

Equality, diversity and inclusion evidence base for London

June 2019



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Greater London Authority
May 2019

Published by

Greater London Authority
City Hall
The Queens Walk
London SE1 2AA

www.london.gov.uk

Tel 020 7983 4000

Minicom 020 7983 4458

ISBN 978-1-84781-685-6

Cover photograph

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Introduction

London is home to an estimated 8.8 million people¹, making it the largest city in the UK. It is also a highly diverse city, with over 3.2 million residents born outside the UK.²

London's economy performs well across most measures of economic success; it is larger than Scotland and Wales put together and ranks as the eighth biggest economy in Europe. It is home to world-leading businesses, with an international trade surplus driven by specialisations in a range of highly-skilled sectors.³

But London is also a polarised city, with deep and persistent inequalities across a range of economic and social issues. These include high rates of child poverty, and inequalities in educational attainment and health.

This document presents evidence on how the extent and depth of these and other issues vary between groups in London's population, focusing on the key characteristics of individuals and households associated with social inequality.

Equality groups in London's population

A number of characteristics of individuals are protected under the 2010 Equality Act, in order to limit the discrimination and disadvantage of groups with one or several shared characteristics. These are listed below, along with data on their size within London's population and how this has changed over time.⁴

Gender: in 2019, the GLA projects that 4.55 million Londoners are female and 4.55 million are male.⁵ Women face particular issues around gender-based violence and low pay. As the majority of lone parents (90 per cent) are women, recent reforms to welfare that have affected lone parents have had a disproportionate impact on women. Women sharing other characteristics often face additional challenges, such as higher gender pay gaps among older and BAME women.⁶ Young women report issues around financial pressures and mental health issues.⁷ Men face issues around lower educational attainment, and are at higher risk of suicide.⁸

Age: The GLA projects that, in 2019, over a fifth of London's population are under 16 (1.9 million). Over two-thirds, or 6.2 million, are working age (aged between 16 and 64), and less than one in eight are 65 or over (1.1 million). Despite being the smallest age group in London's population, the number of Londoners aged 65 or over is projected to increase by 86 per cent between 2019 and 2050, faster than younger age groups.⁹ Therefore, there will

¹ GLA City Intelligence Unit (2018) [Demography](#)

² GLA City Intelligence Unit (2018) [Population by Country of Birth](#)

³ GLA Economics (2016) [Economic Evidence Base for London 2016](#)

⁴ A full breakdown of these characteristics is provided in appendix A.1

⁵ GLA City Intelligence Unit (2018) [GLA Population and Household Projections](#)

⁶ The All-Party Parliamentary Group on Sex Equality (2018) [Invisible Women](#)

⁷ Young Women's Trust (2018) [Young Women's Trust Annual Survey 2018](#)

⁸ Equalities and Human Rights Commission (2018) [Pressing for progress: women's rights and gender equality in 2018](#)

⁹ GLA City Intelligence Unit (2018) [GLA Population and Household Projections](#)

be a growing need for infrastructure that supports an ageing population, including accessible transport and housing¹⁰, as well more inclusive employment practices.¹¹

Disability: There are 1.3 million disabled adults in London, defined according to the Equality Act as having a physical or mental impairment that has a 'substantial' and 'long-term' negative effect on their ability to do normal daily activities. Disability is closely related to age: 13 per cent of the working age population are disabled versus 28 per cent of people aged 65 or over.¹²

Ethnicity: GLA projections estimate that, in 2019, 57 per cent of Londoners have a white British, white Irish or other white ethnicity, with the remaining 43 per cent having a black, Asian or minority ethnicity (BAME).¹³

Religion: Nearly half of London's residents, 48 per cent, give their religion as Christian. Muslims account for 14 per cent and all other religions total 12 per cent. People stating no religion make up the remaining 26 per cent. The proportion of Londoners who are Muslims or who have no religion has increased in recent years, while the proportion who are Christian has declined.¹⁴

Sexual orientation: 2 per cent of adult Londoners identify as gay or lesbian, higher than the UK rate of 1.3 per cent. A further 0.6 per cent identify as bisexual and 0.6 per cent as other sexual identities.¹⁵ A recent survey of the UK's LGBT population found that 40 per cent had experienced an incident such as verbal harassment or physical violence because they were LGBT, and that they had lower levels of life satisfaction than the general UK population.¹⁶

Trans: there are no current data sources on gender identity in London or the UK as a whole. Research carried out in 2012 on the acceptability of gender identity questions in surveys provided an indicative estimate that 1 per cent of the UK population identify as trans.¹⁷

The socio-economic position of individuals is not a protected characteristic, but is nonetheless an important factor affecting outcomes. We know from a range of studies that the social class and income of a child's parents and their local area affect a child's likelihood of doing well at school, going on to university and entering elite professions.¹⁸ In addition, social class and income are linked to poverty and material deprivation, health behaviours and outcomes, participation in sport, art and culture, and a range of other life experiences covered in this evidence base.

Social class: assessing London adults along the National Statistics Socio-economic Classification (NS-SEC), most households in London (52 per cent) are in the top two social

¹⁰ Compass (2017) [Good London: A vision for the kind of city we want to live in](#)

¹¹ Grahame (2018) [What would an age-friendly city look like?](#)

¹² Office for National Statistics (ONS) (2019) [Annual Population Survey Three-Year Pooled Dataset, January 2015 - December 2017](#)

¹³ GLA City Intelligence Unit (2018) [GLA Population and Household Projections](#)

¹⁴ ONS (2019) [Annual Population Survey Three-Year Pooled Dataset, January 2015 - December 2017](#)

¹⁵ ONS (2019) [Sexual orientation, UK: 2017](#)

¹⁶ Government Equalities Office (2019) [National LGBT Survey: Summary report](#)

¹⁷ Equality and Human Rights Commission (EHRC) (2012) [Technical note: measuring gender identity](#)

¹⁸ Social Mobility and Child Poverty Commission (2015) [State of the Nation 2015: Social Mobility and Child Poverty in Britain](#)

classes, referring to managerial, administrative and professional occupations. This has increased in recent years and is higher than the national proportion of 46 per cent. 27 per cent of London's households are in the bottom three social classes or are long-term workless, and 21 per cent are in intermediate occupations or are self-employed. The remaining 10 per cent are full-time students.¹⁹

Income: income inequality is higher in London than elsewhere in England. One measure of income inequality is the ratio of average to median income, after housing costs. This ratio is 34 per cent in London versus an England average of 25 per cent, although the gap between the two has closed in recent years. At a UK level, household income growth is stronger towards the bottom of the income distribution.²⁰ In addition, the risk of poverty is greater in London: 27 per cent of the population, and 37 per cent of children, are in poverty.²¹ UK-wide reforms to welfare and tax since 2010 have had an impact on poverty, particularly among disabled and BAME individuals, as well as women.²² Generally, in the years since The Great Recession there has been a fall in living standards in the UK comparable to the 1980s recession and subsequent 1990s recovery.²³

Finally, there are many smaller groups in London's population that are at particular risk of disadvantage and social exclusion but are poorly captured by many sources of equalities data. These include:

Looked-after children: there are approximately 49 per 1,000 children in London looked-after by local authorities.²⁴ This group tend to do less well at school, are at risk of suffering from poor mental health and are less likely to be in education and employment at 19.²⁵

Homeless households and rough sleepers: there were an estimated 7,484 persons seen rough sleeping in London during 2017/18.²⁶ In the same year, over 15,000 households were accepted as homeless by their local authority.²⁷ Homelessness can often cause ill health, as well as exacerbating existing conditions, with the average age of death among people who are long-term homeless considerably lower than the general population.²⁸

The Gypsy and Irish traveller community: there were 8,200 Gypsies and Irish Travellers resident in London at the time of the 2011 census.²⁹ This community are disproportionately affected by poor health, are over-represented in the prison population, are less likely to be economically active and have lower levels of educational attainment than other groups.³⁰

¹⁹ ONS (2019) [Annual Population Survey Three-Year Pooled Dataset, January 2015 - December 2017](#)

²⁰ ONS (2018) [Measuring inequalities in the UK for the Sustainable Development Goals](#)

²¹ GLA City Intelligence Unit (2017) [Poverty in London: 2015/16](#). Poverty measured as having an equivalised household income less than 60 per cent of the median, after housing costs

²² EHRC (2018) [Is Britain Fairer? The state of equality and human rights 2018](#)

²³ Institute for Fiscal Studies (2018) [Living standards, poverty and inequality in the UK: 2018](#)

²⁴ Department for Education (DfE) (2018) [local authority interactive tool](#)

²⁵ National Audit Office (2014) [Children in Care](#)

²⁶ GLA (2018) [Rough sleeping in London \(CHAIN reports\)](#)

²⁷ MHCLG (2018) [Live tables on homelessness](#)

²⁸ Local Government Association (2017) [The impact of homelessness on health: a guide for local authorities](#)

²⁹ GLA City Intelligence Unit (2015) [Ethnic Group Fact Sheet: Gypsy or Irish Traveller](#)

³⁰ EHRC (2016) [England's most disadvantaged groups: Gypsies, Travellers and Roma](#)

Refugees and asylum seekers: This group face barriers to accessing the labour market, have poor health, and are particularly vulnerable to discrimination, social stigma³¹ and poverty.³²

UK Armed Forces Veterans: there are 123,000 veterans living in Greater London.³³ This group face challenges around employment, and are more likely to have a physical, sensory or mental health condition than the wider population.³⁴

People with experience of the criminal justice system: London is home to 17 per cent of offenders and reoffenders in England and Wales, a total of 93,000 individuals.³⁵ Ex-offenders often face challenges around financial security, employment, and housing³⁶, as well as being more likely to have a mental health condition.³⁷

Children and adults with learning disabilities: According to GP records, approximately 2 per cent of London's population, or around 175,000 people, have a learning disability.³⁸ Children with learning disabilities that result in special educational needs (SEN) have lower levels of educational attainment, and adults with learning disabilities have lower levels of employment and poorer health than the general population.³⁹

It is important to note that the characteristics set out above overlap and interact with one another, producing intersectional identities that can in turn lead to distinct patterns of discrimination and disadvantage.

The evidence in this report

This report presents a range of evidence on social outcomes and issues in London. It explores how these vary across the protected characteristics identified in the Equality Act and for other groups of interest.

The evidence presented here is primarily descriptive in nature, so some caution is needed interpreting the findings to avoid drawing incorrect conclusions.

For example, the inclusion of tables breaking down outcomes by ethnicity and religion does not allow us to conclude that ethnicity or religion are the most important factor explaining these differences. The explanatory factor may be a correlated variable such as income or employment, which also vary by ethnicity and religion. Where available existing research has explored the contribution of different factors to outcomes, this evidence has been reviewed.

In many instances, descriptive evidence is not available on how social outcomes vary by the full set of protected and other characteristics described above. For example, the religion of individuals is not collected as often as other characteristics such as age, gender and

³¹ EHRC (2016) [England's most disadvantaged groups: Migrants, Refugees and Asylum Seekers](#)

³² Allsopp et al (2014) [Poverty among refugees and asylum seekers in the UK: An evidence and policy review](#)

³³ Ministry of Defence (2018) [Annual population survey: UK armed forces veterans residing in Great Britain 2017](#)

³⁴ Royal British Legion (2014) [The UK Ex-Service Community: A Household Survey](#)

³⁵ Mayor's Office for Police and Crime (2017) [Justice Matters – offender management](#)

³⁶ Prison Reform Trust (2017) [Prison: the facts](#)

³⁷ Greater London Authority (2017) [Offender mental health](#)

³⁸ Public Health England: [Learning Disability Profiles](#)

³⁹ EHRC (2016) [England's most disadvantaged groups: People with learning disabilities](#)

ethnicity. These gaps in the evidence are not highlighted in this report, but should be considered when reading the evidence presented.

This document forms part of the Social Evidence Base for London, a source of data and evidence on a wide range of London's social issues and social policy.

Executive summary

A great place to live

Housing

- **High housing costs** in London affect private and social renters more than owner-occupiers. **Low quality-housing** is more common in the private rented sector
- Social renting is more prevalent among **Black and Bangladeshi Londoners** than other ethnicities. Private renting is relatively more widespread among **non-British/white Irish Londoners**, and people from the **other Asian** and **other ethnic groups**
- **Younger, lower-income** and **disabled** Londoners, as well as **recent migrants** to London, are more likely to be renting
- **Overcrowding** is more common in London's **Bangladeshi, Black African and Pakistani** households
- Many groups face distinctive challenges around housing, including **disabled Londoners, migrants, refugees and asylum seekers, Gypsies and Irish travellers** and **older BAME and LGBT Londoners**

Homelessness and rough sleeping

- **BAME** households are over-represented among **homeless** households in London
- **Refugees** and **youth** (and **young LGBT people** in particular) face issues around becoming homeless, the impact of homelessness, and transitions into secure housing
- The majority of **rough sleepers** in London are **men**. **Non-UK nationals** are **over-represented among** rough sleepers

Poverty and deprivation

- London has above-average levels of **deprivation**
- Groups at higher risk of living in deprived areas include **young, disabled** and **BAME** Londoners
- Housing costs are leading to **higher rates of poverty**, with 27 per cent of Londoners living in relative poverty, once the cost of housing has been taken into account
- Families where **adults are not in work** or are working part-time are at a higher risk of poverty, as are those with one or more **disabled** adults

The built environment

- **Disabled** and **older Londoners** face barriers in **accessing London's built environment**, as a result of street design and clutter, a lack of dedicated parking, and a few accessible and specialised public toilets. Older Londoners are at risk of social isolation due to physical barriers preventing them from experiencing the city in full

Air quality, open space and fuel poverty

- More **deprived areas** tend to see higher levels of **air pollution**
- **Black Londoners** are slightly more likely to be exposed to high levels of air pollution
- Availability of **green space** is lower in more **deprived areas** and areas with a higher proportion of **BAME** residents, with **children** in London less likely to visit the natural environment than children elsewhere in England

- 10 per cent of households in London are **fuel poor**. Evidence at an England-level has found that **single parent, BAME** and **younger households** are the most likely to be fuel poor

A great place for young people

Child poverty

- 37 per cent of London's children are **living in relative poverty**
- Evidence at a UK level suggests that **Bangladeshi and Pakistani children** are at a greater risk of poverty than children in other ethnic groups
- Children living in **lone parent households, rented housing, households where nobody is in work** or where someone is **disabled** are at a greater risk of poverty
- 28 per cent of children living in poverty in London are materially deprived, with no access to a range of items and experiences typical in childhood

Child health and wellbeing

- More than one in five reception children in London are **overweight or obese**, rising to more than a third of year 6 pupils, five percentage points greater than the national rate
- **Black** and **Asian** children are more likely to be overweight or obese in London than **white** children
- At year 5, **children living in the most deprived areas** are 15 percentage points more likely to be overweight or obese than children in the least deprived areas
- London has the highest recorded rates of **low life satisfaction** among 15-year-olds of any English region
- **Children living in deprived areas**, children who are **black** and **LGBT+ children** are at particular risk of suffering from low life satisfaction

Childcare and early years education

- London faces challenges around the **cost** and **availability** of childcare for under-fives
- **Bangladeshi, Black and Pakistani children** in London are less likely to be enrolled in formal childcare
- Take-up of the **free childcare entitlement for disadvantaged two year olds** is lower in London than nationally
- Inequalities in educational outcomes are already present when children start school: **boys** are less likely to be school ready than girls. **Black children**, children eligible for **free school meals**, with **special educational needs** and **children living in deprived areas** are also less likely to be school ready than the average

Primary education

- London performs better than the national average in terms of attainment at **Key Stage two**, although **girls** are more likely to reach the expected standards in maths, reading and grammar, punctuation and spelling than boys
- Ethnic inequalities in attainment are present at Key Stage two, with **Black, white and mixed ethnicity** pupils less likely to achieve the expected standard than **Asian** and **Chinese** pupils
- **Disadvantaged** pupils, children with **SEN** and **looked-after children** are also less likely to reach the expected standard than the average

Secondary education

- As at Key Stage Two, at **Key Stage Four girls** have a higher average attainment than **boys**
- **Inequalities in attainment** by ethnicity are also similar, with **Asian and Chinese** pupils having a higher average attainment than **white, Black and mixed ethnicity** pupils
- **Girls are less likely than boys to take a range of subjects at GCSEs**, including computer science, design and technology, IT and business studies

Education transitions

- After Key Stage Four, a **higher proportion of FSM and SEN pupils do not have a sustained employment or education transition**
- After Key Stage Five, **fewer young people in London continue on into an apprenticeship** than in England as a whole, with **young men more likely to not have a sustained employment or education transition** than young women
- **Young people who have been eligible for free school meals, young men and young people who are white** are less likely to go on to university. **Women** are, however, less likely than **men** to enter a Russell group university. Similarly, other than **young people of an Indian ethnicity, young people from ethnic groups other than white** are also less likely to enter a Russell group university.

A great place to work and do business

Qualifications and skills

- **Deaf and disabled** Londoners, people of a **Muslim** faith and **older women** are particularly likely to have **no qualifications**, and much less likely to have qualifications at degree level or above
- At a UK level, **digital exclusion** is more common among **older people** and people from a **lower socio-economic grade**

Employment

- Groups under-represented in London's workforce include **older Londoners, mothers, young black men, Pakistani and Bangladeshi women, and disabled Londoners**
- Other groups facing challenges in finding employment include **homeless people, veterans, ex-offenders, carers and care-leavers**
- **Youth unemployment** is particularly high among **young black men** in London, as well as people of a **mixed or other ethnicity**

Pay and work

- Groups at risk of low pay in London include **Pakistani/Bangladeshi Londoners, people with low-level or no qualifications and disabled Londoners**
- **Pay gaps** exist by **gender, disability** and across **ethnic groups**. The greatest gender pay gaps exist in skilled trade and managerial occupations

Entrepreneurship

- In London, **women** are less likely to be self-employed than men, facing barriers to entrepreneurship including a self-perceived lack of technical, market and business skills

- **Disabled** and **BAME** Londoners face particular barriers to self-employment and business growth, including access to finance and to business support services

Getting around

Transport behaviour

- **Older** and **disabled** Londoners are less likely to **walk** than average
- Use of London **buses** is higher among **BME, younger, older** and **low-income** Londoners, as well as **women**
- **Older, younger, disabled** and **low-income** Londoners are less likely to use the **Tube**
- The groups most likely to **drive a car** are **older, white** and **male** Londoners
- **Cycling** is less common among **women, older** and **BAME** Londoners, as well as people from **lower socio-economic groups**

Transport accessibility

- **Disabled** and **older Londoners** face a range of barriers to walking, including physical barriers, pollution, noise and anti-social behaviour
- **Women** and people from **lower socio-economic groups** are less likely to cycle, due to perceptions of safety as well as a lack of confidence and low social identification with cycling
- **Older and disabled Londoners**, and **parents of young children**, face barriers to accessing public transport in London, including overcrowding, antisocial behaviour, and a lack of universal step-free access
- Accessible, reliable **transport information** is particularly important for **older** and **disabled** Londoners

Transport affordability

- **Younger** and **BAME** Londoners face greater **affordability barriers** to using London's transport network

Transport safety and crime

- **Older Londoners** are under-represented among victims of traffic accidents, but have a higher risk of fatality if struck by a car
- **BAME** Londoners are more likely to feel at risk of road accidents when walking at night
- **Safety and security concerns** can deter Londoners from using public transport, and are more prevalent among **BAME, women, young** and **disabled Londoners**
- **Young women** and **LGB** Londoners are at greater risk of **unwanted sexual behaviour** on London's public transport network

A safe, healthy and enjoyable city

Crime

- **25-44-year-olds** are over-represented among the **victims of crime** and among **offenders** in London
- **Men** are more likely to be **offenders** than women
- **Women** are more likely to be victims of **domestic violence** and **sexual offences** than men
- **BAME** Londoners and **men** are more likely to be a victim of knife crime

- **Hate crime** has risen in London over recent years. The Home Office have linked this rise to spikes in hate crime following the EU referendum and recent terrorist incidents
- **LGBT, black and mixed ethnicity Londoners** have a less positive attitude towards the police. **Younger Londoners** feel less well informed about local police activities than other groups
- **Confidence in the criminal justice system** is lower among people of a **mixed or white ethnicity**, although **BAME** groups face challenges around their treatment and outcomes within the criminal justice system
- **Disabled Londoners, Asian, black or mixed ethnicity Londoners** and people **aged 25-34** have the lowest rates of overall **victim satisfaction**

Health

- **Women** in London have a longer **life expectancy** than **men**, but can expect to live a greater proportion of their life in **ill-health**
- **Life expectancy** and **mortality** follow a steep socio-economic gradient, with people in **more disadvantaged areas** facing worse health outcomes
- **Inequalities in health behaviour**, such as smoking, alcohol consumption and drug misuse, also follow a similar **socio-economic** gradient. People of a **white or mixed ethnicity, disabled** people and people who are **LGBT+**, are also more likely to smoke and to drink heavily
- **Obesity** is more prevalent among **women** in London, especially among people of **Pakistani and Black African/Caribbean** ethnicities
- **Communicable diseases** are more prevalent in London, with **men who have sex with men**, as well as people of **Indian, Pakistani or Black African** ethnicities more at risk
- Groups at greater risk of **poor mental health** include **young women, people aged 35-44, disabled adults, unemployed men** and **people who are obese**
- **Black Caribbean** and **Black African** adults are more likely to use **mental health services** and be detained by **psychiatric hospitals**
- **Men** are more vulnerable to death from suicides at three times the rate of women

Social integration

- The majority of Londoners have **diverse social circles**
- **Young and older Londoners, women** and **disabled people** have less than average diversity in their social circles by either **age, race, education and income**
- **Indian, Pakistani and Bangladeshi Londoners** are more likely to have friends of a similar age, whereas **white British Londoners** are more likely to have friends from the same race and level of education
- **Social isolation** is more prevalent among **men**, people in **less skilled occupations** and **disabled people**. **BAME Londoners** and people aged **20-24** are also at higher risk of isolation
- **Participation in volunteering** is lower among people in **lower-skilled routine and manual occupations**, people aged **25-34**, **social renters** and people of an **Asian ethnicity**
- **Membership of associations** is lower among **younger, lower-skilled** and **Indian, Pakistani/Bangladeshi or mixed ethnicity Londoners**

- **Disabled Londoners** are less likely to feel a sense of **neighbourhood belonging** and less likely to agree that **London is a good place to live**

Culture and sport

- **Inequalities in cultural participation** in London include greater participation among **more affluent Londoners**, people who are **white, not disabled, younger, more educated** and **women**
- An exception to these patterns is in public library usage, which is more common among **BAME Londoners**
- **Participation in sport** is lower among **women, older Londoners, disabled Londoners, people of a lower socio-economic status** and **BAME Londoners**

Chapter 1: A great place to live

1.1 Key points

Housing

- **High housing costs** in London affect private and social renters more than owner-occupiers. **Low quality-housing** is more common in the private rented sector
- Social renting is more prevalent among **Black and Bangladeshi Londoners** than other ethnicities. Private renting is relatively more widespread among **non-British/white Irish Londoners**, and people from the **other Asian** and **other ethnic groups**
- **Younger, lower-income** and **disabled** Londoners, as well as **recent migrants** to London, are more likely to be renting
- **Overcrowding** is more common in London's **Bangladeshi, Black African and Pakistani** households
- Many groups face distinctive challenges around housing, including **disabled Londoners, migrants, refugees and asylum seekers, Gypsies and Irish travellers** and **older BAME and LGBT Londoners**

Homelessness and rough sleeping

- **BAME** households are over-represented among **homeless** households in London
- **Refugees** and **youth** (and **young LGBT people** in particular) face issues around becoming homeless, the impact of homelessness, and transitions into secure housing
- The majority of **rough sleepers** in London are **men** and are **non-UK nationals**

Poverty and deprivation

- London has above-average levels of **deprivation**
- Groups at higher risk of living in deprived areas include **young, disabled** and **BAME** Londoners
- Housing costs are leading to **higher rates of poverty**, with 27 per cent of Londoners living in relative poverty, once the cost of housing has been taken into account
- Families where **adults are not in work** or are working part-time are at a higher risk of poverty, as are those with one or more **disabled** adults

The built environment

- **Disabled** and **older Londoners** face barriers in **accessing London's built environment**, as a result of street design and clutter, a lack of dedicated parking, and a few accessible and specialised public toilets. Older Londoners are at risk of social isolation due to physical barriers preventing them from experiencing the city in full

Air quality, open space and fuel poverty

- More **deprived areas** tend to see higher levels of **air pollution**
- **Black Londoners** are slightly more likely to be exposed to high levels of air pollution
- Availability of **green space** is lower in more **deprived areas** and areas with a higher proportion of **BAME** residents, with **children** in London less likely to visit the natural environment than children elsewhere in England

- 10 per cent of households in London are **fuel poor**. Evidence at an England-level has found that **single parent, BAME** and **younger households** are the most likely to be fuel poor

1.2 Housing

London faces several housing market challenges, including affordability, quality, overcrowding and a lack of homes catering to specific needs.

These challenges are relevant to equalities on several grounds. Affordability and quality differ in their impact on individual households depending on their housing tenure - whether they rent privately or socially or are an owner-occupier. Because we observe very different patterns of tenure across London's population, some are more affected by these problems than others. In addition, there are groups that are more at risk of overcrowding, and others who have specific needs in relation to housing.

A further dimension relevant to London is the number of individuals who are homeless and/or rough sleeping. Evidence suggests that this is a growing population in London experiencing or faced with high levels of social exclusion. Particular groups are at greater risk of becoming homeless.

Housing affordability

The structure of London's housing market in terms of tenure has changed considerably in recent decades. Home ownership reached a peak in the early 1990s at almost 60 per cent of households, but by the time of the 2011 census, had fallen to around half of households in London. Private renting declined from the 1960s through to the early 1990s, before increasing to 26 per cent by 2011. Social housing grew between 1960 and the 1980s but has declined since, with 24 per cent of households in London renting socially in 2011.⁴⁰

Between 2011 and 2017, short-term tenure trend data suggests the proportion of households who own outright or with a mortgage has remained relatively stable. There has been a further fall in social renting of 2.5 percentage points and an increase in private renting of 2.3 percentage points.⁴¹

Costs for each tenure type also vary and are higher compared to the rest of the UK. In London, average weekly gross spending on housing is similar between renters and those with a mortgage; £244 and £223 respectively. However, after taking account of housing benefit and other allowances for renters, and separating mortgage payments into capital and interest, net payments for housing services are far higher for renters; £189 on average versus £110 for those with a mortgage. These figures are 90 and 30 per cent higher than the UK average, respectively.⁴²

Average earnings and incomes are also higher in London, but even after taking this into account, Londoners spend a greater proportion of their income on housing. For people with a mortgage, average housing costs as a proportion of income are 22 per cent in London, 17 per cent elsewhere. For renters, the equivalent figures are 54 per cent in London against 38

⁴⁰ GLA (2017) [The 2017 London Strategic Housing Market Assessment](#)

⁴¹ GLA (2018) [Housing in London 2018 report](#)

⁴² ONS (2018) [Expenditure on rent and mortgages by renters and mortgage holders by countries and regions, UK: Table 2.11](#)

per cent elsewhere.⁴³⁴⁴ Among renters, those renting privately generally pay a greater proportion of their income on housing costs than social renters. In addition, changes to housing benefit mean that more than 90 per cent of Local Housing Allowance rates, which determine the amount of rent that housing benefit can cover, now fail to cover the cheapest rents.⁴⁵

The 2011 census collected detailed data on how patterns of tenure vary by household and individual characteristics. By the ethnicity of the 'household reference person', usually the principle wage earner of the household, owner-occupation was the most common among Indian (66 per cent), white British (60 per cent), white Irish (52 per cent) and Pakistani (50 per cent) households (see chart below).

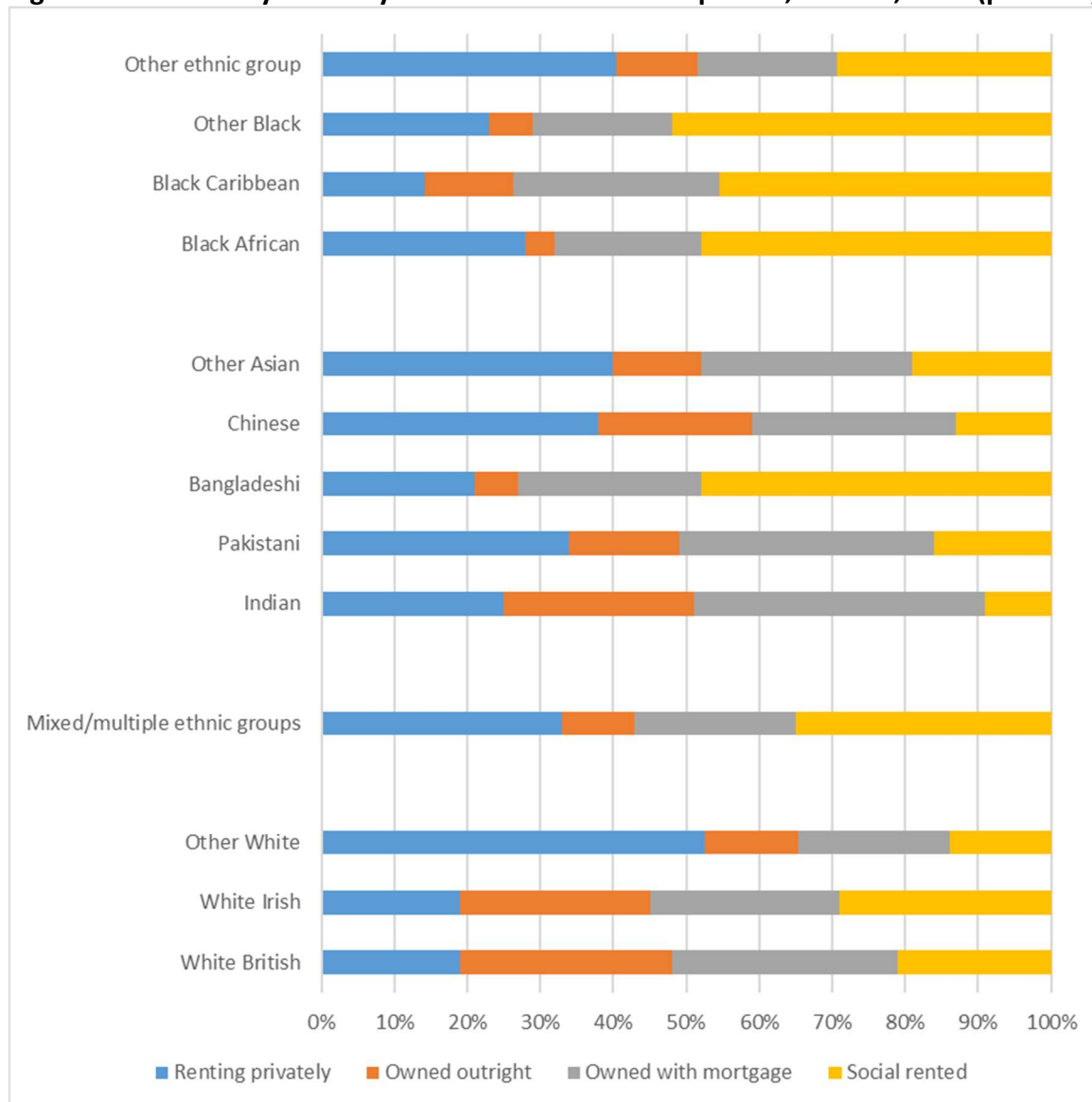
Social renting was highest for **other Black** (52 per cent), **Bangladeshi** and **Black African** households (both 48 per cent). Over half of **other white** households were **renting privately** (53 per cent), as were 40 per cent of **other Asian** and **other ethnic** groups.

⁴³ Using median housing costs produces a much smaller gap for owner occupiers (15.2 in London versus 14.4 per cent elsewhere) and for renters (36.6 in London versus 27 per cent elsewhere), as there are a relatively small number of households across both tenure types with very high housing costs

⁴⁴ MHCLG (2017) [English Housing Survey 2015 to 2016: housing costs and affordability](#)

⁴⁵ Chartered Institute of Housing (2018) [Missing the target? Is targeted affordability funding doing its job?](#)

Figure 1.1: Tenure by ethnicity of household reference person, London, 2011 (per cent)



Source: [2011 Census Table DC4201EW](#)

Looking at tenure by other characteristics reveals several patterns of interest:

- **Younger households** are less likely to own, with 28 per cent of 25-34 year-olds and 49 per cent of 35-44 year-olds owner-occupiers. 72 per cent of households aged 65 or over are owner-occupiers.⁴⁶
- **Lower-income households** are more likely to rent, with households in the poorest 20 per cent of households the most likely to be in social rent housing. Those in the top 20 per cent are the most likely to be owner-occupiers
- Adults who are **economically inactive as a result of a long-standing illness or disability** are the most likely group of adults to be social renters (65 per cent)

⁴⁶ Older private renters are a growing group nationally, with half a million older people living in the sector. This group have particular needs, and are more likely to have to move home and to live in unsuitable accommodation (Independent Age (2018) [Unsuitable, insecure and substandard homes: The barriers faced by older private renters](#))

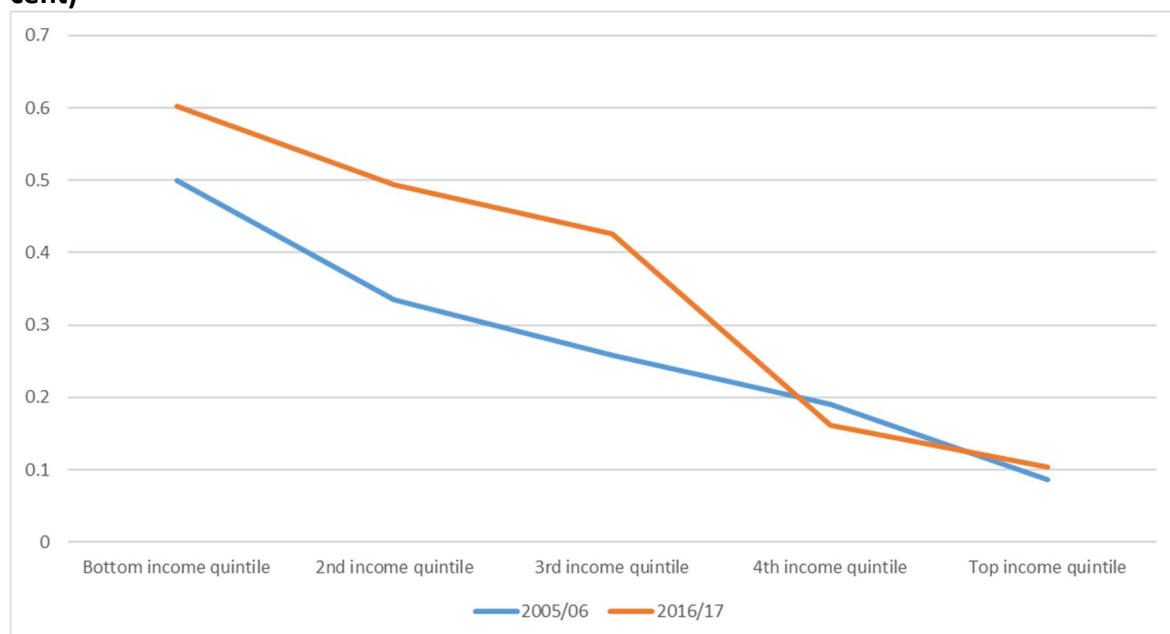
- Recent arrivals to London are much more likely to be renting privately, with 79 per cent of people who moved to London in the last year living in private rented accommodation, versus 25 per cent of people who have lived in London for longer than a year⁴⁷

The variation in housing costs by tenure, and the concentration of particular groups within certain tenure types, produces inequalities whereby certain groups face higher housing costs than others.

Across London, 33 per cent of households faced high housing costs (costs totalling over a third of their income) in 2016/17, up from 21 per cent in 1994/95. This figure varies widely by tenure; 64 per cent of private renters, and 46 per cent of social renters, have high housing costs, compared to just 8 per cent of owner-occupiers.⁴⁸

The risk of high housing costs also follows a clear **socio-economic** gradient. 60 per cent of households in the lowest income quintile have high housing costs, against less than 10 per cent of households in the top quintile (see chart below). Over time high housing costs relative to income have become more common towards the bottom of the income distribution, while it has stayed the same for the richest 40 per cent of households.

Figure 1.2: Proportion of households spending more than a third of their income on housing, by equivalised disposable income quintile, London, 2005/06 and 2016/17 (per cent)



Source: Department for Work and Pensions (DWP) (2018) [Households Below Average Income, 1994/95-2016/17](#)

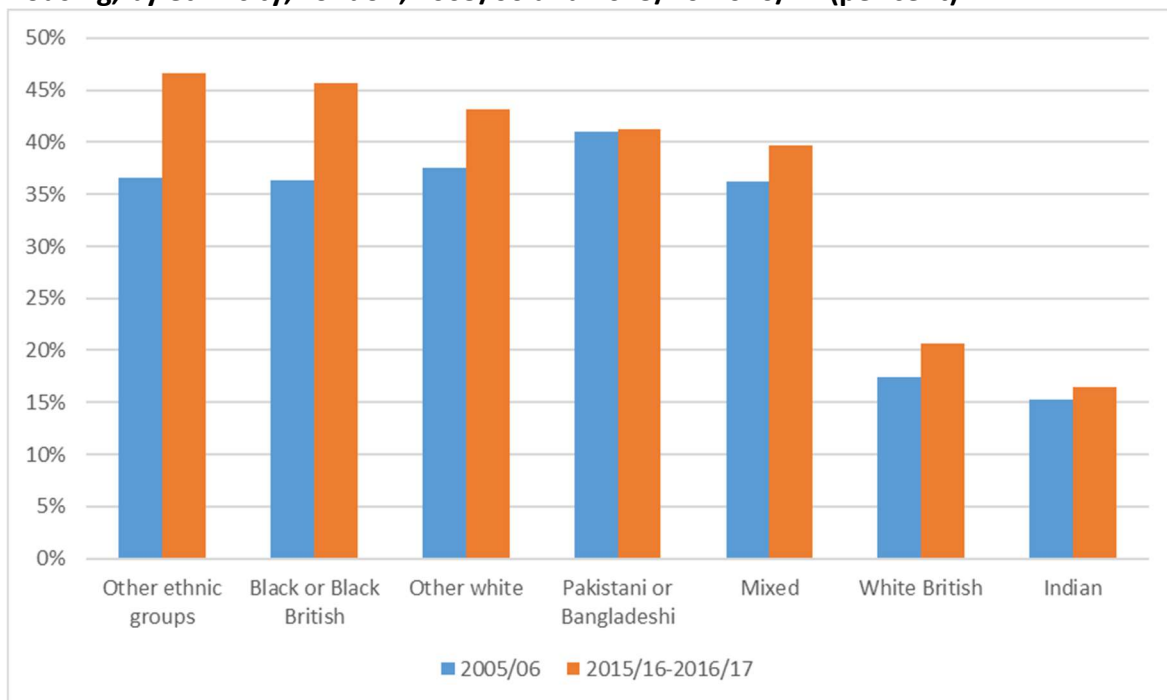
The risk of high housing costs also varies by ethnicity. Fewer than 16 per cent of **Indian** and 21 per cent of **white British** households face high housing costs, rising to 47 per cent for

⁴⁷ GLA (2018) [Housing in London 2018 report](#)

⁴⁸ Households Below Average Income, 2005/06 and 2016/17

those households in the **other ethnic groups** category (see chart below). The risk of high housing costs has risen since 2005/06 for all ethnic groups.

Figure 1.3: Proportion of households spending more than a third of their income on housing, by ethnicity, London, 2005/06 and 2015/16-2016/17 (per cent)



Source: DWP (2018) [Households Below Average Income, 1994/95-2016/17](#)

Housing overcrowding and quality

Living in overcrowded and poor-quality housing has a range of negative impacts, particularly for **children**. Overcrowding can lead to poor physical and mental health, and makes it more difficult for children to study, leading to worse educational outcomes.⁴⁹

Housing quality more generally, including damp, excess heat and cold, and the presence of housing hazards such as lead and asbestos, is linked to a variety of illnesses, with **older adults** and **young children** the most at risk.⁵⁰

Measuring overcrowding in London

Overcrowding is calculated by taking an estimate of the number of bedrooms required by a household and comparing it to the number of bedrooms actually available.

The Bedroom Standard is the notional number of bedrooms required by the members of a household after taking account of the ages and sexes of the household members and their relationships to one another.

An occupancy rating is calculated as the actual bedrooms available to the household less the bedroom standard. An occupancy rating of 0 means the household has the number of

⁴⁹ Wilson (2016) [Overcrowded housing \(England\)](#)

⁵⁰ Chartered Institute of Environmental Health: [Physical health – key issues](#)

bedrooms required; -1 means a household has one too few bedrooms than required and is therefore overcrowded compared to the bedroom standard. An occupancy rating of 1 or higher, means one or more bedrooms than the standard implying that the household is under occupied.

Data from the English Housing Survey shows that around 7 per cent of London households were overcrowded in 2015/16. This rate showed little change over recent years but was higher than in the 1990s.⁵¹

Overcrowding rates in owner-occupied households have remained low at around 3 per cent. Overcrowding in social rented housing was more prevalent in the early 2010s but has since fallen back to 13 per cent.

There was a steady rise in the rate of overcrowding in private rented households between the 1990s and 2010s. By 2014/15 there were a similar number of overcrowded private households as social rented (each around 100,000).

It is important to note that different data sources produce diverging estimates for the proportion of households that are overcrowded. For example, the 2011 Census showed higher levels of overcrowding in London's private rented sector than the English Housing Survey for the same year, with 18 per cent of households overcrowded compared to 11 per cent according to EHS.⁵²

At the time of the 2011 Census around 1 in 5 Londoners lived in overcrowded households. **Younger** people were more likely be in overcrowded accommodation, with over a quarter (27 per cent) of children aged under 16 living in overcrowded households, compared to only one in ten of people aged 50 to 64 and less than 5 per cent of people aged 65 or over (see chart below).

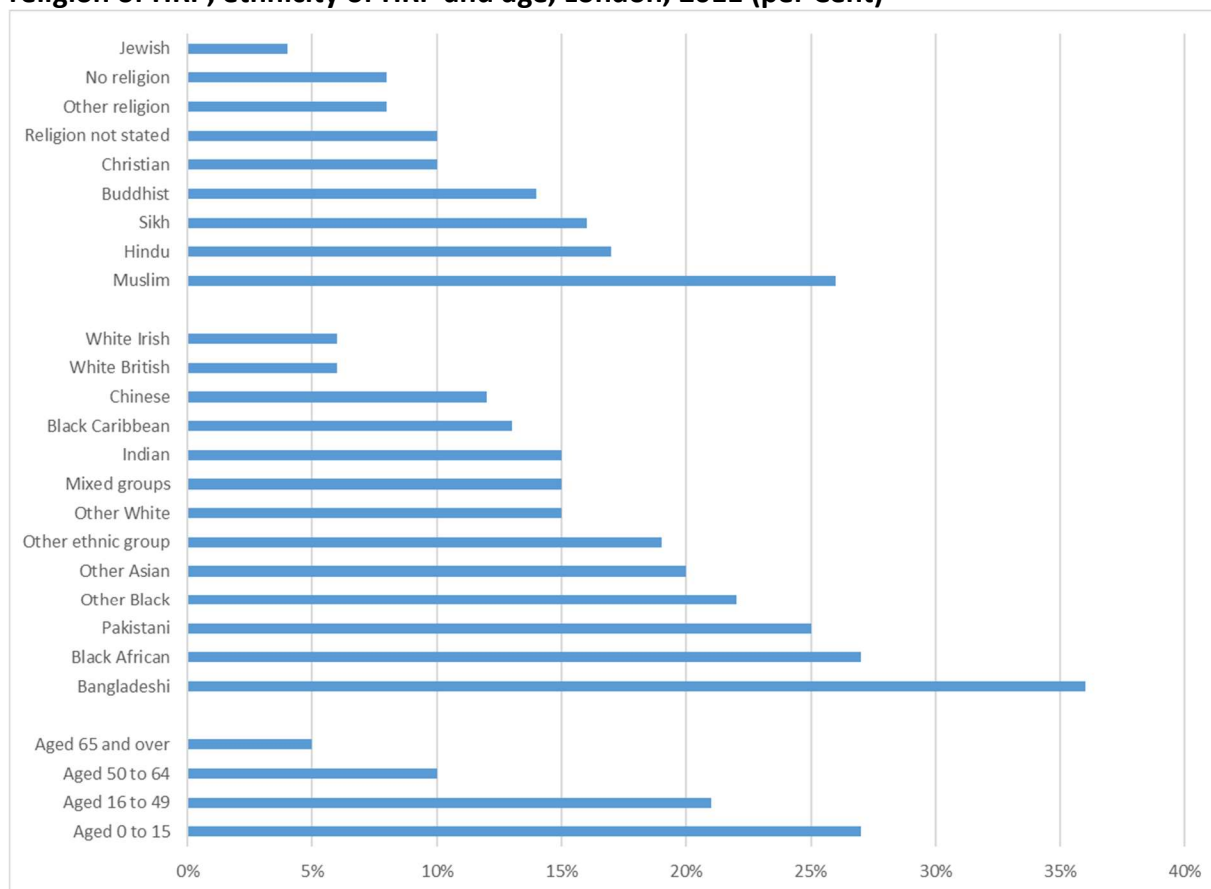
Over a third of households (36 per cent) with a **Bangladeshi** ethnicity Household Reference Person were overcrowded as were a quarter of households whose HRP was **Black African** (27 per cent) and **Pakistani** (25 per cent). The lowest rates of overcrowding were for white British and white Irish HRPs (both 6 per cent), Chinese (12 per cent) and Black Caribbean (13 per cent).

Over a quarter (26 per cent) of **Muslim** HRPs lived in overcrowded households, a much higher rate than other religious groups with above-average rates of overcrowding, **Hindu** (17 per cent), and **Sikh** (16 per cent). Jewish HRPs had by far the lowest rate of overcrowding (4 per cent), partially explained by the older age structure of the Jewish population in London.

⁵¹ GLA (2018) [Housing in London 2018 report](#)

⁵² [Census 2011 Table DC4207](#)

Figure 1.4: Proportion of households/individuals living in overcrowded households, by religion of HRP, ethnicity of HRP and age, London, 2011 (per Cent)

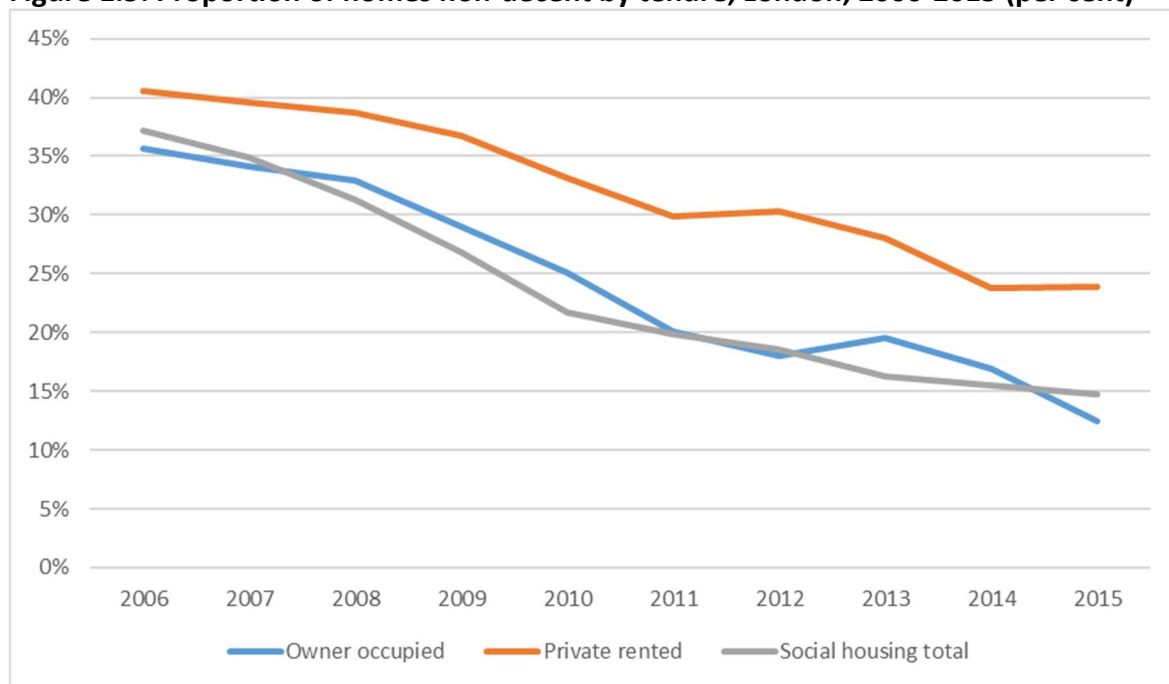


Source: Census 2011. [Tables DC4207](#), [DC4206EW](#), [DC3404EW](#). Note results for ethnicity and religion are as a proportion of all household reference persons. Results by age are as a proportion of all individuals

An area of improvement in London’s housing market is the proportion of homes that are ‘not decent’. The decent homes definition assesses housing quality in three areas; the effectiveness of insulation and heating, whether facilities are modern, and whether the house is in a reasonable state of repair.

When the current decent homes standard came into effect in 2006, 37 per cent of homes in London were classified as ‘non-decent’. This has fallen to 16 per cent in the latest data (2015).

Quality has improved across all tenures but with persistent gaps, particularly for private rented housing, where 24 per cent of homes are non-decent, against 13 per cent of owner-occupied and 15 per cent of social housing (see chart below).

Figure 1.5: Proportion of homes non-decent by tenure, London, 2006-2015 (per cent)

Source: GLA (2018) [Housing in London 2018 report](#)

Adaptable homes

Both **working-age and disabled older adults** often require adaptations to make their homes suitable for their needs, or need to move into more accessible accommodation. Home adaptations can improve a range of outcomes for people in later life⁵³, but only 7 per cent of homes nationally meet basic accessibility features.⁵⁴ Similarly, there is a shortage of accessible homes for disabled people, affecting their ability to live independently.⁵⁵ The Disabled Facilities Grant, which can be used to fund adaptations, is not always spent efficiently, and is less well signposted and used in the private than social rented sectors.⁵⁶

Around 180,000 households, 6 per cent of all households in London, say the illness or disability of one or more household members requires adaptation(s) to the home. This is relatively low compared with a figure of 8 per cent in England as a whole.

However, a relatively high proportion of people who require a home adaptation in London are looking to move to more suitable accommodation. Around 20,000 households say they are currently attempting to move, equivalent to 12 per cent of people who require a home adaptation, compared to 8 per cent at the national level.⁵⁷

Evidence at an England-wide level on the types of adaptations required include outside ramps, stair lifts and hand rails inside. The most commonly cited reasons for not getting the required adaptations include not having enough time, and not being able to afford the

⁵³ Centre for Ageing Better (2018) [A personal and professional perspective on home adaptations](#)

⁵⁴ The Design Council (2018) [The 100-year life: the role of housing, planning and design](#)

⁵⁵ EHRC (2018) [Housing and disabled people: Britain's hidden crisis](#)

⁵⁶ MHCLG (2018) [Disabled Facilities Grant and other adaptations: external review](#)

⁵⁷ GLA (2015) [Housing in London 2015](#)

adaptation. The same research finds that unsuitable accommodation among people in need of adaptations was most prevalent among people aged 75 and over, but people under 55 were the most likely to want to move because of unsuitable accommodation.⁵⁸

Migrants, refugees and asylum seekers are at greater risk of discrimination in the housing market. Recent changes in legislation, which disqualify individuals who do not have a legal right to remain in the UK from occupying residences under a residential tenancy agreement, may be leading many landlords to racially profile prospective tenants. This is exacerbated by a lack of understanding among landlords regarding immigration, discrimination and tenants' rights under the Equality Act 2010. Tenants are also often not aware of their rights, being more likely to cite discrimination as a factor in the landlord's decision.⁵⁹

Alongside this, research has also found that 23 per cent of landlords are less likely to consider international students. This is thought to be attributed to a lack of willingness among landlords to take on the extra burden of meeting requirements around the legitimacy of documentation.

Research led by the **Gypsy and Irish Traveller** community suggests that the planning system has not delivered enough public sites for Travellers accommodation for the past 20 years. This has led to 85 per cent of Gypsy or Irish Traveller families in London being forced to live in housing, with others living on the side of the road rather than in dedicated stopping places.⁶⁰

Since 2012, less than one third of London Boroughs have completed a Gypsy and Traveller Accommodation Needs Assessment (GTANA). Where these have been completed, the level of need suggested is significantly lower than the last London-wide GTANA, conducted in 2008. There are separate issues around the quality of existing pitches.⁶¹

Compared to the USA and Continental Europe, there is a lack of tailored housing provision and different housing and support options for **older LGBT people**. Older LGBT Londoners worry that mainstream housing, support and care providers may not offer safe and appropriate services that recognise and respond to their life experiences. Fears of being subject to harassment and abuse also have an impact on their confidence and trust in housing providers.⁶²

BAME Londoners have a younger age profile than the overall population, but as more BAME people retire their distinctive housing needs are becoming more visible. Research by the Runnymede Trust has explored whether and how this population will follow traditional retirement patterns, uncovering issues including financial exclusion and abuse, low rates of home ownership, and multigenerational housing needs.⁶³

⁵⁸ MHCLG (2016) [English housing survey 2014 to 2015: adaptations and accessibility of homes report](#)

⁵⁹ Joint Council for the Welfare of Immigrants (2017) [Passport Please: the impact of Right to Rent checks on migrants and ethnic minorities in England](#)

⁶⁰ London Gypsies & Travellers [Why we're needed](#)

⁶¹ London Gypsies & Travellers (2016) [Planning for the accommodation needs of Gypsies and Travellers](#)

⁶² Stonewall Housing (2016) [Building safe choices LGBT housing futures: a feasibility study](#)

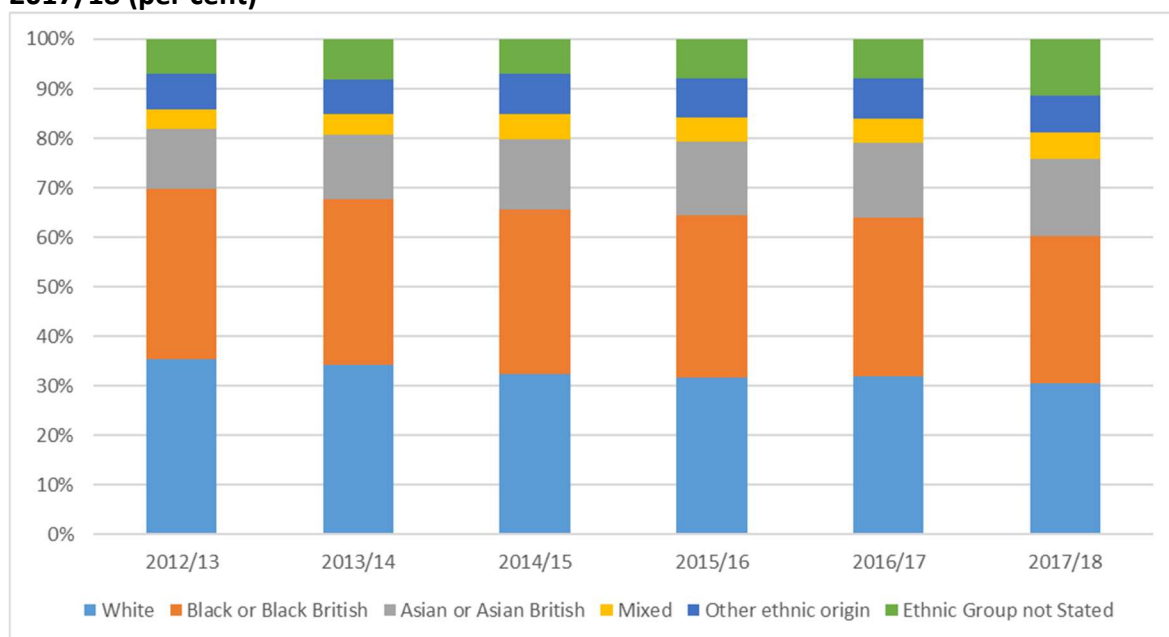
⁶³ Khan (2012) [A Sense of Place: Retirement Decisions among Older Black and Minority Ethnic People](#)

1.3 Homelessness and rough sleeping

In London over 15,440 households were accepted as homeless by their local authority in 2017/18. This is equivalent to 4 in every 1,000 households in London, higher than the equivalent figure of 2 in every 1,000 households in England as a whole.⁶⁴

BAME households are over-represented among those households accepted as homeless by their local authority (see chart below). Figures for 2017/18 show that 30 per cent of London local authorities’ acceptances were to Black claimants, 31 per cent were to white claimants and 19 per cent to other or unknown ethnic group claimants.

Figure 1.6: households accepted as homeless, by year and ethnicity, London, 2012/13 – 2017/18 (per cent)



Source: MHCLG (2018) [Live tables on homelessness](#)

There are several contributing factors to the increased likelihood of BAME households becoming homeless, including poverty, income and, for certain groups, higher rates of unemployment. Access to homelessness services can be a barrier for some BAME groups, due in part to lower awareness of homelessness services and fear of discrimination, but also a lack of cultural sensitivity of the housing needs of BAME individuals.⁶⁵ Other research has found that barriers to reporting abuse and a lack of specialist refuge spaces and legislative protection has an adverse impact on BAME women.⁶⁶

As a result of not being eligible for local authority housing and facing barriers to the private rented sector, many newly recognised **refugees** face periods of homelessness, with many having to rely on emergency support and the limited support available from various charities. Refugees have just 28 days after their asylum decision to transition from Home Office support during the move on period. Delay in the system can prevent timely access to

⁶⁴ GLA (2018) [Economic Fairness: Homelessness](#)

⁶⁵ Netto and Gavrielides (2010) [Linking black and minority ethnic organisations with mainstream homeless service providers](#)

⁶⁶ Netto and Gavrielides (2010) [Black minority ethnic and refugee women, domestic violence and access to housing](#)

documentation and universal credit. Many refugees will have no savings, no credit rating, limited networks and limited knowledge of how the private rented sector operates.⁶⁷

More than half of **young people** (55 per cent) accessing homelessness support have complex needs, including mental health, learning disabilities, offending behaviour, family breakdown and substance abuse. Almost two-thirds of this group had mental health issues in 2015.

Reductions in funding for local authority services has seen more young people accessing homelessness services. While the private rented sector has traditionally been a route out of homelessness for many young people, schemes to support this transition have come under pressure from changes to housing benefit entitlements and generosity.⁶⁸

LGBT young people face distinct challenges around homelessness. The main reasons for LGBT youth becoming homeless include parental rejection, physical, sexual and emotional abuse, and familial aggression and violence, often resulting in mental and physical ill health.

Young LGBT people are less likely to seek homelessness services because of lack of targeted support. When homeless are more likely to experience discrimination and physical and sexual abuse. They are also more likely to engage in substance misuse and riskier sexual behaviour than non-LGBT young homeless people.⁶⁹

Assessing the scale of rough sleeping in London

Data shown here are taken from GLA/St Mungo's CHAIN reports. These are not comparable to the local authority rough sleeper counts published by DCLG as they include people seen rough sleeping on any night over the entire year. The DCLG figures give estimates for a short period, sometimes counts for a single night. The CHAIN report figures are thus higher than DCLG estimates.

In 2017/18 outreach teams across London recorded 7,484 people rough sleeping in London for at least one night. The total was less than the 8,108 people seen in 2016/17 but remained at historically high levels.⁷⁰

Most rough sleepers were **men** (around 85 per cent), with nearly three in ten **aged between 26 and 35**. Over two-thirds were **White: White Other** (32 per cent), White British (31 per cent), and Gypsy or Irish Traveller and White Irish (8 per cent). Black ethnic groups totalled around 15 per cent.

More than half (54 per cent) of rough sleepers whose nationality was known were UK nationals, up from 47 per cent in 2015/16 and 41 per cent in 2016/17. The proportion of rough sleepers of Central and Eastern European nationality has fallen sharply from 37 per cent in 2015/16 to 23 per cent in 2017/18.⁷¹

⁶⁷ APPG on refugees (2017) [Refugees Welcome? The Experience of New Refugees in the UK](#)

⁶⁸ Homeless Link (2015) [Young and homeless](#)

⁶⁹ The Albert Kennedy Trust (2015) [LGBT Youth Homelessness: A UK National Scoping of Cause, Prevalence, Response & Outcome](#)

⁷⁰ GLA (2018) [Economic Fairness: Homelessness](#)

⁷¹ Combined Homelessness and Information Network (2018) [Rough sleeping in London \(CHAIN reports\)](#)

Rough sleepers often have complex needs, encompassing a range of other issues such as drug and alcohol dependency, substance misuse and physical and mental health conditions. Traditional approaches to supporting rough sleepers often involve an intervention to make them 'housing ready', before accommodation is provided. 'Housing first' an alternative approach, instead provides a stable home for as long as required, and is argued to make it easier to deal with the varied other needs of homeless individuals.⁷²

1.4 Poverty and deprivation

London's diversity is reflected in its pattern of neighbourhood deprivation, with the city containing areas of deep disadvantage alongside some of the least deprived areas in the country. This is relevant to equalities in and of itself, and because groups in the population are not evenly distributed across areas, with some more concentrated in neighbourhoods marked by deprivation. In addition, and largely resulting from London's high housing costs, working-age and older adults in London face a high risk of living in poverty relative to people elsewhere in the UK.

Measuring deprivation in London

The Indices of Deprivation 2015 (ID2015) are the Government's primary measure of deprivation for small areas (known as Lower Super Output Areas, or LSOAs, but referred to in this section as neighbourhoods) in England. Separate indices are produced for each of seven domains: income, employment, education, health, living environment, crime and barriers to services, and these are combined into an Index of Multiple Deprivation (IMD).

Neighbourhoods are then ranked using this index from the most to the least deprived. While there is no threshold below which an area is considered 'deprived', a general convention is that areas in the 10 per cent most deprived are highlighted for particular consideration and intervention by policymakers. This section follows that convention.

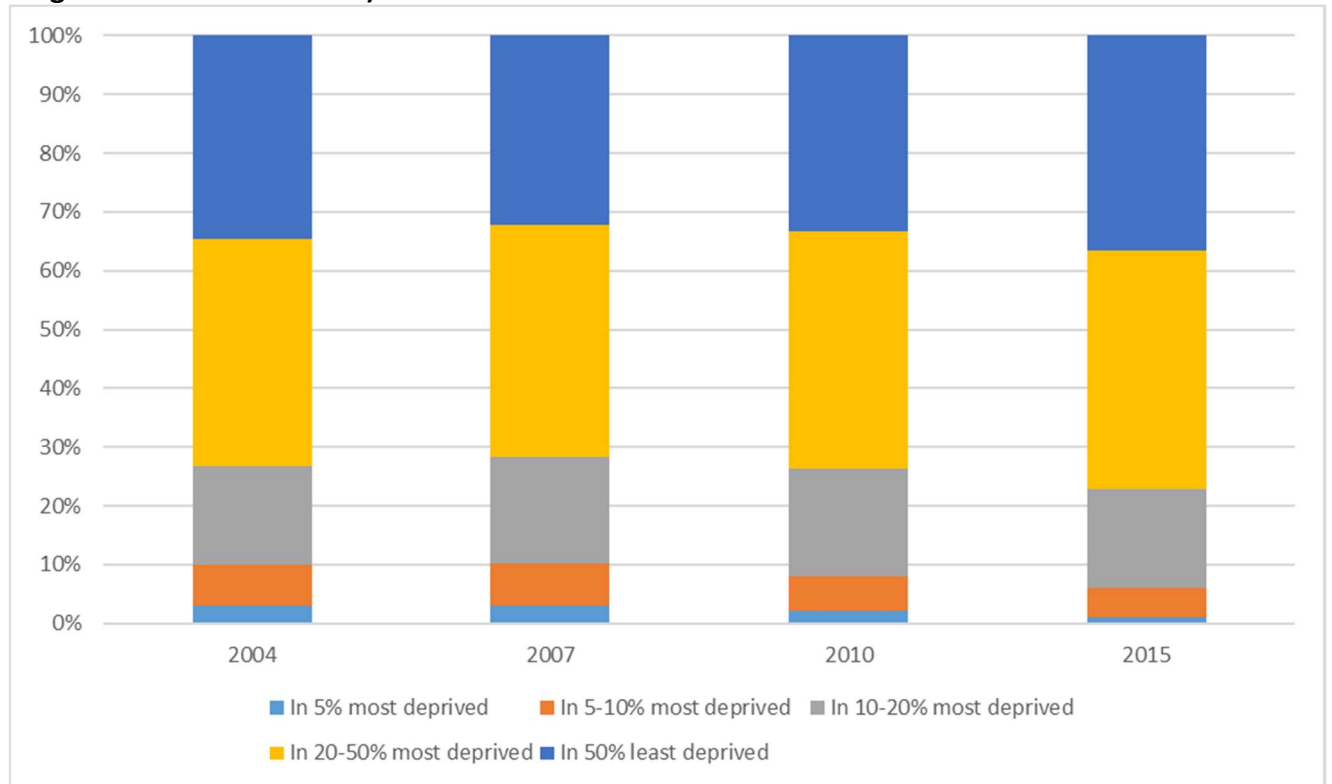
Supplementary indices are also produced focused on people of specific age groups in low income households. These are the Income Deprivation Affecting Children Index (IDACI) and the Income Deprivation Affecting Older People Index (IDAOPI).

London has relatively fewer highly deprived neighbourhoods (those in the most deprived 10 per cent) than elsewhere in England, and this has been falling over time. In both 2004 and 2007 London reflected England with 10 per cent of neighbourhoods highly deprived. This fell to 8 per cent in 2010, and then to 6 per cent in the most recent 2015 data.

Despite this, London has consistently had higher levels of moderate deprivation than elsewhere in England, with 17 per cent of neighbourhoods in the 10-20th percentiles of deprivation, and 41 per cent in the 20-50th percentiles. These figures have remained relatively stable since 2004 (see chart below). Taken together, almost two-thirds of neighbourhoods in London have above-average levels of deprivation.

⁷² Bellis and Wilson (2018) [Housing First: tackling homelessness for those with complex needs](#)

Figure 1.7: London’s neighbourhoods by deprivation rank, 2004 to 2015 (per cent of all neighbourhoods in London)



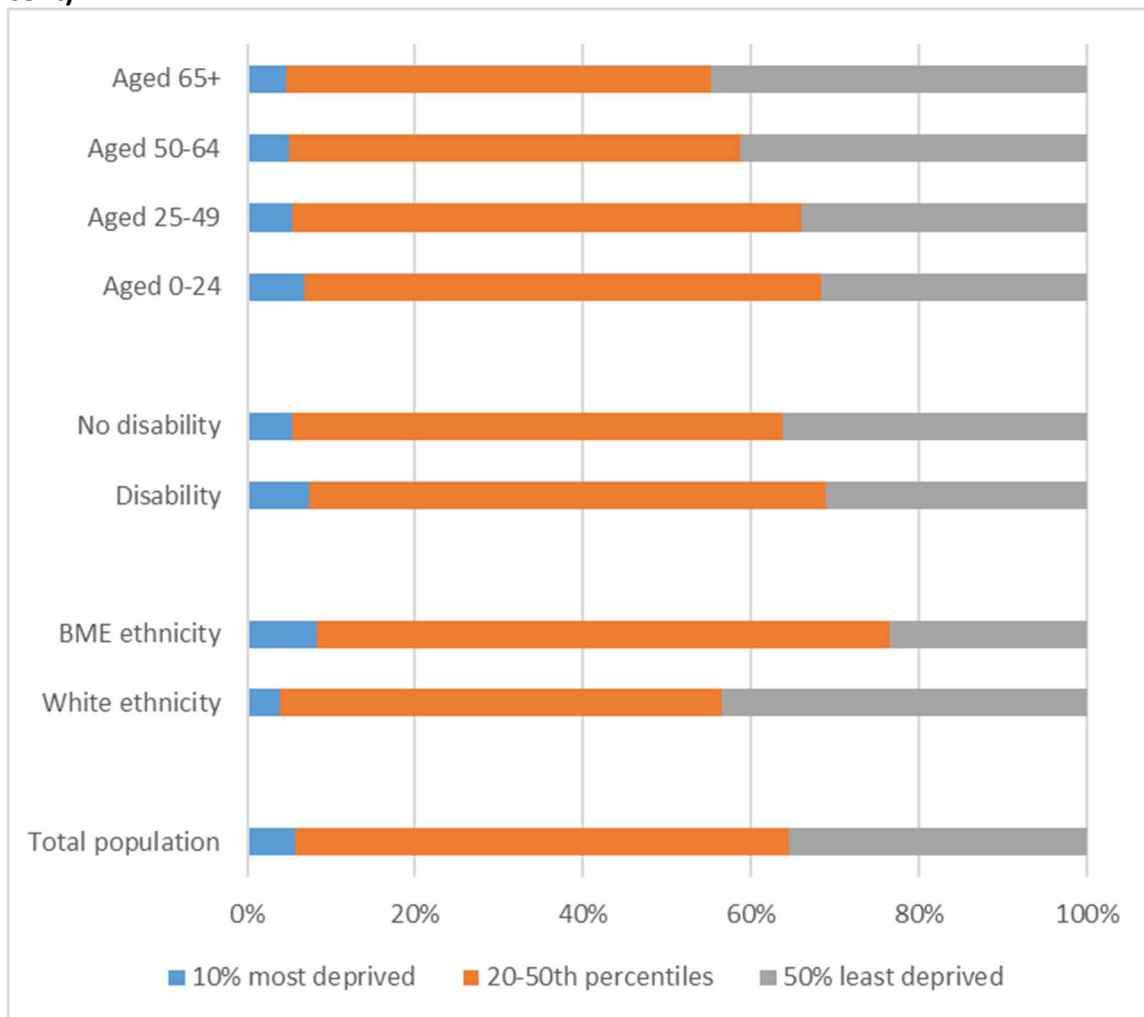
Source: MHCLG (2015) [English indices of deprivation 2015](#)

Who is more likely to live in a deprived area? The chart below shows, by age, ethnicity and disability status, the proportion of Londoners living in the 10 per cent most deprived neighbourhoods, the 10-50th percentiles, and the 50 per cent least deprived neighbourhoods. Across London’s population as a whole, 6 per cent live in the most deprived areas, 59 per cent in the 20th-50th percentiles and 35 per cent in the least deprived 50 per cent of areas.

By age, **younger people** are more likely to live in areas of above-average deprivation. Over two-thirds of under-50s live in these neighbourhoods, against 59 per cent of 50-64 year-olds and 56 per cent of people aged 65 and above. **Disabled people** are also more likely to live in areas of above-average deprivation.

People of a **BAME** ethnicity are twice as likely as White Londoners to live in the 10 per cent most deprived areas. More than three quarters of BAME Londoners live in above-average deprivation areas, compared to 56 per cent of people who are white.

Figure 1.8: London’s population by deprivation, disability, age and ethnicity, 2011 (per cent)

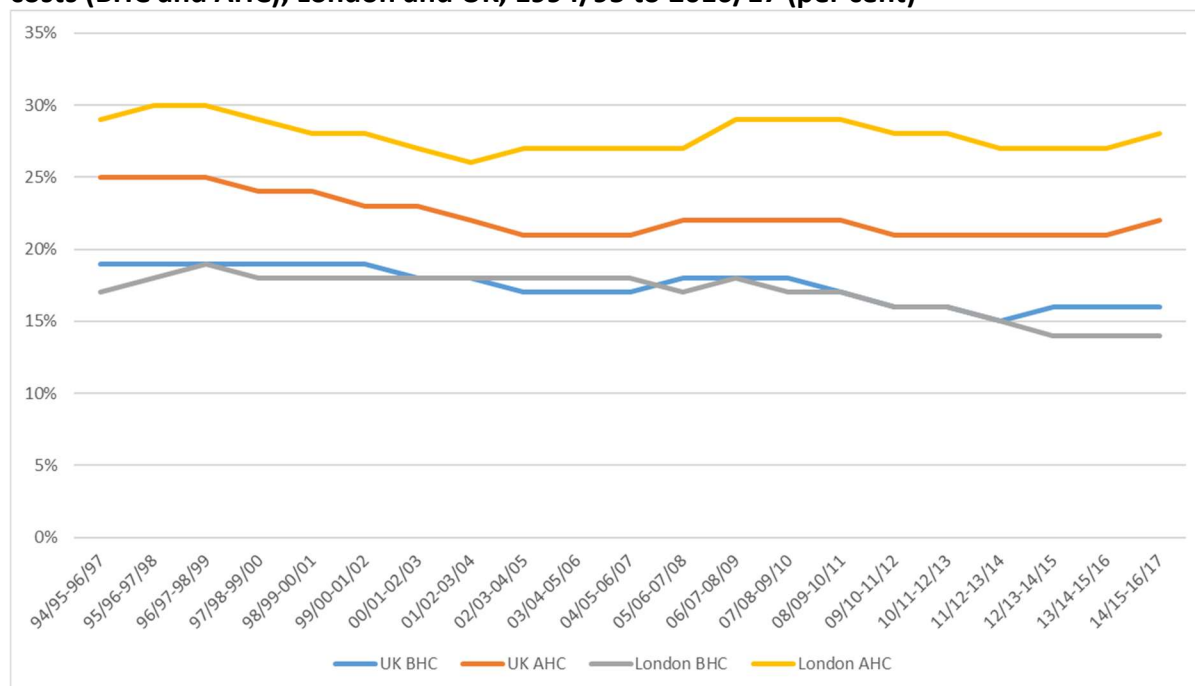


Source: MHCLG (2015) [English indices of deprivation 2015](#), 2011 Census

London is characterised by higher rates of poverty than the UK average, but only after considering housing costs. Measuring rates of poverty before housing costs shows that in 2014/15-16/17, 14 per cent of Londoners lived in relative poverty, versus a UK average of 16 per cent. Once housing costs are taken into account 28 per cent of Londoners were in poverty, versus 22 per cent at a UK level. This means that London’s higher rate of poverty can be entirely explained by the cost of housing (see chart below).

Poverty rates after housing costs have remained stable in London over the last decade following a previous gradual decline, and a similar pattern can be seen nationally. London poverty rates have remained above national rates.

Figure 1.9: Per cent of all individuals living in poverty households, before and after housing costs (BHC and AHC), London and UK, 1994/95 to 2016/17 (per cent)



Source: DWP (2018) [Households below average income: 1994/95 to 2016/17](#). Three-year averages

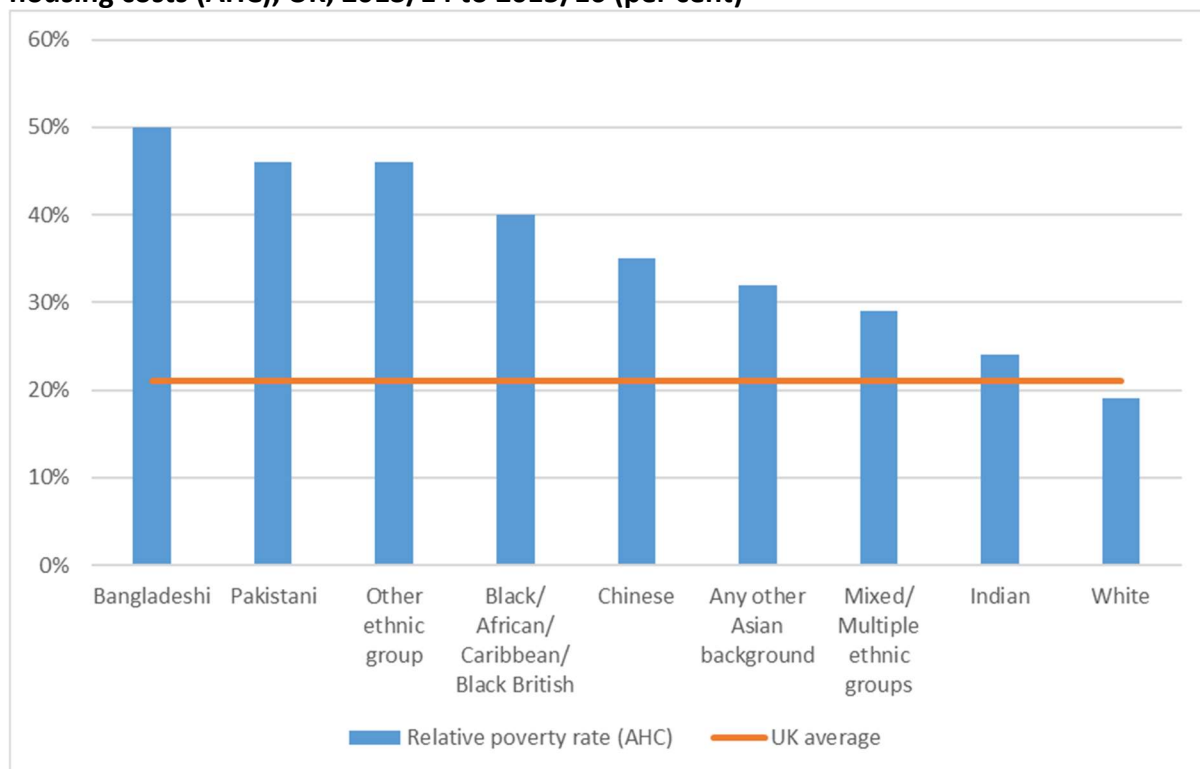
Within London, poverty rates were much higher in inner London than outer London. Recent research (AHC) found that 31 per cent of individuals in inner London were living in households below the relative poverty line, a much higher rate than any other UK region or country. The rate in outer London, 24 per cent, was comparable to that of the West Midlands (24 per cent) and Wales (23 per cent). However, the gap in poverty rates between outer and inner London in recent years has been decreasing, with inner London poverty rates falling and rates in outer London increasing.⁷³ In addition, households in poverty are increasingly likely to be in work, although the generosity of in-work benefits has increased over time and so a greater share of income for low income working families derives from benefits.⁷⁴

Who is in poverty? Because of limitations in data availability at a London level, we do not know how the risk of poverty varies by ethnicity in the capital. At a UK level, however, we know that **BAME households** have a higher than average risk of relative poverty after housing costs. The risk of poverty is particularly high for those households whose head is Pakistani, Bangladeshi, Black or in other ethnic groups. For these households the risk of poverty is 40 per cent or higher, more than double the UK average (see chart below).

⁷³ Travers et al (2016) [Housing and Inequality in London](#)

⁷⁴ Corlett et al (2018) [The Living Standards Audit 2018](#)

Figure 1.10: Per cent of all individuals living in poverty households by ethnicity, after housing costs (AHC), UK, 2013/14 to 2015/16 (per cent)



Source: DWP (2017) [Households Below Average Income: 1994/95 to 2015/16](#)

Analysis published by the Trust for London as part of London’s Poverty Profile has looked in more detail at how the risk of poverty varies among adults in London.

The study found that people in working families are less likely to be in poverty. Eighteen per cent of adults and 30 per cent of children in working families are in poverty, compared with 55 per cent of adults and 70 per cent of children in **workless families**.

Despite this, rates of poverty vary considerably by the type of economic activity of working-age households: 45 per cent of people in households where one or more adults is in part-time work and none in full-time work are in poverty, falling to 33 per cent where one adult is in full-time work and one is not working, 10 per cent where one adult is full-time and one part-time, and 8 per cent where all adults work full-time.

34 per cent of London families with at least one **disabled** adult are in poverty, versus 26 per cent in the UK as a whole. 39 per cent of private renters, 46 per cent of social renters, and 12 per cent of owner-occupiers are in poverty. However, because of changes in tenure at a London level in recent years the number of individuals in poverty living in private rented housing has overtaken the number of people in social rented housing and in poverty.

Rates of poverty among **older Londoners** (‘pensioner poverty’) are higher than in the rest of England (19 versus 14 per cent respectively) but are lower than for other age groups and

have fallen by a modest 2 percentage points over the last decade. This fall was greater in inner London (4 percentage points) than outer London (1 percentage point).⁷⁵

While rates of poverty are largely stable, assessments of the impact of changes to the welfare system post-2010 have found that poverty would have fallen had spending on welfare not been tightened. Research carried out for the EHRC estimate that 400,000 more households will be in poverty in Great Britain as a result of the changes.⁷⁶ Some of this impact may have been mitigated by announcements in the recent 2018 budget that saw a partial restoration of the work allowance within Universal Credit. This has been shown to have a greater impact on poverty than other changes to Universal Credit such as a reduction in the rate at which the benefit is withdrawn from working families.⁷⁷ In addition, reforms to welfare-to-work programs, including growth in the use of sanctions, have impacted on disadvantaged claimants, particularly disabled people, as well as families with children.⁷⁸ Finally, the introduction of Universal Credit, which is a single payment to families, has been criticised for its potential negative impact on financial abuse within couples.⁷⁹

Beyond poverty, at a UK level 1.5 million people experience ‘destitution’, meaning they could not afford essential items. **Single men under 35** are the most likely to experience destitution, partly because they are eligible for so few working-age benefits. This also means that some **migrants** who are not eligible for benefits are also at high risk of destitution. The boroughs of Barking and Dagenham, Tower Hamlets, Newham and Islington, along with Haringey, Southwark, Ealing, Camden and Westminster are thought to contain concentrations of destitution, due to the characteristics of their population.⁸⁰

There is also evidence that UK households are becoming more indebted, with the UK household sector as a whole becoming a net borrower in 2017.⁸¹ Experimental data produced by the ONS suggests that consumer borrowing per capita is substantially higher in London, driven by higher rates of mortgage borrowing, borrowing on current accounts, and to a lesser extent telecommunications borrowing such as unpaid bills on mobile or landline phones.⁸²

⁷⁵ Trust for London (2017) [London’s poverty profile](#)

⁷⁶ EHRC (2018) [The cumulative impact of tax and welfare reforms](#)

⁷⁷ Joseph Rowntree Foundation (2018) [Comparing investment in Universal Credit work allowances and taper rate](#)

⁷⁸ EHRC (2018) [The impact of welfare reform and welfare-to-work programs: an evidence review](#)

⁷⁹ Women’s Budget Group (2018) [Universal Credit and financial abuse: exploring the links](#)

⁸⁰ Joseph Rowntree Foundation (2018) [Destitution in the UK 2018](#)

⁸¹ ONS (2018) [Making ends meet: are households living beyond their means?](#)

⁸² ONS (2019) [Economic Statistics Transformation Programme: enhanced financial accounts \(UK flow of funds\) – using Equifax data to visualise patterns of borrowing across the UK](#)

1.5 The built environment

Outside of the home, the nature of London's built environment can support or form barriers to participating in city life. This is particularly relevant to **disabled people, older people and those with push chairs**, who face barriers in accessing many services and buildings because of the way in which buildings, spaces and places are designed and managed. These include:

- The level of provision of accessible public toilets can affect disabled and older people's confidence and ability to go out and about locally or across London⁸³
- Street furniture/clutter can have an adverse impact on people with a wide range of impairments, in particular people with visual impairments⁸⁴
- Use of shared surfaces, a street design concept where a level surface is shared by pedestrians, cyclists and traffic, can be challenging for many disabled people. The lack of clear boundaries between cars and pedestrians can be stressful and disorientating, with most disabled people either avoiding them or using them reluctantly⁸⁵
- Access to essential services, shops and family and friends: Across the UK, 29 per cent of disabled people have found some buildings where they live inaccessible, compared to 6 per cent of non-disabled adults⁸⁶
- Provision of 'changing places', larger toilets designed for assisted use and including necessary equipment such as hoists, is low in the UK and this can prevent disabled people and their carers and family from visiting places further from their home⁸⁷

There are also several specific barriers that **older Londoners** face that can limit their confidence and ability to access buildings, places and spaces, contribute to feelings of social isolation. Issues such as speed of traffic, noise, fear of crime or falling affect half of older people, especially people in sheltered accommodation or care homes and people with physical or cognitive impairments. Lack of gritting on the road during winter, insufficient separation between pedestrians and cars, inadequate number of benches in public places and not enough time to cross the road at traffic lights may also create barriers for older people.⁸⁸

In comparison to age and disability, there has been little research on the impact of the design and management of the built environment and public realm in relation to **gender and people with caring responsibilities**.

⁸³ Age UK (2007) [Nowhere to Go: Public toilet provision in the UK](#)

⁸⁴ Matthews et al (2015) [The impact of street accessibility on travel and independence for disabled people](#)

⁸⁵ TNS-BRMB (2010) [The impact of shared surface streets and shared use pedestrian/cycle paths on the mobility and independence of blind and partially sighted people](#)

⁸⁶ Papworth Trust (2016) [Disability Facts and Figures 2016](#)

⁸⁷ House of Commons' Women and Equalities Committee (2017) [Building for equality: Disability and the Built Environment](#)

⁸⁸ King's College London (2015) [An Age Friendly City – how far has London come?](#)

1.6 Air quality, open space and fuel poverty

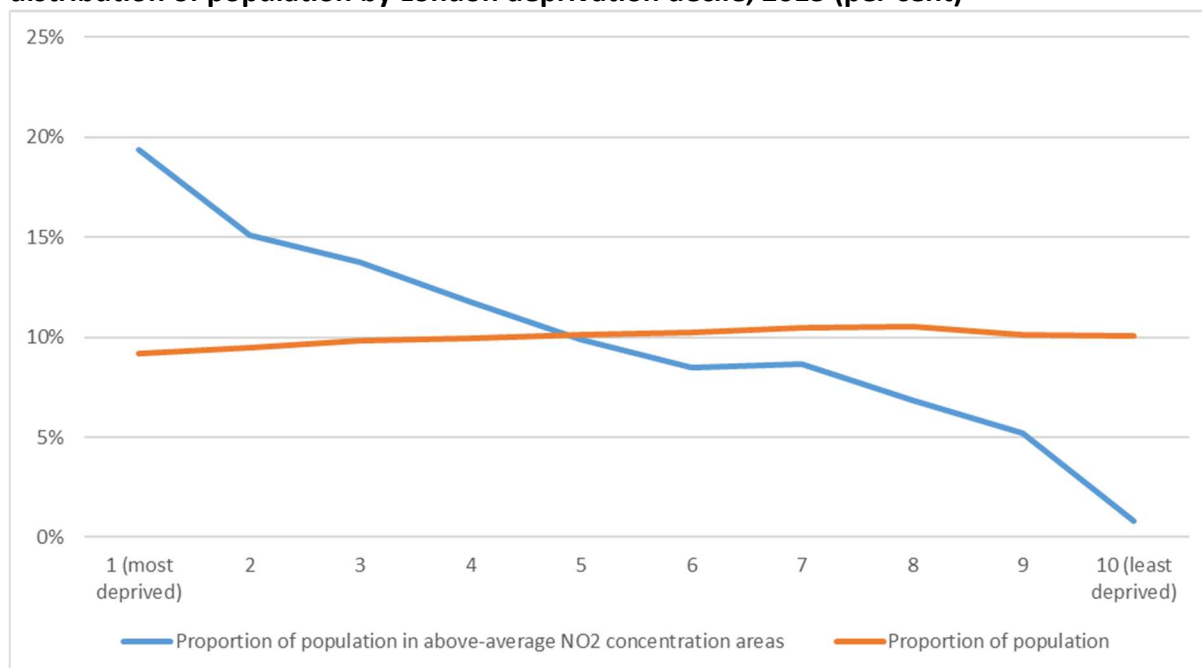
Air quality

Air quality is one of the key environmental determinants of health inequalities, the observed differences between groups in the likelihood of living in ill health and having a shorter life expectancy.⁸⁹

Air quality in London has improved in recent years, with average concentrations of particles (PM₁₀ and PM₂₅) in 2013 below the recommended European Union limits. However, concentrations of nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) remain above EU limits in many parts of London, with 1.9 million people exposed to high levels of NO₂ in London because of where they live.⁹⁰

Areas of greater **deprivation** tend to see high levels of air pollution. Research conducted on behalf of the GLA assessed where the population exposed to the highest levels of NO₂ concentration lived.⁹¹ This research found that this group tended to be concentrated in the most deprived parts of London. For example, almost 1 in 5 of people exposed to the greatest NO₂ concentrations live in the most deprived areas, despite only 9 per cent of London’s population living in those places (see chart below).⁹²

Figure 1.11: Distribution of population in areas with the highest NO₂ concentrations versus distribution of population by London deprivation decile, 2013 (per cent)



Source: GLA (2017) [Updated Analysis of Air Pollution Exposure in London](#) and MHCLG (2015) [English indices of deprivation 2015](#)

⁸⁹ Marmot et al (2010) [Fair Society Healthy Lives](#)

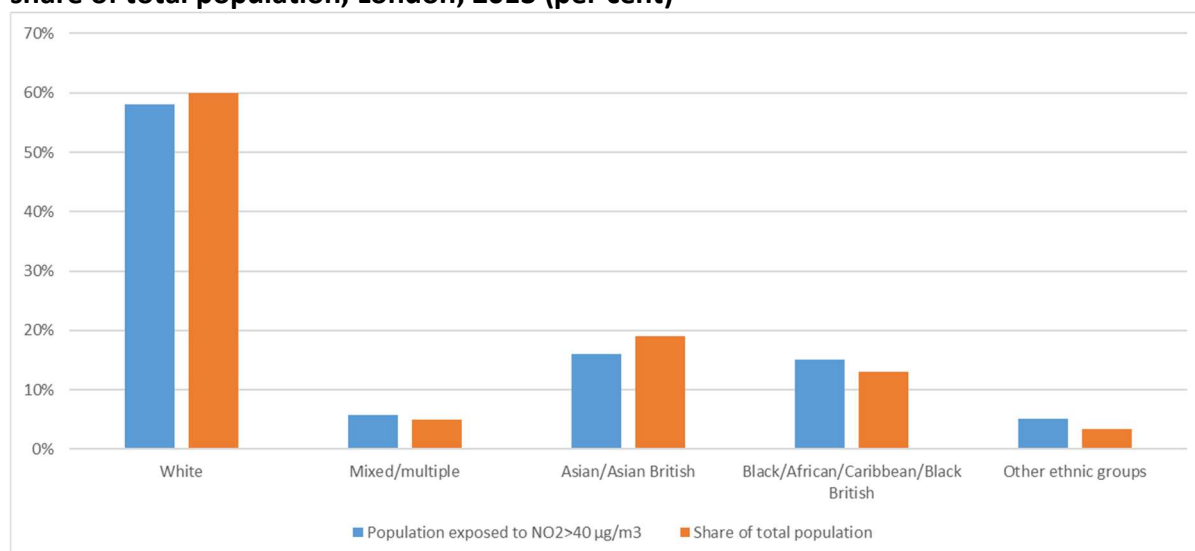
⁹⁰ Aether (2017) [Updated Analysis of Air Pollution Exposure in London](#)

⁹¹ Defining these areas as the 30 per cent of lower super output areas (LSOAs) with the highest average concentrations of NO₂

⁹² IBID

The same study also considered whether there were identifiable differences in exposure to NO₂ above EU limits between ethnic groups. The results here were less pronounced, with **Black/African/Caribbean/Black British Londoners** slightly more likely to be exposed (15 per cent versus 13 per cent of the population). A similar result was found for people of a mixed, multiple or other ethnicity, with only white and Asian/Asian British Londoners accounting for a smaller share of people exposed than their share of the population (see chart below).

Figure 1.12: Proportion of population exposed to NO₂ above EU limits, by ethnicity, versus share of total population, London, 2013 (per cent)



Source: GLA (2017) [Updated Analysis of Air Pollution Exposure in London](#)

By age, exposure tends to be less than average in areas with a greater proportion of under-19s and in areas with a greater proportion of over-65s, implying that people of a **working-age** have the greatest exposure to high levels of NO₂. The same is true of PM₁₀ and PM₂₅.⁹³

However, evidence indicates that many London schools are in areas of above-average NO₂ concentration, with around 25 per cent located in areas where average NO₂ exceeds EU limits. This risk appears to be greatest for Higher Education and 16+ institutions, as well as independent schools and nurseries. Around 1 in 5 primary and secondary schools are in areas with NO₂ concentrations above EU limits. 30 educational institutions are exposed to average NO₂ at more than 1.5 times the EU limit, all located in inner London boroughs.⁹⁴

Recent research has assessed the likely impact of the London Environment Strategy on air pollution inequalities. It projects that the inequality between the most and least deprived areas in terms of average concentration of NO₂ will reduce by 71 per cent, and inequality by average concentration of PM₂₅ will fall by 44 per cent. By ethnicity, inequality by the same NO₂ measure will fall by 85 per cent.⁹⁵

Access to and use of green space can improve health outcomes, with people who live in the greenest areas experiencing lower rates of mortality from circulatory diseases.⁹⁶ The quality

⁹³ IBID

⁹⁴ GLA (2017) [Analysing Air Pollution Exposure in London](#)

⁹⁵ Aether (2019) [Air Pollution Exposure in London: Impact of the London Environment Strategy](#)

⁹⁶ Marmot et al (2010) [Fair Society Healthy Lives](#)

of green spaces also matters, with better user ratings and higher levels of biodiversity leading to greater usage.

Availability of green space is linked to deprivation, with provision in **more deprived areas** worse than in affluent areas, and of a lower quality. Evidence at a national level finds that those places with a higher proportion of **BAME** residents also tend to have fewer green spaces. Areas that have almost no BAME residents have six times as many parks than those where more than 40 per cent of the population are BAME. Using a broader definition of quantity of green space, not just parks, this difference is around 11 times.⁹⁷

Children in London are less likely than children in other parts of England to make visits to the natural environment, with 62 per cent making at least one visit a week, and 15 per cent never visiting, versus 70 per cent and 12 per cent respectively at an England level.

Data at a national level also reveals that some groups of children are less likely to engage with the natural environment, including children who are BAME, 56 per cent of whom make at least one visit a week compared to 74 per cent of children who are not from BAME backgrounds, and children whose parents are from a lower social class, with a gap in weekly visits of 12 percentage points between the highest social grade (77 per cent) and the lowest (65 per cent).⁹⁸

Fuel poverty

A household is defined as being fuel poor if it has higher than typical energy costs and the household's income would fall below the poverty line if it paid for these costs (60 per cent of median equivalised household income). In London, around 1 in 10 households are fuel poor.

Across England, **single parents** are more likely to live in fuel poverty than other household types, with a quarter of single parents (26 per cent) fuel poor in 2016.

In 2016 a higher proportion of **BAME** households were living in fuel poverty (17 per cent) compared to the proportion of white households living in fuel poverty (10 per cent).

Younger households are also more likely to be fuel poor, including those households with children aged 16 or under (16-21 per cent depending on the age of youngest child), and those households where the oldest member is aged 16-24 (22 per cent).

In each of these groups, income is likely to be an important factor driving fuel poverty, as single parent, BAME and younger households tend to have lower incomes and/or a greater number of adults in the household, increasing required costs. In addition, lower-income households often experience a 'poverty premium' in energy, whereby those living below the poverty line pay more buying fuel than other households.⁹⁹ Other important factors include the age and fuel efficiency of the property, as well as the increasing cost of energy in recent

⁹⁷ CABE (2010) [Urban green nation: Building the evidence base](#)

⁹⁸ Natural England (2016) [Monitor of Engagement with the Natural Environment: a pilot to develop an indicator of visits to the natural environment by children](#)

⁹⁹ Keohane and Corfe (2018) [Eliminating the poverty premium in energy](#)

years.¹⁰⁰ Although Central Government has an ambition to make more homes fuel efficient, the primary policy intended to deliver on this ambition is falling short. One study estimates that on current trends, it will take until 2091 to upgrade all fuel poor households to a reasonable standard of efficiency.¹⁰¹

¹⁰⁰ DBEIS (2018) [Fuel poverty detailed tables 2018](#)

¹⁰¹ Emden et al (2018) [Beyond ECO: The future of fuel poverty support](#)

Chapter 2: A great place for young people

2.1 Key points

Child poverty

- 37 per cent of London's children are **living in relative poverty**
- Evidence at a UK level suggests that **Bangladeshi and Pakistani children** are at a greater risk of poverty than children in other ethnic groups
- Children living in **lone parent households, rented housing, households where nobody is in work** or where someone is **disabled** are at a greater risk of poverty
- 28 per cent of children living in poverty in London are materially deprived, with no access to a range of items and experiences typical in childhood

Child health and wellbeing

- More than one in five reception children in London are **overweight or obese**, rising to more than a third of year 6 pupils, five percentage points greater than the national rate
- **Black and Asian** children are more likely to be overweight or obese in London than **white** children
- At year 5, **children living in the most deprived areas** are 14 percentage points more likely to be overweight or obese than children in the least deprived areas
- London has the highest recorded rates of **low life satisfaction** among 15-year-olds of any English region
- **Children living in deprived areas**, children who are **black** and **LGBT+ children** are at particular risk of suffering from low life satisfaction

Childcare and early years education

- London faces challenges around the **cost** and **availability** of childcare for under-fives
- **Bangladeshi, Black and Pakistani children** in London are less likely to be enrolled in formal childcare
- Take-up of the **free childcare entitlement for disadvantaged two year olds** is lower in London than nationally
- Inequalities in educational outcomes are already present when children start school: **boys** are less likely to be school ready than girls. **Black children**, children eligible for **free school meals**, with **special educational needs** and **children living in deprived areas** are also less likely to be school ready than the average

Primary education

- London performs better than the national average in terms of attainment at **Key Stage two**, although **girls** are more likely to reach the expected standards in maths, reading and grammar, punctuation and spelling than boys
- Ethnic inequalities in attainment are present at Key Stage two, with **Black, white and mixed ethnicity** pupils less likely to achieve the expected standard than **Asian** and **Chinese** pupils
- **Disadvantaged** pupils, children with **SEN** and **looked-after children** are also less likely to reach the expected standard than the average

Secondary education

- As at Key Stage Two, at **Key Stage Four girls** have a higher average attainment than **boys**
- **Inequalities in attainment** by ethnicity are also similar, with **Asian and Chinese** pupils having a higher average attainment than **white, Black and mixed ethnicity** pupils
- **Girls are less likely than boys to take a range of subjects at GCSEs**, including computer science, design and technology, IT and business studies

Education transitions

- After Key Stage Four, **a higher proportion of FSM and SEN pupils do not have a sustained employment or education transition**
- After Key Stage Five, **fewer young people in London continue on into an apprenticeship** than in England as a whole, with **young men more likely to not have a sustained employment or education transition** than young women
- **Young people who have been eligible for free school meals, young men and young people who are white** are less likely to go on to university. **Women** are, however, less likely than **men** to enter a Russell group university. Similarly, other than **young people of an Indian ethnicity, young people from ethnic groups other than white** are also less likely to enter a Russell group university.

2.2 Child poverty

Living in poverty as a child has both immediate and long-lasting effects. Children in poverty perform worse than their peers throughout education, are more likely to suffer from chronic illnesses, be disabled, live shorter lives, are more likely to be not in employment, education or training (NEET) post-16, to be unemployed and low paid.¹⁰² International evidence suggests that children in low-income families are at greater risk of being involved in violent crime and harming themselves as young adults.¹⁰³

Measuring child poverty

There are various ways to measure poverty in the United Kingdom. In this section we use the Department of Work and Pensions' relative poverty definition: people living in households with less than 60 per cent of contemporary median household income.

In this definition, poverty can be assessed either before or after housing costs. After Housing Costs (AHC) takes certain housing costs in its calculation of relative poverty, including rent, mortgage interest payments and water charges into account when calculating income. In this section, After Housing Costs is the more appropriate measurement, better reflecting the higher cost of living in London.

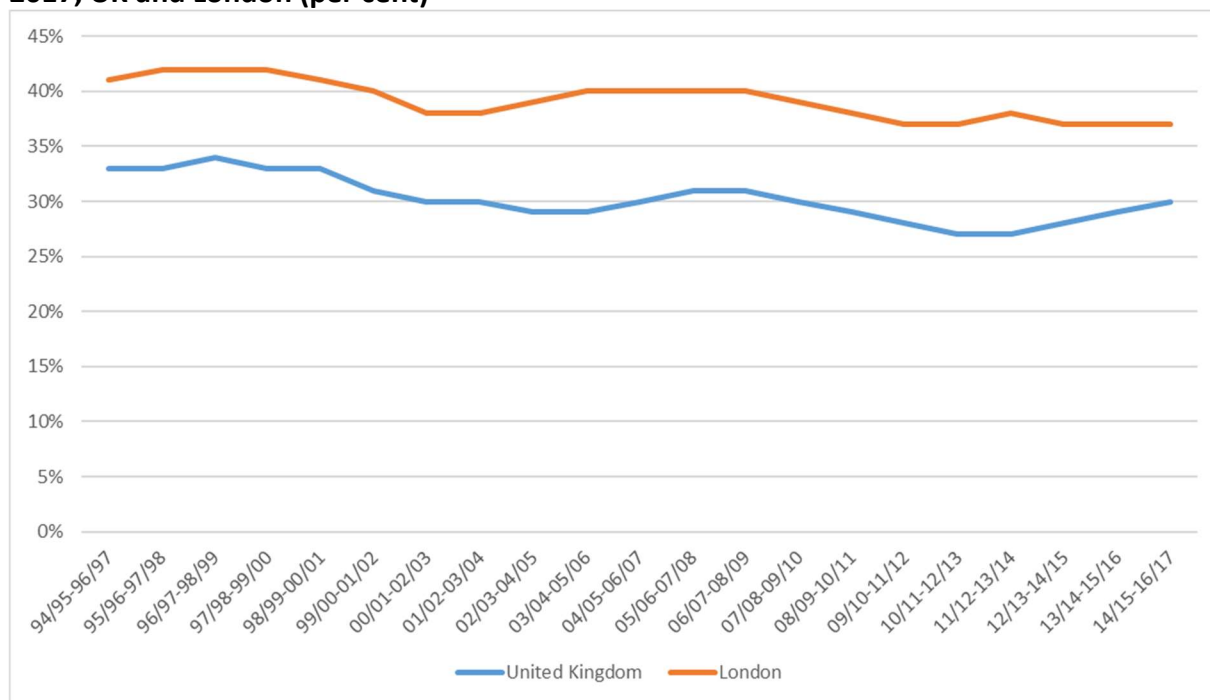
In 2018, the Social Metrics Commission published a suggested new methodology for measuring poverty. Under the new measure, the proportion of children in poverty in London is higher. While this evidence base continues to use the after housing costs measure described above, the Commission's suggested methodology provides a useful alternative, should it be adopted more widely.¹⁰⁴

¹⁰² Research summarised in The Children's Society (2013) [A good childhood for every child? Child Poverty in the UK](#), Child Poverty Action Group (2018) [The impact of poverty](#) and Wickham et al (2016) [Poverty and child health in the UK: using evidence for action](#)

¹⁰³ Mok et al (2018) [Family income inequalities and trajectories through childhood and self-harm and violence in young adults: a population-based, nested case-control study](#)

¹⁰⁴ Social Metrics Commission (2018) [A new measure of poverty for the UK](#)

Figure 2.1: Proportion of children living in relative child poverty households (AHC), 1994-2017, UK and London (per cent)



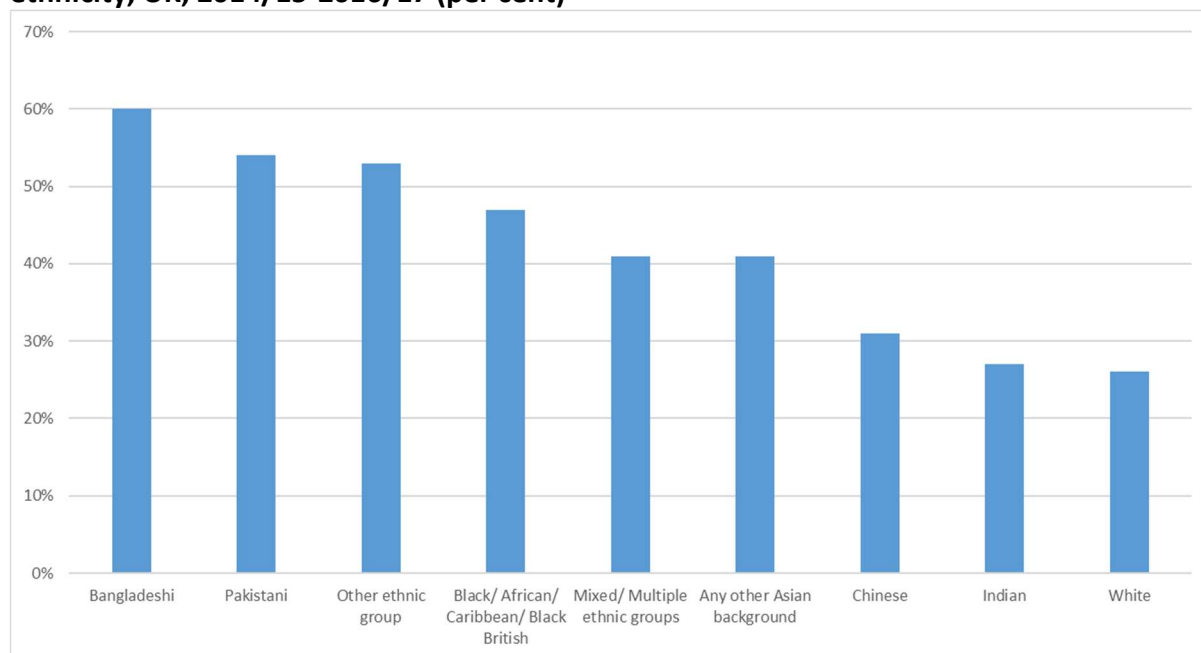
Source: DWP (2018) [Households below average income: 1994/95 to 2016/17](#). Three-year averages

In 2014/15-16/17, 37 per cent of all children living in London were in households with income below the poverty line. This is above the national average of 30 per cent (see chart above), and the highest of any region in England. This means that around 700,000 children are living in poverty in London, around 300,000 in Inner London and a further 400,000 in Outer London.

Though the percentage of children living in households below the poverty line has remained relatively stable in London over the past few years, there has been a gradual decrease over time from a high of 42 per cent seen in 1996/97-1998/99.

Data is not available at a London-level on how the rate of child poverty varies by ethnicity. However, we know at a UK-wide level that there is a sizable gap in child poverty rates between ethnic groups. At its widest, this gap reaches 34 percentage points between Bangladeshi children, more than half of whom live in poverty, and white children (see chart below).

Figure 2.2: Proportion of children living in relative child poverty households (AHC), by ethnicity, UK, 2014/15-2016/17 (per cent)



Source: DWP (2018) [Households below average income: 1994/95 to 2016/17](#). Three-year averages

Child poverty rates are highest among **Bangladeshi and Pakistani** children (60 and 54 per cent respectively), followed by the **other ethnic** group (53 per cent) and **Black/ African/ Caribbean/ Black British** (47 per cent).

The table below shows how the child poverty rate varies at a UK level for particular groups. For example, **children living in a workless household** have a very high risk of poverty, at over 70 per cent. Where one but not all adults are in work, the risk of poverty is still high at 42 per cent.

A higher proportion of **children living in social rented and private rented housing** were living in poverty than children living in their own home. 13 per cent of children living in an owner’s home were living in poverty, compared to over half of children living in the social rented sector (53 per cent).

Children living in families where someone is disabled are at higher risk of living in poverty than children living in families where no one is disabled. Where a household includes a disabled member but the household is not claiming disability benefits, the risk of child poverty is substantially higher than if they are in receipt (40 versus 24 per cent).

Finally, **children living in lone parent households** are almost twice as likely to be in poverty as children in couple households (49 per cent versus 25 per cent).

Figure 2.3 Proportion of children living in relative child poverty households (AHC), 2014/15-2016/17, by household characteristics, UK (per cent)

Household characteristics	Proportion of children living in households with less than 60 per cent of median income (after housing costs)
Disability status	
Children living in families where no-one is disabled	28%
Children living in families where someone is disabled	36%
<i>Of which:</i>	
In receipt of disability benefits	24%
Disabled but not in receipt of disability benefits	40%
Economic activity	
All adults in work	16%
At least one adult in work, but not all	42%
Workless households	75%
Household type	
Lone parent	49%
Couple with children	25%
Tenure	
Owners	14%
Social rented sector tenants	53%
All rented privately	48%

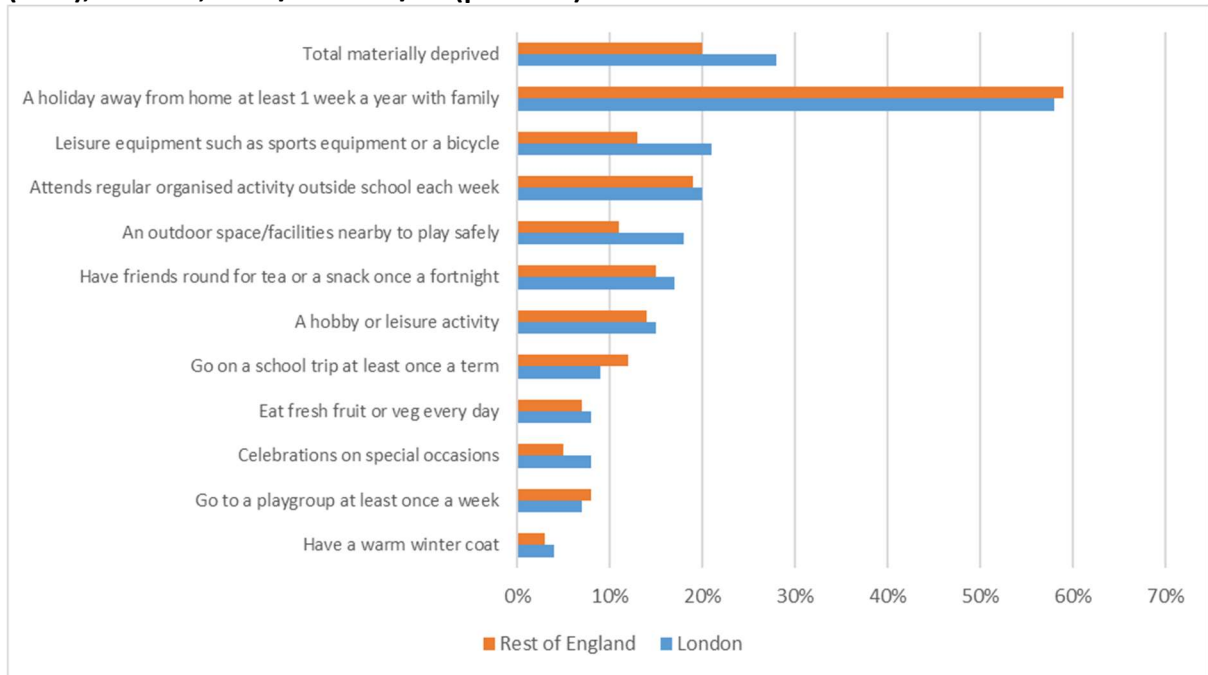
Source: DWP (2018) [Households below average income: 1994/95 to 2016/17](#). Three-year averages

Some of the short-term impacts of living in poverty can be assessed through survey questions asking families about child-related expenditure. For example, just under 60 per cent of London's children living in poverty do not go on a holiday away from home for at least 1 week a year.

Other experiences and items that many of London's children in poverty miss out on include; leisure equipment (21 per cent), regular organised activity (20 per cent), having friends over (17 per cent) and hobbies (15 per cent).

Perhaps most concerning, when asked about several basic items combined, 28 per cent of London's children living in poverty are 'materially deprived', higher than the 20 per cent observed elsewhere in England (see chart below).

Figure 2.4: material deprivation of children living in relative child poverty households (AHC), London, 2013/14-2015/16 (per cent)



Source: Trust for London (2017) [Children and material deprivation](#)

2.3 Child health and wellbeing

The emotional and physical well-being of a child is important because every child deserves the opportunity to develop their full potential. Poor physical health can lead to numerous medical conditions both during childhood and further on in their adult life, as well as poor psychological and emotional health.¹⁰⁵ Inequalities in child health are related to wider inequalities between families. For example, there is growing evidence of both food insecurity and ‘hygiene poverty’, where parents are unable to afford healthy foods and essential cleaning items.¹⁰⁶¹⁰⁷

Measuring physical child development

Data on physical child development is published annually by the NHS National Child Measurement Programme. At reception class and Year 6 every child in a state-funded school is measured on their height and weight to assess overweight and obesity levels (according to the BMI centile) in primary schools.

Physical child development

While London has the same proportion of reception children who are **overweight or obese** as England (22 per cent), year six children in London are four percentage points more likely to be overweight or obese, with 38 per cent of London’s year six population overweight or obese (see chart below). Worryingly, there has been very little change in rates of overweight and obese children since 2011/12.

Figure 2.5: Proportion of children recorded as overweight or obese, by age of child and geography, 2013/14-2017/18 (per cent)



¹⁰⁵ Public Health England (2015) [Childhood obesity: applying All Our Health](#)

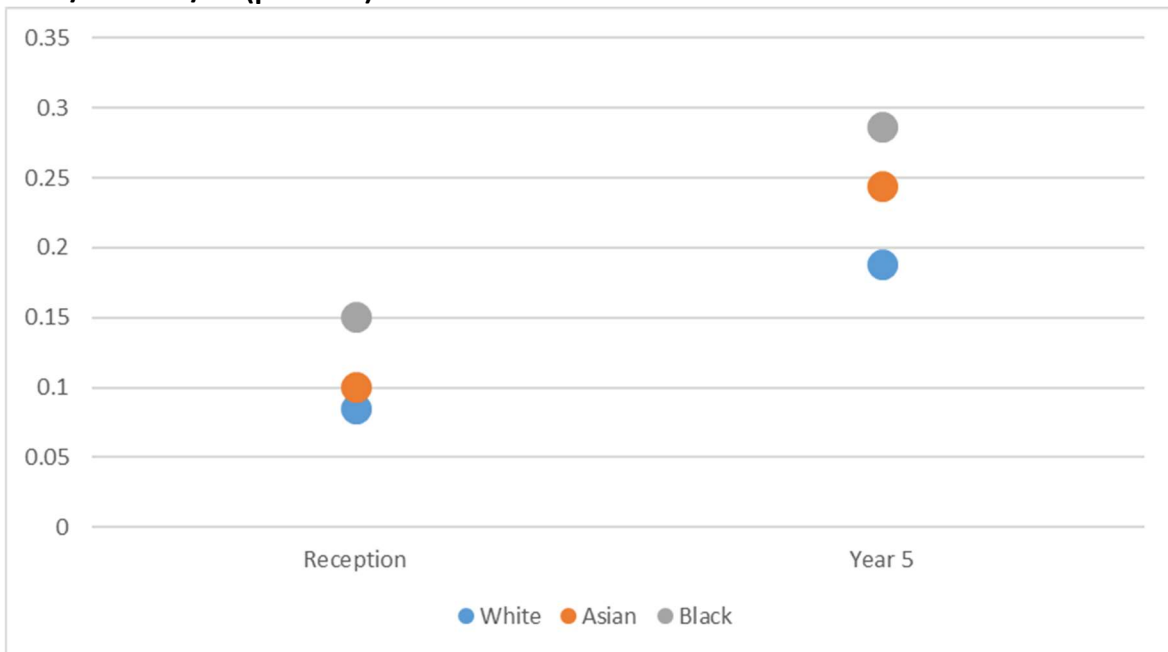
¹⁰⁶ The Food Foundation (2018) [Affordability of the UK’s Eatwell Guide](#)

¹⁰⁷ In Kind Direct (2018) [Parents and Primary School teachers across the UK are reporting Hygiene Poverty amongst children on a vast scale](#)

Source: Public Health England (2018) [NCMP Local Authority Profile](#)

Public health England produce data on how rates of child obesity vary by sub-groups in London’s child population. Taking an average between 2013/14 and 2017/18, they identify a 6 percentage point gap in obesity rates between **Black** and **white** children in reception, growing to a 10 percentage point gap at year 6. In addition, children who are **Asian** are also more likely to be recorded as obese than white children at both ages. National data on more detailed ethnic groups has found that, within the Asian group, **Pakistani and Bangladeshi** children are most likely to be obese, and Chinese children are less likely.

Figure 2.6: Proportion of children recorded as obese, by age of child and ethnicity, London, 2013/14-2017/18 (per cent)

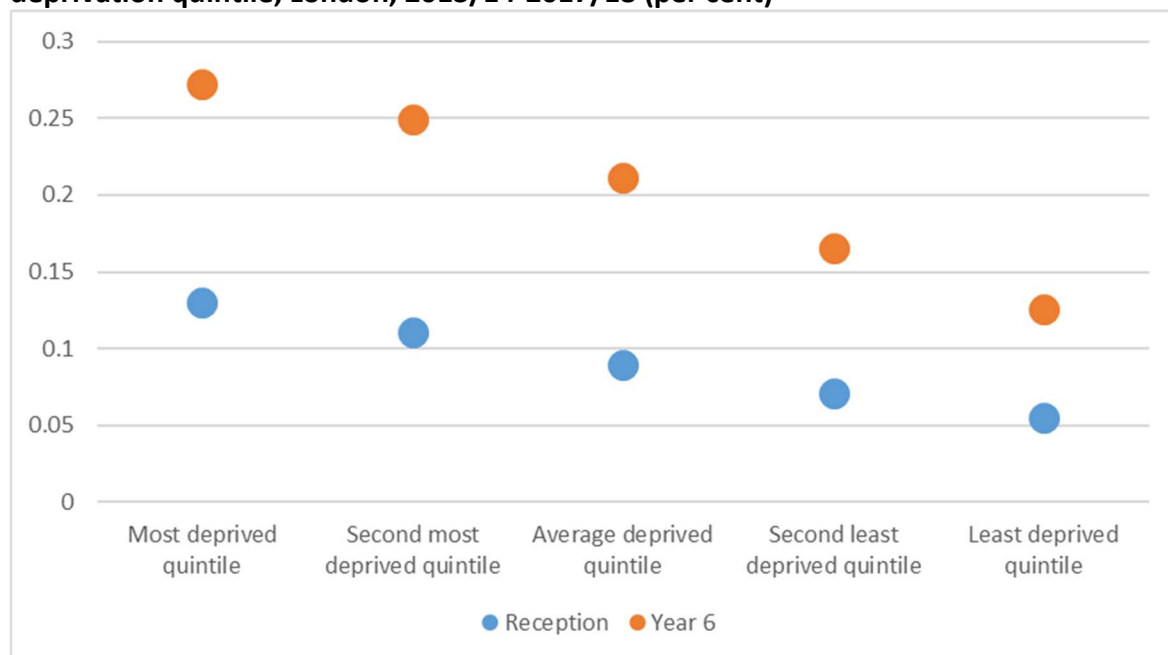


Source: Public Health England (2018) [NCMP Local Authority Profile](#)

Physical health inequalities by socio-economic status widen as children age. **Children living in the most deprived areas have a higher prevalence of being overweight or obese.** This follows a consistent gradient with overweight and obese combined levels decreasing from the most deprived decile to the least deprived decile at Reception age and Year 6 age.

There is a 8 percentage point gap between the most and the least deprived areas at reception age, increasing to a 14 percentage point gap in year 6 (see chart below).

Figure 2.7: Proportion of children recorded as overweight or obese, by school year and deprivation quintile, London, 2013/14-2017/18 (per cent)



Source: Public Health England (2018) [NCMP Local Authority Profile](#)

Mental health and wellbeing

Data on the **mental health and wellbeing** of London's children presents a conflicting picture: Public Health England estimates have shown that London has a lower prevalence of **mental health disorders** among children and young people aged 5-19 as England, at 9 per cent of the population in 2017 versus 11 per cent in England as a whole.¹⁰⁸

However, London has the highest recorded rates of low life satisfaction among 15-year-olds of any English region (15.5 per cent). This may be linked in part to the composition of the child population in London; we know that across England the **most deprived children** are 20 per cent more likely to report low life satisfaction, and **children who are black** 30 per cent more likely. In addition, **LGBT+ 15-year-olds** are more than 3 times as likely to report low levels of life satisfaction.¹⁰⁹

Among **looked-after children** in London who have been in care for at least 12 months, around a third are assessed to have behaviours that may be linked to mental health issues ('cause for concern').¹¹⁰

In addition, hospital admissions data finds a significantly **higher rate of admission for mental health illnesses in the capital**; 94.2 per 100,000 of the population aged 0-17 (versus 87.4 in England). This gap is driven by 8 boroughs with significantly worse rates of admission than England.¹¹¹

¹⁰⁸ NHS Digital (2018) [Mental Health of Children and Young People in England, 2017](#)

¹⁰⁹ Public Health England (2016) [The mental health of children and young people in London](#)

¹¹⁰ IBID

¹¹¹ IBID

Finally, in assessments of the school-age population for **social, emotional and mental health needs**, Public Health England report London as having a significantly higher rate of need than England, although in percentage terms the gap is small (2.4 and 2.3 per cent respectively).¹¹²

Evidence at a national level suggests that girls are more likely to self-harm than boys.¹¹³

Schools can play an important role in promoting mental health. A recent Department for Education review of school's equality policies found that, within a sample of 100, no school websites explicitly regarded mental illness as a disability within their policies, although around half provided some form of support for pupils' mental health needs.¹¹⁴

¹¹² Public Health England (2018) [Children and Young People's Mental Health and Wellbeing](#)

¹¹³ The Children's Society (2018) [The Good Childhood Report 2018](#)

¹¹⁴ DfE (2018) [Mental health and wellbeing provision in schools: Review of published policies and information](#)

2.4 Childcare and early years education

A large and growing body of evidence has demonstrated the importance of participation in high quality early years education for attainment at school and for success in later life. Studies have linked participation in high quality childcare to a range of positive outcomes; higher literacy and numeracy levels, greater likelihood of employment and higher education participation following compulsory education, and higher earnings when in the labour market. In addition, quality childcare has been shown to raise life satisfaction and improve social networks in the teenage years. Studies have also demonstrated that high quality childcare reduces the likelihood of being not in employment, education or training (NEET), or to have smoked.

These and similar impacts of childcare have been shown to occur regardless of a child's individual and family characteristics, and in some instances, are even greater for those children in lower socio-economic groups. Childcare and early years education therefore plays an important role in reducing educational and social inequalities between children, both when young and into adult life.¹¹⁵

In England, parents are supported in accessing early education and childcare for their under-fives through a variety of national policy interventions, including free early education and cash transfers to subsidise the cost of early years provision. Among under-fives, a universal free entitlement to 15 hours early education and childcare is offered for all three and four-year-olds for 38 weeks of the year, as well as an additional 15 hours of childcare for three and four-year-olds in working families. 15 hours of free early education and childcare is also offered for the most disadvantaged two-year olds.

Childcare costs, availability and take-up

London is characterised by relatively **high private childcare costs** in comparison to other parts of England. Inner London's nursery costs for under twos are 50 per cent higher than the England average, and for 2-year olds around 45 per cent higher. In outer London costs are lower, but still around 20 per cent higher than the England average.¹¹⁶ Survey evidence suggests that median weekly payments for child care in London are £35, against a median for the whole of England of £25.¹¹⁷ This is important from an equalities perspective as children least able to afford childcare will be less likely to place their children in care, outside of the free entitlement. It has been estimated at a national level that the cost of childcare totals £80,000 over the course of a child's life.¹¹⁸

London also faces challenges around the **availability of childcare places**. Local authorities' duties around childcare include monitoring availability (although not all share sufficient data on how availability varies for different groups).

¹¹⁵ Evidence summarised in Parker (2013) [Early developments: bridging the gap between evidence and policy in early-years education](#)

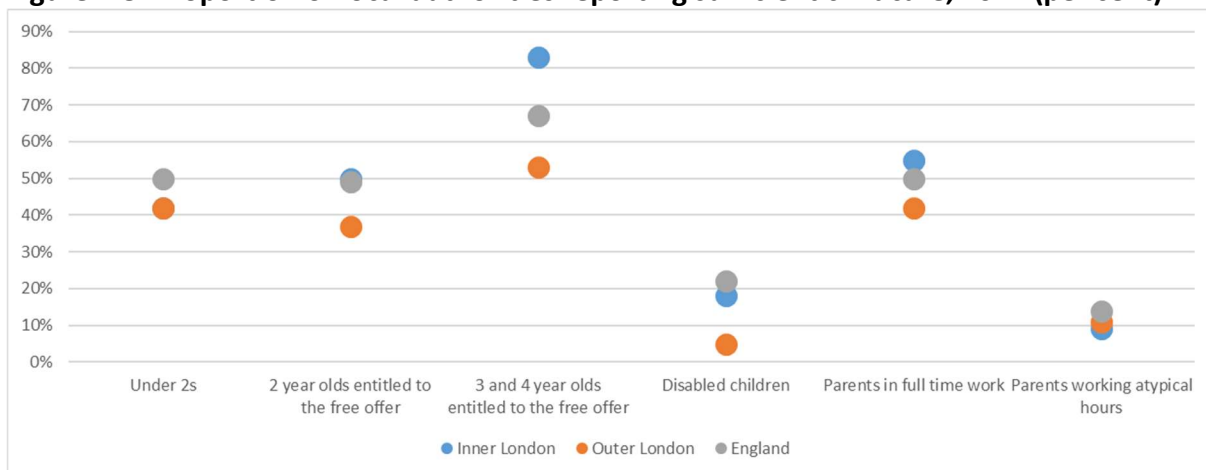
¹¹⁶ Family and Childcare Trust (2018) [Childcare survey 2018 London: Family and Childcare Trust](#)

¹¹⁷ Department for Education (2017) [Childcare and early years survey of parents: 2017](#)

¹¹⁸ Child Poverty Action Group (2018) [The Cost of a Child in 2018](#)

The chart below shows the proportion of inner London, outer London and England local authorities reporting that there is sufficient childcare for children by age and other characteristics, finding that both inner and outer London have **below-average availability of the disadvantaged two-year-old offer**. Secondly, London has a sizable gap with the England average on **availability of childcare for disabled children**. Finally, London has very low levels of availability of childcare for **parents who work atypical hours**, with fewer than one in ten local authorities in inner London reporting sufficient atypical hours childcare.

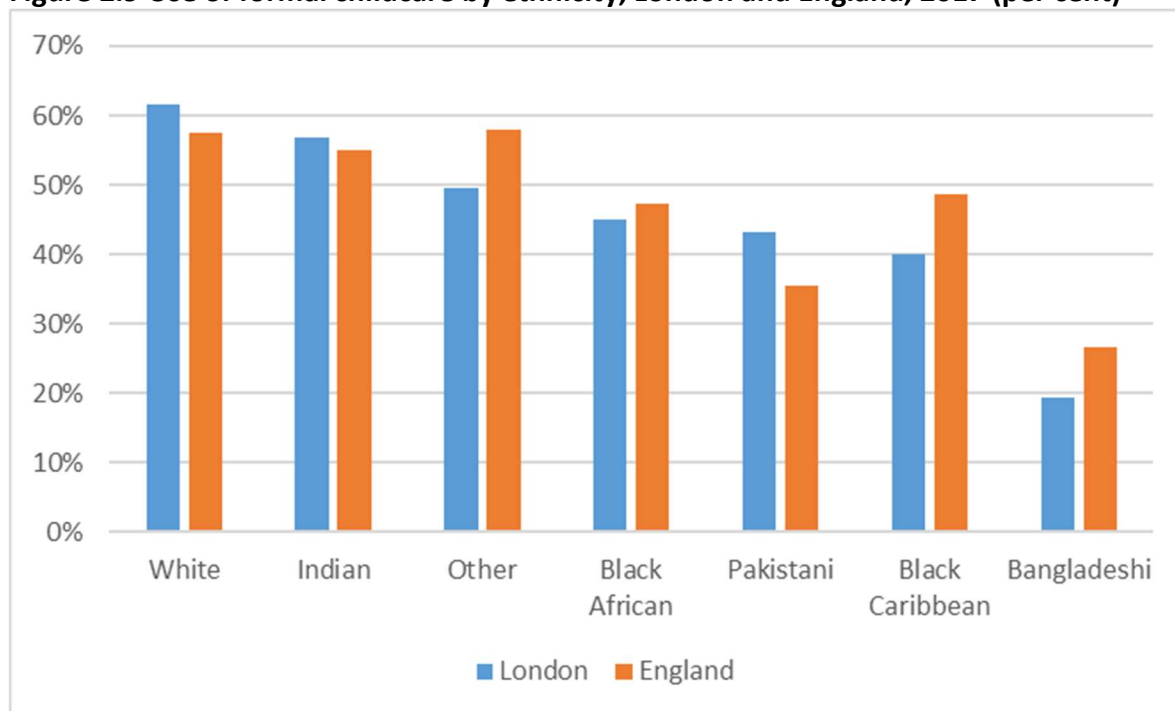
Figure 2.8: Proportion of local authorities reporting sufficient childcare, 2017 (per cent)



Source: Family and Childcare Trust (2018) [Childcare survey 2018](#)

Children in London are slightly less likely to be in formal childcare (childcare provided outside of friends and family) than the national average: 54 per cent of 0-14-year-olds in London versus 55 per cent in England as a whole. Among under-fives, 0-2-year-olds are less likely to be in formal childcare (39 in London versus 42 per cent nationally) while children aged 3-4 show similar levels of take-up (90 and 89 per cent respectively).

This pattern varies by ethnicity (see chart below). **Bangladeshi** children are much less likely to be benefitting from formal childcare provision: fewer than one in five are in formal childcare, versus 62 per cent of white children. **Black and Pakistani children** are also less likely to be in formal childcare, with take-up rates of around 40 per cent. Bangladeshi, Black African and Caribbean, and children in other ethnic groups are less likely to be in childcare in London than children of the same ethnicity elsewhere in England.

Figure 2.9 Use of formal childcare by ethnicity, London and England, 2017 (per cent)

Source: Hope (2018) [Demand for childcare in London – drivers and projections](#)

Take-up rates for the **two-year old disadvantaged child entitlement** show that in London, fewer than 60 per cent of the eligible population make use of the two-year-old offer, versus over 70 per cent in England.¹¹⁹

Take-up of the **three and four-year old early years entitlement** is also lower than the national rate and has declined in recent years from 90 per cent in 2014 to less than 85 per cent in 2017. This is pronounced in inner London, where take-up is almost 15 percentage points lower than nationally.¹²⁰

Low levels of take-up are likely to be for many reasons. It may reflect the different patterns of childcare participation by family characteristics observed nationally. Secondly, it may partly be a function of the lower availability and higher cost of childcare in London. It could also be related to the relatively lower rate of parental, particularly maternal, employment in London compared to other regions (see chapter three of this evidence base).

Childcare outcomes

One of the primary aims of childcare and early years education is to prepare under-fives to enter school. This is underpinned by the **Early Years Foundation Stage (EYFS)**, a government-set standard designed to ensure that all children from birth to five have access to high quality early learning, development and care. This is monitored, with each child assessed against learning and development and 17 **'early learning goals'** (ELGs).

¹¹⁹ Department for Education (2017) [Education provision: children under 5 years of age, January 2017](#)

¹²⁰ IBID

Children's outcomes, as measured by the proportion achieving the expected level across all early learning goals (ELGs) at the end of Reception class, known as Early Years, has improved markedly in London in recent years. Across all five year olds in London, only 50 per cent met the expected level in 2013. In the latest data, 2017/18, this has increased to 73 per cent. A similar pattern holds in both inner and outer London, and among boys and girls, although the rate for boys has increased slightly more sharply.

Figure 2.10 Proportion achieving at least the expected standard in all ELGs, by pupil characteristics, London and England, 2017/18 (per cent)

	London			England		
	All	Boys	Girls	All	Boys	Girls
All	73	66	79	70	63	77
Ethnicity						
White	74	68	81	71	64	78
Mixed	75	69	82	72	65	79
Asian	74	67	81	68	61	76
Black	70	62	78	68	60	76
Chinese	83	78	87	76	69	83
Free school meals						
Eligible for FSM	63	54	71	55	47	64
All other pupils	74	68	81	73	66	80
SEN						
All other pupils	79	74	84	27	24	33
SEN support	30	28	37	76	70	81

Source: Department for Education (2018) [Early years foundation stage profile results: 2017 to 2018](#)

However, there remains persistent inequalities in children's development outcomes between different groups of five year-olds. For example, the gap between **boys and girls**, while closing slightly in recent years and less than the gap at an England-wide level, remains, with 13 percentage points more girls achieving the expected level in London than boys (figure 2.10 above).

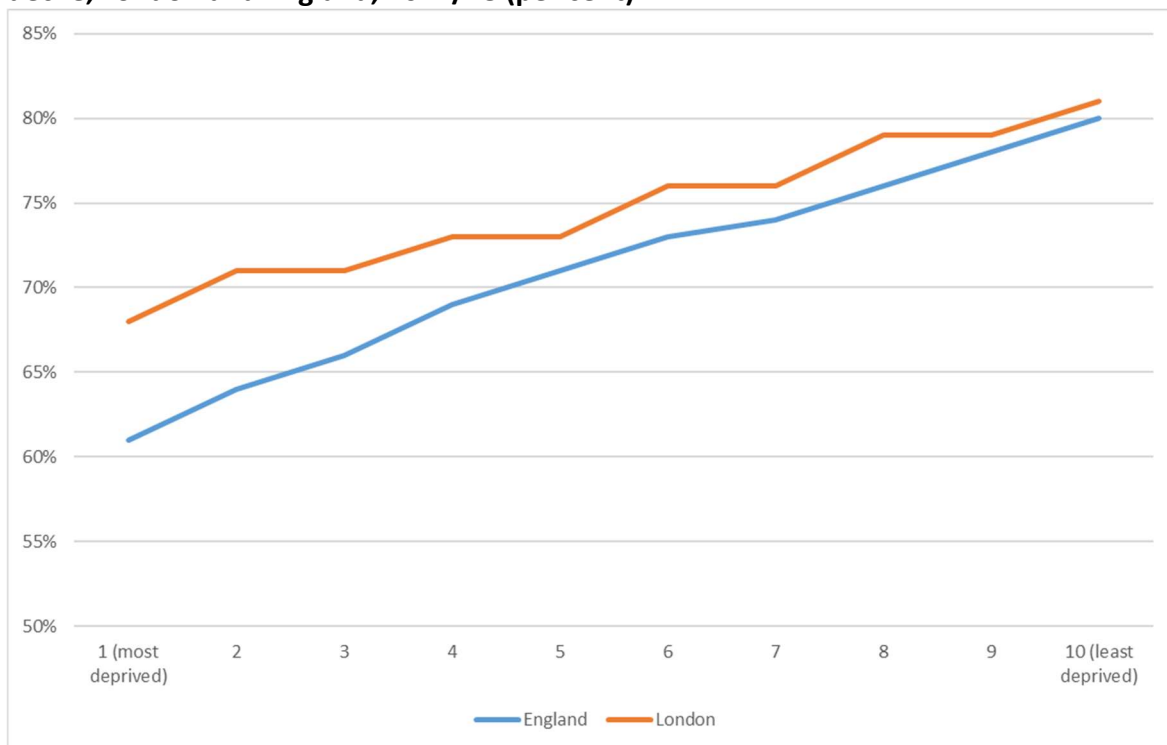
A higher percentage of girls achieve at least the expected standard in all ELGs than boys across ethnic groups. **Chinese** girls and boys have the highest percentage while **Black** girls and boys have the lowest percentage in achieving at least the expected standard in all ELGs.

Data on eligibility for free school meals provide an indication of the association between low income and children's outcomes. Children known to be **eligible for free school meals** are less likely to have achieved expected levels in all EYGs than non-free school meal pupils in both England and London. 74 per cent of non-free school meals pupils in London achieve at least the expected standard in all ELGs compared to 63 per cent of eligible free school meals pupils. The gap is higher for boys at 14 per cent points different compared to girls at 10 per cent points.

Under-fives receiving **special education needs** (SEN) support are less likely to achieve at least the expected standard in all ELGs: 30 per cent compared to 79 per cent of non-SEN children in London.

In London, **children living in the most deprived areas** are less likely to achieve the expected standard in all ELGs than children in the most affluent areas (see chart below). This is similar to the pattern observed nationally but less pronounced. The gap in school readiness between the least deprived and the most deprived areas is 13 percentage points in London and 19 per cent across England as a whole. In particular, children in the most deprived areas are 7 percentage points more likely to achieve school readiness than children living in similarly deprived areas elsewhere in England. This gap closes to 1 per cent when comparing children in the least deprived areas.

Figure 2.11 Proportion achieving at least the expected standard in all ELGs, by deprivation decile, London and England, 2017/18 (per cent)



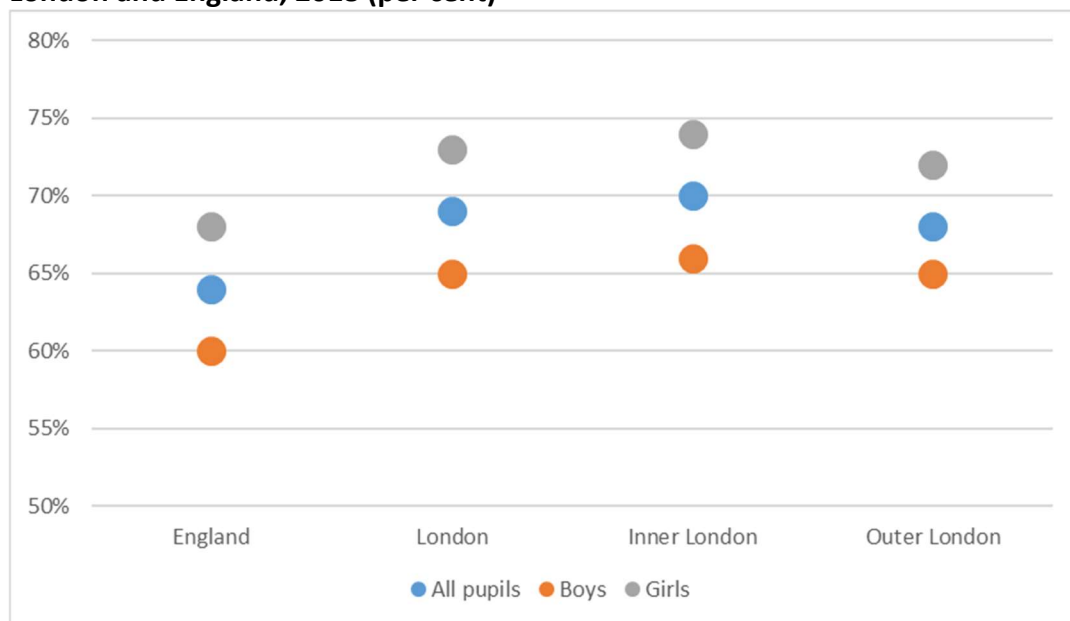
Source: Department for Education (2018) [Early years foundation stage profile results: 2017 to 2018](#)

2.5 Primary education

At the end of **Key Stage 2**, children are assessed as to whether they meet an expected standard in reading, mathematics and grammar, punctuation and spelling. Compared to the national average, London has a higher percentage of pupils reaching the expected standard across the three areas tested in the national curriculum. In order of attainment, 82 per cent of London pupils reached the expected standard in Grammar, punctuation and spelling, 80 per cent in Mathematics and 78 per cent in Reading. The equivalent national figures are 78, 76 and 75 per cent respectively.

69 per cent of pupils in London reach the expected standard in Reading, Writing and Maths, 5 percentage points above the England average (see figure below). The **gender** gap seen in the early years foundation stage profile continues at key stage 2 level. In London girls were higher performers with 73 per cent reaching the expected standard in all three areas compared to 65 per cent of boys.

Figure 2.12 Proportion of pupils reaching expected standards at Key Stage 2, by gender, London and England, 2018 (per cent)



Source: Department for Education (2017) [National curriculum assessments: key stage 2, 2018 \(provisional\)](#)

Ethnicity appears to be a divider in attainment levels. **Chinese pupils** are the highest performers at key stage 2, with 86 per cent reaching the expected standard in reading, writing and mathematics, while **Black pupils** are the lowest performers at 66 per cent (see figure below).

Across all ethnicities, attainment at key stage 2 in London is higher than the nationally. It should be noted this ‘London effect’ is smaller in scale for black pupils, among whom attainment is 2 percentage points higher in London, than other ethnicities.

Pupils known to be eligible for **free school meals** performed lower than other pupils at 17 per cent points lower.

33 per cent of London pupils in receipt of **SEN Support** reached the expected standard in reading, writing and mathematics. This is significantly lower than pupils not identified as SEN at 79 per cent. Similarly, **looked-after children** are much less likely to reach expected standards (42 per cent) than the overall average.

Unlike free school meal eligibility and being in receipt of SEN support, **having English as an additional language** does not appear to impact pupil's performance.

Figure 2.13 Proportion of pupils reaching expected standards at Key stage 2, by pupil characteristics, London and England, 2018 (per cent)

	London	England
All	69	64
Gender		
Boys	65	60
Girls	73	68
First language		
English	70	65
Other pupils	70	65
Care status		
Looked-after children	42	32
Ethnicity		
White	70	64
Mixed	71	66
Asian	75	69
Black	66	64
Chinese	86	82
Free school meals		
Eligible for FSM	56	46
All other pupils	73	68
SEN		
SEN support	33	24
All other pupils	79	74

Source: Department for Education (2018) [National curriculum assessments: key stage 2, 2018 \(provisional\)](#) and Department for Education (2018) [Outcomes for children looked after by LAs: 31 March 2017](#)

2.6 Secondary education

London performs well on measures of educational attainment in secondary school. Under the new system of measuring pupil's attainment and progress at school (see boxout below), London's children are more likely to meet expected standards at **Key Stage 4**, and, given their starting point at the end of key stage 2, make greater progress.

However, while educational inequalities may be smaller than elsewhere in England, persistent gaps remain in London between boys and girls, and by the ethnicity, disability and level of disadvantage among pupils.¹²¹ These inequalities linger as young people leave compulsory education and move onto further study, training or employment, with some groups less likely to make a smooth and successful transition into young adulthood.

Attainment 8 and Progress 8

Starting in 2015/16, a new secondary school accountability system has been introduced. The new system measures schools across several measures. The two key indicators introduced are:

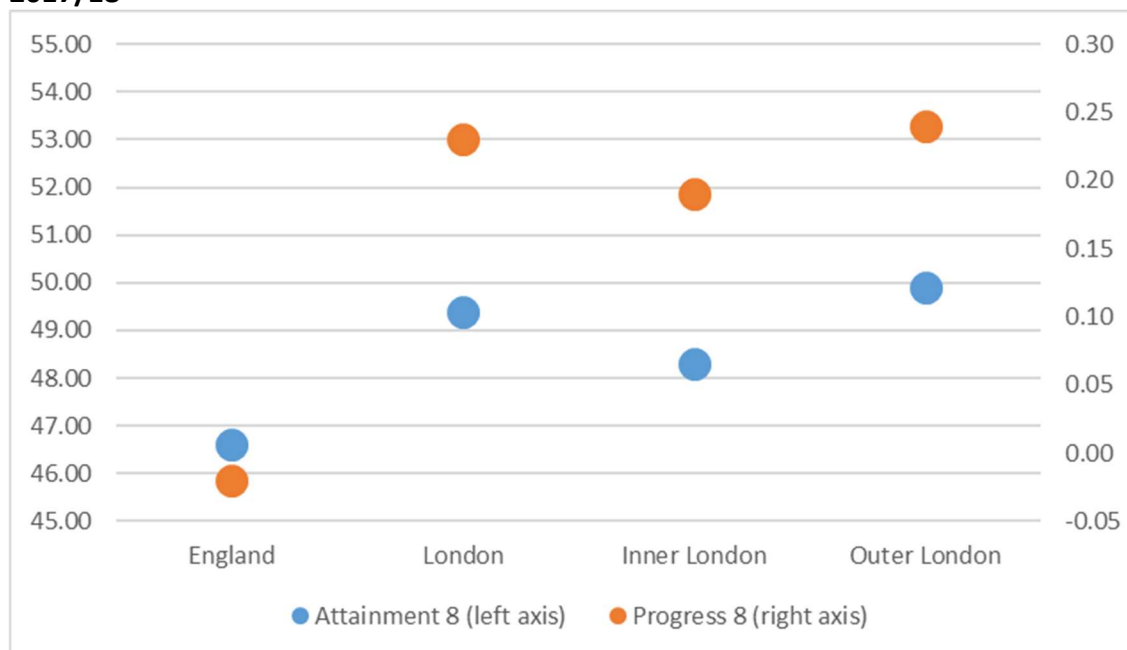
Attainment 8: measures pupil's GCSE attainment in English, maths, three subjects included in the English Baccalaureate, and three further GCSE or technical qualifications

Progress 8: measures pupil's progress from the end of primary school to the end of Key Stage 4. This is calculated by subtracting from their attainment 8 score the average attainment 8 score of all pupils nationally in their cohort with the same prior attainment as them at key stage 2. This is then averaged at school level.

The new system of school accountability measures both attainment at Key Stage 4 and progress of an individual student between Key Stage 2 and Key Stage 4. Across all pupils, comparing London, its sub-regions and England, London pupils have a higher average Attainment 8 score than the national average at 49.4 compared to 46.6. Using Progress 8 scores, London also outperforms the national average.

¹²¹ Pupils with needs around Special Educational Needs and Disabilities (SEND) also face educational disadvantage. In London, funding for this group has not increased to meet rising costs (London Assembly (2018) [Together: Transforming the lives of children and young people with special educational needs and disabilities in London](#))

Figure 2.14: Average Attainment 8 score and Average Progress 8 score, by geography, 2017/18



Source: Department for Education (2019) [Key stage 4 and multi-academy trust performance 2018 \(revised\)](#)

A clear contrast is visible by gender and ethnicity for average Attainment 8 scores. Across all five ethnic groups, **London girls** had a higher Attainment 8 score than boys. Specifically, **Chinese and Asian girls** have the highest average score of 69.4 and 56.7 respectively while **Black girls** had the lowest Attainment 8 score at 49.0 (see figure below). Comparing average Attainment 8 scores for England and London, girls across all ethnic groups had a higher average score than in the rest of England.

Within the average Attainment 8 score for boys, there is an ethnic divide in performance. **Asian and Chinese** boys have an average attainment 8 score above 50 while **white, mixed ethnicity and Black** boys have an average score below 50. As with the female pupils, no ethnic group had an average score below the national average for their respective ethnic group.

Pupils known to be **eligible for free school meals** had a lower average score than ineligible pupils in England and London with a gap of 13.9 and 10.3 percentage points respectively.

In London, **language** does not appear to have a large impact on pupil's performance with a difference of 0.8 points between pupils whose first language is England and pupils whose first language is other than English.

Pupils in receipt of **SEN Support** had a lower average attainment 8 score at 35.3 compared to non-identified SEN pupils at 53.0.

Figure 2.15: Average Attainment 8 score, by pupil characteristics, 2018

	London			England		
	All	Boys	Girls	All	Boys	Girls
All	49.4	46.7	52.1	46.6	43.9	49.4
Ethnicity						
White	48.8	46.3	51.3	46.1	43.5	48.9
Mixed	49.1	46	52.2	47.4	44.7	50.2
Asian	54.4	52.2	56.7	50.7	48.3	53.1
Black	45.6	41.9	49	45.3	41.7	48.8
Chinese	67.4	65.2	69.4	64.5	62.3	66.5
Free school meals						
Eligible for FSM	40.8	37.6	43.9	34.5	31.3	37.8
All other pupils	51.1	48.5	53.8	48.4	45.8	51.1
First language						
English	49.2	46.5	51.9	46.5	43.8	49.3
Other than English	50	47.4	52.6	48	45.3	50.7
SEN						
SEN support	35.3	33.9	37.3	32.2	31	34.1
No identified SEN	53	51.1	54.8	49.9	47.9	51.8

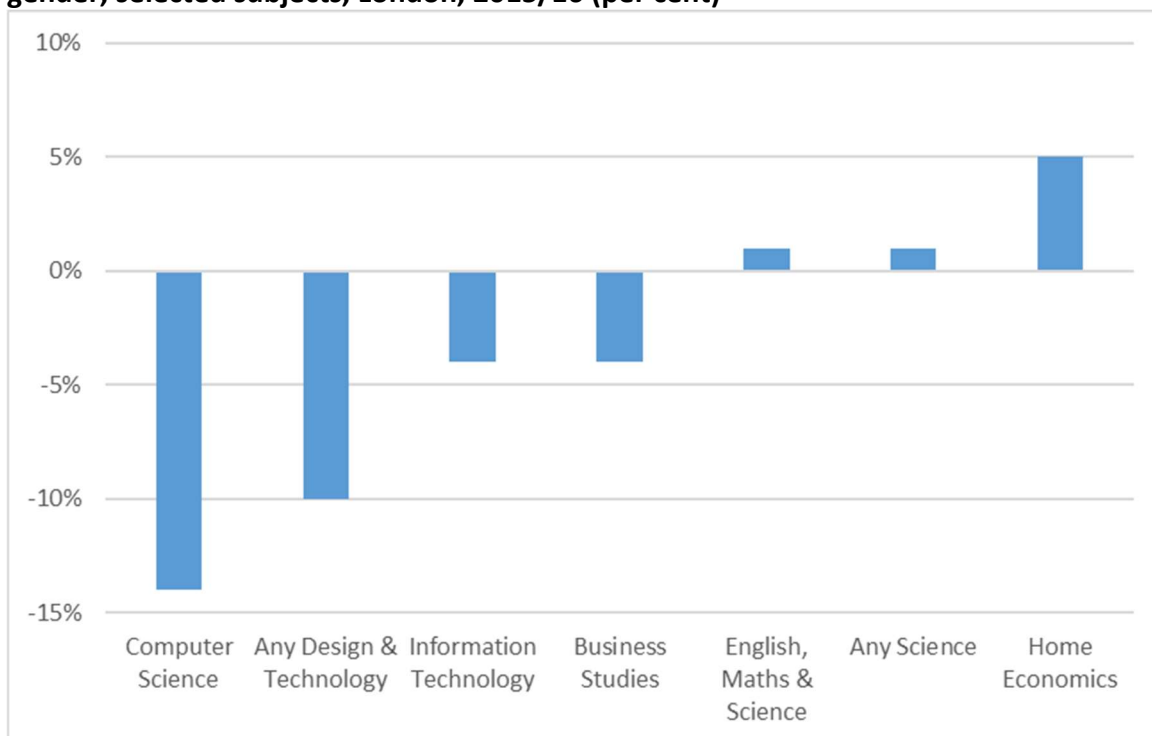
Source: Department for Education (2019) [Key stage 4 and multi-academy trust performance 2018 \(revised\)](#)

In terms of **subject choice**, while **girls** are slightly more likely to take any science GCSEs, nearly four times as many **boys** than girls study computer science. Boys also have a higher percentage achieving an A*-C in this subject than girls. Boys also have a 10 percentage points higher participation in any design and technology subjects than girls. Finally, boys have a higher participation rate in Information Technology and Business Studies, while girls are more likely to take Home Economics (see chart below).

These patterns are also evident at A-level. In England as a whole, there are sizable gaps in entry rates for STEM subjects between genders. Aside from biological sciences, a higher proportion of male students are enrolled in all the core science subjects.

43.2 per cent of males enter at least one maths or science subject compared to 30.3 per cent of females. There is a similar percentage gap in males entering at least two maths or science subjects for A levels compared to females, and males are more than twice as likely to enter three maths or science subjects than females (15 per cent versus 7 per cent respectively).

Figure 2.16 Percentage point girl/boy difference in GCSE subject participation rates by gender, selected subjects, London, 2015/16 (per cent)



Source: Department for Education (2017) [GCSE and equivalent results in England 2015/16 \(Revised\)](#) Note: Chart shows female pupils participation rates minus male pupils participation rates in each subject

Bullying and exclusion

Children of a **Black** ethnic background are more likely to be excluded on a fixed-term or permanent basis than other pupils. In 2016/17, 6 per cent of Black pupils were excluded on a fixed-term basis, and 0.15 per cent on a permanent basis, against equivalent figures for all pupils in London of 3.7 and 0.08 per cent respectively. Other inequalities in exclusions include among **boys**, who are more likely to be excluded than girls, and disadvantage, with **pupils eligible for Free School Meals** more likely to be excluded.¹²² **Pupils with SEN** are also more likely to be excluded, at around six times the rate of non-SEN pupils.¹²³

Disabled children and young people with SEN in England are more likely to be permanently excluded than their peers, and to have been the victims of bullying.¹²⁴ Lesbian, gay, bisexual and trans plus (**LGBT+**) **children and young people** are also more likely to be bullied at school. Nearly half of lesbian, gay, bi pupils (45 per cent) and 64 per cent of trans pupils are bullied because of their sexual orientation at school. Nearly one in ten trans pupils have been subjected to death threats at school. 45 per cent of LGBT pupils who are bullied for being LGBT never tell anyone.¹²⁵

¹²² Department for Education (2018) [Permanent and fixed-period exclusions in England: 2016 to 2017](#)

¹²³ Weale and McIntyre (2018) [Thousands of children with special needs excluded from schools](#)

¹²⁴ Chatzitheochari et al (2015) [Doubly Disadvantaged? Bullying Experiences among Disabled Children and Young People in England](#)

¹²⁵ Stonewall (2017) [School Report: The experiences of lesbian, gay, bi and trans pupils in Britain's schools](#)

2.7 Education transitions

94 per cent of pupils from state-funded mainstream schools in London were recorded to be in sustained education or employment/ training following the completion of Key Stage 4 in 2017. For the remaining 7 per cent the destination is not sustained, or the activity is not captured in the data.

Most pupils continue into education. Continuation through this pathway is slightly more common among **females** at 91 per cent in London versus 89 per cent for **male** Londoners.

The nature of London's mix of post-16 education provision is apparent, with over half (54 per cent) of all London pupils furthering their education in a state funded school sixth form. In England this falls to 38 per cent with a greater uptake in further education colleges or other further education providers.

Figure 2.17: Pupil destinations after completing Key Stage 4 (state-funded mainstream schools), 2017 (per cent)

	London			England		
	All	Boys	Girls	All	Boys	Girls
Overall sustained education or employment/ training destination	94	93	95	94	93	94
Apprenticeships	2	2	2	5	6	4
Any sustained education destination	90	89	91	86	84	88
FE provider	23	26	21	34	36	32
School sixth form – state funded	54	52	57	38	35	40
Sixth form college	11	9	12	13	11	15
Other	2	1	2	2	1	2
Sustained employment and/ or training destination	2	2	2	3	3	3
Destination not sustained/ activity not captured	7	7	5	5	6	5

Source: Department for Education (2019) [Destinations of KS4 and KS5 pupils: 2017](#)

After completing Key Stage 4, a higher percentage of pupils eligible for **Free School Meals (FSM)** and **SEN Support** (10 per cent) are not recorded as having a sustained destination or had no activity captured in the data. This compares to 5 per cent of pupils who are not eligible for FSM, and not receiving SEN support (see figure 2.18 below).

Figure 2.18: Pupil destinations after completing Key Stage 4 (state-funded mainstream schools), by FSM and SEN status, London, 2017 (per cent)

	FSM		SEN	
	FSM	Non-FSM	SEN	Non-SEN
Overall sustained education or employment/ training destination	90	95	89	95
Apprenticeships	2	2	2	2
Any sustained education destination	86	91	85	91
FE provider	31	22	41	20
School sixth form – state funded	41	57	29	59
Sixth form college	11	11	8	11
Other	3	1	7	1
Sustained employment and/ or training destination	2	2	2	2
Destination not sustained/ activity not captured	10	5	10	5

Source: Department for Education (2019) [Destinations of KS4 and KS5 pupils: 2017](#)

Looking at data on pupil destinations after completing **key stage 5** shows what young people go on to do after completing A-levels or 16-18 qualifications.¹²⁶

In England, 89 per cent of pupils in state-funded mainstream schools are recorded to have sustained education or employment/ training destinations following the completion of Key Stage 5 in 2014/15. For the remaining 12 per cent the destination is not sustained or the activity is not captured in the data.

London follows a similar pattern as England, with most pupils entering a sustained education destination. For London, 70 per cent of students furthered their education with 59 per cent continuing into higher education.

In England, one in five pupils went into sustained employment and/ or training destination. This was higher than the percentage seen in London. Also in London, fewer pupils receiving **SEN support** went on to any sustained education destination than pupils not receiving SEN support. 59 per cent entered higher education compared to 68 per cent of pupils not receiving SEN support.¹²⁷

Also of note is that, after key stage 5, fewer pupils in London go on to an **apprenticeship** than in England as a whole (4 per cent in London versus 6 per cent in England).

¹²⁶ Department for Education (2019) [Destinations of KS4 and KS5 pupils: 2017](#)

¹²⁷ IBID

Figure 2.19: Pupil destinations after completing Key Stage 5 (state-funded mainstream schools), 2017 (per cent)

	London			England		
	All	Boys	Girls	All	Boys	Girls
Overall sustained education or employment/ training destination	88	86	90	89	87	91
Apprenticeships	4	5	3	6	8	5
Any sustained education destination	70	67	72	61	58	63
FE provider	7	7	7	7	7	8
Higher education	59	56	62	50	48	53
Other	4	5	4	3	3	3
Sustained employment and/ or training destination	14	14	14	22	21	22
Destination not sustained/ activity not captured	13	15	10	12	13	10

Source: Department for Education (2019) [Destinations of KS4 and KS5 pupils: 2017](#)

Research at a UK-wide level has uncovered further evidence of inequalities in higher education entry, controlling for the characteristics of local areas where young people live. **Pupils eligible for FSM** are less likely to attend university, and less likely to attend a Russell group university, with the rate at which disadvantaged pupils attending Russell Group universities increasing by only one percentage point since 2010.¹²⁸

While **young women** are more likely than men to attend higher education, they are less likely to attend a Russell group university. While **white young people** are most likely to attend university, those of Indian ethnicity are most likely to attend a Russell Group university.¹²⁹

Similar research has also found that, despite improvements in educational attainment, **Bangladeshi and Pakistani** young people, particularly **women**, tend to earn less than similarly qualified young people of other ethnicities. Women from these ethnicities are also less likely to enter senior roles than men of similar level of qualification.¹³⁰

Department for Education research has tracked the employment outcomes of individuals who were eligible for free school meals at age 27, finding that only 60 per cent are employed, versus 77 per cent among those who were not eligible. They performed a similar calculation for SEN pupils, finding that 58 per cent were employed versus 78 per cent of non-SEN pupils. FSM and SEN pupils were also more likely to be claiming out-of-work benefits.¹³¹

¹²⁸ Elgot (2018) [Government accused of 'total failure' to widen elite university access](#)

¹²⁹ Allen et al (2016) [Social and ethnic inequalities in choice available and choices made at age 16](#)

¹³⁰ Shaw et al (2016) [Ethnicity, gender and social mobility](#)

¹³¹ Department for Education (2018) [Outcomes for pupils eligible for free school meals and identified with special educational needs Ad-hoc statistics](#)

Chapter 3: A great place to work and do business

3.1 Key points

Qualifications and skills

- **Deaf and disabled** Londoners, people of a **Muslim** faith and **older women** are particularly likely to have **no qualifications**, and much less likely to have qualifications at degree level or above
- At a UK level, **digital exclusion** is more common among **older people** and people from a **lower socio-economic grade**

Employment

- Groups under-represented in London's workforce include **older Londoners, mothers, young black men, Pakistani and Bangladeshi women, and disabled Londoners**
- Other groups facing challenges in finding employment include **homeless people, veterans, ex-offenders, carers and care-leavers**
- **Youth unemployment** is particularly high among **young black men** in London, as well as people of a **mixed ethnicity**

Pay and work

- Groups at risk of low pay in London include **Pakistani/Bangladeshi Londoners, people with low-level or no qualifications and disabled Londoners**
- **Pay gaps** exist by **gender, disability** and across **ethnic groups**. The greatest gender pay gaps exist in skilled trade and managerial occupations

Entrepreneurship

- In London, **women** are less likely to be self-employed than men, facing barriers to entrepreneurship including a self-perceived lack of technical, market and business skills
- **Disabled** and **BAME** Londoners face particular barriers to self-employment and business growth, including access to finance and to business support services

3.2 Qualifications and skills

London is a highly-skilled city. Its workforce is characterised by a greater share of higher-skilled occupations, and a higher proportion of workers educated to degree-level or above, than the UK average. This is also true of London’s working-age population, with 53 per cent of the city’s residents having a higher education or equivalent qualification versus 38 per cent in England as a whole¹³².

At an individual-level, qualifications attainment are associated with a higher chance of being in work and greater earnings when in work, as well as a wide range of other positive social outcomes, such as better health¹³³, greater life satisfaction¹³⁴ and a reduced risk of poverty¹³⁵, among other effects¹³⁶.

Measuring qualifications in London

Education qualification is the outcome attained through the successful completion of a study course or training programme conferred by an education authority or equivalent. In some data tables, the focus will be on a specific age group, mainly 25 to 49-year olds. This is to reduce the qualifications age bias that is typically seen in the older age groups.

An individual’s level of qualification is often used as a proxy for skills because of the lack of datasets available around skills. For some professions, the necessary qualification is essential (e.g. doctors, nurses) while for other professions the level of qualification can be used as a stepping stone into the workplace.

As London has a strong migration history, difficulties can arise within skills data for people whose foreign qualifications do not fit into the UK education system. Caution should therefore be exercised when looking at the figures, especially with certain groups such as non-UK nationals.

Across a range of individual characteristics, there are inequalities in qualifications in London’s working age population. Partly this is about age: as participation in higher levels of education has become more widespread in recent decades, a greater proportion of older working-age Londoners have no qualifications, and a smaller proportion have higher education qualifications, than people who are aged 25-34. Over time this gap is closing (see chart below).

¹³² Annual Population Survey Jan-Dec 2016

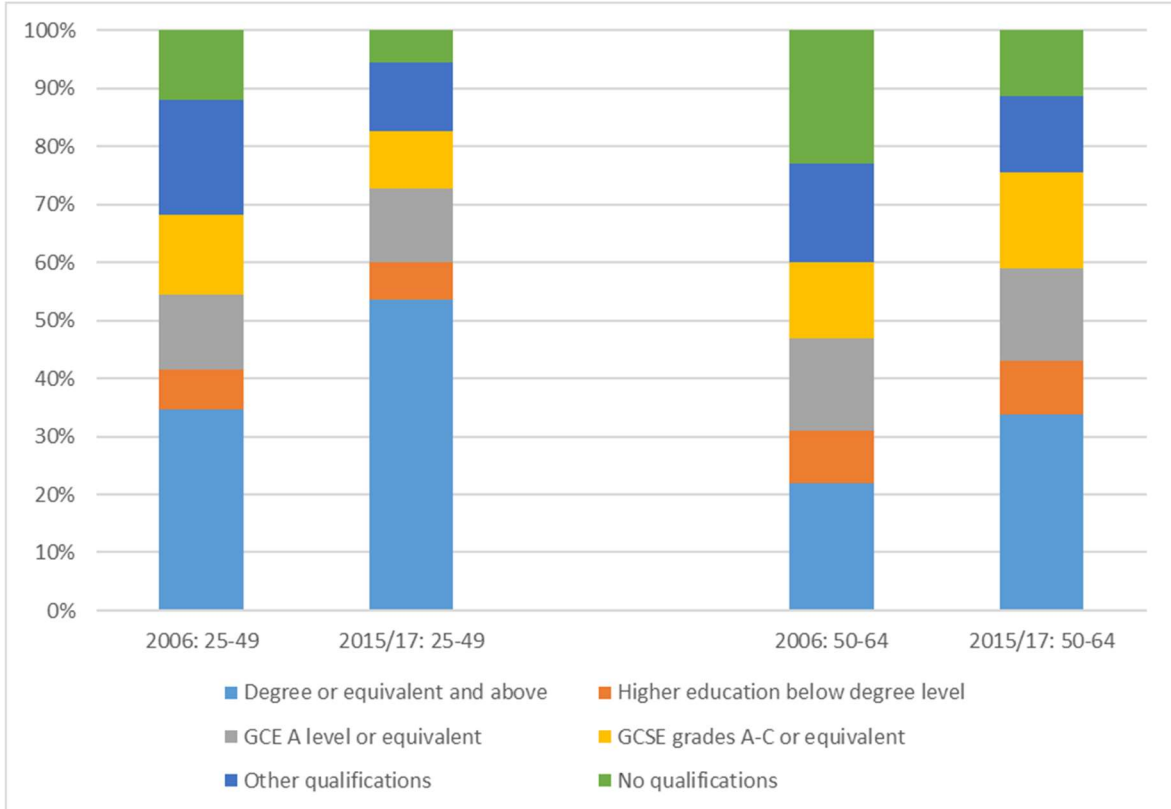
¹³³ Feinstein et al (2008) [The Social and personal benefits of learning: A summary of key research findings](#)

¹³⁴ ONS (2012) [Measuring National Well-being, Education and Skills](#)

¹³⁵ JRF [Working-age poverty among people with different qualification levels](#)

¹³⁶ BIS (2013) [The Benefits of Higher Education Participation for Individuals and Society: key findings and reports “The Quadrants”](#)

Figure 3.1: Highest level of qualification by age in London, 2006 and 2015/17 (per cent)

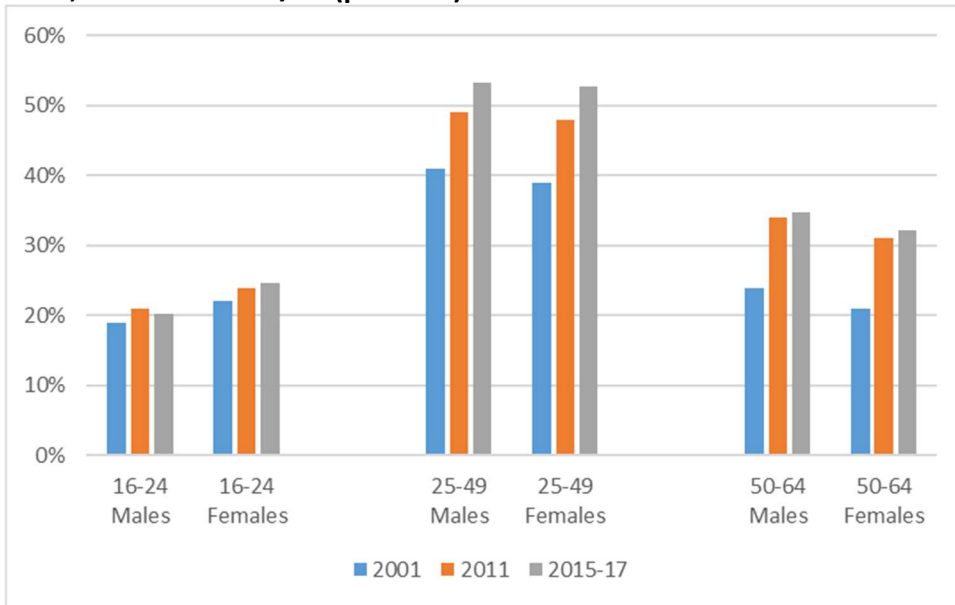


Source: ONS Annual Population Survey Jan – Dec 2006 and ONS Annual Population Survey three-year pooled dataset 2015/17

Among working-age adults aged over 24, men are more likely to have higher education qualifications than women, but this gender gap is closing. In 2001, the gender gap of adults aged 25 to 49 years old for a Level 4 or above qualification was 2 per cent. In 2011 and 2015/17 this has closed to less than one per cent.

A higher percentage of young women (16 to 24 years old) have a higher education qualification than young men. This gap has increased from 3 per cent in 2001 to 4 per cent in 2015/17 (see chart below).

Figure 3.2: Proportion with a higher education qualification by age and gender, London, 2001, 2011 and 2015/17 (per cent)



Source: Census 2001 and 2011 and ONS Annual Population Survey three-year pooled dataset 2015/17

As the post-war population cohort leaves work, the number of older people (50 to 64 years old) with no qualifications has dropped significantly for both males and females. From 2001 to 2015/17, the percentage of women with no qualifications went from 43 per cent to 12 per cent and for men this dropped from 38 per cent to 11 per cent (see chart below).

Figure 3.3: Proportion with no qualifications by age and gender, London, 2001, 2011 and 2015/17 (per cent)



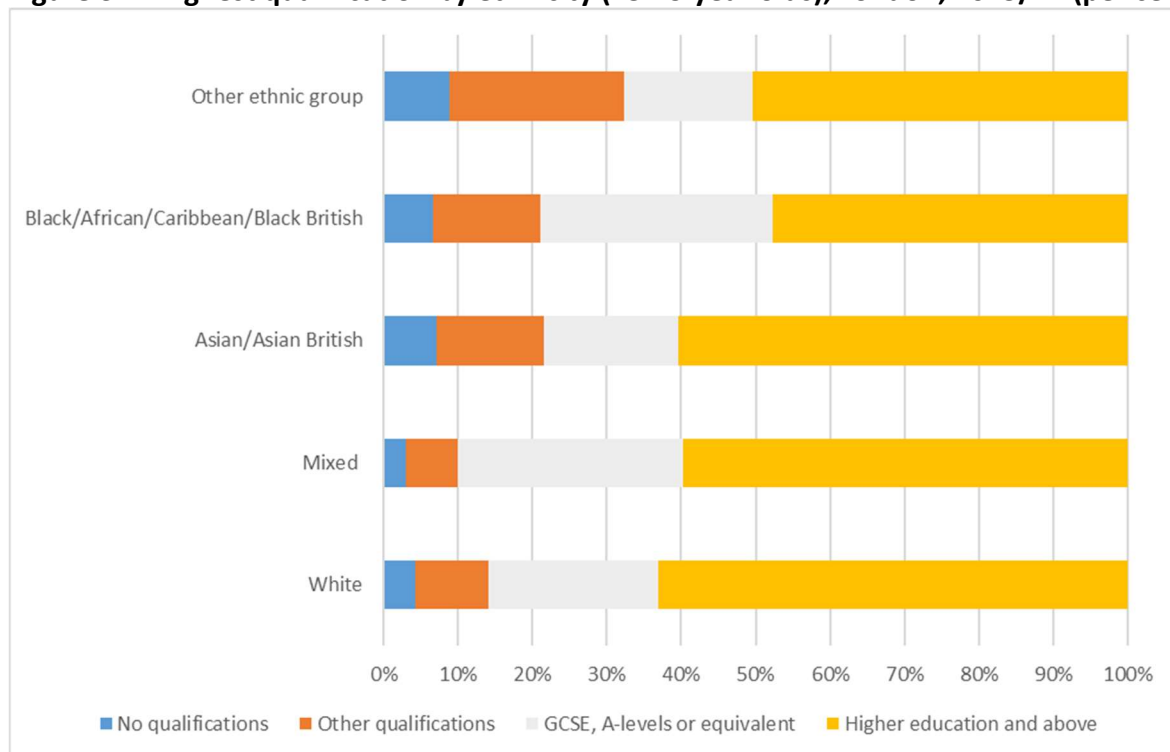
Source: Census 2001 and 2011 and ONS Annual Population Survey three-year pooled dataset 2015/17

Turning to ethnicity and focusing on people aged 25 to 49 years, the proportion with no qualifications is less than 10 per cent across all ethnic groups.

Black/ African/ Caribbean/ Black British Londoners are the least likely to have a higher education qualification, and the most likely to have a qualification at GCSE/A-level.

A sizable proportion of Londoners have a qualification classified as ‘Other’, particularly among ethnicities more likely to be international migrants, such as those of an Asian or other ethnic background. Highest level of qualification questions on surveys can present an issue for some people whose foreign qualifications do not fit with the English qualification system. For some migrant groups, the percentage with ‘Other qualifications’ is high and will impact on the other levels of qualifications.

Figure 3.4: Highest qualification by ethnicity (25-49 year olds), London, 2015/17 (per cent)



Source: ONS Annual Population Survey three-year pooled dataset 2015/17

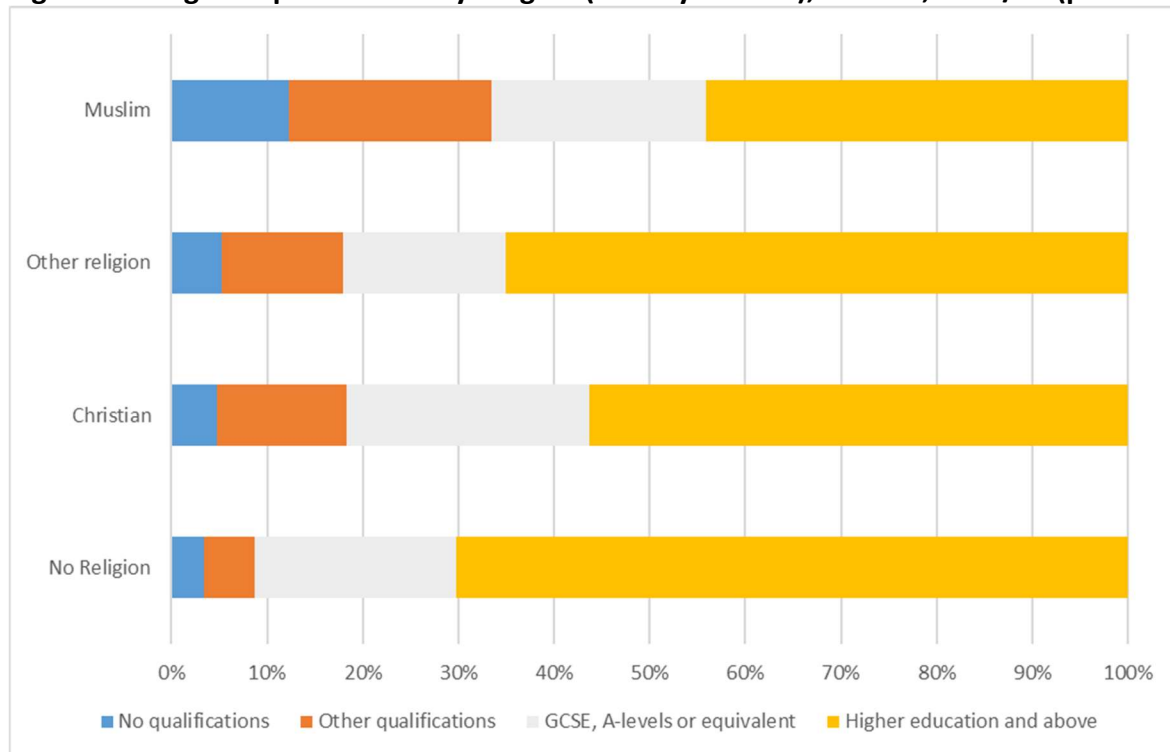
Qualification levels also vary by religion. Among people aged 25 to 49 living in London at the time of the 2011 Census, London’s Jewish population had the highest education qualification with 61.8 per cent of the population holding a Level 4 or above qualification (higher education). This was 13.4 per cent points above the London average. Likewise, they are also one of the religious groups least likely to have no qualifications.

Muslims have the lowest high education qualification with one in three holding a Level 4 or above qualification. One in five (21.6 per cent) do not hold any qualifications, the highest of any religious group. It should be noted that Muslims also have the highest ‘Other qualifications’ at 17.8 per cent. This group also has the largest gap between men and women, with 38 per cent of Muslim men holding a higher education qualification compared to 29 per cent of Muslim women.¹³⁷

¹³⁷ Census 2011 Table DC5204EW

More recent data from the Annual Population Survey (see figure 3.5 below) shows that the relatively low educational attainment of Muslims has continued, but with an increase in the proportion with a degree to 44 per cent and a reduction in the proportion with no qualifications to 12 per cent.

Figure 3.5: Highest qualification by religion (25-49 year olds), London, 2015/17 (per cent)



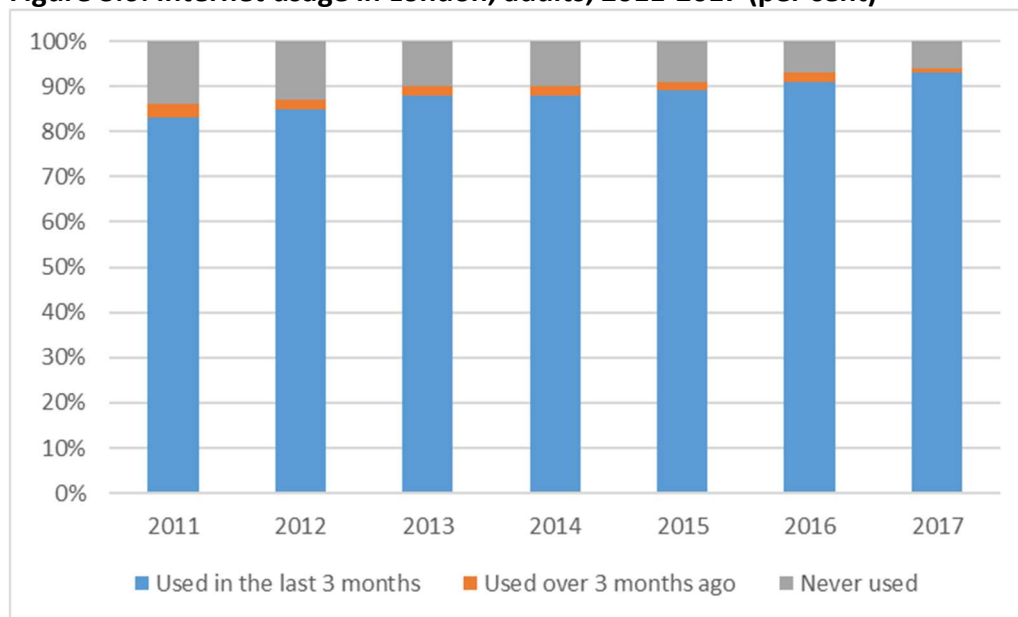
Source: ONS Annual Population Survey three-year pooled dataset 2015/17

Londoners whose main language is British Sign Language (BSL) are almost twice as likely to have no qualifications as the London average, and less than half as likely to have a degree-level qualification.¹³⁸

Detailed census breakdowns of qualifications by age, gender, detailed ethnicity, religion and language are provided in the accompanying data tables.

The level of digital usage and skills also varies across population groups. Internet usage overall in London is at an all-time high. London has a higher proportion of people using the Internet than the UK average and usage and frequency of Internet access is on the rise. In 2017, 93 per cent of the population used the Internet within the previous 3 months compared to 84 per cent of the population in 2011. This steady rise is largely accounted for by a decline in the proportion of Londoners who have never used the Internet, falling from 14 per cent to 6 per cent of the population over the same period (see chart below).

¹³⁸ 2011 Census, table DC5208EW

Figure 3.6: Internet usage in London, adults, 2011-2017 (per cent)

Source: ONS (2017) [Internet access – households and individuals: 2017](#)

The ONS also ask individuals the reasons why they are not using the internet. Lack of basic digital skills (21 per cent) and associated costs (18 per cent) are partly to blame for households not having Internet access. But the most important factor is a lack of need for the Internet. Since 2011 over half of all households who do not have Internet access stated this claim and it has risen to 59 per cent in 2016. Cost association (including equipment and broadband subscription) is the third most common reason since 2014. This cost ‘barrier’ has decreased over time from 37 per cent in 2006 to half that rate at 18 per cent in 2016.

The ONS has provided some evidence of how internet usage varies by ethnicity within London. They find that Asian Londoners are more likely to be lapsed internet users or to have never used the internet than other ethnic groups (7.9 per cent versus 7.2 per cent among all adults). The same study found that those of a mixed or multiple ethnic background were the least likely to be lapsed internet users or to have never used the internet (5.9 per cent).¹³⁹

A recent research project has taken a wider view of digital skills, assessing individuals on their self-reported ability and frequency of using digital tools for a variety of tasks, including finding information, communicating, making purchases, solving digital problems and filling out online forms.¹⁴⁰

This research, published in 2017 and updated in 2018, estimated that 82 per cent of the adult population (15 years and over) in London had basic digital skills (BDS). The chart below shows, at a UK level, how the proportion of adults with BDS varies by age and by social grade. Younger adults (15-34 years) had the highest prevalence at 96 per cent.

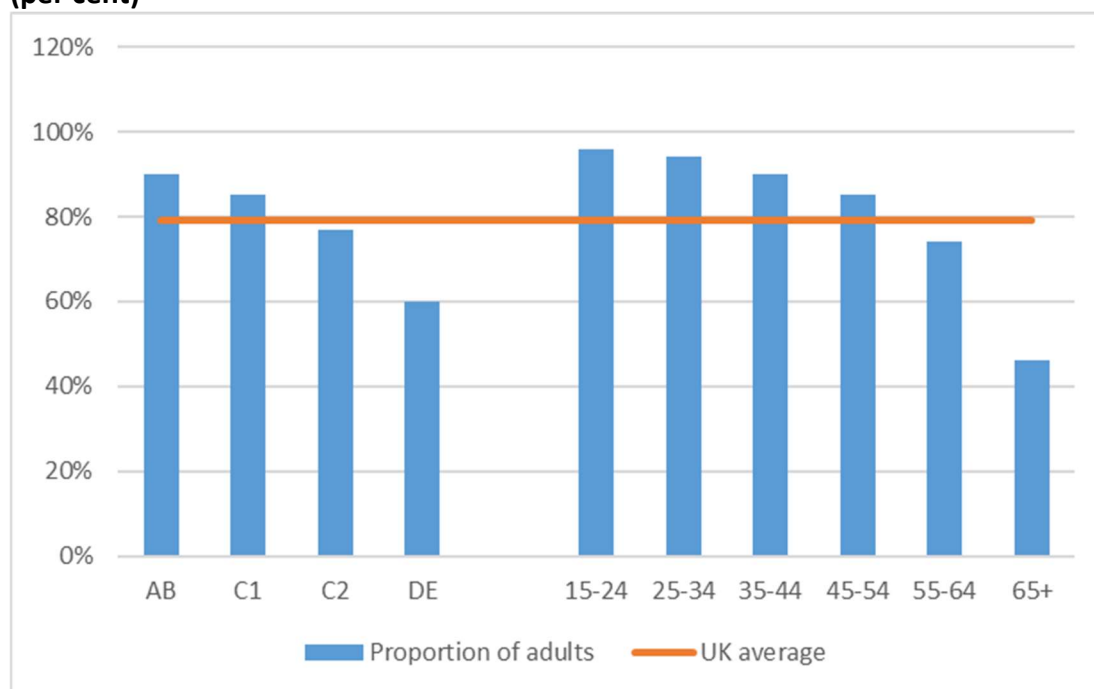
¹³⁹ Office for National Statistics (2017) [Recent and Lapsed Internet Users and Internet Non-Users, by Ethnic Group then by UK Region and Age group: 2017](#)

¹⁴⁰ IPSOS (2018) [Basic Digital Skills UK Report 2018](#)

Older adults (65 and over) have the lowest at 49 per cent, followed by 55 to 64 year olds at 75 per cent. Older adults tend to be more recent adopters of the internet¹⁴¹, and their low rates of digital usage and skills adults has been flagged as a growing concern; as more services and information move online, many older adults risk becoming disadvantaged.¹⁴²

By social grade, 91 per cent of adults in the AB socio-economic category have BDS compared to 60 per cent in the DE group. Those in the DE socio-economic group are less likely to go online, and research has shown they are less likely to make critical judgements about online content, use security features or understand how price comparison websites work.¹⁴³

Figure 3.7: Proportion of adults with basic digital skills, by age and social grade, 2018, UK (per cent)



Source: IPSOS (2018) [Basic Digital Skills UK Report 2018](#)

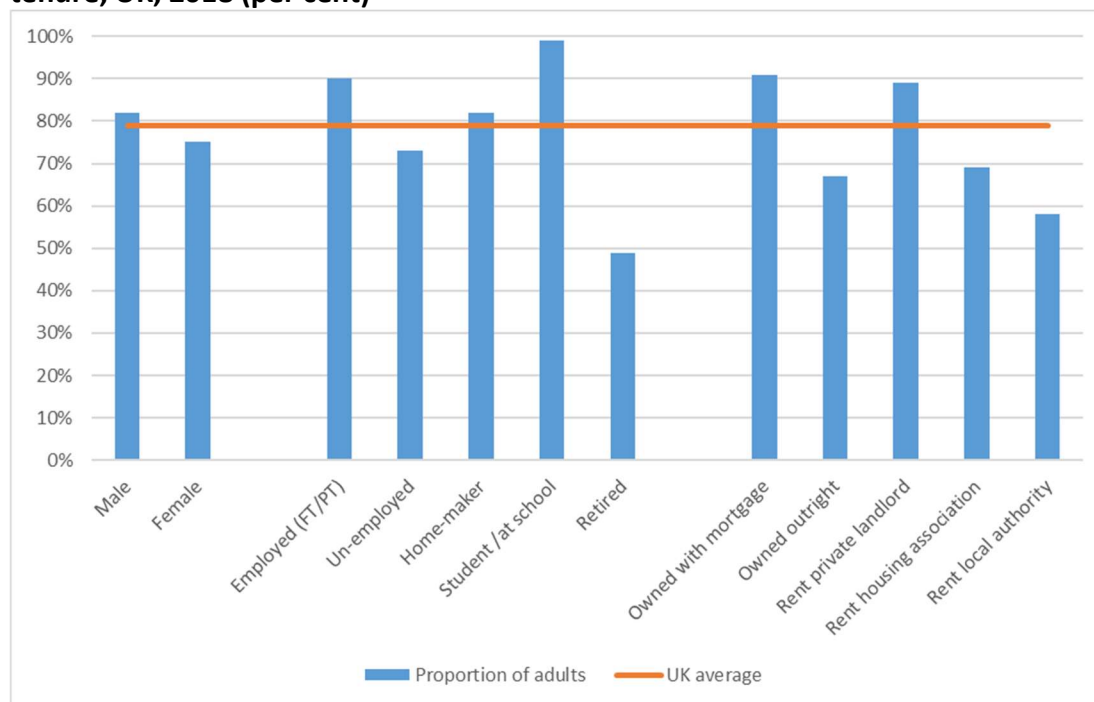
By other characteristics (see chart below), we see a gender gap in BDS of 7 percentage points, and higher rates of basic digital skills among people who are employed or who are a student/school pupil. Finally, individuals in accommodation rented from local authorities have the lowest basic digital skills at 58 per cent. Outside of gender, these patterns are likely to be related to age. Retired individuals, owner-occupiers and social renters have particularly low rates of BDS. This may be related to the older age profile of these groups.

¹⁴¹ Ofcom (2018) [Adults' Media Use and Attitudes Report](#)

¹⁴² Centre for Ageing Better (2018) [The digital age: new approaches to supporting people in later life get online](#)

¹⁴³ Ofcom (2018) [Adults' Media Use and Attitudes Report](#)

Figure 3.8: Proportion of adults with basic digital skills, by gender, employment and tenure, UK, 2018 (per cent)



Source: IPSOS (2018) [Basic Digital Skills UK Report 2018](#)

Separately, other research has explored digital exclusion among the Gypsy and Irish Traveller community, 1 in 5 of whom have never used the internet. The research also found that only 38 per cent of Gypsies and Travellers had a household internet connection, compared to 86% of the general population.¹⁴⁴

3.3 Employment

The employment rate in London has recovered from lows in 2011 and 2012, and now stands at 75.8 per cent of the working-age population.¹⁴⁵¹⁴⁶ There are long-standing differences in the employment rate between different groups of Londoners. In some cases, these do not pose an issue: a higher proportion of young Londoners are not in work in part because many are studying full-time, for example. But for many not being in work is linked to low income and poverty, poorer health and other negative impacts. This makes monitoring the labour market activity of different groups important from an equalities perspective.

Young Londoners

¹⁴⁴ Friends, Families and Travellers (2018) [Digital Exclusion in Gypsy and Traveller communities in the United Kingdom](#)

¹⁴⁵ The working-age employment rate measures the proportion of Londoners (aged 16-64) who are in employment, and therefore not unemployed (not in work and looking for work) or economically inactive (not in work and not looking for work)

¹⁴⁶ ONS (2019) [Regional labour market statistics in the UK: February 2019](#)

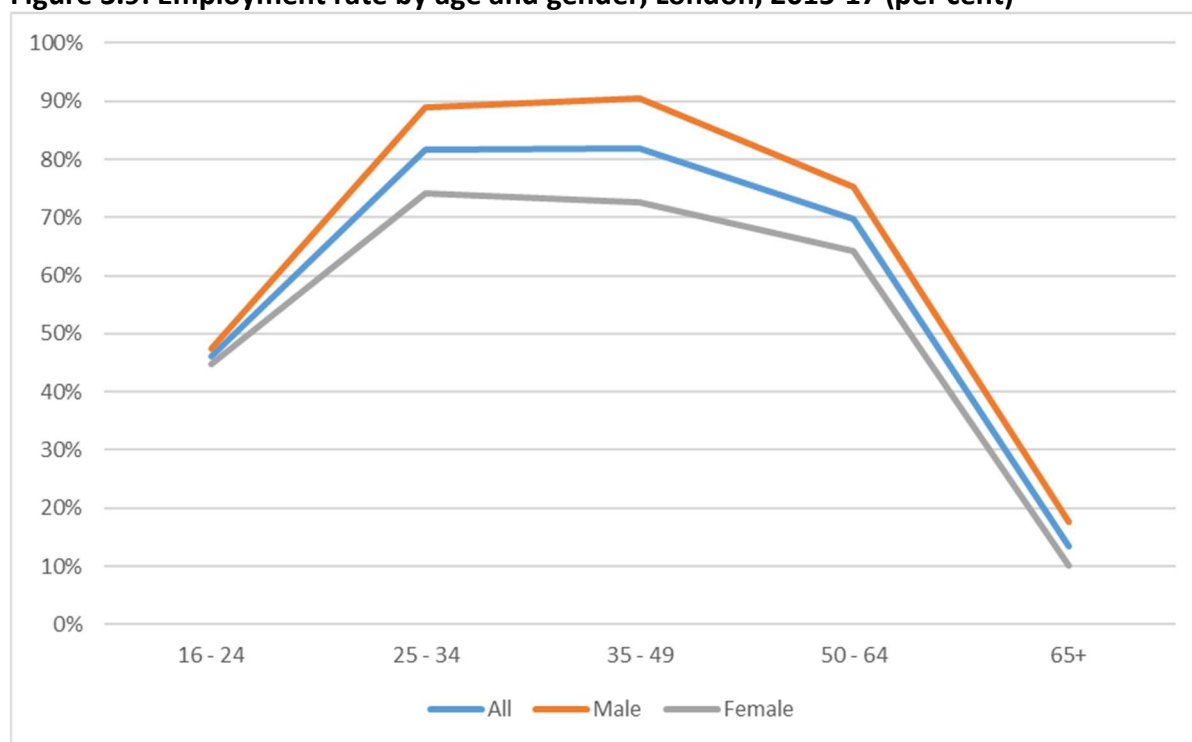
The employment rate tends to be lower for young people (aged 16-24). In London, 46 per cent of people aged 16-24 were employed in 2015-17, against a London-wide average of 73 per cent (see chart below).¹⁴⁷

Partly this reflects higher rates of participation in full-time education when young, but also the challenges faced by young people when they transition into the labour market, especially where they lack employment experience or have done less well at school.

One measure often used to understand young people’s transition into employment is the proportion of young people who are ‘NEET’ (not in employment, education or training). In London, 11 per cent of 16-24 year-olds are NEET, less than the England average of 13 per cent.¹⁴⁸

Another is the youth unemployment rate, which measures the proportion of economically active young people (either in work or out of work but looking for work) who are not working. In London, the youth unemployment rate is 17 per cent among 16-24 year-olds, against a London-wide average of 5 per cent.¹⁴⁹

Figure 3.9: Employment rate by age and gender, London, 2015-17 (per cent)



Source: ONS Annual Population Survey three-year pooled dataset 2015/17

¹⁴⁷ Annual Population Survey Jul 2016 – Jun 2017

¹⁴⁸ Department for Education (2018) [Young People Not in Employment, Education or Training](#)

¹⁴⁹ ONS Annual Population Survey three-year pooled dataset 2015/17

Some young people face a number of barriers to employment including low attainment levels, poor educational experiences, financial pressures, lack of a permanent address, lack of work experience, low confidence/motivation and a competitive labour market.¹⁵⁰

Lack of skills and poor access to career services are also key barriers facing young people looking for a job.¹⁵¹ Lack of good transport connections and lack of access to the Internet can act as major barriers to young jobseekers, especially those living in deprived areas.¹⁵²

Young people may also be limited in their job search by where they live, be unable to afford to move elsewhere for a job, have family commitments and also lack the knowledge of what support is available to help them find and remain in employment. In addition, while there have been a number of recent government-funded schemes to support employers in hiring and training young people, employers may not be aware of what support and funding is available.¹⁵³

Older Londoners

Employment among older Londoners (people aged between 50 and 64) is lower than among people aged 25-49 (see chart above). While early retirement accounts for some of this gap, evidence at a national level suggests less than a third of people out of work in this age group consider themselves retired. The majority do not think of themselves as retired but see it as unlikely that they will ever work again.¹⁵⁴

Barriers to working among this group include sickness and disability, as well as above-average rates of informal caring. Research has found that a quarter of working people aged 55 or over with a health condition are considering leaving work.¹⁵⁵ More intensive informal care, both in terms of hours and the task performed, are associated with leaving work among older workers in general, and reducing hours of work among older male workers.¹⁵⁶

While they are not more likely to be made redundant than other age groups, they are less likely to return to work following being made redundant. In addition, age discrimination appears to remain an issue, with over a quarter of men and women reporting that they have experienced ageism in recruitment.¹⁵⁷ In addition, over a quarter of older job applicants have been put off applying for a job because of their age, and almost a third believe they have been turned down for a job because of their age.¹⁵⁸

Evidence given to the House of Commons Women and Equalities Committee suggests that age discrimination in recruitment and redundancy are driven by incorrect assumptions that older workers cost more relative to their productivity, that employers will get more years of work from a younger employee and that older workers should leave work in order to 'make

¹⁵⁰ Buzzeo et al (2016) [Tackling unemployment among disadvantaged young people](#)

¹⁵¹ REED in partnership (2015) [Young people and employment: Our UK Survey](#)

¹⁵² Tunstall et al (2012) [Disadvantaged young people looking for work: a job in itself?](#)

¹⁵³ Clayton and Williams (2014) [Delivering Change: Cities and Youth Unemployment Challenge](#)

¹⁵⁴ Department for Work & Pensions (2014) [Fuller Working Lives – Background Evidence](#)

¹⁵⁵ Centre for Ageing Better (2018) [Health warning for employers: Supporting older workers with health conditions](#)

¹⁵⁶ Gomez-Leon (2017) [The dynamics of social care and employment in mid-life](#)

¹⁵⁷ Centre for Ageing Better (2018) [Becoming an age-friendly employer: Evidence report](#)

¹⁵⁸ Centre for Ageing Better (2018) [Age discrimination in the workplace](#)

way' for younger people.¹⁵⁹ One Dutch study found that older workers are more likely to be successful applicants for jobs during periods of economic growth, and where the older applicant had relevant qualifications and already had a job at the time of interview.¹⁶⁰

Older Londoners are also more likely to not hold increasingly important skills such as those around IT, searching for jobs and applying online, and may also be less confident about their skills being up to date. The latter may be due to the fact older workers are less likely to have experienced work-related training. In addition, careers advice and guidance has historically focused on young people rather than catering for the specific needs of older workers.¹⁶¹

The employment rate among Londoners aged 65 or over is much lower than at younger ages. But this is changing over time, with the employment rate for this age group rising from 10 per cent in 2010 to 13 per cent in 2017.¹⁶²

Finally, there is little evidence that more older workers are transitioning to full-time to part-time work as a precursor to retirement. One study found that older women are more likely to work part-time because they have worked part-time previously, especially when they were married. Men were more likely to work full-time at older ages, regardless of marital status and consistent with traditional gender roles in employment.¹⁶³

Gender

There is a 12-percentage point gap in employment between working-age men (82 per cent of whom are employed), and women (70 per cent).

Mothers have an even lower employment rate: Maternal employment in London is the lowest of any region in the UK: 61 per cent compared to 69 per cent nationally. This gap is primarily by mothers in couple households, rather than lone parents, and grows with the age of children, implying that the process of returning to work after the birth of a child takes relatively longer in London.

Low rates of maternal employment are driven by several factors: inequalities in family care responsibilities between mothers and fathers, higher childcare costs in London, the interaction of low pay and the in-work benefits system which can mean that work doesn't pay for many mothers, a lack of flexible childcare in London, and a lack of flexible job opportunities in the labour market.¹⁶⁴ Evidence suggests that mothers face a long-term negative impact on hours worked and hourly earnings from the time spent out of the labour market providing care to children.¹⁶⁵

Research has uncovered issues with organisational cultures that may be partly responsible for gender inequality in care responsibilities. Men report concerns for career progression

¹⁵⁹ House of Commons Women and Equalities Committee (2018) [Older people and employment](#)

¹⁶⁰ Mulders et al (2018) [Managers' interview invitation decisions about older job applicants](#)

¹⁶¹ Department for Work & Pensions (2014) [Fuller Working Lives – Background Evidence](#)

¹⁶² ONS Annual Population Survey Jan-Dec 2010 and Jan 2015 – Dec 2017

¹⁶³ Van der Horst et al (2017) [Gender roles and employment pathways of older women and men in England](#)

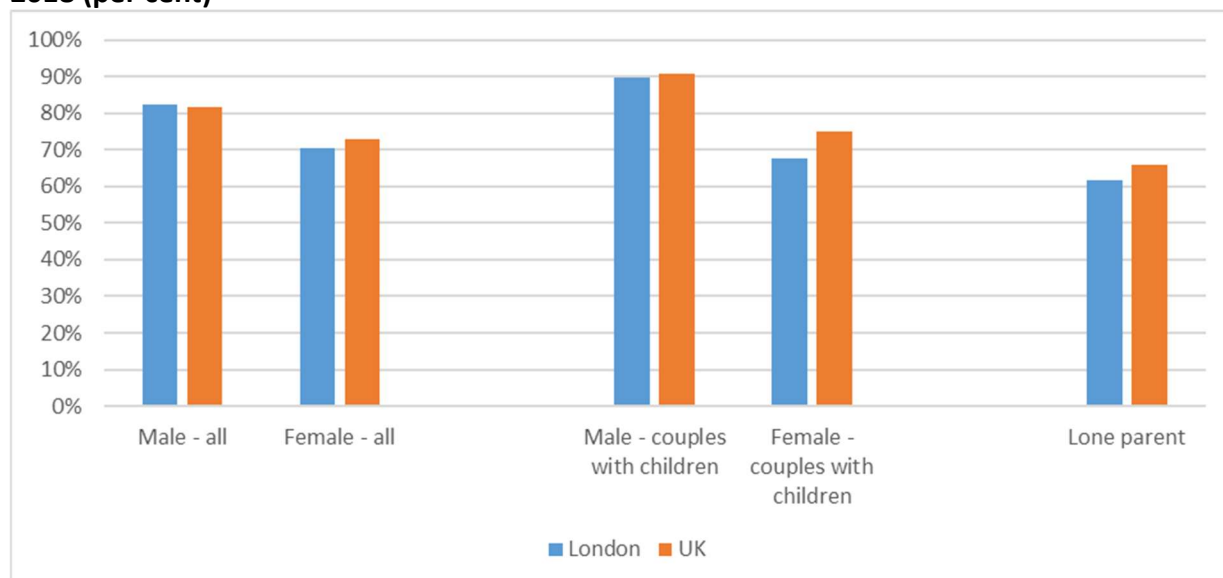
¹⁶⁴ IPPR (2017) [The Future of Childcare in London](#)

¹⁶⁵ Gicheva and Keohane (2018) [Back on Track: Making the most of parents' working lives](#)

and a feeling that their caring responsibilities are not recognised by employers, with a majority of men (85 per cent) agreeing that they should be just as involved in all aspects of care as women.¹⁶⁶ Attitudes in the wider public are changing, with 72 per cent of adults agree that both men and women should contribute to household income, up from 53 per cent in 1989.¹⁶⁷ There is also widespread support for employers doing more to support working parents, including by giving employees more control over the hours they work.¹⁶⁸

There are still instances of discrimination against mothers in the workplace. One recent UK study found that one in nine mothers reported they were either dismissed, made compulsorily redundant when others in their workplace were not, or treated so poorly they felt they had to leave their job. One in five mothers said they experienced harassment or negative comments related to pregnancy or flexible working from their employer and/or colleagues.¹⁶⁹

Figure 3.10: Working-age (16-64) employment rate by gender and family type, London, 2018 (per cent)



Source: ONS Household Labour Force Survey 2018

Ethnicity

There are sizable gaps in employment by ethnicity in London’s labour market. In many cases, these reflect larger employment gaps between ethnicities within age groups and by gender.

Among young Londoners, and excluding students (see table below), young black men, Pakistani and Bangladeshi men and women and those of mixed ethnic background have a relatively low employment rate.

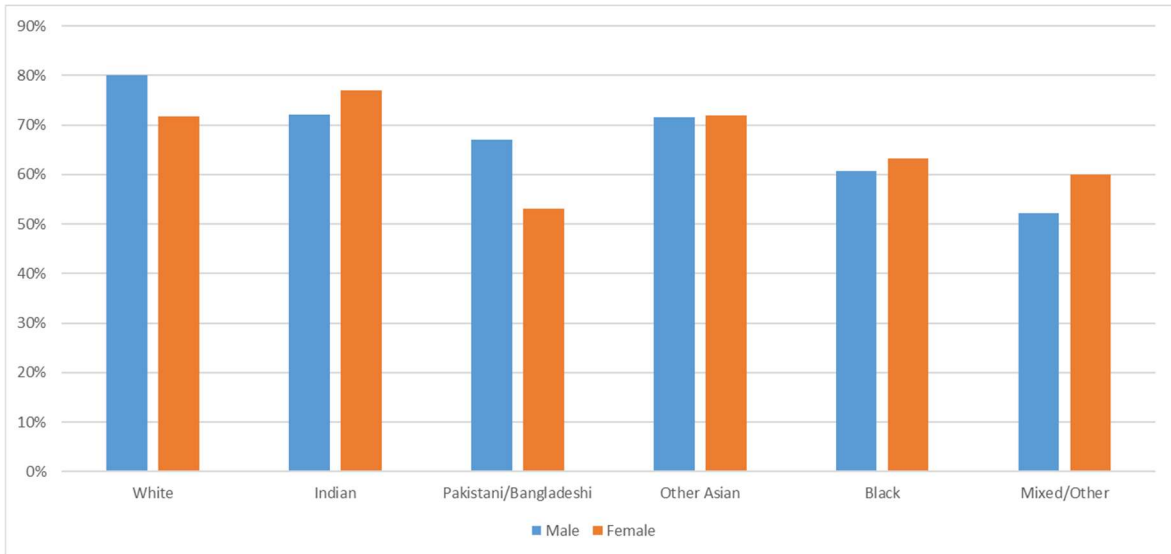
¹⁶⁶ Business in the Community (2018) [Equal lives: parenthood and caring in the workplace](#)

¹⁶⁷ Government Equalities Office (2017) [Attitudes to equalities: the British Social Attitudes Survey 2017](#)

¹⁶⁸ Coram Family and Childcare (2018) [Holding on or moving up? Supporting carers and parents in employment](#)

¹⁶⁹ Equality and Human Rights Commission (2018) [New research looking at employer views towards pregnant women and new mothers](#)

Chart 3.11: Employment rate among 16-24 year-old Londoners by ethnicity and gender, 2015-17

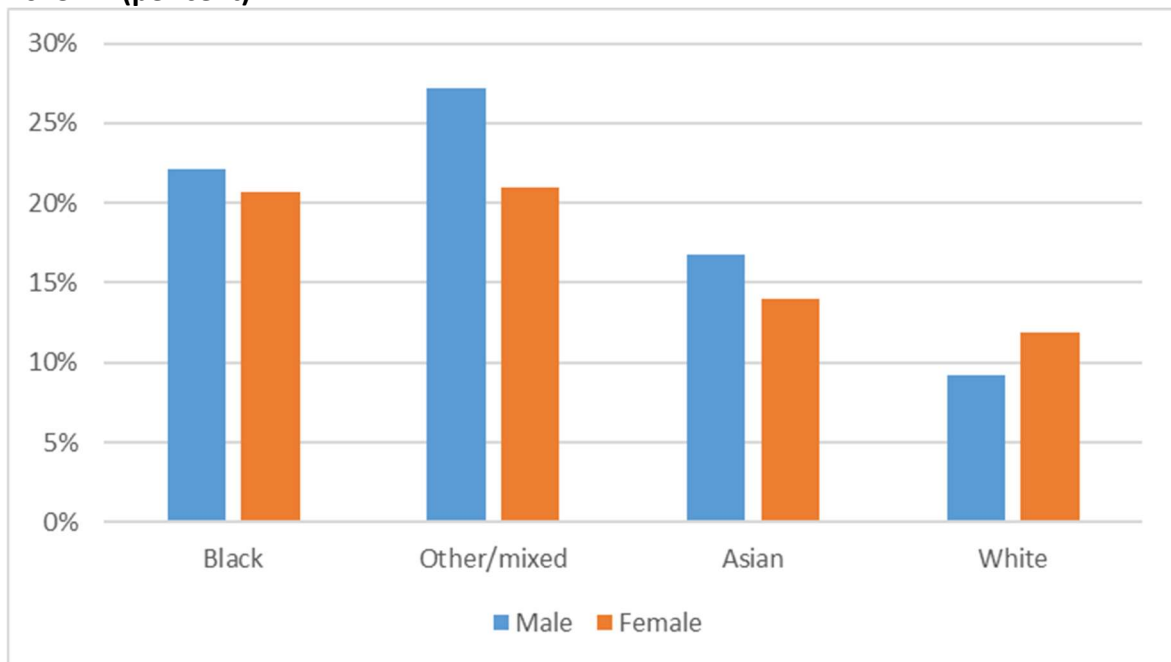


Source: ONS Annual Population Survey three-year pooled dataset 2015/17. Excludes full-time students

There are also considerable differences in the unemployment rate among young people by gender and ethnicity (see chart below). Young men of an other/mixed ethnic background and young black men have higher unemployment rates than all other groups of young people, with the gap between unemployment rates for young black men and young white men persistent for many years. Evidence has shown that Black university graduates are twice as likely to be unemployed as white university graduates.¹⁷⁰

¹⁷⁰ Trust for London (2014) [Action Plan to Increase Employment Rates for Young Black Men in London](#)

Figure 3.12: Unemployment rate among 16-24 year-olds, by ethnicity and gender, London, 2015-17 (per cent)



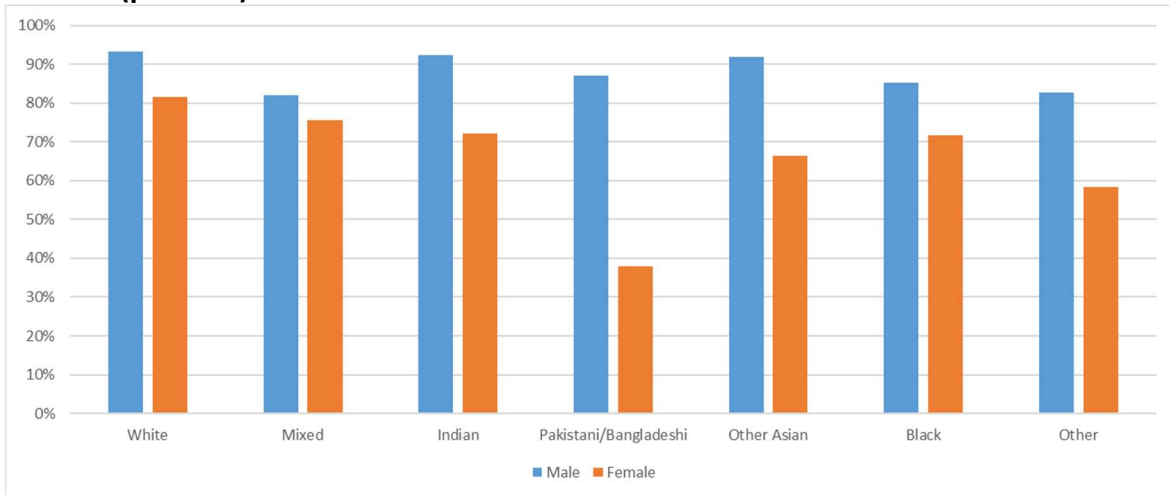
Source: ONS Annual Population Survey three-year pooled dataset 2015/17. Excludes full-time students

Turning to people aged 25-49, across all ethnicities, women in London are less likely to be employed than men (see figure 3.13 below). This is particularly the case among Pakistani and Bangladeshi Londoners. 38 per cent of women in this group are employed, versus 87 per cent of men. Research at a national level has found that 1 in 4 women aged 16 and over of a Pakistani or Bangladeshi ethnicity are economically inactive due to looking after home or family. Language barriers, family structures, cultural influences and caring responsibilities.¹⁷¹ The employment rate for some groups varies further by ethnicity and religion. One study found particularly large employment penalties for Black-Muslim compared to White-Muslim women, for example.¹⁷²

¹⁷¹ Catney and Sabater (2015) [Ethnic Minority Disadvantage in the Labour Market: Participation, Skills and Geographical Inequalities](#)

¹⁷² Khattab and Hussein (2017) [Can Religious Affiliation Explain the Disadvantage of Muslim Women in the British Labour Market?](#)

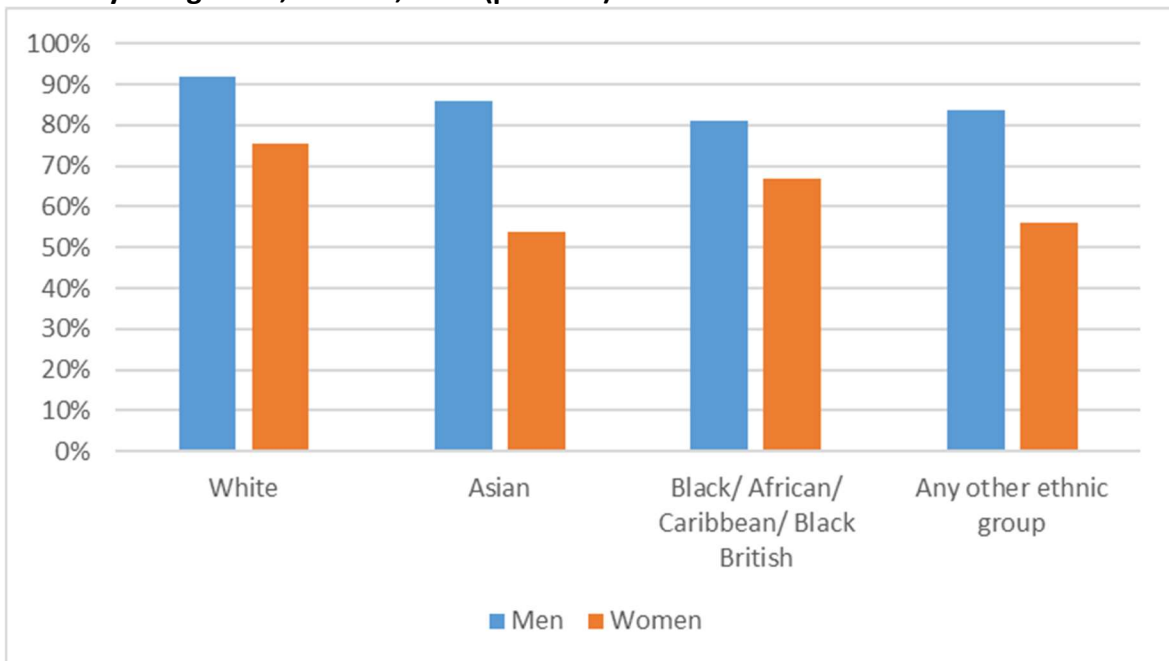
Figure 3.13: Employment rate among 25-49 year-olds, by ethnicity and gender, London, 2015-17 (per cent)



Source: ONS Annual Population Survey Jan 2015 – Dec 2017. Excludes full-time students

As noted above, fathers are much more likely to be employed than mothers. This is particularly the case among Asian parents. 86 per cent of working-age Asian fathers are employed, versus 54 per cent of mothers, a gap of 32 percentage points (see chart below). The gap is smallest among Black/African/Caribbean/Black British parents, at 14 percentage points.

Figure 3.14: Employment rate among working-age parents of dependent children, by ethnicity and gender, London, 2017 (per cent)



Source: ONS Annual Population Survey Jan-Dec 2017

Gypsy and Irish Travellers have a low economic active participation rate. Less than half of all men (46 per cent) and less than one third (29 per cent) of all women are in any type of employment, well below the overall London average. This is not the result of retirement, as

seen in the Irish ageing population. Gypsy and Irish Travellers are also the most likely to be disabled of all ethnic groups shown here.

Disability

Londoners with a health condition or disability that limits their day-to-day activities are much less likely to be in work. 52 per cent of disabled Londoners are in employment, versus 78 per cent among people who are not disabled, a 26-percentage point gap.¹⁷³ There is also substantial variation between London boroughs, with the widest gap in employment rates between the two groups observed in Hammersmith and Fulham.¹⁷⁴

Although the employment rate for disabled people has been slowly improving in recent years, disabled people continue to face multiple barriers to finding work and staying in employment. These include:

- Discrimination in recruitment
- Inaccessible transport to get to and from their place of work¹⁷⁵
- Employers failing to make reasonable adjustments at recruitment stage and in the workplace, partly due to a lack of understanding by employers of what reasonable adjustment means¹⁷⁶
- Lack of flexible and inclusive working practices
- Lack of or limited knowledge of available support for disabled staff at work and among their employers¹⁷⁷

Employment rates for some groups of disabled people are particularly low, although for all health conditions disabled people have lower employment rates than those who are not disabled.¹⁷⁸ Only 14 per cent of people with mental health support needs are employed.¹⁷⁹ Figures from 2015-16, showed that 6 per cent of adults with learning difficulties aged 18-64 and known to local authorities were in paid employment. In 2015-16, 7 per cent of adults aged 18-69 in contact with secondary mental health services were known to be in paid employment at the time of their assessment or latest review.¹⁸⁰

The employment rate for people with hearing loss is 65 per cent. Research on the experience of people with hearing loss and employment found that almost three-quarters (74 per cent) felt that their employment opportunities were limited because of their hearing loss, and that many people with hearing loss say they prefer not to declare their hearing loss on application forms, as they fear not being shortlisted for interview if they do.¹⁸¹

¹⁷³ Annual Population Survey Jul 2016 – Jun 2017

¹⁷⁴ Oakley (2018) [Supporting disabled people into work - A view from London](#)

¹⁷⁵ Papworth Trust (2016) [Disability Facts and Figures 2016](#)

¹⁷⁶ PMI Health Group (2016) [Disability still seen as a barrier to career progression](#)

¹⁷⁷ EHRC (2017) [Disability rights in the UK: updated submission to the UN Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities](#)

¹⁷⁸ Powell (2018) [People with disabilities in employment](#)

¹⁷⁹ Department for Work and Pensions (2015) [Fulfilling Potential: improving the lives of disabled people](#)

¹⁸⁰ BASE (2017) [Key facts and data](#)

¹⁸¹ NHS England (2017) [What works: hearing loss and employment](#)

Survey research found two-fifths of respondents, 41 per cent, who had retired early said that this was related to their hearing loss. 79 per cent felt that the attitude of employers was the main barrier to work for people with hearing loss.¹⁸²

Finally, disabled people with multiple conditions have lower employment rates than those with one condition. Estimates using 2016 data at a UK level found that the employment rate for disabled people with one condition was 61 per cent, whereas for those with 5 or more conditions it was 23 per cent.¹⁸³

Working-age armed forces veterans are less likely to be employed than the wider population. A survey of veterans carried out in 2014 found that 60 per cent were employed versus 73 per cent in the population as a whole.

The same survey uncovered evidence of barriers to employment among veterans. Compared to the general population, they are almost twice as likely to report a long-term illness or disability that limits their daily activities (24 versus 13 per cent). They are more likely to suffer from depression, back problems, visual or auditory impairments, and problems with their arms, legs and feet. More than half of veterans aged 25-44 attribute their issues with health and disability to their service.¹⁸⁴

Lack of confidence, fear of unemployment and not wanting to take on a job that is underpaid or they are underqualified for are some of the challenges that this group face finding employment. Furthermore, negative stereotypes about recruiting those leaving the armed forces still prevail and employers lack of awareness around the transferrable skills they offer has an adverse impact on their access to the labour market.¹⁸⁵

Carers are less likely to be employed than the wider population. At the time of the 2011 Census, 68 per cent of non-retired carers in London were employed, against 71 per cent of the wider non-retired population. This falls to 63 per cent among carers providing 20 to 49 hours of care a week, and to 43 per cent among carers providing 50 or more hours of care a week.¹⁸⁶

Barriers to employment among carers include a lack of flexible employment opportunities, and stress among employed carers attempting to balance work and care, leading to them leaving work. Carers, particularly those providing greater hours of care, are also more likely to be in ill health themselves, and face difficulty accessing suitable care services to free up time for work.¹⁸⁷

Ex-offenders face significant barriers to finding employment. While data at a London level is not readily available, research at a national level linking administrative data on employment with offending has found that only 38 per cent of adult offenders (aged 21-62) are employed

¹⁸² Arrowsmith (2015) [Hidden Disadvantage](#)

¹⁸³ Powell (2018) [People with disabilities in employment](#)

¹⁸⁴ The Royal British Legion (2014) [The UK Ex-Service Community: A Household Survey](#)

¹⁸⁵ Deloitte (2016) [Veterans Work: Recognising the potential of ex-service personnel](#)

¹⁸⁶ 2011 Census table DC6301EW1a

¹⁸⁷ Carers UK (2015) [Facts about carers 2015](#)

one year after caution/conviction or release. This rises to only 40 per cent after nine years.¹⁸⁸

Employers' attitudes towards ex-offenders produce a significant barrier, as employers cite issues around reliability, capability, trust and potential impact on the image of the business as reasons for not recruiting someone with a criminal background.¹⁸⁹

A CIPD survey of employers also found that majority of HR managers viewed ex-offenders as the least talented and employable group.¹⁹⁰

Homeless people face a number of barriers to finding employment, with one study estimating an employment rate for this group as low as 15 per cent. Barriers include a lack of basic skills such as numeracy and literacy, low levels of formal qualifications and minimal recent work experience. There are also some very practical barriers homeless people face. These include access to a computer or the Internet, appropriate clothing for interviews or work, the cost of transport and having no fixed address. Many homeless people also have physical or mental health conditions.

At the same time, employers' attitudes can also act as a barrier to employment. Negative perceptions about employing a homeless person and assumptions that they have never worked before still exist.¹⁹¹

In addition, there is a growing group of homeless households who live in temporary accommodation while also working. One estimate suggests that the proportion of homeless households who are in work has risen from 47 per cent in 2013 to 60 per cent in 2017.¹⁹²

Care-leavers face challenges distinct from those faced by young Londoners in general. They are much more likely to be NEET at age 19. In 2013, 41 per cent of care leavers were NEET, compared with 15 per cent of all 19-year-olds.¹⁹³

Issues faced by care leavers in their transition to employment include the social stigma attached to being a care leaver: one study found that almost half worry about other people, especially employers, knowing their background. Other issues include low levels of educational attainment and low rates of participation in education beyond the school leaving age, as well as related issues around homelessness, mental health and depression, drug and alcohol misuse and high rates of youth custody among this group. All of these factors are associated with worse employment outcomes and are particularly prevalent among care leavers.¹⁹⁴

¹⁸⁸ Ministry of Justice and Department for Work and Pensions (2014) [Experimental statistics from the 2013 MoJ /DWP /HMRC data share: Linking data on offenders with benefit, employment and income data](#)

¹⁸⁹ House of Commons Work and Pensions Committee (2016) [Support for ex-offenders](#)

¹⁹⁰ Chartered Institute for Personnel and Development (2016) [Attitudes to employability and talent](#)

¹⁹¹ St. Mungo's Trust (2010) [Work Matters](#)

¹⁹² Shelter (2018) [Shelter research – In work, but out of a home](#)

¹⁹³ National Audit Office (2015) [Care leavers' transition to adulthood](#)

¹⁹⁴ Reed in Partnership (2011) [From Care to Independence: Improving employment outcomes for care leavers](#)

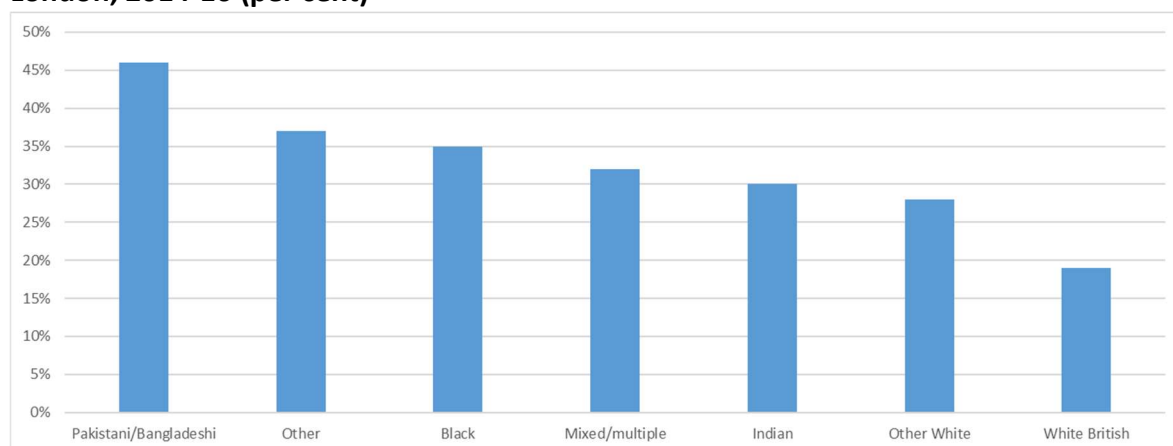
3.4 Pay and work

1 in 5 employees in London are low paid, earning an hourly rate of pay below the London Living Wage. London's low paid jobs are concentrated by sector: 64 per cent of jobs in hospitality, and 41 per cent in retail and wholesale, are low paid. Almost three quarters of low paid jobs in London are in these two sectors. Low pay is also more prevalent among part-time workers: more than half of part-time employees are low paid, versus less than a quarter among full-time employees.

Because of this, those groups who are concentrated in part-time work and in occupations and sectors associated with pay below the London living wage are more likely to be low paid.

Evidence from Trust for London's Poverty Profile research finds that low pay is more common among employed **Pakistani/Bangladeshi Londoners**, almost half of whom are paid below the London Living Wage (see chart below). More than a third of employees who are **black** or of an ethnicity outside of those presented are also low paid. Other groups at greater risk of low pay include **disabled Londoners** and **people with low or no qualifications**.

Figure 3.15: Proportion of employees paid below the London Living Wage, by ethnicity, London, 2014-16 (per cent)



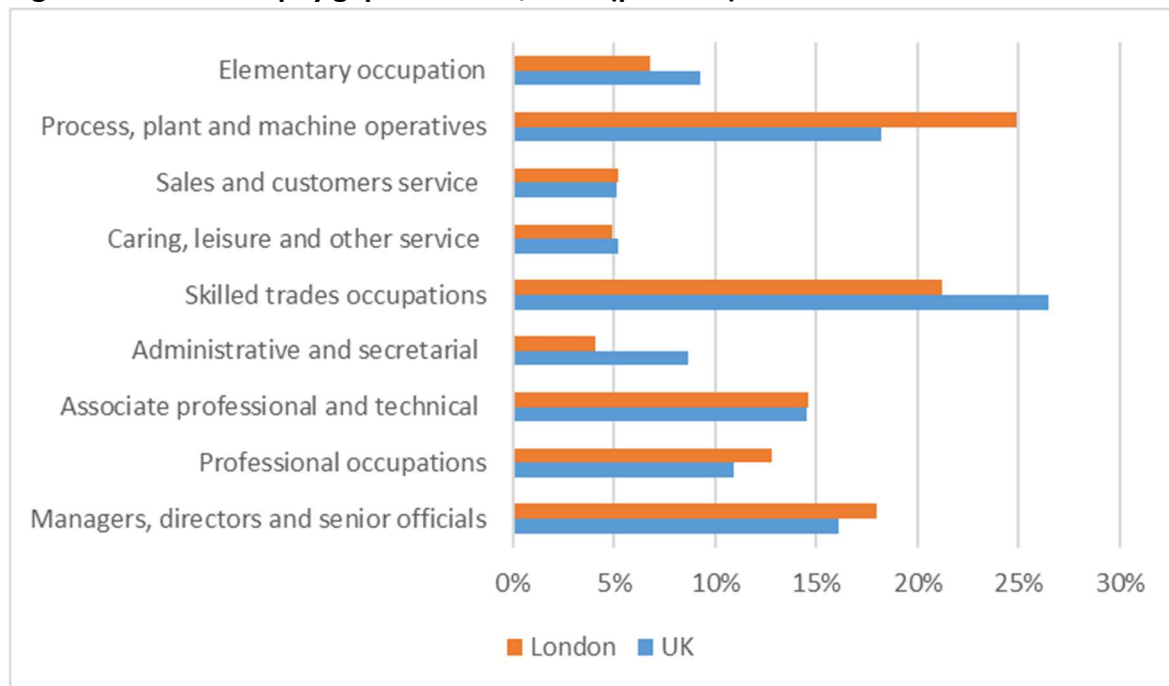
Source: [London's Poverty Profile 2017](#)

Across London, there is a **gender pay gap** of 17 per cent in median hourly pay for women compared to men. While this is partly driven by the different mix of occupations observed between women and men, the pay gap is present within occupational groups (see chart below).

The largest gender pay gap is found in skilled trades and process, plant and machine operatives. The smallest gender pay gap is found in sales and customers service occupations and administrative and secretarial occupations.

London's gender pay gap for more senior managerial and professional roles, as well as process, plant and machine operatives, is larger than the pay gap observed nationally.

Figure 3.16: Gender pay gap in London, 2018 (per cent)



Source: ONS, Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings, 2018. Note: the gender pay gap is defined as the difference between men’s and women’s hourly earnings as a percentage of men’s earning.

The gender pay gap has also been linked to gaps in women’s labour market experience due to gender inequalities in caring responsibilities: women are more likely to take time out of the labour market to look after children.¹⁹⁵ This has a long-lasting impact on women’s employment histories and subsequent earnings. Other drivers include the types of occupations and industries women work in, although around a third of the gap remains unexplained. Some of this proportion is likely to be driven by gender discrimination in the labour market.¹⁹⁶

Following recent gender pay gap reporting, it has been revealed that 78 per cent of large organisations report gender pay gaps in favour of men.¹⁹⁷ Analysis shows that pay gaps exist in a range of public and third sector organisations, as well as in the private sector.^{198,199} Encouragingly, only 2 per cent of reporting organisations do not have a good or reasonable understanding of the gender pay gap, although the process of reporting has not resulted in many employers developing concrete actions to reducing the pay gap.²⁰⁰

¹⁹⁵ EHRC (2017) [The gender pay gap](#)

¹⁹⁶ Olsen et al (2018) [The gender pay gap in the UK: evidence from the UKHLS](#)

¹⁹⁷ Business, Energy and Industrial Strategy Committee (2018) [Gender pay gap reporting](#)

¹⁹⁸ Cusack (2018) [Two thirds of councils report 'significant' gender pay gap](#)

¹⁹⁹ Robertson Bell (2018) [Fundraising Salary Survey Results 2018](#)

²⁰⁰ Government Equalities Office (2019) [Employers’ Understanding of the Gender Pay Gap and Actions to Tackle it: research report on the 2018 Survey](#)

There is a similar pay gap of 7 per cent between **disabled** and non-disabled Londoners.²⁰¹ At a UK level, in 2015/16 disabled people earned £9.85 compared to £11.41 for non-disabled people. Disabled young people (age 16-24) and disabled women had the lowest median hourly earnings. Disabled men from certain ethnic groups face much larger pay gaps, in particular Bangladeshi (56 per cent), Pakistani (36 per cent) and Black African (34 per cent) disabled men compared to white British non-disabled men. There are various factors that explain the gap between disabled and non-disabled people. Overall, disabled people are more likely to be in part-time employment, low paid jobs and less likely to hold a NVQ Level 4 or above qualification.²⁰²

EHRC research at a UK level has also explored the gaps in pay between **ethnicities**. Among men, white, Indian, Chinese and British-born Black African men tend to have a similar level of pay. All other ethnicities tend to earn considerably less, especially Pakistani and Bangladeshi men. Among women the picture is more complex. white British women and women who were not born in the UK and of a Pakistani, Bangladeshi, Black African or Black Caribbean ethnicity tend to earn less than UK-born BAME women and people of other ethnicities.²⁰³ Indicative data for London suggests that the pay gap between BAME and non-BAME Londoners is 20 per cent, and higher than the 10 per cent observed outside London.²⁰⁴ Unlike the gender pay gap, there has been less action by employers to record and monitor workforce data around ethnicity pay gaps, with very few publishing ethnicity pay gap data.²⁰⁵ Some sectors, such as the Charity sector, have begun carrying out surveys and other research to understand diversity and possible discrimination.²⁰⁶

Partly the ethnicity pay gap is driven by the different sorts of jobs and qualifications that BAME employers hold. However, even after accounting for these compositional effects, pay gaps in excess of 5 per cent remain for most BAME groups.²⁰⁷ Evidence suggests that BAME employees are less likely to progress and to score well in performance ratings.²⁰⁸ BAME employees are also more likely to experience bullying and harassment at work, with nearly half of respondents to a Trade Union survey saying they have experienced racism.²⁰⁹

A lack of **flexible working** remains a barrier for many, having a particularly adverse impact on parents, carers and disabled people.

At a national level, flexible working is something that 86 per cent of the workforce either have or would like.. 84 per cent of male full-time employees either work flexibly or say they

²⁰¹ GLA City Intelligence Unit (2018) [Economic Fairness: Disability Pay Gap](#)

²⁰² EHRC (2017) [Being disabled in Britain: a journey less equal](#)

²⁰³ EHRC (2017) [The ethnicity pay gap](#)

²⁰⁴ GLA City Intelligence Unit (2018) [Economic Fairness: Ethnicity Pay Gap](#)

²⁰⁵ EHRC (2018) [Measuring and reporting on disability and ethnicity pay gaps](#)

²⁰⁶ CharityJob (2018) [Diversity and discrimination in the charity sector](#)

²⁰⁷ Henehan and Rose (2018) [Opportunities Knocked? Exploring pay penalties among the UK's ethnic minorities](#)

²⁰⁸ European Network Against Racism (2018) [Racism and discrimination in employment in Europe: 2013-2017](#)

²⁰⁹ Prospect (2018) [Nearly half of black or ethnic minority workers have experienced racism at work](#)

want to. For women this rises to 91 per cent. 92 per cent of younger workers either work flexibly or say they want to.²¹⁰

Nearly one in five (18 per cent) employed mothers have been forced to leave their jobs due to a flexible working request being refused. Over a quarter of mothers in work (26 per cent) have had a flexible working request turned down. The proportion is even higher among women on maternity leave (35 per cent). And over half of women surveyed (60 per cent) have had to change jobs after returning from maternity leave.²¹¹

Outside of issues related to flexible working, **women returning from maternity leave** face other challenges. These include not being given time off for antenatal appointments, missing out on a promotion and being put under pressure to hand in their notice with only over a quarter raising a formal complaint. Factors preventing many from making a complaint include fear of a negative response from their employer/colleagues, stress/tiredness, lack of information about their rights, lack of belief that anything would change as a result and lack of a clear complaints procedures and associated costs of making a complaint.²¹²

There are also **inequalities in workplace representation at senior and leadership levels**. People from **BAME** backgrounds are under-represented: research on ethnic diversity of the FTSE 100 companies found that of 1,087 director positions, people who fell into the non-white category represented only about 1.5 per cent of the total, with 53 out of the FTSE 100 companies having no non-white directors.²¹³ Separate research has found that 60 per cent of black employees felt their career development failed to meet their expectation, compared to 30 per cent of their white counterparts.²¹⁴

Women hold 29 per cent of director positions in the FTSE 100, and 24 per cent in the FTSE 250.²¹⁵ While women tend to outperform men during education they remain underrepresented in senior management roles. Women are similarly underrepresented across a range of other elite professions, including politics, the judiciary, the senior civil service and heads of arts and sports organisations.²¹⁶

Access to adult and in-work training is also unequal. Those adults with the lowest qualifications are the least likely to access adult training, with graduates 3 times more likely to receive training than those with no qualifications.²¹⁷

Job quality in general is highly related to employment status: temporary and solo self-employed workers tend to experience less favourable working conditions. While part-time working may have greater access to flexible work arrangements, they are likely to have less autonomy at work.²¹⁸

²¹⁰ Timewise (2017) [Flexible working: a talent imperative](#)

²¹¹ Working Mums (2016) [Mums forced out due to lack of flexible jobs](#)

²¹² EHRC (2017) [Pregnancy and maternity discrimination research findings](#)

²¹³ Parker (2016) [A Report into the Ethnic Diversity of UK Boards](#)

²¹⁴ Business in the Community (2015) [Race at work](#)

²¹⁵ Vinnicombe et al (2018) [The Female FTSE board report 2018](#)

²¹⁶ Jewell and Bazeley (2018) [Sex & Power 2018](#)

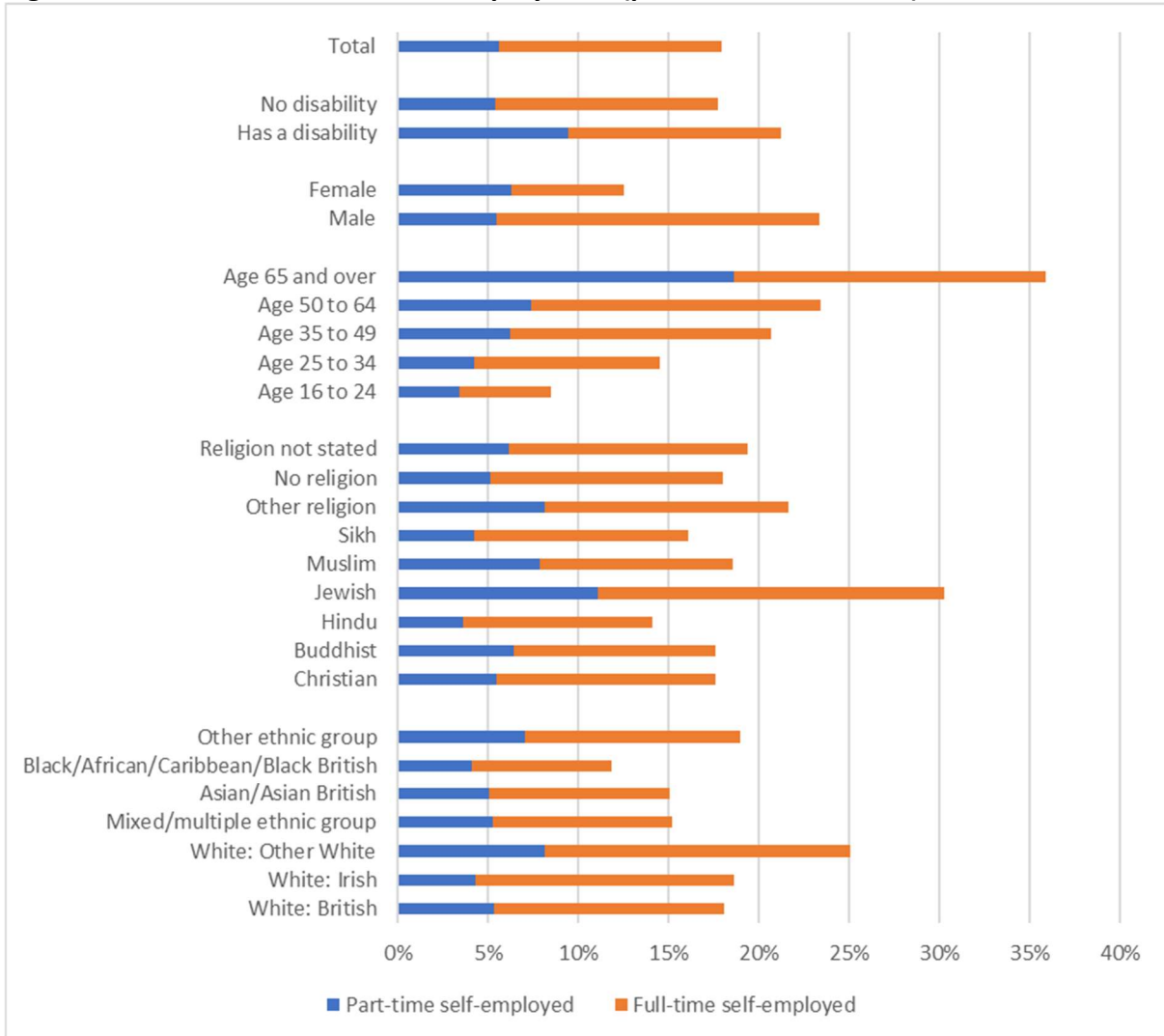
²¹⁷ Social Mobility Commission (2019) [Low-skilled adults are missing out on training: the skills gap](#)

²¹⁸ Eurofound (2018) [Does employment status matter for job quality?](#)

3.5 Entrepreneurship

19 per cent of working Londoners were **self-employed** at the time of the 2011 census. This rate varies across groups in London’s population (see census data in the chart below). Rates of self-employment are particularly high among working **older people**, **Jewish Londoners**, and people in the **other white** ethnic group.

Figure 3.17: Part and full-time self-employment (per cent of all in work), London, 2011



Source: 2011 Census

The evidence suggests that there can be substantial well-being benefits to becoming self-employed, but that urban self-employment, particularly in materially deprived neighbourhoods, are less likely to result in these benefits than self-employment in semi-urban and more wealthy locations.²¹⁹

²¹⁹ Abreu et al (2018) [Well-being effects of self-employment: a spatial inquiry](#)

The rate of self-employment also varies by gender, with **women** less likely to be self-employed than **men** (14 versus 23 per cent of all in work).²²⁰ The evidence suggests that women experience different motivations and barriers to starting and growing a business.

Women are more likely to become self-employed to balance childcare and work at key stages in their lives, and are more likely to run their business from home and on a part-time basis. Women-led businesses are much less likely to use external finance, borrowing less than businesses led by men. This may be because businesses run by women are overrepresented in sectors that do not usually require high levels of borrowing, for example in personal and consumer services, retail, hotels and restaurants, rather than capital-intensive sectors such as construction, logistics and finance.²²¹ But it may also reflect barriers to accessing capital, including discrimination in bank finance and support.²²²

Other barriers to starting a business often experienced by women include a self-perceived lack of technical and market knowledge, thinner private networks, fewer female role models in business and low rates of self-reported entrepreneurial skills.²²³

Disabled working Londoners were more likely to be self-employed than non-disabled Londoners (21 versus 17 per cent). This may partly be driven by the greater opportunities for flexible and home working that self-employment provides: evidence suggests that disabled entrepreneurs are more likely to work from home and less likely to employ others. In addition, some disabled people face challenges in accessing work as an employee, due to employer discrimination and inflexible, inaccessible workplaces.

Research has found that a lack of confidence is a major barrier facing disabled entrepreneurs, particularly those with mental health conditions. Similarly, the educational and occupational profile of disabled people can lead to lower levels of business knowledge and entrepreneurship skills.

Access to finance can be an issue for disabled entrepreneurs, driven by lower incomes and poorer credit ratings. There is also a lack of accessible information from banks, and an absence of appropriate and sensitive business support advisors.²²⁴

11 per cent of SMEs with employees in London are **BAME-led** businesses.²²⁵ Business who have at least 50 per cent minority ethnic owners are more likely to introduce new products and services or work in new ways.²²⁶

Research by the Enterprise Research Centre found that **BAME**-owned enterprises face a number of barriers setting up and growing their business:

²²⁰ Annual Population Survey Jan-Dec 2016

²²¹ RBS Group (2012) [Women in Enterprise: A Different Perspective](#)

²²² Hertz (2011) [Women and banks: Are female customers facing discrimination?](#)

²²³ Centre for Entrepreneurs (2015) [Shattering Stereotypes: Women in Entrepreneurship](#)

²²⁴ OECD (2014) [Entrepreneurship and self-employment by people with disabilities](#)

²²⁵ DBEIS (2018) [Longitudinal small business survey 2017: business with employees](#)

²²⁶ GLA (2014) [London Business Survey 2014](#)

- Access to finance: Black Africans and Bangladeshis tend to have poor credit outcomes, with some groups also less likely to apply for credit, particularly Black Caribbean firms.
- Access to markets: Many BAME business owners are subject to structural disadvantage arising from the market sectors into which they are concentrated. This is a feature that applies to many ethnic minority groups, and is a pattern that is recurring amongst new migrant communities.
- Access to management: Ethnic minorities are increasingly well qualified and are a growing presence in 'non-traditional' sectors such as IT, pharmacy and the media. Nonetheless the mismatch between qualifications and self-employment occupation persists. Further, BAME led businesses face management challenges if they are to diversify into higher value-added sectors.²²⁷

Evidence suggests that people from Black African, Black Caribbean, Bangladeshi and Pakistani groups are more likely to have their loan applications rejected than Indian and white owned businesses. BAME led businesses disproportionately find accessing finance more difficult, due to collateral shortages, poor credit worthiness, a poor financial track record and language barriers.

Furthermore, there is a perception of discrimination and prejudice among some BAME led businesses and would-be entrepreneurs in accessing finance including:

- low confidence stemming from a perception that business support services lack cultural sensitivity and knowledge of sectors and markets in which BAME-led businesses tend to be concentrated
- low take up of professional support services by ethnic minority businesses, as they are perceived as intimidating and not relevant to ethnic minority businesses.²²⁸

²²⁷ Carter et al (2013) [Diversity and SMEs: Existing Evidence and Policy Tensions](#)

²²⁸ MHCLG (2013) [Ethnic minority businesses and access to finance](#)

Chapter 4: Getting around

4.1 Key points

Transport behaviour

- **Older** and **disabled** Londoners are less likely to **walk** than average
- Use of London **buses** is higher among **BME, younger, older** and **low-income** Londoners, as well as **women**
- **Older, younger, disabled** and **low-income** Londoners are less likely to use the **Tube**
- The groups most likely to **drive a car** are **older, white** and **male** Londoners
- **Cycling** is less common among **women, older** and **BAME** Londoners, as well as people from **lower socio-economic groups**

Transport accessibility

- **Disabled** and **older Londoners** face a range of barriers to walking, including physical barriers, pollution, noise and anti-social behaviour
- **Women** and people from **lower socio-economic groups** are less likely to cycle, due to perceptions of safety as well as a lack of confidence and low social identification with cycling
- **Older and disabled Londoners, and parents of young children,** face barriers to accessing public transport in London, including overcrowding, antisocial behaviour, and a lack of universal step-free access
- Accessible, reliable **transport information** is particularly important for **older** and **disabled** Londoners

Transport affordability

- **Younger** and **BAME** Londoners face greater **affordability barriers** to using London's transport network

Transport safety and crime

- **Older Londoners** are under-represented among victims of traffic accidents, but have a higher risk of fatality if struck by a car
- **BAME** Londoners are more likely to feel at risk of road accidents when walking at night
- **Safety and security concerns** can deter Londoners from using public transport, and are more prevalent among **BAME, women, young** and **disabled Londoners**
- **Young women** and **LGB** Londoners are at greater risk of **unwanted sexual behaviour** on London's public transport network

4.2: Transport behaviour

Londoners differ in how often they use transport and the modes of transport they use. The London Travel Demand Survey, carried out annually by Transport for London, tracks how transport usage varies between individuals, based on their demographic characteristics and by income.

Walking: almost all Londoners (95 per cent) walk at least once a week. The two groups with sizable differences from the average are **older Londoners** (65+), 87 per cent of whom walk once a week, and **disabled Londoners**, 81 per cent.

Figure 4.1: Proportion of Londoners walking at least once a week, 2016/17 (per cent)



Source: London Travel Demand Survey

Bus: 59 per cent of Londoners use the bus at least once a week. Bus travel is particularly common among **young** and **older** Londoners, **women**, **BAME** Londoners and people with a household income less than £20,000.

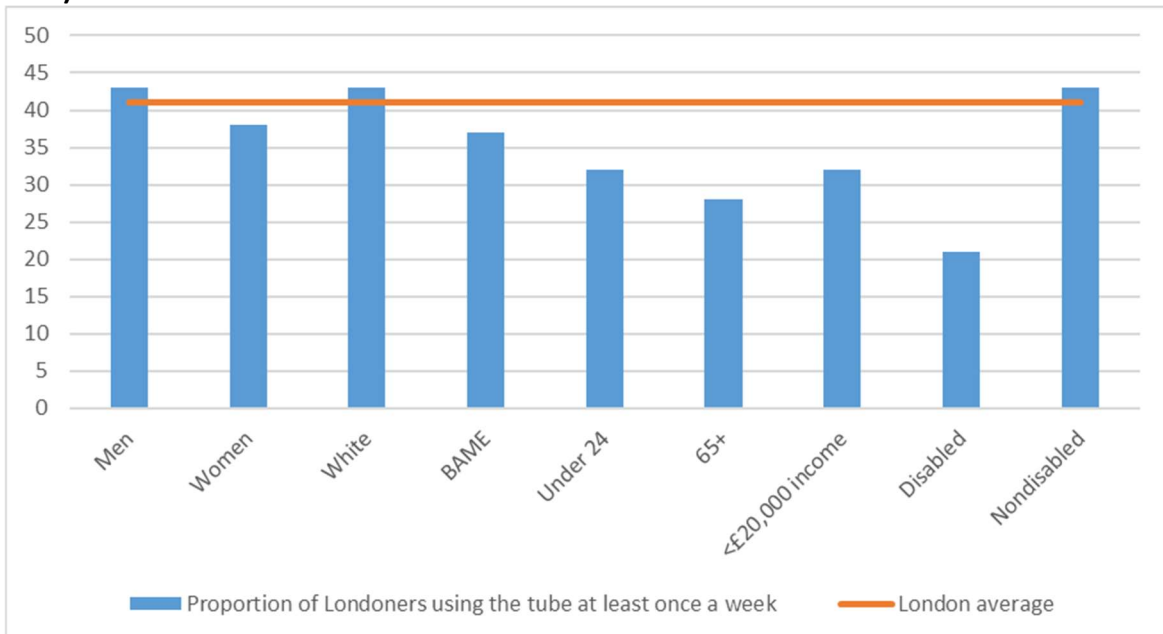
Figure 4.2: Proportion of Londoners using the bus at least once a week, 2016/17 (per cent)



Source: London Travel Demand Survey

Tube: 41 per cent of Londoners use the Tube at least once a week. **Older** and **disabled** Londoners are much less likely to use the Tube than the average, with **BAME**, **women**, **under-24 year-olds**, and **low-income** Londoners also using the Tube less often.

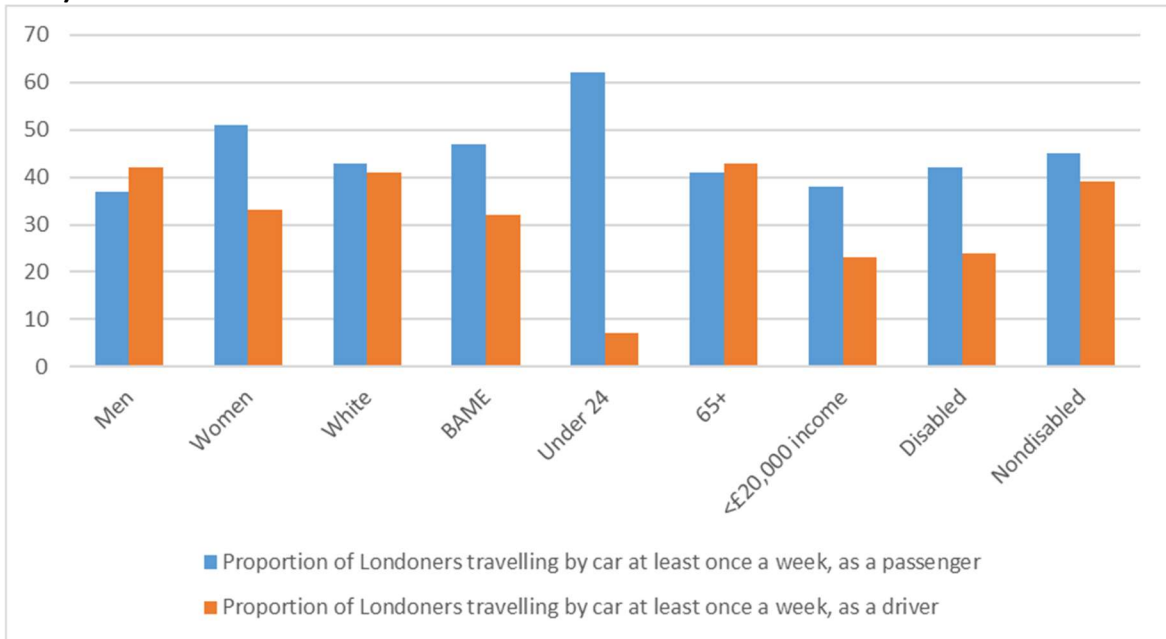
Figure 4.3: Proportion of Londoners using the Tube at least once a week, 2016/17 (per cent)



Source: London Travel Demand Survey

Car: TfL measure car usage as both a passenger, and as a driver. The groups most likely to travel by car as a **passenger** are **under-24 year-olds**, **women**, and **BAME Londoners**, more than half of whom travel as a passenger at least once a week. The groups most likely to **drive a car** are **older**, **white** and **male** Londoners.

Figure 4.4: Proportion of Londoners travelling by car at least once a week, 2016/17 (per cent)



Source: London Travel Demand Survey

Cycling: 18 per cent of Londoners use a bike either regularly or occasionally to get around London. Those under-represented among London cyclists include **older** Londoners and people who are **not working**. There is also under-representation from **lower socio-economic groups, outer Londoners** and **women**. **Men, employed, young** and Londoners from the **highest socio-economic groups** are particularly likely to have cycled in the last year.

Figure 4.5: Londoners who cycled in the last year versus population, 2017 (per cent)²²⁹

	Population	People who cycled in the last year
Sex		
Men	49%	63%
Women	51%	37%
Age		
Under 45	59%	82%
Over 45	41%	18%
Ethnicity		
White	63%	64%
BAME	37%	36%
Employment		
Working	61%	81%
Not Working	39%	19%
Social Grade		
Social grade: AB	50%	63%
Social grade: C1, C2 and D	50%	37%
Geography		
Inner London	40%	53%
Outer London	60%	47%

Source: Transport for London (2016) [Attitudes towards cycling September 2016 report](#)

Other modes of transport: National Rail, Overground, DLR, Tram, motorcycle, black cabs and minicabs are used less frequently by Londoners. Of these, National Rail has the most widespread usage, particularly among white, male and non-disabled Londoners. Disabled Londoners are more likely to use minicabs (but not black cabs) than the London average (8 versus 6 per cent), and BAME Londoners are more likely to use the DLR (6 versus 4 per cent). Older and disabled Londoners are particularly unlikely to use the Overground (4 versus 9 per cent).

The factors driving different patterns of transport usage between groups include cost, accessibility and perceptions of crime and safety on streets and public transport. These are discussed in more detail in the following sections. Also important are differences in participation in activities that often require transport, such as employment and engagement with arts and culture, covered elsewhere in this evidence base. Finally, features of public transport such as journey speeds, overcrowding and reliability, vary in their impact as barriers to travel for different groups.

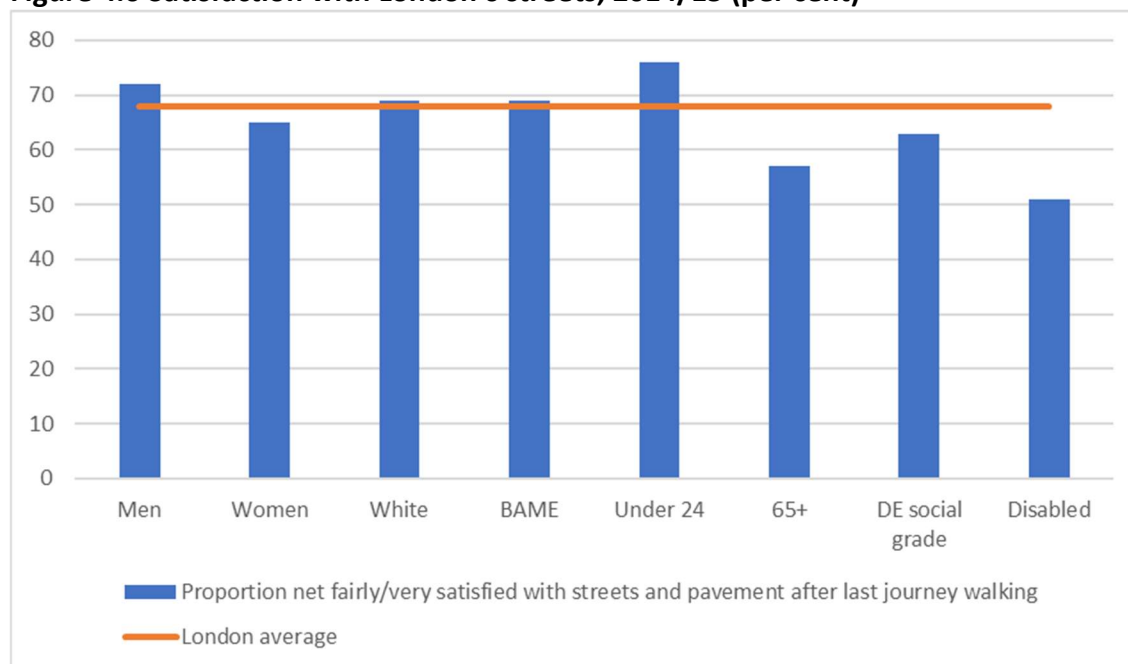
²²⁹ Social grade refers to categories within the NRS social grade classification, from the highest socio-economic grade, AB (those in middle and upper middle class occupations) to the lowest, DE (referring to working-class and not working)

4.3 Transport accessibility

Streets

Disabled and **older** Londoners are less likely to walk than other groups in London's population. They are also less likely to be satisfied with London's streets: 51 per cent of disabled, and 57 per cent of older Londoners were fairly or very satisfied with streets and pavements, versus an average of 68 per cent among all Londoners (see chart below).

Figure 4.6 Satisfaction with London's streets, 2014/15 (per cent)



Source: Transport for London (2015) [Travel in London: Understanding our diverse communities](#)

Research has identified street-level barriers that can act as deterrents to walking for older and disabled people, particularly people with mobility issues. These include:

- Uneven pavements²³⁰
- Other physical features of streets such as clutter, street parking poor street lighting and the height and drop of kerbs.²³¹
- A lack of benches and other forms of seating²³²
- Few public amenities, especially accessible toilets²³³
- The local environment, including pollution and noise levels²³⁴

²³⁰ Van Cauwenberg et al (2016) [Street characteristics preferred for transportation walking among older adults: a choice-based conjoint analysis with manipulated photographs](#)

²³¹ Brookfield et al (2017) [The Uncommon Impact of Common Environmental Details on Walking in Older Adults](#)

²³² Newton et al (2010) [Increasing Independence for Older People through Good Street Design](#)

²³³ Lee (2016) [Overcoming barriers and identifying opportunities for everyday walking for disabled people](#)

²³⁴ TfL (2016) [Older Londoners' perceptions of London streets and the public realm](#)

- Concerns about personal safety.²³⁵ In particular, older women are more likely to feel unsafe walking after dark.²³⁶

In addition, research on attitudes of disabled people to ‘shared space’, an approach to street design that removes kerbs, signs, road markings and controlled crossings, has found that 35 per cent of participants deliberately avoided using such spaces.²³⁷

Londoners from **lower socio-economic groups** are less likely to **cycle**. There is a smaller but sizable gap by gender, with **women** less likely to cycle than men.²³⁸

Evidence on the link between socio-economic status and cycling has found barriers including:

- Concerns about personal safety and traffic among disadvantaged communities
- Little understanding of the benefits of cycling
- The availability of good public transport links in many deprived areas²³⁹
- Lacking confidence around cycling
- Weak social identification with cycling²⁴⁰
- Lower levels of awareness of Cycle Hire schemes among low socio-economic status households²⁴¹.

Among **women**, barriers include:

- In London, a smaller proportion of women know how to ride a bike than men (73 versus 87 per cent), although they are more likely to consider cycle training in the future²⁴²
- Women have greater safety concerns around cycling than men, preferring cycling infrastructure, such as segregation of cyclists from traffic, that are safer but may not be as widely available
- Gender inequality in family and caring responsibilities mean women are more likely to make journeys that are difficult by bike – they are more likely to be escorting children, for example²⁴³

One study has shown that **women** and **people living in deprived areas** are less likely to register to use the existing London cycle hire scheme. However, after controlling for the fact that people in deprived areas were less likely to live close to a docking station, usage among

²³⁵ Dawson et al (2007) [Perceived barriers to walking in the Neighborhood Environment: A Survey of Middle-Aged and Older Adults](#)

²³⁶ ONS (2016) [Feeling unsafe walking home and being home alone after dark by age and sex. The effect of "fear of crime" on quality of life year ending March 2016](#)

²³⁷ Holmes (2015) [Accidents by design: The Holmes report on ‘shared space’ in the United Kingdom](#)

²³⁸ Transport for London (2016) [Attitudes towards cycling September 2016 report](#)

²³⁹ Transport for London (2011) [What are the barriers to cycling amongst ethnic minority groups and people from deprived backgrounds?](#)

²⁴⁰ Transport for London (2011) [Barriers and tipping points to cycling among low income target groups](#)

²⁴¹ Transport for London (2015) [Travel in London: Understanding our diverse communities](#)

²⁴² Transport for London (2016) [Attitudes towards cycling September 2016 report](#)

²⁴³ Prati (2018) [Gender equality and women’s participation in transport cycling](#)

individuals living in these areas was higher. This suggests a currently unmet need for access to bicycles in deprived communities.²⁴⁴

Public transport

An inclusive, convenient and accessible public transport system has many benefits in terms of opening up opportunities to employment, training and education as well as reducing social isolation by connecting people with families and friends.

However, many Londoners experience physical barriers to accessing the public transport network, and this is reflected in the transport usage of different groups. **Disabled** Londoners are less likely to use public transport, but are as likely to be a car passenger as the London average, with disabled people and people aged 65 or over more likely to use a car as a passenger than older, non-disabled Londoners.

There are also differences in public transport modes by gender. **Women** are more likely to travel by bus, whereas **men** are more likely to travel by Tube and on the Overground. **Low-income** Londoners (people with a household income less than £20,000) are more likely to travel by bus and less likely to travel on the Underground.²⁴⁵

There are a range of accessibility barriers that prevent many Londoners accessing London's transport network.

Women are more likely to reference unreliable and overcrowded services and dirty environments getting to and on transport services as barriers to using public transport than men.²⁴⁶

Women are also more likely than men to be travelling with buggies and/or shopping, and often find that travelling with children and buggies can be difficult and stressful at times, especially on the bus. Qualitative research by TfL on the experience of people travelling with buggies on buses found that they often experienced overcrowding, which can make it difficult to manoeuvre a buggy and keep their child/children safe. They also cite negative attitudes of other passengers, difficulties getting on and off the bus and drivers refusing to allow buggies on as barriers.

Additionally, women travelling with buggies highlight practical issues that can be problematic, such as moving the buggy around the pole to reach the wheelchair priority area, and drivers parking too far away from the kerb. Outside of buses, they are also more likely to rely on step-free and lift access when travelling on the Tube²⁴⁷

Overcrowding and anti-social behaviour are the two key factors deterring **older Londoners** from accessing the Tube, bus and Overground. In addition, while significant investment has been made by Transport for London (TfL) to make stations, buses and travel information more accessible, older Londoners still face barriers to accessing transport, including:

²⁴⁴ Ogilvie and Goodman (2012) [Inequalities in usage of a public bicycle sharing scheme](#)

²⁴⁵ Transport for London (2015) [Travel in London: Understanding our diverse communities](#)

²⁴⁶ IBID

²⁴⁷ Transport for London (2012) [Reducing conflict in the wheelchair space: research debrief](#)

- Concerns about reduced staffing at stations, making some more anxious about using the Tube, given they rely on staff for assistance and information
- Other issues around not enough bus shelters and a lack of universal step free access at all Overground stations
- Concerns around bus drivers not allowing sufficient time to take their seat on the bus or stopping suddenly, which can cause anxiety and potentially act as a deterrent to using the bus more often
- Lack of understanding by other passengers about the function of Priority Seating.²⁴⁸

Disabled Londoners are less likely to use public transport than non-disabled Londoners. This is partly due to costs but also because of physical, communication and attitudinal barriers that often make travelling more difficult: Sixty-two per cent of disabled Londoners find it difficult to use the Tube and 58 per cent find it hard to use the bus. A majority of 61 per cent say they would travel more if barriers to travel were removed.

TfL evidence suggests that people with mental health conditions, mobility impairments and long-term illnesses are the most likely to face barriers to more frequent travel (76, 73 and 73 per cent respectively against 61 per cent among all disabled Londoners). Only 5 per cent of wheelchair users, for example, use the Tube without difficulties.

Many disabled Londoners find travelling by public transport stressful (45 per cent) and are more likely to experience worry or anxiety when problems arise. The most often-cited non-cost barriers to greater travel is accessibility (44 per cent), and comfort – incorporating issues such as overcrowding, unsuitable or unavailable seating (20 per cent), followed by availability and reliability (16 per cent) and attitudes or behaviour of other customers (7 per cent).

For working disabled Londoners, 46 per cent agree that the transport network affects their ability to get to work. A sizable minority say this could be improved if they were able to get a seat (43 per cent), if the system was less crowded (38 per cent) and if it were more affordable (29 per cent). A UK-wide survey of working-age disabled adults found that 7 per cent have had to turn down a job, and 5 per cent have missed job interviews, as a result of issues with public transport.²⁴⁹

Disabled Londoners are less likely to make use of the TfL website to plan journeys (54 per cent versus 81 per cent of non-disabled Londoners). This reflects their age profile, with only 76 per cent of disabled Londoners, and 64 per cent of people aged 65 or over, having internet access. As a result, disabled and older passengers have a greater reliance on paper-based sources than non-disabled customers, although there are gaps in knowledge about the information available: only 55 per cent of surveyed disabled Londoners are aware of the step-free Tube guide, for example, and only 33 per cent have used it.²⁵⁰

²⁴⁸ King's College London (2016) [An Age Friendly City: How far has London come?](#)

²⁴⁹ Leonard Cheshire Disability (2018) [UK disabled adults survey, transport section](#)

²⁵⁰ IBID

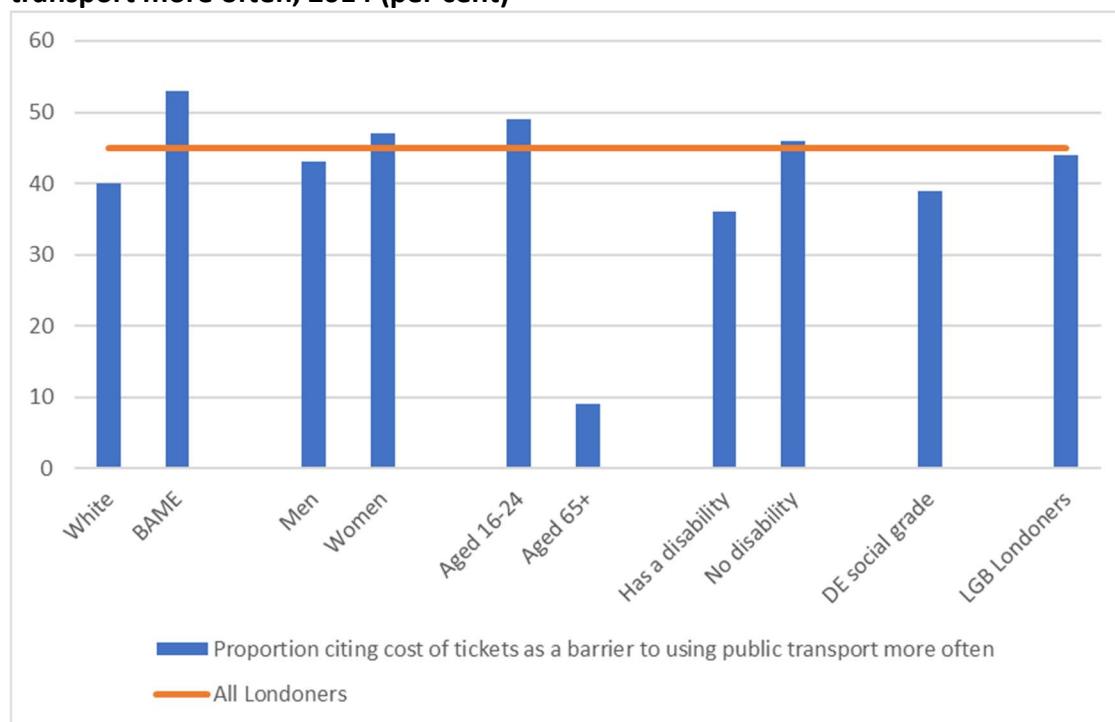
4.4 Transport affordability

The cost of public transport in London is an issue for many low-income Londoners. Transport for London evidence suggests that those households whose income is below £20,000 face cost barriers to accessing public transport. This predominantly impacts on **BAME Londoners**, **young people** and **women**, groups who are more likely to have a low household income.²⁵¹

There is a higher proportion of **BAME Londoners** with an annual household income of below £20,000 (43 per cent) than white Londoners (32 per cent). UK-wide data would suggest that Pakistani, other ethnic group and Black/ African/ Caribbean/ Black British Londoners are over-represented in this group.²⁵²

In particular, **young** and **BAME Londoners** are more likely to find cost of transport an issue. The cost of tickets is more often mentioned as a barrier to public transport use by BAME Londoners (53 per cent) and younger Londoners (49 per cent), against a London-wide average of 45 per cent (see chart below).

Figure 4.7: Proportion of Londoners citing cost of tickets as a barrier to using public transport more often, 2014 (per cent)



Source: Transport for London (2015) [Travel in London: Understanding our diverse communities](#)

The use of buses is especially high among Black Londoners. Research suggests this is because buses are seen to be cheaper than other transport options and to have a more comprehensive route network.²⁵³

²⁵¹ Transport for London (2015) [Travel in London: Understanding our diverse communities](#)

²⁵² London Travel Demand Survey, TfL

²⁵³ Transport for London (2015) [Travel in London: Understanding our diverse communities](#)

Younger Londoners are slightly more likely to have a lower household income than all Londoners. Among Londoners aged under 25, 41 per cent have household income less than £20,000, compared to 36 per cent of all Londoners. The bus is the second most common mode of transport used at least once a week by younger Londoners, possibly due to it being cheaper than the Tube.²⁵⁴

Older Londoners greatly value the Freedom Pass, saying that without it their quality of life would be seriously impaired, increasing the risk of being housebound and isolated. TfL's Dial-a-Ride service has been found to have improved over recent years, but some older people experience long waits to book through call centres and difficulty in getting regular bookings; they regret that Dial-a-Ride cannot be booked to visit hospitals or GPs due to NHS rules, although disabled individuals may contact the hospital for travel assistance. Tight restrictions on Taxicard travel were also frustrating.²⁵⁵

²⁵⁴ IBID

²⁵⁵ King's College London (2016) [An Age Friendly City: How far has London come?](#)

4.5 Transport safety and crime

In 2016 there were 25,126 **collisions on London’s roads**, resulting in 30,270 casualties²⁵⁶. Of these, 2,385 were seriously injured and 27,769 were slightly injured. 116 people were fatally injured, a record low for fatalities on London’s streets.

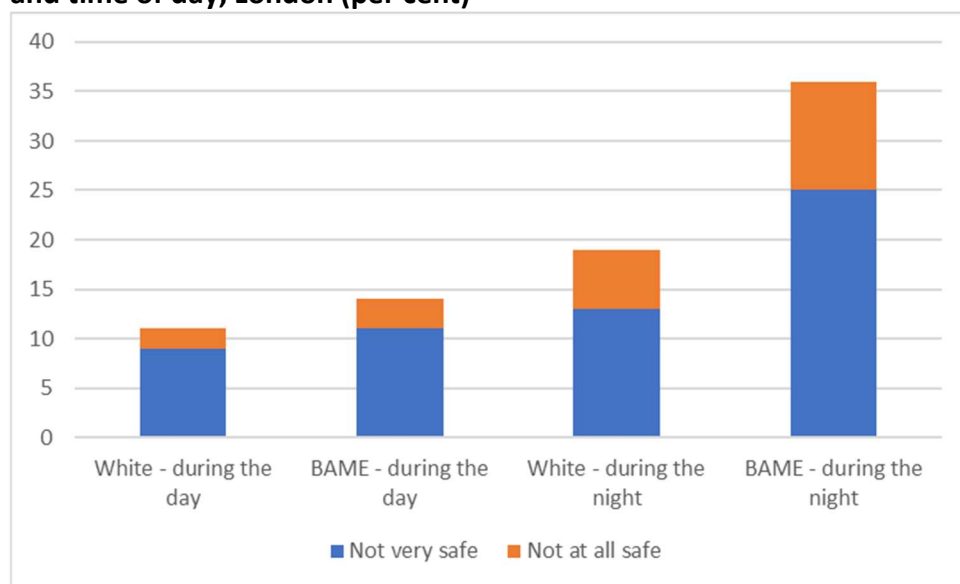
65 per cent of all casualties were men and 35 per cent women. **Men** account for a particularly disproportionate number of casualties involving a pedal cycle (78 per cent) or a powered two-wheeler vehicle (94 per cent).

Both children (aged 0-15) and older Londoners (60+) are under-represented among casualties, accounting for 7 and 9 per cent respectively. The most common mode of travel for these accidents are pedestrian among children, and car among older adults. The majority (84 per cent) of casualties are aged between 16 and 59, with travel in a car the most common for this age group.

However, pedestrians accounted for more than half of fatalities (61), and over a third of serious injuries (814). **Older Londoners** have a higher risk of fatality if struck by a car, 47 per cent versus 7 per cent among younger people.²⁵⁷

In addition, a higher proportion of people from **BAME** groups **feel at risk of road accidents** when walking at night compared to people from white groups. 19 per cent of people who are white feel not very or not at all safe compared to 36 per cent of BAME Londoners (see chart below).²⁵⁸

Figure 4.8 Proportion feeling ‘not very safe’ or ‘not at all safe’ when walking, by ethnicity and time of day, London (per cent)



Source: Transport for London (2015) [Travel in London: Understanding our diverse communities](#)

²⁵⁶ A casualty is a person killed or injured in an accident

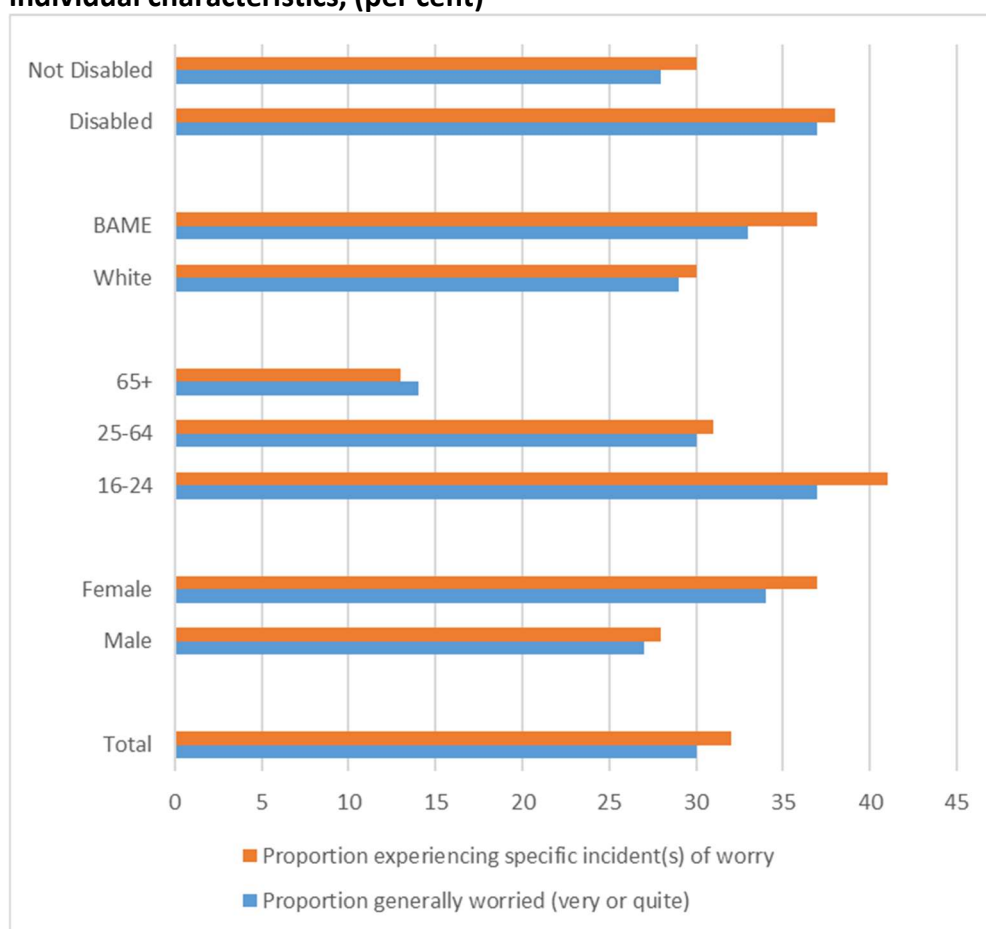
²⁵⁷ Transport for London (2017) [Casualties in Greater London during 2016](#)

²⁵⁸ Transport for London (2015) [Travel in London: Understanding our diverse communities](#)

In 2016/17 there were 29,764 **crimes** across the Transport for London network, a rate of 7.5 per million transport journeys. This represents a slight increase on the previous year’s rate of 7.4. The transport crime rate varies across the TfL network, with lower rates seen on the London Overground (6.1) than on the bus and Underground networks (7.5 and 7.6 respectively), and the highest rate observed on the London Tramlink service (8.1).²⁵⁹

Safety and security concerns can deter Londoners from using public transport, and are more prevalent among **BAME** groups, **women**, **young** and **disabled Londoners**. In 2017, 30 per cent of Londoners were very or quite worried about their personal security when using London’s public transport, and 32 per cent recalled an instance in the last three months that made them feel worries about their personal security.²⁶⁰

Figure 4.9: General worry and incidence of worrying event(s) on London transport, by individual characteristics, (per cent)



Source: Transport for London (2017) [Safety and security annual report 2016](#)

TfL research published in 2015 assessed barriers to public transport use across 6 categories relating to antisocial behaviour, crime and safety. This research found;

- **BAME** transport users face a higher number of deterrents, with a greater proportion citing all 6 categories as a barrier. The biggest gap between BAME and white Londoners is seen in ‘fear of crime getting to/waiting for the bus/train’ (13

²⁵⁹ Transport for London (2017) [2016/2017 Crime statistics bulletin](#)

²⁶⁰ Transport for London (2017) [Safety and security annual report 2016](#)

percentage points difference) and ‘fear of crime on the bus/train’ (12 percentage point difference)

- ‘Concern about anti-social behaviour’ is the second highest deterrent to using public transport for **disabled people**, with 38 per cent citing it as a barrier
- **Women** are more likely than men to cite all 6 barriers, and are twice as likely to cite ‘fear of terrorist attacks’ (16 per cent) and ‘risk of accidents’ (12 per cent)
- **Young people** (aged 16-24) are less likely to cite ‘concern about anti-social behaviour’, but more likely to face crime and safety-related barriers when travelling to, from and on public transport²⁶¹

In a 2016 survey, 7 per cent of people reported experiencing **unwanted sexual behaviour** when using the transport network in the last 12 months. Groups at higher risk include **young women** aged 16-34 years (18 per cent) and **LGB** Londoners (18 per cent). The most common unwanted sexual behaviour experienced was groping and touching (in 31 per cent of incidents), staring (20 per cent), sexual comments (17 per cent) and body rubbing (10 per cent). The same survey found that only 11 per cent of incidents of unwanted sexual behaviour were reported.²⁶²

Nationally, fear of crime is more common among **women** than men. **Older women** are most likely to feel unsafe walking alone after dark but among the least likely to be attacked. However, women were much more likely to report feeling unsafe than men, with 26 per cent saying they felt somewhat unsafe and almost 13 per cent of women reported feeling very unsafe. This rises to 26 per cent of women in the oldest age category (75+) reporting feeling very unsafe.²⁶³

This can have a negative effect on women’s use of public transport. In London, **women** are less likely to use (unbooked) minicabs, with 13 per cent claiming they are likely to do so in future compared to 26 per cent of men.²⁶⁴

²⁶¹ Transport for London (2015) [Travel in London: Understanding our diverse communities](#)

²⁶² Transport for London (2017) [Safety and security annual report 2016](#)

²⁶³ Office for National Statistics (2016) [User requested data: Feeling unsafe walking home and being home alone after dark by age and sex](#)

²⁶⁴ Transport for London (2015) [Travel in London: Understanding our diverse communities](#)

Chapter 5: A safe, healthy and enjoyable city

5.1 Key points

Crime

- **25-44-year-olds** are over-represented among the **victims of crime** and among **offenders** in London
- **Men** are more likely to be **offenders** than women
- **Women** are more likely to be victims of **domestic violence** and **sexual offences** than men
- **BAME** Londoners and **men** are more likely to be a victim of knife crime
- **Hate crime** has risen in London over recent years. The Home Office have linked this rise to spikes in hate crime following the EU referendum and recent terrorist incidents
- **LGBT, black and mixed ethnicity Londoners** have a less positive attitude towards the police. **Younger Londoners** feel less well informed about local police activities than other groups
- **Confidence in the criminal justice system** is lower among people of a **mixed or white ethnicity**, although **BAME** groups face challenges around their treatment and outcomes within the criminal justice system
- **Disabled Londoners, Asian, black or mixed ethnicity Londoners** and people **aged 25-34** have the lowest rates of overall **victim satisfaction**

Health

- **Women** in London have a longer **life expectancy** than **men**, but can expect to live a greater proportion of their life in **ill-health**
- **Life expectancy** and **mortality** follow a steep socio-economic gradient, with people in **more disadvantaged areas** facing worse health outcomes
- **Inequalities in health behaviour**, such as smoking, alcohol consumption and drug misuse, also follow a similar **socio-economic** gradient. People of a **white or mixed ethnicity, disabled** people and people who are **LGBT+**, are also more likely to smoke and to drink heavily
- **Obesity** is more prevalent among **women** in London, especially among people of **Pakistani and Black African/Caribbean** ethnicities
- **Communicable diseases** are more prevalent in London, with **men who have sex with men**, as well as people of **Indian, Pakistani or Black African** ethnicities more at risk
- Groups at greater risk of **poor mental health** include **young women, people aged 35-44, disabled adults, unemployed men** and **people who are obese**
- **Black Caribbean** and **Black African** adults are more likely to use **mental health services** and be detained by **psychiatric hospitals**
- **Men** are more vulnerable to death from suicides at three times the rate of women

Social integration

- The majority of Londoners have **diverse social circles**
- **Young and older Londoners, women** and **disabled people** have less than average diversity in their social circles by either **age, race, education and income**

- **Indian, Pakistani and Bangladeshi Londoners** are more likely to have friends of a similar age, whereas **white British Londoners** are more likely to have friends from the same race and level of education
- **Social isolation** is more prevalent among **men**, people in **less skilled occupations** and **disabled people**. **BAME Londoners** and people aged **20-24** are also at higher risk of isolation
- **Participation in volunteering** is lower among people in **lower-skilled routine and manual occupations**, people aged **25-34**, **social renters** and people of an **Asian ethnicity**
- **Membership of associations** is lower among **younger, lower-skilled** and **Indian, Pakistani/Bangladeshi or mixed ethnicity Londoners**
- **Disabled Londoners** are less likely to feel a sense of **neighbourhood belonging** and less likely to agree that **London is a good place to live**

Culture and sport

- **Inequalities in cultural participation** in London include greater participation among **more affluent Londoners**, people who are **white, non-disabled, younger, more educated** and **women**
- An exception to these patterns is in public library usage, which is more common among **BAME Londoners**
- **Participation in sport** is lower among **women, older Londoners, disabled Londoners, people of a lower socio-economic status** and **BAME Londoners**

5.2 Crime

In London, there are long-standing inequalities in the risk of being a victim of crime. In some cases, these are the function of the type of crime being perpetrated, such as hate crime directed at specific groups, and sexual and domestic offences, where most victims are female. Other risks are indirectly related to wider inequalities: some population groups are more likely to live in disadvantaged areas, which are in turn characterised by higher rates of crime.

How crime is recorded in London

Data on crime in London counts ‘total notifiable offences’ (TNO), criminal offences in categories set by the Home Office – generally all crimes that could be tried by a jury and several additional crimes dealt with by magistrates.

These crimes are each marked with a detailed offence categorisation under broader categories including serious youth violence and sexual offences.

In addition, the Mayor’s Office for Policing and Crime (MOPAC) aggregates many offences into larger categories to monitor crimes according to key Mayoral priorities. These categories can overlap. For example, domestic offences may also be a sexual offence.

The categories and crime recording process are subject to frequent revision, rendering comparisons over time in crime statistics difficult.

The likelihood of a London resident (excluding the City of London) being a victim of any **victim-based crime** was 77 in 1,000 in 2015/16. Overall levels of notifiable offences are increasing in London, rising by over 10 per cent in the four years to 2016/17.²⁶⁵

Among those victims where demographic data is available, 58 per cent of victims were male, 39 per cent female, 46 per cent white, 13 per cent Black and 12 per cent Asian. 28 per cent were aged between 25-34 with 21 per cent aged 35-44 and 20 per cent aged 45-59.

The number of **high-harm crime** victims²⁶⁶ that are either BAME or white is proportionate to the current London ethnic projections. Almost half of high harm crime victims were between 25 and 44 years of age, with men slightly more likely to be a victim of high-harm crime, particularly robbery, than women (see table below).

²⁶⁵ It should be noted that not all crime is reported to the police. Also, for certain offences, some groups may be more forthcoming with their reporting.

²⁶⁶ Defined as Burglary, Robbery, Violence Against the Person and Sexual Offences

Figure 5.1: Demographics of high-harm crime victims in London 2015-16 (per cent of total)

	All high-harm crime	Robbery	Burglary	Violence against the person
Ethnicity				
Asian	18%	22%	17%	18%
Black	20%	16%	11%	24%
Other Asian	2%	3%	3%	1%
Middle Eastern	2%	3%	2%	2%
White	58%	56%	68%	55%
Gender				
Female	49%	30%	47%	51%
Male	58%	75%	57%	56%
Age				
0-17	11%	20%	1%	14%
18-24	14%	21%	9%	16%
25-34	26%	25%	24%	27%
35-44	20%	15%	21%	20%
45-59	18%	13%	23%	17%
60+	8%	6%	16%	4%

Source: MOPAC analysis

83 per cent of all TNO offenders were male during the twelve months to April 2016, with 17 per cent recorded as female. 61 per cent of all TNO offenders were white with 26 per cent Black and 10 per cent Asian. 32 per cent of all TNO offenders were aged between 25-34 with 21 per cent aged 18-24 and 21 per cent aged 35-44.

The number of those accused of high harm offences that are BAME is proportionate to the current London ethnic projections. Similar to the pattern observed among victims, 25-44 year-olds and men are over-represented among offenders (see table below).

Figure 5.2: Demographics of high-harm crime offenders in London 2015-16

	All high-harm crime	Robbery	Burglary	Violence against the person
Ethnicity				
Asian	9%	10%	4%	12%
Black	34%	52%	31%	28%
Other Asian	0%	0%	0%	1%
Middle Eastern	1%	2%	1%	0%
White	57%	36%	64%	59%
Gender				
Female	11%	6%	6%	18%
Male	90%	94%	95%	85%
Age				
0-17	12%	31%	9%	7%
18-24	23%	31%	23%	20%
25-34	31%	24%	33%	32%
35-44	18%	9%	18%	24%
45-59	14%	6%	16%	17%
60+	1%	0%	0%	2%

Source: MOPAC analysis

Within the overall increase in notifiable offences, several sub-categories of crime relevant to equalities have grown at a faster rate.

In 2016/17 there were 42,055 victims of **violence against women**. In that same year, there were 74,694 domestic offences and 17,748 sexual offences. Women are over-represented among victims of these types of crime: 76 per cent of victims of domestic violence, and 90 per cent of victims of sexual offences, were women.²⁶⁷ Some groups, such as migrant women, are particularly vulnerable and are less likely to access support services.²⁶⁸ Other groups at greater risk include young, disabled and low income women, as well as those of a mixed ethnic background.²⁶⁹ There are also issues with women experiencing sexual harassment in the workplace, from both colleagues as well as customers and clients.²⁷⁰ One

²⁶⁷ GLA (2017) [A Safer City for All Londoners: Police and Crime Plan 2017-2021](#)

²⁶⁸ End Violence Against Women (2018) [Women Living in a Hostile Environment](#)

²⁶⁹ Office for National Statistics (2018) [Women most at risk of experiencing partner abuse in England and Wales: years ending March 2015 to 2017](#)

²⁷⁰ EHRC (2018) [Turning the tables: ending sexual harassment at work](#)

survey found that 40 per cent of women and 18 per cent of men had experienced unwanted sexual behaviour in the workplace.²⁷¹

LGBT victims of hate crime are more likely to have self-harmed or attempted suicide, and are less likely to have accessed support services.²⁷²

In 2016/17 there were 7,252 victims of **serious youth violence**, an increase of 1,000 from the previous year and up by 23 per cent since 2013/14. Around half of serious youth violence incidents involved knives. Analysis of Metropolitan Police Data for 2016/17 suggests that knife crime primarily affects **men**, and that half of all victims, and 62 per cent of offenders, were from **BAME** backgrounds.²⁷³

One area of concern from an equalities perspective is hate crime. Victims of hate crime are more likely than victims of crime overall to say they were emotionally affected by the incident.²⁷⁴ The volume of hate crime incidents has grown in recent years. In 2018 there were 15,523 **race hate crime** incidents, 2,204 **religious hate crime** incidents, 2,306 **sexual orientation hate crime** incidents and 1,291 **Islamophobic hate crime** incidents.

In percentage terms, the biggest growth in hate crime incidents has been seen among **disabled people**, rising by 62 per cent between 2015 and 2018.

Trends in hate crime recording can be influenced by improved police recording practices, and by increased police officer training and awareness. In addition, increases in recorded hate crime can result from an increased willingness of victims to come forward and report incidents. For example, the Home Office have noted that better recording and an increasing number of victims coming forward may have contributed to these increases. Nonetheless, there remains a gap in reporting: one study found that only 27 per cent of LGBT victims of hate crime reported the incident to the police.²⁷⁵ A recent report found some issues with data management of hate crimes, and inconsistent support when reporting hate crime incidents.²⁷⁶ There may also be different perceptions of what constitutes a hate crime: a study of misogynist hate crime found that 52 per cent of a sample of both men and women regard behaviours identified as misogynist hate crime as actual crimes. 43 per cent regard them as anti-social behaviours, and 5 per cent as non-criminal.²⁷⁷

There is a trend towards hate crime occurring online. One study by an anti-Islamophobia advice organisation found that a third of the incidents they dealt with occurred online.²⁷⁸ Ofcom have found that half of internet users say they have seen hateful content online.²⁷⁹

²⁷¹ House of Commons Women and Equalities Committee (2018) [Sexual harassment in the workplace](#)

²⁷² Safe Lives (2018) [Free to be Safe: LGBT+ people experiencing domestic abuse](#)

²⁷³ GLA (2017) [The London Knife Crime Strategy](#)

²⁷⁴ Schweppe et al (2018) [Lifecycle of a hate crime](#)

²⁷⁵ Godzisz and Viggiani (2018) [Running through Hurdles: Obstacles in the Access to Justice for Victims of Anti-LGBTI Hate Crimes](#)

²⁷⁶ Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary and Fire & Rescue Services (2018) [Understanding the difference: The initial police response to hate crime](#)

²⁷⁷ Mullany and Trickett (2018) [Misogyny Hate Crime Evaluation Report](#)

²⁷⁸ Tell MAMA (2018) [Beyond the Incident: Outcomes for Victims of Anti-Muslim Prejudice](#)

²⁷⁹ Ofcom (2018) [Adults' Media Use and Attitudes Report](#)

The Home Office has also concluded that increases in hate crime more generally can be linked to spikes in hate crime following the EU referendum and recent terrorist attacks.²⁸⁰

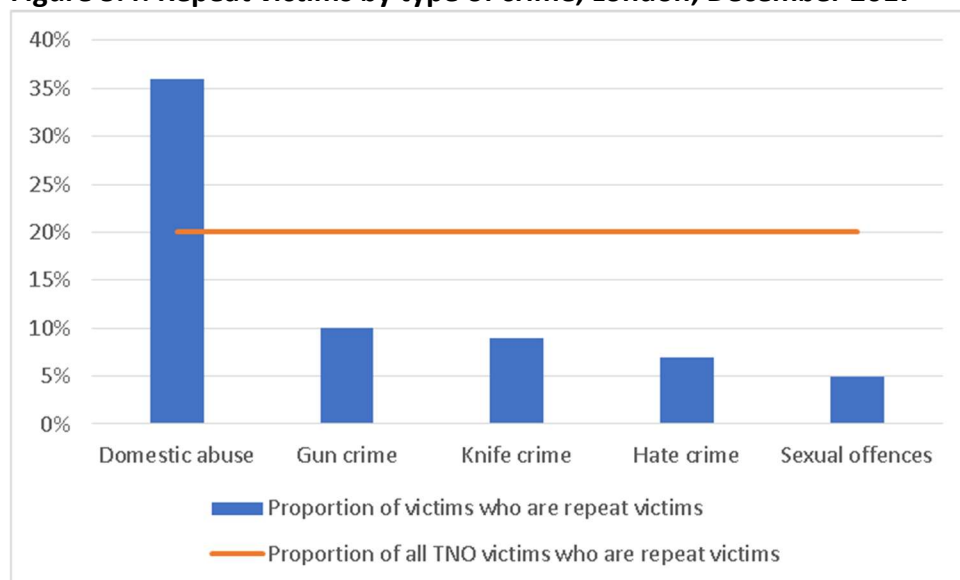
Figure 5.3: Number of recorded hate crimes in London, 2015-2018

	2015	2016	2017	2018	Percentage change 2015 - 2018
Race	13,390	15,823	15,705	15,532	16%
Religion	1,371	1,763	2,116	2,204	61%
Sexual orientation	1,780	2,008	2,097	2,306	30%
Disability	255	757	421	414	62%
Transgender	151	188	187	213	41%
Anti-Semitic	460	512	511	562	22%
Islamophobic	1,045	1,219	1,653	1,291	24%

Source: [MOPAC Hate Crime Dashboard](#)

One in five victims of crime in London were also the victim of at least one other offence during the past year. This is most common among victims of domestic abuse, more than a third of whom are repeat victims. Additionally, 7 per cent of hate crime and 9 per cent of knife crime victims are repeat victims (see chart below).

Figure 5.4: Repeat victims by type of crime, London, December 2017



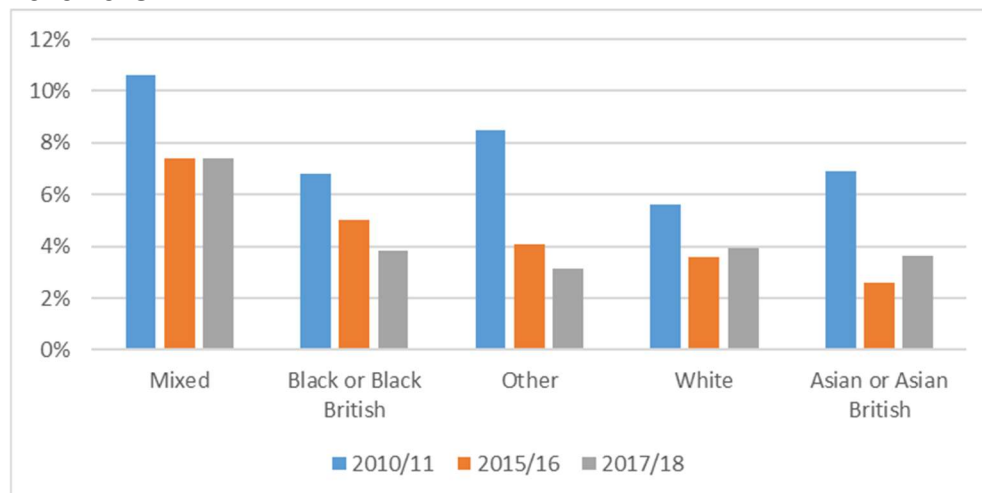
Source: [MOPAC Performance Framework](#)

Since 2010, the proportion of adults in London reporting they have been a victim of crime in the last twelve months has fallen from 5.8 to 3.7 per cent. Data at an England and Wales level shows significant inequalities in the risk of being a victim of crime by ethnicity.

²⁸⁰ Home Office (2017) [Hate Crime, England and Wales, 2016/17](#)

People of a **mixed ethnic background** are the most likely to have been a victim of crime (7.4 per cent). People of an other ethnic background were the least likely, with 3.2 per cent being the victim of a crime.

Figure 5.5: Proportion of adults who were a victim of a personal crime, England and Wales, 2010-2018



Source: ONS (2019) [Crime in England and Wales: year ending September 2018](#)

Factors other than ethnicity that affect the risk of being a victim of crime have been explored in the literature, which finds (for England and Wales)²⁸¹:

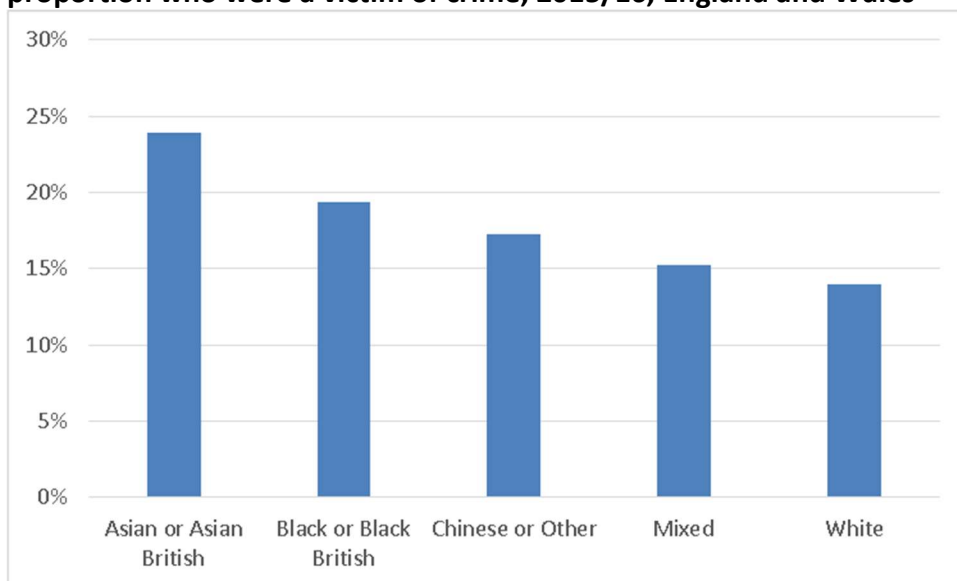
- Individual characteristics, such as being a lone parent or a single household, are associated with a higher risk of being a victim
- Having been a victim of crime before is a strong predictor of being a victim again
- The characteristics of the areas in which people live, such as high rates of poverty and dense populations, are associated with a greater risk of being a victim of personal crime

Survey data shows **differences in perceptions of crime victimisation and actual rates of victimisation** between groups. Overall, a gap of almost 15 percentage points exists between the perceived likelihood of being a victim of a crime and reporting being a victim of crime.

The greatest gap between perceptions and actual rates of victimisation is among **Asian/Asian British** and **Black/Black British adults**, with the lowest among people who are white. Mixed ethnic group had a relatively low perception of being a victim of a future crime despite having a higher than average percentage of victims.

²⁸¹ Tseloni and Pease (2014) [Area and individual differences in personal crime victimisation incidence: The role of individual, lifestyle/routine activities and contextual predictors](#)

Figure 5.6: Percentage point gap between perception of susceptibility to crime and proportion who were a victim of crime, 2015/16, England and Wales



Source: ONS (2017) [Crime in England and Wales: year ending June 2017](#)

Attitudes towards policing

The Mayor's Office for Policy and Crime (MOPAC) collect regular survey data on the public's attitudes towards policing in their local area. This evidence shows that disparities exist between certain groups in their attitude towards the police (see table below).

The first table shows the gap with the London average across different demographic groups when asked whether they agree that the police: Can be relied upon to be there, treat everyone fairly, deal with important local issues and listen to concerns.

White Other and Other ethnicity groups are the most positive in agreement across the four measures. **Black and mixed ethnic groups** had a less positive attitude towards police. The more noticeable difference is in fair treatment, dealing with issues and listening to concerns, with the largest gap of 14 per cent points found in fair treatment for mixed ethnic groups.

LGBT Londoners have a less favourable attitude towards police than non-LGB groups. The largest gap is 11 percentage points lower when asked if they agree that police are listening to the concerns of local people. **Disabled people** are 5 percentage points less likely to agree that the police can be relied upon to be there than non-disabled people.

Figure 5.7: Confidence in MET policing by characteristics, 2018 (percentage point difference with London average)

	Proportion agreeing that the police...			
	can be relied upon to be there when needed	treat everyone fairly regardless of who they are	are dealing with the things that matter to this community	listen to the concerns of local people
London average	73	76	65	69
Ethnicity				
Asian	2%	5%	5%	3%
Black	-3%	-13%	-5%	-4%
Mixed ethnicity	-5%	-14%	-11%	-12%
White British	-3%	-1%	-2%	-1%
White Other	5%	8%	6%	5%
Other	8%	6%	9%	5%
Sexual identity				
Not LGB	0%	1%	1%	1%
LGB	-3%	-7%	-4%	-11%
Age				
24 and under	3%	-3%	1%	-4%
25-34 years	4%	0%	1%	-1%
35-64 years	-3%	0%	-2%	0%
65 and over	-2%	4%	4%	6%
Disability				
Disability	-5%	-2%	0%	0%
No disability	0%	0%	0%	0%
Gender				
Female	0%	-2%	0%	0%
Male	0%	2%	1%	0%

Source: [MOPAC Public Voice Dashboard](#)

The second table below shows results for three questions, covering agreement with the statements: whether respondents feel informed about local police activities, know how to contact their local ward officer, and whether they think the police do a good job locally.

The largest gap by ethnicity in police attitudes is seen in whether police do a good job in the local area. White Other and Other ethnicity groups are the most positive towards this statement while **Black and mixed ethnic groups** are the least positive.

This measure also sees a gap between other groups. **LGB groups, women and those aged less than 35** are less likely to say they feel well informed about police activities than people who are not LGB or in a different age group. **Disabled people** are 4 percentage points less likely to say that the police do a good job in the local area than the London average, although they are more likely to say they know how to contact their local ward officer.

Figure 5.8: Confidence in MPS policing by characteristics, 2018 (percentage point difference with London average)

	Proportion agreeing that the police...		
	Feels well informed about local police activities over the last 12 months	Knows how to contact their local ward officer	Police do a good job in the local area
London average	38	13	62
Ethnicity			
Asian	-1%	-3%	0%
Black	-5%	-1%	-5%
Mixed ethnicity	-7%	-1%	-9%
White British	3%	3%	1%
White Other	-3%	-3%	5%
Other	2%	-5%	3%
Sexual identity			
Not LGB	0%	0%	1%
LGB	-2%	1%	2%
Age			
24 and under	-6%	-6%	5%
25-34 years	-6%	-4%	4%
35-64 years	2%	1%	-3%
65 and over	4%	5%	1%
Disability			
Disability	0%	3%	-4%
No disability	0%	-1%	1%
Gender			
Female	-2%	0%	0%
Male	1%	0%	1%

Source: [MOPAC Public Voice Dashboard](#)

These disparities are likely caused by several factors. Research points to perceptions of crime and anti-social behaviour in an area and satisfaction with previous police contact as having an impact on confidence in the police. Ethnicity is not associated with confidence when controlling for other factors, implying that lower satisfaction among **BAME** groups may be due to their higher likelihood of living in deprived areas.²⁸² In general, experience of **disadvantage** is correlated with lower levels of satisfaction with the police.²⁸³

There are also long-standing differences in perceptions of the broader criminal justice system by ethnicity. Although across all ethnicities, the proportion stating that the CJS is 'effective' and 'fair' has risen in recent years, gaps remain (see chart below).

²⁸² Myhill and Beak (2008) [Public Confidence in the Police](#)

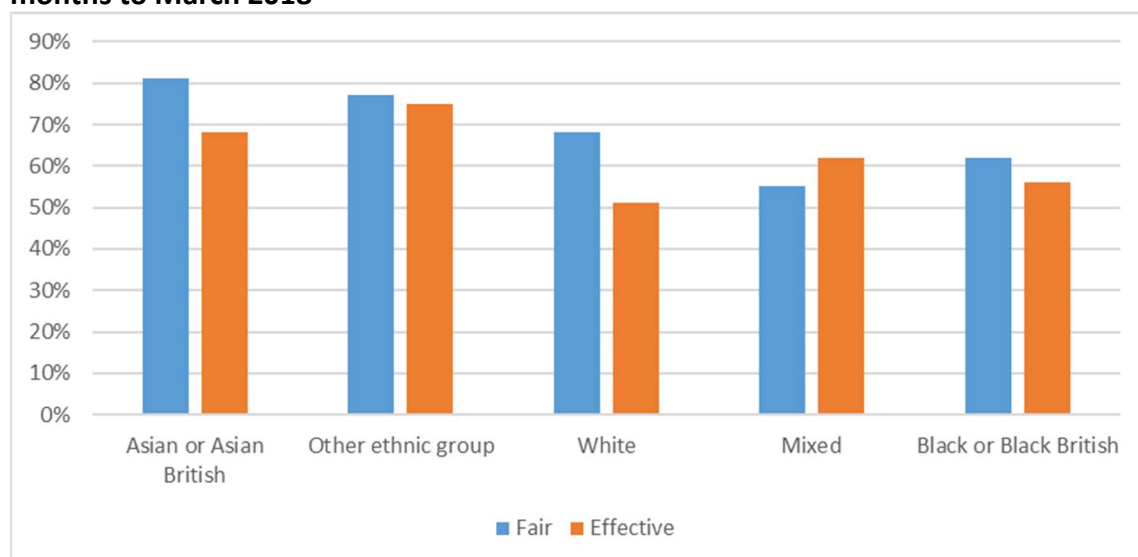
²⁸³ Ipsos MORI (2016) [Public views of policing in England and Wales](#)

In the year to March 2018, 53 per cent of adults in England and Wales believed the Criminal Justice System is fair and 69 per cent believed the Criminal Justice System is effective. Confidence in the Criminal Justice System has increased since 2010/11, by 10 per cent points in effectiveness and 8 per cent points in fairness.

Perception of the Criminal Justice System varies between ethnic groups. Those with an ‘Other’ or an Asian or Asian British ethnic background are more positive towards the Criminal Justice System, with a high proportion of people believing it is effective and fair than the overall average. This has been a consistent trend for at least the past 7 years.

Those of a **white** ethnic background are less positive in their views of the effectiveness and fairness of the Criminal Justice System at 2 and 1 percentage points lower than the England and Wales average respectively. Those of a **Black or Black British** ethnic background have a different pattern with a higher likelihood of believing that the Criminal Justice System is effective (3 percentage points above the average) but with fewer believing that the system is fair (7 percentage points below the average).

Figure 5.9: Confidence in the Criminal Justice System (CJS) in England and Wales, 12 months to March 2018



Source: ONS (2018) [Data on confidence in the criminal justice system, years ending March 2008 to March 2018, Crime Survey for England and Wales](#)

The Lammy Review (2017) into the treatment of, and outcomes for **BAME** individuals in the criminal justice system found bias, including overt discrimination, in parts of the justice system. People from BAME backgrounds make up 25 per cent of the prison population and 41 per cent of the youth justice system, despite these groups being 14 per cent of the general population. The review, which covers England and Wales, pointed to a range of evidence of divergent processes and outcomes by ethnicity in the criminal justice system, including:

- The proportion of BAME young offenders rose from 25 per cent to 41 per cent between 2006 and 2016

- The rate of black defendants pleading not guilty in Crown Courts in England and Wales between 2006 and 2014 was 41 per cent, compared with 31 per cent for white defendants
- The BAME proportion of young people offending for the first time rose from 11 per cent in 2006 to 19 per cent a decade later
- There was an identical increase in the BAME proportion of young people reoffending over the same period
- Black boys are just under three times more likely than white boys to be arrested, while Black men were more than three times more likely to be arrested than white men. This affects the number of defendants proceeding through the courts system and ultimately into prison, if convicted and sentenced.
- Gypsy Roma and Traveller young people are substantially over represented in youth custody, making up 12 per cent of all children and secure training centres.

Separately, a recent study found that young black men are disproportionately affected by anti-social behaviour measures in London. It is likely this affects views of the police and criminal justice system among this group.²⁸⁴

Other groups who have distinct experiences within the criminal justice system include women, who primarily commit lower-level offences, and have particular needs when in police custody and prison. Women's prisons are located outside London, leading to difficulties in maintaining family ties, and London has only two dedicated women's centres offering a wide range of services for offenders and women at risk of offending.²⁸⁵

Victim satisfaction

Inequalities in victim satisfaction may reflect different experiences and expectations of the police and the wider criminal justice system. Previous research has shown that perceptions of community safety, previous victimisation, ethnicity and age are all consistently linked to victim satisfaction. How victims are treated, such as the level of investigative effort devoted and the manner and professionalism of the police, is generally found to be more important in predicting satisfaction.²⁸⁶

In 2018, 66 per cent of victims were satisfied overall with the Metropolitan Police Service, declining in recent years from 79 per cent in 2014. Breaking this figure down, a greater proportion of victims were satisfied with their treatment (81 per cent) than the proportion satisfied with actions taken (60 per cent) or with follow up (58 per cent).

Headline satisfaction masks inequalities in victim's experiences of the MPS between different demographic groups. Generally, older (aged over 65), female and white Londoners have higher rates of satisfaction than the average. **Men, disabled people, people of a Black**

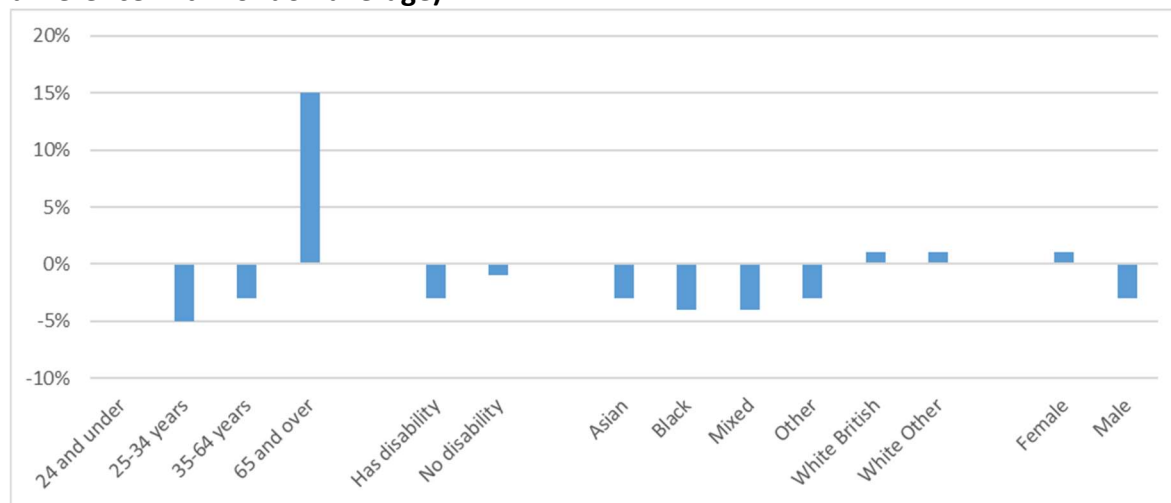
²⁸⁴ Mills and Ford (2018) [Anti-social behaviour powers and young adults: The data](#)

²⁸⁵ London Assembly (2018) [A long way from home: Improving London's response to women in the criminal justice system](#)

²⁸⁶ Aihio (2017) [Improving victim satisfaction in volume crime investigations: the role of police actions and victim characteristics](#)

or mixed ethnic background and people aged 25-34 have the lowest rates of overall victim satisfaction (see below).

Figure 5.10: Overall MPS victim satisfaction rates by demography, 2018 (percentage point difference with London average)



Source: [MOPAC Public Voice Dashboard](#)

Diversity in the Metropolitan police service

Ethnic diversity within the Metropolitan Police Service is not reflective of the general population. 85.8 per cent Police officers stated white for their ethnicity whilst the proportion of the force area population is 57 per cent. The most underrepresented ethnicities are **Asian or Asian British** and **Black or Black British**.

Figure 5.11: Ethnic diversity in the Metropolitan Police Service versus the Force area population, 2018

	Police officers	Proportion of police officers	Proportion of force area population
Asian or Asian British	1,666	5.5	18
Black or Black British	993	3.3	13
Chinese or other ethnic group	619	2.1	6
Mixed	987	3.3	6
Not stated	265	-	-
White	25,861	85.8	57

Source: Home Office (2018) [Police Workforce, England and Wales: 31 March 2018](#)

5.3 Health

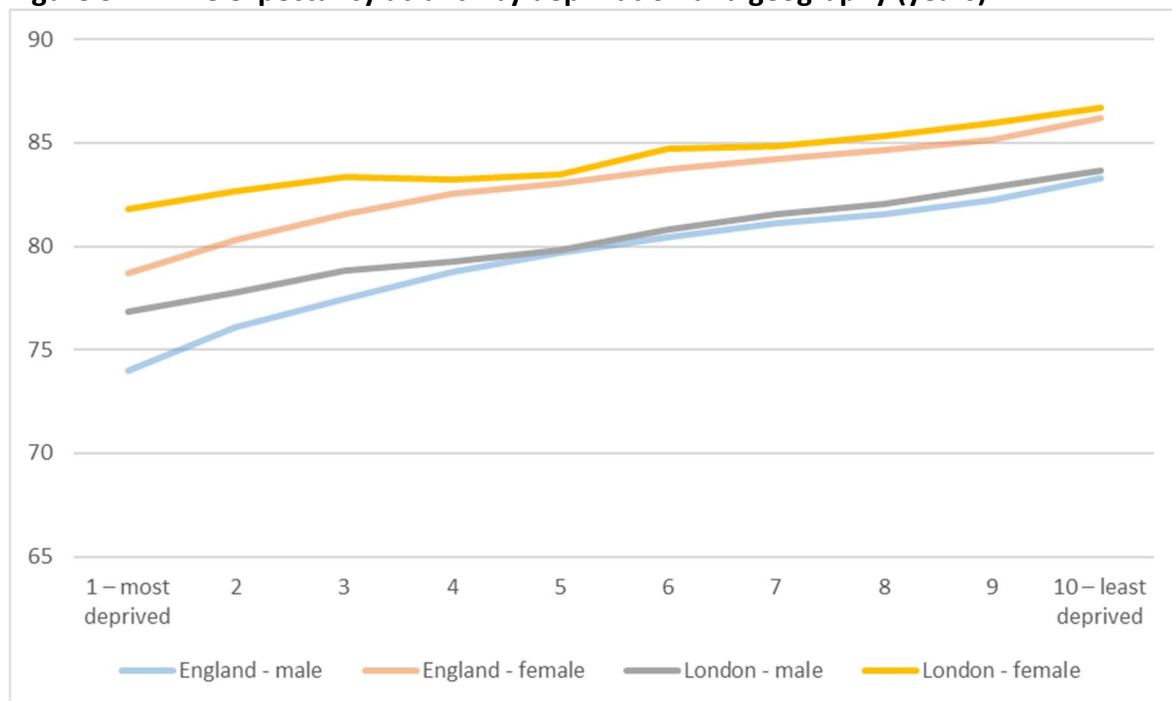
Physical health

Londoners live longer than the national average. In the capital, men’s life expectancy at birth is 80.4 years, 0.9 years longer than in England as a whole. Female life expectancy is 1.1 years longer at 84.2 years.²⁸⁷

Londoners experience inequalities in **life expectancy**. While not as steep as the socio-economic gradient observed nationally, there is a gap of 6.8 years in male life expectancy between the most and least deprived areas, and a gap of 4.9 years for women (see chart below).

Deprivation combines many pieces of information about an area, including income levels, crime, health, housing and the environment, among others. A recent study of life expectancy at an England level separated the impact of each of these, finding that **income** had the strongest relationship with mortality rates.²⁸⁸

Figure 5.12: Life expectancy at birth by deprivation and geography (years)



Source: ONS (2018) [Health state life expectancies by national deprivation deciles, England and Wales: 2014 to 2016](#)

Inequalities also exist in the proportion of life expectancy lived in good health and ‘disability-free’, defined as the number of years lived without a long-lasting physical or mental health condition that limits daily activities.

²⁸⁷ ONS (2017) [Health state life expectancies, UK: 2014 to 2016](#)

²⁸⁸ Longevity Science Panel (2018) [Life expectancy: Is the socio-economic gap narrowing?](#)

In 2016, **women** in London are expected to live 76.5 per cent of their lives in good health. Though women have a longer life expectancy, men are expected to spend a higher proportion of their lives in good health (78.9 per cent). Londoner's healthy life expectancy percentage is slightly lower than the national average.

As expected, the proportion of a person's life spent in good health declines with age. At 65 years, the healthy life expectancy percentage drops to 51.2 per cent for males and 49.5 per cent for females. The gap between England and London further widens at this age from 0.7 per cent at birth to 4.8 per cent at 65 for males, and 0.3 per cent at birth to 3.9 per cent at 65 for females.

Women born in 2016 are expected to spend 75.6 per cent of their lives disability free. This is lower than the disability free life expectancy for men of 79.4 per cent.

At 65 years, the disability free life expectancy of women is 10.2 years and 9.9 years for men. Similar with healthy life expectancy, the disability free life expectancy percentage decreases with age. Women are expected to spend 46.7 per cent of their remaining life disability free, while men have a higher percentage at 51.3. This falls below the national percentage for both men and women.

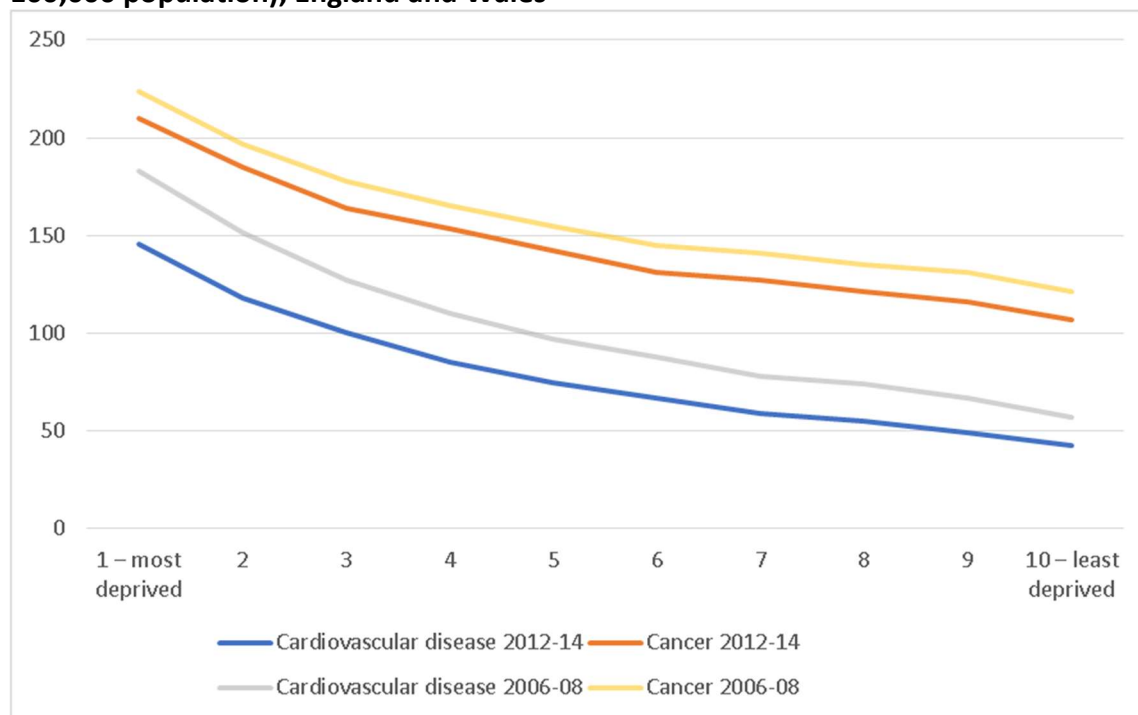
In England as a whole, healthy life expectancy increases consistently from the most to the least deprived decile. This gap is wider than for overall life expectancy, with a difference of 18.7 years for males and 19.1 years for females. On average, men in the most deprived areas are expected to live 70.2 per cent of their lives in good health (HLE per cent), well below the good health percentage of men living in the least deprived areas (85.0 per cent).²⁸⁹

Rates of mortality follow a similar **socio-economic** profile to life expectancy. People living in the most deprived 10 per cent of areas are three times as likely to die from cardiovascular diseases and almost twice as likely to die from cancer as people in the least deprived 10 per cent (see chart below).

Inequality in the cardiovascular disease mortality rate has fallen over recent years, with the gap between the top and bottom 10 per cent falling from 126 to 103 per 100,000 between 2006 and 2014. There has not been a similar change in cancer mortality inequality, although mortality rates have fallen in every decile.

²⁸⁹ IBID

Figure 5.13: Cardiovascular disease and cancer mortality by deprivation decile (rate per 100,000 population), England and Wales



Source: PHE (2017) [Public Health Outcomes Framework: Health Equality report, 2017](#)

One factor contributing to the socio-economic gradient in life expectancy and mortality rates are levels of **smoking, alcohol consumption and drug misuse** in more deprived areas. London has slightly lower rates of smoking among adults than England as a whole, at 15.2 versus 15.5 per cent²⁹⁰, and fewer than half of people in London say they have drunk alcohol in the last week, versus 57 per cent in England.²⁹¹ Across English regions, London also has the second lowest mortality rate for deaths relate to drug misuse²⁹², although it has a slightly higher rate of crack cocaine usage than average.²⁹³

However, at an England-level we know that adults living in the **most deprived areas** are more than twice as likely to smoke as people in least deprived areas.²⁹⁴ Also, a similar socio-economic gradient exists for hospital admissions relating to alcohol²⁹⁵ and deaths related to drug misuse.²⁹⁶

Outside of socio-economic factors, there are differences in lifestyle behaviours across other individual characteristics. For example, people of **white or mixed ethnicities, disabled people** or who are **LGBT+** are more likely to smoke. **white** and **LGBT+** adults are also more likely to drink heavily²⁹⁷. These patterns are complex, however, with identifiable issues

²⁹⁰ Public Health England: [Local Tobacco Control Profiles](#)

²⁹¹ ONS (2017) [Adult drinking habits in Great Britain: 2005 to 2016](#)

²⁹² ONS (2017) [Deaths related to drug poisoning in England and Wales: 2016 registrations](#)

²⁹³ ONS (2017) [Opiate and crack cocaine use: prevalence estimates for local populations](#)

²⁹⁴ ONS (2014) [Do smoking rates vary between more and less advantaged areas?](#)

²⁹⁵ Public Health England: [Local Alcohol Profiles for England](#)

²⁹⁶ ONS (2018) [Geographical variations in deaths related to drug misuse in England and Wales, 1993-2006](#)

²⁹⁷ EHRC (2015) [Is Britain Fairer? Health domain](#)

among particular groups, such as high rates of smoking among Bangladeshi and Turkish men and high rates of heavy drinking among white Irish men.²⁹⁸

25 per cent of **women** in London are classified as **obese**, and 22 per cent of **men**. This is less than the rate in England (27 per cent for both genders) (age-standardised rates).²⁹⁹ While obesity prevalence among women follows a socio-economic gradient, among men the pattern is more complex. Men in median deprivation areas are the most likely to be obese.³⁰⁰ Women of **Pakistani and Black African/Caribbean** ethnicities have higher rates of obesity than other ethnic groups (England-level data, IBID).

Admissions data provides evidence on NHS diagnoses of obesity in the London population. As a primary diagnosis, London had the third highest regional rate at 26 per 100,000, above the England average. North East is the highest at 62 admissions per 100,000 of the population. For admissions with a primary and secondary diagnosis of obesity, London had the lowest rate at 748 admissions per 100,000.³⁰¹

London also faces challenges around **communicable diseases**, with rates of HIV, tuberculosis and hepatitis C diagnosis more than twice the national rate (see chart below). This reflects greater population density and a concentration of at-risk populations.

In particular, London has a high concentration of **men who have sex with men** (MSM) and of **black Africans**, both groups with a greater risk of contracting HIV. In addition, the prevalence of HIV among people who inject drugs in London is three times the national rate.³⁰²

London also has a greater proportion of the population born in countries associated with a higher risk of Tuberculosis. 81 per cent of Tuberculosis cases in London occur in individuals born outside the UK. The ethnicities most at risk include **Indian, Pakistani and Black African**.³⁰³

Similar groups are also associated with a higher risk of hepatitis C infection; estimates suggest that over half of people who inject drugs have hepatitis C. **MSM and individuals originating from South Asia** are also at increased risk and are over-represented in London's population.³⁰⁴

Additionally, Black and Asian patients are at greater risk of wrong diabetes diagnosis by GPs.³⁰⁵

Some groups are more vulnerable to harms related to substance use, including infectious diseases, cancer and suicide. There is a strong association between various markers of

²⁹⁸ EHRC (2010) [How fair is Britain?](#)

²⁹⁹ NHS Digital (2016) [Health Survey for England, 2015](#)

³⁰⁰ Public Health England (2017) [Patterns in trends in adult obesity](#)

³⁰¹ NHS (2017) [Statistics on Obesity, Physical Activity and Diet – England, 2017](#)

³⁰² Public Health England (2013) [Review of HIV Epidemiology in London](#)

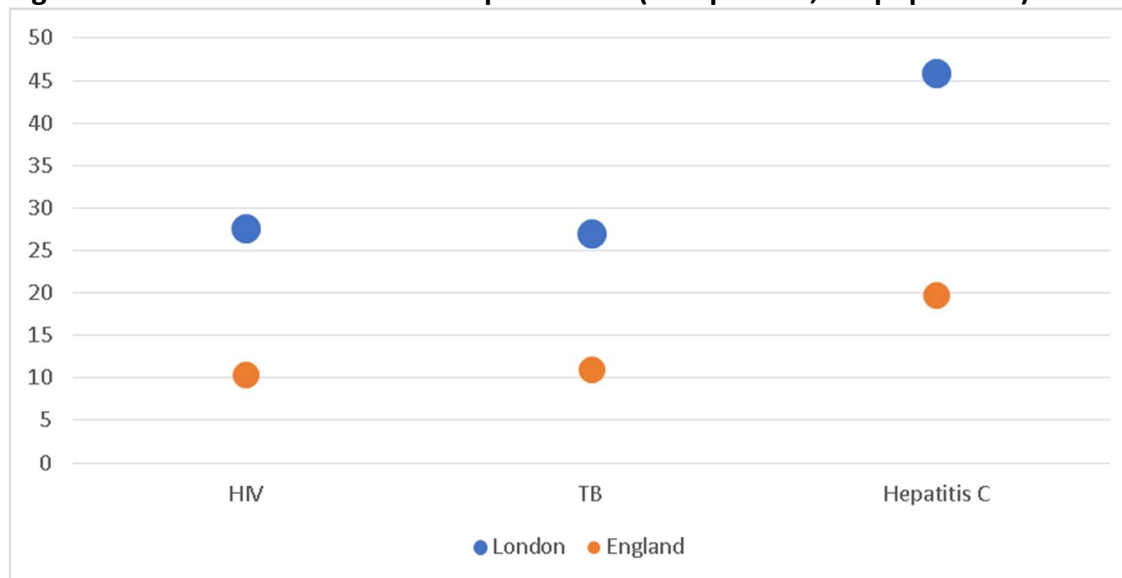
³⁰³ Public Health England (2017) [Tuberculosis in London: Annual review \(2016 data\)](#)

³⁰⁴ Public Health England (2017) [Hepatitis C Epidemiology in London 2015 data](#)

³⁰⁵ Lydall (2018) [Black and Asian patients at risk of wrong diabetes diagnosis by GPs, study shows](#)

disadvantage, including social exclusion and low socio-economic position, and substance-related harm. Those with a history of homelessness, imprisonment and sex work are particularly vulnerable.³⁰⁶

Figure 5.14: Communicable disease prevalence (rate per 100,000 population)



Source: Public Health England: [Public health profiles](#)

Mental health

Estimates suggest that 18 per cent of Londoners report experiencing a common mental disorder.³⁰⁷ GP survey data for London shows that in 2015/16, 11.8 per cent of adult Londoners reported suffering from **depression and anxiety**, with 4.3 per cent reporting having a **long-term mental health problem**. In the same year, 1.1 per cent of individuals registered with GPs had a severe mental health condition. These proportions are similar to the national average.³⁰⁸

Groups at greater risk of poor mental health include **young women, people aged 35-44, disabled adults, unemployed men and people who are obese**.³⁰⁹ UK and international evidence has also found that the risk of depression and anxiety disorders are at least 1.5 times as likely among **LGBT+ people**.³¹⁰

While the picture is complicated, due to unmet demand for mental health provision, we know some of the characteristics of people using mental health services from administrative sources. This data reveals that **African-Caribbean** and **Black African** adults are more likely than white British adults to be admitted to psychiatric hospitals, make contact with specialist mental health services, and, in the case of Black Caribbean adults, to have longer stays as a

³⁰⁶ Advisory Council on the Misuse of Drugs (2018) [What are the risk factors that make people susceptible to substance use problems and harm?](#)

³⁰⁷ Baker (2018) [Mental health statistics for England: prevalence, services and funding](#)

³⁰⁸ Public Health England: [Mental Health and Wellbeing JSNA](#)

³⁰⁹ EHRC (2016) [Is England Fairer? The state of equality and human rights 2016](#)

³¹⁰ EHRC (2010) [How fair is Britain?](#)

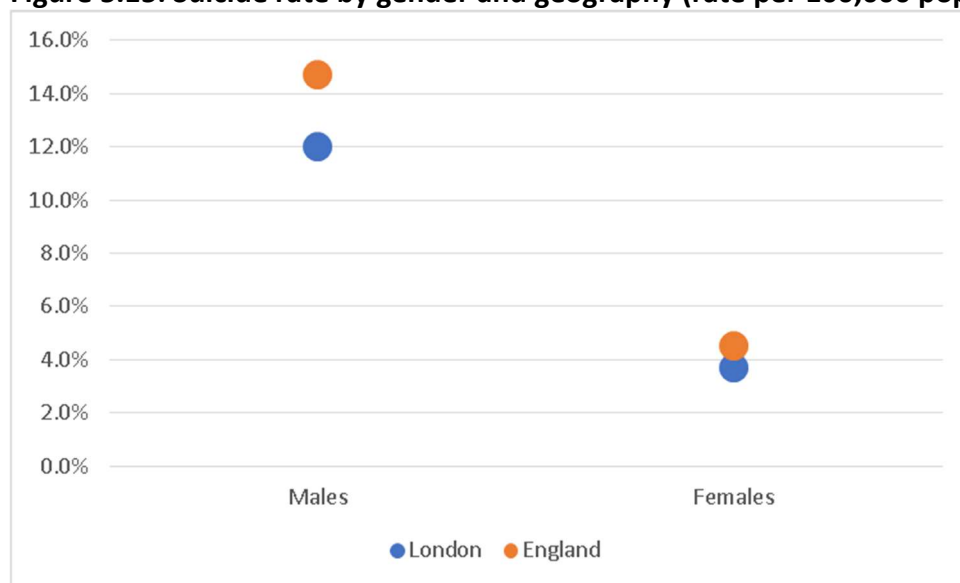
patient. Black British people are also more likely to be detained under the Mental Health Act.³¹¹

Evidence from the Gypsy and Irish Traveller community suggests that they face perceived barriers to accessing culturally appropriate dementia care, and that campaigns to raise awareness around dementia are often not reaching Gypsy and Irish Traveller communities.³¹²

The number of deaths from suicides among people aged 10 and over has increased in the last ten years. In 2016 there were 4,575 recorded deaths from suicide in England, up nearly 400 people from 2006. In London, there were 447 recorded deaths from suicide in men and 133 in women. **Men** are more vulnerable to death from suicides at three times the rate of females.

In 2016, London’s rate of death from suicide per 100,000 of the population had declined to below the England average. Among the rate for men, London has the lowest rate of all regions at 12.0 per 100,000 and women have the second lowest rate at 3.7 per 100,000 (see chart below).

Figure 5.15: Suicide rate by gender and geography (rate per 100,000 population)



Source: ONS (2017) [Suicides in the UK](#)

There are inequalities in personal well-being between different groups in the population. UK evidence suggests that those aged 40-59, renters and those who are not married or in a civil partnership, along with disabled people, are more likely to have low levels of personal well-being.³¹³

³¹¹ EHRC (2016) [Is England Fairer? The state of equality and human rights 2016](#)

³¹² Friends, Families and Travellers (2018) [‘We look after our own’: Dementia in Gypsy and Traveller communities](#)

³¹³ ONS (2018) [Understanding well-being inequalities: Who has the poorest personal well-being?](#)

5.4 Social integration

Social integration refers to the extent to which people positively interact and connect with others who are different to themselves³¹⁴. Social integration is important from an equality, diversity and inclusion perspective as it encompasses interactions across a range of relevant characteristics, including age, gender, social class, ethnicity, disability and sexual orientation, and because the outcomes of these connections can help to reduce inequalities between people.

Strong and diverse social networks increase community and labour market opportunities for individuals, improving social mobility³¹⁵, reducing isolation and loneliness and improving health.³¹⁶ Integration can also help people arriving in London from elsewhere in the UK and internationally to fully take part in the economic and community life of the city.³¹⁷ Studies of also show that social contact with migrants, more common in cities such as London, allows individuals to form opinions of immigration based on their experiences, which are more likely to result in positive views about immigration.³¹⁸

Finally, social integration reduces **inequalities of power and voice**, empowering individuals to participate in democracy and civil society. This increases the likelihood that diverse perspectives will be represented in London's institutions, further contributing to tackling inequality.

Measuring social integration

At the Greater London Authority we measure social integration across for domains:

Relationships: the nature of people's relationships with one another, measured using survey evidence on the depth and diversity of Londoner's relationships.

Participation: the extent to which people are active participants in their local community. This is measured using survey data on different forms of participation such as registering to vote and volunteering. Survey data can also be used to gauge whether people feel involved in the decisions that affect them.

Equalities: Discrimination and persistent inequalities act as a barrier to social integration, even in a society where different types of people encounter one another. Therefore, a range of data on equalities, as covered elsewhere in this paper, are relevant to social integration.

Outcomes: Survey data on whether Londoners feel they belong in their local area, and their experience of London, can inform us about which different groups feel more or less integrated with society.

³¹⁴ GLA (2018) [All of us: The Mayor's strategy for social integration](#)

³¹⁵ Li (2016) [Social mobility, social network and subjective well-being in the UK](#)

³¹⁶ Holt-Lunstad and Smith (2015) [Loneliness and Social Isolation as Risk Factors for Mortality: A Meta-Analytic Review](#)

³¹⁷ Kindler et al (2015) [Social networks, social capital and migrant integration at local level](#)

³¹⁸ Rutter and Carter (2018) [National Conversation on Immigration: Final Report](#)

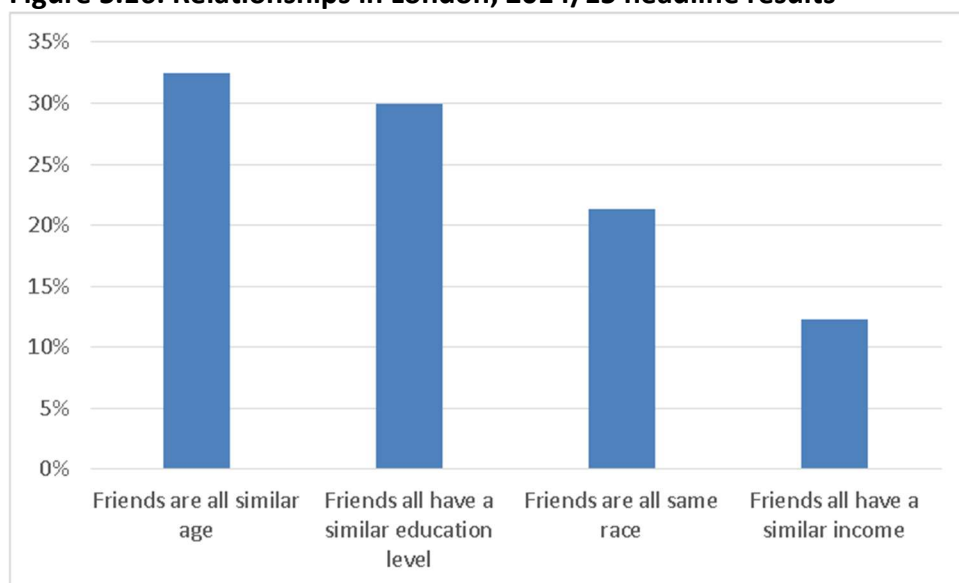
Measuring social integration across these four domains is a relatively new development. The GLA have begun a program to improve our data collection and understanding in these areas.

Relationships

Data on Londoner's relationships suggests that the majority have **diverse social circles**. In 2014/15, 12 per cent of Londoners reported that all their friends had a similar income, and 21 per cent that all their friends were the same race. A sizable minority of almost a third (32 per cent) said that all their friends were a similar age, and 30 per cent that all their friends had a similar level of education.

Only 2 per cent reported that all their friends were the same across all four measures of diversity. Conversely, a majority said all their friends were the same on at least one of the four characteristics.

Figure 5.16: Relationships in London, 2014/15 headline results



Source: GLA (2018) [Social Integration Headline Measures](#)

These proportions vary by individual characteristics (see accompanying spreadsheet for a full breakdown across all four variables). Patterns of note include:

- **Younger people** (aged under 30) are more likely to have friends of a similar age
- **Older Londoners** (aged 65 and over) are more likely to report that all their friends are the same race (35 per cent) and the same level of education (36 per cent)
- Rates of diverse relationships are similar between genders, although **women** are 5 percentage points more likely than men to report that all their friends have a similar level of education
- **Disabled people** are less likely to have diverse relationships across all four variables
- People of **Indian, Pakistani or Bangladeshi** ethnicities are more likely to have friends of a similar age. People who are **white British** are more likely to have friends from the same race and level of education³¹⁹

At its most extreme, a lack of strong relationships can lead to social isolation among individuals. This is an issue in London, where a higher proportion of residents (20 versus 15

³¹⁹ Source: GLA (2018) [Social Integration Headline Measures](#)

per cent in the rest of England) report that they do not have a spouse or partner, family member or friend, whom they can rely on if they have a serious problem. In addition, more than 1 in 4 Londoners worry about loneliness.³²⁰

Social isolation is more prevalent among particular sub-groups of London's population. **Men**, people in **less skilled occupations**, and **disabled people** are more likely to be socially isolated than the London average.

By ethnicity, rates of social isolation are almost twice as high among **Pakistani/Bangladeshi, Black Caribbean or African and people of a mixed ethnicity** (30 per cent) than people who are white British (16 per cent), although multigenerational households have been shown to reduce the risk of loneliness and are more common among Black African, Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi and Chinese households.³²¹ Finally, people aged **20-24** are significantly more likely to be socially isolated than the London average.³²² A national study found that lonelier young adults are more likely to experience mental health problems, to engage in physical health risk behaviours and to use more negative strategies to cope with stress.³²³

Loneliness is more prevalent among older people, particularly those who live alone with long term health conditions and widowers.³²⁴ Loneliness is also more common among older people living in retirement housing, although this can be mitigated where providers offer a range of organised activities, which has been shown to reduce loneliness among this group.³²⁵ The emergence of technology that enables communication also has potential to support older people who experience loneliness. One study found that use of a device increases self-worth but can reduce feelings of belonging where the device is over-used.³²⁶

Participation

One way to measure participation is the proportion of the adult population who have done any **voluntary work** in the last twelve months. Just over a quarter of adult Londoners (26 per cent) are active volunteers in this way.

The chart below shows the association between rates of volunteering and demographic characteristics. The largest gap with the average is among people in **lower-skilled routine and manual occupations**, 14 per cent of whom did voluntary work in the last year (almost half the London average rate).

Other groups with below average rates of volunteering include people aged **25-34**, **social renters**, and people of an **Asian or mixed ethnicity**.

³²⁰ Octavia (2017) [Survey reveals that almost 1 in 4 Londoners worry about loneliness](#)

³²¹ Burholt et al (2018) [Social support networks of older migrants in England and Wales – the role of collectivist culture](#)

³²² IBID

³²³ Matthews et al (2018) [Lonely young adults in modern Britain: findings from an epidemiological cohort study](#)

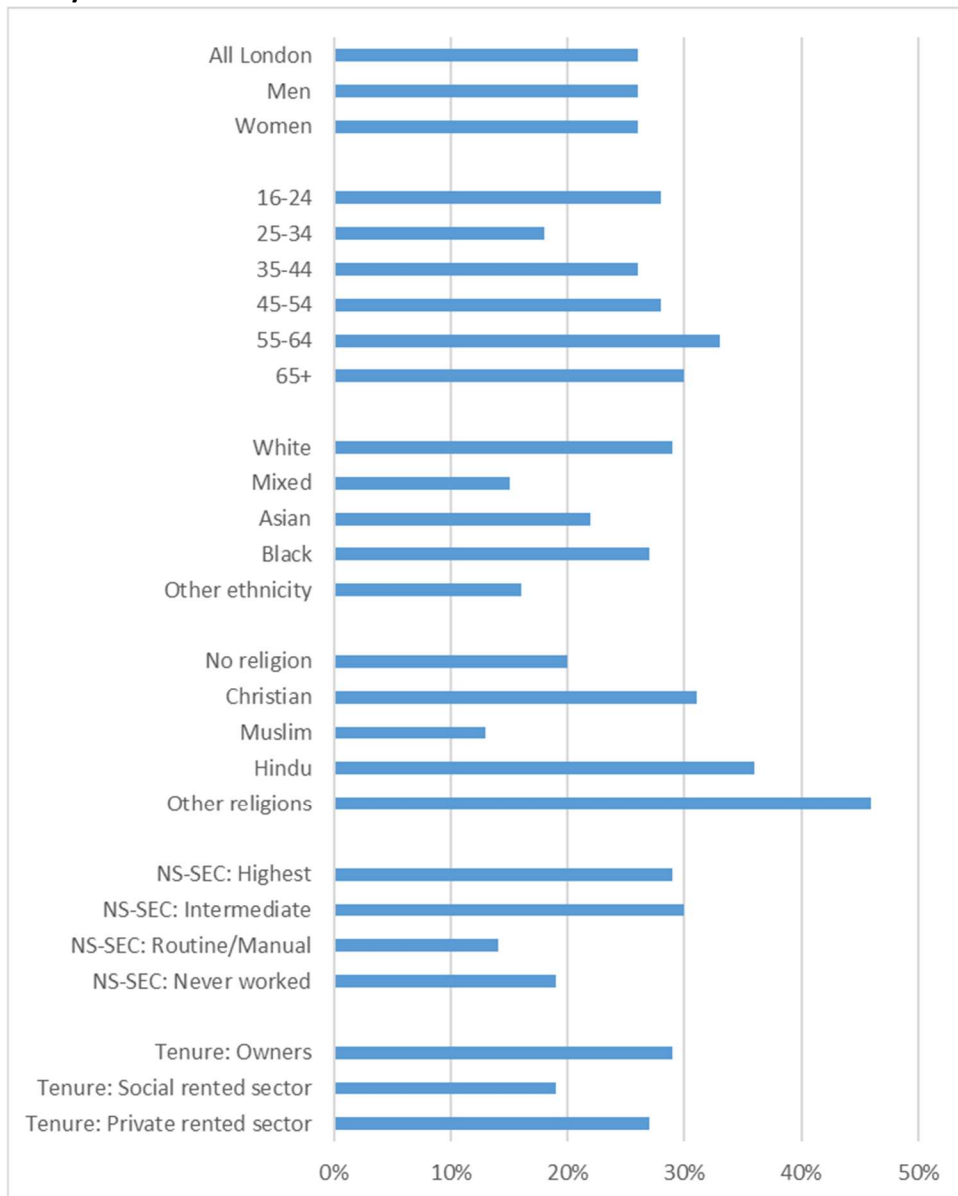
³²⁴ Office for National Statistics (2018) [Loneliness - What characteristics and circumstances are associated with feeling lonely?](#)

³²⁵ Gray and Worlledge (2018) [Addressing loneliness and isolation in retirement housing](#)

³²⁶ Wilson (2018) [Is it love or loneliness? - Exploring the impact of everyday digital technology use on the wellbeing of older adults](#)

A review of community contributions in later life found that people who are less financially secure, in poorer health or from a BAME background can face structural barriers which make them less likely to formally volunteer with a charity.³²⁷

Figure 5.17: Proportion of adults who have done any voluntary work in the last 12 months, 2015/16



Source: GLA (2018) [Social Integration Headline Measures](#)

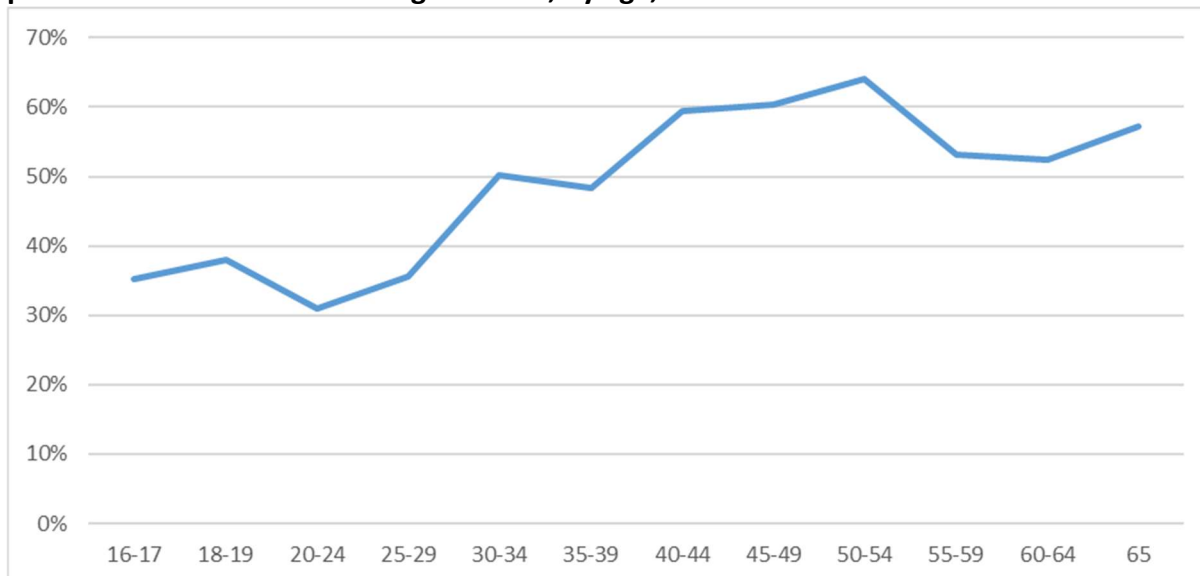
Another way to look at participation is the proportion of Londoners who are **members of political, voluntary, professional or recreational organisations**. Just over half (51 per cent) of Londoners are members of associations.

Again, this varies considerably between adults. Generally, **younger Londoners** are less likely to participate through membership, with only 31 per cent of 20-24 year-olds, and 36 per

³²⁷ Centre for Ageing Better (2018) [Age-friendly and inclusive volunteering](#)

cent of 25-29 year-olds, having some form of associational membership (see chart below). The same is also true of people in **lower-skilled occupations**, and people from an **Indian, Pakistani/Bangladeshi or mixed ethnicity**.³²⁸

Figure 5.18: Proportion of adults aged 16+ who are a member of a political, voluntary, professional or recreational organisation, by age, London



Source: GLA (2018) [Social Integration Headline Measures](#)

Outcomes

Social cohesion at the level of society is related to individual well-being: where there are high levels of interpersonal trust, a strong economy, and high levels of participation, individuals are more likely to experience positive well-being.³²⁹

Almost two-thirds of Londoners agree or strongly agree that they **feel they belong** to their neighbourhood. Groups with below average belonging include **men, disabled people**, people in the **highest-skilled occupations**, people aged **20-34** and people from a **mixed or other ethnicity**.

Nine out of ten Londoners strongly or tend to agree that **London is a good place to live**. **Disabled people** and people who are **social renters** are the least likely to agree with this statement. People of a **white British ethnicity**, and people aged **55-84** are also less likely than average to think London is a good place to live.³³⁰

³²⁸ GLA (2018) [Social Integration Headline Measures](#)

³²⁹ Eurofound (2018) [Social cohesion and well-being in Europe](#)

³³⁰ IBID

5.5 Culture and sport

Participation in culture

Research has linked participation in culture, including the arts, heritage, museums and libraries, with a range of positive outcomes³³¹. Generally, the strongest relationship found is between culture participation and measures of social capital and inclusion. For example, people participating in the arts are more likely to volunteer frequently and give to charity.³³² Participation also contributes to improving ‘bonding social capital’ such as relationship-building and communication skills, as well as more limited evidence that participation improves ‘bridging social capital’, bringing together people from different backgrounds. Other impacts identified include improvements in mental and physical health as well as personal well-being.³³³³³⁴

Further research has focused on specific groups in the population, measuring the social impact of their participation in cultural activities. Studies of young people’s participation in culture have found they are more likely to go on to further education, if they participate in culture³³⁵. Also, young people who engage in culture in the home have improved educational attainment.³³⁶ Several studies have linked cultural participation among individuals in the criminal justice system with a reduced likelihood of re-offending³³⁷. BAME groups can experience a greater sense of pride and empowerment through participating in cultural activities related to their own culture.³³⁸

In the UK, trends in participation in arts and culture are collected through the Taking Part Survey. The survey defines participation as having visited or taken part in cultural activities in the last twelve months. This is asked for four categories of cultural participation; museums and galleries, public libraries, heritage sites and the arts.

In London, participation in the arts has remained consistently between 70 and 80 per cent of the population over the last decade (see figure 5.19 below). Similarly, there has been little change since 2005/06 in participation in museums & galleries, at just over half the population in the latest data (55 per cent) and in heritage, where two-thirds of the population participated. This contrasts with use of libraries, where participation has fallen significantly from over half the population in 2005/06 to 40 per cent in 2016/17.

³³¹ Taylor et al (2015) [A review of the Social Impacts of Culture and Sport](#)

³³² Fujiwara et al (2014) [Quantifying the Social Impacts of Culture and Sport](#)

³³³ Taylor et al (2015) A review of the Social Impacts of Culture and Sport

³³⁴ Haworth (2010) [Life, Work, Leisure, and Enjoyment: the role of social institutions](#)

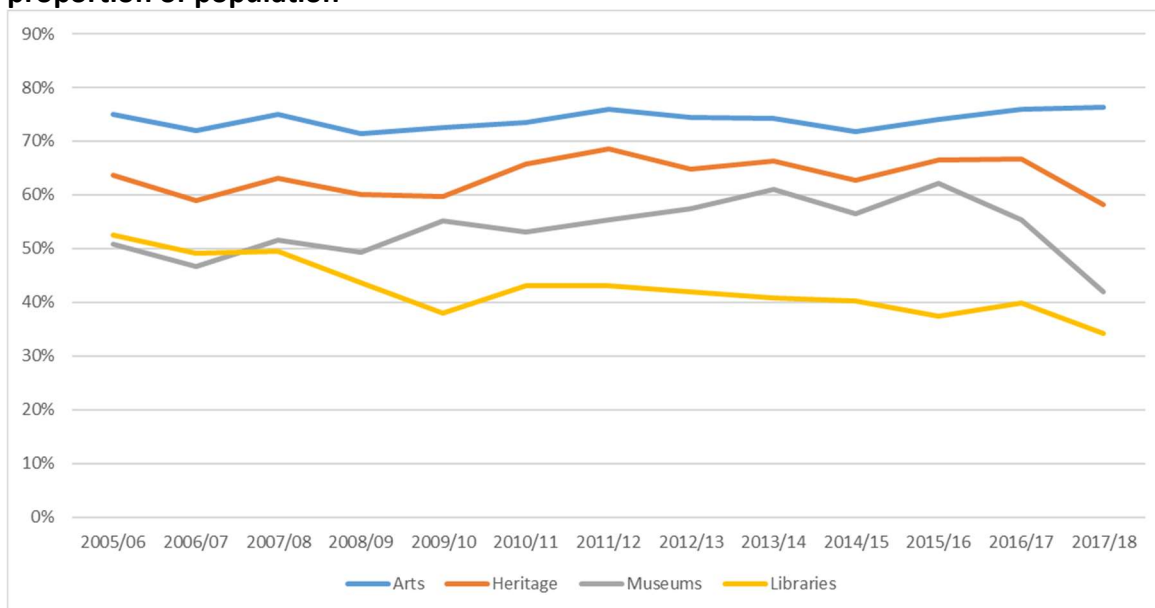
³³⁵ Fujiwara et al (2014) Quantifying the Social Impacts of Culture and Sport

³³⁶ Ruiz (2004) [A literature review of the evidence base for culture, the arts and sport policy](#)

³³⁷ Taylor et al (2015) A review of the Social Impacts of Culture and Sport

³³⁸ Ruiz (2004) A literature review of the evidence base for culture, the arts and sport policy

Figure 5.19: Headline arts and culture participation trends 2005/06 – 2017/18, London, proportion of population



Source: Department for Digital, Culture, Media & Sport (2018) [Taking Part 2017/18: quarter 4 statistical release](#)

There are longstanding inequalities in participation in culture between groups, however. Studies have found evidence of practical barriers to participation, such as inaccessibility of venues, poor health and caring responsibilities of potential participants. Other research, using the Taking Part Survey alongside qualitative methods, found that individuals' social status can also act as a barrier, generating perceptions of exclusion from certain kinds of arts activities.³³⁹

Similar³⁴⁰ findings have been published exploring barriers to participation among specific populations and cultural settings. A study of BAME communities experience of science museums in London found that the museum's implicit expectations about visitors' knowledge and language skills led to a sense of exclusion among participants.³⁴¹ For **disabled people**, a study found different levels of access and concessionary policies among arts organisations³⁴², while other research into people with sensory impairments has found a sizable group that would be likely to attend the theatre, if adjustments were made³⁴³. Further work has found an identifiable relationship between high socio-economic status and educational attainment and museum attendance³⁴⁴. This has identified barriers for people in **lower socio-economic groups** including travel times to arts venues, scepticism and mistrust

³³⁹ Bunting et al (2008) [From indifference to enthusiasm: patterns of arts attendance in England](#)

³⁴⁰ Studies drawn from Consilium (2014) [Equality and diversity within the arts and cultural sector in England](#)

³⁴¹ Dawson (2014) ["Not Designed for Us": How Science Museums and Science Centers Socially Exclude Low-Income, Minority Ethnic Groups](#)

³⁴² Freshminds (2007) [Culture on Demand: Ways to engage a broader audience](#)

³⁴³ Arts Council England (2014) [Equality and diversity within the arts and cultural sector in England](#)

³⁴⁴ Smithies (2011) [A review of research and literature on museums and libraries](#)

of institutional and public service provision³⁴⁵, and the often-prohibitive costs of accessing arts and culture³⁴⁶.

Recent editions of the Taking Part Survey largely support this evidence for London. The survey finds that visits to museums, galleries and heritage sites, as well as attendance and participation in the arts, follow similar patterns of usage across population groups. Public library services attract a slightly different audience (see table below).

People with **higher socio-economic status** have a higher participation in all four of the cultural activities. The greatest participation gap is found in museum or gallery visits, with a difference of 34 percentage points. As a majority of museums and galleries in London are free, it is unlikely that admission fees are a contributing factor towards this participation gap. However, costs incurred in a visit (e.g. transportation, food) also need to be considered. The smallest participation gap is usage of a public library at 7 percentage points difference.

People in employment have a higher participation rate in cultural activities except for public library services. The gap in usage of the public library is 6 percentage points. Owner-occupiers have a higher participation rate in cultural activities than renters.

By gender, **women** have a higher participation rate in museum and gallery, public library services and attendance or participation in arts.

There are also noticeable gaps in participation by **disability** status, with **disabled Londoners** displaying a lower participation rates in the four cultural activities than people who are not disabled. By ethnicity, those of a white ethnic background have a higher participation rate in all cultural venues except for public library services than people who have **BAME** backgrounds.

Londoners aged 45 or older have a lower participation in all four of the cultural activities except public libraries (see table below). Highest participation for this age group is found in the arts at 71 per cent. The arts have the highest participation among all ages while public library usage is the lowest.

Finally, people with a **higher education** have the highest participation rate in the four cultural activities. 75 per cent have visited a museum or gallery, 79 per cent have visited a heritage site and 88 per cent have visited or taken part in the arts in the past 12 months. This is well above the participation levels seen in people with lower-level, other or no qualifications. The participation gap between the different education qualification groups is not as great with public library usage as with the other three cultural activities.

³⁴⁵ Freshminds (2007) [Culture on Demand: Ways to engage a broader audience](#)

³⁴⁶ Arts Council England (2014) [Equality and diversity within the arts and cultural sector in England](#)

Figure 5.20: Proportion visiting or taking part in cultural activities in London during the last 12 months, by individual characteristics, April 2015 – March 2018

	Museum or gallery	Public library	Heritage site	The arts
Gender				
Male	54%	33%	64%	73%
Female	57%	41%	64%	78%
Age				
16-44	57%	37%	64%	79%
45+	53%	38%	63%	71%
Education				
Higher education or above	75%	42%	79%	88%
Other/no qualifications	46%	34%	57%	72%
Ethnicity				
White	64%	35%	72%	79%
BAME	43%	40%	51%	69%
Disability				
Not disabled	58%	37%	66%	78%
Disabled	45%	35%	52%	64%
Social class				
Higher socio-economic status	67%	39%	75%	83%
Lower socio-economic status	33%	32%	44%	60%
Work status				
Not in work	45%	41%	54%	66%
In work	62%	35%	70%	81%
Tenure				
Owner-occupiers	61%	41%	71%	80%
Social and private rent	50%	33%	56%	70%

Source: Department for Digital, Culture, Media & Sport (2019) [Taking Part: the National Survey of Culture, Leisure and Sport, 2015/16-2017/18](#)

Participation in sport

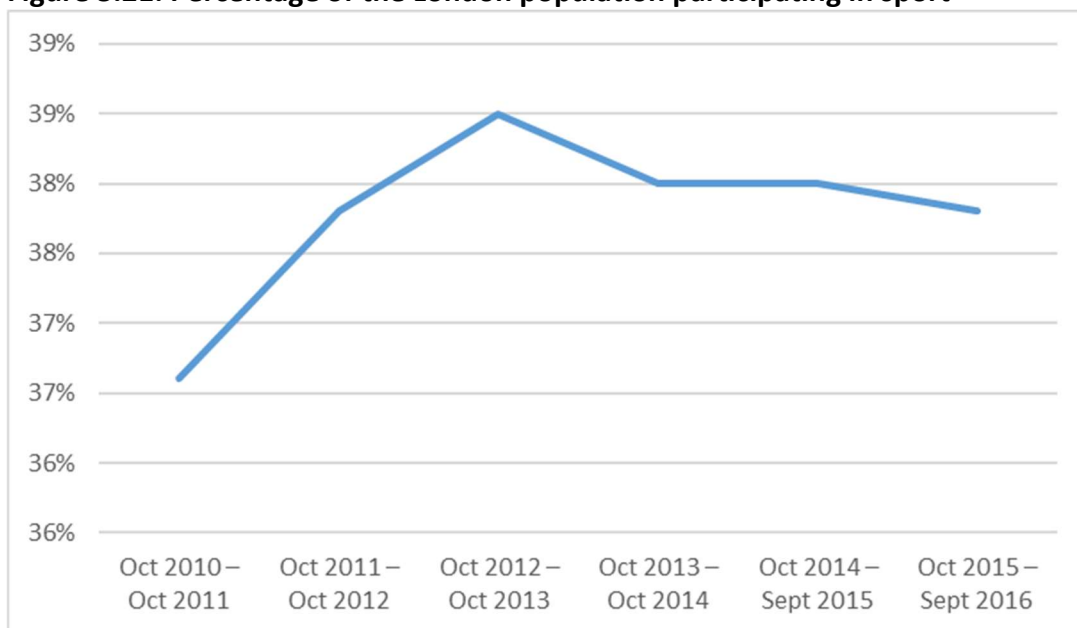
Participation in sport has a range of positive impacts at an individual and community level. Most directly, sport participation is linked to improved health, reducing the risk of illness, of being overweight or obese, and leading to better mental health and wellbeing. Participation in sport has also been linked to improved educational attainment, employment, and reductions in antisocial behaviour and crime. Finally, there is evidence that sport can improve social integration, both by building social capital among participants, and by bringing different groups together in a social setting.³⁴⁷

At a London-wide level, participation in sport has been largely stable over time, with only a minor increase in participation rates following the 2012 London Olympics. In England,

³⁴⁷ The Sport and Recreation Alliance (2012) [Game of Life: How Sport and Recreation can help make us Healthier, Happier and Richer](#)

London has the second highest participation rate behind the South East region (38.3 per cent).

Figure 5.21: Percentage of the London population participating in sport



Source: Sport England (2017) [Active People Survey](#)

There are a number of barriers to greater participation in sport. General barriers include challenges related to identity, such as a lack of confidence and low physical self-esteem.³⁴⁸

Barriers for specific groups include a lack of access to open space and sports facilities for **children living in areas of concentrated disadvantage**³⁴⁹, **gender disparities** in self-consciousness regarding fitness and appearance that leads to lower participation among women³⁵⁰, discriminatory attitudes in sport towards the **LGBT** community³⁵¹, as well as racism and stereotyping of **BAME** communities in sport.³⁵²

These barriers are reflected in different levels of participation among London’s population (see chart below). Compared to the average rate of participation in sport across London of 22 per cent, several demographic groups have below-average levels of activity. There is a 7 percentage point gap in participation between men and women. Older Londoners (55+) are 13 percentage points less likely to be active in sport than people aged 16 to 34.³⁵³ Only 1 in 10 disabled Londoners are active in sport, and there is a smaller 3 percentage point gap between white and BAME participation.

³⁴⁸ Allender and Cowburn (2006) [Understanding participation in sport and physical activity among children and adults: a review of qualitative studies](#)

³⁴⁹ Edwards et al (2015) [Moving the goal posts: poverty and access to sport for young people](#)

³⁵⁰ Sport England (2015) [Go where women are: insight on engaging women and girls in sport and exercise](#)

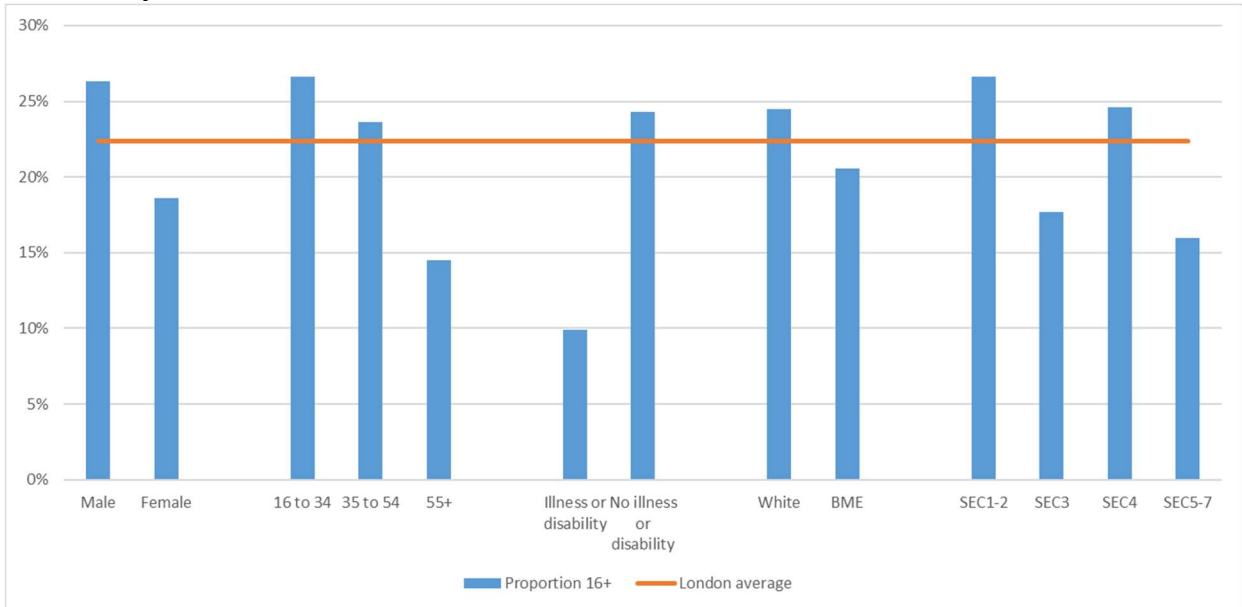
³⁵¹ Brackenridge et al (2008) [A Review of Sexual Orientation in Sport](#)

³⁵² Long et al (2009) [Systematic Review of the Literature on Black and Minority Ethnic Communities in sport and physical recreation](#)

³⁵³ Barriers to increased physical activity among older people include a perceived risk of heart attack or stroke, lack of time and fear of looking too muscular. See Public Health England (2018) [Muscle and bone strengthening and balance activities for general health benefits in adults and older adults](#)

There is also a gradient in participation along **socio-economic status**, with people in the top two socio-economic groups (people in professional occupations) 9 percentage points more likely to be doing sport than people in intermediate and clerical occupations, and 11 percentage points more likely than people in unskilled employment or with a long-term absence from employment.

Figure 5.22: Proportion of London population participating in sport in the last twelve months, by individual characteristics



Source: Sport England (2017) [Active People Survey](#)

Appendix: London's population in detail

	Number (thousands)	Per cent of population	Date	Age breakdown (%)			Date	Ethnicity breakdown (%)		Date
				0-15	16-64	65+		White	BAME	
Total	9106	100	2019	21	68	12	2019	57	43	2019
Gender										
Male	4554	50	2019	21	68	11	2019	57	43	2019
Female	4552	50		18	65	17	2019	56	44	
Age										
0-4	624	7	2019					43	57	2019
5-15	1250	14						43	57	
16-24	962	11						52	48	
25-34	1689	19						60	40	
35-49	2058	23						57	43	
50-64	1446	16						61	39	
65-79	777	9						71	29	
80+	300	3						77	23	

Source: GLA (2017) [GLA Population and Household Projections](#) and Census 2011

	Number (thousands)	Per cent of population	Date	Age breakdown (%)			Date
				0-15	16-64	65+	
White British	3,551	39	2019	16	66	18	2019
White Irish	187	2		6	68	26	
Other White	1,424	16		16	79	6	
White & Black Caribbean	140	2		44	53	3	
White & Black African	85	1		47	50	3	
White & Asian	130	1		44	53	3	
Other Mixed	163	2		44	53	3	
Indian	644	7		17	71	12	
Pakistani	277	3		27	66	7	
Bangladeshi	262	3		33	62	5	
Chinese	156	2		10	82	8	
Other Asian	507	6		23	70	8	
Black African	660	7		30	65	5	
Black Caribbean	346	4		18	67	15	
Other Black	211	2		40	56	3	
Arab	143	2		29	65	6	
Any Other Group	220	2		23	69	8	

Source: GLA (2017) [GLA Population and Household Projections](#) and Census 2011

	Number (thousands)	Per cent of population	Date	Age breakdown (%)			Date	Ethnicity breakdown (%)		Date
				0-15	16-64	65+		White	BAME	
Religion										
Christian	4,100	48	2017	19	65	15	2017	70	30	2017
Buddhist	100	1		12	78	10		17	83	
Hindu	500	5		20	70	10				
Jewish	200	2		24	58	18		86	14	
Muslim	1,200	14		32	63	4		9	91	
Sikh	100	2		23	68	9				
Other Religions	200	2		11	73	16		14	86	
No Religion	2,300	26		17	76	7		81	19	
Disability										
Disabled	1,300	19	2017		74	26	2017	61	39	2017
Not disabled	5,600	81			89	11		63	37	
Nationality										
Non-UK	2,200	25	2017	14	80	6	2017	57	43	2017
UK	6,600	75		23	64	13		60	40	

Source: ONS Annual Population Survey Jan-Dec 2015 and Census 2011. Note: due to sample sizes Hindu and Sikh are included within the 'other religion' category within the ethnicity breakdown. Note: disability refers only to those aged 16+

	Number (thousands)	Per cent of population	Date	Age breakdown (%)			Date	Ethnicity breakdown (%)		Date
				0-15	16-64	65+		White	BAME	
Sexual identity										
Heterosexual or straight	6,278	90.1	2016		78	22	2015	89	11	2015
Gay or lesbian	145	2.1			93	7		94	6	
Bisexual	44	0.6			92	8		90	10	
Other	35	0.5			79	21		85	15	
Don't know or refuse	469	6.7			79	21		85	15	
Social class										
Higher managerial, admin and professional occupations	1,100	19	2017		94	6	2017	73	27	2017
Lower managerial, admin and professional occupations	1,600	28			94	6		70	30	
Intermediate occupations	600	12			93	7		62	38	
Small employers and own account workers	600	11			92	8		70	30	
Lower supervisory and technical occupations	300	5			92	8		60	40	
Semi-routine occupations	500	10			93	7		49	51	
Routine occupations	400	7			94	6		57	43	
Never worked and long-term unemployed	400	8			86	14		33	67	

Source: ONS Annual Population Survey Jan-Dec 2016, ONS (2017) [Subnational sexual identity estimates, UK: 2013 to 2015](#), Census 2011

Note: Sexual identity breakdown by age and ethnicity refers to the UK as a whole. Note: Social class refers only to those aged 16+

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