national statistics

Focus on London 2003

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LONDON DEVELOPMENT AGENCY

GREATER LONDON AUTHORITY

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The Greater London Authority was created in 2000 as a new form of strategic citywide government, consisting of an elected Mayor and a separately elected Assembly. The Mayor's responsibilities cover transport, policing, the London Fire Brigade, planning and land use, the environment and economic development in London.

Government Office for London

The Government Office for London was established in 1994. It is one of nine regional Government Offices in England delivering policies and programmes on behalf of the Office of the Deputy Prime Minister, the Department for Transport, the Department for Education and Skills, the Department of Trade and Industry, the Home Office, the Department for Culture, Media and Sport, the Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs, and the Department for Work and Pensions.

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View across the Millennium Bridge towards St. Paul's Cathedral

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Foreword

Focus on London 2003 brings together a mass of information about London and Londoners, which will be of immense interest to those who live in, work in, or visit this city. This edition updates *Focus on London 2000* and will help in understanding and highlighting long-term trends, as well as emerging issues in the capital.

London's status as a global city means that it has been affected by many events since 2000, and the intervening period has seen much change. The city has experienced the initial effects of various ambitious Millennium projects, and of the new policies and work programmes introduced by its new regional government structures. International economic disturbances and increased political migration, following the events of 11 September 2001 and the wars in the Middle East, have also impacted on the capital and its people. Some of these effects can be seen in the statistics contained in this publication, but others, such as the impact of congestion charging, will become clearer over the coming years.

This volume is the first to be produced by a partnership between the Greater London Authority, the Government Office for London, the London Development Agency and the Office for National Statistics. The editors warmly thank colleagues in all four organisations, and more widely, those who have contributed to *Focus on London 2003* and to the previous editions.

Focus on London 2003 is available as this printed volume, and also in electronic format on the National Statistics website: www.statistics.gov.uk/london

We welcome any comments and suggestions from users about the publication. Please send them via the address below.

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Introduction

Focus on London 2003 has been produced by the Office for National Statistics, the Greater London Authority, the Government Office for London and the London Development Agency, who have worked together to produce a comprehensive picture of life in our capital city. This is a new partnership, bringing in the London bodies that have been created as part of changes to the structure of London Government. These changes have taken place since the last volume was published in 2000.

The twelve chapters cover a wide range of demographic, social, industrial and economic statistics. In addition, they briefly describe the evolution of London and the challenges facing it, and also its current political organisation. Changes over recent years are examined, and set against national, European and other comparators as appropriate. Differences between the Inner and Outer areas and between the individual boroughs are highlighted.

Some key facts and figures are provided at the beginning of the main chapters and the commentary is illustrated with tables, charts and maps. More detailed reference tables, many at borough level, are contained in the Appendix towards the back of the book. There is also a technical Notes and Definitions section which explains some of the terms used and provides additional background information on sources and concepts.

Following the 2001 Census, and subsequent revisions to population estimates and projections, many of the data sources used have either been recently revised or will be revised over the coming months. Where series are consistent with the new population estimates this has been indicated. However, where the data have not yet been adjusted to be in line with the 2001 Census, users should note that the series are likely to be revised. In order to assess the likely impact, ONS has provided estimates for 2001 based on the previous methodology for comparison. The differences between estimates based on the previous methodology and the published 2001 mid-year estimates, produced after the 2001 Census, are shown in the table below. More information is available in the Notes and Definitions section. One particular cause of the revision is that the Census has revealed that the UK as a whole has 800,000 fewer young men than previously thought. The impact of this revision is particularly noticeable for males in London. For this reason, where figures have not yet been revised, users need to take care in interpreting them.

Table

2001 mid-year population estimates: comparison[1] between estimates based on pre-2001 Census methodology and those based on 2001 Census

Percentage differences

	All	Males	Females
Inner London	*5.2*	*8.7*	*1.8*
Outer London	*2.2*	*5.4*	*-0.8*
London	*3.4*	*6.7*	*0.2*
England and Wales	*1.5*	*2.6*	*0.5*

1 Where the result is a positive difference, the pre-2001 Census estimate is higher than the new published estimate.
Source: Office for National Statistics

Most of the data from the book are available as downloadable Excel files from the National Statistics website.

Focus on London 2003 is aimed at both general and specialist readers. It provides information that is detailed, but not exhaustive, in the areas covered. Sources are given at the foot of each table, chart and map. Readers who would like further information will find a list of references and further reading at the back of the book, followed by a list of contact points in the relevant Government Departments and outside organisations.

Further information about *Focus on London 2003* can be obtained from the: Customer Contact Centre, Office for National Statistics, Cardiff Road, Newport, NP10 8XG
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Boundaries

Regional geography

The primary regional classification used in *Focus on London* is the London Government Office Region (GOR). The Government Offices for the Regions were established in England in 1994 and are now the standard regional geography for statistical analyses, replacing the old Standard Statistical Regions.

Data on the economy commonly use the Nomenclature of Units for Territorial Statistics (NUTS). This is a five level hierarchy that provides a geographical breakdown of the European Union's economic territory for statistical purposes. A map showing the NUTS 3 level boundaries is shown in Figure A5.1 in the appendix. GOR boundaries are identical with NUTS 1 level, used for regional accounts data in Chapter 5 – Economy.

Local Authority geography

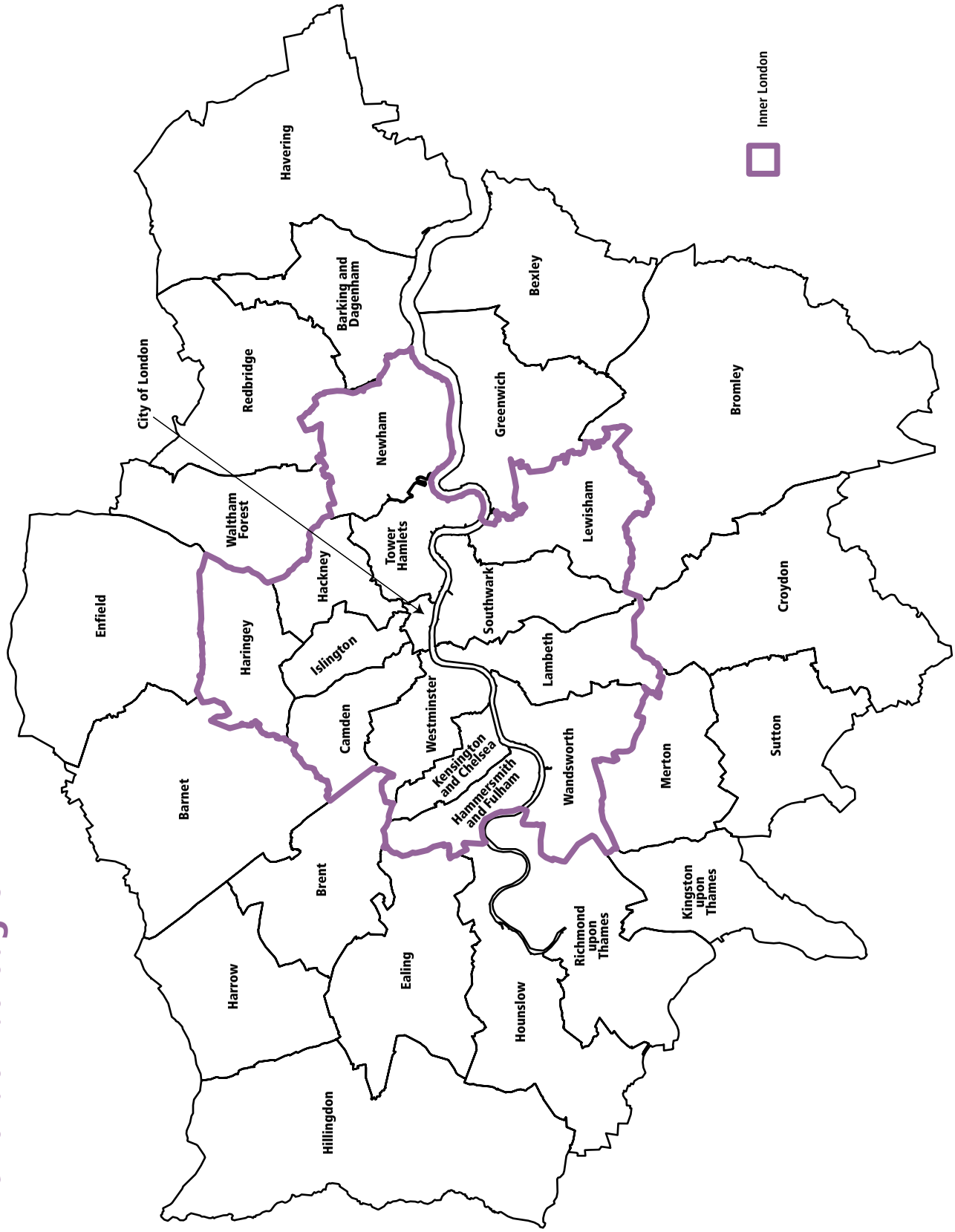
Following the abolition of the Greater London Council (GLC) in 1986 the boroughs became single-tier authorities, but Greater London was still widely recognised, especially for statistical and mapping purposes. However, in 2000, a two-tier structure was re-established when the new Greater London Authority adopted responsibility for a range of citywide policy areas.

Within London, there are 32 boroughs, with a status similar to metropolitan districts, and also the City of London, which is a City Corporation with a number of additional roles.

The 33 areas can be combined into Inner and Outer London using the NUTS 2 level classification. However, it should be noted that alternative Inner and Outer London definitions also exist, for example the one based on the former Inner London Education Authority. Where other definitions are used these are indicated on the tables and figures.

Ward boundaries change frequently. Where data are shown at ward level, the year indicates which boundary set has been used.

The London boroughs



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Since the last issue of *Focus on London* was published in 2000, London has seen the establishment of a single strategic authority for the Capital, with a directly elected Mayor and an Assembly. These new political and administrative structures should enable London to improve strategic coordination and development, making it easier to respond to emerging challenges such as those posed by the threat from global terrorism, population growth, the impact of migration, and the affordability of housing.

Focus on London 2003 is a graphical, explanatory and statistical digest of the affairs, problems and successes of London. It is the product of a unique collaboration between the Greater London Authority, the Government Office for London, the London Development Agency and the Office for National Statistics. It brings together in one place a wide range of demographic, social, industrial and economic statistics, providing a comprehensive and up to date picture of London. This year, *Focus on London* draws on some new data from the 2001 Census, described as the most comprehensive survey of the UK population; although a lot more information from the Census is still to be published over the coming year.

London is unarguably one of the great cities of the world. It is one of the few global centres for international business and it is comparable in size to many national economies. Over a quarter of the world's largest companies have their European headquarters in London and over 65 per cent of the Fortune Global 500 companies are represented in London, more than any other European city[1]. It is consistently ranked 'top city for business' in Europe[2] because of easy access to markets, availability of qualified staff, good transport and telecommunications links.

The service sector dominates London's economy. Key services among the sector are finance and business services, the public sector, tourism and hospitality and the creative and cultural industries. Finance and business services alone accounted for 35 per cent of London's Gross Value Added (GVA) in 1998. However, manufacturing is still an important part of London's economy, accounting for over 11 per cent of London's GVA in 1998 and the third highest region in cash terms, at £13 billion of GVA.

London is home to over 7 million people. It has a resident workforce of some 3.4 million, which is supplemented further by a large number of commuters. One in five small businesses are owned or managed by members of minority ethnic communities. Over 300 languages are spoken and the 2001 Census shows that 29 per cent of London's population belonged to a minority ethnic group. London has an unrivalled cultural and artistic heritage, helping to confirm its place as one of the most vibrant and dynamic cities in the world.

Whilst London stands out as one of the most successful regions in the UK, it is also a city divided between the extremes of wealth creation and success, and deprivation and social exclusion. This is reflected in the high proportion of wards (20 per cent) which are in the 10 per cent most deprived wards in England. Of the 88 authorities receiving Neighbourhood Renewal Funds, 20 are in London. Unemployment in London is higher than the national average. The Inner London rate is twice the national average and rates are particularly high among London's minority ethnic groups.

In recent years, London's net population loss to migration has turned into a net gain. This and a natural growth rate nearly six times that for the UK presents London with particular challenges to accommodate growth and tackle poverty and deprivation. The Mayor's draft London Plan shows projections over the period 2002-2016 of population growth of around 700,000; employment growth of a net 636,000 jobs; and a minimum target for 345,000 additional homes. The Plan also seeks the provision of 'affordable' housing (i.e. for sale or rent at costs significantly below the full market price or rent). The average London house price at the end of 2002 of £210,100 compares with £134,300 for the UK as a whole.

The government's *'Sustainable communities in London: building for the future'* includes proposals to accommodate population growth expected to accompany the economic success of London and the wider South East. Four areas (Thames Gateway, Milton Keynes/South Midlands, Ashford and London-Stansted-Cambridge) have been identified to accommodate growth.

The regional Action Plan *'Sustainable communities in London'* sets out, amongst other things, new regional housing arrangements to ensure better integration of housing policy with the planning and economic strategies. Partnership working with key stakeholders (including the boroughs at the local level) through the Housing Forum for London is going to play a key part in ensuring successful delivery.

The Mayor of London and his functional bodies, the London Development Agency and Transport for London, have responsibility for setting the strategic framework and delivering transport and economic developments. This is going to help underpin the performance of the region, and ensure the creation of communities in London in which people want to live and stay.

Focus on London 2003 will help these and other key players to respond effectively to the new challenges faced by London through providing accurate, relevant and up to date statistics and analysis about the Capital.

1 London First (1999), 100 Facts on London.

2 Healey and Baker European Cities Monitor.

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An overview of London

02:Population

- The most recent offi cial estimate of London's population, for mid-2001, showed there to be 7.19 million residents, an annual average increase of about 19,000 since 1981.
- In 2001 natural population growth (births less deaths) in London accounted for 70 per cent of the total natural growth of the UK even though London was home to only 12 per cent of the total population.
- London's average annual migration net infl ow was nearly 14,000 in the period 1996-2001
- A regular feature of the migration patterns within the UK is that 60 to 65 per cent of those leaving London move to the adjacent South East or East of England regions.
- London had a higher proportion of females than males among its resident population in the 2001 Census at 52 per cent.
- The 2001 Census showed that 2.1 million people belonging to a minority ethnic group lived in London. This accounted for 29 per cent of the city's total population.
- Households with one person living alone made up 35 per cent of London households including nearly half of households in Westminster and Kensington and Chelsea, and 60 per cent of households in the City of London.

03:Environment

- There were about 14,000 hectares of land in agricultural holdings in London in June 2001, 39 per cent of which was arable land.
- London had over 18,000 entries in the list of buildings of architectural or historic interest: 566 of these were Grade I and 1,260 Grade II*.
- Each household in London produces 1.1 tonnes of waste a year, and the quantity is growing at 2.5 per cent per annum.
- The half-century since the great London smog of December 1952 has seen a marked reduction in the pollutants associated with coal burning, whereas the pollutants of greatest concern in London now come from road traffic.
- 56 per cent of London's rivers and canals are rated 'Fairly good' or better.
- In 2002, rainfall in London exceeded 700 mm (27.5 inches) for the third year running – a figure otherwise exceeded only twice since 1940.

04:Housing

- Right to buy sales in London decreased from over 11,400 in 2000/01 to under 10,000 sales in 2001/02.
- There were under half a million privately rented dwellings in London in 2002.
- Annual completions of new dwellings have fallen over the last 20 years from over 23,000 in 1980/81 to just over 14,000 in 2001/02.
- In 2001/02, 73 per cent of new dwellings completed in London were by the private sector.
- In March 2002 nearly 53,000 households were accepted as homeless by the boroughs and living in temporary accommodation. This was 88 per cent higher than levels in 1997.
- At the end of 2002 the average property price in London was over £210,000 (based on the average price for all transactions, from the ODPM five per cent survey of mortgage lenders).

05:Economy

- Gross Value Added (GVA) per head on a residence basis was higher in London in 1999, at nearly £17,000, than the United Kingdom as a whole which was just under £13,000.
- GVA per head on a workplace basis in Inner London leads not only the rest of the United Kingdom, but also the rest of the European Union.
- Gross Disposable Household Income (GDHI) in Inner London was the highest in the United Kingdom in 1999. GDHI differs considerably between regions; total income even more so.
- There were 255,000 businesses registered for VAT in London in 2002; over three and a half per cent of these had an annual turnover of £5 million or more each.
- Overall, there were an estimated 674,280 businesses in London at the start of 2001.
- The new business registration rate in London during 2001, at 12.6 per cent, was the lowest level seen in the last 20 years.
- Over 40 per cent of businesses registered for VAT in London were within business, financial and real estate services compared with less than 28 per cent nationally.

06:Labour Market

- London's workforce is generally younger than that of the United Kingdom as a whole. In spring 2002 the proportion of the labour force aged between 25 and 34 stood at 31 per cent in London compared with a UK average of 23 per cent.
- Between 1991 and 2001, the number of employee jobs in the fi nancial and business services industry in London increased by more than a half to 1.3 million.
- In 2001 Newham and Tower Hamlets had the lowest employment rate not just in London but in the whole of Great Britain at 54 per cent.
- London had a higher proportion of self-employed people than the UK average in spring 2002 (13.3 per cent compared with 11.3 per cent).
- Men in London were more likely to work part-time than those in the United Kingdom overall, while women were less likely to do so.
- The unemployment rate in London stood at 6.9 per cent in spring 2002, one of the highest rates in the United Kingdom and 1.6 percentage points higher than the national average.
- In April 2002 the gross weekly earnings of full-time non-manual employees in London were on average 33 per cent higher than the UK as a whole for men, while the difference for women was 30 per cent.

07:Education and training

- There are over 3,000 schools, colleges and universities in London.
- In 2002, 72 per cent of three and four year-olds were in education in London, a higher participation rate than the average for England.
- By September 2002 over 1,000 Beacon Schools had been established in England; around 200 of these were in London.
- The proportion of 16 year-olds with no graded results had fallen more in London by 2002 than the proportion in England as a whole.
- Nearly a fifth of employees in London received some job-related-training in spring 2002.
- Around 45 per cent of the resident labour force in Inner London have a higher education qualification compared with 27 per cent of the United Kingdom as a whole.

08:Living in London

- A third of all households in London in 1999-2002 had a gross weekly income of over £750, compared to one fi fth of the United Kingdom as a whole.
- In 2001/02 the weekly average expenditure for Londoners was 16 per cent higher than individual expenditure for the UK.
- Around a half of households in London had access to the Internet in 2001/02.
- Results from the 2001 Census show that one in seven people said they suffered from limiting long-term illness.
- The proportion of those who said they were non-drinkers was significantly higher in London than in the UK as a whole in 2001/02.
- The percentage of detected drug offences in London fell by 5 percentage points between 2000/01 and 20001/02.
- Criminal Damage and Burglary accounted for a quarter of all notifiable offences committed in the capital in 2001/02.

09:Tourism and leisure

- London had 28 million visitors who stayed one night or more, in 2001.
- In 2001 the capital's top visitor attractions received 32 million visits.
- The National Gallery was the most popular attraction in the English Tourism Council's survey for the first time in over a decade in 2001, with 4.9 million visits.
- London accounted for over a quarter of the 176 million cinema admissions in Great Britain.
- The Millennium Dome was the largest beneficiary of lottery funds in London – a total of £628 million by end 2001.
- Nearly a third of all employees in theatre and cinema sectors worked in London in 2001.

10:Transport and communication

- Households in London spent £6.10 a week less on motoring than households in the United Kingdom as a whole, and £20.70 a week less than households in the South East.
- Total household expenditure on transport in the South East was £12.10 a week higher than in London.
- Half of all households in Inner London did not have a car.
- The number of bus journeys increased from 1.1 billion in 1981 to 1.4 billion in 2001/02.
- The number of Underground trips increased by 76 per cent over the same period.
- London airports handled nearly 114 million passengers in 2001, up from 40 million in 1981.
- Londoners spent almost double the amount of the UK as a whole on mobile phones.

11:Public services

- The number of people on hospital waiting lists in London increased by three per cent from 2001 to 2002 but average waiting times fell.
- London has higher proportions of single-GP surgeries, female GP's and older GP's,but fewer part-time GPs, than England generally.
- The proportions of children immunised by their second birthday have continued the downward trend reported since 1998/99 and remain several percentage points lower than national averages, particularly for the MMR vaccine.

- London had proportionally fewer places in residential homes than England as a whole, 51 places per 10,000 population compared with 88, and only 32 nursing home places per 10,000 population compared with 48 in England.
- 60 per cent of Londoners who died in fires in 2002 were aged over 60.
- Numbers of front-line ambulance staff have increased by 32 per cent since 1995, to 2,500 staff in 2003.

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A full population census has been conducted every ten years since 1801 with the exception of 1941. A key use of the census is its role as a benchmark for the population estimates. Between censuses the population figures are rolled forward using annual estimates of the components of population change (births, deaths, net migration and other changes). As the decade proceeds, the estimates of change, and migration in particular, progressively affect these rolled-forward figures. The Census is used as a base both for revising previous years' data and for preparing estimates for the following decade.

Following the 2001 Census, there were larger revisions to population estimates than has previously been the case. The Office for National Statistics has published a revised series from 1982 to 2001. See Introduction and Notes and Definitions.

This chapter starts by describing the trends in the population of London, then looks at the components that underlie the changes – the levels of fertility and mortality and the impact of migration and other changes. It continues by analysing the population in terms of its sex, age and ethnic structure, and finally it looks at the household structure of London's residents.

General comparisons

London is one of the largest cities in the developed world in terms of its built-up area, and is by a considerable margin the most populous city in the European Union, with over 7 million residents (Table 2.1). It is also one of the European Union's most densely settled areas. Only Brussels and Paris are more densely populated: Paris, the area within the Périphérique, has a density of over 20,000 residents per square kilometre, four and a half times higher than London as a whole, but equivalent to the most densely populated parts of Inner London. The crude birth rate in London, at nearly 15 live births per thousand residents in 1999, is high compared with those for most cities on mainland Europe. London's crude death rate, at fewer than 9 deaths per thousand residents, is close to the rates for most of the cities shown in Table 2.1. London's birth rate is consistent with some other British cities but it has a lower death rate. In a later section in this chapter, London's fertility and mortality are compared with the national average, after taking account of the age structure of the population.

Table 2.1

Cities in Europe[1], 1999

	Population (thousands)	Land area[2] (sq km)	Population density (people sq km)	Births (thousands)	Crude birth rate (per 1,000 population)	Deaths (thousands)	Crude death rate (per 1,000 population)
London	7,104	1,584	4,486	105.3	14.8	61.8	8.7
Inner London	2,722	321	8,493	44.8	16.5	21.5	7.9
Outer London	4,382	1,263	3,469	60.5	13.8	40.3	9.2
Birmingham	978	266	3,684	14.4	14.7	10.2	10.4
Glasgow	577	175	3,297	6.8	11.8	8.2	14.2
Manchester	393	116	3,388	5.5	14.0	4.5	11.4
Amsterdam	1,165	719	1,607	15.6	13.5	10.0	8.6
Athens	3,761	3,808	906	36.6	10.6	34.1	9.9
Barcelona	4,667	7,733	601	45.9	10.0	44.3	9.7
Berlin	3,384	891	3,807	29.9	8.8	35.0	10.3
Brussels	962	161	5,914	13.2	13.9	10.6	11.1
Lisbon	1,876	1,055	1,779	22.4	12.2	19.1	10.4
Madrid	5,151	7,995	636	52.3	10.4	39.0	7.7
Milan	3,774	1,983	1,894	33.4	8.9	34.9	9.3
Munich	1,202	311	3,837	12.4	10.4	11.7	9.8
Paris	2,129	105	20,161	31.2	14.7	16.7	7.8
Rome	3,850	5,352	713	38.0	10.0	35.5	9.3
Stockholm	1,823	6,490	276	20.9	11.6	16.0	8.9
Vienna	1,609	415	3,862	15.2	9.5	18.0	11.2

1 Population figures for the UK cities are for 2000, and have been revised to be consistent with the 2001 Census results. UK city birth and death figures are the totals from mid-year 1999 to mid-year 2000.

2 The land area figures for UK cities used here are not consistent with table 2.10. See Notes and Definitions.

Source: Office for National Statistics; General Register Office for Scotland; Eurostat

Trends in total population

The population of London generally fell over the 49 years following a peak of 8.6 million residents at the time of National Registration in 1939. The decline was particularly rapid during the 1960s and 1970s. In 1988 the population reached a low point of just 6.73 million, a size previously achieved when London's population was rising rapidly, 80 years earlier, in the Edwardian era. The most recent official estimate of London's population, for mid-2001, shows there to be 7.19 million residents, an annual average increase of about 19,000 since 1981 when the figure was 6.81 million. Table 2.2 shows population trends since 1961. In the Appendix, Table A2.1 shows the mid-year resident population estimates for all boroughs for 2001 by sex and age.

The population dynamics of cities often reveal a picture of an expanding centre, which eventually declines leaving the largest populations in the newer suburbs. In time the centre may again increase in population. In this respect the changes in London through the 20th century are of particular interest. Map 2.3 shows the patterns of population change in the London boroughs in each decade since 1971.

In 1901, the area now termed Inner London had 4.9 million residents, with nearly 600,000 in each of the areas now forming the boroughs of Southwark and Tower Hamlets. Inner London's population peaked at just over 5 million in 1911 and in 2001 stood at 2.77 million (Table 2.2), having reached a low point in 1981 of 2.55 million. The population of Inner London in 2001 accounted for 39 per cent of the population of London as a whole.

Outer London expanded much later than Inner London; in 1901 its population stood at 1.6 million, with around 200,000 people in each of the areas now forming the boroughs of Greenwich and Waltham Forest. The most rapid growth

Table 2.2

Population trends and projections

Thousands

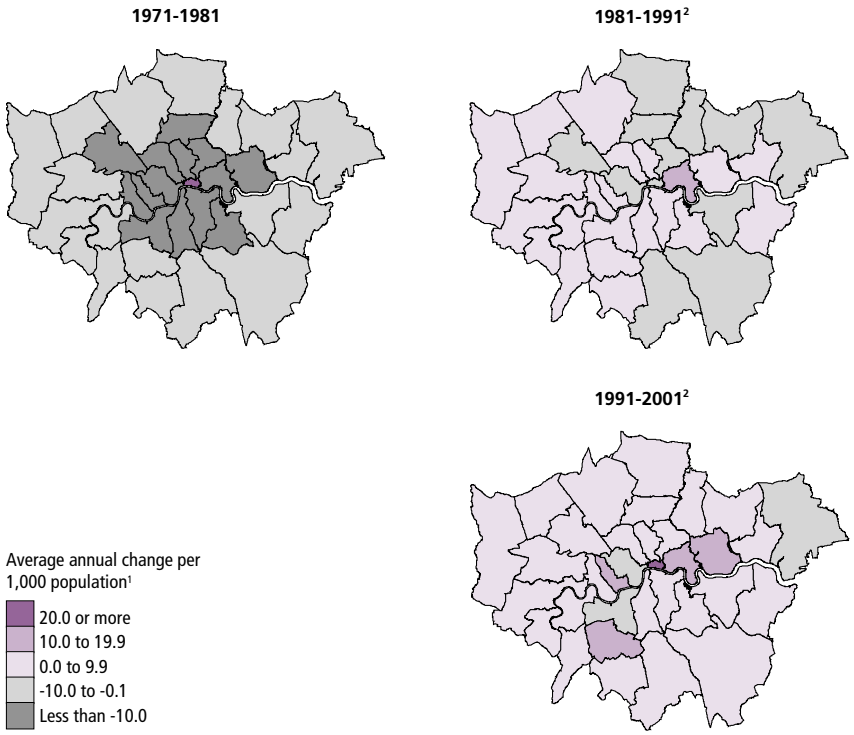
	1961	1971	1981	1991[1]	2001	2011[2]	2021[2]
Inner London	3,481	3,060	2,550	2,599	2,772	2,863	2,963
Outer London	4,496	4,470	4,255	4,230	4,416	4,607	4,773
London	7,977	7,529	6,806	6,829	7,188	7,470	7,736
United Kingdom	52,807	55,928	56,357	57,439	58,837	60,524	62,386

1 Mid-1991 population estimates have been revised.
2 1996-based London and 2002-based United Kingdom projections. See Notes and Definitions.
Source: Office for National Statistics; Government Actuary's Department

Map 2.3

Population change

Average annual change per 1,000 population[1]



1 Geometric mean.
2 Mid-year population estimates for 1991 to 2001 are consistent with the 2001 Census results.
Source: Office for National Statistics

in Outer London took place in the 1920s and 1930s. The 1951 Census recorded a peak of 4.52 million. Population decline in Outer London was relatively slow and over the past few years has been reversed. The lowest recent population estimate was of 4.23 million in 1991, but by 2001 the population estimate had increased to 4.42 million.

After decades of declining population, central London (the City of London, Camden, Kensington and Chelsea, and the City of Westminster) is again showing increases in its population, from a low point of 486,000 in 1995 to 546,000 in 2001.

The first part of London to experience a population peak was the City of London, which recorded its highest population at the time of the first Census in 1801, when there were 129,000 residents within the 'square mile'. The remaining Inner London boroughs peaked between 1871 (City of Westminster) and 1931. The first Outer borough to reach a peak was Greenwich in 1931. The population of Waltham Forest peaked in 1939, with the majority of other boroughs peaking in 1951. The exceptions are Bromley, Croydon and Havering, whose populations peaked in 1971; Bexley, whose population has changed little over the last decade; and Hillingdon, where the population is still slowly rising. These examples point to a dispersal of the population towards the edges of the present area of London,

Table 2.4

Mid-year estimate change analysis, 1991-2001[1]

Thousands

Mid-year to mid-year	Resident population at start period	Live Births	Deaths	Natural change	Other changes[2]	Total change	Resident population at end period
London							
1991/92	6,829.3	106.6	67.7	38.9	-45.6	-6.7	6,822.6
1992/93	6,822.6	104.4	66.4	38.1	-29.1	8.9	6,831.5
1993/94	6,831.5	105.7	67.8	37.9	-25.6	12.3	6,843.8
1994/95	6,843.8	104.1	66.1	38.0	-22.1	16.0	6,859.8
1995/96	6,859.8	103.9	66.9	37.0	4.5	41.5	6,901.3
1996/97	6,901.3	106.4	65.1	41.3	-14.9	26.5	6,927.7
1997/98	6,927.7	105.1	61.4	43.7	-2.6	41.1	6,968.8
1998/99	6,968.8	105.3	62.6	42.7	29.7	72.5	7,041.3
1999/2000	7,041.3	105.3	61.8	43.5	19.6	63.1	7,104.4
2000/01	7,104.4	104.4	58.5	45.9	37.8	83.6	7,188.0
1991-2001	6,829.3	1,051.2	644.2	407.0	-48.3	358.7	7,188.0
United Kingdom							
1991/92	57,438.7	792.7	635.4	157.3	-32.9	124.4	57,563.1
1992/93	57,563.1	762.4	633.6	128.8	-19.4	109.4	57,672.5
1993/94	57,672.5	763.1	650.8	112.3	12.6	124.9	57,797.4
1994/95	57,797.4	737.2	630.4	106.9	23.8	130.6	57,928.0
1995/96	57,928.0	722.3	645.0	77.3	37.7	115.0	58,043.0
1996/97	58,043.0	739.9	637.1	102.8	21.3	124.2	58,167.2
1997/98	58,167.2	717.5	617.1	100.4	37.6	138.0	58,305.3
1998/99	58,305.3	710.5	633.9	76.6	99.2	175.8	58,481.1
1999/2000	58,481.1	688.0	625.7	62.3	99.8	162.2	58,643.2
2000/01	58,643.2	673.5	599.2	74.3	119.2	193.4	58,836.7
1991-2001	57,438.7	7,307.2	6,308.1	999.1	398.9	1,398.0	58,836.7

1 Mid-year population estimates for 1991 to 2000 are consistent with the 2001 Census results.
2 The figures shown are not an estimate of net civilian migration. They have been derived by subtraction using revised population estimates and natural change. Although the main component of these other changes is net civilian migration, this is not the only component. Changes to the non-civilian population and definitional differences are also included.

Source: Office for National Statistics; General Register Office for Scotland; Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency.

with large pockets of growth in Inner London at various times, most notably in Tower Hamlets since the 1980s.

Components of population change

Local population change is the sum of natural change (births minus deaths in the resident population), net migration, and any special circumstances such as changes in the numbers of resident armed forces. In recent years, a high level of natural change has underpinned population growth in the capital (Table 2.4). This can also be seen in Map 2.3. The components of population change between 2000 and 2001 at borough level are given in Table A2.2 in the Appendix.

In 2001 there were 104,200 live births and 58,600 deaths in London, a natural increase of 45,600 people. London had a high crude birth rate compared with the United Kingdom (14.5 births per thousand residents compared with 11.4) and a low crude death rate (8.2 deaths per thousand residents compared with 10.3) (Table 2.5). The rate of natural change in London was 6.3 people for every thousand residents in 2001 – high in comparison with the UK as a whole (1.1 people per thousand). In 2001 natural population growth (births less deaths) in London accounted for 70 per cent of the total natural growth of the UK even though London was home to only 12 per cent of the total population.

Fertility

The main reason for London's comparatively high crude birth rate was its higher proportion of women of childbearing age in the population compared with the UK as a whole. One measure of overall fertility, which takes account of the age structure of the female population, is the total fertility rate (TFR). In 2001, the London rate was 1.62 children per woman – almost identical to the UK rate of 1.63 (Table 2.6). Since 1971 the TFR in London has declined by 22 per cent, compared to the more rapid decline of 32 per cent in the UK as a whole.

However, the age-specific fertility rates, also shown in Table 2.6, reveal differences in the timing of childbearing. In the past 30 years, age-specific fertility rates for teenagers and women in their twenties generally have been lower in London than in the UK as a whole. Since

Table 2.5

Live births, deaths and natural change

Thousands and rates per 1,000 population

	London			United Kingdom		
	Live births	Deaths	Natural change	Live births	Deaths	Natural change
Thousands						
1971	113.1	85.0	28.1	902.0	645.1	256.9
1981	92.4	77.6	14.8	730.7	658.0	72.7
1991	105.8	68.9	36.9	792.3	646.2	146.1
1999	105.5	61.7	43.8	700.2	629.5	70.7
2000	104.7	59.7	45.0	679.0	610.6	68.4
2001	104.2	58.6	45.6	669.1	604.4	64.7
Crude Rates per 1,000 population						
1971	15.0	11.3	3.7	16.1	11.5	4.6
1981	13.6	11.4	2.2	13.0	11.7	1.3
1991	15.5	10.1	5.4	13.8	11.2	2.6
1999	15.0	8.8	6.2	12.0	10.8	1.2
2000	14.7	8.4	6.3	11.6	10.4	1.2
2001	14.5	8.2	6.3	11.4	10.3	1.1

Source: Office for National Statistics; General Register Office for Scotland; Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency

Table 2.6

Age-specific fertility rates and total fertility rates

Live births per 1,000 women[1]

	London				United Kingdom			
	1971	1981	1991	2001	1971	1981	1991	2001
Age group								
Under 20[2]	45	29	29	26	50	28	33	28
20 to 24	115	83	69	59	154	107	89	68
25 to 29	134	114	97	73	155	130	120	92
30 to 34	79	80	96	94	79	70	87	88
35 to 39	33	31	47	59	34	22	32	41
40 and over[3]	9	6	10	15	9	5	5	9
Total Fertility Rate[4]	2.09	1.71	1.74	1.62	2.41	1.82	1.82	1.63

1 Total population base is women aged 15 to 44.
2 Population base is women aged 15 to 19.
3 Population base is women aged 40 to 44.
4 Per woman, UK rates for 1991 and 2001 are based upon single years of age; all other rates are based upon five-year age groups.

Source: Office for National Statistics; General Register Office for Scotland; Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency

1981, women in their thirties and forties living in the capital have had significantly higher age-specific fertility rates (ASFRs) than those in the rest of the UK. The shift to a higher proportion of total fertility in women aged 30 and over has been consistent in both London and the rest of the UK since 1971. In 2001, 48 per cent of London's births were to women aged below 30, while the UK percentage was 58 per cent.

There were large variations in 2001 within London; borough level fertility statistics are shown in Table A2.3 in the Appendix. While TFRs in 2001 in central boroughs (around 1.40) were some of the lowest in the country, those in Hackney (2.08) and Newham (2.19) were among the highest.

Mortality

The young age structure of the population also contributed to London's low crude death rate. Measured using the standardised mortality ratio (SMR), which takes age structure into account, overall mortality in London in 2001 was about 2 per cent lower than that for the UK as a whole. See Table A2.3 in the Appendix.

However, there were slight sex differences in comparison with the UK average as indicated in Table 8.11 in Chapter 8 (Living in London). Mortality rates from all causes in 2001 were almost identical in London and the UK for males, and 4 per cent lower for females. Borough level SMRs are shown in Table A2.3 in the Appendix and Map 2.7. The majority of Outer London boroughs (14 out of 19) had SMRs below 100, while 10 of the 14 Inner London boroughs had SMRs above 100. Exceptions to this pattern were the low levels recorded in Kensington and Chelsea, and in the City of London, at 73 and 50 respectively; and the high level of 110 in both Barking and Dagenham, and Waltham Forest. The highest SMR in London, 119, was found in Tower Hamlets. Although these SMRs are based on mortality and population statistics for 2001, the resultant patterns are consistent with the situation in most years since London boroughs were established in 1965.

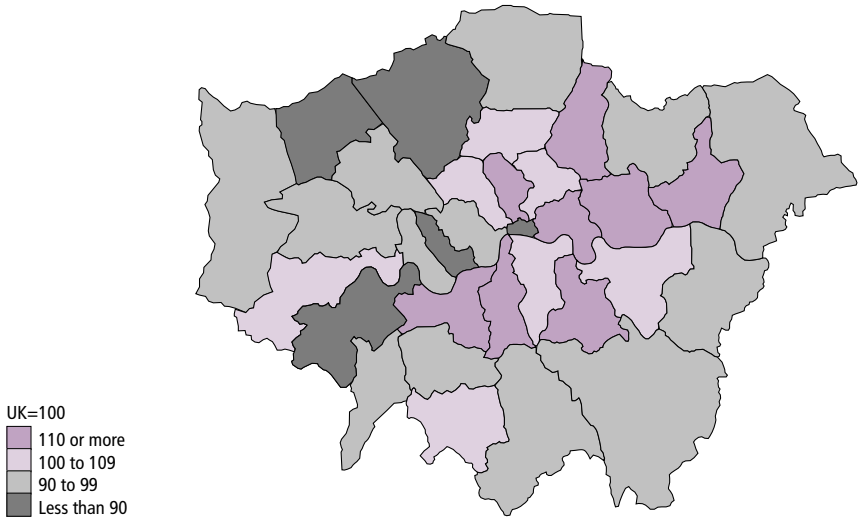
Migration and other changes

One of the main components of the high levels of change in total population in recent years is the estimated level of net migration. The levels in London are the

Map 2.7

Standardised mortality ratios[1], 2001

UK=100



1 Adjusted for the age structure of the population. See Notes and Definitions.

Source: Office for National Statistics

Table 2.8

Net migration and other changes[1]

Thousands

	Total[1]				Annual average[1]			
	1981-91	1991-96	1996-2001	1991-2001	1981-91	1991-96	1996-2001	1991-2001
Inner London	-63.1	-75.4	41.8	-33.6	-6.3	-15.1	8.4	-3.4
Outer London	-155.1	-42.5	27.8	-14.7	-15.5	-8.5	5.6	-1.5
London	-218.3	-117.9	69.6	-48.3	-21.8	-23.6	13.9	-4.8

1 The figures shown are not an estimate of net civilian migration. They have been derived by subtraction using revised population estimates and natural change. Although the main component of these other changes is net civilian migration, this is not the only component. Changes to the non-civilian population and definitional differences are also included.

Source: Office for National Statistics

sum of separate estimates of movements within the UK and international migration flows. Throughout the 1980s the annual average net migration (and other changes) amounted to a loss of about 22,000 (Table 2.8). The outflow increased during the early 1990s but declined and reversed in the mid-1990s and there was an average annual net inflow of nearly 14,000 in the period 1996-2001.

London's annual net migration loss to the rest of the UK, measured by the National Health Service Central Registers (see Notes and Definitions), increased from around 69,000 in 1999/2000 and 2000/01 to 98,000 in 2001/02 (Table A2.4 in the Appendix). However, these losses disguise a consistently large net inflow (19,000 in 2000/01) of young adults (those aged between 16 and 24) offset by net losses for all other age groups (Table 2.9).

As Table A2.4 also shows, London had an annual net inflow from the majority of UK regions from mid-1996, but the few exceptions were critical to the overall balance. The total net loss from London to the South East and the East of England regions constituted the majority of the total net loss to all parts of the UK. Apart from Northern Ireland, other regions which consistently showed a net gain from London were the South West and, in most years, the East Midlands. A regular feature of the migration patterns within the UK is that 60 to 65 per cent of those leaving London move to the adjacent South East or East of England regions.

London tends to have annual net inflows of people from outside the UK, as indicated by the International Passenger Survey (IPS) in Table A2.4 (see Notes and Definitions). In the year to mid-2001 this international flow was estimated to have been 67,000 people, and the total net inflow in the period from mid-1996 to mid-2001 was 250,000. Table 2.9 shows the majority of this net inflow from abroad is from those aged 16 to 44.

Table 2.9

Migration to and from London: by age, 2000/01[1]

Thousands

	Within the UK			International[2]		
	To	From	Net	To	From	Net
0 to15	13.2	39.5	-26.3	9.2	-4.5	4.6
16 to 24	65.1	46.1	19.1	50.4	-17.9	32.5
25 to 44	71.2	103.0	-31.9	78.1	-54.8	23.3
45 to 64	9.8	28.7	-18.9	8.9	-3.9	5.0
65+	4.3	14.9	-10.6	1.3	-0.2	1.2
All ages	163.6	232.2	-68.6	147.8	-81.2	66.6

1 Mid-2000 to mid-2001.
2 Excludes asylum seekers/visitor switchers and movements to and from the Irish Republic.

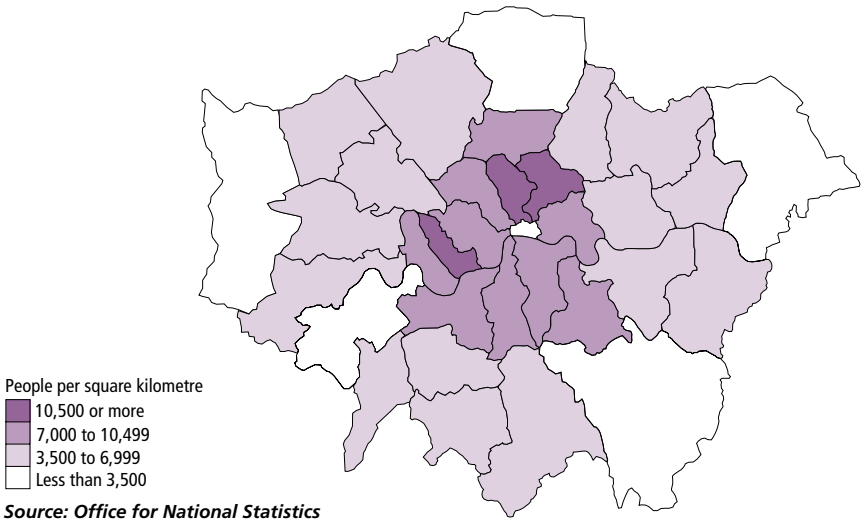
Source: National Health Service Central Register; International Passenger Survey, Office for National Statistics

There is another important element to international migration. In recent years, the numbers of people given UK residence, either as a result of seeking asylum or of entering the country as visitors and subsequently requesting residence (visitor switchers), has been an increasingly significant part of the total change in London's population. These people are not covered by the IPS estimates of migrants (see Notes and Definitions), but their numbers are included in the estimates of population change. Over the period 1996 to 2000, 65,800 asylum applicants were granted permission to remain in the UK. Using the Home Office assumption – originally based on analysis by the London Research Centre – that about 85 per cent of all UK asylum applicants live in the capital, the implied total of those allowed to remain in London was 56,000. (See Notes and Definitions.)

Map 2.10

Population density by Borough, 2001

People per sq km



Source: Office for National Statistics

Population density

As stated earlier, London is one of the most densely populated parts of the European Union. In 2001 the overall density was 4,573 persons per square kilometre, but there were considerable differences between the boroughs. Map 2.10 shows that the most densely populated boroughs were Kensington and Chelsea with 13,300 people per square kilometre and Islington with 11,700. Except for the City of London, which had the fourth lowest borough density (2,400), all other Inner London boroughs had population densities in excess of 6,700 persons, while the most densely populated Outer London boroughs were Brent and Waltham Forest at 6,100 and 5,600 respectively. Six Inner London boroughs – Kensington and Chelsea, Islington, Hackney, Hammersmith and Fulham, Lambeth and Tower Hamlets – had densities in excess of twice the London average, and the Outer London boroughs of Brent, Waltham Forest, Ealing, Merton and Greenwich all had densities greater than the London average. The lowest densities in Outer London – less than half the London average – are found in Bromley, Havering and Hillingdon. These boroughs are characterised by their recent patterns of population growth and the retention of the largest proportions of Green Belt areas among all boroughs.

This pattern – of a relatively sparsely populated core area surrounded by high densities that reduce as the external boundary is approached – is typical of mature cities. Most major exceptions can be explained by the history of land use within London. For example, the high density in Waltham Forest is a legacy of the early industrialisation of the Lea Valley, and the relatively low densities of the City of Westminster and Camden are due, in part, to the large public parks established when the city was growing in the 19th century.

Population structure

As with most other parts of the UK, London has a higher proportion of females than males among its resident population at 52 per cent (Table A2.1 in the Appendix). Women outnumbered men in all the age groups from 16 and over (both in the UK as a whole and in London).

London also has a different age structure from the rest of the UK as a whole; its population tends to be younger on average (Table 2.11). In 2001 London had proportionally more children under 5 and more adults aged between 20 and 44, 43 per cent of the total compared with 35 per cent for the UK as a whole. However, London had considerably fewer people aged between 5 and 15, and 45 and over. Females aged between 20 and 44 also accounted for nearly all births despite the high economic activity rates in this age band. The high numbers of young

Table 2.11

Population: by age

Percentages and thousands

	London						United Kingdom					
	Mid-year estimates				Projections		Mid-year estimates				Projections	
	1971	1981	1991[1]	2001	2011[2]	2021[2]	1971	1981	1991[1]	2001	2011[3]	2021[3]
0 to 4	*7.3*	*5.8*	*7.0*	*6.7*	*6.4*	*6.4*	*8.1*	*6.1*	*6.7*	*5.9*	*5.6*	*5.7*
5 to10	*..*	*..*	*7.2*	*7.5*	*7.3*	*7.0*	*10.0*	*8.1*	*7.6*	*7.7*	*6.7*	*6.7*
11 to 15	*..*	*..*	*5.3*	*6.0*	*6.0*	*5.5*	*7.4*	*8.0*	*6.0*	*6.6*	*5.9*	*5.5*
16 to19	*..*	*..*	*4.7*	*4.6*	*5.0*	*4.6*	*5.5*	*6.7*	*5.3*	*4.9*	*5.1*	*4.5*
20 to 24	*8.7*	*8.8*	*9.0*	*7.4*	*7.6*	*7.2*	*7.7*	*7.6*	*7.7*	*6.0*	*6.7*	*5.9*
25 to 44	*24.9*	*27.5*	*33.0*	*35.4*	*30.4*	*29.7*	*24.1*	*26.2*	*29.3*	*29.1*	*26.5*	*25.8*
45 to 59/64	*22.3*	*19.5*	*17.4*	*18.0*	*23.0*	*23.5*	*20.9*	*19.4*	*19.0*	*21.3*	*23.2*	*23.2*
60/65 to 74	*11.8*	*12.1*	*9.9*	*8.5*	*9.0*	*10.5*	*11.6*	*12.0*	*11.4*	*10.9*	*12.3*	*13.7*
75 to 84	*3.9*	*4.9*	*5.1*	*4.3*	*3.8*	*4.1*	*3.9*	*4.8*	*5.4*	*5.6*	*5.7*	*6.5*
85 or over	*1*	*1.2*	*1.4*	*1.6*	*1.5*	*1.5*	*0.9*	*1.1*	*1.5*	*1.9*	*2.2*	*2.5*
Pensionable age	*16.7*	*18.2*	*16.4*	*14.4*	*14.3*	*16.0*	*16.3*	*17.9*	*18.4*	*18.4*	*20.2*	*22.7*
All ages	7,529	6,806	6,829	7,188	7,470	7,736	55,928	56,357	57,439	58,837	60,524	62,386

1 Mid-year population estimates are consistent with the 2001 Census results.
2 1996-based subnational projections.
3 2001-based national projections.

Source: Office for National Statistics; Government Actuary's Department

adults, particularly women in their twenties, helps to explain London's high crude birth rate compared with the UK average. London's relatively low proportion of residents over state retirement age (14 per cent compared with 18 per cent nationally) partly explains London's low crude death rate.

The main reasons for these differences from the national norms are to be found in the analysis of London's migration patterns. London, particularly the central area, attracts young people and there is a tendency for young women to 'leave home' at an earlier age than young men do and in greater numbers. Some of this migration is associated with opportunities for further education, but people move primarily to improve their employment prospects. As many opportunities for education and work (along with the nightlife) are in the central parts of the city, the result is the mass movement of young adults to areas with good access to the centre, giving rise to the somewhat unbalanced age structure.

As a young population grows older and enters different stages in the life-cycle (especially when raising a family) a different kind of accommodation is needed. Generally this need is better catered for either in Outer London or beyond the capital completely. This demand for living space creates high levels of net outflow of people in their thirties and forties. London also experiences large annual net outflows of people around retirement age, leading to their relatively low representation in the population.

These variations from the national age and sex structure are an enduring feature of London's population, maintained as a result of the relative balance of the large flows of people who move both to and away from the city each year.

Ethnic origin

The 2001 Census showed that 29 per cent of the city's population were from a minority ethnic group (Table 2.12). The proportion of people from a minority ethnic background in England and Wales was 9 per cent – 4.5 million people; London was home to nearly half (46 per cent) of that total – 2.1 million people. The capital had a higher proportion of people from most minority ethnic groups than any other region of England and Wales. For example, more than half of the people from Black and Bangladeshi groups lived in London. Of the city's total minority ethnic population 42 per cent were Asian or Asian British and 38 per cent were of Black or Black British origin. A further 11 per cent belonged to one of the Mixed ethnic origin categories. Indians made up the largest minority ethnic group recorded in London, followed by Black Africans and Black Caribbeans. The data also show differences between living patterns in Inner and Outer London. People belonging to the Mixed groups, Black groups and Bangladeshis are more likely to live in Inner London, whereas Indians, Pakistanis and Other Asians are more likely to live in Outer London.

Table 2.12

Population: by ethnic group, April 2001

Percentages and thousands

	Inner London	Outer London	London	England and Wales
White: British	*50.5*	*65.6*	*59.8*	*87.5*
White: Irish	*3.4*	*2.9*	*3.1*	*1.2*
White: Other	*11.8*	*6.1*	*8.3*	*2.6*
Mixed: White and Black Caribbean	*1.3*	*0.8*	*1.0*	*0.5*
Mixed: White and Black African	*0.7*	*0.4*	*0.5*	*0.2*
Mixed: White and Asian	*0.9*	*0.8*	*0.8*	*0.4*
Mixed: Other	*1.1*	*0.7*	*0.9*	*0.3*
Asian or Asian British: Indian	*3.1*	*8.0*	*6.1*	*2.0*
Asian or Asian British: Pakistani	*1.6*	*2.3*	*2.0*	*1.4*
Asian or Asian British: Bangladeshi	*4.6*	*0.6*	*2.2*	*0.5*
Asian or Asian British: Other	*1.3*	*2.2*	*1.9*	*0.5*
Black or Black British: Caribbean	*6.9*	*3.5*	*4.8*	*1.1*
Black or Black British: African	*8.3*	*3.4*	*5.3*	*0.9*
Black or Black British: Other	*1.3*	*0.6*	*0.8*	*0.2*
Chinese	*1.4*	*0.9*	*1.1*	*0.4*
Other minority ethnic group	*2.0*	*1.3*	*1.6*	*0.4*
All minority ethnic groups	*34.3*	*25.4*	*28.8*	*8.7*
White	*65.7*	*74.6*	*71.2*	*91.3*
Total population	2,766	4,406	7,172	52,042

Source: Office for National Statistics

International migrants

Statistics on international migration are subject to significant revision following the results of the 2001 Census.

Table 2.13 shows the original International Passenger Survey (IPS) estimated international inflows (people coming into London from abroad) and outflows (people leaving London to go abroad) from 1991 to 2001. The table shows the considerable rise in the inflows alongside more stable outflows. This has led to the significant change in

net migration to London, from a small net loss of 2,800 people in 1992/93, to a net gain of over 60,000 people in 1998/99, and a net gain of about 310,000 people over the whole period.

Household structure

The 2001 Census household totals for London are given in Table 2.14, and information for each of the boroughs is in Table A2.5 in the Appendix. The breakdown into household types is based on the classification used in the 2001 Census *Key Statistics*.

In 2001, London's average household size (2.3 people) was the same as that for England and Wales, the North East and the South West. In all other Government Office Regions in England, the average household size was 2.4. Inner London had a lower average (2.2 people), compared with the Outer London average of 2.4 people. The City of London and City of Westminster were the only local authorities in England and Wales that had an average household size below 2.0 people, at 1.6 and 1.9 respectively. The Outer London borough of Richmond upon Thames and 8 Inner London boroughs had an average household size below 2.3. Newham in Inner London and Brent, Harrow and Redbridge in Outer London had the highest average household size, of 2.6 people, in the country. Within England and Wales, Luton in the East of England, Bradford in Yorkshire and the Humber, and Slough in the South East were the only other areas with this average household size.

Inner London has high proportions of one-person households and lone parent households but relatively few couple households. Outer London also has relatively few married couple households with no children (9.8 per cent) compared with England and Wales (13.0 per cent). In common with Inner London it also has proportionally more lone parent households than the national average. Households of one person living alone made up 35 per cent of all London households including nearly half of those in Westminster, and Kensington and Chelsea, and 60 per cent of households in the City of London. The proportion of one-person households in London was 5 percentage points higher than in England and Wales as a whole. This was higher than in any other English region. The one-person household type was particularly dominant in Inner London, accounting for 40 per cent of households compared with 31 per cent in Outer London.

The proportion of lone-parent households with dependent children varied between boroughs, ranging from, less than 4 per cent in the City of London up to nearly 12 per cent in Newham. Lone parents with dependent children headed 8 per cent of London households, a higher proportion than in any other region except the North West. Regions with the lowest proportion (5 per cent) were the South East, East of England and South West.

Table 2.13

International migration flows to and from London[1]

Thousands

	Inflow	Outflow	Net
1991/92	68.8	-65.9	3.0
1992/93	54.0	-56.8	-2.8
1993/94	75.8	-57.9	17.8
1994/95	72.0	-61.7	10.3
1995/96	83.7	-53.0	30.8
1996/97	87.0	-53.3	33.7
1997/98	115.0	-73.4	41.6
1998/99	137.0	-76.5	60.5
1999/2000	130.3	-82.4	47.9
2000/01	147.8	-81.2	66.6
1991/2001	971.5	-662.1	309.3

1 Excludes asylum seekers, visitor switchers, and movements to and from the Irish Republic.

Source: Office for National Statistics

Table 2.14

Households[1], April 2001

Numbers, percentages and thousands

		Household type (percentages)					
	Average household size (persons)	Married couple	Co-habiting couple	Lone parent	One person	Other	All Households (thousands)
Inner London	2.2	*20.5*	*8.8*	*11.8*	*40.1*	*18.8*	1,220
Outer London	2.4	*33.9*	*7.6*	*10.7*	*31.1*	*16.7*	1,796
London	2.3	*28.5*	*8.1*	*11.1*	*34.7*	*17.5*	3,016

1 Resident population in households.

Source: Office for National Statistics

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This chapter describes land use in London including the distribution of protected land in the Green Belt and areas of Open Land, and the important legacy of the capital's historic buildings and areas. It continues with a description of the waste collection and disposal services in London, followed by a discussion of air and river quality, and noise pollution. The chapter closes with a brief look at the weather in 2002.

The use of land and buildings

The Institute of Terrestrial Ecology's Land Cover Figure, based on images from Earth observation satellites, provides information on 25 types of land cover for the whole of Great Britain. It shows that although London is predominantly an urban area, it is not entirely built-up: over a third of its total land area is semi-natural or mown grass, tilled land and deciduous woodland. Table 3.1 summarises the principal categories of land coverage in London, while Map 3.2 illustrates their extent. The analysis is based on the Ordnance Survey's 1 x 1 kilometre grid squares and includes grid squares that cross the London boundary.

The analysis of land cover derived from satellite images identifies non-urban areas but does not indicate whether these areas are used for agriculture. However, the Census of Agriculture indicates there were 14,000 hectares of land in agricultural holdings in London in June 2001, of which 39 per cent was arable land, lower than the proportion in England as a whole (48 per cent). In addition, London had a quantity of set-aside land; 11 per cent of London's total land in agricultural holdings was set-aside compared with 7.6 per cent across the whole of England. Whilst the total area of agricultural holdings has not changed significantly, the area of arable land has fallen and the area of set-aside has increased since 1998.

As the majority of land in London is already in some form of developed use, most changes in use involve replacing existing buildings with new ones, or

Table 3.1

Land cover[1]; London, 1988-1991

Hectares and Percentages

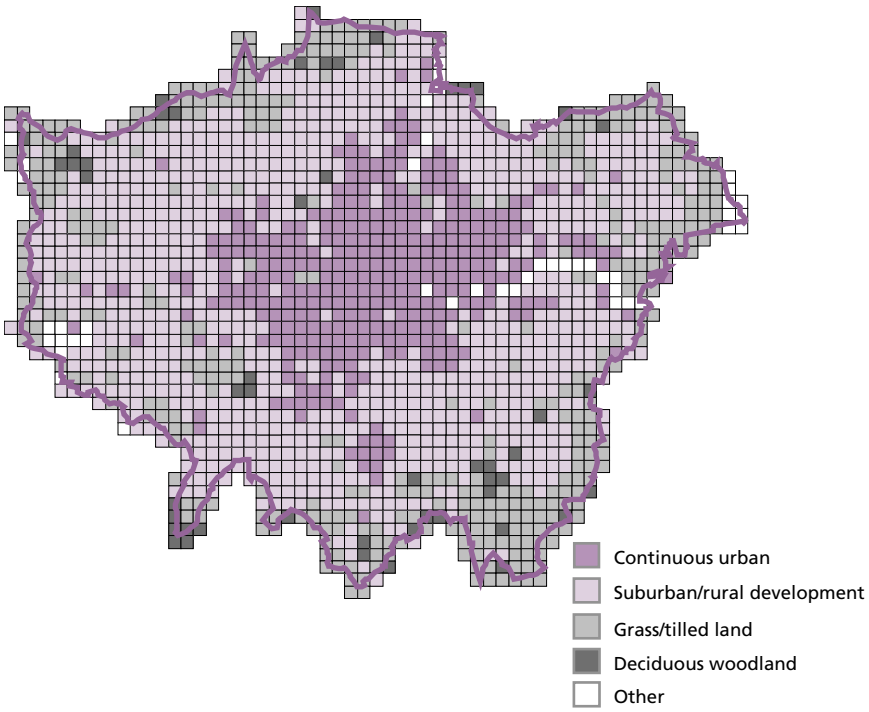
	Thousands of hectares[2]	Percentages
Suburban	66	*38*
Continuous urban	36	*20*
Semi-natural grass	29	*17*
Mown grass	13	*8*
Tilled land	12	*7*
Deciduous woodland	8	*4*
Other vegetation	5	*3*
Inland water	2	*1*
Estuary	1	*1*
Other land	3	*2*
Total	174	*100*

1 Data taken from the Land Cover Map of Great Britain.
2 The satellite classification may involve a degree of imprecision and misallocation, so the results should be used with caution.

Source: Institute of Terrestrial Ecology, Monks Wood © NERC

Map 3.2

Land cover by kilometre square[1], 1988-1991



1 Plot and data taken from the Land Cover Map of Great Britain. The satellite classification may involve a degree of imprecision and misallocation.

Source: Greater London Authority

putting old buildings to new uses. Land use changes recorded by the Ordnance Survey show that 85 per cent of land changing to developed uses between 1995 and 1998 had previously been in some form of developed use. A further five per cent was urban land which had not previously been developed (Table 3.3). Only 9 per cent of land changing to developed use was previously in agricultural or other land not previously developed. The proportions are similar for land specifically being developed for housing.

Some land has been so damaged by industrial or other development, that it is incapable of beneficial use without treatment. This includes disused landfill sites, worked-out mineral excavations and abandoned industrial installations. Some of this land may be contaminated as a result of leakage or because wastes were disposed of on site. The latest survey of derelict land carried out by the Office of the Deputy Prime Minister shows that there were 368 hectares of derelict land and buildings in London in 2001 (Table 3.4), a reduction from the 1,625 hectares reported in 1993.

Significant changes in the use of land or buildings, and the construction of new buildings and other structures, require consent under the Town and Country Planning Act 1990 and associated legislation. Applications are submitted to the relevant London Borough Council as the local planning authority. Table 3.5 shows the number of planning applications received during 2001/02. The local authority makes most decisions and only a small proportion of applications are withdrawn, referred to the Office of the Deputy Prime Minister or refused. If consent is refused or the local planning authority fails to make a decision within eight weeks of receiving the application, the applicant may appeal to the Deputy Prime Minister. The number of applications received was lower in Inner London in 2001/02 than in 1998/99 (down from 34,200 to 32,100) but up in Outer London (up from 39,300 to 49,600). Table 3.5 also

Table 3.3

Change in land use: London, 1995-1998[1,2]

Hectares and percentages

	Land changing to developed use		Land changing to residential use	
	Hectares[3]	Percentage of total	Hectares[3]	Percentage of total
Previous use of land				
Agriculture	15	*2*	5	*2*
Urban land not previously developed	35	*5*	25	*9*
Other land not previously developed	50	*7*	20	*7*
Residential	80	*11*	50	*18*
Vacant land previously developed	165	*23*	110	*39*
Other land previously developed	360	*51*	80	*28*
Total	705	*100*	285	*100*

1 The information relates only to map changes recorded by the Ordnance Survey between 1995 and 2001 for which the year of change is judged to be between 1995 and 1998.
2 See Notes and Definitions.
3 Figures are rounded to the nearest 5 hectares.

Source: Office of the Deputy Prime Minister

Table 3.4

Derelict land and buildings[1], 2001

Hectares

	Derelict land and buildings
Greenwich[2]	107
Barking and Dagenham[2]	89
Barnet[3]	41
Newham	31
Wandsworth	31
Croydon	16
Havering	15
Bexley[2]	10
Other boroughs[4]	28
London	368

1 Taken from the National Land Use Database of Previously Developed Land.
2 Completion figures have not been provided.
3 Completion is less than 85 per cent
4 Includes the City of London, Hackney, Hillingdon, Hounslow, Lewisham, Redbridge, Southwark, Tower Hamlets, Waltham Forest. Data for all other boroughs were either negligible or unavailable.

Source: National Land Use Database, Office of the Deputy Prime Minister

shows the number of applications granted, granted on appeal or refused across London.

Table 3.6 shows the number and floorspace of commercial and industrial buildings in London in 2001. In 2001 the total number of hereditaments (any property that may pass on to an heir) in London was over 228,000, covering a floorspace of just under 71 million square metres. Further information on commercial and industrial buildings and their floorspace in London boroughs is given in Table A3.1 in the Appendix.

Protected land

London is surrounded by the Green Belt, the main purposes of which are to:

- check the unrestricted sprawl of the London built-up area;
- prevent neighbouring towns from merging with one another and with the London built-up area;
- safeguard the countryside from urban encroachment; and
- assist in urban regeneration by encouraging the reuse of derelict and other urban land.

The extent of the Green Belt is shown in Map 3.7.

One of London's greatest assets is its patchwork of parks and open land. Its inhabitants and visitors benefit from a legacy of Royal Parks, municipal parks and gardens, playing fields and many small public and private open spaces, particularly in central London. Certain parks and open areas are designated as Metropolitan Open Land because they:

- contribute to the physical structure of London by separating built-up areas;
- contain open air facilities, particularly for leisure, recreation, sport and tourism, which serve the whole or a significant part of London; or
- contain features or landscape of historic, recreational, nature conservation or habitat interest at a metropolitan or national level.

These areas of Metropolitan Open Land are also shown in Map 3.7. Some of them are designated as conservation areas and/or are included in the Register of Parks and Gardens of Special Historic Interest. There are 33 Sites of Special Scientific Interest (SSSIs) in London, including Epping Forest and Hainault Forest. Although the latter is partly in Essex, it is managed by the London Borough of Redbridge. In addition, the Mayor of London has identified a further 103 places as Sites of Metropolitan Importance for Nature Conservation.

Results from the 2001 survey of public attitudes to quality of life and to the environment, conducted by DEFRA, show that 75 per cent of Londoners said

Table 3.5

Planning applications, 2001/02[1]

Thousands

	Inner London[1]	Outer London	London
Received[2]	32.1	49.6	81.7
Withdrawn[3]	3.5	2.9	6.4
Granted[2]	21.0	31.3	52.3
Granted on appeal[4,5]	0.2	0.6	0.8
Refused[6]	4.3	8.4	12.7

1 Figures do not include estimates for 2 non-responding authorities.
2 Applications received in one year might not be decided in the same year; similarly some applications granted in one year might relate to applications received in the previous year.
3 The figures also include applications which were called in by the Office of the Deputy Prime Minister or turned away by the local authority.
4 The figures are the number of appeals allowed during the year under Section 78 (i) of the Town and Country Planning Act 1990. They may relate to applications which were refused in the preceding year.
5 These figures differ from those in other categories in the table in that they exclude certain types of applications, eg applications for listed building consent and conservation area consent.
6 Some applications received may properly be neither granted nor refused.

Source: Office of the Deputy Prime Minister

Table 3.6

Total floorspace and number of hereditaments by bulk class: London, 2001[1]

Thousands and million sq metres

	Number of hereditaments (thousands)	Stock of floorspace (million sq m)
Retail	100.9	16.0
Offices[2]	74.7	26.7
Factories	28.5	13.0
Warehouses	24.6	14.9
All bulk classes	228.7	70.6

1 These data are not comparable with data for 1984 and 1994 as published in previous editions of Focus on London due to changes in the definitions. See Notes and Definitions.
2 Commercial offices 23.7 million sq m; other offices 3.0 million sq m.

Source: Office of the Deputy Prime Minister

they had easy access to local green space without using a car or other transport. 29 per cent used their local green space once a week or more frequently.

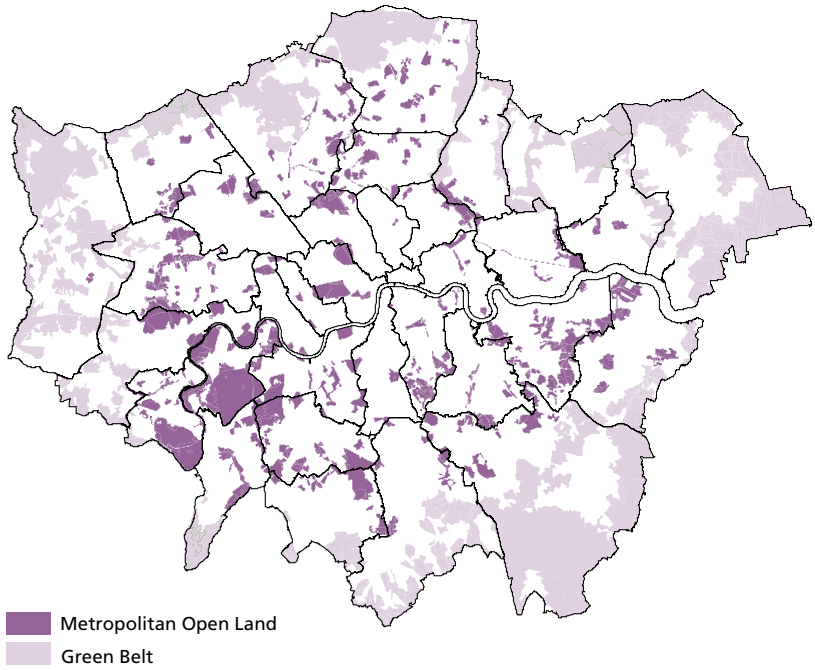
Historic buildings and areas

London is one of the most important historic cities in the world. This importance is embodied in individual buildings and in historic areas, many of which are subject to legal protection. A statutory list of buildings of architectural or historic interest is drawn up by the Department for Culture, Media and Sport based on advice from English Heritage. The objective is to preserve the special architectural or historic features, and the settings, of buildings and other structures on the list which are generally referred to as 'listed buildings'. A summary of the numbers of list entries in each London borough is shown in Table A3.2 in the Appendix. Some list entries include several buildings where they are grouped together, for example in a terrace. Altogether, there are over 18,000 list entries for London, of which just over three per cent are Grade I and almost seven per cent Grade II* (see Notes and Definitions). Over a fifth of the total are in the City of Westminster.

The Inter-Governmental World Heritage Committee under the World Heritage Convention, which was ratified in Britain in 1984, designates World Heritage Sites. The objective of the Convention is the identification, protection, conservation and preservation of cultural and natural sites of outstanding world value. However, designation as a World Heritage Site does not give any additional legal protection as such. There are three World Heritage Sites in London – the Palace of Westminster and Westminster Abbey, the Tower of London and Maritime Greenwich. In 1999, the Secretary of State for Culture, Media and Sport published a list of 25 sites as a tentative list that might be nominated for World Heritage status over the next five to ten years. This list included the Royal Botanic Gardens at Kew as well as selected parts of the

Map 3.7

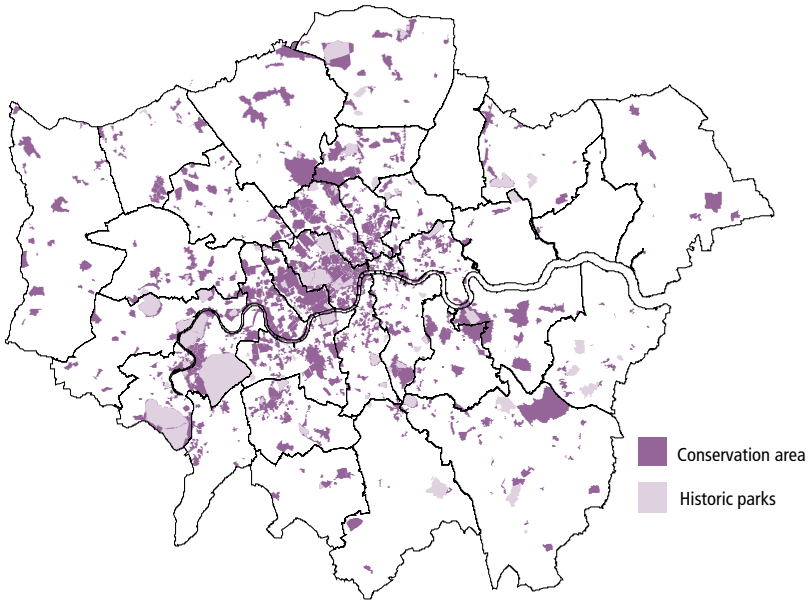
London's Green Belt and Metropolitan Open Land, 2003



Source: Environment and Scientific Service, Office of the Deputy Prime Minister

Map 3.8

Conservation areas and historic parks, 2003



1 Plot and data taken from the Land Cover Map of Great Britain. The satellite classification may involve a degree of imprecision and misallocation.

Source: Greater London Authority

Great Western Railway: from Paddington to Bristol including Paddington Station itself.

Ancient Monuments are designated by the Department for Culture, Media and Sport under the Ancient Monuments and Archaeological Areas Act 1979. The objective is the protection of monuments that are of national importance by virtue of their historic, architectural, artistic or archaeological interest. There are 151 scheduled Ancient Monuments in London, a third of them within the City of London (Table A3.2 in the Appendix).

Map 3.8 shows the areas of London that have been designated conservation areas (see Notes and Definitions). The objective of such a designation is the protection and enhancement of the character and appearance of whole areas, which are of special architectural or historic interest in a local context. There are 800 conservation areas in London, 10 per cent of the total for England and Wales.

English Heritage maintains a Register of Parks and Gardens of Special Historic Interest. As Map 3.8 shows, many historic parks and gardens are included within conservation areas. Out of 1,200 entries on the Register in England, 10 per cent are in London. They include Bushy Park, the gardens of Hampton Court, Greenwich Park and Finsbury Park as well as many smaller parks and gardens, particularly in central London.

Waste generation and disposal

In 2000/01, each household in London produced around 1.1 tonnes of waste. The 33 London local authorities, acting as waste collection authorities, collected about 4.44 million tonnes of municipal waste from households as well as residential homes, educational establishments, hospitals and some commercial premises (Table A3.3 in the Appendix). In London, 4 statutory waste disposal authorities and 12 individual authorities, as shown in Map 3.9, disposed of this waste. Some of the individual authorities are organised into voluntary disposal consortia. The Environment Agency regulates the storage, transport and exchange and disposal of waste. Its regulatory responsibilities include licensing and monitoring waste management facilities and the implementation of the packaging waste policy. The agency is divided into 7 regions with London falling within the Thames Region.

Estimates compiled for the Greater London Authority indicate that industrial and commercial waste accounted for around 6.38 million tonnes of additional waste in London in 2000/01. There was also an estimated 6.05 million tonnes of construction and demolition waste, and 0.36 million tonnes of special waste (which include hazardous or toxic wastes). Table A3.3 in the Appendix summarises the quantities of waste produced and how they were managed. The largest proportion of waste recycled (72 per cent) was construction and demolition waste used as aggregate rather than sent for disposal. This contributed significantly towards achieving the target of 46 per cent waste recycling for London overall.

Municipal waste makes up about 26 per cent of the total waste produced in London each year. The quantity of municipal waste increased by 16 per cent between 1996/97 and 2000/01, an annual rate of about 4 per cent. However, the household component of municipal waste has grown more slowly, at an annual rate of 2.5 per cent and, as a result, the proportion of household waste in municipal solid waste (domestic, non-hazardous) declined from 81 per cent to 76 per cent. In 2000/01, 72 per cent of London's municipal waste was landfilled, 20 per cent was incinerated with energy recovery and 8 per cent was recycled or composted (Table A3.3 in the Appendix). In comparison to London, a higher proportion of municipal waste was landfilled in England as a whole, at 78 per cent, and a lower proportion was incinerated with energy recovery, at 9 per cent. A greater proportion of municipal waste in England was recycled, at 12 per cent.

Map 3.9

London Waste Disposal Authorities, 2003

Source: Greater London Authority

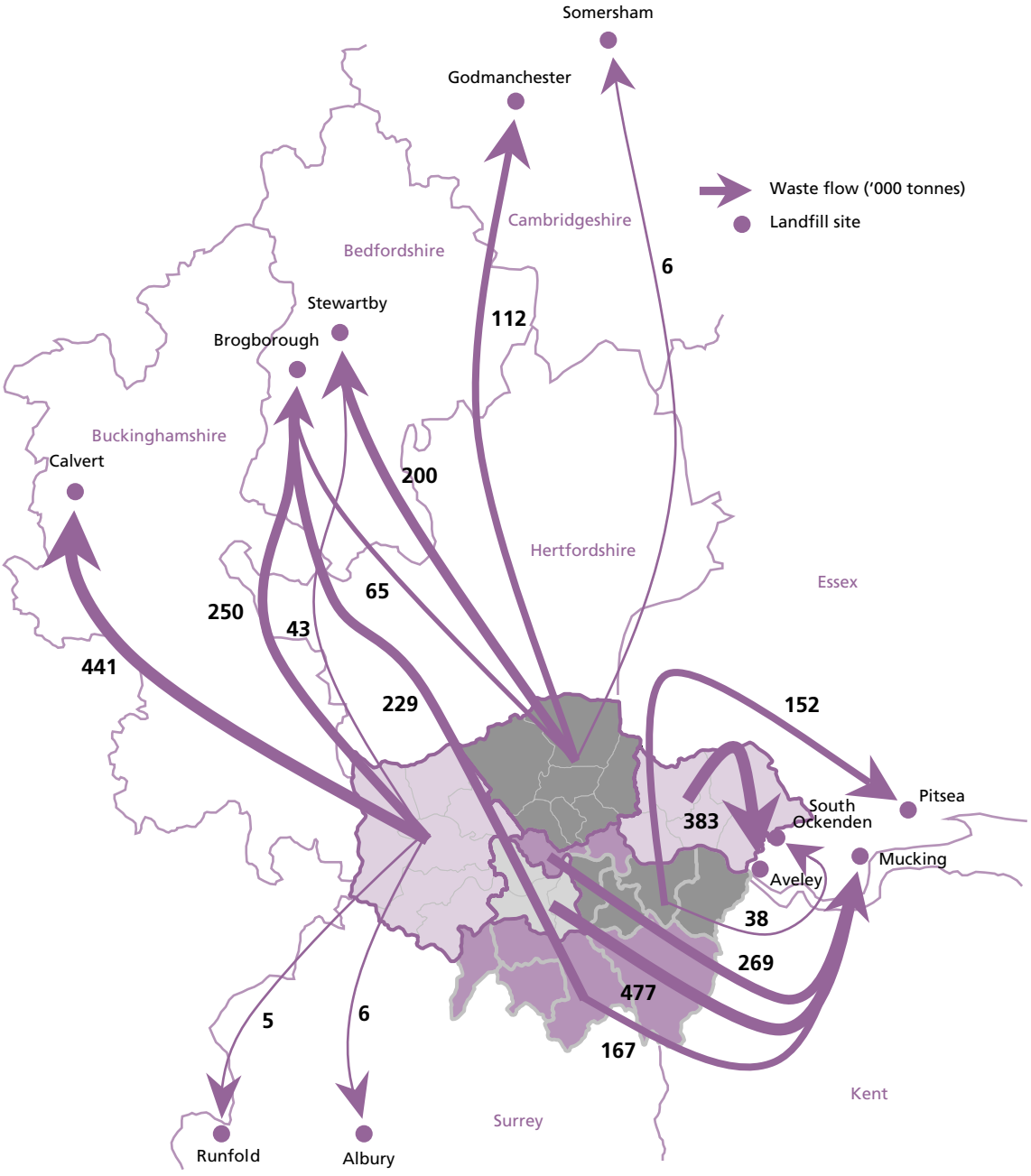
The level of incineration in London remained fairly constant between 1996/97 and 2000/01 due to constraints on capacity and an increase in recycling by 80 per cent in tonnage terms. The majority of the increase in municipal waste has been managed through landfill.

The amount of waste sent to landfill has risen by just under half a million tonnes: from 2.8 million tonnes in 1996/97 to 3.2 million tonnes in 2000/01.

The methods for managing waste by waste disposal authorities vary across London. London's two municipal waste incinerators have a combined capacity of about 1 million tonnes of waste per year. The London Waste Ltd incinerator in Edmonton, Enfield handles significant quantities of waste from the North London Waste Authority and the East London Waste Authority, whilst the South East London Combined Heat and

Map 3.10

Waste disposal routes and sites outside London[1], 2000/01



1 Movements of waste above 5,000 tonnes per year only. The areas shaded on the map represent the authorities or groups of authorities from which the waste materials are moved. Details of the London Waste Authorities are shown in Figure 3.9.

Source: London Waste Disposal Authorities

Power incinerator in Lewisham managed significant proportions of waste from Bexley, Lewisham, Greenwich and Westminster in 2000/01. Other areas send the majority of their waste to landfill.

In 2000/01, London exported about 66 per cent of its municipal waste for landfill to counties in the East and South East of England (London landfills 72 per cent of its municipal waste and more than 90 per cent of this was deposited in landfill outside the London area). These waste transfers are illustrated in Map 3.10. The former Greater London Council built three transfer stations for compacting waste into containers for transport by rail, to landfill sites in Oxfordshire, Buckinghamshire and Bedfordshire, as well as two new Western Riverside transfer stations at Cringle Dock and Smugglers Way for compacting waste for transport by barge to Mucking in Essex. The largest proportion of London's waste goes to Essex for landfill, although significant amounts go for disposal in Buckinghamshire, Bedfordshire and Cambridgeshire. The Environment Agency estimates that there is, at present, capacity for five years' landfill in the East region and just less than seven years in the South East region, at current total throughput levels.

The household recycling rate for London in 2000/01 was 9 per cent. Recycling rates across London waste authorities varied significantly. A number of the areas with responsibility for collection and disposal of waste are found in Outer London boroughs where the recycling rate is high. In 2000/01 Sutton recycled 25 per cent, Kingston upon Thames 20 per cent, Merton 18 per cent and Bexley 17 per cent. Of those areas which are waste collection authorities only, Barking and Dagenham achieved only 3 per cent whereas Richmond upon Thames recycled 16 per cent. Camden, an inner city collection authority, recycled 15 per cent. Although Camden had a high recycling rate, other Inner London boroughs tended to recycle less. Hackney recycled just 1 per cent of its household waste, Newham 2 per cent, and Southwark and Tower Hamlets 3 per cent each. West London Waste Authority was the highest performing joint statutory waste disposal authority in 2000/01, recycling 11 per cent of household waste.

The Government's Best Value initiative was developed as a performance management framework that seeks to improve local services. It also aims to ensure that local people are better informed about the quality of local services they are getting. Together with two Audit Commission Performance Indicators (ACPIs) there will be ten Best Value Performance Indicators (BVPIs), relating to waste services. These will cover strategic objectives, cost and efficiency, service delivery outcomes, quality and fair access. An eleventh BVPI was added for 2003/04 covering cleanliness of public spaces. The targets have been set against a baseline of performance in 1998/99 to achieve the national waste strategy recycling targets, as shown in Table 3.11. The overall targets for London are for a quarter of all household waste to be recycled or composted by 2005, increasing to a third by 2015. In terms of the recovery of municipal waste for

Table 3.11

Targets for recycling and recovery of municipal waste

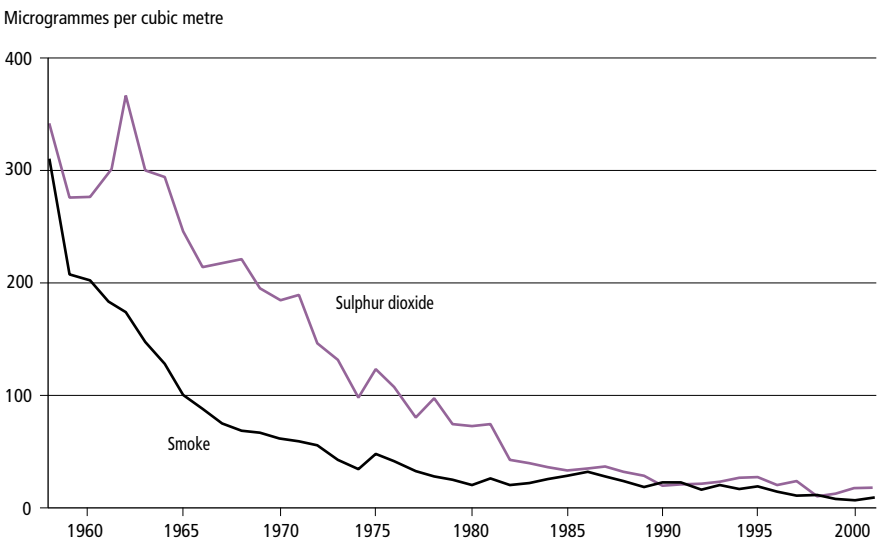
Percentages

	2005	2010	2015
Recycling and composting of household waste	*25*	*30*	*33*
Recovery of muncipal waste	*40*	*45*	*67*

Source: Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs

Figure 3.12

Annual average smoke and sulphur dioxide levels[1] in Central London



1 Data relate to County Hall, London up to 1989, and to London City subsequently.

Source: National Air Quality Information Archive, Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs

London the target is 40 per cent by 2005, increasing to 67 per cent by 2015. Information on the quantities of waste collected and recycled by individual London boroughs are given in Table A3.4 in the Appendix.

Air quality

As far back as the 13th century London has had issues with air pollution. These were linked to the lime industry production process, which required the burning of large quantities of coal. In the 15th, 16th and 17th centuries shortages in the supply of fuel wood coupled with an increasing population brought a further increase in the use of coal and its associated air pollution problems. By the 19th century, London was frequently engulfed in thick fogs and, during an extreme fog in a single week of December 1873, there were 700 more deaths than normally expected at that time of year. In December 1952, London suffered from one of the worst smogs it had ever experienced, lasting for four days and leading to an estimated 3,500 to 4,000 premature deaths.

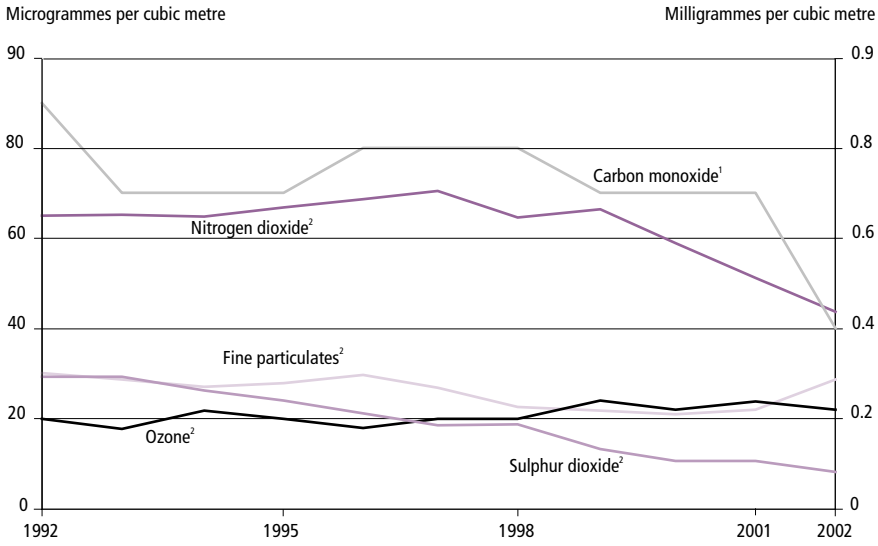
During the latter part of the 20th century, the occurrence of fogs declined, due to the marked decrease in the use of coal and heavy fuel oils, brought about by the creation of smokeless zones, which now cover most of London. The combined effect has not only reduced smoke emissions, but also lowered emissions of sulphur dioxide as shown in Figure 3.12.

However, as some forms of airborne pollutants decreased in recent years the growth in motor vehicle use has contributed towards further pollution. Figure 3.13 shows trends in five pollutants at the central London monitoring site in Bloomsbury between 1992 and 2002 (measurements taken at this site are intended to be representative of air quality in central London). The measurements show a steady downward trend in emissions of sulphur dioxide and a more erratic downward trend in emissions of carbon monoxide. Nitrogen dioxide emissions have been falling since 1997, whereas fine particulates (particles with a diameter of less than 10 microns, PM_{10}) generally had been falling for longer. There has been a slight but steady increase in ozone.

Road traffic has had an increasingly important impact on London's air quality, responsible for a growing proportion of emissions of carbon monoxide, oxides of nitrogen, fine particulates (PM_{10}) and secondary pollutants such as ozone. Table 3.14 shows the contribution of road traffic, and other sources of emissions, of oxides of nitrogen (nitrogen monoxide together with nitrogen dioxide) and PM_{10} (the pollutants of greatest concern

Figure 3.13

Annual average concentrations of selected pollutants: Bloomsbury, Central London



1 Micrammes per cubic metre (left hand scale).
2 Milligrammes per cubic metre (right hand scale).

Source: National Air Quality Information Archive, Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs

Table 3.14

Sources of air pollutant emissions, 1999

Percentages

Sources of emissions	Oxides of nitrogen	Fine particulates[1]
Road transport	*58.2*	*67.9*
Rail, aviation, ships	*11.5*	*8.1*
Regulated industrial processes	*8.9*	*22.3*
Gas use in commercial and residential buildings	*13.1*	*0.0*
Gas use in non-regulated industrial facilities	*7.4*	*0.0*
Other	*0.9*	*1.7*
Total	*100.0*	*100.0*

1 Particulate matter less than 10 microns in diameter, also referred to as PM_{10}.

Source: Greater London Authority; London Atmospheric Emissions Inventory, Transport for London

to the health of Londoners). Map 3.15 shows the calculated ground level concentrations of nitrogen dioxide across London. Air travel affects London's air quality both directly and indirectly. Aircraft landing and taking off, airside vehicles, passenger and freight traffic, and building heating and power plants all affect air quality.

Information about the air pollutant measurements taken at almost a hundred continuous automatic monitoring sites in London is summarised in Table 3.16. In addition to the automatic monitoring sites listed, non-automatic measurement of smoke and sulphur dioxide continues at eight sites in London. This maintains the time series of data used to compile Figure 3.13, which goes back to 1930, although no single site has operated continuously since then.

Results from the DEFRA 2001 survey of public attitudes to quality of life and the environment show that a higher proportion of respondents in London, compared with the UK as a whole, expressed concerns over traffic exhaust fumes and urban smog.

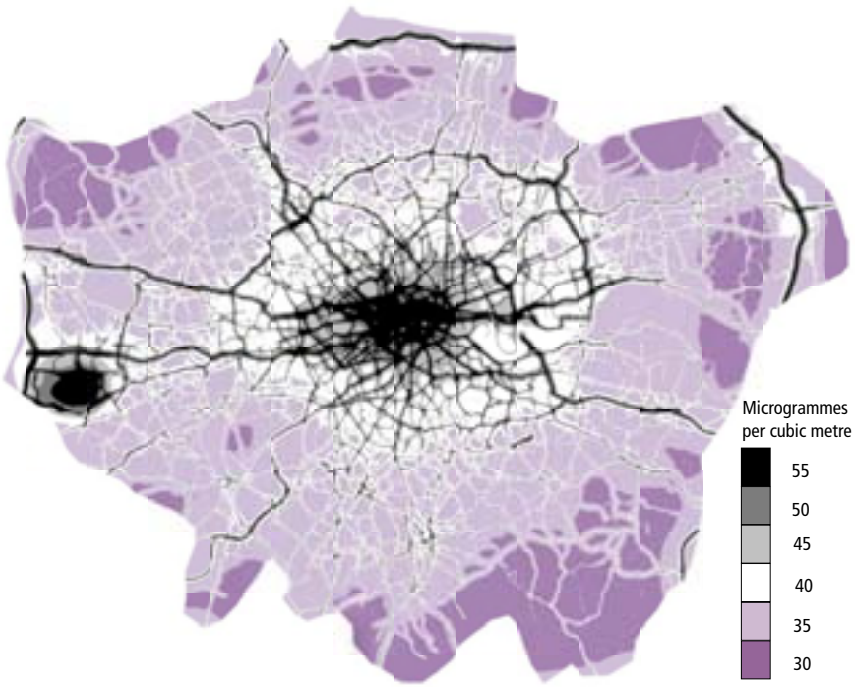
Energy use

Air quality is closely related to energy use because most pollutants are released to the atmosphere as a result of the combustion of fossil fuels. It was widely recognised at the time that one of the main causes of the fog in December 1952, referred to at the beginning of the previous section, was the use of coal. In 1952, coal supplied 61 per cent of London's energy needs, and 28 per cent was accounted for by house coal alone. If the coal burnt in power stations and to produce 'town gas' were included – this was a time before the arrival of gas from the North Sea – the proportions would have been even higher.

London's use of fuels has changed radically over the past 50 years. These changes are illustrated in Figure 3.17.

Map 3.15

Annual mean nitrogen dioxide concentrations, 1999



Source: Greater London Authority; Transport for London

Table 3.16

Automatic monitoring sites for each pollutant: classified by site type, March 2003

Numbers

Pollutant	Kerbside	Roadside	Urban background	Suburban	Other
Oxides of nitrogen/Nitrogen dioxide (NO_x/NO_2)	5	38	32	9	1
Sulphur dioxide (SO_2)	1	14	19	4	0
Carbon monoxide (CO)	1	19	14	2	1
Ozone (O_3)	1	4	17	6	1
Fine particulates PM_{10} [1]	1	25	20	8	1
Fine particulates $PM_{2.5}$ [2]	1	3	2	2	0

1 Particulate matter with an aerodynamic diameter of less than 10 micrometers.
2 Particulate matter with an aerodynamic diameter of less than 2.5 micrometers.

Source: Air Quality Consultants / Casella Stanger for Greater London Authority

The start of the decline in the use of house coal, from about 1957, coincided with the rapid growth in the use of oil. The economy was growing strongly and oil was favoured as a cleaner and less labour intensive fuel. Oil use continued to grow steadily until the first 'oil crisis' in 1973/74 when the Arab oil embargo led to a quadrupling in the price of oil by the Organisation of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC),

Natural gas was discovered in abundance in the North Sea in 1965, and in 1967 a national programme began to convert boilers and other gas burning equipment to burn natural gas in place of town gas. Initially gas started to replace coal while oil use continued to grow. However, the high price of oil and the uncertainty over supplies resulting from the first 'oil crisis' in 1973/74 and the second 'oil crisis' in 1979, following the revolution in Iran, made gas much more attractive to industrial and commercial customers. Indeed, demand rose to the extent that commercial gas prices were initially raised as a restraint and then, when demand could still not be met, the British Gas Corporation had to use its statutory power to refuse to supply customers requiring more than 25,000 therms (2.6 terajoules) a year.

Oil prices began to decline from 1981, and then fell sharply at the end of 1985 and through 1986, but by then gas had captured almost all of the coal market and 60 per cent of the market met by oil at its peak in 1973 in London.

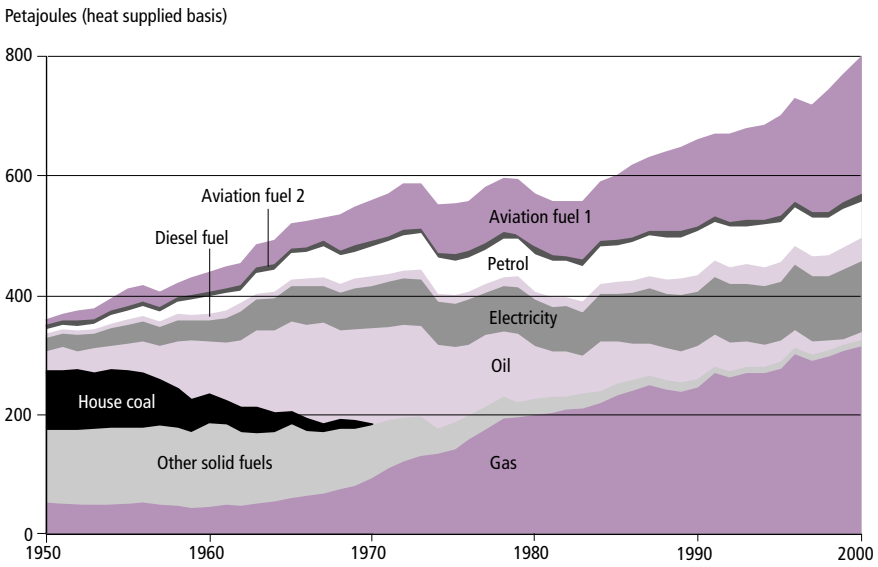
The total amount of energy used in London in 2000 was 545 petajoules (Table 3.18); which is the equivalent of 151,502 gigawatt hours or 21.3 million tonnes of coal. This is just over 11 per cent of final energy use in the United Kingdom, or 1.7 per cent of energy use in the European Union. Energy use by different sectors, and by fuel type, is summarised in Table 3.18.

The domestic sector was the largest energy using sector in London. At 45 per cent, this has grown by 14 per cent since 1991. The majority of domestic energy was used for space and water heating, but the main area of growth in energy use was in appliances, such as dishwashers and microwave cookers, and more homes with central heating. Energy use in commerce and industry has shown a proportional decline, from 39 to 34 per cent of total energy use. There has been a continued reduction in energy use by industry in London but this has been counterbalanced by a growth in commercial energy use. Industrial energy use fell from 26 per cent in 1965 to 12 per cent in 1991 and has now declined to just 7 per cent.

Transport accounts for 22 per cent of energy use in London, a growth of 18 per cent since 1956. The majority of transport energy use is by road transport (83 per cent). An estimated 5.2 million tonnes of aviation fuel was delivered to London's airports in 2000, principally Heathrow. However, most of this was actually used during flights to other destinations. Only 6 per cent of the 5.2 million tonnes of aviation fuel delivered is accounted for by landings and takeoffs within the London area. This represents just over 2 per cent of total energy use in London.

Figure 3.17

Energy use, London



Source: Greater London Authority

River and canal water quality

The Environment Agency undertakes regular assessments of the water quality in rivers and canals throughout England and Wales. The General Quality Assessment Scheme defines six grades (denoted A to F) on the basis of the concentrations of biological oxygen demand (BOD), total ammonia and dissolved oxygen. Grades A and B represent water of 'very good' or 'good' chemical quality, whilst grades C and D equate to 'fairly good' or 'fair' quality, and grades E and F represent 'poor' and 'bad' quality respectively

Map 3.19 shows the grading of rivers and canals within Greater London for the period 1999 to 2001. Most of London's rivers and canals fall into the B to E range of grades. The River Wandle Carshalton arm and the confluence of the two arms to Beddington, the Colne from the Chess to the Harefield Reach

of the Grand Union Canal and the Misbourne to the River Thames were the only sections of river graded A in 1999-2001, totalling 26 kilometres. Two reaches of the Thames as well as sections of the Lee and Cray totalling 46 kilometres were downgraded to B in the 1999-2001 classification. Nevertheless, the percentage of London's rivers and canals in the top three grades, A to C, was 56 per cent – second only to a peak of 60 per cent in 1992-94. The Riverside Sewage Treatment Works to Thames section of the River Ingrebourne (1.8 kilometres) continues to be the only stretch of river graded F or 'bad'.

Table 3.20 compares the percentage of river length for each chemical quality grade between 1999 and 2001 in London, the Thames Region and England and Wales as a whole. It can be seen from this that the percentage of river length in the upper three grades in London (56 per cent) is lower than in that in the Thames Region as a whole (87 per cent) or England and Wales (also 87 per cent).

As part of the water quality management strategy for the Thames estuary, the Environment Agency has established water quality objectives that include dissolved oxygen standards to allow the passage of migratory fish and to sustain the resident fish population. Water quality in the estuary is most vulnerable during the summer when the water temperature is elevated and incoming freshwater flows are low. During heavy summer storms the estuary receives a large pollution load from storm sewage discharges causing deterioration in dissolved oxygen concentrations. The Environment Agency's water quality management strategy for the tidal Thames incorporates a formal operating agreement with Thames Water Utilities. This is necessary to ensure that the dissolved oxygen levels do not fall sufficiently low to endanger fish or other wildlife. Under the operating agreement, the Environment Agency can request improved effluent quality

Table 3.18

Energy consumption in London: by sector and type of fuel, 2000

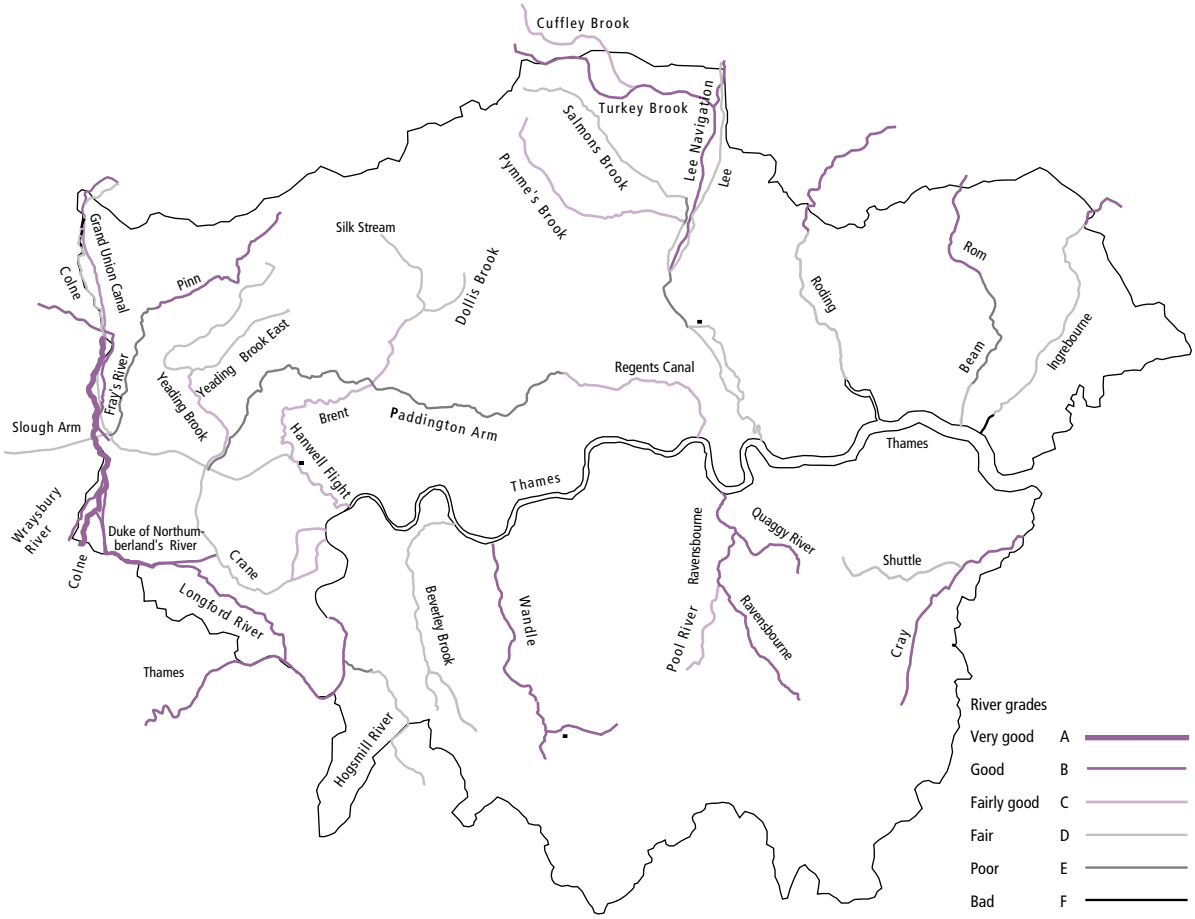
Energy units and percentages

	Gigawatt hours	Petajoules	Percentage of sector	Percentage of total
Commercial and industrial				
Oil	4,664	17	*9*	..
Coal	128	0	*0*	..
Gas	36,043	130	*71*	..
Electricity	10,100	36	*20*	..
All commercial and industrial	50,935	183	*100*	*34*
Domestic				
Oil	188	1	*0*	..
Coal	0	0	*0*	..
Gas	49,450	178	*72*	..
Electricity	18,706	67	*27*	..
All domestic	68,344	246	*100*	*45*
Transport				
Road				
Petrol	17,503	63	..	..
Diesel	9,452	34	..	..
All road	26,955	97	*83*	..
Rail				
Underground				
Electricity	1,095	4	..	..
Inter-City and suburban				
Electricity	690	2	..	..
Diesel	241	1	..	..
All rail	2,026	7	*6*	..
Shipping	51	0	*0*	..
Air	3,635	13	*11*	..
All transport	32,667	118	*100*	*22*
Total	151,502	545	..	*100*

Source: Greater London Authority

Map 3.19

River and canal quality[1], 1999-2001



1 Grades for the main stretches of the Thames are not shown. For details of the quality along the Thames see text.
Source: Environment Agency

standards from the sewage treatment works during the summer and the suspension of abstraction for the drinking water supply in order to increase freshwater flows into the estuary. Thames Water Utilities also provides two oxygenation vessels, Thames Bubbler and Thames Vitality, which inject oxygen into the river water to counter the effects of storm sewage. In critical situations the Environment Agency can also inject hydrogen peroxide from sites at Barnes and Chelsea.

The estuary has been divided into three reaches for determining water quality objectives: Teddington to Battersea; Battersea to Mucking; and Mucking to the Seaward Limit. These reaches each represent a different salinity regime and supporting different biological communities. In 2001 and 2002 the middle reaches (Battersea to Mucking) failed to achieve their dissolved oxygen standards in the two summer quarters due to increased organic loads from the major sewage treatment works and storm sewage discharges. This required increased deployment of the oxygenation vessels in both years (for 35 days and 48 days respectively).

The implementation of the EU Urban Waste Water Treatment Directive, and the banning of sewage sludge disposal at sea after 1999, required Thames Water to adopt alternative means of sludge disposal. The introduction of the incineration of sludge from Thames Water's largest sewage treatment works initially posed new challenges to the sewage treatment process. This resulted in deterioration of effluent quality after 2000. It is expected that significant further investment at the major Thames-side sewage treatment works since 2000 should result in improved effluent quality from 2003 onwards. This should, in turn, lead to improved water quality in the tideway.

Table 3.21 summarises the number of substantiated water pollution incidents occurring in London and the Environment Agency's wider Thames Region during 2001. The Environment Agency records all reported pollution incidents within London; noting the location, the type of premises where

Table 3.20

Percentage of river and canal length: by water quality[1], 1999-2001

Percentage[2]

	London	Thames Region	England and Wales
A – Very good	*5.6*	*27.2*	*32.8*
B – Good	*31.7*	*40.6*	*36.2*
C – Fairly good	*18.3*	*18.8*	*18.2*
D – Fair	*33.2*	*10.4*	*7.5*
E – Poor	*10.7*	*3.0*	*5.0*
F – Bad	*0.4*	*0.0*	*0.3*

1 Chemical water quality, by grade.
2 Percentage of river length in each grade.

Source: The Environment Agency

Table 3.21

Water pollution incidents[1]: by source, 2000[2]

Numbers

	Industrial		Sewage and Water related		Agricultural		Other		Total		Number of prose-cutions[4]
	All	Major[3]	All	Major[3]	All	Major[3]	All	Major[3]	All	Major[3]	
Environment Agency Regions[5]											
United Kingdom	6,426	128	5,098	118	5,464	112	23,782	88	40,770	446	343
North East	617	0	701	2	423	5	2,734	3	4,475	10	20
North West	972	3	333	0	769	2	2,997	4	5,071	9	19
Midlands	1,022	7	759	2	688	4	4,229	1	6,698	14	31
Anglian	360	1	322	1	372	2	1,914	5	2,968	9	25
Thames (includes London)	379	1	388	5	242	1	3,541	9	4,550	16	25
Southern	628	3	520	1	427	0	2,112	1	3,687	5	29
South West	610	3	638	0	1,059	4	2,808	0	5,115	7	37
England	4,588	18	3,661	11	3,980	18	20,335	23	32,564	70	186
Wales	707	0	360	2	580	3	2,195	2	3,842	7	49
Scotland[2]	683	98	755	102	380	59	845	59	2,663	318	34
Northern Ireland	448	12	322	3	524	32	407	4	1,701	51	74

1 Data relate to substantiated reports of pollution only (Categories 1-4).
2 Figures for Scotland relate to the financial year 2000/01.
3 Major incidents are those corresponding to Category 1 in the Environment Agency's pollution incidents classification scheme. For Scotland the term 'serious incidents' is used and compares broadly with all of Category 1 and most of Category 2 used by the Environment Agency.
4 For England and Wales total prosecutions include cases concluded and prosecutions outstanding. Prosecutions concluded relate to cases which had been brought to court by 31 March 2000.
5 In England and Wales the boundaries of the Environment Agency Regions are based on river catchment areas and not county borders. In particular, the figures shown for Wales are for the Environment Agency region for Wales.

Source: Environment Agency; Scottish Environment Protection Agency; Department of the Environment, Northern Ireland

the incident occurred, the pollutant or pollutants involved, and the effect on air, land and water. Water pollution incidents are categorised on a scale of 1 to 4 where:

- Category 1 is major impact;
- Category 2 is significant impact;
- Category 3 is minor impact;
- Category 4 is no impact.

Noise pollution

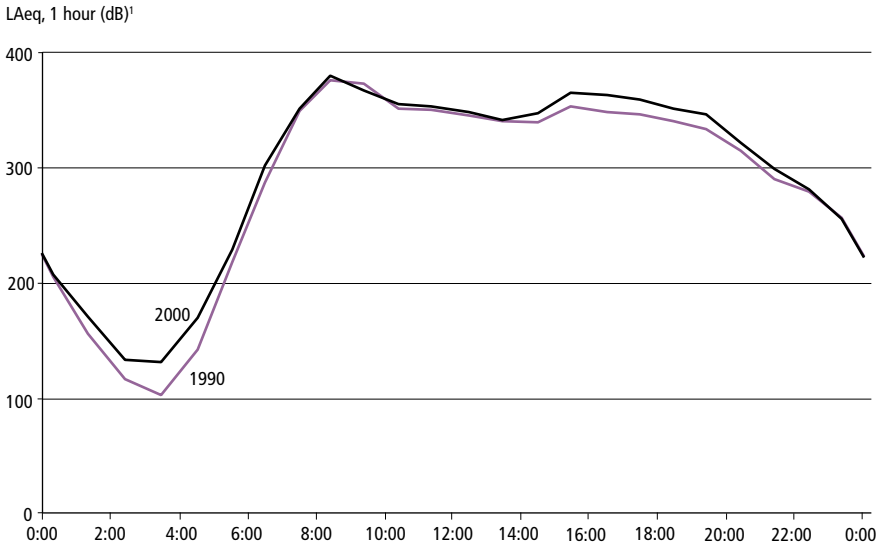
Measuring the scale of noise problems, London-wide, is difficult because only limited monitoring of noise is carried out. Some London boroughs measure noise levels at only a small number of sites across the local area, perhaps at three or four locations. Changes in the physical environment around a measurement location can affect year on year comparison of data from that site. Consequently, comprehensive data on noise levels for the whole of London are not available at present. The Building Research Establishment collected some data for the Department of Environment, Transport and the Regions as part of national surveys in 1990 and 2000. However, only Outer London boroughs were sampled. Figure 3.22 shows the hour-by-hour noise pattern in decibels (dB) for the two years, averaged over all the sites measured in each survey. The changes between 1990 to 2000 are small and therefore should not be viewed as evidence of a change in the general level of noise in Outer London as a whole. The increases or decreases at individual sites would have greater variation than the small changes in the average values, and so would be more apparent to those living or working in the vicinity.

The Chartered Institute of Environmental Health annually requests noise complaint data from local authorities around England and Wales, including the Corporation of London and the 32 London boroughs. However, response rates vary from year to year and so data for different years are not directly comparable. Figure 3.23 shows complaints per thousand population in London. Not all complaints to local authorities regarding noise are determined by the authority to be a nuisance (within the legal constraints under which the authorities operate).

Many people in London are affected by aircraft noise. Between April 2001 and March 2002, BAA plc (formerly the British Airports Authority) received a

Figure 3.22

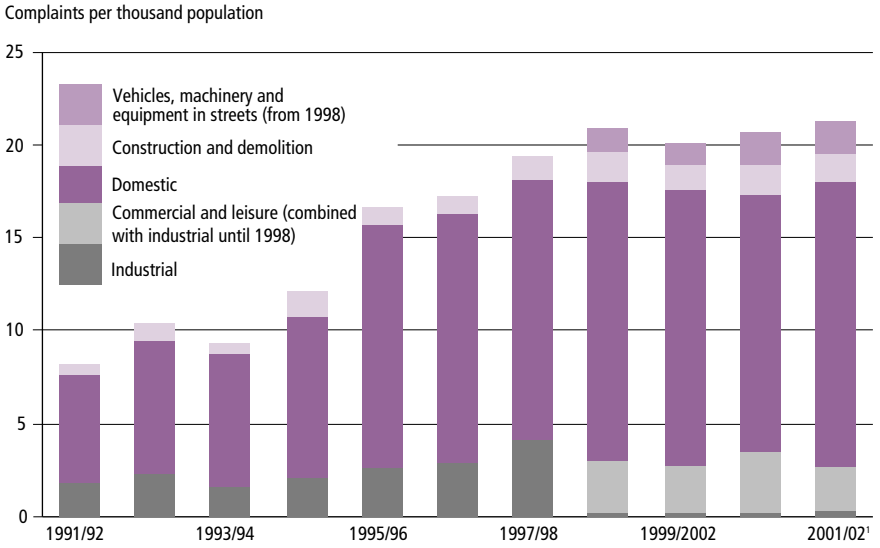
24 hour history of noise, Outer London



1 LAeq, 1 hour (dB) is the average 'A' weighted decibels over 1 hour (see Notes and Definitions).
Source: Building Research Establishment

Figure 3.23

Noise complaints by type, London



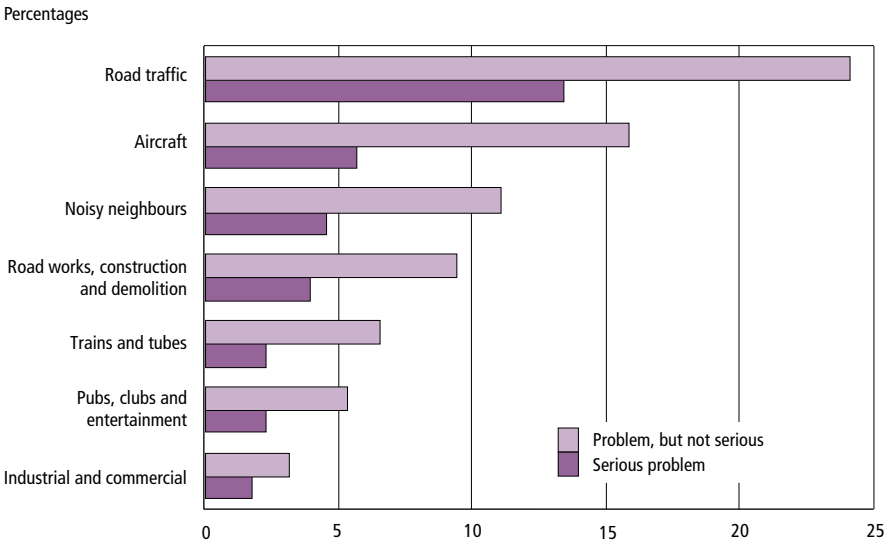
1 Provisional.
Source: Chartered Institute of Environmental Health

total of 7,221 complaints, of which 95 per cent related to aircraft noise and a further 0.5 per cent concerned ground noise. Of the total number of complaints, 4,843 were from the 9 local authorities nearest to Heathrow. Four of these (Hillingdon, Ealing, Hounslow and Richmond) are within London.

In 2002, the Greater London Authority carried out a survey of London households. This survey questioned over 8,000 London householders on a range of issues including noise. It asked respondents if they had 'no problem', 'a problem but not serious' or 'a serious problem' with a range of environmental issues. The results of the noise questions in the survey are shown in Figure 3.24. The main problems were road traffic noise, aircraft noise and noisy neighbours.

Figure 3.24

Reporting noise as a problem: London, 2002[1]



1 Provisional. Based on those responding to household survey.

Source: London Household Survey, Greater London Authority

Weather report 2002

2002 was a wet year. Almost 800 millimetres (31.5 inches) of rain fell in Central London, 49 per cent above the average between 1961 and 1990 (Figure 3.25). 2000 was the wettest year since records began in 1940, and in the following year total annual rainfall exceeded 700 millimetres. The mean temperature for 2002 was 12.9°C, about 1.5 degrees above the average over the 30 years 1961 to 1990 (Figure 3.26). The amount of sunshine recorded was similar to the average over the last 30 years at 1,590 hours. Just four air frosts were recorded in 2002, all in January. In London the only instance of sleet or snow was during February 2002. In 2001 a temperature of 25°C was exceeded on 31 separate days.

January 2002 was warm but dull. The month started cold and frosty with clear skies and sunny periods but soon became mild and cloudy. The end of the month saw some exceptionally mild days and nights but was rather windy. Temperatures remained high into February with the warmest February night in Central London since records began (in 1940) on the second of the month.

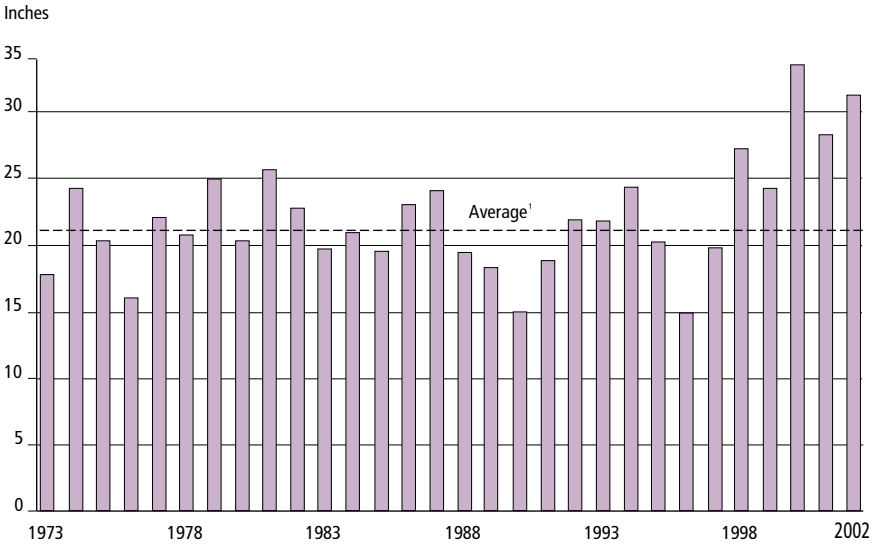
In March 2002, London had the warmest Good Friday (of those falling in March) since records began in 1940. April started very dry with no significant rain for the first 16 days. During this period a notably low humidity value of 16 per cent was recorded.

Later unsettled and occasionally thundery weather brought a fair amount of rain.

May and June of 2002 saw a return of close to average temperatures and rainfall. May was generally warm and

Figure 3.25

Annual rainfall in London



1 Average for 1961 to 1990.

Source: London Weather Centre, Meteorological Office

dry but the last ten days were unsettled with thunderstorms, notably on two days. This more inclement weather extended into the first half of June after which much drier conditions were experienced. Indeed, the first half of the month had seen around 80 per cent of the total month's rainfall with that total 16 per cent above the average for June.

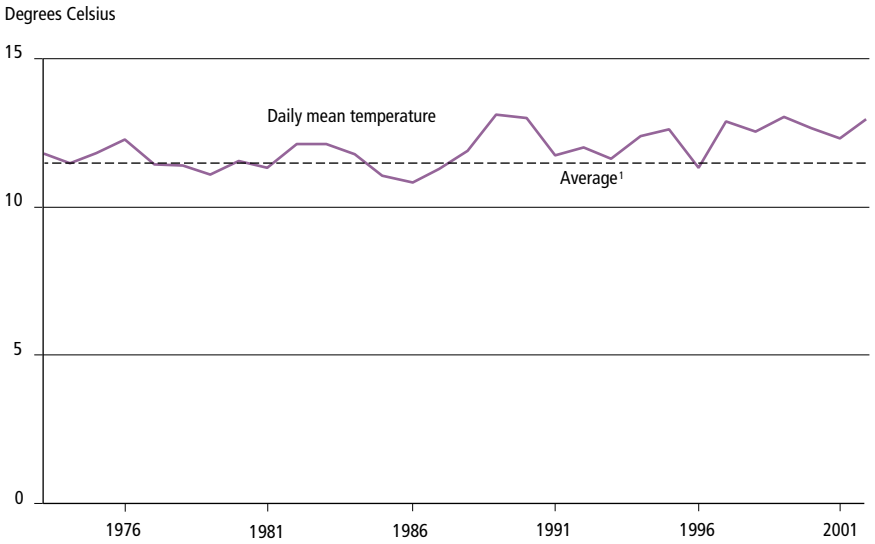
The weather became unsettled again in July 2002. It was the wettest July for ten years but the warmest for 14 years. The last part of the month saw rising temperatures, to 32.2°C (90°F) on 29 July. August was the wettest since 1977. However, almost two thirds of the rain fell on just three days and there were ten completely dry days in the month.

Anticyclonic conditions dominated September bringing dry weather and only 50 per cent of the rainfall of an average September. However, a storm from Biscay fell across London on the 9th delivering three quarters of the month's average rainfall in one day. Winds were mostly light or gentle throughout and fog was reported towards the end of the month. October began dry and sunny but the weather became unsettled by the middle of the month and the final week saw heavy showers, hail and thunder, and winds gusting to more than 60 knots were measured at Heathrow and Northolt.

The unsettled weather continued into November, which was the wettest since records began in 1940. It was only the sixth time that more than 100 millimetres (3.9 inches) of rain had been recorded in November. There were only four completely dry days but despite the rain, sunshine was only a little below normal. The very wet conditions continued into the next month with two and a half times the normal rainfall for the month. Thus the wettest December on record followed the wettest November.

Figure 3.26

Daily mean temperature in London



1 Average for 1961 to 1990.

Source: London Weather Centre, Meteorological Office

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The quantity, quality and cost of housing play a vital role in the well-being of London residents. Not only does housing fulfil a basic human need, but housing activity (repair, improvement, new building or even simply market turnover) can also play a major role in the economy. In terms of job creation, there are at least three impacts – creation of building industry jobs, other jobs created through the multiplier effect as employees spend their earnings, and the increased demand for 'white goods' through household expenditure when moving house.

In simple terms a dwelling is accommodation which is normally lived in by one or more households, and includes houses, flats, bungalows and maisonettes. Temporary structures such as caravans and houseboats are counted as dwellings if they are the sole or main residence of a household. The precise definition that applies to this dataset is set out in Section 3 of the 1992 Local Government Finance Act. It is based on the definition of a 'hereditament' contained in the legislation for rates. This definition differs from the 2001 Census in the way that it treats shared accommodation. While the Census defines a dwelling as accommodation that is physically self-contained, the Council Tax is concerned with establishing ownership and liability for Council Tax. These differences are compounded by variations in the treatment of communal establishments. As a result the dwellings counts will not be directly comparable.

Table 4.1

Housing stock: by tenure[1]

Percentages and thousands

	1991	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
London						
Owner-occupied	*57*	*57*	*57*	*58*	*58*	*58*
Rented from local authority	*24*	*20*	*19*	*18*	*17*	*17*
Rented from private owners or with job or business	*13*	*16*	*16*	*16*	*16*	*16*
Rented from registered social landlord	*5*	*7*	*8*	*8*	*9*	*10*
Total dwellings (thousands)	2,912	3,028	3,043	3,057	3,071	3,087
Great Britain						
Owner-occupied	*66*	*68*	*68*	*69*	*69*	..
Rented from local authority[2]	*22*	*17*	*16*	*15*	*14*	..
Rented from private owners or with job or business	*9*	*10*	*10*	*10*	*10*	..
Rented from a registered social landlord	*3*	*5*	*5*	*6*	*7*	..
Total dwellings (thousands)	23,000	24,250	24,419	24,588	24,741	..

1 At 31 March each year.
2 Including New Towns and Scottish Homes, formerly the Scottish Special Housing Association.
Source: Office of the Deputy Prime Minister

The Housing Stock

London's housing stock totals more than 3 million dwellings. There have been considerable changes in the relative proportion of stock in each tenure since the early 1980s, mirroring to a certain extent the changes in the national picture. Since 1991, local authority stock has declined, due mainly to tenants exercising their 'Right-to-Buy' (RTB). There has also been a large drop in local authority house-building programmes, down from 16,300 completions in 1980/81 to an annual average of just over 50 homes from 1995 to 2001 (Table 4.6). 'Right-to-Buy' sales increased from the mid-1990s (Table 4.2), leading the Government to consider restrictions to RTB in high-demand areas to prevent loss of scarce social-rented accommodation. Owner-occupation grew considerably in importance in the 1980s but remained static in the 1990s at nearly three in five dwellings in London.

Another contribution to the fall in local authority stock was the introduction in

Table 4.2

Council house sales in London

Numbers

	1992/93	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/2000	2000/01	2001/02
Right-to-Buy sales	7,325	4,641	5,220	7,123	8,045	11,331	11,439	9,817
Other sales[1]	14,204	744	933	15,186	10,376	9,215	7,503	387
All sales	21,529	5,385	6,153	22,309	18,421	20,546	18,942	10,204

1 Includes non-Right-to-Buy sales to sitting tenants, other sales into owner-occupation, shared ownership and transfers to registered social landlords plus any other sales. 1992/93 total includes some 12,300 dwellings transferred under Large Scale Voluntary Transfer by Bromley, 1997/98 total includes some 8,200 similarly transferred by Bexley and 2000/01 total includes some 6,900 similarly transferred by Richmond upon Thames. Figures between 1996/97 and 2000/01 also include Estates Renewal Challenge Fund transfers, some 23,000 in total.

Source: Office of the Deputy Prime Minister

1988 of Large Scale Voluntary Transfers (LSVTs). Under this scheme, a local authority can transfer all or part of its housing stock to a new landlord, usually a non-profit-making registered social landlord (RSL, commonly known as a housing association). The biggest LSVT in London in the 1990s occurred in 1992/93 when Bromley transferred over 12,000 of its housing stock to RSLs. More recently, 8,200 transfers were made by Bexley and 6,900 by Richmond upon Thames. Table 4.2 also shows that local authority stock has fallen as a result of local authorities selling some of their stock to sitting tenants and private owners and into shared ownership.

In addition, the main responsibility for building new social housing has transferred from local authorities to registered social landlords. Consequently, RSL lettings have become an increasingly important source of social sector accommodation. However, while their stock has increased, the rise has not matched the loss of local authority accommodation; overall, the social rented sector shrank by over 50,000 dwellings between 1991 and 2002. The level of private rented accommodation has remained fairly steady at around 16 per cent of all dwellings since 1993. Traditionally this form of tenure has been more common in London than elsewhere in the country. In 2002, there were 494,000 privately rented dwellings in London.

Table 4.3

Household characteristics

Percentages

	London	England
Household accommodation type, 2001/02		
Detached house	*4*	*21*
Semi-detached house	*19*	*32*
Terraced house	*28*	*28*
Purpose-built flat or maisonette	*37*	*14*
Converted flats	*11*	*4*
Other	*0*	*0*
Types of amenity, 1996		
Central heating	*88*	*88*
Double glazing	*51*	*60*
Secure windows and doors	*35*	*30*
Smoke detector(s)	*57*	*67*
Parking provision[1]	*53*	*69*
Length of time at current address, 2001/02		
Under a year	*13*	*11*
1 to 4 years	*28*	*27*
5 to 9 years	*19*	*17*
10 to 19 years	*19*	*21*
20 years or over	*21*	*24*
Satisfaction, 2001/02		
With accommodation		
Very satisfied	*51*	*60*
Fairly satisfied	*34*	*31*
With area		
Very satisfied	*36*	*49*
Fairly satisfied	*44*	*37*

1 Includes only facilities that are an integral part of the property, i.e. excludes street parking. Figures for England are based on households in houses only, excluding flats.

Source: General Household Survey, Office for National Statistics; Survey of English Housing and English House Condition Survey, Office of the Deputy Prime Minister

Table A4.1 in the Appendix shows the pattern of tenure in 2001 by borough. There are considerable differences in the pattern in Inner London compared with Outer London: the public sector stock accounts for nearly two fifths of dwellings in Inner London, more than double the proportion in the Outer area.

The results of the 2001/02 Survey of English Housing show that the profile of London's housing stock is very different to that for England (Table 4.3). Only about 4 per cent of households in the capital live in detached houses compared with over 20 per cent in England generally, while well over 30 per cent live in purpose-built flats compared with less than half that percentage nationally. Nearly half of London dwellings are either purpose-built or converted flats, compared with less than a fifth in England as a whole; in Inner London this proportion rises to almost three quarters. The types of household spaces in each borough are given in Table A4.2 in the Appendix. These figures for London from the 2001 Census confirm that the distribution of dwelling types found in the 1991 Census has changed little. Table 4.3 also shows the length of time residents have been at their current address. The mobility of Londoners is slightly higher than for England as a whole, with 41 per cent of households having been living at their current address for less than five years compared with 38 per cent nationally. In terms of amenities, London is below the national level in double-glazing, smoke detectors and parking provision, but above in dwelling security. While overall satisfaction with accommodation and the area is high in London at 85 and 80 per cent respectively, these levels are below the averages for England at 91 and 86 per cent.

Table 4.4

Vacant housing stock[1] in London

Numbers[2] and percentages

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Local authority[3]	19,000	20,800	18,500	15,700	14,700	12,900	11,100	10,000
Registered social landlord	7,400	7,000	6,600	7,300	8,100	7,300	7,600	7,400
Private	109,500	101,800	94,800	88,300	89,300	83,400	85,400	83,100
Total vacant dwellings[4]	137,800	131,500	121,600	113,500	113,800	105,000	105,100	101,000
Vacant stock as a percentage of the total housing stock	*4.6*	*4.4*	*4.0*	*3.7*	*3.7*	*3.4*	*3.4*	*3.2*

1 Dwellings known to be vacant on 1 April, from Housing Investment Programme (HIP) returns completed by local authorities and Housing Corporation Regulatory and Statistical Returns (RSRs) completed by Registered Social Landlords.
2 Numbers are rounded to the nearest 100.
3 Includes dwellings owned by authorities outside their own area, some of which will be outside London.
4 Includes dwellings owned by government departments and other public sector bodies which are not shown separately in the table.

Source: Office of the Deputy Prime Minister

Vacant stock

In April 2002, 101,000 dwellings in London were empty, representing around 3.2 per cent of the total stock (Table 4.4). The figure showed an overall fall from the peak in 1993. The proportion varies significantly by tenure. In 2002, 2 per cent of local authority dwellings and 3 per cent of RSL dwellings were vacant, compared with 3.6 per cent of private dwellings. Less than a quarter of the boroughs had vacancy levels of more than 2 per cent in their own stock, whereas in the private sector the vacancy level was over 2 per cent in three quarters of boroughs (Table A4.3). The London Research Centre's 1998 London Housing Statistics showed the reasons for vacancies amongst local authority stock – for example, around 40 per cent were awaiting or undergoing major works, or awaiting demolition.

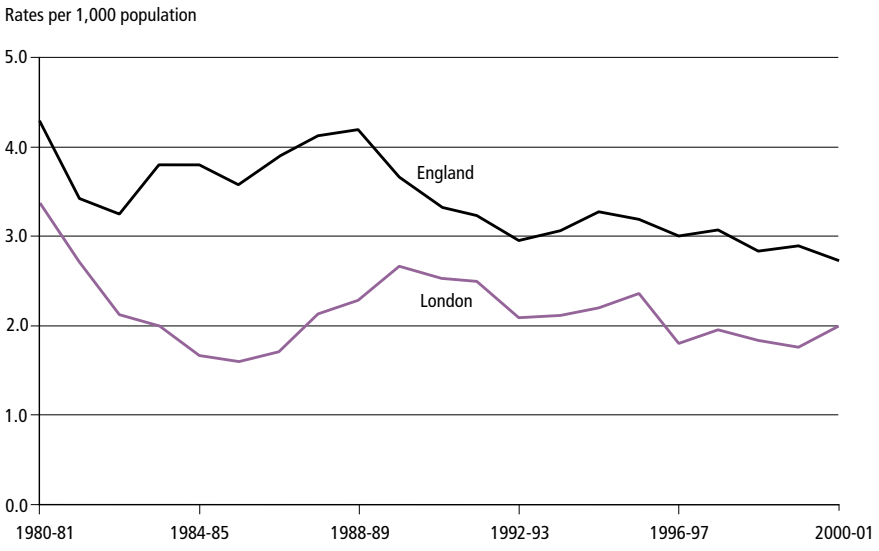
Stock Changes

Annual completions of new dwellings in London have fallen over the past two decades. From an estimated 23,200 completions in 1980/81, the figures fell to 17,200 in 1990/91 and 14,200 in 2001/02. The decline has not been steady (Figure 4.5): there was a trough in the mid-eighties followed by a partial recovery, but since 1990 the general trend has been downwards. Table 4.6 shows the output for each tenure from 1980/81 to 2001/02. The transfer of the main responsibility for building new social housing from local authorities to registered social landlords has resulted in a rise in RSL completions in London from 2,300 in 1990/91 to 3,800 in 2001/02. Meanwhile the local authority programme has effectively disappeared both in London and across England as a whole. In 2001/02, 73 per cent of new dwellings completed in London were by private enterprise, compared with 27 per cent by RSLs and LAs.

The Mayor's Draft London Plan (DLP) has a minimum target of 23,000 additional homes per year, including an allowance for non-self-contained

Figure 4.5

House building: completions



Source: Office of the Deputy Prime Minister

spaces and the enhanced re-use of vacant dwellings. The DLP target is for 50 per cent of all additional housing to be 'affordable' (i.e. for sale or rent at costs significantly below the full market price or rent). The DLP contains further details on this and other matters such as proportions of brownfield versus greenfield development.

Table 4.6 presents the pattern for new housing completions as a rate per thousand population. During the period 1980/81 to 2000/01, completions in London generally followed the pattern in England as a whole (although always at a lower rate), with the exception of 1983/1984 when house building in London fell while the national level rose, followed by a period when house building in London was at less than half the national level. In 2000/01 there were 2.0 completions per thousand population in London compared with 2.7 per thousand in England as a whole.

New dwellings completed: A dwelling is defined for the purpose of Table 4.6 as a building or any part of a building which forms a separate self-contained set of premises designed to be occupied by a single family. A dwelling is counted as completed when it becomes ready for occupation, whether occupied or not.

Table 4.6

New Dwellings completed[1]: by tenure

Thousands

	1980/81	1990/91	1999/2000	2000/01	2001/02
London					
Private Enterprise[2]	4.5	13.2	9.5	10	10.3
Registered Social Landlords	2.4	2.3	2.9	4.2	3.8
Local Authorities[3]	16.3	1.7	0.0	0.2	0.1
All sectors	23.2	17.2	12.5	14.3	14.2
England					
Private Enterprise[2]	107.6	132.5	124.3	116.7	115.7
Registered Social Landlords	19.9	14.6	17.4	16.6	14.4
Local Authorities[3]	73.7	13.0	0.1	0.4	0.1
All sectors	201.2	160.0	141.8	133.7	130.3

1 Permanent dwellings only: i.e. those with a life expectancy of 60 years or more.
2 Includes private landlords (persons or companies) and owner-occupiers.
3 Includes New Towns and government departments.

Source: Office of the Deputy Prime Minister

Access to housing

Table 4.7 shows the supply of lettings to which London boroughs had access in 2001/02, and the demands for accommodation that were met from that supply. Around 55 per cent of those permanently rehoused after being accepted as homeless were allocated a council tenancy, and 44 per cent an RSL tenancy, compared with 69 and 28 per cent, respectively, in 1998/99.

Table 4.7

Permanent lettings[1] to selected groups by local authorities, 2001/02

London

Numbers

	Own stock	Registered social landlord etc nominations	Out[2] mobility	Other	Total permanent lettings
Homeless	8,061	6,375	50	103	14,589
Other new tenants	4,262	..	..	0	..
Transfers	7,832	..	..	0	..
Mutual exchanges	2,811	0	0	0	2,811
Incoming mobility[3]	465	0	0	0	465
Total permanent lettings	23,431	11,926	824	103	36,284

1 To which the London boroughs had access.
2 Lettings in another local authority under mobility schemes.
3 Lettings to tenants from another local authority under mobility schemes.

Source: Office of the Deputy Prime Minister

Figure 4.8 looks at how the number of permanent lettings to new households (including homeless in priority need) and existing tenants has changed since 1990/91. In the 12 year period to 2001/02 lettings to both new tenants who were homeless and in priority need, and to existing tenants, fell by about 50 per cent. The lettings to the homeless fell steeply between 1991/92 and 1998/99, from 33,100 to 17,200. From the late 1990s the decline was more gradual, to reach 16,300 in 2001/02. From 1 April 1997 local authorities were prevented from allocating secure tenancies directly to homeless households unless the household was on the housing register and had an appropriate level of priority. The information at borough level is shown in Table A4.4 in the Appendix.

The trend in nominations to registered social landlords (housing associations) in recent years is illustrated in Figure 4.9. Total nominations nearly quadrupled between 1985/86 and 1993/94. The biggest increase was amongst homeless households: RSLs rehoused more than nine times as many homeless applicants in 1993/94 as they did in 1985/86. After 1993/94 there was a reduction in nominations, with a fall in total nominations for homeless households more than offsetting a small rise in others. The last two years have seen a small recovery in the total with an overall rise in the number of homeless nominations.

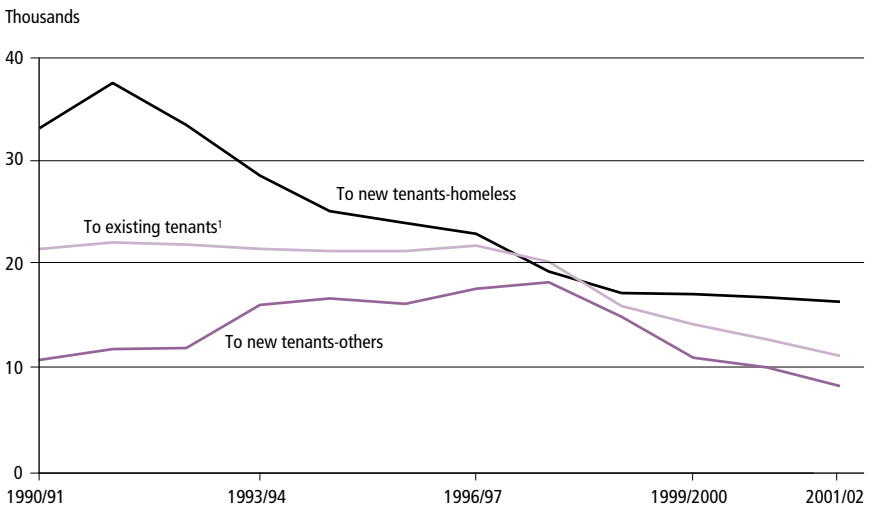
Homelessness

By March 2002 there were 52,700 households accepted as homeless by the boroughs and living in temporary accommodation (Table 4.10). This number has increased steadily since 1997 and is now 88 per cent higher than in that year. The numbers of non-priority homeless and people sleeping rough are not known: changes in the legislation make comparison with the figures from before 1997 complicated. While the number accommodated temporarily in the private sector has doubled since 1997, the number in bed

Figure 4.8

Lettings by local authorities to selected rehousing groups

London



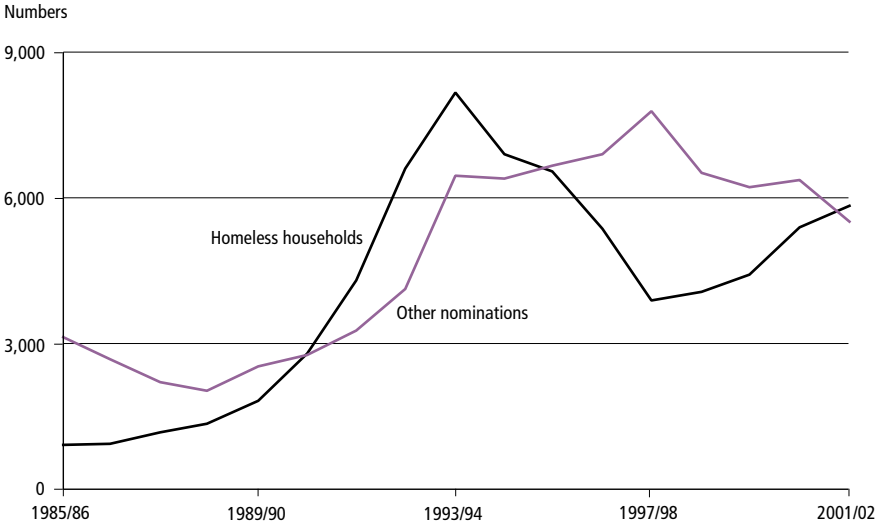
1 Includes exchanges with other local authorities

Source: Annual Housing Investment Programme returns, Office of the Deputy Prime Minister

Figure 4.9

Nominations to Registered Social Landlords[1]

London



1 See notes and definitions.

Source: Annual Housing Investment Programme (OI) returns, Office of the Deputy Prime Minister

and breakfast hotels nearly trebled over the period.

Figure 4.11 illustrates the proportions of homeless households in different forms of accommodation nationally and in London in March 2002, and Table A4.5 in the Appendix shows the pattern by borough. Across London, one in six of these households was in bed and breakfast accommodation, compared with just one in ten in 1997 (the first year in which the revised categories were used).

The underlying reasons for homelessness are complex, and official returns may only describe the most recent factor in a household's circumstances rather than the original root cause.

Housing costs

The early 1990s saw significant changes in the relative costs of renting (privately or through the social rented sector) and buying. In the owner-occupied sector, the house price boom of the late 1980s was followed by a sharp downturn.

Table 4.10

Households in temporary accommodation[1,2], London

Numbers

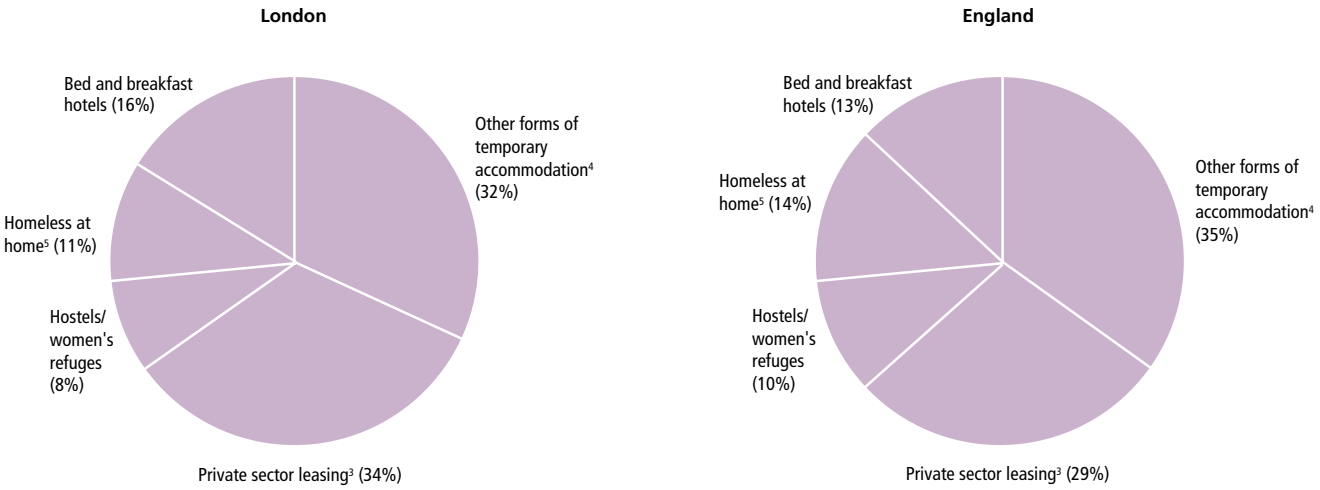
	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Households in:						
Bed and breakfast hotels	2,830	3,460	4,790	6,540	7,570	8,300
Private sector accommodation[3]	9,820	10,060	13,350	17,860	19,850	22,230
All forms of temporary accommodation	28,090	29,930	35,160	43,170	49,350	52,720

1 Households temporarily accommodated by local authorities pending enquiries, while awaiting rehousing under the 1985 Act or after being accepted as homeless under the 1996 Act, as at the end of March each year. Includes households which, after acceptance, remain in their existing accommodation while having the same right to accommodation as those placed in temporary accommodation ("homeless at home").
2 Figures include estimates for missing data.
3 The definition of private sector accommodation differs from that used elsewhere in this chapter, see Notes and Definitions.

Source: Office of the Deputy Prime Minister

Figure 4.11

Types of temporary accommodation used[1], March 2002[2]



1 Households temporarily accommodated by local authorities pending enquiries, while awaiting rehousing under the 1985 Act or after being accepted as homeless under the 1996 Act. Figures include estimates for missing data.
2 As at end March 2002.
3 Private sector properties leased by local authorities (LAs) or by Registered Social Landlords (RSLs).
4 Includes lettings within LAs' own stock, by RSLs on assured shorthold tenancies and directly by a private sector landlord.
5 Includes households which, after acceptance, remain in their existing accommodation while having the same right to accommodation as those placed in tempory accommodation.

Source: Office of the Deputy Prime Minister

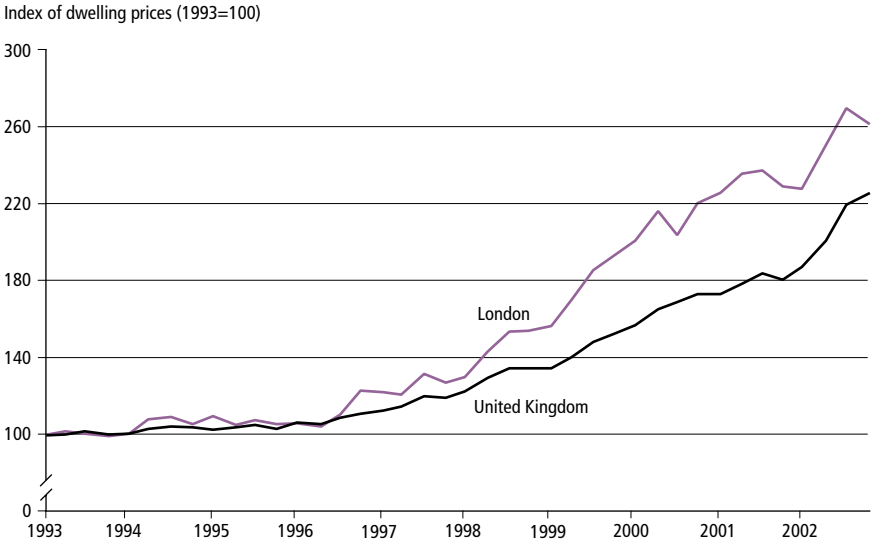
House prices in London fell by 13 percentage points between 1990 and 1995, twice as much as in the United Kingdom as a whole. However, since the middle of 1996 a strong upturn has been evident, with marked increases in London continuing into the early 2000s (Figure 4.12). At the end of 2002 the average price for all transactions, from the Office of the Deputy Prime Minister's five per cent Survey of Mortgage Lenders (including sitting tenant purchases), was £210,100 in London. This was an increase of 15 per cent since 2001 and doubling over five years. The corresponding figure for the United Kingdom as a whole was £134,300, an increase of 24 per cent on the previous year and 88 per cent over 5 years (the percentage increases are based on changes in the mixed adjustment index).

Much attention was drawn in the early 1990s to negative equity (that is, where the value of the property is less than the outstanding amount of the mortgage), and the ultimate threat of repossession. Overall, the number of owners in London with negative equity fell from 142,000 in the fourth quarter of 1995. It remained over 100,000 until well into 1996, but since then, as house prices have increased, has decreased rapidly: by the second quarter of 1998 it had almost disappeared.

Table 4.13 shows there has been a large decline since 1991 in the number of mortgage possession actions and orders made in the courts in London. However, the figures do not indicate how many homes have been repossessed through the courts as not all orders result in the issue and execution of warrants of possession. In addition it should be noted that the figures relate to the location of the court rather than the address of the property.

Figure 4.12

Dwelling prices[1]: by quarter



1 Figures are based on all lenders. The index adjusts for the mix of dwellings (by size, type and whether new or second hand) and excludes those bought at non-market prices.

Source: Office of the Deputy Prime Minister

Table 4.13

County Court mortgage possession actions[1] in London

Thousands

	Actions entered	Orders made	Suspended orders
1991	35.3	14.4	13.1
1992	24.4	10.4	11.0
1993	21.3	8.8	10.6
1994	15.5	6.8	8.4
1995	12.1	6.0	6.7
1996	11.4	4.8	6.4
1997	9.2	3.4	4.7
1998	11.4	3.5	5.3
1999	10.0	3.4	4.5
2000	8.1	2.1	3.1
2001	7.4	1.8	2.7
2002	8.7	2.3	2.7

1 Local authority and private. See Notes and Definitions.

Source: Court Service

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Tables 5.1

Gross Value Added, workplace basis at current basic prices[1,2,3]: by NUTS 1, 2 and 3 areas[4]

£ millions and £ per head

	£ million				£ per head				£ per head index (UK=100)			
	1995	1996	1997	1998	1995	1996	1997	1998	1995	1996	1997	1998
United Kingdom[5]	622,389	657,775	700,567	743,314	10,619	11,185	11,871	12,548	100	100	100	100
London	106,759	112,033	122,014	133,081	15,251	15,885	17,158	18,566	144	142	145	148
Inner London	67,666	70,446	77,280	84,488	25,305	26,120	28,386	30,734	238	234	239	245
Inner London - West	45,952	48,182	52,165	57,424	47,970	49,568	52,758	57,281	452	443	444	456
Inner London - East	21,714	22,264	25,115	27,064	12,653	12,907	14,486	15,496	119	115	122	123
Outer London	39,093	41,586	44,735	48,591	9,037	9,548	10,194	10,996	85	85	86	88
Outer London - East and North East	10,362	11,030	11,765	12,313	6,775	7,205	7,674	8,017	64	64	65	64
Outer London - South	9,996	10,426	11,050	11,838	8,961	9,264	9,733	10,358	84	83	82	83
Outer London - West and North West	18,734	20,130	21,920	24,440	11,145	11,846	12,743	14,045	105	106	107	112

1 Consistent with the National Accounts (Blue Book) 2000.
2 Estimates of workplace GVA allocate incomes to the regions in which commuters work.
3 Includes taxes less subsidies on production.
4 NUTS (Nomenclature of Units for Territorial Statistics) is a hierarchical classification of areas that provides a breakdown of the EU's economic territory.
5 Excluding GVA for Extra-Regio, which comprises compensation of employees and gross operating surplus that cannot be assigned to regions.

Source: Office for National Statistics

This chapter describes the nature and scale of the economic activities by which London earns its living. It shows that the capital's economy is unique within the United Kingdom in terms of its industrial structure, and that Inner London's Gross Value Added per head not only leads the rest of the country, it leads within the European Union too.

Gross Value Added

Gross Value Added (GVA), referred to in previous versions of Focus on London as gross domestic product at basic prices, is the standard measure of the value of economic activity. Table 5.5 shows that London's share of the United Kingdom's GVA in 1999 was almost 18 per cent while the corresponding share of population was just over 12 per cent. London's GVA per head appears to be more than 46 per cent higher than the United Kingdom average; however, it must be remembered that GVA is calculated by location of the workplace, and there are many people who work in London but are not resident there.

The average figures for London mask widely differing levels of GVA, and Inner London-West accounted for more than the whole of the Outer London NUTS-2 area, despite being only one eleventh of the physical size, and containing less than one quarter of the resident population. Looking at the GVA per head for subregions within the capital on a workplace basis: GVA per head in the Inner London NUTS-2 area during 1998, at £30,734, was nearly three times that of Outer London. The NUTS-3 area with the highest GVA per head was Inner London-West, at more than £57,000. This was more than seven times that of London's lowest NUTS-3 area, Outer London-East and North East, at just over £8,000. Note that data for 1998 are used rather than more recent data: see Notes and Definitions for the explanation.

Under the European classification of areas known as the Nomenclature of Units for Territorial Statistics (NUTS) (see Map A5.1 in the appendix and Notes and Definitions for details), London is sub-divided into several smaller geographic classifications: London itself is a NUTS level 1 area while Inner London and Outer London are NUTS level 2 areas. There are five NUTS level 3 areas: Inner London-East; Inner London-West; Outer London-East and North East; Outer London-South; and Outer London-West and North West.

Commuters who do not live in the area generate a high proportion of the GVA of Inner London-West; therefore these data do not necessarily show that people living within one area are more prosperous than those in another area.

Although GVA was higher in Inner than Outer London on average, it grew at around the same rate between 1995 and 1998. It is notable though, that these growth rates for both Inner and Outer London were above the rate for the United Kingdom as a whole, which

grew by less than 20 per cent compared with over 24 per cent for London.

The data for GVA in Table 5.1 allocate the income of workers to their place of work rather than to their area of residence, in line with the concept that GVA measures the total (domestic) economic activity taking place within a given area. For all regions and subregions, GVA per head figures are calculated by dividing total GVA by the number of residents living in that area. It follows that in London, the total workplace-based GVA estimates (which include commuter incomes) are divided by a resident population that does not include these commuters. These factors help to explain the exceptionally high workplace-based GVA per head levels in Inner London and particularly in the Inner London West area, which incorporates both the City of London and the West End.

Figure 5.2 plots changes in GVA per head in Inner and Outer London against the United Kingdom average between 1995 and 1998. The level of GVA in both Inner and Outer London, as a percentage of United Kingdom GVA, has been broadly stable over this period. However, these time series should be interpreted with caution, as changes in per head GVA figures are affected by changes in social, geographic and demographic characteristics of an area or population. For example, the high living costs in some central London boroughs, especially rising housing costs, may lead to net out-migration from some boroughs; if economic activity remains stable while resident population decreases, the GVA per head rises.

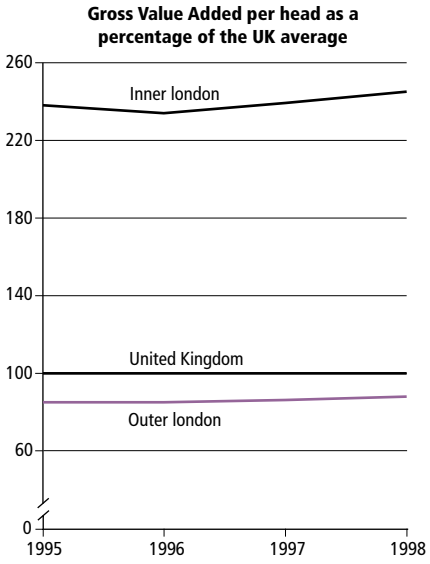
The figures in Table 5.3 are presented on a "Purchasing Power Standard" (PPS) basis for 1998 to 2000. PPSs reflect differences in the price levels between countries that are not explained by the exchange rates alone, and therefore provide better comparability of the GVA data between countries. PPSs are calculated on a national basis, and so do not fully reflect the price differences that may exist between individual regions within a country.

Frequently national capitals and large, city-dominated areas have high per capita GVA relative to the rest of their

Figure 5.2

Comparison of Gross Value Added, workplace basis

Percentages



Source: Office for National Statistics

Table 5.3

City-regions[1] in the European Union with above-average Gross Value Added per head, 1998-2000

Index and millions

	Index of GDP per head (PPS)[2] (EU15 =100)	Resident population (millions)
Inner London	245	2.82
Brussels	222	0.96
Luxembourg	187	0.44
Hamburg	182	1.70
Ile de France (including Paris)	155	10.98
Vienna	153	1.61
Oberbayern region (including Munich)	152	4.03
London (both Inner and Outer)[3]	149	7.30
Darmstadt region (including Frankfurt)	148	3.72
Stockholm	143	1.80
Utrecht	143	1.11
Bremen	142	0.66
Uusimaa region (including Helsinki)	141	1.38
Trentino-alto-Adige	137	0.94
Lombardy	136	9.07
Åland	136	0.03
Noord-Holland	133	2.52
Stuttgart	133	3.92
Berkshire, Buckinghamshire and Oxfordshire	132	2.12
Salzburg	128	0.52
Groningen	126	0.56
Antwerpen	125	1.64
Dusseldorf	120	5.26

1 NUTS 2 regions. See Notes and Definitions. The table includes all city regions with GVA per head higher than London as a whole, and selected city regions with GVA per head lower than London, but higher than the EU average.
2 Purchasing Power Standard: see accompanying text.
3 NUTS 1 region

Source: Eurostat

countries. Table 5.3 shows all the NUTS level 2 city regions of the European Union whose GVA per head is above the value of the London region, plus selected others above the average of the European Union as a whole.

Inner London leads the European Union NUTS 2 regions with GVA per head nearly two and a half times the European Union average, followed by Hamburg at almost double the EU average. The table shows a mix of capitals and large cities which are all centres of intensive economic activity, with some, like London, subject to special economic and demographic factors. Hamburg and Bremen, for example, have their GVA augmented by a particularly large number of foreign workers and commuters. The majority of these areas, for example, Brussels, Darmstadt and Ile de France encompass major financial and services centres.

For London as a whole (Inner London plus Outer London), GVA per head was 49 per cent above the European Union average for the period 1998 to 2000. The lower level for London as a whole was a direct result of the marked difference between the level of GVA in Inner London and that in Outer London. GVA for Outer London, for the period 1998 to 2000, was only 88 per cent of the European Union average. However, it should be noted that this difference is, at least in part, due to a commuting effect as workplace-based GVA per head is expressed as a proportion of the resident population. The figure for Outer London was still nearly double that of the poorest region in the European Union, Ipeiros in Greece, whose GVA was 47 per cent of the European Union average for the period.

NUTS 2 regions across the European Union vary considerably both in size and in terms of their population. For example, the Ile de France region not only includes Paris, but also much of the surrounding area.

Table 5.4

Gross Value Added, residence basis at current prices[1]

£ million and £ per head

	£ million		£ per head	
	London	United Kingdom[2]	London	United Kingdom[2]
1990	74,933	491,291	10,935	8,535
1991	78,641	513,309	11,422	8,880
1992	82,409	535,772	11,930	9,236
1993	86,574	562,857	12,494	9,671
1994	91,118	593,932	13,088	10,170
1995	93,843	622,390	13,406	10,619
1996	99,490	657,773	14,107	11,185
1997	108,559	700,568	15,266	11,871
1998	118,499	743,313	16,532	12,548
1999	122,816	771,849	16,859	12,972

1 Estimates of regional GVA in this table are on a residence basis, where the income of commuters is allocated to where they live rather than their place of work.
2 Excluding GVA for Extra-Regio, which comprises compensation of employees and gross operating surplus that cannot be assigned to regions, and the statistical discrepancy of the income-based estimates.

Source: Office for National Statistics

Table 5.5

Gross Value Added, workplace basis at current prices[1]

£ million and £ per head

	£ million		£ per head	
	London	United Kingdom[2]	London	United Kingdom[2]
1990	85,675	491,291	12,503	8,535
1991	89,388	513,309	12,983	8,880
1992	93,349	535,772	13,514	9,236
1993	97,769	562,857	14,110	9,671
1994	103,019	593,932	14,798	10,170
1995	106,759	622,390	15,251	10,619
1996	112,033	657,773	15,885	11,185
1997	122,014	700,568	17,159	11,871
1998	133,081	743,313	18,566	12,548
1999	138,265	771,849	18,979	12,972

1 Estimates of workplace GVA allocate incomes to the regions in which commuters work.
2 Excluding GVA for Extra-Regio, which comprises compensation of employees and gross operating surplus that cannot be assigned to regions, and the statistical discrepancy of the income-based estimates.

Source: Office for National Statistics

The Eurostat (the Statistical Office of the European Union) preferred methodology for calculating GVA is to allocate the income of commuters to where they work rather than to where they live. Figures for components of GVA and industry breakdown are, however, only available on a residence basis. Residence-based GVA figures are therefore used in Table 5.4 and from Table 5.6 onwards. To put this into context: on a residence basis, London's share of the United Kingdom's GVA was 16 per cent in 1999 compared with 18 per cent on a workplace basis. The North East represents less than 4 per cent of United Kingdom GVA and Northern Ireland just over 2 per cent.

Table 5.4 shows total GVA on a residence-basis for London and the United Kingdom since 1990. In London, GVA increased by 64 per cent between 1990 and 1999, with annual rates of increase ranging from 3 per cent to over 9 per cent. In most years London had a higher rate of growth than the United Kingdom as a whole. However, care should be taken in interpreting these figures as we cannot split out any impact of regional price changes or inflation from underlying volume changes.

Although GVA calculated on a residence-basis does not include the income of any commuters travelling into London, the GVA per head figure for London during 1999 was still 30 per cent above the average for the United Kingdom as a whole. It also exceeded that of any other United Kingdom region.

Table 5.5 details workplace-based GVA figures for London and the United Kingdom, which, unlike the data in Table 5.4, allocate the incomes of commuters to their region of workplace rather than their region of residence. Although both the absolute and per head levels of GVA are somewhat higher than the residence-based figures published in Table 5.4, both the workplace and residence series have followed a similar trend since 1989.

Table 5.6

Gross Value Added, residence basis by components of income at current basic prices[1]

Percentages and £ million

	London		United Kingdom[2]	
	1994	1999	1994	1999
Compensation of employees	*61.2*	*61.7*	*62.0*	*63.4*
Operating surplus/mixed income[3]	*38.8*	*38.3*	*37.9*	*36.6*
Total GVA (£million)	91,118	122,816	593,932	771,849

1 Estimates of regional GVA in this table are on a residence basis, where income of commuters is allocated to where they live, rather than their place of work.
2 Excluding GVA for Extra-Regio, which comprises compensation of employees and gross operating surplus that cannot be assigned to regions.
3 Including taxes on production.

Source: Office for National Statistics

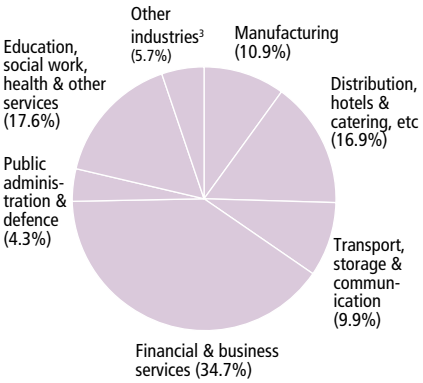
Table 5.6 shows GVA for London and the United Kingdom, split by compensation of employees and other income. Compensation of employees, comprising wages and salaries plus employers national insurance contributions – broadly speaking people's wages – accounted for more than 60 per cent of the total. The proportion of GVA from compensation of employees in London is slightly below the United Kingdom average. Table A5.2 in the Appendix shows the full time-series for the period 1989 to 1998.

One of the factors affecting the level of GVA per head is the mix of industries in a region. This is particularly true of London where the mix, shown in Figure 5.7, is very different from any other part of the United Kingdom. The proportion of London's GVA attributable to financial and business services (35 per cent) in 1998 was considerably higher than the United Kingdom average (28 per cent). In only two other regions, the South East and East of England, did the share of this sector exceed 28 per cent. The proportion accounted for by manufacturing shows the opposite effect. Manufacturing in London only account for about 11 per cent of GVA in 1998, against a United Kingdom average of over 20 per cent, and a figure of 27 to 30 per cent for the whole of the Midlands, for the North

Figure 5.7

Share of Gross Value Added[1]: by industry group[2], 1998

London Percentages



1 At factor cost before adjustment for financial services.
2 Industry breakdown based on Standard Industrial Classification 1992.
3 Agriculture, mining, energy, construction, etc.

Source: Office for National Statistics

East (of England), and for Wales. The sheer size of the financial and business services sector in London means that the shares of all other sectors are correspondingly reduced. It does not follow, though, that the remaining sectors are insignificant in cash terms compared with other regions as manufacturing in London accounted for nearly £13 billion in 1998.

A full time-series of GVA by industry group for the period 1989 to 1998 is provided in Table A5.3 in the Appendix. The Appendix also includes tables on other aspects of the regional accounts, namely household income and individual consumption expenditure.

Major economic sectors

Although the figures in this section relate to London as a whole, most of the points made explain why GVA in Inner London is so high compared with the levels in the rest of the United Kingdom.

Financial and business services are the key sector in London's economy. Over and above their direct contribution to GVA, the activity that they generate helps to sustain many other industries such as transport and communications, restaurants and hotels. The relatively high salaries add considerably to aggregate spending power, and the sector regularly generates a large surplus for the United Kingdom's balance of payments. Figure 5.8 shows the growing importance of this industry to both the national and London economies: in 1998, financial and business services contributed 42 per cent (£50 billion) to London's economy, having risen from 39 per cent in 1993.

Financial and business services have seen strong growth throughout the United Kingdom over the six years to 1998 and London has maintained its dominant share of the sector – a fifth of the industry, in terms of GVA, is located in London.

There was an economic boom in financial services during the 1980s to which various factors contributed. Banking institutions, the largest single part of the whole sector, greatly diversified their activities and the opening up of the London Stock Exchange gave rise to a much increased volume of trading. At the same time business services benefited from developments such as privatisation and contracting-out, the property boom, and, particularly in the case of advertising, the strong growth in consumer spending which was taking place.

In the more settled conditions of the second half of the 1990s there has been no comparable expansion in the scale of activity, but London has continued to strengthen its position as the dominant dealing centre in Europe, particularly for foreign exchange and securities. The City is generally regarded as one of the three most important financial centres in the world, together with New York and Tokyo.

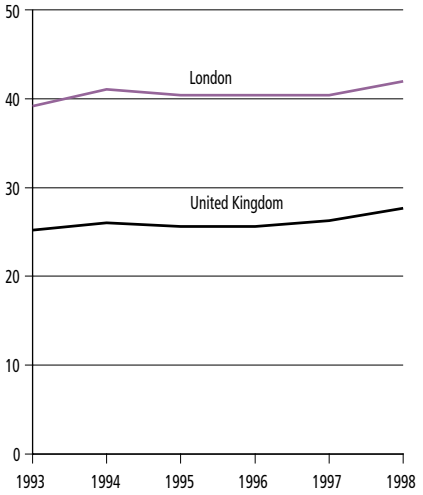
In terms of the proportion of people employed, public administration and defence are slightly more important in London than in the United Kingdom generally. Figure 5.9 shows, however, that in terms of the contribution to the capital's GVA, the sector is less important in London than for the United Kingdom as a whole. This apparent contradiction is explained partly by the non-profit-making nature of the sector. The sector does, of course, provide benefits to London's economy beyond its direct outputs. For example, many commercial headquarters, representative organisations and service providers locate themselves in London, at least partly in order to be close to national decision-making. There is no sign of the capital's dominance in the public sector weakening significantly.

Manufacturing declined during the 1980s and early 1990s throughout the United Kingdom but particularly in London. Manufacturing has continued

Figure 5.8

Financial/business services[1] contribution to Gross Value Added[2]

Percentages



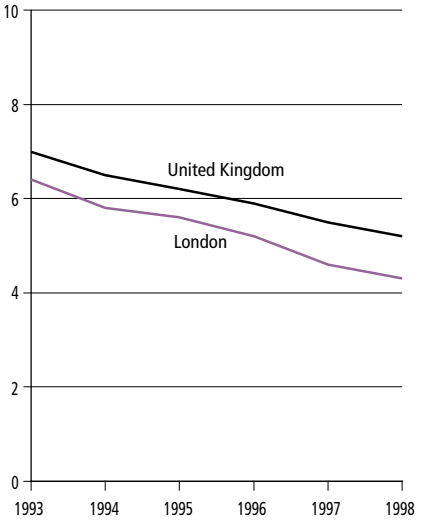
1 Financial intermediation, real estate, renting, business activities.
2 At factor cost before adjustment for financial services.

Source: Office for National Statistics

Figure 5.9

Public administration and defence[1] contribution to Gross Value Added[2]

Percentages



1 Public administration, national defence and compulsory social security.
2 At factor cost before adjustment for financial services.

Source: Office for National Statistics

to decline in London as Figure 5.10 shows: between 1993 and 1998 manufacturing as a percentage of GVA in the capital fell from 12 per cent to less than 11 per cent, while nationally the overall fall was slightly lower. This component of GVA has remained at about 8.5 to 9 per cent of the United Kingdom total since 1993. With modest levels of output, investment and productivity, manufacturing is not the 'engine' which drives London's economy, but, as the section on Businesses shows, it remains a significant and integral part of it.

In addition to the GVA estimates available for the whole economy (latest figures published for 1999 at regional level), the Annual Business Inquiry provides estimates for manufacturing industry GVA. London's share of total manufacturing GVA, at 8 per cent, was somewhat higher than its share of net capital expenditure in the manufacturing sector (2.6 per cent) in 2000. Although London's share of manufacturing GVA remained fairly stable between 1998 and 2000 (Table 5.11), total net capital expenditure varied. Capital investment in manufacturing has been constrained over recent years by competitive trading conditions and by modest growth in profits. Despite this, GVA at basic prices per person employed within manufacturing during 2000 was nearly 8 per cent greater than the average for Great Britain as a whole.

Gross Disposable Household Income (GDHI) is the income of a household available for consumption expenditure or savings, after deducting taxes, property expenditure, and national insurance contributions. The level and composition of GDHI differs considerably between regions. In 1999, London was 20 per cent above the United Kingdom average (Table A5.4). The difference is even more marked at NUTS 3 level where Inner London-West was 64 per cent above the United Kingdom average over the period 1997-1999. It should be noted that total income in London, before tax, is 25 per cent higher than the United Kingdom average: the difference between total income and disposable income demonstrates the redistributive effects of taxes and benefits on regions.

Businesses

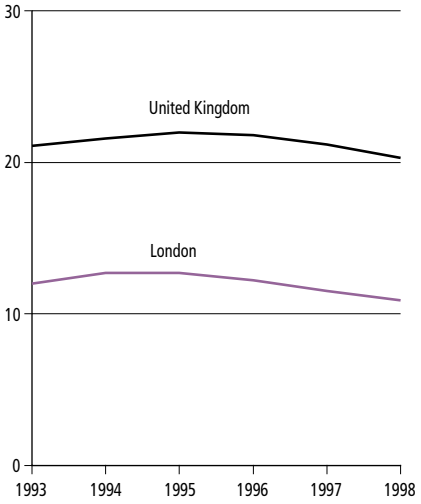
Detailed information on the location and nature of businesses is available from the ONS' Inter-Departmental Business Register (see Notes and Definitions), which combines information on VAT-registered traders and employers with PAYE employees. The register covers 2 million enterprises in the United Kingdom, around 99 per cent of economic activity. In addition the Department for Trade and Industry produces estimates of the total business population, covering nearly 3.8 million enterprises.

In March 2002 there were over 255,000 businesses registered for VAT in London; nearly 16 per cent of the United Kingdom total. This was a higher proportion than the capital's relative share of either the adult United Kingdom population (12.2 per cent) or its share of the workforce (12 per cent). These figures can, in part, be explained by the fact that businesses generally give their Head Office address when registering for VAT.

Figure 5.10

Manufacturing industries'[1] contribution to Gross Value Added[2]

Percentages



1 Definition of manufacturing based on Standard Industrial Classification 1992.
2 At factor cost before adjustment for financial services.

Source: Office for National Statistics

Table 5.11

Net capital expenditure and Gross Value Added in manufacturing[1,2]

£ million and percentages

	Net capital expenditure		Appropriate Gross Value Added[3]	
	London (£ million)	London as percentage of UK	London (£ million)	London as percentage of UK
1998	883	*4.4*	10,684	*7.3*
1999	1,045	*5.8*	11,762	*7.9*
2000	436	*2.6*	11,924	*8.0*

1 Definition of manufacturing based on Standard Industrial Classification 1992.
2 At basic prices.
3 Approximate Gross Value Added at basic prices represents the wealth created by businesses and is essentially the difference between income and expenditure in goods and services. See Notes and Definitions.

Source: Annual Business Inquiry, Office for National Statistics

Table 5.12 analyses the individual VAT-registered business enterprises by broad industry group. The breakdown confirms the greater importance of the financial and professional services sector to London than to the United Kingdom generally. Two fifths of individual business sites in London fell within this sector as compared to just over a quarter of business sites for the United Kingdom as a whole. The proportion of service industry sites was even higher in the City of London, at four fifths of total sites in the City, the heaviest concentration throughout the region. Not surprisingly, the City alone accounted for more than 8 per cent of businesses in the financial and professional services sector in London during 2002. This was a higher proportion of the total than in any other borough, with the exception of Westminster, where the proportion was higher at over 16 per cent. However, Westminster is seven times the physical area of the City of London and contains more than three times the total number of business units.

In 2002, 7 per cent of individual VAT-registered business sites in London were production-based. The heaviest concentration of manufacturing relative to the total number of business sites was in Hackney: 12.3 per cent of all local units in that borough were manufacturing - related. The highest actual number of manufacturing sites was in the City of Westminster, with over double the number of manufacturing sites in Hackney.

In addition to this cross-sectional picture of the economy in London, it is also useful to assess how its economic structure develops and changes over time. Maps 5.13 and 5.14 illustrate the percentage changes that have occurred in the number of manufacturing and services sites by borough between the years of 1996 and 2001.

The numbers of manufacturing sites decreased in most boroughs during this time, with the greatest falls in

Table 5.12

Classification[1] of business sites[2], 2002

Percentages and thousands

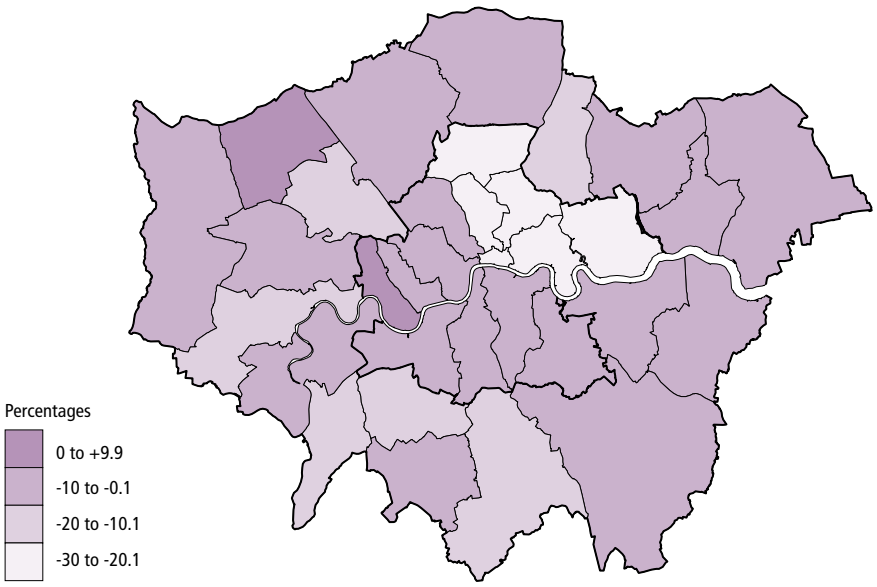
	London	United Kingdom
Agriculture, hunting, forestry & fishing	*0.2*	*8.8*
Mining & quarrying, energy, water supply & manufacturing	*7.0*	*9.1*
Construction	*6.7*	*10.8*
Distribution, hotels & catering; repairs	*26.4*	*29.3*
Transport & communication	*3.9*	*4.6*
Financial intermediation, real estate, renting & business activities	*41.3*	*27.5*
Education & health	*1.2*	*1.2*
Public administration & other services	*13.3*	*8.7*
Total business sites (thousands)	255.0	1,619.2

1 Based on Standard Industrial Classification 1992.
2 Registered for VAT, sites are allocated to countries or regions on local unit basis, eg an individual factory or shop. See Notes and Definitions.

Source: Inter-Departmental Business Register, Office for National Statistics

Map 5.13

Percentage change in the number of manufacturing industry sites[1], 1996-2001



1 VAT based local units, excluding units undergoing checking.

Source: Inter Departmental Business Register, Office for National Statistics

Tower Hamlets, Haringey and Hackney, each of which showed a decrease in manufacturing of over 27 per cent. Only two boroughs saw an increase: Hammersmith and Fulham, and Harrow.

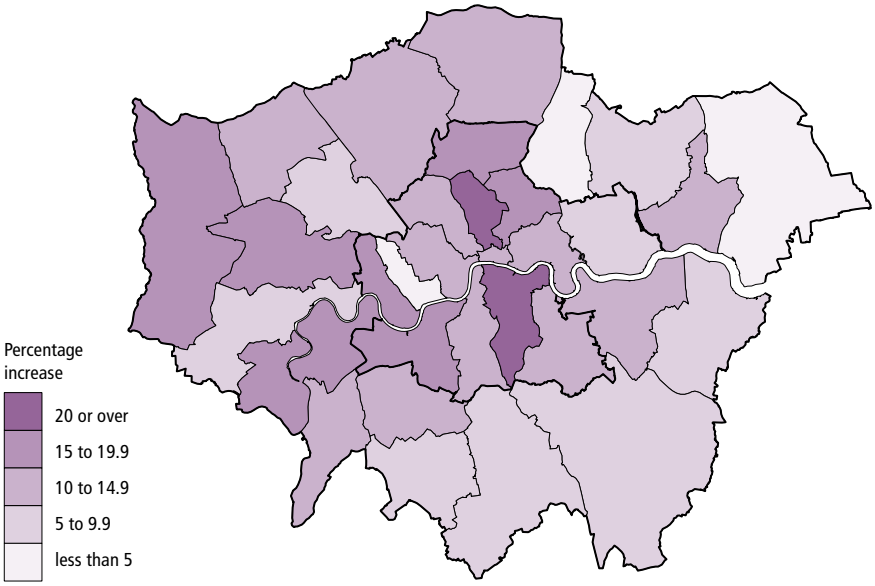
As expected, the growth in services during these years has led to changes in the industry composition of many boroughs. In contrast to the decline in manufacturing sites, all areas saw an increase in service industry sites (Map 5.14). The increase in service sites was highest in the Inner London boroughs of Southwark, Islington, Hackney and Haringey, with changes of between 17.5 and 22.7 per cent during this period. The largest single volume increase in the numbers of service sites was in the City of Westminster (a rise in excess of 4,600 businesses). The growing importance of services in Southwark can be explained in part by the development of the new City Hall and new visitor attractions such as the Tate Modern combined with the benefits of improved transport links. Developments along the riverbank on both sides have proved popular since the economic upturn of the mid-1990s, and the ongoing infrastructure improvements such as the Docklands Light Railway and Jubilee Line extension. As a result, Inner London boroughs in general were more likely than Outer London boroughs to contain a higher proportion of service industry sites, and show a greater proportional shift toward services between 1996 and 2001.

These analyses take no account of the levels and proportions of either wealth or employment generated by each individual business site. They do, however, support the importance of the service industries to London and indicate that the growth in this sector looks set to continue well into the new millennium. An analysis of employment in London is included in Chapter 6.

Table 5.15 tabulates the breakdown of business sites in the manufacturing sector in London by the levels of employment that they provide. It is clear that manufacturing units in London

Map 5.14

Percentage change in the number of service industry sites[1], 1996-2001



1 VAT based local units, excluding all 20+ unproven units.

Source: Inter Departmental Business Register, Office for National Statistics

Table 5.15

Manufacturing business sites[1,2]: by employment size band[3], 2002

Percentages and thousands

	Manufacturing	
	London	United Kingdom
Employment size bands		
1 to 9	*82.7*	*74.3*
10 to 19	*9.1*	*10.8*
20 to 49	*4.7*	*7.5*
50 to 199	*2.7*	*5.6*
200+	*0.8*	*1.8*
All local units (thousands)	23.8	195.0

1 Definition of manufacturing based on Standard Industrial Classification 1992.
2 Registered for VAT and/or PAYE, sites are allocated on a local unit basis, eg individual factory or shop. See Notes and Definitions.
3 Includes paid full and part-time employees and working proprietors.

Source: Inter-Departmental Business Register, Office for National Statistics

were, on average, smaller than those in the United Kingdom generally. In 2001, nearly 83 per cent of manufacturing sites in London had an average of less than 10 employees (including those of working proprietors) compared with over 74 per cent in the United Kingdom. The proportion of small units was highest in Inner London at almost 84 per cent. At the other end of the scale, less than one per cent of factories in London had 200 or more employees. This was less than half the proportion for the United Kingdom as a whole. The relatively high proportion of small manufacturing units in London as compared to the United Kingdom as a whole could be partly explained by the high cost of both land and building space, especially in Inner London.

Although London has a high proportion of smaller VAT-registered business, estimates of the total business population (Table 5.16) show that small and medium enterprises in London account for only 43 per cent of total employment, less than any other region. The difference appears to be in the size of micro units: the average small business in London employs fewer people than small businesses in other parts of the United Kingdom.

Table 5.17 looks at the size of businesses from a different point of view – by turnover size band. It indicates that around a fifth of VAT-registered enterprises in the United Kingdom had a turnover of less than £50,000 in 2002, in spite of the threshold of £55,000 for compulsory VAT-registration at April 2002; these were voluntary registrations and businesses that had dropped below the threshold. London has a greater proportion of businesses with a high turnover than in the United Kingdom generally. The capital had a lower proportion of enterprises with a turnover of less than £100,000 than the United Kingdom as a whole, and also had a higher proportion with a turnover of £1 million or more. In conjunction with the data from table 5.15, these figures reinforce the impression of both small size and high turnover businesses in London and in particular, Inner London.

Turning to figures on registrations and de-registrations, which are used as a proxy for business start-ups and closures, an estimated 34,900 businesses in London were newly registered for VAT in 2001, while 32,200 were de-registered (Table 5.18). Reasons for de-registration include turnover falling below the VAT threshold, change of ownership, and businesses ceasing trading. London accounted for nearly 20 per cent of all new registrations in the United Kingdom in 2001, and nearly 20 per cent of all de-registrations.

Businesses can cross the VAT threshold for a variety of reasons. The data in Table 5.18 should therefore not be interpreted simply as business 'births' and 'deaths'. VAT registrations and de-registrations do however serve as a useful indicator of the underlying birth and death rates.

The rate of business stock replacement (as implied by VAT registration and de-registration rates) was consistently greater in London than the United Kingdom average, indicating that the business stock in London may be less stable than nationally. Although business registration and de-registration

Table 5.16

Share of employment and turnover in small and medium sized enterprises,[1] start 2001

Percentages and thousands

	London	United Kingdom
Employment	*43.0*	*55.4*
Turnover	*48.9*	*51.4*
Total number of enterprises	674	3,746

1 Enterprises with less than 250 employees.

Source: Small Business Service, Department of Trade and Industry

Table 5.17

VAT-registered enterprises[1]: by turnover size band, 2002

Percentages and thousands

	London	United Kingdom
Turnover size (£ thousand)		
1 to 49	*17.3*	*21.1*
50 to 99	*24.4*	*25.4*
100 to 249	*25.1*	*25.3*
250 to 499	*12.3*	*11.6*
500 to 999	*8.3*	*7.2*
1,000 to 4,999	*9.0*	*7.0*
5,000 and over	*3.6*	*2.4*
All VAT-registered enterprises (thousands)	255.0	1,619.2

1 Legal unit basis, i.e. by location of enterprise. See Notes and Definitions.

Source: Inter-Departmental Business Register, Office for National Statistics

rates in London have followed a very similar pattern to the national trend over the past three years, registration rates in London have remained around 3 percentage points higher than in the United Kingdom as a whole, with de-registration rates around 2 percentage points higher.

As well as births and deaths in the business population, an important indicator of economic health is the longevity of new firms. Nearly 92 per cent of businesses registered in London during 2000 were still trading a year later, 76 per cent of those registered in 1999 were still trading after two years, and over 60 per cent of businesses registered in 1998 were still trading three years later (Table 5.19). However, these proportions were below the average for the United Kingdom as a whole. The recent trend in London is very similar to the pattern during the late 1980s and early 1990s; where the survival rates for businesses in London had been lower than the national averages as the recession appeared to affect London to a greater extent than the United Kingdom as a whole. Although survival rates in London recovered slightly, to reach parity with the United Kingdom during the mid-1990s for survival over twelve months, survival over longer periods has not been as successful in recent years.

The value of new construction work being undertaken in London is shown in Table 5.20. This differentiates between new house building, infrastructure projects, other new work, and repairs, "other new work" being principally commercial schemes. Figures for 2001 indicate growth in all types of construction. The value of "other new work" has more than doubled since 1995 and increased by nearly a third since 1998. Infrastructure projects have also seen a large increase in 2001, following a fall in the previous year.

It should be noted, however, that the data are not adjusted for inflation. Yearly changes in construction spending

Table 5.18

Business registrations and de-registrations[1]

Thousands and rates

	London			United Kingdom		
	1999	2000	2001	1999	2000	2001
Registrations	37.3	37.9	34.9	178.5	183.3	175.5
De-registrations	32.8	35.2	32.2	172.0	177.1	162.7
Net change	4.6	2.7	2.8	6.5	6.2	12.7
End-year Stock	274.5	277.2	28.0	1,658.1	1,664.4	1,677.1
Registration rate[2]	*13.8*	*13.8*	*12.6*	*10.8*	*11.1*	*10.5*
De-registration rate[2]	*12.1*	*12.8*	*11.6*	*10.4*	*10.7*	*9.8*
Registration rate[3]	66	65	59	38	39	37
De-registration rate[3]	58	61	55	37	37	34

1 Enterprises registered for VAT. See Notes and Definitions.
2 Registrations and deregistrations during the year as a percentage of the stock figure at the start of the year.
3 Registrations and deregistrations during the year per 10,000 of the resident adult population. Each year's rate is based on the previous year's mid-year population figure.

Source: Small Business Service, Department of Trade and Industry

Table 5.19

Business survival rates[1]

Percentages

	London			United Kingdom		
	12 months	24 months	36 months	12 months	24 months	36 months
1993	*85.6*	*70.4*	*59.4*	*85.5*	*70.5*	*59.8*
1994	*85.3*	*69.8*	*57.9*	*85.5*	*70.7*	*59.7*
1995	*86.5*	*71.6*	*59.9*	*87.2*	*73.2*	*62.7*
1996	*85.8*	*72.8*	*60.8*	*87.1*	*74.5*	*63.6*
1997	*88.1*	*74.2*	*61.3*	*88.7*	*75.9*	*64.4*
1998	*88.2*	*73.3*	*60.3*	*88.9*	*75.5*	*64.0*
1999	*89.2*	*76.1*	..	*89.6*	*77.2*	..
2000	*91.6*	..	..	*91.4*	..	..

1 The percentage of businesses surviving the stated number of months after year of registration.

Source: Small Business Service, Department of Trade and Industry

are therefore the result of movements in price as well as movements in volume.

The increases in commercial construction spending since 1997 were primarily the result of a series of millennium projects, which included the development of the Greenwich Peninsula. During 1997 more than £700 million of lottery funds and private sector sponsorship were allocated by the Millennium Commission to projects in Greenwich and several surrounding boroughs. These millennium developments span across several construction categories and London boroughs. They included: the Millennium Dome; 1,400 new homes in Greenwich; a hotel; and a supermarket. More recently work on the Channel Tunnel Rail Link has spanned several central and eastern boroughs.

Assistance to industry

Currently, individual regional and subregional areas of the United Kingdom are eligible for assistance from the European Structural and Cohesion funds. These are funds allocated according to specific development and social objectives. The structural funds consist of three separate streams: Objective 1 for areas (economically) lagging behind the rest of the EU; Objective 2 for areas facing structural difficulties or declines in particular industry sectors; and Objective 3 supporting the adaptation and modernisation of policies and systems of education, training and employment. Because of the relatively high GVA per head relative to the rest of the EU, London did not qualify for Objective 1 status.

Under the European Commission guidelines for 2000-2006, the vast majority of the previous Objective 2 areas did not automatically qualify for funds during the new funding period. This was due to the relatively low unemployment rate in the United Kingdom as compared to the European Union at the time these funding decisions were made (subnational data for the UK were based on the number of people claiming

Table 5.20

Value of construction work

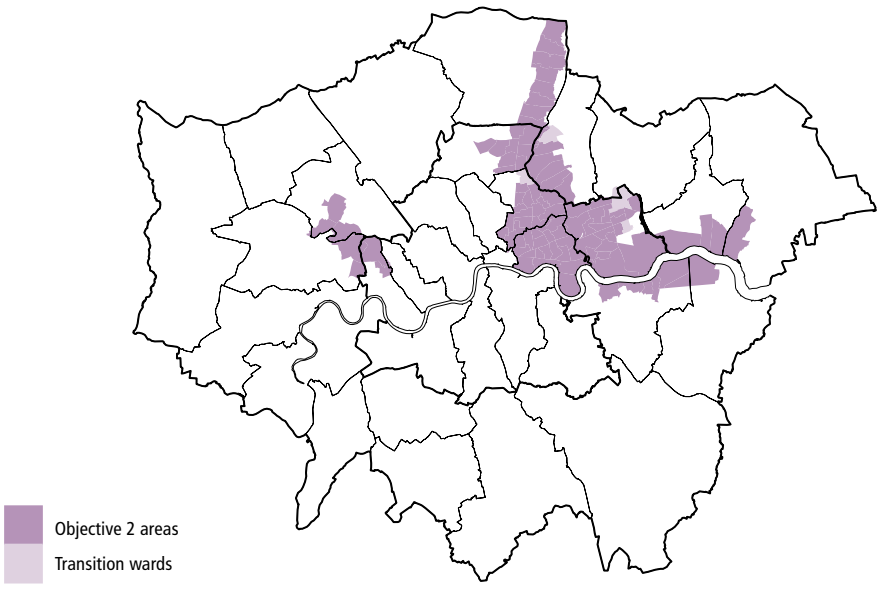
London £ billion

	New housing	Infra-structure	Other new work	Repairs
1988	0.78	0.37	3.12	2.25
1989	0.62	0.41	4.09	2.57
1990	0.42	0.52	4.49	2.82
1991	0.35	0.74	3.92	2.69
1992	0.40	0.74	2.63	2.53
1993	0.47	0.74	1.89	2.54
1994	0.62	0.80	1.99	2.70
1995	0.64	1.08	2.28	2.92
1996	0.56	1.32	2.52	3.03
1997	0.78	1.21	2.73	3.24
1998	0.86	1.09	3.46	3.54
1999	0.88	1.00	4.10	3.69
2000	0.96	0.88	4.07	4.35
2001	1.04	1.58	4.78	4.72

Source: Department of Trade and Industry

Map 5.21

Objective 2 funding areas, 2000-2006



Source: Department of Trade and Industry

unemployment-related benefits rather than ILO unemployment). The United Kingdom however, was successful in securing a 'safety net' which maintained around two thirds of the pre-existing Objective 2 & 5b areas that qualified for funding between 1994 and 1999. This left some £2.5 billion available to United Kingdom regions (with coverage of around 13.8 million people), which has at least partially cushioned the cuts in Objective 2 funding coverage in both London and the United Kingdom as a whole. Map 5.21 shows the areas within boroughs which have Objective 2 or transitional status for the 2000 to 2006 funding period.

In addition to these changes, the 2000 to 2006 structural funding programme has seen the introduction of a series of new eligibility criteria for Objective 2 status. The main difference from the previous funding programme is that Objective 2 funds now cover agriculture, fishing and urban deprivation as well as industry. There are two criteria with particular relevance to the London economy. The first covers industrial funding and based eligibility around wards which fell within a local authority or London borough with a (workforce - based) claimant count rate greater than 7.5 per cent and, that have also experienced a marked decline in the proportion of industrial jobs between 1991 and 1997. The second criterion covers urban areas enduring serious deprivation and/or structural decline. Individual wards were identified using the English Index of Deprivation (see Chapter 8 for further details).

Table 5.22 shows that more than £20 million of Objective 2 funding was allocated to London in each of the three years 2000 to 2002. Also funded from European Structural Funds is the Objective 3 programme, which is not geographically restricted to designated areas. The Objective 3 programme is concerned with the labour market so is described in the next chapter.

Table 5.22

Allocation of EU Objective 2 Structural Funds[1]

£ million at 1999 prices

	London	United Kingdom
2000	24	516
2001	25	505
2002	23	460

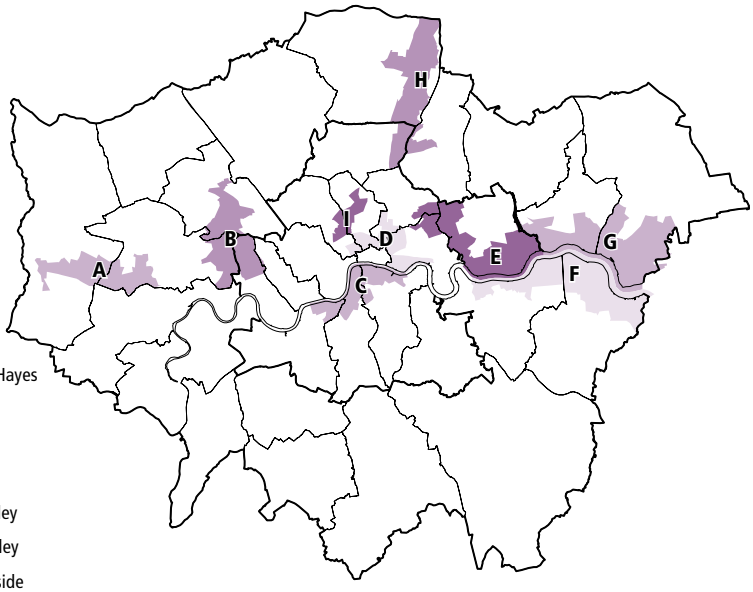
1 Only allocations resulting from the Commission's Single Programming Documents are shown. Allocations resulting from Community Initiatives, the value of which is about 8 per cent of the total Objective 1 and 2 allocations, are not included because not all of these can be allocated to specific Government Office Regions.

Source: Department of Trade and Industry

The London Development Agency (LDA), one of nine Regional Development Agencies (RDAs) in England, also has specific funding programmes for initiatives in skills development, business support, regeneration, employment and physical development. These are in addition to the core programmes described above and aim to assist selected areas within London, together with the wider Thames Gateway area in partnership with neighbouring RDAs. The areas chosen for "major area interventions" are shown in Map 5.23. See Notes and Definitions for more information on assistance to industry by the LDA.

Map 5.23

London Development Agency Priority Areas 2003-6



A Southall and Hayes
B West London
C South Central
D City Fringe
E Lower Lee Valley
F Woolwich/Bexley
G London Riverside
H Upper Lee Valley
I Kings Cross/Nag's Head

Source: London Development Agency

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The previous chapter examined the economy of London in respect of production levels and business enterprises. This chapter explores the human dimension of economic activity in the form of employment, unemployment and earnings.

Data from the Labour Force Survey in this chapter cover people who live in London, while the employer surveys cover those who work in London. As London has high levels of commuting across the regional boundary, these groups may have some different characteristics. In addition, the LFS counts people in employment while the employer surveys count jobs. See Notes and Definitions.

Employment

In spring 2002, 71 per cent of the working-age population (16 to 64 for men and 16 to 59 for women) in London were in employment. This was lower than the United Kingdom figure of 74 per cent. The number of people of all ages who were in employment in London stood at 3.4 million.

Table 6.1 shows the composition of employment of people living in London. The main difference between the current composition in London and in the United Kingdom as a whole is that London has a higher proportion of self-employed people and consequently proportionally fewer employees. As the economy grew in the late 1980s, so the number of employees living in London increased. However, London suffered more severely from the recession of the early 1990s than the United Kingdom as a whole, and employment fell. Since then there has been a recovery, and by spring 2002 there were 3.0 million employees in London.

London had a higher proportion of self-employed people than the national average in spring 2002 (13.3 per cent compared with 11.3 per cent). The proportion of people in work who were self-employed has remained fairly

Table 6.1

Components of employment[1]

Percentages and thousands

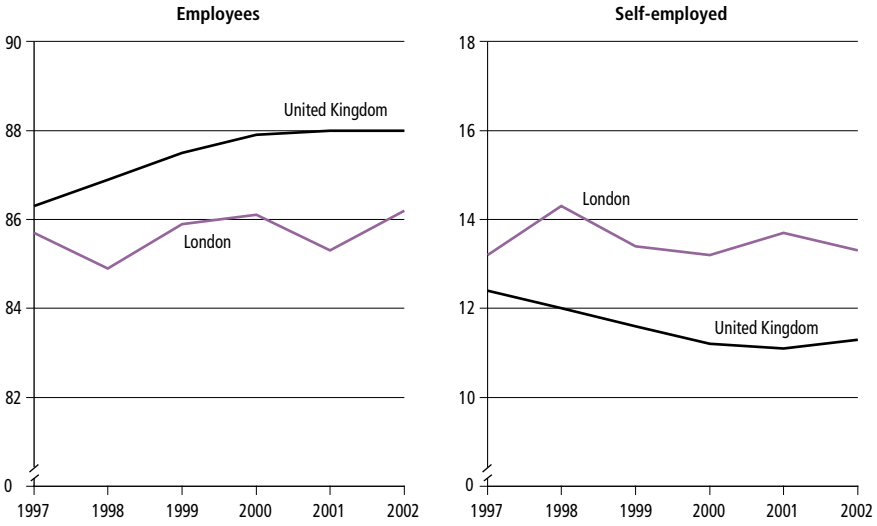
	Employees	Self-employed	Others in employment[2]	Total in employment (=100%) (thousands)
Males				
London				
1997	*81.3*	*17.7*	..	1,683
2002	*82.2*	*17.5*	..	1,851
United Kingdom				
1997	*82.0*	*16.8*	*1.2*	14,276
2002	*84.0*	*15.4*	*0.6*	14,819
Females				
London				
1997	*90.8*	*8.1*	..	1,462
2002	*90.9*	*8.4*	..	1,572
United Kingdom				
1997	*91.4*	*7.2*	*1.4*	11,992
2002	*92.6*	*6.5*	*0.9*	12,746

1 At spring each year, not seasonally adjusted.
2 Covers people on government-supported employment and training schemes, and unpaid family workers.
Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

Figure 6.2

Employees and the self-employed[1,2]

Percentages



1 At spring of each year, not seasonally adjusted.
2 As percentage of total in employment.
Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

constant in London over the last 5 years, while in the United Kingdom as a whole it has fallen slightly (Figure 6.2). There were 455,000 self-employed people in the capital in spring 2002 – this was 39,000 more than 5 years ago (a 9 per cent increase). Men were much more likely to be self-employed than women. Some 17 per cent of male workers were self-employed, compared with 8 per cent of women.

The labour market in the United Kingdom has become more flexible in recent years although the flexibility varies with the economic cycle. Part-time work, second jobs, job sharing, shift working, flexitime and also fixed-term or temporary contracts are now more common. Women workers remain much more likely than men to work part-time (Table 6.3). Around a third of female workers in London worked part-time in spring 2002, a similar proportion to 1997. This compared with just over a tenth of male workers. In London, male workers were more likely to work part-time than those in the United Kingdom overall, while female workers were less likely to do so.

Table 6.3

Part-time working[1,2]

Percentages

	London	United Kingdom
Males		
1997	*11.5*	*9.0*
2002	*11.2*	*9.5*
Females		
1997	*34.6*	*44.8*
2002	*33.8*	*44.1*

1 At spring each year, not seasonally adjusted. Based on respondents' own definition of part-time.
2 Part-time workers as percentage of total in employment.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

Industrial and occupational composition

London has a unique industrial structure, as detailed in the previous chapter. This is reflected in the composition of the capital's GVA (Gross Value Added), which provides a measure of the value of goods and services produced within the region and an indication of the region's competitiveness. London's employment structure follows a similar pattern to output: in particular, the financial and business services sector is the largest contributor to employee jobs as well as to GVA. The decline in manufacturing jobs between 1991 and 2001 was steeper in London than nationally. The number of jobs in this sector fell by nearly one fifth in London to 260,000, more than the proportional decline for Great Britain (down 13 per cent to 3.6 million in 2001). This was offset by a sharp increase in jobs in the financial and business services industry, particularly in London, where the number of employee jobs increased by more than a half to 1.3 million (Table 6.4).

This chapter so far has treated London as a single unit. However, it should be noted that there are considerable variations between London's boroughs (Maps 6.5 and 6.6). Employee jobs in the manufacturing industries are most prevalent in Barking and Dagenham, traditionally a centre of the motor industry. In 2001 it was the only borough to have a higher proportion (21 per cent) of employee jobs in the manufacturing sector than the average for Great Britain as a whole (14 per cent). The next highest – the boroughs of Bexley, Brent and Merton – are also in Outer London. In contrast, the service sector is heavily concentrated within Inner London – the highest percentages were in the City, Kensington and

Table 6.4

Industrial composition[1] of employee jobs

Percentages and thousands

	London		Great Britain	
	1991	2001	1991	2001
Agriculture, hunting, forestry & fishing	*0.1*	*0.1*	*1.4*	*1.0*
Mining & quarrying; Electricity, gas & water	*1.0*	*0.3*	*1.7*	*0.8*
Manufacturing	*9.9*	*6.5*	*19.3*	*14.2*
Construction	*3.7*	*3.3*	*4.7*	*4.5*
Distribution, hotels & catering, repairs	*20.2*	*22.2*	*21.9*	*24.3*
Transport, storage & communication	*9.3*	*8.0*	*6.3*	*6.1*
Financial & business services	*26.5*	*33.0*	*15.6*	*19.6*
Public administration & defence	*7.9*	*5.1*	*6.5*	*5.2*
Education, social work & health services	*15.6*	*14.4*	*18.6*	*19.1*
Other	*5.9*	*7.1*	*4.1*	*5.2*
Whole economy (=100%) (thousands)	3,255	4,015	21,576	25,456

1 At September each year. Figures are based on Standard Industrial Classification 1992. See Notes and Definitions.

Source: Census of Employment and Annual Business Inquiry, Office for National Statistics.

Chelsea, Westminster and Wandsworth. Barnet, Kingston upon Thames and Hounslow were the only boroughs in Outer London with more than 90 per cent of employee jobs in service industries in 2001.

There are also wide variations in employment rates between boroughs. Table A6.1 in the Appendix shows the working-age employment rate by borough. In 2001 Newham and Tower Hamlets had the lowest employment rate not just in London but in the whole of Great Britain at 54 per cent. At the other end of the scale Sutton had an employment rate of 82 per cent.

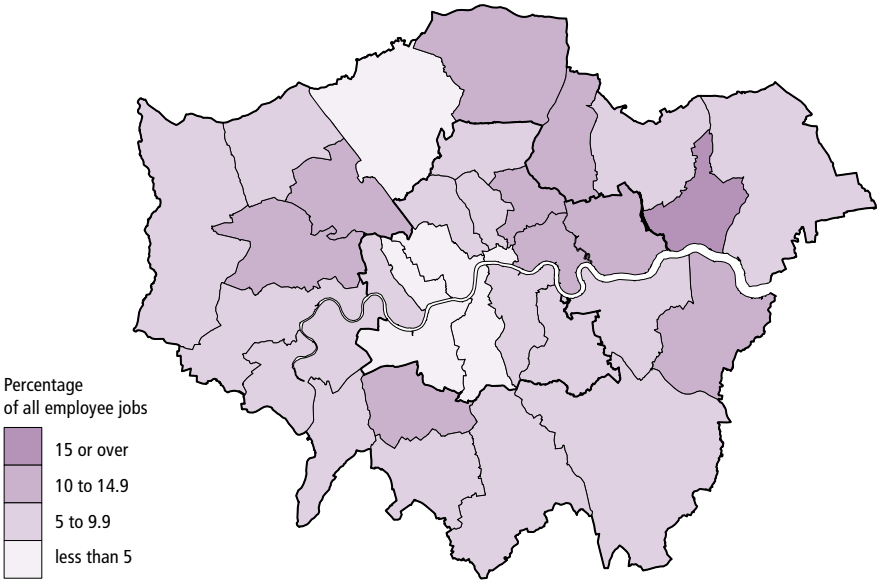
Considering that a third of employee jobs in London are in financial and business services, it is unsurprising to find a large percentage of London employees in professional, associate professional and technical jobs (Table 6.7). Comparisons between men and women show much the same contrasts in London as exist in the United Kingdom as a whole. In the professional, associate professional and technical jobs, the proportions of women and men are similar, while the proportion of women in managerial and senior officials jobs is still significantly lower than that for men.

Earnings

Average earnings in London have traditionally been higher than in the country as a whole. Table 6.8 shows that this continues to be the case, although the size of the differential varies by type of work and by sex. In April 2002 the gross weekly earnings of full-time manual employees in London were on average 12 per cent higher than the UK as a whole for men, while the difference for women was 17 per cent. The equivalent differences for non-manual employees were 33 and 30 per cent respectively. The earnings gap between London and the UK average was even more striking among the highest earning non-manual males, with the top 10 per cent of the earners in

Map 6.5

Employee jobs in manufacturing industries[1], 2001

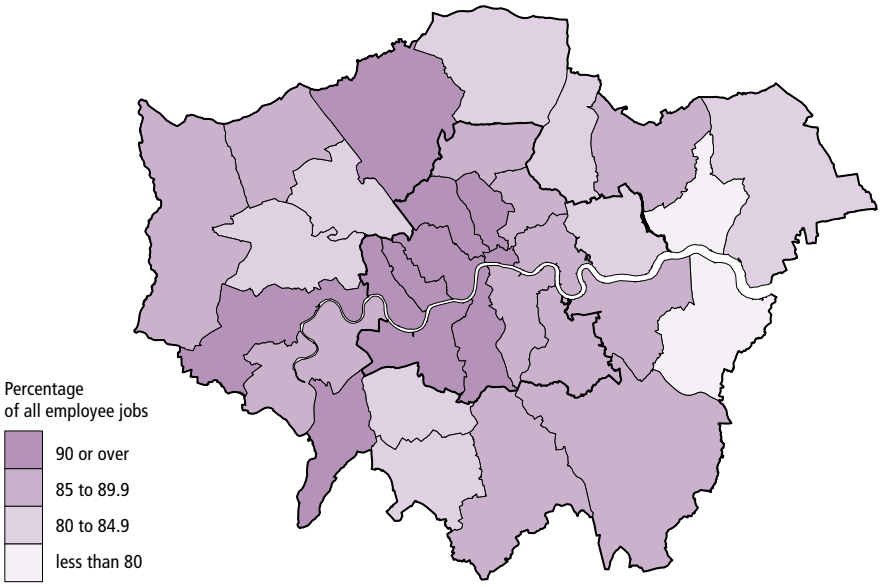


1 Based on Standard Industrial Classification 1992.

Source: Annual Business Inquiry, Office for National Statistics

Map 6.6

Employee jobs in service industries[1], 2001



1 Based on Standard Industrial Classification 1992.

Source: Annual Business Inquiry, Office for National Statistics

London earning more than £1,408 per week compared with £1,007 in the UK as a whole. The proportion of employees earning below £200 a week was lower in London than the UK for all categories of employees. However, nearly a fifth of women in full-time manual work in London earned less than £200 per week. The difference in non-manual earnings between London and the UK partly reflects the high salaries paid in financial and business services, which are concentrated in London. It also reflects the fact that London residents tend to have higher costs for some outgoings than people in other parts of the country, particularly for housing and transport, as discussed in Chapter 8. Salaries in the capital often include an extra allowance for this reason.

Table 6.9 shows earnings for individual occupational groups. Among men, the earnings gap between London and Great Britain ranged from those in associate professional and technical occupations in London earning 36 per cent more than those in the country as a whole, to a differential of 5 per cent for those in sales occupations. The highest differential between women in London and Great Britain was in clerical and secretarial occupations at 27 per cent. Those occupations classified as 'other' had the lowest differential at 15 per cent.

In all of the broad occupational groups, male earnings exceeded female earnings in both Great Britain and London. Although male and female earnings in the capital were broadly similar in clerical and secretarial occupations, the gap was more than 50 per cent for managers and administrators. The differential was also high for personal and protective service occupations at 45 per cent, and for plant and machine operatives and associate professional and technical occupations, at 42 per cent.

Table 6.10 looks at the average weekly hours worked by full-time employees in London and the UK. Full-time employees in London worked fewer paid hours than those in the UK as a whole, but the differential was small and has not changed much in over 20 years. Men worked longer hours than women partly because they did more paid overtime, though men in London worked less paid overtime than across the UK overall. It should be noted that the figures in the table are from the New Earnings Survey and include paid overtime only. According to the Labour Force Survey, in spring 2002 full-time male employees in London usually worked an average of nearly 5 hours of unpaid overtime a week, an hour longer than the UK average. Women on average work more unpaid overtime than men, which is probably related to the greater proportion of women who work in non-manual occupations – the practice of working unpaid hours is recognised as being more prevalent in these occupation types. In addition to this, Londoners spend more time travelling to work than people in any other region. The average time spent travelling from home to work in Great Britain was 25 minutes in autumn 2001. For Londoners, it was 43 minutes.

Table 6.7

Occupations of employees, spring 2002

Percentages and thousands[1]

	Males		Females	
	London	United Kingdom	London	United Kingdom
Managers and Senior Officials	*21.8*	*18.2*	*12.3*	*9.0*
Professional Occupations	*15.3*	*12.5*	*13.6*	*10.4*
Associate Professional and Technical	*16.8*	*13.7*	*16.7*	*13.5*
Administrative and Secretarial	*8.0*	*5.9*	*25.7*	*23.6*
Skilled Trades Occupations	*9.9*	*16.2*	*1.2*	*1.8*
Personal Service Occupations	*2.9*	*2.2*	*10.3*	*13.1*
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	*5.6*	*4.8*	*10.2*	*12.5*
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	*6.5*	*13.2*	*1.0*	*2.9*
Elementary Occupations	*13.2*	*13.2*	*9.1*	*13.1*
All employees[2] (=100%) (thousands)	1,521	12,452	1,429	11,805

1 Percentages are calculated on data which are not consistent with 2001 Census population data. Thousands are consistent with the 2001 Census.
2 Includes those who did not state their occupation, but percentages are based on totals that exclude this group.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

Unemployment

Unemployment is linked to the economic cycle, although there is a time lag. Broadly speaking, as the country experiences economic growth unemployment falls. Conversely, as the economy slows and goes into recession so unemployment tends to rise. Unemployment in the United Kingdom is measured using the definition agreed by the International Labour Organisation (ILO) – see Notes and Definitions. The administrative count of those claiming unemployment-related benefits (Jobseeker's Allowance) is also published and is known as the claimant count.

Over the last 5 years, the unemployment and claimant count figures have followed similar trends in terms of accelerations, decelerations and cyclical turning points (Figure 6.11).

Unemployment is consistently higher than the claimant count, mainly because not all unemployed people claim benefits. In spring 2002 unemployment in London stood at 247,000 (seasonally adjusted), some 6.9 per cent of the economically active working-age population. This compared with a claimant count of 167,000 people (3.6 per cent) in April 2002.

Since the 1990s the unemployment rate for London has been higher than the national average. The rate in London stood at 6.9 per cent in spring 2002, one of the highest rates in the United Kingdom and 1.6 percentage points higher than the national average. However, unemployment has fallen over the last 5 years in line with the UK as a whole. In spring 1997 nearly one in ten of London's workforce was unemployed.

Not surprisingly, there is considerable variation in the unemployment rate between the boroughs. For those boroughs where a rate can be reliably estimated, the annual average from March 2001 to February 2002 ranged from 3.9 per cent in Bromley and 4.1 per cent in Hillingdon to 12.3 per cent in Tower Hamlets and 12.2 per cent in Hackney (Table A6.1 in the Appendix).

All minority ethnic groups in London had higher unemployment rates than the White group in spring 2002 (Table 6.12). However, there are large differences in unemployment rates within some of the groups shown. For example, within the Asian or Asian British group the unemployment rate of those of Pakistani and Bangladeshi origin is over two and a half times higher than among the Indian origin group.

In October 2002 there were around 165,000 people claiming unemployment-related benefits in London, nearly three quarters of them men (Table 6.13). Men were also more likely than women to have been claiming unemployment-related benefits for over a year – over 20 per cent of male and 15 per cent of female

Table 6.8

Gross weekly earnings[1], April 2002

£ per week and percentages

	Average gross weekly earnings (£)	10 per cent earned		Percentage earning under			
		Less than (£)	More than (£)	£200	£250	£350	£460
United Kingdom							
Males							
Manual	366.6	218.1	541.8	*6.2*	*18.4*	*52.9*	*79.6*
Non-manual	608.7	259.2	1,007.0	*2.8*	*8.7*	*24.1*	*42.7*
Females							
Manual	250.3	160.8	363.6	*33.3*	*59.8*	*88.0*	*96.7*
Non-manual	404.0	208.5	635.8	*7.9*	*22.3*	*50.3*	*70.5*
London							
Males							
Manual	409.1	234.1	623.5	*4.7*	*13.4*	*42.0*	*70.1*
Non-manual	806.7	311.2	1,408.0	*1.5*	*4.6*	*14.2*	*28.1*
Females							
Manual	292.8	172.3	440.8	*18.1*	*42.3*	*76.9*	*91.6*
Non-manual	523.5	263.9	819.8	*3.1*	*8.2*	*28.7*	*51.3*

1 Data relate to full-time employees on adult rates whose pay for the survey pay-period was not affected by absence.

Source: New Earnings Survey, Office for National Statistics

Table 6.9

Average gross weekly earnings[1]: by occupational group, April 2002

£ per week

	Males		Females	
	London	Great Britain	London	Great Britain
Managers and administrators	1030.0	784.4	661.8	528.7
Professional	825.6	679.7	673.5	562.2
Associate professional and technical	790.5	581.9	558.5	447.8
Clerical and secretarial	380.5	328.1	377.1	298.0
Craft and related	472.7	404.6	..	276.6
Personal and protective services	463.5	396.1	319.6	267.7
Sales	416.7	395.4	320.3	274.2
Plant and machine operatives	436.7	372.2	307.9	264.6
Other	344.9	315.4	265.4	230.2
All occupations	704.8	513.8	503.6	383.4

1 Data relate to earnings of full-time employees on adult rates whose pay for the survey pay-period was not affected by absence.

Source: New Earnings Survey, Office for National Statistics

claimants had been doing so. For both men and women, the proportions rose with age – 37 per cent of male and 30 per cent of female claimants aged 50 or over had been unemployed and claiming benefits for over a year.

Until December 2002 the claimant count rate for London boroughs and other small areas was calculated by measuring claimants as a percentage of all jobs plus claimants in an area. As commuting is an important feature of the London labour market these "workplace-based" rates could be distorted when there was significant commuting to work into or out of an area. From January 2003 the claimant count rate for local authorities has been calculated as the proportion of the working-age population resident in an area who are claimants. The effects of commuting do not distort these "residence-based" rates. However, such rates are not consistent with the workplace-based rates that are published for London or the UK as a whole. (See Chapter 10 for more information on commuting both into and out of London.)

New Deal

The percentage of young people who are unemployed and claiming benefits is disproportionately high. In October 2002 over a fifth of all Jobseeker's Allowance claimants in London were under the age of 25.

In April 1998 the Government introduced the New Deal for Young People as part of the Welfare to Work strategy. The aim of the scheme was to help young people who have been unemployed and claiming Jobseeker's Allowance for six months or more to find work and to improve their longer-term employability.

From the beginning of the scheme in 1998 up to the end of 2002 there were 140,000 starts in London on the New Deal for people aged 18 to 24, with 40,300 of the leavers entering sustained

Table 6.10

Average weekly hours[1] of full-time employees[2]

Hours

	Males		Females	
	Total including overtime	Overtime	Total including overtime	Overtime
United Kingdom				
1979[3]	43.2	4.5	37.5	0.6
1989[4]	42.3	4.0	37.6	1.0
1999[4]	41.4	2.8	37.5	0.8
2002[4]	40.9	2.4	37.4	0.7
London				
1979[3]	42.1	4.1	37.3	0.7
1989[4]	40.7	3.3	37.2	1.0
1999[4]	40.2	2.0	37.2	0.7
2002[4]	39.7	1.7	37.2	0.5

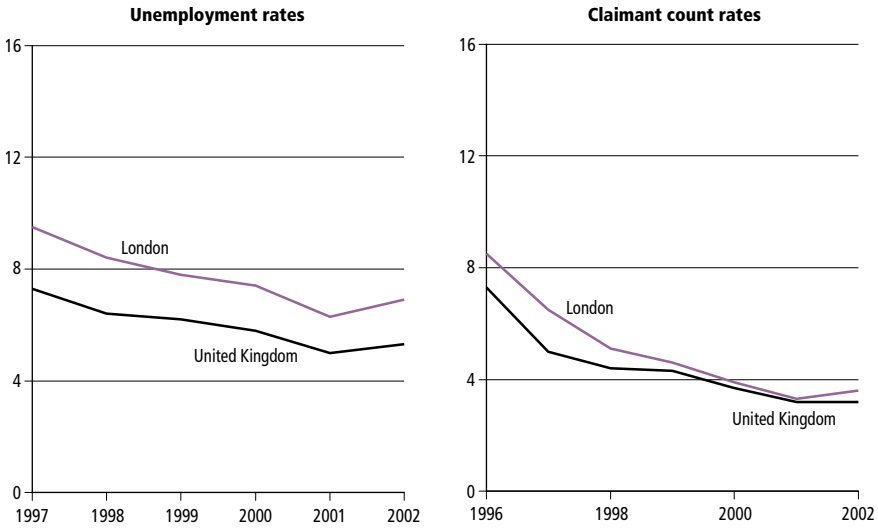
1 Including paid overtime.
2 At April each year.
3 Data from the 1979 New Earnings Survey were compiled on the basis of males aged over 21 and females aged over 18.
4 Data from the 1989, 1999 and 2002 New Earnings Survey were compiled on the basis of employees on adult rates.

Source: New Earnings Survey, Office for National Statistics

Figure 6.11

Unemployment rates[1] and claimant count rates[2]

Percentages



1 Seasonally adjusted averages for spring (March to May) each year based on those aged 16 to 59/64.
2 Seasonally adjusted workplace-based rates for spring (March to May) each year based on those aged 16 or over.

Source: Office for National Statistics

employment. Some 15,500 young people in London remained in the scheme as at the end of 2002. The monthly average for young people in London leaving the scheme for sustained, unsubsidised jobs was 29 per cent in 2002; this compared with a Great Britain average of 36 per cent.

New Deal leavers in minority ethnic groups fared worse than White people in finding employment in 2002. In London, the success rate for minority ethnic participants in finding a job was 87 per cent of the success rate for White participants. This was however better than the national average, where the relative success rate of minority ethnic participants was 74 per cent.

A similar New Deal scheme was subsequently introduced for people aged 25 and over, and there were 12,700 people in London on this scheme as at December 2002. Other New Deal schemes have been introduced for those aged 50 or over, as well as for people with disabilities and for lone parents.

Table 6.12

Unemployment rates[1]: by ethnic origin, spring 2002

Percentages

	London	United Kingdom
White	*4.9*	*4.8*
Mixed	*18.8*	*14.7*
Asian or Asian British	*8.8*	*9.3*
Indian	*6.7*	*6.2*
Pakistani or Bangladeshi	*17.2*	*15.3*
Other Asian	..	*7.6*
Black or Black British	*14.3*	*13.0*
Black Caribbean	*12.4*	*11.6*
Black African	*15.5*	*14.8*
Other Black	..	..
Chinese or other ethnic group	*9.5*	*9.2*
All minority ethnic groups	*11.5*	*10.8*
All ethnic groups[2]	*6.6*	*5.2*

1 As a percentage of all economically active people of working age (males aged 16 to 64 and females aged 16 to 59). Not seasonally adjusted.
2 Includes those who did not state their ethnic origin.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

Table 6.13

Claimant count:[1] by age and duration[2]; London, October 2002

Percentages and thousands

	Males				Females			
	18 to 24	25 to 49	50 or over	All ages[3]	18 to 24	25 to 49	50 or over	All ages[3]
2 weeks or less	*11.0*	*6.7*	*5.7*	*7.5*	*11.4*	*8.4*	*6.8*	*9.1*
Over 2 weeks, up to 8	*27.8*	*17.1*	*13.1*	*18.8*	*29.9*	*20.8*	*15.8*	*22.9*
Over 8 weeks, up to 13	*16.3*	*11.1*	*8.2*	*11.8*	*16.8*	*12.3*	*10.0*	*13.3*
Over 13 weeks, up to 26	*25.4*	*20.1*	*16.8*	*20.7*	*23.9*	*20.7*	*17.7*	*21.2*
Over 26 weeks, up to 1 year	*15.9*	*22.2*	*18.9*	*20.5*	*14.6*	*19.6*	*19.6*	*18.0*
Over 1 year, up to 2	*3.3*	*16.1*	*17.2*	*13.6*	*3.1*	*13.8*	*16.6*	*11.0*
Over 2 years, up to 3	*0.3*	*2.6*	*6.6*	*2.6*	*0.2*	*2.0*	*5.9*	*2.0*
Over 3 years, up to 5	*0.0*	*2.3*	*6.0*	*2.3*	*0.0*	*1.5*	*4.3*	*1.5*
Over 5 years	*0.0*	*1.8*	*7.6*	*2.2*	*0.0*	*0.8*	*3.4*	*1.0*
All claimants (=100%) (thousands)	23.5	78.8	15.4	118.3	13.3	26.0	6.7	46.4

1 Not seasonally adjusted.
2 Computerised claims only.
3 Includes some aged under 18.

Source: Jobcentre Plus administrative system

Economic activity

The number of economically active people living in London increased by around six per cent over the period spring 1997 to 2002. This was double the rise in the United Kingdom as a whole. In London the increase was slightly higher among men than women. Overall in the UK the number of economically active men remained fairly constant while the number of economically active women grew.

The economically active population is otherwise known as the labour force, and includes people who are either in full- or part-time work, and those who are unemployed and actively seeking work. Its size is influenced by, amongst other things, demographic factors (which are reflected in the population) and socio-economic trends (such as participation in further and higher education and patterns of retirement). The size of London's labour force and the size of the adult population have increased at similar rates, so the percentage who are economically active has changed little over the last 5 years.

Children and pensioners fall outside the age groups where people will normally have a job. Some people who are of working age are unable to work, while others choose not to do so. Table 6.14 looks at the proportion of the population of working age who were economically active between spring 1997 and 2002. London has a lower economic activity rate than the UK as a whole, and while the national activity rate remained stable, in London it fell slightly. Women's economic activity rates in London dropped more than men's, down from 71 per cent in 1997 to 69 per cent in 2002. This was a different pattern from the UK as a whole, where female economic activity increased slightly. While economic activity rates also fell among men in London, this was broadly in line with the national picture.

Demographic changes affect not only the overall size of the labour force but also its internal structure. In the UK as a whole there has been a large fall in the proportion of the labour force aged between 16 and 24 since 1992. One of the reasons for this is that a much higher proportion of those of minimum school-leaving age has continued in full-time education than previously (see Chapter 7 for more details on those in full-time education). Table 6.15 shows that over the last 5 years the fall has been greater in London than in the UK overall. Despite this, the age profile of London's workforce is generally younger than that for the UK. This is particularly shown in the proportion of the labour force aged between 25 and 34, which in spring 2002 stood at 31 per cent in London, much higher than the UK average of 23 per cent.

The proportion of the workforce aged between 50 and retirement age remained constant in London between 1997 and 2002. In the UK overall the percentage increased. In spring 2002

Table 6.14

Economic activity rates[1]: by sex

Percentages

	London			United Kingdom		
	Males	Females	All Persons	Males	Females	All Persons
1997	*84.8*	*70.6*	*77.7*	*84.7*	*71.8*	*78.4*
1998	*82.9*	*69.5*	*76.1*	*84.2*	*72.0*	*78.2*
1999	*84.6*	*70.5*	*77.5*	*84.4*	*72.5*	*78.6*
2000	*83.7*	*70.2*	*76.9*	*84.6*	*72.9*	*78.9*
2001	*83.3*	*68.3*	*75.8*	*84.0*	*72.8*	*78.5*
2002	*83.5*	*68.7*	*76.2*	*83.8*	*73.0*	*78.6*

1 At spring of each year. Based on the population of working age in private households, student halls of residence and NHS accommodation.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

Table 6.15

Age structure of the labour force[1,2]

Percentages and thousands

	London		United Kingdom	
	1997	2002	1997	2002
Percentages[3] aged				
16 to 24	*15.5*	*14.3*	*15.6*	*15.2*
25 to 34	*30.9*	*31.4*	*26.4*	*23.4*
35 to 49	*34.0*	*34.6*	*35.7*	*36.9*
50 to 59 (females) /64 (males)	*17.0*	*16.8*	*19.4*	*21.4*
60 (females) /65 (males) or over	*2.6*	*3.0*	*2.9*	*3.1*
Total labour force (=100%) (thousands)	3,460	3,660	28,254	29,037

1 All economically active people aged 16 and over, not seasonally adjusted.
2 Data have been adjusted to reflect the 2001 Census population data.
3 Percentage of the household population who are in the labour force at spring each year.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

some 17 per cent of London's workforce were in this age group compared with 21 per cent nationally.

London's ethnically diverse population is reflected in its labour force. (See Chapter 2 for more information on London's population). Table 6.16 shows working-age economic activity rates for people of different ethnic origins in London and the UK in spring 2002. For all ethnic groups, rates in the capital were similar to those for the UK as a whole. The highest economic activity rates were in the White group, while there were wide differences in activity rates for other groups. Within the Asian and Asian British group, economic activity ranged from 44 per cent among Bangladeshis and 60 per cent among Pakistanis to over 70 per cent among Indians. Much of this variation can be explained by differences in the economic activity of women in the different ethnic groups. Only 30 per cent of women of working age in the Bangladeshi and Pakistani group were economically active, compared with an average of more than 60 per cent for other minority ethnic groups.

The 2001 London Employer Survey collected information on the ownership of private businesses and found that more than a fifth of single proprietors were from a minority ethnic community. It also found that the Asian community form a higher proportion of London's single proprietors and directors of businesses than any other minority ethnic group. Black ethnic groups are considerably under-represented, accounting for 11 per cent of the population but only four per cent of single proprietors and three per cent of directors of businesses.

The younger age profiles of minority ethnic groups is one reason why they tend to have lower economic activity rates than those from the White group. Young people are much more likely to be in full-time education and therefore less likely to be economically active than those over 25, and young people from minority ethnic groups tend to have higher participation rates in full-time education.

Table 6.16

Economic activity rates[1]: by ethnic origin, spring 2002

Percentages

	London			United Kingdom		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
White	85.6	73.2	79.8	84.4	74.2	79.6
Mixed	79.5	64.0	71.0	78.0	66.4	71.7
Asian or Asian British	77.4	52.6	65.7	75.9	49.5	63.3
Indian	80.6	64.3	72.7	78.0	64.3	71.4
Pakistani or Bangladeshi	70.5	29.8	50.3	72.4	29.7	51.7
Other Asian	78.2	54.2	68.1	78.6	56.9	69.1
Black or Black British	73.4	63.4	68.2	75.7	63.7	69.6
Black Caribbean	75.8	70.8	73.3	77.9	69.8	73.9
Black African	71.5	54.7	62.7	72.8	55.3	63.9
Other Black	..	86.8	77.9	77.3	75.0	76.0
Chinese or other ethnic group	71.9	53.3	63.1	67.8	54.4	61.5
All minority ethnic groups	75.2	57.4	66.4	74.7	55.5	65.3
All ethnic groups[2]	82.7	68.4	75.9	83.7	72.7	78.5

1 As a percentage of all people of working age (males aged 16 to 64 and females aged 16 to 59). Not seasonally adjusted.
2 Includes those who did not state their ethnic origin.
Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

European Structural Funds

The European Unit in the Government Office for London is responsible for managing the European Structural Funds money available to London, in close partnership with other key organisations. The European Regional Development Fund contributes the majority of funding to the Objective 2 programme, which is concerned with the economy and so is described in the previous chapter. The other Structural Fund which benefits London, the European Social Fund, makes a contribution to Objective 2 but also fully funds the Objective 3 programme. This runs from 2000 to 2006 and aims primarily to tackle barriers to labour market participation experienced by the unemployed and the socially excluded. Under Objective 3, there are five main policy fields, the first of which deals with active policies to assist the long-term unemployed and other groups excluded from the labour market. In addition, it aims to help equip young people for the world of work. Policy Fields 2 and 5 are concerned with equal opportunities, social inclusion for all and gender equality in the labour market. Policy Field 3 promotes a commitment to workforce development and lifelong learning among employers and employees, while Policy Field 4 aims to sustain and enhance employability among employed people (making people more adaptable and encouraging entrepreneurship).

Objective 3 is a national programme, available across Great Britain as a whole rather than for designated areas. Provisional information on Objective 3 funding for the year 2000 is available, and Table A6.2 in the Appendix shows how more than £84 million has been allocated by London borough. Projects

approved tended to be concentrated in Inner London, with the largest amounts going to Newham, Islington, Hackney and Lambeth.

Job losses

The redundancy rate in London has changed little since 1997, as illustrated by Figure 6.17. During the last recession the London rate was higher than the national rate as London suffered more from the recession than the United Kingdom as a whole. In recent years there has been a slightly lower redundancy rate in London than nationally. The reason for the lower rates in London may be due to its relatively small manufacturing sector. Across the UK as a whole manufacturing has one of the highest redundancy rates of any industrial sector. Redundancy is of course just one way of reducing staff. Turnover of staff gives companies the choice of whether or not to replace them. In addition, a number of forms of flexible employment such as fixed-term or casual contracts are used increasingly – in such cases, job losses are generally not reflected in the redundancy figures.

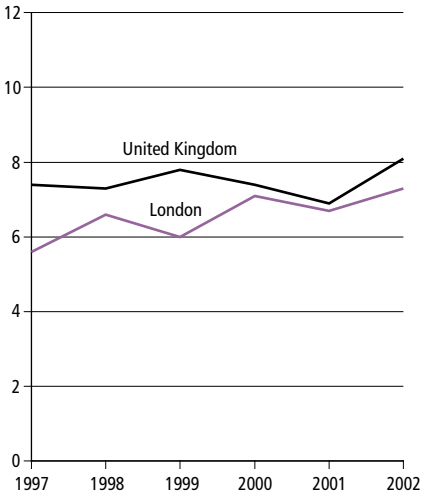
Skill shortages

The Employers Skill Survey 2002 looked at vacancies and recruitment difficulties across England. Some 28 per cent of London employers reported that they had vacancies, which compared to a national average of 30 per cent. London was also below the national average in its percentage of employers reporting hard-to-fill vacancies (11 per cent in London compared to 16 per cent in England as a whole) and skill-shortage vacancies (five per cent compared to eight per cent). The 2001 survey showed a different picture, with skill-shortage vacancies highest in London and the South East regions. The 2002 survey results suggested that skill-shortage vacancies and skill gaps were becoming more evenly spread across the country and less concentrated in the South East and especially London.

Figure 6.17

Redundancies[1]

Rates per 1,000 employees



1 In the three months prior to each spring survey; based on those aged 16 or over. Not seasonally adjusted.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

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Schools, colleges and universities are an integral part of London. Over 3,000 of these establishments provide access to an extensive array of education services for people of all ages and backgrounds in the capital, reflecting London's status as an international centre for education.

Schools and pupils

For most children, education begins with learning and participation in pre-school education, with compulsory schooling starting at the age of five. The Education Act 2002 extended the National Curriculum to include the foundation stage, which was introduced in September 2000 and covers children's education from the age of three. There has been an increasing proportion of children starting formal education at the earlier age. Table 7.1 shows that between 1997/98 and 2001/02 the proportion of three and four year-olds receiving full-time and part time education in England rose by 2 percentage points, whereas in London it increased by 7 percentage points. In 2001/02, 72 per cent of all three and four year-olds in London participated in school education, the highest proportion over the last decade.

Changes in the birth rate and the raising of the school leaving age have both had an impact on the number of children of school age in the UK. An increase in the birth rate in the late eighties and early nineties resulted in an increase in primary school and secondary school admissions throughout the nineties. Between 1991/92 and 2001/02 there was a rise of over 74,000 pupils attending primary schools in London, which is a significant increase compared to the rise of just 44,400 between 1981/82 and 1991/92.

Admissions to maintained secondary schools in London have steadily increased since 1991/92 from around 342,000, to 412,000 in 2001/02, a 21 per cent increase as shown in Figure 7.2. The number of children in London attending independent schools has increased over the last two decades.

Table 7.1

Three and four year-olds [1,2,3] in education at school

Percentages

	Maintained nursery and primary schools		Independent and special schools		All schools	
	London	England	London	England	London	England
1997/98	*59*	*57*	*6*	*5*	*65*	*62*
1998/99	*62*	*59*	*7*	*4*	*69*	*63*
1999/2000	*62*	*58*	*7*	*5*	*69*	*63*
2000/01	*62*	*58*	*7*	*5*	*69*	*63*
2001/02	*65*	*59*	*7*	*5*	*72*	*64*

1 Headcounts of children aged three and four at 31 December of the first year shown expressed as a percentage of the three and four year-old population.
2 Numbers of three and four year-olds in schools may include some two year-olds.
3 Any child attending more than one provider in England may have been counted twice.

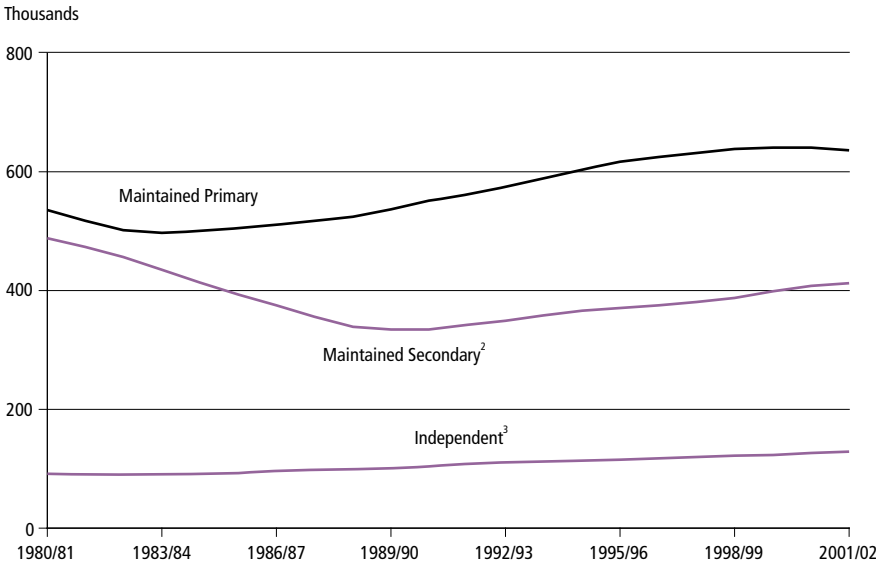
Source: Department for Education and Skills

Between 1981/82 and 2001/02 this increased by 43 per cent compared to an increase of around 14 per cent in England over the same period. The number of pupils in London attending independent schools in 2001/02 was around 130,000. This accounts for one fifth of children attending independent schools in England as a whole.

The proportion of children that are educated in schools that cater specifically for special educational needs in London is falling. This reflects a trend for children with special needs to be educated in mainstream schools. Details of the percentage of pupils with a statement of special educational needs can be found in Table A7.1. A statement

Figure 7.2

Headcount of pupils[1]: by type of school, London



1 Full-time and part-time (i.e. headcounts). Excludes pupils in nursery schools, special schools and pupil referral units.
2 Excludes sixth form colleges.
3 Includes City Technology Colleges.

Source: Department for Education and Skills

of special needs is a formal assessment completed following observation of a child considered to have special educational needs. Inner London has a slightly higher proportion of pupils with statements of educational needs than Outer London; but the overall rates for London are slightly lower than the rates for the whole of England.

Due to London's high population density, it has the highest proportion of pupils who attend schools with large numbers. This is especially apparent in the Outer London boroughs, as Table 7.3 shows. In 2001/02, 74 per cent of pupils were attending maintained primary schools where there were more than 300 pupils; this is around 26 percentage points higher than the figure for England. Due to secondary schools covering larger catchment areas and providing more specialised facilities in England and London, over half of all pupils attend maintained secondary schools with over 1,000 pupils. At 66 per cent, Outer London has one of the highest percentages of pupils in schools with over 1,000 pupils.

Figures in Table A7.1 in the Appendix show that, in spite of the increase over time in the number of pupils, London has a number of surplus places in its maintained schools. In 2000/01 the percentage of surplus places was slightly higher for secondary schools in London than in England, with only a 0.1 per cent difference. However, there are significantly more surplus primary school places in some parts of London than in the country as whole. Numbers also vary a great deal between boroughs, being as high as 19 per cent for secondary schools in Lambeth and as low as 2 per cent for secondary schools in Bromley. Overall, there are proportionally more surplus places in both primary and secondary schools in Inner London than in Outer London, around 3 percentage points for secondary schools.

Secondary education in England consists of a combination of different types of school, which are shown in Table 7.4. For the last three decades the majority of children in England, and in particular London, have been educated via the non-selective comprehensive system, which is aimed at providing equality of opportunity for children of all abilities.

Table 7.3

Distribution of pupils[1]: by size of school, 2001/02

Percentages and thousands

	Inner London	Outer London	England
Maintained primary schools			
100 pupils or fewer	*0.1*	*0.2*	*3.8*
101-200 pupils	*5.3*	*3.2*	*15.7*
201-300 pupils	*31.1*	*22.9*	*32.9*
Over 300 pupils	*63.5*	*73.6*	*47.6*
Total pupils in primary schools (=100%)(thousands)	231.7	404.3	4,363.3
Maintained secondary schools			
600 pupils or fewer	*7.2*	*3.8*	*8.0*
601-800 pupils	*14.6*	*11.0*	*14.2*
801-1,000 pupils	*23.9*	*19.5*	*20.2*
Over 1,000 pupils	*54.3*	*65.7*	*57.6*
Total pupils in secondary schools (=100%)(thousands)	128.3	284.1	3,264.1

1 Full-time and part-time (i.e. headcounts).
Source: Department for Education and Skills

Table 7.4

Distribution of pupils in maintained secondary schools: by type of school, 2001/02

Thousands and percentages

	London		England	
	Thousands	Percentages	Thousands	Percentages
Middle, deemed secondary	0.7	*0.2*	131.7	*4.0*
Secondary modern	8.1	*2.0*	102.6	*3.1*
Grammar	17.0	*4.1*	146.2	*4.5*
Comprehensive	384.4	*93.2*	2,860.7	*87.6*
Technical and other	2.2	*0.5*	22.9	*0.7*
All pupils	412.4	*100*	3,264.1	*100*

Source: Department for Education and Skills

In London in 2001/02 93 per cent of pupils enrolled in maintained secondary schools attended a comprehensive school compared with 88 per cent in England. Before the introduction of comprehensive schools during the 1960s, children were required to take the "11 plus" exam which determined whether they would attend a grammar or secondary modern school. In London there are 19 grammar schools remaining.

In some London boroughs, Local Education Authorities (LEAs) which are responsible for the administration of state sector education services now have more governance over selection requirements. In London there are some LEAs where non-selective comprehensive schools co-exist with both selective grammar schools and a small number of partially selective comprehensive schools. Grammar schools tend to be wholly selective by ability whereas some comprehensive schools are more likely to have partial selective requirements. Overall 4 per cent of pupils in maintained secondary schools in London attend grammar schools, a similar proportion to that for England as a whole.

In 1998, the Government introduced the "Beacon School Initiative". It aimed to raise standards in education by encouraging schools to develop their own mission and ethos, and to share best practice. This includes all nursery, primary, secondary and special schools that have a high delivery of performance, good quality education and generally high standards. By September 2002 over 1,000 Beacon Schools had been established in England with around 200 in London in 2002. This has increased since 1998 when the initiative was first launched with only 63 Beacon Schools in England, 4 of which were in London. The increase may partly be due to the launch of the Government's "Excellence in Cities" strategy, which enabled the Beacon Schools initiative to expand. The strategy aim was for at least 1 in 4 Beacon Schools to be serving a city area. The strategy has particular relevance to London as nearly all Inner London Education Authorities fall into this category.

Table 7.5

Average class sizes[1]

Numbers

	Inner London	Outer London	London	England
Primary schools				
1980/81	..	..	23.1	25.2
1990/91	24.3	26.4	25.8	26.3
2000/01	26.8	27.1	27.0	26.7
2001/02	26.6	27.0	26.9	26.3
Secondary schools				
1980/81	..	..	19.6	20.8
1990/91	21.3	20.3	20.6	20.3
2000/01	22.4	21.9	22.1	22.0
2001/02	22.5	21.9	22.1	21.9

1 One-teacher classes in maintained schools only.
Source: Department for Education and Skills

The relationship between the number of pupils enrolled in schools and teachers employed in schools is known as the pupil-teacher ratio. The impacts of class size and pupil-teacher ratios have been questioned; but it is largely believed that children learn better in smaller groups and therefore the ratio reflects the quality of education. In September 2001 it became a legal requirement for Local Education Authorities and schools to limit the size of infant classes to 30 or fewer. Overall, average class sizes in London are comparable with the national average for England. Table 7.5 shows that between 1990/91 and 2001/02 the average class size in primary schools in London (for one-teacher classes) increased from an average of 26 to 27 pupils per class, compared with England where there was no change over the same period. Historically, class sizes in London were smaller than for the rest of the country, although this gap has narrowed and in some cases class sizes now exceed the national average of 26 pupils per class.

Between 1991/92 and 2001/02 the number of pupils per teacher in London

Table 7.6

Pupil-teacher ratios: by type of school

Pupils per teacher

	1991/92			2001/02		
	Inner London	Outer London	England	Inner London	Outer London	England
Nursery schools	16.6	17.5	19.1	16.1	14.8	16.6
Primary schools	19.3	21.8	22.2	21.6	22.9	22.5
Secondary schools	15.8	15.8	15.9	16.0	16.8	16.9
Independent schools[1]	11.1	11.5	10.6	10.5	10.9	10.1
Special schools	4.9	5.2	4.7	5.7	6.3	6.4

1 Includes Direct Grant Nursery Schools and City Technology Colleges.
Source: Department for Education and Skills

increased in primary, secondary and special schools. However, Table 7.6 shows that generally, the numbers of pupils per teacher in London schools are in some cases lower than England as a whole. Pupil-teacher ratios in independent schools, both in London and in England, are considerably smaller than in maintained mainstream schools and the number of pupils per teacher has decreased in Inner London from 11.1 pupils per teacher in 1991/92 to 10.5 in 2000/01. In Outer London the decrease was from 11.5 pupils per teacher to 10.9 over the same period.

It is widely acknowledged that there are problems recruiting and retaining teachers in London. Major causes of teacher shortages in London schools are the high housing and living costs in the capital.

Classroom assistants support fully qualified teachers and are in place in schools across London and England. Their number has increased in recent years and has helped reduce the ratio of pupils to adults, working in schools.

Table 7.7

Pupil absence from maintained schools, 2001/02[1]

Numbers and percentages

	Inner London	Outer London	England
Average number of half days missed per absent pupil			
Primary schools			
Authorised absence	19	18	18
Unauthorised absence	10	9	9
Secondary schools			
Authorised absence	24	24	25
Unauthorised absence	17	17	17
Percentage of half days missed			
Primary schools			
Authorised absence	*5.8*	*5.6*	*5.4*
Unauthorised absence	*1.3*	*0.6*	*0.5*
Secondary schools			
Authorised absence	*7.3*	*7.5*	*7.6*
Unauthorised absence	*2.0*	*1.2*	*1.1*

1 Absences during the school year up to 24 May 2002.

Source: Department for Education and Skills

Table 7.8

Examination achievements of young people: by sex, 2001/02[1]

Percentages and thousands

	Inner London		Outer London		England	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Pupils in their last year of compulsory schooling achieving (percentages)						
5 or more GCSEs grades A* to C or GNVQs	*38.9*	*49.4*	*48.5*	*59.2*	*46.4*	*57.0*
1 to 4 GCSEs grades A* to C or GNVQs	*27.2*	*28.6*	*24.9*	*23.4*	*24.0*	*23.2*
GCSEs grades D to G only[2] or GNVQs	*26.1*	*17.1*	*20.6*	*13.5*	*23.2*	*15.5*
No graded results	*7.8*	*4.9*	*6.0*	*4.0*	*6.4*	*4.3*
Total pupils (thousands)	12.9	12.9	26.7	25.8	309.7	296.8
Students in post-compulsory education[3] achieving (percentages)						
2 or more GCE/ VCE A levels/ AS equivalents	*24.9*	*34.5*	*37.0*	*47.3*	*33.6*	*41.8*
Total population (thousands)	15.1	14.5	28.0	26.1	313.5	296.8

1 Provisional.
2 No grades above D and at least one in the D-G range.
3 Students in schools and further education colleges aged 17 to 19 at end of the academic year as a percentage of the 18 year-old population. See Notes and Definitions.

Source: Department for Education and Skills

Average figures for pupil-teacher ratios conceal differences between boroughs. Information given in Appendix Table A7.1 shows the average pupil-teacher ratio for London maintained primary schools for 2001/02 is 22.4. The range varies from 24.4 in Hillingdon to 18.9 in Kensington and Chelsea. The corresponding figures for secondary schools show similar variation; an average of 16.6 for the whole of London, with the highest pupil-teacher ratio of 18.3 in Richmond upon Thames, and the lowest ratio, 14.9, in Kensington and Chelsea.

Absentee rates from school are presented in Table 7.7. These show both authorised and unauthorised absence figures for maintained schools in the academic year 2001/02. For both primary and secondary schools, unauthorised rates of absence in 2001/02 were higher in Inner London than Outer London, although the number of half days lost per absent pupil was the same for Inner and Outer London secondary schools. Unauthorised absence rates for London are higher than the rate for England as a whole.

Parents condoning their children's truanting behaviour is currently an area of particular interest. Results from national truancy sweeps (conducted in partnership with Education Welfare Services, schools, the Police, Youth Offending Teams, Parks Police, Connexions and the Department for Education and Skills) indicate that a large number of children were absent from school with the permission of parents. It has long been established in education law that where a child of compulsory school age who is registered at a school fails to attend regularly at the school then the parent is guilty of an offence. Since March 2001 there has been an 'aggravated' offence where a parent, knowing that their child is failing to attend regularly at school, fails without reasonable justification to cause them to attend. There are higher penalties for the aggravated offence, including imprisonment. The Anti-Social Behaviour Bill, which began its parliamentary passage on 27 March 2003, would introduce penalty notices as an alternative to prosecution for an attendance offence and enable parents to discharge potential liability for conviction by paying a fixed penalty.

Table 7.9

Trends in GCSE/GCE A level examination results: by sex

Percentages

	Inner London		Outer London		England	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Pupils[1] achieving at least						
5 GCSE grades A* to C						
1996/97	*33.2*	*41.8*	*41.9*	*51.8*	*40.5*	*50.0*
1997/98	*32.8*	*41.7*	*43.7*	*55.3*	*41.3*	*51.5*
1998/99	*33.6*	*43.4*	*45.0*	*56.7*	*42.8*	*53.4*
1999/2000	*34.3*	*46.2*	*46.4*	*57.6*	*44.0*	*54.6*
2000/01	*36.0*	*47.1*	*46.4*	*58.0*	*44.8*	*55.4*
2001/02[2]	*38.9*	*49.4*	*48.5*	*59.2*	*46.4*	*57.0*
No graded results						
1996/97	*12.0*	*7.6*	*7.3*	*5.6*	*8.8*	*6.5*
1997/98	*8.9*	*5.8*	*7.4*	*4.6*	*7.7*	*5.4*
1998/99	*8.6*	*5.9*	*6.4*	*4.7*	*7.0*	*5.0*
1999/2000	*8.2*	*5.5*	*6.0*	*4.2*	*6.5*	*4.6*
2000/01	*9.2*	*4.6*	*5.8*	*3.7*	*6.5*	*4.4*
2001/02[2]	*7.8*	*4.9*	*6.0*	*4.0*	*6.4*	*4.3*
Students[2] achieving at least 3 GCE/ VCE						
A levels or AS equivalents						
1996/97	*15.7*	*18.9*	*20.1*	*24.7*	*20.4*	*24.8*
1997/98	*14.7*	*18.6*	*21.4*	*27.3*	*21.0*	*26.2*
1998/99	*14.2*	*18.7*	*21.7*	*28.0*	*21.4*	*26.9*
1999/2000	*14.1*	*19.4*	*22.4*	*30.4*	*21.4*	*27.6*
2000/01	*14.9*	*21.2*	*23.6*	*32.2*	*22.8*	*29.2*
2001/02[2]	*17.6*	*25.4*	*27.3*	*36.5*	*26.0*	*33.6*

1 Pupils in their last year of compulsory schooling as a percentage of the school population of the same age.
2 Provisional
3 For all years except 2000/01, students in schools and further education colleges aged 17-19 at the end of the academic year as a percentage of the 18 year old population. For 2000/01, students aged 18 to19 at the end of the academic year as a percentage of the 18 year-old population. See Notes and Definitions.

Source: Department for Education and Skills

Cultural diversity in schools

London is one of the most diverse and cosmopolitan cities in Europe, encompassing many faiths and languages. As a result, cultural diversity in schools and colleges in London is more apparent than in the rest of the country. London schools have a strong requirement to develop ways in which to meet the changing needs of their pupils, ensuring that their programme of activities reflects cultural diversity. The 'London Challenge', announced by the Government in 2002, aims to encourage the diversity of schools and provide for the 43 per cent of pupils where English is an additional language. Other languages spoken include Bengali, Sylheti, Punjabi, Gujarati, Hindi, Urdu, Turkish, Arabic, Cantonese, Yorba and Somali.

Educational attainment

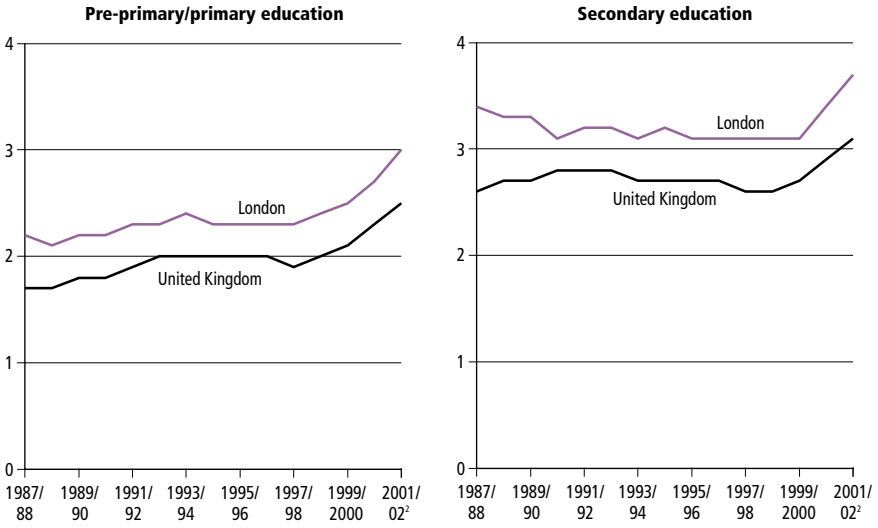
In schools across the country young people aged 15 and 16 sit GCSEs. There is also an opportunity to sit AS or A levels at the ages of 17 to 19. Results of GCSE examinations give an indication of educational attainment, used for comparing individual schools and measuring progress over time. Table 7.8 shows the examination achievements of pupils in their last year of compulsory schooling and students in post compulsory schooling (aged 17 to 19). In 2001/02 the proportions of young people gaining 5 or more GCSE grades A* to C or the GNVQ equivalent and 2 or more GCE/VCE A levels or AS equivalents in Outer London were slightly higher than those achieved across England as a whole. However, in Inner London, the proportions were below those for England. In the 2001/02 academic year there was a marked difference in educational achievement between sexes. Across London and England, the number of females achieving 5 or more GCSE grades A* to C or equivalent was higher than males – by over 10 percentage points in each case.

Differences in results between London and England have generally not changed over time, as can be seen in Table 7.9. However, the proportion of 16 year-olds in Inner London who obtained no graded results declined more rapidly in the late 1990s to 2001/02 than the corresponding proportions for Outer London and England. In London, girls' educational achievement consistently out-performed boys' throughout the 1990s to 2001/02 at both GCSE and GCE A level. The gap was particularly wide for GCSE English and modern languages. For English, nearly two thirds of girls achieved grade A*- C compared with less than half the boys in 2001/02. For modern languages, the proportion of girls achieving GCSE grades A*- C was 15 percentage points higher than boys. In 2001/02, boys generally performed better than girls in the subject areas of Design and Technology, and Information Technology.

Figure 7.10

Local Education Authority (LEA) expenditure per pupil at constant prices[1]

£ thousand per full-time equivalent pupil



1 Revalued to 2001/02 prices using the December 2002 national GVA deflator.
2 Provisional.

Source: Department for Education and Skills

Table 7.11

16 and 17 year-olds participating in post-compulsory education[1] or government-supported training[2]

Percentages[3]

	16 year-olds		17 year-olds	
	1990/91	2000/01	1990/91	2000/01
In education[1]				
Inner London	*62*	*77*	*45*	*66*
Outer London	*73*	*83*	*56*	*71*
London	*69*	*81*	*53*	*69*
England	*72*	*77*	*58*	*66*
In training[2]				
London	..	*4*	..	*6*
England	*19*	*8*	*19*	*10*
In education and/or training[4]				
London	..	*84*	..	*74*
England	*83*	*83*	*71*	*74*

1 Full or part-time.
2 Government-supported training (GST) only.
3 As a percentage of the estimated 16 and 17 year-old populations respectively.
4 Excludes the overlap between education and GST.

Source: Department for Education and Skills

Figure 7.10 shows how expenditure per pupil changed between 1987/88 and 2001/02 for London and England. (The expenditure figures have been adjusted for national inflation, see Notes and Definitions.) Spending on schools in both London and England increased in real terms between 1999/2000 and 2001/02 reaching the highest level for 15 years. There has been a greater increase, over this period, for pre-primary/primary schools in both London and England. Spending on pupils from both primary and secondary schools in London was higher than in England. In 2001/02 spending per pupil in London was just under 20 per cent higher than in England as a whole, for both pre-primary/primary and secondary schools.

Table A7.1, in the Appendix, shows that there is considerable variation in expenditure per pupil, across boroughs, with the highest expenditure in the Inner boroughs. Westminster had the highest spending per pupil for pre-primary/primary schools at £4,061 per pupil and Southwark, for secondary, at £5,059 per pupil. The lowest expenditure per pupil was in Bexley, £2,331 for pre-primary/primary pupils and in Sutton, £2,999 for secondary school pupils.

Further and higher education

Although 16 is the minimum leaving age for school children in secondary education, a great deal of attention is focused on what happens next for young people, and how further education can prepare them for working life.

Learning to Succeed, a White Paper published in June 1999, announced proposals for a new Learning and Skills Council for the whole of England. As a result, provision of further and higher education in London went through substantial change. Since April 2001 the Council has delivered post-16 education and training (excluding higher education) and has responsibility for funding colleges, modern apprentices, and national traineeships; advising government on national learning targets; and developing in partnership with Local Education Authorities arrangements for adult and community learning.

The White Paper also announced the nationwide government-supported training strategy aimed mainly at 16 to 19 year-olds called Connexions. This replaced the previous government-supported training programme, Work-Based Training for Young People. The scheme aims to ensure that all young people have access to high quality education and training, irrespective of whether they opt to take up education in a school sixth form or further education college, or work-based training through an apprenticeship, traineeship or other arrangement. In addition, under the Welfare-to-Work programme (see Notes and Definitions in the Labour Market Chapter) all young unemployed people are guaranteed education and training opportunities, while those with poor basic skills have the option of participating in full-time study on an approved course.

Table 7.11 shows 16 and 17 year-olds participating in education and government-supported training. In 1990/91 the percentage of pupils in London who remained in post-compulsory education was lower than in England as a whole. In Inner London, the difference was as much as 13 percentage points for 17 year-olds. However, since 1990/91 the participation rates grew much faster in London than in the rest of the country. In 2000/01 the proportion of young people participating in post-compulsory

Table 7.12

Students at higher education institutions in London, 2001/02

Thousands and percentages

	Number of students (thousands)	Part-time students (percentages)	Overseas students (percentages)
Universities			
London[1]	105.1	*29*	*23*
South Bank	17.0	*44*	*7*
Middlesex	22.0	*28*	*23*
Westminster	21.5	*45*	*16*
Thames Valley	13.3	*46*	*11*
Greenwich	17.1	*33*	*14*
Brunel	14.0	*23*	*13*
Kingston	15.6	*21*	*11*
North London	13.9	*34*	*17*
East London	12.3	*35*	*16*
City	14.6	*42*	*23*
London Guildhall	12.4	*34*	*13*
London Business School	1.4	*44*	*66*
Royal College of Art	0.8	*6*	*31*
All universities	281.1	*33*	*18*
Other higher education institutions	24.9	*15*	*20*
All higher education institutions	306.0	*31*	*19*

1 Including all the constituent colleges of the University.

Source: Department for Education and Skills

education in London was slightly higher than in England as a whole; 69 per cent of 17 year-olds and 81 per cent of 16 year-olds in London compared with 66 per cent and 77 per cent respectively in England.

Participation in government-supported training (principally but not exclusively Work-Based Training for Young People) was lower in London than nationally, with 4 per cent of 16 year-olds and 6 per cent of 17 year-olds in some form of training in 2000/01. Comparative figures for the whole of England stood at 8 and 10 per cent respectively.

Table 7.12 shows that over a third of higher education students in London study at London University, a collection of around 18 constituent colleges and training hospitals scattered throughout the capital. The University is Britain's largest after The Open University (200,000 students). Founded by Royal charter in 1836, it was the first to admit women onto degree courses and to appoint a female professor.

Middlesex and Westminster Universities are also popular destinations for higher education students in London, each having over 20,000 students. Specialist art, drama and music colleges reflect the importance of the capital as an internationally recognised centre of excellence for the performing and expressive arts.

Job-related training

Education and training are now recognised as important not only for young people but throughout a person's working life. The percentage of employees in London receiving some form of job-related training is in line with the UK as a whole, see Table 7.13.

Overall, around 18 per cent of employees in London received some form of job-related training in spring 2002. Approximately 1 in 5 women working in the capital received such training, compared with 1 in 6 men.

Table 7.13

Employees[1] receiving job-related training[2,3]

Percentages[4]

	London			United Kingdom		
	1992[5]	1997	2002	1992[5]	1997	2002
Males						
Any job-related training	*15.4*	*16.6*	*15.9*	*14.3*	*14.3*	*14.9*
On-the-job training only	*3.9*	*4.5*	*4.4*	*3.8*	*4.0*	*4.7*
Off-the-job training only	*9.2*	*9.7*	*7.9*	*8.4*	*7.8*	*7.1*
Both on and off-the-job training	*2.3*	*2.4*	*3.6*	*2.1*	*2.5*	*3.0*
Females						
Any job-related training	*17.4*	*17.9*	*20.1*	*14.9*	*16.7*	*18.5*
On-the-job training only	*4.4*	*4.1*	*6.1*	*4.2*	*4.5*	*5.7*
Off-the-job training only	*11.0*	*11.2*	*10.0*	*8.8*	*9.6*	*9.2*
Both on and off-the-job training	*1.9*	*2.5*	*3.9*	*1.8*	*2.7*	*3.6*

1 Employees are those in employment excluding the self-employed, unpaid family workers and those on government-supported employment and training schemes.
2 Job-related training includes both on and off-the-job training received in the four weeks before the interview. Spring quarter of each year.
3 These figures have not been regrossed in line with the 2001 Census population estimates and therefore may not be consistent with those published by ONS.
4 As a percentage of employees of working age: males aged 16 to 64 and females 16 to 59.
5 Due to a change in the LFS questionnaire in 1994, data for 1992 are not directly comparable with later years.

Source: Department for Education and Skills from the Labour Force Survey, (Office for National Statistics)

Adult education

Women outnumber men in enrolments onto adult education courses provided by Local Education Authorities in London, as shown in Table 7.14. More than two thirds of people enrolled on evening courses are women and they make up three quarters of those on part-time day courses.

The total number of enrolments in London has dropped by over two fifths in ten years, compared with around a

Table 7.14

Enrolments on Local Education Authority adult education courses

Thousands

	London			England		
	1990/91	1995/96[1]	2001/02[1]	1990/91	1995/96[1]	2001/02[1]
Males						
Part-time day courses	32.7	26.7	25.4	93.1	114.2	127.2
Evening courses	58.0	32.3	22.8	263.1	191.1	136.5
Females						
Part-time day courses	116.5	92.0	90.2	385.5	399.9	426.6
Evening courses	120.3	71.8	52.3	607.1	447.9	335.5

1 Includes enrolments on courses provided by contracted-out provision.

Source: Department for Education and Skills

quarter in England as a whole. Traditionally there were more enrolments on evening classes than on part-time day courses for both men and women in England. However, in 2001/02 figures for women on part-time day courses outnumbered those on evening classes by a quarter, in London the difference was over 70 per cent. Across England, men on evening courses outnumbered those on part-time day courses by 7 per cent. However, in London, 9 per cent fewer men were enrolled for evening courses compared with part-time day courses.

The type of courses that people attend includes those leading to qualifications and those that are for leisure purposes.

National Learning Targets

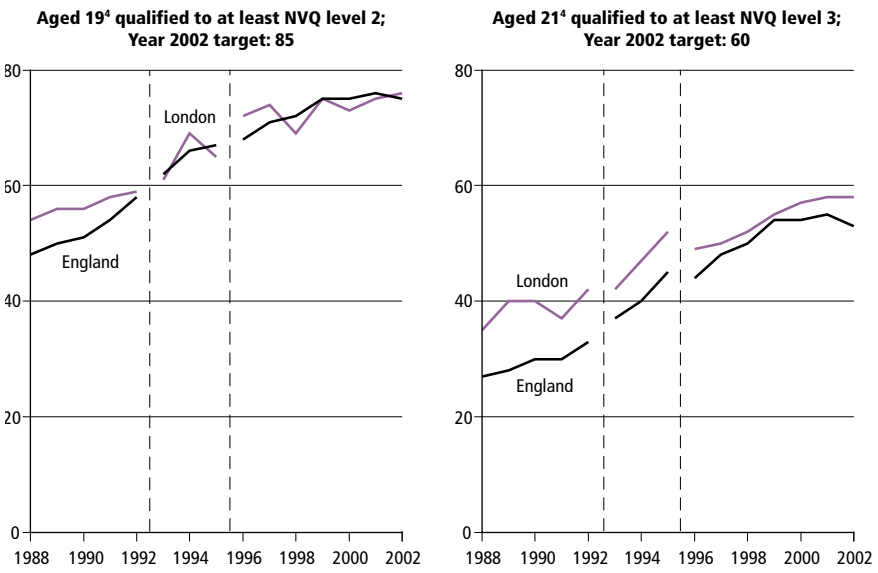
The National Learning Targets for young people were set in 1998 to help those entering the labour market to develop their skills and to meet the needs of employers and business targets. The first target set for 2002 was for at least 85 per cent of 19-year olds to reach 'NVQ2' or equivalent (a National Vocational Qualification at level 2, an 'Intermediate' GNVQ or five GCSE passes at grades A* to C). A second target was for 60 per cent of 21 year-olds to achieve the higher 'NVQ3' or equivalent (including an 'Advanced' GNVQ or two GCE A levels). Figure 7.15 shows progress towards these targets in London and England. In respect of the higher level target, in 1998 London was closer to reaching the target than the rest of England. By 2001, London had reached 58 per cent, almost reaching the target, while England as a whole was at 53 per cent.

For the lower target of achieving an NVQ2, the percentage for England exceeded London in 1998, and from 1999 to 2002 the percentage achievement for England was in line with London, with neither quite reaching the 85 per cent target.

Figure 7.15

Attainment of National Learning Targets for young people[1,2,3]

Percentages



1 Spring quarter of each year.
2 Changes in the LFS qualifications questions in 1993 and 1996 mean that the figures for 1988-1992, 1993-1995 and 1996-2002 are not directly comparable.
3 These figures have not been regrossed in line with the 2001 Census population estimates and therefore may not be consistent with those published by ONS.
4 The targets for young people relate to 19 and 21 year olds, but data relate to 19 to 21 and 21 to 23 year olds respectively to increase sample sizes.

Source: Department for Education and Skills from the Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

Table 7.16

Economically active population of working age[1]: by highest qualification achieved, spring 2002[2]

Percentages and thousands

	Inner London	Outer London	London	United Kingdom
Degree or Equivalent	*39.2*	*24.5*	*30.1*	*18.0*
Higher education	*5.7*	*7.9*	*7.1*	*9.0*
GCE A level or equivalent[3]	*15.5*	*21.4*	*19.1*	*25.0*
GCSE grades A* to C or equivalent	*11.0*	*19.4*	*16.2*	*23.0*
Other qualifications	*18.1*	*17.4*	*17.7*	*13.0*
No qualifications	*10.0*	*9.0*	*9.4*	*11.0*
Total economically active (=100%) (thousands)	1,425	2,280	3,706	29,029

1 Economically active people of working age are defined as males aged 16 to 64 and females aged 16 to 59 who are either in employment or unemployed according to the ILO definition.
2 These figures have not been regrossed in line with the 2001 Census population estimates and therefore may not be consistent with those published by ONS.
3 Including recognised trade apprenticeship.

Source: Department for Education and Skills

Qualifications of the adult population

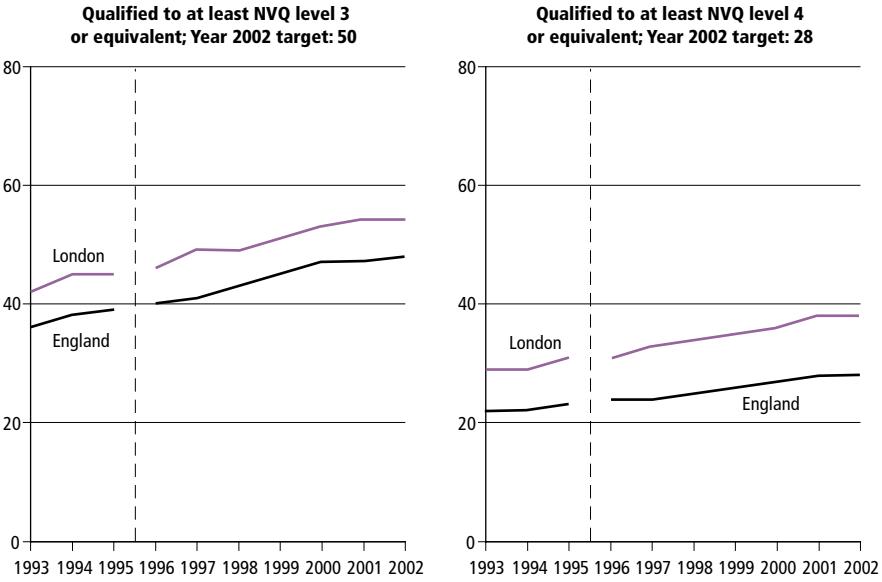
Qualifications geared towards people in the workforce have a different focus from those aimed at young people in the formal education system. As a major centre of business, administration and learning, London tends to attract people who have been well educated. Table 7.16 shows that 45 per cent of the resident labour force in Inner London have a higher education qualification of some sort, for example, a degree, NVQ level 4/5, HNC/D, teaching/nursing qualifications or higher level BTEC. This compares with over 32 per cent in Outer London, and 27 per cent for the United Kingdom as a whole. In addition, the proportion of London's labour force with no qualifications is slightly lower than in the rest of the UK.

The first National Learning Target for economically active adults (complementing National Learning Targets for young people) was that by 2002, 50 per cent of the working age labour force should be qualified to NVQ level 3, broadly equivalent to two GCE A levels. The second target, for the same year, was that 28 per cent of the workforce should have a vocational, professional, management or academic qualification at NVQ level 4 or above, broadly equivalent to a first degree. Figure 7.17 shows London's progress towards achieving both targets with an increase in the percentage of economically active adults achieving these levels since 1993. The percentage of adults obtaining an NVQ3 has increased from 42 per cent to 54 per cent, whilst those achieving an NVQ4 has increased from 29 per cent to 38 per cent. London was already above the NVQ level 4 target, and close to the level 3 target when the targets were last revised.

Figure 7.17

Attainment of National Learning Targets for economically active adults[1,2,3]

Percentages[4]



1 Spring quarter of each year.
2 Changes in the LFS qualifications questions in 1996 mean that the figures for 1993-1995 and 1996-2002 are not directly comparable.
3 These figures have not been regrossed in line with the 2001 Census population estimates and therefore may not be consistent with those published by ONS.
4 As a percentage of economically active adults: males aged 18 to 64 and females aged 18 to 59.

Source: Department for Education and Skills from the Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

To live in London is to experience the energy and diversity of one of the most exceptional cities of the world. London's population of around 7 million face challenges that affect them on a day-to-day basis. Topics covered in this chapter include household income and expenditure, deprivation and chronic illness. The chapter also explores patterns of smoking and drinking, drug use and crime related issues, which are significant to Londoners. What emerges is that although London has a formidable status in some areas (eg income generation) this co-exists with high levels of disadvantage throughout the capital.

Many of the items in this chapter are taken from the following household surveys: Expenditure and Food Survey (this replaced the Family Expenditure Survey and the National Food Survey), Family Resources Survey, General Household Survey and British Crime Survey. Details of all these surveys and the definition of a household can be found in the Notes and Definitions.

Table 8.1

Distribution of gross household income[1], 1999-2002[2]

Percentages and £

	London	United Kingdom
Percentage of households in each weekly income group		
Under £100	*9*	*9*
£100 but under £150	*8*	*9*
£150 but under £250	*13*	*15*
£250 but under £350	*9*	*12*
£350 but under £450	*9*	*11*
£450 but under £600	*10*	*14*
£600 but under £750	*10*	*10*
£750 or over	*33*	*20*
Average gross weekly household income (£)	711	525

1 Excluding Housing Benefit and Council Tax Benefit (rates rebates in Northern Ireland).
2 Combined data from the 1999/2000, 2000/01 and 2001/02 surveys.
Source: Expenditure and Food Survey, Office for National Statistics

Income levels

Previous chapters in Focus on London highlighted London's prominent position as a global business and financial market, with a continued importance to the Economy of the European Union. A large share of the United Kingdom's high earning employees live and work in the capital. This is underlined by the distribution of gross household income statistics for 1999-2002, as shown in Table 8.1. A third of all households in London have a gross weekly household income of over £750 compared to one fifth of households in the UK as a whole. The average gross weekly household income for London in 1999-2002 at £711 was almost £200 higher than the average for the UK during the same time period. (Note that the data relate to those who live in London and hence include many who commute out of London but not those who commute in from other regions.) The large proportion of high-income households can be partially explained by highly paid professional occupations located predominantly in London; a significant proportion of London's labour force are employed in higher-paying industries such as the business and finance sectors. In addition, many workers are entitled to allowances for working in the capital (London Weighting).

The percentage of households in each of the middle income groups was slightly lower for London than for the United Kingdom as a whole and the percentage of households with low incomes (below £100) per week was in line with the United Kingdom, at nine per cent.

Gross Income, however, is a crude measure of living standards as it does not take into consideration the size and composition of households, a process known as equivalisation. Gross Income statistics are adjusted for the size and composition of the household in order to be able to compare the living standards of different households. The weightings used to make these adjustments affect the income attributed to the individuals within the households (described in detail in the reports on Households Below Average Income). Equivalised net household income is a better measure of living standards although, as with gross income estimates, it does not take account of regional price differences in the absence of regional price indices. Analysis of the Family Resources Survey 2001/02 shows that the proportion of Londoners with high equivalised incomes is almost the same before and after housing costs with a quarter having incomes in the top quintile. Living standards vary more for those in the lower income groups: after housing costs, a higher proportion of individuals living in London had average household incomes in the bottom fifth than in any other region in the UK.

Households receive income from a variety of sources. Table 8.2 shows the various sources of income as a percentage of the average gross income of households. Between 1999 and 2002 earnings in London (i.e. wages and salaries) made up 70 per cent of gross income while social security benefits made up only 7 per cent. In the UK as a whole the proportion of earnings that made up gross income was slightly lower than that for London at 68 per cent and gross income derived from social security benefits was five per cent

higher at 12 per cent. Income derived from self-employment in London was six per cent higher than that for the UK. Table 8.2 also shows that the percentage of gross household income from annuities and pensions, at four per cent, is lower for London compared with the UK level of seven per cent.

Social security is the term used for financial assistance from the state, and comes in various benefit forms. Means-tested benefits such as Income Support, Family Credit and Council Tax Benefit are for people with low income levels. Over the period 2001/02 it can be seen that the percentage of all households receiving means tested benefits was significantly higher in Inner London than in Outer London (Table 8.3). However, the percentage for London as a whole is broadly similar to that for Great Britain. On the other hand, the proportion of households in Outer London in receipt of retirement pension or child benefit is higher than that for Inner London. Reasons for the difference between households in Inner London and Outer London in receipt of various social security benefits are complex, but household income and household composition are two important factors determining eligibility for benefits. A possible explanation for a bigger percentage of households in Outer London receiving child benefit, is that there are a larger proportion of families with children than there are in Inner London. The higher proportions of low income families living in the Inner London area is one explanation for larger proportions of Inner London households in receipt of means-tested benefits.

Historically, the proportions of households that receive benefits in London have generally been in line with the six former metropolitan county areas in England (Greater Manchester, Merseyside, South Yorkshire, Tyne and Wear, West Midlands and West Yorkshire). For 2001/02 it can be seen that the percentage of all households, which received benefits in the former

Table 8.2

Gross household income: by source, 1999-2002[1]

Percentages and £

	London	United Kingdom
Wages and salaries	*70*	*68*
Self-employment	*14*	*8*
Investments	*4*	*4*
Annuities and pensions[2]	*4*	*7*
Social security benefits[3]	*7*	*12*
Other sources	*2*	*1*
Average gross weekly household income (£)	711	525

1 Combined data from the 1999/2000, 2000/01 and 2001/02 surveys.
2 Other than social security benefits.
3 Excluding Housing Benefit and Council Tax Benefit (rates rebates in Northern Ireland).

Source: Expenditure and Food Survey, Office for National Statistics

Table 8.3

Households in receipt of social security benefits[1], 2001/02

Percentages

	Inner London	Outer London	London	Former Metropolitan county areas[2]	Great Britain
Working Families' Tax Credit or Income Support	*23*	*13*	*17*	*23*	*17*
Housing Benefit	*27*	*11*	*18*	*21*	*15*
Council Tax Benefit	*28*	*15*	*20*	*26*	*19*
Jobseeker's Allowance	*4*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*3*
Retirement Pension	*20*	*28*	*25*	*28*	*29*
Incapacity or Disablement Benefits[3]	*10*	*9*	*10*	*19*	*15*
Child Benefit	*26*	*28*	*27*	*29*	*28*
Any benefit	*57*	*64*	*62*	*72*	*69*

1 Households in which at least one member is in receipt of benefit, as a percentage of all households.
2 Excluding London (Comprises Greater Manchester, Merseyside, South Yorkshire, Northumbria, West Midlands and West Yorkshire).
3 Incapacity Benefit, Disability Living Allowance (Care and Mobility components), Severe Disablement Allowance, Disabled Person's Tax Credit, Industrial Injuries Disablement Benefit, War Disablement Pension and Attendance Allowance.

Source: Family Resources Survey, Department for Work and Pensions

metropolitan counties, is higher than in London. Residents of the former metropolitan counties are more likely to receive Incapacity or Disablement benefit, Working Families' Tax Credit or Income Support and Council Tax benefit than residents of London. Receipt of Incapacity or Disablement benefits varies significantly between the regions and within them, for example in 2001/02 the percentage of all households in London who claimed Incapacity or Disablement benefit was 10 per cent compared to 19 per cent for the (other) former metropolitan counties.

The percentage of income support beneficiaries varies considerably within the London boroughs (Table A8.1). At the top end of the scale in both Hackney and Tower Hamlets, 20 per cent of the adult population were in receipt of Income Support benefits in 2002. This is significantly higher than other areas such as City of London, Kingston upon Thames and Richmond upon Thames, where just 5 per cent of the adult population claimed income support benefits.

Table 8.4

Ownership of current and savings accounts by households[1], 2000/01

Percentages

	Inner London	Outer London	London	Former Metropolitan county areas[2]	Great Britain
Current and savings accounts					
Current[3]	*80*	*88*	*86*	*81*	*86*
Post Office	*6*	*7*	*6*	*7*	*8*
TESSA	*9*	*16*	*13*	*10*	*13*
ISA	*19*	*25*	*23*	*19*	*23*
Other bank\building society[4]	*48*	*58*	*54*	*53*	*59*
Other savings					
Gilts or unit trusts	*7*	*7*	*7*	*4*	*6*
Stocks and shares	*20*	*29*	*26*	*19*	*25*
National Savings	*4*	*5*	*4*	*4*	*4*
Save As You Earn	*..*	*..*	*1*	*..*	*1*
Premium Bonds	*17*	*28*	*24*	*20*	*26*
PEPs	*11*	*12*	*12*	*9*	*12*

1 Households in which at least one member has an account, as a percentage of all households.
2 Excluding London (Comprises Greater Manchester, Merseyside, South Yorkshire, Northumbria, West Midlands and West Yorkshire).
3 Current account may be a bank, building society, supermarket/store, or other organisation account.
4 All other bank/building society accounts excluding current accounts, TESSAs and ISAs, and other accounts yielding interest.

Source: Family Resources Survey, Department for Work and Pensions

Saving and spending

The Family Resources Survey provides information on the use of current and savings accounts by households in London. Table 8.4 shows that a higher percentage of households in Outer London have more varied types of current and saving accounts than in Inner London. The figures for London as a whole are little different from those for Great Britain in 2000/01, with 86 per cent having a current account and over half having additional bank or building society accounts. The proportion of households with other savings also differs between Inner and Outer London. Just under a third of households in Outer London have savings in the form of stocks and shares compared to one fifth of households in Inner London. TESSA and ISA accounts are also more commonplace in Outer London. Figures for London as a whole are comparable to those for Great Britain as a whole.

Weekly average household expenditure in London was just under £200 in 2001/02, compared with the average national expenditure of less than £168 (Table 8.5). As a proportion of their income, Londoners spend more on housing and less on transport than the national average. The lower ratio spent on motoring and fares can be partly explained by a lower level of car ownership, which is around 60 per cent compared with an average of 70 per cent for the UK. In 2001/02 London residents also spent a higher amount on restaurants and hotels than the national average. However, the amount spent on alcoholic beverages and tobacco was slightly lower than that for the UK, at £10.30 compared with £11.40 per week. Conversely, spending on communication was around 50 per cent higher in London that it was in the UK, with Londoners spending £15.40 per week.

The level of households with consumer durables has a major impact on the economic wellbeing of a country and on society in general. Possession of such items as home computers or mobile phones is often used as an indicator of affluence. Advances in technology over the last decade have led to increasing numbers of people having access to new and sophisticated media products. Figure 8.6 shows households with selected consumer durables for the UK and London for 1999-2002. In London, over the last few years there has been a significant increase in the percentage of households with a mobile phone. Between 1996-99 and 1999-2002 the increase in ownership was around 20 per cent, with over half of all London households in possession of at least one mobile phone. Due to increasing use of the Internet, households with access to the Internet have also become more widespread both across the UK and in

London. In 2001/02, London had a higher proportion of households with access to the Internet than any other region of the UK at 48 per cent. The increasing numbers of households with access to the Internet may be attributed to the introduction of broadband facilities in recent years, which allows faster connection to the Internet than ordinary telephone connections.

On the whole, households in London have around the same proportion as the United Kingdom as a whole of consumer durables such as telephones and freezers (Figure 8.6), but there were smaller proportions of households with washing machines and tumble dryers. This may be attributed to launderettes being more common in London than in other areas of the country. There were a higher proportion of London households with computers, satellite receivers and dishwashers.

Nutrition and diet

In recent years evidence has strongly indicated that an individual's diet contributes to the risk of some diseases, such as coronary heart disease or cancer, and there has been increasing concern about levels of obesity and other diet-related conditions. As a result people are more aware about their nutritional requirements, and there has been progressively more interest in healthy eating. The Government recently launched its '5-a-Day' campaign which aims to raise awareness of the benefits of eating at least 5 portions of a variety of fruit and vegetables per day. The Government campaign is consistent with dietary recommendations around the world including those from the World Health Organisation. Currently in the UK, the average consumption of fruit and vegetables is three portions a day for adults and two portions a day for children (one portion of fruit or vegetables is approximately 80g).

Table 8.5

Household expenditure: by commodity and service, 2001/02

£ per week and percentages

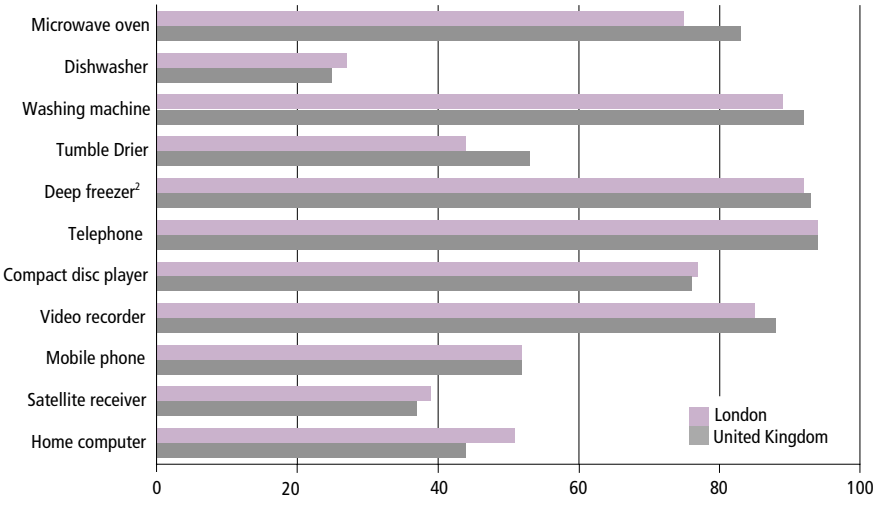
	£ per week		As a percentage of average weekly household expenditure	
	London	United Kingdom	London	United Kingdom
Food and non-alcoholic beverages	44.30	41.70	*9*	*10*
Alcoholic beverages and tobacco	10.30	11.40	*2*	*3*
Clothing and footwear	29.20	22.70	*6*	*6*
Housing, water, electricity, gas and other fuels	57.40	35.90	*12*	*9*
Furnishings, household equipment and routine maintenance of the house	33.70	30.40	*7*	*8*
Health	8.40	4.50	*2*	*1*
Transport	61.20	57.70	*12*	*15*
Communication	15.40	10.40	*3*	*3*
Recreation and culture	53.30	54.00	*11*	*14*
Education	9.70	5.50	*2*	*1*
Restaurants and hotels	44.20	33.50	*9*	*8*
Miscellaneous goods and services	37.90	30.60	*8*	*8*
Other expenditure items	90.90	59.50	*18*	*15*
Total expenditure	495.80	397.70	*100*	*100*
Average expenditure per person	199.10	167.50		

Source: Expenditure and Food Survey, Office for National Statistics; Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency

Figure 8.6

Households with selected durable goods,1999-2002[1]

Percentages



1 Combined data from the 1999/2000,2000/01 and 2001/02 surveys.
2 Includes fridge freezers.

Source: Expenditure and Food Survey, Office for National Statistics

Table 8.7 shows the household consumption of selected foods over time. The time trends for London are consistent with those for Great Britain as a whole, with more consumption of fresh and other fruit in 2000 than in 1991 but less of dairy produce and eggs. Between 1981 and 2000 the consumption of eggs decreased significantly by around half for London and Great Britain. The table also shows that the consumption of fruit and vegetables tends to be slightly higher in London, but bread and meat consumption slightly lower than the consumption nationally. Figures in the table relate to food bought for household consumption but do not take into account meals eaten out. Londoners spend more on eating out in restaurants and cafés compared with the national average – around £15 per week, some 30 per cent more than for Great Britain as a whole (Table 9.14).

Table 8.7

Household consumption of selected foods

Kilogrammes per person per week, except where otherwise stated

	London			Great Britain		
	1981	1991	2000	1981	1991	2000
Vegetable and vegetable products[1]	2.34	2.30	1.89	2.46	2.22	1.99
Fresh and other fruit	1.00	1.23	1.33	0.79	0.95	1.12
Meat and meat products	1.22	1.03	0.90	1.12	0.96	0.97
Fish	0.14	0.14	0.16	0.14	0.14	0.14
Milk and cream (ml)	2.40	2.03	1.93	2.53	2.12	2.08
Cheese	0.11	0.12	0.11	0.11	0.12	0.11
Eggs (numbers)	3.60	2.20	1.76	3.70	2.30	1.75
Bread	0.76	0.70	0.63	0.89	0.75	0.72
Cooking and spreading fats and oils	0.27	0.24	0.18	0.31	0.25	0.19
Butter	0.10	0.05	0.04	0.11	0.04	0.04
Margarine	0.08	0.08	0.01	0.12	0.09	0.02
All other fats	0.09	0.12	0.13	0.09	0.12	0.13

1 Including tomatoes, fresh potatoes and potato products.

Source: National Food Survey, Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs

Deprivation

In December 1998, the Department of Environment, Transport and the Regions commissioned the University of Oxford to review and update the 1998 Index of Local Deprivation. The new Index of Multiple Deprivation (IMD) 2000 is a ward-level index, made up of 6 ward-level Domain Indices which are then weighted together to provide the overall Index, as described below. Each Domain Index consists of the combined indicators in that domain. This provides a factor analysis score for Health, Education, Housing and Geographical Access to Services Domains and a rate for the Income and Employment Domains. These are then ranked. The Domain Indices can then be used to describe each type of deprivation in an area. This is important as it allows users of the Index to focus on particular types of deprivation, and to compare across wards. There may be great variation within a district and the ward-level Domain Indices allow for a sophisticated analysis of the deprivation information.

The overall Index of Multiple Deprivation 2000 describes wards by combining information from all six domains. These were combined in two stages; first each domain was transformed to a standard distribution, then the domains were combined using the explicit domain weights chosen. The overall ward-level IMD 2000 was then ranked in the same way as the Domain Indices. The IMD 2000 Score is the sum of the weighted, exponentially transformed domain rank of the domain score. The bigger the IMD 2000 score, the more deprived the ward. However, because of the exponential distribution, it is not possible to say, for example, that a ward with a score of 40 is twice as deprived as a ward with a score of 20. The IMD 2000 is ranked in the same way as Domain Indices, that is a rank of 1 is assigned to the most deprived ward.

In the 2000 Index, different areas scored differently on the various criteria. Map 8.8 shows how the London wards compared with England as a whole in terms of the overall degree of deprivation: the higher the score, the greater the overall level of deprivation. Newham, Tower Hamlets and Hackney all had some very high scoring wards.

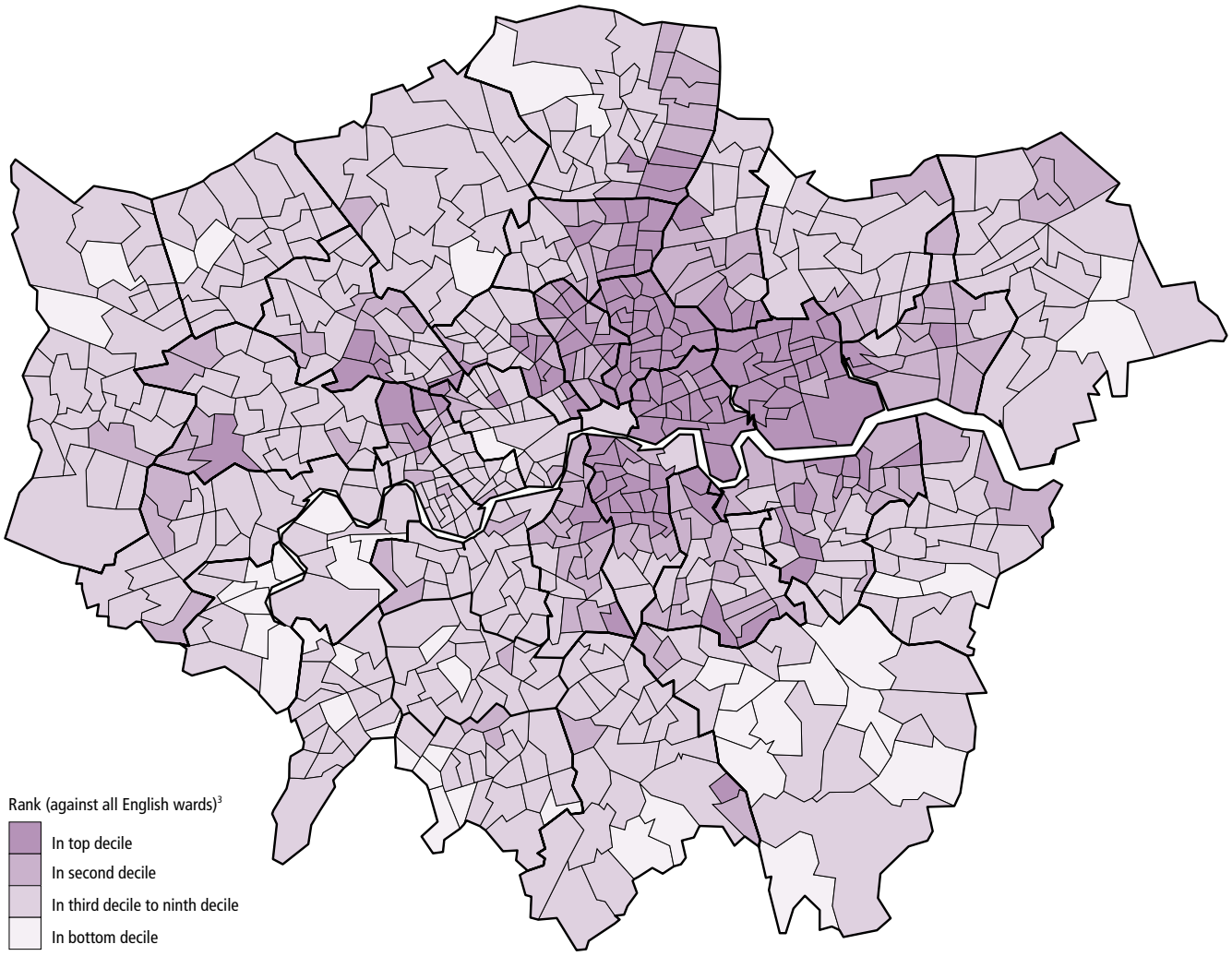
The ten least deprived wards, of all wards in London (i.e. those with the lowest scores of all London wards), were found in Bromley, Croydon, Havering, Richmond upon Thames and Kingston upon Thames.

The Index does not produce a single score for local authorities, but allows each Borough to be ranked alongside the other 353 English districts on each of the six domains. Table A8.2 shows that Tower Hamlets had comparatively high scores across most domains, which is in line with some of the most severely deprived areas in the rest of England.

Map 8.8

Index of Multiple Deprivation[1]: by ward[2], 2000

Percentages



1 Index of Multiple Deprivation Score; the higher the score, the greater the overall level of deprivation.
2 City of London wards are too small to allow a meaningful score per ward, so (in this area only) a combined-wards score has been provided.
3 Wards are grouped: in the top ten per cent of most dervived wards in England (darkest colour); in the next ten per cent; in the next 70 per cent; and in the ten per cent least deprived wards in England (lightest colour).

Source: Office of the Deputy Prime Minister

Mortality and morbidity

Over the last 30 years improvements in living conditions and education as well as in health and nursing care have brought about a reduction of almost two thirds in London's infant mortality rate – the proportion of live-born babies dying in their first year. This reduction appears to have levelled out during the last seven or eight years, more so in London than nationally. As Figure 8.9 shows, the rates for London throughout the period have been very close to the national ones, although the overall fall is slightly less in London. There are, however, differences between boroughs but the pattern varies from year to year and it is appropriate only to draw conclusions broadly.

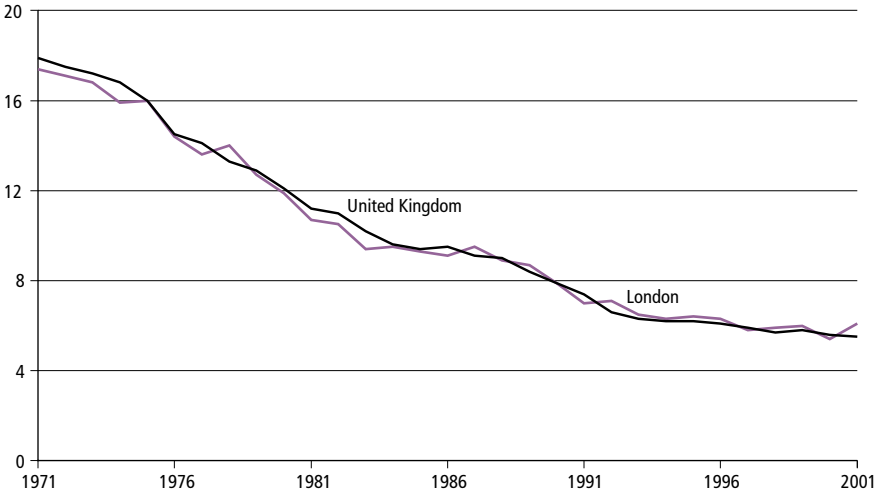
Mortality rates vary with age, so the rates for different areas will be affected by the age structure of their populations. The figures in Table 8.10 have been adjusted to take account of these differences in age structure. The rates have been standardised to the mid-1991 UK population for males and females so areas can be compared for each sex separately, but male and female rates cannot be directly compared with each other. Overall, death rates for Londoners are slightly below those for the UK population. However, deaths in London from respiratory disease – for example pneumonia or bronchitis – continue to be above the national rate, although there has been some reduction in recent years. Death rates from cancer, for both males and females, are similar to national averages. Male mortality rates from all causes has fallen in the last 3 years, but the rate for London females has increased by 81 per 100,000 population over the same period. The most notable increase is in death from 'Other causes'.

Morbidity – the prevalence of ill health – is more difficult to measure than mortality but such evidence as there is suggests that there are differences between London and Great Britain as a

Figure 8.9

Infant mortality[1]

Rates per 1,000 live births



1 Deaths of infants under one year of age.
Source: Office for National Statistics

Table 8.10

Age-standardised mortality rates[1]: by cause[2] and sex, 2001

Rates per 100,000 population

	Males		Females	
	London	United Kingdom	London	United Kingdom
Circulatory diseases	339	351	364	396
Respiratory diseases	117	104	142	128
Cancer[3]	252	254	235	243
Injury and poisoning	37	43	21	24
Other causes	146	140	202	208
All causes[4]	890	892	963	999

1 Based on deaths registered in 2001. Rates standardised to the mid-1991 UK population for males and females separately.
2 Deaths at ages under 28 days occurring in England and Wales are not assigned an underlying cause.
3 Malignant neoplasms only.
4 Including deaths at ages under 28 days.

Source: Office for National Statistics

whole. For example, Table 8.11 looks at the proportions of people suffering from long-standing illness that limits their activity in any way. Over the last five years the prevalence of long-term illness amongst women has fallen more in London than in Britain overall, bringing the rate to the same level as men. It is important to note that these results are based on people's subjective assessment of their health and may therefore reflect their expectations as well as the actual incidence of chronic sickness.

More recent results from the 2001 Census, which shows a similar proportion of more than one in seven people in London overall claiming to suffer from limiting long-term illness, also indicate wide variation within London. This ranges from almost one in five of the residents of Barking and Dagenham to one in eight in Richmond upon Thames. Some of the Inner London Boroughs appear to show no higher prevalence of long-term illness than many of the outer boroughs (Table A8.3 in the Appendix).

London also stands out with its high prevalence of HIV infection, AIDS and Tuberculosis (TB) in comparison with the rest of the United Kingdom. For example, of the total 26,227 people diagnosed with HIV infection and seen for treatment in 2001, 57 per cent were resident in London (Table 8.12). Fifteen per cent of homosexual and bisexual men attending Genitourinary Medical (GUM) clinics in London in 2001 were HIV-1 infected, more than six times the proportion elsewhere in the United Kingdom. The incidence of HIV infection thought to be through homosexual and bisexual activity is 13 per cent higher than through heterosexual activity, which accounts for 37 per cent. There was an increase in the prevalence of HIV in both male (from 0.86 to 1.3 per cent) and female (from 0.91 to 1.2 per cent) heterosexuals between 2000 and 2001. The prevalence of the virus among pregnant women in London in 1998 was one in 286, eight times higher than in the rest of the United Kingdom.

It has been over ten years since the World Health Organisation (WHO) declared Tuberculosis as a global health emergency. Although rates of the disease in many regions of the UK were relatively stable over the period 1996 to 2001, those for London increased by 26 per cent. London has the highest rate in the United Kingdom by a significant margin, at 38 per 100,000 population, three times the national average (Table 8.13). The notification rate overall in the UK has increased from 10.5 per 100,000 in 1991 to 12.4 per 100,000 population in 2001. Despite the general rise in notifications, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland all show a decline in rate during the ten years to 2001; the rate for Northern Ireland falling by more than half.

Table 8.11

Prevalence of limiting long-standing illness

Percentages

	London	Great Britain
Males		
1995/96	*16*	*18*
2001/02	*15*	*18*
Females		
1995/96	*21*	*20*
2001/02	*15*	*19*

Source: General Household Survey, Office for National Statistics

Table 8.12

Diagnosed HIV-infected patients: by route of infection and region of residence when last seen for care in 2001[1]

Numbers

	Homosexual/ bisexual	Injecting drug use	Heterosexual	Blood/blood products	Mother to infant[2]	Other/ not known	Total
United Kingdom[3]	12,893	1,272	9,433	486	877	1,266	26,227
London	7,419	447	5,554	123	570	924	15,038

1 Patients living in the UK who were seen for statutory medical HIV-related care at services in the UK in 2001.
2 Includes 274 children born to HIV-infected mothers in 2001 whose HIV infection status had not yet been confirmed: of which 165 were in London and two where region was not reported.
3 Includes four patients whose region of residence was not known.

Source: Public Health Laboratory Service, Communicable Disease Surveillance Centre; Institute of Child Health; Scottish Centre for Infection and Environmental Health.

Smoking, drinking and drugs

The health risks associated with smoking cigarettes are now well recognised and help account for a reduction in the proportion of adults who smoke by more than a quarter since 1980. Table 8.14 shows that smoking has been slightly more common among men in London than in Great Britain as a whole over recent years, but there is little difference between the two in 2001/02. In the last four years the proportion of London male smokers has fallen to around the same figure for Great Britain as a whole, while there has been little change in the proportion of women who smoke.

In December 1995, the Government published a review of the scientific and medical evidence on the health effects of drinking alcohol. The report set new benchmarks for sensible drinking, stating that regular consumption of between three and four units of alcohol a day for men, and two and three for women will not produce a significant health risk. However, consistently drinking four or more units a day for men (three or more for women) is not recommended because of the progressive health risk this carries. (A unit of alcohol is 8 grams of pure alcohol, approximately equivalent to half a pint of ordinary strength beer, a glass of wine, or a pub measure of spirits.) The review also concluded that alcohol could confer a health benefit, mainly by giving protection from coronary heart disease. It stated that the benefits apply only to men over the age of 40 and to post-menopausal women, and the maximum health advantages can be obtained by drinking between one and two units a day.

Figures on alcohol consumption show London has a smaller proportion of people who identify themselves as heavy drinkers than the population in general. In 2001/02, 23 per cent of men in London drank more than 22 units of alcohol per week compared with 27 per cent in Great Britain; also 12 per cent of women drank more than 15 units a week compared with 15 per cent in Great Britain (Table 8.15). Almost two thirds of men in London drank up to 21 units per week and a slightly higher proportion of women drank up to 14 units per week. The proportion of non-drinkers has increased in recent years, and is significantly higher in London than in the UK as a whole for both men and women.

Crime and justice

Crime affects many people during their lives and dealing with crime and its impact is a continual problem for society. There are two main measures of crime: one is from data collected by the police (a by-product of the administrative procedure of completing a record for crimes they investigate); and the other comes from estimates from surveys of victims such as those provided by the British Crime Survey (BCS).

Results from the 2000 British Crime Survey indicate that nearly a third of 16 to 29 year-olds have tried a prohibited

Table 8.13

Tuberculosis case reports, 2001[1]

	Rate per 100,000 population	Numbers
London	38	2,732
England, Wales & Northern Ireland excl London	8.5	3,937
England, Wales & Northern Ireland	12.4	6,669

1 Preliminary results.

Source: Public Health Laboratory Service, Communicable Disease Surveillance Centre

Table 8.14

Cigarette smoking among people aged 16 or over: by sex

Percentages

	1994/95[1]	1996/97[1]	1998/99[1]	1998/99	2000/01	2001/02
Men						
London	*32*	*32*	*33*	*34*	*31*	*29*
Great Britain	*28*	*29*	*28*	*30*	*29*	*28*
Women						
London	*26*	*27*	*27*	*27*	*24*	*26*
Great Britain	*26*	*28*	*26*	*26*	*25*	*26*

1 These data are unweighted. Weighting for non response was introduced in 2000. Trend tables show unweighted and weighted figures for 1998/99 to allow direct comparison between 1998/99 and 2000/01 and to give an indication of the effect of weighting. See Notes and Definitions.

Source: General Household Survey, Office for National Statistics

Table 8.15

Alcohol consumption among people aged 16 or over: by sex[1]

Percentages

	London					Great Britain				
	1990/91	1996/97	1998/99[2]	1998/99	2001/02	1990/91	1996/97	1998/99[2]	1998/99	2001/02
Men – number of units per week										
None	*10*	*11*	*13*	*13*	*13*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*7*	*9*
Up to 10	*44*	*45*	*46*	*45*	*42*	*45*	*43*	*44*	*43*	*42*
11 to 21	*18*	*19*	*17*	*18*	*21*	*22*	*23*	*21*	*21*	*22*
22 or more	*28*	*25*	*23*	*24*	*23*	*27*	*27*	*27*	*28*	*27*
Women – number of units per week										
None	*15*	*20*	*21*	*20*	*21*	*12*	*13*	*14*	*14*	*15*
Up to 7	*61*	*55*	*54*	*54*	*54*	*63*	*57*	*56*	*56*	*54*
8 to 14	*14*	*12*	*14*	*14*	*13*	*14*	*16*	*16*	*16*	*15*
15 or more	*10*	*13*	*12*	*12*	*12*	*11*	*14*	*15*	*15*	*15*

1 Prior to 2000 questions on alchohol consumption were only included on the survey on alternate years. From 2000 they are included every year.
2 These data are unweighted. Weighting for non response was introduced in 2000. Trend tables show unweighted and weighted figures for 1998 to allow direct comparison between 1998 and 2001/02 and to give an indication of the effect of weighting. See Notes and Definitions.

Source: General Household Survey, Office for National Statistics

drug at some time, with cannabis being by far the most widely consumed drug. Table 8.16 shows that 31 per cent of that age group in London admitted to having taken some kind of drug in the previous 12 months compared with 25 per cent across England and Wales as a whole. High levels of opiates (heroin, methadone, cocaine and crack) use was also seen in London, with almost 12 per cent having used some form of opiate in the previous 12 months compared to around 5 per cent for England and Wales as a whole.

Table 8.16 also shows that between 1996 and 1998 the overall use of drugs increased slightly in England and Wales, from 24.0 per cent to 25.2 per cent. This then fell to 24.9 per cent in 2000. In London the use of 'any drug' was 28.7 per cent in 1996 increasing to 32.4 per cent in 1998 and falling to 30.8 per cent in 2000. Between 1996 and 2000 the use of any hallucinant decreased in England and Wales. This pattern differs to that in London where between 1996 and 2000 the use of any hallucinant increased. Between 1996 and 2000 there

Table 8.16

Drug misuse by people aged 16 to 29[1]

Percentages

	London	England and Wales[2]
1996		
Used any drug[3]	*28.7*	*24.0*
Used any hallucinant[4]	*9.3*	*11.0*
Used any 'opiates+' substances[5]	*4.3*	*1.6*
1998		
Used any drug[3]	*32.4*	*25.2*
Used any hallucinant[4]	*10.2*	*10.3*
Used any 'opiates+' substances[5]	*9.3*	*3.5*
2000		
Used any drug[3]	*30.8*	*24.9*
Used any hallucinant[4]	*11.0*	*8.9*
Used any 'opiates+' substances[5]	*11.8*	*5.3*

1 Interviews were conducted between January and April, asking about drug use in the previous 12 months.
2 Results for England and Wales can be found in: Ramsey, M., Baker, P., Goulden, C., Sharp, C. and Sondhi, A (2001) Drug Misuse Declared in 2000: results from the British Crime Survey. Home Office Research Study 197. London: Home Office. See Notes and Definitions.
3 Amphetamines, cannabis, cocaine, crack, ecstasy, heroin, LSD, magic mushrooms, non-prescribed methadone, poppers, glues/solvents, steroids, non-prescribed tranquillisers or anything else the respondent thought was a drug.
4 Amphetamines, LSD, magic mushrooms, ecstasy or poppers.
5 Heroin, methadone, cocaine or crack.

Source: British Crime Survey, Home Office

Table 8.17

Recorded crimes and percentage detected by the police

Rates and percentages

	Recorded crimes per 100,000 population						Percentage detected[1]					
	London			England and Wales			London			England and Wales		
	1991[2]	2000/01	2001/02	1991[2]	2000/01	2001/02	1991[2]	2000/01	2001/02	1991[2]	2000/01	2001/02
Violence against the person	526	2,139	2,196	375	1,140	1,228	*63*	*28*	*26*	*77*	*62*	*58*
Sexual offences	74	120	135	58	71	78	*54*	*31*	*32*	*76*	*53*	*49*
Burglary	2,651	1,550	1,580	2,404	1,587	1,659	*11*	*10*	*10*	*23*	*12*	*12*
Robbery	302	563	727	89	181	229	*14*	*12*	*11*	*23*	*18*	*17*
Theft and handling stolen goods	6,366	5,771	6,102	5,444	4,072	4,282	*13*	*9*	*9*	*28*	*17*	*17*
Fraud and forgery	624	1,161	1,211	345	606	600	*44*	*11*	*11*	*55*	*29*	*28*
Criminal damage	1,636	1,983	2,009	1,223	1,822	2,011	*10*	*9*	*8*	*19*	*14*	*13*
Drug offences	29	328	362	22	215	229	*98*	*89*	*84*	*97*	*95*	*94*
Other	65	144	152	46	120	123	*89*	*46*	*43*	*95*	*73*	*71*
All recorded crimes	..	13,761	14,474	..	9,814	10,440	..	*15*	*14*	..	*24*	*23*
All notifiable offences	12,273	13,761	..	10,007	9,814	..	*17*	*15*	..	*29*	*24*	..

1 Some offences detected may have been initially recorded in an earlier year; hence figures can be higher than 100 per cent.
2 There was a change in the counting rules for recorded crime on 1 April 1998 and a change in the counting rules for detections on 1 April 1999, which means that figures for 1991 are not directly comparable. See Notes and Definitions.

Source: Home Office

Due to the fact that not all crimes are reported to the police or recorded by them, a more complete count of crime against private households is provided by the British Crime Survey (BCS). Police-recorded crime and BCS-measured crime have different coverage. BCS data are collected by interviewing members of households, and the survey measures all 'incidents', irrespective of whether they were reported to or recorded by the police. In addition, unlike crime data recorded by the police, the BCS is restricted to crimes against adults (aged 16 or over) living in private households, and their property, and does not include some types of crime (for example, fraud, murder and so-called victimless crimes).

Table 8.18

Offences committed against households, 2001/02[1]

Rates and percentages

	London	England and Wales
Offences per 10,000 households[2]		
Vandalism	1,455	1,204
Burglary	512	442
Vehicle thefts[3,4]	1,472	1,159
Percentage of households victimised at least once		
Vandalism	*8.6*	*7.4*
Burglary	*4.2*	*3.5*
Vehicle thefts[3,4]	*15.1*	*11.4*
All household offences[5]	*25.0*	*22.0*

1 See Notes and Definitions.
2 Figures for All offences per 10,000 households are not available.
3 Vehicle theft risks are based on vehicle-owning households only.
4 Comprises theft of vehicles, thefts from vehicles and associated attempts.
5 Comprises the three individual categories plus thefts of bicycles and other household thefts. Figures are rounded.

Source: British Crime Survey, Home Office

has been a large increase in the use of opiates+ substances in both London and England and Wales as a whole. It can be seen that there is a marked difference between the use of any opiates+ substances in London and England and Wales. In 2000 the usage in London was 11.8 per cent compared to 5.3 per cent in England and Wales as a whole.

Table 8.17 shows the number of notifiable offences by category recorded by the police per 100,000 population and the percentage of these cases detected. Recorded crime rates per 100,000 population in London show an increase of five per cent between 2000/01 and 2001/02. This is in line with a similar increase of around six per cent between 2000/01 and 2001/02 in England and Wales.

London's crime rate, per 100,000 population, for notifiable offences recorded by the police rose by 12 per cent, between 1991 and 2000/01, compared with a two per cent decline across England and Wales. However it should be noted that changes in the counting rules were implemented between these dates. While overall recorded crime is higher in London than in England and Wales as a whole, burglary is one type of offence where the number recorded per 100,000 population is lower in London than in the rest of England and Wales.

The percentage of all recorded crimes detected in London and in England and Wales as a whole declined by one per cent between 2000/01 and 2001/02. However, for different types of recorded crimes detected it can be seen that there were some differences between 2000/01 and 2001/02 in both London and England and Wales. The most significant decrease was for the percentage of detected drug offences in London, which fell from 89 per cent to 84 per cent. However, these results are affected by local police initiatives and local targets, for example programmes to target burglaries and local initiatives on drugs.

Table 8.19

Persons found guilty of or cautioned for indictable offences: by age and sex, 2001

Rates per 100,000 population

	Males		Females	
	London[1]	England and Wales	London[1]	England and Wales
10 to 11	268	519	101	136
12 to 14	2,265	2,388	960	1,086
15 to 17	7,269	5,891	1,735	1,541
18 to 20	7,781	6,623	1,298	1,251
21 or over	1,435	1,184	276	247
All ages	1,937	1,666	390	371

1 Metropolitan Police and City of London Police areas.

Source: Home Office

Table A8.4 in the Appendix shows the number of notifiable offences in each borough recorded by the police in 2001/02. Higher levels of notifiable offences can be seen in Inner London, with Westminster and Lambeth accounting for around a quarter of the total notifiable offences. Theft and handling stolen goods accounted for 42 per cent of all recorded offences in London. The highest levels of theft and handling stolen goods were recorded in Westminster where there were over 53,000 incidences. The highest incidences of fraud and forgery in 2001/02 also occurred in Westminster accounting for 8 per cent of the total notifiable offences for that area. Criminal damage and burglary accounted for a quarter of all notifiable offences committed in the capital. Lambeth had the highest number of these incidences at 6,509 and 6,974 respectively. The highest incidences of drug offences for 2001/02 were in Westminster, where there were 2,761 incidences recorded.

Information on offences committed against the household, from the 2001/02 British Crime Survey, is shown in Table 8.18. It shows that the rate of offences committed against households in London in 2001/02 was higher than that for England and Wales, especially for vehicle theft. It can also be seen that the percentage of households victimised at least once, in all categories of offences, is higher than the percentage for England and Wales as a whole. Table 8.19 shows the incidence rates by age and sex, of those found guilty of or cautioned for indictable offences in 2001 in both London and England and Wales. Those most likely to be found guilty or cautioned are 15 to 20 year-old males and females. However, 15 to 20 year-olds are more likely to be found guilty or cautioned in London than in England and Wales as a whole. The table also shows that the rates per 100,000 for males found guilty or cautioned for indictable offences is significantly higher than females in both London and in England and Wales as a whole.

Table 8.20 shows the sentences given for indictable offences, by sex, in 2001. Women are more likely than men to be given an absolute or conditional discharge, both in London and in England and Wales as a whole. Women are also less likely to receive an immediate custodial sentence, 21 per cent compared with 29 per cent for men in London. The difference is even greater for England and Wales as a whole, with 15 per cent of women receiving immediate custodial sentences, compared with 27 per cent of men. For both men and women fines are more commonly imposed in London than in England and Wales. On the other hand absolute or conditional discharge and community sentences are more commonly imposed in England and Wales as a whole compared to London.

Table 8.20

Sentences for indictable offences: by sex, 2001

Percentages and numbers

	London[1]		England and Wales	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Percentages of those sentenced				
Absolute or conditional discharge	*11*	*17*	*14*	*25*
Fine	*31*	*28*	*25*	*19*
Any community sentence	*27*	*32*	*31*	*37*
Fully suspended sentence	*1*	*1*	*1*	*1*
Immediate custodial sentence	*29*	*21*	*27*	*15*
Otherwise dealt with	*2*	*2*	*3*	*3*
Total number of people sentenced	42,220	6,440	274,570	47,296

1 Metropolitan Police and City of London Police areas.

Source: Home Office

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Leisure is an important aspect of both living in and visiting London. The first half of this chapter looks at overseas tourist and domestic visitor trends; the impact of 'September 11' and other events in 2001 on visitor numbers and spending, and the amenities on offer to tourists in London. The second half looks at the amenities on offer to residents and their preferred choices, and leisure as a business.

Numbers and expenditure of visitors to and from London

London is one of the most popular cities in the world for overseas tourists. In 2002, there were 11.6 million visits to London by people who were resident abroad and stayed one night or more (Figure 9.1) – half of all trips made to the United Kingdom. In 1996, 12.3 million visits were made. The number of visits remained constant until 1998, increased to over 13 million in 1999 and 2000, and then fell. In spite of the fall in numbers in 2001, discussed later in the chapter, the overall number of visits to London by overseas residents had increased by a fifth since 1992 (Table 9.2). The average length of stay was almost seven nights.

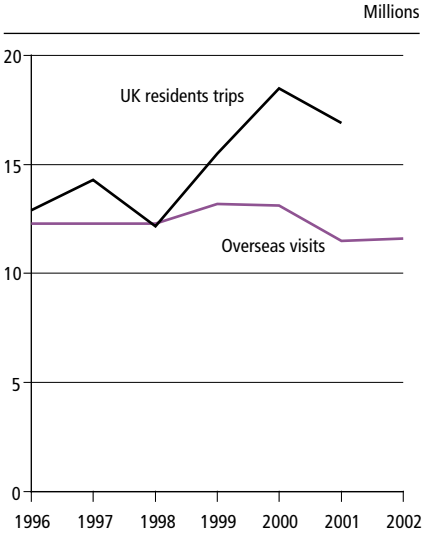
Although popular with UK residents as a tourist destination (Figure 9.1), the number of visits fluctuated between 1996 and 2001. Domestic visits to London increased in 1997 by 1.5 million but decreased in 1998 by 2.1 million. In 1999 the numbers increased by 3.2 million to 15.5 million visits but a similar pattern occurred between the years 1999 to 2001 as in the preceding three years; the numbers peaked in the middle year, during the millennium celebrations. Overall, the numbers of domestic visits increased between 1996 and 2001 – around 17 million domestic visits were made to London in 2001.

In 2002, London residents made 11.5 million trips abroad; 19 per cent of the total number of trips made by United Kingdom residents (Table 9.3), although Londoners account for only 12 per cent of the total population of the United Kingdom.

The number of trips by Londoners to Western Europe (7.9 million) increased by 3 per cent on the previous year. Nearly 900,000 trips were made to the United States and Canada. This was a drop of 9 per cent from 2001, although trips to other American countries increased by 26 per cent over the same period. Londoners didn't make as many trips to Africa in 2002; trips there dropped 8 per cent from 2001. Many factors can affect the popularity of holiday destinations; for example, exchange rates, perceived and actual risks, fashions and advertising.

Figure 9.1

Number of visits to London[1]



1 Of visitors staying one night or more.

Source: International Passenger Survey, Office for National Statistics; United Kingdom Tourism Survey, sponsored by the National Tourist Boards

Table 9.2

Origin of overseas visitors[1, 2]: top ten countries of residence

Percentages and millions

	Visits to London		Visits to the United Kingdom	
	1992	2002	1992	2002
United States	*20.6*	*22.5*	*16.4*	*16.9*
France	*8.5*	*9.8*	*14.5*	*13.7*
Germany	*9.2*	*8.0*	*13.2*	*11.6*
Italy	*5.2*	*4.9*	*4.6*	*4.5*
Netherlands	*4.0*	*4.4*	*5.8*	*6.4*
Spain	*4.2*	*4.0*	*4.0*	*4.6*
Australia	*3.5*	*4.0*	*3.0*	*3.3*
Canada	*4.0*	*3.3*	*3.7*	*3.1*
Switzerland	*2.5*	*2.9*	*2.5*	*2.8*
Japan	*5.4*	*2.7*	*3.2*	*1.7*
All other countries	*33.0*	*33.6*	*29.0*	*31.4*
Total visits (millions)	9.2	11.0	17.1	21.6

1 Staying one night or more.
2 Ranked according to percentage of visits to London in 2002 (Irish Republic excluded).

Source: International Passenger Survey, Office for National Statistics

Table 9.4 shows expenditure of both domestic and overseas visitors. In 2001, domestic tourists spent nearly £3 billion in London, equivalent to £8.2 million per day. Overseas visitors spent on average £510 each trip; just under three times as much as domestic visitors who spent £177 on average. Figures from the London Tourist Board indicate the greatest proportion of spending by domestic tourists in 2000 was on accommodation (21 per cent), followed closely by travel (20 per cent). Buying clothes, shopping and entertainment combined accounted for 25 per cent of their spending.

There was a 13 per cent drop in total overseas visits to London in 2001 (Figure 9.5) from the previous year (approximately 1.7 million visitors), and a 15 per cent drop in overseas visitor spending, from £6.9 to £5.8 billion (but note these are not adjusted for inflation so the real fall was higher). The weak global economy and the effect of the Foot and Mouth outbreak are partially responsible, but there was also the impact from the September 11 terrorist attacks.

A 27 per cent drop in expenditure, £457 million, occurred in the fourth quarter (October to December) 2001 compared with the fourth quarter a year earlier. The number of visits by residents of North America to London also declined by 35 per cent compared to the fourth quarter of 2000 and spending went down by 32 per cent (£143 million) – a fall equivalent to 12 per cent of total overseas visitor spending in that quarter. Since this was a much steeper fall than seen earlier in 2001, and directly followed the September 11 attacks, it is reasonable to assume that the attacks caused much of this decline.

Table 9.3

Trips taken abroad, 2002[1]

Percentages and thousands

	London residents	United Kingdom residents
Western Europe[2]	*68.2*	*73.5*
North America	*7.7*	*7.2*
Asia	*5.3*	*3.5*
Africa	*4.0*	*2.6*
Other America[3]	*1.2*	*0.8*
Eastern Europe	*2.3*	*1.8*
Oceania[4]	*1.3*	*1.1*
Total trips[5] (thousands)	11,550	59,265

1 Provisional.
2 Excludes visits to the Republic of Ireland.
3 Central and South America.
4 Includes Australia, New Zealand and the Pacific countries.
5 Includes figures for the Republic of Ireland.

Source: International Passenger Survey, Office for National Statistics

Table 9.4

Visitors to London[1]: numbers and expenditure

	Numbers (millions)		Expenditure (£ million)[2]		Average expenditure (£)[2]	
	Overseas visitors	UK residents trips	Overseas visitors	UK residents trips	Overseas visitors	UK residents trips
1996	12.3	12.9	6,007	1,633	490	127
1997	12.3	14.4	5,993	1,768	488	123
1998	12.3	12.3	6,298	1,848	513	150
1999	13.2	15.5	6,708	2,066	509	133
2000	13.1	18.5	6,901	3,070	525	166
2001	11.5	16.9	5,845	2,995	510	177
2002	11.6	..	5,887	..	506	..

1 Staying one night or more.
2 At current prices.

Source: International Passenger Survey, Office for National Statistics; United Kingdom Tourism Survey, sponsored by the National Tourist Boards

Origin and destinations of visitors

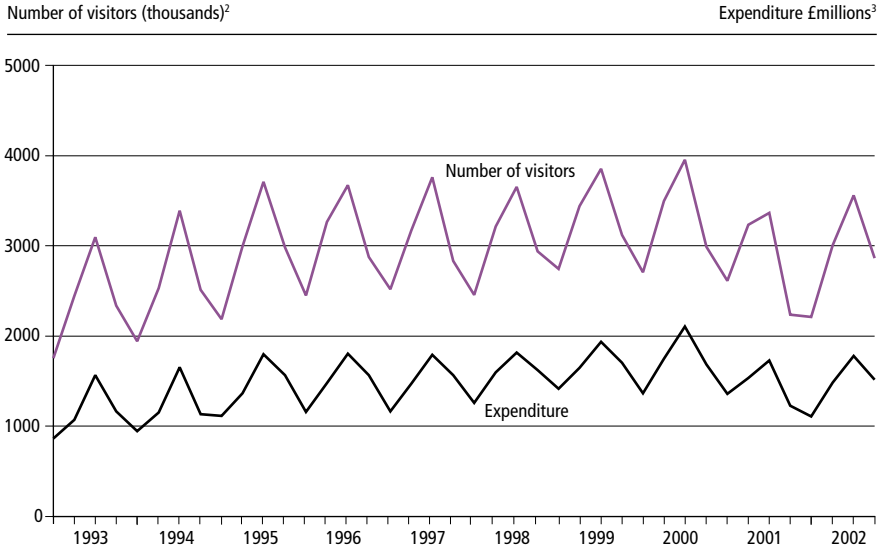
In 2002, over a fifth of all visits by overseas residents to London (excluding those from the Irish Republic) were from the United States of America (Table 9.2). Half the total numbers of visits by overseas residents to the United Kingdom were to London and the number of visits from residents of the United States and France showed the highest level of increase between 1992 and 2002. Of the remaining top ten countries, Japan showed the largest decrease in the proportion of visits from residents of that country between 1992 and 2002. This could in part be due to a combination of the aftermath of September 11, a weakened economy in the Far East and the 2002 Fifa World Cup in Korea and Japan.

Between 1996 and 2002, of all the visits made by overseas residents to London, the proportion of trips made for holiday purposes dropped from 53 per cent to 40 per cent, while trips for business and visiting friends or relatives rose (Table 9.6). Domestic visitors' reasons for visiting London have also changed over the five years from 1996 to 2001. In 1996, the principal reason for visiting the capital was to visit friends or relatives, (37 per cent) but changed by 2001 to going on holiday (48 per cent). However, the actual number of domestic tourists visiting London for one night or more increased by 4 million between 1996 and 2001. While the proportion of domestic visitors to London visiting friends or relatives fell, the majority still stayed with friends and relatives compared to a third of overseas visitors. The majority of overseas visitors stayed in hotels and guesthouses (Table 9.7).

London is not only a popular destination for tourists, it is also one of the conference capitals of the world. In 2000, just under seven million trips were made to London for the purpose of attending a conference or for business. A study by the Union of International Associations (UIA) on locations for

Figure 9.5

Overseas visitors to London: numbers and expenditure, 1993 to 2002[1]



1 All figures are per quarter. Not seasonally adjusted.
2 Staying one night or more.
3 At current prices.

Source: International Passenger Survey, Office for National Statistics.

Table 9.6

Reasons for visiting London[1]

Percentages and millions

	UK residents visits		Visits from overseas[2]		
	1996	2001	1996	2001	2002
Holiday	*36*	*48*	*53*	*41*	*40*
Visiting friends/relatives	*37*	*27*	*15*	*20*	*21*
Business/conference	*23*	*23*	*20*	*24*	*23*
Other	*4*	*2*	*11*	*10*	*10*
Total visits (millions)	12.9	16.9	12.3	11.5	11.6

1 Of visitors staying one night or more.
2 Total visits include visits made by residents of the Irish Republic after 1999, but percentages are based on figures which exclude them.

Source: International Passenger Survey, Office for National Statistics; United Kingdom Tourism Survey, sponsored by the National Tourist Boards

international meetings (including association, corporate, governmental and United Nations meetings) rated London third after Paris and Brussels, ahead of Vienna and Singapore in 2000.

There has been a growth in accommodation development in non-traditional tourist areas such as Bromley, Croydon and Hillingdon; an indication perhaps that as developers and tourism industries become increasingly aware of the value of Outer London boroughs, the future of London accommodation will not be so highly concentrated in the "West End".

In a study commissioned by the Greater London Authority in 2001, PricewaterhouseCoopers identified a need for another 36,000 hotel rooms in London between 2000 and 2016. Table 9.8 shows the distribution of tourist accommodation between Inner and Outer London in 2002. The number of establishments rose by nearly a third between 1999 and 2002 and the number of bedspaces available by nearly a quarter. The number of rooms in 2002 increased by just over two per cent from 2001.

Table A9.1 in the Appendix shows number of known bedspaces by individual borough in 2002. There was heavy concentration in central London (not in the City of London itself) with three boroughs – Westminster, Kensington and Chelsea, and Camden – comprising over 60 per cent of all bedspaces in hotels, motels, inns and guesthouses, and over 80 per cent of bed and breakfast accommodation. The greatest concentration of deluxe five-star and four-star hotels was also to be found in this area. Inner London has an average of 266 beds per hotel, motel, inn and guesthouse, and 57 beds per bed-and-breakfast establishment.

Visitor attractions

Many of London's visitors come for the world famous attractions and the top 20, according to the English Tourism

Table 9.7

Types of accommodation in London used by tourists, 2001

Percentages and millions

	Overseas visits	Domestic trips
Hotel/guesthouse	*57*	*31*
Friends/relatives	*32*	*58*
Hostel/college	*3*	*1*
Rented property	*3*	*3*
Paying guest	*2*	*3*
Other accommodation	*3*	*4*
Total visits (millions)	11.5	16.9

Source: English Tourism Council; United Kingdom Tourism Survey, sponsored by the National Tourist Boards/Intenational Passenger Survey, Office for National Statistics

Table 9.8

Number of bedspaces in London, 2002[1]

Numbers

	Inner London	Outer London	London
Hotels, motels, inns and guesthouses			
Number of establishments	452	301	753
Number of bedspaces	120,366	35,258	155,624
Bed and breakfast establishments[2]			
Number of establishments	467	289	756
Number of bedspaces	26,615	3,828	30,443

1 Known stock of serviced accommodation as at November 2002.
2 An establishment that provides accommodation, some service and breakfast but no other meal.

Source: English Tourism Council; British Tourist Authority; London Tourist Board

Council's survey 2001, between them received 32 million visits (Table 9.9). As Table A9.2 in the Appendix shows, the majority of the attractions are in the centre of London, although there has been a shift towards new attractions on the South Bank of the Thames. Both the London Eye (the world's tallest observation wheel) and Tate Modern appeared in the top four. This contemporary art gallery, housed in the original Bankside Power Station, stands across the Thames from St. Paul's Cathedral; these two popular attractions are linked by the Millennium Bridge, the first new pedestrian river crossing to be built in central London for over a century.

Art galleries make up over a third of the top attractions with museums making up nearly another third. The National Gallery was the single most popular attraction for the first time in the last decade with 4.9 million visitors in 2001 (top billing previously went to the British Museum) with twelve major exhibitions such as Vermeer and the Delft School. It is estimated that the London Eye had 3.8 million visitors in 2001, up by an extra 550,000 visitors on the previous year. Visits to the Victoria and Albert Museum increased by over half to 1.4 million between 1999 and 2001. Despite being the second most popular attraction in London in 2001, the British Museum saw a 12 per cent decrease in visitors, 665,000 fewer visits than the previous year when it was the top tourist attraction.

Table 9.9

Top tourist attractions: by number of visits, 2001[1]

Thousands

	Total
National Gallery	4,919
British Museum	4,801
British Airways London Eye[2]	3,850
Tate Modern	3,552
Tower of London	2,019
Natural History Museum	1,696
Victoria and Albert Museum	1,446
Science Museum	1,353
National Portrait Gallery	1,270
Tate Britain	1,012
Westminster Abbey	986
Royal Academy	910
London Zoo	907
St Paul's Cathedral	838
Imperial War Museum	638
Serpentine Gallery	441
National Maritime Museum	410
Photographers Gallery[2]	400
British Library Exhibition Galleries[2]	370
Museum of London	315

1 Excluding two attractions where the operators did not authorise figures for publication.
2 Estimated.

Source: English Tourism Council

Facilities for residents

London's many cultural activities are recognised as a major attraction for both domestic and international visitors. They improve the quality of life for its residents who enjoy the various attractions the city has to offer. Television also plays an important part in people's leisure time. With recent advances in audio-visual equipment the choices on offer to people have increased. In 1998 the DVD (Digital Versatile Disc) was launched in the United Kingdom and its capacity to play music, film and games has proved immensely popular. It is the fastest growing consumer electronic playing format ever according to the British Video Association. However, Londoners spent less time on average viewing television, Video or DVD per week than viewers in the United Kingdom as a whole (Table 9.10). Adults aged between 35 to 64 watched less than 17 hours per week; a little less than other age groups, and about 2 hours less than the average for all United Kingdom residents in the same age group.

Table 9.10

Average weekly television, video and DVD viewing, 2000

Hours per week

	London	United Kingdom
People aged		
8 to15	16.9	17.0
16 to 34	17.1	18.4
35 to 64	16.7	18.9
65 or over	25.7	26.2
All aged 8 or over	18.0	19.6

Source: UK 2000 Time Use Survey, Office for National Statistics

Sports in London

People living in London take part in a variety of sporting or physical activities. Table 9.11 shows the extent of the city's provision for activities such as swimming, skiing and track sports. About two thirds of both sports halls and swimming pools (the most numerous types of facility available) are in Outer London, where 60 per cent of the resident population lives. Specialised facilities, notably indoor tennis courts and synthetic turf pitches, are abundant in the Outer London boroughs but 60 per cent of ice rinks are in Inner London. Detailed information on sports facilities by borough is provided in the Appendix (Table A9.3), which shows that Bromley, Croydon and Enfield have the largest number of sports halls and swimming pools, while Enfield also has more synthetic turf pitches than any other borough.

Watching football continues to be a popular pastime; London is home to 12 teams playing in the professional leagues, 6 of which were in the FA Premier League in 2001/02. The average gate for the Premier clubs in 2001/02 increased by 7 per cent on the previous year. Arsenal, Chelsea and Tottenham Hotspur had an average attendance of over 30,000. The highest average attendance at a Premier club game in London was 39,033 (Chelsea) while the lowest was for Fulham who had an average of 19,545 spectators.

Cultural attractions

Cinemas are a popular cultural activity, and London accounted for over a quarter of the 176 million cinema admissions in Great Britain. Over 60 per cent of Londoners surveyed in the Cinema Advertising Association's CAVIAR survey attended the cinema more than twice a year in 2002 (Table 9.12). Nearly one third of those interviewed saw a film more than once a month, a higher proportion than the population of Great Britain as a whole. Two in five Greater London residents

Table 9.11

Sports facilities[1], 2003[2]

Numbers

	Inner London	Outer London	Total
Sports halls[3]	67	152	219
Swimming pools[4]	48	83	131
Athletics tracks – synthetic	12	21	33
Indoor tennis centres	7	15	22
Ice rinks	3	2	5
Synthetic turf pitches	23	48	71
Dry ski slopes	0	1	1

1 All facilities are for use by the public/community.
2 As at 25 February 2003.
3 Halls of a size equalling at least four badminton courts.
4 Swimming pools at least 25m long.

Source: Sport England

Table 9.12

Frequency of cinema attendance[1], 2002

Percentages

	London	Great Britain
Once a month or more	*32*	*26*
Between 2 to 11 times a year	*32*	*36*
Once a year or less	*16*	*20*
Never	*20*	*18*

1 All aged 4 and over.

Source: CAVIAR 20 Survey, 2002, Cinema Advertising Association

Table 9.13

Attendances by Greater London residents at cultural events in London, 2002

Percentages and thousands

	London adults[1]	Annual attendance
Theatre	43.9	3,161
Art galleries/exhibitions	34.5	2,484
Pop/Rock	22.1	1,591
Classical music	19.0	1,368
Jazz	11.6	835
Contemporary dance	9.0	648
Ballet	8.6	619

1 Aged over 15 years.

Source: 2001/2002 Target Group Index Data, BMRB International; Arts Council of England

surveyed (2001/2002 Target Group Index, BMRB International; Arts Council of England) went to the theatre in 2002 (Table 9.13). The Society of London Theatres calculated there were nearly 12 million seats sold in West End theatres (to all theatre audiences, not just London residents) in 2001, an increase of 8 per cent on 10 years ago; with each seat costing an average £25.48. This was a 3 per cent increase on the amount paid the previous year but the increase was not evenly distributed across venues and productions and there were considerable discounts offered to help stimulate sales. Art Galleries and exhibitions were the second most popular attraction for London residents surveyed, with 2.5 million annual attendances.

Expenditure on leisure

According to the Family Expenditure Survey, London households spent an average of £75 a week on recreation and leisure in 2001/02, 10 per cent more than households in the United Kingdom as a whole (Table 9.14). They spent more on eating out (£364 more per year) – and 19 per cent of the United Kingdom's restaurants and cafes are in London – and on cultural activities (£93 more per year). They also spent more on audio-visual equipment (£31 more per year), but less on computer software and games (£26 less per year). Londoners paid nearly £16 more per year than the UK average for TV and cable subscriptions despite watching less television, DVD and video. They did spend less than their regional counterparts on package holidays though, £156 less per year.

The National Lottery has been a major source of funding for the arts, leisure pursuits and good causes since it started in November 1994. Out of every pound spent, 28p of lottery proceeds are divided between six separate funds which are administered by: the Arts Council of England; the Heritage Lottery Fund; the Millennium Commission; the National Lotteries Charities Board;

Table 9.14

Average weekly household expenditure on recreation and culture[1], 2001/02

£ per week

	London	United Kingdom
Audio-visual, photographic and information processing equipment	10.5	8.0
Audio equipment and accessories, CD players	3.6	3.0
TV, video and computers	6.0	4.5
Photographic and cinematographic equipment	1.0	0.5
Optical instruments, binoculars, telescopes, microscopes	-	0.1
Other major durables for recreation and culture	0.5	1.5
Other recreational items and equipment, gardens and pets	7.1	9.5
Games, toys and hobbies	2.1	2.1
Computer software and games	0.5	1.0
Equipment for sport, camping and open-air recreation	0.7	1.0
Horticultural goods, garden equipment and plants etc	2.2	2.6
Pets and pet food	1.5	2.7
Recreational and cultural services	18.1	16.3
Sports admissions, subscriptions and leisure class fees	6.5	5.0
Cinema, theatre and museums etc	2.2	1.7
TV, video, satellite rental, cable subscriptions, TV licences	5.0	4.7
Miscellaneous entertainments	1.1	0.9
Development of film, deposit for film development, passport photos	0.5	0.4
Gambling payments	2.8	3.7
Newspapers, books and stationery	7.4	6.2
Books, diaries, address books, cards etc	4.5	3.3
Newspapers	1.8	1.8
Magazines and periodicals	1.1	1.0
Package holidays	9.5	12.5
Package holidays – United Kingdom	0.7	0.7
Package holidays – abroad	8.8	11.7
Eating away from home	22.0	15.0
Restaurant and café meals	15.4	10.9
Take-away food and snack food[2]	6.6	4.1

1 Data are usually aggregated over more than one year, but because of the move to the new COICOP classification for expenditure, these data relate only to the 2001/02 survey. In consequence sample sizes are small and data should be treated with caution.
2 Excludes take-away meals eaten at home.

Source: Expenditure and Food Survey, Office for National Statistics

Table 9.15

National Lottery grants[1] over £10 million made to organisations in London

£ million

Fund	Recipient	Purpose	Amount
Millennium	New Millennium Experience Company	The Millennium Dome	628.00
Sport	Wembley National Stadium Limited	English National Stadium	120.00
Arts	Royal Opera House Covent Garden Limited	Restoration, Refurbishment and Extension of Royal Opera House	55.00
Millennium	Tate Gallery	New Art Gallery for Tate Modern Collection	50.00
Arts	Royal National Theatre Board	Improvement of public spaces and plant modernisation	31.59
Heritage	Gilbert Collection Trust	Gilbert Collection, Somerset House	30.75
Millennium	British Museum	Restoration and Glazed Covering of the Great Court	30.00
Arts	Sadler's Well Foundation	Redevelopment of Sadler's Wells Theatres	28.50
Arts	New Sadler's Well Limited	Redevelopment of Sadler's Wells Theatres	25.57
Arts	Royal Opera House Covent Garden Limited	Supplementary to main application 95-95	23.50
Heritage	Science Museum	Science Museum, Wellcome Wing, South Kensington, London	23.00
Arts	Royal Academy of Dramatic Art	Purchase and develop building	22.75
Arts	Royal Albert Hall	Redevelopment of Albert Hall	20.20
Heritage	Corporation of the Hall of Arts and Sciences	Royal Albert Hall Development, London	20.18
Heritage	Tate Gallery	Centenary Development, Tate Gallery	18.75
Arts	English Stage Company	Completion of restoration of theatre	15.80
Heritage	British Museum	British Museum – Education and Information Centre	15.05
Heritage	Victoria and Albert Museum	Victoria and Albert Museum, British Galleries	15.00
Arts	London Borough of Newham	New arts centre	13.74
Sport	London Borough of Newham	New East Ham Leisure Centre	13.49
Millennium	London Borough of Tower Hamlets	Convert open space areas into themed areas including play arena etc	12.92
Heritage	Imperial War Museum	Imperial War Museum, South West Infill Development	12.62
Arts	Shakespeare Globe	Reconstruction of Shakespeare Globe Theatre	12.40
Heritage	National Maritime Museum	National Martime Museum, Neptune Hall Project, Greenwich, London	12.05
Arts	The Laban Centre for Movement and Dance	Construction of a Dance Centre	12.03
Heritage	National Portrait Gallery	National Portrait Gallery Development	11.90
Heritage	Council of the Museum of the Port of London/Docklands	Museum in Docklands	11.00
Heritage	English National Opera	Restoration of the London Coliseum	10.65
Heritage	Somerset House Limited	Somerset House Restoration	10.28
Sport	Royal Albert Dock Trust	Royal Albert Dock Watersports Centre	10.20
Sport	London Borough of Hackney	Clissold Leisure Centre, Hackney	10.03

1 All grants up to 30 December 2001.

Source: Department for Culture, Media and Sport

the New Opportunities Fund; and Sport England.

By December 2001, 31 leisure-related projects based in London had been awarded grants worth over £10 million in total for each project (Table 9.15). The Millennium Commission distributed 54 per cent of these grants (totalling £721 million), followed by the Arts Council with 21 per cent, the Heritage Lottery Fund with 14 per cent and Sports England with 11 per cent. Almost half of the £1.3 billion awarded to the 31 London-based projects went to institutions that have national significance. The Millennium Dome was the recipient of the largest amount, receiving a total of £628 million by the end of 2001. Tate Modern, the fourth most popular tourist attraction in London, was the recipient of the fourth largest amount, with £50 million. In total, more than 9,000 grants with a total value of over £2.5 billion were awarded by 30 December 2001 for London-based projects, the majority of which were for less than £100,000. The Community Fund, which gives grants to groups that help those at greatest disadvantage and which improve the quality of life in the community, distributed over 5,300 awards with a total value of over £472 million.

Employment in leisure-related industries

Table 9.16 shows the number of leisure-related business sites in March 2002. London had over an eighth of the United Kingdom's total number of sites in this category, and was well provided with restaurants and cafés – nearly a fifth of the national total. Although the British Museum was London's second most popular tourist attraction, London had just over a tenth of the United Kingdom's museums and libraries. London's lowest proportion of leisure-related sites was camping and other short stay accommodation – a fifteenth.

The number of employee jobs broken down by type of leisure-related industry is another measure of business activity. In 2001, 16 per cent of all of employees in leisure-related industries were in London (Table 9.17). London's largest share of Britain's leisure-related workers worked in theatres and cinemas (32 per cent), although as a proportion of London workers in all leisure-related activities this sector made up only 3 per cent. Staff working in London libraries and museums made up 19 per cent of total number employed in Great Britain, but 5 per cent of workers in London leisure-related jobs. Overall, restaurants and cafes employed the largest share of London's leisure related workers – 43 per cent.

Table 9.16

Leisure-related sites: by type[1,2,3], 2002[4]

Numbers and percentages

	London	London as a Percentage of United Kingdom
Restaurants, cafés, etc.[5]	12,995	*19.2*
Pubs and Bars	5,240	*8.7*
Clubs	705	*9.4*
Hotels	1,435	*10.2*
Camping Sites and Other Short-stay accommodation	385	*6.6*
Libraries, Museums, etc.	755	*10.6*
Sports, Recreation, etc.	5,895	*13.0*
Total	27,405	*13.2*

1 Registered for VAT and/or PAYE, local unit basis eg an individual restaurant or hotel/guest house.
2 Based on the Standard Industrial Classification 1992.
3 Figures for theatres, cinemas, concert halls etc are excluded as the information is not available at this level of dissaggregation.
4 At March 2002.
5 Includes takeaway food shops.

Source: Inter-Departmental Business Register, Office for National Statistics

Table 9.17

Employee jobs in leisure-related industries[1,2], 2001

Thousands and percentages

	London	London as a percentage of Great Britain
Restaurants, cafés, etc.[3]	121.6	*23.1*
Pubs and bars / clubs	58.4	*11.0*
Hotels	45.8	*15.4*
Camping sites and other short-stay accommodation	1.5	*3.9*
Libraries, museums, etc.	13.4	*19.3*
Theatres, cinemas, etc.	9.8	*31.6*
Sports, recreation, etc.	34.2	*11.6*
Total of above	284.8	*15.9*

1 See the Glossary of Terms for the Labour Market, in Notes and Definitions.
2 Based on the Standard Industrial Classification 1992.
3 Includes takeaway food shops.

Source: Annual Business Inquiry, Office for National Statistics

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This chapter begins by looking generally at travel in London. It goes on to focus on travel on London's roads and on public transport, followed by an analysis of international links and freight. It concludes with a brief review of communications in the capital.

Travel in London

Car ownership

Since 1998, there has been a continuous increase in car ownership, both at the national and the London level (Table 10.1). By 2001, almost two thirds of London households had access to at least one car and almost one fifth had two or more cars at their disposal.

Car ownership was significantly lower in Inner London than in Great Britain as a whole. In 1999-2001, 51 per cent of households in Inner London did not have access to a car. However, the proportion of Outer London households that did not have a car (27 per cent) was broadly comparable with the national figure (28 per cent). In London, multiple car ownership was somewhat lower than in Great Britain as a whole; 18 per cent of London households had two or more vehicles in 1999-2001, compared with 25 per cent in Great Britain as a whole. Again, the figures for Outer London were comparable to the national total. In Inner London, higher levels of congestion and limitations on parking, coupled with a frequent and accessible public transport network, act as disincentives to owning a car. In Outer London the effect of these limitations and public transport was less, while higher levels of disposable income relative to the national average enable a larger proportion of households to afford a car.

The number of vehicles licensed to addresses in London in 2001 was over 2.8 million (Table A10.1 in the Appendix). The index of registered vehicles increased by 3 points between 2000 and 2001 and by 11 points between 1987 and 2001. This compares with a rise of 36 points in Great Britain as a whole between 1987 and 2001 (Figure 10.2).

Within the overall total for London, the number of licensed powered two-wheelers declined from 80,000 in 1987 to 62,000 in 1995. After then, numbers increased to 103,000 in 2001 – up 29 per cent on 1987. It was expected that this growth would continue if congestion increases and parking became more difficult and costly, especially as powered two-wheelers were exempt from the central London congestion charge introduced in February 2003. The number of goods vehicles over 3.5 tonnes fell by approximately 43 per cent between 1987 and 2001. This may be the result of a shift towards using smaller vehicles to service London's businesses as well as a possible transfer of distribution centres to outside London. Table A10.1 in the Appendix gives the numbers of vehicles licensed in each taxation class from 1987 until 2001.

Table 10.1

Households with cars[1]

Percentages

	No car	One car	Two or more cars
Inner London			
1985-1986	*57*	*32*	*11*
1989-1991	*54*	*35*	*11*
1996-1998	*49*	*41*	*10*
1999-2001	*51*	*41*	*7*
Outer London			
1985-1986	*34*	*47*	*19*
1989-1991	*31*	*46*	*22*
1996-1998	*33*	*47*	*20*
1999-2001	*27*	*48*	*25*
London			
1985-1986	*42*	*42*	*15*
1989-1991	*40*	*42*	*18*
1996-1998	*39*	*44*	*16*
1999-2001	*37*	*45*	*18*
Former Metropolitan county areas[2]			
1985-1986	*49*	*40*	*11*
1989-1991	*41*	*44*	*16*
1996-1998	*38*	*41*	*21*
1999-2001	*35*	*45*	*20*
Great Britain			
1985-1986	*38*	*45*	*17*
1989-1991	*33*	*45*	*22*
1996-1998	*30*	*45*	*25*
1999-2001	*28*	*47*	*25*

1 Includes cars and light vans normally available to the household.
2 Excluding London (comprises Greater Manchester, Merseyside, South Yorkshire, Northumbria, West Midlands and West Yorkshire).

Source: National Travel Survey, Department for Transport

Number of Journeys

Over the period 1999-2001, London residents made an average of 990 journeys. This was 7 per cent less than residents of the South East and 3 per cent less than the national average (Table 10.3). Inner London residents made 7 per cent fewer trips, on average, than those living in Outer London. The average number of trips made by London residents declined by 5 per cent between 1989-91 and 1999-2001, with Inner London and Outer London residents making 9 per cent and 3 per cent fewer trips respectively. This compared to a 7 per cent reduction nationally.

The number of car trips made by Londoners in 1999-2001 fell by 4 per cent from 1989-91; this fall was entirely the result of the reduction in trips (9 per cent) made by Inner London residents. This ran counter to the national trend, which showed an increase of 3 per cent over this period. The number of walk trips made by Londoners declined by 13 per cent, which although was a substantial decline, was lower than the 20 per cent reduction exhibited at the

Figure 10.2

Vehicles registered[1]

1 The discontinuities in the data noted on the graph are: up to and including 1992, estimates were based on DVLA data but from 1993 onwards they were taken from the DfT Vehicle Information Database; changes were made to the vehicle taxation system in 1995 including new exempt vehicle classes which were created for police vehicles and for all vehicles over 25 years of age; and following Local Authority reorganisation in 1996, an updated postcode directory was used to allocate vehicle keepers' addresses.

Source: Department for Transport

Table 10.3

Trips per person per year[1]: by mode

Numbers

	Inner London		Outer London		London		South East		Great Britain	
	1989-1991	1999-2001	1989-1991	1999-2001	1989-1991	1999-2001	1989-1991	1999-2001	1989-1991	1999-2001
Bus and coach	116	126	84	77	94	96	..	26	75	58
Rail[2]	104	115	73	71	83	88	..	18	18	20
Taxi/minicab	21	22	10	11	14	15	..	9	11	12
Car/van	327	297	563	568	485	468	..	722	619	639
Motorcycle	3	4	6	5	5	5	..	4	6	3
Bicycle	18	15	12	9	14	11	..	19	21	16
Walk	434	351	297	268	343	299	..	252	328	263
Other	9	11	8	9	8	9	..	9	12	9
All modes	1,032	942	1,052	1,018	1,045	990	..	1,059	1,091	1,019

1 Figures relate to region of residence of the traveller and therefore include trips taken outside of the area. A trip is a one way course of travel, with a single main purpose.
2 Including London Underground.

Source: National Travel Survey, Department for Transport

Table 10.4

Trips per person per year[1]: by purpose

Percentages

	Commuting		Business		Education		Shopping		Other personal business		Leisure	
	1989-1991	1999-2001	1989-1991	1999-2001	1989-1991	1999-2001	1989-1991	1999-2001	1989-1991	1999-2001	1989-1991	1999-2001
Inner London	*15*	*14*	*4*	*4*	*6*	*8*	*21*	*20*	*24*	*23*	*29*	*30*
Outer London	*17*	*15*	*4*	*4*	*6*	*7*	*21*	*20*	*24*	*24*	*28*	*29*
London	*16*	*15*	*4*	*4*	*6*	*8*	*21*	*20*	*24*	*24*	*29*	*30*
South East	*17*	*15*	*5*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*20*	*21*	*23*	*24*	*31*	*30*
Great Britain	*16*	*15*	*4*	*3*	*6*	*7*	*21*	*21*	*22*	*23*	*32*	*31*

1 Figures relate to region of residence of the traveller and therefore include trips taken outside of the area. Figures for 1999-2001 include trips of less than one mile; these were excluded from 1989-1991 data.

Source: National Travel Survey, Department for Transport

national level. The average number of cycling trips per annum reduced from 14 to 11 in London. This change was comparable to the national total.

Rail trips increased overall by 6 percentage points in London – the result of an 11 per cent increase in trips made by Inner London residents offset by a 3 per cent decline in trips by people living in Outer London. This was probably a reflection of the new rail infrastructure that was constructed in Inner London during this period – the Jubilee Line Extension and the Lewisham Extension to the Docklands Light Railway (DLR) – both of which would have had an impact on the number and pattern of trips made by residents in the area.

The distribution of trips by purpose shows a high degree of uniformity by area and over time (Table 10.4). Almost a third of trips were for leisure purposes, a quarter for other personal business and a fifth for shopping. Over the ten years to 2001, the proportion of trips associated with commuting reduced, whilst that to educational establishments increased. This may reflect the increase in the numbers of people in tertiary education.

Table 10.5

Distance travelled per person per year[1]: by mode of transport

Miles

	Inner London		Outer London		London		South East		Great Britain	
	1989-1991	1999-2001	1991	1999-2001	1989-1991	1999-2001	1989-1991	1999-2001	1989-1991	1999-2001
Bus and coach	427	501	362	349	383	406	..	220	398	341
Rail[2]	1,127	1,241	868	852	953	996	..	568	415	425
Taxi/minicab	90	110	44	60	59	79	..	47	42	60
Car/van	2,744	2,500	4,100	4,159	3,666	3,544	..	6,817	5,107	5,566
Motorcycle	27	38	41	50	36	45	..	32	37	29
Bicycle	46	50	31	21	36	32	..	45	41	39
Walk	342	274	249	215	280	237	..	193	237	189
Other	144	80	212	132	189	113	..	145	197	166
All modes	4,956	4,794	5,925	5,839	5,603	5,452	..	8,067	6,475	6,815

1 Figures relate to region of residence of the traveller and therefore include trips taken outside of the area. Figures for 1999-2001 include trips of less than one mile; these were excluded from 1989-1991 data.
2 Including London Underground.

Source: National Travel Survey, Department for Transport

Distance travelled

Table 10.5 shows the average distance travelled per person per year by mode. In 1999-2001, London residents travelled, on average, a third fewer miles than residents of the South East, and a fifth less than the average for Great Britain, despite making roughly the same number of journeys. This may be because workplaces, schools and other services were generally closer for people living in London. Between 1989-91 and 1999-2001 the average distance travelled per year in Great Britain increased by 5 per cent, whereas in London a reduction of 3 per cent was recorded.

Between 1989-91 and 1999-2001 the distance travelled by car by London residents declined by 3 per cent. This was slightly less than the reduction in trips, indicating an increase in average trip length. London residents travelled 6 per cent further by bus over this period (17 per cent in Inner London), compared with a decline in bus travel in the South East and in Great Britain as a whole. The policies introduced in London, which include reductions in fares and an expansion of the bus network, are thought to be an influential factor in this growth. Distances travelled by bus, rail, taxi and motorcycle increased, while travel by car decreased.

Travel to Central London

In 2001, the number of people entering central London between 7.00 am and 10.00 am fell by 1.1 per cent, the first fall for four years (Table 10.6). These changes were closely related to employment in central London. During times of economic growth, when the numbers employed rise, the level of commuting into central London increases.

In 2001, 11 per cent of people entering central London in the morning peak period did so by car, compared with 16.5 per cent in 1981. This represents an absolute reduction of almost 30 per cent, with a further reduction in 2002.

Table 10.6

People entering central London[1] during morning peak: 7.00 to 10.00 am

Thousands

	Surface rail							
	Total	Of which transfers to LUL/DLR[2]	LUL and DLR[2]	LT bus[3]	Coach/ minibus	Private car	Motorcycle/ pedal cycle	All modes
1981	394	127	336	105	16	173	26	1,050
1986	421	166	381	91	25	166	21	1,105
1988	468	188	411	80	21	160	17	1,157
1991	426	168	347	74	20	155	21	1,042
1997	435	195	341	68	20	142	21	1,026
1998	448	196	360	68	17	140	23	1,055
1999	460	201	363	68	15	135	27	1,066
2000	465	196	383	73	15	137	29	1,100
2001	467	204	379	81	10	122	28	1,087
2002	..	..	..	88	10	105	29	..

1 Excluding passengers in taxis.
2 LUL: London Underground Limited; DLR:Docklands Light Railway.
3 LT: London Transport.

Source: Transport for London

Table 10.7

Household expenditure on travel, 2001/2002[1]

£ per week

	Average weekly household expenditure		
	London	South East[2]	United Kingdom
All motoring items	43.2	63.9	49.3
Transport Services	18.1	9.4	8.4
Rail and tube fares	3.9	3.2	1.9
Bus and coach fares	1.9	1	1.5
Combined fares season tickets and other[3]	7	0.6	1
Air and other travel and transport	5.2	4.6	4.1
All transport	61.2	73.3	57.7

1 The table includes children's expenditure.
2 Government Office Region.
3 The London figure includes spending on Travelcards available for use on bus, rail and underground services.

Source: Expenditure and Food Survey, Office for National Statistics

It is expected that the central London congestion charging scheme will result in the total falling further in 2003. The fall in car use was offset by a growth in rail use (both national rail and underground) to central London, with increases between 1981 and 2001 of 19 per cent and 13 per cent respectively. Bus travel declined from 105,000 in 1981 to 68,000 in 1997, but increased again by 29 per cent between 1999 and 2002).

Household spending

In the financial year 2001/02, average household expenditure on all forms of transport was £61.20 a week in London, compared with £73.30 for the South East and £57.70 for the UK as a whole. Household expenditure on motoring in London averaged £43.20 a week, compared with £63.90 in the South East (Government Office Region) and £49.30 across the United Kingdom as a whole (Table 10.7). This broadly reflected the difference in car use as shown in Table 10.3. Spending on transport services other than motoring, however, was substantially higher in London than in any other region of the United Kingdom, averaging £18.10 per household per week, compared with £9.40 in the South East and £8.40 in the United Kingdom. Again, this was a reflection of the greater use made of public transport in London. Expenditure on combined fares, such as travelcards, was much higher in London at an average of £7 per week compared to just £1 a week for the United Kingdom as a whole. This was not a new trend, but the level of spending on combined fares almost doubled after 1996-99, when only £3.80 a week was spent on combined fares in London. This change reflected a shift from single fares to travelcards rather than price increases.

Travel on London's Roads

There were approximately 13,600 kilometres of road in London, handling almost 30 billion vehicle kilometres. Transport for London was responsible for around 5 per cent of the busiest roads, accommodating around one third of the traffic, whilst the London boroughs were responsible for the remainder. Map 10.8 shows some of the main components of the transport infrastructure in London (the Transport for London Road Network (TLRN) or Red Routes, trunk roads and national rail lines).

Traffic Flow

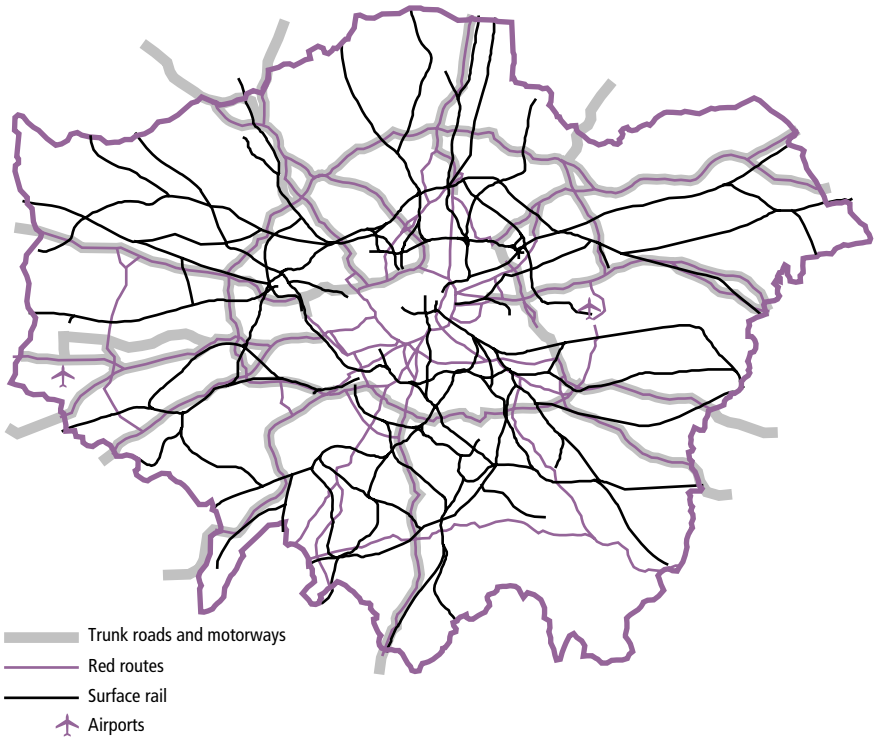
Information on radial traffic flows in London was obtained from counts at cordons around central London, Inner London and the boundary of London. The boundary cordon roughly corresponded to the Greater London boundary. The Inner London cordon enclosed an area roughly corresponding to the old London County Council area, but excluding much of the boroughs of Greenwich and Lewisham. The central London cordon enclosed an area within a radius of 1.5 to 2 miles of Aldwych and was approximately the area bounded by the mainline railway termini. Traffic counts are shown in Table A10.2 in the Appendix.

At the London boundary, traffic flow increased substantially over the last 20 years (by almost 40 per cent between 1980 and 2001). Cars made up the majority of traffic and hence followed the same trend, although 2001 witnessed a slight decline in numbers. The results for the Inner London cordon show traffic flow increasing between 1981 and 1990. There was then a decrease in flow between 1990 and 1993, followed by another increase until 1999. At the central London cordon, there was much more variability. However, from 1995 there was a steady decline in motor vehicles crossing the cordon (15 per cent fewer cars between 1995 and 2002).

The central London congestion charging scheme began on 17 February 2003. Drivers entering, or driving within, the central London zone (see Map 10.9) between 7.00 am and 6.30 pm Monday to Friday, excluding public holidays, now

Map 10.8

London's transport infrastructure, 2002



Source: Greater London Authority

have to pay £5 to do so. Initial figures for the first six weeks of operation showed a reduction in traffic in the central London zone of between 15 and 20 per cent. However, these figures are still being carefully monitored and the true impacts of the scheme are not expected not become clear until after a year in operation.

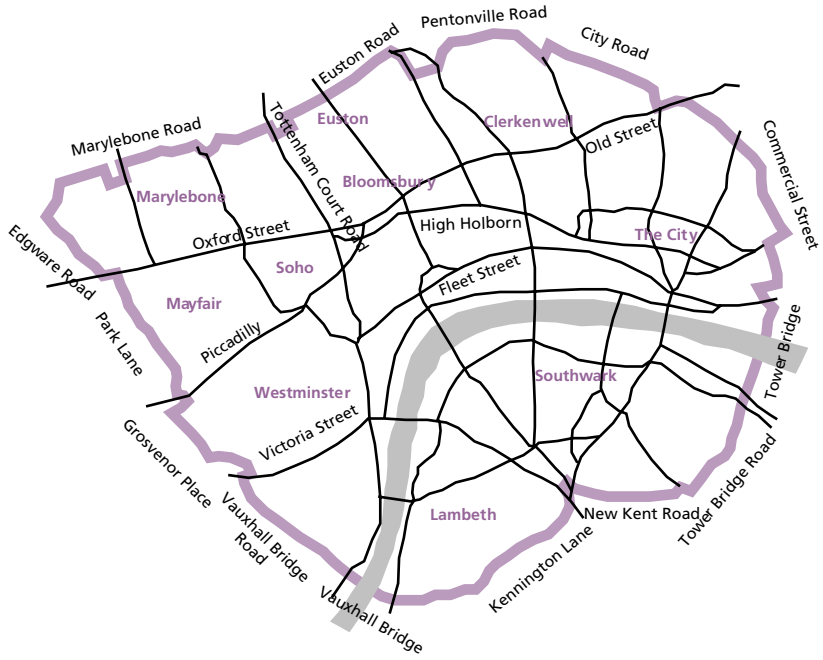
The number of motorcycles travelling into central London increased by over 40 per cent between 1993 and 2001, falling slightly in 2002. The number of taxi movements increased across all cordons, although taxi numbers were more concentrated in central London, where numbers increased by more than 30 per cent between 1981 and 2001, before falling in 2002.

Traffic Speed

Table 10.10 looks at average traffic speeds in different parts of London at different times of the day. With some fluctuations, average traffic speed fell

Map 10.9

Central London congestion charging zone, 2003



Source: Greater London Authority

Table 10.10

Average traffic speeds

Miles per hour

	1971-73	1974-76	1977-79	1980-82	1983-86	1986-90	1990-94	1994-97	1997-00	2000-03
Morning peak, 7.45 am to 9.15 am										
Central area[1]	12.9	14.2	12.3	12.1	11.8	11.5	10.3	10.9	10.0	9.9
Rest of Inner London	14.5	15.9	13.9	14.2	13.5	11.8	13.3	13.4	12.0	11.6
Outer London	20.0	19.3	18.7	19.6	18.8	18.4	17.5	17.0	18.2	..
London average	17.7	17.9	16.9	17.5	16.9	16.0	15.8	15.6	15.9	..
Evening peak, 4.45 pm to 6.15 pm										
Central area[1]	12.7	13.2	11.9	12.2	11.5	11.0	10.3	10.8	10.2	9.6
Rest of Inner London	14.5	15.5	13.5	14.1	13.1	11.6	13.2	12.8	11.4	11.3
Outer London	21.5	20.7	20.1	20.5	20.1	19.8	19.7	19.0	19.1	..
London average	18.3	18.3	17.2	18.0	17.2	16.5	17.0	16.6	16.2	..
Daytime off-peak, 10.00 am to 4.00 pm										
Central area[1]	12.6	12.9	12.6	11.6	11.9	11.0	10.6	10.9	10.0	9.0
Rest of Inner London	18.6	18.6	17.3	17.2	16.3	14.6	15.8	15.0	14.8	13.7
Outer London	26.2	26.1	25.0	24.9	25.3	22.7	22.8	22.7	21.9	..
London average	21.6	21.7	20.9	20.6	20.9	18.9	19.3	19.1	18.5	..

1 Covers an area within a radius of 1.5 to 2 miles of Aldwych and is approximately the area bounded by the mainline railway termini.

Source: Transport for London

steadily. By 2000-03 average speed was from 2 to 3 miles per hour (mph) lower since the earliest surveys were undertaken in 1971. Speeds in central London had fallen to between 9 and 10 mph in 2000-03, whilst in Inner London, outside the centre, average speed was just over 11 mph in the morning and evening peak periods, and under 14 mph during the daytime off-peak period.

Research showed that drivers were spending up to 50 per cent of their journey time in stationary traffic, which was costing London's economy between £2-4 million pounds per week. As noted above, the introduction of the central London congestion charging scheme was expected to reduce traffic congestion by between 10 and 15 per cent. Initial indications showed that average speed within the central London cordon had increased.

Cycling

Table A10.2 in the Appendix shows that after reaching a low of 35,000 in 1993, the number of cyclists crossing the central London cordon increased to reach 61,000 by 2002 – an increase of over 70 per cent. The number of cyclists crossing the Inner London cordon also increased between 1987 and 1999, although later data suggested that this trend might have reversed since 1999. The number crossing the Greater London boundary declined. This growth in trips in central and Inner London reflected the increasing difficulty of using a car in these areas. Cyclists were also aided by an improvement in the facilities provided, both at their destination (for example the provision of cycle racks) and on the road (for example cycle lanes).

From 2000, TfL monitored cycle use on the Transport for London Road Network (TLRN). This showed the rolling 12 month average of cycle use on the TLRN rose by approximately 14 per cent between 2000 and 2002.

Table 10.11

Road casualties

Numbers and percentages

	Fatal and serious casualties			Total casualties		
	Average 1994-98	2001	Percentage change 1994-98 to 2001	Average 1994-98	2001	Percentage change 1994-98 to 2001
Inner London	2,837	2,866	*1.0*	19,446	20,507	*5.5*
Outer London[1]	3,848	3,228	*-16.1*	26,235	24,004	*-8.5*
London[2]	6,684	6,101	*-8.7*	45,681	44,622	*-2.3*
South East (GOR)[3]	6,039	5,765	*-4.5*	44,918	44,213	*-1.6*
Great Britain	47,656	40,560	*-14.9*	319,928	313,309	*-2.1*

1 Excludes Heathrow Airport.
2 Includes Heathrow Airport.
3 Government Office Region.

Source: Department for Transport

Table 10.12

Casualties from traffic accidents in London[1]: by mode of travel, 2001

Numbers and Percentages

	Fatal and serious		Of which: Fatal		Slight		Total	
	2001	Percentage change 1994-98 to 2001	2001	Percentage change 1994-98 to 2001	2001	Percentage change 1994-98 to 2001	2001	Percentage change 1994-98 to 2001
Pedestrian	1,803	*-16*	128	*-6*	6,345	*-11*	8,148	*-12*
Pedal cycle	463	*-18*	21	*42*	2,855	*-26*	3,318	*-25*
Powered cycle	1,286	*38*	72	*114*	6,634	*29*	7,920	*30*
Car	2,126	*-17*	63	*14*	19,061	*-1*	21,187	*-3*
Public Service Vehicle	262	*2*	6	*100*	2,207	*9*	2,469	*9*
Other vehicles[2]	161	*-28*	10	*67*	1,419	*-7*	1,580	*-10*
Total casualties	6,101	*-9*	300	*21*	38,521	*-1*	44,622	*-2*

1 Includes Heathrow Airport.
2 Includes goods vehicles and taxis.

Source: Department for Transport

Road Safety

During 2001 over 37,000 road traffic accidents were reported to the Metropolitan and City Police within Greater London. These accidents resulted in 44,622 casualties (Table 10.11), of whom 300 were killed, 5,801 were seriously injured and 38,521 were slightly injured.

The Government's Road Safety Strategy Tomorrow's Roads: safer for everyone aims for a substantial improvement in road safety over the next 10 years. The Department for Transport wanted to achieve a 40 per cent reduction in the number of people killed or seriously injured in road accidents, a 50 per cent reduction in the number of children killed or seriously injured and a 10 per cent reduction in the slight casualty rate (the number of people slightly injured per 100 million vehicle kilometres) by 2010, compared with the average for 1994-98.

Between 1994-98 and 2001 the number of fatal and serious casualties occurring on London's roads declined by almost 9 per cent. This compared with a reduction of 15 per cent nationally. Outer London achieved a 16 per cent reduction, whilst in Inner London the totals increased by 1 per cent. The number of children killed or seriously injured reduced from an annual average of 935 over the 1994-98 period to 717 in 2001, a fall of 23 per cent.

Table 10.12 indicates that pedestrians represented the largest proportion of fatal casualties in 2001 (43 per cent). Pedestrians were also 29 per cent of serious casualties and suffered 16 per cent of slight injuries. Between 1994-98 and 2001 pedestrian casualties declined by 12 per cent. Injuries to pedal cyclists also declined over this period by 25 per cent, although the number of cyclists that were killed increased from an average of 15 in 1994-98 to 21 in 2001. In 2001 car occupants represented 21 per cent of fatalities, 36 per cent of serious casualties, and 49 per cent of all slight casualties. The number of injuries sustained by this group declined by 3 per cent. The number of fatal and serious injuries declined by a much larger amount (17 per cent), perhaps reflecting improved protection for vehicle occupants over this period, reducing the severity of injury.

In 2001, riders of powered two wheel vehicles, including motorcycles and scooters, constituted a quarter of fatal casualties. Three quarters of the increase in fatal casualties over this period was due to the increase in deaths to powered two-wheeler riders. The overall casualty numbers for this group rose by 30 per cent over this

Table 10.13

Bus traffic in London

Millions and percentages[1]

	Passenger journeys	Passenger kilometres	Vehicle kilometres
1981	1,080	4,039	276
1991/92	1,149	3,996	296
1998/99	1,267	4,315	339
1999/00	1,296	4,429	348
2000/01	1,354	4,709	357
2001/02	1,430	5,128	373
Percentage change 1981 to 2001/02	*32.4*	*27*	*35.1*

1 A bus trip from origin to destination may comprise more than one bus journey.

Source: Transport for London

Table 10.14

Train operating companies in the Network South East area[1], 2001/02

Millions and percentages

	Train kilometres (millions)		Passenger kilometres (millions)		Passenger journeys (millions)		Percentage change in journeys
Company	1998/99	2001/02	1998/99	2001/02	1998/99	2001/02	1998/99 to 2001/02
Chiltern Railways	7	8	476	563	10	12	*16*
South Central	28	28	2,309	2,624	98	112	*14*
Connex South Eastern	29	28	2,977	3,232	122	131	*8*
First Great Eastern	12	13	1,633	1,785	54	56	*4*
c2c	6	6	733	799	25	27	*11*
Silverlink	10	10	902	1,000	34	36	*5*
South West Trains	33	39	3,688	4,076	123	138	*13*
Thames Trains	12	13	888	1,007	31	36	*17*
Thameslink	11	11	1,144	1,340	34	41	*20*
WAGN	18	19	1,734	2,054	56	64	*15*
Total	165	175	16,484	18,480	587	655	*12*

1 Commuter lines and local services, does not include main Intercity companies.

Source: Strategic Rail Authority

period. However, the increase in distance travelled by motorcycle and the decrease in distance travelled by car since 1994-96 would have had a large impact on these figures.

Table A10.3 in the Appendix gives the number of fatal and serious casualties in each borough in 2001 by type of road user.

Travel by Public Transport

Bus

The number of journeys made by bus passengers in London increased by over 30 per cent during the last 20 years, from 1,080 million journeys in 1981 to 1,430 million journeys in 2001/02. The growth in the two years 1999/2000 to 2001/02 was particularly strong, with an increase in trips of over 10 per cent. The reductions in bus fares and improved service levels (7 per cent increase in the two years to 2002) were mainly responsible for this growth. Between 1991/92 and 2001/02 passenger kilometres grew slightly faster than passenger numbers, indicating a slight increase in average trip length. (Table 10.13)

National Rail

Between 1998/99 and 2000/01 passenger journeys on the 10 train operating companies serving London and the south east of England (the area covered by Network South East companies, see Notes and Definitions) increased by 12 per cent (Table 10.14). However, variations between the different companies exist; increases ranged from a 4 per cent increase for Great Eastern to a 20 per cent increase for Thameslink. Passenger kilometres grew by the same amount, but with less variation between companies (ranging from 9 per cent to 18 per cent). Train kilometres increased by around 6 per cent over this period. However, 60 per cent of this change was the result of an increase in train kilometres provided by a single operator (South West Trains).

Table 10.15

Underground rail traffic: London

Millions and percentages

	Passenger journeys	Passenger kilometres	Train kilometres
1981	541	4,088	50
1991/92	751	5,895	53
1998/99	866	6,716	61
1999/00	927	7,171	63
2000/01	970	7,470	64
2001/02	953	7,451	65
Percentage change 1981 to 2001/02	*76.2*	*82.3*	*30.0*

Source: Transport for London

London Underground

Passenger journeys on London underground increased by 76 per cent between 1981 and 2002, with a similar growth in passenger kilometres. Between 2000/01 and 2001/02, the number of passenger journeys fell very slightly, by 2 per cent (Table 10.15). This reduction was likely to be partly a result of economic conditions and a fall in tourist numbers following the terrorist attack on 11 September 2001. However, the reduction in bus fares may have encouraged people to switch modes, affecting the figures. Train kilometres increased by 30 per cent between 1981 and 2001/02, and 23 per cent since 1991/92.

Table 10.16

Docklands Light Railway

Millions

	Passenger kilometres	Passenger journeys	Train kilometres
1987/88	15.4	3.3	0.5
1988/89	32.0	6.6	0.8
1989/90	37.8	8.5	0.7
1990/91	33.0	8.0	0.8
1991/92	32.3	7.9	1.0
1992/93	32.5	6.9	1.1
1993/94	39.4	8.3	1.1
1994/95	55.0	11.5	1.5
1995/96	70.0	14.5	2.0
1996/97	85.6	16.7	2.3
1997/98	109.9	21.4	2.4
1998/99	138.7	27.6	2.5
1999/00	152.2	30.9	2.6
2000/01	195.3	38.4	2.9
2001/02	206.9	41.3	2.9

Source: Docklands Light Railway

Docklands Light Railway

The Docklands Light Railway (DLR) began operation in 1987. In its first full year of operation, 1988/89, 6.6 million passenger journeys were made. This increased by more than 6 times to 41.3 million in 2001/02 (Table 10.16). A large increase in usage occurred in 2000/01, with journeys almost 25 per cent higher than the previous year. This was almost certainly due to the opening of the Lewisham extension.

By 2002 the DLR ran from Stratford, Beckton and Lewisham in east and south east London to Bank in central London. In March 2003, work began on an extension of the DLR route to London City airport. This is scheduled for completion in late 2005 and a further extension to Woolwich Arsenal is also being planned with an expected opening date of 2007.

Croydon Tramlink

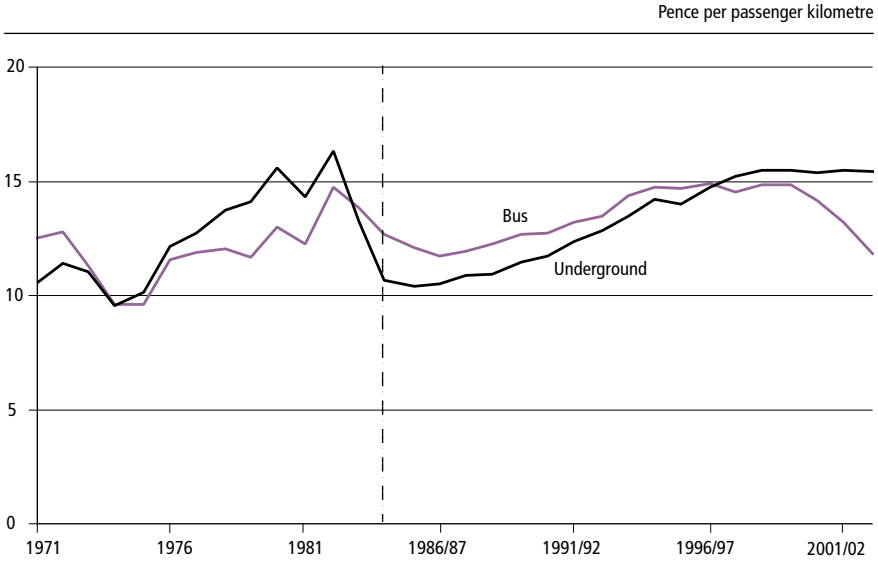
Croydon Tramlink became operational in May 2000. Trams served the centre of Croydon and were divided into three lines to provide a service from Wimbledon to Elmers End, Croydon to Beckenham Junction and Croydon to New Addington. The number of passenger journeys increased by almost 5 million from 13.3 million in 2000/01 to 18.2 million in 2001/02. The service was very reliable with 99 per cent of scheduled services operating in 2001/02.

River Transport

Reliable estimates of passenger numbers for London's river services are only available from 1999 when Transport for London took over the service. Since then, the number of tickets sold to people travelling on the Thames had increased from 1.6 million in 2000/01 to 1.75 million the following year.

Figure 10.17

Bus and Underground fares[1,2]

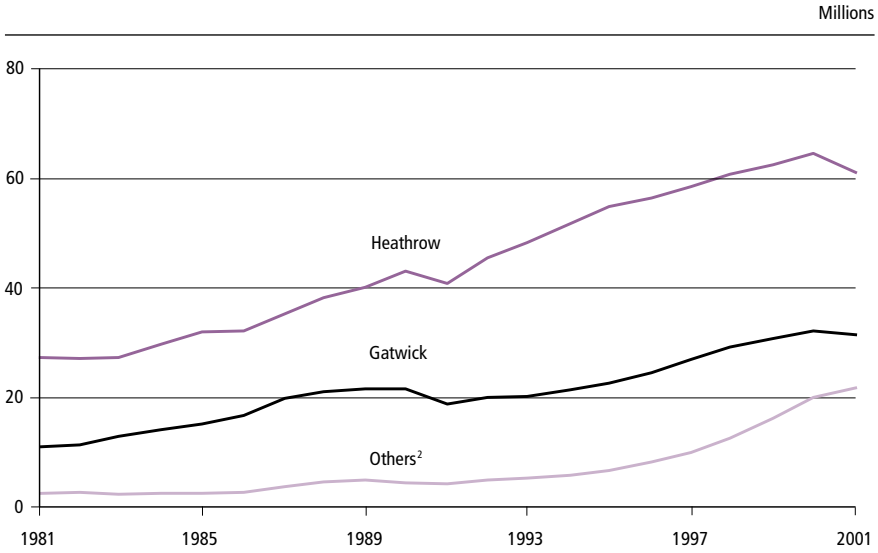


1 At 2001/02 prices.
2 The 2002/03 figures are estimates based on data up to the end of February for buses and end of December for Underground. More recent Underground figures have been distorted by the effects of the Central Line closure.

Source: Transport for London

Figure 10.18

Passengers handled at London area airports[1]



1 Includes all revenue and non-revenue passengers, whether terminating or in transit.
2 Luton, Stansted, Southend, Westland Heliport, City Helistop (closed from September 1986) and London City (opened October 1987)

Source: Civil Aviation Authority

Taxis

In 2001, over 20,000 taxis (Hackney carriages, commonly known as black cabs) were licensed to ply for hire in London, with 24,000 drivers licensed to drive these vehicles. Transport for London was in the process of licensing the Private Hire sector following changes to the regulations. By 2002, over 2,100 private hire operators were successfully licensed; on 1 April 2003 Transport for London began licensing individual drivers. The licensing of private hire vehicles is planned to begin in the autumn of 2003. These measures should help to ensure that the public has a consistent minimum standard of service provided by the private hire industry.

Fares

Figure 10.17 shows the real cost (after removing inflationary effects) per passenger kilometre of travelling by bus and underground in London. Between 1985/86 and 1999/2000 both bus and tube fares rose steadily. However, from 2000 tube fares were frozen in real terms and average bus fares have fallen. The fare structure for bus trips has been simplified into a two-zone flat fare structure, with the price frozen in absolute terms. In addition, the average cost of daily and weekly bus tickets fell in absolute terms. This resulted in a 19 per cent reduction in cost per passenger kilometre for bus users and a 0.6 per cent increase for underground passengers between 1999/2000 and 2002/03. It is interesting to note that bus fares are now the same price in real terms as in 1971.

International Links

Between 1991 and 2000 the number of passengers using London's airports increased by over 80 per cent. However, in 2001 passenger numbers were 2 per cent lower than the previous year. This was probably due in part to the slowdown in the world economy, compounded by the reduction in international travel following the terrorist attack on 11 September 2001, as well as the impact of the Foot and Mouth outbreak in 2001.

Table 10.19

Freight traffic in London: goods lifted

Million tonnes and percentages

	Road goods vehicles[1]		Rail[2]		Water[3]		Air[4]
	Destination London	Great Britain	Destination London[3,5]	Great Britain[6]	Internal traffic River Thames	Port of London sea-going traffic	
1988	104	1,653	5.8	150	2.9	53.7	0.9
1989	101	1,704	5.7	143	3.2	54.0	1.0
1990	113	1,645	4.9	138	2.0	58.1	1.0
1991	82	1,505	4.5	136	1.8	52.8	0.9
1992	75	1,463	3.9	122	1.8	48.9	1.0
1993	80	1,523	4.4	103	1.9	50.9	1.1
1994	91	1,597	4.3	97	2.8	51.8	1.3
1995	90	1,609	..	101	2.2	51.4	1.4
1996	88	1,628	..	102	1.7	52.9	1.4
1997	97	1,643	..	105	1.7	55.7	1.6
1998	92	1,630	..	102	1.7	57.3	1.7
1999	89	1,567	..	92	1.7	52.2	1.8
2000	92	1,593	..	95	1.9	47.9	1.8
2001	99	1,581	5.8	94	1.9	50.7	1.6
Percentage change							
1991 to 2001	*21*	*5*	*30*	*-31*	*6*	*-4*	*78*

1 Excludes goods carried by light vans.
2 From 1990, data collected on a financial year basis, i.e. 1990/91.
3 Data refer to domestic services only.
4 Cargo handled at Heathrow, Gatwick, Luton, Southend, Stansted and London City airports.
5 Data on freight arriving in London are not available from the Department for Transport for 1995 onwards, following the privatisation of rail freight operators. The estimate for 2001 was produced for the Strategic Rail Authority (SRA) and quoted in SRA analysis of rail freight in London and South East.
6 Great Britain data are collected on a financial year basis covering domestic and international traffic. The figure for 1994 was affected by industrial action.

Source: Department for Transport

Figure 10.18 shows that the growth in passenger numbers was lowest at Heathrow airport over the period 1991 to 2000, even with its increase of about 60 per cent. There was very little spare runway capacity at this airport, and growth could only be accommodated by increasing the size of planes or the occupancy rate. Since 1995, Gatwick has seen an increase in passenger throughput of around 40 per cent, whilst the other London airports (excluding Heathrow) have increased passenger numbers by over 200 per cent. This has been mostly due to the success of the low-cost airlines, principally located at Stansted and Luton. Heathrow clearly remains the dominant airport among all the London area airports, handling 53 per cent of passengers using the south east airports, compared with 27 per cent for Gatwick, and 19 per cent for the other London airports.

In 1994 the Channel Tunnel opened. This connection provided a direct link to the continental European high-speed rail network for passengers and freight. In 2001, Eurostar carried 6.94 million passengers, which represented 60 per cent of the London-Paris market and around 45 per cent of the London–Brussels route. The completion of the first phase of the Channel Tunnel Rail Link (from the tunnel to Southfleet in north west Kent) is on schedule to be in operation in 2003; it is estimated that it will reduce travel times from London to the tunnel from 70 minutes to 50 minutes.

Freight

Road freight tonnage delivered in London increased during the 1980s, before falling back sharply during the recession of the early 1990s (Table 10.19). There was some recovery after 1993, although the level in 2001 was still lower than in 1988. Road freight tonnage delivered throughout Great Britain showed a smaller variation over this period.

Table 10.20

Telecommunications quality: top ten European cities[1]

Rank

	2001	2002
London	1	1
Paris	2	2
Frankurt	3	3
Stockholm	4	4
Berlin	7	5
Zurich	8	6
Brussels	9	7
Amsterdam	5	8
Munich	10	9
Helsinki	6	10

1 The score is derived from the number of nominations for best, second best and third best.

Source: European Cities Monitor 2002, Cushman & Wakefield Healey & Baker

Data on rail freight carried by region has not been published since the privatisation of the railways in 1994. However, estimates for London were provided for 2001, which showed a similar level of rail freight carried in 2001 compared with 1988. This compared with a 60 per cent reduction for Great Britain as a whole.

The movement of waterborne freight on the river Thames fell by two fifths between 1988 and 1992. Since then, with the exception of a rise in 1994, the flows had remained relatively constant at around 2 million tonnes per annum.

The amount of air freight landed at London-area airports almost doubled between 1991 and 2001. Over 70 per cent of air freight was carried in the holds of passenger aircraft and therefore those airports which carried the largest number of passengers also carried the

Table 10.21

Household expenditure on telephone and postal services, 2001/02[1]

£ per week

	Average weekly household expenditure
Telephone services (excluding mobile phones)	
London	7.80
United Kingdom	6.30
Mobile phone services	
London	6.90
United Kingdom	3.60
Postage	
London	0.70
United Kingdom	0.50

1 The table includes children's expenditure.

Source: Expenditure and Food Survey, Office for National Statistics

most air freight. In 2000, London's airports carried the majority (77 per cent) of UK air freight, with Heathrow carrying 56 per cent of the UK total.

Communications and new technology

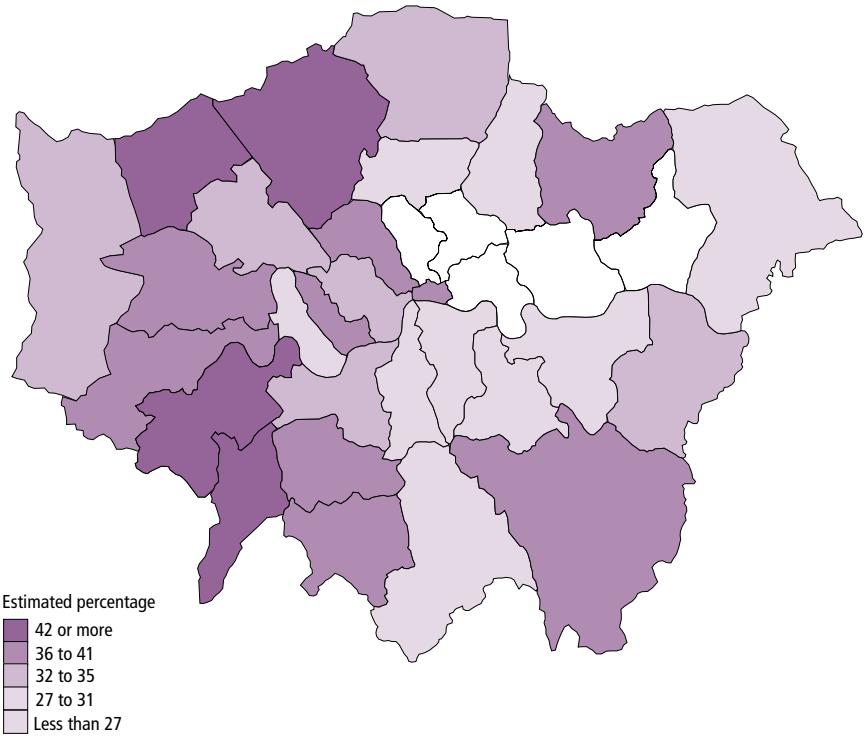
In June 2001 there were 105,000 employee jobs in the post and telecommunications industry, about 2.6 per cent of the total number of employee jobs in the capital, and up from 93,000 in 1997. June 2001 was still before the full extent of the dot.com hangover had worked through the market. Table A10.4 gives the number of employees in the post and telecommunications industry in each borough in 2001.

In Healy Baker's 2002 survey of over 500 business leaders from nine European countries, London was once again ranked top city for 'e-business', Paris and Frankfurt placed number two and three (Table 10.20).

Since the last Focus on London in 2000 there has been further consolidation in the cable market. There are now only two cable TV companies supplying the residential market, Telewest and NTL, with NTL's franchises covering well over half of London boroughs. These companies provided cable television, telephone, and now broadband communications services, though their networks were not of uniform quality and did not provide all services to all areas. All but 0.3 per cent of Londoners are within reach of a broadband enabled BT exchange. In January 2002, London had more than double the broadband take up rate of the next nearest region (the South East). In the City, the West End and Docklands there are many other telecommunications supply companies offering high capacity leased lines or private circuits to corporate customers. It is estimated that internet traffic approaching 90 gigabits per second passed through London (E-London and the London Plan, GLA, 2002).

Map 10.22

Households connected to the internet, January 2001



Source: Greater London Authority

In terms of consumer take up mobile telephones have now become mass-market products. Table 10.21 shows that spending by households in London on mobile phones was roughly double the UK average in 2001/02. Weekly spending on mobile phones more than tripled between 1998 and 2001/02. Levels of home access to the internet in London were also among the highest of any region in 2001, at just under 50 per cent. Map 10.22 shows home internet access rates at borough level in January 2001. Household connection rates in Kingston and Sutton were more than double those of Hackney, and Barking and Dagenham. The most recent figures from OFTEL suggest that the level of home internet access, after exponential growth in the late 90s, appears to be slowing down to lower rates of take-up.

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This chapter deals with public services not covered in earlier chapters (see Environment, Housing, Education and Training, Living in London and Travel and Communications). It covers Health, Care and the Emergency services.

Health

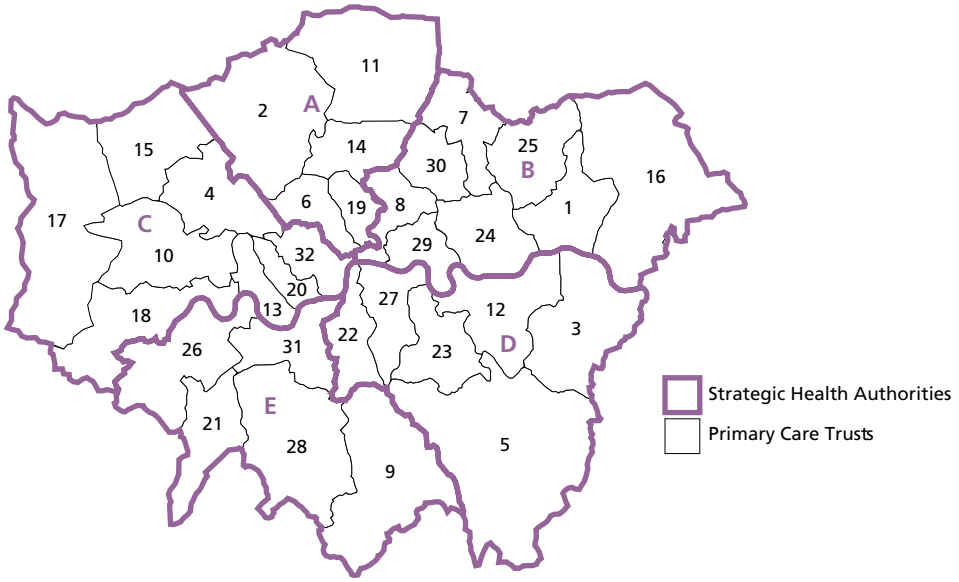
People's health depends largely on factors outside the health service. Fixed factors, such as sex, age and ethnicity, affect people's susceptibility to disease and external factors, such as education, income, employment, housing, and transport, also influence health status.

Health Service organisation

The most recent re-organisation of the National Health Service (NHS) took effect on 1 April 2002. The 95 former English Health Authorities were abolished and 28 larger Strategic Health Authorities (StHAs) established. The structural re-organisation also established 302 local Primary Care Trusts (PCTs) across England. The PCTs took over many of the responsibilities of the former Health Authorities. In London there are five StHAs and 31 PCTs (see Map 11.1), in almost every case co-terminous with local authority boundaries. PCTs are the agencies within the NHS responsible for commissioning health services for their populations. They are also responsible for general practitioners, dentists, pharmacists and opticians in their area. The PCTs, in partnership with other agencies, have responsibility for promoting the health of the local population and reducing inequalities through the Local Strategic Partnerships (LSPs). The government has set three-year targets in its Priorities and Planning Framework for 2003-2006. PCTs must prepare local delivery plans (LDPs) to achieve these targets. Within the

Map 11.1

London Strategic Health Authorities and Primary Care Trusts, 2001



Primary Care Trusts	
1 Barking and Dagenham	17 Hillingdon
2 Barnet	18 Hounslow
3 Bexley	19 Islington
4 Brent	20 Kensington and Chelsea
5 Bromley	21 Kingston
6 Camden	22 Lambeth
7 Chingford, Wanstead and Woodford	23 Lewisham
8 City and Hackney	24 Newham
9 Croydon	25 Redbridge
10 Ealing	26 Richmond and Twickenham
11 Enfield	27 Southwark
12 Greenwich	28 Sutton and Merton
13 Hammersmith and Fulham	29 Tower Hamlets
14 Haringey	30 Walthamstow, Leyton and Leytonstone
15 Harrow	31 Wandsworth
16 Havering	32 Westminster

Strategic Health Authorities	
A	North Central London
B	North East London
C	North West London
D	South East London
E	South West London

Source: Department of Health

framework of the LDP, PCTs commission hospital- and community-based health services and are also responsible for developing the quality of primary health care received by patients. StHAs' main functions include supporting PCTs and NHS Trusts in delivering the NHS Plan, building capacity, and 'performance management' – ensuring that PCTs and NHS Trusts fulfil their obligations and meet national and regional targets.

The data in this chapter relate to the former Health Authorities as the information predates the new structures.

Hospital activity

There were only small changes in hospital activity in London between 1999/2000 and 2000/01: the number of day-case admissions rose by less than 3 per cent (a rise which has slowed to one-tenth the average annual rise between 1987/88 and 1997/98), and the number of ordinary finished consultant episodes fell slightly (Table 11.2). A single hospital admission may include a number of episodes if the individual is consecutively under the care of a number of consultants during that admission. The number of beds available rose by 3.5 per cent, while the number of cases treated per bed fell from 42 to 41. In addition, attendances in both outpatient and accident and emergency fell slightly.

Hospital activity data for 2000/01 for individual NHS Trusts in the area covered by the London Regional Office are shown in Table A11.1 in the Appendix. There is considerable variation between Trusts in the size and nature of their activity. Four Trusts had daily availability of more than 1,000 beds (Guy's and St Thomas's Hospital, Hammersmith Hospitals, Barts and the London, and Forest Healthcare). Guy's and St Thomas's Hospital and Barts and the London NHS Trusts also recorded the highest number of outpatient attendances and Hammersmith

Table 11.2

Hospital activity[1]: all specialities, London

	1999/2000	2000/01
Ordinary admissions		
Finished consultant episodes[2] (thousands)	1,163	1,157
Average daily available beds[3](thousands)	29	30
Cases treated per bed[3](numbers)	42	41
Day case admissions (thousands)	509	523
Outpatient attendances (thousands)	7,977	7,958
Accident and emergency attendances (thousands)	2,584	2,548

1 See Notes and Definitions.
2 Excluding healthy newborn babies.
3 Excluding cots for healthy newborn babies.

Source: Department of Health

Table 11.3

NHS hospital waiting lists[1]

	London			England		
	2000	2001	2002	2000	2001	2002
Months waited (percentages)						
Less than 6 months	*72.0*	*71.6*	*74.5*	*74.2*	*75.6*	*76.7*
6 months but less than 12 months	*22.1*	*22.4*	*22.3*	*21.1*	*20.2*	*21.2*
12 months or longer	*5.9*	*6.0*	*3.2*	*4.7*	*4.2*	*2.1*
Total waiting (thousands)	139.9	135.1	139.2	1,024.7	995.1	1,021.6
Average number admitted from waiting list per month, 3 month average (thousands)	36.3	32.4	31.9	312.5	283.0	269.6
Mean waiting time (months)[2]	4.5	4.6	4.2	4.3	4.2	4.0
Median waiting time (months)[2]	3.1	3.2	3.0	3.0	2.9	2.9

1 The figures relate to people on the waiting lists on 31 March who were waiting for admission as either an in-patient or a day case and the length of time they had to wait to date. Figures are based on area of residence. See Notes and Definitions.
2 Average time patients had been waiting at 31 March. The mean and median are different types of 'average'. See Notes and Definitions.

Source: Department of Health

Hospitals recorded the highest number of day case admissions. Mental Health Trusts on the other hand do not record any day case admissions and also treat a much lower than average number of cases per bed, because of the longer length of hospital stay that mental illness may necessitate.

Nine NHS walk-in centre pilot sites opened in London during 2000. NHS walk-in centres are nurse-led and offer primary care services without an appointment. All nine centres offer assessment and treatment for minor illness and minor injuries, and advice and information about other services. Additional services offered vary by centre.

Hospital waiting lists

The overall number of people on hospital waiting lists in London Health Authorities increased by three per cent from 2001 to 2002 (Table 11.3), following a fall of just over 3 per cent the previous year. Despite the overall increase, a higher proportion (74.5 per cent) had been waiting less than six months compared with 71.6 per cent a year previously. The proportion who had been waiting for 12 months or longer decreased from 6.0 per cent of the total in 2001 to 3.2 per cent in 2002, though this is still higher than the proportion for England as a whole (2.1 per cent). These changes resulted in falls in mean and median waiting times in 2002, to levels which were only slightly higher than those for England generally. Table A11.2 in the Appendix shows the waiting list information for individual Health Authorities in London. All but four health authorities registered falls in the number on the waiting list from 1999 to 2002. The proportion waiting between six and twelve months decreased in seven health authorities, remained largely unchanged in three, but rose in Barking and Havering, Brent and Harrow, Croydon and Redbridge, and Waltham Forest. The proportion waiting for more than a year fell in every health authority in London.

Table 11.4

General practitioners[1], dentists and opticians, 2001[2]

Numbers

	London Health Authorities number of practitioners	London Health Authorities average list size[3]	England average list size[3]
General Medical Practitioners	3,962	1,985	1,841
General Dental Practitioners	3,190	913	1,285
Opthalmic Practioners	1,630	..	..

1 See Notes and Definitions.
2 As at 1 October 2001 for doctors and dentists and 31 December 2001 for opthalmic practitioners.
3 Figures for dentists relate to average registrations per dentist.

Source: Department of Health

General practitioners

There were 3,962 General Medical Practitioners (GPs) in London in 2001, an increase of less than one per cent since 1998. The average list size, at 1,985 per GP in London, was higher than the average of 1,841 for England as a whole (Table 11.4), but has fallen by 2.5 per cent since 1998. All London Authorities except Lambeth, Southwark and Lewisham exceeded the England average (Table A11.3 in the Appendix). The proportion of practices with a single GP in 2001 was much higher in London (42 per cent) than in England generally (29 per cent), though both have fallen slightly. London also had a higher proportion of GPs who were aged 65 or over – 4 per cent, compared with

Table 11.5

Prescriptions, 2001

	Prescription items dispensed (millions)[2]	Percentage of prescription items exempt from charge[3]	Number of prescription items per head of population[4]	Average net ingredient cost[1]: Per head of population[4] (£)	Average net ingredient cost[1]: Per prescription item (£)	Number of pharmacies (at 31 March)
London	68.9	*86.2*	9.3	103.6	11.2	1,776
England	587.0	*85.4*	11.7	121.8	10.4	9,765

1 Net ingredient cost is the cost of medicines before any discounts and does not include any dispensing costs or fees.
2 Figures relate to NHS prescription items dispensed by community pharmacists, appliance contractors and dispensing doctors, and prescriptions submitted by prescribing doctors for items personally administered.
3 Figures relate to items dispensed by community pharmacists and appliance contrators only. Items dispensed by dispensing doctors and personal administration are not analysed into exempt, non-exempt or other categories and are therefore excluded. Personally administered items are free of charge.
4 Based on 2001 mid-year population projections (base year=2000). These projections are based on data which are not consistent with 2001 Census population data.

Source: Department of Health

2 per cent in England – but the same proportion of younger GPs – 10 per cent were aged under 35 in London and nationally. An increasing proportion of GPs are women reaching 51 per cent in Kingston and Richmond, with an average of 41 per cent in London compared with 33 per cent in England in 2001. London has fewer part-time GPs (16 per cent) compared with the average for England (19 per cent).

On average, London general medical practices employed fewer practice staff in 2001 than practices across England generally – over 5 whole-time equivalent staff per practice compared with more than 7. However, the number of employed staff per GP is the same in London as it is in England generally (2.3 whole-time equivalent staff per GP), because of the higher proportion of single-surgery GPs in London.

There were 3,190 General Dental Practitioners in London in 2001, a slight increase from 1998. Average list size has fallen and was about 70 per cent of the average for England in 2001. In part this is because people in London are less likely to be registered with an NHS dentist: on 1 October 2002, only 40.5 percent of people in London were registered compared with 47.7 in England as a whole. There were 1,630 ophthalmic practitioners holding contracts with London Health Authorities in 2001.

Table 11.6

NHS hospital and community health service staff, 2001[1]

Whole-time equivalents and rates

	Whole-time population		Rates per 10,000 equivalents	
	London	England	London	England
Hospital medical staff	12,784	59,920	17.8	12.2
Consultants	4,402	21,954	6.1	4.5
Other career grades	742	5,355	1.0	1.1
Registrar group	3,405	12,098	4.7	2.5
Other junior grades	3,882	18,887	5.4	3.8
Other hospital grades	354	1,627	0.5	0.3
Hospital dental staff	324	1,457	0.5	0.3
PHM and CHS medical staff[2]	311	1,660	0.4	0.3
CHS dental staff[2]	168	1,018	0.2	0.2
Community nursing and health visiting staff	9,449	66,971	13.1	13.6
Health visitors	1,636	10,186	2.3	2.1
District nurses	1,636	10,734	2.3	2.2
Other community nursing staff	6,178	46,051	8.6	9.4
Midwives (hospital and community)	2,813	18,048	3.9	3.7
Hospital nursing staff – unqualified	8,215	78,130	11.4	15.9
Hospital nursing staff – qualified	34,562	195,213	48.1	39.7
Other direct care staff[3]	23,721	145,694	33.0	29.6
Administration and estates staff	31,330	188,526	43.6	38.3
Other management and support staff[4]	8,858	80,557	12.3	16.4
All directly employed staff	132,535	837,196	184.4	170.2

1 At 30 September.
2 PHM: Public Health Medicine; CHS: Community Health Service.
3 Includes scientific, therapeutic and technical staff, healthcare assistants and nursing, midwifery and health visiting learners.
4 Includes support staff, ambulance staff and other staff including those employed by Special Health Authorities, other statutory authorities and other centrally based services.

Source: Non-Medical Workforce Census and Medical and Dental Workforce Census, Department of Health

Prescriptions

A total of 68.9 million prescription items were dispensed in London in 2001 (Table 11.5). The average net ingredient cost was £103.60 per head of the population in London, lower than the England average of £121.80 per person. However, because the number of prescription items per head of population is lower in London than in England as a whole, the average net ingredient cost per item is higher (£11.20 compared with £10.40 for England). Eighty six per cent of prescription items dispensed in London were exempt from charges. The equivalent information is shown for each Health Authority in London in Table A11.4 in the Appendix. The number of prescription items per person dispensed in 2001 was highest in the East London and City Health Authority (10.7 per person) but this was still below the England average (11.7 items per person). The percentage of prescription items exempt from charges was also highest in East London and the City (90 per cent), followed by Lambeth, Southwark and Lewisham (89 per cent), and lowest in Kensington and Chelsea, and Westminster (80 per cent).

It should be noted that the prescription data are recorded for the Health Authority of the area where the prescription was dispensed. Thus some prescription items will be included which do not relate to the resident population. This can be expected to have an inflationary effect on the rate for London as a whole, and affects some Health Authorities more than others.

NHS hospital and community health service staff

Table 11.6 shows the number of medical, nursing and other staff employed by the NHS in 2001. On average, London NHS Trusts employed about the same number of health visitors, midwives and district nurses per 10,000 population as England, but substantially more qualified hospital nursing staff. There were also considerably more hospital medical staff in London, both consultants and doctors in training. It has to be borne in mind that many hospitals in London also treat people from outside the capital, while these rates are based on resident population only.

Table 11.7

Immunisation of children[1]

Percentages

	1991/92		2001/02	
	London	England	London	England
Diphtheria	*87*	*93*	*89*	*94*
Tetanus	*87*	*93*	*89*	*94*
Pertussis (whooping cough)	*83*	*88*	*88*	*93*
Polio	*87*	*93*	*88*	*94*
MMR (Measles, mumps and rubella)	*83*	*90*	*75*	*84*
Hib[2] (meningitis)	..	..	*88*	*93*

1 Data relate to children reaching their second birthday during 1991/92 and 2001/02 and immunised by that birthday.
2 Haemophilius influenza type b.

Source: Department of Health

Communicable diseases

The proportions of children immunised by their second birthday in London and in England in 1991/92 and 2001/02 are shown in Table 11.7. Rates have increased overall since 1991/92 in both London and the country as a whole, except for MMR. Rates in London are still several percentage points lower than national averages for other immunisations.

Coverage for the MMR vaccine in London has fallen from 83 per cent in 1998/99 to 75 per cent in 2001/02. A fall in MMR coverage was also seen in England. These decreases are likely to be due to unsubstantiated adverse publicity about the vaccine. Table A11.5 in the Appendix shows the 2001/02 figures for the London Health Authorities. Immunisation rates are lowest in East London and the City, and highest in Redbridge and Waltham Forest and Barking and Havering, where uptake rates are at or above the England average. Coverage of MMR continued to fall in all but one health authority, with a drop from 84 per cent in 1998/99 to 64 per cent in 2001/02 in Kensington and Chelsea and Westminster. Croydon, previously the area with lowest immunisation rates, was the only Health Authority to achieve an increase in uptake for most vaccines over the three years, and with no fall in MMR uptake. However, it should be noted that major re-organisation occurred in primary care during this period.

The gradually increasing numbers of Londoners suffering from food poisoning through the early and mid 1990s peaked in 1998, and has fallen a little since then. Notifications of food poisoning, which had increased by more than 50 per cent between 1992 and 1998, fell by 11 per cent between 1998 and 2001. Tuberculosis continues to rise, although the increase in notifications between 2000 and 2001 was very small. Notifications of hepatitis A have fallen while hepatitis B have risen over the past decade.

Social services

Since 1998, the delivery and organisation of social services have been subject to the Government's modernisation agenda. This introduced performance indicators and targets for both children's and adults' services, through the Personal Social Services Performance Assessment Framework. In 2002, the Department of Health published the first

Table 11.8

Staff of local authority social services departments, 2001[1]

	Whole-time equivalents		Rates per 10,000 population	
	London	England	London	England
Area office/fieldwork staff	15,800	108,500	22.0	22.1
Residential care staff	5,800	53,800	8.1	10.9
Day care staff	4,100	29,500	5.8	6.0
Central/strategic HQ staff	3,000	18,800	4.2	3.8
Other staff not included elsewhere	100	1,400	0.1	0.3
Total	28,900	212,000	40.2	43.1

1 At 30 September.

Source: Department of Health

sets of social services 'star' ratings. These cover all councils with social services responsibilities in England using all the evidence available at that time, including performance indicators. In November 2002, 5 London Authorities received a three star rating, 6 received two stars, 19 received one star and 3 received a zero rating.

The Quality Protects programme was introduced to encourage improvements in the standards of care offered to looked after children and other children requiring social services support. Issues of child protection were thrown into stark relief by the Victoria Climbé murder and trial. The report of the subsequent public inquiry, chaired by Lord Laming, was published in January 2003, and the Government is to give a full response in the form of a Green Paper.

Table A11.6 in the Appendix gives summary figures for selected social services activities in each borough.

Social services staff

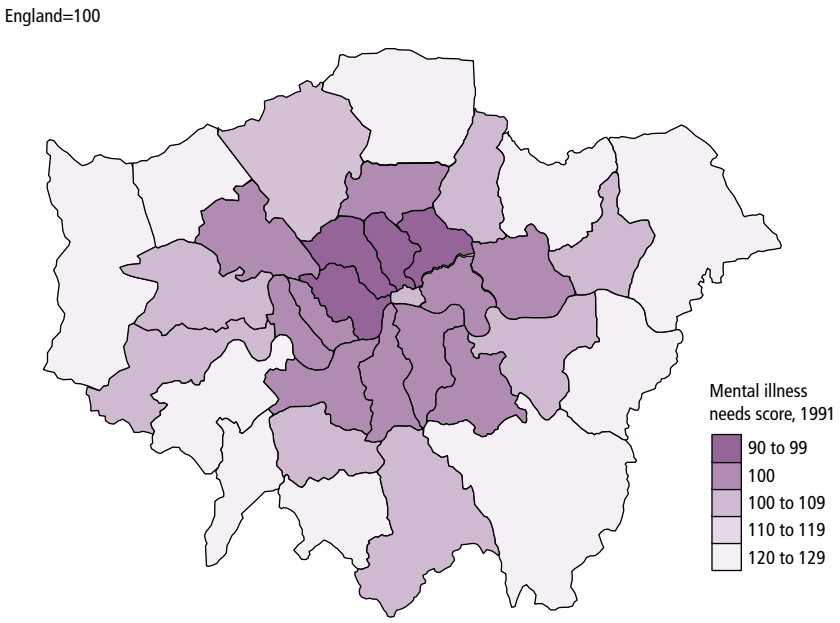
Table 11.8 shows the number of social services staff employed by local authorities. In 2001, London boroughs employed area office/fieldwork and day care staff at a similar rate per head of population to the England average, but relatively fewer residential staff. Day care and residential services are often bought from independent agencies, as are many home care services, and the staff of these organisations are not included in these figures.

Mental illness needs index

The prevalence of mental illness is higher in parts of London than in England generally. Map 11.9 shows the mental illness needs index, calculated to show the difference in need from the England average of 100. The score is based on factors associated with mental illness, such as social isolation, poverty, unemployment, sickness and poor quality housing, derived from the 1991

Map 11.9

Mental illness needs index



Source: Department of Health

Table 11.10

Non-residential community care, 2001[1]

	London	England
Number of clients receiving home care[2]	63,228	413,085
Percentage of total who are aged 65 or over	*82*	*83*
Rate per 1,000 population aged 75 or over[2]	100	75
Number of contact hours per household per week[3]	8.1	7.6
Number of clients receiving meals per 1,000 population aged 75 or over[2]	44	31
Number of clients receiving day care[2]	27,953	205,914
Percentage of total	*47*	*52*
Elderly people aged 65 or over		
People with physical and/or sensory disabilities aged 18 to 64	*11*	*11*
People with learning disabilities aged 18 to 64	*21*	*23*
People with mental illness aged 18 to 64	*20*	*13*
Others aged 18 to 64[4]	*1*	*1*

1 Number of clients on the books to receive services at 31 March 2001.
2 Data based on information from Referrals, Assessments and Packages of Care Return Protocol 2.
3 Unrevised data based on DH return HH1, care purchased or provided by local authorities during a survey week in September 2001. Revised estimates were published on 28 March 2003 in the statistical bulletin Community Care Statistics 2002: Home help services for adults, England.
4 Includes substance misusers and other vulnerable people.

Source: Department of Health

Census. As the map shows, boroughs such as Hammersmith and Fulham, Westminster, Camden, Islington, Lambeth, Hackney and Tower Hamlets have scores around 20 per cent higher than the average for England.

Home care for adults

In 2001, over 63,000 people in London were receiving home care (Table 11.10). Relative to the population aged 75 or over, provision was considerably higher in London (100 per 1,000 people aged 75 or over) than in England as a whole (75 per 1,000). In both London and England, there has been a continuing trend of concentrating more contact hours of home care on fewer households. In 2001, the average number of contact hours per household helped (8.1 per week) was slightly higher in London than in England as a whole (7.6 hours per week), but both averages were 30 per cent higher than the averages in 1998.

The proportion of older people receiving meals purchased or provided by local authorities was higher in London in 2001 than in England, at a rate of 44 per 1,000 population aged 75 or over, compared with 31 per 1,000 for England as a whole.

In 2001, nearly 28,000 people were receiving day care in London. The proportion of day care clients aged 65 or over was lower in London than in England as a whole (47 per cent compared with 52 per cent). The proportion of people with mental illness aged 18 to 64, receiving day care was considerably higher in London than in England as a whole (20 per cent and 13 per cent respectively).

Residential care for adults

London has far fewer places available in residential and nursing care homes relative to its population than England as a whole. As Table 11.11 shows, there were 51 places available in residential homes for adults at 31 March 2001 per

Table 11.11

Residential care, 2001[1]

	Nursing care		Residential care	
	London	England	London	England
Total number of places available[2]	18,080	186,830	29,340	341,180
Places available per 10,000 population (aged 18+)	32	48	51	88
Residents supported by local authorities[3]	8,800	71,850	25,510	187,220
Per 10,000 population (aged 18+)	15	19	45	48
Percentage supported outside the authority	42	20	37	16

1 At 31 March.
2 Registered beds for nursing homes.
3 Residential care excludes unstaffed (group) homes.

Source: Department of Health

Table 11.12

Day care places available for children under eight[1]

Thousands and percentages

	Local authority provided and registered day-care places			
	Day nurseries (under 5)	With child-minders (under 8)	Playgroups (under 5)	Out of school clubs (5 to 7)
Inner London[2,3]				
2000	20	11	9	24
2001	23	11	8	23
Outer London[2,3]				
2000	22	30	26	10
2001	22	28	26	12
London[2]				
2000	43	41	35	34
2001	45	38	34	35
London as a percentage of England[2]				
2000	*16*	*13*	*10*	*24*
2001	*16*	*13*	*10*	*23*

1 At 31 March each year.
2 Includes estimates (where borough data were unavailable).
3 Inner and Outer London refer to the former ILEA area and the rest of London respectively. See Notes and Definitions.

Source: Department for Education and Skills

Table 11.13

Children and young people on child protection registers, 2002[1]

	Number of children and young people on registers[2]	Rate per 10,000 children and young people aged under 18	Percentage of children and young people in each category of abuse				
			Neglect	Physical injury	Sexual abuse	Emotional abuse	Multiple/Not recommended
Inner London[3]	2,410	38	*48*	*15*	*6*	*17*	*14*
Outer London[3]	2,090	21	*45*	*12*	*9*	*18*	*16*
London	4,500	27	*46*	*13*	*7*	*18*	*15*
England	25,700	23	*39*	*16*	*11*	*18*	*16*

1 At 31 March.
2 Includes a number of unborn children.
3 Inner and Outer London refer to the former ILEA area and the rest of London respectively. See Notes and Definitions.

Source: Department of Health

10,000 population aged 18 and over in London, compared with 88 per 10,000 in England as a whole. There were 32 nursing home places in London per 10,000 population, while England as a whole had 48 per 10,000.

London boroughs also support fewer residents in residential/nursing care homes relative to their population than for England as a whole. At 31 March 2001, there were 60 residents in both residential and nursing homes supported by London boroughs per 10,000 population aged 18 and over, compared with 67 per 10,000 for all English authorities. The proportion of supported residents placed outside their local authority was more than twice as high for London boroughs than for authorities in England as a whole, reflecting the lower provision of care home places within the capital.

Day care for children under eight

The Government announced its National Childcare Strategy in 1997. This was designed to increase the number of places available in day care by targeting funding on provision, particularly in more disadvantaged areas, and by assisting families with costs through the Working Families Tax Credit (replaced by the Working Tax Credit from April 2003). Between 2000 and 2001, the number of day nursery places for children under 5, increased in London by 4 per cent (Table 11.12). However there was a reduction of the number of places with childminders for children under 8 in London. The number of places in out-of-school clubs (for children aged between 5 and 7) also decreased between 2000 and 2001 in Inner London, but increased in Outer London over the same time period. Table 11.12 also shows a decrease in the number of playgroup places (for under 5's) in Inner London.

Child protection registers

There were 4,500 children on the child protection registers in London in 2002 (Table 11.13). The figure in Inner London in 2002 represented 38 per 10,000 children aged under 18, considerably higher than the rate in Outer London (21 per 10,000) and in England as a whole (23 per 10,000). Nearly half the cases in London were due to neglect – 48 per cent in Inner London and 45 per cent in Outer London, compared with 39 per cent in England as a whole. On the other hand, sexual abuse was a relatively less common factor in London than nationally.

Table 11.14

Children looked after by local authorities, 2001[1]

Rates and percentages

	Inner London[2]	Outer London[2]	London	England
Number of children looked after per 1,000 population	9.3	5.0	6.6	5.2
Type of placement (percentages)				
Foster homes	*64.3*	*63.6*	*64.0*	*65.1*
Children's homes and hostels.[3]	*20.2*	*18.0*	*19.2*	*14.5*
Other	*15.5*	*18.4*	*16.8*	*20.4*

1 Figures as at 31 March.
2 Inner and Outer London refer to the former ILEA area and the rest of London respectively; see Notes and Definitions for Chapter 7.
3 Includes secure units, homes and hostels. With effect from year ending March 2001 some establishments previously classified as residential schools are now included as homes.

Source: Department of Health

Table 11.15

Police personnel, 2002[1]

Numbers and rates

	London[2]		Combined metropolitan county areas[3]		England and Wales	
	Numbers	Per 100,000 population	Numbers	Per 100,000 population	Numbers	Per 100,000 population
Police officers	26,987	365.9	31,040	271.2	127,267	240.4
Civilian staff	10,706	145.2	12,793	111.8	58,022	109.6

1 31 March for police force areas.
2 1991 figures were: 29,043 police officers and 14,123 civilian staff. However, boundary changes in April 2000 have affected the number of police officers from the Metropolitan police force.
3 Excluding London (Comprises Greater Manchester, Merseyside, South Yorkshire, Northumbria, West Midlands and West Yorkshire).

Source: Home Office

Children looked after

The number of children looked after has been increasing in both London and England as a whole since 1994. At the end of March 2001, nearly 11,000 children were being looked after by London boroughs and nearly 59,000 children by all authorities in England. The number of children looked after by Inner London boroughs in 2001 relative to their population was considerably higher than for England as a whole. This stood at 9.3 per thousand population aged under 18 in Inner London, compared with 5.2 per thousand of the population for England. The rate in Outer London was very similar to that in England at 5 per thousand of the population (Table 11.14). Similar proportions of "looked after children" in London and England as a whole were placed in foster homes in 2001 – 64 per cent and 65 per cent respectively.

Emergency services

Police

Police territorial responsibility in London is divided between the Metropolitan and City of London forces. Other police presence in London includes the British Transport Police and the Royal Parks Constabulary. The responsibilities of the

Table 11.16

Police services

Numbers and percentages

	Metropolitan Police	City of London Police
Crime, 2001/02		
Crimes recorded by the police	1,057,360	10,098
Percentage detected	*14*	*34*
Arrests[1]	179,358	4,398
Motoring offences, 2000		
Prosecutions	169,114	14,406
Written warnings	3,436	129
VDRS[2] notices	3,221	266
Fixed penalties[3]	260,736	9,753
Breath tests, 2001[4]		
Roadside screening tests	65,100	1,100
Percentage positive or refused	*19*	*26*
Other services, 2001		
Firearm certificates		
New applications granted	313	0
Renewals granted	1,141	5
Certificates on issue at 31 December	4,767	19
Shotgun certificates		
New applications granted	1,738	0
Renewals granted	6,678	8
Certificates on issue at 31 December	26,940	26
Firearms dealers registered at 31 December	152	1

1 Arrests for the year April 2001 to March 2002; Metropolitan Police – notifiable offences only, City of London Police – total offences.
2 Vehicle Defect Rectification Scheme.
3 Excludes 5.3 million penalty charge notices issued by local authorities.
4 Court proceedings data has been used.

Source: Home Office

City force are, of course, confined to the historic 'square mile'; the Metropolitan Police Service (MPS) polices the rest of the capital. The MPS is organised into 33 territorial commands, which are effectively coterminous with the 32 London Boroughs, but with Heathrow Airport a separate command. These arrangements have been instituted since *Focus on London 2003* was prepared, at which time the MPS had responsibility for some areas outside Greater London.

The pressures and complexities of policing the capital are reflected in the greater numbers of police and civilian staff employed. Table 11.15 shows that, relative to its population, London has about one and a half times the complement of police officers compared with England and Wales as a whole, and about one and a third times the complement of civilian staff. This partly reflects the problems of policing urban areas, but also follows from the additional services provided by the two London forces. Some of these services are national in their nature, for instance providing security for people such as the royal family, ministers of government and diplomatic staff, and for places such as the Houses of Parliament, the royal palaces, embassies and the law courts. The London forces also have to provide for the safety of the millions of workers and visitors who come into the capital every day, so the population they serve is considerably greater than just the resident population.

Racially motivated or aggravated crimes are regarded as especially serious, both by law and in the sight of the majority of citizens. The 2001 Census (using a new self-classification scheme for ethnic origin) revealed that about 29 per cent of the capital's population describe themselves as belonging to visible minority ethnic groups.

Table 11.16 shows the types the work carried out by the two London forces. Over a million crimes were recorded in 2001/02, though the percentage detected by the Metropolitan Police was

Map 11.17

London Fire Brigade stations, 2003

Source: London Fire and Emergency Planning Authority

Table 11.18

Fire Brigade staffing and costs, 2001[1]

Numbers and Rates

	London Fire Brigade		Combined metropolitan counties[2]		Great Britain	
	Total	Rate per 100,000 population	Total	Rate per 100,000 population	Total	Rate per 100,000 population
Fire Brigade staff (numbers)						
Operational[3]						
Officers	661	9	1,122	10.1	5,060	8.7
Firefighters	5,032	68.2	8,237	74	47,297	81.5
Control staff	97	1.3	304	2.7	1,685	2.9
Non-uniformed	785	10.6	1,471	13.2	6,912	11.9
Fire Brigade costs (£ million)[4]						
Current expenditure	290	3.9	372	3.3	1,828	3.2
Capital expenditure	6	0.1	13	0.1	65	0.1

1 At 31 March 2001.
2 Excluding London (comprises Greater Manchester, Merseyside, South Yorkshire, Tyne and Wear, West Midlands and West Yorkshire).
3 The ranks of firefighter, leading firefighter and sub officer have been included under the heading of 'Firefighters'. All other ranks have been counted as 'Officers'.
4 Data relate to 2000/01.

Source: Office of the Deputy Prime Minister, The Scottish Executive and The National Assembly for Wales

only 14 per cent. Of the 65,100 roadside breath tests made by the Metropolitan Police, just under a fifth were positive or refused.

Fire services

The London Fire and Emergency Planning Authority (LFEPA) runs the London Fire Brigade, enforces laws on fire safety, advises on fire safety and carries out various emergency-planning activities. It aims to reduce the number of fires, deaths and injuries caused by fire, and the number of false alarm and hoax calls by 20 per cent, by 2005.

All emergency calls are received at the Headquarters in Lambeth. Across London the service is structured into teams, one for each borough, managed by a borough commander. There are 112 fire stations as shown in Figure 11.17, and one river station.

In March 2001 the London Fire Brigade employed about 6,600 people (Map 11.18), a reduction of about 5.5 per cent since March 1999 and continuing the trend from the mid-90s. The fall since 1999 in London is similar to the reduction in the other metropolitan areas of around 2.5 per cent. The number of firefighters per 100,000 population was lower in London in March 2001 than in the other metropolitan areas and in Great Britain as a whole (68.2 per 100,000 population compared with 74.0 and 81.5 respectively).

Table 11.19 shows that in 2001 the London Fire Brigade attended almost 185,000 incidents. These incidents are comprised of around 55,000 fires and about 51,300 special services such as road accidents, floods or people trapped in lifts. It also responded to many false alarms and, although many such calls are made with good intent, over 66,000 were in response to automatic alarms going off in non-domestic properties unnecessarily or hoax calls. The number of false alarm calls arising from hoax calls and calls of good intent have

Table 11.19

London Fire Brigade: analysis of incidents

Numbers

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Fire Incidents					
Primary Fires[1]	19,650	19,098	21,385	21,744	22,113
Secondary Fires	26,970	21,971	16,160	26,392	32,464
Chimney Fires	125	102	101	86	87
Special Services[2]	49,008	47,599	50,562	52,654	51,306
Fire False Alarms					
Malicious	14,204	13,083	12,827	11,801	12,604
Good Intent	19,476	16,284	14,523	14,213	15,508
Due to apparatus	39,649	42,778	47,019	49,558	50,841
Total Incidents	169,082	160,915	172,577	176,448	184,923

1 See Notes and definitions.
2 Special service incidents recorded for the 12 months beginning April.

Source: Home Office

Map 11.20

London Ambulance Service stations, 2003

Source: London Ambulance Service

reduced between 1997 and 2001, but the number of false alarms due to apparatus has increased over the same time period. Reducing the number of false alarms is one of the Authority's priority targets.

Rises in the number of fire incidences recorded in both 2000 and 2001 was due in part to the increased number of grass fires which happened in the spring and summer during these periods. The number of property fires has remained steady between 1999 and 2001, as has the number of special services calls, which remains well below the 1995 figure of over 67,000.

Table A11.7 in the Appendix gives a breakdown of special service calls. These calls cover a wide range of incidents and make up a third of all the incidents attended by the LFB. They include life-saving or rescue operations, and other humanitarian services in the public interest. As noted in the table, a change in policy in 1997 resulted in a substantial reduction in attendances to effect an entry to premises.

The LFEPA also carries out important fire safety work, including fire safety inspections of business premises and public buildings. The Authority is actively involved in working to improve fire safety in the home through its community fire safety programme. This involves a range of projects including firefighters at local fire stations working directly with their local communities to promote fire safety through education and by helping in practical ways (e.g. by fitting smoke alarms).

London Ambulance Service

The London Ambulance Service NHS Trust provides services for the whole of London, working, in 2001/02, through seven operational sectors (Map 11.20). Its origins are similar to those of the Fire Brigade, developing from the public health and emergency service responsibilities of local authorities. The London Ambulance Service was separated from the Greater London Council in 1974, some 10 years earlier than the Fire Brigade, when the relationship of ambulance services with hospitals, and the Health Service in general, was recognised to be stronger than with the fire and police services (which remained largely under local municipal control). The London Ambulance Service is the smallest of the three emergency services in London with about 3,800 staff. The numbers of front line ambulance staff have increased since staff funding was last increased in 1995, by around 32 per cent to 2,500 in 2003; emergency calls increased by nearly 26 per cent in the same period. The Service's costs in 2001/02 totalled close to £136 million, equivalent to £18.91 per head of population. This was similar to the costs of £931.6 million in the whole of England, that is £18.94 per head. These rates have converged steadily since 1997/98, when the London figure was £14.75 per head and the England one £13.33. The rate of

Table 11.21

Ambulance services: by priority of patient journey, 2001/02

Thousands and rates

	London Ambulance Service	England
Journeys (thousands)		
Emergency	553	3,092
Urgent	61	970
Planned	702	14,490
Total	1,317	18,552
Rate per 100,000 population		
Emergency	7.7	6.3
Urgent	0.9	2.0
Planned	9.8	29.5

Source: Department of Health

Table 11.22

London Ambulance Service: response times

Thousands and percentages

	Category A[1] calls			Category B/C[2] calls		
	Total number of emergency calls[1] (thousands)	Percentage of responses within target: 8 minutes	14 minutes	Total number of emergency calls[3] (thousands)	Percentage of responses within target: 8 minutes	14 minutes
2000/01	153.7	*41.8*	*83.3*	546.3	*35.2*	*79.7*
2001/02	172.5	*57.2*	*85.7*	540.7	*39.6*	*78.5*

1 Category A calls are classified as conditions which are immediately life threatening.
2 Category B calls are classified as conditions which though serious are not immediately life threatening, Category C calls are classified as conditions which are not immediately life threatening or serious.
3 Emergency calls resulting in response/ambulance arriving at scene of incident.

Source: Department of Health

emergency incidents per 100,000 population – 7.7 in 2001/02, compared with 6.3 in England as a whole – demonstrates the additional need in London for highly qualified 'paramedics' (Table 11.21). This is offset by what appears to be less reliance on the London Ambulance Service for journeys carrying a lower priority. The Service now has 667 paramedics (falling back from a high of 896 in 1998) and almost 400 ambulances. On average they respond to almost 2,000 emergency calls every day.

In 1996 the government introduced new procedures which required ambulance services to prioritise all emergency calls into either immediately life threatening calls (Category A) or other emergency calls (Category B/C). Ambulance services are expected to reach 75 per cent of Category A calls within 8 minutes; for Category B/C calls, urban ambulance services including London's, should respond to 95 per cent of incidents within 14 minutes. For both Category A and Category B/C calls the first help on the scene may in some cases be a paramedic on a motorbike or in a car, or a "first responder" (a doctor or possibly police/fire brigade personnel) called out by the ambulance control room. Such responses may count towards the 8 minute standard, but an ambulance able to transport the patient will nevertheless be expected to arrive within 14 minutes unless the control room decides that an ambulance is not required. London ambulance services introduced call prioritisation from 1 April 2000 and by November 2002 they were meeting the target of 75 per cent of Category A calls in 8 minutes. An innovative addition to first responders in London was the introduction of a pedal-cycle responder operating in the congested Leicester Square area. London ambulance service also provide telephone advice to less serious calls as an alternative to an ambulance, and alternative response vehicles dealing with patients who require assistance only but do not need to be conveyed to hospital.

Table 11.23

Work of the magistrates' courts, 2001[1]

Days and percentages

	London[2]	England and Wales
Average time from offence to completion for defendants (days)[3]	103	109
Convicted (per cent)[4]	*52*	*54*
Use of custody (per cent)[5,6]	*18*	*14*
Use of fine (per cent)[5]	*38*	*30*
Use of community sentences (per cent)[5,7]	*28*	*33*

1 For indictable offences (including triable-either-way).
2 Metropolitan Police and City of London Police force areas except for the 'offence to completion' figure which relates to London boroughs only.
3 Data are for 2002.
4 Convictions as a percentage of total proceeded against. The latter includes those committed for trial to the Crown Court or who had proceedings discontinued or charges withdrawn.
5 As a percentage of total sentenced.
6 Detention & training order, detention in a young offender institution and unsuspended imprisonment.
7 Community rehabilitation order, Supervision order, Community punishment order, Attendance centre order, Community punishment & rehabilitation order, Curfew order, Reparation order, Action plan order.

Source: Offending and Criminal Justice Group, Home Office; Lord Chancellor's Department, Home Office

By mid-1999, improvements in computer and telephonic systems enabled delays due to callers giving wrong or incomplete addresses to be reduced. This particularly affected long delays in response (over 20 minutes) thus reducing clinical risk. It is expected that a full automatic vehicle location system will be introduced during 2003, which should further improve response times. These advances in the service have been accomplished against a

Table 11.24

Work of the Crown Court, 2001[1]

	London[2]	England and Wales
Average waiting time (weeks)[3]	15.2	14.8
Average hearing time (hours)[3]	7.8	4.9
Convicted (per cent)[3,4]	*67*	*76*
Use of custody(per cent)[5,6]	*65*	*63*
Use of fine (per cent)[5]	*4*	*3*
Use of community sentences (per cent)[5,7]	*25*	*27*

1 For indictable offences (including triable-either-way).
2 Metropolitan Police and City of London Police force areas.
3 Courts situated in the Inner London area, data is for 2002.
4 Convictions as a percentage of the total number who were tried including those who pleaded guilty at the outset.
5 As a percentage of total sentenced.
6 S90-92 of the Powers of Criminal Courts (Sentencing) Act 2000, detention & training order, detention in a young offender institution and unsuspended imprisonment.
7 Community rehabilitation order, Supervision order, Community punishment order, Attendance centre order, Community punishment & rehabilitation order, Curfew order, Reparation order, Action plan order.

Source: Offending and Criminal Justice Group, Home Office; Offending and Criminal Justice Group, Home Office

background of increasing work as evidenced by the rise in numbers of calls requiring the attendance of an ambulance. Table 11.22 shows that the numbers of emergency calls resulting in an ambulance arriving at the scene of an incident increased by 50 per cent in London between 1992/93 and 2001/02. Much of the increase was the result of a substantial increase in demand at the weekend, so that Saturdays and Sundays are now as busy as weekdays

Courts and probation services

The magistrates' courts in London are organised into 22 magistrates' courts' committee areas: the City of London Magistrates' Court, an Inner London Area and each of the 20 Outer London boroughs (those London boroughs outside the former Inner London Education Authority area).

Table 11.23 shows that in 2002, the average waiting time of defendants from offence to completion of court proceedings at magistrates' courts in London was less than that for the whole of England and Wales. The percentage of those proceeded against who were convicted was slightly lower in London than in England and Wales overall in 2001. There were some differences in sentencing practice with greater use of fines and custodial sentences and less of community sentences in London. These are consistent with the patterns of earlier years and may, at least partly, reflect differences in the types and severity of offences for which people were convicted.

Table 11.24 gives details of the work of the Crown Court. In 2002, the average waiting time was slightly higher in London than in England and Wales as a whole. The average hearing time in London in 2002 was 7.8 hours, around 60 per cent longer than the England and Wales average of 4.9 hours. The percentage convicted were lower in London than for England and Wales in 2001 (2002 for Inner London courts), though the sentencing practice following conviction was very similar to that of England and Wales.

The work of the London County Courts for 1991 and 2002 is summarised in Table 11.25. The numbers of both bankruptcy and winding-up petitions tend to follow the economic cycle, rising during periods of recession. In 2002, they were lower than in 1991, reflecting the change in the economic climate, although bankruptcy petitions were approaching the numbers seen in 1991. More than three quarters of proceedings were disposed of by small claims compared with less than three fifths in 1991. Substantially more claims were made and injunctions granted under the Family Law Act 1996 in 2002 compared with 1991 (under earlier legislation).

The work of the Probation Service in London is summarised in Table A11.8 in the Appendix. It shows the number of people commencing supervision in 2001 by type of order. The distribution by order in London was broadly similar to the national picture, though there was slightly greater use of community punishment and rehabilitation orders in the capital and less use of other supervision.

Table 11.25

Work of the London County Courts

Number

	1991	2002
Proceedings started		
Claims Issued	280,836	163,584
Bankruptcy petitions		
County Courts	246	968
Royal Courts of Justice	11,522	10,155
Winding-up petitions		
County Courts	16	36
Royal Courts of Justice	10,947	5,760
Adoption applications	748	863
Divorce, nullity and judicial separation petitions		
County Courts	12,202	14,344
Probate Registry of the Family Division	8,683	8,502
Proceedings disposed of		
By trial	4,549	3,277
By Small Claims	6,369	11,723
Applications made and injunctions granted (Domestic and Family)[1]		
Applications made		
County Courts	2,115	5,284
Probate Registry of the Family Division	567	1,939
Injunctions granted		
County Courts	3,842	6,953
Probate Registry of the Family Division	551	2,004

1 Domestic Violence and Matrimonial Proceedings Act 1976 (1991 figures) and Part IV of the Family Law Act 1996 (2001 figures).

Source: Court Service

This chapter notes the progress made during the first three years of the Greater London Authority (GLA) and summarises the results of the three major elections (GLA, parliamentary and London borough) held in London during that period.

The Mayor and Assembly

The Greater London Authority is formed from a directly elected Mayor and a separately elected Assembly. The first Mayor and Assembly were elected on 4 May 2000. They took up their responsibilities on 3 July 2000, having been allowed time to prepare for their new work and to make senior appointments.

The Mayor's responsibilities are summarised in Figure 12.1. Having been elected Mayor, Ken Livingstone will hold office for four years (until 2004). He oversees the organisations that deal with transport (Transport for London – TfL), policing (the Metropolitan Police Authority – MPA), the London Fire Brigade (the London Fire and Emergency Planning Authority – LFEPA) and economic development (the London Development Agency – LDA). He also has a duty to promote the health of Londoners. The Mayor sets the annual budget for the GLA, TfL, the MPA, the LFEPA and the LDA. In 2002/03 the total budget amounted to £4.7 billion. He appoints the boards of TfL and the LDA, some members of the MPA following nomination by the Assembly and the LFEPA following nomination by the Assembly and the London boroughs. The Mayor also appoints a cultural strategy group, covering a wide range of interests including sport, architectural heritage and performing arts.

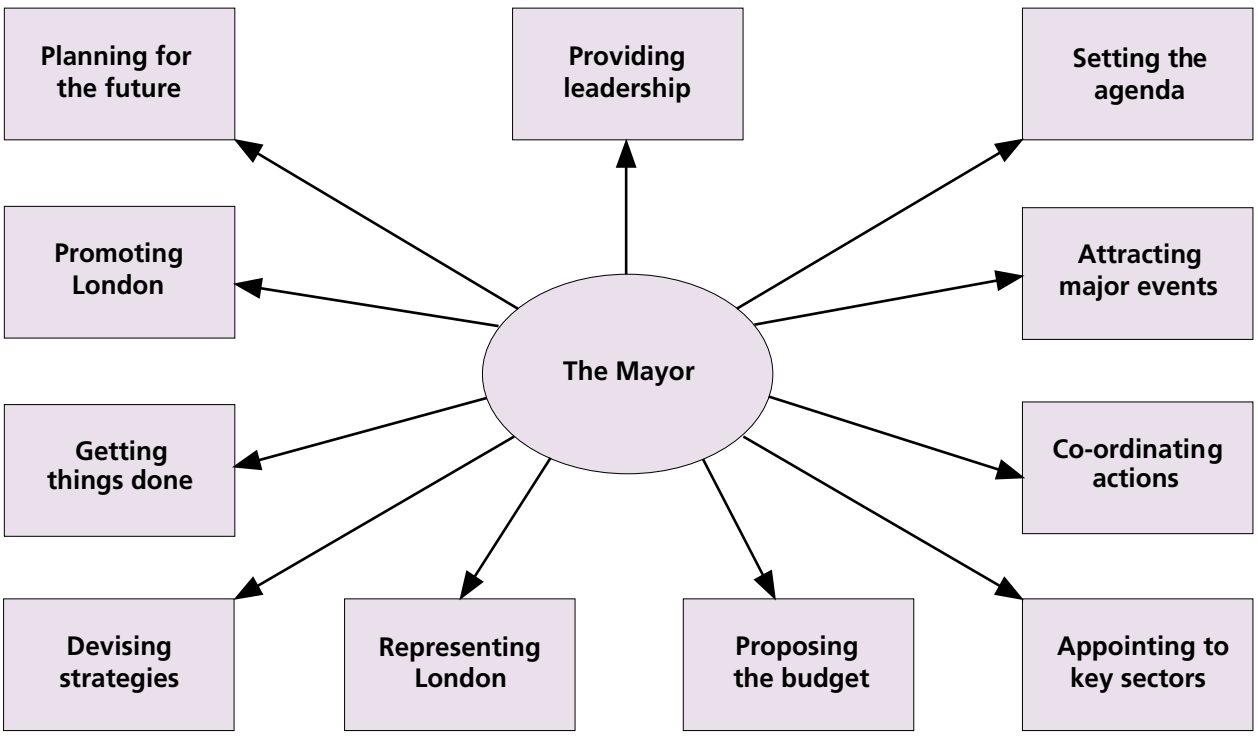
The Mayor has a statutory duty to produce eight strategies for London. These cover economic development, transport, air quality, culture, biodiversity, waste, noise and spatial development (the London Plan). Four of these strategies have been published following public consultation, and the remaining four (culture, noise, waste and the London Plan) are due for publication during 2003.

In addition to the eight statutory strategies, the Mayor has identified other policy areas on which to focus including energy, children, 'e-London', rough sleepers, alcohol and drugs, and domestic violence.

The Assembly's role is primarily scrutiny (Figure 12.2). It has the power of veto over the budget and the capacity to carry out enquiries into policy issues facing London. There are 25 members of the Assembly – 14 are elected in 'first-past-the-post elections' in the 14 Assembly constituencies, and the remaining 11 are elected on a London-wide basis from party lists and independent candidates. The method of selection of the London-wide members is designed to ensure that the overall allocation of seats reflects the distribution of total votes across the

Figure 12.1

The Role of the Mayor



Source: White Paper, A Mayor and Assembly for London, Government Office for London

capital. The present Assembly is formed from nine Conservative, nine Labour, four Liberal Democrat and three Green members. The next elections for the Assembly will also be held in 2004.

The GLA Group

The GLA has a pool of permanent staff supporting the work of the Mayor and Assembly. The cost of the GLA itself was around £50 million in 2002-03, most of which was met by central government grant, but a small amount was raised by a precept on London council tax payers (about 13p per week for band D properties).

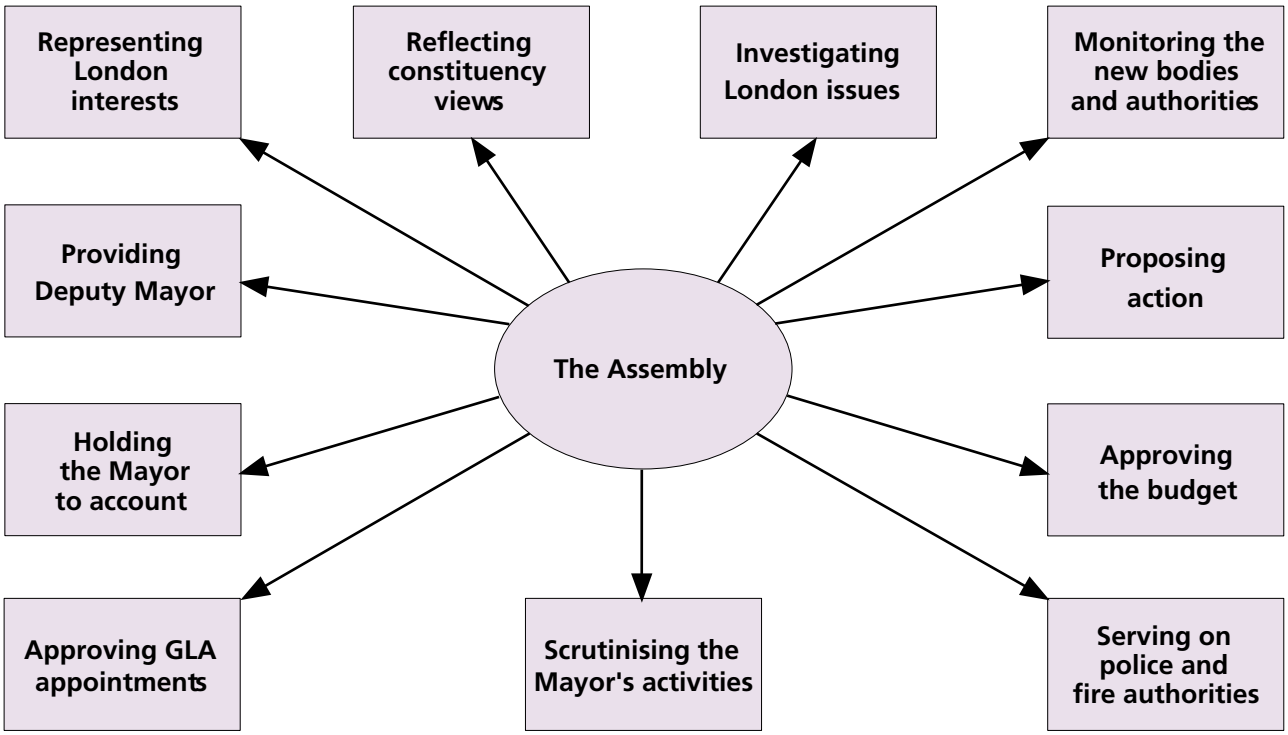
TfL is responsible for most transport in London. It manages London Buses, Croydon Tramlink and the Docklands Light Railway. Responsibility for the London Underground will transfer to TfL when control is transferred from central government. It manages a network of major roads, regulates taxis (and in due course will regulate minicabs), and runs the river services. It also helps to co-ordinate dial-a-ride and taxicard schemes for transport users with mobility problems. TfL also has responsibility for traffic lights across the capital. The Mayor has wide powers of direction over TfL, sets the budget, sets the structure and level of public transport fares (excluding National Rail and minicabs), has a say in how the commuter railways are run, and has powers to fund new transport services and systems.

The MPA was established to oversee policing in London, bringing the capital more closely in line with other areas in England and Wales. Previously, the Home Secretary took direct responsibility for the Metropolitan Police. The boundaries of the Metropolitan Police District (MPD) have been changed to bring them into line with the London boroughs. Those parts of Essex, Hertfordshire and Surrey formerly in the MPD are now allocated to the appropriate forces outside London. The MPA is responsible for maintaining an efficient and effective police force. It sets targets, monitors performance, secures best value in delivering police services, and has a role in the appointment, discipline and removal of senior officers. It consults with local communities on priorities and publishes an annual plan which is drafted by the Commissioner. The Commissioner remains a royal appointment following recommendation by the Home Secretary, who has to take account of any recommendations from the MPA and the Mayor.

The LFEPA sets the strategy for the provision of fire services in the capital. It makes sure that the Fire Brigade can meet all normal requirements efficiently, by ensuring that members of the Brigade are properly trained and equipped, that arrangements are in place to receive calls and to deal with them promptly, that useful information is gathered, and that arrangements for advice and guidance on fire prevention are in place. It also

Figure 12.2

The Role of the Assembly



Source: White Paper, A Mayor and Assembly for London, Government Office for London

assists the London boroughs, on request, with all aspects of emergency planning, deals with emergency planning for those sites which fall within the *Control of Major Accident Hazard Regulations,* deals with the arrangements for public information in the event of a radiological incident in London, and prepares emergency plans for the 350 kilometres of pipeline which fall within the *Pipeline Safety Regulations.*

The LDA co-ordinates economic development and regeneration across London. It promotes business and works in partnership with industry, the public and voluntary bodies, to create opportunities for all Londoners. It promotes business efficiency, investment, employment and competitiveness in London. It works to enhance and develop the skills of local people and contributes to sustainable development. The LDA carries out regeneration projects where it owns land, such as in the Royal Docks and at Woolwich Arsenal. The Mayor guides the LDA in the development of the economic development and regeneration strategy, ensuring that it remains consistent with other strategies. He also gives direction and guidance on the implementation of the strategy and on the exercise of its other functions. He sets the administration budget for the LDA and ensures that programme funds from central government are properly managed.

The London Boroughs and the City of London

The above discussion concentrates on the roles of the new players in London Government. These functions are complemented by the responsibilities of the 33 local authorities that were established in 1965 to deliver most local services in Greater London. Their roles were broadened in 1986 to pick up some of the services formerly provided by the Greater London Council, which was abolished in that year. All 32 London boroughs and the City of London are unitary authorities. They provide the full range of local services including education, social services, housing, environmental health, libraries, leisure and the arts. They also have roles in planning, in roads maintenance and management, and in transport. The City of London, uniquely, has additional responsibilities including, most familiarly, the City of London Police.

The 2002 borough elections signalled the introduction of new ward boundaries in the 32 boroughs. The process of reviewing ward boundaries is carried out from time to time to protect equability in political representation and to take account of changes in patterns of settlement across an area (new residential development for example). The 2002 revision also attempted to create three-seat wards, wherever possible, throughout London. The number of seats was reduced by 56 and there are just nine two-seat wards and one single-seat ward in the whole of London. General elections are held every four years. A general election is one where the whole body of members, whether of council or parliament, are subject to election at the same time. This contrasts with the situation in some local authorities outside the capital where a third of the council will be elected in each of three successive years. Three boroughs in London opted to have directly-elected executive mayors and the elections for the Mayors of Lewisham and Newham took place in May 2002, and for Mayor of Hackney in October 2002.

The City of London holds elections for all 110 seats on the Court of Common Council each year, although not all seats are contested. In 2002 contested elections were held in six of the 25 wards. The electorate includes businesses as well as residentially qualified voters. Ward boundaries in the City of London are now under review.

Table 12.3

London Elections, 2000-02

Percentages and numbers

	Party	Percentage of votes	Number of seats	Percentage of seats
2000 GLA Assembly – Constituency Election[1]	Conservative	*33.2*	8	*57.1*
	Labour	*31.6*	6	*42.9*
	Liberal Democrat	*18.9*	0	*0.0*
	Others	*16.2*	0	*0.0*
(percentage poll *34.3*)				
2001 Parliamentary General Election	Conservative	*30.5*	13	*17.6*
	Labour	*47.3*	55	*74.3*
	Liberal Democrat	*17.5*	6	*8.2*
	Others	*4.7*	0	*0.0*
(percentage poll *55.2*)				
2002 London Borough Elections	Conservative	*34.4*	652	*35.0*
	Labour	*33.8*	866	*46.5*
	Liberal Democrat	*20.3*	310	*16.7*
	Others	*11.6*	33	*1.8*
(percentage poll *31.8*)				

1 The data shown are for the elections for the GLA Constituencies, which were on a first-past-the-post basis. There were also London-wide Assembly elections and the Mayoral election. The party shares for these are shown in Table 12.4.

Source: Greater London Authority

Elections 2000 to 2002

The elections for the London Mayor and Assembly held in May 2000 were followed in 2001 by the parliamentary general election, and in May 2002 by the London borough general elections. The results are summarised in Tables 12.3 and 12.4. In the case of the GLA Assembly election, Table 12.3 shows only data relating to the constituency member elections, since these were carried out on a first-past-the-post basis and are thus comparable to the data shown for the other elections. The London Borough results are given with the party shares calculated according to a formula that seeks to correct for multiple seat wards. This calculation is discussed in the GLA publication on the London Borough elections.

Since 1997, London has been represented by 74 Members of Parliament. The electoral picture is completed by the ten Members of the European Parliament.

There is much concern over falling voter participation in elections generally but more specifically in the case of local elections. Table 12.3 shows that around a third of people eligible to vote at the elections in 2000 and 2002 actually voted, and even in the Parliamentary elections in 2001 little more than half of qualified Londoners participated. Table 12.5 shows the turnout in every London borough election since 1968. The figures show a gradual and fairly consistent improvement until 1990, after which they fell steeply so that in 1998 the percentage poll was the lowest at that time for any such election, only to fall yet again in 2002.

Central Government and London

London is unique among the English regions in having its own Minister, based in the Office of the Deputy Prime Minister alongside the Minister of State for Local Government and the Regions.

Table 12.4

Other London Elections[1], 2000

Percentages

	Party	Percentage of votes
2000 London Mayoral Election		
– 1st preference	Conservative	*27.1*
	Labour	*13.1*
	Liberal Democrat	*11.9*
	Others	*47.9*
(percentage poll *34.4*)		
2000 GLA Assembly		
– London Members Election	Conservative	*29.0*
	Labour	*30.3*
	Liberal Democrat	*14.8*
	Others	*25.9*
(percentage poll *34.3*)		

1 This Table shows details for the London–wide Assembly elections and the Mayoral election. Data for the GLA Constituencies elections, which were on a first-past-the-post basis, are shown in Table 12.3.

Source: Greater London Authority

The Government Office for London (GOL) represents the Government in London and London's interests within the Government. Its main roles include: developing knowledge and intelligence about London and exploiting it to influence the Government's policies at the centre; communicating and explaining the Government's policies in London; managing a range of Government programmes in London and maximising their impact through more effective targeting and by joining up different programmes; brokering effective partnership working between key stakeholders in London and influencing what they do to help better meet the Government's objectives; and identifying the need for and developing new cross-cutting initiatives to tackle particular issues in London, such as initiatives on teacher recruitment and retention and affordable housing.

GOL aims to promote better delivery of public services that make a lasting difference, making sure that local knowledge and expertise are used to achieve the best solutions for different needs. For example, GOL was a key partner in developing and giving day-to-day support in the launch of the Connexions Service in London, and GOL's Youth and Crime Unit is working with individual Boroughs to spearhead a multi-agency response to youth crime in London.

GOL also plays a key role in liaising between the Mayor of London and the Greater London Assembly (GLA) and Government Departments. GOL takes the lead in co-ordinating the Government response to the Mayor's strategies on Transport, Air Quality, Waste, Biodiversity, Noise, Energy, and on Spatial Development and the London Plan.

Table 12.5

Turnout at London Borough Elections

Percentages[1]

1968	*35.8*
1971	*38.7*
1974	*36.3*
1978	*42.9*
1982	*43.8*
1986	*45.4*
1990	*48.1*
1994	*46.1*
1998	*34.7*
2002	*31.8*

1 As a percentage of the electorate.

Source: Greater London Authority

A2.1

Estimated mid-year resident population[1], London boroughs, 2001

Thousands

	People all ages	Males									
		All ages	0	1 to 4	5 to 15	16 to 29	30 to 44	45 to 64	65 to 74	75 and over	18 and over
United Kingdom	58,836.7	28,611.3	338.4	1,442.6	4,292.4	5,142.5	6,544.1	6,929.3	2,303.8	1,618.2	21,773.0
London	7,188.0	3,479.5	49.6	194.1	496.7	757.5	909.5	697.9	219.0	155.1	2,652.0
Inner London	2,771.7	1,344.6	20.7	76.1	177.2	334.4	379.3	235.2	72.8	48.8	1,040.0
Inner London – West	972.8	467.9	6.7	23.2	48.1	120.7	135.1	88.2	26.7	19.3	381.9
Camden	198.4	95.7	1.3	4.7	10.8	25.2	26.8	17.7	5.3	3.9	77.0
City of London	7.2	3.8	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.8	1.1	1.1	0.2	0.2	3.5
Hammersmith and Fulham	165.5	79.2	1.1	4.2	8.4	21.0	22.8	14.4	4.3	3.0	64.1
Kensington and Chelsea	159.1	76.1	1.1	3.9	7.7	15.7	22.3	17.0	4.7	3.7	62.2
Wandsworth	260.8	124.1	2.0	6.6	13.2	34.7	36.7	19.9	6.4	4.6	100.2
Westminster	181.7	89.1	1.1	3.7	7.7	23.3	25.4	18.0	5.7	4.0	75.1
Inner London – East	1,798.8	876.6	14.0	52.9	129.1	213.7	244.2	147.1	46.1	29.5	658.1
Hackney	203.4	97.3	1.8	6.8	15.4	21.3	26.9	16.8	5.2	3.1	70.8
Haringey	216.8	104.0	1.6	5.8	15.0	25.4	28.7	18.4	5.8	3.3	78.8
Islington	176.1	84.4	1.2	4.5	10.7	20.2	24.9	15.3	4.7	3.0	66.3
Lambeth	266.8	131.6	2.0	7.3	16.8	34.6	39.5	20.7	6.5	4.3	102.8
Lewisham	249.5	120.3	1.9	7.2	17.5	26.3	34.6	21.8	6.3	4.8	90.6
Newham	244.3	120.2	2.2	8.3	22.2	28.8	29.6	19.7	5.7	3.7	83.4
Southwark	245.4	120.2	1.8	6.9	16.5	29.2	34.9	20.2	6.4	4.3	92.4
Tower Hamlets	196.6	98.5	1.6	6.1	15.1	27.9	25.2	14.2	5.4	3.1	73.0
Outer London	4,416.4	2,134.9	28.9	118.0	319.5	423.1	530.2	462.6	146.2	106.3	1,612.0
Outer London – East and North East	1,555.4	749.2	10.1	42.4	117.2	144.1	181.3	162.3	53.0	38.7	559.2
Barking and Dagenham	164.3	78.3	1.1	5.1	13.4	14.6	18.7	15.7	5.2	4.3	56.4
Bexley	218.8	105.4	1.3	5.5	16.6	17.6	25.2	24.9	8.5	6.0	79.3
Enfield	274.3	131.2	1.9	7.3	20.3	25.1	32.7	28.3	9.3	6.4	98.3
Greenwich	215.2	103.3	1.7	6.3	16.3	21.5	25.8	20.8	6.1	4.8	76.2
Havering	224.7	108.2	1.2	5.2	16.5	18.0	24.3	26.6	9.6	6.9	82.5
Redbridge	239.3	116.3	1.5	6.6	18.0	23.0	27.2	26.0	8.0	5.9	87.0
Waltham Forest	218.6	106.6	1.5	6.5	16.2	24.3	27.4	20.1	6.3	4.2	79.4
Outer London – South	1,143.8	553.0	7.5	30.8	81.9	103.9	138.8	123.1	38.2	28.8	418.6
Bromley	296.2	142.1	1.9	7.7	20.4	22.9	34.7	34.1	11.6	8.8	108.5
Croydon	331.5	159.7	2.2	9.3	25.9	29.3	39.5	35.3	10.5	7.7	117.8
Kingston upon Thames	147.6	72.2	0.9	3.8	9.5	16.3	18.1	15.7	4.3	3.6	56.3
Merton	188.3	91.8	1.4	5.2	12.4	19.8	24.5	18.6	5.7	4.2	70.7
Sutton	180.2	87.1	1.1	4.8	13.6	15.7	21.9	19.5	6.0	4.5	65.3
Outer London – West and North West	1,717.1	832.7	11.3	44.8	120.4	175.0	210.1	177.2	55.0	38.9	634.2
Barnet	315.3	150.3	2.0	8.3	22.3	30.6	36.3	32.1	10.6	8.1	113.8
Brent	263.8	128.1	1.7	6.5	18.1	30.9	32.3	25.1	8.7	4.8	98.4
Ealing	301.6	148.0	2.1	7.7	20.8	33.8	38.8	30.0	8.7	6.3	113.5
Harrow	208.0	100.6	1.2	5.0	15.4	20.2	23.4	22.9	7.1	5.4	75.9
Hillingdon	243.1	117.6	1.6	6.8	18.1	22.1	28.9	26.0	8.4	5.8	88.1
Hounslow	212.7	104.5	1.5	5.8	15.0	23.2	27.1	21.4	6.3	4.2	79.2
Richmond upon Thames	172.8	83.6	1.3	4.8	10.6	14.3	23.4	19.7	5.2	4.4	65.2

1 See Notes and Definitions

Source: Office for National Statistics

A2.1 continued

Estimated mid-year resident population[1], London boroughs, 2001

Thousands

		Females								
	All ages	0	1 to 4	5 to 15	16 to 29	30 to 44	45 to 64	65 to 74	75 and over	18 and over
United Kingdom	30,225.3	324.0	1,372.3	4,085.0	5,166.7	6,747.2	7,094.7	2,636.0	2,799.6	23,717.9
London	3,708.5	47.4	186.9	475.8	800.8	939.7	740.2	249.1	268.7	2,916.3
Inner London	1,427.1	19.8	73.6	172.6	366.2	382.3	250.2	80.5	81.9	1,131.7
Inner London – West	504.9	6.4	22.2	47.0	136.9	135.1	94.7	30.4	32.2	421.4
Camden	102.8	1.3	4.5	10.5	28.7	26.7	19.0	5.9	6.2	84.5
City of London	3.4	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.3	0.3	3.0
Hammersmith and Fulham	86.3	1.0	3.9	8.7	23.9	23.5	15.2	4.8	5.3	71.1
Kensington and Chelsea	83.1	1.1	3.8	7.2	18.5	22.4	19.0	5.5	5.6	69.8
Wandsworth	136.8	1.8	6.3	12.8	40.3	37.5	21.9	7.5	8.6	113.9
Westminster	92.6	1.1	3.6	7.5	24.6	24.2	18.9	6.4	6.3	79.1
Inner London – East	922.2	13.4	51.3	125.6	229.3	247.2	155.5	50.2	49.7	710.3
Hackney	106.0	1.7	6.5	15.4	25.4	29.1	17.3	5.2	5.5	79.8
Haringey	112.8	1.5	5.8	14.8	26.7	31.2	20.6	6.2	5.9	88.1
Islington	91.7	1.2	4.2	10.5	23.8	25.5	16.2	5.3	4.9	73.9
Lambeth	135.2	1.9	6.9	16.3	35.6	38.7	22.1	6.9	6.8	107.4
Lewisham	129.1	1.8	6.9	17.4	27.7	36.0	23.2	7.8	8.4	100.4
Newham	124.1	2.1	8.1	20.7	30.0	30.4	20.4	6.3	6.1	89.3
Southwark	125.2	1.8	6.9	15.9	29.9	34.7	21.4	7.2	7.4	98.1
Tower Hamlets	98.1	1.5	6.0	14.7	30.1	21.6	14.4	5.2	4.7	73.3
Outer London	2,281.4	27.6	113.3	303.2	434.6	557.3	490.0	168.6	186.8	1,784.5
Outer London – East and North East	806.2	9.7	40.9	111.0	149.4	191.7	172.2	62.2	69.0	624.9
Barking and Dagenham	86.1	1.1	5.2	12.5	16.6	20.0	16.2	6.8	7.7	65.0
Bexley	113.4	1.3	5.3	16.1	18.0	26.1	26.5	9.8	10.3	88.0
Enfield	143.2	1.8	7.2	19.6	27.0	34.9	30.6	10.4	11.7	111.1
Greenwich	112.0	1.5	6.1	14.9	23.4	27.7	21.6	7.7	9.1	86.8
Havering	116.5	1.1	4.9	15.6	17.7	25.3	28.6	11.6	11.7	92.0
Redbridge	123.0	1.4	6.2	17.3	22.9	28.7	27.0	9.1	10.5	95.0
Waltham Forest	112.1	1.5	6.0	15.1	23.8	29.1	21.7	6.8	8.1	86.9
Outer London – South	590.9	7.1	29.3	77.3	105.2	145.9	130.3	44.8	50.8	464.2
Bromley	154.0	1.8	7.2	19.9	23.1	36.1	36.4	13.9	15.6	122.0
Croydon	171.8	2.1	9.0	24.1	31.0	43.8	37.3	12.0	12.5	132.4
Kingston upon Thames	75.4	0.9	3.6	9.2	15.5	18.2	16.3	5.0	6.7	60.1
Merton	96.5	1.3	4.9	11.5	19.5	25.1	20.0	6.7	7.6	77.0
Sutton	93.1	1.1	4.6	12.5	16.1	22.8	20.3	7.2	8.4	72.7
Outer London – West and North West	884.4	10.8	43.1	114.8	180.0	219.7	187.5	61.6	66.9	695.4
Barnet	165.0	2.0	8.0	21.4	32.8	39.0	35.1	12.2	14.6	129.9
Brent	135.7	1.6	6.5	17.7	31.3	34.8	26.9	9.0	7.8	106.4
Ealing	153.5	2.0	7.6	19.6	33.9	39.4	31.2	9.7	10.2	120.9
Harrow	107.3	1.1	4.7	14.2	19.9	25.2	24.7	8.2	9.3	84.6
Hillingdon	125.5	1.5	6.2	17.3	23.7	30.2	26.9	9.6	10.1	97.6
Hounslow	108.1	1.4	5.5	14.5	23.5	27.2	22.2	6.8	7.0	84.2
Richmond upon Thames	89.2	1.2	4.6	10.1	14.9	23.9	20.5	6.1	8.0	71.8

A2.2

Components of population change, London boroughs, 2000 to 2001[1]

Thousands

	Mid-2000 population	Live births	Deaths	Natural change	Other changes[2]	Total change	Mid-2001 population
London	7,104.4	104.4	58.5	45.9	37.8	83.6	7,188.0
Inner London	2,722.4	45.1	20.0	25.0	24.2	49.3	2,771.7
Inner London – West	944.0	14.0	7.0	7.0	21.8	28.8	972.8
Camden	191.4	2.7	1.5	1.2	5.8	7.0	198.4
City of London	6.9	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.3	7.2
Hammersmith and Fulham	160.6	2.4	1.1	1.3	3.6	4.9	165.5
Kensington and Chelsea	150.4	2.1	1.0	1.2	7.5	8.7	159.1
Wandsworth	258.3	4.2	2.0	2.1	0.4	2.5	260.8
Westminster	176.3	2.6	1.4	1.2	4.2	5.4	181.7
Inner London – East	1,778.4	31.0	13.0	18.0	2.4	20.4	1,798.8
Hackney	199.1	3.9	1.3	2.6	1.7	4.3	203.4
Haringey	215.5	3.7	1.5	2.2	-0.8	1.4	216.8
Islington	174.7	2.6	1.3	1.3	0.1	1.4	176.1
Lambeth	264.2	4.3	1.9	2.4	0.1	2.5	266.8
Lewisham	247.8	3.8	2.1	1.7	-0.1	1.6	249.5
Newham	240.7	4.9	1.7	3.2	0.3	3.5	244.3
Southwark	242.4	4.1	1.9	2.3	0.7	3.0	245.4
Tower Hamlets	193.9	3.6	1.3	2.3	0.4	2.7	196.6
Outer London	4,382.0	59.3	38.5	20.8	13.5	34.4	4,416.4
Outer London – East and North East	1,546.2	21.1	14.5	6.6	2.6	9.2	1,555.4
Barking and Dagenham	162.8	2.4	1.7	0.7	0.9	1.6	164.3
Bexley	218.4	2.6	2.1	0.6	-0.2	0.3	218.8
Enfield	272.0	3.8	2.4	1.5	0.9	2.4	274.3
Greenwich	211.9	3.2	2.0	1.2	2.2	3.4	215.2
Havering	225.0	2.3	2.3	0.0	-0.3	-0.3	224.7
Redbridge	237.5	3.2	2.0	1.2	0.7	1.9	239.3
Waltham Forest	218.7	3.5	1.9	1.6	-1.6	0.0	218.6
Outer London – South	1,135.2	14.6	10.3	4.3	4.3	8.6	1,143.8
Bromley	294.6	3.5	2.9	0.6	1.0	1.6	296.2
Croydon	330.3	4.5	2.7	1.8	-0.6	1.2	331.5
Kingston upon Thames	145.5	1.8	1.4	0.4	1.7	2.1	147.6
Merton	185.5	2.7	1.5	1.1	1.7	2.8	188.3
Sutton	179.3	2.2	1.8	0.4	0.5	0.9	180.2
Outer London – West and North West	1,700.6	23.6	13.8	9.9	6.7	16.5	1,717.1
Barnet	310.9	4.0	2.9	1.1	3.3	4.3	315.3
Brent	259.2	3.9	1.7	2.2	2.4	4.6	263.8
Ealing	298.4	4.4	2.3	2.1	1.0	3.2	301.6
Harrow	206.9	2.6	1.6	0.9	0.1	1.1	208.0
Hillingdon	242.9	3.3	2.1	1.2	-1.1	0.1	243.1
Hounslow	211.4	3.1	1.7	1.4	-0.1	1.3	212.7
Richmond upon Thames	170.8	2.4	1.5	0.9	1.0	2.0	172.8

1 Mid-2000 population estimates have been revised in light of the 2001 Census.
2 The figures shown are not an estimate of net civilian migration. They have been derived by subtraction using revised population estimates and natural change. Although the main component of these other changes is net civilian migration, this is not the only component. Changes to the non-civilian population and definitional differences are also included.

Source: Office for National Statistics

A2.3

Vital statistics[1], 2001

Numbers and percentages

	Live births	Crude birth rate (per 1,000 population)	Total Fertility Rate	Live births outside marriage: Live births	Live births outside marriage: Jointly registered at same address[2]	Live births outside marriage: Live births under 2.5 kg[3]	Deaths	Crude death rate (per 1,000 population)	Standardised mortality ratio (United Kingdom = 100)
United Kingdom	669,123	11.4	1.63	*40.1*	*62.4*	..	604,393	10.3	100
London	104,162	14.5	1.62	*34.6*	*53.1*	*8.1*	58,583	8.2	98
Inner London	45,089	16.3	1.63	*36.6*	*47.5*	*8.7*	20,064	7.2	105
Inner London – West	14,100	14.5	1.39	*28.4*	*52.1*	*7.1*	7,077	7.3	87
Camden	2,792	14.1	1.36	*31.6*	*51.3*	*6.9*	1,541	7.8	106
City of London	53	7.3	0.80	*30.2*	*87.5*	*7.5*	34	4.7	50
Hammersmith and Fulham	2,365	14.3	1.38	*32.0*	*46.7*	*7.0*	1,078	6.5	91
Kensington and Chelsea	2,138	13.4	1.35	*21.7*	*51.4*	*7.4*	992	6.2	73
Wandsworth	4,182	16.0	1.47	*29.8*	*55.1*	*6.9*	2,068	7.9	110
Westminster	2,570	14.1	1.39	*24.7*	*53.4*	*7.7*	1,364	7.5	91
Inner London – East	30,989	17.2	1.77	*40.4*	*46.1*	*9.4*	12,987	7.2	111
Hackney	4,095	20.1	2.08	*40.5*	*45.2*	*9.1*	1,306	6.4	101
Haringey	3,830	17.7	1.80	*38.3*	*47.1*	*8.6*	1,484	6.8	105
Islington	2,500	14.2	1.38	*43.4*	*49.9*	*7.9*	1,344	7.6	115
Lambeth	4,397	16.5	1.65	*48.7*	*44.0*	*9.6*	1,834	6.9	110
Lewisham	3,718	14.9	1.60	*48.9*	*48.3*	*8.6*	2,134	8.6	114
Newham	4,805	19.7	2.19	*31.9*	*41.4*	*9.7*	1,701	7.0	115
Southwark	3,998	16.3	1.67	*51.1*	*45.8*	*9.8*	1,793	7.3	107
Tower Hamlets	3,646	18.5	1.81	*21.1*	*51.1*	*10.9*	1,391	7.1	119
Outer London	59,073	13.4	1.64	*33.1*	*57.7*	*7.7*	38,519	8.7	95
Outer London – East and North East	20,992	13.5	1.73	*38.3*	*57.9*	*7.7*	14,540	9.3	100
Barking and Dagenham	2,407	14.6	1.87	*49.6*	*57.2*	*7.2*	1,697	10.3	110
Bexley	2,626	12.0	1.73	*39.8*	*67.6*	*7.1*	2,059	9.4	93
Enfield	3,747	13.7	1.70	*34.2*	*54.5*	*7.1*	2,392	8.7	93
Greenwich	3,210	14.9	1.74	*47.2*	*51.8*	*8.4*	1,993	9.3	106
Havering	2,382	10.6	1.65	*40.4*	*69.2*	*6.4*	2,336	10.4	95
Redbridge	3,110	13.0	1.69	*24.7*	*56.0*	*8.0*	2,113	8.8	94
Waltham Forest	3,510	16.1	1.81	*36.4*	*53.9*	*8.8*	1,950	8.9	110
Outer London – South	14,356	12.6	1.57	*35.0*	*60.6*	*7.4*	10,262	9.0	94
Bromley	3,414	11.5	1.58	*34.6*	*66.3*	*7.1*	2,955	10.0	90
Croydon	4,401	13.3	1.67	*41.5*	*50.5*	*8.8*	2,675	8.1	93
Kingston upon Thames	1,787	12.1	1.44	*27.0*	*71.2*	*5.9*	1,336	9.0	95
Merton	2,664	14.1	1.59	*30.4*	*63.0*	*6.9*	1,514	8.0	92
Sutton	2,090	11.6	1.50	*35.1*	*67.0*	*7.0*	1,782	9.9	101
Outer London – West and North West	23,725	13.8	1.61	*27.3*	*55.2*	*8.0*	13,717	8.0	91
Barnet	4,063	12.9	1.54	*26.0*	*56.0*	*7.6*	2,816	8.9	89
Brent	3,917	14.8	1.61	*30.7*	*45.1*	*9.1*	1,801	6.8	92
Ealing	4,392	14.6	1.62	*25.7*	*52.3*	*8.6*	2,244	7.4	96
Harrow	2,581	12.4	1.58	*20.6*	*59.5*	*8.2*	1,633	7.9	79
Hillingdon	3,244	13.3	1.67	*34.5*	*60.3*	*7.7*	2,087	8.6	94
Hounslow	3,134	14.7	1.67	*29.7*	*54.2*	*7.2*	1,684	7.9	103
Richmond upon Thames	2,394	13.9	1.54	*21.3*	*70.4*	*6.6*	1,452	8.4	86

1 See Notes and Definitions.
2 Number of births outside marriage which were registered by both parents who gave the same address of usual residence, as a percentage of all births outside marriage.
3 Number of live births under 2.5 kilogrammes, as a percentage of all live births for which the birth weights were known.

Source: Office for National Statistics

A2.4

Migration to and from the UK regions[1, 2, 3]

Thousands

Area	June 1996	June 1997	June 1998	June 1999	June 2000	June 2001	June 2002
To London from:							
North East	5.1	4.9	5.0	4.9	4.8	5.0	4.7
North West	13.9	13.7	13.9	13.7	13.2	13.2	12.3
Yorkshire and the Humber	10.6	10.5	10.7	10.2	10.4	10.6	9.9
East Midlands	10.3	10.1	10.3	10.2	10.3	10.5	10.1
West Midlands	11.9	11.6	11.6	11.0	11.0	11.9	11.4
East	30.3	30.5	30.2	31.2	29.5	29.1	28.4
South East	55.5	55.5	56.2	55.3	53.7	52.9	50.6
South West	16.5	16.6	16.7	16.3	16.2	16.1	15.0
Wales	5.8	5.7	5.8	5.4	5.0	5.3	4.9
Scotland	7.4	7.7	7.9	7.8	7.6	7.5	7.3
Northern Ireland	1.6	1.8	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.4
Total	168.8	168.5	169.5	167.5	163.1	163.6	156.0
Outside the United Kingdom[3]	83.7	87.0	115.0	137.0	130.3	147.8	..
From London to:							
North East	3.8	3.5	3.8	3.5	3.7	4.1	4.5
North West	11.1	10.8	10.7	10.7	11.5	12.1	13.0
Yorkshire and the Humber	8.2	8.1	8.1	8.2	8.8	9.4	10.6
East Midlands	10.0	10.1	10.5	10.5	11.7	12.5	14.7
West Midlands	9.7	9.5	9.8	9.6	10.6	11.3	12.8
East	51.0	54.6	56.3	57.2	60.2	59.0	65.1
South East	80.4	85.7	86.3	85.8	90.4	86.7	93.9
South West	20.5	21.5	21.6	20.5	22.3	22.1	24.1
Wales	5.4	5.3	5.4	5.2	5.5	5.6	5.8
Scotland	6.3	6.5	7.0	6.8	6.7	7.7	7.8
Northern Ireland	2.7	1.9	1.8	2.0	1.8	1.7	2.0
Total	209.2	217.4	221.3	220.0	233.0	232.2	254.2
Outside the United Kingdom[3]	53.0	53.3	73.4	76.5	82.4	81.2	..
Net gain to London:							
North East	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.3	1.1	0.9	0.2
North West	2.8	2.9	3.2	3.1	1.7	1.1	-0.7
Yorkshire and the Humber	2.4	2.4	2.6	2.0	1.5	1.2	-0.7
East Midlands	0.3	0.0	-0.2	-0.3	-1.4	-1.9	-4.6
West Midlands	2.1	2.2	1.8	1.4	0.4	0.6	-1.4
East	-20.7	-24.1	-26.2	-26.0	-30.7	-29.9	-36.7
South East	-24.9	-30.2	-30.1	-30.5	-36.7	-33.8	-43.3
South West	-4.0	-5.0	-4.9	-4.3	-6.1	-6.0	-9.1
Wales	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.2	-0.4	-0.3	-0.9
Scotland	1.1	1.3	0.9	1.1	1.0	-0.2	-0.5
Northern Ireland	-1.1	-0.1	-0.2	-0.5	-0.3	-0.3	-0.6
Total	-40.3	-48.9	-51.8	-52.5	-69.9	-68.6	-98.2
Outside the United Kingdom[3]	30.8	33.7	41.6	60.5	47.9	66.6	..

1 These statistics are subject to revision in light of the 2001 Census results.
2 Incorporating agreed cross-border flows. These figures taken from the National Health Service Central Register provide a continuous monitoring of people who re-register with a doctor in a different health administration area. See Notes and Definitions.
3 Excludes Asylum seekers, visitor switchers and movements to and from the Irish Republic.

Source: Office for National Statistics; General Register Office for Scotland; Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency

A2.5

Households[1], April 2001

Numbers, percentages and thousands

	Average household size (people)	Household type: Lone-parent households (percentages)	Household type: One-person households (percentages)	All households (thousands)
London	2.3	*11.1*	*34.7*	3,016
Inner London	2.2	*11.8*	*40.1*	1,220
Camden	2.1	*9.7*	*46.1*	92
City of London	1.6	*5.1*	*60.5*	4
Hackney	2.3	*13.7*	*40.5*	86
Hammersmith and Fulham	2.2	*9.9*	*40.3*	75
Haringey	2.3	*13.6*	*35.9*	92
Islington	2.1	*12.9*	*44.1*	82
Kensington and Chelsea	2.0	*7.2*	*48.6*	79
Lambeth	2.2	*13.8*	*37.9*	118
Lewisham	2.3	*14.5*	*34.8*	107
Newham	2.6	*15.7*	*34.0*	92
Southwark	2.3	*13.9*	*37.3*	106
Tower Hamlets	2.5	*10.5*	*38.9*	79
Wandsworth	2.2	*9.2*	*36.6*	116
Westminster	1.9	*7.6*	*49.3*	91
Outer London	2.4	*10.7*	*31.1*	1,796
Barking and Dagenham	2.4	*15.2*	*30.8*	67
Barnet	2.4	*9.7*	*31.3*	127
Bexley	2.4	*9.5*	*28.8*	89
Brent	2.6	*12.8*	*29.0*	100
Bromley	2.3	*9.2*	*30.8*	126
Croydon	2.4	*12.5*	*33.1*	139
Ealing	2.5	*10.5*	*30.5*	118
Enfield	2.4	*11.3*	*31.4*	110
Greenwich	2.3	*14.2*	*36.6*	93
Harrow	2.6	*9.5*	*26.2*	79
Havering	2.4	*9.2*	*27.9*	92
Hillingdon	2.5	*10.3*	*28.7*	97
Hounslow	2.5	*10.9*	*30.2*	84
Kingston upon Thames	2.3	*7.9*	*32.1*	61
Merton	2.4	*9.3*	*32.1*	79
Redbridge	2.6	*10.4*	*29.1*	92
Richmond upon Thames	2.2	*7.0*	*35.5*	76
Sutton	2.3	*9.2*	*33.1*	76
Waltham Forest	2.4	*13.4*	*33.1*	90

1 Resident population in households.

Source: Office for National Statistics

A3.1

Total floorspace and number of hereditaments by bulk class: districts, 2001[1]

Number and thousand sq metres

	Retail		Offices[2]		Factories		Warehouses		All bulk classes	
	Number	Area sq m	Number	Area sq m	Number	Area sq m	Number	Area sq m	Number	Area sq m
London	100,860	15,961	74,720	26,721	28,501	13,002	24,586	14,874	228,667	70,557
Inner London	50,739	7,695	52,948	19,802	15,822	4,709	12,030	5,414	131,539	37,621
Inner London – West										
Camden	4,760	647	6,439	2,074	933	228	683	287	12,815	3,237
City of London	1,389	195	10,092	4,758	12	3	101	23	11,594	4,979
Hammersmith and Fulham	2,867	363	2,075	689	694	263	507	286	6,143	1,602
Kensington and Chelsea	3,364	738	2,164	491	526	66	433	98	6,487	1,393
Wandsworth	3,669	512	2,209	388	1,272	303	979	423	8,129	1,626
Westminster	8,529	1,947	15,886	5,776	399	68	1,381	239	26,195	8,030
Inner London – East										
Hackney	3,087	330	1,832	486	2,421	607	1,035	457	8,375	1,879
Haringey	3,246	405	1,053	221	1,234	390	859	503	6,392	1,518
Islington	3,581	404	3,403	1,220	1,689	422	777	372	9,450	2,418
Lambeth	3,446	395	1,262	667	1,300	360	889	309	6,897	1,731
Lewisham	3,071	452	594	163	1,061	249	620	320	5,346	1,184
Newham	3,163	446	784	221	819	526	871	729	5,637	1,923
Southwark	3,258	429	2,200	1,100	1,491	500	1,491	691	8,440	2,720
Tower Hamlets	3,309	432	2,955	1,548	1,971	724	1,404	678	9,639	3,383
Outer London	50,121	8,266	21,772	6,919	12,679	8,293	12,556	9,459	97,128	32,936
Outer London – East and North East										
Barking and Dagenham	1,538	248	588	133	551	1,096	552	637	3,229	2,114
Bexley	2,159	354	563	154	773	579	480	380	3,975	1,467
Enfield	2,963	453	1,035	243	876	729	807	682	5,681	2,106
Greenwich	2,058	390	691	184	616	343	618	476	3,983	1,393
Havering	2,322	468	789	197	776	319	563	429	4,450	1,413
Redbridge	2,711	457	1,053	256	438	223	370	173	4,572	1,109
Waltham Forest	3,346	397	706	153	984	461	780	307	5,816	1,318
Outer London – South										
Bromley	3,248	605	1,308	378	583	305	483	204	5,622	1,493
Croydon	3,978	781	1,797	817	869	416	811	414	7,455	2,428
Kingston upon Thames	1,901	423	1,222	347	305	133	383	254	3,811	1,158
Merton	1,964	342	979	287	687	392	520	351	4,150	1,372
Sutton	2,020	326	800	238	341	206	386	268	3,547	1,039
Outer London – West and North West										
Barnet	3,830	606	1,918	417	540	206	460	285	6,748	1,514
Brent	3,325	479	1,127	309	1,097	620	1,552	1,022	7,101	2,430
Ealing	3,562	491	1,292	498	1,042	798	1,427	1,231	7,323	3,018
Harrow	2,228	338	1,335	360	258	230	373	153	4,194	1,082
Hillingdon	2,374	398	1,955	922	789	597	833	1,171	5,951	3,088
Hounslow	2,161	387	1,235	660	668	474	881	871	4,945	2,392
Richmond upon Thames	2,433	321	1,379	368	486	165	277	149	4,575	1,003

1 These data are not comparable with data for 1984 and 1994 as published in previous editions of Focus on London due to changes in the definitions. See Notes and Definitions.

2 Commercial offices 23.7 million sq m; other offices 3.0 million sq m.

Source: Office of the Deputy Prime Minister

A3.2

Historic buildings[1], 2002

Numbers and percentages

	Grade I list entries	Grade II* list entries	Grade II list entries	Total number of list entries[2]	Percentage of London total	Ancient monuments
London	566	1,260	16,233	18,059	*100.0*	151
Inner London	408	906	11,505	12,819	*71.0*	72
Inner London – West	349	716	7,026	8,091	*44.8*	55
Camden	57	139	1,667	1,863	*10.3*	1
City of London	73	73	447	593	*3.3*	49
Hammersmith and Fulham	1	16	218	235	*1.3*	1
Kensington and Chelsea	16	112	1,131	1,259	*7.0*	2
Wandsworth	5	27	253	285	*1.6*	0
Westminster	197	349	3,310	3,856	*21.4*	2
Inner London – East	59	190	4,479	4,728	*26.2*	17
Hackney	7	25	479	511	*2.8*	0
Haringey	6	17	234	257	*1.4*	0
Islington	11	19	922	952	*5.3*	1
Lambeth	6	54	844	904	*5.0*	0
Lewisham	1	11	278	290	*1.6*	0
Newham	4	5	95	104	*0.6*	2
Southwark	4	27	823	854	*4.7*	7
Tower Hamlets	20	32	804	856	*4.7*	7
Outer London	158	354	4,728	5,240	*29.0*	79
Outer London – East and North East	47	112	1,141	1,300	*7.2*	20
Barking and Dagenham	3	3	24	30	*0.2*	1
Bexley	6	9	94	109	*0.6*	4
Enfield	3	13	256	272	*1.5*	5
Greenwich	28	49	448	525	*2.9*	7
Havering	6	15	127	148	*0.8*	3
Redbridge	1	11	104	116	*0.6*	0
Waltham Forest	0	12	88	100	*0.6*	0
Outer London – South	21	46	960	1,027	*5.7*	28
Bromley	7	12	325	344	*1.9*	8
Croydon	7	7	130	144	*0.8*	5
Kingston upon Thames	3	10	132	145	*0.8*	6
Merton	3	9	218	230	*1.3*	3
Sutton	1	8	155	164	*0.9*	6
Outer London – West and North West	90	196	2,627	2,913	*16.1*	31
Barnet	2	33	582	617	*3.4*	2
Brent	1	6	76	83	*0.5*	0
Ealing	6	16	268	290	*1.6*	6
Harrow	4	19	253	276	*1.5*	9
Hillingdon	7	25	366	398	*2.2*	5
Hounslow	32	25	420	477	*2.6*	5
Richmond upon Thames	38	72	662	772	*4.3*	4

1 See Notes and Definitions.
2 A list entry can cover more than one building.

Source: English Heritage

A3.3

Waste management[1] by sector

Thousand tonnes and percentages

	Thousand tonnes 1998/99	Thousand tonnes 2000/01	Percentage of sector	Percentage of total
Municipal waste 2000/01				
Recycled	..	305	*6.8*	..
Composted	..	39	*0.9*	..
Incinerated	..	887	*19.9*	..
Landfill disposal	..	3,207	*72.3*	..
Total	..	4,438	*100.0*	*25.7*
Commercial and industrial waste 1998/99				
Reused	90	..	*1.3*	..
Recycled	2,364	..	*33.3*	..
Incinerated	174	..	*2.5*	..
Landfill disposal	3,547	..	*50.0*	..
Other treatment and disposal	915	..	*12.9*	..
Subtotal	7,090	..	*100.0*	..
Less commercial and industrial waste collected by local authorities and included in municipal waste above	1,048	..	..	..
Total	6,042	6,383	..	*37.0*
Construction and demolition waste 2000/01				
Recycled aggregate	..	4,337	*71.6*	..
Recycled soil	..	522	*8.6*	..
Landfill engineering and quarry backfill	..	597	*9.9*	..
Landspreading on exempt sites	..	444	*7.3*	..
Landfill disposal	..	151	*2.5*	..
Total	..	6,051	*100.0*	*35.1*
Special waste 2000				
Total	..	361	*100.0*	*2.1*
Total waste	..	17,233	..	*100.0*

1 Waste streams between 1998/99, 2000 and 2000/01 are not comparable due to the introduction of the Audit Commission Performance and Best Value Performance Indicators in 2001.

Source: Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs; The Environment Agency; Office of the Deputy Prime Minister.

A3.4

Municipal waste in London by Waste Collection Authority, 2000/01[1]

Thousand tonnes

	Household waste					Non-household waste		Total municipal waste	
	Collection round (bin)	Other collected	Civic amenity	Household recycled	Total	For disposal	Recycled	Recycled	All waste
East London Waste Authority[2]	265.0	49.3	138.5	22.2	475.0	58.4	4.2	26.4	537.6
Barking and Dagenham	46.2	8.2	43.2	2.5	100.1	3.0	0.0	2.5	103.1
Havering	71.6	6.9	33.8	5.4	117.6	3.2	0.0	5.4	120.8
Newham	72.1	6.3	44.5	2.4	125.3	15.8	2.4	4.7	143.4
Redbridge	66.0	4.7	17.2	7.0	94.9	11.4	0.0	7.0	106.3
North London Waste Authority[2]	586.0	39.2	59.5	51.1	735.8	174.4	7.7	58.8	917.9
Barnet	108.2	12.3	7.7	10.3	138.5	21.8	0.0	10.3	160.3
Camden	73.0	12.5	2.4	16.1	103.9	37.5	0.2	16.3	141.6
Enfield	99.3	6.9	21.6	8.5	136.3	2.4	3.3	11.8	142.0
Hackney	82.1	2.0	2.6	1.0	87.8	24.3	0.0	1.0	112.0
Haringey	107.9	0.0	5.9	5.0	118.7	4.6	0.0	5.0	123.3
Islington	50.0	7.9	5.4	4.4	67.6	32.6	0.0	4.4	100.2
Waltham Forest	72.6	4.5	14.0	7.9	99.0	20.5	0.3	8.3	119.8
West London Waste Authority[2]	389.8	40.5	149.9	70.6	650.9	169.5	0.0	70.6	820.4
Brent	89.0	7.3	7.6	7.1	111.0	4.5	0.0	7.1	115.5
Ealing	68.6	22.7	41.2	15.1	147.6	37.7	0.0	15.1	185.3
Harrow	64.4	2.9	19.6	9.4	96.3	8.0	0.0	9.4	104.3
Hillingdon	91.2	0.0	47.7	13.3	152.2	0.0	0.0	13.3	152.2
Hounslow	65.4	5.5	22.3	13.1	106.3	8.7	0.0	13.1	115.0
Richmond upon Thames	59.0	3.3	11.5	14.0	87.8	13.6	0.1	14.1	101.5
Western Riverside Waste Authority[2]	238.9	63.0	27.2	33.0	362.2	147.4	0.1	33.2	509.8
Hammersmith and Fulham	46.0	20.7	0.0	5.4	72.0	30.3	0.3	5.7	102.7
Kensington and Chelsea	62.3	7.1	0.6	5.5	75.5	34.0	3.6	9.1	113.1
Lambeth	74.2	26.0	6.7	9.7	116.6	34.3	0.0	9.7	150.9
Wandsworth	70.0	30.3	0.0	7.4	107.8	37.1	3.7	11.1	148.6
Rest of London[3]	2,230.5	335.8	520.1	303.6	3,390.0	1,007.9	40.4	344.0	4,438.0
Bexley	71.6	4.9	11.3	18.3	106.1	22.8	4.7	23.0	133.6
Bromley	86.0	9.1	59.5	23.1	177.6	13.1	0.0	23.1	190.7
Corporation of London	4.5	1.9	0.0	0.0	6.4	64.8	1.3	1.3	72.5
Croydon	78.1	28.9	14.8	16.5	138.3	66.1	2.5	21.3	206.9
Greenwich	103.3	12.8	8.9	7.1	132.1	19.4	0.0	7.0	151.5
Kingston upon Thames	37.1	0.0	17.2	13.2	67.4	15.0	0.0	13.2	82.5
Lewisham	80.7	29.7	0.0	5.2	115.6	14.8	0.1	5.3	130.5
Merton	40.3	0.0	16.0	12.0	68.2	28.5	2.2	14.2	98.9
Southwark	80.6	17.7	1.4	3.1	102.7	29.9	0.0	3.1	132.7
Sutton	45.1	4.0	14.7	20.8	84.6	11.2	0.0	20.8	95.8
Tower Hamlets	63.8	7.7	1.3	2.1	74.9	23.8	0.0	2.1	98.6
Westminster	59.9	27.0	0.0	6.4	93.3	148.6	3.6	10.0	245.6

1 Total tonnages for Waste Collection Authorities (WCA) and Waste Disposal Authorities (WDA) may differ due to reporting differences. WDA tonnages (for disposal) have been used in deriving London totals. Recycling tonnages are calculated by summing borough totals and including additional WDA recycling.

2 Waste Disposal Authority (WDA).

3 Rest of London is composed of Unitary Authorities (UA). The local authorities have the responsibilities of both Waste Collection and Waste Disposal Authorities.

Source: Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs

A4.1

Housing stock by tenure, 2001[1]

Thousands

	Public sector					
	Local authority[2]	Registered social landlord	Other	Total	Private sector	Total dwelling stock[3]
London	526.7	284.2	13.9	824.9	2,301.5	3,126.4
Inner London	325.9	155.9	4.6	486.3	795.5	1,281.9
Inner London – West	80.9	54.1	1.9	136.9	355.1	492.0
Camden	26.8	9.0	0.8	36.6	55.2	91.8
City of London	0.5	0.3	0.2	0.9	3.9	4.9
Hammersmith and Fulham	14.4	11.0	0.2	25.6	51.4	77.0
Kensington and Chelsea	7.2	11.8	0.0	18.9	68.6	87.6
Wandsworth	18.5	9.4	0.2	28.1	94.5	122.6
Westminster	13.6	12.7	0.5	26.8	81.5	108.2
Inner London – East	244.9	101.8	2.7	349.4	440.5	789.9
Hackney	28.4	18.4	0.2	47.0	39.0	86.0
Haringey	18.9	8.4	0.1	27.4	66.7	94.1
Islington	31.4	10.8	0.5	42.6	42.2	84.9
Lambeth	35.7	16.5	0.4	52.6	68.0	120.5
Lewisham	31.4	8.5	0.0	39.9	74.8	114.7
Newham	23.1	10.3	0.3	33.7	59.1	92.8
Southwark	49.0	12.2	0.9	62.1	51.9	114.0
Tower Hamlets	27.0	16.7	0.3	44.0	38.8	82.9
Outer London	200.9	128.4	9.3	338.6	1,505.9	1,844.5
Outer London – East and North East	94.5	44.1	2.2	140.7	518.3	659.0
Barking and Dagenham	22.9	2.0	0.1	25.0	42.1	67.2
Bexley[4]	0.0	13.6	0.0	13.6	78.8	92.5
Enfield	13.2	5.8	0.5	19.5	94.6	114.1
Greenwich	27.6	10.1	0.5	38.1	54.7	92.8
Havering	12.0	1.7	0.3	14.0	80.7	94.7
Redbridge	5.3	2.7	0.3	8.4	96.3	104.7
Waltham Forest	13.4	8.1	0.5	22.0	71.1	93.1
Outer London – South	36.4	36.2	0.6	73.1	408.3	481.4
Bromley[4]	0.0	17.5	0.0	17.5	113.1	130.6
Croydon	15.2	8.2	0.1	23.5	113.3	136.9
Kingston upon Thames	5.1	2.0	0.4	7.5	53.7	61.2
Merton	7.0	4.7	0.1	11.8	64.8	76.6
Sutton	8.9	3.7	0.0	12.7	63.3	76.1
Outer London – West and North West	70.1	48.1	6.6	124.7	579.4	704.1
Barnet	12.0	6.4	0.6	19.0	116.3	135.4
Brent	10.8	12.0	2.7	25.6	78.5	104.1
Ealing	14.7	7.6	0.4	22.6	96.8	119.4
Harrow	5.9	2.4	0.3	8.5	72.8	81.4
Hillingdon	11.6	5.2	2.0	18.8	80.8	99.6
Hounslow	15.1	5.9	0.2	21.2	65.7	86.9
Richmond upon Thames[4]	0.0	8.7	0.3	9.0	68.4	77.4

1 As at April.
2 Stock owned within borough boundaries.
3 This total stock figure is slightly different from the regional figure published by ODPM: at local authority level, data from the Housing Investment Programme (HIP) were used. The difference is due to the definition for dwellings (for HIP, the Housing Revenue Account definition; for total regional and national figures, the Census definition).
4 Local authority stock transferred to housing associations.

Source: Greater London Authority

A4.2

Household spaces[1]: by type, 2001

Numbers and percentages

	Household spaces			Percentage of all household spaces						
	Total	Vacant	Second home	Detached house	Semi-detached house	Terraced house	Purpose-built flat	Flat in a converted house[2]	Flat in a commercial building	Other[3]
London	3,109,657	77,845	15,815	*6.0*	*19.1*	*25.9*	*33.0*	*13.9*	*1.8*	*0.1*
Inner London	1,267,703	36,009	11,835	*2.0*	*5.9*	*21.1*	*46.2*	*22.6*	*2.1*	*0.1*
Inner London – West	487,223	20,338	9,535	*1.6*	*4.1*	*15.9*	*46.6*	*29.2*	*2.6*	*0.1*
Camden	94,829	2,437	789	*1.8*	*3.6*	*8.8*	*47.4*	*35.5*	*2.8*	*0.1*
City of London	5,024	203	483	*0.3*	*0.3*	*1.5*	*89.5*	*2.9*	*5.5*	*0.1*
Hammersmith and Fulham	77,742	1,905	399	*1.2*	*4.8*	*23.1*	*37.8*	*30.8*	*2.2*	*0.1*
Kensington and Chelsea	85,469	3,819	2,504	*1.3*	*2.9*	*12.8*	*44.8*	*35.7*	*2.4*	*0.1*
Wandsworth	121,566	5,303	610	*2.3*	*7.1*	*26.3*	*40.2*	*21.9*	*2.1*	*0.1*
Westminster	102,593	6,671	4,750	*1.0*	*1.9*	*8.0*	*59.2*	*26.5*	*3.4*	*0.1*
Inner London – East	780,480	15,671	2,300	*2.3*	*7.0*	*24.3*	*46.0*	*18.6*	*1.8*	*0.1*
Hackney	88,466	2,309	115	*1.5*	*3.9*	*18.8*	*51.7*	*21.8*	*2.2*	*0.2*
Haringey	94,616	2,265	181	*3.1*	*9.5*	*31.8*	*27.4*	*25.9*	*2.1*	*0.1*
Islington	83,981	1,479	221	*1.0*	*2.7*	*16.0*	*49.2*	*28.6*	*2.5*	*0.1*
Lambeth	121,743	2,825	471	*2.0*	*7.7*	*18.9*	*45.0*	*24.7*	*1.6*	*0.1*
Lewisham	109,448	1,858	178	*2.9*	*12.9*	*31.5*	*32.5*	*18.6*	*1.5*	*0.1*
Newham	93,782	1,836	125	*4.3*	*8.6*	*45.5*	*31.1*	*8.9*	*1.5*	*0.1*
Southwark	107,663	1,348	509	*2.0*	*6.0*	*17.6*	*60.3*	*12.5*	*1.5*	*0.1*
Tower Hamlets	80,781	1,751	500	*1.0*	*2.2*	*13.0*	*76.1*	*6.0*	*1.5*	*0.1*
Outer London	1,841,954	41,836	3,980	*8.8*	*28.2*	*29.3*	*24.0*	*7.9*	*1.6*	*0.1*
Outer London – East and North East	649,738	14,897	1,133	*5.7*	*27.2*	*36.6*	*23.1*	*5.9*	*1.4*	*0.1*
Barking and Dagenham	68,378	1,059	46	*2.3*	*17.6*	*54.2*	*22.3*	*2.4*	*1.1*	*0.0*
Bexley	91,729	2,139	139	*7.1*	*44.5*	*26.1*	*18.9*	*1.9*	*1.5*	*0.1*
Enfield	113,231	2,378	455	*5.8*	*23.9*	*35.3*	*26.8*	*6.4*	*1.6*	*0.1*
Greenwich	95,835	2,891	156	*3.8*	*17.9*	*35.7*	*32.7*	*8.6*	*1.2*	*0.1*
Havering	93,980	2,135	123	*11.1*	*42.0*	*28.0*	*15.7*	*1.6*	*1.3*	*0.2*
Redbridge	94,174	1,798	88	*5.6*	*26.8*	*40.3*	*19.0*	*6.8*	*1.4*	*0.1*
Waltham Forest	92,411	2,497	126	*3.4*	*16.3*	*41.5*	*24.7*	*12.2*	*1.7*	*0.1*
Outer London – South	492,922	10,470	875	*12.9*	*26.7*	*27.7*	*22.7*	*8.2*	*1.7*	*0.1*
Bromley	128,996	2,912	218	*18.8*	*30.2*	*22.5*	*20.0*	*6.9*	*1.4*	*0.2*
Croydon	141,877	2,678	200	*12.4*	*25.2*	*29.9*	*20.7*	*9.9*	*1.8*	*0.1*
Kingston upon Thames	62,987	1,394	167	*13.0*	*32.1*	*18.7*	*25.6*	*8.5*	*1.9*	*0.1*
Merton	81,064	2,005	175	*5.9*	*18.1*	*40.6*	*23.0*	*10.5*	*1.8*	*0.1*
Sutton	77,998	1,481	115	*11.1*	*28.0*	*26.5*	*27.9*	*4.7*	*1.7*	*0.1*
Outer London – West and North West	699,294	16,469	1,972	*8.8*	*30.3*	*23.5*	*25.7*	*9.7*	*1.8*	*0.1*
Barnet	131,143	3,780	419	*11.4*	*31.2*	*18.1*	*28.3*	*9.0*	*1.9*	*0.1*
Brent	102,225	2,069	165	*6.5*	*27.7*	*18.9*	*26.9*	*18.0*	*1.9*	*0.1*
Ealing	120,887	2,545	319	*4.4*	*23.5*	*29.6*	*28.2*	*12.6*	*1.6*	*0.1*
Harrow	80,904	1,622	170	*12.2*	*39.9*	*20.3*	*20.0*	*5.9*	*1.7*	*0.0*
Hillingdon	99,130	2,278	209	*14.6*	*36.2*	*24.6*	*20.3*	*2.4*	*1.6*	*0.2*
Hounslow	86,217	1,965	258	*4.1*	*30.9*	*26.8*	*29.4*	*7.3*	*1.3*	*0.2*
Richmond upon Thames	78,788	2,210	432	*8.9*	*24.7*	*27.8*	*24.9*	*11.2*	*2.3*	*0.3*

1 A household space is generally defined as the accommodation available for a household. This can be either the whole or part of a dwelling.
2 Including bed-sits.
3 Caravan or other mobile or temporary structure.

Source: 2001 Census, Office for National Statistics

A4.3

Vacant housing stock[1]: 2002

Numbers and percentages

	Local authority[2]		Registered social landlord		Private sector		
	Vacant dwellings	Percentage of stock	Vacant dwellings	Percentage of stock	Vacant dwellings	Percentage of stock	Total vacant dwellings[3]
London[4]	9,971	*1.9*	7,374	*2.5*	83,053	*3.6*	101,017
Inner London	6,558	*2.1*	4,461	*2.8*	37,775	*4.6*	..
Inner London – West	1,254	*1.6*	1,437	*2.6*	16,867	*4.7*	19,636
Camden	436	*1.7*	274	*3.0*	3,308	*5.8*	4,018
City of London	3	*0.6*	0	*0.0*	15	*0.4*	32
Hammersmith and Fulham	259	*1.8*	272	*2.3*	3,573	*7.3*	4,141
Kensington and Chelsea	52	*0.7*	244	*2.0*	5,744	*8.4*	6,040
Wandsworth	244	*1.3*	244	*2.7*	1,714	*1.8*	2,229
Westminster	260	*2.0*	403	*3.1*	2,513	*2.9*	3,176
Inner London – East	5,304	*2.2*	3,024	*3.0*	20,908	*4.6*	..
Hackney	661	*2.4*	1,092	*5.5*	795	*2.0*	..
Haringey	254	*1.4*	191	*2.1*	3,093	*4.6*	3,538
Islington	386	*1.3*	242	*2.2*	3,091	*7.1*	3,719
Lambeth	967	*2.8*	436	*2.9*	2,800	*3.9*	4,262
Lewisham	1,000	*3.3*	172	*2.0*	2,471	*3.3*	3,643
Newham	398	*1.8*	211	*2.2*	2,519	*4.1*	3,140
Southwark	1,112	*2.4*	255	*2.1*	2,472	*4.5*	3,840
Tower Hamlets	526	*2.0*	425	*2.6*	3,667	*8.7*	4,620
Outer London	3,413	*1.7*	2,913	*2.2*	45,278	*3.0*	..
Outer London – East and North East	1,895	*2.0*	1,140	*2.4*	13,608	*2.7*	..
Barking and Dagenham	592	*2.6*	86	*3.4*	439	*1.0*	1,117
Bexley	0	*0.0*	143	*1.1*	1,501	*1.9*	1,644
Enfield	356	*2.8*	347	*5.8*	3,274	*3.4*	..
Greenwich	430	*1.6*	291	*2.8*	2,375	*4.3*	3,096
Havering	312	*2.7*	30	*1.5*	163	*0.2*	505
Redbridge	67	*1.3*	120	*3.8*	2,148	*2.5*	2,335
Waltham Forest	138	*1.0*	123	*1.3*	3,708	*5.2*	3,969
Outer London – South	444	*1.2*	649	*1.8*	13,738	*3.4*	..
Bromley	0	*0.0*	349	*2.0*	3,907	*3.5*	4,256
Croydon	142	*0.9*	181	*2.1*	4,324	*3.8*	4,650
Kingston upon Thames	82	*1.6*	23	*1.0*	1,021	*1.9*	..
Merton	62	*0.9*	54	*1.2*	2,197	*3.4*	2,332
Sutton	158	*1.8*	42	*1.1*	2,289	*3.6*	2,489
Outer London – West and North West	1,074	*1.6*	1,124	*2.2*	17,932	*3.1*	20,520
Barnet	106	*0.9*	125	*1.8*	4,608	*4.1*	4,915
Brent	197	*1.9*	482	*3.9*	4,734	*6.0*	5,670
Ealing	261	*1.8*	148	*1.9*	1,335	*1.4*	1,749
Harrow	74	*1.3*	43	*1.8*	1,030	*1.4*	1,180
Hillingdon	163	*1.4*	52	*1.0*	2,785	*3.4*	3,003
Hounslow	273	*1.8*	109	*1.9*	1,664	*2.5*	2,056
Richmond upon Thames	0	*0.0*	165	*1.8*	1,776	*2.6*	1,947

1 Dwellings known to be vacant on 1 April.
2 Excludes dwellings which authorities own outside their own area.
3 Includes dwellings owned by government departments and other public sector bodies (including other local authorities) which are not shown separately in the table.
4 These totals include estimates for missing data.

Source: Annual Housing Investment Returns, Office of the Deputy Prime Minister

A4.4

Allocation of local authority dwellings, 2001/02

Numbers and percentages

	To new tenants					Percentage of tenancies to new tenants	
	To existing tenants[1]	Homeless households in priority need	Others	Total	Total allocations	Secure tenancies	Non-secure tenancies[2]
London	11,108	16,340	8,203	24,543	35,651	*50*	*50*
Inner London	5,908	9,912	4,444	14,356	20,264	*45*	*55*
Inner London – West	1,790	2,222	1,448	3,670	5,460	*52*	*48*
Camden	590	496	399	895	1,485	*100*	*0*
City of London	66	11	100	111	177	*0*	*100*
Hammersmith and Fulham	415	534	183	717	1,132	*83*	*17*
Kensington and Chelsea	147	132	243	375	522	*100*	*0*
Wandsworth	392	644	344	988	1,380	*0*	*100*
Westminster	180	405	179	584	764	*9*	*91*
Inner London – East	4,118	7,690	2,996	10,686	14,804	*42*	*58*
Hackney	320	1,004	367	1,371	1,691	*9*	*91*
Haringey	298	347	868	1,215	1,513	*51*	*49*
Islington	523	796	292	1,088	1,611	*100*	*0*
Lambeth	484	1,381	345	1,726	2,210	*0*	*100*
Lewisham	869	533	378	911	1,780	*100*	*0*
Newham	376	885	185	1,070	1,446	*13*	*87*
Southwark	785	1,408	201	1,609	2,394	*100*	*0*
Tower Hamlets	463	1,336	360	1,696	2,159	*0*	*100*
Outer London	5,200	6,428	3,759	10,187	15,387	*58*	*42*
Outer London – East and North East	2,664	2,567	2,165	4,732	7,396	*52*	*48*
Barking and Dagenham	561	369	748	1,117	1,678	*66*	*34*
Bexley[3]	0	0	0	0	0	*:*	*:*
Enfield	284	415	212	627	911	*3*	*97*
Greenwich	944	777	497	1,274	2,218	*76*	*24*
Havering	454	246	446	692	1,146	*0*	*100*
Redbridge	103	120	158	278	381	*0*	*100*
Waltham Forest	318	640	104	744	1,062	*96*	*4*
Outer London – South	866	1,628	544	2,172	3,038	*27*	*73*
Bromley[3]	0	0	0	0	0	*:*	*:*
Croydon	364	968	133	1,101	1,465	*22*	*78*
Kingston upon Thames	134	198	58	256	390	*0*	*100*
Merton	158	96	250	346	504	*0*	*100*
Sutton	210	366	103	469	679	*74*	*26*
Outer London – West and North West	1,670	2,233	1,050	3,283	4,953	*88*	*12*
Barnet	291	513	91	604	895	*78*	*22*
Brent	106	287	64	351	457	*100*	*0*
Ealing	330	455	184	639	969	*97*	*3*
Harrow	111	178	204	382	493	*100*	*0*
Hillingdon	416	292	371	663	1,079	*65*	*35*
Hounslow	416	508	136	644	1,060	*100*	*0*
Richmond upon Thames[3]	0	0	0	0	0	*:*	*:*

1 Includes exchanges with other local authorities.
2 Includes lettings to the homeless and introductory tenancies under the Housing Act 1996.
3 Local authority stock transferred to housing associations.

Source: Annual Housing Investment Programme returns, Office of the Deputy Prime Minister

A4.5

Households temporarily accommodated by local authorities[1], March 2002

Numbers

	Bed and breakfast hotels	Hostels/women's refuges	Private sector leasing[2]	Other forms of temporary accomodation[3]	Homeless at home	Total
London[4]	8,300	4,200	17,770	16,620	5,830	52,720
Inner London	..	..	..	..	..	..
Inner London – West	..	..	..	..	..	..
Camden	157	458	583	541	198	1,937
City of London	7	0	0	31	0	38
Hammersmith and Fulham	549	153	510	253	147	1,612
Kensington and Chelsea	436	37	153	333	4	963
Wandsworth	445	133	600	39	0	1,217
Westminster	851	0	0	1,609	292	2,752
Inner London – East	..	..	..	..	..	..
Hackney	..	..	..	..	..	..
Haringey	166	370	2,880	582	709	4,707
Islington	..	..	..	..	..	..
Lambeth	353	296	49	945	410	2,053
Lewisham	..	..	..	..	..	..
Newham	832	44	1,451	1,035	648	4,010
Southwark	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tower Hamlets	341	17	584	1,036	18	1,996
Outer London	..	..	..	..	..	..
Outer London – East and North East	..	..	..	..	..	..
Barking and Dagenham	19	35	0	490	0	544
Bexley	50	10	27	136	39	262
Enfield	188	66	995	1,143	0	2,392
Greenwich	21	91	0	167	746	1,025
Havering	..	..	..	..	..	..
Redbridge	267	34	245	964	0	1,510
Waltham Forest	91	87	125	482	107	892
Outer London – South	754	279	1,020	2,581	408	5,042
Bromley	104	91	71	103	278	647
Croydon	539	0	427	2,034	0	3,000
Kingston upon Thames	8	102	474	80	31	695
Merton	57	53	0	82	6	198
Sutton	46	33	48	282	93	502
Outer London – West and North West	2,281	712	7,845	1,354	1,320	13,512
Barnet	154	80	829	647	359	2,069
Brent	631	50	2,752	107	144	3,684
Ealing	619	157	1,206	94	393	2,469
Harrow	9	58	1,427	11	4	1,509
Hillingdon	481	105	1,014	295	124	2,019
Hounslow	310	193	292	197	270	1,262
Richmond upon Thames	77	69	325	3	26	500

1 Households temporarily accommodated by local authorities pending enquiries, while awaiting rehousing under the 1985 Act or after being accepted as homeless under the 1996 Act, as at end March. Includes households which, after acceptance, remain in their existing accommodation while having the same right to accommodation as those placed in temporary accommodation (homeless at home).
2 Private sector properties leased by local authorities (LAs) or by Registered Social Landlords (RSLs).
3 Includes lettings within LAs own stock, by RSLs on assured shorthold tenancies, and directly by a private sector landlord.
4 Figures include estimates for missing data.

Source: Office of the Deputy Prime Minister

A5.1

NUTS 3 Areas in London

Source: Office for National Statistics

A5.2

Gross Value Added and factor incomes, residence basis[1]: London

	Gross Value Added				Income components as a percentage of total GVA	
	Total (£ million)	Total as a percentage of UK total[1]	£ per head	£ per head UK = 100[2]	Compensation of employees	Operating surplus/ mixed income[3]
1989	68,907	*14.9*	10,135	128.5	*62.9*	*37.1*
1990	74,933	*14.9*	10,935	128.1	*64.2*	*35.8*
1991	78,641	*15.0*	11,422	128.6	*64.0*	*36.0*
1992	82,409	*15.1*	11,930	129.2	*63.1*	*36.9*
1993	86,574	*15.1*	12,494	129.2	*61.9*	*38.1*
1994	91,118	*15.0*	13,088	128.7	*61.2*	*38.8*
1995	93,843	*14.8*	13,406	126.2	*61.7*	*38.3*
1996	99,490	*14.8*	14,107	126.1	*62.3*	*37.7*
1997	108,559	*15.2*	15,266	128.6	*61.8*	*38.2*
1998	118,499	*15.7*	16,532	131.7	*61.7*	*38.3*
1999	122,816	*15.6*	16,859	130.0	*62.6*	*37.4*

1 Estimates of regional GVA in this table are on a residence basis, where the income of commuters is allocated to where they live rather than their place of work.
2 Excluding GVA for Extra-Regio, which comprises compensation of employees and gross operating surplus that cannot be assigned to regions, and the statistical discrepancy of the income-based estimates.
3 Including taxes on production.

Source: Office for National Statistics

A5.3

Gross Value Added by industry group[1], residence basis: London

£ million

	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Agriculture, hunting, forestry & fishing	89	84	41	43	39	40	40	46	46	39
Mining and quarrying of energy producing materials	191	264	292	237	187	193	208	162	123	118
Other mining and quarrying	13	17	21	25	28	41	47	64	78	82
Manufacturing	10,428	10,367	10,380	10,362	10,388	11,573	11,929	12,091	12,490	12,941
Electricity, gas and water supply	1,422	1,461	1,813	1,781	1,840	1,759	1,659	1,621	1,601	1,588
Construction	3,862	4,261	3,902	3,565	3,274	3,421	3,665	4,069	4,603	4,934
Wholesale and retail trade (inc. motor trade)	8,159	8,942	9,166	10,075	10,743	11,053	11,682	12,661	14,154	15,218
Hotels and restaurants	2,342	2,631	2,745	2,973	2,940	3,314	3,557	3,974	4,385	4,790
Transport, storage and communication	7,868	8,538	8,777	9,052	9,115	9,711	9,603	9,756	10,905	11,782
Financial intermediation	8,710	9,351	8,705	10,856	11,615	13,386	12,432	12,554	12,599	13,059
Real estate, renting and business activities	17,057	18,921	20,146	20,919	22,295	24,069	25,509	27,689	31,251	36,753
Public administration and defence	3,852	4,407	4,681	5,101	5,513	5,255	5,282	5,160	5,034	5,045
Education	3,689	3,704	4,080	4,284	4,496	4,526	4,631	4,926	5,440	5,733
Health and social work	3,974	4,139	4,374	4,678	4,949	4,946	5,154	5,739	6,151	6,438
Other services	3,438	4,126	4,493	4,882	5,230	5,660	6,252	7,212	7,901	8,679
FISIM	-6,189	-6,283	-4,973	-6,423	-6,077	-7,828	-7,807	-8,234	-8,203	-8,701
Total	68,907	74,933	78,641	82,409	86,574	91,118	93,843	99,490	108,559	118,499

1 Industry based on the Standard Industrial Classification 1992.

Source: Office for National Statistics

A5.4

Total Household Income and Gross Disposable Household Income: London

	Total Household Income				Gross Disposable Household Income				GDHI as a percentage of total household income
	Total (£ million)	Total as a percentage of UK total	£ per head	£ per head UK = 100	Total (£ million)	Total as a percentage of UK total	£ per head	£ per head UK = 100	
1995	109,563	*14.5*	15,636	121.8	70,785	*14.2*	10,102	119	*64.6*
1996	116,859	*14.7*	16,519	122.2	75,340	*14.3*	10,650	119	*64.5*
1997	126,154	*15.0*	17,713	124.2	81,800	*14.5*	11,485	121	*64.8*
1998	136,966	*15.3*	19,057	126.5	84,890	*14.8*	11,811	122	*62.0*
1999	143,088	*15.4*	19,641	125.8	88,930	*14.7*	12,207	120	*62.2*

Source: Office for National Statistics

A5.5

Individual consumption expenditure[1]: London

	Total (£ million)	Total as a percentage of UK total	£ per head	£ per head UK = 100
1994	61,257	*14.1*	8,799	118.3
1995	63,080	*13.9*	9,011	116.1
1996	66,893	*13.8*	9,485	114.7
1997	72,873	*14.1*	10,248	116.8
1998	80,737	*14.6*	11,264	120.9
1999	89,241	*15.2*	12,250	124.2

1 Expenditure by households UK consumers, including private non-profit institutions serving households and UK households abroad but excluding expenditure in the UK by foreign residents.

Source: Office for National Statistics

A5.6

Individual consumption expenditure, by function: London

	Food, drink and tobacco	Housing and fuel	Other	Total
1994	10,751	11,632	39,083	61,466
1995	10,934	12,522	40,768	64,224
1996	11,433	12,997	43,193	67,623
1997	12,026	13,785	47,432	73,243
1998	12,628	15,081	52,733	80,442
1999	13,263	17,467	57,722	88,452

Source: Office for National Statistics

A6.1

Labour market statistics[1]

Percentages and thousands

	Economic activity rate[2,3] (percentages) Mar 2001/ Feb 2002	Employment rate[3,4] (percentages) Mar 2001/ Feb 2002	Unemployment rate[3,5] (percentages) Mar 2001/ Feb 2002	Claimant count, October 2002			
				Total (thousands)	*Of which* females (percentages)	*Of which* long-term claimants[6] (percentages)	Rate[7] (percentages)
London	*75.5*	*70.4*	*6.6*	167.2	*28.2*	*19.0*	*3.6*
Inner London	*71.1*	*64.8*	*8.7*	90.4	*28.0*	*21.3*	*..*
Inner London – West	*74.3*	*69.3*	*6.6*	24.0	*29.9*	*20.9*	*3.5*
Camden	*71.3*	*65.1*	*8.2*	6.1	*29.0*	*22.6*	*4.3*
City of London	*..*	*..*	*..*	0.1	*26.7*	*28.9*	*1.7*
Hammersmith and Fulham	*77.4*	*72.3*	*6.4*	4.6	*28.6*	*19.7*	*3.9*
Kensington and Chelsea	*69.9*	*65.5*	*6.1*	3.0	*32.6*	*21.1*	*2.7*
Wandsworth	*83.0*	*77.7*	*6.3*	5.7	*29.3*	*19.1*	*3.1*
Westminster	*69.3*	*65.0*	*6.1*	4.6	*31.4*	*21.9*	*3.5*
Inner London – East	*68.9*	*61.8*	*10.2*	66.4	*27.3*	*21.5*	*5.5*
Hackney	*65.5*	*57.4*	*12.2*	7.8	*28.3*	*16.1*	*5.9*
Haringey	*66.9*	*59.7*	*10.4*	7.7	*27.6*	*22.4*	*5.3*
Islington	*71.6*	*65.0*	*9.3*	6.2	*30.8*	*22.2*	*5.1*
Lambeth	*75.1*	*69.9*	*7.0*	10.7	*27.8*	*23.0*	*5.7*
Lewisham	*73.8*	*66.1*	*10.3*	7.9	*27.2*	*22.6*	*4.8*
Newham	*61.1*	*53.9*	*11.7*	8.0	*25.4*	*17.2*	*5.2*
Southwark	*72.1*	*64.2*	*10.7*	9.5	*28.3*	*25.9*	*5.8*
Tower Hamlets	*62.0*	*54.3*	*12.3*	8.4	*23.7*	*21.0*	*6.4*
Outer London	*78.5*	*74.3*	*5.3*	76.9	*28.4*	*16.2*	*..*
Outer London – East and North East	*76.5*	*72.0*	*5.8*	29.5	*29.0*	*15.9*	*3.0*
Barking and Dagenham	*72.7*	*67.9*	*6.4*	2.9	*26.5*	*14.2*	*3.0*
Bexley	*79.3*	*76.7*	*..*	2.7	*30.3*	*13.2*	*2.0*
Enfield	*74.7*	*69.8*	*6.4*	5.6	*29.7*	*16.2*	*3.2*
Greenwich	*75.6*	*69.8*	*7.4*	5.9	*29.7*	*18.8*	*4.3*
Havering	*81.0*	*77.9*	*..*	2.3	*30.6*	*12.7*	*1.7*
Redbridge	*77.1*	*71.7*	*6.8*	4.1	*29.9*	*13.1*	*2.8*
Waltham Forest	*74.0*	*68.9*	*6.9*	6.0	*27.2*	*17.9*	*4.2*
Outer London – South	*82.0*	*78.2*	*4.6*	16.4	*28.5*	*17.2*	*2.3*
Bromley	*81.0*	*77.8*	*3.9*	3.6	*29.1*	*16.9*	*2.0*
Croydon	*80.8*	*76.0*	*5.7*	6.5	*27.4*	*19.7*	*3.1*
Kingston upon Thames	*81.6*	*78.0*	*4.8*	1.6	*31.0*	*13.5*	*1.6*
Merton	*81.5*	*78.9*	*..*	2.9	*28.4*	*15.0*	*2.3*
Sutton	*86.7*	*82.2*	*5.1*	1.9	*29.4*	*15.8*	*1.6*
Outer London – West and North West	*78.0*	*73.7*	*5.4*	31.0	*27.8*	*16.0*	*2.8*
Barnet	*79.6*	*75.5*	*4.9*	5.5	*28.4*	*16.5*	*2.8*
Brent	*74.7*	*67.6*	*9.4*	8.1	*27.2*	*23.7*	*4.6*
Ealing	*73.9*	*69.1*	*6.3*	6.3	*26.1*	*15.4*	*3.1*
Harrow	*76.7*	*73.2*	*..*	3.0	*28.8*	*13.9*	*2.3*
Hillingdon	*80.3*	*76.9*	*4.1*	3.1	*28.1*	*9.7*	*2.0*
Hounslow	*78.9*	*74.4*	*5.6*	3.0	*28.8*	*7.3*	*2.2*
Richmond upon Thames	*83.1*	*80.8*	*..*	1.9	*30.9*	*11.4*	*1.7*

1 See Notes and Definitions for a glossary of terms.
2 Percentage of the household population of working age (males aged 16 to 64 and females aged 16 to 59) who are in the labour force.
3 Data are from the Labour Force Survey Annual Local Area Database and are not seasonally adjusted. For some boroughs, sample sizes are too small to provide a reliable estimate. Data have not been adjusted to reflect the 2001 Census population data.
4 Percentage of the household population of working age (males aged 16 to 64 and females aged 16 to 59) who are in employment.
5 Percentage of the labour force (all aged 16 and over) who are unemployed according to the ILO definition (see glossary of terms in Notes and Definitions for Chapter 6).
6 Persons who have been unemployed for 12 months or more (computerised claims only) as a percentage of all claimants.
7 Claimant count rate as percentage of resident working age population of area. NB these are different from the national and regional workplace based claimant count rates.

Source: Office for National Statistics

A6.2

Projects approved for Objective 3 funding from the European Social Fund[1,2]: by borough, 2000

Numbers and £

	Policy fields 1, 2 and 5			Policy fields 3 and 4			
	Projects approved	Capacity building[3]	Total ESF amount	Projects recommended for approval		Capacity building[3]	Total ESF amount
				Borough-based	Pan-London		
			£				£
Barking and Dagenham	2	0	883,815	2	0	0	184,865
Barnet	4	1	812,174	0	1	0	203,799
Bexley	1	0	67,500	2	0	0	703,377
Brent	1	0	153,300	2	1	1	640,662
Bromley	2	1	464,387	0	1	0	53,964
Camden	23	1	2,910,039	3	0	0	418,241
City of London	0	0	0	0	6	0	1,509,246
Croydon	1	0	236,421	1	0	0	151,455
Ealing	2	1	966,552	3	0	0	1,005,241
Enfield[4]	4	3	735,194	3	0	0	167,386
Greenwich	4	0	1,768,612	3	0	0	543,971
Hackney	28	0	6,467,223	5	0	0	1,603,992
Hammersmith and Fulham	20	2	4,516,425	2	1	0	358,958
Haringey[4]	12	2	2,231,731	11	0	1	1,104,282
Harrow	1	0	84,857	2	0	0	570,492
Havering	3	1	436,497	0	0	0	0
Hillingdon	1	0	489,521	0	0	0	0
Hounslow	3	0	672,884	2	0	0	338,558
Islington	17	2	7,008,523	11	3	0	3,214,243
Kensington and Chelsea	5	0	1,929,207	1	0	0	132,723
Kingston upon Thames	1	0	674,143	0	0	0	0
Lambeth	14	3	6,782,626	3	0	1	658,413
Lewisham	9	1	1,189,700	4	0	0	450,306
Merton	0	1	119,600	1	0	1	60,428
Newham	33	2	11,499,351	9	1	0	1,352,993
Redbridge	2	0	333,894	0	0	0	0
Richmond upon Thames	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Southwark	22	0	3,284,474	6	2	0	1,530,973
Sutton	2	1	844,911	0	0	0	0
Tower Hamlets	18	3	3,471,506	7	0	0	690,452
Waltham Forest	7	1	1,953,480	2	0	0	171,199
Wandsworth	1	0	255,292	2	0	0	382,424
Westminster	2	1	759,045	2	9	0	1,276,669
Surrey[5]	0	0	0	0	2	0	221,963
Totals	245	26	64,002,884	88	27	4	19,701,275

1 Initial figures from the first two bidding rounds of the 2000–2006 ESF Objective 3 Programme, as at December 2000.
2 Policy fields are as follows: (1) Active labour market policies, (2) Equal opportunities and social inclusion for all, (3) Lifelong learning, (4) Adaptability (employability) and entrepreneurship, (5) Promoting the participation of women in the labour market.
3 At least 5 per cent of the total funds for the Objective 3 Programme in London are to be allocated for capacity building. This seeks to develop the skills, information, knowledge and infrastructure of the local community, and to help local people establish and/or participate in local partnerships. Actions are not seen as one-off, short term interventions, but rather as ongoing efforts which can be sustained in the community over a period of time.
4 One capacity building project was shared between Enfield and Haringey.
5 Pan-London bids from Surrey-based applicants.

Source: European Unit, Government Office for London

A7.1

Key statistical indicators for maintained schools

	Pupil/teacher ratio, 2001/02 (numbers)		Percentage of pupils with statements of special educational needs[1] 2001/02	Expenditure per pupil by LEAs, 2001/02 (£)[2]		Surplus places, 2001/01 as a percentage of total places[3]	
	Primary schools	Secondary schools		Pre-primary/ Primary education	Secondary education	Primary schools	Secondary schools
England	22.5	16.9	*3.0*	2,542	3,122	*10.1*	*7.5*
London	22.4	16.6	*2.8*	3,003	3,718	*7.6*	*7.6*
Inner London[4]	21.6	16.0	*3.0*	3,407	4,330	*8.8*	*9.7*
Inner London – West							
Camden	20.3	16.0	*3.0*	3,604	4,014	*8.3*	*8.3*
City of London	..	..	..	4,727	..	*2.9*	..
Hammersmith and Fulham	21.8	17.0	*3.7*	3,131	3,827	*10.7*	*6.5*
Kensington and Chelsea	18.9	14.9	*1.4*	3,470	4,356	*13.3*	*13.9*
Wandsworth	20.3	16.3	*3.2*	3,826	4,075	*8.9*	*4.6*
Westminster	21.4	15.1	*2.4*	4,061	4,621	*4.4*	*8.7*
Inner London – East							
Hackney	21.3	16.9	*2.9*	3,409	4,810	*10.8*	*10.0*
Haringey	22.7	15.6	*2.5*	3,330	4,339	*5.5*	*11.5*
Islington	21.2	16.1	*3.2*	3,251	4,579	*12.4*	*9.8*
Lambeth	20.7	15.8	*3.8*	2,929	3,461	*11.4*	*19.0*
Lewisham	21.3	15.9	3.2	3,247	4,066	*5.7*	*13.8*
Newham	23.8	16.5	*2.5*	3,017	4,085	*5.5*	*7.3*
Southwark	22.0	15.9	*3.1*	3,768	5,059	*7.9*	*10.5*
Tower Hamlets	21.7	16.1	*3.8*	3,676	4,849	*12.6*	*6.9*
Outer London[4]	22.9	16.8	*2.8*	2,767	3,442	*6.9*	*6.6*
Outer London – East and North East							
Barking and Dagenham	23.6	16.6	*2.8*	2,925	3,673	*7.2*	*4.2*
Bexley	23.8	17.9	*2.7*	2,331	3,014	*6.0*	*11.2*
Enfield	22.6	16.3	*2.5*	2,760	3,460	*3.3*	*12.3*
Greenwich	21.5	15.2	*3.7*	3,293	3,962	*12.2*	*9.1*
Havering	23.7	17.3	*2.7*	2,461	3,356	*11.0*	*5.6*
Redbridge	23.1	16.6	*2.2*	2,653	3,586	*4.4*	*3.5*
Waltham Forest	23.0	16.7	*3.5*	3,108	3,921	*8.4*	*6.7*
Outer London – South							
Bromley	23.4	17.3	*3.2*	2,526	3,054	*2.4*	*2.2*
Croydon	22.8	17.4	*2.0*	2,898	3,502	*5.1*	*7.3*
Kingston upon Thames	23.8	17.2	*2.2*	2,646	3,083	*2.9*	*6.9*
Merton	21.5	17.9	*3.1*	2,815	3,298	*9.0*	*14.9*
Sutton	23.4	17.7	*3.0*	2,671	2,999	*6.3*	*4.7*
Outer London – West and North West							
Barnet	22.2	15.7	*2.7*	2,660	3,347	*3.2*	*3.1*
Brent	21.9	15.7	*2.9*	2,826	3,935	*7.6*	*8.6*
Ealing	23.8	17.8	*2.5*	2,925	3,498	*9.7*	*1.7*
Harrow	22.7	16.7	*2.6*	2,959	3,564	*11.0*	*8.8*
Hillingdon	24.4	17.3	*3.1*	2,449	3,430	*6.6*	*7.1*
Hounslow	22.8	16.8	*3.2*	2,908	3,452	*10.0*	*3.4*
Richmond upon Thames	21.7	18.3	*2.3*	2,775	3,519	*3.8*	*7.4*

1 According to the LEA area in which they go to school. Pupils who are dually registered in mainstream schools and special schools or pupil referral units are counted only once.
2 Provisional. Based on number of full-time equivalent pupils.
3 Surplus places data are taken after summer entry to primary schools. Data for secondary schools are as at January.
4 Figures relate to the standard definition of Inner and Outer London used elsewhere in the publication, not to the former ILEA area.

Source: Department for Education and Skills

A8.1

Income Support beneficiaries[1,2] as a percentage of the population aged 16 or over

Percentages

Local Authority	
Inner London	
Inner London – West	
Camden	*14*
City of London[3]	*5*
Hammersmith and Fulham	*12*
Kensington and Chelsea	*9*
Wandsworth	*9*
Westminster	*11*
Inner London – East	
Hackney	*20*
Haringey	*16*
Islington	*17*
Lambeth	*14*
Lewisham	*12*
Newham	*18*
Southwark	*15*
Tower Hamlets	*20*
Outer London	
Outer London – East and North East	
Barking and Dagenham	*15*
Bexley	*7*
Enfield	*12*
Greenwich	*13*
Havering	*7*
Redbridge	*9*
Waltham Forest	*13*
Outer London – South	
Bromley	*7*
Croydon	*9*
Kingston upon Thames	*5*
Merton	*7*
Sutton	*6*
Outer London – West and North West	
Barnet	*9*
Brent	*13*
Ealing	*11*
Harrow	*9*
Hillingdon	*9*
Hounslow	*11*
Richmond upon Thames	*5*

1 Claimants and their partners aged 16 or over.
2 Figures are based on a 5 per cent sample and are therefore subject to a degree of sampling variation.
3 This estimate is based on only a few cases. It should be used as a guide only.

Source: Income Support Quarterly Statistical Enquiry, November 2002

A8.2

Indices of Deprivation[1] for selected Local Authorities in England[2], 2000

	Rank of employment scale[3]	Rank of income scale[4]	Rank of average of ward scores[5]	Rank of average ward ranks[6]	Extent rank[7]	Local concentration rank[8]
Barking and Dagenham	75	64	47	24	74	11
Barnsley	21	41	19	16	29	20
Barrow-in-Furness	102	164	24	23	22	24
Blackburn with Darwen	71	59	10	26	15	8
Bolsover	152	176	30	20	41	2
Easington	65	96	7	4	6	3
Hackney	18	17	4	2	1	4
Halton	66	81	16	18	13	81
Hartlepool	79	95	8	10	11	49
Hastings	124	127	35	27	51	10
Islington	33	43	11	8	9	52
Kingston upon Hull	15	11	13	14	17	22
Knowsley	28	36	2	6	5	54
Lambeth	17	21	42	21	79	12
Lewisham	29	31	53	30	76	25
Liverpool	2	2	3	5	7	32
Manchester	3	3	6	7	4	47
Mansfield	96	113	37	29	33	38
Newham	20	7	5	3	3	28
Nottingham	14	10	12	12	14	44
Penwith	176	181	49	25	63	87
Salford	31	29	21	28	27	85
Sandwell	24	9	17	11	19	29
South Tyneside	51	55	15	13	10	109
Southwark	22	23	14	9	12	79
Stoke-on-Trent	26	35	34	22	54	16
Sunderland	8	15	18	15	26	48
Tower Hamlets	34	16	1	1	2	30
Wansbeck	141	198	27	17	36	59
Wear Valley	154	177	22	19	21	89

1 Indices of Deprivation ranked out of 354 districts, with 1 representing the most deprived.
2 See Notes and Definitions.
3 Rank of numbers of people who are employment deprived.
4 Rank of numbers of people who are income deprived.
5 Rank of population weighted averages of the combined scores for the wards in a district.
6 Rank of population weighted averages of the combined ranks of the wards in a district.
7 Rank of proportions of a district's population living in the wards (in that district) which rank within the most deprived 10 per cent of wards in the country.
8 Rank of local concentration, where 'local concentration' is the population weighted average of the ranks of a district's most deprived wards that contain exactly 10 per cent of the district's population.

Source: Office of the Deputy Prime Minister

A8.3

Health and Care of people in London Boroughs[1], April 2001

Thousands and percentages

	With limiting long-term illness[2] (percentages)	Of working age[3] with limiting long-term illness (percentages)	Claiming good health[4] (percentages)	Individuals providing 50 hours or more unpaid care[5] per week (percentages)	Total population (thousands)	Households with one person or more with a limiting long-term illness (percentages)	Number of households (thousands)
England and Wales	*18.2*	*8.3*	*68.6*	*2.1*	52,042	*34.0*	21,660
England	*17.9*	*8.2*	*68.8*	*2.0*	49,139	*33.6*	20,451
London	*15.5*	*7.8*	*70.8*	*1.7*	7,172	*29.7*	3,016
Inner London	*15.6*	*8.7*	*70.7*	*1.6*	2,766	*29.0*	1,220
Camden	*15.8*	*9.3*	*71.3*	*1.3*	198	*28.3*	92
City of London	*13.3*	*7.3*	*73.8*	*1.1*	7	*19.3*	4
Hackney	*18.1*	*10.5*	*68.4*	*1.7*	203	*34.7*	86
Hammersmith and Fulham	*14.7*	*8.0*	*73.0*	*1.2*	165	*27.0*	75
Haringey	*15.5*	*8.7*	*70.2*	*1.5*	217	*29.5*	92
Islington	*17.9*	*10.6*	*68.0*	*1.6*	176	*32.0*	82
Kensington and Chelsea	*13.6*	*7.1*	*75.2*	*1.0*	159	*23.5*	79
Lambeth	*14.4*	*8.1*	*71.6*	*1.3*	266	*26.4*	118
Lewisham	*15.6*	*8.2*	*69.2*	..	249	*29.4*	107
Newham	*17.3*	*9.8*	*68.0*	*2.2*	244	*36.5*	92
Southwark	*15.6*	*8.5*	*70.3*	*1.7*	245	*29.7*	106
Tower Hamlets	*17.2*	*9.9*	*67.9*	*2.4*	196	*33.8*	79
Wandsworth	*13.4*	*6.8*	*74.6*	*1.2*	260	*24.1*	116
Westminster	*14.8*	*8.0*	*72.4*	*1.2*	181	*25.0*	91
Outer London	*15.4*	*7.2*	*70.9*	*1.7*	4,406	*30.1*	1,796
Barking and Dagenham	*19.9*	*9.6*	*65.5*	*2.7*	164	*38.6*	67
Barnet	*14.6*	*6.4*	*72.5*	*1.5*	315	*28.4*	127
Bexley	*15.6*	*6.4*	*70.3*	*1.9*	218	*30.7*	89
Brent	*15.6*	*8.2*	*70.0*	*1.7*	263	*32.4*	100
Bromley	*15.0*	*6.2*	*72.4*	*1.6*	296	*28.2*	126
Croydon	*14.7*	*7.1*	*70.7*	*1.6*	331	*27.9*	139
Ealing	*15.1*	*7.7*	*71.1*	*1.7*	301	*30.4*	118
Enfield	*16.2*	*7.7*	*69.5*	*1.8*	274	*31.5*	110
Greenwich	*17.4*	*8.7*	*68.4*	*2.0*	214	*32.5*	93
Harrow	*14.9*	*6.5*	*72.1*	*1.7*	207	*30.6*	79
Havering	*17.2*	*7.0*	*69.7*	*2.1*	224	*33.2*	92
Hillingdon	*14.9*	*6.9*	*71.3*	*1.8*	243	*30.0*	97
Hounslow	*14.9*	*7.8*	*70.9*	*1.7*	212	*30.2*	84
Kingston upon Thames	*12.9*	*5.7*	*73.9*	*1.2*	147	*24.9*	61
Merton	*13.8*	*6.3*	*72.7*	*1.4*	188	*26.6*	79
Redbridge	*16.3*	*7.6*	*69.8*	*2.0*	239	*33.0*	92
Richmond upon Thames	*12.4*	*5.2*	*76.3*	*1.1*	172	*23.0*	76
Sutton	*14.8*	*6.5*	*71.5*	*1.6*	180	*27.7*	76
Waltham Forest	*16.5*	*8.5*	*68.6*	*1.9*	218	*32.0*	90

1 Cells in this table have been adjusted to avoid the release of confidential data.
2 Limiting long-term illness covers any long-term illness, health problem or disability which limits daily activities or work.
3 Working age population is 16 to 64 inclusive for men and 16 to 59 inclusive for women.
4 General health refers to health over the 12 months prior to Census day (29 April 2001).
5 Provision of unpaid care: looking after; giving help or support to family members; friends; neighbours or others because of long-term physical or mental ill-health or disability or problems relating to old age.

Source: Office for National Statistics

A8.4

Notifiable offences known to the police: by offence group and borough, 2001/02

Numbers

	Violence against the person	Sexual offences	Robbery	Burglary	Theft and handling stolen goods	Fraud and forgery	Criminal damage	Drugs offences	Other notifiable	Total
London[1]	161,952	9,977	53,593	116,498	450,033	89,342	148,169	26,677	11,217	1,067,458
Inner London	80,038	5,355	33,056	58,226	264,646	42,826	62,950	16,131	5,789	569,017
Inner London – West	27,148	1,995	9,728	21,941	134,274	18,520	21,291	6,929	2,454	244,280
Camden	5,473	416	2,439	5,857	28,098	4,010	5,073	1,315	422	53,103
City of London	593	33	46	471	6,461	1,469	365	469	191	10,098
Hammersmith and Fulham	4,283	219	1,343	2,789	14,549	1,359	3,719	884	342	29,487
Kensington and Chelsea	3,063	191	1,189	2,826	17,043	1,898	2,431	688	276	29,605
Wandsworth	5,002	364	1,948	4,352	15,026	3,040	4,874	812	299	35,717
Westminster	8,734	772	2,763	5,646	53,097	6,744	4,829	2,761	924	86,270
Inner London – East	52,890	3,360	23,328	36,285	130,372	24,306	41,659	9,202	3,335	324,737
Hackney	6,702	370	3,009	4,287	16,831	2,356	4,898	969	347	39,769
Haringey	5,088	492	2,626	4,803	14,942	2,753	5,043	1,507	407	37,661
Islington	5,667	347	1,659	4,567	17,747	1,611	4,632	915	466	37,611
Lambeth	8,232	544	6,465	6,974	22,206	3,939	6,509	1,733	490	57,092
Lewisham	5,501	389	1,966	3,490	10,004	1,939	4,669	749	301	29,008
Newham	7,550	433	2,400	3,886	15,607	3,504	5,681	1,091	464	40,616
Southwark	7,760	438	3,086	5,016	17,565	4,762	5,517	1,138	425	45,707
Tower Hamlets	6,390	347	2,117	3,262	15,470	3,442	4,710	1,100	435	37,273
Outer London	81,562	4,569	20,521	58,193	180,988	45,202	85,067	10,481	4,640	491,223
Outer London – East and North East	30,533	1,800	7,328	21,297	66,142	16,414	31,076	3,957	1,716	180,263
Barking and Dagenham	3,941	211	861	2,220	7,017	2,032	3,607	467	182	20,538
Bexley	3,339	222	501	2,394	6,964	1,429	5,726	437	188	21,200
Enfield	5,077	296	1,292	4,411	11,029	2,205	4,207	545	339	29,401
Greenwich	6,257	361	750	2,794	10,486	2,142	5,046	884	275	28,995
Havering	3,225	173	549	2,567	8,636	1,659	4,317	539	203	21,868
Redbridge	3,721	240	1,221	2,899	11,562	3,548	4,135	405	270	28,001
Waltham Forest	4,973	297	2,154	4,012	10,448	3,399	4,038	680	259	30,260
Outer London – South	18,320	1,071	4,303	12,678	42,187	9,432	21,898	2,151	965	113,005
Bromley	3,843	232	917	3,580	11,618	1,713	5,994	506	235	28,638
Croydon	6,206	384	2,095	4,131	13,386	3,806	6,386	760	296	37,450
Kingston upon Thames	2,667	153	318	1,180	5,153	1,206	2,602	378	154	13,811
Merton	3,153	187	634	1,967	6,345	1,603	3,420	252	186	17,747
Sutton	2,451	115	339	1,820	5,685	1,104	3,496	255	94	15,359
Outer London – West and North West	32,709	1,698	8,890	24,218	72,659	19,356	32,093	4,373	1,959	197,955
Barnet	4,842	245	1,335	3,954	12,074	3,930	5,092	546	256	32,274
Brent	5,688	334	2,359	4,099	10,831	4,098	4,520	1,021	326	33,276
Ealing	6,842	342	2,264	4,533	15,209	2,954	5,818	762	404	39,128
Harrow	2,658	118	892	2,623	6,376	2,092	2,819	445	194	18,217
Hillingdon[2]	4,766	268	645	3,643	10,539	2,647	5,790	535	241	29,074
Hounslow[2]	5,798	279	1,042	3,192	11,279	2,466	4,883	667	323	29,929
Richmond upon Thames	2,115	112	353	2,174	6,351	1,169	3,171	397	215	16,057
Heathrow Airport	344	33	16	78	4,350	627	151	61	711	6,371
Others	8	20	0	1	49	687	1	4	77	847

1 The London totals include Heathrow Airport, Thames Division, Central Cheque Squad and other crime recording units which cannot be allocated to a borough.

2 Excludes offences that fall within the borough boundaries at Heathrow Airport.

Source: City of London and Metropolitan Police Forces

A9.1

Number of bedspaces in London: by borough, 2002[1]

Numbers

	Hotels, motels, inns and guesthouses		Bed and breakfast establishments[2]	
	Number of establishments	Number of bedspaces	Number of establishments	Number of bedspaces
London	753	155,624	756	30,443
Inner London				
Inner London – West				
Camden	71	21,950	59	3,322
City of London	8	2,841	0	0
Hammersmith and Fulham	31	5,766	12	262
Kensington and Chelsea	97	21,990	69	4,871
Wandsworth	5	761	9	81
Westminster	171	51,746	256	16,675
Inner London – East				
Hackney	8	852	8	428
Haringey	5	287	12	183
Islington	10	2,764	5	134
Lambeth	10	2,238	7	318
Lewisham	4	414	21	106
Newham	10	1,684	3	118
Southwark	15	3,229	6	117
Tower Hamlets	7	3,844	0	0
Outer London				
Outer London – East and North East				
Barking and Dagenham	7	857	0	0
Bexley	5	572	11	110
Enfield	8	789	1	6
Greenwich	15	752	24	220
Havering	12	721	5	65
Redbridge	18	1,231	6	93
Waltham Forest	5	538	7	281
Outer London – South				
Bromley	16	681	17	153
Croydon	23	2,734	24	210
Kingston upon Thames	9	582	12	95
Merton	9	435	12	313
Sutton	8	517	11	81
Outer London – West and North West				
Barnet	17	1,486	17	338
Brent	13	2,101	12	249
Ealing	24	2,087	18	350
Harrow	14	1,223	17	190
Hillingdon	42	13,898	24	260
Hounslow	21	2,557	17	376
Richmond upon Thames	35	1,497	54	438

1 Known stock of serviced accommodation November 2002.
2 An establishment that provides accommodation, some service and breakfast but no other meal.

Source: English Tourism Council; British Tourist Authority; London Tourist Board

A9.2

Visitors to the top twenty tourist attractions in London[1]

Thousands

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
City of London								
St Paul's Cathedral[2]	2,600	2,200	2,000	2,000	1,095	1,076	937	838
Museum of London	274	264	278	293	303	350	357	315
Camden								
British Museum	5,897	5,746	6,228	6,057	5,620	5,461	5,466	4,801
British Library Exhibition Galleries[3]	.	.	.	.	.	.	318	370
Greenwich								
National Maritime Museum[4]	538	609	458	476	474	564	335	410
Kensington and Chelsea								
Natural History Museum	1,625	1,064	1,607	1,793	1,905	1,740	1,577	1,696
Victoria and Albert Museum[5]	1,440	1,224	1,300	1,041	1,102	946	1,344	1,446
Science Museum	1,269	1,556	1,548	1,537	1,550	1,481	1,337	1,353
Lambeth								
British Airways London Eye[3]	.	.	.	.	.	.	3,300	3,850
Southwark								
Tate Modern	.	.	.	.	.	.	3,874	3,552
Imperial War Museum	468	478	444	520	472	483	576	638
Tower Hamlets								
Tower of London	2,407	2,537	2,539	2,615	2,536	2,422	2,303	2,019
Westminster								
National Gallery[5]	4,302	4,469	5,000	4,809	4,770	4,965	4,898	4,919
National Portrait Gallery	1,044	849	808	888	1,017	1,000	1,178	1,270
Tate Britain	2,226	1,770	2,002	1,758	2,181	1,822	1,204	1,012
Westminster Abbey[6]	2,200	2,245	2,500	2,500	3,000	1,268	1,230	986
Royal Academy	952	881	780	859	913	1,390	761	910
London Zoo	1,047	1,043	1,002	1,098	1,053	1,068	930	907
Serpentine Gallery	230	190	250	203	376	..	400	441
Photographers Gallery[7]	372	400	400	350	400	499	350	400

1 Excluding two attractions where the operators did not authorise figures for publication.
2 Up to 1997 these figures were estimates.
3 Estimate for 2001.
4 1999 and earlier data included visits to the Royal Observatory and Queen's House as well as the National Maritime Museum.
5 Estimate for 1996.
6 Estimates for 1996, 1997 and 1998.
7 Estimates, except for 2000.

Source: English Tourism Council

A9.3

Sports facilities[1]: by borough, 2003[2]

Numbers

	Sports halls[3]	Swimming pools[4]	Athletics tracks – synthetic	Indoor tennis centres	Ice rinks	Synthetic turf pitches	Dry ski slopes
Inner London							
Inner London – West							
Camden	2	3	1	0	0	1	0
City of London	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Hammersmith and Fulham	2	1	1	3	0	1	0
Kensington and Chelsea	3	2	0	1	0	1	0
Wandsworth	7	5	2	0	0	2	0
Westminster	5	4	1	0	1	1	0
Inner London – East							
Hackney	3	3	0	0	0	2	0
Haringey	12	4	2	1	0	2	0
Islington	4	4	0	1	1	1	0
Lambeth	5	3	0	0	1	1	0
Lewisham	3	4	1	0	0	2	0
Newham	5	3	1	0	0	1	0
Southwark	8	6	2	0	0	4	0
Tower Hamlets	7	5	1	1	0	4	0
Outer London							
Outer London – East and North East							
Barking and Dagenham	6	4	1	0	0	1	0
Bexley	9	3	1	1	0	1	0
Enfield	12	7	1	2	2	7	0
Greenwich	9	6	1	0	0	2	0
Havering	7	4	1	0	0	1	0
Redbridge	9	4	2	1	0	2	0
Waltham Forest	2	4	1	1	0	3	0
Outer London – South							
Bromley	15	7	2	2	0	5	1
Croydon	13	8	1	1	0	2	0
Kingston upon Thames	4	2	1	0	0	1	0
Merton	3	5	1	2	0	2	0
Sutton	7	3	1	1	0	1	0
Outer London – West and North West							
Barnet	12	6	1	1	..	4	0
Brent	6	2	1	0	..	3	0
Ealing	10	4	1	2	..	0	0
Harrow	6	4	1	0	..	1	0
Hillingdon	6	3	1	0	..	3	0
Hounslow	8	5	1	1	..	6	0
Richmond upon Thames	8	2	1	0	..	3	0

1 All facilities are for use by the public/community.
2 As at 25 February 2003.
3 Halls of a size equalling at least four badminton courts.
4 Swimming pools at least 25m long.

Source: Sport England

A10.1

Licensed vehicles[1]: London

Thousands

	Private and light goods			Public transport vehicles				
	Car	Other vehicles	Motor cycles, scooters and mopeds	Including taxis and buses	Buses only	Goods vehicles over 3.5 tonnes	Others[2]	All vehicles
1987	2,195	235	80	21	..	47	75	2,653
1988	2,274	246	76	22	..	46	73	2,737
1989	2,329	252	77	21	..	43	74	2,796
1990	2,368	252	77	22	..	41	71	2,831
1991	2,322	254	72	22	..	38	73	2,781
1992[3]	2,325	230	68	22	..	35	66	2,745
1993	2,261	220	64	22	..	34	74	2,674
1994	2,298	221	64	22	..	35	77	2,716
1995[4]	2,263	220	62	..	8	33	97	2,684
1996	2,286	221	66	..	8	31	107	2,720
1997	2,277	220	72	..	8	31	114	2,723
1998	2,287	215	81	..	8	29	113	2,733
1999	2,319	217	90	..	9	28	112	2,776
2000	2,331	216	98	..	9	27	111	2,792
2001	2,379	217	103	..	10	27	110	2,846

1 Vehicles with keeper's address in London at the end of the year. Some company cars kept outside London may be registered to a London head office address.
2 Includes crown and exempt vehicles, agricultural tractors etc, three-wheelers, pedestrian-controlled vehicles and showmen's haulage vehicles.
3 Until 1992 vehicles which had been sold, but where no new owner was known, were allocated to the old address; from 1993 they have not been allocated to an address. This is likely to produce an under-count of about 1.5 per cent. See Notes and Definitions.
4 Several vehicle types were reclassified in 1995. See Notes and Definitions.

Source: Driver Vehicle Licensing Agency; Department for Transport

A10.2

Road traffic movements across cordons (boundaries)

Thousands

	Pedal cycles	Motor cycles	Cars	Taxis	Goods vehicles: light	Goods vehicles: medium	Goods vehicles: heavy	Buses & coaches	All motor vehicles
Central London cordon[1]									
1974[2]	..	44	1,020	120	162	131	..	37	1,514
1977	27	76	1,018	137	149	98	32	38	1,548
1979	39	75	1,063	136	146	91	33	35	1,579
1981	46	77	1,078	125	141	94	36	39	1,591
1983	47	81	1,071	125	134	91	32	39	1,574
1985	44	79	1,105	131	155	93	30	38	1,631
1987	30	65	1,086	131	173	90	17	34	1,597
1989[3]	43	79	1,160	158	204	94	18	37	1,750
1991	37	68	1,094	162	181	84	16	39	1,644
1993	35	65	1,017	161	172	77	10	39	1,541
1995	45	72	1,054	165	181	86	12	42	1,613
1997	51	82	1,030	162	178	75	13	45	1,585
1999	56	85	997	169	183	69	13	44	1,559
2001	51	92	942	172	190	58	13	45	1,512
2002	61	91	895	166	181	50	14	46	1,442
Inner London cordon									
1972[2]	..	45	1,395	25	200	170	..	37	1,872
1975[4]	..	60	1,439	..	175	121	52	36	1,882
1978	20	72	1,502	36	196	130	54	37	2,027
1981	27	77	1,502	35	184	115	45	34	1,992
1984	33	77	1,552	42	202	117	38	36	2,064
1987	24	58	1,606	40	216	110	34	35	2,098
1990	25	60	1,652	49	239	106	30	36	2,173
1993	27	53	1,606	39	227	94	22	39	2,080
1996	30	60	1,644	47	232	100	24	45	2,151
1999	31	70	1,635	60	251	80	26	47	2,168
2002	25	70	1,593	52	279	64	25	46	2,129
London boundary cordon									
1971[4]	..	25	1,131	..	150	91	64	21	1,482
1974[4]	..	28	1,178	..	157	100	67	21	1,550
1977	15	46	1,335	5	137	110	66	20	1,719
1980	14	44	1,440	6	145	111	74	18	1,838
1983	15	46	1,565	6	159	111	77	19	1,984
1986	16	41	1,670	8	194	111	58	17	2,100
1989[3]	15	36	1,991	10	225	115	58	18	2,454
1992	12	33	1,983	10	229	101	54	19	2,430
1995	13	37	2,023	10	255	117	55	22	2,519
1998	10	38	2,050	12	265	111	56	24	2,555
2001	9	42	2,048	14	300	84	56	22	2,566

1 Covers an area within a radius of 1.5 to 2 miles of Aldwych and is approximately the area bounded by the mainline railway termini.
2 Figures for medium goods vehicles include heavy goods vehicles.
3 The 1989 figures may be overestimated as they are based on counts at very few sites and are thus subject to greater sampling variation; they will be influenced by extreme changes in late evening and night-time flows.
4 Figures for cars include taxis.

Source: Transport for London

A10.3

Fatal and serious road casualties[1]: by type of road user, 2001

Numbers

	Pedestrian	Pedal cycle	Powered cycle	Car[2]	Other road users	Total
London[3]	1,803	463	1,286	2,174	375	6,101
Inner London	992	287	715	682	190	2,866
Inner London – West	420	125	310	226	82	1,163
Camden	71	24	63	49	18	225
City of London	22	10	12	5	6	55
Hammersmith and Fulham	53	19	40	30	5	147
Kensington and Chelsea	53	22	37	32	8	152
Wandsworth	59	22	68	49	11	209
Westminster	162	28	90	61	34	375
Inner London – East	572	162	405	456	108	1,703
Hackney	91	22	58	55	18	244
Haringey	79	8	28	72	7	194
Islington	81	35	61	33	16	226
Lambeth	78	35	70	59	19	261
Lewisham	66	9	51	72	23	221
Newham	45	12	18	71	4	150
Southwark	75	29	67	63	14	248
Tower Hamlets	57	12	52	31	7	159
Outer London[4]	810	176	570	1,491	181	3,228
Outer London – East and North East	275	59	197	619	77	1,227
Barking and Dagenham	25	5	13	61	7	111
Bexley	34	10	27	58	6	135
Enfield	55	6	46	117	13	237
Greenwich	44	10	34	104	13	205
Havering	37	10	19	90	9	165
Redbridge	34	7	28	101	12	182
Waltham Forest	46	11	30	88	17	192
Outer London – South	193	42	172	338	30	775
Bromley	40	7	33	104	12	196
Croydon	72	9	57	116	10	264
Kingston upon Thames	25	9	17	39	4	94
Merton	32	9	33	35	0	109
Sutton	24	8	32	44	4	112
Outer London – West and North West	342	75	201	534	74	1,226
Barnet	64	8	41	121	13	247
Brent	66	9	32	67	12	186
Ealing	68	19	38	78	14	217
Harrow	40	6	11	39	9	105
Hillingdon	39	9	21	115	12	196
Hounslow	40	16	35	90	10	191
Richmond upon Thames	25	8	23	24	4	84
Heathrow Airport	1	0	1	1	4	7

1 See Notes and Definitions.
2 Includes taxis and minibuses.
3 Includes Heathrow Airport.
4 Excludes Heathrow Airport.

Source: Department for Transport

A10.4

Employee jobs in transport and communications, 2001

Numbers

	Transport[1]	Post and telecommunications[2]	Total employees
London[3]	130,178	105,144	4,014,819
Inner London	50,038	62,531	2,330,399
Inner London – West	20,103	31,622	1,477,883
Camden	2,237	8,680	259,355
City of London	1,029	6,948	306,370
Hammersmith and Fulham	2,143	2,548	107,918
Kensington and Chelsea	1,103	1,491	127,114
Wandsworth	1,806	3,957	106,678
Westminster[3]	11,785	7,998	570,448
Inner London – East	29,935	30,909	852,516
Hackney	2,562	3,393	92,191
Haringey	3,124	945	59,900
Islington[3]	2,283	12,673	150,053
Lambeth	3,278	2,734	112,771
Lewisham	1,897	1,733	62,756
Newham[3]	2,031	1,843	64,241
Southwark	11,166	3,798	160,833
Tower Hamlets[3]	3,594	3,790	149,771
Outer London	80,141	42,614	1,684,419
Outer London – East and North East	14,315	10,379	467,225
Barking and Dagenham[3]	2,364	711	48,109
Bexley[3]	1,427	1,111	63,462
Enfield	3,886	2,453	93,874
Greenwich	1,625	1,523	61,654
Havering	1,899	2,070	75,185
Redbridge[3]	1,772	1,831	67,987
Waltham Forest[3]	1,342	680	56,954
Outer London – South	7,012	12,006	438,875
Bromley	1,556	1,632	96,604
Croydon[3]	2,123	5,890	137,884
Kingston upon Thames[3]	460	2,151	71,136
Merton[3]	1,439	1,210	70,035
Sutton	1,434	1,123	63,216
Outer London – West and North West	58,814	20,229	778,319
Barnet	1,776	3,302	112,180
Brent	3,929	2,657	99,878
Ealing[3]	4,204	2,867	116,363
Harrow	997	1,738	70,233
Hillingdon	42,079	2,951	171,888
Hounslow	5,136	5,433	138,255
Richmond upon Thames	693	1,281	69,522

1 Definition of transport based on Standard Industrial Classification 1992 (divisions 60, 61 and 62).
2 Definition of post and telecommunications based on Standard Industrial Classification 1992 (division 64).
3 Total employees exclude agriculture, class 0100 in the Standard Industrial Classification 1992.

Source: Annual Business Inquiry, Office for National Statistics

A11.1

Hospital activity[1], all specialties, 2000/01

Numbers and rates

	Ordinary admissions					
	Finished consultant episodes[2]	Average daily available beds[3]	Cases treated per bed[3] (rates)	Day case admissions	Outpatient attendances	Accident and emergency attendances
Barnet and Chase Farm Hospitals NHS Trust	46,978	913	51.4	24,155	321,392	120,882
Barnet Community Health Care NHS Trust	1,158	390	3.0	4	8,932	22,484
Barts and the London NHS Trust	58,275	1,056	55.2	25,815	466,016	103,640
Bhb Community Health NHS Trust	2,920	566	5.2	0	22,333	..
Brent, Kensington, Chelsea & Westminster Mental Health NHS Trust	1,739	732	2.4	0	18,726	..
Bromley Hospitals NHS Trust	38,219	655	58.3	21,608	187,254	57,666
Camden & Islington Community Health Service NHS Trust	2,795	499	5.6	0	163,417	..
Chelsea and Westminster Healthcare NHS Trust	40,182	481	83.5	19,872	175,278	77,270
City & Hackney Community Services NHS Trust	..	..	..	..	2,392	..
Community Health South London NHS Trust	313	40	7.8	3	0	..
Croydon Community NHS Trust	..	5	..	..	501	..
Ealing Hospital NHS Trust	20,937	379	55.2	6,940	125,333	78,225
Ealing, Hammersmith & Fulham Mental Health NHS Trust	3,258	567	5.7	0	33,122	..
East London & the City MH NHS Trust	3,365	514	6.5	0	16,848	..
Enfield Community Care NHS Trust	3,628	475	7.6	0	8,693	..
Epsom and St Helier NHS Trust	52,398	935	56.0	26,344	262,088	121,966
Forest Healthcare NHS Trust	34,340	1,038	33.1	18,627	205,042	73,356
Great Ormond Street Hospital For Children NHS Trust	13,723	272	50.4	8,146	79,785	..
Greenwich Healthcare NHS Trust	26,967	477	56.5	12,628	157,321	89,221
Guy's & St Thomas's Hospital NHS Trust	63,274	1,243	50.9	24,042	471,090	152,423
Hammersmith Hospitals NHS Trust	47,760	1,056	45.2	28,175	313,653	70,859
Haringey Health Care NHS Trust	3,587	427	8.4	0	44,926	2,303
Harrow and Hillingdon Healthcare NHS Trust	2,337	236	9.9	0	9,086	..
Havering Hospitals NHS Trust	42,881	799	53.7	21,242	278,443	80,160
Hillingdon Hospital NHS Trust	26,828	654	41.0	11,113	165,541	68,108
Homerton Hospital NHS Trust	23,760	491	48.4	6,470	137,558	65,071
Hounslow & Spelthorne Community & Mental Health NHS Trust	1,196	247	4.8	0	10,643	..
King's Healthcare NHS Trust	40,665	978	41.6	20,793	330,336	92,129
Kingston and District Community NHS Trust	2,932	444	6.6	0	14,487	..
Kingston Hospital NHS Trust	36,997	575	64.3	12,872	187,492	86,971
Lewisham Hospital NHS Trust	32,811	561	58.5	9,761	110,259	83,862
Mayday Health Care NHS Trust	36,480	767	47.5	14,186	221,452	95,259
Moorfields Eye Hospital NHS Trust	8,378	61	137.1	13,260	208,272	46,943
Newham Community Health Services NHS Trust	2,465	180	13.7	105	8,528	..
Newham Healthcare NHS Trust	24,785	470	52.7	12,424	155,700	56,707
North Middlesex Hospital NHS Trust	25,759	397	64.9	14,454	170,804	88,096
North West London Hospitals NHS Trust	36,050	852	42.3	17,155	353,904	175,885
Oxleas NHS Trust	2,017	391	5.2	0	24,190	..
Parkside Health NHS Trust	2,411	293	8.2	3	22,404	..
Queen Mary's, Sidcup NHS Trust	32,517	448	72.5	10,726	151,254	87,617
Ravensbourne NHS Trust	..	..	..	..	3,488	..
Redbridge Health Care NHS Trust	29,000	884	32.8	13,695	161,332	91,879

A11.1 continued

Hospital activity[1], all specialties, 2000/01

Numbers and rates

	Ordinary admissions					
	Finished consultant episodes[2]	Average daily available beds[3]	Cases treated per bed[3] (rates)	Day case admissions	Outpatient attendances	Accident and emergency attendances
Royal Brompton and Harefield NHS Trust	17,422	421	41.4	7,447	82,189	..
Royal Free Hampstead NHS Trust	40,942	974	42.0	20,167	333,262	58,830
Royal Marsden Hospital NHS Trust	11,805	240	49.1	18,346	111,325	..
Royal National Orthopaedic NHS Trust	6,301	194	32.5	1,383	36,268	..
South London & Maudsley NHS Trust	5,034	960	5.2	0	83,107	..
South West London & St Georges Mental Health NHS Trust	2,943	595	4.9	0	23,722	..
South West London Community NHS Trust	1,074	367	2.9	301	117,314	16,440
St George's Healthcare NHS Trust	45,219	984	45.9	20,706	322,648	79,013
St Mary's Hospital NHS Trust	44,604	579	77.0	19,223	293,736	95,503
Tavistock and Portman NHS Trust	..	..	..	..	41,017	..
Teddington Memorial NHS Trust	468	34	13.9	0	0	18,346
Tower Hamlets Healthcare NHS Trust	1,503	160	9.4	847	4,009	..
University College London Hospitals NHS Trust	42,324	848	49.9	17,884	381,650	64,731
West Middlesex University NHS Trust	17,853	410	43.5	7,676	155,144	58,438
Whittington Hospital NHS Trust	24,293	461	52.7	10,438	163,120	67,883
London	1,137,870	29,673	38.3	519,036	7,957,826	2,548,166

1 See notes and Definitions for Chapter 11.
2 Excluding well babies.
3 Excluding cots for healthy newborn babies.

Source: Department of Health

A11.2

NHS hospital waiting lists, 2002[1]

Numbers and percentages

	Total waiting (numbers)	Months waited (percentages)		
		Less than 6	6 to 11	12 or longer
London	139,168	*74.5*	*22.3*	*3.2*
Barking & Havering	11,683	*68.1*	*28.2*	*3.8*
Barnet, Enfield and Haringey	15,230	*73.9*	*22.6*	*3.5*
Bexley, Bromley and Greenwich[2]	14,443	*71.0*	*24.0*	*4.0*
Brent and Harrow[2]	8,198	*77.0*	*22.0*	*2.0*
Camden and Islington	5,851	*81.5*	*16.9*	*1.6*
Croydon	6,369	*73.7*	*22.7*	*3.6*
Ealing, Hammersmith & Hounslow	13,066	*80.0*	*17.8*	*2.2*
East London and The City	11,689	*78.9*	*18.7*	*2.4*
Hillingdon	3,973	*78.1*	*20.0*	*1.9*
Kensington and Chelsea, and Westminster	4,404	*81.6*	*17.0*	*1.4*
Kingston and Richmond	7,016	*76.7*	*20.6*	*2.7*
Lambeth, Southwark and Lewisham	15,923	*72.3*	*24.0*	*3.7*
Merton, Sutton and Wandsworth	10,660	*74.9*	*21.7*	*3.5*
Redbridge and Waltham Forest	10,663	*67.9*	*27.7*	*4.4*

1 People waiting for admission as either an inpatient or a day case as at 31 March. Figures are based on patient's area of residence. See Notes and Definitions for Chapter 11.
2 Figures are rounded to the nearest whole number.

Source: Department of Health

A11.3

General Medical Practices and Practitioners, 2001[1]

Numbers and percentages

			General Practitioners (GPs)[2]						Practice staff	
					Percentage					
						Aged				
	Number of general medical practices	*Of which:* practices with one GP (percentages)	Total (numbers)	Average list size (numbers)	Female GPs	Under 35	65 or over	Part-time GPs	All (WTE[3]) (numbers)	Direct care staff[4] (percentages)
England	8,817	*29*	27,843	1,841	*33*	*10*	*2*	*19*	64,998	*20*
London	1,691	*42*	3,962	1,985	*41*	*10*	*4*	*16*	8,957	*19*
Barking and Havering	98	*55*	184	2,237	*24*	*4*	*6*	*11*	468	*12*
Barnet, Enfield and Haringey	209	*44*	467	1,950	*42*	*8*	*4*	*14*	984	*18*
Bexley, Bromley and Greenwich	143	*41*	360	2,132	*41*	*7*	*2*	*16*	977	*24*
Brent & Harrow	119	*39*	282	2,056	*46*	*10*	*3*	*16*	615	*19*
Camden & Islington	97	*45*	225	2,039	*44*	*12*	*4*	*18*	603	*21*
Croydon	67	*40*	155	2,230	*37*	*9*	*5*	*11*	344	*18*
Ealing, Hammersmith and Hounslow	188	*47*	384	2,034	*44*	*12*	*5*	*15*	942	*19*
East London and The City	161	*47*	383	1,990	*38*	*9*	*7*	*15*	957	*16*
Hillingdon	53	*36*	123	2,067	*36*	*10*	*2*	*11*	301	*18*
Kensington and Chelsea, and Westminster	99	*46*	189	2,176	*41*	*7*	*6*	*16*	207	*19*
Kingston and Richmond	60	*25*	191	1,936	*51*	*17*	*1*	*25*	386	*20*
Lambeth, Southwark and Lewisham	161	*35*	457	1,446	*43*	*10*	*2*	*20*	1,155	*21*
Merton, Sutton and Wandsworth	115	*28*	335	2,009	*44*	*12*	*3*	*21*	632	*17*
Redbridge and Waltham Forest	121	*52*	227	2,104	*33*	*7*	*6*	*15*	387	*23*

1 At 1 October.
2 Figures for GPs include unrestricted principals, Personal Medical Services (PMS) contracted GPs and PMS salaried GPs.
3 Whole-time equivalents. Other than GPs.
4 Includes practice nurses, physiotherapists, chiropodists, counsellors, dispensers and complementary therapists. Other than GPs.

Source: Department of Health

A11.4

Prescriptions[1], 2001

	Prescription items dispensed (millions)[3]	Percentage of prescription items exempt from charge[4]	Number of prescription items per head of population[5]	Net ingredient cost[2] (£ million)	Average net ingredient cost[2] Per head of population[5] (£)	Average net ingredient cost[2] Per prescription item (£)	Number of pharmacies (at 31 March)
England	587.0	*85.4*	11.7	6,116.5	121.8	10.4	9,765
London	68.9	*86.2*	9.3	772.1	103.6	11.2	1,776
Barking and Havering	4.0	*86.0*	10.3	43.4	112.5	10.9	79
Barnet, Enfield and Haringey	8.0	*87.1*	9.4	88.8	104.2	11.1	195
Bexley, Bromley and Greenwich	7.0	*85.1*	9.5	78.4	105.6	11.2	151
Brent and Harrow	4.6	*87.0*	9.6	54.5	114.9	12.0	130
Camden and Islington	3.4	*86.3*	8.8	40.0	103.7	11.7	111
Croydon	3.1	*84.6*	9.0	35.2	102.6	11.5	68
Ealing, Hammersmith and Hounslow	6.1	*86.2*	8.7	69.1	98.7	11.3	163
East London and The City	6.9	*90.4*	10.7	68.6	106.0	9.9	167
Hillingdon	2.5	*83.1*	9.6	29.7	114.8	12.0	62
Kensington and Chelsea, and Westminster	3.0	*80.4*	6.7	38.6	86.9	12.9	148
Kingston and Richmond	2.9	*82.0*	8.2	31.9	90.2	11.1	75
Lambeth, Southwark and Lewisham	7.1	*88.8*	9.3	77.2	101.0	10.9	174
Merton, Sutton and Wandsworth	5.7	*84.9*	8.9	66.7	103.5	11.6	145
Redbridge and Waltham Forest	4.6	*86.3*	10.1	49.9	109.8	10.8	108

1 Figures relate to the Health Authority where the prescription was dispensed and not where it was prescribed.
2 Net ingredient cost is the cost of medicines before any discounts and does not include any dispensing costs or fees.
3 Figures relate to NHS prescription items dispensed by community pharmacists, appliance contractors and dispensing doctors, and prescriptions submitted by prescribing doctors for items personally administered.
4 Figures relate to items dispensed by community pharmacists and appliance contrators only. Items dispensed by dispensing doctors and personal administration are not analysed into exempt, non-exempt or other categories and are therefore excluded. Personally administered items are free of charge.
5 Based on 2001 mid-year population projections (base year=2000). These projections are based on data which are not consistent with 2001 Census population data.

Source: Department of Health

A11.5

Immunisation of children[1], 2001/02

Numbers and percentages

	Number of children aged two	Percentage of children immunised by their second birthday					
		Diphtheria	Tetanus	Pertussis (whooping cough)	Polio	Measles, mumps and rubella	Hib[2] (meningitis)
England	572,888	*94*	*94*	*93*	*94*	*84*	*93*
London	94,204	*89*	*89*	*88*	*88*	*75*	*88*
Barking and Havering	4,731	*94*	*94*	*93*	*94*	*85*	*94*
Barnet, Enfield and Haringey	11,490	*87*	*87*	*86*	*87*	*74*	*87*
Bexley, Bromley and Greenwich	6,330	*88*	*89*	*88*	*88*	*71*	*88*
Brent and Harrow	6,481	*90*	*90*	*89*	*89*	*73*	*89*
Camden and Islington	4,653	*91*	*91*	*90*	*91*	*75*	*90*
Croydon	4,781	*87*	*87*	*86*	*87*	*71*	*86*
Ealing, Hammersmith and Hounslow	9,663	*88*	*88*	*88*	*88*	*78*	*86*
East London and The City	11,938	*84*	*84*	*83*	*83*	*72*	*83*
Hillingdon	3,224	*92*	*93*	*92*	*92*	*81*	*92*
Kensington and Chelsea, and Westminster	3,300	*88*	*88*	*88*	*87*	*64*	*87*
Kingston and Richmond	3,849	*93*	*93*	*92*	*93*	*78*	*92*
Lambeth, Southwark and Lewisham	11,267	*86*	*86*	*86*	*86*	*71*	*86*
Merton, Sutton and Wandsworth	7,048	*90*	*90*	*90*	*90*	*74*	*90*
Redbridge and Waltham Forest	5,449	*95*	*95*	*95*	*95*	*88*	*94*

1 Data relate to children reaching their second birthday during 2001/02 and immunised by that birthday.
2 Haemophilus influenza type b.

Source: Department of Health

A11.6

Summary of social services activity, 2001[1]

Numbers

	Services for adults					Services for children	
	Residents supported by local authority						
	In residential homes[2]	In nursing homes	Contact hours of home care provided[3]	Clients receiving day care	Clients receiving meals	Children on child protection registers	Children looked after[4]
London[5]	25,510	8,800	477,040	27,955	23,965	4,625	11,000
Inner London	10,870	3,890	225,590	..	..	2,380	5,900
Inner London – West	3,810	1,220	101,620	3,420	2,525	655	1,600
Camden	880	200	23,090	1,110	875	215	310
City of London	40	20	940	10	35	0	0
Hammersmith and Fulham	500	240	16,830	745	620	145	400
Kensington and Chelsea	500	130	11,810	565	340	55	230
Wandsworth	1,050	360	24,850	10	10	150	370
Westminster	840	270	24,110	980	645	90	270
Inner London – East	7,060	2,680	123,970	..	..	1,725	4,300
Hackney	790	190	17,340	..	..	265	500
Haringey	1,030	150	11,600	710	250	210	460
Islington	770	300	15,220	680	375	215	530
Lambeth	1,090	440	19,580	..	..	180	780
Lewisham	890	400	13,000	830	1,130	305	550
Newham	710	330	11,080	925	665	285	540
Southwark	850	520	18,650	..	..	135	660
Tower Hamlets	950	350	17,500	340	325	130	270
Outer London	14,640	4,910	251,450	..	..	2,250	5,100
Outer London – East and North East	5,150	1,620	97,310	..	..	810	1,900
Barking and Dagenham	560	310	10,080	340	640	70	280
Bexley	650	250	11,970	1,125	890	110	210
Enfield	1,000	290	12,660	725	835	90	270
Greenwich	800	230	19,200	825	1,590	210	510
Havering	590	270	15,200	820	585	120	150
Redbridge	750	180	12,360	2,380	915	95	140
Waltham Forest	810	90	15,850	..	..	115	300
Outer London – South	3,830	1,530	60,630	4,665	3,240	565	1,200
Bromley	1,070	460	19,240	1,645	760	155	300
Croydon	1,290	440	18,230	380	690	240	480
Kingston upon Thames	470	200	5,470	715	470	40	100
Merton	510	190	10,540	770	680	55	180
Sutton	500	240	7,160	1,155	640	75	160
Outer London – West and North West	5,670	1,770	93,510	..	..	875	2,000
Barnet	1,240	280	17,020	1,780	1,425	175	290
Brent	920	220	13,050	..	..	100	320
Ealing	820	420	18,600	690	1,510	105	410
Harrow	680	150	11,980	425	775	155	180
Hillingdon	860	180	13,350	1,360	1,055	115	420
Hounslow	600	340	11,730	270	130	155	320
Richmond upon Thames	560	190	7,790	1,425	805	70	110

1 Figures are for 31 March, except contract hours.
2 Excludes unstaffed (group) homes.
3 During survey week in September.
4 Figures for Boroughs are rounded to the nearest 10, other figures are rounded to the nearest 100.
5 Total includes estimates for missing data.

Source: Department of Health

A11.7

London Fire Brigade: analysis of special service incidents[1]

Numbers

	1993/94	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/2000	2000/01	2001/02
Road accidents									
Persons extricated from vehicles	599	566	523	612	576	658	1,026	1,214	1,245
Service only rendered	3,346	3,356	4,006	3,807	3,904	3,875	3,387	3,306	3,754
No service rendered	303	335	490	669	546	540	782	883	793
Total	4,248	4,257	5,019	5,088	5,026	5,073	5,195	5,403	5,792
Other than road accidents									
Railway accidents	53	59	50	51	62	51	37	63	57
Aircraft incidents (no fire situation)	1	2	3	8	11	9	0	18	7
Industrial accidents	46	59	61	37	52	49	69	60	70
Sports activity accidents	22	19	12	7	7	4	14	4	8
Farming accidents	2	3	0	0	0	1	0	1	2
Effecting entry[2]	17,286	18,840	19,611	19,653	7,486	7,141	6,729	7,130	6,983
Releasing people from lifts	15,230	16,279	16,995	16,083	16,391	16,467	16,312	16,199	16,795
Rescue/release of people	459	531	826	748	794	849	272	283	282
Rescuing animals	1,117	1,266	1,419	894	738	726	649	573	562
Removal of objects from people	270	281	291	356	388	389	473	500	451
First aid	296	340	337	314	282	267	148	128	143
Suicides (including attempts and threats)	70	57	66	56	85	108	193	198	204
Spills and leaks	1,254	1,515	2,305	2,174	1,840	1,964	581	435	464
Water – removal/provision	5,123	5,462	7,845	7,807	6,073	5,752	6,608	..	6,593
Making safe	772	713	709	735	1,048	676	2,467	3,071	3,327
Recovery/retrieval of objects	66	93	76	71	51	57	71	90	68
Standby or precautionary action only	17	15	17	14	28	27	361	465	435
Assisting police	637	682	735	678	688	640	1,033	1,030	1,146
Provision of advice	56	94	120	177	156	174	541	366	241
Services not required[2,3]	7,514	8,198	10,425	11,047	7,745	7,137	8,368	7,911	7,544
Other special service incidents[1]	3,513	2,808	164	0	57	38	441	..	132
Total	53,804	57,316	62,067	60,910	43,982	42,526	45,367	47,251	45,514
Total special service incidents	58,052	61,573	67,086	65,998	49,008	47,599	50,562	52,654	51,306

1 In 1995/96, 1996/97 and 1997/98 each incident initially placed in the "other special service incidents" category was examined in detail and recategorised. In addition, changes to legislation, service priorities and the introduction of charging for some services have impacted on series. See Notes and Definitions.
2 From 1 April 1997 the London Fire Brigade's policy changed to attend only where there was a danger of fire or immediate risk to life.
3 Excludes fire false alarms.

Source: Home Office

A11.8

Work of the Probation Service: by type of supervision[1], 2001

Number

	London Probation Area	England and Wales
Community Rehabilitation Order	6,351	54,470
Community Punishment Order	5,962	52,186
Community Punishment and Rehabilitation Order	2,247	15,503
Other	785	9,862
All	14,644	122,514

1 Persons starting supervision by the Probation Service. Each person is counted only once in the total even if they started several types of supervision in the year.

Source: Home Office

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Websites and contacts

Partners

Government Office for London	www.go-london.gov.uk
Greater London Authority	www.london.gov.uk
London Development Agency	www.lda.gov.uk
Office for National Statistics	www.statistics.gov.uk

Chapter 2 – Population

Websites

Eurostat	www.europa.eu.int/comm/eurostat
General Register Office for Scotland	www.gro-scotland.gov.uk
Government Actuary's Department	www.gad.gov.uk
National Statistics	www.statistics.gov.uk
Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency	www.nisra.gov.uk

Contacts

Eurostat (Press Office)	00 352 4301 33444
General Register Office for Scotland	0131 314 4254
Government Actuary's Department	020 7211 2622
National Health Service Central Register	0151 471 4202
Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency	028 9034 8100
Office for National Statistics	0845 601 3034
	info@statistics.gov.uk

Chapter 3 – Environment

Websites

Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, Wallingford	www.ceh-nerc.ac.uk
Department for Environment, Food & Rural Affairs	www.defra.gov.uk
English Heritage	www.english-heritage.org.uk
Environment Agency	www.environment-agency.gov.uk
Environment and Heritage Services (NI)	www.ehsni.gov.uk
Government Office for London	www.go-london.gov.uk
Home Office	www.homeoffice.gov.uk
Meteorological Office	www.met-office.gov.uk
National Statistics	www.statistics.gov.uk
Office of the Deputy Prime Minister	www.odpm.gov.uk
Scottish Environment Protection Agency	www.sepa.gov.uk
Transport for London	www.transportforlondon.gov.uk

Contacts

Centre for Ecology and Hydrology	01491 838 800
Department for Environment, Food & Rural Affairs	020 7944 6497
Environment Agency	0845 9333 111
Environment and Heritage Services (NI)	028 9023 5000
Government Office for London	020 7217 3328
Scottish Environment Protection Agency	01786 457 700

Office of the Deputy Prime Minister	020 7944 3303
Planning and Land Use Statistics	020 7944 5521

Chapter 4 – Housing

Websites

Court Service	www.courtservice.gov.uk
Greater London Authority	www.london.gov.uk
National Statistics	www.statistics.gov.uk
Office of the Deputy Prime Minister	www.odpm.gov.uk

Contacts

Court Service	020 7210 1773
Greater London Authority	020 7983 4000
Office of the Deputy Prime Minister	020 7944 3303
Planning and Land Use Statistics	020 7944 5533
House Building	0117 372 8055
Office for National Statistics	0845 601 3034
	info@statistics.gov.uk

Chapter 5 – Economy

Websites

Department of Trade and Industry	www.dti.gov.uk
National Statistics	www.statistics.gov.uk
Small Business Service	www.sbs.gov.uk

Contacts

Department for Trade and Industry	020 7215 3305
Regional Competitive Indicators	020 7215 3279
Construction Statistics	020 7215 2912
Small Business Service	0114 259 7538
VAT Registrations and Deregistrations	0114 259 7570
SME Statistics	0114 259 7537
Office for National Statistics	0845 601 3034
	info@statistics.gov.uk

Chapter 6 – Labour market

Websites

Department of Trade and Industry	www.dti.gov.uk
Department for Work and Pensions	www.dwp.gov.uk
Government Office for London	www.go-london.gov.uk
Jobcentre Plus	www.jobcentreplus.gov.uk
National Statistics	www.statistics.gov.uk
Nomis®	www.nomisweb.co.uk

Contacts

Jobcentre Plus	0845 6060 234
Government Office for London	
European Unit	020 7217 3244

Office for National Statistics	0845 601 3034
	info@statistics.gov.uk
Nomis® (On-line Statistics Database)	0191 374 2468

Chapter 7 – Education

Websites

Department for Education and Skills	www.dfes.gov.uk
National Statistics	www.statistics.gov.uk

Contacts

Department for Education and Skills	
General enquiries	01325 392754
GCSE/GCE examinations	020 7925 5347
Higher education	01325 392687
Job-related training	0114 259 1087
Participation in education and Government-supported training	020 7925 6372
National Targets	0114 259 3787
Schools	01325 392533
Office for National Statistics	0845 601 3034
	info@statistics.gov.uk

Chapter 8 – Living in London

Websites

British Crime Survey	www.crime-reduction.gov.uk.
Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs	www.defra.gov.uk
Department for Work and Pensions	www.dwp.gov.uk
Home Office	www.homeoffice.gov.uk
National Statistics	www.statistics.gov.uk
Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency	www.nisra.gov.uk
Office of the Deputy Prime Minister	www.odpm.gov.uk
Public Health Laboratory Service	www.phls.org.uk
Scottish Centre for Infection and Environmental Health	www.nhsis.co.uk

Contacts

Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs	020 7270 8547
Department for Work and Pensions	020 7962 8000
Family Resources Survey	020 7962 8991
Home Office	020 7273 2084
Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency	028 9034 8100
Office of the Deputy Prime Minister	020 7944 3303
Indices of Deprivation 2000	020 7944 8752
Office for National Statistics	0845 601 3034
	info@statistics.gov.uk
Public Health Laboratory Service	020 8200 6868

Chapter 9 – Tourism and leisure

Websites

Arts Council England	www.artscouncil.org.uk
British Tourist Authority	www.visitbritain.com
Cinema Advertising Association	www.carltonscreen.com
	www.pearlanddean.com
Department for Culture, Media and Sport	www.culture.gov.uk
English Tourism Council	www.visitbritain.com
London Tourist Board	www.londontouristboard.com
National Statistics	www.statistics.gov.uk
Sport England	www.english.sports.gov.uk

Contacts

Arts Council England	020 7608 6100
British Tourist Authority	020 8846 9000
Cinema Advertising Association	020 7534 6363
Department for Culture, Media and Sport	020 7211 2179
English Tourism Council	020 5863 3011
London Tourist Board	020 7932 2000
Office for National Statistics	0845 601 3034
	info@statistics.gov.uk

Chapter 10 – Travel and communication

Websites

Civil Aviation Authority	www.caa.co.uk
Department for Transport	www.transtat.dft.gov.uk
Driver Vehicle Licensing Agency	www.dvla.gov.uk
National Statistics	www.statistics.gov.uk
Strategic Rail Authority	www.sra.gov.uk
Transport for London	www.transportforlondon.gov.uk

Contacts

Civil Aviation Authority Economic Regulation Group	020 7453 6213
Department for Transport	
General Queries	020 7944 8300
National Travel Survey	020 7944 3097
Driver Vehicle Licensing Agency	020 7944 3077
Office for National Statistics	0845 601 3034
	info@statistics.gov.uk
Strategic Rail Authority	020 7654 6072
Transport for London	020 7941 4500

Chapter 11 – Public services

Websites

Court Service	www.courtservice.gov.uk
Department for Education and Skills	www.dfes.gov.uk
Department of Health	www.doh.gov.uk

Home Office	www.homeoffice.gov.uk
London Ambulance Service	www.londonambulance.nhs.uk
London Fire and Emergency Planning Authority	www.london.gov.uk/approot/gla/fire
Lord Chancellor's Department	www.lcd.gov.uk
National Assembly for Wales	www.wales.gov.uk
National Health Service	www.nhs.uk
National Statistics	www.statistics.gov.uk
Office of the Deputy Prime Minister	www.odpm.gov.uk
Scottish Executive	www.scotland.gov.uk

Contacts

Court Service	020 7210 1773
Department for Education and Skills	
Day Care for Children	01325 392827
Department of Health	
General Medical Services Statistics	0113 254 5911
Prescription Analysis	020 7972 5513
Immunisation	020 7972 5533
Waiting Lists	0113 254 5200
NHS Medical Staff	0113 254 5892
Social Services Staffing and Finance Data	020 7972 5595
Community and Cross Sector Services	020 7972 5524
Residential Care	020 7972 5591
Children's Services	020 7972 5581
Greater London Authority	020 7983 4000
Home Office	020 7273 2084
Lord Chancellor's Department	020 7210 8500
National Assembly for Wales	029 2082 5063
Office of the Deputy Prime Minister	020 7944 3303
Office for National Statistics	0845 601 3034
	info@statistics.gov.uk
Scottish Executive	0131 244 7236

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References and further reading

The documents listed here and published by The Stationery Office are available from the address shown on the back cover of Focus on London. Many can also be found on the National Statistics website: **www.statistics.gov.uk**

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Regional Trends, The Stationery Office (except *Regional Trends 37* which is only available from www.statistics.gov.uk)
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Social Trends, The Stationery Office
UK 2003: The Official Yearbook of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, The Stationery Office

1: Overview

European Cities Monitor, Healey and Baker
100 Facts on London, London First

2: Population

Annual Abstract of Statistics, The Stationery Office
Annual Report of the Register General for Northern Ireland, The Stationery Office
Annual Report of the Register General for Scotland, The Stationery Office
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Health Statistics Quarterly, The Stationery Office
International Migration Statistics, The Stationery Office
Key Population and Vital Statistics – Mid-year Population Estimates for England and Wales, The Stationery Office
Migration Statistics, Eurostat
Mortality Statistics for England and Wales, The Stationery Office

3: Environment

Air Pollution in the UK: National Environmental Technology Centre, AEA Technology
Air Quality in London: The Environmental Research Group, *Capital Waste Facts*, www.capitalwastefacts.com
Conservation in London, English Heritage and London Planning Advisory Committee
Digest of Environmental Statistics, The Stationery Office
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Rivers and Estuaries – A decade of improvement, Environment Agency,
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Housing Statistics, The Stationery Office
Local Housing Statistics, The Stationery Office
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Projections of Households in England to 2021, The Stationery Office
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5: Economy

Economic Trends, The Stationery Office
Employers Skill Survey, Department for Education and Skills
Construction Statistics Annual 2002, The Stationery Office
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6: Labour market

Employers Skill Survey, Department for Education and Skills
Guide to Regional and Local Labour Market Statistics, Office for National Statistics
Labour Force Survey (LFS) Quarterly Supplement, Office for National Statistics
Labour Force Survey (LFS) User Guide, Office for National Statistics
Labour Market Statistics First Release Historical Supplement, Office for National Statistics
Labour Market Trends, The Stationery Office
New Deal, Department for Work and Pensions
New Earnings Survey: Analyses by region, county and small areas, Office for National Statistics
New Earnings Survey: Streamlined Analyses GB, Office for National Statistics
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2001 Employer Survey, London Skills Forecasting Unit

7: Education

Learning and Training at Work 2001, IFF Research for the Department for Education and Skills, The Stationery Office
Education and Training Statistics for the United Kingdom 2002, The Stationery Office
Learning to Succeed – White Paper 1999, Department for Education and Skills, The Stationery Office
National Adult Learning Survey 2001 IFF Research for the Department for Education and Skills, The Stationery Office
The Education Act 2002, The Stationery Office
The Future of Higher Education – Jan 2003, Department for Education and Skills, The Stationery Office

8: Living in London

British Crime Survey, Home Office
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Index of Multiple Deprivation 2000, Department of Environment, Transport and the Regions
London Divided Income Inequality and Poverty in the Capital, Greater London Authority
1998 Index of Local Deprivation: A Summary of Results, Department of Environment, Transport and the Regions

9: Tourism and leisure

Cultural Trends, Policy Studies Institute
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London Tourism Statistics, London Tourist Board
The UK Tourist: Statistics, English Tourism Council, VisitScotland, Wales Tourist Board and Northern Ireland Tourist Board
Travel Trends, The Stationery Office
UK 2000 Time Use Survey, Office for National Statistics

Visits to Visitor Attractions, English Tourism Council, VisitScotland, Wales Tourist Board and Northern Ireland Tourist Board
Young People and Sport in England, Sport England

10: Travel and communication

European Cities Monitor 2002, Cushman & Wakefield Healey & Baker
National Rail Trends, Strategic Rail Authority
National Travel Survey, The Stationery Office
Road Accidents Great Britain – The Casualty Report, The Stationery Office
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Transport Statistics for London, Department for Transport
Transport Trends, The Stationery Office
Travel Trends, The Stationery Office
Vehicle Licensing Statistics, Department for Transport
Vehicle Speeds in Great Britain, Department for Transport

11: Public services

Ambulance Services 2001, Department of Health
Children and Young People on the Child Protection Register 2002, Department of Health
City of London Police: Annual Report 2001/02, City of London Police
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Judicial Statistics: Annual Report 2001, The Stationery Office
National Survey of NHS Patients: Cancer, Department of Health
NHS Performance Indicators: National Figures 2002, Department of Health
Police Service Personnel – Statistical Bulletin 2002, Home Office
Report of HM Chief Inspectorate of Fire Services for England and Wales 2000/01, The Stationery Office

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Symbols and conventions

Reference Years. Where, because of space constraints, a choice of years has to be made, the most recent year or a run of recent years is shown together. Other years may be added if they represent a peak or a trough in the series or for ten year comparisons.

Rounding of figures. In tables where figures have been rounded there may be an apparent discrepancy between the sum of the constituent items and the total as shown.

Billion. This term is used to represent a thousand million.

Provisional and estimated data. Some data for the latest year (and occasionally for earlier years) are provisional or estimated. To keep footnotes to a minimum, these have not been indicated; source departments will be able to advise if revised data are due to become available.

Non-calendar years.

Financial year – eg 1 April 2001 to 31 March 2002 would be shown as 2001/02
Academic year – eg September 2001 to August 2002 would be shown as 2001/02
Combined Years – eg 2000-02 shows data for more than one year have been combined.

Units on tables. Figures are shown in italics when they represent percentages.

Symbols. The following symbols have been used throughout Focus on London:

..	not available
.	not applicable
-	negligible (less than half the final digit shown)
0	nil

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Notes and definitions

London Boundaries

Unless otherwise indicated, London has been defined throughout this publication as the area covered by the London Government Office Region (GOR). The GORs were established in England in 1994 and are now the standard regional geography for statistical purposes.

Since 2000, London has had a two-tier structure of local government. There are 32 London boroughs, together with the Corporation of the City of London. The Greater London Authority has responsibility for a range of citywide policies. A map can be found in the introductory section. Inner and Outer London are divided as follows:

Inner London

City of London, Camden, Hackney, Hammersmith and Fulham, Haringey, Islington, Kensington and Chelsea, Lambeth, Lewisham, Newham, Southwark, Tower Hamlets, Wandsworth and City of Westminster.

Outer London

Barking and Dagenham, Barnet, Bexley, Brent, Bromley, Croydon, Ealing, Enfield, Greenwich, Harrow, Havering, Hillingdon, Hounslow, Kingston upon Thames, Merton, Redbridge, Richmond upon Thames, Sutton and Waltham Forest.

This Inner/Outer split has been used consistently throughout the volume, with the exception of certain tables in Chapters 7, 10 and 11, where the difference in definition is highlighted as necessary. See Notes and Definitions for Chapter 7.

Nomenclature of Units for Territorial Statistics (NUTS)

The Nomenclature of Units for Territorial Statistics (NUTS) provides a single, uniform breakdown of territorial units for producing regional statistics across the European Union. It has been used since 1988 in Community legislation for determining the distribution of the Structural Funds. The current NUTS nomenclature includes the main levels of spatial disaggregation used within the United Kingdom for statistical purposes.

In June 1998, the nomenclature for the United Kingdom was revised to reflect the creation of unitary authorities throughout Wales, Scotland and parts of England, and the adoption of the Government Office Regions of England for statistical purposes.

Level 1 of the classification (12 areas for the United Kingdom) represents Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland and the Government Office Regions of England.

Level 2 (37 areas) represents individual or groups of old counties in England, groups of unitary authorities in Wales, groups of councils or Local Enterprise Company areas in Scotland and the whole of Northern Ireland. Level 2 was devised purely for European purposes and to date has been used very little for internal UK purposes.

Level 3 (133 areas for the UK) represents smaller areas which, in England, are generally either (a) individual counties or unitary authorities, or (b) groups of adjacent unitary authorities/London boroughs/metropolitan districts. In Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland, level 3 represents groups of unitary authority or district areas.

Level 4 represents the unitary authorities or districts in England, while Level 5 are wards. Level 5 has mainly been used as the building blocks for analysing Census data, for deriving travel-to-work areas, and for other purposes such as the Indices of Deprivation.

For London, the revised structure means that London as a whole is a NUTS-1 area. There are two NUTS-2 areas (Inner London and Outer London) and five NUTS-3 areas (Inner London – West, Inner London – East, Outer London – East & North East, Outer London – South, Outer London – West & North West). Each of the 32 London boroughs and the City of London are a NUTS-4 area, and each electoral ward constitutes a NUTS level 5 area. Details of this structure are available from the National Statistics website.

CHAPTER 2: POPULATION

Census 2001

The last Census for the United Kingdom was taken on 29 April 2001; the population figures for England and Wales based on this Census were published at the end of September 2002.

Impact of the census on population estimates

Following the 2001 Census, mid-year population estimates from 1982 to 2000 have been revised. See the Introduction to Focus on London 2003 and the section on migration in Notes and Definitions. For further information and detailed comparisons by individual borough, see the National Statistics website: www.statistics.gov.uk

Resident population

The estimated population of an area includes all those usually resident in the area, whatever their nationality. HM Forces stationed outside the United Kingdom are excluded but foreign forces stationed here are included. Students are assumed to be resident at their term-time address. Estimates are based on information from the 2001 Census, with appropriate adjustments for undercounting and definitional differences between the Census and the population estimates. ONS has published estimates of population figures for mid-2001, with allowances for births, deaths, migration, and other changes and ageing of the population between the date of the Census and mid-2001 (end-June).

Population projections

The projected population figures for London and the United Kingdom are not directly comparable. The national projections have been revised following the 2001 Census, whilst sub-national projections are constrained to the 1996-based national projections.

Crude birth rate

The crude birth rate is the total annual births to residents of an area per thousand resident population at mid year.

Crude death rate

The crude death rate is the total annual deaths of residents of an area per thousand resident population at mid year.

Death rates

For England and Wales, death figures up to 1992 represent the numbers of deaths registered in each year. From 1993, they represent the number of deaths which occurred in each year. New procedures for coding cause of death adopted in 1993 mean that figures by cause for 1993 onwards may also not be exactly comparable with earlier years.

Live births, deaths and natural change

Births data for individual regions are based on the mother's usual area of residence. UK figures include all births registered in the United Kingdom, including those to mothers usually resident outside the United Kingdom, apart from births occurring in Northern Ireland to non-residents.

Similarly, deaths data for individual regions are based on the deceased's usual area of residence. UK death figures include all deaths registered in the United Kingdom to non-residents of the United Kingdom. Annual deaths data represent the number of deaths registered in each year.

Crude birth/death rates and natural change are affected by the age and sex structure of the population. For example, for any given levels of fertility and mortality, a population with a relatively high proportion of persons in the younger age groups will have a higher crude birth rate and a lower crude death rate (and consequently a higher rate of natural change), than a population with a higher proportion of elderly people.

Total fertility rate

The total fertility rate is the average number of children that would be born to a woman if she experiences the current age-specific fertility rates throughout her child-bearing years. It is sometimes called the total period fertility rate.

Standardised mortality ratios

The standardised mortality ratio (SMR) compares overall mortality in a region with that for the United Kingdom. The ratio expresses the number of deaths in an area as a percentage of the hypothetical number that would have occurred if the area's population

had experienced the sex/age-specific rates of the United Kingdom in that year.

Age-standardised mortality rates

The age-standardised mortality rate gives the number of deaths expected, by cause, if the observed sex and age-specific rates had applied to the standard population. In this publication the standard is the mid-year population for the United Kingdom in 1991.

National Health Service Central Register

The NHS Central Register maintains a record of patients registered for NHS purposes, and passes the records of patients who transfer from one general practitioner to another. It enables an estimate to be made of migration between former Family Health Service Authority (FHSA) areas within the United Kingdom.

Internal migration

Estimates of internal population movements are based on the movement of NHS doctors' patients between Family Health Services Authority Areas (FHSAs) in England and Wales and Area Health Boards (AHBs) in Scotland and Northern Ireland. These transfers are recorded at the NHS Central Registers (NHSCRs), Southport and Edinburgh, and at the Central Services Agency, Belfast. The figures have been adjusted to take account of differences in recorded cross-border flows between England and Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland.

The figures provide a detailed indicator of population movement within the United Kingdom. However, they should not be regarded as a perfect measure of migration as there is variation in the delay between a person moving and registering with a new doctor. Additionally, some moves may not result in a re-registration, i.e. individuals may migrate again before registering with a doctor. Conversely, there may be others who move and re-register several times in a year.

The NHSCR at Southport was computerised in 1990. Before 1991, the time lag was assumed to be three months between a person moving and the re-registration with an NHS doctor being processed onto the NHSCR. It was estimated that processing at NHSCR took two months. Since computerisation, estimates of internal migration derived from the NHSCR are based on the date of acceptance of the new patient by the FHSA (not previously available), and a one-month time lag is now assumed.

International migration

The figures are derived from three data sources.

- The International Passenger Survey (IPS) – the IPS is a continuous voluntary sample survey which provides information on passengers entering and leaving the United Kingdom by the principal air, sea and tunnel routes. Routes between the United Kingdom and the Irish Republic, and those between the Channel Islands and Isle of Man and the rest of the world are excluded. The IPS data also exclude most persons seeking asylum after entering the country and short-term visitors granted extensions of stay. The survey covered 263 thousand travellers in 2000, and has been running since 1961. The IPS is also used to collect information for the travel account of the Balance of Payments, and for tourism policy. It shows how many people travel, where they go and why, and gives a picture of how long they stay and what they spend. It currently samples between 0.1 and 5 per cent of passengers depending on route and time of year.

- Home Office figures on asylum seekers – the Home Office provides data on asylum seekers, and people who entered the UK as short-term visitors but were subsequently granted an extension of stay for a year or longer for other reasons, for example as students or on the basis of marriage.

- The Irish Central Statistics Office – information on migration between the UK and the Irish Republic from the Irish Labour Force Survey and the National Health Service Central Register, agreed between the Irish Central Statistics Office and the ONS.

For demographic purposes, a migrant is defined as someone who changes his or her country of usual residence for a period of at least a year, so that the country of destination effectively becomes the country of usual residence. Migrants defined in this way are asked an additional group of questions that form the basis of these statistics.

The IPS is a sample survey and is subject to some uncertainty. It should be noted that the estimates of migration, in particular the differences between inflow and outflow, may be subject to large sampling errors. Given the structure of the sample, the standard error for an estimate of one thousand migrants is around 40 per cent, whilst that for an estimate of 40,000 migrants reduces to about 10 per cent. For the UK in 1999 the overall standard error for estimated inflow of 364,000 migrants is 4.4 per cent and for outflow of 278,000 migrants is 4.9 per cent.

Migration in the mid-year estimates

In the UK, the mid-year population estimates are based on the accepted and widely employed demographic cohort component method. Using this method, estimates are produced by updating from a census base allowing for the births, deaths and net migration that has occurred since the census. A detailed description of the method used to produce population estimates during the intercensal period is available on the National Statistics website.

The most difficult component of population change to estimate accurately is migration. There is no comprehensive registration of migration in the UK, either of moves to or from the rest of the world, or of moves within the UK. Thus estimates of migration have to be based on survey data and the best proxy data that exist. This is in contrast to the estimation of natural change which is the other major component of population change. Natural change is the excess of births over deaths and this is estimated using civil registration data. There is compulsory registration of births and deaths in England and Wales and there are clear advantages to registering these events. It is generally accepted that these data are likely to be virtually complete.

Any errors in estimating annual population change due to migration will remain in the estimates and will be added to the errors in subsequent mid-year estimates. Thus, the mid-2000 population estimates will have a wider error band than earlier mid-year estimates during the 90s, which incorporate fewer years of estimated population change. Errors in estimating migration are not the only reason for the differences that exist between the mid-2000 and the 2001 census population estimates. Another source of error in the mid-2000 estimates is from the adjustments that were made to the census base for under-enumeration in the 1991 census.

Household Composition

For household composition the 'Other' category is calculated by summing all subcategories from 'Other households', together with the 'All Pensioners' subcategory from 'One family and no others' from Census 2001 Key Statistics Table KS20.

CHAPTER 3: ENVIRONMENT

Land use change statistics

Land is classified into 24 categories, which are then grouped into 'developed uses' and 'undeveloped uses'. Developed uses include: residential; transport and utilities; industry and commerce; community services; vacant previously-developed; minerals and landfill; defence. Undeveloped uses include: agriculture; forestry; open land and water; outdoor recreation; urban land not previously developed.

Details of changes in land use are recorded for the Office of the Deputy Prime Minister by Ordnance Survey (OS) as part of its map revision work in England. The data recorded by OS in any one year depend on OS resources and how these are deployed on different types of map revision surveys. The main consequence of this is that physical development (e.g. new houses) tends to be recorded relatively sooner than changes between other uses (e.g. between agriculture and forestry), some of which may not be recorded for some years. The statistics are best suited to analyses of changes of land in developed uses and of the recycling of land already in developed uses.

Commercial and industrial floorspace

Individually rated properties are known as hereditaments, and these form the basic unit of data. Generally, a hereditament corresponds to an extent of contiguous or adjacent space

appropriate for a single occupant. A large office or mixed-use commercial building will, if shared between several tenants or owners, consist of several hereditaments. Conversely, a single large hereditament may be comprised of many distinct buildings, for example a large factory on a single site. There are currently four bulk classes: retail (i.e. shops), offices, factories and warehouses. Floorspace data are only systematically available for hereditaments in these bulk classes. Non-bulk classes include hotels, public houses, schools, hospitals, libraries and leisure premises.

Listed buildings

These buildings are classified as:

Grade I: buildings of exceptional interest;

Grade II* particularly important buildings of more than special interest; or

Grade II buildings of special interest.

Listed buildings may include objects and structures not normally described as buildings such as bollards, railings, war memorials, boundary walls, pillar boxes and mile-posts. Places of worship were originally graded by a different system. However, as English Heritage reviews the list, they are being regraded using the secular system. Local authorities may also prepare non-statutory lists of locally significant buildings and buildings of townscape merit. Table A3.2 in the Appendix shows the number of list entries in each London borough. Some list entries include several buildings where they are grouped together, for example in a terrace.

Conservation areas

Conservation areas are normally designated by local planning authorities. However, they may also be designated by the Deputy Prime Minister, English Heritage within London, and county planning authorities outside London. The objective is the protection and enhancement of the character and appearance of areas which are of special architectural or historic interest in a local or regional context. Additional approvals are required for building works undertaken within Conservation areas, which are not required elsewhere, but these are less stringent than the approvals required for work to listed buildings.

Waste

Household Waste is defined as all waste collected by Waste Collection Authorities under section 45(1) of the Environmental Protection Act 1990, plus all waste arising from Civic Amenity sites and waste collected by third parties for which collection or disposal credits are paid under Section 52 of the Environmental Protection Act 1990. Household waste includes waste from collection rounds of domestic properties (including separate rounds for the collection of recyclables), street cleansing and litter collection, beach cleansing, bulky household waste collections, hazardous household waste collections, household clinical waste collections, garden waste collections, civic amenity wastes, drop-off/bring systems, clearance of fly-tipped wastes, weekend skip services and any other household waste collected by the waste authorities. Household waste accounts for approximately four fifths of London's municipal solid waste.

Municipal Solid Waste (MSW) is defined as all waste under the control of local authorities or agents acting on their behalf. It includes all household waste, street litter, waste delivered to council recycling points, municipal parks and gardens waste, council office waste, civic amenity waste, and some commercial waste from shops and smaller trading estates where local authorities have waste collection agreements in place. It can also include industrial waste collected by a waste collection authority with authorisation of the waste disposal authority.

Air quality standards

The EU Air Quality Framework Directive, adopted in 1996, forms the basis of subsequent "Daughter" Directives which set out long term ambient air quality values for 12 pollutants that are known to have a harmful effect on human health and the environment. These are generally based on World Health Organisation guidelines.

The Environment Act 1995 required the Government to prepare a National Air Quality Strategy, including 'standards relating to the quality of air' and 'objectives for the restriction of the levels at which particular substances are present in the air'. The Air Quality Strategy for England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, first published in 1997 and revised in 2000, sets standards and objectives for eight pollutants to be achieved between 2003 and 2008. These are benzene, 1, 3- butadiene, carbon monoxide, lead, nitrogen dioxide, ozone, particulate matter 10 micrometres or less in aerodynamic diameter (PM10), and sulphur dioxide. Following a review and public consultation in 2001, an Addendum was published in February 2003 that introduced tighter objectives for particles, benzene and carbon monoxide and a new objective for polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons. The standards and objectives are generally as strict or stricter than required by EU Directives.

The Department for Environment Food and Rural Affairs (DEFRA) has a set of public information air quality criteria in which air pollution concentrations are banded into four categories: low, moderate, high and very high. The criteria presently cover sulphur dioxide, nitrogen dioxide, carbon monoxide, particulate matter 10 micrometres or less in aerodynamic diameter (PM10) and ozone, although the banding will be extended in future to cover other pollutants.

The results of national automatic air quality monitoring network stations in the United Kingdom, including those in London, are available in the National Air Quality Information Archive whose Internet address is 'http://www.airquality.co.uk', and summarised in DEFRA's Digest of Environmental Statistics published annually by The Stationery Office. Details of current air quality levels are available on Teletext page 155 and 169, and via Freephone 0800 55 66 77. Results of the monitoring undertaken by the London boroughs are analysed by the Environmental Research Group (ERG) at King's College London and summarised annually in Air Quality in London. ERG publishes information on current air quality levels on their website: http://www.erg.kcl.ac.uk/london/asp/home.asp.

Noise

Noise can be defined as 'unwanted sound' and is classified as a pollutant in the European Directive on Integrated Pollution Prevention and Control. The decibel (dB) is a unit of sound pressure level on a logarithmic scale; the human ear responds roughly logarithmically rather than linearly to increments of additional sound energy. "A-weighting" is commonly used to reflect how the human ear responds more readily to higher frequency than to lower frequency sounds, at the intensities generally encountered in the environment. LAeq, 1 hour (dB) is the notional A-weighted level which would deliver the same energy as the actual fluctuating level if it were to be delivered continuously over the period (in this case, 1 hour) – termed the 'equivalent continuous sound level'.

CHAPTER 4: HOUSING

Chapter 4 presents the main housing indicators for which information is available. Readers are recommended to refer to the GLA's annual 'Housing in London' report for a fuller analysis of housing statistics as well as publications from the Office of the Deputy Prime Minister.

Poor housing

"Poor housing" refers to dwellings that suffer from any of the following:

- assessed as being statutorily unfit for human habitation as defined in section 604 of the 1989 Local Government and Housing Act;
- are in a state of 'substantial disrepair' where urgent work to a value of £40/sq m is required to bring them to a satisfactory condition; and/or
- require 'essential modernisation' to kitchen facilities or electrical components, or where there is no fixed space heating.

County Court mortgage possession actions

Actions entered: a claimant begins an action for an order for possession of residential property by way of a summons in a County Court.

Orders made: the court, following a judicial hearing, may grant an order for possession immediately. This entitles the claimant to apply for a warrant to have the defendant evicted. However, even where a warrant for possession is

issued, the parties can still negotiate a compromise to prevent eviction.

Suspended orders: frequently, the court grants the mortgage lender possession but suspends the operation of the order. Provided the defendant complies with the terms of the suspension, which usually require them to pay the current mortgage instalments plus some of the accrued arrears, the possession order cannot be enforced.

Registered Social Landlords

Although Housing Associations (HAs) not registered with the Housing Corporation are strictly not Registered Social Landlords (RSLs), unless otherwise stated in Chapter 4 (e.g. in the stock figures), RSLs' data normally include all HA-owned dwellings, whether they are registered or not, and Local Housing Companies.

HAs are societies, bodies of trustees or companies established for the purpose of providing housing accommodation on a non-profit-making basis. They provide housing for the employees of associated industrial and other undertakings, for special groups such as the aged, disabled or single persons, or housing on a mutual and self-build basis. Fair rent societies and co-ownership associations set up with the assistance of the Housing Corporation are included, as are associations formed specially for providing homes on behalf of local authorities. Local Housing Companies are independent, non-profit companies that manage tenanted housing.

Vacant housing stock

The totals for the local authority stock are collected directly from local authorities by the Department on the Housing Investment Programme (HIP) returns. Similarly, figures for the Registered Social Landlords stock are collected from Housing Associations on their Regulatory Statistical Returns (RSR).

Private sector

Where the term ' private sector' is used in housing statistics, the usual meaning is 'private housing' sector or non-social housing sector, i.e. owner-occupied dwellings and those rented privately, including those that go with a job or business and are not owned by RSLs/HAs.

A fuller analysis of statistics, rents, prices, and Housing Benefit levels is contained in the GLA's 'Housing in London' annual report and on the Office of the Deputy Prime Minister's website.

CHAPTER 5: ECONOMY

Regional economic indicators and business statistics are based on a number of different concepts and definitions. Although every effort is made in this chapter to provide a consistent picture, this is not always possible and the different perspectives may produce different results.

Gross Value Added (GVA)

Regional GVA is measured as the sum of incomes earned from the production of goods and services in the region. Regional estimates are calculated for individual income components: compensation of employees; gross operating surplus; mixed income; and taxes (less subsidies) on production. The GVA estimates presented here are based on the European System of Accounts 1995 (ESA95). The figures for all UK regions are consistent with the UK National Accounts (Blue Book) 2000.

The industry definitions used are in accordance with the Standard Industrial Classification Revised 1992 (SIC92).

Under ESA95, the term gross value added (GVA) is used to denote estimates that were previously known as Gross Domestic Product (GDP) at basic prices. Under ESA95, the term GDP denotes GVA plus taxes (less subsidies) on products, i.e. at market prices. UK Regional Accounts are currently only published at basic prices so should be referred to as GVA rather than GDP.

Regional GVA is currently calculated both on a workplace and a residence basis. Residence-based GVA allocates the incomes of commuters to where they live, whereas workplace GVA allocates their incomes to where they work. The main GVA estimates are on a residence basis and the breakdowns of the totals by industry are currently only available on a residence basis. However, workplace-based estimates are also provided. These differ from the residence-based estimates only in London, the South East and East regions.

The methodologies and data sources used in compiling Regional GVA were described in the December 2000 edition of Economic Trends.

GVA data for NUTS levels 2 and 3 areas, and by industry at NUTS-1, are currently only available up to 1998. The NUTS levels 2 and 3 GVA estimates are only produced on a workplace basis.

Household Income and Gross Disposable Income

The household sector covers people living in traditional households as well as those living in institutions. The latter (about 1.5% of the UK population) includes people living in retirement homes etc. The household sector also includes sole trader enterprises and non-profit institutions serving households (NPISHs), examples of the latter being charities and most universities.

Total Household Income is the sum of incomes for the sector, i.e. wages and salaries, pensions and social security benefits. Gross disposable income is the total income less certain cost items such as tax payments and social security contributions.

The estimates published here are consistent with the national accounts published in the UK National Accounts (Blue Book) 2001. Like the GVA estimates, they are based on ESA95.

The methodologies and data sources used in compiling Regional Household Income were described in the August 2001 and May 2002 editions of Economic Trends.

Individual Consumption Expenditure

Individual Consumption Expenditure (ICE) measures spending by households and NPISHs in a region. The estimates published in the Appendix tables are consistent with UK National Accounts 2001, and are also based on ESA95. The methods and data sources used in compiling these estimates were also described in the August 2001 edition of Economic Trends.

Business Statistics

There are five measures of the numbers of businesses in the United Kingdom used in this chapter:

- VAT-only registered enterprises from the Inter-Departmental Business Register (actual numbers on the register at a specific point in the year, usually March);
- VAT plus PAYE enterprises from the IDBR (actual numbers);
- businesses registered at Companies House;
- end-year VAT stock from the Small Business Service estimates, which take account of the lags in registrations and de-registrations; and
- Small and Medium Enterprise end-year estimates, which cover the total business population.

Inter-Departmental Business Register

The IDBR is a structured list of business units for the selection, mailing and grossing of statistical inquiries, and is also used for analyses. Information is provided at both the enterprise and local unit level. The enterprise is the level at which the business has some control or independence; the local units are the individual sites (factories or shops etc) operated by the enterprise. The IDBR covers nearly 99 per cent of UK output, and covers around two-thirds of the total stock of enterprises. The register comprises information on companies, partnerships, sole-proprietors, public authorities, central government departments, local authorities and non-profit making bodies. The main administrative sources for the IDBR are HM Customs and Excise for VAT information (passed to the ONS under the Value Added Tax Act 1994), and Inland Revenue for PAYE information (transferred under the Finance Act 1969). Other information is added to the register for ONS statistical purposes.

Small and Medium Enterprise Statistics

Annual estimates of the number of enterprises in the United Kingdom are compiled by the Small Business Service, an agency of the Department of Trade and Industry. These are derived from data from the IDBR, self-

employment figures from the Labour Force Survey and information from the Inland Revenue's Survey of Personal Incomes.

Business registrations and de-registrations

Annual estimates of registrations and de-registrations are compiled by the Small Business Service, an agency of the Department of Trade and Industry. They are based on VAT information which the Office for National Statistics holds. The estimates are a good indicator of the pattern of business start-ups and closures, although they exclude firms not registered for VAT, either because they have a turnover below the VAT threshold (£51,000 with effect from 1 April 1999, £52,000 from 1 April 2000, £54,000 from 1 April 2001 and £55,000 from April 2002) and have not registered voluntarily; or because they trade in VAT-exempt goods or services. Large rises in the VAT threshold in 1991 and 1993 affected the extent to which the VAT system covers the small business population. This means that the estimates are not entirely comparable before and after these years.

EU Structural Funds

Regions may be eligible for funding in one of two categories. 'Objective 1' funds promote the development of regions which are lagging behind the rest of the European Union. To be eligible, regions need to have a per capita GDP of 75 per cent or less of the EU average. In these areas, emphasis is placed on creating a sound infrastructure: modernising transport and communication links, improving energy and water supplies, encouraging research and development, providing training and helping small businesses.

Areas suffering from industrial decline may be designated 'Objective 2'. These areas need help adjusting their economies to new industrial activities; they have high unemployment rates, and a high but declining share of industrial activity. EU grants may be provided to help create jobs, encourage new businesses, renovate land and buildings, promote research and development, and foster links between universities and industry. In addition, rural areas where economic development needs to be encouraged may be designated 'Objective 2'. In these areas the focus is on developing jobs outside agriculture in small businesses and tourism, and improvements to transport and basic services are promoted to prevent rural depopulation. Grants under Objectives 1 and 2 are disbursed under the terms of Single Programming Documents or their equivalents, which provide a strategic framework relevant to the region concerned.

The other objective under which grants are allocated, Objective 3, which covers long-term unemployment, jobs for young people and modernisation of farms, is not defined geographically. In addition the Structural Funds provide support for Community-wide Initiatives. These Initiatives account for 8 per cent of the Structural Funds budget.

Assistance to Industry – the London Development Agency

The Department of Trade and Industry is the lead sponsor for the eight Regional Development Agencies and the London Development Agency. Their activities cover economic development and regeneration, promoting business efficiency, investment and competitiveness, promoting employment and skills development, and contributing to the achievement of sustainable development in the UK.

The London Development Agency (LDA) organises its assistance to industry programmes around three principles:

- Area Interventions
- Sectoral strategies
- Regional priorities

The LDA programmes integrate with those of the Neighbourhood Renewal Fund (NRF) and Local Strategic Partnerships (LSPs) to bring together alliances for regeneration in those areas that may be more difficult to address because they stretch across formal Borough boundaries and responsibilities The LDA also builds on successful existing partnerships.

Area Interventions

The Area Interventions bring together skills development, business support, regeneration, employment and physical development initiatives in a specific geographic location. The LDA organises the Area Interventions around: (1) its major area interventions, (2) its Local Development Actions programme (LDA2) and (3) the Thames Gateway project.

Major area interventions

The criteria for LDA major intervention included whether the location: (1) was already, or had the potential to be, a major employment area, (2) offered realistic potential to those living in concentrations of unemployment and deprivation to access and benefit from employment opportunities, (3) could make a major contribution towards implementing the Mayor's strategies collectively and (4) offered potential which would not otherwise have been achieved without active LDA intervention.

Map 5.22 shows the areas chosen for major intervention in the LDA Corporate Plan 2003-06. The major area interventions for 2003-06 are: Park Royal/Wembley, London Riverside, City Fringe, South Central, Upper Lee Valley, Lower Lee Valley, Woolwich/North Bexley, King's Cross/ Finsbury Park, Southall/Hayes/West Drayton.

LDA2

LDA2 is a new programme of support for the delivery of local economic development and regeneration initiatives, developed in the context of a number of national and regional policies, including the Government's Neighbourhood Renewal Strategy. The programme will consider proposals for a range of other local interventions including Business Improvement Districts (BIDS), skills development and local labour initiatives such as Intermediate Labour Markets (ILMs) and business advice and support services.

The programme is being delivered through four strands, each with specific objectives and targets/outputs, indicative actions and eligible areas: Strand 1 – Partnership Approaches to Economic Regeneration; Strand 2 – Employment and Skills Development; Strand 3 – Business and Enterprise Development and Strand 4 – Business Infrastructure and Environment. Funding for Strands 2, 3 and 4 is available to all boroughs including Outer London boroughs not in receipt of other regeneration funding.

The Thames Gateway

The Thames Gateway is a national and regional policy priority. Much of the LDA's inherited investment and several of the areas identified for new major investment are in the London Thames Gateway subregion. The LDA works with neighbouring RDAs – SEEDA (South East England Development Agency) and EEDA (East of England Development Agency) – to address issues facing the wider Gateway.

LDA Sectoral Strategies

The criteria used by the LDA to identify priority sectors include: (1) importance to London's economy (GDP contribution and employment), (2) quality (including skills, wages and productivity), (3) growth prospects and domestic and global competitiveness, (4) linkages to other sectors, (5) social inclusion potential, (6) Mayoral and DTI priorities and (7) potential for LDA to make a significant difference and contribution.

The LDA's current priority sectors are:

- Creative and cultural industries
- Tourism, hospitality and allied sectors
- Production industries (covering manufacturing and design)
- Environmental services and products (the 'green economy')
- Information Communications Technologies (ICT)
- Life Sciences (including bio-technology)
- Public sector (focusing, in particular, on the needs of the health and education sectors)
- Research Programme for 'emerging' Sectors

LDA Regional Priorities

Regional Economic Inclusion – working with communities: The aim of this programme is to open up access to participation in the London Economy, grouping a number of existing and new initiatives together.

Regional Strategies, Intelligence, and Co-ordination – creating public sector synergies:

Within this programme the LDA aims to provide key strategic links between London's otherwise fragmented economic development efforts.

Regional Innovation, Inward Investment and Business Retention – working with business: This programme will capture region-wide business activity including projects with regional significance which aim to promote innovation and knowledge transfer.

Regional Promotion, Investment and Infrastructure – fostering partnerships between the private and public sectors. This programme will address London's long-term investment and promotion needs, through the advocacy of key infrastructure initiatives that can help underpin economic development and regeneration. Through partnership with the private finance sector, it will also address specific economic development investment opportunities with key players involved in promoting London.

CHAPTER 6: LABOUR MARKET

Glossary of Terms

Employees (Labour Force Survey):

A household-based measure of people aged 16 or over who regard themselves as paid employees. People with two or more jobs are counted only once.

Employee jobs (employer surveys):

A measure, obtained from surveys of employers, of jobs held by civilians who are paid by an employer who runs a PAYE tax scheme or work for a business which is registered for VAT. People with two or more jobs are counted in each job.

The self-employed:

A household-based measure (from the LFS) of people aged 16 or over who regard themselves as self-employed in their main job (i.e. who work on their own account, whether or not they have employees, and are responsible for payment of their own income tax and National Insurance contributions).

Government-supported employment and training programmes:

A household-based measure of people aged 16 or over participating in Youth Training, Training for Work or Employment Action programmes or a programme organised by the Learning and Skills Council (LSC) in England, the National Council for Education and Training for Wales (ELWa), Local Enterprise Companies (LECs) in Scotland or the Training and Employment Agency in Northern Ireland.

Employment:

A household-based measure of employees, self-employed people, participants in government-supported employment and training programmes, and people doing unpaid work for a family business.

Workforce Jobs:

A measure of employee jobs (obtained mainly from employer surveys), self-employment jobs, all HM Forces, and participants on government-supported training programmes.

Unemployment:

Unemployment is measured according to the ILO (International Labour Organisation) definition of unemployment. This covers people aged 16 or over who are: out of work, want a job, have actively sought work in the previous four weeks and are available to start work within the next fortnight; or out of work and have accepted a job that they are waiting to start in the next fortnight.

Claimant count:

The claimant count records the number of people claiming Jobseeker's Allowance (JSA) and National Insurance credits at Jobcentre Plus local offices. People claiming JSA must declare that they are out of work, capable of, available for and actively seeking work during the week in which a claim is made.

The economically active/the labour force:

The economically active population comprises those who are either in employment or who are unemployed according to the ILO definition.

Unemployment rate:

The percentage of economically active people who are unemployed.

Claimant count rate (workplace-based):

This is the number of claimants resident in an area expressed as a percentage of the sum of claimants and workforce jobs in the area. Published only at national or regional (e.g. London) level.

Claimant count rate (residence-based):

This is the number of claimants resident in an area expressed as a percentage of the working-age population resident in that area. These rates are published for subregional areas, such as London boroughs. Can also be published at national and regional level to allow comparison with rates for subregional areas.

The population of working age:

Males aged 16 to 64 years and females aged 16 to 59 years.

Economic activity rate:

The percentage of the population in a given age group (usually all those of working age) that is in the labour force.

The Labour Force Survey

The Labour Force Survey (LFS) is a sample survey of about 60,000 private households in the United Kingdom each quarter, with questions also being asked about students living away from home in halls of residence. A sample of people living in NHS accommodation is also interviewed. The survey poses a series of questions about respondents' personal circumstances and their activity in the labour market. The survey results are weighted to give the correct population total and reflect the distributions by gender, age and region shown by the population figures. All LFS estimates have been rounded to the nearest thousand.

Analysis of the labour market requires a number of different sources of data to be used. There are four main sources in this chapter: the Labour Force Survey (LFS), the Annual Business Inquiry (ABI), the New Earnings Survey (NES) and the claimant count. Problems can arise in drawing together data on the same subject from different sources. For example, the question in the LFS as to whether the respondent is employed produces a measure of employment based on the number of people, whereas a question addressed to employers asking the number of people they employ, as in ABI, produces a measure of the number of jobs. Thus if someone has a second job they will be included twice.

LFS estimates are prone to sampling variability. For example, in the December 2002 to February 2003 period, unemployment in the United Kingdom (seasonally adjusted) stood at 1,494,000. If another sample for the same period were drawn, a different result might be achieved. In theory, many samples could be drawn, each giving a different result. This is because each sample would be made up of different people giving different answers to the questions. The spread of these results is the sampling variability. Sampling variability is determined by a number of factors, including the sample size, the variability of the population from which the sample is drawn and the sample design. Once the sampling variability is known, it is possible to calculate a range of values about the sample estimate that represents the expected variation with a given level of assurance. This is called a confidence interval. For a 95 per cent confidence interval, widely used within ONS and elsewhere, we expect that in 95 per cent of the samples (19 times out of 20) the confidence interval will contain the true value that would be obtained by surveying the entire population. For the example given above, we can be 95 per cent confident that the true value was in the range 1,441,000 to 1,547,000.

In general, the larger the number of people in the sample the smaller the variation between estimates. For this reason, estimates based on the LFS for the whole of the UK are more accurate than those for smaller geographical areas or subsets of the population. Generally, the sampling variability around regional estimates is, proportionately, around three times that for national estimates.

Estimates of small numbers have relatively wide confidence intervals, making them unreliable. For this reason, the ONS does not publish LFS estimates below 10,000. Data from the LFS Annual Local Area Database are more accurate than those from the quarterly survey because the database is derived from four quarters of the LFS and hence represents an increase of 60 per cent over the quarterly sample size. Estimates can therefore be published down to 6,000,

meaning that data are available for a larger number of areas.

Sampling variability also affects changes over time. For example, LFS employment in the United Kingdom rose by 33,000 (seasonally adjusted) between autumn (September to November) 2002 and winter (December 2002 to February 2003), and the 95 per cent confidence interval for this change is the range –87,000 to +153,000. Quarterly changes may be lower than the level that is explainable by sampling variability.

Changes over time are best viewed using changes in rates rather than levels in order to view them in a wider context of changes in the overall population. Rates are also subject to sampling variability. The best estimate of the quarterly change in economic activity rate between September to November 2002 and December 2002 to February 2003 was that it decreased by 0.1 per cent (seasonally adjusted). We can be 95 per cent confident that the true change in the economic activity lies within the range -0.3 per cent to +0.1 per cent.

Interim Labour Force Survey (LFS) estimates consistent with the 2001 Census

The results of the 2001 Census showed that previous estimates of the total UK population were around one million too high. This means that Labour Force Survey (LFS) estimates have to be reweighted to new population figures.

ONS will complete a full reweighting of all Labour Force Survey (LFS) series and databases in autumn 2003. In the interim ONS has used a simplified method to produce a set of revised top level LFS time series for the UK back to 1984, and regional equivalents back to 1996. This procedure covers most series in the Labour Market Statistics First Releases, and will be updated on a monthly basis until the fully reweighted data are available.

For LFS data included in the Labour Market chapter of Focus on London, the preferred source of LFS-based labour market indicators are those published monthly in the Labour Market Statistics First Release and the Regional First Releases. All levels published in this chapter are consistent with the First Releases and the 2001 Census.

Rates and percentages are less affected by the population revisions than levels. For this reason, some rates which have not been interim reweighted have also been published in this chapter, provided they are not inconsistent with those published in the First Releases.

Annual Business Inquiry and Annual Employment Survey

The Annual Business Inquiry (ABI) is a sample survey which was conducted for the first time in 1998 and replaced the Annual Employment Survey. The ABI is the only source of employment statistics for Great Britain analysed by local area and by detailed industrial classification. The sample is drawn from the Inter-Departmental Business Register (IDBR), and the ABI 1999 sample comprised 78,000 enterprises. An enterprise is roughly defined as a combination of local units (i.e. individual workplaces with PAYE schemes or registered for VAT) under common ownership. These enterprises covered 0.5 million local units and 15 million employees (out of a total population of roughly 25 million employees in employment). The ABI form is in two parts, one dealing with employment data (ABI/1) and the other with accounting data (ABI/2). The main questions asked in ABI/1 (which has a mid-December reference date) concern the number of employees, analysed by sex and full- or part-time working (as in the AES), as well as the number of working proprietors/partners and the number of other unpaid workers (e.g. family workers). The ABI results are used to benchmark the monthly/quarterly employment surveys (STES) which measure 'movements', by region and industrial group, between the annual survey dates.

Annual Business Inquiry and Labour Force Survey – comparing numbers of jobs

The number of London employees based on the LFS (approx. 3 million) is much lower than the number of London jobs based on the ABI (approx. 4 million). There are various reasons for the apparent discrepancy, including the following:

1. both the LFS and the ABI are based on samples, so are subject to sampling variation;

2. the LFS figures are residence-based (for example, London figures cover people who live in London, regardless of where they work), so they do not take commuting into account. Commuting disproportionately affects London's labour market;

3. the LFS counts people in employment, so it is necessary to add on people with second jobs to get to an estimate of jobs from the LFS;

4. there are some procedural differences, e.g. the head office effect. If someone counted in a business survey works at or from home, the job is counted in the region of the company's head office. A similar job in the LFS would be counted in the region of residence of the jobholder. Again this disproportionately affects London.

Standard Industrial Classification (SIC)

A Standard Industrial Classification was first introduced into the United Kingdom in 1948 for use in classifying business establishments and other statistical units by the type of economic activity in which they are engaged. The classification provides a framework for the collection, tabulation, presentation and analysis of data and its use promotes uniformity. Since 1948 the classification has been revised in 1958, 1968, 1980, 1992, 1997 and 2003. Revision is necessary because, over a period of time, new products and the new industries to produce them emerge and shifts of emphasis occur in existing industries. It is not always possible for the system to accommodate such developments and after a period of time updating the classification is the most sensible action. The 1997 changes were not a full-scale revision but a response to user demand for a limited number of additional subclasses together with some minor renumbering. The 2003 changes were also limited in scope, and the broad 1992 classifications have been used in this publication.

The full SIC(1992) classification contains 17 sections, 16 subsections, 60 divisions, 222 groups, 503 classes and 253 subclasses. The full detail can be viewed on the National Statistics website, but the 17 sections are as follows:

A. Agriculture, hunting and forestry,

B. Fishing,

C. Mining and quarrying,

D. Manufacturing,

E. Electricity, gas and water supply,

F. Construction,

G. Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles, motorcycles and personal and household goods,

H. Hotels and restaurants,

I. Transport, storage and communication,

J. Financial intermediation,

K. Real estate, renting and business activities,

L. Public administration and defence; compulsory social security,

M. Education,

N. Health and social work,

O. Other community, social & personal service activities,

P. Private households with employed persons,

Q. Extra-territorial organisations and bodies.

New Deal

Welfare-to-Work

The Government's Welfare-to-Work programme is a series of measures designed to tackle youth and long-term unemployment, promote employability, develop skills and move people from welfare into jobs. A key aspect is the concept of a 'gateway', which gives all people of working age a single point of access to welfare, and ultimately to work.

New Deal for Young People

The New Deal for the young unemployed is

available to young people aged 18-24 who have been claiming Jobseeker's Allowance for six months or more (including those getting National Insurance credits only). There are four options:

- a job attracting a wage subsidy of £60 a week, payable to employers for up to six months;
- a work placement with a voluntary organisation;
- a six-month work placement with an Environment Task Force; or
- for those without basic qualifications, a place on a full-time education and training course, which might last for up to one year.

All the options include an element of training. For each young person the programme begins with a 'gateway' period of careers advice and intensive help with looking for work, and with training in the skills needed for the world of work.

People in New Deal jobs are those who are recorded by the Employment Service as having been placed into subsidised employment, plus those who are recorded as having terminated their Jobseeker's Allowance (JSA) claim in order to go into a job. This will undercount the total number going into a job: some who go into a job will not, for whatever reason, record this as the reason for termination of their JSA claim. These will be counted as 'not known'. Past research indicates that the destinations of those who do not give a reason for termination follow a similar pattern to those who do give a reason. Where a young person returns to JSA within 13 weeks of starting an unsubsidised job, the job is discounted, otherwise the job is regarded as "sustained" employment.

Other New Deal schemes

"New Deal 25 plus" is for jobseekers aged 25 or over who have been claiming Jobseeker's Allowance for 18 months or more out of the last 21. "New Deal 50 plus" is for people aged 50 and over who have been claiming benefits for six months or more and who want to work. There is also a New Deal scheme to help people who want to work for themselves. The "New Deal for Lone Parents" is a voluntary scheme for anyone who is looking after at least one school-aged child on their own and who is claiming Income Support. The "New Deal for Disabled People" helps people on health-related benefits to find work, and partners of people who have been claiming benefits for six months or more can get help in finding work through "New Deal for Partners".

New Earnings Survey

Earnings tables in Chapter 6 contain some of the regional results from the New Earnings Survey 2002, fuller details of which are given in the 'Analyses by region, county and small areas' volume of the 2002 report, and which is published on the National Statistics website. The survey measures gross earnings of a 1 per cent sample of employees, most of who were members of Pay-As-You-Earn (PAYE) schemes for a pay-period in April 2002. The earnings information collected is converted to a weekly basis where necessary, and to an hourly basis where normal basic hours are reported.

Figures are given where the number of employees reporting in the survey was 30 or more and the standard error of average weekly earnings was 5 per cent or less. Gross earnings are measured before tax, National Insurance or other deductions. They include overtime pay, bonuses and other additions to basic pay but exclude any payments for earlier periods (e.g. back pay), income in kind, tips and gratuities. All the results in this volume relate to full-time male and female employees on adult rates whose pay for the survey pay-period was not affected by absence. Full-time employees are defined as those normally expected to work more than 30 hours per week, excluding overtime and main meal breaks (but 25 hours or more in the case of teachers and academics) or, if their normal hours were not specified, as those regarded as full-time by the employer. Employees were classified to the region in which they worked (or were based if mobile) using postcode information, and to manual or non-manual occupations on the basis of the Standard Occupational Classification 1990 (SOC 90). The 'United Kingdom: streamlined and summary analyses' volume of the report gives full details of definitions used in the survey.

Unemployment

Unemployment (by the ILO definition) refers to people without a job who were available to start work within two weeks and had either looked for work in the previous four weeks or were waiting to start a job they had already obtained. However, prior to 1984 unemployment included those not in employment and seeking work in a reference week (or prevented from seeking work by a temporary illness or holiday, or waiting for results of a job application, or waiting to start a job already obtained), whether or not they were able to start (excluding students due to completion of education).

There are advantages and disadvantages with both the unemployment series (using the ILO definition) and the claimant count. The claimant count has the advantage of being available quickly and down to small geographic areas. The disadvantages are that, as it measures only those who are receiving unemployment-related benefits, movements over time can be affected by changes in the rules governing entitlement to benefit, and its level at any one time is not internationally comparable. These deficiencies are largely overcome by using the ILO definition when measuring unemployment, but it too has disadvantages. For example, survey results are subject to sampling error, and unemployment by the ILO definition can be increased by government measures to encourage people to seek employment actively or be decreased by measures to put more people on government training programmes.

CHAPTER 7: EDUCATION

Inner and Outer London

Where specified, Inner London refers to the area formerly covered by the Inner London Education Authority (ILEA). Outer London refers to the 20 boroughs outside this area. These differ from the NUTS-2 areas as Greenwich moves to Inner London and Haringey and Newham move to Outer London. The boroughs included within these definitions are:

Inner London (ILEA)

The City of London, Camden, Greenwich, Hackney, Hammersmith and Fulham, Islington, Kensington and Chelsea, Lambeth, Lewisham, Southwark, Tower Hamlets, Wandsworth and City of Westminster.

Outer London (non-ILEA)

Barking and Dagenham, Barnet, Bexley, Brent, Bromley, Croydon, Ealing, Enfield, Haringey, Harrow, Havering, Hillingdon, Hounslow, Kingston upon Thames, Merton, Newham, Redbridge, Richmond upon Thames, Sutton and Waltham Forest.

Stages of education and school classifications

Education is compulsory for all children between the ages of 5 and 16, and schools are generally classified according to the ages for which they cater or the type of education they provide. Foundation education, introduced in September 2000, covers children from the age of 3 to the end of the reception year, i.e. their first year of formal education. Pupils in England generally undertake 6 of their 11 years of compulsory education in primary schools and 5 in secondary - transferring to secondary education at age 11. Primary schools generally consist of infant schools (for children up to age 7 or 8) and junior schools for children up to age 11 or 12. Some local education authorities in England operate a system of middle schools, which cater for pupils on either side of the transition age between primary and secondary. These are deemed either primary or secondary according to the age of the pupils. Secondary education involves a combination of different types of schools. Comprehensive schools largely admit pupils without reference to ability or aptitude and cater for the majority, but in some areas they co-exist with grammar, secondary modern or technical schools. Special schools provide education for children with special educational needs who cannot be educated satisfactorily in an ordinary school.

From September 1999, state maintained educational establishments in England fall into one of four categories:

- Community – schools formerly known as 'county' plus some former Grant Maintained (GM) schools. The LEA is the legal employer of the school's staff, the land owner and the admissions authority.
- Foundation – most former GM schools. The

governing body is the legal employer and admissions authority, as well as landowner unless that is a charitable foundation.

- Voluntary Aided – schools formerly known as 'aided' and some former GM schools. The governing body is the legal employer and admissions authority, but the landowner is usually a charitable foundation. The governing body contribute towards the capital costs of running the school.

- Voluntary Controlled – schools formerly known as 'controlled'. The LEA is the legal employer and admissions authority, but the landowner is usually a charitable foundation.

Pupil-teacher ratios by type of school

The pupil-teacher ratio within a school is the ratio of all pupils on the school's registers (counting each part-time pupil as 0.5) to all qualified teachers (including the full-time equivalent of part-time teachers) employed in the school on the day of an annual count.

Care is needed when comparing different LEA areas because of factors such as the numbers of schools and the varying systems of school organisation, e.g. some LEAs operate a middle school (three-tier) system.

Expenditure by pupil

The expenditure by pupil figures has been adjusted using the December 2002 GVA deflator, but comparisons may be affected by differences between London and the rest of the country in the cost of supplying a given unit of service at a single point in time.

Further (including adult) education

Further education (FE) includes home students on courses of further education in further education institutions. The FE sector includes all provision outside schools that is below higher education (HE) level. This ranges from courses in independent living skills for students with severe learning difficulties up to GCE A level, advanced GNVQ and level 3 NVQ courses. The FE sector also includes many students pursuing recreational courses not leading to a formal qualification. Students are counted once only, irrespective of the number of courses for which a student has enrolled. Most FE students are in FE colleges and sixth form colleges that were formerly maintained by Local Education Authorities (LEAs) but in April 1993 became independent self-governing institutions receiving funding through the Further Education Funding Council (FEFC). There are also a small number of FE students in higher education (HE) institutions, and conversely some HE students in FE institutions.

Students may be of any age from 16 upwards, and full or part-time. Support for further education students in England includes a subsidy towards course fees for 16 to 18 year-olds, fee remission for those aged 19 or over on low incomes and a discretionary access fund to help meet the costs of books, equipment, travel and fees. The Child Care Support Fund provides discretionary childcare support for students.

LEAs continue to make some FE provision (often referred to as 'adult education') exclusively part-time, and predominantly recreational. The majority of LEAs make part or all this provision directly themselves, but some pay other organisations (usually FE colleges) to do so on their behalf. The latter 'contracted out' provision is not included in the figures for 1990/91 in Table 7.12. However, 'contracted out' provision is included in the figures for 1995/96 and 2001/02. Please note that Table 7.12 contains enrolment data. Consequently, it is possible for a student to be counted more than once if they have enrolled on several courses.

Part-time day courses are mainly those organised for students released by their employers, either for one or two days a week, or for a period (or periods) of block release.

Sandwich courses are those where periods of full-time study are broken by a period (or periods) of associated industrial training or experience, and where the total period (or periods) of full-time study over the whole course averages more than 19 weeks per academic year. Sandwich course students are classed as full-time students.

National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs) are occupational qualifications, available at 5 levels, and are based on up-to-date standards set by employers. See section on education qualification levels for information about equivalent qualifications.

General National Vocational Qualifications (GNVQs) combine general and vocational education and are available at three levels:

- Foundation – broadly equivalent to four GCSEs at grades D-G

- Intermediate – broadly equivalent to five GCSEs at grades A* to C

- Advanced – broadly equivalent to two GCE A levels

Government-Supported Training

Up to 1998, government-supported training was the responsibility of the Training and Enterprise Councils in England. There were programmes for school leavers and young people (Youth Training) and for unemployed adults over 24. In April 1998, Youth Training was replaced by Work-based Training for Young People, and subsequently Work-based Learning for Young People. The 'Connexions' strategy includes improvements to the work-based routes to qualification. Two key courses in the Connexions programme are:

- Foundation Modern Apprenticeships, offering broad and flexible learning programmes, including the key skills of communication, numeracy and IT, and operating to agreed national standards set by industry and employers in 40 industry sectors – National Vocational Qualification (NVQ) at Level 2 is the primary qualification to be achieved.

- Advanced Modern Apprenticeships, designed to increase significantly the number of young people trained to technician, supervisory and equivalent levels. The primary achievement of an Advanced Modern Apprenticeship is the NVQ at Level 3. Evaluation studies have found that Modern Apprenticeships are of high quality, are very popular and have met the expectations of both employers and young people.

Since April 2001, all arrangements for post 16 education (excluding universities) are the responsibility of the Learning and Skills Council, combining the responsibilities of the former Further Education Funding Council and TECs.

Higher education

Higher education courses are those leading to a qualification of a level higher than A level, for example degree courses and higher level BTEC or HNC. Higher education in publicly funded institutions is funded by block grants from the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE). Some HE activity takes place in FE sector institutions, and may be funded by the HEFCE or by one of the FE funding bodies. Most home students on full-time undergraduate courses are eligible for a mandatory award and top-up student loans.

New student support arrangements in higher education came into effect on 12 August 1998. The financial support arrangements for mandatory award holders in 1997/98 who continued to attend their courses in 1998/99 and beyond, and those new students who were exceptionally treated as existing award holders, remained largely unchanged.

New entrants to full-time HE courses from 1998/99 onwards were, with certain specified exceptions, expected to contribute up to £1,000 a year (£1,075 in 2001/02) towards the cost of their tuition. For 1998/99 only, eligible new entrants received support for living costs through both grants and loans. Since 1999/2000 new entrants, together with those classed as new entrants in 1998/99, have received support for living costs solely through loans which are partly income-assessed and repayable on an income contingent basis.

Examination achievements

In England the main examination for school pupils at the minimum school-leaving age is the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE). This replaced the GCE O Level and CSE examinations in the summer examinations of 1988. The GCSE is awarded in eight grades, A* to G, the highest four (A* to C) being regarded as equivalent to O Level grades A to C or CSE grade 1. Some students also take the GNVQ part one, foundation or intermediate and the figures for GCSEs also now include the GNVQ

equivalent. GCE A levels are usually taken after a further two years of study in a sixth form or equivalent, passes being graded from A (the highest) to E (the lowest).

GCSE and equivalent figures relate to achievements by 16 year-olds at the end of the academic year and are shown as percentages of 16 year-olds in school. GCE A level and equivalent figures for pupils aged between 17 and 19 at the end of the school year are based on the 18 year-old population (unless indicated otherwise). The age spread in the examination result figures takes account of those pupils sitting examinations a year early or resitting them.

Pupils may sit non-GCSE/GCE examinations such as BTEC, City and Guilds, RSA, Pitman and GNVQs. Inevitably, a proportion of pupils who are recorded as achieving no GCSE, A or AS level qualification will have passes in one or more of these other examinations.

Following the 'Qualifying for Success' consultation in 1997, a number of reforms were introduced for those aged 16 to 19 in further education and were implemented from September 2000. Students were encouraged to follow a wide range of subjects in their first year of post-16 study, with students expected to study four Advanced Subsidiaries (AS) before progressing three of them on to full A Levels in their second year. In addition, there is encouragement to study both general and vocational advanced level examinations. A new vocational A level is replacing the Advanced GNVQ.

The AS qualification covers the first half of the full A level. New specifications introduced in 2001 are now in place and A levels now consist of units, normally six for a full A level and three for the AS level. The full A level is normally taken either over two years (modular) or a set of exams at the end of the two years (linear). The AS is a qualification in its own right, whereas the AS2 modules do not make up a qualification in their own right.

Educational qualification levels

"NVQ levels 4 and 5 or equivalent" includes GCE A level, higher and first degrees, other degree level qualifications such as graduate membership of a professional institute, higher education below degree level, higher level BTEC, HNC/HND, RSA higher diploma, nursing and teaching qualifications.

"NVQ level 3 or equivalent" includes an Advanced GNVQ, BTEC National Certificate, ONC/OND, RSA Advanced diploma, City and Guilds advanced craft, A/AS levels.

"NVQ level 2 or equivalent" includes 2 GCSE grades A* to C, BTEC First or general diploma, RSA diploma, City and Guilds craft, GCSE grades A* to C or equivalent, O level and CSE Grade 1.

"NVQ level 1 or equivalent" includes BTEC First or general certificate, other RSA qualifications, other City and Guilds qualifications, GCSE grade D to G, CSE below grade 1 and Youth Training certificate.

Other qualifications includes other professional, vocational or foreign qualifications.

CHAPTER 8: LIVING IN LONDON

Expenditure and Food Survey

In April 2001 the Family Expenditure Survey (FES) and the National Food Survey (NFS) were replaced by the combined Expenditure and Food Survey (EFS). The EFS is being coded to a new set of expenditure codes based on the United Nations and European classification of consumer goods and services, COICOP. The main item codes for commodities and services are not directly comparable to the FES. The EFS is a continuous survey conducted by the Office for National Statistics.

The Family Expenditure Survey (FES) was a continuous, random sample survey of private households in the United Kingdom and collected information about incomes as well as detailed information on expenditure. All members of the household aged 16 or over kept individual diaries of all spending for a period of two weeks. Over the three surveys held between 1998/99 and 2000/01, a combined total of 20,364 households took part. See the FES annual report, Family Spending, for a description of the concepts used and details of the definitions of expenditure and income.

The National Food Survey (NFS) was a continuous sample survey in which about 6,000 households per year in Great Britain kept a record of the type, quantity and costs of foods entering the home during a one-week period. Nutrient intakes were estimated from the information collected. Recent developments included, from 1996, the participation in the survey of about 700 households in Northern Ireland (though figures quoted in this report and elsewhere still generally cover GB for the sake of continuity). From 1994 data were also available on food eaten out in Great Britain (but not Northern Ireland), although these are not included in this report to maintain continuity.

Family Resources Survey

The Family Resources Survey (FRS) is a continuous survey of approximately 25,000 private households in Great Britain and is sponsored by the Department for Work and Pensions. The estimates are based on sample counts that have been adjusted for non-response using multi-purpose grossing factors that control for tenure type, Council Tax Band and a number of demographic variables. Estimates are subject to sampling error and to variability in non-response. The overall response rate was 65 per cent for 2000/01 but varied regionally. Benefit receipt is based on self-assessment and therefore may be subject to misreporting.

Indices of Deprivation 2000

The Indices were developed by the Index Team at Oxford University for the Department of Environment, Transport and the Regions, and are now the responsibility of the Office of the Deputy Prime Minister.

The Overall Index of Multiple Deprivation 2000 (IMD 2000)

The overall IMD 2000 (as presented in Map 8.8) is presented at ward level, and has two strands of data. The first is the Index of Multiple Deprivation Score and the second is the Rank of the Index of Multiple Deprivation. The ward with a rank of 1 is the least deprived, and 8,414 the most deprived, on this overall measure. The IMD 2000 was constructed by combining the transformed scores of six domains of deprivation, using the following weights:

– Income (25 per cent)

– Employment (25 per cent)

– Health and Disability (15 per cent)

– Education, Skills and Training (15 per cent)

– Housing (10 per cent)

– Geographical Access to Services (10 per cent)

District Level Presentations

There are six district level presentations of IMD 2000 (Appendix Table A8.2): Employment Scale, Income Scale, Average of Ward Scores, Average of Ward Ranks, Extent and Local Concentration.

The district-level summaries show the score and rank for each of the summary measures. The district with a rank of 1 is the most deprived and 354 the least deprived, for each measure. Not all districts have an Extent score as only districts with one or more wards in the most deprived decile in England score on this measure. Where districts do not have a score on the Extent measure they have been assigned an equal rank of 158.

The Income Scale score is a count of individuals (at district level) experiencing income deprivation. The Employment Scale score is a count of individuals experiencing employment deprivation. It is useful to present both measures, as they are real counts of the individuals experiencing these deprivations.

Ward Level

The "Average of Ward Scores" is the population weighted average of the combined scores for the wards in a district. This measure also describes the district as a whole, taking into account the full range of ward scores across a district. The advantage of the Average of Ward Scores measure is that it retains information about extreme scores, which would not be revealed to the same extent if the ranks were used. This measure is calculated by averaging the ward scores in each district after they have been population weighted.

The "Average of Ward Ranks" is a population weighted average of the combined ranks for the wards in a district. This measure is useful because it summarises the district taken as a whole, including both deprived and less deprived wards. All the wards in a district need to be included to obtain such an average, as each ward contributes to the character of that district. This measure is calculated by averaging all of the ward ranks in each district. The ward ranks are first of all population weighted within a district to take account of the fact that ward size can vary significantly in that district. For the purposes of calculating this score the wards were ranked with the most deprived ward given the rank of 8414.

"Extent" is the proportion of a district's population living in the wards that rank within the most deprived 10 per cent of wards in the country. The aim of this measure is to portray how widespread high levels of deprivation are in a district. It only includes districts that contain wards which fall within the top 10 per cent of the most deprived wards in England. Therefore, some districts will not have an overall score for this measure. A rank of 158 indicates a district with no score.

"Local Concentration" is the population-weighted average of the ranks of a district's most deprived wards that contain exactly 10 per cent of the district's population. Local Concentration (formerly 'Intensity') is an important way of identifying districts' 'hot spots' of deprivation. The Local Concentration measure defines the 'hot spots' by reference to a percentage of the district's population. This is the mean of the population-weighted rank of a district's most deprived wards that capture exactly 10 per cent of the district's population. In many cases this was not always a whole number of wards. For the purposes of calculating this score the wards were ranked with the most deprived ward given the rank of 8414.

General Household Survey

The General Household Survey (GHS) is a continuous survey which has been running since 1971 and is based each year on a sample of the general population resident in private (that is, non-institutional) households in Great Britain. It is a multi-purpose survey, providing information on aspects of housing, employment, education, health and social services, health-related behaviour, transport, population and social security. Since the 1988 GHS the fieldwork has been based on a financial rather than calendar year and due to this data were not collected for the first quarter of 1988. The GHS is a survey of about 13,000 addresses per year. An effective sample of some 12,000 households is obtained.

The effect of weighting on the smoking and alcohol consumption data

Weighting for non-response was introduced on the GHS in 2000 and was described in detail in the GHS 2000 report. The effect of weighting on the smoking data is slight: it increases the overall prevalence of cigarette smoking by one percentage point. In 1998 and 2000, the upward revision was due solely to a change of two percentage points among men: there was no difference in the weighted and unweighted prevalence rates among women. However, in 2001 weighting increases prevalence for both men and women by one percentage point. The change occurs because weighting reduces the contribution to the overall figure of those aged 60 and over, among whom prevalence is relatively low. The effect of weighting on the alcohol consumption data is also slight, as described in the GHS 2000 report.

Household definition

Although definitions differ slightly between surveys, they are broadly similar. A household is a person living alone or a group of people who have the address as their only or main residence and who either share one meal a day or share the living accommodation.

Enhanced Tuberculosis Surveillance in England, Wales and Northern Ireland

Enhanced Tuberculosis Surveillance commenced on 1 January 1999 in England and Wales, and the following year in Northern Ireland, with the aim of continually providing detailed and comparable information on the epidemiology of tuberculosis and specifically to enable more precise estimation of trends in tuberculosis incidence in subgroups of the population. The system is changing to take into account the emerging responsibility for infectious disease surveillance at Primary Care Trust (PCT) and Strategic Heath Authority (SHA) level, possibly through the co-ordinators based in the new Health Protection Units.

Population denominators for the calculation of rates were obtained from the 2001 Census. Since not all the mid-year figures were available, all the population figures used in this report were based on the Census day. The final report (to be published later in 2003) will use the mid-year 2001 figures. Interpreting trends of notification rates should be done with caution since the population figures before 2001 are based on population estimates.

More information is available from the Public Health Laboratory website http://www.phls.co.uk

British Crime Survey

The British Crime Survey (BCS) was conducted by the Home Office in 1982, 1984, 1988, 1992, 1994, 1996, 1998 and 2000, and annually on a continuous basis from 2001. Up to 2001, each survey measured crimes experienced in the previous year, including those not reported to the police. The survey also covers other matters of Home Office interest including fear of crime, contacts with the police, and drug misuse. The 2000 survey had a nationally representative sample of 19,411 addresses in England and Wales with an additional 3,874 ethnic booster samples. The sample was drawn from the Small User Postcode Address File – a listing of all postal delivery points. The response rate in the core sample was 74 per cent. The first results from the 2001 sweep of the BCS were published in October 2001.

BCS respondents are asked about offences against their household (such as theft or damage of household property) and about offences against them personally (such as assault or robbery). The BCS, therefore, provides a count of crime that includes offences not reported to the police. The survey does not provide a complete count of crime, as many offence types cannot be covered in a household survey (e.g. shoplifting, fraud or drug offences). Crime surveys are prone to various forms of error, mainly to do with the difficulty of ensuring that samples are representative, the frailty of respondents' memories, their reticence to talk about their experiences as victims, and their failure to realise an incident is relevant to the survey.

In addition to measuring crime, the BCS also asks respondents about their use of a range of illegal drugs. Questions on drug use are contained within a special computer self-completion component (CASI). The laptop computer used by the interviewer is turned to the respondent to allow them to self-key their answers directly. The drugs self-completion component was completed by those aged 16 – 59. Only 2 per cent of eligible respondents refused to complete it.

Crime: offences

Notifiable offences recorded by the police broadly cover the more serious offences. Up to March 1998 most indictable and triable-either-way offences were included, as well as some summary ones; from April 1998, all indictable and triable-either-way offences were included, plus a few closely related summary ones. Recorded offences are the most readily available measures of the incidence of crime, but do not necessarily indicate the true level of crime. Many less serious offences are not reported to the police and cannot, therefore, be recorded while some offences are not recorded due to lack of evidence. Moreover, the propensity of the public to report offences to the police is influenced by a number of factors and may change over time.

Indictable offences cover those offences which must or may be tried by jury in the Crown Court and include the more serious offences. Summary offences are those for which a defendant would normally be tried at a magistrates' court and are generally less serious – the majority of motoring offences fall into this category.

Crime detection rates

In England and Wales and Northern Ireland offences recorded by the police as having been detected include offences for which persons have been charged, summonsed or cautioned, those admitted and taken into consideration when persons are tried for other offences, and others where the police can take no action for various reasons.

The detection rate is the ratio of offences cleared

up in the year to offences recorded in the year. Some offences detected may relate to offences recorded in previous years. There is some variation between police forces in the emphasis placed on certain of the methods listed above and, as some methods are more resource intensive than others, this can have a significant effect on a force's overall detection rate.

In April 1999, there was a change in the way detections are counted, with some circumstances no longer qualifying as detections. The new instructions provide more precise and rigorous criteria for recording a detection, with the underlying emphasis on the successful result of a police investigation. The most significant of these criteria is that there must be significant evidence to charge the suspect with a crime (whether or not a charge is actually imposed) so that, if given in court, it would be likely to result in a conviction. Detections obtained by the interview of a convicted prisoner are no longer included, and any detections where no further police action is taken generally have to be approved by a senior police officer or the Crown Prosecution Service.

An offence is said to be cleared up in the following circumstances:

– a person has been charged or summonsed for the offence;

– a person has been cautioned;

– the offence has been taken into consideration (TIC) by the court.

or where no further action is taken, the case is not proceeded with e.g. because the offender is under the age of criminal responsibility, the offender has died, because the victim or an essential witness is permanently unable to give evidence, or no useful purpose would be served by proceeding with the charge.

CHAPTER 9: TOURISM AND LEISURE

International Passenger Survey and UK Tourism Survey

Statistics on the number of trips, bednights and expenditure by tourists are usually compiled by combining data from the International Passenger Survey (IPS) and the UK Tourism Survey (UKTS). The IPS interviews visitors to the UK in person at the point of departure from the UK. Expenditure data are collected by asking about the total amount of money brought into the country. By contrast the UKTS is a specialist tourism survey undertaken by telephone in respondents' UK households up to two months after the trip. Financial data are collected by probing for specified categories of expenditure.

Visit Britain

In 1999 the British Tourist Authority was launched; in 2003 the English Tourism Council merged with the British Tourist Authority under the title VisitBritain, with the twin aims of marketing England within Britain, and Britain to the rest of the world.

Expenditure and Food Survey

For information about the Expenditure and Food Survey see Notes and Definitions for Chapter 8.

Inter-Departmental Business Register

For information about the Inter-Departmental Business Register (IDBR), which holds data on businesses in the tourist industry, see Notes and Definitions for Chapters 5 and 6.

Employment

For information about employee jobs see Notes and Definitions for Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 10: TRAVEL AND COMMUNICATION

National Travel Survey

The National Travel Survey (NTS) is the only comprehensive national source of travel information for Great Britain that links different kinds of travel with the characteristics of travellers and their families. The 1985/86 survey ran from July 1985 to June 1986 and collected data successfully from 10,266 households. Since July 1988, the NTS has been conducted on a small-scale continuous basis with an annual sample about one third the size of the 1985/86 survey. Data from the continuous survey are normally aggregated into three year blocks for publication.

From about 3,400 households in Great Britain each year, every member provides personal information (e.g. age, sex, working status, driving licence, season ticket) and details of journeys carried out in a sample week, including purpose of journey, method of travel, time of day, length, duration, and cost of any tickets bought.

Travel included in the NTS covers all journeys by GB residents, living in private households, within Great Britain for personal reasons, including travel in the course of work, (e.g. a doctor on their rounds or a businessman travelling to a meeting), but not travel by people whose work is to travel (such as bus drivers, postmen and delivery men).

Most personal travel over 50 yards is included, including walking. However, to reduce the burden on respondents, short walks of less than a mile are only recorded on the last day of the diary. These walks are grossed up by a factor of 7 when publishing data.

In the NTS a trip is defined as a one-way course of travel having a single main purpose. It is the basic unit of personal travel in the survey. A round journey is split into two trips, with the first ending at a convenient point about half way round as a notional stopping point for the outward destination. A stage is that portion of a journey defined by the use of a specific method of transport or of a specific ticket (a new stage being defined if either the mode or ticket changes).

The purpose of a trip is normally taken to be the activity at the destination, unless that destination is 'home' in which case the purpose is defined by the origin of the trip. The classification of 'trips to work' is also dependent on the origin of the trip. A trip cannot have two separate purposes, but trivial subsidiary purposes (such as a stop to buy a newspaper) are disregarded.

The main mode used for trips is that mode used for the longest stage of the trip (by length). The mode is that used for a stage within a trip.

The definition of a 'trip' in Table 10.3 is not the same as a 'journey' in Table 10.13. See Transport for London section.

The following purposes are distinguished:

Commuting:

trips to a usual place of work from home, or from work to home.

Business:

trips in the course of work, including a trip in the course of work which is returning to work. This includes all work trips by people with no usual place of work (e.g. site workers) and those who work at or from home.

Education:

trips to school or college, etc. by full time students, students on day release and part time students following vocational courses.

Shopping:

all trips to shops or from shops to home, even when there is no intention to buy.

Personal Business:

visits to services e.g. hairdressers, launderettes, dry-cleaners, betting shops, solicitors, banks, estate agents, libraries, churches; or for medical consultations or treatment, or for eating and drinking unless the main purpose was entertainment or social.

Leisure:

Travel for leisure purposes is normally included. However, journeys which are themselves a form of recreation are not. Travel by foot away from the public highway is excluded unless both the surface is paved or tarred and there is unrestricted access. Thus walks across open countryside on unsurfaced paths are excluded; and so are walks in pedestrian precincts or parks that are closed at night.Transport for London

Transport for London (TfL) collect data from a variety of sources including resident and transport user surveys, data from ticket gates and counts of travellers and transport.

European Cities Monitor 2002

Annual survey ranking Europe's top cities for business location. The rank is based on scores that use weighted tallies for 12 different factors about which European corporate executives were queried.

Car ownership

The figures for household ownership of a car in Table 10.1 include four-wheeled and three-wheeled cars, off-road vehicles, minibuses and motor caravans. Company cars normally available for household use are also included.

Cars and vans:

are defined as road motor vehicles other than motorcycles, intended for the carriage of passengers and designed to seat no more than nine people (including the driver). The term 'passenger car' therefore covers microcars (which need no permit to be driven), taxis and hired passenger cars, provided that they have fewer than ten seats. This category may also include pick-ups.

Vehicle Registration

There are a number of discontinuities in the data in Figure 10.2 and Table A10.1. Up to and including 1992, estimates were based on Driver Vehicle Licensing Agency data but from 1993 onwards they were taken from the DfT Vehicle Information Database. Following local authority reorganisation in 1996, an updated postcode directory has been used to allocate vehicle keepers' addresses. Several changes were made to the vehicle taxation system in 1995. On licence renewal, vehicles with 8 or fewer seats were taxed in the private and light goods class, and those with 9 or more in the bus tax class. New exempt vehicle classes were created for police vehicles and for all vehicles over 25 years of age.

Road accidents/casualties

An accident is one involving personal injury occurring on the public highway (including footways) in which a road vehicle is involved and which becomes known to the police within 30 days. The vehicle need not be moving and it need not be in collision with anything.

Persons killed are those who sustained injuries which caused death less than 30 days after the accident.

A serious injury is one for which a person is detained in hospital as an in-patient, or sustains any of the following injuries whether or not they are detained in hospital: fractures, concussion, internal injuries, crushing, severe cuts and lacerations, severe general shock requiring medical treatment, injuries causing death 30 or more days after the accident.

Network South East

The train operating companies in the Network South East area are Chiltern Railways, South Central, Connex South Eastern, First Great Eastern, c2c, Silverlink, South West Trains, Thames Trains, Thameslink and WAGN. This does not include main intercity companies.

Bus Passenger Journey

A bus passenger journey (Table 10.13) is defined as a ride on a single vehicle journey. A bus trip from origin to destination may comprise more than one bus journey.

Real prices

Figure 10.17 contains real fares, which are pence per passenger kilometre deflated by the Retail Price Index.

The Retail Price Index measures the average cost of goods and services from month to month purchased by households in the United Kingdom.

CHAPTER 11: PUBLIC SERVICES

Hospital activity

A finished consultant episode (FCE) is a completed period of care of a patient using an NHS hospital bed, under one consultant within one health care provider (NHS Trust). If a patient is transferred from one consultant to another, even if this is within the same NHS Trust, the episode ends and another one begins. The transfer of a patient from one hospital to another with the same consultant and within the same NHS Trust does not end the episode. Healthy live-born babies are included, as are episodes concluding in death.

A day case is a person who comes for investigation, treatment or operation under clinical supervision on a planned non-resident basis and who occupies a bed for part or all of one day.

An outpatient is defined as a person seen by a consultant for treatment or advice. A new outpatient is one whose first attendance of a continuous series (or single attendance where relevant) at a clinical outpatient department for the same course of treatment falls within the period under review. Each outpatient attendance of a course or series is included in the year in which the attendance occurred. People attending more than one department are counted in each department.

Hospital waiting lists

The March 2001 and 2002 waiting list figures contained in Focus on London are residence-based. They are based on figures received from NHS Trusts in England. These returns contain information on patients waiting to be admitted to NHS hospitals in England either as a day case or as an ordinary admission.

Mean waiting time: this is calculated approximately for any category as the total waiting times for patients still on the list for that category divided by the corresponding number of people waiting in that category.

Median waiting time: the waiting time for the middle case of those still on the list when all cases in a category are ranked by waiting time. The waiting time of 50 per cent of those patients will be less than the median length. This is a better indicator of the 'average' case since it is generally unaffected by abnormally long or short waiting times at the ends of the distribution.

General Medical Practitioners

The figures for General Medical Practitioners relate to unrestricted principals and equivalents (UPEs), i.e. unrestricted principals, Personal Medical Services (PMS) contracted GPs and PMS salaried GPs. A UPE is a practitioner who provides the full range of general medical services but whose list is not limited to any particular group of people. In a few cases, he/she may be relieved of the liability for emergency calls out of hours from patients other than his/her own. Other types of Practitioners practising general and personal medical services are restricted principals, GP Retainers, Assistants and PMS other GPs.

The figures provided for practice staff involved in direct patient care relate to practice nurses, dispensers, physiotherapists, chiropodists, counsellors and complementary therapists.

The figures for General Dental Practitioners include principals, assistants and vocational dental practitioners in the General Dental Service. Some dentists have contracts in more than one Health Authority. These dentists have been counted only once, in the Health Authority in which they hold their main contract. Salaried dentists are excluded. Neither the Hospital Dental Service nor the Community Dental Service are included.

London Fire Brigade services

The five main services provided are as follows:

(1) Community Fire Safety, covering a range of initiatives to reduce the number of fires and the number of deaths and injuries caused by fire. (2) Legislative Fire Safety, which aims to ensure that buildings comply with fire safety regulations. (3) Fire and Rescue Emergency Response, which responds to incidents and makes sure that the risk of injury, loss of life and damage to property is minimised. (4) Special Services: a service that responds to other types of incident, such as vehicle accidents, trapped people and animals, storms and floods. There are charges for dealing with many types of special services but not for firefighting operations as the latter are the statutory duty of the fire brigade. (5) Emergency Planning: services that plan and prepare for large-scale emergencies.

From 1 April 1997 the London Fire Brigade's policy changed so that they would not attend to deal with people locked out of their premises unless there was a danger of fire or there was a life-threatening situation.

Primary and secondary fires

Primary fires: these are reportable fires (as listed below) or any fires involving casualties, rescues, or fires attended by five or more appliances. An appliance is counted if either the appliance, equipment from it or personnel riding on it, were used to fight the fire.

a Buildings

b Caravans, trailers etc.

c Vehicles and other methods of transport (not derelict)

d Outdoor storage, plant and machinery

e Agricultural and forestry premises and property

f Other outdoor structures including post boxes, tunnels, bridges etc.

Secondary fires: these are the majority of outdoor fires including grassland and refuse fires unless they involve casualties or rescues, property loss or five or more appliances attend. They include fires in derelict buildings.

Magistrates' court waiting times

The total time between the offence and case completion for each defendant in sampled cases divided by the total number of defendants. Where the time between the offence and charge or date of laying of information is over ten years, the defendants are excluded from the calculation.

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