admissions who were married	35·4	39·1
% of admissions who were widowed	8·6	8·9
% of admissions who were aged under 25	11·9	12·0
aged 25–64	72·9	72·6
aged 65 and over	15·2	15·3

TABLE 4.8

Protection against Illness

	Medical cards		Limited eligibility*		V.H.I.	
	1966	1975	1964	1975	1966	1975
Number of persons covered (000's)	856·3	1,162·4	N.A.	N.A.	262·0	524·5
% of population covered	29·7	37·2	N.A.	49	9·1	17·0

Notes: 1. No figures are available on the numbers of people covered by limited eligibility. This is mainly because these are only identified when hospital care for them is necessary.

2. The numbers covered by V.H.I. include some (V.H.I. estimate about 25–28% of their total membership) who are also covered for limited eligibility.

3. The figures in this table do not preclude the possibility that a proportion of the population has no health cover at all. V.H I. estimates that about 10% of all private patients in hospitals (i.e. patients paying fees) have no health insurance of any description.

*Estimate.

TABLE 4.9

Health manpower: medical practitioners, dentists, nurses, 1961 and 1971

	1961	1971
Medical practitioners:		
Male	2,460	2,864
Female	492	701
Total number	2,952	3,565
Number per 10,000 population	10·5	12·0
Dentists		
Male	512	579
Female	55	80
Total number	567	659
Number per 10,000 population	2·0	2·2
Nurses		
Male	2,170	2,694
Female	13,060	16,590
Total number	15,230	19,284
Number per 10,000 population	54·0	64·7

Source: Census of Population, 1961 and 1971.

Note: These figures are taken from census data. Thus not all of the personnel included are necessarily practising their professions.

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Chapter 5

EDUCATION[1]

5.1. Since the early 1960s, an increasing population and a comparatively high rate of economic growth have led to a large and sustained expansion of the educational system. In addition, several policy decisions have had an expansionary effect. This chapter reviews the development of the educational system since 1963–64. Developments up to 1963–64 have already been comprehensively reviewed in the OECD survey team's report, *Investment in Education,*[2] and the situation at that time with regard to policy options was the subject of a report by the National Industrial Economic Council.[3]

5.2. The growth of the educational system may be summarised as follows:—

(i) the share of public educational expenditure in GNP, which represents over 80% of all educational expenditure, rose from 3·45% in 1963–64 to 6·29% in 1973–74;[4]

(ii) the number of full-time pupils and students at all levels increased from 642,000, or 22·4% of total population, in 1963–64 to 816,000, or 26·4% of total population, in 1973–74;

[1]A draft of this Chapter was prepared by the Social Policy Committee and discussed and amended by the Council at its meeting on 22 July 1976. The Chapter was drafted by Mr. John Sheehan, Lecturer in Economics, UCD.

[2]*Investment in Education,* Volume I, pr 8311, 1965; Volume II, pr 8527, 1966, Stationery Office, Dublin.

[3]NIEC Report No. 16, *Comments on Investment in Education,* pr 8886 1966, Stationery Office, Dublin.

[4]See NESC Report No. 12: *Educational Expenditure in Ireland,* prl 4370, 1975 Stationery Office, Dublin.

(iii) the number of full-time teachers at the first and second levels increased from 21,900 (2·0% of the labour force) in 1963–64 to 32,200 (2·9% of the labour force) in 1973–74.[1] The high rate of growth of public expenditure on education as a percentage of GNP is only partly explained by the displacement of private expenditure. Assuming as an extreme case that private expenditure (about 1% of GNP in 1963–64 according to Investment in Education) was zero by 1973–74, education's share would have still risen from 4·45% in 1963–64 to 6·29% in 1973–74.

First Level

5.3. At the first level, approximately 95% of pupils are enrolled in national schools, with most of the remainder in non-aided primary schools. The national school pupils receive free tuition, free school transport if they live in some rural areas, and free school books in certain cases of need. Generally, first-level education commences at the age of 4 (about 65% of 4-year-olds are enrolled each year at 1 February) and the transition to second level occurs mainly between the ages of 12 and 13.

5.4. As enrolment rates for most of the first-level age group have been almost 100% for many years, population change is the principal determinant of enrolment. The numbers enrolled in recent years are summarised in Table 5.1. Enrolment has increased steadily from 496,000 in 1963–64 to 514,000 in 1968–69 (i.e. by about 3,600 per annum) and to 544,000 in 1973–74 (i.e. by about 6,000 per annum). In absolute numbers the national schools account for most of this growth, while the non-aided sector remained constant at 23–24 thousand. The "other" sector increased from 2,793 in 1963–64 to 7,029 in 1973–74, reflecting the large increase in the provision of special schools for the physical and mentally handicapped. In addition the number of children in special classes in primary schools was 1,689 in 1973–74; these remedial classes are a recent development.

[1]These figures exclude non-aided second level, in which there were approximately 200 teachers in 1963–64 (see *Investment in Education,* Volume I, Table 1.1) and for which there is no comparable information in 1973–74.

5.5. The national school teaching force has expanded slightly faster than school enrolments. This is reflected in the fall in the pupil:teacher ratio, from 33:1 in 1964–65 to 32:1 in 1973–74. In addition, there has been a fall in the number of pupils being taught in very large classes: in 1968–69 there were 149,490 pupils (30·9% of the total) in national school classes of over 45; in 1973–74, 69,349 (13·5%) were in such classes. Thus new entrants to the teaching force have been deployed more effectively.

5.6. This also has regional implications, as it was calculated by the OECD survey team in Investment in Education[1] that in 1962–63, 52% of city pupils, 32·5% of pupils in towns of over 1,500 and 3·8% of pupils in rural areas were in classes of over 50. Clearly any significant reduction in large classes must have benefited urban areas most.

Second Level

5.7. At the second level there has been a combination of rapid enrolment growth and structural change. This is a reflection both of demographic change and of policy developments, notably the abolition of fees at the second level in 1967–68 and the introduction of a free school transport scheme in the same year. The secondary school system has accounted for most of the enrolment expansion, with the exception of the past 2 or 3 years, when the comprehensive and community schools have attained prominence.

5.8. Table 5.3 summarises enrolment trends at the second level. Between 1963–64 and 1974–75 total enrolments doubled, from 129,365 to 256,751. Most of this growth took place in the secondary schools, which account for about three-quarters of all second-level enrolments. However, the new comprehensive and community schools which started in 1966–67 had 13,452 pupils in 1974–75. The number of pupils in these schools is expected to grow rapidly as community schools are built in new housing areas and replace existing small secondary and vocational schools.

[1]*Op. cit,* Volume I, ch. 9, table 9.7.

5.9. The raising of the school-leaving age to 15 and the abolition of fees at the second level have also changed the pattern of transition from first to second level. In 1963–64, total enrolment of 13-year-olds in full-time education was 53,546 (94·6% of the population aged 13 years). Of these 31,039 (58%) were at the first level and 22,507 (42%) were at the second level. In 1973–74 enrolment of 13-year-olds was 61,430 (99·4% of population) of whom 8,617 (14%) were at first level and 53,263 (86%) at second level.[1] This does not necessarily reflect a lower age of transition into second level education; it also reflects the increased tendency of those who leave school at the minimum age to go to second level schools rather than stay on in national schools until their time is up. Some experience of second level education is now almost universal.

5.10. *Investment in Education* also estimated the destinations of national school leavers,[2] and comparison with recent years shows a radical change. In 1961–62 approximately 68% transferred to some category of full-time second-level education and 32% left full-time education. In 1972–73 the respective percentages were 97% and 3%.[3] Of course these figures only indicate the proportions of pupils who experience some second-level education; the proportions who complete a second-level cycle are much less.

5.11. Second level enrolments increased more rapidly than the population aged 14–18, and the resulting participation rate increases, classified by age and sex, are detailed in Table 5.4. Overall, if participation rates in the 14 to 18 age group had remained constant at their 1963–64 level, enrolments would have increased from 129,365 in 1963–64 to about 180,000 in 1973–74 (+40%), compared to the actual 1973–74 enrolment of 241,679 (+87% over 1963–64).

5.12. The tendency, noted over a decade ago in Investment in Education for the female participation rate at the second level to be

[1]See Investment in Education, Volume I, Table 1.2, also Department of Education statistical report for 1973–74 and 1974–75.
[2]*Op. cit,* pp. 138–141. These are rough estimates.
[3]See Department of Education statistical report for 1972–73 and 1973–74.

greater than the male participation rate, has continued.[1] For 15-year-olds the gap has almost closed; male participation was 94% of the female rate in 1964–65 and 99% in 1973–74. Surprisingly, this does not appear to be due to the raising of the school leaving age in 1972, as most of the change took place by 1966–67 when the proportion was 98·6%. For 16 and 17-year-olds, large differences in participation rates have persisted, and for 18-year-olds, male participation is now much lower than female, whereas there was little difference in 1964–65. The 1964–65 and 1973–74 figures for male participation rates as a percentage of female are as follows:

	14	15	16	17	18
1964–65	94	84	84	91	107
1973–74	99	91	78	74	74

5.13. The problem of large classes has not arisen at the second level to anything like the extent apparent at the first level. Secondary and community schools are allowed a teacher for every 20 pupils, with provision for head teachers, deputy heads (in larger schools) and career guidance teachers in addition. Vocational schools have usually had pupil-teacher ratios (full-time) of less than 15:1 in recent years. The significance of such ratios is diminished by the different curricula of the secondary, vocational and community/comprehensive sectors, and by the number of part-time teachers in the system (and also by part-time pupils in vocational schools). Overall, the past decade has seen the beginning of a universal second level school system, in the sense that practically all children now make the transition from first to second level, as against only two-thirds approximately previously. This must mean a considerable change in the social environment and educational tasks of the second level school.

Regional details

5.14. Second level enrolments in the nine IDA development regions

[1]Thi is in marked contrast to the 3rd level, where male participation is almost twice female participation. Sometimes aggregate rates for all full-time 2nd and 3rd level education observes this pattern especially for 17 to 19-year-olds.

are detailed in Table 5.9. As the earliest data (aggregated from county figures in *Investment in Education*) are for 1962–63, a detailed comparison with regional population changes for the second level age-group is not possible for the 1961–71 intercensal period.

5.15. Table 5.9 shows the numbers enrolled in each region in 1962–63 and 1973–74 (Columns 1 to 3) together with percentage changes in enrolments (Columns 4 to 6). Column 7 shows the percentage change in the population aged 10 to 19 between 1961 and 1971 census years for comparison; Column 8 shows the enrolment *rates* for 1962–63 as calculated in Investment in Education (second level enrolments in February as a percentage of population aged 13 to 17 in the 1961 census). Finally, Column 9 shows the ratio of male to female pupils at the senior cycle where differences in participation begin to emerge (at the junior cycle differences are small—usually less than 5%).

5.16. The initial (1962–63) enrolment rates are only approximate as they do not account for the effects of emigration in the population between April 1961 and February 1963. Any comparison with similar participation rates for 1971 or 1974 would be of doubtful value because of the tendency to transfer from first to second level schools at an earlier age, and the changes in migration patterns between the early 1960s and the early 1970s.

5.17. Between 1961 and 1971 the total population aged 10–19 grew by 8·31% (Column 7), and the large Eastern Region dominated by the Dublin area showed a growth of 21·17%. Not surprisingly, enrolments in this area grew by 136% between 1962–63 and 1963–64, compared to a national average of 103·4%. However, population change is not the only factor; this is illustrated by contrasting the two regions with the largest falls in the 10–19 population: Donegal (−11·66%) and North West (or Counties Sligo and Leitrim) −5·46%. In 1962–63 Donegal had the lowest enrolment rate, 30·2% of the 13 to 17 population, and North-West the highest, 51·8%. In the subsequent period to 1974 Donegal's enrolments grew by 100·5% and North-West's by only 63%, thus redressing the imbalance considerably. Also, in the cases of the Mid-West and South-West regions, high initial enrolment rates seem to result in low subsequent growth in enrolments, compared to the national average (allowing for population change).

5.18. Finally, Column 9 of Table 5.9 shows male as a proportion of female enrolment at the second level for 1974. Compared to a national average of 0·76, the Eastern region has by far the highest ratio (0·87), and the largely rural Western and North-Western regions the lowest (0·63 and 0·62). This is consistent with *Investment in Education*'s finding that female participation at the second level was especially high in rural areas, and is probably explained by the lack of manual and clerical job opportunities for females outside large towns, together with costs of movement to areas of job opportunity (compared to the low direct costs of staying on in school).

Third level

5.19. Enrolments[1] at the third level increased from 17,413 in 1963–64 to 29,645 in 1973–74, an increase of 70%. University enrolment increased from 13,153 to 21,062 over the same period (+60%), teacher training increased from 1,337 to 2,268 (+70%) and technological from 594 to 4,507 (+659%). The large growth of the technological sector is partly due to the development of the regional technical colleges (RTC's) since 1969, and which had 1,600 full-time third level students in 1973–74. Table 5.5 gives third level enrolments by sector for each year from 1963–64 to 1973–74.

5.20. Within the universities, which are the major part of third level activity in terms of numbers, there has been an increase in the proportion of students in humanities[2] from 49·7% to 58·4%, and a fall in the proportions of Medical and Dentistry students from 21·8% to 15·9% between 1963–64 and 1973–74. The share of other major areas of study (engineering, science, agricultural and veterinary subjects) had remained relatively stable.[3] Overall, taking science and engineering in the universities plus technological education in the non-university sector, the number of full-time students in science and technology (but excluding agricultural and dairy science)[4] has increased from 3,290 in

[1]In this section, enrolment refers to full-time undergraduate and postgraduate students, unless otherwise indicated.

[2]Humanities includes Arts, Commerce, Economics and Social Studies and Law.

[3]See Table 5.6 for details.

[4]These are excluded because a sufficiently detailed breakdown of figures is not available for 1963–64.

1963–64 (19% of all students) to 9,198 in 1973–74 (31% of all students).

5.21. Participation at the third level, in contrast to the second level, has generally been greater for males than females, a trend which has continued since the first precise figures were published in *Investment in Education*. Table 5.7 gives data for selected years. The absolute participation rates (especially for the 20–24 age group) are misleading in the sense that most third level students complete their courses before age 24 thus lowering the ratios. However, comparisons between male and female rates for a given year are a reasonable indicator of the degree to which opportunities are being taken up. Overall the gap between male and female participation rates has closed; for example, female participation as a percentage of male participation rose from 65% to 77% for 18-year-olds; from 52% to 69% for 19-year-olds and from 36% to 51% for 20–24-year-olds—all figures for 1964–65 and 1973–74 respectively.

5.22. This lessening of the degree of inequality between men and women was almost entirely due to a change within the universities. In 1964–65, 71·2% of university students were males, and in 1973–74 the figure had dropped to 62·6%. On the other hand, the proportions of males in teacher training rose slightly. We do not have enough information to show the influence of the changing subject composition of students on the changing sex-ratio.[1]

5.23. **Educational Policy 1965–75:** In its comments on *Investment in Education* the NIEC (Report No. 16) summarised the principal findings of the OECD team as follows:

(i) There was likely to be a shortage of suitably qualified entrants to the labour market in the 1970s.

(ii) There were wide social and geographical inequalities in educational participation at all post-primary levels.

(iii) The structure of school curricula was not consistent with subsequent vocational needs.

(iv) In some respects, existing resources were inefficiently used.

[1]This is a very complex matter because courses of different duration have a different ratio of entrants to total enrolment, and thus stock figures are not an accurate guide to participation or opportunity.

5.24. Subsequent policy developments are in many important respects related to these findings. The announcement of a scheme to build a limited number of comprehensive schools (May 1963), while it was made before the publication of Investment in Education, was the start of a process of change at the second level which is still continuing.

5.25. From 1966–67 onwards, a policy of amalgamating small one- and two-teacher schools began to have an effect on the structure of the national school system.[1] This policy was largely prompted by Investment in Education's cost-effectiveness analysis of national schools, which showed that many small schools were inefficient users of resources (especially of teachers).[2] This rationalisation policy, which resulted in the closure or amalgamation of over 1,300 one- and two-teacher schools by 1972 was complementary to three other policy developments. First, a free transport scheme was introduced in 1967–68. This scheme has especially benefited pupils in rural areas who would otherwise have been disadvantaged by the closure of small schools. Second, a new curriculum was introduced in primary schools in 1970. Third, changes in the management of primary schools introduced in 1973 gave more control over these schools to the community and ended the exclusive management control of the local clergy.

School facilities

5.26. The improvement in national school amenities since 1963–64 has been considerable and has been aided by the policy of school rationalisation. Some of the results of surveys in 1963–64, 1972 and 1974 are summarised in Table 5.8, which shows large increases in the percentages of schools with modern sanitation, lighting and heating. While the provision of comprehensive schools (run by the Department of Education) made a start in removing geographical inequalities in second level provision, the decision to abolish fees at the second level from September 1967 was intended to overcome social barriers to participation. Under this scheme, almost all secondary schools ceased to charge fees in return for an increased level of state capitation grants, and the small fees charged by vocational and comprehensive schools were abolished. The introduction of the new free transport scheme for pupils more than 3 miles from the nearest school was complementary with the abolition of fees, as was the introduction of a new grant/loan scheme to encourage the provision of more places in secondary schools to cope with the expected increase in demand.

[1]See Table 5.2.
[2]*Op. cit,* Volume I, Chapter 9.

5.27. In 1970 the decision to set up community schools represented a further development of comprehensive-type education. Community schools were to be set up where agreement could be reached between the appropriate authorities on amalgamation of small vocational and secondary schools or schools in need of replacement. Also it was intended that in rapidly expanding new housing areas, community schools would cater for second level educational needs. The community school has a comprehensive curriculum, local representation on its board of management, and a wide range of sports and other facilities which it is intended should be used by the community as a whole. Currently over half the new pupil places being built at the second level are in such schools.

5.28. The minimum school leaving age was raised from 14 to 15 in 1972. This measure had originally been scheduled for introduction in 1970. Its postponement gave the second level system more time to adjust to the rapid rise in enrolment consequent on the 1967 reforms. The raising of the school leaving age means that many pupils will have completed junior cycle second level by the time they are allowed to leave.

5.29. The policy developments at first and second level are clearly related to the findings of Investment in Education. Their overall effects can be seen in the expansion of enrolments and participation outlined earlier and summarised in Tables 5.1 to 5.4. However, some aspects, such as geographical or regional participation rates, have not been measured in recent years (as far as we know) and so progress here is more difficult to assess.[1]

5.30. At the third level, it is difficult to summarise the development of policy because although there has been a large amount of discussion

[1]Data on enrolment by county etc. are difficult to interpret because school catchment areas may differ significantly from county boundaries in some cases.

and debate, together with a number of proposals and counter-proposals being put forward, little has been done to date (August 1976) to implement any major policy changes. Below is a brief summary of events to date.

5.31. The Commission on Higher Education, which was appointed in 1960 and reported in 1967 recommended that the National University of Ireland Colleges should have independent university status, and that "New Colleges"—a type of liberal arts college—should be established. This recommendation was not implemented, however, and the most important recommendation of the Commission to be directly implemented was the establishment of the Higher Education Authority (HEA) in 1968. The main function of the HEA is to co-ordinate and finance university education, although its scope is to be extended to cover other third level institutions.

5.32. Within the university sector there has been much discussion about future structures since the late 1960s. The Minister for Education proposed in 1968 that TCD and UCD should be amalgamated. This proposal has not been implemented. Neither have the universities' own counter-proposals, nor the HEA's recommendations, both of which involved considerable rationalisation of the facilities offered by the Dublin universities. Within the last two years, there have been two further statements from the Minister proposing changes in the university structure. The first, in December 1974, announced a decision to maintain two separate universities in Dublin, but with co-operation and rationalisation of facilities. A new university would embrace UCC and UCG. Teacher training colleges and other third level (mainly technological) institutions would award degrees through one of the universities, with whom they were to become affiliated. The second statement, in July 1976 announced that the three constituent N.U.I. colleges and St. Patrick's College, Maynooth (a recognised N.U.I. college), would become separate universities.

5.33. The fastest-growing sector of the third level is technological education, which had less than 600 full-time students in 1963–64 but over 4,500 in 1973–74. This has partly been met by the expansion of existing institutions, notably the two colleges of technology in Dublin.

In addition eight regional technical colleges (RTC's) were opened in the 1969–72 period.

5.34. These colleges were intended to promote a wider availability of technical and technological education at both second and third level, and have tended to concentrate on third level work. Finally, a National Institute of Higher Education (NIHE) was established in Limerick (together with a national college of physical education) which offers science and technology courses to degree level. A National Council for Educational Awards (NCEA) was established in 1972 to approve courses in the technological sector and to award degrees and diplomas. However, recent ministerial proposals (December 1974) stated that this role might be exercised by whichever university with which the technological institution chooses to become associated.

5.35. The technological sector also co-operates closely with AnCO (The Industrial Training Authority), in meeting the needs of industry for skilled manpower. Overall the importance of vocational training and technological education in meeting the needs of industry have been emphasised in policy decisions, and in this Council's Report on Manpower Policy.[1]

5.36. The most important policy development in the teacher-training sector has been the initiation of a three-year degree course for trainee National teachers from 1974–75. Degrees will be awarded by the universities to which the colleges are affiliated.

5.37. Student grants and scholarships have been awarded to an increasing number of third level students, especially since 1968 when a new grant scheme for universities replaced the old scholarship scheme. Under the new scheme, all students who are accepted by universities and who have at least four honours Leaving Certificate subjects qualify for a grant, subject to a means test. Over one quarter of all university students qualified for such grants (5,942 out of 20,771) in 1974–75. For the technological sector a scholarship scheme is jointly financed by local

[1]See NESC Report No. 6, Comments on the OECD Report on Manpower Policy in Ireland.

VEC's and central government. As scholarships (limited in number and awarded on a competitive basis) and grants (awarded to all who fulfil certain minimum conditions) both include a fee element their real value is higher than is indicated by the scale of awards. Furthermore,all students at the third level pay fees well below the cost of their courses and thus receive considerable benefits indirectly.

TABLE 5.1

Enrolment in first level schools 1963–64 to 1973–74

Year	National schools	Non-aided primary	Other	Total
1963–64	472,124	21,151	2,793	496,068
1964–65	473,894	23,269	3,539	500,702
1965–66	477,000	23,770	4,095	504,865
1966–67	481,864	23,249	4,231	509,344
1967–68	479,661	23,724	4,551	507,936
1968–69	484,323	24,355	5,236	513,914
1969–70	491,045	23,700	5,384	520,129
1970–71	496,851	24,101	5,813	526,765
1971–72	502,999	23,753	6,158	532,910
1972–73	508,083	24,122	6,629	538,834
1973–74	514,150	23,260	7,029	544,439

Source: Department of Education, annual statistical reports.

Note: Enrolments are on 1 February each year. Commencing 1974–75 enrolments are calculated for September and are not strictly comparable with earlier data. "Other" schools are mainly special schools for physically and mentally handicapped.

TABLE 5.2

National schools: teachers, pupil-teacher ratios, class size etc. 1963–64 to 1973–74

Year	Number of teachers	Number of pupils per teacher (average)	% of pupils in classes >45	One and two teacher schools as % of total
1963–64	14,297	33·0	46·6% over 40 43·3% over 50	65·7
1964–65	14,469	32·8		65·9
1965–66	14,614	32·6		65·0
1966–67	14,672	32·8		63·2
1967–68	14,794	32·4	31·9	58·7
1968–69	14,950	32·4	30·9	55·0
1969–70	15,067	32·6	30·0	52·5
1970–71	15,235	32·6	28·8	50·4
1971–72	15,358	32·8	27·3	47·7
1972–73	15,535	32·7	24·5	45·6
1973–74	16,034	32·1	13·5	43·5

TABLE 5.3

Second level enrolments 1963/64—1973/74 (Full-time pupils only)

Year	Secondary Schools	Vocational Schools	Community and Comprehen-sive Schools	Other	Total
1963–64	94,644	30,576	—	4,145	129,365
1964–65	99,320	30,576	—	4,194	134,090
1965–66	105,401	33,353	—	4,229	142,983
1966–67	110,137	36,740	771	4,391	152,039
1967–68	124,406	41,170	968	3,757	170,301
1968–69	137,415	43,595	1,288	3,276	185,574
1969–70	146,843	45,671	1,400	3,228	197,142
1970–71	152,894	50,623	1,619	3,409	208,545
1971–72	158,847	54,691	2,802	3,303	219,643
1972–73	163,881	58,452	5,236	3,524	231,093
1973–74	168,871	59,560	9,786	3,462	241,679
(1974–75)	175,673	64,222	13,452	3,404	256,751

TABLE 5.4

Participation in 1st and 2nd level education by age and sex 1964–65 to 1973–74

Year/Age	14		15		16		17		18	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
1964–65	64·1	68·4	47·2	56·1	34·0	40·3	22·1	24·3	7·5	7·0
1965–66	67·1	70·6	51·1	57·3	35·2	42·8	24·3	26·3	8·4	8·1
1966–67	72·7	73·7	55·5	58·9	38·7	44·6	24·5	27·0	8·1	9·0
1967–68	85·1	83·4	62·0	65·8	42·0	51·0	27·4	32·4	9·0	10·3
1968–69										
1969–70										
1970–71										
1971–72										
1972–73	89·8	89·2	72·1	77·6	52·2	64·3	34·0	45·8	10·5	15·0
1973–74	92·0	92·8	74·2	81·2	52·4	67·4	32·9	44·3	10·4	14·0

Note: Participation rates are the numbers in full-time education on 1 February each year as a percentage of the estimated April population.

TABLE 5.5

Third level enrolments 1963–64 to 1973–74

Year	Universities (a)	Teacher-training (b)	Technological (c)	Other (d)	Total
1963–64	13,153	1,337	594	2,329	17,413
1964–65	13,675	1,334	852	2,336	18,197
1965–66	16,007	1,435	1,007	2,249	20,698
1966–67	16,568	1,446	1,067	2,240	21,341
1967–68	16,881	1,543	1,202	2,111	21,737
1968–69	18,056	1,498	1,449	2,140	23,143
1969–70	19,122	1,759	1,740	1,911	24,496
1970–71	20,348	1,744	2,322	1,804	26,218
1971–72	20,671	1,774	3,037	1,654	27,136
1972–73	21,225	2,051	3,921	1,417	28,614
1973–74	21,062	2,268	4,507	1,808	29,645

Notes: *(a)* Universities include the Royal College of Surgeons in Ireland.

(b) Teacher-training includes all aided teacher training, i.e. National, Vocational and Domestic Science.

(c) Technological includes all full-time 3rd level students in Vocational, Schools, Colleges of Technology and RTC's.

(d) "Other" is mainly non-aided.

Source: February census returns, published for 1963–64 in *Investment in Education*, and subsequently in Department of Education annual statistical reports.

TABLE 5.6

Full-time university students by area of study

(Figures in parentheses are percentages)

	Humanities	Science	Medicine and dentistry	Engineering and architecture	Agricultural, dairy science and veterinary medicine	Total
1962–63	6,119 (49·7)	1,783 (14·5)	2,689 (21·8)	913 (7·4)	819 (6·7)	12,323 (100·0)
1973–74	12,447 (60·8)	2,648 (12·9)	2,674 (13·1)	1,824 (8·9)	881 (4·4)	20,474 (100·0)
1974–75	12,540 (60·4)	2,824 (13·6)	2,678 (12·9)	1,867 (8·9)	862 (4·2)	20,771 (100·0)

Sources: 1962–63: University returns submitted to Investment in Education team; 1973–74, 1974–75: HEA Student Statistics, 1974–75.

Notes: (i) "Humanities" includes Arts, Commerce, Economic and Social Studies and Law (Details of these groups are not published for 1962–63).

(ii) The totals differ from those in Table 5.5, as they refer to total registered for the academic year. Drop-outs and registrations may give a different figure for the February census.

TABLE 5.7

Third level participation rates for selected years

	18		19		20–24	
	M	F	M	F	M	F
1964–65	6·6	4·3	8·8	4·6	8·7	3·1
1966–67	8·8	5·0	10·6	5·6	9·3	3·7
1972–73	10·4	8·2	12·1	8·5	9·1	4·5
1973–74	12·1	9·3	12·8	8·8	8·7	4·4

Female participation as % of male

	18	19	20–24
1964–65	65	52	36
1966–67	57	53	40
1972–73	79	70	50
1973–74	77	69	51

Source: As in table 4

TABLE 5.8

Sanitation, heating and lighting facilities in national schools, 1963–64—1974

	1963–64	1972	1974
Percentage of schools with piped drinking water	47·4	70·4	76·1
Percentage of schools with flush toilets	45·9	81·0	93·3
Percentage of schools with central or storage heating	19·8	55·2	75·5
Percentage of schools with electric lighting	62·5	91·1	94·9

Sources: 1963–64: Investment in Education, Volume I, Chapter 9.
1972: (February) and 1974: (September) from Department of Education surveys.

TABLE 5.9

Second level enrolment in IDA regions 1962–63 to 1973–74

Region	Enrolment			% change in enrolment (all +)		
	1962–63	1970–71	1973–74	1962–63 to 1970–71	1970–71 to 1973–74	1962–63 to 1973–74
East	36,057	70,715	85,100	96·1	20·3	136·0
Donegal	3,561	6,238	7,140	75·2	14·5	100·5
North-West	4,154	6,423	6,769	54·6	5·4	63·0
North-East	6,326	11,692	13,095	84·8	12·0	107·0
Midlands	10,090	17,182	19,358	70·3	12·7	91·9
West	11,753	21,386	23,283	82·0	8·9	101·2
Mid-West	10,017	15,266	17,270	52·4	13·1	72·5
South-East	16,868	27,974	32,484	65·8	16·1	92·6
South-West	20,097	31,669	37,184	57·6	17·4	85·0
Total	118,923	208,545	241,683	75·5	15·9	103·4

Region	% change in population aged 10–19, 1961–1971	1962–63 enrolment as % of population aged 13–17	ratio of male/female senior-cycle enrolment 1974
East	+21·17	42·5	0·87
Donegal	−11·16	30·2	0·70
North-West	− 5·46	51·8	0·62
North-East	+ 3·36	38·2	0·78
Midlands	+ 2·58	43·5	0·70
West	− 4·24	41·4	0·63
Mid-West	+ 4·73	49·3	0·83
South-East	+ 4·52	46·1	0·75
South-West	+ 8·19	48·5	0·71
Total	+ 8·31	43·8	0·76

Sources: Columns 1 and 8, *Investment in Education*, Vol. 1, Ch. 6. Other columns from Department of Education.

Note: The South-East region here includes all of Co. Tipperary. The IDA classification has Tipperary North Riding in Mid-West and South Riding in South East. This alteration wes necessary because of lack of separate data for North and South Tipperary.

TABLE 5.10

Higher Education Grants Scheme: Number of Grants held

Academic Year	68–69	69–70	70–71	71–72	72–73	73–74	74–75	75–76
Total number	1,119	2,348	3,562	4,333	4,954	5,454	5,942	6,168
Number of new Grants	1,119	1,432	1,462	1,185	1,388	1,593	1,777	N.A.

Source, Higher Education Authority.

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Chapter 6

HOUSING[1]

I. Introduction

6.1. This chapter examines housing conditions, with particular reference to the changes which have taken place since the Census year of 1961. Little attempt is made to cover the area of housing finance, which in any event is partly dealt with in an earlier report of the Council (NESC, 1976b).

II. Provision of housing, 1961–1975

6.2. The proportion of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) which is devoted to capital formation in dwellings has increased from 4·1% in 1968 to 5·1% in 1972 and to 6·3% in 1974.[2] Comparative data for 1972 show that among EEC countries this proportion of 5·1% in Ireland was approximately the same as in Denmark and Italy, was greater than that in Belgium and was greater than the exceedingly low proportion of 3·2% in the UK.[3]

6.3. The number of dwellings built per '000 population has increased from 2·1 in 1961 to 8·6 in 1975. Comparative data for 1971 show that the 5·0 dwellings constructed per '000 population in Ireland was exceeded by most other European countries.[4] However, since 1971 this rate has increased in Ireland and the total number of completions in 1975 was the highest recorded in any year since these statistics commenced.

[1]A draft of this Chapter was prepared by the Social Policy Committee and discussed and amended by the Council at its meeting on 22 July 1976. The Chapter was drafted by Mr. John Blackwell of the Council's Secretariat.

[2]This is the value of new building, reconstruction and conversion as proportion of GDP. *Source: National Income and Expenditure, 1974.*

[3]UN. *Statistical Yearbook 1974*, Table 204.

[4]*Ibid.*

Rates of completion have varied substantially over this period (Figure 6.1). The contribution of local authority building to these completions has varied substantially, from a low of 20·7% of the total in 1961 to a high of 37·7% in 1966.

The dwelling stock

6.4. The number of occupied dwellings increased from 676·4 thousand in 1961 to 687·3 thousand in 1966 and to 726·4 thousand in 1971. It is estimated that at the end of 1975, there were 804,000 dwellings in the country.[1] In the ten years between April 1961 and March 1971, 105,300 dwellings were completed, but 55,300 dwellings went out of use in the same period—either because of change of use, vacancy or obsolescence. Thus, the *net* addition to the dwelling stock in the decade was 50,000 dwellings. It should be noted that a "dwelling" in the Census is a set of rooms occupied by a private household; in turn, a private household is a group of persons who jointly occupy the whole or part of a private dwelling, and who share a common budget.[2]

6.5. The three principal tenure groups are:—

—owner-occupiers (of which there were 500,000 in 1971)
—local authority households (113,000 in 1971)
—households in the private letting sector (97,000 in 1971, of whom about 45,000 to 50,000 are in rent-controlled accommodation).

One of the features of the Irish dwelling stock is the high proportion of owner-occupiers—69%[3] in 1971, compared with a ratio of 60% which existed in 1961 (Table 6.2). This is by far the country with the highest proportion of owner-occupiers in the EEC (the next highest ratio is in Belgium with 55% in 1970),[4] and indeed outside the EEC there are few

[1]*Source:* Estimate from Department of Local Government, which is based on an estimated obsolescence rate of 6,500 per annum.

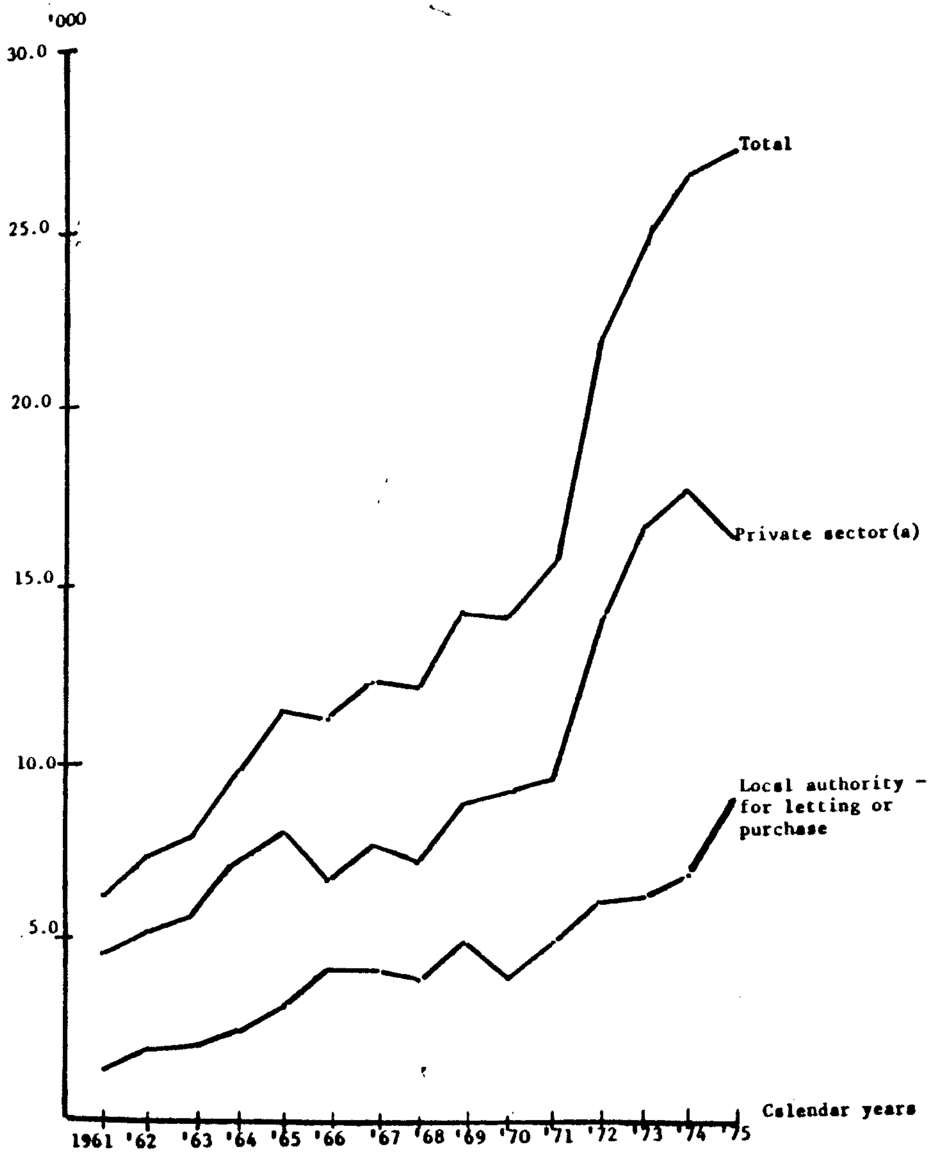
[2]Thus a person who occupies only part of the living accommodation but does not share a common budget with the other occupants is counted as a separate household.

[3]Those local authority tenants who have completed purchase of their dwellings are listed under owner-occupiers, even though they are shown separately in the Census returns (Table 6.2).

[4]U.N., *Statistical Yearbook 1974,* Table 204.

FIGURE 6.1

Dwelling completions by tenure, 1961 to 1975



Note: (a) Dwellings completed with State aid

Source: Table 6.1

European countries with such a high proportion. There is an even higher proportion of owner-occupiers in rural areas—85% in 1971; in town areas this proportion was 53% in 1971.

The importance of the owner-occupied sector is reflected not only in the data on the stock in Table 6.2, but in the pattern of new construction in recent years. Between 1960 and 1975, dwellings built by agencies other than local authorities accounted for 71% of all dwellings completed. In addition, many dwellings built by local authorities ultimately become owner-occupied. Of all owner-occupiers, 67% own their dwellings outright; 46% of owner-occupiers in urban areas own their dwellings outright.[1]

6.6. The number of dwellings rented from local authorities actually declined by 12,000 between the Census dates of 1961 and 1971, despite a total of 31,500 local authority completions in this decade. The stock of local authority dwellings was about 106,300 at the end of 1975, approximately the same as at the end of 1971.[2] These figures reflect the number of tenants who have purchased local authority dwellings. The number of former tenant households, which were acquiring their dwellings on a mortgage basis from a local authority, increased from 42,000 in 1961 to 71,000 in 1971. By the end of 1974, about 120,000 local authority houses had been bought by tenants since the beginning of the purchase schemes. Purchases by tenants have increased in recent years—they were 5,200 in financial year 1971–72, 5,100 in April-December 1974, and an estimated 10,000 in 1975.

6.7. In the privately rented sector, there was a decline of 17% in the total number of tenancies between 1961 and 1971. In recent years the rent-controlled sector has shrunk, as is evidenced by the decline of 35% in unfurnished private tenancies between 1961 and 1971. The number of furnished private tenancies increased by 101% over the same period.

[1]*Household Budget Survey 1973, Volume I—Summary Results*, 1976.

[2]There were 107,500 local authority dwellings in December 1974 (Department of Local Government, *Quarterly Bulletin of Housing Statistics*. qtr. ended 31 March 1976, Table 23). Adding the completions of 1975 and deducting sales, the estimate of local authority dwellings at December 1975 is 106,300.

Increase in households

6.8. A noticeable aspect of housing provision in Europe is the extent to which the lack of sharing among members of the extended family and the "splitting off" of young unmarried people from households both act to increase the number of separate households. It is probably too early to say whether Ireland is moving towards this pattern. There has been an increase in the proportion of 'one-person' and 'two-person' households over 1961–71. The number of households with one person increased from 85·4 thousand in 1961 to 89·0 thousand in 1966 and 102·8 thousand in 1971. Of these households, 56·7 thousand were headed by single persons in 1961, and 66·2 thousand were headed by single persons in 1971.

Multi-family households

6.9. The number of households where there is more than one family (for example, where a married couple lives with in-laws) has actually *increased* at each Census date since 1961: from 22,200 in 1961 to 24,600 in 1966 and to 25,200 in 1971. It is not known how much of this sharing is involuntary, nor is it known how many of these households comprise married couples living with their in-laws, although it is likely that many of them are in this category. In 1972 in Dublin, 1,178 families on the Corporation waiting list were sub-tenants in Corporation houses, which suggests a considerable degree of involuntary sharing.[1]

Size of households and of dwellings

6.10. The average size of households has declined more or less steadily since 1926 (Table 6.3). In the most recent decade, the average size declined from 3·97 persons per household in 1961 to 3·94 in 1971. At the same time the average number of rooms[2] per dwelling has increased—from 4·42 in 1961 to 4·56 in 1971. Thus, there was a reduction in the average number of persons per room in this decade.

Overcrowding

6.11. Despite the lowering in the average number of persons per room, a considerable degree of overcrowding remains. In Ireland, a

[1]NESC (1976 c), p. 35.

[2]The *number of rooms* in a dwelling includes the kitchen, but excludes a scullery or a bathroom.

conservative measure of overcrowding—i.e. an average of 2 or more persons per room, is used. By this measure the number of overcrowded households was 63,100 in 1961, 59,200 in 1966, and 54,400 in 1971. Some of these households contain 3 or more persons per room—their number was 9,100 in 1971 compared with 11,900 in 1961. In 1961 the proportion of persons in private households who were living in overcrowded conditions was 17·8%; this proportion had fallen to 14·8% by 1971 (Table 6.4). Thus, despite the house-building which has occurred, there is still a significant degree of overcrowding. Moreover, the above criterion is a conservative and imprecise indication of overcrowding, since it does not take account of the nature of the rooms or of the structure of the family. For example, a family of four in a four-roomed dwelling can imply only two bedrooms for these four people.[1] Furthermore, the criterion does not take account of the fact that overcrowding is more intolerable in the smaller-sized dwellings, where some figure of less than 2 persons per room is likely to be more appropriate as an indicator. It has been argued elsewhere that overcrowding can be defined as *more than* 1·5 persons per room.[2] If this criterion were adopted, then the number of overcrowded households in 1971 would be 90,500 (rather than 54,400) and the number in 1961 would be 99,500 (rather than 63,100).

6.12. Accepting for working purposes the criterion of "2 or more persons per room", 27,200 or half of all overcrowded households were living in relatively small dwellings, i.e. comprising three rooms or less in 1971. Of these, 13,100 were living in one or two rooms. Most of the larger households are overcrowded (Table 6.5), and 60% of the overcrowded households in 1971 contained 8 or more persons (for example, 2 parents and 6 children). As would be expected, there is a relatively high incidence of overcrowding in those households which contain more than one family; almost one-fifth of these multi-family households were overcrowded in 1971. There are considerable differences between areas in the extent of overcrowding. For example, in 1971 in Dublin County Borough, 10·9% of households were overcrowded (compared with 7·5% in all areas) and 18·2% of its population were living in overcrowded conditions (compared with 14·8% in all areas). To take a finer classification, in 1971 there were thirty-three wards of Dublin County Borough, with an aggregate population of 128,000, where 30% or more of persons in the ward were living at occupancies of 2 or more persons per room.

[1]See discussion in NESC (1976 c).
[2]See NESC (1976 a).

6.13. In 1971, about 20,000 overcrowded households (over a third of the total) were living in rented local authority dwellings, and about 28,000 (or approximately a half) were in owner-occupied dwellings. The amount of new lettings by local authorities to overcrowded families in any one year covers only a fraction of all overcrowding. For example, from financial years 1970–71 to 1974, the annual average number of new lettings by local authorities to families which live in overcrowded conditions or involuntarily with other families, was 2,570.[1] When considering these figures on new lettings, it must be emphasised that in each year, different households become overcrowded: while the Census gives a static picture of overcrowding, it is in essence dynamic. For example, a family living in the same house over an extended period of time may experience under-utilisation of the accommodation in the early stages, and overcrowding later on. Thus, the attribution of the "causes" of overcrowding is not easy. For example, it is questionable whether overcrowding can be said to be "caused" by a prevalence of large families, since some overcrowding might be "caused" by a shortfall in the number of larger dwellings. Indeed, it could be argued that overcrowding is a reflection of a lack of fit between dwelling sizes and household sizes; this mismatch is discussed in the next paragraph.

Occupancy of dwellings

6.14. While 7·5% of households are overcrowded, others under-occupy dwellings. There is no accepted definition of under-occupation, but it could be defined as two or more rooms per person, and by this measure it occurs primarily in the owner-occupied tenure group (Table 6.6). The co-existence of overcrowding and under-occupation implies

[1]This includes lettings of dwellings vacated by existing tenants who transferred to new dwellings. *Source: Quarterly Bulletin of Housing Statistics*, quarter ended 31 March 1976, Table 22.

that there is mismatch between dwelling size and household size. This lack of "fit" is shown in Figure 6.2. For example, the number of 1–2 person households in 1971 was 252,300 but the number of 1–2 roomed dwellings was only 59,400. This mismatch has been accentuated by the fact that building has concentrated on a narrow range of house sizes. Thus, most of the net increases in dwellings in the decade up to 1971 occurred in the 5 to 7 room sizes (Table 6.9). This trend is confirmed by the data on dwelling completions. For example, in 1970, 62% of dwellings completed had either 5 or 6 rooms, and the corresponding proportion in 1974 was 82%.

6.15. Table 6·10 shows the occupancy rates (persons per room) of households of different sizes in 1961 and 1971. For all household sizes, occupancy rates declined in this decade, i.e., there was an increase in average dwelling space per person. This Table also shows what occupancy rates would be required, if a minimum standard of privacy and separation of function between rooms, were to be attained. Two standards are chosen, the lower of which takes one living room, and no more than 2 persons per bedroom, as the minimum criterion[1]. In 1971, the *average* occupancies of households up to those of 8 persons were lower than the above standard, although households of 7 and 8 persons were on the borderline. Using the higher standard (2 living rooms) as a benchmark, in 1971 households of up to 6 persons had an average occupancy equal to or below the standard and those of 5 and 6 persons were on the borderline. This shows the relatively favourable position of those smaller households of 4 persons and under. It must be stressed that these are averages, and conceal a dispersion which is already evident from the discussion of overcrowding and under-occupation. Finally Table 6.11 shows that the highest average occupancy occurs in the local authority sector.

Floor area of new dwellings

6.16. In 1974 the average size of dwellings completed was lower than that in Benelux countries and in Denmark, but slightly higher than that

[1]See: W. V. Hole and M. T. Poutney, *Trends in population, housing and occupancy rates 1861–1961*, Building Research Station, London: HMSO, 1971.

in other EEC countries.[1] The average size of all dwellings completed in 1966 was 82·0 sq. metres; this increased to 91·4 sq. metres for dwellings completed in 1974 (Table 6.12). The average size of local authority dwellings which were built in 1974 was 72·6 sq. metres, compared with an average of 101·3 sq. metres for (grant-aided) dwellings in the private sector. However, the average size of new local authority dwellings has been increasing—from 56·9 sq. metres for those built in 1970 to 72·6 sq. metres for those built in 1974, and the average size of the rooms in these dwellings has also increased in the 1970–74 period.[2]

Fitness of dwellings

6.17. In the absence of direct information on housing quality, data on age and amenities of dwellings must be used as indirect evidence of fitness. First, the data on age are considered; while age cannot be equated with unfitness without qualification, it is one indication. In 1961, 45% of dwellings had been built before 1900, and 58% had been built before 1919 (Table 6.13). However, the building and renovations which took place in the 1961–71 decade, coupled with the loss of older dwellings which went out of use, has meant that the stock of dwellings in 1971 contained a lower proportion of old dwellings than ever before. In 1971, 316,000 housing units[3] out of a total of 705,000 or 45% of the total, were built before 1919 (Table 6.14). This is still a relatively old housing stock by European standards.[4] Rural areas contain a distinctly higher proportion of older units: 58% of the housing units in rural areas in 1971 were built before 1919. By comparison, 32% of housing units in town areas in 1971 had been built before 1919.[5] There is a degree of

[1]Some of the data for other countries relate to 1973. *Source:* Economic Commission for Europe (1975). *Annual Bulletin of Housing and Building Statistics for Europe 1974*, Geneva: U.N.

[2]The average number of rooms in new local authority dwellings increased from 4·18 in 1970 to 4·60 in 1974. *Source:* Department of Local Government.

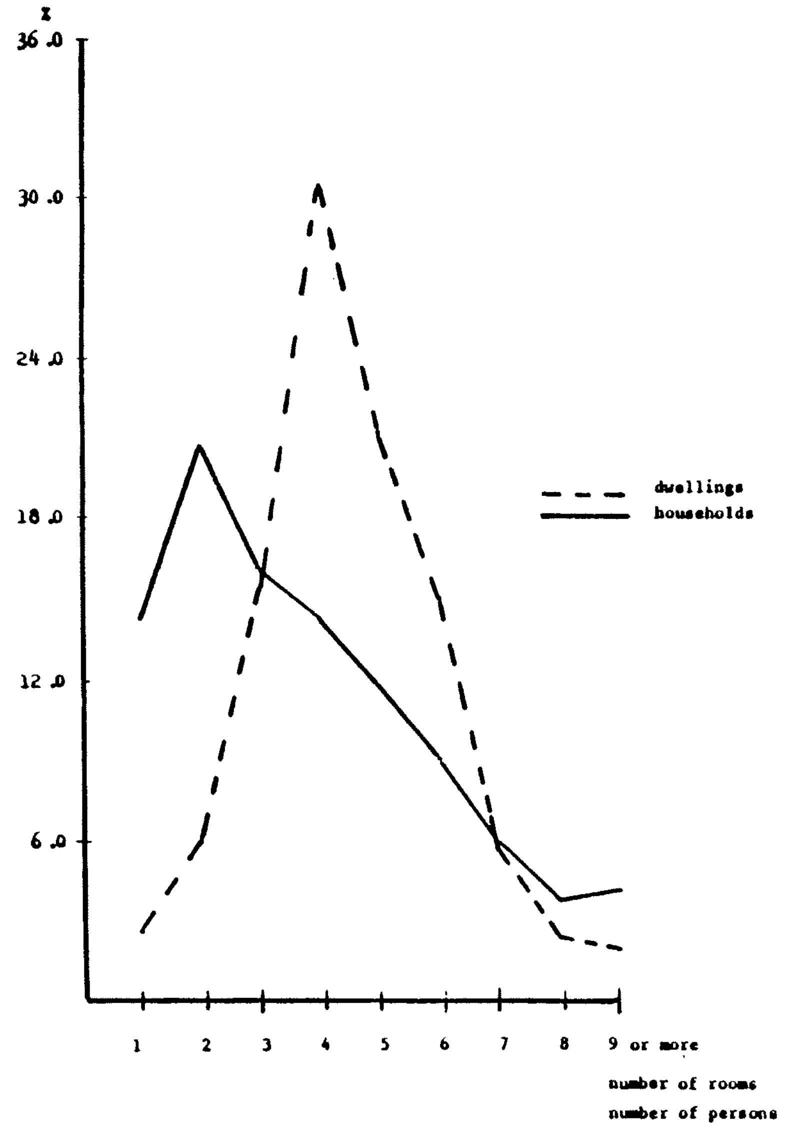
[3]*A permanent housing unit* is a conventional dwelling house, or a structurally separate flat, irrespective of the number of households it contains. Most housing units contain just one household.

[4]A comparison with other countries is distorted by the post-war construction which took place in Europe.

[5]Town areas cover all population clusters of 1,500 or more inhabitants; rural areas are all other areas, including towns of under 1,500 population.

FIGURE 6.2

Distribution of dwellings by number of rooms, of households by number of persons, 1971



Source: Table 6.8.

variation among the regions in regard to the presence of older dwellings (Table 6.15).

6.18. Another indication of fitness is the presence of water supply and of sanitary facilities. In 1971, there were 154,200 dwellings which had no piped water supply, almost all of which were in rural areas. Indeed, 42% of dwellings in rural areas were without piped water supply. Many of the dwellings which lacked water supply in 1971 were relatively old—73,600 of them were built before 1900. This represents a considerable improvement on conditions in 1961, when 289,500 dwellings had no piped water supply, and when 75% of dwellings in rural areas had no such facilities. This improvement has continued since 1971—since the Census of that year, 62,800 grants were paid for the installation of water and sewerage.[1] Thus the proportion of dwellings in rural areas which are without piped water supply must now be reduced to about 25%. With regard to sanitary facilities: in 1971 there were 140,200 dwellings which had no toilet or closet. Once again, almost all of these were in rural areas, and 39% of dwellings in rural areas lacked this facility. Once more, the majority of dwellings which lacked this facility were relatively old—72,900 were built before 1900. This position can be contrasted with that of 1961, when 237,300 dwellings had no toilet or closet, and when 62% of dwellings in rural areas were without these sanitary facilities.

6.19. In 1961, 60% of the dwellings in town areas (clusters of 1,500 persons or over) had a fixed bath, while only 12% of dwellings in rural areas had this facility. By 1971 the proportion of dwellings with a fixed bath or shower had increased to 79% in town areas, and 33% in rural areas.

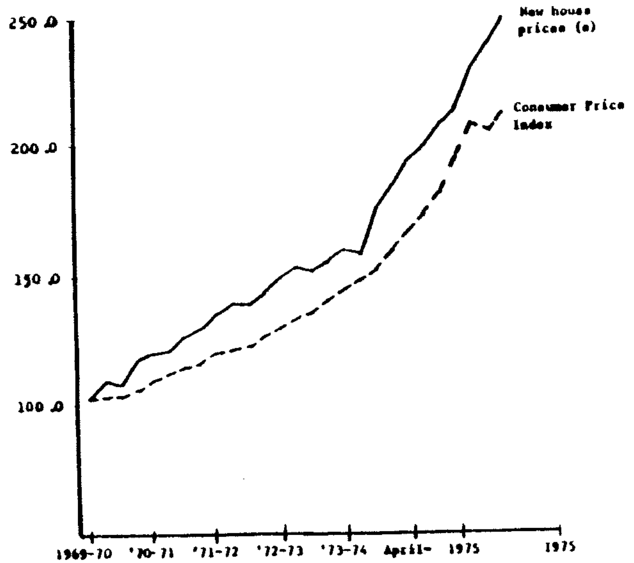
Cost of housing

6.20. The average weekly rent (excluding rates) of all local authority dwellings was £1·22 in (financial year) 1970–71, £1·61 in 1972–73, £1·57 in 1973–74 and £1·56 in April-December 1974. Table 6.16 shows the average weekly expenditure by households on rents, etc., classified by income of the households. This shows that the average

[1]This is the total up to end of 1975. *Source: Quarterly Bulletin of Housing Statistics*, quarter ended 31 December 1975, Table 7.

FIGURE 6.3(*a*)

New house prices, financial years 1969–70 to 1975 (quarterly)
1969-70 I=100



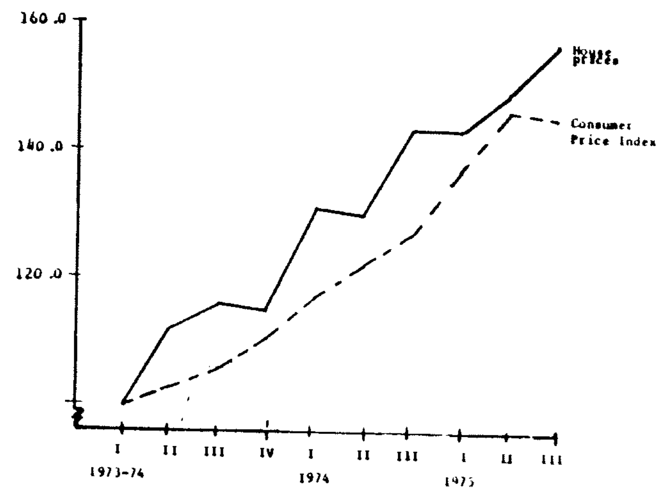
ote: (a) Average gross price of new houses for which loans were approved by
ll agencies

ource: Quarterly Bulletin of Housing Statistics, Irish Statistical Bulletin.

veekly rents of dwellings rented from private owners were significantly ıigher than those for dwellings rented from local authorities, in 1973. t is noteworthy that 28% of private sector tenants in 1973 had a weekly ıousehold income of under £20. The expenditure of these lower-income ıouseholds on rent was, on average, 14% of all their household ex›enditure, compared to a proportion of 11% for all tenants in private əttings. The higher rents in the private letting sector are also evident rom the Census data on rents in 1971, contained in Table 6.17. 'his source has the added advantage that it separates the rents of urnished dwellings in the private sector from rents of unfurnished lwellings; most of the latter are subject to rent control. These data show hat in 1971 the average weekly rent paid in local authority dwellings was :1·89, in unfurnished accommodation was £2·13 and in furnished

FIGURE 6.3(*b*)

Second-hand house prices (all areas), 1973–74 I to 1975 III (quarterly)
1973–74 I =100



Source: Department of Local Government.

accommodation was £5·89. In the rent controlled sector, it is estimated that in around 1975 about 75% of tenants in these dwellings paid weekly rents of £2 or under.[1]

6.21. In the owner-occupied sector, the combined effects of increases in nominal interest rates and in house prices, since 1968–69, have resulted in an increase in real terms in the initial repayments on a mortgage taken out on a house of average price. There has also been an increase in the average down-payment required on houses being purchased, especially for houses bought with local authority loans, where the average deposit in 1975 was around £2,500 (assuming that a supplementary grant was paid, NESC, 1976b). The trends in prices of houses[2] are shown in Figures 6.3 (*a*) and 6.3 (*b*). The rise in the price of

[1]*Source:* Department of Local Government.
[2]These are not "true" price indices, since the mix of houses may change over time. Ideally a price index should relate to a homogeneous good (of constant quality), or else refer to a uniform basket of goods. See NESC (1976b), p. 38.

ouses, relative to the price of other commodities, is usually explained y increased demand combined with an inability to provide a smooth ıcrease in the supply of houses, and by an increase in building costs. ome of the demand comes from the formation of new households, but artly it is a demand for an asset as a protection against inflation. igures 6.3 (*a*) and 6.3 (*b*) show that price increases come in surges, ıther than in a smooth progression.[1]

I. Some significant changes in housing policy, 1966–1976

.22. Towards the end of the period examined there were policy hanges which made it more attractive for local authority tenants (or otential tenants) to purchase dwellings. Under the *Housing Act 1966*, ›cal authorities could sell dwellings to tenants at market value or ometimes at replacement cost, less a discount based on period of ›nancy, of 3% per annum up to a maximum of 30% in urban areas and 5% elsewhere. The basis on which local authority houses were sold to ›nants was changed from July 1973. The new terms were more ›vourable to the purchaser, being based on historic cost converted to urrent money values, less the same tenancy discount, less a fixed mount (£900) which is based on the maximum grants (State and local uthority) for new houses and the capitalised value of rates remission. Inder the new scheme, prices at which these houses were sold were ›duced by 30%–35%. To encourage the sales of *new* local authority ouses, from July 1972 local authorities were allowed to give the tenant ıe option of renting the house, or buying it at a price equivalent to ost less State and local authority grants.

.23. With regard to local authority lettings, the *Housing Act 1966* ›quired local authorities for the first time to let all new dwellings at ifferential rents in accordance with a scheme approved by the Minister ›r Local Government. Until 1973, the rents payable under each local uthority differential rents scheme were based on the full income of the enant. In July 1973 a new differential rent scheme was introduced, vhich is applied throughout the country. The rent is now assessed on the

[1]There is also a price index which covers second-hand house prices in the Dublin rea over the period 1960 to 1970 (*Quarterly Bulletin of Housing Statistics*). This onfirms the trends of Figures 6.3 (*a*) and 6.3 (*b*).

weekly "basic income" (which excludes overtime earnings, shift allowances and bonus payments) of the tenant, less income tax on basic income and less Social Welfare contributions. The rents under the new national scheme were on average about 20% below those under the old scheme. A tenant may not pay more than the maximum rent which is applicable to the dwelling. The 1973 differential rents scheme provides for general revisions of the maximum rents of *existing* houses at three-yearly intervals, the first revision being due not earlier than 1st July 1976.

6.24. The change in the average size of house partly reflects a change in 1970 in the basis of awarding grants for new private houses. The maximum floor area was reduced from 1,500 to 1,249 square feet; the highest grants were paid for houses in the range of 377–1,249 square feet. There was a further change of policy from 1 January 1976: the State grant is paid only to those who qualify for the supplementary grants of local authorities, i.e. who qualify under an income limit which at present is £1,950 for a single person, rising to £2,350 for a person with four or more dependants. The benefits of rates remission and exemption from stamp duty are still available in respect of all new houses which would formerly have been eligible for a grant.

III. Housing provision and social need

6.25. This chapter shows that, judged by some measures, there has been an improvement in the quality of housing services in the period examined. In particular, there has been a decline in the number of old dwellings, the proportion of dwellings which lack basic amenities had declined, and the average size of dwellings has increased. In recent years there has been an increase in the output of local authority dwellings, from 3,800 in 1970 to 8,800 in 1975; these dwellings are provided for persons who live in unfit and overcrowded conditions, for those who cannot afford to provide adequate accommodation for themselves, and for the aged and disabled. The quality of dwellings in the local authority sector has improved, judged indirectly by the increase in the average number of rooms in these dwellings and in their average size. Notwithstanding all this, it is evident that notable disparities in the quality of housing services remain, both between regions, between urban and rural areas, and between households. Some evidence of these disparities is: the extent of overcrowding, the number of dwellings where there are more than one family (an unknown proportion of which sharing is involuntary), while in contrast there is under-occupation. In addition, the number of persons living in mobile dwellings increased markedly from 7,600 in 1961 to 8,400 in 1966 and to 14,800 in 1971. The number of people who are homeless, including those squatting in local authority premises, is likely to be at least 2,000–3,000. While the rate of dwelling completions per '000 population has increased significantly, some of this has been needed to catch up with the backlog of unfit and obsolete dwellings. Those families which are unable to finance housing from their own resources are dependent on the local authority sector for accommodation, and there are distinct differences between areas in the ease with which such accommodation can be obtained, especially for young families. As at 1976 there are about 5,200 families on the waiting list for local authority housing in Dublin City. The data from the Household Budget Survey 1973 show that lower income households in furnished accommodation spend a relatively high proportion of income on rent—the probability is that some of these consisted of families queuing for a local authority dwelling. Young families are likely to be among those hit hardest by the rise in house prices relative to other commodities. Furthermore, the improvement in housing facilities has occurred at the same time as an increase in the dispersion of urban populations and a dissipation of some centre-city residential areas. In recent years there have been moves to stem this outflow of population from these centre-city areas, whether by renovation, or building anew.

TABLE 6.1

Dwelling completions by tenure, 1961 to 1975 (a)

Calendar Year	Local Authority dwellings for letting or purchase	Dwellings completed with State aid (b)	Other (c)	Total	Dwellings completed per '000 population	Local Authority dwellings for letting or purchase as percentage of total
	'000	'000	'000	'000		%
1961	1·2	4·4	0·4	6·0	2·12	20·7
1962	1·8	5·0	0·4	7·2	2·54	25·3
1963	1·9	5·6	0·4	7·8	2·74	23·7
1964	2·3	7·0	0·4	9·7	3·37	23·8
1965	3·0	7·9	0·4	11·3	3·91	26·6
1966	4·1	6·5	0·4	11·0	3·80	37·1
1967	4·0	7·5	0·5	12·0	4·13	33·7
1968	3·8	7·0	0·9	11·9	4·08	31·7
1969	4·8	8·7	0·5	14·0	4·78	34·2
1970	3·8	9·1	1·0	13·9	4·71	27·1
1971	4·8	9·5	1·1	15·4	5·16	31·1
1972	5·9	14·2	1·5	21·6	7·16	27·4
1973	6·1	16·8	1·7	24·7	8·08	24·6
1974	6·7	17·7	1·9	26·3	8·51	25·7
1975	8·8	16·2	1·9	26·9	8·60	32·7

Note: (*a*) Up to 1967 inclusive the data cover the appropriate financial year.
(*b*) Dwellings completed with grants from Department of Local Government, and other State-aided dwellings.
(*c*) Conversions, and dwellings completed without grants.

Source: Quarterly Bulletin of Housing Statistics, quarter ended 31 December 1975, Table 1; quarter ended 31 March 1976, Table 1; Department of Health, *Report on Vital Statistics* 1973.

TABLE 6.2

Private Dwellings by Nature of Occupancy, 1961 and 1971

Nature of occupancy	1961 Number	1961 Percentage	1971 Number	1971 Percentage
	'000	%	'000	%
Owner-occupied excluding purchase from local authority (a)	362·6	53·6	428·4	59·0
Being acquired from a local authority	42·0	6·2	71·2	9·8
Total owner-occupied	404·6	59·8	499·6	68·8
Rented in private sector				
(i) unfurnished	100·5	14·9	65·0	9·0
(ii) furnished	15·8	2·3	31·8	4·4
Total rented in private sector	116·3	17·2	96·8	13·3
Rented from local authority	124·6	18·4	112·7	15·5
Special terms	30·9	4·6	17·2	2·4
Total dwellings	676·4	100·0	726·4	100·0

Note: (a) Including cases where loan or mortgage repayments are being made.
Source: Census of Population 1961, Volume VI, Table 16A; *Census of Population* 1971, Volume VII, Table I.

TABLE 6.3

Average size of household, average size of dwelling, 1926 to 1971

Year	Average number of persons per household	Average number of rooms per dwelling	Average number of persons per room
1926	4·48	3·77	1·19
1936	4·31	3·95	1·09
1946	4·16	4·12	1·01
1961	3·97	4·42	0·90
1966	4·01	4·48	0·89
1971	3·94	4·56	0·86

Source: Census of Population 1971, Vol VI, Tables A B

TABLE 6.4

Persons living at occupancies of 2 or more persons per room, 1926–1971

Persons in private households where:	Percentage of all persons in private households % 1926	1936	1946	1961	1966	1971
2 but less than 3 persons per room	21·9	19·7	17·6	14·2	13·4	12·0
3 or more persons per room	15·2	11·6	7·3	3·6	3·4	2·8
2 or more persons per room	37·1	31·3	25·0	17·8	16·9	14·8

Source: Census of Population 1966 Vol. VI, Table III; *Census of Population* 1971, Vol. VI, Table 8A.

TABLE 6.5

Number of overcrowded households, classified by size of household, 1961 and 1971

Number of persons in household	Number of overcrowded households, i.e. with two or more persons per room 1961	1971	Overcrowded households expressed as proportion of households 1961	1971
	'000	'000	'000	'000
2	2·9	3·7	2·1	2·5
3	1·5	1·4	1·3	1·2
4	4·9	4·2	5·0	4·1
5	2·8	1·9	3·6	2·2
6	9·0	6·6	15·1	10·2
7	5·8	4·0	14·2	9·2
8	13·8	10·9	52·6	40·3
9	8·3	6·7	53·3	41·5
10	7·1	7·2	74·2	69·3
11	3·3	3·2	76·0	71·7
12 and over	3·7	4·7	84·5	85·7
All households	63·1	54·4	9·3	7·5

Source: Census of Population 1961, Vol.VI, Table 10; *Census of Population* 1971 Vol. VI, Table 10.

TABLE 6.6

Permanent housing units classified by nature of occupancy and number of persons per room, 1971

Number of persons per room	Total housing units	Nature of occupancy		
		Owner-occupied	Rented from Local Authority	Other
Up to and including 0·5 persons	221,231	168,641	19,780	32,810
Over 0·5 but under 1 person	181,867	141,105	18,158	22,604
1 but under 1·5 persons	188,290	125,854	37,510	24,926
1·5 but under 2 persons	63,097	37,286	18,779	7,032
2 but under 3 persons	41,741	21,875	14,997	4,869
3 or more persons	7,386	3,329	2,982	1,075
Total housing units (*a*)	705,180	499,359	112,320	93,501

Source: CSO.

Note: (*a*) Includes 1,568 housing units whose occupancy is not known.

TABLE 6.7

Households where 2 or more persons per room, classified by type of household, 1971

Type of Household	Number of households where 2 or more persons per room
Man and wife	1,810
Man, wife and one or more children (of any age)	33,885
One parent and one or more children (of any age)	1,750
Man and wife with other persons	113
Man, wife and one or more children (of any age) with other persons	9,107
One parent and one or more children (of any age) with other persons	779
Two family units with or without other persons	4,571
Three or more family units with or without other persons	228
Two or more persons but not including a family unit	2,171
All households	54,414

Source: Census of Population 1971, Vol. VII, Table 17.

TABLE 6.8

Distribution of dwellings by number of rooms, and of households by number of persons, 1961 and 1971

Number of rooms	Percentage of private dwellings		Number of persons per household	Percentage of private households	
	1961	1971		1961	1971
	%	%		%	%
1	2·3	2·4	1	12·6	14·2
2	6·5	5·8	2	20·3	20·6
3	17·8	15·3	3	17·3	15·9
4	33·0	30·2	4	14·5	14·1
5	17·3	21·0	5	11·6	11·6
6	12·2	15·1	6	8·8	8·9
7	4·9	5·8	7	6·0	6·0
8	2·4	2·3	8	3·9	3·7
9 and over	2·2	1·9	9 and over	4·9	4·0
Not stated	1·6	0·2			
Total	100·0	100·0	Total	100·0	100·0

Source:
Census of Population 1961, Vol. VI, Table 10.
Census of Population 1971, Vol. VI, Table 10.

TABLE 6.9

Net change in number of dwellings, by number of rooms, 1961–71

Number of rooms	Net change in number of private dwellings
	'000
1	+ 1·7
2	− 1·5
3	− 8·8
4	− 3·9
5	+ 36·0
6	+ 27·2
7	+ 9·3
8	+ 0·7
9	− 0·5
10 and over	− 0·9
Not stated	− 9·2
Total	+ 50·0

Source: Census of Population 1971, Vol. VI, Table 6.

TABLE 6.10

Occupancy rates 1961, 1971, compared with those required in order to reach two hypothetical standards of space allocation

Household size (persons in household)	Standard 1: One living room, no more than 2 persons per bedroom		Standard 2: Two living rooms, no more than 2 persons per bedroom		Occupancy rates (Persons per room)	
	Rooms required	Occupancy rate (person per room) implied	Rooms required	Occupancy rate (persons per room) implied	1961	1971
1	2	0·5	3	0·33	0·29	0·29
2	2	1·0	3	0·66	0·48	0·47
3	3	1·0	4	0·75	0·67	0·66
4	3	1·33	4	1·0	0·86	0·83
5	4	1·25	5	1·0	1·05	1·01
6	4	1·50	5	1·2	1·25	1·19
7	5	1·40	6	1·16	1·45	1·37
8	5	1·60	6	1·33	1·66	1·56
9	6	1·50	7	1·29	1·87	1·76
10	6	1·66	7	1·43	2·08	1·97
11	7	1·57	8	1·38	2·31	2·20
12	7	1·71	8	1·50	2·65(*a*)	2·59(*a*)
Mean for all households					0·90	0·86

Note (*a*) Household size of 12 and over was taken to be 12.
Source: As for Table 6.5

TABLE 6.11

Occupancy classified by tenure group, 1971

Tenure Group	Average occupancy of housing units (persons per room)	Proportion of housing units where:	
		1½ or more persons per room	2 or more persons per room
		%	%
Owner-occupied	4·00	12·5	5·0
Rented from local authorities	4·72	32·7	16·0
Rented from private owner *(a)*	3·55	13·9	6·4

***Note** (a)*: This includes a small number in the "rent free" category.

Source: CSO.

TABLE 6.12

Average size of dwellings completed in each year, 1966–74

Year	Useful floor space per dwelling (sq. metres)
1966	82·0
1967	81·0
1968	85·9
1969	87·8
1970	88·4
1971	88·0
1972	90·0
1973	91·2
1974	91·4

Source: Economic Commission for Europe, *Annual Bulletin of Housing and Building Statistics for Europe 1974* (and earlier issues).

TABLE 6.13

Age distribution of dwellings, 1961

Period in which built	Number of dwellings	Percentage of all dwellings
	'000	%
Before 1860	160·2	23·7
1860 to 1899	146·4	21·6
1900 to 1918	85·1	12·6
1919 to 1939	127·0	18·8
1940 to 1945	28·0	4·1
1946 or later	125·0	18·5
Not stated	4·7	0·7
Total	676·4	100·0

Source: Census of Population 1961, Vol. VI, Table 22A.

TABLE 6.14

Age distribution of permanent housing units, 1971

Period in which built	Number of permanent housing units	Percentage of all permanent housing units
	'000	%
Before 1919	315·8	44·8
1919 to 1940	139·1	19·7
1941 to 1960	141·2	20·0
1961 or later	108·6	15·4
Not stated	0·6	0·1
Total	705·3	100·0

Source: Census of Population 1971, Table 17A.

TABLE 6.15

Age and amenities of housing units by planning region, 1971

Planning region	Proportion of permanent housing units: which were built before 1919	which had no piped water supply	which had no toilet or closet
	%	%	%
East	30·8	6·8	3·5
South East	57·5	22·9	23·7
South West	51·8	19·1	24·4
Mid-West	49·4	29·9	29·4
West	40·6	41·8	35·7
North West	56·7	46·5	42·3
Donegal	58·2	37·8	21·7
Midlands	54·4	37·9	33·1
North East	53·2	32·1	25·2
All Areas	44·8	21·8	19·9

Source: Census of Population 1971. Vol. VI, Tables 17A, 18A, 19A,

TABLE 6.16

Average weekly household expenditure on rent etc., and on loan repayments, 1973

Gross weekly household income	Rent, rates and water charges		Loan repayments
	Rented from local authority	Rented from private owner	Owner-occupiers (*a*)
	£	£	£
Under £20	1·17	1·98	0·86
£20 and under £40	2·69	3·80	2·35
£40 and under £70	2·76	4·60	3·53
£70 and over	2·76	6·73	4·72

Note: (*a*) Including those who are making repayments on a tenant purchase scheme.
Source: CSO, based on Household Budget Survey, 1973.

TABLE 6.17

Distribution of rents paid by households and average rents paid, by tenure group 1971

Rent per week	Rented from local authority	Rented unfurnished other than from local authority	Rented furnished
	%	%	%
Under £0·23	4·9	4·7	0·8
£0·23 and under 0·46	5·1	7·6	1·1
£0·46 and under 0·69	7·0	9·7	1·8
£0·69 and under 0·92	7·8	7·9	1·1
£0·92 and under 1·15	7·1	10·4	2·8
£1·15 and under 1·73	19·1	14·6	4·2
£1·73 and under 2·31	12·7	10·8	7·2
£2·31 and under 3·46	22·8	13·4	16·0
£3·46 and under 4·62	7·2	8·1	19·9
£4·62 and under 6·92	3·1	5·7	21·5
£6·92 and over	0·2	4·2	17·8
Rent not known	3·1	2·9	5·9
Total	100	100	100
Average rent paid	£ per week £1·89	£ per week £2·13	£ per week £5·89

Source: CSO, based on Census of Population 1971, Vol. VI, Table 15A.

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Chapter 7

INCOMES[1]

Introduction

7.1. This chapter examines trends in incomes over the past ten years. The gaps in data on incomes have been discussed elsewhere by the Council;[2] while some preliminary figures of household incomes in 1973 are now available, in general, up-to-date statistics on incomes are confined to the average earnings of manual workers in industry, and to the income of social welfare recipients.

Sources of income

7.2. The table overleaf shows the size and source of total personal incomes received in the State in recent years.

This table shows the increase over the period in the proportion of total income arising from transfer payments, mainly social welfare payments. It also shows marked fluctuations in the proportion of income from self-employment, attributable mainly to fluctuating incomes from agriculture. It is also worth noting that the number of people who were self-employed fell in the period under review.

Household incomes[3]

7.3. The distribution of household incomes in 1965–6 and 1973, at

[1] A draft of this Chapter was prepared by the Social Policy Committee and discussed and amended by the Council at its meeting on 22 July 1976. The Chapter was drafted by Ms Eithne Fitzgerald of the Council's Secretariat.

[2] Reports No. 11 and 17.

[3] Household income is defined in the Household Budget Inquiry to include money receipts which accrued to all members of the household from all sources, including wages and salaries, social security payments, and other state transfers. The definition *excludes* some monies of an irregular and non-recurring nature, e.g. receipts from sale of possessions, withdrawals from savings, maturing insurance policies, etc.

Source of income	1966		1971		1972		1973		1974	
	£m	%	£m	%	£m	%	£m	%	£m	%
Wages, salaries and occupational pensions	502	55·7	973·5	58·8	1,129·8	57·4	1,362·0	55·9	1,622	58·8
Self-employment	194	21·5	303·2	18·3	399·8	20·3	511·9	21·0	478	17·3
Rent, interest and dividends	108	12·0	167·6	10·1	190·2	9·7	237·1	9·7	261	9·5
Transfer payments	98	10·9	211·5	12·8	249·3	12·7	327·4	13·4	396	14·4
Total personal incomes	902	100·0	1,655·8	100·0	1,969·1	100·0	2,438·4	100·0	2,757	100·0

May 1976 prices, is shown below. Greater detail is given in Tables 7.1 to 7.4 at the end of the Chapter.

Range of gross weekly Income (May 1976 prices, rounded up to next £) £	Urban households 1965–66 %	Urban households 1973 %	Rural households 1973 %
0–42	41·1	26·9	41·9
42–84	39·9	42·4	34·5
84 +	19·1	30·8	23·7
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0

It is clear that real incomes of households in urban areas have increased. The rise in the standard of living in urban areas is reflected in the increased volume of spending on different goods (see Table 7.5). Real spending overall went up by 28% between 1965–66 and 1973 (8 years); the corresponding increase in the real value of spending between 1951–52 and 1965–66 (15 years) was only 20%. The lowest increase in the volume of spending was on food, and the highest increase was on household durable goods, up 53% in real terms. The household budget inquiry of 1965–66 did not include rural households, thus no information on rural household income for the period is available.

7.4. Household incomes of rural areas in 1973 were below those in urban areas. The disparity in living standards between urban and rural areas is reflected in the lower percentage of households in rural areas with such appliances as a refrigerator, a washing machine, or a TV set (see Table 7.6.).

7.5. Household income increases steadily with household size, reflecting the larger number of persons at work in the larger households. The very low income households in 1965–66 were typically households of one or two persons, with a large number of people over 65, and a very high proportion of income coming from social welfare pensions (see Table 7.2). Sufficient details are not yet available from the 1973

Household Budget Survey to enable one to see whether inequality has increased or diminished since 1965–66, or to see differences in the equality of the income distribution in urban and rural areas.

Earnings in industry

7.6. Average weekly earnings in industry in December 1975 were £58·94 for men, and £30·85 for women. These show an increase in real terms of 57% and 62% respectively on the corresponding figures for October 1966. These average figures conceal a wide variation, as can be seen from Table 7.8 giving the distribution of earnings for 1966. Similar figures for recent years are not available (this table was last published for 1968) but it is possible that the pattern of distribution has remained constant. There is a wide variation between different industries, more marked in the case of men than of women.

7.7. The gap between men's and women's earnings has been one of the most persistent features of the pattern of earnings in industry. Allowing for the difference in the average working week, men's earnings per hour are still over 40% higher than those received by women.

Disposable incomes

7.8. Tables 7.7a and 7.7b show the pattern of disposable income, that is, earnings plus state children's allowances, less tax and social insurance, for workers on average industrial earnings in different hypothetical family circumstances, and show how this pattern has changed since 1966. The real growth in disposable incomes has been greatest for a widow with two children (+47·3%) and a married man with four children (+41·1%). For all the families shown, disposable income as a percentage of gross earnings has fallen since 1966.

Earnings of non-manual workers

7.9. Information on the earnings of non-manual workers is not collected in the same comprehensive way as data on manual workers. This lack of data constitutes a serious gap in information, and makes any analysis of the trend in incomes for non-manual workers almost impossible.

Farm incomes

7.10. Tables 7.9 and 7.10 show the details of farm income from recent Farm Management Surveys, and show the trends in incomes from agriculture since 1966. Farm incomes are subject to large year-to-year fluctuations, which have become accentuated since accession to the EEC, and one cannot judge any one year's figures in isolation. Farm incomes per head have grown substantially since 1966, with declining numbers engaged. Increases in the volume and value of output have occurred since Ireland's accession to the EEC. While average earnings in agriculture were well below the corresponding earnings of industrial workers in 1966, present indications are that by 1975, farm incomes have almost caught up with average industrial earnings for adult men and women.

Incomes of social welfare recipients

7.11. The following chapter will describe developments in the income maintenance services since 1966, so little will be said here. Table 7.11 shows the relationship between the incomes of hypothetical families, whose head is receiving average industrial earnings for his/her sex, and corresponding families whose sole income is from social welfare benefits. The table indicates that the increase in the level of income received by the social welfare households has been faster than the increase in take home pay for the working households in the period 1966–75. For example, the disposable income of a married man with four children receiving the average industrial wage grew by 41% in real terms while the flat rate disability benefit payable to a married man with four children grew by almost 70% in real terms. However, despite this growth, the income of a social welfare recipient wholly or mainly dependant on his state payment remains a fairly low proportion of the income enjoyed by the working population; for example, the old age non-contributory pension for a single person in October 1975 was only 22·8% of the disposable income of a single man receiving the average industrial earnings.

Conclusions

7.12. From such statistical evidence that is available, it is clear that incomes and living standards generally have improved significantly in real terms in the period since 1966.

TABLE 7.1

Distribution of Income, Urban Households, 1965–66

Range of gross weekly income 1965–66 prices £	Current (May 1976) prices £	Percentage of total households £
0–4	0—11·25	6·35
4–7	11·25—19·70	8·01
7–10	19·70—28·15	7·17
10–15	28·15—42·25	19·52
15–20	42·25—56·30	18·74
20–25	56·30—70·35	12·65
25–30	70·35—84·45	8·47
30–40	84·45—112·65	10·82
40–50	112·65—140·75	4·33
50 +	140·75 +	3·95
All households		100·00

Source: 1965–66 Household Budget Inquiry.

TABLE 7.2

Percentage of gross income* from different income sources, urban households 1965–66

Range of weekly household income: 1965–66 prices	Range of weekly household income: May 1976 prices	Income source: Earned income	Retirement pensions	Income from property, etc	Home produced goods	Other non-transfer income	Children's allowances	Old age and widow's pensions	Other transfer payments	Total
£	£	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
0— 4	0 — 11·25	5·8	2·4	7·1	0·2	3·1	2·0	59·2	20·8	100
4— 7	11·25— 19·70	21·8	10·1	8·0	0·3	1·4	0·4	33·0	20·4	100
7—10	19·70— 28·15	52·7	11·3	4·5	0·6	1·1	0·3	12·2	13·2	100
10—15	28·15— 42·25	76·3	7·0	2·8	0·7	1·7	1·2	3·7	5·3	100
15—20	42·25— 56·30	84·8	3·1	2·3	0·8	1·6	0·9	2·9	2·4	100
20—25	56·30— 70·35	86·9	2·6	2·9	0·4	1·7	1·1	2·1	1·6	100
25—30	70·35— 84·45	87·8	3·8	2·1	0·4	1·4	0·8	1·5	1·1	100
30—40	84·45—112·65	90·1	2·4	2·5	0·3	1·1	0·6	1·1	1·3	100
40—50	112·65—140·75	92·8	1·6	1·8	0·4	1·0	0·5	0·9	0·5	100
50 +	140·75 +	86·5	1·3	9·8	0·2	0·9	0·4	0·4	0·3	100
All households		83·4	3·4	3·6	0·5	1·6	1·6	3·3	2·7	100

*Gross income is original income plus transfer payments, e.g. social welfare payments.

Source: Household Budget Inquiry, 1965–66.

TABLE 7.3

Distribution of households in the state by level of weekly income, 1973

Range of weekly household income		*Percentage of households*		
1973 prices £	May 1976 prices £	Gross household income %	Disposable household income %	Gross income of head of household %
0– 4	0— 6·75	1·1	1·2	3·2
4– 7	6·75— 11·75	5·6	5·7	9·4
7– 10	11·75— 16·80	4·3	4·3	6·6
10– 15	16·80— 25·20	8·3	8·8	11·6
15– 20	25·20— 33·60	6·4	7·9	8·5
20– 25	33·60— 42·00	7·7	9·6	9·7
25– 30	42·00— 50·45	10·0	10·9	11·8
30– 35	50·45— 58·85	8·9	9·3	9·4
35– 40	58·85— 67·25	7·3	8·5	6·6
40– 45	67·25— 75·65	6·9	6·3	5·5
45– 50	75·65— 84·05	5·8	5·5	4·0
50– 55	84·05— 92·45	4·6	4·7	3·0
55– 60	92·45—100·85	4·2	3·3	2·2
60– 65	100·85—109·25	2·8	3·2	1·8
65– 70	109·26—117·66	2·8	2·2	1·3
70– 75	117·66—126·05	2·5	1·5	1·0
75– 80	126·05—134·50	1·9	1·3	0·7
80– 90	134·50—151·30	2·8	2·1	1·1
90–100	151·30—168·10	1·8	1·0	0·6
100 +	168·10 +	4·2	2·6	2·1
All Households		100·0	100·0	100·0

Source: Donal Murphy, 1973 Household Budget Survey, special features and results; Statistical and Social Inquiry, Society of Ireland, May 1976.

TABLE 7.4

Percentage distribution of gross household income, 1973, in urban and rural areas

Weekly income range (1973 prices)	Urban households %	*Rural households* Farm %	Non-farm %	Total Rural %
0–7	5·56	6·80	9·89	8·27
7–10	3·17	5·89	5·57	5·74
10–15	6·66	9·51	11·52	10·47
15–20	4·88	9·12	7·45	8·33
20–25	6·61	7·98	10·21	9·04
25–30	9·56	11·21	10·02	10·65
30–40	17·90	12·29	16·03	14·06
40–50	14·91	9·80	9·71	9·75
50–60	9·87	7·87	6·89	7·40
60–70	6·34	4·81	4·63	4·73
70–80	4·99	4·36	3·07	3·75
80 +	9·56	10·36	5·01	7·82
	100·00	100·00	100·00	100·00
Average number of persons per household	4·1	4·0	3·9	3·9
Average number of persons gainfully occupied	1·2	1·5	1·0	1·3

Source: 1973 Household Budget Survey.

TABLE 7.5

Real increase in expenditure on different commodity groups, urban households 1965–66 and 1973

	% increase in real terms
Food	14
Drink and Tobacco	32
Clothing and Footwear	37
Fuel and Light	20
Housing	34
Household durables	53
Transport, other goods and services	33
Total	28

Source: Donal Murphy 'The 1973 Household Budget Survey Special Features and Results' SSISI, May 1976.

TABLE 7.6

Percentage of households with certain appliances and facilities, 1973

	Urban areas	Rural Areas			Total Household
		Farm	Non-Farm	Total Rural	
	%	%	%	%	%
Electricity	99·2	92·4	93·9	93·1	96·6
Telephone	28·0	11·3	10·6	11·0	20·6
TV set	88·4	64·0	71·6	67·6	79·3
Washing Machine	51·7	36·4	33·8	35·1	44·5
Refrigerator	64·1	36·2	45·4	40·6	53·9
Central Heating	19·3	5·3	9·9	7·4	14·2
Car	48·2	55·0	50·0	52·6	50·1

Source: 1975 Household Budget Survey.

TABLE 7.7(a)

Income before and after tax, Social Welfare contributions, and Children's Allowances, for hypothetical workers earning the average industrial wage for their sex, 1966, 1971, and 1975

Current money values	October 1966 £	September 1971 £	September 1975 £
Single man			
(i) Earnings	15·31	27·13	55·84
(ii) Disposable income	12·64	21·04	40·74
(iii) (ii) as % of (i)	82·6%	77·6%	73·0%
Married man, two children			
(i) Earnings	15·31	27·13	55·84
(ii) Disposable income	15·31	24·61	47·85
(iii) (ii) as % of (i)	100%	90·7%	85·7%
Married man, four children			
(i) Earnings	15·31	27·13	55·84
(ii) Disposable income	15·92	27·50	52·15
(iii) (ii) as % of (i)	104·0%	101·8%	93·4%
Single woman			
(i) Earnings	7·86	13·12	29·55
(ii) Disposable income	7·20	10·76½	23·20
(iii) (ii) as % of (i)	91·6%	82·0%	78·5%
Widow two children			
(i) Earnings	7·86	13·12	29·55
(ii) Disposable income	7·91½	12·86½	27·06
(iii) (ii) as % of (i)	100·7%	98·1%	91·6%

Notes appear at end of Table 7 (b).

TABLE 7.7(b)

Income before and after tax, Social Insurance contributions, and Children's Allowances, for workers earning the average industrial wage for their sex, 1966, 1971, and 1976

Present (May 1976) money values

	October 1966	September 1971	September 1975	Real growth, October 1966–September 1975
	£	£	£	%
Single man				
(i) Earnings	41·62	53·96	65·42	+57·2
(ii) Disposable income	34·36	41·85	47·73	+38·9
Married man, two children				
(i) Earnings	41·62	53·96	65·42	+57·2
(ii) Disposable income	41·62	48·94	56·09	+34·8
Married man, four children				
(i) Earnings	41·62	53·96	65·42	+57·2
(ii) Disposable income	43·28	54·94	61·04	+41·1
Single woman				
(i) Earnings	21·37	26·10	34·62	+62·0
(ii) Disposable income	19·57	21·41	27·18	+38·9
Widow, two children				
(i) Earnings	21·37	26·10	34·62	+62·0
(ii) Disposable income	21·52	25·60	31·71	+47·3

Notes: Disposable income is earnings less social insurance contributions, less income tax after deducting standard personal allowances, plus social welfare childrens' allowances, where applicable. No account was taken of tax allowances for common items such as mortgage interest.

Earnings are average earnings of adult industrial wage earners. The 1966 figures are from the Census of Industrial Production and refer to men and women over 18. The 1971 and 1975 figures (the latest available) are from the inquiry instituted in 1969 into the earnings of industrial workers on adult rates of pay. No account was taken of the possibility that widows might also be receiving a social welfare widow's pension.

Present money values were obtained by multiplying by the increase in the Consumer Price Index from mid-August of each year to mid-February 1976.

TABLE 7.8

Percentage distribution of wage earners in transportable goods industries by level of weekly earnings, October 1966

Level of Earnings		Aged under 18 Men	Aged under 18 Women	Aged 18 and over Men	Aged 18 and over Women
1966 prices £	May 1976 prices £	%	%	%	%
0–2	0– 5·40	1·8	2·8	0·5	0·6
2–4	5·40–10·80	30·4	37·8	0·6	3·9
4–6	10·80–16·25	41·8	38·1	1·8	16·3
6–8	16·25–21·65	18·9	15·4	3·9	35·5
8–10	21·65–27·10	5·7	5·2	7·1	26·9
10–12	27·10–32·50	1·0	0·6	14·3	11·3
12–14	32·50–37·95	0·2	0·1	17·7	3·8
14–16	37·95–43·35	0·1	—	16·3	1·2
16–18	43·35–48·75	—	—	12·3	0·3
18–20	48·75–54·20	0·1	—	8·5	0·1
20–22	54·20–59·60	—	—	7·0	—
22–24	59·60–65·00	—	—	4·1	0·1
24 +	65·00 +	—	—	5·9	—
Total		100·0	100·0	100·0	100·0

Source: Census of Industrial Production.

Note: This distribution of earnings table has been discontinued since 1968.

TABLE 7.9

Income from Agriculture, Forestry, and Fishing, 1966–74

	Income from self-employment (A) £m	Other Income (A) £m	Total (A) £m	Estimated number of males engaged in farm work (B) '000
1966	135·3	21·2	156·5	319·6
1967	148·3	20·4	168·7	308·0
1968	170·7	21·3	191·0	298·9
1969	174·6	23·0	197·6	288·0
1970	185·1	26·0	211·1	274·0
1971	204·7	28·6	233·3	264·8
1972	282·3	31·0	313·3	257·6
1973	372·3	33·6	405·9	250·5
1974	326·0	38·0	364·0	244·8

Source: A: National Income and Expenditure 1974, Tables A1 and B1.
B: Review of 1974 and Outlook for 1975.

TABLE 7.10

Distribution of farms by level of family farm income

£	1966–67 %	1967–68 %	1968–69 %	£	1973 %
Under 0	2·4	2·4	1·0	Under 0	2·0
0–250	32·8	24·3	20·7	0–250	14·1
250–500	24·6	23·7	19·9	250–500	16·1
500–1,000	21·7	23·9	26·3	500–1,000	22·8
1,000–1,500	9·8	11·6	12·9	1,000–2,000	21·4
1,500–2,000	7·4	11·2	14·7	2,000–3,000	9·4
2,000 +	1·3	2·8	4·6	3,000–4,000	5·4
	100·0	100·0	100·0	4,000–5 000	3·6
				5,000 +	5·2
					100·0

Source: Farm Management Surveys.

TABLE 7.11

Income from certain weekly social welfare payments as % of disposable income of comparable industrial workers receiving average earnings

	(Current money values)			
	October 1966 £	September 1971 £	September 1975 £	Growth in real terms 1966–1975
A				
(i) Old age non-contributory pension, single person under 80	2·37½	4·65	9·30	+68·7%
(ii) Disposable income, single man	12·64	21·04	40·74	+38·9%
(i) as % of (ii)	18·8%	22·10%	22·8%	
B				
(i) Flat-rate disability benefit plus children's allowances married man, four children	7·63	13·03	30·02	+69·6%
(ii) Disposable income, married man four children	15·92	27·62	52·10½	+41·1%
(i) as % of (ii)	47·9%	47·2%	57·6%	
C				
(i) Widow's contributory pension plus children's allowances, widow, two children	4·34½	7·46	18·06	+79·0%
(ii) Disposable income, widow, two children	7·91½	12·86½	27·06	+47·3%
(i) as % of (ii)	54·9%	58·0%	66·7%	

Notes: Figures for (ii) in each case refer to the income of a worker earning the average level in transportable goods industries for his/her sex, adding social welfare children's allowances where appropriate, and deducting social insurance contributions, and tax after standard personal allowances. No account is taken of such tax allowances as mortgage interest. It is assumed that the working widow is not receiving a social welfare widow's pension. The figures in this table for social welfare recipients do not take account of any pay-related benefit which may be payable in 1975. Neither do they take account of any rebates—e.g. refunds of tax, differential rent rebates—due to some social welfare recipients.

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Chapter 8

SOCIAL WELFARE SERVICES[1]

Introduction

8.1. The principal public income maintenance services are administered by the Department of Social Welfare. These comprise the social insurance services which provide benefits based on a record of contributions, and social assistance services, where payment is subject to a means test. Health Boards provide means tested weekly payments to certain sick persons. Finally, there is the locally administered and discretionary home assistance service for those not eligible for other publicly financed income maintenance, or for whom the level of benefits received is judged inadequate in relation to their needs.

Income of social welfare recipients

8.2. The estimated number of people, including dependants in respect of whom weekly income maintenance payments were made in 1966 was 536,711, which represented just under 19% of the population (see Table 8.1). This had risen to 948,907 (or nearly 30%) in 1975. Even allowing for the exceptionally high level of unemployment in 1975, the growth in numbers has been very striking, reflecting the changing structure of the population, the extension of coverage of the different services, in particular the reduction of the old age pension age, and the introduction of new services. Social welfare payments now determine in whole or in part the incomes of a significant proportion of the population.

[1]A draft of this Chapter was prepared by the Social Policy Committee and discussed and amended by the Council at its meeting on 22 July 1976. The Chapter was drafted by Ms. Eithne Fitzgerald of the Council's Secretariat.

8.3. Social welfare benefit rates have experienced a steady growth in the period under review. The rate of growth has been about the same as that in average industrial employee earnings, and somewhat faster than the rate of growth in disposable incomes of industrial workers. Short-term social welfare payments are not, of course, assessed for income tax.

8.4. Table 8.2 shows how selected flat rate benefits have increased over the period 1966–76 in current money values, and in May 1976 money values. For example, the real value of the flat rate disability benefit for a married man with four children increased from £18·58 in April 1966 to £28·40 (or 58·2%) in April 1976, and the old age contributory pension for a married couple where both are of pension age increased from £14·85 to £21·30 (43·4%), *all expressed in current (May 1976) money terms.*

8.5. The 1973 Household Budget Survey gives a guide to the standard of living enjoyed by social welfare recipients. Food absorbed 45% of the pensioner's budget, compared to 32% for the population as a whole (see Table 8.4). Housing, and fuel and light absorbed another 19%, compared to 12% for the population as a whole. Social welfare recipients had a very much smaller proportion of such household goods as a washing machine or a refrigerator than the rest of the population.

8.6. In 1973, State social welfare payments contributed over 90% of the household income in 10·5% of households, and between 50% and 90% of household income in a further 7·6%. Many recipients of "short-term" benefits such as unemployment or disability, experience prolonged periods of unemployment or illness. In November 1966, 16·5% of those unemployed were in that position for 54 months or over. The corresponding percentages for November 1971 and 1975 were 32·6% and 39·3% respectively. Table 8.6 shows that 20% of those who claimed disability benefit in 1973 were sick for over 30 weeks. Thus, the State social welfare payment is the main determinant of their standard of living. Many recipients of means-tested benefits have very little income other than their social welfare payment, and clearly the means test itself places a ceiling on the amount of such other income. Before the relaxation of the means test in July 1973, when sufficiently fine details of means were kept, 90% of old age, widow and non-contributory pensioners had less than £1 assessed weekly means in addition to their social welfare benefit. In October 1974, 10,500 persons out of a total of 408,000 in receipt of social welfare benefit were receiving *additional* home assistance payments. Of those, 7,500 were persons with no dependents.

Main developments 1966–76

Developments in the income maintenance services

8.7. The main development in the income maintenance services in the last ten years have been the improvement in the rates of benefit; the introduction of new services; and the increase in numbers in receipt of benefits, due both to demographic changes, and to changes in the coverage of the different services. Table 8.2 shows the rates of weekly benefit for selected services; the Appendix gives a chronology of the major changes in the services; and Table 8.1 the numbers in receipt of benefit.

8.8. The principal new income maintenance services introduced were the scheme of retirement pensions at age 65; and social assistance, i.e., means tested allowances for deserted wives, unmarried mothers, and single women over 58. These services were designed to cater for specific groups who did not come within the traditional social welfare categories. Legislation to replace the "fall back" home assistance scheme with supplementary welfare allowances at a uniform national rate has already been passed and is expected to come into operation in the coming year (1976). The other main area of new services has been the introduction of certain benefits in kind—free travel for all aged over 67 years, free electricity and free TV licences for old age pensioners and certain others.

8.9. The improvement in the rates of social welfare benefit has already been discussed in paragraphs 8.3 and 8.4 above. The main change, apart from the steady improvement in the rates of all insurance and assistance payments, has been the introduction of the pay-related principle for the short-term unemployment and disability benefits, and maternity allowance. Another feature has been an improvement in the allowances for dependants, in particular the special treatment given to the children of widows and other single parents, and the introduction of an adult dependant allowance for old-age non-contributory pensioners.

8.10. The coverage of social welfare services has also increased. The main developments have been the extension of compulsory social insurance cover to all non-manual employees; the reduction of the age limit for old age pensions from 70 to 67 years; the relaxation of the means test for certain social assistance payments, mainly old age and widows pensions; the abolition of the provision which required women to have 13 contributions after marriage to enable them to requalify for benefit. The extension of compulsory social insurance cover, and the increase in the range of services offered, have also led to an increase in the number of social welfare recipients, as Table 8.7 shows.

8.11. Table 8.8 shows the growth in expenditure on social welfare since 1966, and the changing source of finance. While in 1966, employers and employees contributed almost equally to the cost of social insurance, by 1975 employers contributed 1·7 times as much as employees. It should also be noted that the State bears the total cost of all social assistance payments.

Conclusion

8.12. Publicly financed income maintenance services have developed rapidly in the last decade, both in the scope of services provided and in the level of benefits, which is reflected in the substantial real increase in the level of expenditure on these services and in the proportion of national output which they absorb. Nevertheless, the level of many of the benefits is low, both in absolute terms and in relation to the incomes received by the working population, and much remains to be done, in particular for those social welfare recipients who have little income other than their weekly social welfare payment.

TABLE 8.1

Recipients of social welfare benefits as a percentage of total population

	31 March 1966	31 March 1971	31 December 1975
Estimated recipients and dependants of recipients of all weekly social welfare payments (A)	536,711	686,151	948,907
Recipients and dependants of recipients of "long-term" weekly social welfare payments i.e. payments other than those in respect of unemployment, disability or maternity (B)	267,215	323,277	402,392
Total population	2,884,002	2,978,248	3,168,600 (projection)
A as % of population	18·6%	23·0%	29·9%
B as % of population	9·3%	10·9%	12·7%

Notes:—

(i) All figures for 1975 were received direct from the Department of Social Welfare. For 1966 and 1971, figures for most recipients and for certain dependants were taken from the Reports of the Department of Social Welfare; estimates were made of the remaining figures as follows:—

Disability benefit dependents, recipients of unemployment benefit and assistance is supplied by the Department of Social Welfare.

Dependents of Smallholders, old age (non-con) pensions—same ratio of dependants to recipients as in 1975 assumed.

Unemployment benefit and assistance (excluding smallholders)—same ratio of dependants to recipients as in January, as published in Trend of Employment and Unemployment.

(ii) Figures for disability benefit and invalidity pension relate to previous December for 1966 and 1971. Figures for maternity allowance (duration 13 weeks) were obtained for 1966 and 1971 by dividing annual total by four.

(iii) The estimate of population at 31 December 1975 is the projection for 1976 on high nuptiality, low fertility assumption in B. M. Walsh's "Population and Employment Projections": 1971–86 (NESC Report No. 5).

TABLE 8.2

Real and money value of certain Social Welfare benefits and of contributions, 1966, 1971 and 1976

Maximum rate per week

Category of benefit	Current money values			May 1976 money values		
	April 1966	April 1971	April 1976	April 1966	April 1971	April 1976
	£	£	£	£	£	£
Old age non-contributory pension (single person under 80)	2·37½	4·25	10·25	6·56	8·62	10·25
Old age contributory pension (couple aged 70–80)	5·37½	8·50	21·30	14·85	17·24	21·30
Widow's contributory pension (widow, two children)	4·05	6·30	18·40	11·19	12·78	18·40
Unemployment benefit (man, wife, four children)*	6·72½	10·75	29·40*	18·58	21·80	29·40*
Children's allowance (per month)						
1st child	0·50	0·50	2·30	1·38	1·01	2·30
2nd child	0·77½	1·50	3·60	2·14	3·04	3·60
3rd or subsequent child	1·32½	2·25	4·35	3·66	4·56	4·35

See notes at bottom of Table 8.3

TABLE 8.3

Real and money value of social welfare contributions 1966, 1971 and 1975

Flat rate social welfare contributions**	Current money values			May 1976 money values		
	April 1966	April 1971	April 1976	April 1966	April 1971	April 1976
Employer	£	£	£	£	£	£
Ordinary rate, man	0·37½	0·91	3·89	1·02	1·85	3·89
Ordinary rate, woman	0·35	0·86	3·84	0·97	1·73	3·84
Employee						
Ordinary rate, man	0·37	0·78	2·27†	1·02	1·57	2·27†
Ordinary rate, woman	0·31	0·71	2·20†	0·86	1·45	2·20†

*In addition, a pay-related supplement could be payable.

†In addition, a health contribution of 33p could be payable.

**In addition to flat rate contributions, pay-related contributions of 3% of taxable earnings up to £2,500 a year are payable from 6 April 1974, 2% from the employer, and 1% from the employee.

Note: The rates prevailing in April are compared with the consumer price index for the following May in each year

TABLE 8.4

Expenditure pattern of social welfare households, 1973

	Social welfare households		All households
	Pensioners %	Unemployed, etc %	%
Food	44·9	41·5	32·1
Drink	3·2	4·4	4·6
Tobacco	5·6	8·4	4·5
Clothing and footwear	8·0	9·1	10·7
Fuel and light	11·2	7·8	4·8
Housing	8·2	6·4	7·2
Household non-durable	2·0	2·3	1·7
Household durables	2·6	3·9	4·8
Miscellaneous goods	2·1	3·1	3·1
Transport	2·1	5·9	11·9
Services and other expenses	10·1	7·2	14·6
Total	100·0	100·0	100·0
Average weekly expenditure	£11·21	£22·85	£41·03
Average number of persons per household	1·52	4·30	4·01

Social welfare households are households with more than 75% of their income from state social welfare payments.

Source: Donal Murphy "1973 Household Budget Survey, special features and results", SSISI 1976.

TABLE 8.5

Distribution of households in 1973 by the proportion of income derived from state transfer payments

State transfer payments as % of gross weekly household income	Percentage of households %
90% and over	10·5
80% to 90%	1·4
70% to 80%	1·7
60% to 70%	2·1
50% to 60%	2·4
40% to 50%	2·5
30% to 40%	3·6
20% to 30%	5·7
Under 20%	70·1
Total	100·0

Source: Donal Murphy. "1973 Household Budget Survey, special features and results". SSISI. 1976.

TABLE 8.6

Duration of Disability Benefit Claims, 1973

Men: June 1972–May 1973
Women: December 1972–November 1973

	%
Less than 1 week	19·4
1 week and less than 2 weeks	19·6
2 weeks and less than 3 we ks	9·9
3 weeks and less than 4 weeks	6·2
4 weeks and less than 5 weeks	3·8
5 weeks and less than 6 weeks	2·8
6 weeks and less than 7 weeks	2·3
7 weeks and less than 8 weeks	1·9
8 weeks and less than 9 weeks	1·6
9 weeks and less than 10 weeks	1·2
10 weeks and less than 20 weeks	8·0
20 weeks and less than 30 weeks	3·3
30 weeks and less than 40 weeks	2·6
40 weeks and less than 50 weeks	2·1
50 weeks and over	15·3
	100·0
Percentage sick for over 30 weeks	20·0

Note: The number of paid Claims for 1972–73 Benefit year was 222,859. The number insured for disability benefit on 31 March 1973 was 815,687.

Source: Department of Social Welfare.

TABLE 8.7

Estimated number of recipients of social welfare benefits and their dependants at 31 March 1966

Payments	Recipients	Adult Dependants	Child Dependants	Total
Social Insurance				
Unemployment benefit	33,399	15,364	36,845	85,608
Disability benefit	52,595	22,863	47,555	123,013
Invalidity pension	—	—	—	—
Old age contributory pension	40,556	15,451	1,336	57,343
Retirement pension	—	—	—	—
Widows' contributory pension	42,033	—	13,326	55,359
Orphans' contributory allowance	461	—	—	461
Deserted wife's benefit	—	—	—	—
Maternity allowance	1,134	—	—	1 134
Total insurance recipients	170,178	53,678	99,062	322,918
Social Assistance				
Unemployment assistance				
—smallholders	5,640	4,286	11,534	21,460
—others	14,915	6,361	17,006	38,282
Old age (non contributory) pensions	112,621	9,524*	2,197	124,342
Widows' (non-contributory) pensions	22,072	—	7,482	29,554
Orphans' (non-contributory) pensions	156	—	—	156
Deserted wife's allowance	—	—	—	—
Unmarried mother's allowance	—	—	—	—
Single women's allowance	—	—	—	—
Prisoners' wife's allowance	—	—	—	—
Total assistance recipients	155,404	20,171	38,219	213,794

*No allowance was payable in respect of these dependants until 1974. However many spouses of pensioners qualify for pensions in their own right and are included under dependants.

TABLE 8.7—*continued*

stimated number of recipients of social welfare benefits and their dependants at 31 March 1971

Payments	Recipients	Adult Dependants	Child Dependants	Total
ocial Insurance				
Unemployment benefit	36,606	16,702	40,066	93,374
Disability benefit	54,372	23,674	52,161	130,207
Invalidity pension	11,619	5,707	5,369	22,695
Old age contributory pension	46,549	17,633	1,792	65,974
Retirement pension	3,518	1,937	644	6,099
Widows' contributory pension	53,238	—	20.625	73,863
Orphans' contributory allowance	538	—	—	538
Deserted wife's benefit	—	—	—	—
Maternity allowance	2,343	—	—	2,343
otal insurance recipients	208,783	65.653	120.657	395,093
ocial Assistance				
Unemployment assistance				
—smallholders	18,350	13,946	37,526	69,822
—others	24,442	10,973	31,711	67,126
Old age (non-contributory) pensions	113,570	9,604*	3.160	126,334
Widows (non-contributory) pensions	16,898	—	7.870	24,768
Orphans' (non-contributory) pensions	147	—	—	147
Deserted wife's allowance	1,284	—	1,577	2,861
Unmarried mother's allowance	—	—	—	—
Single women's allowance	—	—	—	—
Prisoners' wife's allowance	—	—	—	—
otal assistance recipients	174,691	34,523	81 844	291 058

*No allowance was payable in respect of these dependants until 1974. However any spouses of pensioners qualify for pensions in their own right and are included nder dependants.

TABLE 8·7—*continued*

Estimated number of recipients of social welfare benifits and their dependants at 31 December 1975

Payments	Recipients	Adult Dependants	Child Dependants	Total
Social Insurance				
Unemployment benefit	53,938	25,351	58,253	137,542
Disability benefit	67,818	23,920	54,500	146,238
Invalidity pension	9,990	5,107	8,747	23,844
Old age contributory pension	54,734	14,771	2,367	71,872
Retirement pension	21,901	10,275	3,697	35,873
Widows' contributory pension	60.844	—	20,700	81,544
Orphans' contributory allowance	779	—	—	779
Deserted wife's benefit	1,410	—	2,703	4,113
Maternity allowance	2,933	—	—	2,933
Total insurance recipients	274,347	79,424	150,967	504,738
Social Assistance				
Unemployment assistance				
—smallholders	29,352	22,308	60,025	111,685
—others	41,408	20,166	86,543	148,117
Old age (non-contributory) pensions	131,478	11,119	5,119	147,716
Widows' (non-contributory) pensions	12,657	—	7,370	20 027
Orphans' (non-contributory) pensions	207	—	—	207
Deserted wife's allowance	2,916	—	3,594	6,510
Unmarried mother's allowance	2,823	—	3,484	6,307
Single women's allowance	3,230	—	—	3,230
Prisoners wife's allowance	92	—	278	370
Total assistance recipients	224,163	53,593	166,413	444,169

TABLE 8.7(a)

Estimated number of recipients of benefits administered by the Department of Health

Payment	Recipients	Estimated number having a dependent spouse	Estimated number having dependent children*
Disabled Persons			
Maintenance Allowance			
Year ended 31/3/66	n.a.	—	—
Year ended 31/3/71	23,644	—	—
Year ended 31/3/76	20,040	—	—
Infectious Diseases			
Maintenance Allowance			
Year ended 31/3/67	1,581	553	316
Year ended 31/3/71	1,136	397	227
1/4/74–31/12/74	780	273	156

*Estimated average number of dependent children per recipient is four.

TABLE 8.8

Income and expenditure of Department of Social Welfare 1966–67, 1971–72 and 1975

Expenditure	1966–7 £m	1971–2 £m	1975 £m
(*a*) *Social Insurance* (*long term*)			
Invalidity pension	—	4·168	6·853
Widows' C pension	6·335	14·598	32·352
Orphans' C allowance	·004	·105	·277
Old Age C pension	8·464	16·258	36·553
Retirement pension	—	1·497	15·986
Deserted wive's allowance	—	—	1·025
(*b*) *Social Insurance* (*short term*)			
Disability benefit	9·613	16·809	41·566
Unemployment benefit	5·718	11·808	35·221
Marriage benefit	·085	·107	·001
Maternity grant	·146	·163	·194
Maternity allowance	·160	·499	17·09
Treatment benefit	·616	1·148	2·487
Death grant	—	·064	·185
Total social insurance	31·181	67·224	183·761
Social Assistance			
Old Age (n–c) pension	12·915	22·639	59·765
Children's allowances	10·294	17·135	45·427
Unemployment assistance	2·793	10·474	38·296
Widows' and Orphans' (n–c) pensions	2·412	3·904	6·883
Deserted wive's allowance	—	·509	1·738
Unmarried mother s allowance	—	—	1·631
Single women's allowance	—	—	·996
Prisoners' wive's allowance	—	—	·109
Total Assistance	28·414	54·661	154·985
Miscellaneous grants—free travel, fuel, etc.	·315	2·512	7·820
Administration etc.	3·689	5·961	15·599
Total	63·599	130·358	361·995

TABLE 8.8—*continued*

Income	1966–67	1971–72	1975
	£m (%)	£m (%)	£m (%)
Financed by Exchequer	43·25	84·79	211·18
	(68·0)	(65·2)	(58·3)
Financed by Employers	9·84	22·82	91·19
	(15·5)	(17·5)	(25·2)
Financed by Employees	9·40	22·31	56·52
	(14·8)	(17·0)	(15·5)

Source: 1966–67—Report of Department of Social Welfare, 1971–72; 1975—Department of Social Welfare.

Note: Home Assistance payments are not included in this table as these are the responsibility of the health boards.

TABLE 8.9

Home assistance recipients, January 1971

(*a*) Classified by receipt of other statutory assistance or benefit payments
(*b*) Receiving home assistance only

Description	January 1971			
	With dependants	Without dependants	Total	% of grand total
Social Assistance				
Old age (non-contributory) pension	444	2,393	2,837	18
Blind pension	59	132	191	1
Widows' pension (non-contributory)	317	595	912	6
Deserted wives' allowance	167	31	198	1
Unemployment assistance	482	352	834	5
Unmarried mothers' allowance	—	—	—	—
Prisoners' wives' allowance	—	—	—	—
Single woman's allowance	—	—	—	—
Disabled person's maintenance allowance	439	1,521	1,960	12
Infectious diseases maintenance allowance	9	12	21	—
Social Insurance				
Old age (contributory) pension	253	1,088	1,341	8
Widows' pension (contributory)	426	916	1,342	8
Unemployment benefit	129	94	223	1
Disability and maternity benefit Invalidity pension Occupational injuries benefit	542	607	1,149	7
Retirement pension	13	34	47	—
Deserted wives' benefit	—	—	—	—
(*a*) Total receiving other benefit or assistance	3,280	7,775	11,055	68%
(*b*) Recipients of home assistance not receiving other benefit/assistance	2,137	2,938	5,075	32%
GRAND TOTALS	5,417	10,713	16,130	100%

Source: Department of Social Welfare.

TABLE 8.9—*continued*

Home assistance recipients, October 1974

(*a*) Classified by receipt of other statutory assistance or benefit payments
(*b*) Receiving home assistance only

Description	October 1974			
	With dependants	Without dependants	Total	% of grand total
Social Assistance				
Old age (non-contributory) pension	356	2,089	2,445	17·05
Blind pension	33	156	189	1·32
Widows' pension (non-contributory)	242	424	666	4·64
Deserted wives' allowance	99	25	124	0·86
Unemployment assistance	559	242	801	5·58
Unmarried mother's allowance	36	3	39	0·26
Prisoners' wives' allowance	4	4	9	0·06
Single woman's allowance	10	27	37	0·26
Disabled person's maintenance allowance	441	1,209	1,650	11·50
Infectious diseases maintenance allowance	2	33	35	0·24
Social Insurance				
Old age (contributory) pension	300	1,543	1,843	12·85
Widows' pension (contributory)	341	1,124	1,465	10·21
Unemployment benefit	91	38	129	0·90
Disability and maternity benefit	443	347	790	5·51
Invalidity pension	74	61	135	0·94
Occupational injuries benefit	2	2	4	0·03
Retirement pension	42	69	111	0·77
Deserted wives' benefit	6	3	9	0·06
(*a*) Total receiving other benefit or assistance	3,081	7,400	10,481	73·04
(*b*) Recipients of home assistance not receiving other benefit/assistance	1,859	2,010	3,869	26·96
GRAND TOTALS	4,940	9,410	14,350	100·00

Source: Department of Social Welfare.

TABLE 8.10

Free electricity, travel, and TV/radio licence schemes

	1968 (November)	1971 (November)	1976 (November)
Free electricity			
Recipients of free electricity allowance	34,000	55,000	100,000
Average cash value in that 2-month period	£1·47	£1·86	£6·16
Free TV licences			
Recipients of free TV and/or radio licences	27,500 (8,800 radio only)	39,000 (12,000 radio only)	55,000 (all TV)
Free travel	(March)	(May)	
Annual number of passenger journeys	7,300,000	17,305,000	N.A.
Estimated annual value of free travel per entitled person, at full fare	£3	£8·60	N.A.

Source: Department of Social Welfare.

TABLE 8.11

Recipients of unemployment benefit and unemployment assistance (excluding smallholders) by number of dependants, January 1966, 1971 and 1974

Unemployment benefit

Number of dependants	1966		1971		1974	
	Numbers	%	Numbers	%	Numbers	%
Men						
No dependants	11,742	42·6	11,358	39·9	9,827	38·2
One adult dependant	4,788	17·4	4,995	17·6	4,350	16·9
1 adult +1 child dependant	2,368	8·6	2,545	8·9	2,491	9·7
1 adult +2 child dependants	2,089	7·6	2,390	8·4	2,462	9·6
1 adult +3 child dependants	1,854	6·7	2,064	7·3	1,959	7·6
1 adult +4 child dependants	1,501	5·4	1,690	5·9	1,691	6·6
1 adult +5 child dependants	1,224	4·4	1,328	4·7	1,212	4·7
1 adult +6 or more child dependants	1,859	6·7	1,817	6·4	1,618	6·3
One child dependant	69	0·3	119	0·4	52	0·2
2 or more child dependants	68	0·3	141	0·5	67	0·3
Total	27,562	100·0	28,447	100·0	25,729	100·0
Women						
With dependants	6,207	95·0	7,826	92·7	7,651	92·4
Without dependants	47	0·7	98	1·2	123	1·5
Widows	278	4·3	517	6·1	505	6·1
Total	6.532	100·0	8,441	100·0	8,279	100·0

TABLE 8.11—*continued*

Recipients of unemployment benefit and unemployment assistance (excluding smallholders) by number of dependants, January, 1966, 1971 and 1974—*continued*

Unemployment assistance

Number of dependants	1966		1971		1974	
	Numbers	%	Numbers	%	Numbers	%
Men						
No dependants	7,834	55·6	12,441	53·3	14,615	51·8
One adult dependant	1,696	12·0	2,516	10·8	2,891	10·2
1 adult +1 child dependant	950	6·7	1,651	7·1	1,962	6·9
1 adult +2 child dependant	780	5·5	1,499	6·4	1,985	7·0
1 adult +3 child dependants	663	4·7	1,212	5·2	1,687	6·0
1 adult +4 child dependants	611	4·3	1,105	4·7	1,457	5·2
1 adult +5 child dependants	469	3·3	858	3·7	1,081	3·8
1 adult +6 or more child dependants	978	6·9	1,799	7·7	2,219	7·9
One child dependant	50	0·4	83	3·6	103	0·4
2 or more child dependants	47	0·4	156	6·7	231	0·8
Tot l	14,078	100·0	23,320	100·0	28,231	100·0
Women						
With dependants	273	84·0	251	66·1	521	87·0
Without dependants	53	16·0	129	33·9	78	13·0
Total	331	100·0	380	100·0	599	100·0

Source: Trend of Employment and Unemployment.

APPENDIX

Main developments in the income maintenance services since 1966 (excluding increases in rates of benefit)

1967
Suspension of employment period orders, which had excluded certain recipients of unemployment assistance in rural areas from receiving benefit during the summer months. These orders were re-introduced in 1971 and again abandoned since then.

Occupational injuries insurance scheme commenced.

Free travel introduced for recipients of social welfare old age pensions.

Free electricity scheme introduced for certain categories of old age pensioners, mainly those living on their own.

Maximum duration of unemployment benefit extended from 6 months to 12 months.

1968
Introduction of prescribed relative allowance for old age pensioners and other pensioners of pension age who are receiving full time care and attention from certain relatives.

Free TV licences introduced for old age pensioners entitled to free electricity.

1969
Age limit for child dependants of widow pensioners raised to 21 in the case of children in full time education.

1970
Retirement pensions at age 65 introduced for insured workers.

Invalidity pensions introduced to replace disability benefit for the long term ill.

Death grants introduced for insured workers.

Deserted wife's allowance introduced.
Old age (care) allowance, similar to Prescribed Relative Allowance, extended to non-pensioners over 70 receiving full time care and attention at home.

Age limit for dependant children extended from 16 to 18 in the case of all insurance and assistance schemes other than children's allowances.

Free travel scheme extended to include spouses when accompanying pensioners.

1971
Special increases for child dependants of widows and deserted wives.

1972
Free travel extended to all over pension age.
Special increase for pensioners over 80.
Retirement pension raised to level of old age contributory pension.
Increase in unit allowance in free electricity scheme from 100 units per two month period to 200 units in summer and 300 units in winter.

1973
Old age pension age reduced to 69 years.
Substantial relaxation of means test for non-contributory widow and old age pensions, disregarding first £4 of weekly means.

Age limit for children's allowances extended from 16 to 18 in the case of children apprenticed, handicapped, or in full time education.
Monthly allowance introduced in respect of severely handicapped children under 16 living at home.

L

Social assistance allowance introduced for unmarried mothers.

Insurance scheme for deserted wives on the lines of the widow's contributory pension scheme introduced.

Abolition of the provision which required women to requalify following marriage for disability, maternity and unemployment benefits by having 26 social insurance contributions.

1974
Old age pension reduced to 68 years.

Social assistance allowance introduced for single women over 58.

Social assistance allowance introduced for the wives of long term prisoners.

Scheme to allow payment of full social welfare allowance to his/her adult dependants for six weeks after death of social welfare recipient introduced.

Adult dependant allowance for old age non-contributory pensioner whose dependant did not qualify for a pension in his/her own right introduced.

Pay related benefit scheme introduced.

Means test relaxed by further £1 a week.

Income limit for social insurance abolished.

1975
Old age pension age reduced to 67 years.

Duration of pay related benefit extended from just under 6 months.

Relaxation of means test by further £1 a week to just under 12 months.

1976
Maximum duration of flat-rate unemployment benefit extended from 52 weeks to 65 weeks.

Further extension of maximum duration of pay-related benefit to 63½ weeks. The method of assessing means for unemployment assistance purposes for smallholders in specific areas was revised. Hitherto, means for these smallholders was assessed on a notional basis at the rate of £20 for every £1 of land valuation. From April 1976 the basis of assessment is

£20 per £1 up to £15 of land valuation
£30 per £1 from £15 to £20 of land valuation
£40 per £1 over £20 of land valuation.

A smallholder with a land valuation of over £15 may, however, have his means tested on a factual basis if he is dissatisfied with the notional basis of assessment.

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Chapter 9

CRIME AND LAW ENFORCEMENT*

9.1. This chapter differs somewhat in length, style and content from the pervious chapters in the report. This is because, as far as can be ascertained, it is the first published attempt to analyse such data as are available on the development of crime in Ireland.

9.2. Attempts at quantifying the amount of criminal activity obtaining in particular cities and nations have a history of nearly two centuries. The controversy over the accuracy and the usefulness of such enterprises occupies a nearly identical span. In Ireland, as in most countries, published police statistics are the sole source of information on the extent of crime, with crime being measured as offences of which the police are aware either on the basis of their own investigations or through reports from members of the public. For most critics, it is the "dark figure" of crimes that are undetected or not reported that looms largest in promoting scepticism on the validity of these published crime statistics. Recently, surveys in which residents of cities in the United States and Europe were asked to specify all instances in which they were victims of crime during a given period confirmed the prudence of such scepticism—the survey-derived incidence of crime exceeded substantially the rate derived from police statistics.[1] Thus, while a statement that crime in Ireland has increased by a specified percentage between two years may appear to be precise, it is by no means clear that an increase in offences known to the police mirrors an increase in law-breaking activity—increased policy efficiency, heightened public concern over crime or rising expectations as to what police can or should do, as well as improved or modified recording practices, may all lead to more offences becoming known to the police.

*Successive drafts of this Chapter were prepared by Dr David Rottman, of the ESRI.

9.3. This chapter will attempt to describe and interpret changes in crime and law enforcement in Ireland on the basis of statistics collected and published by government agencies. Particular attention will be focused on the 1961–1974 period, though statistics going back to 1950 will be included where they might prove illuminating. The first section will present the basic trends in the extent and in the nature of offences known to the Garda Siochána and in the official actions that were prompted by those offences. The second section will have the more difficult task of separating the three strands that underlie those trends: changes in the extent and nature of criminal activity, changing public attitudes and reactions to crime, and changes in police attitudes and actions. That task, nowhere easy, is made all the more difficult in Ireland through the absence of research that could serve as a guide.

9.3. Information on crime and law enforcement in Ireland is primarily to be found in two documents. Since 1947, a Report on Crime has been published annually by the Commissioner of the Garda Síochána breaking down for specific categories of offences the number known to the Gardaí and what actions ensued in the form of detecting those responsible and bringing them before the courts. The report also details the age and the sex of those persons convicted for each category of offence and provides information on special Garda programmes such as the Juvenile Liaison Officer scheme. For certain categories of offences, the incidence of offences and detections is stated for individual Garda divisions and districts, and, where relevant, information is provided on the resulting monetary losses during the twelve months.[2] The second basic document is the *Annual Report on Prisons and Detention Centres,* which for each year since 1928 has tabulated the numbers and the characteristics of those committed to the prison system.

9.4. Other relevant statistics can be found in the section on Reformatories and Industrial Schools (from 1970–71 onwards referred to as Special Schools and Residential Homes) in the Annual Report of the Department of Education. Also, for each financial year detailed information is available on government expenditures relevant to law enforcement and to the courts, as separate sections are included in *Appropriation Accounts* for the Office of the Ministry for Justice, for the Garda Síochána, for the prisons, and for the courts. For all of these annual reports, the *Statistical Abstract* includes a summary of some of the most important statistics; for the period preceding the publication of the annual *Report on Crime*, the Abstract is the only source of crime statistics.

Recent Trends

9.5. In the *Report on Crime*, the sum of all indictable offences known to the Garda Síochána forms the chief measure of the volume of crime. Indictable offences, those which can or must be tried before a jury, are also examined in terms of their distribution among four categories. Offences against the person, the first category, includes violent crimes such as murder, serious assaults, and rape, as well as manslaughter and a variety of sexual offences ranging from incest to bigamy. Crimes against property are divided into those involving violence—chiefly breaking and entering or robbery, though arson and injuries to property are included—and those not entailing violence, chiefly larcenies and frauds. A fourth, residual, category comprises forgery and like offences, as well as bribery, perjury, and public indecency.

9.6. While that fourfold classification is far from satisfactory, Table 1 will allow us to briefly examine the changes in the categories between 1951 and 1974. The incidence of offences in each category is given both as to the number of offences known and the incidence per 10,000 population in the Republic. Whether measured in actual numbers or in numbers per 10,000 population, the incidence of offences in each category markedly increases over the 24 years being considered. The rate of increase is not uniform, either across categories or across the entire time period, but generally there is a decrease between 1951 and 1956, with a steady rate of increase from 1956 on.

9.7. Table 2 facilitates examination of the trends by setting the 1951 totals as equal to 100, allowing an index of the rate of increase to be computed. The greatest increase is for offences against property with violence—breaking and entering offences and robbery. Where the index by 1974 stands at 433 (in other words there were approximately 4.3 times as many such offences in 1974 as there were in 1951), the indices in 1974 for offences against the person, against property without violence, and for all indictable offences stood, respectively,

at 383, 232, and 284. When the index of increase is computed on the basis of offences per 10,000 population, the rise is slightly less dramatic, with 1974 values of 415, 368, 222, and 272 for offences against property with violence, persons, property without violence, and all indictable offences.

9.8. The pattern of increase is not the same for all categories. For offences against persons, the initial rate of increase is substantial but levels off, though each year examined evinces a higher rate of such offences than the previous one. Where the greatest increase for "person" crimes was during the 1961–66 period, for offences against property the period of greatest increase was between 1966 and 1971. Of the two property categories, it is crimes without violence that shows the greatest amount of fluctuation. Further, the fact that offences against property with violence increased nearly twice as much as those without violence is reflected in a decline in the proportion of all indictable offences represented by larcenies and frauds—where 74.4% of all indictable offences fell into that category in 1951, only 61% did so in 1974.

9.9. While the increases in the incidence of known offences in the categories over the 24 years range from twofold to fourfold, for the sake of perspective it is necessary to bear in mind the rather low levels that were present in 1951, the first year considered. In 1951, there were 446 offences against the person known to the Garda Síochána, by 1966 this had risen to 1,132 offences, and by 1974 to 1,709 offences. For offences against property with violence, the comparable figures for those years are 2,996, 4,957, and 12,973. Offences against property without violence, which constituted the largest category of offences throughout the 24 years considered in Table 1, began in 1951 with 10,513 known offences, reached 12,631 offences in 1966, and ended up in 1974 with 24,345 offences being recorded as known.

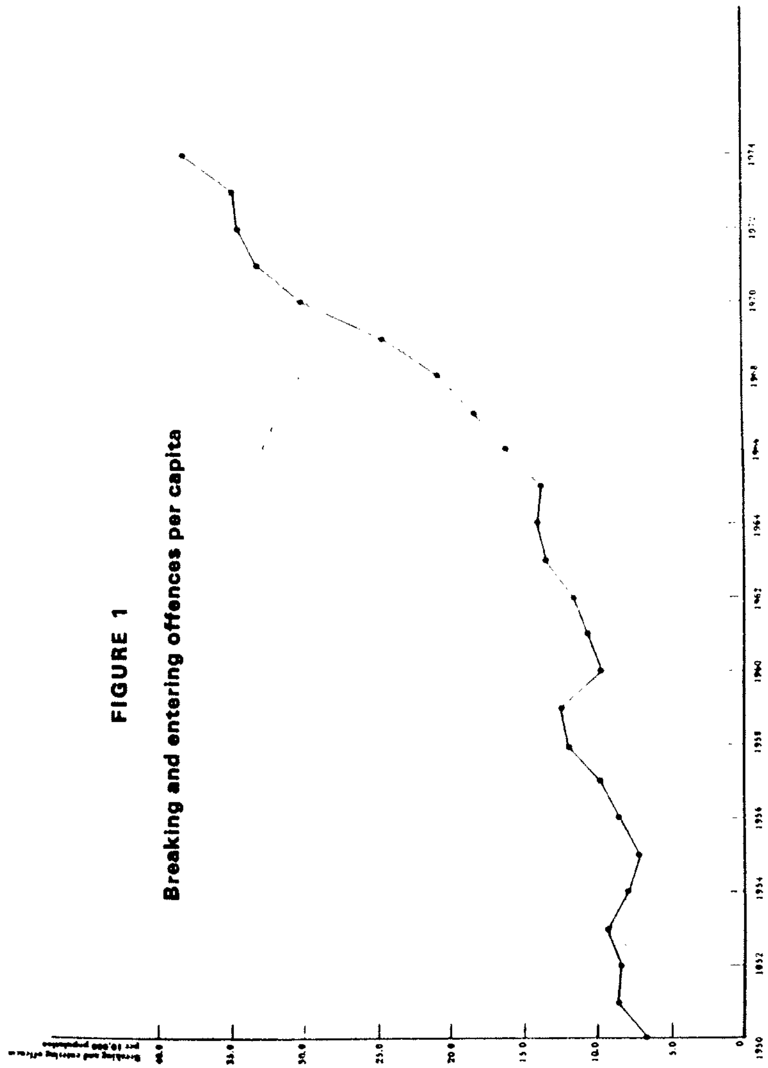
9.10. The ambiguous and in many respects archaic nature of the concept "indictable offences" poses difficulties for the above discussion. Indictable offences are those that can or must be tried before a jury, as defined primarily by statutes in 1849 and 1851.[3] Many, if not most, of such offences can be tried summarily if the District Court so specifies and if the defendant is amenable or is pleading guilty; thus, in practice the distinction between indictable and summary offences is slight—in 1972, 91·6% of all commitments to prison were from summary actions by the District Court. The four categories used to describe indictable offences, while also venerable, are themselves greatly limited by the breadth of offences each subsumes. The category of offences against the person is so diverse in what it includes as to be almost meaningless, while the category of offences against property without violence is so dominated by larcenies as to completely obscure the trend in frauds and embezzlement.

9.11. Three basic options exist for obtaining a more precise basis for assessing the trend in reported crime. An index comparable to the US Federal Bureau of Investigation's Crime Index can be prepared, summing the incidence of a few selected serious offences.[4] Such indices, along with a deceptive air of precision, have the disadvantage of accurately describing trends only in periods when the component offences are either all increasing or all decreasing at a uniform rate; where some offences are changing more rapidly than others, an index obscures far more than it reveals.[5] A second, more flexible, approach is to establish categories, where the criterion is the homogeneity of the behaviour involved in the offences rather than any legal distinctions. Where even such categories appear to be too broad in what they include, a third option is to remain faithful to a single statutory definition of an offence.

9.12. Hillyard,[6] in the only previous examination of crime in Ireland, chose an approach combining the second and third options outlined above, and the same choice will be made for the remainder of this chapter. Table 3 uses the categories and specific offences selected in order to provide a more detailed examination of the trend in crimes known to the Gardaí. As in Table 1, both the number of known offences and the number known per 10,000 population are included. The table begins with offences committed for profit, though mischief may at times be the motivating factor. For breaking and entering offences, the greatest increase took place between 1966 and 1971. Where the target was a home (house-breaking if by day, burglary if by night), the number of known offences in 1974 was 4·8 the number known in 1951—1,047 offences in 1951 and 5,063 in 1974. Breaking and enterings into

FIGURE 1

Breaking and entering offences per capita



shops and warehouses increased from 1,419 in 1951 to 5,487 in 1974, with the 1974 total being 3·9 times the 1951 total. The pattern is not, however, simply one of unrelenting increase. There is instead a pattern of increases followed by decreases, and Figure 1 allows examination of these cycles by charting the total number of breaking and entering offences known to the Garda Síochána per 10,000 population in each year between 1950 and 1974.[7] After considerable fluctuation through the 1950s and the early 1960s the year 1966 is the first of a series of consistent annual increases that break completely with the preceding cyclical trend.

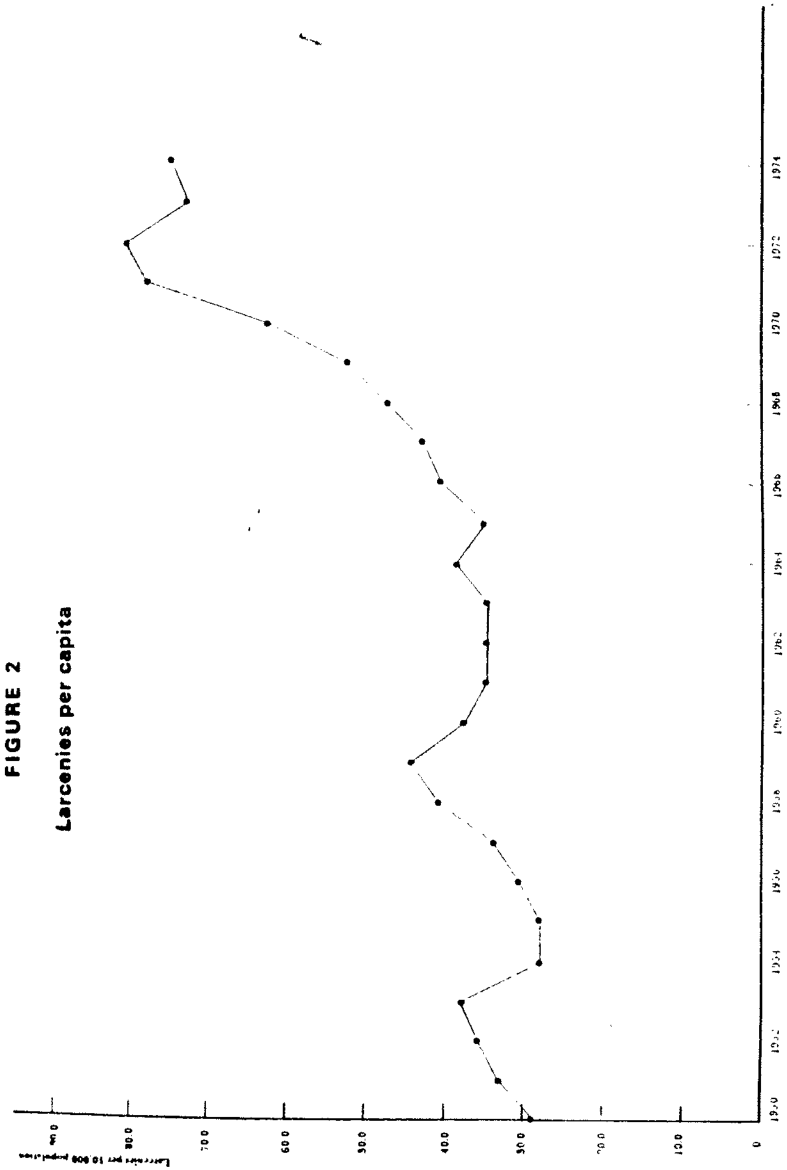
9.13. Returning to Table 3, it can be seen that robberies also became more frequently known to the police over the time period being considered. There were 24 known robberies, both with and without weapons, in 1951 (less than one for every 100,000 population) and 574 known robberies in 1974 (19 for every 100,000 population).

9.14. A third basic category of property crime is that of larceny. The rate of larcenies fluctuates too much for the format of Table 3 to be a particularly useful basis for considering the trend in reported larcenies, and, therefore, Figure 2 is presented to graph the trend between 1950 and 1974 in rates of all recorded larcenies per 10,000 population. In the 1950s and early 1960s, the cycles are quite marked, with, 1966 again representing a break with the past trend by commencing a consistent series of increases that persists through 1972.

9.15. Two specific types of larceny are included in Table 3—larcenies of motor vehicles and larcenies from unattended motor vehicles. For both, a considerable increase is evident, with the number of known offences peaking in 1972 in both cases. Figure 3 presents for larcenies of motor vehicles the graph of that increase, while Figure 4 does the same for larcenies from unattended vehicles. The trends are similar, though that for larcenies from vehicles is the more reminiscent of the trend in all larcenies. While there is a greater consistency in the pre-1966 years for larcenies involving motor vehicles than was evident for other property crimes, the later 1960s here too began a period of sustained increase that lasted until 1973.

FIGURE 2

Larcenies per capita



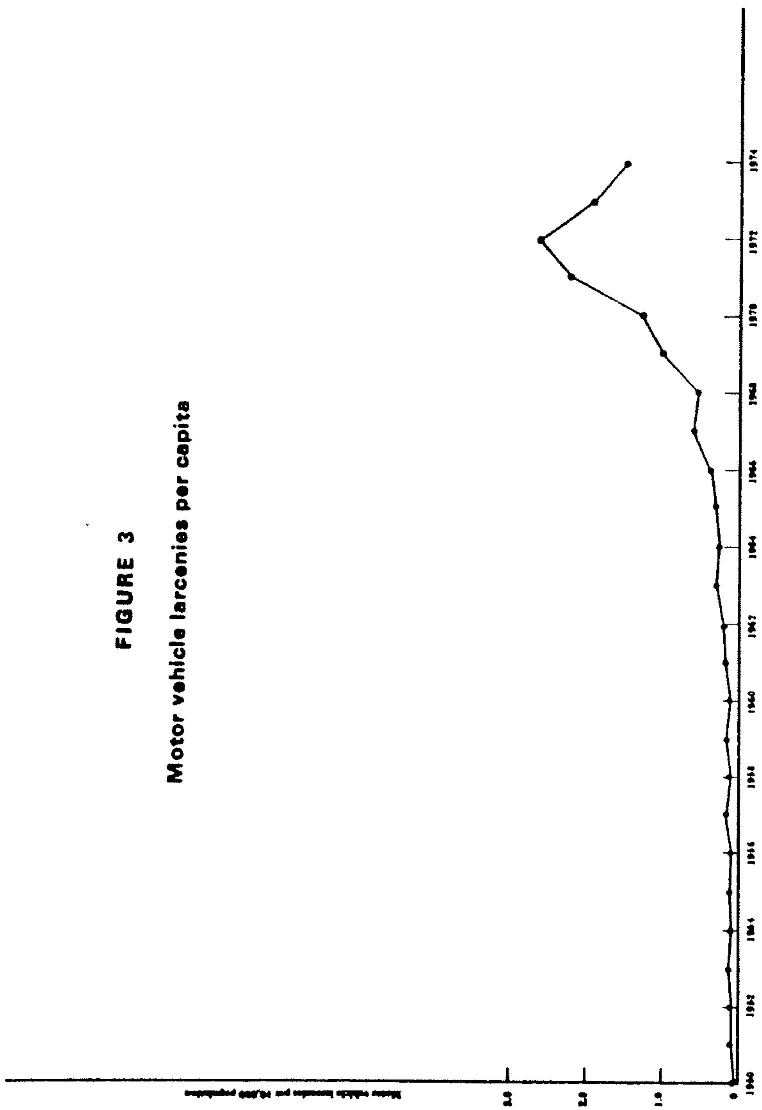


FIGURE 3

Motor vehicle larcenies per capita

9.16. One final category of larcenies, those from shops and stalls, will also be considered. Figure 5 graphs the rate of such offences that are known per 10,000 population. Here, the trend is far more straightforward, there being very little deviation from an upward trend that began in 1950 and persisted through 1974. In 1950, there were 3·3 known larcenies from shops and stalls per 10,000 population; there were 9·3 such larcenies per 10,000 population in 1974.

9.17. Thus far, for most types of property crime the second half of the 1960s appears to mark a departure from the previous trend. Frauds, forgeries, and receiving stolen merchandise are also crimes engaged in to obtain money or property, and for the most part they also correspond to the pattern in which the 1966 to 1971 period contains the greatest amount of increase. Table 3 gives the number of known offences for those three categories. There were 516 frauds recorded during 1966 and 1,168 recorded frauds in 1971; in contrast, the increase between 1951 and 1966 was from 333 to 516 known offences. For forgeries, the rate of increase was particularly marked, with the 1971 total of known offences being 8·7 that in 1950, though again the bulk of that increase can be attributed to the years between 1966 and 1971.

9.18. When examined more closely, however, the trends for fraud and forgery diverge from those found for the other property offences. While 1971 does mark a peak in the rate of incidence for both fraud and forgery, this is not formed out of a persistent series of annual increases; rather, in both instances the 1971 rate is twice the 1970 rate of incidence. The number of known offences in the six years at issue are as follows:

Year	Frauds	Forgeries
1966	516	233
1967	573	281
1968	825	322
1969	910	403
1970	583	396
1971	1,168	848

It can be suggested that the 1971 statistics reflect the aftermath of the 1970 bank dispute.

FIGURE 4

Larcenies from unattended vehicles per capita

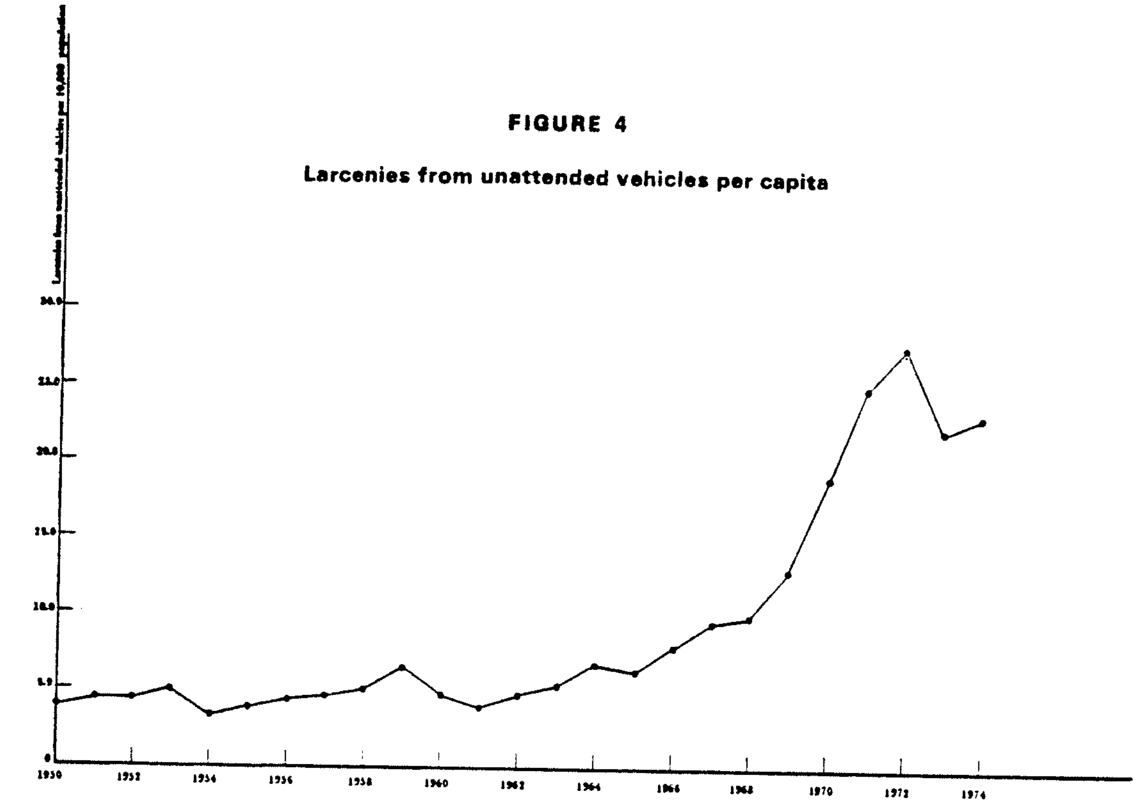
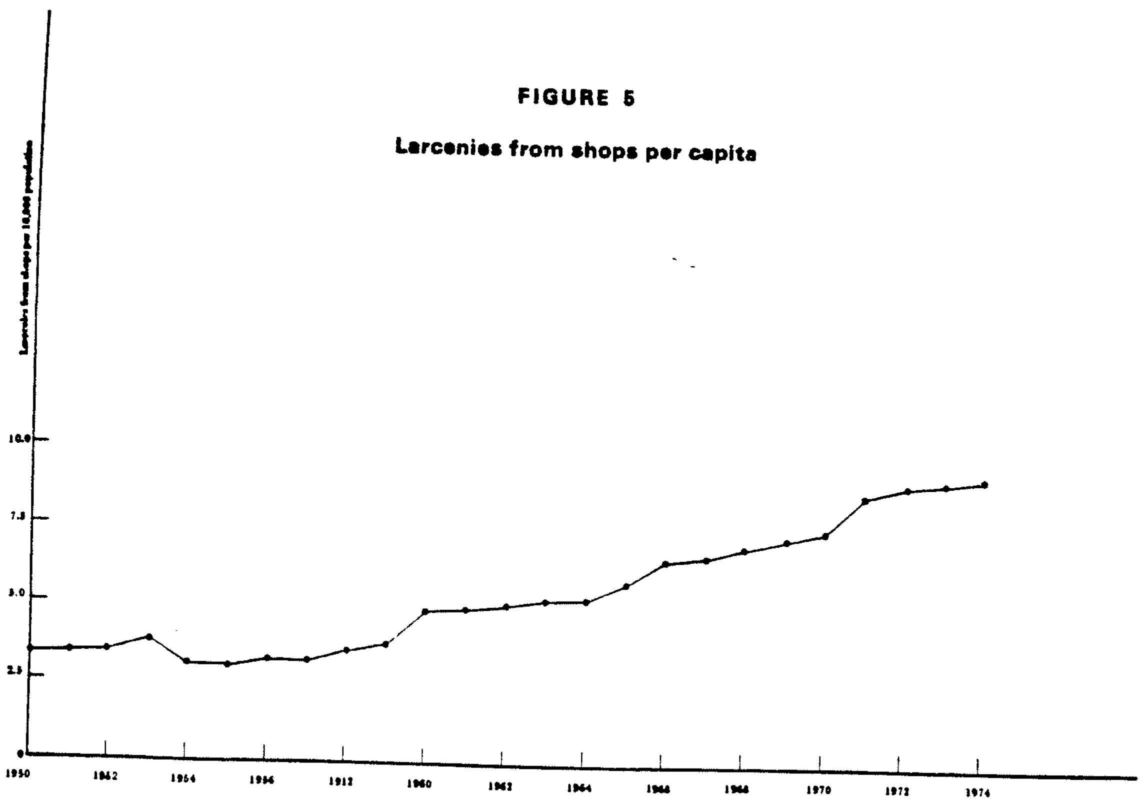


FIGURE 5

Larcenies from shops per capita



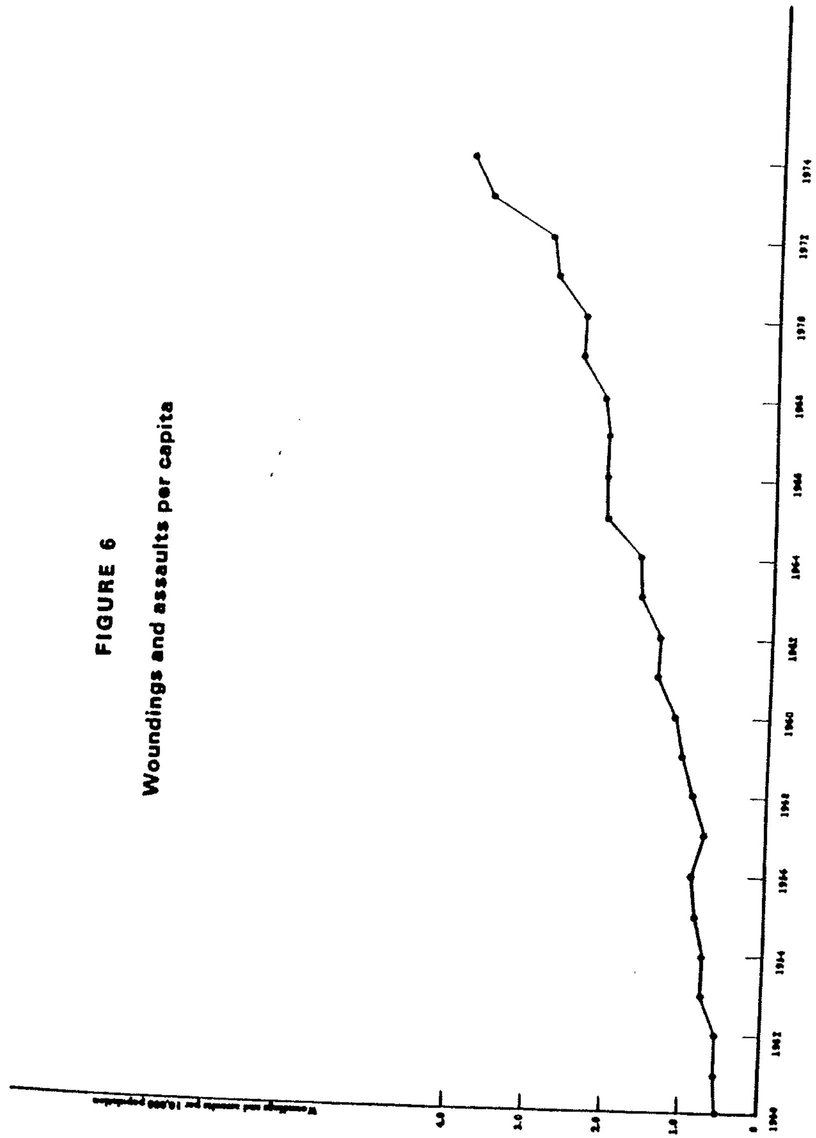
9.19. Murder, rape, indictable woundings and assaults, and malicious damage to property are often held to be qualitatively different from crimes aimed at acquiring possessions or money. Table 3 suggests that although such crimes evinced a general increase between 1951 and 1974, the nature of the trend differed from the property offences discussed this far.

9.20. Murder and rape begin at extremely low rates, with 1951 witnessing a total of five known murders and nine reported rapes. For both offences, there are increases, though they are not consistent. In marked contrast to offences against property, woundings and assaults increase consistently over the years being considered. From Table 3 it can be seen that the 164 such offences known during 1951 grew to 1,227 offences in 1974. The increase is rather evenly distributed across the years, though the rate of increase does appear to accelerate during the 1970s. Figure 6 graphs the year-to-year rate of woundings and assaults that are known per 10,000 population. The basic trend is for each year's total of known offences to exceed that of the year before, with the pace of increase remaining consistent over the 25 years. The number of malicious damage to property offences fluctuates markedly over the years, though there is a general trend of decrease during the 1950s, followed by a gradual increase. The 1970s appear to begin a new period of more sustained increase, with the number of such offences known nearly doubling between 1971 and 1974.

9.21. Having examined the trend in the amount of reported crime, it remains to consider the activities initiated to respond to those reports. Table 4 presents the percentage of all reported offences for which a suspect was "detected" in 1961, in 1971, and in 1974[8]. Though variations do exist among categories of offences as to the level of detection and as to the trend in that level over the 14-year period, the rate of detection is generally quite high. For some offence categories, such as receiving stolen goods, an offence is likely to become "known" and "detected" simultaneously. Such offences are uncovered in the course of Garda investigations when an individual is found in possession of stolen property, rather than from a report by a member of the public. This is reflected in a consistently high rate of detection: 98·9% of such offences resulted in a detection during 1961, while all known receiving

FIGURE 6

Woundings and assaults per capita



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stolen goods offences led to a detection during 1974. Generally speaking, offences against property involving deception and guile have high rates of detection that either remain consistently so or that increase with time. For assaultive offences such as woundings, assaults, rapes, and murders, the high detection rate suggests that typically the assailants are known by their victims. Given that someone was identified as being responsible in 97·8% of all woundings and assaults in 1961 and 91·4% of all such offences in 1974, it does not appear likely that many victims of assaults are selected at random; rather such offences occur primarily among people who know one another. It may also be the case that many assaults only become "known" if Gardaí intervene while a fight is in progress.

9.22. For breaking and entering offences, the initial detection rate is high, but by 1974 a marked decline can be seen to have taken place. Where 80·6% of all housebreakings resulted in a detection during 1961, only 49·4% were detected during 1974, and nearly identical trends are present for burglaries and shop-breaking. Robberies and those larcenies included in Table 4 also evince a decline in the detection rate, in contrast to other property offences such as forgery and fraud which have consistently high detection rates.

9.23. The Annual Crime Report also provides information on the court actions that followed from those detections. Both the number of offences that resulted in a conviction and the number of individuals either found guilty or against whom the charge was held proven without a conviction being entered can be abstracted from the Annual Report. Using these statistics is complicated by the fact that a single offence can represent one defendant or a group of defendants. It is also possible for one individual to be charged with two or more offences, or two or more individuals to be charged with committing two or more offences. Directly under the detection rates in Table 4, a ratio is provided for each offence category giving the relationship between the number of offences resulting in a conviction to the number of individuals convicted. For example, in 1961 the ratio of burglaries resulting in a conviction to the number of individuals convicted of burglary was 1.22: 1, reflecting the fact that there where 112 offences of burglary for which there was a conviction and 92 convicted burglars. While interpretation is

speculative, where the number of offences greatly exceeds the number of individuals convicted, it is possible to conclude that for that category of offence it is frequently the case that one person is charged with a number of such offences; where individuals exceed offences, it is often the case that a group, rather than an individual, is charged with committing that type of offence.

9.24. For property offences such as fraud and forgery, it appears that frequently a defendant is charged simultaneously with several offences. For robbery, malicious damage to property and, to a lesser extent, wounds and assaults, however, there are more offenders than offences, suggesting that more than one person is often charged for a particular incident of robbery, assault, or malicious damage.

9.25. For all of the above offences, there is little trend evident in Table 4. The ratios found in 1961 are roughly equivalent to those found in 1974. For breaking and entering offences and for larcenies from unattended motor vehicles, however, the change over the 14 years is considerable. For such offences, cases become increasingly brought before the courts in the form of one individual charged with several offences. For all breaking and entering offences, the ratio was 0·99:1 in 1961 and 1·48:1 in 1974. The corresponding ratios for larcenies from unattended motor vehicles were 1·10:1 and 1·81:1.

9·26. Such increases over the years in the extent to which the number of offences resulting in a conviction exceeds the number of convicted offenders may reflect both changing court practices and changing Garda methods. In the case of Garda methods, it is possible that the difference in the 1961 and the 1974 ratios can be attributed to an increased reliance on using individuals already in custody as the basis for solving offences that they may have committed at an earlier date but for which no suspect has as yet emerged. By questioning those arrested for an offence such as burglary, and by comparing the techniques used in the offence prompting the arrest with unsolved burglaries, the Gardai may be in a position to submit a number of charges against an individual. It is also possible, of course, that breaking and entering and other property offences are increasingly becoming the province of individuals for whom crime is a full-time occupation. Such a professionalisation of breaking and entering offences, if it has indeed occurred, might be reflected in a small pool of individuals being responsible for a substantial proportion of all such offences. For robbery and similar offences, however, an approach to crime might result in offences becoming increasingly group rather than solitary enterprises.[9]

9·27. Statistics describing those persons who were arrested and charged with the offences listed in Table 3 are not available. Therefore, statistics on the age and sex of those convicted are the only information by which trends in the types of individuals that become involved in crime can be examined.[10] Table 5 presents this information for nine offence categories. For breaking and entering offences, larcenies of and from motor vehicles, and malicious damage, the decrease between 1961 and 1974 in the proportion of those convicted who are under 17 can largely be attributed to the introduction in 1963 of the Juvenile Liaison Officer Scheme. For frauds there is a gradual lowering of the average age of those convicted for that offence. To be plausible, most frauds require an adult, though the possibilities for someone in the 17–21 age group to carry out such an offence have doubtlessly increased in recent years. The bulk of those convicted for woundings and assaults are over 21 in all three years considered, with 73·9% in that age group in 1961, 64·2% in 1966, and 66·4% in 1974. For robberies, no clear trend can be discerned.

9·28. Table 5 also provides for each of the nine offence categories the percentage of females among those convicted. Nowhere does that percentage exceed 16%, with the representation of women among convicted defendants generally being very slight. For frauds, the percentage of women is 9·4% in 1961 and 15·4% in 1974. For robbery, the comparable percentages are 11·1% and 8·8%. Of the breaking and entering offences, it is housebreaking that apparently most frequently results in a woman being convicted: women consituted 3·7% of those convicted for that offence in 1961, 4·8% in 1966, and 10·3% in 1974. For fraud, housebreaking and malicious injury to property, there is a trend toward a greater female presence among those convicted; for the other offences, the representation of women remains rather constant across the three time-points considered in Table 5.

9·29. The use of statistics on convicted individuals may substantially

underrepresent the extent of involvement in crime by women. In this view, women defendants are likely to be afforded preferential treatment, resulting in women being less likely than men to be convicted if tried, and, indeed, less likely to be brought before the courts in the first place. The motivations for such judicial leniency may include chivalry, paternalism, naivete, and practicality—women defendants often have young children, and imprisonment will impose a substantial burden both on society and on the children.

9.30. Some, though not all, of those convicted are sentenced to serve a term of imprisonment. Table 6 provides statistics on the numbers and the characteristics of those individuals who were sentenced to prison in each year from 1961 to 1972, the most recent for which a report on the prison system is available. Between 1961 and 1970, there is only slight variation present in the number of individuals committed annually. Over time, the trend is for the number of persons sentenced to grow despite fluctuations, but that increase fails to parallel the considerable increase in the number of known offences during those years. In 1971 and 1972, however, sharp increases are registered, with the years 1970, 1971, and 1972 witnessing, respectively, 1,901, 2,474, and 2,914 commitments.

9.31. The same pattern is generally true for the trends in the percentage of new prisoners who are under 21 years of age and in the percentage who are females. For both characteristics, the trend until the late 1960s is one of fluctuation without a major departure from the average for that period. Then, the proportion of inmates younger than 21 increases sharply, while the percentage of women among those sentenced to prison decreases.

II. Factors underlying recent trends in crime and law enforcement

9.32. Along with a general increase in the incidence of crimes known to the Gardaí, the past quarter of a century witnessed considerable social and economic change of the form commonly labelled industrialisation, urbanisation, and modernisation. Other chapters in this report describe in detail these changes, but this section will briefly outline some of the more salient changes in terms of their possible effect on the nature and extent of criminal behaviour in Ireland, on public attitudes towards crime and the Gardaí, and on the organisation of Garda activity.

Changes in the population

9.33. During the 1950s, the long-standing decline in population reached a culmination, to be followed in the 1960s by a gradual population increase sufficient to make the 1974 population exceed that of 1950. This change in the size of the population was taken into consideration in the previous section by computing rates of offences known per 10,000 population.

9.34. While increases in the size of the total population are important, criminologists have long argued that what is crucial is the expansion or contraction of that population group held to be the most prone to involvement in crime—males between the ages of 15 and 24. The number of males within that age group increased by 6·75% between 1951 and 1971, in contrast to an increase of only 0·6% for the total population. Those same years also witnessed a decline in the rate of emigration, an increase in the marriage rate, and a lowering of the average age at marriage. Together, these trends suggest that the increase in the proportion of the population represented by young males will be magnified in the years ahead.

9.35. Changes in the size and the age structure of the population have occurred simultaneously with changes in where people live. Ireland is becoming more and more an urban nation, with the population of Dublin increasing from 697,000 in 1951 to 852,000 in 1971. While crimes against the person are often as common in rural areas as they are in urban areas, crime against property has traditionally been a city phenomenon. The scale of urban life, the lack of cohesion in the urban family, and the anonymity of the city, all make for more freedom on the part of the individual. Along with increased opportunities for committing crimes, both in terms of freedom from control and of temptations, urban living generally brings a heightened reliance on the police as the arbiter in disputes and as a source of assistance.

9.36. Table 7 provides the percentage of all known indictable offences that occurred within the Dublin Metropolitan Area, or within

the city districts of Cork, Limerick, Galway, and Waterford. In 1951, 69·5% of all indictable offences were attributable to those five urban areas. The corresponding figure for 1956 was 65·0%, and for 1961, 62·1%. After a period of fluctuation during the early 1960s, the percentage of crime that is "urban" hovers closely to 70·0% with 69·8% of all known offences being recorded within the five urban areas during 1974, the most recent year for which figures are available.

The abundance of property

9.37. As material goods accumulate and become more widely available, the opportunities and the potential rewards for offences against property increase. The numbers of television sets, motor vehicles, radios, and like commodities have expanded far more rapidly than has the population and far more rapidly than measures aimed at safeguarding them against theft. Similarly, the use of cheques and credit cards has grown dramatically in recent years, opening new vistas for the unlawful acquisition of money and property.

9.38. The increase in the stock of material goods worth stealing has proceeded apace, largely unresponsive to broader changes in the level of economic prosperity. The result has been to make most homes a worthwhile target for a housebreaking, if not for professionals, for juveniles content with a radio or a television set. Stores too become more desirable targets for thieves, and in the case of supermarkets and other large shops, just as convenient for the thief as for the customer. The increase in the number of factories and large offices increases the opportunities for robbers, providing substantial payrolls and employees carrying their week's pay.

9.39. With more at stake, people are likely to be less tolerant of property crimes of which they are victims, and thus more likely to report such crimes to the Gardaí. This tendency is reinforced by the practices of insurance companies in which a police report may be a prerequisite to compensation. Moreover, as television becomes more widely available and more important a part of people's lives, imported programmes portraying police work as ostensibly practised in the United States and Great Britain may well be changing the expectations of both the public and the police as to what the police can and should do.

9.40. Increasing affluence is accompanied by the birth and rapid growth of a security industry, consisting of firms providing security guards, facilities for transporting cash, and protective hardware in the form of alarms, locks, safes and other security devices. Such devices and services, intended to inhibit crime, can contribute to an increase in the number of offences becoming known to the police. Store detectives are likely to be more efficient than regular personnel in apprehending shoplifters, and thefts from shops are unlikely to be reported to the police unless the accused shoplifter has been detained. Similarly, while burglar alarms may make a breaking and entering less attractive, they also make it more likely that if one occurs it will be brought to the attention of the police.[11]

9.41. While urbanisation and affluence expand the opportunities for property crime to be committed and the potential for such crime to become "known", this does not make it inexorable that people avail themselves of the opportunities presented to them. The relationship between opportunities and criminal acts during the 1950–1974 period for one type of crime—thefts from unattended vehicles—can be examined through Figure 7. Where previous graphic presentations adopted an implicit assumption that it is the number of individuals available to commit a type of crime that must be taken into account in computing crime rates, in Figure 7 the rate is computed on the basis of offences known per 1,000 registered motor vehicles.[12] In 1950, there were 90,941 registered private automobiles and motorcycles and 1,161 larcenies from them; for 1974, the corresponding statistics are 526,848 vehicles and 7,098 larcenies.

9.42. When motor vehicles were relatively scarce, the rate of thefts from them was fairly high, though that rate soon declined, only to increase again in the mid-1960s when car ownership became common. Thus, in 1950 and in 1974 the rate of larcenies from vehicles was roughly equivalent despite the intervening years, while for most of the time period there was an actual decrease in the rate of known offences.

FIGURE 7

Larcenies from unattended vehicles per 1,000 registered vehicles

This is in marked contrast to the trend in Figure 4, where the rate was computed on the basis of population size.

9.43. All forms of property are not likely to prove equally desirable targets of thefts. Figure 8 graphs the number of thefts of pedal cycles per 10,000 population for the years 1950 to 1974. No clear pattern of increase is evident, and overall, it is not possible to conclude that a real increase has taken place in the theft of pedal cycles, though perhaps such a trend would emerge if statistics were available on the number of pedal cycles at risk in each year.

9.44. On the basis of Figure 8, it is possible to speculate that larcenies are selective in nature, focusing on certain "prestige" goods. For such property, abundance is associated with an increasing rate of theft; for other types of property, however, a larger stock of goods is not necessarily accompanied by an increase in the rate of thefts.

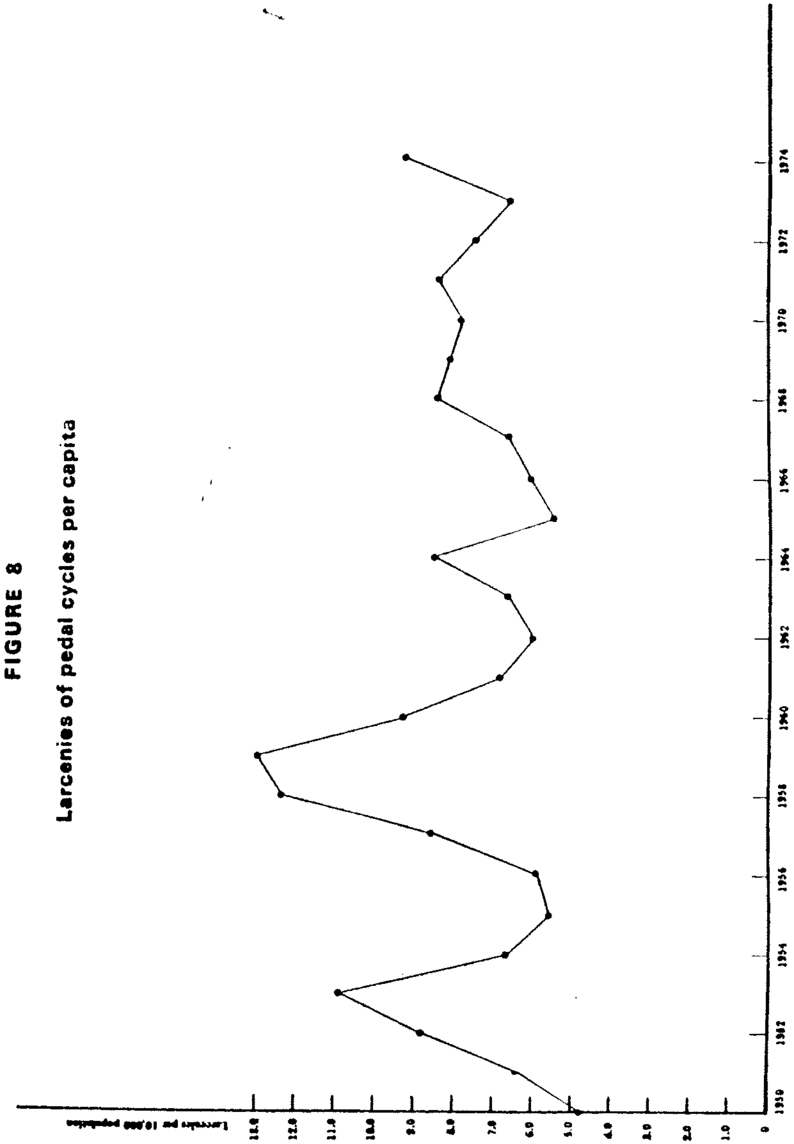
9.45. For fraud and forgery, the incidence of known offences varies too much from year to year to allow any clear attribution of responsibility for the general increase in the 1960s and 1970s to be placed on the expanded role of credit, credit cards, and cheques in consumer transactions. In the absence of more detailed information, no real conclusions can be drawn on the trend in such offences.

The organisation of police activity

9.46. During the 1960s, as motorised patrols began to replace foot patrols as the dominant method for policing Ireland's cities, the Gardai became increasingly reliant on citizens' complaints and on such surveillance of public places as can be accomplished from a motor vehicle. This emphasis on reactive policing was accompanied by a growing ease with which the public could contact the Gardai. Telephones became more widely available and special facilities such as the "999" emergency service were initiated. Similarly, radio controlled patrol cars and motorcycles and the walkie-talkie created a revolution in communications between the individual Garda and the command structure of the force.

FIGURE 8

Larcenies of pedal cycles per capita



9.47. Gardaí assigned to foot patrols have an opportunity to become acquainted with a neighbourhood and its residents that is generally unavailable to those assigned to motorised patrols. The absence of detailed knowledge about, and identification with, a particular locality may increase the probability that a given Garda will report an offence or make an arrest where previously a warning would have been thought sufficient. Decreased police tolerance of law-breaking activity may have a parallel in the general public. F. H. McClintock, in a major study of crimes of violence in London, attributed a substantial part of the increase between 1950 and 1960 in the number of known offences to an increased willingness on the part of the public to report violent acts to the police.[13]

9.48. During the 1960s, increased emphasis began to be placed by the Garda Síochána on crime prevention. The Crime Prevention Office was established in 1963, endeavouring through lectures, leaflets, and other forms of publicity to make clear the need for vigilance and for co-operation with the police. "Garda Patrol" became a regular RTE feature in 1965, and the *Report on Crime* for 1966 included a section entitled "Summary of Crime Prevention Activity". Growing attention was thus paid to both crime prevention and to obtaining co-operation from the public, with particular attention being focused on breaking and entering offences.

9.49. Other organisational changes within the Garda Síochána tended to focus attention of both the Gardaí and the public on particular types of crime, possibly leading to an increase in the number of offences of those types that became known. In 1968, a Drugs Squad was formed, and in 1973 a Stolen Motor Vehicle Investigation Unit went into operation, with both special units operating from Dublin Castle. A Fraud Squad is also currently in operation.

9.50. Another innovation within the Garda Síochána during the years of interest was the formation of the Juvenile Liaison Officer Scheme in 1963. By 30 September 1974, a total of 8,797 juveniles were accepted into the scheme, juveniles who otherwise would have been taken before the courts. The very considerable effects of the JLO scheme can be gauged by re-examining Table 5. A comparison of the proportion of

those convicted for breaking and entering offences who were under 17 in 1961 and in 1974 demonstrates the extent to which juveniles have been diverted from the courts. For robbery, an offence unlikely to recommend admission to the scheme, there is no such decline in the frequency that juveniles are among those convicted.

9.51. While recent changes within the Garda Síochána and within society generally can be viewed as arguing for a greater proportion of all offences committed becoming "known", this does not mean that a real increase in the amount of crime has not also occurred. Further, there are other trends that argue toward a reduction in the number of offences that become "known". In recent years, the concern over security has diverted Garda manpower and resources away from conventional crime, and as the attention of the Gardaí become increasingly directed toward security and toward serious crimes, the public may no longer choose to report many minor crimes. In the absence of research on public attitudes and on rates of victimisation, it is not possible to assess the relative impacts of forces arguing for more and for less crime being reported. An even larger unknown is the impact of the atmosphere created by the conflict in the North on crime in the Republic.

III. A Concluding Note

9.52. Recent changes in the extent and nature of criminal activity, in the attitudes of the public toward crime and toward the Gardaí, and in the attitudes and practices of the Gardaí all argue for more offences becoming known. Of crime, public concern, and police efficiency, it is impossible to ascertain which has increased the more rapidly. Further complications are introduced by the ability of an increase in any one of the three to act as fuel for the others. For example, as the Gardaí are able to respond more promptly to a citizen's request for assistance, the likelihood increases that such assistance will be sought, leading to more offences being added to the annual statistics. Overall, however, it is probable that recent years have seen the Gardaí become more and more dependent upon the public, with public concern perhaps being a more important factor in understanding the crime rate today than any changes in the organisation of the Garda Síochána.

9.53. The number of known offences, while easily gauged, is not readily interpreted. Quetelet, the Belgian statistician who produced the seminal work on crime statistics, adopted an assumption that the amount of known crime bears a relationship to the amount of unknown crime that is constant from year to year. This assumption has become less and less satisfactory, as the same processes that are universally held to increase the incidence of crime are also those that tend to bring more criminal acts into the domain of public concern.

9.54. Does this mean that the collection and publication of crime statistics ought to be abandoned as undeserving of the time and the resources required? Despite the imperfections of published crime statistics, the answer is negative. Not only are such statistics the best measure available for assessing the dimensions of a major social problem, they are also essential indicators of what the police and the courts are doing. If law enforcement and judicial agencies are to be held accountable to the public, statistics must be available on the extent and nature of offences that are brought to the attention of the police, on the police response to those reports, and on the actions of the courts. As presently compiled and presented, the available statistics do not fully meet these requirements. The most serious limitation is the inability to take those individuals arrested and follow through what happened to them: how many were proceeded against, what pleas were entered, how many were convicted, and what manner of sentence they received. It should also be possible to establish where and how individuals were removed from the criminal justice process, as well as the characteristics of the persons involved.

9.55. In many respects, the rate of increase in crime, even if it could ever be ascertained, is not the important question. For crimes against property, the crucial question is the degree to which such offences are becoming more rationalised—more business-like, efficient, profitable, and organised. For crimes of violence, the important question is the extent to which assaults involve randomly selected victims, as opposed to being events that arise out of disputes between spouses, friends, and neighbours. If one is concerned about the shape of the future, these are the questions to ask.

9.56. Much of Ireland's recent experience has been not unlike that of the developing nations, and the trend in crime in Ireland has many similarities to the pattern found in those nations.[14] Rapid social change involving urbanisation and industrialisation has nearly everywhere been associated with a rising rate of crimes against property. As these processes run their course, it is quite possible that the rise in known offences will lose momentum. For the present, however, that is little comfort. The mid-1960s marked a departure from the trend that had prevailed since 1950, one in which the number of known offences had increased annually by relatively small amounts, partially offset by periods in which there were no increases or in which there were decreases. From 1966 onwards, the pace of increase accelerates and becomes more consistent. As a result, crime in Ireland is becoming more prevalent and more costly, though precisely how much so it is impossible to say.

TABLE 9.1

Indictable Offences known to the Police*

	1951	1956	1961	1966	1971	1972	1973	1974
Offences Against the Person	446 (1.5)	542 (1·9)	701 (2·5)	1,132 (3·9)	1,256 (4·2)	1,321 (4·4)	1,655 (5·4)	1,709 (5·5)
Offences Against Property with Violence	2,996 (10·1)	2,695 (9·3)	3,186 (11·3)	4,957 (17·2)	10,654 (35·8)	11,600 (38·5)	11,800 (38·7)	12,973 (42·0)
Offences Against Property without Violence	10,513 (35·5)	9,365 (32·3)	10,623 (37·7)	12,631 (43·8)	24,929 (83·7)	25,568 (84·8)	23,567 (77·2)	24,345 (78·9)
Other Indictable Offences	172 (0·6)	180 (0·6)	308 (1·1)	309 (1·1)	942 (3·2)	748 (2·5)	1,000 (3·3)	1,069 (3·5)
All Indictable Offences	14,127 (47·7)	12,782 (44·1)	14,818 (52·6)	19,029 (66·0)	37,781 (126·9)	39,237 (130·2)	38,022 (124·6)	40,096 (129·9)

*Numbers in parentheses represent the incidence per 10,000 population.

TABLE 9.2

Rate of Increase in Indictable Offences*

	Offences Against the Person	Offences Againts Property with Violence	Offences Against Property without Violence	All Indictable Offences
1951	100	100	100	100
1956	122	90	89	90
1961	157	106	101	105
1966	254	165	120	135
1971	282	356	237	267
1972	296	387	243	278
1973	371	394	224	269
1974	383	433	232	284

*The Number of offences known in 1951 equals 100.

TABLE 9.4

Detection rates and offence/defendant ratios for selected offence categories

	1961	1966	1974
Burglary	76·8% 1·22:1	80·7% 1·12:1	52·7% 1·30:1
Housebreaking	80·6% 0·92:1	74·9% 1·24:1	49·4% 1·81:1
Breaking into shops and warehouses	73·9% 0·98:1	69·7% 0·93:1	50·3% 1·34:1
All breaking and entering	76·8% 0·99:1	73·0% 1·03:1	52·4% 1·48:1
Robbery	73·8% 0·58:1	83·6% 0·57:1	49·5% 0·60:1
Fraud	89·2% 1·77:1	88·8% 1·82:1	84·0% 2·05:1
Forgery	90·2% 1·59:1	93·6% 1·57:1	88·3% 1·63:1
Receiving stolen property	98·9% 1·17:1	99·6% 0·95:1	100·0% 1·06:1
Larceny of motor vehicle	63·8% 0·90:1	41·4% 0·70:1	29·9% 0·82:1
Larceny from unattended vehicles	48·7% 1·10:1	47·0% 1·38:1	34·1% 1·81:1
Woundings and Assaults	97·8% 0·83:1	94·9% 0·78:1	91·4% 0·69:1
Malicious injuries to property	60·7% 0·63:1	65·7% 0·46:1	53·5% 0·65:1

TABLE 9.3

Incidence of Indictable Crimes by Specific Offence Categories

	1951	1956	1961	1966	1971	1972	1973	1974
Burglary	201 (0·7)*	153 (0·5)	181 (0·6)	243 (0·8)	451 (1·5)	489 (1·6)	504 (1·7)	467 (1·5)
Housebreaking	846 (2·9)	788 (2·7)	925 (3·3)	1,546 (5·4)	3,641 (12·2)	3,831 (12·7)	4,229 (13·9)	4,596 (14·9)
Breaking into Shops and Warehouses	1,419 (4·8)	1,408 (4·9)	1,715 (6·1)	2,549 (8·8)	4,794 (16·1)	5,047 (16·7)	4,846 (15·9)	5,487 (17·8)
Robbery	24 (0·08)	27 (0·09)	42 (0·15)	73 (0·25)	314 (1·1)	622 (2·1)	621 (2·0)	574 (1·9)
Fraud[1]	333 (1·1)	245 (0·8)	434 (1·5)	516 (1·8)	1,168 (3·9)	777 (2·6)	727 (2·4)	656 (2·1)
Forgery	97 (0·3)	116 (0·4)	255 (0·9)	233 (0·8)	848 (2·8)	619 (2·1)	738 (2·4)	815 (2·6)
Receiving Stolen Goods	268 (0·9)	220 (0·8)	266 (0·9)	268 (0·9)	434 (1·5)	455 (1·5)	573 (1·9)	521 (1·7)
Larceny of Motor Vehicle	21 (0·07)	24 (0·08)	47 (0·2)	111 (0·4)	712 (2·4)	792 (2·6)	580 (1·9)	451 (1·5)
Larceny from Unattended Vehicles	1,312 (4·4)	1,287 (4·4)	1,084 (3·8)	2,221 (7·7)	7,436 (25·0)	8,281 (27·5)	6,698 (22·0)	7,098 (23·0)
Murder	5 (0·02)	4 (0·01)	11 (0·04)	8 (0·03)	10 (0·03)	22 (0·07)	23 (0·08)	51** (0·17)
Rape	9 (0·03)	6 (0·02)	7 (0·02)	13 (0·05)	24 (0·08)	26 (0·09)	42 (0·1)	29 (0·09)
Wounding and Assault[2]	164 (0·6)	267 (0·9)	406 (1·4)	627 (2·2)	848 (2·8)	883 (2·9)	1,133 (3·7)	1,227 (4·0)
Malicious Injuries to Property[3]	263 (0·9)	34 (0·1)	56 (0·2)	102 (0·4)	174 (0·6)	235 (0·8)	289 (0·9)	327 (1·1)

*Numbers in parentheses provide incidence per 10,000 population.
**Includes 33 victims of car bomb explosions on 17 May 1974.
[1] The sum of all frauds by false pretences by agents, trustees and directors and "other" frauds.
[2] The sum of all felonious woundings and all misdemeanant woundings and assaults.
[3] Covers all malicious injuries to property except those involving explosives.

Detection
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TABLE 9.5

Age and sex of individuals convicted for specific offence categories

	1961 %	1966 %	1974 %
Burglary			
Under 14 years	9·8	2·8	0·5
14–17	26·1	21·0	11·4
17–21	28·3	35·0	43·5
21 +	35·9	41·3	44·6
Percent females	2·2	5·6	2·1
Housebreaking			
Under 14 years	30·5	24·0	14·1
14–17	38·4	28·0	24·0
17–21	12·2	20·9	26·7
21 +	18·9	27·0	35·2
Percent females	3·7	4·8	10·3
Breaking into shops and warehouses			
Under 14 years	27·4	17·6	13·0
14–17	35·7	28·2	29·0
17–21	18·5	27·3	29·2
21 +	18·4	26·9	28·8
Percent females	0·8	1·4	2·7
Robbery			
Under 14 years	8·9	9·5	11·0
14–17	20·0	27·0	19·2
17–21	37·8	39·2	29·2
21 +	33·3	24·3	40·6
Percent females	11·1	0·0	8·8
Fraud			
Under 14 years	0·6	2·2	0·0
14–17	3·1	2·6	3·8
17–21	6·9	8·7	18·0
21 +	89·3	86·5	78·2
Percent females	9·4	7·0	15·4
Larceny of motor vehicles			
Under 14 years	0·0	0·0	3·7
14–17	25·8	21·1	15·7
17–21	38·7	39·5	38·8
21 +	35·5	39·5	41·8
Percent females	0·0	2·6	3·0
Larceny from unattended vehicles			
Under 14 years	27·5	16·3	6·5
14–17	26·4	17·0	21·6
17–21	19·9	31·1	37·2
21 +	26·1	35·6	34·8
Percent females	3·5	1·9	1·8

TABLE 9.5—*continued*

	1961 %	1966 %	1974 %
Woundings and assaults			
Under 14 years	2·3	1·0	0·4
14–17	7·1	9·2	6·1
17–21	16·8	25·5	27·1
21 +	73·9	64·2	66·4
Percent females	1·5	2·9	2·7
Malicious injuries to property			
Under 14 years	18·8	33·6	5·7
14–17	27·1	26·2	22·9
17–21	14·6	24·6	33·7
21 +	39·6	15·6	37·7
Percent females	0·0	2·5	6·9

TABLE 9.6

Commitments to Prison on Conviction: Numbers and Characteristics of Those Imprisoned*

	Number of commitments on conviction	Number of commitments per 10,000 population	Percentage of those committed under age 21	Percentage of females among those committed
			%	%
961	1,592	5·6	19·0	12·1
962	1,591	5·6	12·0	13·8
963	1,534	5·4	11·7	13·1
964	1,626	5·7	14·6	12·9
965	1,711	5·9	12·6	14·3
966	1,725	6·0	15·1	13·9
967	2,016	7·0	12·5	12·0
968	1,758	6·0	15·4	13·6
969	1,579	5·4	17·4	10·0
970	1,901	6·4	19·4	8·9
971	2,474	8·3	26·8	10·0
972	2,914	9·7	26·8	8·4

*This table excludes prisoners committed on a conviction for contempt of court r debtor cases and for default in finding sureties. There were 101 such commitments 1961, 187 in 1966 and 105 in 1972.

TABLE 9.7

Percentage of Indictable Crimes Occurring in Urban Areas*

Year	Percent Urban
	%
1951	69·5
1956	65·0
1961	62·1
1962	60·0
1963	59·9
1964	68·4
1965	65·9
1966	70·3
1967	71·7
1968	72·5
1969	71·1
1970	71·3
1971	72·4
1972	71·2
1973	70·2
1974	69·8

*In 1964, the Dublin/Wicklow Garda Siochana Division was abolished, with the bulk of its territory being added to the Dublin Metropolitan Area Division. Statistics for 1964 onwards reflect this change in the DMA Division's boundaries.

References

[1]Excellent discussions of the pitfalls of crime statistics can be found in Norval Morris & Gordon Hawkins *The Honest Politician's Guide to Crime Control*, Chicago: University Press, 1969 and in Hermann Mannheim, *Comparative Criminology*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1965. For a concise summary of the findings of victimisation studies, see Roger Hood and Richard Sparks, *Key Issues in Criminology*, New York; McGraw Hill, 1970.

[2]If the *Report on Crime* is used to compile a time-series of crime statistics, it is necessary to be aware of the following features of the report's format:

(*a*) From 1947 through 1957, the Report was based on the calendar year. Beginning with the 1958 Report, the year covered was changed to the 12 months commencing on 1 October, resulting in the last three months of 1957 being included in both the 1957 and 1958 Reports. The 1975 Report will return to the practice of using calendar years.

(*b*) In most other respects, there is considerable consistency over the years, particularly in the approximately 70 indictable offence categories for which detailed information is provided. One major change does, however, occur— the dividing line for the two categories of "other" larcenies changes in 1958 from £5 to £50.

(*c*) With the exception of statistics on the numbers and characteristics of those convicted, data in the Report pertain to offences rather than to individuals, and a single individual involve any number of individuals, and a single individual can be responsible for, or charged with, any number of offences. Further, an individual convicted of more than one offence will be listed as having been convicted only for the most serious of the offences.

(*d*) A given Report refers only to actions taken with the 12 months concerned. A detection or a court action taking place in 1975 that arose out of an offence committed in 1974 will be added to the statistics for 1975. This makes it impossible to determine the court dispositions for offences occurring in a specific year. Also, as the number of offences has been increasing from one year to the next, when a detection in 1975 for a 1974 offence is used to compute the detection rate in the 1975 Report a spurious decline in that rate may result.

[3]For a discussion of the distinction between indictable and summary offences and of the jurisdiction of the District Court, see Paul C. Bartholomew, *The Irish Judiciary*, Dublin Institute of Public Administration, 1971, pp. 11–12.

[4]The FBI crime index is computed as the sum of seven "index crimes": criminal homicide, aggravated assault, forcible rape, robbery, burglary, auto theft, and larceny over $50. The first four offences constitute the index of "personal crime" with the remaining three representing the property crime rate.

[5]See Alfred Blumstein, "Seriousness weights in an index of crime", *American Sociological Review* 39 (December), 1974.

[6]An extremely thorough survey of crime rates in Ireland can be found in Paddy Hillyard, *The Nature and Extent of Crime in Ireland*, unpublished Master's thesis, University of Keele, 1969. The years 1901 to 1967 are covered, with particular attention being placed on the 1955–1967 period.

[7]The category of breaking and entering offences is formed by summing the incidence of the following five offences: burglary, housebreaking, breaking into shops and warehouses, attempts to break into houses, shops, warehouses, etc., and entering with intent to commmit a felony (Section 27, Larceny Act of 1916). Sacrilege is excluded as in the pre-1958 period it appears that the listing in the *Report on Crime* includes larcenies not necessarily preceded by the act of breaking and entering.

[8]Following the procedure adopted by Hillyard in his 1969 survey, the number of offences for which there is a detection is defined as the sum of offences in which proceedings were commenced and of offences for which the perpetrators were detected but for which no proceedings are shown.

[9]See Donald R. Cressey, *Criminal Organization*, London: Heinemann, 1972 and John A. Mack, *The Crime Industry*, London: Saxon House 1975.

[10]*The Report on Crime* provides information on the age and sex of "persons convicted or against whom the charge was held proved and order made without conviction".

[11]A 1975 survey by the National Prices Commission (Monthly Report No. 45, November 1975, pp. 53-59) identified 68 firms as being engaged in the security business.

[12]The number of registered vehicles in each year was obtained from the annual census undertaken by the Roads Section of the Department of Local Government. Through 1969 that census took place on 10 August of each year, while beginning with 1970, the census date was changed to 30 September.

[13]F. H. McClintock, *Crimes of Violence*, London, Macmillan, 1963.

[14]For a major study of that process, see Marshall B. Clinard and Daniel J. Abbott, *Crime in Developing Countries: A Comparative Perspective*, New York: John Wiley, 1973.

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