GREATER**LONDON**AUTHORITY

Focus on London 2008

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Editor: Gareth Piggott

DMAG
Data Management and Analysis Group

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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 role as the executive of the strategic authority for London is to promote economic development and wealth creation, social development, and the improvement of the environment. The Mayor also has a number of other duties in relation to culture and tourism, including responsibility for Trafalgar Square and Parliament Square. The Mayor's responsibilities cover transport, policing, the London Fire Brigade, planning and land use, the environment and economic development in London.

About the Data Management and Analysis Group

The Data Management and Analysis Group (DMAG) is a team of statisticians and researchers who have a range of professional and technical skills in the fields of statistics, demography, geographic information (GIS) and data presentation. DMAG deals with various types of socio-economic and demographic data as well as education, crime and GIS data. DMAG has particular expertise in the analysis of government-generated data sets such as the Census, Labour Force Survey, population estimates, unemployment, welfare benefits, health and education data. Its publications - DMAG Briefings and Updates - aim to disseminate this work to as wide an audience as possible.

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Introduction

Focus on London 2008 provides a statistical portrait of some of the key matters affecting London. The report brings together a wide range of demographic, social and economic datasets to provide a broad picture of London. The information in this report is detailed but not exhaustive, it is aimed at both general and specialist readers, and will be of interest to those people who live in, work in or visit London.

The thirteen chapters cover a wide range of statistics on various topics including population, diversity, labour market, economy, poverty, health, housing, environment, transport, crime and education.

This edition updates *Focus on London 2007* and many of the tables are repeated from previous editions, which aims to help in understanding long-term trends. Patterns and trends are examined and set against regional and national comparators.

There have been many important events relating to statistics on London over the past year. There is a new ONS Regional Statisticians team in London, which offers a focus for statistical issues that affect the capital. The new UK Statistics Authority (UKSA) has also been established to protect the independence and quality of official statistics in the UK. UKSA is chaired by Sir Michael Scholar, independent of Government and reports directly to Parliament; ONS now falls under the governance of the UKSA and acts as its executive body.

The city has experienced the effects of a change in trend for the economy, which is showing signs of slowing down after many years of strong growth. The consequences of this may not be evidenced in statistics for at least another year.

The city held its third set of Mayoral and Assembly elections in May 2008. The elections brought out around 2.4 million Londoners to vote and were of immense interest to a city keen to voice an opinion on important issues such as terrorism, housing, crime, the environment, the economy, traffic congestion and other transport matters.

Overview

Focus on London 2008 provides a unique overview of statistics relating to London. Chapter 1: Population states that with over 7.5 million residents, 12 per cent of the UK population, London has the second largest population of any British region. In 2006 London had a natural growth (births less deaths) of nearly 70 thousand, which is equivalent to nearly 40 per cent of the UK's natural growth. One of the main components of London's high population growth in recent years is the level of international migration. The 170 thousand international migrants who came to London in 2006 were equivalent to about 2.25 per cent of London's population, or the population of the borough of Hammersmith & Fulham. However, London has consistently been the region with the greatest outflow of migrants to other regions of the UK with 65 per cent of those leaving London moving to the South East or East Regions.

The theme of migration is also explored in Chapter 2: Diversity, which finds that London is the most multicultural city in the UK and is home to over 40 per cent of the UK Black, Asian and Minority Ethnic (BAME) population. Nearly a third of all Londoners were born outside the UK, compared with 7 per cent of the population outside the capital. London's migrant population is highly diverse, 63 per cent are from BAME groups. Around a quarter of London's migrants are from other European countries, just under a quarter (23 per cent) are from Africa and 17 per cent from the Indian subcontinent. Looking to the future, London's ethnic minority population is expected to increase from 33 per cent of the total in 2006 to 39 per cent by 2026.

Chapter 3: Labour market shows that the London labour market is home to an estimated 4.7 million jobs; 15 per cent of the UK total. The chapter focuses on London's resident labour force and explores levels and patterns of labour market activity. The chapter also examines the demographic factors that are associated with these patterns. Estimates for 2006 indicate that 69 per cent of London's resident working age population are in employment, which gives London one of the lowest employment rates of all UK regions. In addition, the unemployment rate in London is 8 per cent, the highest of all regions.

London is one of the major global centres for international business and in 2007 there were 4.7 million jobs in London. Chapter 4: Economy and Industry provides more detail on the London economy and key industries that dominate the labour force. In particular, it includes data on London's GVA by sector over time and examines the spread of London's employment and the size distribution of firms by sector. London's gross value added (GVA) on a workplace basis totalled £217.5bn at current basic prices in 2006 and accounted for an 19 per cent share of total UK GVA. The two largest sectors in London's economy by GVA were business services and financial services. The business services sector is now responsible for over 25 per cent of employee jobs in London and 30 per cent of all UK employee jobs in financial services located within London. The chapter concludes with a look at the high rate of business start-up and closure in London over time, as compared to the UK as a whole.

Analysis of household income data for London, in Chapter 5: Income and Lifestyles, reveals more inequality than any other region in the country. London has some of the wealthiest areas and the highest individual earnings in the country. Households in London have the highest mean gross weekly income at £766, nearly £80 per week more than the next highest region, the South East. However, there are also pockets of extreme poverty and very low income

amongst certain household types such as lone parents. The chapter deals with income levels and the components of income including wages, savings, tax and benefits. It also looks at expenditure and the regional differences in spending patterns.

The issue of income inequality and poverty is examined in greater detail in Chapter 6: Poverty. London is the wealthiest region of the UK yet it has the highest child poverty rate in the country. During 2003-06, two out of five children (41 per cent) in London lived under the poverty line after accounting for housing costs. Rates of child poverty are very high in Inner London, where over half of all children live in poverty (51 per cent). Trend data over the last twelve years show that national improvements in child poverty rates have not been evident in London where rates remain stubbornly high. In addition, 20 of the London boroughs rank among the top 50 most deprived local authorities in England on at least one summary measure of the Index of Multiple Deprivation 2007.

Chapter 7: Health focuses on four different aspects of health in London - life expectancy, people with disabilities, health and the effect of alcohol on health. London's health indicators show aspects of both good and poor health: the highest life expectancy both in London and in England and Wales is in Kensington and Chelsea. The lowest expectation of life in London for males is in Islington (74.9 years) and for females is in Newham (79.4 years). The rate of disability among London's working-age population is lower than in the UK as a whole (17 and 19 per cent). However, the employment rate of disabled people is 46 per cent in London compared with 49 per cent for the UK, which is in line with the difference in rates for those without a disability. Alcohol-attributable mortality rates are improving in London while binge drinking and average alcohol consumption are relatively low in London when compared with other regions.

The number of people seeking housing in London has long outstripped the availability of homes adequate to house them, and today things are no different. Chapter 8: Housing finds that housing need is influenced by underlying changes in demographics, the wider economy and the available housing stock. Population growth between 1991 and 2006 in London was just over 10 per cent, compared with 5 per cent for the rest of England, which has increased the pressures on London's housing requirements. There are currently around 100,000 net new units with planning permission but with construction not yet started, and a further 60,000 under construction. The chapter also examines affordability; in 2007, lower quartile house prices in London were over 9 times the lower quartile earnings, compared with around 4 times in 1997.

The state of the environment in London is a key issue for people working and living in the capital. Chapter 9: Environment shows the region makes up less than one per cent of the land area of the UK and approximately 12 per cent of the population (around 7.5 million people). This increases the intensity of demand for resources such as water, energy and land development and in turn can lead to damaging changes in the environment. It is important to monitor this change to assess levels of damage and potential risks. There are a range of indicators, including land use, water quality and consumption, waste disposal, air quality, noise pollution and changes in temperature and rainfall, which all can be found in this chapter, to help to assess environmental change. The biological and chemical quality of rivers in England and Wales has improved greatly since 1990. Yet London still ranks as the poorest in regional terms.

People in London travelled further by public transport, by bicycle and on foot than in any other region in Great Britain, whilst the lowest number of miles travelled by cars and other private road vehicles occurred in London. Chapter 10: Transport examines travel patterns, modes of transport and the use of public and private transport. In 2006, over 1.1 million people entered central London between 7am and 10am on an average working day: 44 per cent made all or some of their journey by rail, 34 per cent were made by London Underground or DLR, 10 per cent were by bus and 7 per cent by car. Indeed, the use of public transport rose to its highest level since the 1950s. The average time taken to travel to work in London is 43 minutes, by far the highest in the United Kingdom. For other regions, mean commuting times varied just between 21 and 24 minutes. The chapter concludes by examining air travel: between 1987 and 2007 the number of passengers using London's airports has increased by over 140 per cent.

Chapter 11: Crime finds that London suffers from a range of crime and disorder problems and has higher rates of recorded crime than other regions in England and Wales. The rate of recorded crime in London in 2006/07 was the highest of all regions at 124 offences per 1,000 head of population. However, it is important to note that the crime rate has fallen significantly since 2003/04. The rate of robbery in London was more than three times higher than the average for England and Wales. Vehicle-related thefts were higher in London than in other areas of the country with 1,371 thefts per 10,000 households. This was almost 50 per cent higher than the average.

Chapter 12: Education states that 1 in 7 pupils in England attend a school in London. There were approximately 1,023,000 full time equivalent pupils attending over 2,200 maintained (state) primary and secondary schools in London in 2007. The primary school roll in London is set to increase by more than 46,000 between 2007 and 2011, an increase of 9 per cent, while the secondary roll is forecast to remain about the same. There were also 41 higher education (HE) institutions in the capital, nearly a quarter of all HE establishments in the UK. This chapter also provides information on the link between school choice and level of affluence. It looks at attainment by income level, and analyses whether differences in attainment are more closely related to ethnicity or to socio-economic status.

Finally Chapter 13: London Government provides a summary of the 2008 London elections, including the Mayoral, Assembly Constituency and Assembly London-wide elections. In the 2008 Mayoral election Boris Johnson of the Conservative party had the highest proportion of first choice votes at 43 per cent, followed by Labour's Ken Livingstone with 37 per cent. Conservatives had 37 per cent of the Assembly Constituency vote whilst Labour candidates also increased their share to 28 per cent. In the Assembly London-wide election, the Conservative party gained the highest share of the vote in the list election with almost 35 per cent of the total, whilst Labour came second with 28 per cent, followed by Liberal Democrats with 11 per cent. The chapter also summarises the political composition of the 32 London Boroughs: the Conservative party have the highest share of Borough councillors in London at 42 per cent compared with 36 per cent that are Labour seats. The Conservatives have political control in 15 London Borough councils.

Structure of the publication

The report begins with some top ten rankings that cover various topics, some of which are miscellaneous and would not fit neatly into subsequent chapters.

There are 13 chapters covering different topics. The chapters start with a set of bullet points that highlight the key points of the chapter. Each chapter is illustrated by charts, maps and tables. Often the most detailed tables will appear at the end of the chapter. Sources are given at the foot of each table, chart and map.

The Notes and Definitions section after chapter 13 provides additional detail and background information which will help in understanding many of the tables and figures. There is also a section which explains the various different geographies that are used within the tables.

Readers who would like further information will find a list of references, further reading and websites at the back of the book. A map of the London borough boundaries can be found on the final page.

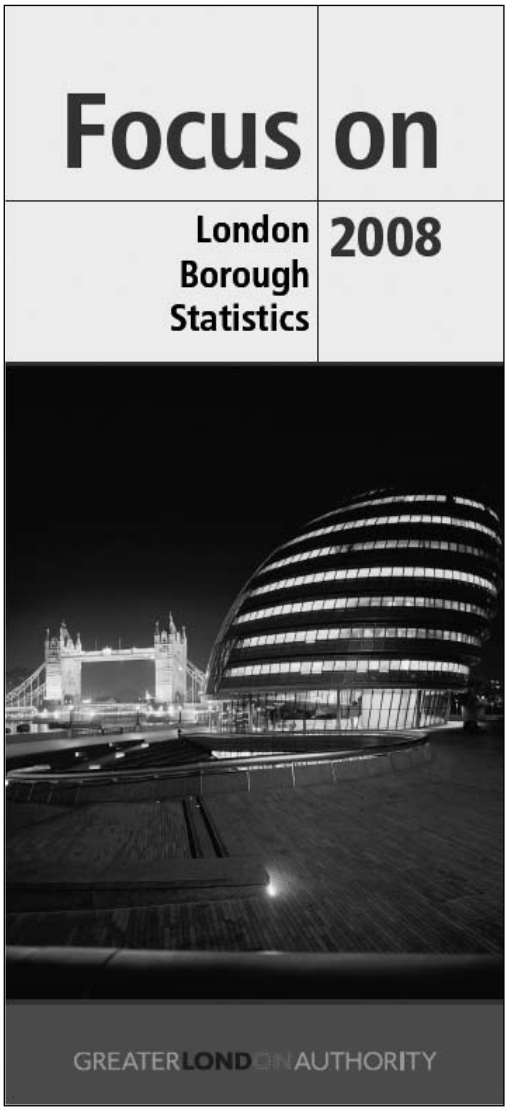
This report is available free of charge on the GLA website in PDF format. Most of the data are available as Excel files. (www.london.gov.uk/gla/dmag)

Borough statistics

This report shows some data for Inner and Outer London and the London Boroughs. However, to complement *Focus on London,* and released earlier in 2008, DMAG produced a borough 'stat-pack', titled *Focus on London Borough Statistics 2008*. It contains only borough level statistics throughout.

Attached to the inside cover is a small data disc that features over 80 tables of borough level data. The leaflet provides analysis of key borough facts and the spreadsheets contain the full data tables concerning the topics examined in the leaflet, and plenty more in addition. This publication provides Londoners with relevant and practical data on their area.

Copies of the leaflet and data disc are available from DMAG. The data is also available on the DMAG General Statistics Extranet site.



London top tens

Table 1

Band D Council tax 2008/09

£

Rank	Borough	Band D (£)
1	Kingston upon Thames	1,580
2	Richmond upon Thames	1,544
3	Havering	1,483
4	Haringey	1,471
5	Harrow	1,462
6	Waltham Forest	1,441
7	Hillingdon	1,423
8	Sutton	1,419
9	Croydon	1,406
10	Merton	1,405

Source: CLG

Table 2

Leading[1] paid attractions in London, 2007

Thousands

Rank	Attraction	Visitors
1	London Eye[2]	3,250
2	Tower of London	2,064
3	Kew Gardens	1,427
4	London Zoo	1,132
5	Westminster Abbey	1,058
6	Royal Academy of Arts	956
7	St Paul's Cathedral[3]	675
8	Hampton Court Palace	488
9	Tower Bridge	399
10	Buckingham Palace[4]	395

1 Madame Tussaud's, Chessington World and London Aquarium stopped publishing data in 2000
2 2005 data
3 Paid admissions only
4 2006 data

Source: Visitor Attraction Trends England, ALVA

Table 3

Leading free attractions in London, 2007

Thousands

Rank	Attraction	Visitors
1	British Museum	5,418
2	Tate Modern	5,192
3	National Gallery	4,159
4	Natural History Museum[1]	3,600
5	Science Museum[1]	2,714
6	V&A Museum[1]	2,435
7	National Maritime Museum[2]	1,696
8	National Portrait Gallery	1,608
9	Tate Britain	1,593
10	British Library	1,356

1 South Kensington sites only
2 All NMM sites

Source: Visitor Attraction Trends England, DCMS, ALVA

Table 4

Cinema admissions by television region in England, Wales and Northern Ireland , 2006

Millions and percentages

Rank	Region	Admissions	Share
1	London	39.8	28.3
2	Midlands	21.9	15.5
3	Lancashire	17.4	12.4
4	Southern	14.1	10.0
5	Yorkshire	13.0	9.2
6	East	10.3	7.3
7	Wales and West	10.0	7.1
8	North East	5.9	4.2
9	Northern Ireland	5.0	3.5
10	South West	3.3	2.3
	Total	140.6	100.0

Source: CAA, Nielsen EDI

Table 5

Attendance at London football stadia, season 2007/08

Numbers and percentages

		Average attendance	Stadium capacity	Percentage of capacity
1	Arsenal	60,070	60,355	100
2	Chelsea	41,397	42,360	98
3	Tottenham Hotspur	35,967	36,310	99
4	West Ham United	34,601	35,647	97
5	Fulham	23,774	26,600	89
6	Charlton Athletic	23,159	27,111	85
7	Crystal Palace	16,031	26,309	61
8	Queens Park Rangers	13,959	19,148	73
9	Millwall	8,669	20,146	43
10	Leyton Orient	5,210	7,920	66

Source: european-football-statistics.co.uk

Table 6

Sports club membership[1] by London borough, 2005/06

Percentages

Rank	Local authority	Club membership
1	Kensington & Chelsea	36.3
2	Richmond upon Thames	35.5
3	City of London	35.2
4	Hammersmith & Fulham	34.0
5	Kingston upon Thames	32.1
6	Bromley	31.4
7	Merton	31.2
8	Barnet	29.3
9	Wandsworth	29.1
9	Westminster	29.1

1 The proportion of the adult population who are a member of a club where they took part in a sport in the four weeks prior to interview.

Source: The Active People Survey, Sport England

Table 7

Household waste that is recycled[1], 2006/07

Percentages

Rank	Borough	Per cent recycled
1	Bexley	40.0
2	Bromley	31.9
3	Richmond upon Thames	31.7
4	Hillingdon	30.6
5	Sutton	30.3
6	Enfield	29.6
7	Barnet	29.5
8	City of London	28.2
9	Camden	28.1
10	Harrow	27.7

1 Includes composting.

Source: Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs

Table 8

Greenspace[1] by London borough

Square kilometres

Rank	Borough	Greenspace (km^2)
1	Bromley	86.8
2	Havering	66.6
3	Hillingdon	56.9
4	Enfield	37.4
5	Barnet	35.8
6	Croydon	32.0
7	Richmond upon Thames	29.7
8	Bexley	23.0
9	Hounslow	22.6
10	Redbridge	22.5

1 Does not include domestic gardens, paths or water.

Source: General Land Use database 2005 (Enhanced Basemap), CLG

Table 9

Largest Royal Parks by size

Hectares

Rank	Royal Park	Area
1	Richmond Park[1]	1,000
2	Bushy Park	445
3	The Regents Park (with Primrose Hill)	166
4	Hyde Park	142
5	Kensington Gardens	111
6	Greenwich Park	74
7	St James's Park	23
8	The Green Park	19
9	…	
10	…	

1 Approximate size.

Source: The Royal Parks, May 2008

Table 10

Annual rainfall in England and Wales by former National Rivers Authority region[1], 2006

Millimetres

Rank	NRA Region	Annual rainfall
1	Wales[2]	1,355
2	North West	1,201
3	South West	1,173
4	Northumbria	853
5	Wessex	839
6	Yorkshire	821
7	Southern	778
8	Severn Trent	754
9	Thames	688
10	Anglian	596

1 The regions of England shown in this table correspond to the original nine English regions of the National Rivers Authority (NRA); the NRA became part of the Environment Agency upon its creation in April 1996.
2 The figures in this table relate to the country of Wales; not the Environment Agency Welsh Region.

Source: Met Office; Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, Wallingford

Table 11

Height of high-rise completed buildings in London

Metres

Rank	Building Name	Height	Floors	Year
1	One Canada Square	235 m	50	1991
2	8 Canada Square	200 m	45	2002
2	25 Canada Square	200 m	45	2001
4	Tower 42	183 m	43	1980
5	30 St Mary Axe	180 m	41	2003
6	One Churchill Place	156 m	32	2004
7	25 Bank Street	153 m	33	2003
8	40 Bank Street	153 m	33	2003
9	10 Upper Bank Street	151 m	32	2003
10	Guy's Tower, Guy's Hospital	143 m	34	1974

Source: Emporis.com, May 2008

Table 12

Height of other structures in London

Metres

Rank	Building Name	Height	Year
1	Crystal Palace Transmitter	222 m	1950
2	BT Tower	191 m	1964
3	Croydon Transmitter	153 m	1962
4	BA London Eye	135 m	1999
5	Wembley Stadium	133 m	2007
6	Battersea Power Station	113 m	1953
7	St Paul's Cathedral	111 m	1710
8	SELCHP chimney	100 m	1994
9	Tate Modern	99 m	1963
10	Victoria Tower	98 m	1855

Source: Emporis.com, May 2008

Table 13

National Insurance Number registrations of non-UK nationals by country of origin, London, 2006/07

Numbers

Rank	Country of origin	Registrations
1	Poland	43,420
2	India	18,550
3	Australia	15,000
4	France	10,640
5	Pakistan	8,800
6	Rep of Lithuania	8,330
7	South Africa	7,830
8	Italy	7,700
9	Germany	6,510
10	Nigeria	6,350

Source: 100% sample at 14 May 2007 from the National Insurance Recording System (NIRS)

Table 14

National Insurance Number registrations of non-UK nationals by borough, 2006/07

Numbers

Rank	Borough	Registrations
1	Newham	16,160
2	Brent	15,600
3	Ealing	14,300
4	Tower Hamlets	11,800
5	Westminster	11,790
6	Wandsworth	11,720
7	Lambeth	11,170
8	Haringey	10,970
9	Hounslow	9,800
10	Southwark	9,690

Source: 100% sample at 14 May 2007 from the National Insurance Recording System (NIRS)

Table 15

Primary school pupils whose first language is not English[1] by borough, 2007

Numbers and percentage

Rank	London borough	Number of pupils	Percentage[2]
1	Newham	16,670	72.1
2	Tower Hamlets	12,760	76.1
3	Ealing	11,170	56.0
4	Brent	10,840	60.4
5	Redbridge	9,920	53.0
6	Enfield	9,020	41.4
7	Haringey	8,780	53.3
8	Barnet	8,180	40.3
9	Harrow	8,180	50.8
10	Waltham Forest	7,530	45.6

1 Number of pupils in maintained primary schools whose first language is known or believed to be other than English.
2 The number of pupils by their first language expressed as a percentage of the number of pupils of compulsory school age and above.

Source: DCSF: Schools and Pupils in England, January 2007

Table 16

Secondary school pupils whose first language is not English[1] by borough, 2007

Numbers and percentage

Rank	London borough	Number of pupils	Percentage[2]
1	Newham	11,970	65.5
2	Tower Hamlets	9,930	68.7
3	Redbridge	9,770	46.5
4	Brent	8,910	53.7
5	Hounslow	8,760	52.5
6	Enfield	8,120	36.6
7	Ealing	7,360	47.9
8	Barnet	7,250	37.2
9	Haringey	5,360	45.2
10	Greenwich	4,980	34.6

1 Number of pupils in maintained secondary schools whose first language is known or believed to be other than English.
2 The number of pupils by their first language expressed as a percentage of the number of pupils of compulsory school age and above.

Source: DCSF: Schools and Pupils in England, January 2007

Table 17

Students at Higher Education Institutions by domicile, 2005-06

Numbers

Rank	HE institution	From UK	Overseas	Total
1	London Metropolitan	22,350	7,275	29,625
2	University of Westminster	20,445	5,635	26,080
3	Middlesex University	19,045	5,225	24,270
4	University of Greenwich	19,400	4,455	23,855
5	City University	18,150	5,530	23,680
6	Kingston University	18,835	3,295	22,135
7	London South Bank	18,685	3,100	21,785
8	King's College	17,800	3,955	21,755
9	University Coll. of London	14,740	6,880	21,620
10	Thames Valley[1]	17,095	2,830	19,925

1 Has campuses inside and outside London

Source: Higher Education Statistics Agency

Table 18

Secondary schools by average GCSE point score per student[1], 2007

Average point scores

Rank	School	APS[2]
1	Queen Elizabeth's School, Barnet	591.1
2	Wilson's School, Sutton	585.0
3	The Swaminarayan School, Brent	576.4
4	Westminster School, Westminster	568.1
5	Sutton Grammar School for Boys, Sutton	564.4
6	St Michael's Catholic Gramm. Sch., Barnet	561.3
7	Old Palace Sch. of John Whitgift, Croydon	553.7
8	Woodford County High School, Redbridge	547.9
9	The Tiffin Girls' Sch., Kingston-'on-Thames	546.1
10	University College School, Camden	544.2

1 In all schools in this list, 100% of the pupils at the end of Key Stage 4 achieved the Level 2 threshold - equivalent to five GCSEs at grade C or above - including English and maths GCSEs
2 Average points per student

Source: Department for Children, Schools and Families in January 2008

Table 19

Number of passengers carried by Underground line[1]

Numbers and millions

Rank	Underground Line	Weekday	Annual (millions)
1	Northern	660,395	206.7
2	Central	589,734	183.5
3	District	556,252	172.9
4	Piccadilly	529,550	176.2
5	Victoria	511,714	161.3
6	Jubilee	405,878	127.6
7	Bakerloo	302,869	95.9
8	Circle	218,136	68.5
9	Metropolitan	186,271	53.7
10	Hammersmith and City	149,405	45.8

1 No information available for East London Line

Source: Transport for London, May 2008

Table 20

Maximum number of Underground trains required for peak period service

Numbers and Kilometres

Rank	Line	Trains[1]	Length (km)	Stations
1	Northern Line	91	58	50
2	Central line	77	74	49
2	District Line	77	64	60
4	Piccadilly Line	76	71	52
5	Jubilee Line	49	36	27
6	Metropolitan Line	47	67	34
7	Victoria Line	37	21	16
8	Bakerloo Line	31	23	25
9	Circle Line	30[2]	23	27
10	Hammersmith and City	..	27	28

1 Maximum number of trains required for scheduled morning peak period service
2 This is the total for the Circle line and Hammersmith and City line.

Source: Transport for London, May 2008

Population and Migration

Chapter 1

- With over 7.5 million residents, London has the second largest population of any British region, only exceeded by the South East and accounts for 12.4 per cent of the UK population.
- In 2006 London had a natural growth (births less deaths) of nearly 70 thousand, which is equivalent to nearly 40 per cent of the UK's natural growth.
- London's population density was 4,779 persons per square kilometre in 2006, with the highest density by borough being Kensington and Chelsea with 14,700 people per square kilometre.
- One of the main components of London's high population growth in recent years is the estimated level of international migration. The 170 thousand international migrants who came to London in 2006 were equivalent to about 2.25 per cent of London's population, or the population of the borough of Hammersmith & Fulham.
- London has consistently been the region with the greatest outflow of migrants to other regions of the UK with 65 per cent of those leaving London moving to the South East or East Regions.
- In 2006 there were 84 thousand more female residents of London than males. This figure is down from a female 'surplus' of 128 thousand in 2001. A similar, though less rapid, reduction has been estimated for the UK, down from 1.45 million more females in 2001 to 1.20 million more in 2006.
- London differs from the UK with regard to its age structure, the population tending to be younger than in the country as a whole: 44 per cent of London's residents were in the age band 20 to 44 compared with only 35 per cent of the UK population, mainly due to London's migration patterns.
- The household structure of London is quite extreme compared with other regions within England, with high proportions of two or more unrelated adults (24 per cent) and lone parents households (19 per cent) but a low proportion of married couples households (11 per cent).

Introduction

London is one of the largest cities in the developed world in terms of its built-up area, and is one of the most populous cities in the European Union, with over 7.5 million residents. It is also the second most densely settled EU NUTS 1 region, with nearly 4,800 persons per square kilometre, behind only Brussels.

In its basic demographic characteristics London is positioned between other British and other European cities. While London's crude birth rate, at over 16 live births per thousand residents, is high compared with most European cities it is more similar to other British cities, on the other hand London's crude death rate, at less than 7 deaths per thousand residents, is broadly consistent with some European cities but lower than many others, including other cities in Britain. In 2006 London had a natural growth (births less deaths) of nearly 70 thousand, which is equivalent to nearly 40 per cent of the UK's natural growth.

London is the destination for more international migrants than any other city in Britain and, arguably, in Europe. London is a major hub of international air travel and, helped by the ubiquitous nature of the English language, is naturally a destination of many international migrants. The 170 thousand international migrants who came to London in 2006 were equivalent to about 2.25 per cent of London's population, or the population of the borough of Hammersmith & Fulham. Migration from the rest of the UK accounted for an additional 168 thousand new residents. About 364 thousand people left London in 2006, with the net impact of the large migration flows into and out of London being only a net loss of 26 thousand but a continuing rejuvenation of the population. It is London's young age structure, the ongoing footprint of migration, which accounts for its low death rate, high birth rate, disproportionate contribution to the UK's natural population growth and demographic uniqueness amongst European cities.

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 gender and age structure, and household structure of London's residents. A final section deals with GLA demographic projections.

Trends in total population

At 7.51 million residents London has the second largest population of any British region; only exceeded by the South East at 8.24 million. London accounts for 12.4 per cent of the UK population and 14.0 per cent of England and Wales. The population of London fell for 49 years following the peak of 8.6 million residents at the time of the National Registration in 1939. The decline was particularly rapid during the 1960s and 1970s. The population reached a low point in 1988 of just 6.73 million, a size previously achieved when London's population was rising rapidly in the Edwardian era, 80 years earlier. Between 1981 and 1991 London's population increased slightly (0.4 per cent), especially compared with the South West (7 per cent), East (6 per cent) and South East (5 per cent) regions. However, between 1991 and 2001 London was the fastest growing region (7 per cent) (Table 1.12). The most recent estimate of London's population, for mid-2006, showed there to be 7.51 million residents, an increase from 7.32 million in 2001 at an annual average increase of about 38 thousand. Table 1.13 shows the mid-year resident population estimates for all boroughs for 2006 by age and gender.

Population density

In 2006 the overall population density of London was 4,779 persons per square kilometre, but there were considerable differences between the boroughs. Table 1.1 shows that the most densely populated boroughs were Kensington and Chelsea with 14,700 people per square kilometre, and Islington with 12,500. Except for the City of London, which had the fourth lowest borough density (2,700), all other inner London boroughs had population densities in excess of 6,800 persons, while the most densely populated outer London boroughs were Brent and Waltham Forest at 6,300 and 5,700 respectively. Eight Inner London boroughs – Camden, Hackney, Hammersmith and Fulham, Islington, Kensington and Chelsea, Lambeth, Tower Hamlets, and Westminster – have densities in excess of twice the London average.

Table 1.1

Population density at mid-2006

Persons per square kilometre

	Area (Km^2)	Population (thousands)	Density (Pop/km^2)
City of London	3	7.8	2,676
Barking & Dagenham	36	165.7	4,591
Barnet	87	328.6	3,788
Bexley	61	221.6	3,659
Brent	43	271.4	6,277
Bromley	150	299.1	1,992
Camden	22	227.5	10,434
Croydon	87	337.0	3,895
Ealing	56	306.4	5,517
Enfield	81	285.3	3,529
Greenwich	47	222.6	4,702
Hackney	19	208.4	10,931
Hammersmith & Fulham	16	171.4	10,452
Haringey	30	225.7	7,626
Harrow	50	214.6	4,251
Havering	112	227.3	2,025
Hillingdon	116	250.0	2,161
Hounslow	56	218.6	3,904
Islington	15	185.5	12,482
Kensington & Chelsea	12	178.0	14,676
Kingston upon Thames	37	155.9	4,186
Lambeth	27	272.0	10,140
Lewisham	35	255.7	7,273
Merton	38	197.7	5,257
Newham	36	248.4	6,858
Redbridge	56	251.9	4,466
Richmond upon Thames	57	179.5	3,127
Southwark	29	269.2	9,330
Sutton	44	184.4	4,206
Tower Hamlets	20	212.8	10,764
Waltham Forest	39	221.7	5,712
Wandsworth	34	279.0	8,142
Westminster	21	231.9	10,795
Inner London	319	2,972.9	9,311
Outer London	1,253	4,539.4	3,624
London	1,572	7,512.4	4,779

Sources: ONS mid-year estimates

The outer London boroughs of Brent, Waltham Forest, Ealing and Merton all have 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 more recent patterns of population growth and the retention of the largest proportions of Green Belt areas among all boroughs. They are also the three largest boroughs, with over 100 square kilometres each.

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. A high level of natural change underpins population growth in London. This can be seen in Table 1.2, which shows the main components for London and England and Wales for years from 2001-02 to 2005-06. The equivalent components of population change at borough level for 2005-06 are shown in Table 1.14. After no significant change for over a decade, births in London, as elsewhere in the UK, have risen quite sharply since 2001. The increase in London has been more rapid than average and in 2005-06 London births accounted for 18 per cent of the England and Wales total. The annual numbers of deaths have fallen faster in London than in the rest of the UK, with London accounting for only 10 per cent of the England and Wales total in 2005-06. The result has been a rapid rise in natural change in London. Other changes, mainly net migration, show an underlying increase of net international flows into England and Wales while annual data for London are more variable with overall net migration losses in four of the last five years.

In 2005-06 London mothers had nearly 118 thousand live births and there were 52 thousand deaths of London residents, a natural increase of 66 thousand people. London contributed 44 per cent of natural increase in England and Wales. London had a high crude birth rate at 15.8 births per thousand residents compared with 12.3 nationally, and a low crude death rate (6.9 deaths per thousand residents compared with 9.4). The rate of natural change in London – an increase of 8.8 persons for every thousand residents – was therefore high compared with that for England and Wales as a whole

Table 1.2

Annual population change analysis 2001-06, London and England & Wales

Thousands and percentages

	Mid-year estimate at start	Births	Deaths	Natural Change	Internal (UK) Migration			International Migration			Total Net Mig-ration	Other Changes	Total Change	Mid-year estimate at end
					In	Out	Net	In	Out	Net				
London														
2001-02	7,322.4	104.3	57.4	47.0	156.0	254.2	-98.1	182.1	91.5	90.6	-7.5	-0.2	39.2	7,361.6
2002-03	7,361.6	108.5	57.5	51.0	152.5	262.9	-110.3	172.6	110.9	61.7	-48.5	0.1	2.5	7,364.1
2003-04	7,364.1	111.7	56.5	55.2	151.6	267.8	-116.1	179.6	94.2	85.5	-30.7	0.4	24.9	7,389.1
2004-05	7,389.1	114.6	54.2	60.4	157.6	246.9	-89.2	187.7	93.9	93.8	4.6	2.0	67.0	7,456.1
2005-06	7,456.1	117.9	51.9	66.0	163.1	243.7	-80.5	170.4	100.5	69.9	-10.6	0.9	56.3	7,512.4
England & Wales														
2001-02	52,360.0	590.6	529.8	60.8	56.7	62.3	-5.7	459.1	305.5	153.7	148.0	3.3	212.1	52,572.1
2002-03	52,572.1	608.4	531.9	76.5	54.2	61.3	-7.2	476.5	325.4	151.0	143.9	4.9	225.3	52,797.3
2003-04	52,797.3	631.5	530.9	100.6	54.2	70.6	-15.9	494.3	321.2	173.2	157.2	2.0	259.8	53,057.1
2004-05	53,057.1	640.8	519.7	121.1	51.7	66.1	-14.5	552.5	301.3	251.2	236.7	4.3	362.1	53,419.2
2005-06	53,419.2	656.5	505.8	150.8	51.6	61.4	-9.8	515.7	348.3	167.4	157.6	1.3	309.7	53,728.8
London as percentage of E&W														
2001-02	14.0	17.7	10.8	77.3	..	..	..	39.7	30.0	58.9	-5.1	-7.5	18.5	14.0
2002-03	14.0	17.8	10.8	66.7	..	..	..	36.2	34.1	40.9	-33.7	2.0	1.1	13.9
2003-04	13.9	17.7	10.6	54.9	..	..	..	36.3	29.3	49.4	-19.5	20.6	9.6	13.9
2004-05	13.9	17.9	10.4	49.9	..	..	..	34.0	31.2	37.3	1.9	47.8	18.5	14.0
2005-06	14.0	18.0	10.3	43.8	..	..	..	33.1	28.9	41.8	-6.8	69.9	18.2	14.0

Sources: Office for National Statistics mid-year estimates change analysis and NHSCR

(2.8 persons per thousand). London had both the highest birth rate and the lowest death rate of all of the regions, with Northern Ireland next on both measures. The South West had the lowest birth rate (10.4) while Scotland had the highest death rates (10.8). However, these crude measures do not take account of the age structure of the population, which is discussed below.

The other main factor in population change is migration. Table 1.2 shows that in 2005-06 London had a loss due to migration of 11 thousand, equivalent to a rate of 1.4 per thousand population. London was the only part of the UK to lose population through migration. The highest rates of growth due to net migration were found in the South West (7.2 per thousand) and the East Midlands (6.3 per thousand). However, in terms of total population change in the year, London, at 56 thousand, was the region that had the largest growth and had the fourth highest rate, at 7.5 per thousand, behind Northern Ireland, the East Midlands and the East regions.

The growth in London in 2005-06 was a slight reduction on the growth in 2004-05 but was the sixth highest recorded since the population returned to growth after 1988.

Population structure

Before going on to examine fertility and mortality in detail it is important to look at the age and gender structure, which is critical to making meaningful demographic comparisons between London and other parts of the UK.

As with most parts of the UK, London is estimated to have a higher proportion of females than males among its resident population, at 50.6 per cent. The equivalent percentage for the whole of the UK is 51.0 per cent. In 2006 there were 84 thousand more female residents of London than males. However this figure is down from a female 'surplus' of 128 thousand in 2001. A similar, though less rapid, reduction has been estimated for the

UK, down from 1.45 million more females in 2001 to 1.20 million more in 2006. However, while both in the UK as a whole and in London, males outnumber females at birth and maintain this position for a number of years, the pattern begins to change for those in their twenties. In the UK, there are still more men at most ages but there are more women at ages 27 and 28 whereas in London there are more women at 23 to 27 but then men out number women again up to the age of 43. With the exception of age 48, there are then more women from this age upwards. In the UK, women take over as the majority at all ages from age 31, a far younger age than in London. Table 1.12 presents this data in broad age groups.

London also differs from the UK with regard to its age structure, the population tending to be younger than in the country as a whole. Figure 1.3 shows that in 2006 London had proportionally more children aged 0-6 and adults aged between 22 and 43 than the UK, but considerably fewer people aged between 7 and 21, or 44 and over. Forty-four per cent of London's residents were in the age band 20 to 44 compared with only 35 per cent of the UK population. This age group is particularly important for the city's future: as well as high economic activity rates in this age band, females aged between 20 and 44 also account for nearly all births. The high numbers of young adults, in particular women in their twenties, helps to explain London's high crude birth rate compared with the UK average. London's relative dearth of residents aged 65 or over (12 per cent compared with 16 per cent nationally) puts into context London's low crude death rate.

The main reasons for these age differences from the national norms are to be found in the analysis of London's migration patterns.

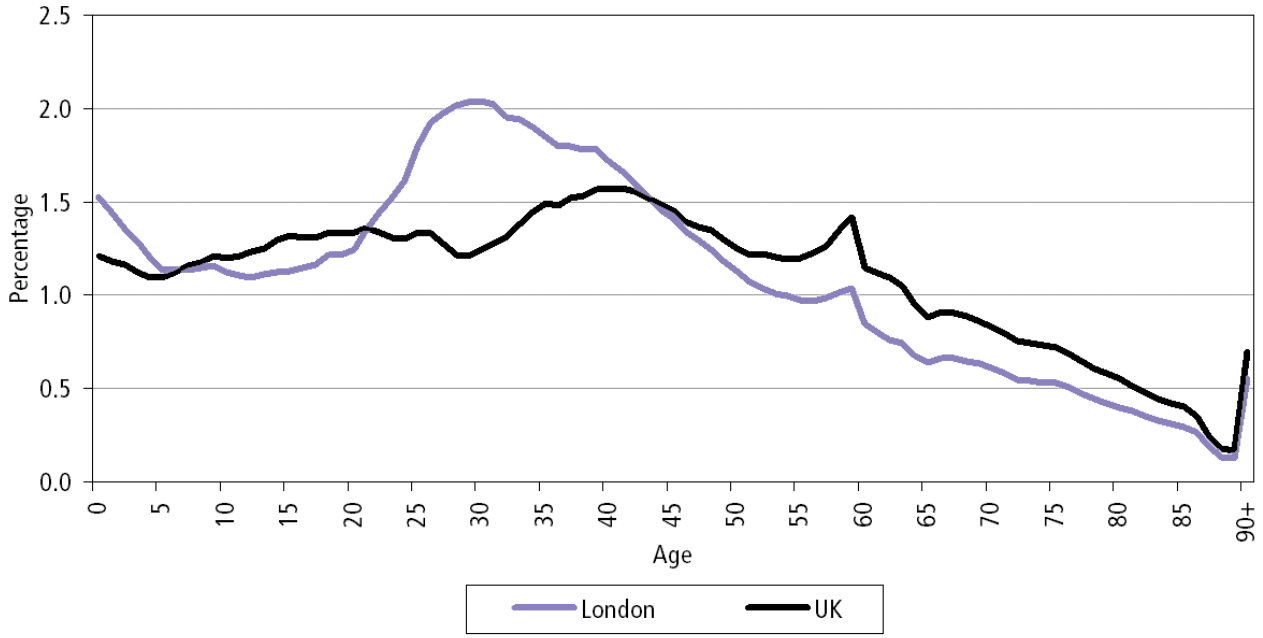
Fertility

The main reason for London's comparatively high crude birth rate is the higher proportion of women of childbearing age in the population compared with the UK as a whole. Women in London in their twenties and thirties form a higher percentage of the total population than do women in the UK as a whole. The difference is most marked at ages 25 to 34; ages with the highest age-specific fertility rates. Women in the main fertile ages (15-44) form 24.5 per cent of London's population

Figure 1.3

Age structure of London and United Kingdom at mid-2006

Percentages



Source: Office for National Statistics estimates

Table 1.4

Age-specific birth rates[1]

Live births per 1,000 women in age groups[2]

	1981	1991	2001	2006
United Kingdom				
Under 20	28	33	28	26
20 to 24	107	89	68	72
25 to 29	130	120	92	100
30 to 34	70	87	88	105
35 to 39	22	32	41	53
40 and over	5	5	9	11
TFR[3]	1.82	1.82	1.63	1.84
London				
Under 20	29	29	26	24
20 to 24	83	69	59	70
25 to 29	114	97	73	82
30 to 34	80	96	94	103
35 to 39	31	47	59	72
40 and over	6	10	15	19
TFR[3]	1.71	1.72	1.62	1.85

1 Based on the usual area of residence of the mother.
2 The rates for women aged under 20 and 40 and over are based upon the population of women aged 15 to 19 and 40 to 44.
3 The total fertility rate (TFR) is the sum of the age-specific fertility rates (ASFRs). The average number of live children that an average woman would bear if she experienced the 2006 ASFRs throughout her childbearing years.

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

compared with 20.7 per cent of the UK population. One measure of overall fertility, which takes account of the age structure of the female population, is the total fertility rate (TFR). In 2006, this rate in London was 1.84 children per woman, almost identical to the level of 1.85 in the UK. Since 1981 the TFR in London has increased by 0.14 children per woman, while there has been an increase of just 0.02 in the UK as a whole.

The age-specific fertility rates reveal differences in the timing of childbearing. Since 1981, age-specific fertility rates for teenagers and women in their twenties have generally been lower in London than in the country as a whole. Conversely, women in their thirties and early forties living in the capital have had higher fertility rates than those in the rest of the UK. Fertility rates for women in their twenties had been falling between 1981 and 2001 although in 2006 there was an increase both in London and the UK as a whole. There have also been increasing fertility rates at ages over 30 in both London and the rest of the UK (Table 1.4). By 2006 over 52 per cent of London's total fertility occurred at ages over 30, compared with only 46 per cent in England and Wales.

Mortality

The young age structure of the population also contributes to London's low crude death rate. Taking the age structure into account, the standardised mortality ratio (SMR) in London in 2006 was 94, ie the actual number of deaths in London was 6 per cent lower than it hypothetically would have been if the age-specific mortality rates of the UK had applied in London.

However there are slight gender and age differences in comparison with the UK. Age-specific mortality rates in London were lower than the national rates at ages 75 and over for males and at ages 45 and over for females. These lower rates are at ages that encompass the majority of deaths, hence it is clear why London has relatively few deaths and therefore a lower crude death rate.

Migration

Research by ONS has found that the International Passenger Survey (IPS), the main source for international migration estimates, does not provide good estimates of where migrants arriving in the UK go to live. In particular, it has been shown that IPS estimates of migrants going to live in London tend to be over-estimated and those intending to live in other parts of the UK are underestimated. This is because London is a gateway city, and, for some, only a short-term destination before moving again to other parts of the UK. As a consequence, a number of those stating an intention to live in London will actually very soon be more permanently living elsewhere. ONS research into alternative data sources has established that the Labour Force Survey (LFS) provides the best available estimates of the geographical distribution of migrants into the UK. LFS data are now incorporated into the international migration methodology. This has lowered the annual estimates of net international migration into London since 2001.

One of the main components of London's high population growth in recent years has been the

Table 1.5

Regional migration flows for selected years

Thousands

	Inflow				Outflow			
	1991	1996	2001	2006	1991	1996	2001	2006
Inter-regional migration[1]								
North East	40	39	40	40	41	45	43	39
North West	96	105	106	100	105	114	110	104
Yorkshire and The Humber	85	91	96	93	85	98	96	94
East Midlands	90	102	115	107	81	94	96	99
West Midlands	83	91	95	93	88	101	102	101
East	122	139	147	144	113	121	127	127
London	149	168	160	168	202	213	244	247
South East	198	228	224	225	185	199	216	201
South West	121	139	143	136	99	110	111	108
England	96	111	104	96	112	105	120	110
Wales	51	55	60	57	47	53	51	49
Scotland	56	47	56	50	47	54	50	44
Northern Ireland	12	11	13	13	9	12	11	11
International migration[2,3]								
United Kingdom	328	318	479	591	285	264	306	400
North East	7	3	12	15	4	5	6	14
North West	18	18	30	43	22	21	22	36
Yorkshire and The Humber	22	14	36	49	17	12	19	29
East Midlands	14	14	20	37	9	11	13	21
West Midlands	16	25	32	33	21	20	17	29
East	28	25	39	60	25	16	30	36
London	116	127	176	170	84	72	95	117
South East	53	46	66	81	43	56	50	53
South West	21	18	26	43	22	16	20	26
England	294	291	438	530	245	230	270	361
Wales	10	8	10	15	8	8	9	10
Scotland	21	16	27	38	27	22	23	26
Northern Ireland	4	3	..	..	5	4	..	..

1 Based on NHS patients moving from one Government Office Region to another and registering their change of address with an NHS doctor.

2 Based mainly on data from the International Passenger Survey (IPS). Includes adjustments for (a) those whose intended length of stay changes so that their migrant status changes; (b) asylum seekers and their dependants not identified by the IPS; and (c) flows between the UK and the Republic of Ireland.

3 A consistent methodology (based primarily on the IPS and the LFS) has been used to derive international migration estimates for the constituent countries of the UK and Government Office Regions within England. This methodology was amended in 2007 as part of the National Statistics Quality Review of International Migration and data for 2001 have been revised as a result, however methodology for Northern Ireland is currently under further review and the results are not shown separately for 2001 and 2006, but included in the UK total.

Source: National Health Service Central Register and International Passenger Survey, Office for National Statistics; General Register Office for Scotland; Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency; Home Office; Irish Central Statistical Office.

estimated level of net migration. Throughout the 1960s and 1970s London was losing as many as 100 thousand residents annually through the balance of migration; losses were still around 50 thousand a year at the beginning of the 1980s. Since 1988 London's population began to grow again due to the net migration (and other) losses being consistently less than the natural growth. Subsequently the balance of migration for London was positive since 1994 in all years up to 2001, with the exception of 1996-97. Since 2001, and allowing for the retrospective revisions to the distribution of international migration made by ONS in 2007 (see above), London has only once, in 2004-05 had a net migration inflow.

Table 1.5 shows the regional patterns of in and outflows for inter-regional migration (within the UK) and international migration at selected years since 1991. The most striking aspect of the table is the growth in the international flows to and from the UK with the net balance rising from 44 thousand in 1991 to 191 thousand in 2006, having been 244 thousand in 2004. London fully reflects this increase and gained 32 thousand net international migrants in 1991 and 98 thousand in 2004 and only 53 thousand in 2006. In recent years London has had the greatest regional share of both the inflows (averaging around 34 per cent) and outflows (averaging around 28 per cent).

In regard to inter-regional migration London has consistently been the region with the greatest outflow, and the second region, after the South East, in terms of inflows. It has therefore had a consistent net outflow of migrants to the rest of the UK. This outflow is a counterweight to the high natural growth of London and the high net international inflow. The net outflow has been relatively volatile, ranging from 45 thousand in 1996 to 116 thousand in 2003-04, but this largely reflects more modest changes in the large annual gross flows. Since 2001 the inflows have ranged from 152 to 163 thousand) and outflows from 244 to 268 thousand (Table 1.2).

Table 1.6

Inter-regional migration movements[1] within the UK, in the year ending June 2007

Thousands

	Region of origin													
	United Kingdom	England	North East	North West	Yorkshire and The Humber	East Midlands	West Midlands	East	London	South East	South West	Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland
Region of destination														
United Kingdom	.	112.1	39.5	104.3	95.6	99.2	100.6	126.8	248.4	202.1	107.9	49.2	42.7	11.1
England	94.3	.	33.6	84.3	86.6	91.8	87.1	117.7	234.5	183.9	92.8	47.0	38.5	8.8
North East	39.5	34.2	.	5.9	9.2	3.2	2.3	3.0	3.9	4.5	2.2	1.0	3.5	0.8
North West	99.2	82.4	5.7	.	18.2	9.0	12.4	6.9	11.9	11.2	7.2	8.3	6.3	2.2
Yorkshire and The Humber	92.6	85.3	9.2	18.3	.	16.2	7.8	8.5	9.8	10.2	5.4	2.6	3.9	0.8
East Midlands	108.2	102.1	3.0	9.3	18.3	.	16.1	18.5	12.4	17.6	7.0	2.7	2.8	0.6
West Midlands	92.8	82.1	2.4	12.0	7.3	14.7	.	7.6	12.1	13.7	12.3	7.5	2.5	0.6
East	144.8	137.8	2.5	6.7	7.3	14.1	7.2	.	64.9	26	9.1	2.9	3.5	0.7
London	167.0	154.5	4.8	12.2	10.8	11.4	12.3	30.8	.	55.9	16.3	5.0	6.2	1.3
South East	226.1	211.8	4.0	11.2	9.4	14.4	13.2	29.3	97.1	.	33.3	7.1	6.0	1.2
South West	136.5	122.2	2.2	8.7	6.1	8.8	15.9	13.2	22.4	44.8	.	9.9	3.7	0.8
Wales	56.5	54.5	1.0	10.1	2.9	3.2	9.3	3.6	5.3	8.9	10.3	.	1.6	0.4
Scotland	51.5	48.0	4.3	7.8	5.4	3.5	3.4	4.7	6.9	8.0	4.0	1.8	.	1.8
Northern Ireland	12.8	9.7	0.6	2.1	0.8	0.6	0.8	0.9	1.8	1.4	0.7	0.5	2.6	.

1 Based on patients re-registering with NHS doctors in other parts of the United Kingdom.

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

Migration into and out of London is at the centre of demographic changes affecting, to a greater or lesser extent, all regions of the UK. London is a magnet for young people from all parts of the UK and the rest of the world for education and jobs, but is generally less attractive to families and the elderly. The growing international attractiveness of London starting in the late 1990s appears to have been reflected in the growing numbers dispersing from London to the rest of the UK. In 1991 the net impact of migration to London was a loss of 21 thousand with 265 thousand arrivals and 286 thousand departures. By 2006 the net impact was a loss of 26 thousand but both the inflow and outflow had risen substantially to 338 thousand and 364 thousand respectively. Almost three-quarters of the rise in inflow (74 per cent) was due to international immigration and over half (58 per cent) of the rise in outflow was due to inter-regional flows.

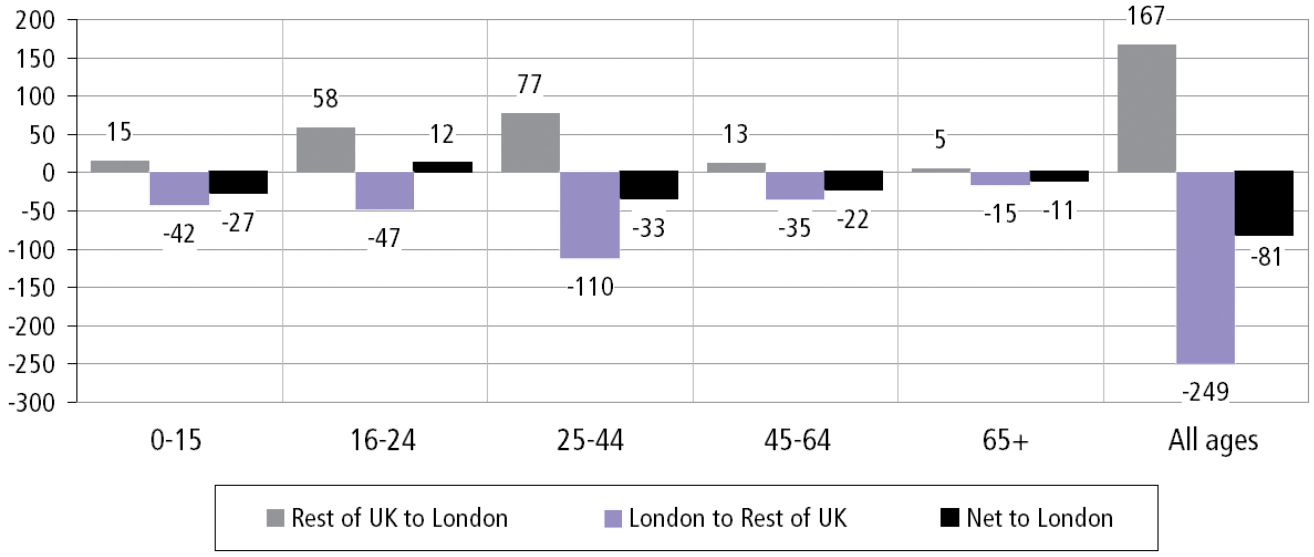
Table 1.6 shows a full matrix of inter-regional moves in 2006-07. Since 2004 the inflow to London had risen and the outflow had fallen, leading to a net loss reduced to just 81 thousand in the year. Of the 167 thousand persons who moved to London, the South East (56 thousand) and the East (31 thousand) account for 52 per cent. It is a similar picture for London's outflow: 248 thousand persons left London with the South East (97 thousand) and the East (65 thousand) receiving 65 per cent. In terms of the net flow between London and its two neighbouring regions the picture is even more dramatic, with a net flow of 75 thousand persons from London to the two regions out of London's total net loss of 81 thousand: that is 93 per cent. London has a net loss to most regions, the exceptions are the small net gains from the North East, North West, Yorkshire and the Humber and the West Midlands, but the only other region to have a significant gain from London is the South West at just 6 thousand.

Figure 1.7 shows migration between London and the rest of the UK by age groups in 2006-07. While London is a significant overall net loser of population through migration within the UK it has a net inflow at ages 16-24 and the gross inflow at these ages accounts for 35 per cent of the total inflow. It is nearly twice as likely that a person aged 16-24 resident in the rest of the UK will move to London as will a person aged 25-44 and ten times more likely than a person aged 45-64. On the other hand the 16-24s and the 25-44s are also the age groups most likely to leave London.

Figure 1.7

Migration[1] between London and the rest of the UK by age groups, 2006-07

Thousands



1 Based on patients re-registering with NHS doctors in other parts of the United Kingdom.

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

Population turnover

Population turnover rates relate the sum of an area's inflows and outflows per thousand resident population of the area. ONS publishes annual rates, based solely on moves within the UK, at the Middle layer Super Output Area (MSOA) level by broad age groups. The rates give an indication of the potential disruption to local services caused by migration. This is particularly important for education and social services. In extreme cases the turnover of persons in their late teens and twenties can exceed 1,000 per thousand residents, but this relates mainly to areas with student accommodation.

The data presented here are for all ages, give an indication of the differentials between boroughs. All inflows and outflows for both UK and overseas are included. Data are drawn from the mid-year estimate change analyses.

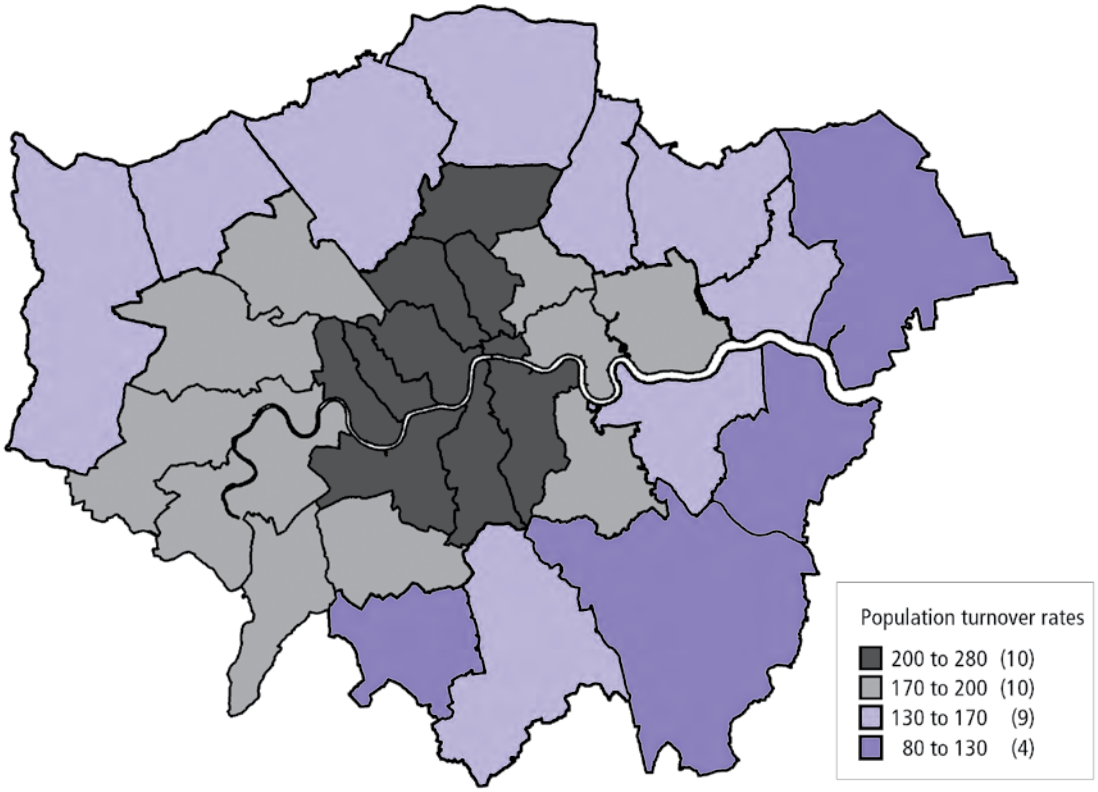
Data for London need to be treated differently to that for each of the boroughs. The internal churn of persons moving within London, either between boroughs or within boroughs, needs to be considered. For London as a whole there is an inflow, from both the UK and overseas, equivalent to 45 per thousand residents and an outflow of 48 per thousand residents. Movements between boroughs amount to an average of 304 thousand a year, equivalent to 41 per thousand London residents. These three factors add up to a turnover of 134 per thousand per year.

The 2001 Census identified 349 thousand Londoners who had moved within each of the 32 boroughs or the City of London in the previous year, this is equivalent to 49 per thousand of the 2001 Census resident population of London. At the individual borough level, nearly all had between 45 and 55 per thousand moves internal to the borough. The outliers being Havering (37 per thousand) and Wandsworth (63 per thousand).

Map 1.8

Average population turnover[1] rates 2001-06

Per thousand population



1 Turnover is inflow plus outflow excluding within-borough moves. Flows include both migration within the UK and the international flows. See Table 1.15 for more population turnover data.

Source: Office for National Statistics mid-year estimate change analysis and 2001 Census

When the within-borough movers are brought into the turnover calculation for London the average total turnover reaches 183 per thousand, ie over 18 per cent of the population moved in a year. It is quite possible for people to record more than one move in a year, particularly students and other single young adults as well as new arrivals from overseas, but the majority is content to move just once, if at all.

Map 1.8 and shows the average 2001-06 standard turnover rates that is inflow plus outflow, ie not considering within borough moves. Table 1.15 also shows the in-borough moves and total turnover. For both inflows and outflows inner boroughs have much higher turnover rates. The City of London is highest, but this is to some extent artificial. Most changes of address are quite short distance. In a physically large borough, such as Bromley, a move of several miles can start and finish within the borough. In the City of London a move of just a few hundred yards is almost certain to cross a boundary with the surrounding boroughs.

The City apart, all nine boroughs with standard turnover rates in excess of 200 per thousand are inner boroughs, with the highest values in more central boroughs: Westminster, Camden and Wandsworth. Throughout inner London the availability of the private rented sector and the large numbers of students tend to push up the turnover rates. When internal borough moves are considered the highest total turnover levels rise to over 300 per thousand, ie 30 per cent of the population. The lowest standard turnover rates, of around 100 per thousand, are found in outer boroughs, particularly Havering, Bexley and Bromley to the east and Sutton in the south. When internal borough moves are considered total turnover in Havering is still the lowest at just 124 per thousand.

Households

After the South East, London has the second highest number of households of any region. At mid-2006 CLG projected there to be 3.18 million in London (14.8 of households in England) with the number having grown by 28 thousand a year since mid-2001 (Table 1.9). Only the South East region has seen the number of households grow faster, though the rate of growth in London is only average at 4.6 per cent since 2001. The East Midlands, Yorkshire and the Humber and the South West have grown the fastest – at around 6 per cent over five years.

CLG household estimates and projections are based in part on the ONS population estimates and projections and linked to an analysis of trends in marital status and household representative rates.

The household structure of London is quite extreme compared to other regions within England. London has

Table 1.9

Households by type: London and England, 2001 and 2006

Thousands

	London 2001	London 2006	England 2001	England 2006	London 2001-06	Change England 2001-06	London as % of England 2006
Household types:							
married couple	1,116	1,043	9,709	9,415	-73	-294	11.1
cohabiting couple	262	333	1,788	2,181	71	393	15.3
lone parent	275	308	1,476	1,656	33	180	18.6
other multi-person	332	346	1,387	1,451	14	64	23.8
one person	1,052	1,145	6,163	6,815	93	652	16.8
All households	3,036	3,175	20,523	21,518	139	995	14.8
(percentage growth 2001-06)					4.6	4.8	

Source: CLG Revised 2004-based household projections

high proportions of households that are formed of two or more unrelated adults (24 per cent), and lone parents (19 per cent) but a very low proportion of married couples (11 per cent).

Most of these differences are explicable in terms of London's young age structure and the particularly high proportions of the population that are single. The preponderance of lone parents in London is a serious issue in relation to the extent of child poverty in the capital (see Chapter 6).

GLA Demographic Projections

Each year the GLA produces population, household and labour force projections at borough level based on the population at 2001 and taking account of the most recent demographic and development trends in each of the boroughs as well as national trends in fertility, mortality, marital status, household formation and economic activity. Recently two projections have been prepared, one based on actual recent housing development and expected future development in each of the boroughs.

The second projection is migration led and assumed that London's share of the international migration coming to the UK in the past five years continues into the future, using the ONS national assumption of net international flows to the UK as the constraint. London's share of international migration has actually declined in the past few years, particularly as a result of the revised ONS methodology. This means that the migration-led projection is higher than the development-led projection.

As the projections commence in 2001 they do not necessarily coincide with the ONS mid-year estimates for 2006 or the CLG household figures for 2006. This account concentrates on the changes expected over the current period of the London Plan, from 2006 to 2026, in the projection that uses expected development, referred to as the 2007 Round PLP Low. The borough-level development inputs amount to an average of over 28 thousand new homes per year from 2006 to 2026 with a peak of over 30 thousand a year between 2011 and 2016. The growth in homes in each borough is directly reflected in the population and household projections.

Table 1.10 shows the total population rising by 804 thousand to 8.27 million between 2006 and 2026 with the number of households increasing by 566 thousand to reach 3.72 million by 2026. Significant changes are projected for household structure, with a reduction of

Table 1.10

GLA 2007 round demographic projections for London: key results from PLP low

Thousands and persons

	2006	2011	2016	2021	2026	Change 2006-26
Total Population	7,461	7,749	7,963	8,124	8,265	804
Private Household	7,368	7,655	7,868	8,028	8,168	800
Communal Establishments	93	94	95	95	97	4
Economically Active	3,871	4,061	4,194	4,276	4,323	452
Total Households	3,152	3,329	3,481	3,605	3,718	566
Married Couples	1,031	967	909	861	822	-210
Cohabiting Couples	328	399	452	493	530	202
Lone Parents	312	347	372	386	394	81
One-person	1,140	1,257	1,372	1,475	1,568	428
Other (2+ adults - no family)	341	359	376	391	405	64
Average Household Size	2.34	2.30	2.26	2.23	2.20	-0.14

Source: GLA 2007 Round Demographic Projections

210 thousand married couples being partly offset by a rise of 202 thousand cohabiting couples. Most of the household increase will be one-person households (428 thousand) with 81 thousand more lone parents and 64 thousand more other (ie multi-adult non-family) households.

The increase in one-person households is concentrated in the 'middle ages' (35-69 particularly 45-54) where 414 thousand of the increase occurs. 240 thousand of this growth is male one-person households. Reductions in one-person households are projected at younger ages and for females over age 70. These changes are consistent with reduced likelihood of marriage, more divorce and better male survival at older ages leading to reduced numbers of widows and shorter periods of widowhood. Most of the older single male one-person households will be former cohabitees. These men may well have children living with former partners and their housing requirements will be more akin to divorcees of a similar age.

The resident labour force is projected to grow by 452 thousand from 3.87 million in 2006 to 4.32 million in 2026. Table 1.11 shows the key results of the PLP Low projection for boroughs at 2006 and 2026.

The PLP Low projection implies a significantly lower population at mid-2006, 7.46 million, than does the ONS mid-2006 estimate (7.51 million). This is a difference of 10 thousand a year since the base of mid-2001, but is only half as much as the equivalent comparison made with the 2006 Round projections at mid-2005. As indicated above, ONS has reviewed its methods of estimating local populations and in particular has amended the way international migration is distributed to regions and local authorities. The results of that exercise were to reduce the share of international migration to the UK being assigned to London and to reduce the London estimates, bringing them closer to those produced by the GLA.

The PLP High projection, based on migration trends since 2001, shows that London's population could rise to 8.61 million in 2026 with a potential of 3.90 million households.

Table 1.11

GLA 2007 PLP low projection: borough summary

Thousands

	2006			2026		
	Population	Labour Force	Households	Population	Labour Force	Households
Camden	201.5	107.6	94.4	224.4	122.5	109.4
Kensington and Chelsea	164.8	88.2	81.0	178.5	96.9	87.6
Westminster	211.5	117.1	105.4	233.7	131.2	119.3
City of London	9.0	5.8	5.2	13.3	8.4	7.8
Central boroughs	586.9	318.7	285.9	649.9	359.0	324.2
Hackney	214.9	102.6	90.9	248.1	121.2	111.4
Hammersmith and Fulham	175.2	98.3	77.9	196.3	111.0	90.4
Haringey	226.3	117.6	94.3	249.6	132.8	109.5
Islington	187.8	100.5	87.6	212.9	116.9	104.6
Lambeth	283.0	158.8	123.5	317.2	178.1	145.6
Lewisham	258.4	139.3	111.0	283.2	154.7	128.1
Newham	254.4	115.7	97.6	337.4	163.4	146.1
Southwark	264.7	137.2	114.7	348.7	186.8	161.1
Tower Hamlets	218.8	103.4	90.5	303.8	148.5	143.3
Wandsworth	283.0	166.6	124.8	314.5	184.1	144.5
Rest of Inner boroughs	2,366.5	1,240.0	1,012.9	2,811.7	1,497.5	1,284.6
Inner London	2,953.4	1,558.7	1,298.8	3,461.6	1,856.5	1,608.8
Barking and Dagenham	166.8	76.9	69.8	221.5	106.9	98.6
Barnet	321.1	163.5	130.1	377.4	196.1	164.4
Bexley	215.6	110.7	90.5	218.6	114.2	97.6
Brent	273.3	136.5	104.0	291.2	143.4	120.7
Bromley	297.4	153.2	128.7	303.1	158.4	139.4
Croydon	329.8	171.2	142.0	335.2	172.2	159.1
Ealing	308.8	160.4	120.7	334.9	171.9	138.7
Enfield	285.1	140.8	114.8	285.4	141.1	124.2
Greenwich	229.9	113.1	101.4	281.2	138.7	132.1
Harrow	214.4	111.4	81.9	214.1	111.3	88.2
Havering	226.7	115.1	93.7	233.0	123.0	101.9
Hillingdon	244.2	126.6	98.8	246.5	128.0	106.0
Hounslow	220.3	115.8	87.0	243.1	127.0	101.6
Kingston upon Thames	152.1	83.8	64.0	159.1	87.1	71.0
Merton	192.0	103.3	81.1	193.7	102.8	88.1
Redbridge	246.0	121.2	95.5	264.1	131.2	108.9
Richmond upon Thames	180.4	99.2	78.5	189.3	102.9	84.4
Sutton	180.8	98.9	78.2	181.0	98.0	84.3
Waltham Forest	223.2	110.3	92.1	230.9	111.7	104.3
Outer London	4,508.0	2,311.9	1,852.9	4,803.6	2,466.0	2,113.6
London	7,461.4	3,870.6	3,151.7	8,265.2	4,322.5	3,722.4

Source: GLA 2007 Round Demographic Projections

Table 1.12

Resident population[1], by sex

Thousands and percentages

	Population (thousands)				Total population growth (percentages)		
	1981	1991	2001	2006	1981 to 1991	1991 to 2001	2001 to 2006
All Persons							
United Kingdom	56,357.5	57,438.7	59,113.5	60,587.3	1.9	2.9	2.5
North East	2,636.2	2,587.0	2,540.1	2,555.7	-1.9	-1.8	0.6
North West	6,940.3	6,843.0	6,773.0	6,853.2	-1.4	-1.0	1.2
Yorkshire and The Humber	4,918.5	4,936.1	4,976.6	5,142.4	0.4	0.8	3.3
East Midlands	3,852.7	4,011.4	4,189.6	4,364.2	4.1	4.4	4.2
West Midlands	5,186.6	5,229.7	5,280.7	5,366.7	0.8	1.0	1.6
East	4,855.0	5,121.1	5,400.5	5,606.6	5.5	5.5	3.8
London	6,805.0	6,829.3	7,322.4	7,512.4	0.4	7.2	2.6
South East	7,243.1	7,629.2	8,023.4	8,237.8	5.3	5.2	2.7
South West	4,383.4	4,688.2	4,943.4	5,124.1	7.0	5.4	3.7
England	46,820.8	47,875.0	49,449.7	50,762.9	2.3	3.3	2.7
Wales	2,813.5	2,873.0	2,910.2	2,965.9	2.1	1.3	1.9
Scotland	5,180.2	5,083.3	5,064.2	5,116.9	-1.9	-0.4	1.0
Northern Ireland	1,543.0	1,607.3	1,689.3	1,741.6	4.2	5.1	3.1
Males							
United Kingdom	27,411.6	27,909.0	28,832.4	29,694.0	1.8	3.3	3.0
London	3,277.3	3,296.4	3,597.1	3,714.1	0.6	9.1	3.3
Females							
United Kingdom	28,945.9	29,529.7	30,281.1	30,893.4	2.0	2.5	2.0
London	3,527.7	3,532.9	3,725.3	3,798.3	0.1	5.4	2.0

1 The estimated mid-year resident population.

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

Table 1.13

Resident population at mid-2006 by age groups, persons

Thousands

	0-4	5-15	16-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65-74	75-84	85+	Total
City of London	0.2	0.5	0.7	1.9	1.4	1.1	1.1	0.5	0.3	0.1	7.8
Barking & Dagenham	13.6	25.9	20.7	24.2	26.8	18.9	14.4	9.9	8.5	2.9	165.7
Barnet	22.2	44.2	35.5	55.2	53.0	40.3	32.7	22.0	16.4	7.0	328.6
Bexley	13.3	31.6	24.9	27.2	35.2	29.1	24.9	18.1	12.9	4.3	221.6
Brent	19.3	31.4	34.0	55.3	44.5	32.4	22.8	18.2	10.0	3.6	271.4
Bromley	18.0	40.9	28.9	38.1	49.8	38.8	34.6	24.1	18.4	7.4	299.1
Camden	13.3	22.1	31.4	61.1	38.2	23.0	17.6	10.7	7.4	2.5	227.5
Croydon	22.0	48.1	38.7	49.4	57.4	44.5	33.9	22.5	14.8	5.7	337.0
Ealing	21.0	36.6	35.8	62.2	52.4	37.2	26.5	18.6	11.8	4.3	306.4
Enfield	20.4	39.2	33.3	43.1	48.0	36.1	27.5	19.6	13.1	5.1	285.3
Greenwich	17.0	29.3	27.9	39.6	37.1	26.2	19.0	13.1	9.5	3.9	222.6
Hackney	18.4	27.7	25.8	44.9	36.9	22.3	14.0	9.8	6.2	2.3	208.4
Hammersmith & Fulham	10.5	17.0	19.4	46.6	29.6	17.9	12.8	9.2	6.2	2.3	171.4
Haringey	17.2	26.5	27.3	49.9	41.8	25.1	16.8	12.1	6.7	2.3	225.7
Harrow	13.8	28.0	25.1	33.1	33.8	28.2	22.2	15.7	10.6	4.2	214.6
Havering	12.3	31.2	25.0	26.4	33.9	30.9	27.7	19.8	15.4	4.7	227.3
Hillingdon	16.8	34.3	33.1	35.6	40.7	31.2	24.4	17.5	11.9	4.4	250.0
Hounslow	15.9	26.8	26.8	42.2	37.0	26.4	19.5	13.2	8.0	2.7	218.6
Islington	11.1	19.1	24.5	47.5	33.5	19.1	13.5	9.3	6.0	1.8	185.5
Kensington & Chelsea	9.9	17.6	18.9	39.1	31.7	20.6	18.5	11.2	7.3	3.3	178.0
Kingston upon Thames	9.4	18.8	20.5	27.6	25.9	19.3	15.5	9.2	6.9	3.0	155.9
Lambeth	19.5	29.4	29.8	73.1	51.0	28.1	17.5	12.6	8.1	2.8	272.0
Lewisham	18.3	32.2	29.6	51.4	49.2	30.2	19.3	13.3	8.7	3.4	255.7
Merton	12.8	23.4	20.8	41.9	34.5	23.2	17.4	11.7	8.5	3.5	197.7
Newham	22.5	36.1	39.4	47.1	39.5	27.0	16.2	11.6	6.4	2.6	248.4
Redbridge	17.6	36.4	29.5	40.3	38.9	32.2	24.6	16.4	11.5	4.6	251.9
Richmond upon Thames	12.3	22.5	16.2	28.7	33.8	23.6	19.6	10.9	8.2	3.6	179.5
Southwark	19.0	29.9	35.3	62.7	49.3	29.6	18.1	13.3	8.9	3.2	269.2
Sutton	10.9	26.0	19.1	27.8	31.9	23.9	18.9	12.7	9.4	3.7	184.4
Tower Hamlets	17.3	26.8	29.9	58.6	33.2	18.4	11.3	9.2	6.2	1.7	212.8
Waltham Forest	17.4	29.2	26.9	41.2	38.8	25.7	18.3	12.8	8.1	3.3	221.7
Wandsworth	18.3	24.7	27.5	87.6	48.9	25.7	19.1	13.5	9.8	3.9	279.0
Westminster	11.7	18.3	32.3	61.7	38.4	23.6	20.6	13.1	8.9	3.2	231.9
Inner London	207.4	328.0	371.8	733.1	522.5	311.7	216.5	149.3	97.2	35.5	2,972.9
Outer London	305.9	603.9	522.9	739.2	753.3	568.1	444.6	305.9	213.8	81.9	4,539.4
London	513.2	931.8	894.7	1,472.3	1,275.7	879.8	661.1	455.2	311.0	117.4	7,512.4
United Kingdom	3,496.2	8,040.9	7,220.3	7,896.4	9,261.8	7,833.7	7,150.1	5,029.1	3,415.7	1,243.2	60,587.3

Sources: Office for National Statistics, General Register Office for Scotland, Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency

Table 1.13 continued

Resident population at mid-2006 by age groups, males

Thousands

	0-4	5-15	16-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65-74	75-84	85+	Total
City of London	0.1	0.2	0.3	1.0	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.2	0.2	0.1	4.2
Barking & Dagenham	6.9	13.0	10.5	11.3	13.0	9.4	7.1	4.4	3.2	1.0	79.8
Barnet	11.4	22.4	18.0	27.5	26.3	19.4	15.5	10.1	6.8	2.1	159.4
Bexley	6.8	16.0	12.5	13.2	16.9	14.3	12.0	8.3	5.3	1.4	106.9
Brent	9.9	15.9	17.0	29.5	22.9	15.5	10.9	8.8	4.4	1.2	136.0
Bromley	9.1	21.0	14.8	18.3	24.2	19.1	16.6	10.9	7.5	2.3	143.7
Camden	6.8	11.1	14.5	30.5	20.5	11.6	8.3	4.9	3.1	0.9	112.2
Croydon	11.2	24.8	20.1	24.2	27.6	21.9	16.5	10.4	6.2	2.1	165.1
Ealing	10.8	18.6	18.6	32.8	28.0	18.2	12.9	9.0	4.8	1.5	155.2
Enfield	10.3	19.9	16.9	21.2	24.4	17.8	13.3	9.3	5.4	1.6	140.1
Greenwich	8.7	15.1	14.0	18.9	18.9	12.6	9.4	6.0	3.7	1.1	108.5
Hackney	9.5	14.1	12.6	21.6	18.7	11.0	6.6	4.9	2.8	0.7	102.3
Hammersmith & Fulham	5.4	8.5	9.0	23.9	15.8	8.7	6.2	4.3	2.6	0.7	85.0
Haringey	8.7	13.4	13.8	26.2	21.8	12.0	7.8	5.7	2.7	0.7	113.0
Harrow	7.1	14.7	13.2	16.9	16.8	13.9	10.4	7.3	4.3	1.4	106.0
Havering	6.2	16.0	12.8	13.0	16.3	15.2	13.2	9.0	6.2	1.4	109.5
Hillingdon	8.7	17.6	16.7	17.1	20.1	15.8	12.0	8.1	4.9	1.3	122.3
Hounslow	8.2	13.6	13.8	21.9	19.6	13.0	9.5	6.5	3.3	0.9	110.4
Islington	5.8	9.8	11.4	23.4	17.7	9.3	6.2	4.4	2.4	0.7	91.1
Kensington & Chelsea	5.0	9.0	9.1	19.7	16.5	10.0	8.4	5.1	3.2	1.2	87.2
Kingston upon Thames	4.8	9.4	10.3	14.4	13.3	9.6	7.6	4.3	2.7	1.0	77.3
Lambeth	9.9	14.9	14.4	39.4	28.2	13.9	8.3	5.9	3.6	0.9	139.4
Lewisham	9.3	16.3	14.6	26.3	25.5	14.9	9.1	6.1	3.4	1.2	126.8
Merton	6.5	12.0	10.5	21.6	17.9	11.3	8.3	5.6	3.5	1.0	98.1
Newham	11.5	18.5	21.3	23.6	20.8	13.5	7.9	5.6	2.7	1.0	126.3
Redbridge	8.8	18.6	14.9	20.3	19.5	16.0	12.0	7.9	4.7	1.4	124.3
Richmond upon Thames	6.2	11.5	8.0	14.0	17.2	11.7	9.5	5.1	3.3	1.1	87.7
Southwark	9.7	15.2	18.2	32.4	26.4	14.8	8.7	6.2	3.7	1.0	136.5
Sutton	5.6	13.4	9.7	13.7	16.0	11.8	9.2	5.8	3.7	1.1	90.0
Tower Hamlets	8.7	13.7	14.2	29.8	19.2	9.8	5.4	4.6	2.8	0.7	108.8
Waltham Forest	9.1	15.2	14.4	21.3	19.4	12.4	8.6	6.2	3.3	0.9	110.8
Wandsworth	9.2	12.6	11.9	43.1	25.1	12.5	8.8	6.4	3.9	1.2	134.7
Westminster	5.9	9.5	15.2	31.1	21.1	11.8	10.0	6.2	3.9	1.2	115.9
Inner London	105.6	166.6	180.5	372.1	278.0	154.5	102.2	70.5	41.1	12.2	1,483.3
Outer London	156.2	308.8	266.9	371.2	378.2	279.1	214.4	142.8	87.5	25.7	2,230.8
London	261.8	475.4	447.4	743.3	656.2	433.5	316.6	213.3	128.5	38.0	3,714.1
United Kingdom	1,790.2	4,121.5	3,695.8	3,940.4	4,586.5	3,875.8	3,512.2	2,379.4	1,413.2	378.9	29,694.0

Sources: Office for National Statistics, General Register Office for Scotland, Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency

Table 1.13 continued

Resident population at mid-2006 by age groups, females

Thousands

	0-4	5-15	16-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65-74	75-84	85+	Total
City of London	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.8	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.1	3.6
Barking & Dagenham	6.7	12.9	10.2	13.0	13.8	9.5	7.3	5.4	5.3	1.9	85.9
Barnet	10.8	21.9	17.5	27.7	26.7	20.9	17.2	11.9	9.6	5.0	169.2
Bexley	6.5	15.5	12.4	14.0	18.2	14.8	13.0	9.7	7.6	2.9	114.7
Brent	9.4	15.5	17.0	25.8	21.6	16.8	11.9	9.4	5.7	2.3	135.4
Bromley	8.9	19.9	14.1	19.8	25.6	19.7	18.0	13.3	10.8	5.2	155.4
Camden	6.5	11.0	16.9	30.6	17.7	11.4	9.3	5.8	4.3	1.6	115.2
Croydon	10.8	23.4	18.6	25.2	29.8	22.5	17.4	12.0	8.6	3.7	171.9
Ealing	10.2	18.0	17.2	29.4	24.5	19.1	13.6	9.5	7.0	2.8	151.2
Enfield	10.1	19.3	16.4	21.9	23.6	18.2	14.2	10.3	7.7	3.5	145.2
Greenwich	8.3	14.2	13.9	20.7	18.2	13.6	9.5	7.1	5.9	2.8	114.2
Hackney	9.0	13.6	13.2	23.2	18.2	11.3	7.4	5.0	3.5	1.6	106.1
Hammersmith & Fulham	5.1	8.5	10.4	22.7	13.7	9.2	6.6	4.9	3.6	1.5	86.4
Haringey	8.5	13.2	13.5	23.6	20.0	13.1	9.0	6.4	3.9	1.6	112.6
Harrow	6.7	13.3	11.8	16.2	17.0	14.3	11.8	8.4	6.2	2.8	108.6
Havering	6.1	15.2	12.2	13.4	17.6	15.7	14.4	10.8	9.2	3.2	117.9
Hillingdon	8.1	16.7	16.4	18.5	20.6	15.4	12.5	9.4	7.0	3.1	127.7
Hounslow	7.7	13.2	13.0	20.2	17.4	13.5	10.0	6.7	4.7	1.8	108.2
Islington	5.3	9.4	13.1	24.1	15.8	9.8	7.3	4.9	3.6	1.1	94.4
Kensington & Chelsea	4.9	8.5	9.8	19.4	15.2	10.6	10.1	6.1	4.1	2.1	90.8
Kingston upon Thames	4.6	9.4	10.3	13.2	12.5	9.7	7.9	4.9	4.1	2.0	78.6
Lambeth	9.6	14.5	15.3	33.7	22.8	14.2	9.3	6.7	4.5	1.9	132.6
Lewisham	9.0	15.9	15.0	25.1	23.7	15.3	10.2	7.2	5.3	2.3	128.9
Merton	6.3	11.4	10.3	20.3	16.6	11.9	9.1	6.1	5.0	2.5	99.6
Newham	11.0	17.6	18.2	23.5	18.7	13.5	8.3	6.0	3.7	1.6	122.1
Redbridge	8.8	17.7	14.6	19.9	19.4	16.1	12.6	8.5	6.8	3.2	127.7
Richmond upon Thames	6.1	11.1	8.2	14.7	16.6	11.9	10.1	5.9	4.9	2.5	91.8
Southwark	9.2	14.6	17.1	30.3	22.9	14.8	9.3	7.1	5.2	2.2	132.7
Sutton	5.3	12.6	9.4	14.2	15.9	12.1	9.8	7.0	5.7	2.6	94.4
Tower Hamlets	8.6	13.2	15.8	28.8	14.0	8.6	6.0	4.6	3.4	1.0	104.0
Waltham Forest	8.4	14.0	12.5	19.9	19.4	13.2	9.7	6.6	4.8	2.4	110.9
Wandsworth	9.1	12.1	15.6	44.5	23.8	13.1	10.3	7.1	5.9	2.8	144.3
Westminster	5.8	8.8	17.1	30.5	17.3	11.9	10.7	6.9	5.0	2.0	116.0
Inner London	101.8	161.4	191.3	361.0	244.4	157.3	114.3	78.8	56.1	23.3	1,489.6
Outer London	149.7	295.1	256.0	368.0	375.1	289.0	230.2	163.1	126.3	56.2	2,308.7
London	251.4	456.4	447.3	729.0	619.5	446.3	344.5	241.9	182.5	79.5	3,798.3
United Kingdom	1,706.0	3,919.4	3,524.5	3,955.9	4,675.4	3,957.8	3,637.9	2,649.8	2,002.5	864.2	30,893.4

Sources: Office for National Statistics, General Register Office for Scotland, Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency

Table 1.14

Population change analysis 2005-06, London boroughs[1]

Thousands

	Mid-year estimate 2005	Births	Deaths	Natural Change	Internal (UK) Migration			International Migration			Other Changes	Mid-year estimate 2006
					In	Out	Net	In	Out	Net		
City of London	7.7	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.8	0.7	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.0	0.0	7.8
Barking and Dagenham	165.5	3.1	1.5	1.6	9.8	11.8	-2.0	1.6	1.0	0.6	0.0	165.7
Barnet	326.1	4.8	2.5	2.3	18.5	20.1	-1.6	6.9	5.2	1.7	0.0	328.6
Bexley	221.0	2.7	1.9	0.8	9.9	10.3	-0.4	0.8	0.6	0.2	0.0	221.6
Brent	270.3	4.6	1.6	3.0	14.5	21.1	-6.6	9.1	4.4	4.7	0.1	271.4
Bromley	297.9	3.7	2.6	1.1	15.2	14.8	0.4	1.9	2.2	-0.3	0.0	299.1
Camden	222.8	2.9	1.3	1.7	17.4	18.9	-1.5	10.3	6.0	4.4	0.1	227.5
Croydon	335.8	4.7	2.6	2.1	17.5	20.4	-2.9	4.7	2.8	1.9	0.0	337.0
Ealing	305.7	5.0	2.0	3.0	17.4	24.3	-6.9	9.4	4.8	4.6	0.0	306.4
Enfield	283.4	4.5	2.2	2.3	15.9	17.3	-1.4	3.2	2.2	1.0	0.0	285.3
Greenwich	221.6	4.1	1.8	2.3	14.3	16.8	-2.5	3.5	2.2	1.3	0.0	222.6
Hackney	207.1	4.5	1.2	3.2	13.3	17.5	-4.3	4.1	1.9	2.2	0.0	208.4
Hammersmith and Fulham	171.0	2.7	0.9	1.8	13.9	16.5	-2.6	5.7	4.5	1.2	0.1	171.4
Haringey	224.1	4.0	1.2	2.7	16.3	21.0	-4.8	6.3	2.7	3.5	0.1	225.7
Harrow	214.0	2.9	1.5	1.4	12.4	14.4	-2.0	4.1	3.0	1.1	0.0	214.6
Havering	226.3	2.5	2.3	0.2	9.5	8.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.1	0.0	227.3
Hillingdon	247.9	3.6	1.9	1.8	14.2	15.2	-1.0	3.3	2.0	1.4	0.0	250.0
Hounslow	216.6	3.8	1.6	2.2	13.7	16.8	-3.1	6.0	2.9	3.0	-0.1	218.6
Islington	184.2	2.7	1.1	1.6	16.4	18.6	-2.1	5.2	3.4	1.9	0.0	185.5
Kensington and Chelsea	175.8	2.2	0.9	1.4	9.5	11.3	-1.8	8.7	6.1	2.6	0.0	178.0
Kingston upon Thames	153.9	2.0	1.2	0.9	11.0	11.1	-0.1	3.3	2.1	1.2	0.0	155.9
Lambeth	270.3	4.8	1.6	3.3	22.9	28.6	-5.7	6.7	2.6	4.1	0.1	272.0
Lewisham	253.2	4.5	1.8	2.7	17.3	20.4	-3.1	4.5	1.7	2.8	0.1	255.7
Merton	195.3	3.0	1.3	1.7	13.5	15.2	-1.7	5.6	3.1	2.4	0.0	197.7
Newham	249.7	5.5	1.5	4.0	13.9	23.4	-9.5	7.3	3.1	4.2	0.0	248.4
Redbridge	249.0	3.8	1.9	1.9	15.6	15.7	0.0	3.6	2.5	1.0	0.0	251.9
Richmond upon Thames	178.0	2.6	1.3	1.3	12.7	12.5	0.2	3.5	3.6	-0.1	0.0	179.5
Southwark	264.0	4.6	1.5	3.1	19.7	23.6	-3.9	9.1	3.2	5.9	0.1	269.2
Sutton	183.1	2.3	1.5	0.8	10.1	9.7	0.4	1.2	1.0	0.2	0.0	184.4
Tower Hamlets	209.4	4.1	1.2	2.9	14.4	17.0	-2.5	6.4	3.3	3.1	0.0	212.8
Waltham Forest	220.3	4.0	1.6	2.4	12.1	15.4	-3.3	4.3	2.0	2.3	0.0	221.7
Wandsworth	276.4	4.8	1.8	3.0	25.7	28.6	-2.9	7.8	5.4	2.5	0.0	279.0
Westminster	228.6	2.9	1.1	1.8	17.3	19.4	-2.0	11.6	8.1	3.5	0.0	231.9
London	7,456.1	117.9	51.9	66.0	163.1	243.7	-80.5	170.4	100.5	69.9	0.9	7,512.4

1 Internal migration for London excludes movements between boroughs.

Sources: Office for National Statistics mid-year estimates change analysis and NHSCR

Table 1.15

2001-06 average turnover rates

Per thousand population

	Inflow	Outflow	Turnover	Within Borough	Total Turnover
City of London	142.6	135.2	277.7	21.9	299.6
Barking & Dagenham	64.4	71.0	135.4	41.7	177.1
Barnet	77.5	77.6	155.1	48.2	203.3
Bexley	50.6	50.9	101.5	39.1	140.5
Brent	87.6	96.2	183.8	49.9	233.8
Bromley	56.8	57.5	114.4	44.4	158.7
Camden	130.6	114.8	245.4	55.4	300.8
Croydon	63.8	68.7	132.5	53.8	186.3
Ealing	87.9	96.8	184.7	50.1	234.8
Enfield	67.8	68.7	136.6	50.7	187.2
Greenwich	80.0	83.3	163.3	51.8	215.1
Hackney	84.0	97.8	181.8	47.6	229.4
Hammersmith & Fulham	117.8	124.8	242.6	51.1	293.7
Haringey	101.6	109.1	210.7	49.9	260.5
Harrow	78.0	79.1	157.1	41.1	198.1
Havering	44.5	42.4	86.9	36.7	123.7
Hillingdon	69.0	70.7	139.7	52.4	192.2
Hounslow	87.3	93.6	180.9	48.1	229.0
Islington	116.8	118.0	234.8	40.8	275.7
Kensington & Chelsea	114.8	103.9	218.6	46.4	265.1
Kingston upon Thames	91.5	87.1	178.6	56.5	235.1
Lambeth	105.2	117.2	222.4	47.6	269.9
Lewisham	81.7	89.1	170.7	51.5	222.3
Merton	94.3	94.8	189.1	41.9	231.0
Newham	86.0	101.0	187.0	51.4	238.4
Redbridge	75.9	73.5	149.4	37.7	187.1
Richmond upon Thames	93.2	93.9	187.1	50.8	237.9
Southwark	101.5	102.4	203.9	47.9	251.8
Sutton	60.2	60.2	120.4	49.4	169.8
Tower Hamlets	93.6	95.3	188.9	52.5	241.4
Waltham Forest	72.3	81.8	154.1	52.7	206.8
Wandsworth	120.0	123.9	243.9	63.4	307.2
Westminster	141.0	121.4	262.3	52.1	314.5
London	45.2	47.8	134.1	48.7	182.8

Source: Office for National Statistics mid-year estimate change analysis and 2001 Census

Chapter 2

Diversity

- London is home to over 40 per cent of the national ethnic minority population.
- London's local authorities are the most diverse authorities in the country. A top 20 ranking of all authorities in England and Wales contains 19 London Boroughs.
- Nearly a third of all Londoners were born outside the UK, compared with 7 per cent of the population outside the capital.
- London is also home to 40 per cent of the national migrant population (the population born outside the UK).
- Around a quarter of London's migrants are from other European countries.
- Just under a quarter (23 per cent) of London's migrants are from Africa and 17 per cent from the Indian Subcontinent.
- London's migrant population is highly diverse, 63 per cent are from BAME groups.
- London's ethnic minority population is expected to increase from 33 per cent (2006) to 39 per cent by 2026.
- All ethnic groups are projected to increase over the next twenty years except the White ethnic group which has a projected small decline of 0.1 per cent.
- Over the next 20 years, six London boroughs will join Brent and Newham as authorities with at least 50 per cent of their resident population from a BAME group.

Introduction

London is the most multicultural city in the UK and arguably one of the most diverse in the world. It is home to a population that speaks over 300 languages and over 40 per cent of the UK ethnic minority population. This chapter takes a closer look at that diversity, first by comparing London's diversity with the national picture, then analyses the migrant population of London, an important aspect of its diversity and finishes by looking to the future and in particular illustrates the projected ethnic group of London in 2026.

Ethnic diversity

London has the most ethnically diverse population of any region. In 2001 59 per cent of Londoners were White British (nearly 4.3 million people) and 41 per cent were from other ethnic minority groups including White Irish and White Other (nearly 2.9 million people). The 2001 Census also showed that two boroughs (Brent and Newham) had more than 50 per cent of their populations in Black, Asian and minority ethnic groups (BAME).

Although London only has 15 per cent of the total population of England and Wales, it is home to over 40 per cent of the national BAME population. Most ethnic groups have a greater representation in the capital for instance London is home to more than half of the national population of Bangladeshi, Black Caribbean, Black African and Black Other ethnic groups (Table 2.1).

The majority of the national ethnic minority population is concentrated in a few major cities and towns in the UK and even within local authorities the various ethnic minority communities are likely to be concentrated within a few smaller areas.

However London boroughs dominate the rankings for the most diverse local authorities in the country. Twenty-nine of the 33 local authorities in London appeared in a ranking of the top 50 local authorities in England and Wales, ranked by a score on the Simpson's Diversity Index (see Notes and Definitions). Brent and Newham were at number 1 and 2 respectively and the top twenty positions were almost exclusively dominated by London boroughs with only one local authority not in London present at position 19, Slough. Similarly London dominated the ward analysis of ethnic diversity where only three non London wards featured in the top 50 wards in England and Wales (Tables 2.13 and 2.14).

Map 2.3 shows what happens when you redraw traditional boundaries according to how large and how ethnically diverse the population within a local authority is. The exaggerated size of London illustrates just how diverse its population is.

Migrant Diversity

Over 300 languages are reported to be spoken in London and Annual Population Survey (APS) estimates for 2006 suggest that almost one third (32 per cent) of Londoners were born outside the UK – around 2.3 million Londoners. Migrants, here on, are hence defined as the population who were born outside the UK. The proportion of migrants rises to 39 per cent in Inner London whereas outside the capital, migrants make up around 7 per cent of the total population. The figure of 2.3 million is likely to be an under-estimate as the APS excludes many short-term migrants and residents in most types of communal establishments. Further, the

Table 2.1

London's share of the national ethnic group populations, 2005

Percentages

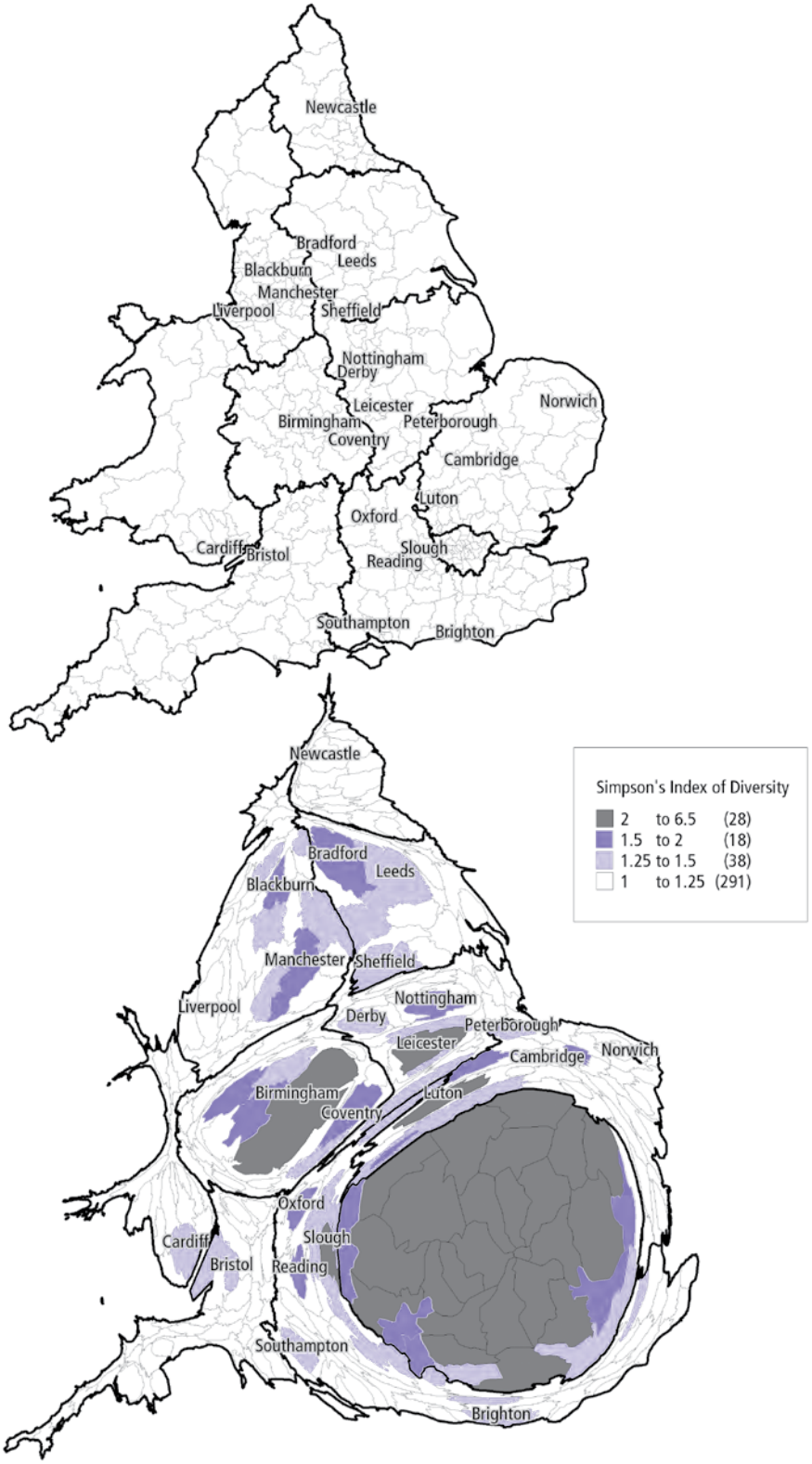
	Percentage share
All Groups	14.8
White: British	10.2
White: Irish	32.8
White: Other White	40.3
Mixed: White and Black Caribbean	28.0
Mixed: White and Black African	38.7
Mixed: White and Asian	30.1
Mixed: Other Mixed	36.4
Asian or Asian British: Indian	39.5
Asian or Asian British: Pakistani	19.8
Asian or Asian British: Bangladeshi	51.5
Asian or Asian British: Other Asian	48.1
Black or Black British: Black Caribbean	55.8
Black or Black British: Black African	62.7
Black or Black British: Other Black	56.7
Chinese or Other Ethnic Group: Chinese	30.9
Chinese or Other Ethnic Group: Other	43.1

Source: ONS experimental ethnic group estimates, 2005

Maps 2.2 and 2.3

Boundaries of local authorities and regions of England and Wales and ethnic diversity in England and Wales[1]

Percentages



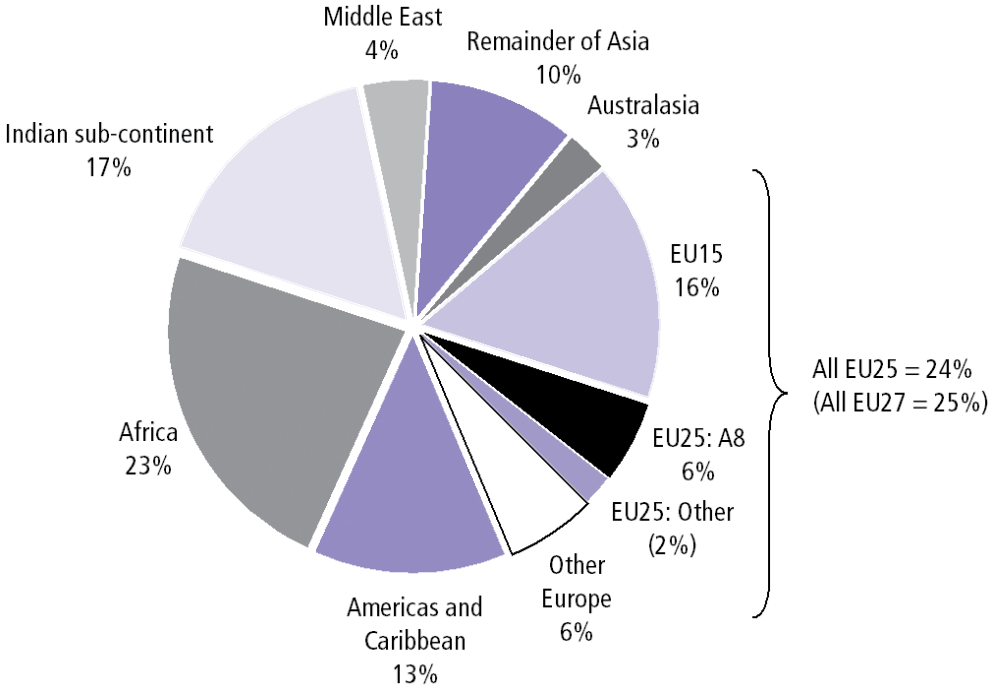
1 Larger areas indicate local authorities with a more ethnically diverse population.

Source: 2001 Census

Figure 2.4

Migrants by country of birth, geographic groupings[1], London residents, 2006[2,3,4]

Percentages



1 A8 are Eastern European countries that joined the EU in 2004, namely Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia. EU15 are 15 member states who formed the European Union prior to enlargement in 2004, namely Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom. The two other countries that make up the EU27 are Bulgaria and Romania who joined the EU in January 2007. Indian Subcontinent is defined here as India, Pakistan and Bangladesh.
2 Data based on relatively small samples (ie <200) are shown in brackets to emphasise the higher levels of sampling variability attached to these estimates.
3 Base: 2.3m (All born outside UK)
4 Migrants include all people born outside the UK and have lived in the UK for at least one year.

Source: Annual Population Survey 2006

APS sample is grossed up using older population data that have now been superseded by higher estimates. APS population totals for London are around 3 per cent lower than the latest official estimates of the resident population estimates.

The UK's migrant population is heavily concentrated in London: 40 per cent of all migrants resident in the UK live in London compared with 9 per cent of the UK-born population. Of all regions outside London, the South East and West Midlands have the largest shares of the migrant population (both 9 per cent) and the North East has the smallest (3 per cent), as a percentage of UK migrant population. Within London, there is huge variation in the size and composition of the migrant population across boroughs. Estimates for the period 2004-2006 indicate that the percentage of the population born outside the UK ranged from 7 per cent in Havering up to 52 per cent in Westminster.

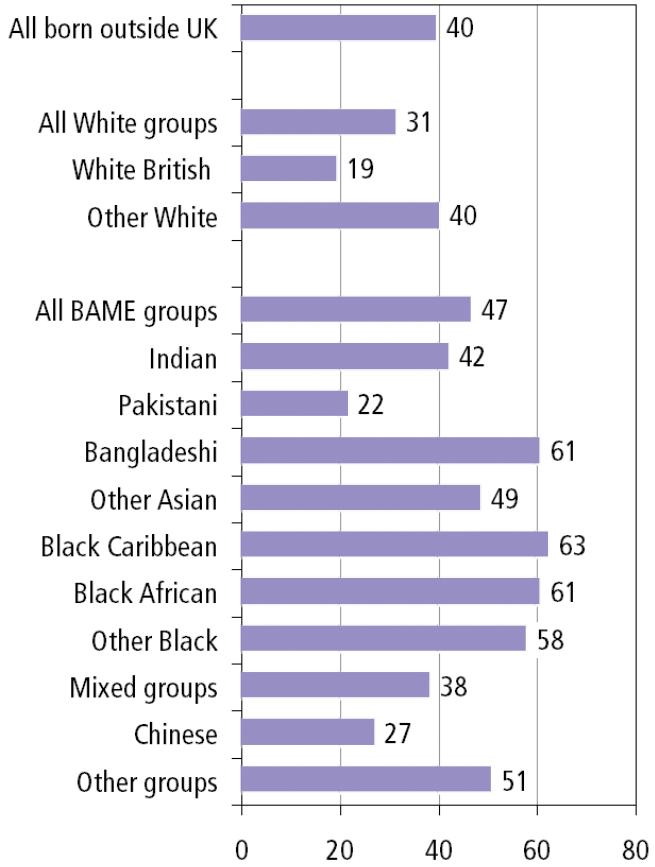
London attracts migrants from all over the world, with high concentrations from Europe, Africa and Asia. Around one quarter of London's migrant population come from other European Union countries. Migrants from the A8 countries comprise around 6 per cent of London's migrant population and 2 per cent of London's overall population. London's key migrant groups from outside Europe are from Africa (23 per cent of all migrants); the Indian sub-continent (17 per cent); the Americas and the Caribbean (13 per cent) (Figure 2.4).

Over one quarter (27 per cent) of London's migrant population are from 'high income' countries. This includes the EU15 countries and countries such as the USA, Australia, New Zealand, Hong Kong and Japan.

Figure 2.5

Share of UK migrant population in London by ethnicity[1], 2006

Percentages



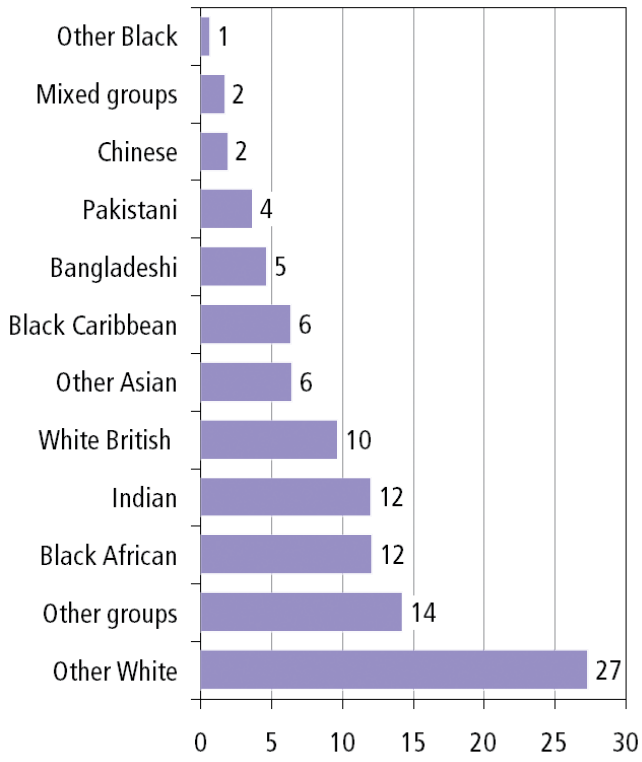
1 Data for Mixed, Other Black and Chinese groups are based on relatively small samples (ie <200) and there will be higher levels of sampling variability attached to these estimates.

Source: Annual Population Survey 2006

Figure 2.6

Share of London migrant population by ethnic group[1,2], London, 2006

Percentages



1 Data for Mixed, Other Black and Chinese groups are based on relatively small samples (ie <200) and there will be higher levels of sampling variability attached to these estimates.
2 Base: 2.3m (All born outside UK)

Source: Annual Population Survey 2006

According to the 2006 APS, London's largest migrant populations are from India, Bangladesh, Ireland, Jamaica, Nigeria, Poland, Kenya, Sri Lanka, South Africa and Ghana. These ten countries of origin comprise 42 per cent of London's migrant population.

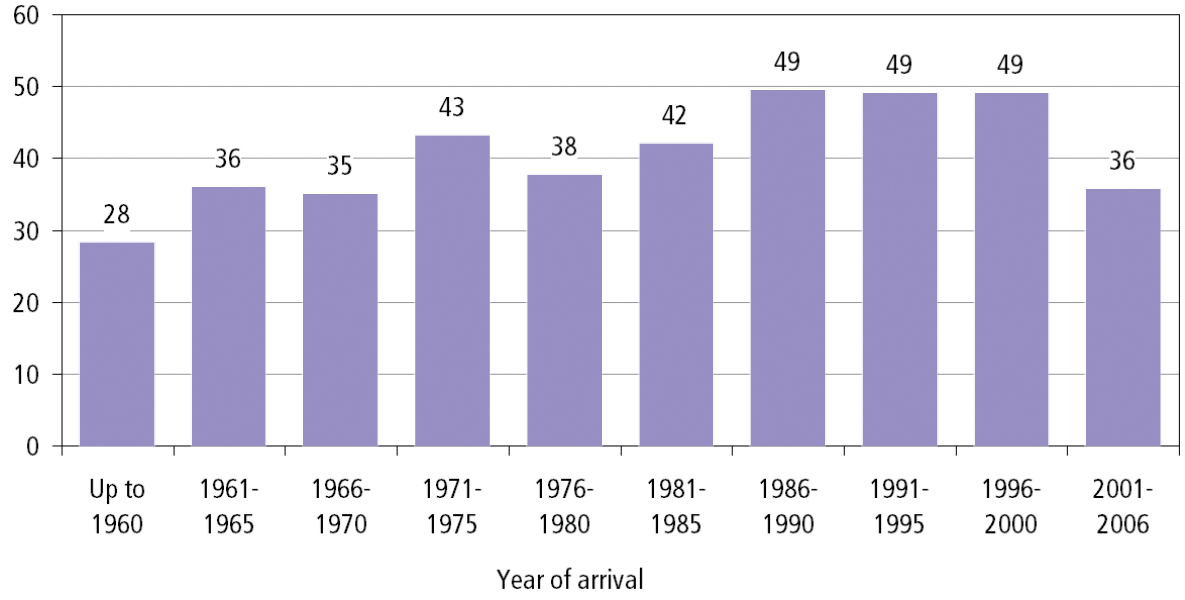
London is home to around 40 per cent of the UK's migrant population, though some ethnic groups have a much larger share than this. Over 60 per cent of migrants from Black Caribbean, Black African and Bangladeshi ethnic groups live in London. However, Chinese and Pakistani migrants are much more likely to live elsewhere in the UK than in London (Figure 2.5).

Not surprisingly, London's migrant population is very diverse in terms of its ethnic group profile. Almost two thirds (63 per cent) of all migrant Londoners are from BAME (Black, Asian and Minority Ethnic) groups compared with just over one fifth (22 per cent) of London's UK-born population. Over one quarter (27 per cent) of London's migrant population are from Asian ethnic groups, the largest of which is the Indian group which makes up make up one in eight (12 per cent) migrant Londoners. Almost one in five migrant Londoners are from Black ethnic groups, including 12 per cent from the Black African group. Within the BAME migrant population, the largest single ethnic group is in fact the 'Other Group'. This group accounts for 14 per cent of all migrant Londoners and captures people from a wide range of different areas (for example the Middle East, Central America, Asia-pacific region and Eastern Europe). White migrants comprise 37 per cent of the migrant population, 27 per cent classify themselves as 'White other'. This, particularly diverse, ethnic group

Figure 2.7

Percentage of UK migrant population who live in London by year of arrival, 2006[1]

Percentages



1 Average for all years is 40 per cent.

Source: Annual Population Survey 2006

includes people from Europe alongside those from countries such as Ireland, America and Australia. The remaining 10 per cent of migrants classify themselves as White British and again this is a fairly diverse group, some of whom may be children of UK nationals who were born abroad (for example children born in Germany to UK armed forces families) (Figure 2.6).

Over a quarter (29 per cent) of all migrants living in London arrived in the UK between 2001 and 2006. This is slightly lower than the UK average where 33 per cent of all migrants arrived between these years. Many of these migrants were from A8 countries that joined the EU in 2004.

Between 1981 and 2000, 42 per cent of London's migrants arrived in the UK, far higher than the UK average of 30 per cent. Nearly half of all migrants who arrived between these years are living in London, but this proportion has dropped significantly for more recent migrants where only 36 per cent are in London (Figure 2.7).

Going back further in time only 28 per cent of migrants that arrived in the UK before 1960 are currently living in London. However, it is not known from the data what proportion of migrants lived in London when they first arrived and have since moved away from the capital.

Ethnic group projections

In 1991 the BAME population of London was 20 per cent. By 2001 it represented 30 per cent of the total population of London. Recent projections are that 32.5 per cent of London's population were from a BAME group in 2006. While the total population will increase by 11 per cent between 2006 and 2026, the BAME population is projected to increase by 33 per cent (Table 2.8) with an increase of 38 per cent in Outer London and 27 per cent in Inner London (Table 2.15). By 2026 the total population of London is projected to increase by 804,000 and 39 per cent of London's population will be from a BAME group (Table 2.9). It is clear that while there is a significant increase in London's BAME population, the growth rate is not accelerating dramatically when viewed as a proportion of London's total population.

The White population is projected to decline by 0.1 per cent over this twenty year projection period and is the only ethnic group projected to decline over the projection period. Hence over one hundred per cent of the population increase is projected to be from BAME

Table 2.8

Total population change, all projected ethnic groups[1], 2001-2026

Numbers and percentages

	2001	2006	2011	2016	2021	2026	2006-26 (Change)	2006-26 (% Change)	2006-26 (% of total change)
Total Population	7,336,900	7,461,400	7,749,200	7,962,800	8,123,600	8,265,200	803,800	10.8	100.0
White	5,216,100	5,036,700	5,028,700	5,017,100	5,013,900	5,031,700	-5,100	-0.1	-0.6
Black Caribbean	351,000	362,000	376,100	386,900	395,600	403,600	41,600	11.5	5.2
Black African	389,700	450,000	506,800	547,700	576,900	598,900	148,800	33.1	18.5
Black Other	169,200	192,800	215,500	232,500	245,500	255,700	62,900	32.6	7.8
Indian	446,600	490,700	536,400	573,000	600,300	621,300	130,600	26.6	16.3
Pakistani	146,400	169,800	194,900	214,100	227,900	238,200	68,400	40.3	8.5
Bangladeshi	158,200	178,400	201,500	220,600	235,600	248,100	69,700	39.1	8.7
Other Asian	198,400	229,500	259,100	280,600	294,900	304,700	75,200	32.8	9.4
Chinese	82,400	98,100	113,700	126,100	135,600	143,200	45,000	45.9	5.6
Other	178,900	253,200	316,500	364,200	397,600	419,800	166,600	65.8	20.7
BAME	2,120,800	2,424,700	2,720,400	2,945,700	3,109,700	3,233,500	808,900	33.4	100.6

1 Figures may not add due to rounding

Source: 2007 Round GLA Ethnic Group Population Projections, 2008

groups. This is a result of the younger age structure of the BAME population which consequently is projected to experience proportionately fewer deaths and more births. In fact, over 85 per cent of London's natural change (the excess of births compared with deaths) throughout the projection period is attributable to the BAME groups. This is mainly due to relatively fewer deaths amongst the BAME groups with only 23 per cent of the projected London total deaths being from the BAME population over 2006-2026.

Table 2.9

Ethnic group populations as a proportion of the total

Percentages

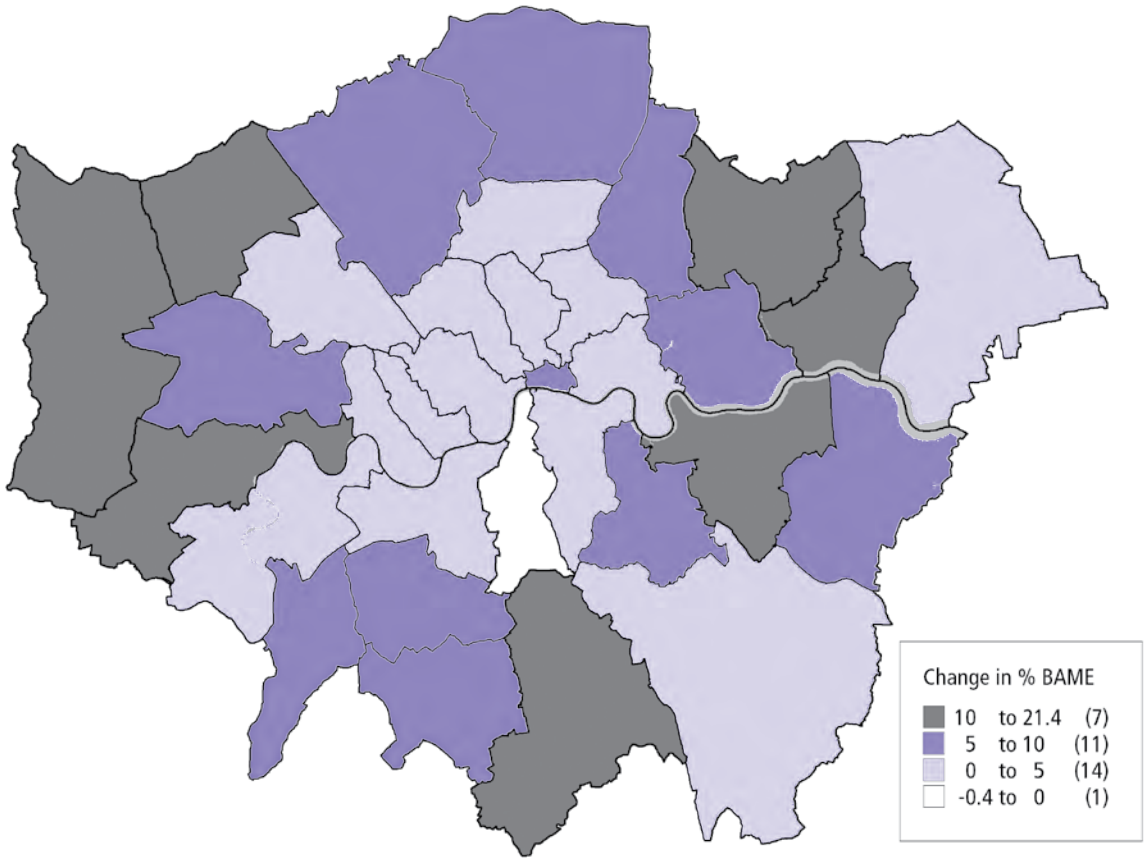
	2001	2006	2011	2016	2021	2026	Percentage point change 2006-26
White	71.1	67.5	64.9	63.0	61.7	60.9	-6.6
Black Caribbean	4.8	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.9	4.9	0.0
Black African	5.3	6.0	6.5	6.9	7.1	7.2	1.2
Black Other	2.3	2.6	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.1	0.5
Indian	6.1	6.6	6.9	7.2	7.4	7.5	0.9
Pakistani	2.0	2.3	2.5	2.7	2.8	2.9	0.6
Bangladeshi	2.2	2.4	2.6	2.8	2.9	3.0	0.6
Other Asian	2.7	3.1	3.3	3.5	3.6	3.7	0.6
Chinese	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.7	0.4
Other	2.4	3.4	4.1	4.6	4.9	5.1	1.7
BAME	28.9	32.5	35.1	37.0	38.3	39.1	6.6

Source: 2007 Round GLA Ethnic Group Population Projections, 2008

Map 2.10

Change in BAME population, 2006-2026

Percentages



Source: 2007 Round GLA Ethnic Group Population Projections, 2008

The largest percentage increases in population are projected to be in the Other, Chinese, and Pakistani ethnic groups, which will increase by 66 per cent, 46 per cent and 40 per cent respectively. However the Black Caribbean ethnic group is projected to increase by the smallest proportion of any BAME group, 11 per cent. As one of the longer established communities in London, the Black Caribbean group has experienced an ageing effect on its population.

Three ethnic groups are projected to account for over 55 per cent of the total population growth over the twenty-year period. These ethnic groups are the residual Other ethnic group (21 per cent), the Black African ethnic group (19 per cent), and the Indian ethnic group (16 per cent). All three ethnic groups have a young age population age structure that is further rejuvenated by migrants. These three groups are projected to represent around a fifth of the London population in 2026.

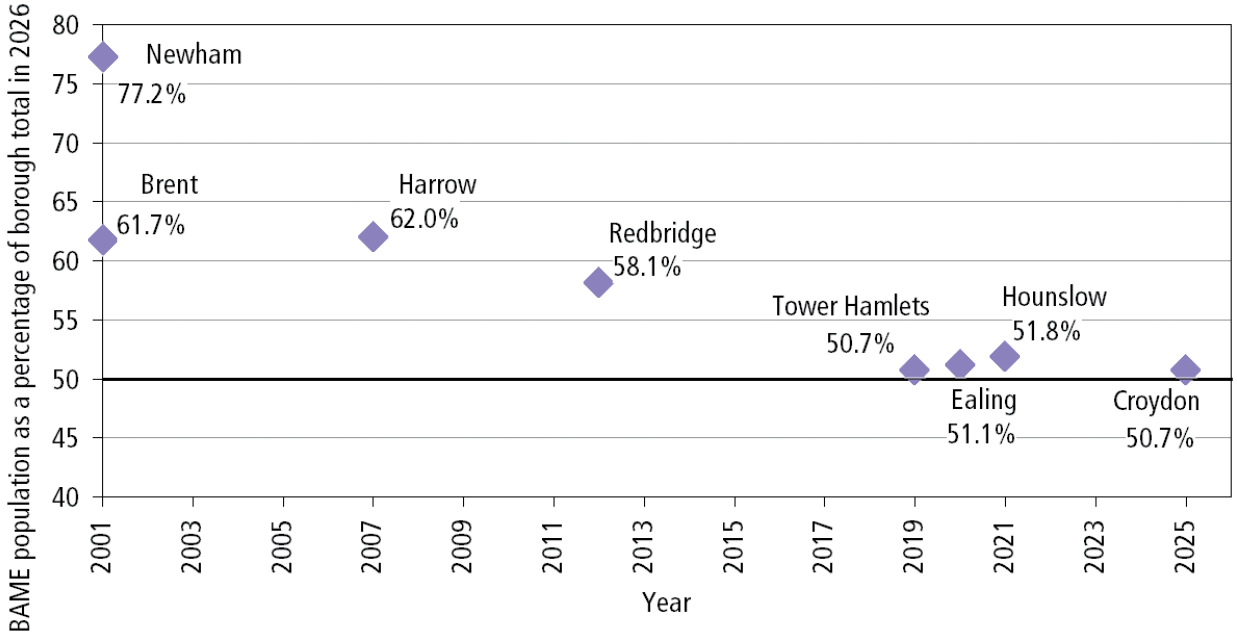
By 2026, seven London boroughs are projected to see increases in their proportions of BAME group population of at least 10 per cent compared with 2006. Eleven others are projected to see increases of between 5 and 10 per cent. However, one borough (Lambeth) is projected to have a slight fall in the proportion of its population that is from BAME groups (Map 2.10).

By 2026 eight London boroughs are projected to have BAME populations that represent over 50 per cent of the total. Harrow, Redbridge, Tower Hamlets, Ealing, Hounslow and Croydon join Brent and Newham both of which had more than 50 per cent BAME populations in 2001. All have long established ethnic minority communities and the addition of more recent migrants

Figure 2.11

Timeline of London Boroughs with a projected BAME majority by 2026

Percentages

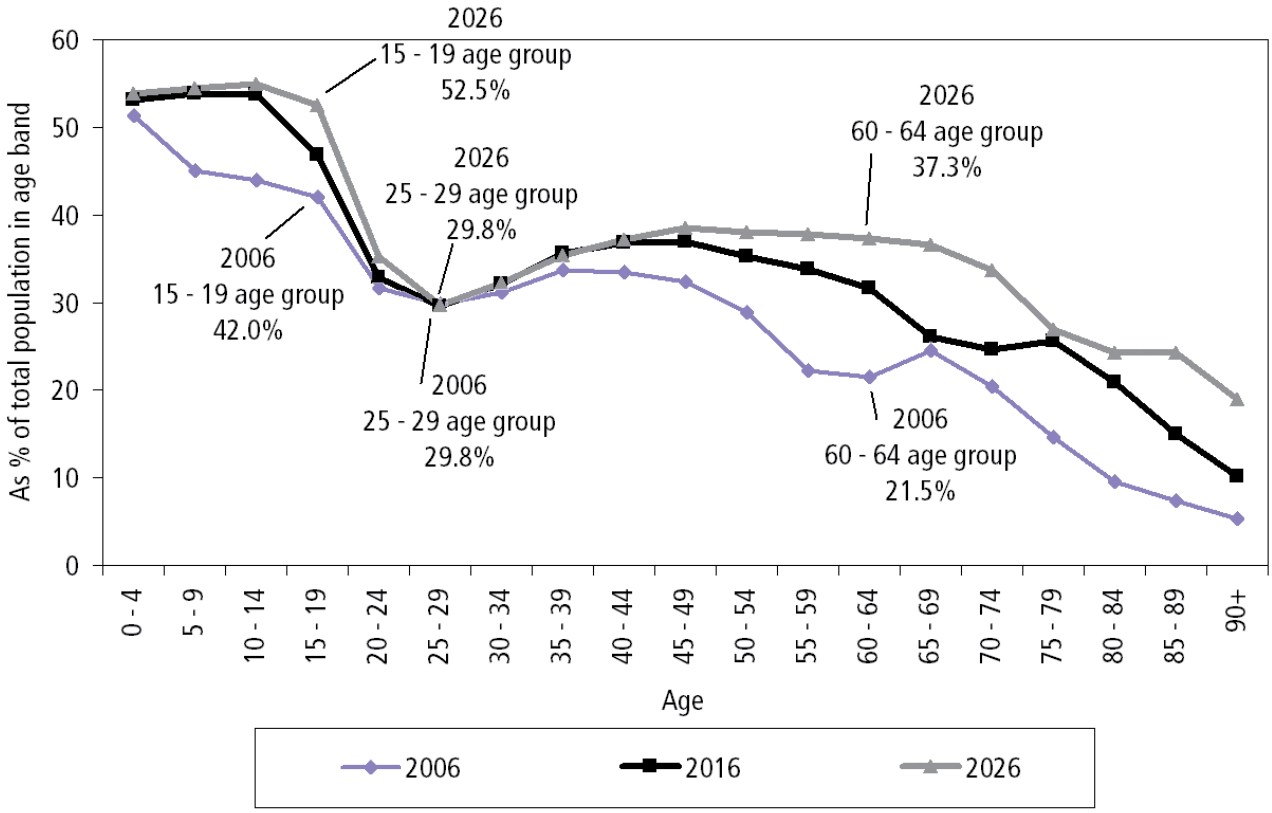


Source: 2007 Round GLA Ethnic Group Population Projections, 2008

Figure 2.12

Changes in age structure of the BAME population, 2006-2026

Percentages



Source: 2007 Round GLA Ethnic Group Population Projections, 2008

has further added to their existing diverse populations (Figure 2.11).

The younger age structure of the BAME population dynamically increases the projected BAME population. As young BAME adults reach reproductively active ages, like all young adults, they become most likely to form families and have children. As a result, at all ages, with the exception of the 25-29 year old age group, the BAME population will increase its share as a proportion of the total London population. Fifty-three per cent of 15-19 year-olds in 2026 are projected to be from a BAME group compared with 42 per cent in 2006.

The 25-29 year old age group is projected to remain the same proportion of the total through the projection period, with 30 per cent of this age group from a BAME group in 2006 as well as at 2026 (Figure 2.12). This is a result of high in-migration into London from the rest of the UK, as well as the rest of the world which is predominantly from White groups.

By 2026, 32 per cent of London's population aged over 60 is projected to be from a BAME group. In 2006 this was 18 per cent and this increase is a result of ageing amongst the ethnic minority populations. Those that arrived as young adult migrants many years earlier will reach retirement age and above in the projection period. And where previously the elderly population of London was predominantly White, with this ageing effect will emerge a much more ethnically diverse population of older people.

Table 2.13

Top 50 local authority rankings for ethnic diversity

Index and percentages

Rank	Local Authority	Simpson's Index	Rank	Local Authority	Simpson's Index
1	**Brent**	**6.46**	26	Luton UA	2.28
2	**Newham**	**5.87**	27	Birmingham	2.22
3	**Hackney**	**4.17**	**28**	**City of London**	**2.05**
4	**Ealing**	**4.04**	**29**	**Greenwich**	**1.96**
5	**Haringey**	**3.96**	**30**	**Hillingdon**	**1.86**
6	**Lambeth**	**3.50**	31	Manchester	1.78
7	**Westminster**	**3.47**	**32**	**Kingston upon Thames**	**1.71**
8	**Tower Hamlets**	**3.30**	33	Wolverhampton	1.71
9	**Harrow**	**3.26**	34	Oxford	1.67
10	**Southwark**	**3.19**	35	Blackburn with Darwen UA	1.67
11	**Camden**	**3.17**	36	Bradford	1.66
12	**Kensington and Chelsea**	**3.12**	37	Forest Heath	1.64
13	**Waltham Forest**	**2.99**	38	Sandwell	1.62
14	**Islington**	**2.86**	39	Coventry	1.61
15	**Hounslow**	**2.86**	40	Cambridge	1.60
16	**Lewisham**	**2.82**	**41**	**Richmond upon Thames**	**1.59**
17	**Redbridge**	**2.78**	42	Watford	1.58
18	**Hammersmith and Fulham**	**2.72**	43	Reading UA	1.53
19	Slough UA	2.65	44	Bedford	1.52
20	**Barnet**	**2.61**	**45**	**Barking and Dagenham**	**1.52**
21	**Enfield**	**2.50**	46	Nottingham UA	1.51
22	**Croydon**	**2.37**	47	Oadby and Wigston	1.47
23	**Merton**	**2.35**	48	Preston	1.43
24	Leicester UA	2.30	**49**	**Sutton**	**1.42**
25	**Wandsworth**	**2.29**	50	Wycombe	1.42

Source: Calculated by the GLA using 2001 Census data

Table 2.14

Top 50 ward rankings for ethnic diversity[1]

Index and percentages

Rank	Ward	Local Authority	Simpson's Index	Rank	Ward	Local Authority	Simpson's Index
1	**Dollis Hill**	**Brent**	**7.40**	**26**	**Preston**	**Brent**	**5.78**
2	**Little Ilford**	**Newham**	**7.29**	27	Aston	Birmingham	5.78
3	**Manor Park**	**Newham**	**7.15**	**28**	**Alperton**	**Brent**	**5.75**
4	**Wall End**	**Newham**	**7.01**	**29**	**West Thornton**	**Croydon**	**5.68**
5	**Loxford**	**Redbridge**	**6.84**	**30**	**Fryent**	**Brent**	**5.65**
6	**Dudden Hill**	**Brent**	**6.82**	**31**	**East Ham North**	**Newham**	**5.63**
7	**Forest Gate South**	**Newham**	**6.81**	**32**	**Kensal Green**	**Brent**	**5.62**
8	**Stonebridge**	**Brent**	**6.75**	**33**	**Bensham Manor**	**Croydon**	**5.60**
9	**Harlesden**	**Brent**	**6.63**	**34**	**Boleyn**	**Newham**	**5.58**
10	**East Ham Central**	**Newham**	**6.53**	**35**	**Kilburn**	**Brent**	**5.54**
11	**Tokyngton**	**Brent**	**6.45**	**36**	**Leyton**	**Waltham Forest**	**5.49**
12	**Plaistow North**	**Newham**	**6.34**	**37**	**West Green**	**Haringey**	**5.47**
13	**Willesden Green**	**Brent**	**6.32**	**38**	**Forest Gate North**	**Newham**	**5.46**
14	Handsworth	Birmingham	6.27	**39**	**Lea Bridge**	**Waltham Forest**	**5.30**
15	**Sudbury**	**Brent**	**6.26**	**40**	**Cathall**	**Waltham Forest**	**5.28**
16	**Welsh Harp**	**Brent**	**6.24**	**41**	**King's Park**	**Hackney**	**5.23**
17	**Green Street East**	**Newham**	**5.99**	**42**	**Golborne**	**Kensington and Chelsea**	**5.21**
18	**Tottenham Green**	**Haringey**	**5.96**	**43**	**St. Ann's**	**Haringey**	**5.18**
19	**Clementswood**	**Redbridge**	**5.96**	**44**	**Queen's Park**	**Westminster**	**5.18**
20	**Green Street West**	**Newham**	**5.93**	**45**	**Northwick Park**	**Brent**	**5.17**
21	Soho	Birmingham	5.86	**46**	**Perivale**	**Ealing**	**5.17**
22	**Barnhill**	**Brent**	**5.80**	**47**	**Graveney**	**Merton**	**5.14**
23	**Bruce Grove**	**Haringey**	**5.80**	**48**	**Seven Sisters**	**Haringey**	**5.12**
24	**Northumberland Park**	**Haringey**	**5.79**	**49**	**Leabridge**	**Hackney**	**5.11**
25	**Tottenham Hale**	**Haringey**	**5.79**	50	West Ham	Newham	5.10

1 London wards shown in bold.

Source: Calculated by the GLA using 2001 Census data

The young age structure of the BAME population will also alter the ethnic composition of Londoners of economically active ages (16 to retirement age). In 2006 71 per cent of this age group was from the White ethnic group while conversely 29 per cent were from a BAME group. By 2026, White ethnic groups will represent 64 per cent of this group and hence the BAME group will increase to 36 per cent. Eighty-eight per cent of the increase in the economically active aged population is attributable to the BAME population.

Table 2.15

Population change 2006 to 2026, by borough

Thousands and percentages

	All groups			White groups			BAME groups		
	2006	2026	% change	2006	2026	% change	2006	2026	% change
London	7,461.4	8,265.2	11	5,036.7	5,031.7	0	2,424.5	3,233.5	33
Inner London	2,953.3	3,461.6	17	1,889.7	2,106.2	11	1,064.1	1,355.1	27
Camden	201.5	224.4	11	143.6	155.0	8	57.9	69.2	20
City of London	9.0	13.3	48	7.2	9.5	32	1.8	3.8	111
Hackney	214.9	248.1	15	126.7	142.7	13	88.2	105.4	20
Hammersmith and Fulham	175.2	196.3	12	133.8	144.4	8	41.4	51.9	25
Haringey	226.3	249.6	10	146.8	159.0	8	79.6	90.4	14
Islington	187.8	212.9	13	139.8	156.0	12	48.0	56.8	18
Kensington and Chelsea	164.8	178.5	8	128.1	136.7	7	36.7	41.8	14
Lambeth	283.0	317.2	12	176.7	199.2	13	106.5	118.0	11
Lewisham	258.4	283.2	10	158.7	156.6	-1	99.7	126.6	27
Newham	254.4	337.4	33	81.7	77.0	-6	172.8	260.4	51
Southwark	264.7	348.7	32	163.5	213.0	30	101.2	135.8	34
Tower Hamlets	218.8	303.8	39	110.1	149.8	36	108.7	154.0	42
Wandsworth	283.0	314.5	11	220.9	245.1	11	62.1	69.5	12
Westminster	211.5	233.7	10	152.1	162.2	7	59.5	71.5	20
Outer London	4,507.9	4,803.3	7	3,147.2	2,925.4	-7	1,360.7	1,878.7	38
Barking and Dagenham	166.8	221.5	33	126.7	121.0	-4	40.1	100.7	151
Barnet	321.1	377.4	18	223.6	232.4	4	97.5	144.9	49
Bexley	215.6	218.6	1	191.4	181.4	-5	24.2	37.1	53
Brent	273.3	291.2	7	116.4	111.7	-4	156.7	179.5	15
Bromley	297.4	303.1	2	265.1	255.0	-4	32.4	48.2	49
Croydon	329.8	335.2	2	208.6	165.4	-21	121.2	169.8	40
Ealing	308.8	334.9	8	170.8	163.7	-4	138.0	171.1	24
Enfield	285.1	285.4	0	204.1	181.5	-11	81.0	104.0	28
Greenwich	229.9	281.2	22	162.4	162.8	0	67.6	118.4	75
Harrow	214.4	214.1	0	109.4	81.5	-26	105.2	132.7	26
Havering	226.7	233.0	3	211.7	209.9	-1	14.9	23.0	54
Hillingdon	244.2	246.5	1	178.9	151.9	-15	65.2	94.7	45
Hounslow	220.3	243.1	10	131.2	117.1	-11	89.0	126.2	42
Kingston upon Thames	152.1	159.1	5	121.8	116.3	-5	30.3	42.8	41
Merton	192.0	193.7	1	137.9	128.8	-7	54.2	65.0	20
Redbridge	246.0	264.1	7	136.8	110.7	-19	109.2	153.4	40
Richmond upon Thames	180.4	189.3	5	161.1	163.5	1	19.4	25.9	34
Sutton	180.8	181.0	0	154.8	144.5	-7	25.9	36.7	42
Waltham Forest	223.2	230.9	3	134.5	126.3	-6	88.7	104.6	18

Source: 2007 Round GLA Ethnic Group Population Projections, 2008

Labour Market

Chapter 3

- Estimates for 2006 indicate that 69 per cent of London's resident working age population are in employment. London has one of the lowest employment rates of all UK regions.
- Within London, employment rates range from 53 per cent in Tower Hamlets up to 78 per cent in Sutton. The three areas with the lowest employment rates in Great Britain are all in London, namely Tower Hamlets, Newham and Hackney.
- The unemployment rate in London is 8 per cent, the highest of all regions.
- Londoners in work have a different employment profile to those nationally. They are more likely to be in professional and managerial jobs, more likely to be self-employed and less likely to work part-time.
- Employment rate differentials between London and the rest of the UK are very pronounced among mothers. In London, 56 per cent of mothers are in employment relative to over two thirds (69 per cent) in the rest of the UK.
- Analysis of employment rate trends over the last decade show that while employment rates of women have increased nationally, this has not been the case in London where rates have shown no increase.
- Employment rates vary considerably by ethnic group, ranging from 75 per cent for White British Londoners down to 39 per cent for Bangladeshi Londoners.
- Disabled people are under-represented in the labour force; just under half of London's working-age disabled population are in work (46 per cent) compared with almost three-quarters of the population without a disability.

Introduction

The London labour market is home to an estimated 4.7 million jobs; 15 per cent of the UK total.

The capital has a large in-commuting population and draws around one fifth of all its workers from outside the region. Of London's residents, while some commute outside the region to work, the vast majority (91 per cent) work in London.

This chapter focuses on London's resident labour force and explores their levels and patterns of labour market activity. The analysis also examines the demographic factors that are associated with those patterns. Most of the data presented are from the Annual Population Survey (APS) and the household Labour Force Survey (LFS), both produced by the Office for National Statistics (See Notes and Definitions for more detail about the APS and LFS). ONS reweighted APS and LFS datasets in May 2008, but these data were not available at the time of writing. For this reason, the data presented in this chapter may differ slightly from more recently published estimates which draw on the reweighted data.

Chapter 4 provides more detail on the London economy and key industries that dominate the labour force.

The labour force

Around 5 million Londoners are of working age, and of this group three quarters (75 per cent) are economically active; this group comprise the labour force. The economically active population includes those who are already employed and also those who are unemployed, but actively seeking work.

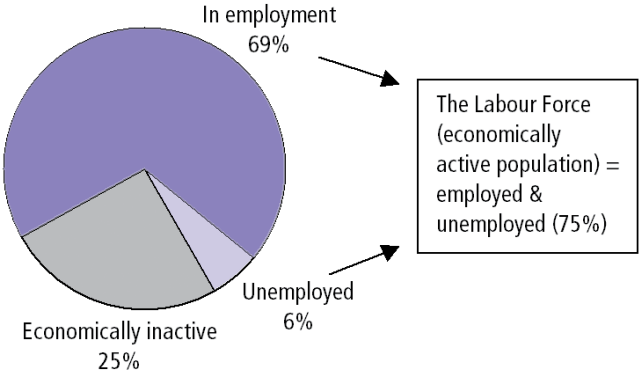
The remaining quarter of the working age population are economically inactive. This group includes those caring for children, those too sick to work, students and those who have taken early retirement. The economically inactive population are, by definition, less ready or able to enter the labour market relative to the unemployed who are actively seeking work. Unemployed Londoners comprise around 6 per cent of the working age population and 8 per cent of the economically active population (Figure 3.1).

The remaining sections profile both parts of the labour force, the employed and unemployed, in further detail.

Figure 3.1

Labour market position of working age Londoners, 2006

Percentages



Source: Annual Population Survey 2006

Employment rates by region

More than two thirds (69 per cent) of the working age population are in employment. London's employment

Table 3.2

Employment rates by gender and region (persons working age), 2006

Percentages

	Employment rate			Difference in rates (males-females)
	Persons	Males	Females	
United Kingdom	74.1	78.3	69.6	8.7
UK (Excluding London)	74.9	78.8	70.7	8.1
North East	70.7	73.6	67.6	6.0
North West	72.5	75.6	69.2	6.4
Yorkshire and The Humber	73.7	77.7	69.3	8.4
East Midlands	76.3	79.9	72.4	7.5
West Midlands	72.9	77.8	67.7	10.1
East	76.9	82.3	71.3	11.0
London	69.0	75.1	62.5	12.6
Inner London	64.2	71.6	56.5	15.1
Outer London	72.1	77.5	66.5	11.0
South East	78.3	83.1	73.3	9.8
South West	77.9	81.4	74.2	7.2
Wales	71.1	74.3	67.8	6.5
Scotland	75.7	78.3	73.1	5.2
Northern Ireland	68.7	73.3	63.8	9.5

Source: Annual Population Survey 2006

rate is far lower than the rate in the rest of the UK (75 per cent) and is one of the lowest employment rates of all UK regions, alongside Northern Ireland. Rates are around 8-9 percentage points higher in London's neighbouring regions of the South East & East (Table 3.2).

Across all regions, employment rates for women are lower than those of men, but the gender gap in employment rates is particularly pronounced in London (a difference of 13 percentage points). Employment rates for women in London average 62 per cent relative to 71 per cent outside London.

Patterns of employment

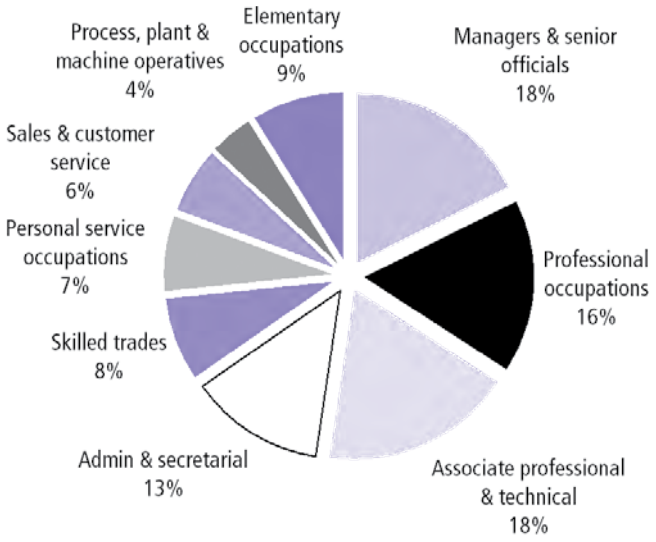
London's workers have a different employment profile to those nationally. They are more likely to be in professional and managerial jobs, more likely to be self-employed and less likely to work part-time.

More than half of those in employment work in professional, managerial and technical occupations (52

Figure 3.3

Employment by occupation, working age residents, London, 2006

Percentages



Source: Annual Population Survey 2006

Table 3.4

Patterns of working by gender and region, 2006

Percentages

Region of residence	Part-time as % of all employed			Self-employed as % of all employed		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
UK	23.8	9.3	41.2	12.6	17.0	7.3
UK (excluding London)	24.5	9.2	42.6	12.1	16.6	6.9
North East	24.2	10.1	40.1	8.7	12.6	4.2
North West	23.0	8.8	39.4	11.3	15.9	6.0
Yorkshire and The Humber	25.2	9.3	44.3	11.0	15.3	5.8
East Midlands	24.9	8.7	43.9	11.9	15.8	7.4
West Midlands	24.2	9.2	42.6	11.6	15.7	6.4
East	24.3	8.3	43.6	14.2	19.5	7.7
London	19.0	9.8	30.8	15.6	19.8	10.2
Inner London	17.6	10.9	26.5	16.6	18.8	13.7
Outer London	19.9	9.1	33.3	15.0	20.5	8.1
South East	25.3	9.9	43.6	13.2	17.7	7.9
South West	26.8	10.5	45.8	13.6	17.5	9.0
Wales	25.1	9.4	43.2	12.2	16.9	6.6
Scotland	23.7	8.9	40.3	10.1	14.1	5.6
Northern Ireland	20.4	6.4	37.3	15.6	23.1	6.6

Source: Annual Population Survey 2006

per cent) (Figure 3.3), compared with 41 per cent across rest of the UK.

Sixteen per cent are self-employed relative to an average of 12 per cent in the rest of the UK. Across all regions, men are far more likely than women to be self-employed, though the gender gap is narrowest in Inner London, where women have relatively high rates of self-employment (14 per cent, almost twice the national average).

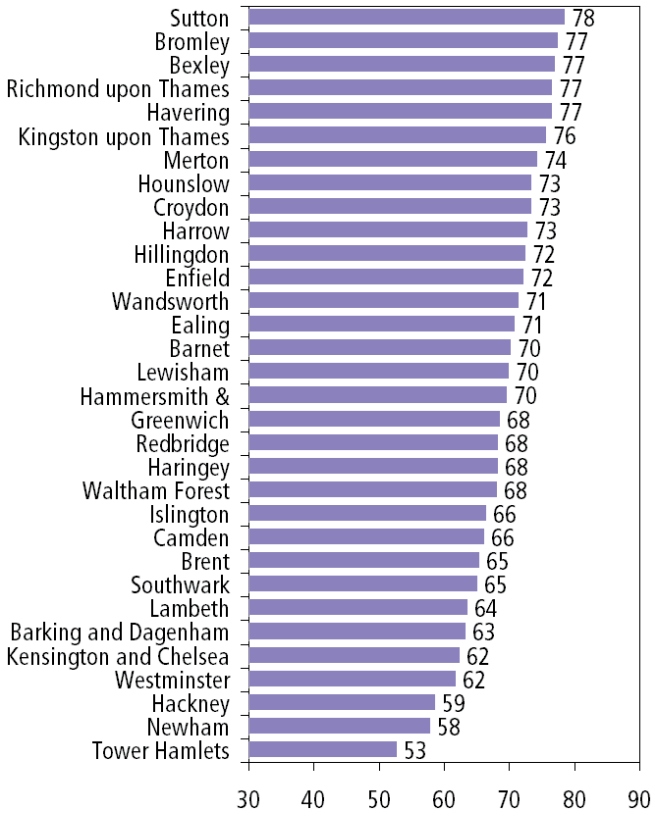
London has the lowest rate of part-time working of all regions. Of those in work, around one in five Londoners are employed part-time relative to one-quarter in the rest of the UK. This reflects the relatively low rates of part-time working among London's women; 31 per cent are employed part-time relative to 43 per cent outside London. For London's men, the pattern is different, one in ten workers are part-time, marginally higher than the rate nationally.

Across all regions, women are far more likely than men to be employed on a part-time basis, but the gender divide is narrowest in London, especially in Inner London, where rates of part-time working among women are very low at only 27 per cent and relatively high for men at 11 per cent (Table 3.4).

Figure 3.5

Employment rates, persons working age, for London boroughs[1,2], 2006

Percentages



1 Sampling variability attached to borough rates is around ± 4 percentage points.
2 The London average is 69.

Source: Annual Population Survey 2006

Employment rates by London borough

Within London, the employment rate is far lower in Inner London (64 per cent) than Outer London where rates average 72 per cent, closer to the national average. There is of, course, further variation in rates across London boroughs where rates range from 78 per cent in Sutton down to 53 per cent in Tower Hamlets. The three local authority areas with the lowest employment rates in Great Britain are all in London, namely Tower Hamlets, Newham and Hackney (Figure 3.5 and Table 3.18).

Employment rates for women are particularly low in Tower Hamlets (43 per cent) and Newham (44 per cent). These boroughs have the lowest female rates in Great Britain, followed by Kensington & Chelsea, Hackney and Lambeth all with female employment rates of between 49-52 per cent (Table 3.19).

Employment rates by age, gender and family status

Within the working age group, employment rates are lowest for young people at only 47 per cent (Figure 3.6), consistent with the high proportions of students in this group and the high rates of unemployment among young Londoners.

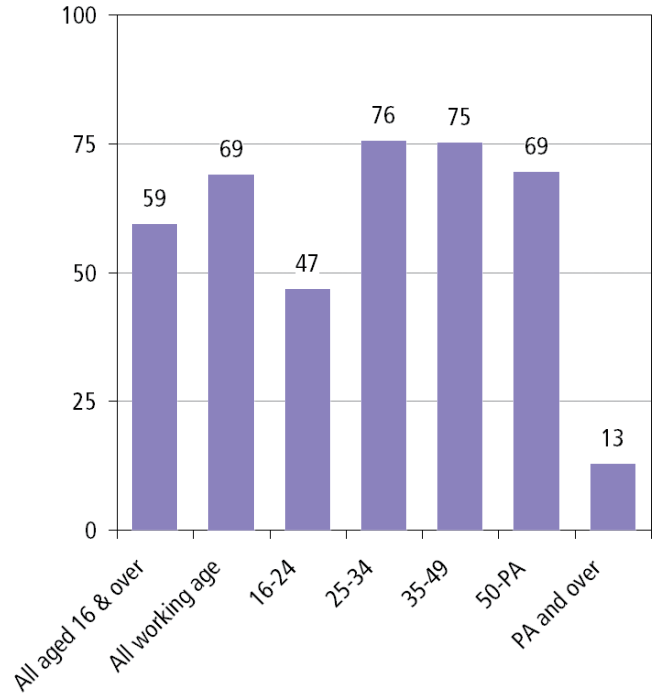
While employment rates begin to decline as people approach state pension age, many people work beyond standard retirement age. Around one in eight (13 per cent) of all Londoners of pensionable age and over are in employment. This group comprise four per cent of all those in employment.

The gender gap in employment rates is mainly explained by the lower employment rate of women with dependent children, as rates for men and women without dependent children are similar (Figure 3.7). The employment rate for mothers is 56 per cent, 30 percentage points lower than the rate for fathers (86

Figure 3.6

Employment rates by age[1], London, 2006

Percentages



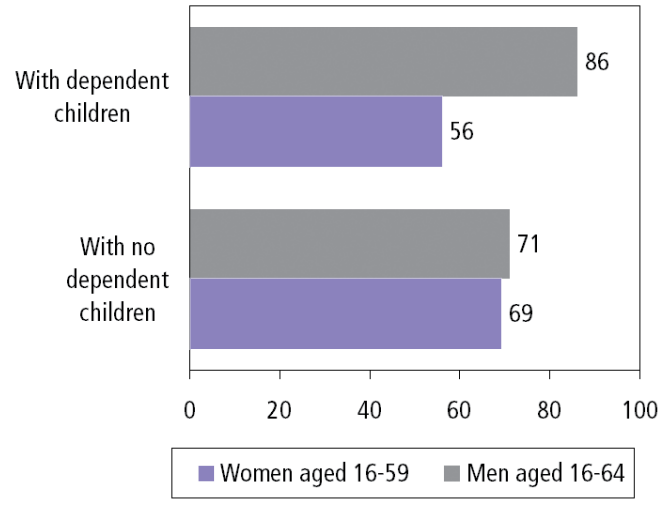
1 PA=Pensionable age (65 for men and 60 for women).

Source: Annual Population Survey 2006

Figure 3.7

Employment rates by gender and parenthood, London, Oct-Dec 2006

Percentages



Source: Labour Force Survey household dataset, Oct-Dec 2006

per cent), whereas rates for women and men without dependent children are fairly close (69 and 71 per cent). (See Notes and Definitions for an explanation of the definitions used here relating to parents and dependent children).

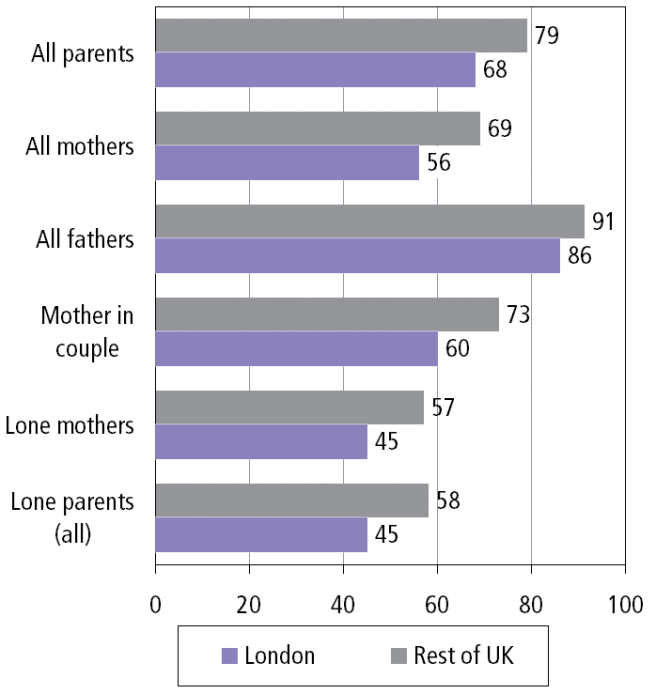
Family responsibilities are key to understanding the employment patterns of both women and men in London. While the employment rate of women with children is far lower than the rate for women without children (56 and 69 per cent), for men employment rates are affected in the opposite way, and fathers have a higher employment rate than men without children (86 and 71 per cent). The employment rate for lone mothers in London is 45 per cent, lower than the rate for mothers in couples (60 per cent).

Employment rate differentials between London and the rest of the UK are very pronounced among mothers (Figure 3.8). In London, 56 per cent of mothers are in employment compared with over two thirds (69 per cent) in the rest of the UK. Employment rates are considerably

Figure 3.8

Employment rates by family status[1], London and Rest of UK, Oct-Dec 2006

Percentages



1 Data refer to parents, of working age, with dependent children in their families.

Source: Labour Force Survey household dataset, Oct-Dec 2006

lower in London for both lone mothers and those in couples.

Trends in employment rates

Table 3.9 examines trends in employment rates by gender over the period 1997-2006 and compares trends in London to those in the rest of Great Britain. Throughout the period, employment rates have remained low in London relative to those nationally, and for women, rates have shown some divergence from national trends.

Outside London, the employment rate for women increased from 68 to 71 per cent, whereas in London there has been no such improvement and rates have, in fact, shown a marginal decline over the long term. Over the period 1997-2004, the gap in female employment rates between London and the rest of GB, widened from 4 to 8 percentage points. Since 2004, rates have remained around the same levels.

For men, the employment rate gap, while narrower, has also persisted. Male employment rates in London have remained around 2-4 percentage points lower than rates outside London throughout the period.

Trend in employment rates of parents

Employment rate patterns among London's women are consistent with GLA research that has examined employment trends of parents in and outside London. The analysis shows that over the period 1995-2006, the employment rates of London's parents have remained well below those living in the rest of the UK, and in the case of mothers, rates have shown some divergence from national trends. The estimates have been averaged over two years to improve reliability of estimates.

For lone parents in and outside London, there has been an upward trend in employment rates over the period. However, while the employment rate of London's lone parents rose over the period, the rise was far less pronounced than nationally. In London, rates increased from 38 to 44 per cent whereas in the rest of the UK, the employment rate rose from 45 to 58 per cent. Overall, the gap in lone parent employment rates between London and the rest of the UK has doubled in size from 7 to 14 percentage points (Figure 3.10).

Trends in employment rates for mothers in couples also show divergence from national trends. Over the period, the employment rate for mothers in couples living in Inner London has fallen, while rates have increased for

Table 3.9

Employment rates by gender, London and Rest of Great Britain, 1997-2006[1]

Percentages

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Persons										
London	69.4	70.2	70.9	69.8	70.2	69.6	69.3	69.1	69.1	69.0
GB (excluding London)	73.3	74.0	74.2	74.8	75.0	74.9	75.1	75.2	75.3	75.1
Difference (London-GB)	-3.9	-3.8	-3.3	-5.0	-4.8	-5.3	-5.8	-6.1	-6.2	-6.1
Males										
London	75.3	75.9	77.1	76.0	76.2	75.7	75.7	75.6	74.8	75.1
GB (excluding London)	78.3	78.9	78.9	79.4	79.5	79.3	79.4	79.5	79.3	79.0
Difference (London-GB)	-3.0	-3.0	-1.8	-3.4	-3.3	-3.6	-3.7	-3.9	-4.5	-3.9
Females										
London	63.6	64.6	64.8	63.5	64.1	63.4	62.5	62.3	63.0	62.5
GB (excluding London)	67.9	68.8	69.2	69.9	70.1	70.3	70.5	70.7	71.1	71.0
Difference (London-GB)	-4.3	-4.2	-4.4	-6.4	-6.0	-6.9	-8.0	-8.4	-8.1	-8.5

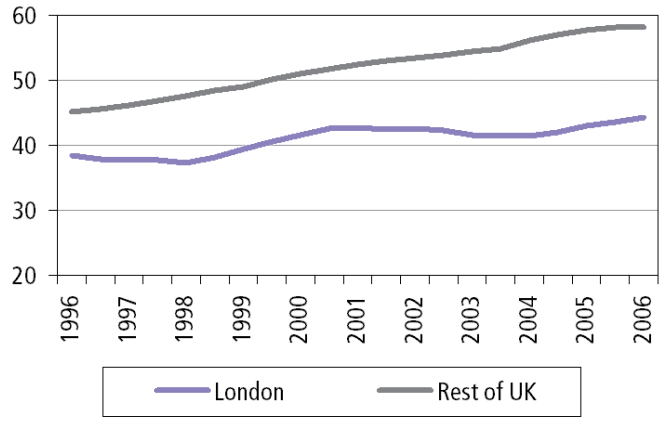
1 Annual data for 1997-2003 are based on seasonal quarters (e.g. 1997 data relates to March 1997-February 1998). Data from 2004-2006 relate to calendar quarters (January-December).

Source: Annual Labour Force Survey (1997-2003); Annual Population Survey 2004-2006

Figure 3.10

Employment rates of working-age lone parents, London and Rest of UK, 1995-2006[1]

Percentages



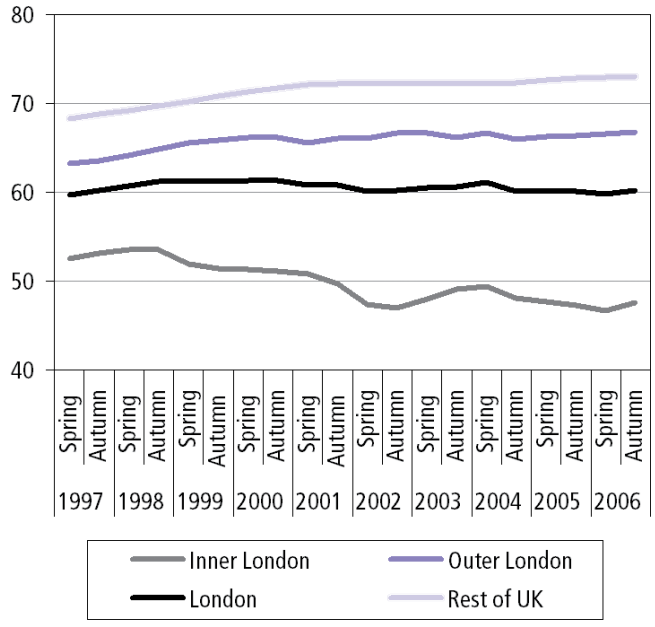
1 Data are two year moving averages. Household data are produced twice per year so each average is based on four survey estimates.

Source: Labour Force Survey Household datasets 1995-2006

Figure 3.11

Employment rates of working-age couple mothers, London and Rest of UK, 1995-2006

Percentages



1 Data are two year moving averages. Household data are produced twice per year so each average is based on four survey estimates.

Source: Labour Force Survey Household datasets 1995-2006

those living in Outer London and in the rest of the UK. In Inner London, the employment rate of couple mothers fell from 51 to 48 per cent during 1995-2006, whereas in Outer London the rate increased from 63 to 67 per cent following national trends (Figure 3.11).

The diverging trends in parental employment patterns in London are consistent with London's high child poverty rates which have remained stubbornly high over the same period (See Chapter 6).

Employment and disability

Disabled people face a range of barriers in accessing the labour market and are under-represented in the labour force. Disabled Londoners comprise 17 per cent of the working age population but only 12 per cent of the labour force. See Notes and Definitions for an explanation of the disability definition used here.

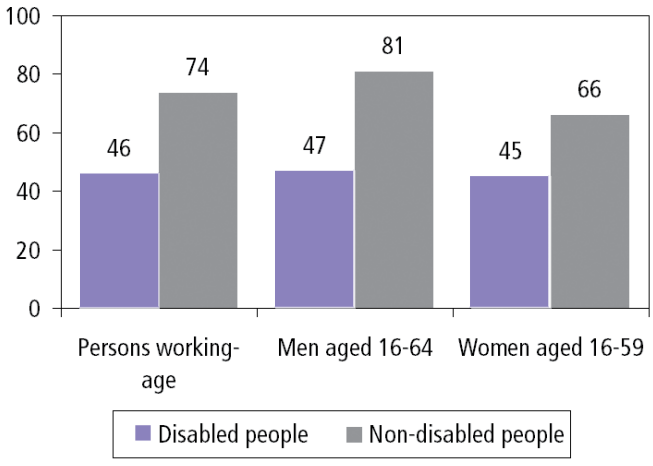
Just under half of London's working age disabled population are in work (46 per cent) compared with almost three-quarters of the population without a disability (Figure 3.12).

There is little difference in the employment rates of disabled men and women. Both groups have very low rates (47 and 45 per cent) relative to their non-disabled counterparts. The fact the gender gap is not evident in the disabled population reflects the

Figure 3.12

Employment rates by disability and gender, persons working age, London, 2006

Percentages



Source: Annual Population Survey 2006

relatively low employment rate of disabled men. The gap in rates between disabled and non-disabled men is 34 percentage points compared with 21 percentage points for disabled and non-disabled women. Disabled Londoners who live in Inner London have very low employment rates (36 per cent) relative to those in Outer London (52 per cent), where rates are close to the UK average (49 per cent).

The GLA recently carried out a detailed analysis of the employment patterns of disabled Londoners using data from the 2005 Annual Population Survey. The analysis found that within the disabled population, the employment rate was lowest for those reporting mental health problems as their main impairment; only around one in five of this group were in employment.

Diversity and employment

London is one of the most diverse cities in the world and the composition of the resident labour force reflects this (Table 3.13). Over one third (36 per cent) of London's labour force were born outside the UK, 31 per cent are from Black, Asian and minority ethnic (BAME) groups, and over a fifth are foreign nationals (22 per cent).

Employment rates of Londoners vary considerably according to ethnic group and country of birth. Annual Population Survey estimates for 2004-2006 show that BAME Londoners, of working age, have an average employment rate of 58 per cent, considerably lower than the employment rate for White Londoners of 75 per cent (Figure 3.14).

Within the BAME population, the employment rate ranges from 39 per cent for Bangladeshi Londoners up to 69 per cent for Indian Londoners. Within the Black population, the employment rate for Black African Londoners (54 per cent) was significantly lower than the employment rate for Black Caribbean Londoners (65 per cent).

Many BAME populations have relatively young age profiles and higher proportions in full-time education relative to White groups. This, of course, has some impact on overall employment levels as well as employment rate comparisons between groups. When students are excluded from calculations, employment rates for all groups rise reflecting the fact that the majority of students are not in employment. The three ethnic groups that see the largest rises in employment rates, when students are excluded, are people from Mixed, Black Other and Chinese groups.

Analysis of labour market participation by country of birth can offer additional insight into the circumstances

Table 3.13

Composition of the London labour force by ethnicity, country of birth and nationality, 2006

Percentages of working age persons

	Population (working age)	Economically active	In employment	Unemployment
All persons (working age)	100	100	100	100
White groups	66	69	71	48
BAME groups	34	31	29	52
All born in UK	62	64	65	55
- White ethnic groups	52	55	56	38
- BAME groups	10	10	9	17
All born outside UK	38	36	35	45
- White ethnic groups	14	15	15	10
- BAME groups	24	21	20	35
UK national	77	78	79	72
Foreign national	23	22	21	28
Base:	4.9m	3.6m	3.4m	0.3m

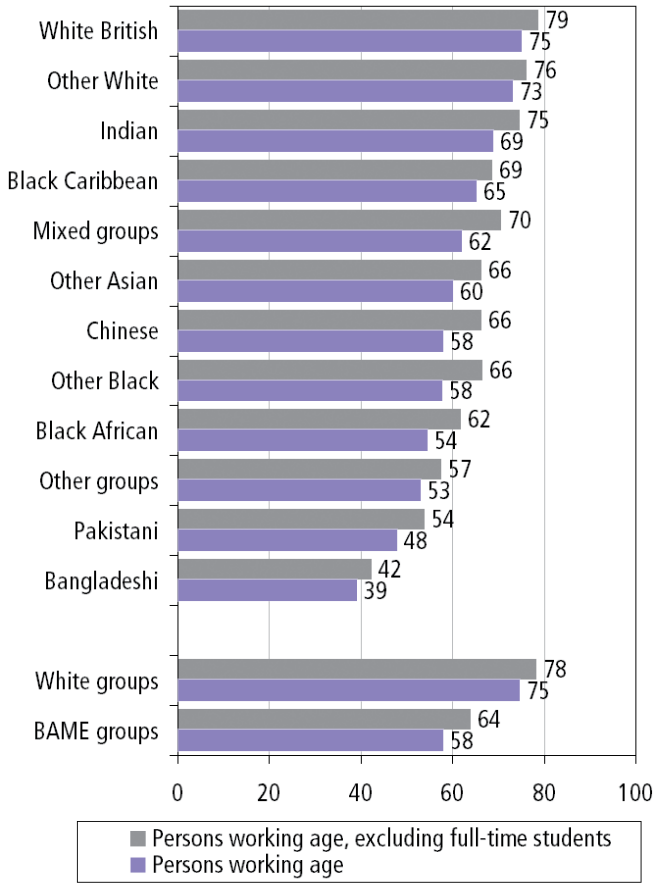
1 The term BAME (Black, Asian & minority ethnic groups) is used here to refer to all ethnic groups except White groups.

Source: Annual Population Survey 2006

Figure 3.14

Employment rates by ethnic group, London, 2004-06[1,2]

Percentages



1 3 year averages have been used to improve reliability of estimates.
2 Average for all persons is 69 per cent, and excluding FTS is 74 per cent.

Source: Labour Force Survey Household datasets 1995-2006

of Londoners from different migrant populations. GLA research, based on 2001 Census data, found that within London's migrant population, there is enormous diversity and polarity of labour market outcomes. At individual country level, employment rates ranged from 86 per cent for Australians down to 16 per cent for Somali Londoners. (Figure 3.15).

The study found that, in general, migrants from high income countries (e.g. Western European countries, USA, etc) had higher employment rates (75 per cent) than those from developing countries (61 per cent).

Unemployment rates by region and borough

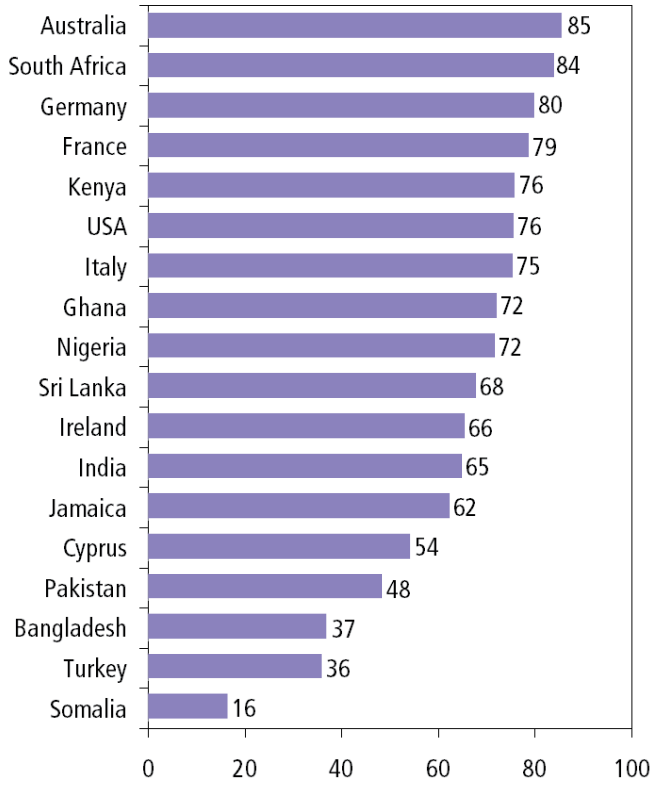
Of all UK regions, London has the highest unemployment rate (8 per cent). Rates are highest in London for both men and women. Rates average 9 per cent across Inner London and 7 per cent in Outer London. Unemployment rates are particularly high for young people aged 16-24 (19 per cent); disabled people and BAME Londoners (both 13 per cent) (Figure 3.16).

A new source of unemployment estimates for local areas, using a statistical model, shows that within London, unemployment rates range from 14 per cent in Tower Hamlets down to four per cent in Richmond upon Thames. Tower Hamlets, Hackney and Newham have the highest unemployment rates of all local authorities across Great Britain (Table 3.17).

Figure 3.15

Employment rates for London's larger migrant populations[1], 2001

Percentages



1 By country of birth, Persons aged 16-64, excluding full-time students.

Source: 2001 Census, Commissioned Tables CO116 & CO116a

Figure 3.16

Unemployment rates[1] by region[2], 2006

Percentages

1 Persons aged 16 and over.
2 UK average = 5.3 per cent.

Source: Annual Population Survey 2006 (January-December)

Table 3.17

Model-based[1] unemployment rates[2] for London boroughs, 2006

Numbers and Percentages

	Number unemployed	Rate	CI (+/-) attached to rate in percentage points[3]
Barking and Dagenham	6,700	9.4	±2.0
Barnet	11,600	6.6	±1.6
Bexley	6,300	5.5	±1.4
Brent	11,700	9.2	±2.1
Bromley	8,100	5.2	±1.3
Camden	8,900	8.2	±1.8
Croydon	12,100	6.6	±1.5
Ealing	11,900	7.2	±1.6
Enfield	9,400	6.6	±1.5
Greenwich	9,000	8.3	±1.8
Hackney	11,200	11.6	±2.3
Hammersmith and Fulham	7,900	7.9	±1.7
Haringey	10,900	9.2	±1.9
Harrow	7,800	6.7	±1.6
Havering	5,500	4.8	±1.3
Hillingdon	8,800	6.7	±1.6
Hounslow	8,900	7.7	±1.7
Islington	8,200	8.9	±1.9
Kensington and Chelsea	5,900	6.7	±1.6
Kingston upon Thames	4,000	4.7	±1.2
Lambeth	11,900	9.3	±2.1
Lewisham	11,100	8.2	±1.8
Merton	7,000	6.5	±1.5
Newham	12,500	11.8	±2.3
Redbridge	8,700	7.3	±1.7
Richmond upon Thames	4,300	4.1	±1.0
Southwark	11,800	9.7	±2.1
Sutton	5,200	5.2	±1.3
Tower Hamlets	12,400	14.2	±2.7
Waltham Forest	9,100	8.5	±1.9
Wandsworth	10,900	7.4	±1.8
Westminster	8,700	8.6	±1.9

1 Modelled unemployment estimates.
2 Unemployment rates express the number unemployed as a percentage of those economically active.
3 CI = 95% confidence interval, in percentage points, attached to unemployment rate. See Notes and Definitions section for detail on modelled unemployment estimates.

Source: Office for National Statistics (modelled estimates)

Table 3.18

Employment and economic activity rates[1], persons working age, London boroughs, 2006

Numbers and Percentages

	All persons working-age	Employment			Economic activity		
		In employment	Employment rate	CI (+/-)[2]	Economically active	Economic activity rate	CI (+/-)[2]
Barking and Dagenham	99,000	63,000	63.2	±4.0	69,000	69.9	±3.8
Barnet	221,000	155,000	70.1	±4.0	166,000	75.1	±3.7
Bexley	136,000	104,000	76.9	±3.6	110,000	81.4	±3.3
Brent	174,000	114,000	65.3	±4.4	126,000	72.4	±4.1
Bromley	184,000	142,000	77.3	±3.6	149,000	81.3	±3.4
Camden	145,000	96,000	66.1	±3.8	104,000	72.0	±3.6
Croydon	220,000	161,000	73.2	±3.5	173,000	78.5	±3.2
Ealing	210,000	148,000	70.7	±3.5	161,000	76.9	±3.2
Enfield	178,000	129,000	72.1	±3.9	135,000	75.5	±3.7
Greenwich	140,000	95,000	68.4	±3.9	103,000	74.1	±3.7
Hackney	142,000	83,000	58.5	±3.8	95,000	66.8	±3.7
Hammersmith and Fulham	129,000	89,000	69.5	±3.7	98,000	76.0	±3.4
Haringey	151,000	103,000	68.2	±3.8	113,000	74.8	±3.5
Harrow	141,000	103,000	72.7	±4.1	112,000	79.6	±3.7
Havering	135,000	103,000	76.5	±3.8	108,000	79.8	±3.6
Hillingdon	163,000	118,000	72.3	±3.8	129,000	79.3	±3.5
Hounslow	140,000	103,000	73.2	±3.5	114,000	80.9	±3.1
Islington	124,000	83,000	66.3	±3.8	90,000	72.1	±3.6
Kensington and Chelsea	122,000	76,000	62.3	±4.2	82,000	66.9	±4.1
Kingston upon Thames	104,000	79,000	75.6	±3.5	82,000	79.4	±3.3
Lambeth	179,000	114,000	63.5	±4.1	125,000	69.5	±3.9
Lewisham	171,000	119,000	69.8	±3.8	130,000	76.2	±3.5
Merton	131,000	97,000	74.1	±3.5	105,000	80.0	±3.2
Newham	158,000	91,000	57.7	±3.8	105,000	66.3	±3.6
Redbridge	156,000	107,000	68.2	±4.2	115,000	73.6	±4.0
Richmond upon Thames	123,000	94,000	76.5	±3.4	98,000	79.7	±3.2
Southwark	164,000	106,000	64.9	±3.9	117,000	71.6	±3.7
Sutton	116,000	91,000	78.4	±3.9	96,000	82.7	±3.6
Tower Hamlets	139,000	73,000	52.6	±3.9	85,000	61.4	±3.8
Waltham Forest	139,000	95,000	68.0	±4.0	102,000	73.2	±3.8
Wandsworth	190,000	135,000	71.3	±4.1	147,000	77.6	±3.8
Westminster	143,000	88,000	61.6	±3.9	96,000	67.5	±3.7
Inner London	1,958,000	1,258,000	64.2	±1.1	1,388,000	70.9	±1.0
Outer London	2,911,000	2,100,000	72.1	±0.9	2,254,000	77.4	±0.8
London	4,869,000	3,358,000	69.0	±0.7	3,643,000	74.8	±0.6
Great Britain	35,559,000	26,407,000	74.3	±0.2	27,937,000	78.6	±0.2
United Kingdom	36,615,000	27,132,000	74.1	±0.2	28,700,000	78.4	±0.2

1 Employment and economic activity rates express the number in employment/economically active as a percentage of the population (all data relate to the working age population).
2 CI = 95% confidence interval, in percentage points, attached to the rate.

Source: Annual Population Survey 2006

Table 3.19

Employment rates[1] by gender, London boroughs, 2006

Numbers and Percentages

	Males aged 16-64			Females aged 16-59		
	In employment	Employment rate	CI (+/-)[2]	In employment	Employment rate	CI (+/-)[2]
Barking and Dagenham	36,000	70.5	±5.4	27,000	55.6	±5.7
Barnet	87,000	75.3	±5.3	68,000	64.4	±5.8
Bexley	56,000	80.7	±4.7	48,000	73.0	±5.4
Brent	66,000	71.9	±6.1	47,000	57.8	±6.2
Bromley	79,000	85.6	±4.4	63,000	69.0	±5.6
Camden	54,000	72.3	±5.1	42,000	59.7	±5.5
Croydon	88,000	78.2	±4.7	73,000	67.9	±5.1
Ealing	83,000	75.6	±4.7	65,000	65.3	±5.2
Enfield	75,000	79.7	±5.1	54,000	63.6	±5.7
Greenwich	51,000	71.7	±5.3	45,000	64.9	±5.8
Hackney	49,000	66.9	±5.3	34,000	49.5	±5.4
Hammersmith and Fulham	47,000	71.7	±5.1	43,000	67.1	±5.2
Haringey	58,000	74.8	±5.1	45,000	61.2	±5.4
Harrow	56,000	78.3	±5.4	47,000	67.1	±6.0
Havering	56,000	79.7	±5.2	47,000	73.1	±5.5
Hillingdon	64,000	75.8	±5.2	54,000	68.5	±5.7
Hounslow	58,000	79.8	±4.4	45,000	66.1	±5.3
Islington	46,000	72.1	±5.1	37,000	60.2	±5.5
Kensington and Chelsea	47,000	74.8	±5.2	29,000	49.0	±6.2
Kingston upon Thames	44,000	80.6	±4.7	34,000	70.1	±5.3
Lambeth	67,000	74.5	±5.3	47,000	52.4	±5.9
Lewisham	63,000	73.8	±5.3	56,000	65.7	±5.5
Merton	52,000	78.9	±4.8	45,000	69.2	±5.2
Newham	57,000	70.3	±5.0	34,000	44.4	±5.4
Redbridge	60,000	74.8	±5.5	47,000	61.3	±6.2
Richmond upon Thames	52,000	81.4	±4.4	43,000	71.4	±5.0
Southwark	62,000	73.5	±5.3	44,000	55.7	±5.7
Sutton	50,000	85.2	±4.9	41,000	71.2	±6.0
Tower Hamlets	44,000	61.7	±5.4	29,000	42.7	±5.4
Waltham Forest	50,000	69.8	±5.5	45,000	66.1	±5.8
Wandsworth	71,000	76.0	±5.6	64,000	66.6	±5.9
Westminster	48,000	66.4	±5.5	40,000	56.6	±5.5
Inner London	717,000	71.6	±1.5	542,000	56.5	±1.6
Outer London	1,163,000	77.5	±1.2	937,000	66.5	±1.3
London	1,879,000	75.1	±0.9	1,479,000	62.5	±1.0
Great Britain	14,346,000	78.5	±0.3	12,061,000	69.8	±0.3
United Kingdom	14,743,000	78.3	±0.2	12,389,000	69.6	±0.3

1 Employment rates express the number in employment as a percentage of the population in that group.
2 CI = 95% confidence interval, in percentage points, attached to employment rate.
3 ONS reweighted APS and LFS datasets in May 2008, but these data were not available at the time of writing. For this reason, the data presented in this chapter may differ slightly from more recently published estimates which draw on the reweighted data

Source: Annual Population Survey 2006

Chapter 4

Economy and Industry

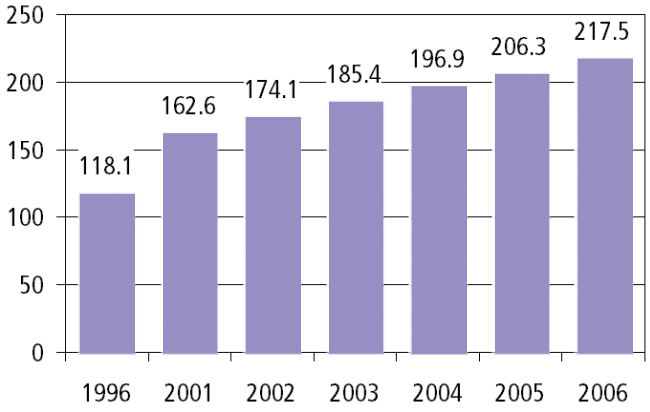
- London's gross value added (GVA) on a workplace basis totalled £217.5bn at current basic prices in 2006. London accounted for an 18.8 per cent share of total UK GVA.
- The two largest sectors in London's economy were the real estate, renting and business activities (business services) sector and the financial intermediation (financial services) sector which contributed £67.0bn and £37.0bn respectively to London's GVA in 2004.
- At the end of September 2007, there were 4.69 million workforce jobs in London. Of these 2.56 million were filled by males and 2.13 million were filled by females. London's share of total UK employment was 14.9 per cent.
- Recent decades have seen a major shift away from employment in manufacturing and towards employment in services within London. The number of workplace jobs in manufacturing in London fell by 458,000 over the 1981-2004 period. However, the number of workplace jobs in business services increased by 573,000 over the same period.
- The business services sector is now responsible for over 25 per cent of employee jobs in London. This includes employment across a range of activities including legal activities, accounting, management consultancy, advertising, security and industrial cleaning.
- In addition to specialising in business services, the London economy also specialises in financial services, with 30 per cent of all UK employee jobs in financial services located within London, and in the media and publishing sectors.
- Small and medium-sized enterprises account for 49 per cent of private sector employment in London. Large firms account for 51 per cent of private sector employment.
- Compared to the UK average, London has a high share of new business start-ups but also a high share of business closures. The net position is that London has had a higher net start up rate (registrations minus de-registrations) of businesses than the UK for nine of the past ten years.

Introduction

This chapter considers data concerning London's economy. In particular, it includes data on London's GVA by sector over time which allows a consideration of London's specialisations and how this position has changed over time. It looks at the spread of London's employment and the size distribution of firms by sector. It concludes with a look at the rate of business start-up and closure in London over time, as compared to the UK as a whole.

Figure 4.1

Workplace-based gross value added (GVA) at current basic prices, London[1]



1 See Table 4.9 for more detailed data

Source: Office for National Statistics

Gross Value Added

Gross Value Added (GVA) measures the contribution to the economy of each individual producer, industry or sector in the United Kingdom. Regional GVA figures therefore measure the contribution to the UK economy that occurs within each region. Regional GVA is measured as the sum of incomes earned from the production of goods and services in the region.

In 2006, London's contribution to the UK economy, as measured by workplace-based GVA, totalled £217.5bn (Figure 4.1 and Table 4.9). The total GVA of the United Kingdom was £1,155.0bn. Therefore, London's share of total UK GVA in 2006 was 18.8 per cent. This share has risen from a level of 17.2 per cent in 1996 showing that London's relative contribution to the UK economy has been growing over the past decade.

GVA on a workplace basis is not uniform across London. Instead it reflects the geographical spread of employment in London and particularly the high concentration of high productivity service industries within Inner London. Thus, GVA on a workplace basis totalled £132.4bn in Inner London in 2005 compared to £73.9bn in Outer London (Table 4.2). In the Inner London West sub-region, GVA on a workplace basis was particularly high at £84.7bn in 2005.

Data on the contribution of each industry sector to the London economy is shown in Table 4.12. The ONS did

Table 4.2

Gross value added (GVA)[1,2], workplace basis by sub-region at current basic prices

£ million

	1996	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005[3]
London GVA	118,080	162,626	174,118	185,427	196,855	206,324
Inner London	70,892	100,382	109,774	117,820	125,490	132,438
Inner London - West	46,768	65,554	71,080	75,687	80,347	84,724
Inner London - East	24,125	34,828	38,694	42,133	45,144	47,714
Outer London	47,187	62,244	64,345	67,608	71,365	73,886
Outer London - East and North East	13,077	15,837	16,347	17,366	18,549	19,379
Outer London - South	12,149	14,843	15,518	16,526	17,617	18,301
Outer London - West and North West	21,961	31,564	32,480	33,715	35,198	36,206

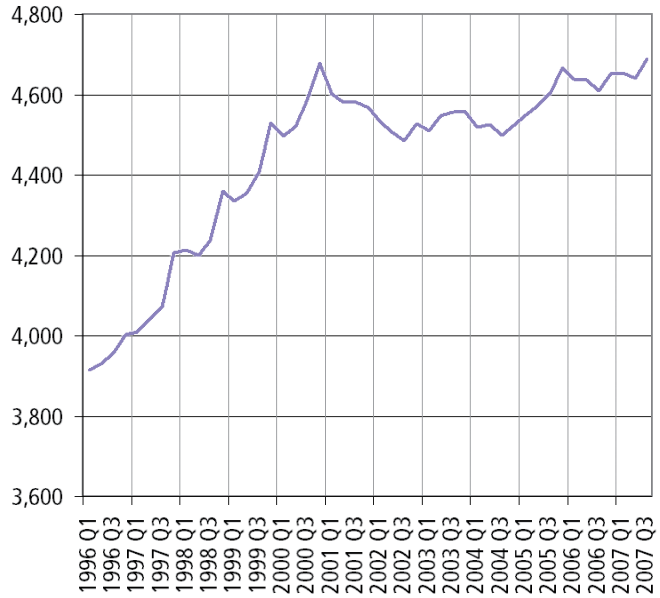
1 The headline GVA series for this publication have been calculated using a five-period moving average.
2 Estimates of workplace based GVA allocate income to the region in which commuters work.
3 Provisional

Source: Office for National Statistics

Figure 4.3

Workforce jobs in London 1996 Q1 - 2007 Q3

Thousands



Source: ONS Workforce Jobs Series

not update this table for 2005, so the 2004 data are the most recent available. The data show that the two largest sectors in London's economy are the real estate, renting and business activities (business services) sector and the financial intermediation (financial services) sector which contributed £67.0bn and £37.0bn respectively to London's GVA in 2004.

Both financial and business services are areas of the economy in which London is particularly specialised. In 2004, London was responsible for 43 per cent of all UK financial intermediation GVA and 26 per cent of all UK real estate renting and business activities GVA. By contrast, only 9 per cent of UK GVA in manufacturing was created within London.

Employment

The number of jobs in London is measured by Workforce Jobs (WFJ) data. This is the sum of employee jobs, self employment jobs, and government-supported trainees. Figure 4.3 shows the total number of workforce jobs in London on a quarterly basis from 1996 Q1 to 2007 Q3.

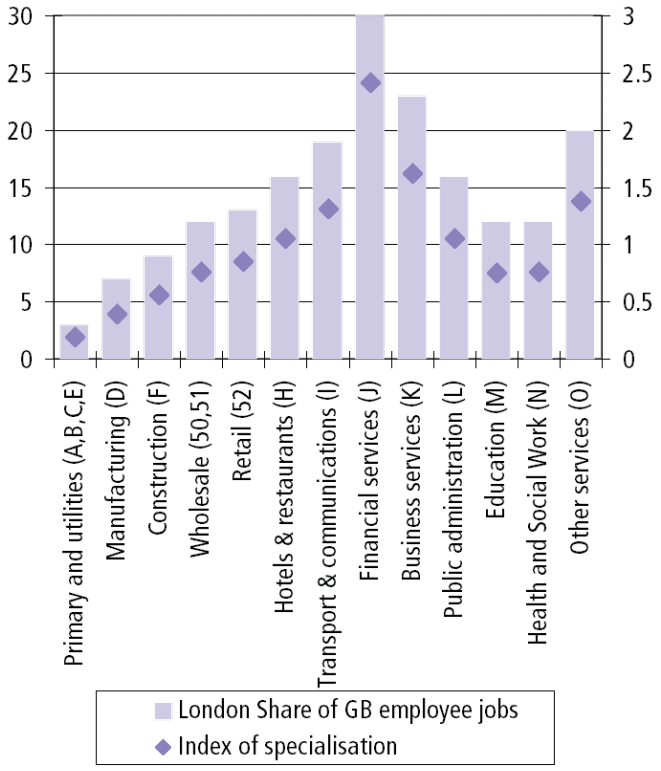
The latest data point shows that at the end of September 2007, there were 4.69 million jobs in London. Of these 2.56 million were filled by males and 2.13 million were filled by females. London's share of total UK workplace employment at the end of September 2007 was 14.9 per cent.

Figure 4.4 compares the employment structure of London with that of the rest of Great Britain (GB). It shows that 15 per cent of all GB employee jobs are located in London but that this proportion rises for a number of sectors in which London has a specialisation. Thus, 30 per cent of GB employment in financial services is to be found in London, 23 per cent of GB employment in business services is to be found in London and 20 per cent of GB employment in 'other services' is to be found in London. In addition to specialising in most aspects of

Figure 4.4

London share of GB employee jobs and index of specialisation[1], by sector[2,3], 2006

Percentages and Index



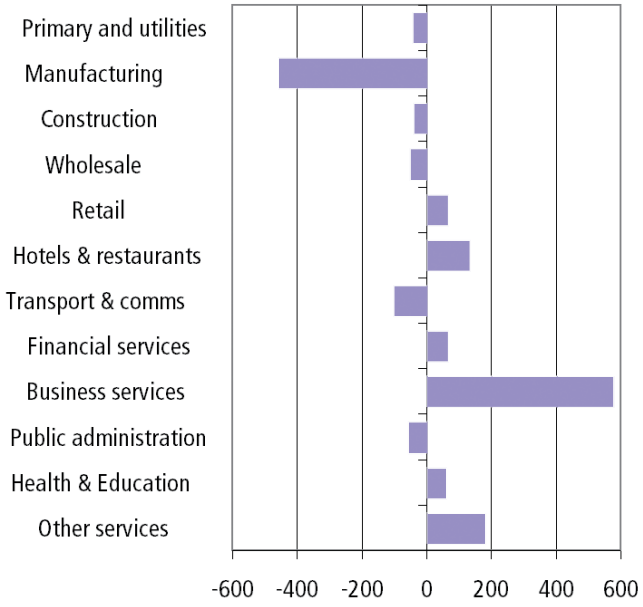
1 Index of Specialisation = (London employment in sector / London total employment) / (Rest of GB employment in sector / Rest of GB total employment)
2 The SIC definitions are in brackets
3 The overall share of GB employee jobs in London is 15 per cent. The average Index of specialisation is 1.
4 Data for this chart is included in Table 4.13

Source: GLA using ABI data

Figure 4.5

Change in workforce jobs in London by sector 1981-2004

Thousands of workplace jobs



Source: Experian Business Strategies

financial and business services, London also specialises in the media and publishing sectors within the UK economy.

Regional data on workforce jobs split by industrial sector are not published by the ONS. However, the GLA has its own long-term workforce job time-series, supplied by Experian Business Strategies. Figure 4.5 uses this data to show the changes in workforce jobs in London over the period 1981-2004.

Over the period 1981 to 2004 the number of workforce jobs in London increased by over 300,000. However, over this period the London economy has seen a major shift away from employment in manufacturing and towards employment in services. The number of jobs in manufacturing fell by 458,000 over the 1981-2004 period. However, this was compensated for by a net increase of 573,000 business services jobs, 177,000 other services jobs, 128,000 hotel and restaurant jobs and 61,000 financial services jobs.

Latest data on employment by sector is given in Table 4.13. This is ONS data from the Annual Business Inquiry

Table 4.6

Private sector London employment, by size of firm, 2006

Percentages

	Employees in large enterprises[1]	of which ultra large[2]	Employees in medium enterprises[3]	Employees in small enterprises[4]	Total employees
Primary and Utilities	59.1	36.9	11.5	29.4	100.0
Manufacturing	40.2	16.8	19.8	40.0	100.0
Construction	31.6	12.3	15.0	53.5	100.0
Wholesale	32.5	12.4	17.2	50.3	100.0
Retail	68.4	58.0	4.9	26.7	100.0
Hotels and Restaurants	51.9	34.1	14.1	34.1	100.0
Transport and Communications	72.5	53.6	10.4	17.1	100.0
Financial Services	76.4	52.0	11.4	12.3	100.0
Business Services	44.6	20.5	15.7	39.7	100.0
Education and Public Admin	36.0	4.9	19.4	44.5	100.0
Health and Social Work	32.0	20.9	15.0	52.9	100.0
Other Services	40.4	22.8	12.3	47.3	100.0
Total	51.0	30.7	13.6	35.5	100.0

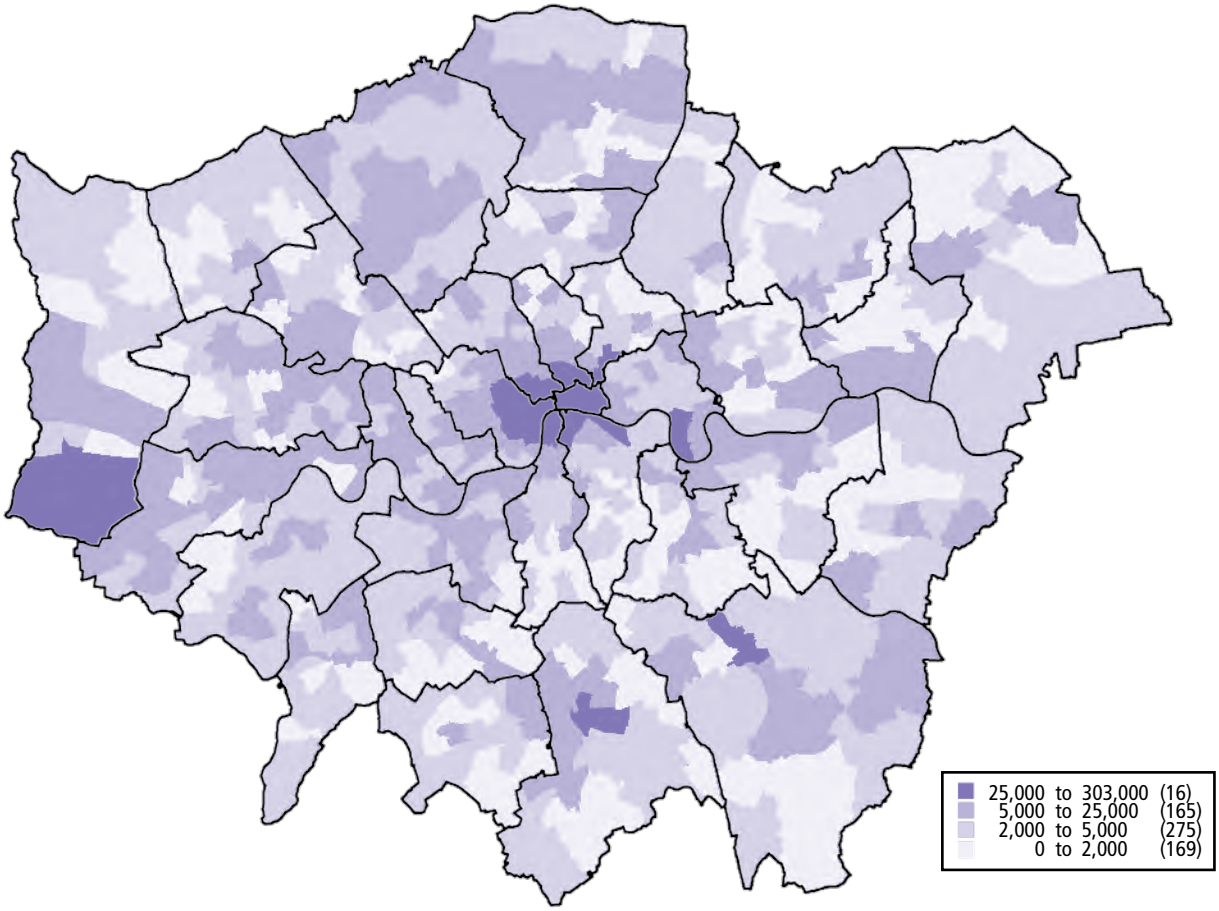
1 Large enterprises are defined as those employing >250 people in the UK
2 Ultra Large enterprises are a subset of Large enterprises and are defined as those employing >2,500 people in the UK
3 Medium enterprises are defined as those employing 50-249 people in the UK
4 Small enterprise are defined as those employing 0-49 people in the UK

Source: Inter-Departmental Business Register, Office for National Statistics Table prepared by LDA / GLA

Map 4.7

Number of employees per ward[1,2]

Numbers



1 Data for wards except the City of London, which is the whole authority

2 There are significant discontinuities which affect comparisons of the 2006 ABI/1 employment estimates with earlier years.

Source: ABI 2006

(ABI) and measures employee jobs only (i.e. excludes the self-employed). The data show that business services are the largest employment sector in London, responsible for over 25 per cent of all employee jobs.

Table 4.14 provides greater detail on London's employment in the business services sector. It shows that employment within this sector is spread across a range of activities including legal activities, accounting, management consultancy, advertising, security and industrial cleaning.

There are 3.1 million private sector employees in London, which make up over three-quarters of the total number of jobs in London. Table 4.6 shows how private sector employment in London is split by firm size. The data shows that 51 per cent of private sector employment in London is within large firms, which are defined as those who employ greater than 250 people in the UK. This means that 49 per cent of private sector employment in London occurs within small and medium sized enterprises (SME's).

In addition to providing a split between large firms and SME's, the table also introduces the category of Ultra Large firms, which have been defined as those that employ more than 2,500 people within the UK. For some sectors these Ultra Large firms are responsible for over half of London's private sector employment and that across the economy overall they are responsible for 31 per cent of London's private sector employment.

Employment in London is highly concentrated in a few key areas (Map 4.7). Thus, Central London has a

high number of employee jobs being home to many of London's financial and business services jobs. Other areas of London with a high number of employee jobs include Heathrow Airport to the west, and the Croydon area to the south. In general, there are currently more jobs in the west of London than in the east of London. Around 39 per cent of jobs are in boroughs in West London compared with 22 per cent in East London.

Business start-ups and closures

Data on VAT registrations and VAT de-registrations amongst businesses is used to assess start-ups and closures of businesses across different regions. Table 4.8 provides this data for London and also for the United Kingdom overall. The table clearly shows that relative to the United Kingdom overall, London has both a high start-up rate and a high closure rate amongst businesses and that this has been the case throughout the past decade.

The net impact of London having both a high start-up rate and a high closure rate for businesses can be seen in measuring the net-change in the number of VAT-registered businesses in the region. This data shows that the number of VAT-registered businesses in London increased each year from 1995 to 2006 with a total net-increase of 78,260 businesses over this period. Furthermore, for the majority of years during this period, the net start-up rate of businesses in London has exceeded the net start-up rate in the UK. For example, in 2006, the net start-up rate in London was 2.4 per cent compared to 2.0 per cent in the UK.

Table 4.8

Business start-up and closure rates

Percentages and numbers

	Start up rate[1]	Closure rate[2]	Net-change in number of VAT registered businesses	Net start-up rate[3]
London				
1995	13.3	11.5	4,155	1.8
1996	13.7	11.2	5,990	2.5
1997	14.9	10.5	10,495	4.4
1998	15.0	10.7	10,700	4.3
1999	13.8	10.5	8,595	3.3
2000	13.4	10.9	6,720	2.5
2001	12.0	10.7	3,640	1.3
2002	11.7	11.1	1,695	0.6
2003	12.6	10.4	6,190	2.2
2004	12.2	10.3	5,685	2.0
2005	11.8	9.4	7,145	2.4
2006	11.5	9.1	7,250	2.4
United Kingdom				
1995	10.0	9.9	1,200	0.1
1996	10.3	9.3	16,470	1.0
1997	11.2	8.8	38,440	2.4
1998	10.9	8.6	38,800	2.3
1999	10.3	8.6	30,100	1.8
2000	10.3	8.7	27,660	1.6
2001	9.6	8.5	19,485	1.1
2002	9.9	8.7	22,135	1.2
2003	10.6	8.5	36,915	2.0
2004	10.0	8.2	32,470	1.8
2005	9.7	7.6	38,200	2.0
2006	9.5	7.5	39,135	2.0

1 New VAT registrations as a share of total number of businesses at year-start
2 VAT de-registrations as a share of total number of businesses at year-start
3 VAT registrations minus de-registrations as a share of total number of businesses at year-start

Data: Department for Business, Enterprise and Regulatory Reform (BERR)

Table 4.9

Workplace-based gross value added[1] (GVA) at current basic prices

£ million and Percentage of UK

	1996	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005[2]	2006[2]
£ million							
United Kingdom[3]	685,589	889,063	937,323	993,507	1,051,934	1,096,629	1,154,959
North East	24,482	29,609	31,054	32,934	35,058	36,763	38,788
North West	70,713	88,435	92,639	97,707	103,035	106,501	111,252
Yorkshire and The Humber	51,319	64,192	67,802	71,813	75,823	78,513	82,116
East Midlands	44,747	56,477	59,734	63,744	67,755	70,569	74,113
West Midlands	56,406	70,973	74,109	77,828	81,791	84,758	88,997
East	57,903	75,536	79,865	85,360	90,895	94,463	98,967
London	118,080	162,626	174,118	185,427	196,855	206,324	217,549
South East	93,219	129,085	135,998	144,300	152,788	159,062	167,356
South West	51,366	67,771	71,809	76,605	81,551	84,889	89,501
England	568,234	744,704	787,128	835,718	885,551	921,842	968,639
Wales	27,518	33,525	35,252	37,262	39,340	40,711	42,697
Scotland	57,932	69,994	73,689	78,066	82,538	86,321	91,024
Northern Ireland	15,496	20,150	21,164	22,466	23,933	25,017	26,429
United Kingdom less extra-regio[4] and statistical discrepancy	669,179	868,373	917,233	973,512	1,031,362	1,073,891	1,128,790
Extra-regio	16,411	20,690	20,090	19,995	20,572	23,657	26,722
Statistical discrepancy	-	-	-	-	-	-916	-551
As a percentage of United Kingdom[5]							
United Kingdom	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
North East	3.6	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.4
North West	10.3	9.9	9.9	9.8	9.8	9.7	9.6
Yorkshire and The Humber	7.5	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.1
East Midlands	6.5	6.4	6.4	6.4	6.4	6.4	6.4
West Midlands	8.2	8.0	7.9	7.8	7.8	7.7	7.7
East	8.4	8.5	8.5	8.6	8.6	8.6	8.6
London	17.2	18.3	18.6	18.7	18.7	18.8	18.8
South East	13.6	14.5	14.5	14.5	14.5	14.5	14.5
South West	7.5	7.6	7.7	7.7	7.8	7.7	7.7
England	82.9	83.8	84.0	84.1	84.2	84.1	83.9
Wales	4.0	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.7	3.7	3.7
Scotland	8.4	7.9	7.9	7.9	7.8	7.9	7.9
Northern Ireland	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.3

1 Estimates of workplace based GVA allocate incomes to the region in which commuters work. The data are consistent with the headline workplace based series published in December 2007 by ONS. The data in this table are comparable with those in Table 12.6 in National Statistics Regional Trends 39. Data on a residence basis are available on the ONS website.
2 Provisional.
3 Components may not sum to totals as a result of rounding.
4 The GVA for extra-regio comprises compensation of employees and gross operating surplus which cannot be assigned to regions.
5 UK less extra-regio and statistical discrepancy.

Source: Office for National Statistics

Table 4.10

Workplace-based gross value added[1] (GVA) per head: indices at current basic prices

Indices of £ per head

	1991	1996	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005[2]	2006[2]
United Kingdom[3]	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
North East	85	83	79	79	79	79	79	80	81	81
North West	91	90	89	89	89	88	88	88	87	87
Yorkshire and The Humber	91	90	88	88	88	88	87	87	86	86
East Midlands	95	95	92	91	92	92	92	92	91	91
West Midlands	92	93	92	92	91	91	90	89	89	89
East	96	96	95	95	95	95	95	96	95	95
London	149	147	153	153	151	153	154	155	155	155
South East	101	104	108	109	110	109	109	109	109	109
South West	93	93	93	93	93	93	94	94	94	94
England	102	102	102	102	103	103	103	103	102	102
Wales	84	83	79	78	78	78	78	77	77	77
Scotland	99	99	95	95	94	94	94	94	95	95
Northern Ireland	77	81	81	81	81	81	81	81	81	81

1 Estimates of regional GVA in this table are on a workplace basis, where the income of commuters is allocated to the region in which they work, rather than their place of residence.
2 Provisional.
3 UK=100

Source: Office for National Statistics

Table 4.11

Regional output per hour worked

Indices of £ per hour

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
North East	99	96	95	96	96	98	96	94	95	95	93
North West and Merseyside	94	96	95	96	94	94	94	92	92	91	91
Yorkshire and The Humber	95	95	94	94	94	95	94	92	91	90	91
East Midlands	100	97	96	95	94	97	98	99	100	95	97
West Midlands	92	93	91	93	94	94	94	93	92	91	91
East	99	100	100	98	98	97	98	100	100	101	99
London	120	121	120	117	119	117	119	120	122	122	123
South East	102	101	103	105	106	105	105	107	106	107	108
South West	92	93	94	95	96	96	96	97	95	96	97
Wales	95	94	92	93	92	91	92	89	90	88	87
Scotland	101	99	99	98	96	95	96	95	96	96	96
Northern Ireland	87	88	88	87	87	88	85	83	82	82	84
England	101	101	101	101	101	101	101	102	102	102	102

1 UK=100

Source: Office for National Statistics

Table 4.12

Gross value added[1] by industry groups at current basic prices[2]

£ million

	1994	1999	2001	2003	2004[3]
London					
Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing	50	44	54	50	63
Mining, quarrying of energy producing materials	346	206	170	124	128
Other mining and quarrying	30	40	44	51	62
Manufacturing	11,925	14,716	14,206	12,941	12,976
Electricity, gas and water supply	1,686	1,477	1,558	1,340	1,323
Construction	3,949	5,682	6,774	7,815	8,402
Wholesale and retail trade (including motor trade)	12,159	16,376	17,832	18,900	19,916
Hotels and restaurants	2,879	4,977	5,551	6,207	6,828
Transport, storage and communication	12,292	17,492	18,131	18,354	18,755
Financial intermediation	17,664	18,155	18,906	33,265	37,006
Real estate, renting and business activities	27,305	48,306	57,230	63,141	67,033
Public administration and defence[5]	7,109	7,334	8,222	9,602	10,336
Education	4,735	6,451	7,369	8,556	9,249
Health and social work	5,622	7,459	8,582	10,191	10,884
Other services	7,088	11,257	12,355	14,214	15,456
Adjustment for financial services (FISIM[6])	-9,925	-13,355	-15,785	-21,295	-23,328
Total	104,912	146,616	161,197	183,455	195,087
United Kingdom[4]					
Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing	11,155	9,270	8,566	10,032	10,323
Mining, quarrying of energy producing materials	2,594	2,062	1,869	1,422	1,341
Other mining and quarrying	1,247	1,716	1,761	1,524	1,646
Manufacturing	129,937	151,951	149,852	144,830	147,468
Electricity, gas and water supply	15,958	15,784	15,826	16,482	17,103
Construction	31,397	42,511	50,903	59,855	64,747
Wholesale and retail trade (including motor trade)	71,471	99,981	110,659	120,605	127,520
Hotels and restaurants	14,793	24,476	27,384	30,509	33,074
Transport, storage and communication	49,011	65,073	70,502	76,485	79,279
Financial intermediation	44,638	46,230	46,957	77,851	86,144
Real estate, renting and business activities	111,343	180,394	211,609	240,765	258,370
Public administration and defence[5]	37,610	39,984	44,017	50,181	54,092
Education	34,245	44,879	51,617	58,247	61,786
Health and social work	38,589	51,688	59,622	70,630	75,817
Other services	25,690	39,880	44,628	51,802	55,543
Adjustment for financial services (FISIM[6])	-23,119	-29,468	-33,648	-45,370	-50,165
Total	596,559	786,411	862,123	965,850	1,024,088

1 Estimates of regional GVA in this table are on a workplace basis, where the income of commuters is allocated to the region in which they work, rather than their place of residence.
2 The data in this table are not consistent with Table 4.9, which is based on more up to date data. Users requiring regional GVA totals should use those in Table 4.9.
3 Provisional.
4 Excludes GVA from extra-regio, which cannot be allocated to any particular region.
5 Public administration, national defence and compulsory social security.
6 Financial intermediation services indirectly measured.

Source: Office for National Statistics

Table 4.13

Employee jobs in London, by industrial sector[1]

Numbers

Industry	Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing	Mining and quarrying	Manu-facturing	Electricity, gas and water supply	Construction	Wholesale[3,4]	Retail[5]	Hotels and restaurants
SIC Section/ Division	A, B	C	D	E	F	50,51	52	H
1998	3,600	5,000	286,900	7,900	134,000	238,300	350,700	245,100
1999	3,100	3,800	296,100	8,100	132,900	248,200	382,500	272,700
2000	4,600	4,200	282,300	9,700	134,200	245,000	378,000	264,800
2001	4,200	2,500	260,500	8,600	137,100	230,800	387,400	274,600
2002	2,600	2,400	236,100	7,500	134,600	224,400	381,300	289,300
2003	2,500	2,200	223,500	6,800	126,300	217,500	373,400	299,000
2004	2,500	3,500	216,200	5,800	117,400	213,900	377,100	289,200
2005	2,500	3,300	204,100	4,600	123,200	206,200	379,400	299,800
2006[2]	2,500	4,100	190,800	6,400	117,200	199,000	368,700	285,000

Industry	Transport, storage and communication	Financial intermediation	Real estate, renting and business activities	Public administration and defence; compulsory social security	Education	Health and social work	Other community, social and personal service activities	Total
SIC Section/Division	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	
1998	303,100	313,600	871,400	219,100	238,000	308,700	238,800	3,764,100
1999	308,400	340,400	910,500	229,900	251,800	307,900	261,000	3,957,000
2000	317,900	342,600	1,017,700	218,200	254,200	326,200	261,100	4,060,700
2001	322,300	341,200	981,900	201,900	256,600	322,800	284,200	4,016,500
2002	305,600	333,500	923,600	205,400	274,400	337,600	273,800	3,932,100
2003	304,900	322,700	920,200	233,800	283,500	350,800	261,500	3,928,500
2004	310,700	308,400	952,100	229,800	296,100	370,300	276,300	3,969,300
2005	316,200	308,300	1,016,400	240,800	298,500	390,700	267,100	4,061,200
2006[2]	297,000	310,700	1,030,000	232,600	287,700	388,100	276,800	3,996,600

1 Data rounded to nearest 100.
2 There are significant discontinuities which affect comparisons of the 2006 ABI/1 employment estimates with earlier years
3 SIC 50 : Sale, maintenance and repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles; retail sale of automotive fuel
4 SIC 51 : Wholesale trade and commission trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles
5 SIC 52 : Retail trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles; repair of personal and household goods

Source: ABI 2006

Table 4.14

Employee jobs in London in the Business Services industry[1,2], by sector

Numbers

Industry	Real estate activities	Computer and related activities	Legal activities	Accounting, book-keeping and auditing activities; tax consultancy	Business and management consultancy activities	Architectural and engineering activities and related technical consultancy
SIC Division/Group/Class	70	72	7411	7412	7414	7420
1998	77,700	90,500	76,600	52,600	52,600	56,200
1999	86,000	99,800	79,300	64,500	57,400	55,300
2000	97,100	124,400	85,600	70,600	65,900	59,100
2001	91,800	119,800	85,600	63,600	66,600	59,100
2002	92,000	103,700	83,800	55,100	67,200	59,800
2003	94,800	97,300	82,400	56,600	69,000	55,000
2004	99,300	96,000	83,500	56,600	71,600	55,600
2005	109,000	105,200	83,500	61,300	83,500	55,600
2006[3]	92,800	104,500	89,400	62,300	87,400	58,600

Industry	Advertising	Labour recruitment and provision of personnel	Investigation and security activities	Industrial cleaning	Other business services not elsewhere in table	Total
SIC Division/Group/Class	7440	7450	7460	7470	-	70 - 74
1998	35,800	142,800	31,200	88,000	167,400	871,400
1999	34,400	152,000	34,100	87,800	159,900	910,500
2000	38,200	180,300	33,300	92,600	170,600	1,017,700
2001	37,200	167,400	39,100	86,300	165,400	981,900
2002	32,800	150,500	38,800	84,800	155,100	923,600
2003	29,800	147,400	40,100	81,800	166,000	920,200
2004	30,200	162,400	38,100	90,300	168,500	952,100
2005	30,300	162,200	38,600	96,900	190,300	1,016,400
2006[3]	33,300	162,500	41,000	101,800	196,400	1,030,000

1 Data rounded to nearest 100.
2 Business Services refers to Section K of the SIC : "Real estate, renting and business activities".
3 There are significant discontinuities which affect comparisons of the 2006 ABI/1 employment estimates with earlier years

Source: ABI 2006

Table 4.15

London share of GB employee jobs and index of specialisation, by sector, 2006

Percentages and Index

	SIC Definition	London share of GB employee jobs	Index of special-isation[1]
Primary and utilities	A,B,C,E	3	0.20
Manufacturing	D	7	0.40
Construction	F	9	0.57
Wholesale	50,51	12	0.77
Retail	52	13	0.86
Hotels & restaurants	H	16	1.06
Transport & communications	I	19	1.32
Financial services	J	30	2.42
Business services	K	23	1.63
Public administration	L	16	1.06
Education	M	12	0.76
Health and Social Work	N	12	0.77
Other services	O	20	1.39
Total		15	1.00

1 Index of Specialisation = (London employment in sector / London total employment) / (Rest of GB employment in sector / Rest of GB total employment)

Source: ABI 2006

Chapter 5

Income and Lifestyles

- Households in London have the highest mean gross weekly income at £766, nearly £80 per week more than the next highest region, the South East.
- Households in London received the lowest proportion of their income (9 per cent) from social security benefits compared to other regions.
- Gross Disposable Household Income (GDHI) per head in London was around £17,000, the highest of any region, and compares with around £14,000 for the UK as a whole.
- 25 per cent of London households had a mean gross weekly income of £1,000 or more, which was the highest proportion of any region.
- Median gross weekly earnings (as opposed to income) for full-time employees were highest in London at £581 - 27 per cent higher than the national median.
- Males in the Financial Intermediation industry on average earn more then £1,000 per week – 42 per cent higher then females in the same industry.
- The cost of housing has the greatest impact in London; the region has the highest percentage in Great Britain of individuals (26 per cent) with an income ranked in the bottom fifth of the distribution after taking account of housing costs.
- London males had an average income nearly 37 per cent greater than their female counterparts.
- London has the lowest percentage of households claiming a non-income related benefit and the lowest claiming tax credits.
- Households in London spent by the far the most on fuel and housing (not including mortgage interest payments and council tax) at £60.90 per week –nearly £20 per week more than the UK as a whole.
- The proportion of households with access to the Internet in London is 58 per cent, the highest in the UK.

Introduction

Analysis of household income data for London reveals more inequality than any other region in the country. Large differences occur between the sexes, between Inner and Outer London and when taking into account housing costs.

As well as having some of the wealthiest areas in the country and the highest individual earnings in the country there are also pockets of extreme poverty and very low income amongst certain household types such lone parents. After housing costs, Inner London has a far higher incidence of income poverty for children, working age adults and pensioners than any region or country in Great Britain.

Income inequality is generally higher after housing costs are taken into account in all regions, but in London, which has the highest housing costs in the country, the difference between before and after housing costs measures of income, tends to be much greater than in other areas. This difference is even more marked in Inner London.

This chapter deals with income levels and the components of income including wages, savings, tax and benefits. It also looks at expenditure and the regional differences in spending patterns. The issue of income inequality and poverty is examined in greater detail in Chapter 6.

Household income

The average gross weekly household income in London was £766 during the period 2003 to 2006 - £170 more then the average for the UK, which was considerably lower with £596. The main source of household income

Table 5.1

Household income: by source, 2003/04 - 2005/06[1]

Percentages and £

	Percentage of average gross weekly household income						Average gross weekly household income[3] (=100%) (£)
	Wages and salaries	Self-employment	Investments	Annuities and pensions[2]	Social security benefits[3]	Other income	
United Kingdom	68	8	3	7	13	1	596
North East	65	5	1	8	20	2	455
North West	68	7	2	8	15	1	539
Yorkshire and The Humber	68	7	2	7	15	1	529
East Midlands	70	6	3	7	13	1	564
West Midlands	67	9	2	7	13	1	563
East	68	10	3	7	11	1	652
London	72	10	4	4	9	1	766
South East	67	10	4	8	10	1	687
South West	64	8	4	10	13	1	568
England	68	9	3	7	12	1	610
Wales	65	7	2	7	17	1	492
Scotland	68	6	2	8	15	1	544
Northern Ireland	63	10	2	6	19	1	498

1 Combined data from the 2003/04, 2004/05 and 2005/06 Expenditure and Food Surveys. See Notes and Definitions.
2 Other than social security benefits.
3 Excluding Housing Benefit and Council Tax Benefit (rates rebate in Northern Ireland).

Source: Expenditure and Food Survey, Office for National Statistics

Table 5.2

Households by total weekly household income, 2005/06

Percentage of households

	Less than £100	£100-£199	£200-£299	£300-£399	£400-£499	£500-£599	£600-£699	£700-£799	£800-£899	£900-£999	£1,000 or more
United Kingdom	3	13	16	12	10	9	7	6	5	4	15
North East	3	15	20	13	12	8	6	5	4	4	10
North West	3	15	18	15	10	9	7	6	4	3	12
Yorkshire and The Humber	2	13	16	14	10	9	8	7	6	4	11
East Midlands	2	15	17	12	11	9	7	7	5	3	12
West Midlands	3	14	18	13	11	10	7	6	4	3	12
East	2	10	14	12	9	10	9	7	6	4	17
London	3	10	14	9	9	8	5	6	5	5	25
Inner London	4	12	14	9	10	8	5	5	5	6	24
Outer London	3	9	14	9	9	8	6	7	6	4	26
South East	2	10	13	11	9	8	8	6	6	4	22
South West	3	11	16	13	11	10	9	6	5	4	13
England	3	12	16	12	10	9	7	6	5	4	16
Wales	2	17	17	13	12	9	6	6	4	3	12
Scotland	3	16	17	13	10	9	7	6	5	4	13
Northern Ireland	3	14	18	13	9	10	7	6	4	4	12

Source: Family Resources Survey, DWP

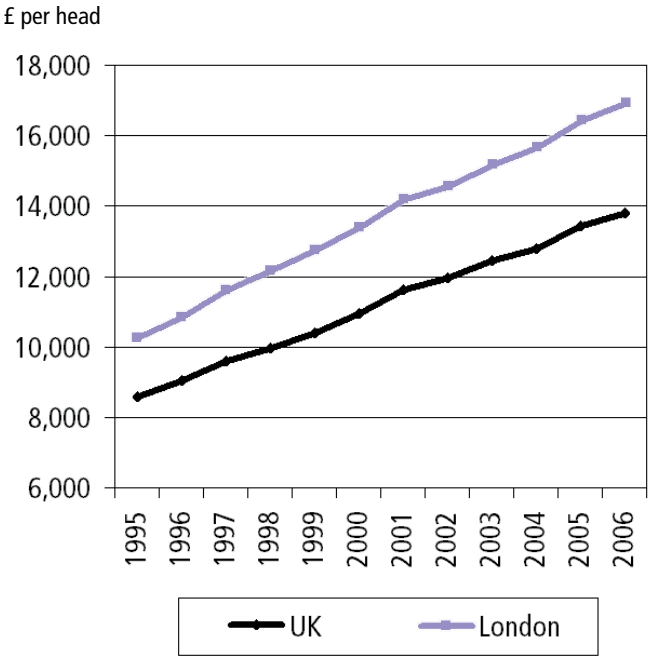
was wages and salaries, which accounted for 72 per cent of the total in London. In the UK, households earned 68 per cent of their average gross weekly income from wages and salaries compared with Northern Ireland, where the proportion was lowest at 63 per cent.

Households in London have the highest average gross weekly income, nearly £80 per week more than the next highest region, the South East. Households in the North East had the lowest income of £455 per week, just under three-fifths (59 per cent) of the London figure. The South of England including London had the highest proportion of income from investments (4 per cent), while the South West had the highest from annuities and pensions with a 10 per cent. In contrast, households in London had the lowest income from annuities (see definitions) and pensions at 4 per cent and also received the lowest proportion of their income (9 per cent) from social security benefits in 2003 to 2006 (Table 5.1).

The North East had the highest percentage, at 63 per cent, of households with a weekly income of less than

Figure 5.3

Headline GDHI per head at current prices 1995 to 2006



Source: Office for National Statistics

£500 compared to 45 per cent in London, 9 percentage points lower then the UK.

In London, 25 per cent of households had an average gross weekly income of £1,000 or more, which was the highest proportion of any region and 3 percentage points above the next highest, the South East. 16 per cent of households in Inner London have an income below £200 – the same as the UK. This illustrates how polarised London is at both ends of the income scale (Table 5.2).

Gross disposable household income (GDHI)

Total GDHI in the UK was almost £800 billion in 2006 and London accounted for 15 per cent of that amount, about the same as the South East region. The gulf between the richest and poorest parts of the UK but also within London is underlined by these statistics. GDHI per head in London was around £17,000, the highest of any region. The GDHI per head in London was 43 per cent more than that in the North East. Annual growth in London since 1995 is 5.4 per cent, slightly higher than the UK average of 5.1 per cent (Figure 5.3).

The average household in West London is generating more than double the "spending cash" of their counterparts in other parts of London and other UK regions. The average resident of West Inner London had disposable income of £25,700 in 2006 - much higher than all other regions (Table 5.4).

Table 5.4

Headline[1] GDHI[2] per head by NUTS 3 area at current prices 2000 to 2006

£ per head

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005[3]	2006[3]
UK	10,926	11,610	11,952	12,432	12,794	13,413	13,802
England	11,122	11,818	12,150	12,627	12,986	13,605	13,994
North East	9,277	9,810	10,139	10,565	10,922	11,462	11,846
North West	9,982	10,567	10,885	11,310	11,657	12,245	12,655
Yorkshire and The Humber	9,969	10,529	10,814	11,262	11,604	12,151	12,504
East Midlands	9,985	10,653	11,022	11,516	11,914	12,527	12,853
West Midlands	9,960	10,549	10,855	11,292	11,628	12,180	12,546
East	11,681	12,500	12,877	13,333	13,642	14,237	14,584
London	13,391	14,190	14,556	15,173	15,667	16,440	16,939
Inner London	14,811	15,664	16,017	16,717	17,314	18,200	18,808
Inner London - West	21,217	22,232	22,384	23,139	23,820	24,941	25,745
Inner London - East	11,336	12,042	12,470	13,093	13,598	14,281	14,760
Outer London	12,493	13,246	13,614	14,175	14,599	15,292	15,715
Outer London - East and North East	11,356	12,040	12,385	12,809	13,116	13,646	13,985
Outer London - South	12,989	13,765	14,155	14,792	15,294	16,068	16,510
Outer London - West and North West	13,189	13,988	14,366	15,006	15,481	16,264	16,749
South East	12,508	13,320	13,613	14,082	14,362	14,987	15,367
South West	10,812	11,511	11,861	12,331	12,695	13,309	13,673
Wales	9,442	10,070	10,512	10,924	11,318	11,943	12,312
Scotland	10,185	10,804	11,176	11,686	12,061	12,674	13,071
Northern Ireland	9,275	9,827	10,165	10,701	11,091	11,697	12,041
UK less Extra Regio[4]	10,906	11,588	11,930	12,409	12,771	13,390	13,778

1 The headline regional GDHI series have been calculated using a five point moving average.
2 Household income covers the income received by households and non-profit making institutions serving households.
3 Provisional.
4 Parts of UK economic territory that cannot be assigned to any particular region.

Source: Office for National Statistics

The total represents the cash left after that household has paid their mortgage interest payments, taxes, including council tax, rent, insurance and pension contributions. The figures, which show how much cash households have to pay their bills, buy food and spend in the shops.

Income distribution and savings

London had the highest percentage of individuals with a net income ranked in the top fifth before and after housing costs, although there was a reduction of 3 percentage points of individuals in the top fifth after taking account of housing costs.

The cost of housing has the greatest impact in London; the region has the highest percentage in Great Britain of individuals (26 per cent) with an income ranked in the bottom fifth of the distribution after taking account of housing costs. The effect of housing costs has increased the proportion of individuals with a net income in the bottom fifth of the rankings by 6 percentage points (Table 5.5).

The polarisation is even more extreme in Inner London with 24 per cent in the bottom fifth and 31 per cent in the top fifth before housing costs are taken into account. After housing costs are taken into account a third of Inner London's households have an income in the bottom fifth - a rise by 8 percentage points from the before housing costs figure.

Only 86 per cent of households in Inner London have a current account – only the East Midlands and Northern Ireland have fewer current account holders. Only the North East and Northern Ireland have fewer ISA account

Table 5.5

Income[1] distribution of individuals: by region[2], 2003/04 - 2005/06

Percentages

	Quintile groups of individuals ranked by net equivalised[3] household income									
	Before housing costs					After housing costs[4]				
	Bottom fifth	Next fifth	Middle fifth	Next fifth	Top fifth	Bottom fifth	Next fifth	Middle fifth	Next fifth	Top fifth
United Kingdom[2]	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20
North East	23	25	21	19	12	21	24	22	19	13
North West	22	22	21	19	16	21	21	21	20	17
Yorkshire and The Humber	22	23	21	19	14	20	23	22	19	15
East Midlands	21	21	20	20	16	20	20	21	21	17
West Midlands	24	22	20	18	15	22	23	20	20	15
East	16	19	21	21	24	17	19	20	21	23
London	20	15	15	18	31	26	15	14	17	28
of which										
Inner London	24	16	14	15	31	32	15	12	14	27
Outer London	18	15	16	19	31	23	14	15	18	29
South East	14	16	18	22	29	16	17	18	21	27
South West	17	21	22	22	18	18	21	21	21	18
Scotland	20	19	22	21	18	19	19	22	22	19
Wales	24	23	21	19	13	20	23	23	19	14
Northern Ireland	23	21	23	18	14	19	23	23	20	15

1 Total income of all members of the household after deductions of income tax and other contributions. See Notes and Definitions.
2 Estimates shown for regions are three-year averages for the years 2003/04, 2004/05, 2005/06. The estimates for the UK are shown for the year 2005/06 only and are not three-year averages.
3 See Notes and Definitions.
4 This includes rent, water rates, mortgage interest payments (net of tax relief), structural insurance premiums, ground rent and service charges.

Source: Households Below Average Income, Department for Work and Pensions

Table 5.6

Households by type of saving 2005/06

Percentage of households

	Type of Account									
	Current account	ISA	Other accounts[1]	Stocks and shares/ member of a Share Club	Other invest-ments[2]	Premium & National Saving Bonds[3]	Others[4]	Any type of account	No accounts	Direct Payment Account
United Kingdom	90	34	67	20	16	25	6	97	3	96
North East	89	26	57	13	10	18	4	96	4	96
North West	91	32	60	18	13	21	5	98	2	98
Yorkshire and The Humber	89	36	71	18	14	23	5	96	4	96
East Midlands	81	33	62	18	12	25	5	87	13	86
West Midlands	89	32	64	17	12	23	4	96	4	96
East	94	39	73	25	18	33	6	99	1	98
London	90	31	64	22	14	24	7	97	3	97
Inner London	86	27	63	19	13	19	6	96	4	96
Outer London	93	33	66	24	15	28	7	97	3	97
South East	95	42	78	29	19	36	8	99	1	99
South West	95	40	71	23	18	31	6	99	1	98
England	91	35	67	21	16	26	7	97	3	96
Wales	91	31	63	14	12	21	4	97	3	97
Scotland	88	32	60	16	13	18	6	97	3	97
Northern Ireland	83	19	52	10	5	9	12	94	6	93

1 Includes NSI savings accounts, Post Office card accounts and other bank or building society accounts.
2 Includes PEPs, unit trusts, gilts and endowment polices that are not linked.
3 The majority of this is made up of Premium Bonds. National Savings Bonds and Guaranteed Equity Bonds make up the rest.
4 Company Share Schemes, Save As You Earn and Credit Unions

Source: Family Resources Survey, Department for Works and Pensions

holders than Inner London – 27 per cent have ISA accounts compared to the highest, which is in the South East with 42 per cent.

The proportion of households in the South East with stocks and shares was also the highest with 29 per cent: 10 percentage points higher than Inner London. Only 3 per cent of London households had no account whatsoever (Table 5.6).

Income and tax

In 2004/05, 17 per cent of taxpayers were in the £10,000 to under £15,000 income range in London – this compares to one-fifth in this range for the UK as a whole. There were a total of 30.3 million individuals in the UK who had an income above the personal allowance threshold of £4,745 and were therefore liable to pay income tax.

London had the highest percentage of individuals (47 per cent) with an income liable to tax assessment of £20,000 or over, compared to the country as a whole with 39 per cent and only 33 per cent in the North East and Wales. Nearly 10 per cent of taxpayers in London had an annual income of over £50,000 (Table 5.7).

The average total income for males, who are liable to pay tax, in London was £35,911 in 2004/05, compared with £22,690 for females – in the UK the average incomes were £26,941 and £17,444 respectively. This gender gap shows that London males had an average income nearly 37 per cent greater than their female counterparts. The

Table 5.7

Distribution of income liable to tax, 2004/05

Percentages and thousands

	Percentage of taxpayers in each annual income range							Total liable to tax (000's)
	4,745 to 5,999	6,000 to 9,999	10,000 to 14,999	15,000 to 19,999	20,000 to 29,999	30,000 to 49,999	50.000 +	
United Kingdom	4.8	18.9	21.2	16.3	19.8	13.5	5.5	30,280
North East	4.9	21.2	24.1	17.0	18.5	11.5	2.8	1,260
North West	5.0	19.9	23.1	16.8	19.2	11.9	4.0	3,314
Yorkshire and The Humber	5.1	20.3	22.7	16.7	19.7	11.7	3.8	2,428
East Midlands	4.8	19.7	22.3	17.1	19.7	12.2	4.3	2,193
West Midlands	4.8	19.7	22.2	17.5	19.8	12.0	3.9	2,640
East	4.2	17.6	20.2	15.9	20.2	15.2	6.8	2,843
London	4.6	16.9	16.9	14.1	20.8	17.2	9.5	3,737
South East	4.1	16.6	18.8	15.5	20.5	16.0	8.5	4,335
South West	5.0	19.4	22.2	17.0	19.1	12.8	4.5	2,623
Wales	5.3	21.0	23.9	17.0	18.9	10.8	3.1	1,407
Scotland	4.9	19.0	22.0	17.4	19.9	12.4	4.3	2,574
Northern Ireland	5.0	19.9	23.4	17.7	20.1	10.7	3.2	745

Source: Survey of Personal Incomes, 2004-05. HM Revenue and Customs

Table 5.8

Average total income by sex, 2004/05

Thousands of £ per annum

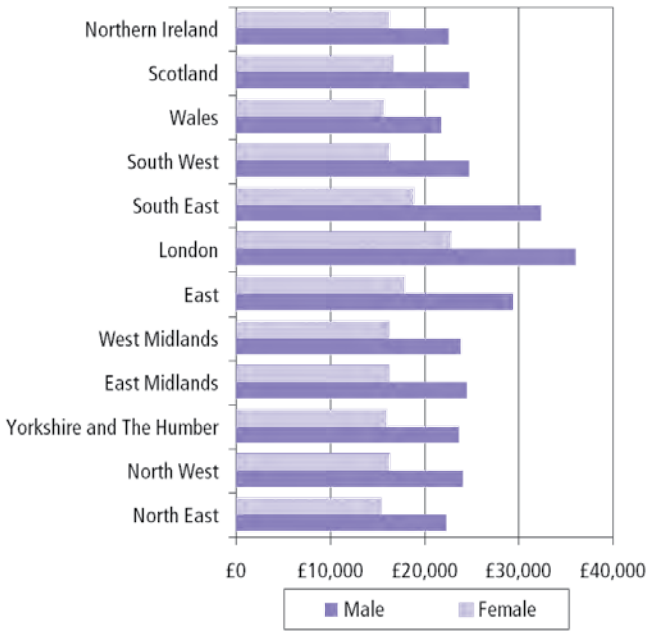
	All	Male	Female	Diff
United Kingdom	22.8	26.9	17.4	9.5
North East	19.1	22.3	15.3	7.0
North West	20.5	23.9	16.2	7.7
Yorkshire and The Humber	20.2	23.6	15.9	7.6
East Midlands	20.9	24.4	16.1	8.3
West Midlands	20.5	23.8	16.1	7.7
East	24.4	29.3	17.8	11.6
London	29.9	35.9	22.7	13.2
South East	26.3	32.3	18.8	13.5
South West	21.0	24.6	16.2	8.4
Wales	19.0	21.7	15.6	6.1
Scotland	20.9	24.6	16.5	8.1
Northern Ireland	19.7	22.5	16.2	6.2

Source: Survey of Personal Pensions, HM Revenue and Customs

Figure 5.9

Average total income by sex, 2004/05

£ per annum



Source: Survey of Personal pensions, HM Revenue and Customs

gap of over £13,000 was twice as much as between males and females in Northern Ireland.

Despite incomes less than their male counterparts, females in London had incomes on average one and a half times more than females in the North East (Table 5.8 and Figure 5.9).

Receipt of benefit

Nearly a quarter of London households are claiming an income related benefit – such as Income Support, Housing and Council Tax Benefit. This rises to 28 per cent in Inner London – which is slightly lower than the North East, which has the highest percentage of 31 per cent. London has the lowest percentage of households claiming a non-income related benefit (such as Retirement pension and Incapacity Benefit) with 57 per cent – this increases to 63 per cent in Outer London, which is a lot closer to the national average but falls to 49 per cent in Inner London.

London also has the lowest percentage of households claiming tax credits at 13 per cent – the highest is in Northern Ireland with 21 per cent. Overall, 38 per cent of households in London claimed no state support at all, rising to 45 per cent in Inner London – this compares to 30 per cent for the UK as a whole.

Figures at the regional level mask the high claimant rates for smaller areas within London – especially for boroughs in Inner London. Some boroughs have the highest claimant rates of Income Support, Housing Benefit and Pension Credit in the country. Additional analysis regarding benefit receipt can be found in Chapter X on poverty (Table 5.10).

Expenditure

Total household expenditure in London was almost 14 per cent above the UK average of £432 per week over the period 2003 to 2006 whereas the figure for the North East was the lowest of all regions at £352 (Table 5.11 and Figure 5.13).

Table 5.10

Households by state support receipt and region, 2005/06

Percentage of households

	On any income related benefit	On any non-income related benefit	All in receipt of benefit	All in receipt of Tax Credits	All not in receipt of state support
United Kingdom	23	67	69	17	30
North East	31	72	75	20	24
North West	27	69	71	18	28
Yorkshire and The Humber	24	67	69	18	30
East Midlands	21	66	68	16	32
West Midlands	25	69	72	19	28
East	20	66	68	17	32
South East	16	65	67	15	33
South West	19	69	70	17	29
London	24	57	62	13	38
Inner London	28	49	55	11	45
Outer London	21	63	66	14	34
Wales	24	73	76	17	24
Scotland	26	67	70	17	30
Northern Ireland	26	74	76	21	24

Source: Family Resources Survey, Department for Works and Pensions

Table 5.11

Household expenditure: by commodity and service, 2003/04 - 2005/06[1]

£ per week and percentages[2]

	Food and non-alcoholic drinks		Alcoholic drinks tobacco & narcotics		Clothing and footwear		Housing[3], water electricity gas & other fuels		Furnishings, household equipment and routine maintenance of the house		Health		Transport	
	(£)	(%)[2]	(£)	(%)[2]	(£)	(%)[2]	(£)	(%)[2]	(£)	(%)[2]	(£)	(%)[2]	(£)	(%)[2]
United Kingdom	44.50	10	11.30	3	23.10	5	41.20	10	30.90	7	5.20	1	60.70	14
North East	39.90	11	10.60	3	21.70	6	30.30	9	26.10	7	3.20	1	46.70	13
North West	43.10	11	12.40	3	22.40	6	35.80	9	30.40	7	4.10	1	56.70	14
Yorkshire and The Humber	40.20	10	11.60	3	22.10	5	36.80	9	30.00	7	4.60	1	58.30	14
East Midlands	44.80	11	10.70	3	21.60	5	35.20	9	30.40	7	4.10	1	63.40	15
West Midlands	42.50	10	10.30	3	21.10	5	37.00	9	29.00	7	5.20	1	56.70	14
East	48.20	10	10.40	2	24.40	5	42.90	9	35.40	7	6.20	1	68.70	15
London	46.50	9	10.50	2	27.30	5	60.90	12	30.00	6	6.10	1	62.10	12
South East	46.80	10	10.70	2	22.70	5	46.70	10	34.70	7	7.50	2	70.20	15
South West	44.90	10	10.90	3	20.90	5	40.70	9	29.60	7	5.30	1	65.90	15
England	44.50	10	10.90	2	22.90	5	42.30	10	31.10	7	5.40	1	62.20	14
Wales	43.20	12	11.10	3	22.10	6	35.90	10	30.10	8	3.60	1	50.10	13
Scotland	43.80	11	14.30	4	23.40	6	36.20	9	29.30	7	4.00	1	54.40	14
Northern Ireland	48.90	12	13.70	3	31.20	8	32.40	8	33.10	8	3.90	1	54.10	13

	Communication		Recreation & culture		Education		Restaurants & hotels		Miscellaneous goods & services		Other expenditure		Average house hold expenditure	Average expenditure per person
	(£)	(%)[2]	(£)	(%)[2]	(£)	(%)[2]	(£)	(%)[2]	(£)	(%)[2]	(£)	(%)[2]	(£)	(£)
United Kingdom	11.60	3	57.90	13	6.10	1	35.90	8	34.40	8	69.10	16	432.00	182.50
North East	9.40	3	57.90	16	2.70	1	31.40	9	26.10	7	46.20	13	352.30	151.30
North West	10.60	3	58.30	14	4.20	1	34.60	8	33.00	8	62.00	15	407.50	172.90
Yorkshire and The Humber	10.40	3	58.30	14	5.10	1	36.30	9	32.00	8	59.30	15	404.90	174.70
East Midlands	11.60	3	58.20	14	4.60	1	36.50	9	32.20	8	59.40	14	412.60	172.50
West Midlands	11.10	3	57.30	14	3.90	1	32.90	8	34.20	8	68.90	17	409.90	169.90
East	12.20	3	65.50	14	6.10	1	35.60	8	37.70	8	80.40	17	473.60	198.30
London	14.90	3	53.80	11	12.20	2	45.40	9	37.60	8	92.80	19	500.10	198.50
South East	12.00	3	61.00	13	8.70	2	36.30	8	39.90	8	84.00	17	481.00	210.80
South West	11.70	3	61.10	14	6.80	2	34.00	8	34.70	8	66.80	15	433.20	191.00
England	11.80	3	59.00	13	6.60	1	36.40	8	35.10	8	71.90	16	440.10	186.10
Wales	10.30	3	52.10	14	3.60	1	31.30	8	29.00	8	49.50	13	372.00	158.10
Scotland	10.60	3	53.70	14	3.80	1	32.60	8	30.20	8	57.70	15	393.80	169.80
Northern Ireland	12.20	3	48.20	12	3.00	1	39.20	10	35.60	9	56.20	14	411.60	155.50

1 Combined data from the 2003/04, 2004/05 and the 2005/06 Expenditure and Food Surveys. See Notes and Definitions for more detail of what is included in each category.
2 As a percentage of average weekly household expenditure
3 Excluding mortgage interest payments, council tax and Northern Ireland Rates

Source: Expenditure and Food Survey, Office for National Statistics

Table 5.12

Expenditure on household and eating out food & drink, 2003/04 - 2005/06[1]

£ per person per week

	Milk and milk products	Meat, fish and eggs[3]	Fresh and processed fruit	Bread, cakes biscuits, cereals and confectionery	Beverages and soft drinks	Alcoholic drinks	Other food and drink	Total household food and drink	Eating Out
United Kingdom[2]	2.27	6.56	1.88	4.63	1.18	2.65	1.44	23.56	11.41
North East	2.04	6.25	1.30	4.57	1.12	2.34	1.18	21.34	10.08
North West	2.16	6.49	1.51	4.43	1.17	2.91	1.39	22.76	11.02
Yorkshire and The Humber	2.05	6.10	1.46	4.47	1.13	2.56	1.23	21.62	11.56
East Midlands	2.30	6.38	1.60	4.65	1.20	2.65	1.36	22.97	11.21
West Midlands	2.03	6.19	1.48	4.33	1.18	2.37	1.30	21.61	10.00
East	2.38	6.81	1.98	4.84	1.29	2.55	1.47	24.36	10.71
London	1.95	6.27	2.03	4.21	1.18	2.34	1.49	22.48	13.54
South East	2.43	6.84	2.09	4.67	1.23	2.95	1.57	24.94	11.71
South West	2.44	6.47	1.95	4.58	1.17	2.99	1.52	24.17	11.16
Wales	2.07	6.46	1.50	4.48	1.24	2.58	1.40	22.45	10.29
Scotland	2.10	6.63	1.57	4.82	1.44	2.88	1.42	23.47	10.28
Northern Ireland	2.04	6.86	1.40	5.05	1.27	2.01	1.35	22.81	11.20

1 3 year average, combined data from the 2003/04, 2004/05 and the 2005/06 surveys. See Notes and Definitions.
2 UK figures are based on single year (2005/06)
3 Includes 'fats'

Source: Expenditure and Food Survey, Office for National Statistics

During the period 2003 to 2006, the UK average expenditure per person was £182.50 per week, compared to £198.50 per week for individuals in London – the second highest after the South East with £210.80 per week.

Households in Northern Ireland spent the most on food and non-alcohol beverages at £48.90 per week and were also the highest spenders on clothing and footwear at £31.20 per week – London had the second highest for this category. Households in London spent by the far the most on fuel and housing (not including mortgage interest payments and council tax) at £60.90 per week –nearly £20 per week more than the UK as a whole.

In the South East, households spent £7.50 on health compared to £6.10 in London which is nearly double the amount spent in the North East. London also spent the most on communication and spent double the amount on education compared to the rest of the UK.

Londoners spent the most on eating out at £13.54 per person per week, which was 35 per cent more than

Figure 5.13

Average household expenditure in relation to the UK, 2003/04 - 2005/06

Percentages

Source: Expenditure and Food Survey, Office for National Statistics

households in the West Midlands (£10). The average spent on food and drink was £23.56 per person, with a further £11.41 on eating out per person per week in the period 2005 to 2006 in the UK overall.

Households in London spent the least on 'Bread, cakes, biscuits, cereals and confectionery' per person per week and also less than most regions on alcoholic drinks (Table 5.12)

Consumer goods

The proportion of households with access to a mobile phone continued to grow and reached an average of 77 per cent across the UK during 2003 to 2006, more than twice the proportion with a dishwasher (33 per cent of households). Surprisingly, London had one of the lowest percentages of households with mobile phones at 72 per cent, although this is still considerably higher than Northern Ireland with only 54 per cent.

Almost 45 per cent of households in London had a tumble dryer, compared with 62 per cent of households in Scotland (Table 5.14)

The proportion of households with access to the Internet continued to show substantial increases in all regions. By 2003 to 2006, the proportion of households in London had reached 58 per cent, the highest in the UK, followed by the South East at 57 per cent. In Northern Ireland two-fifths of households (41 per cent) had access, the lowest proportion (Figure 5.15).

Table 5.14

Percentage of households with selected durable goods, 2003/04 - 2005/06[1]

Percentages

	Micro-wave oven	Washing machine	Dish-washer	Fridge-freezer or deep freezer	Tumble drier	Video recorder	Compact-disc player	Digital Television Service[2]	Mobile phone
United Kingdom	90	95	33	96	57	88	87	57	77
North East	92	96	20	98	56	91	86	59	73
North West	92	94	28	96	60	87	87	62	78
Yorkshire and The Humber	93	95	26	96	57	88	86	56	80
East Midlands	91	96	34	97	62	89	88	56	84
West Midlands	91	93	31	97	60	87	85	53	79
East	90	96	40	97	59	90	89	57	80
London	85	92	34	95	45	85	85	55	72
South East	89	95	40	97	58	89	89	57	81
South West	88	94	36	95	58	88	88	55	81
England	90	94	33	96	57	88	87	57	79
Wales	94	95	29	98	61	88	83	64	68
Scotland	91	97	33	96	62	89	89	60	77
Northern Ireland	90	96	38	94	54	86	76	64	54

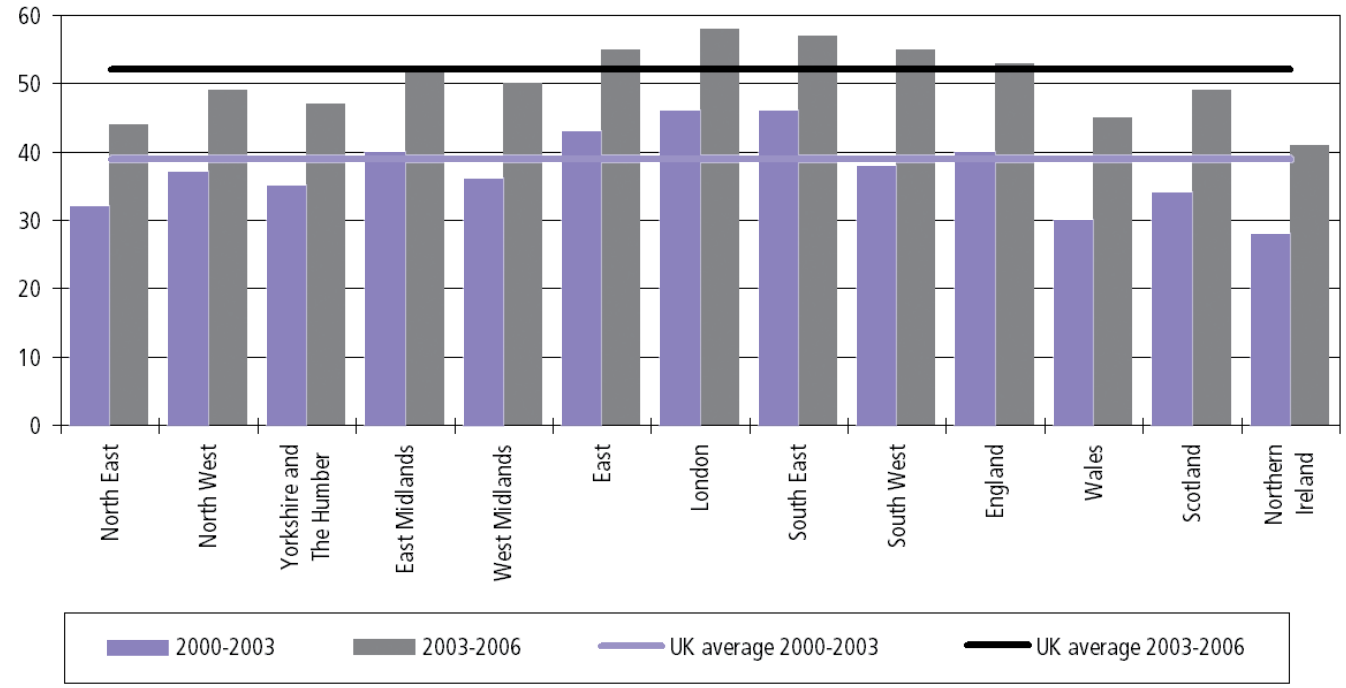
1 Combined data from the 2003/04, 2004/05 and 2005/06 Expenditure and Food Surveys. See Notes and Definitions.
2 Includes digital, satellite and cable receivers.

Source: Expenditure and Food Survey, Office for National Statistics

Figure 5.15

Households with internet access

Percentages

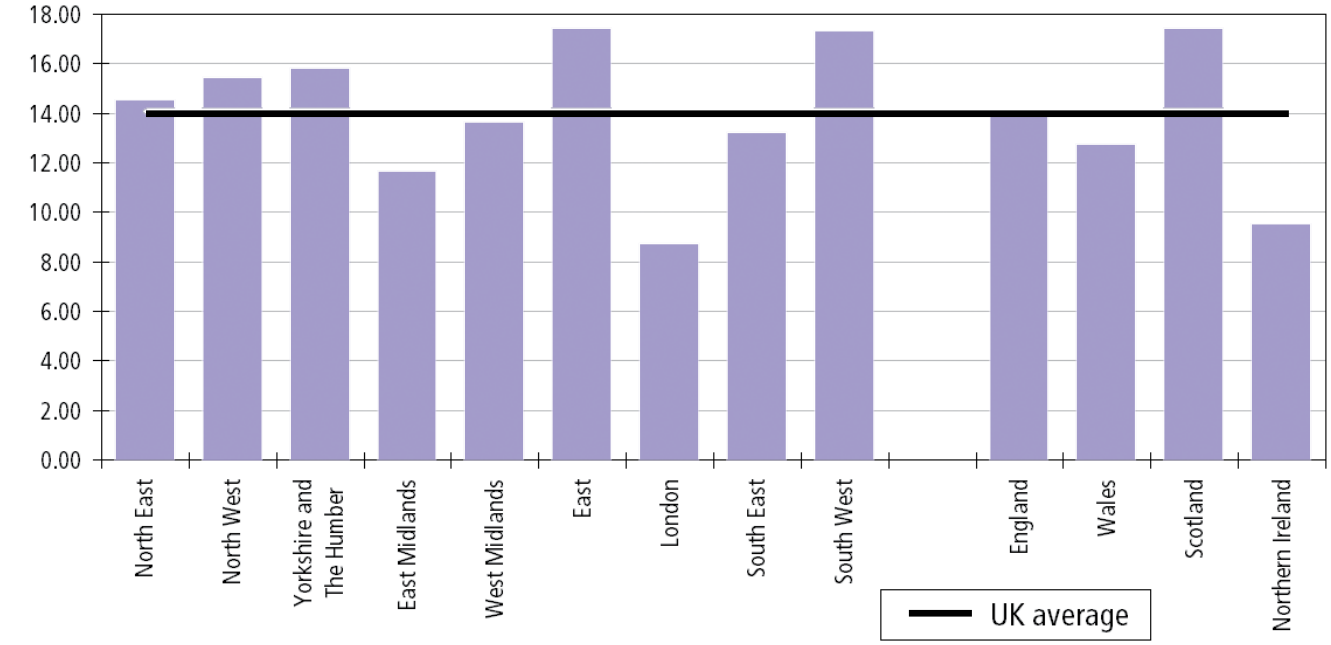


Source: Expenditure and Food Survey, Office for National Statistics

Figure 5.16

Average household expenditure on package holidays 2003/04 - 2005/06[1]

Weekly expenditure (£)



1 Combined data from the 2003/04, 2004/05 and 2005/06 Expenditure and Food Surveys. See Notes and Definitions.

Source: Expenditure and Food Survey, Office for National Statistics

Tourism

During the period 2003 to 2006, people in the East region and Scotland spent the most on package holidays at nearly 19 per cent more than the UK average, this contrasts with Londoners who spent the least on package holidays at just £8.70 per week compared to £14.10 per week for the UK as a whole – 62 per cent less (Figure 5.16).

Overall, UK residents spent £20 billion on holidays in the UK in 2006, of which Londoners spent nearly £2 billion. Londoners made nearly 11 million trips to UK locations compared to the highest, which was in the South East with 19 million trips (Table 5.17). Overseas residents spent nearly £7 billion in London in 2005 - half the total spent in the whole of the UK

Earnings and wages

Information in this chapter relates to income as opposed to actual earnings i.e. includes all sources of money coming into a household and all deductions. The best source of data if wanting to specifically look at earnings (i.e. money from paid work) is the Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings (ASHE). Information presented here relates to gross weekly pay before tax, National Insurance or other deductions, and excludes payments in kind.

In April 2007, median gross weekly earnings for full-time employees were highest in London at £581 (27 per cent higher than the national median) and lowest in Northern Ireland at £402 (12 per cent lower than the national median).

The median gross weekly earnings for men in London was £643 – £125 higher or 19 per cent higher than

Table 5.17

Tourism by residents, 2005-2006

Millions

	Overseas residents 2005[3]			UK residents 2005[1,2]			UK residents 2006[1,2]		
	Visits	Nights	Spend (£)	Visits	Nights	Spend (£)	Visits	Nights	Spend (£)
Area visited									
United Kingdom	30	249.2	14,122	138.7	442.3	22,667	127.1	400.1	20,965
North East	0.6	5.1	206	4.6	13.5	822	3.4	9.6	546
North West	2.3	18.2	883	15.3	44.1	2,551	13.5	37.5	2,290
Yorkshire and The Humber	1.1	8.5	387	11.9	35.2	1,694	10.1	28.5	1,397
East Midlands	1.1	9.2	365	9.5	25.4	1,216	8.4	23.9	1,113
West Midlands	1.7	13.3	533	9.1	22.5	1,411	8.4	20.6	1,145
East	2.2	18.1	709	12.8	40.2	1,742	10.7	31.9	1,278
London	13.9	91.8	6,859	10.7	24.2	1,968	11.0	24.6	2,270
South East	4.1	32.7	1,470	18.2	51.6	2,483	18.1	52.7	2,429
South West	2.1	17.8	868	21.3	83.6	3,609	20.3	78.3	3,682
England	25.3	215	12,302	111.2	340.4	17,497	101.8	308.8	16,212
Wales	1	7.4	311	11.3	39.4	1,731	9.6	36.4	1,633
Scotland	2.4	24.3	1,208	14.9	54	3,006	13.3	47.2	2,720
Northern Ireland[4]	..	..	..	2.6	8.6	433	2.4	7.6	400

1 The UK and England figures include the value of tourism in the Channel Islands, the Isle of Man, and a small amount where the region was unknown. The UK figures also include an amount which cannot be allocated to an individual country.
2 The United Kingdom Tourism Survey underwent a methodological change in May 2005, moving from a telephone to a face-to-face survey. Jan-April 2005 data was estimated and so full year results should be used with caution.
3 The expenditure in this table excludes spending of overseas visitors departing directly from the Channel Islands and that of nil night transit visitors.
4 In the production of total UK estimates, the International Passenger Survey takes account of passenger figures to the whole of the UK, including Northern Ireland. However, it does not sample at seaports or airports in Northern Ireland, meaning that accurate estimates of number of visits to that area are not available.

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

the figure for women which was £518. The percentage difference in gender for the UK was 21 per cent (Table 5.18).

Managers and Senior Officials have the highest earnings in London (£834 per week) and in the UK as a whole (£648 per week). Male managers earn £939 per week in London, which falls to £680 for females – a percentage difference of 27 per cent.

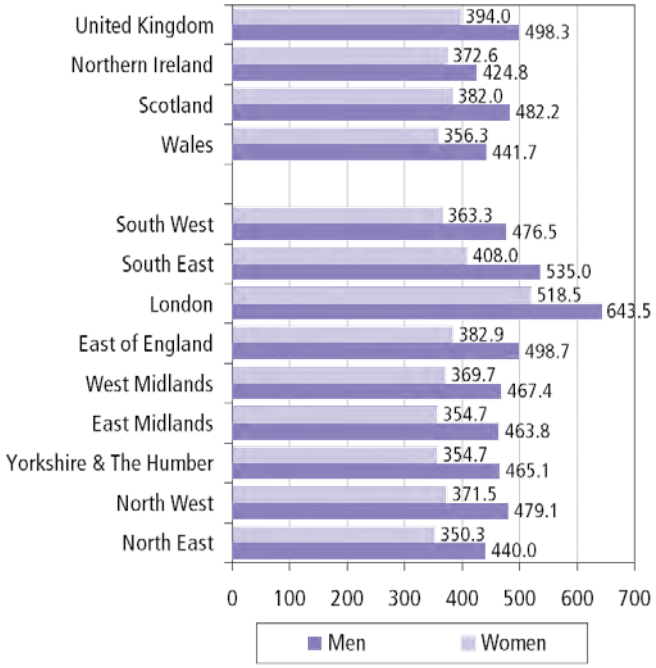
The largest difference in gender earnings occurs in elementary occupations – 48 per cent.

In terms of industrial classifications, the Financial Intermediation industry has the highest weekly earnings. In London the average for all employees in this industry was £862 per week. This rises to over £1,000 per week for males only. Females earn £613 per week in this industry – a difference of 42 per cent to the male figure – the largest difference of any industry. Overall the difference between male and female earnings are more pronounced outside London (Table 5.19 and Table 5.20).

Figure 5.18

Median gross weekly earnings[1] by government office region, 2007

£ per week



1 Full time employees on adult rates, whose pay was unaffected by absence

Source: Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings, Office for National Statistics

Table 5.19

Median weekly pay - all employee jobs by occupation: UK and London[1], 2007

Gross (£)

		Male			Female		
	All	All males	Full-time	Part-time	All females	Full-time	Part-time
United Kingdom	**374.9**	**464.5**	**498.3**	**137.8**	**287.5**	**394.0**	**145.6**
Managers and Senior Officials	647.8	728.3	739.8	246.4	513.2	555.8	259.4
Professional Occupations	618.9	673.4	702.1	256.9	561.5	623.2	314.8
Associate Professional and Technical Occupations	474.0	537.2	554.3	184.1	421.6	479.1	249.6
Administrative and Secretarial Occupations	298.0	358.4	382.5	136.7	284.2	337.9	166.4
Skilled Trades Occupations	414.7	430.3	437.4	194.7	239.0	299.2	138.2
Personal Service Occupations	224.6	295.6	342.1	132.9	213.5	291.4	149.8
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	173.2	225.6	293.6	107.2	155.3	264.3	112.0
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	381.5	402.4	414.5	160.3	262.0	288.0	140.1
Elementary Occupations	216.6	292.5	330.3	104.3	126.9	254.4	87.5
London	**512.7**	**599.6**	**643.5**	**150.8**	**432.2**	**518.5**	**176.0**
Managers and Senior Officials	833.7	939.0	952.9	-	680.4	726.5	404.6
Professional Occupations	714.5	776.2	812.8	335.9	648.2	700.8	376.5
Associate Professional and Technical Occupations	574.8	640.1	665.5	199.4	517.5	548.1	280.6
Administrative and Secretarial Occupations	400.4	437.2	463.5	134.6	383.6	438.6	196.1
Skilled Trades Occupations	476.5	498.3	508.6	169.0	288.7	382.2	-
Personal Service Occupations	286.7	361.4	421.5	162.1	260.9	343.6	167.7
Sales and Customer Service Occupations	215.2	248.4	325.8	127.5	183.0	310.5	116.8
Process, Plant and Machine Operatives	469.9	479.5	487.6	-	279.1	329.1	139.4
Elementary Occupations	251.1	314.4	371.4	110.3	162.5	280.5	97.2

1 The data in this table is workplace based. Workplace median weekly earnings is £512.70. Resident median weekly earnings is £481.20. The difference is down to commuters who live outside London that are paid over the average.

Source: Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings, Office for National Statistics

Table 5.20

Median weekly pay - all employee jobs by industry[1]: UK and London, 2007

Gross (£)

	All	Male			Female		
		All males	Full-time	Part-time	All females	Full-time	Part-time
United Kingdom	**374.9**	**464.5**	**498.3**	**137.8**	**287.5**	**394.0**	**145.6**
All Index Of Production Industries	450.0	489.3	495.5	248.6	321.9	360.3	157.7
All Manufacturing	443.8	483.5	489.3	256.5	318.8	355.5	155.1
All Service Industries	353.5	453.6	499.1	131.9	284.4	399.7	145.4
Agriculture, Hunting And Forestry	315.3	351.3	367.6	133.5	218.1	311.2	113.5
Fishing	-	238.4	238.4	-	-	-	-
Mining And Quarrying	572.8	604.5	608.2	-	444.3	481.8	-
Manufacturing	443.8	483.5	489.3	256.5	318.8	355.5	155.1
Electricity, Gas And Water Supply	547.7	618.6	622.8	-	372.5	410.1	227.4
Construction	472.9	500.6	510.8	237.7	299.4	370.8	134.4
Wholesale And Retail Trade; Repair Of Motor Vehicles, Motorcycles And Personal And Household Goods	273.8	359.4	404.6	115.5	198.3	305.7	116.6
Hotels And Restaurants	198.8	240.0	304.9	97.1	163.3	266.3	93.6
Transport, Storage And Communication	440.8	470.0	486.2	195.1	345.0	396.2	169.8
Financial Intermediation	488.9	709.1	722.0	209.1	365.4	421.8	197.3
Real Estate, Renting And Business Activities	421.6	510.0	556.6	140.3	324.8	413.8	144.0
Public Admin And Defence; Compulsory Social Security	450.6	549.5	566.1	169.0	358.6	420.8	201.0
Education	358.7	496.1	556.6	162.9	302.8	473.5	154.1
Health And Social Work	331.1	477.1	538.0	173.0	302.4	414.8	176.7
Other Community, Social And Personal Service Activities	315.1	388.0	438.3	105.0	236.9	360.8	116.4
Private Households With Employed Persons	206.1	-	-	-	209.8	317.2	-
London	**513.1**	**599.7**	**643.5**	**150.6**	**432.2**	**518.5**	**176.0**
All Index Of Production Industries	560.2	614.9	623.9	-	500.5	522.4	-
All Manufacturing	555.5	609.0	616.4	-	497.6	518.6	-
All Service Industries	505.1	595.3	647.4	149.8	431.2	519.3	176.1
Agriculture, Hunting And Forestry	-	309.6	309.6	-	-	-	-
Fishing	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mining And Quarrying	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Manufacturing	555.5	609.0	616.4	-	497.6	518.6	-
Electricity, Gas And Water Supply	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Construction	612.0	649.3	650.0	-	384.0	442.3	151.5
Wholesale And Retail Trade; Repair Of Motor Vehicles, Motorcycles And Personal And Household Goods	335.5	394.7	470.7	128.3	271.5	403.2	118.5
Hotels And Restaurants	249.1	278.2	338.5	115.0	226.4	291.5	121.5
Transport, Storage And Communication	564.4	587.7	599.1	246.8	484.2	520.7	229.1
Financial Intermediation	862.4	1,061.3	1,072.0	-	613.3	655.3	266.1
Real Estate, Renting And Business Activities	574.9	670.8	728.3	149.5	481.8	554.4	184.4
Public Admin And Defence; Compulsory Social Security	568.1	652.7	663.6	-	475.0	521.8	252.5
Education	472.7	575.5	624.6	251.6	419.5	550.7	191.4
Health And Social Work	479.1	593.9	627.5	-	442.4	515.3	224.2
Other Community, Social And Personal Service Activities	458.5	517.5	561.2	139.0	402.5	470.5	140.5
Private Households With Employed Persons	-	-	-	-	-	358.2	-

1 The figures in the cells marked with a dash are based on small numbers and are unreliable

Source: Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings, Office for National Statistics

Poverty

Chapter 6

- During 2003-06 , two out of five children (41 per cent) in London lived under the poverty line after accounting for housing costs. This was over 650,000 children.
- Rates of child poverty are very high in Inner London, where over half of all children live in poverty after housing costs (51 per cent).
- London has the highest rate of child poverty (after housing costs) compared to other regions. This remains the case whether one adopts the 'official' poverty line of 60 per cent of median income or uses the 50 or 70 per cent measures.
- Trend data over the last twelve years show that national improvements in child poverty rates have not been evident in London where rates remain stubbornly high.
- The London Borough of Hackney has the highest Income Support claimant rate in London (13.3 per cent) and the second highest in Great Britain. Seven London boroughs appear in the 20 highest rates for Local Authorities in Great Britain.
- Tower Hamlets and Hackney have the highest Jobseeker's Allowance claimant rates of all the boroughs with 5.6 per cent. They are the second and third highest rates in the whole country after Birmingham. Seven London Boroughs have rates ranked amongst the 20 highest in the country.
- The London Borough of Hackney has the highest rate of households claiming Housing Benefit, not only in London but also in the whole of Great Britain – with 39.2 per cent. This is followed closely by the London Borough of Tower Hamlets with 38.0 per cent – the second highest in the country.
- Tower Hamlets has the highest Pension Credit claimant rate in London with half those aged 60 and over claiming Pension Credit. It is also the highest rate in Great Britain. The three highest rates in Great Britain belong to London boroughs: Hackney and Newham being the other two.
- In Tower Hamlets over half the children aged 0 to 18 are in families dependent on benefits. Tower Hamlets has the highest rate in Great Britain when compared with every other Local Authority.
- Twenty of the London boroughs rank among the top 50 most deprived local authorities in England on at least one summary measure of the Index of Multiple Deprivation 2007. Tower Hamlets and Hackney rank the highest among London boroughs, although Islington, Lambeth and Newham also rank among the top 10 in England on at least one measure.

Introduction

London is the wealthiest region of the UK yet it has the highest child poverty rate in the country. The Government has set itself the ambitious target of eradicating child poverty by 2020. It has lifted 600,000 children out of relative poverty despite strong external pressures which are widening the gap between rich and poor. However, unlike the rest of the country, in London it has been much harder to make progress on reducing child poverty.

The London Child Poverty Commission was set up by the Greater London Authority and London Councils in February 2006 to address the challenge of child poverty in the capital. This chapter draws on the evidence gathered by the Commission so far from a range of government data sources and adds to it by looking at other age groups.

However, it is child poverty that matters the most because of the immediate deprivation it causes and the way it restricts parents' opportunity to make the best decisions on behalf of their children. The great majority of families in poverty spend their entire weekly income on maintaining what are already low living standards by comparison with the majority of the population.

Child poverty also matters because low income in childhood greatly increases risks of other types of negative outcome, such as poor educational attainment and low wages. The risk of poverty in adulthood for those who were poor in childhood is twice as high as for those who were not.

Children living in income poverty

This section presents data on the percentage of children living below the poverty line. This is defined as those children living in households with less than 60 per cent of median income and is a measure of relative income poverty. This is the headline measure used by the Government to measure its progress on child poverty targets. These data are supplied annually by the Department for Work and Pensions (DWP) and are based on the Households Below Average Income (HBAI) data series, which is derived from the Family Resources Survey (FRS).

Income here relates to the notion of equivalised household income, which is income adjusted to take account of differences in household size and composition. Estimates are routinely produced on income before and after housing costs are paid. Given that housing costs are so high in the Capital, the after housing cost measure is often considered as more meaningful for London analysis.

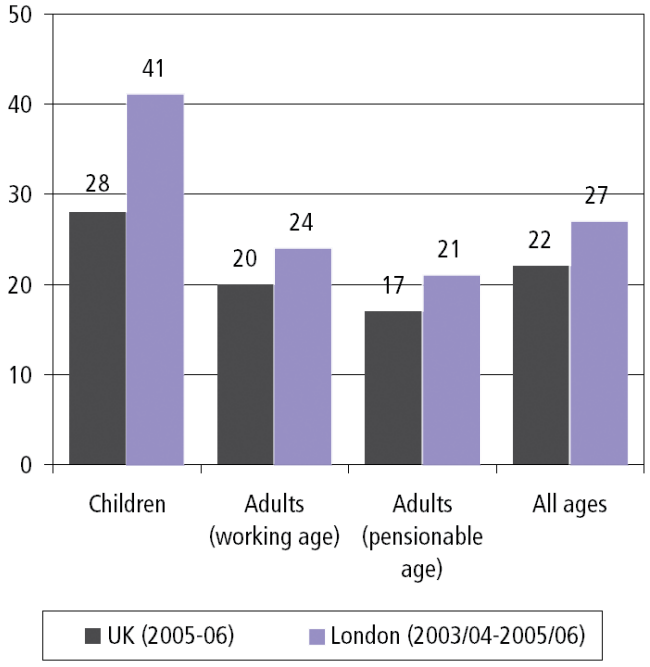
Unlike national data, which are generally presented on a single year basis, data for London and other regions are presented on the basis of three year averages 2003/04-2005/06, to improve reliability of estimates. Single year estimates are also provided for some analyses for comparison.

Children are more likely than working age adults or pensioners to live in poverty. In London, 27 per cent of the population live in income poverty (after housing costs) but this rises to 41 per cent for children. Almost one quarter of working age Londoners live in poverty (24

Figure 6.1

Income poverty[1] by age, London and UK[2], 2003/04-2005/06

Percentages



1 Percentage living in households with below 60 per cent of median income after housing costs.
2 UK figure is based on a single year.

Source: Department for Work and Pensions, Households Below Average Income 2002/03- 2005/06

per cent) and just over one fifth of those of pensionable age (Figure 6.1).

The percentage of people living in poverty in London is higher than in the UK, but the differential is most pronounced for children. The rate of child poverty in London after housing costs is 13 percentage points higher than the UK figure.

Table 6.2 compares levels of child poverty in London to other regions – before and after housing costs are taken into account. Most data are presented on the basis of three year averages, with the exception of UK data which are based on a single year (2005/06).

During 2003/06, on the before housing costs (BHC) measure, the North East has the highest regional rate of child poverty (28 per cent), followed by the West Midlands and London (both with 26 per cent), Yorkshire and the Humber and Northern Ireland (both with 25 per cent). Once housing costs are considered, London has – by far – the highest regional rate of child poverty at 41 per cent, 9 percentage points higher than the rate for the North East and West Midlands (32 per cent). This represents around 650,000 children in London.

Within London, rates are very high in Inner London, where just over half of all children (51 per cent) are living in income poverty after housing costs. In Outer London, over one third of children live in income poverty, much lower than in Inner London but still above the rate in all other regions outside London. This shows the importance of taking housing costs into account as on the before housing cost measure, the poverty rate in Outer London is nearly the same as the national average and well below some other regions.

In the case of Inner London, the child poverty rate remains high relative to all other regions, even on the before housing cost measure, although differentials become far more pronounced once housing costs are accounted for.

Figure 6.3 shows the proportion of children living below 50 and 70 per cent of median income and compares these with the commonly used 60 per cent measure. On all three measures, London has the highest regional rate of child poverty, after housing costs. While regional differentials remain strong on all measures, London's relative position is worst on the 50 per cent measure.

On the 50 per cent measure, which identifies those children on very low incomes, 30 per cent of London's children live under this poverty line – 11 percentage points higher than the national rate (19 per cent) and far higher than all other regions.

Almost half (48 per cent) of all London's children live below the 70 per cent median income measure – 10 percentage points higher than the national rate of 38 per cent.

The difference between Inner and Outer London rates remains significant on all measures.

The proportion of children in poverty on the 50 per cent measure remains very high in Inner London (39 per cent) and while the rate is lower in Outer London

Table 6.2

Percentage of children living in households with low income[1], 2003-06[2]

Percentages

	Before Housing Costs	After Housing Costs	All children[3] (millions)
North East	28	32	0.5
North West	24	31	1.5
Yorkshire and The Humber	25	30	1.1
East Midlands	23	27	0.9
West Midlands	26	32	1.2
East	16	24	1.2
London	26	41	1.6
Inner London	35	51	0.5
Outer London	21	35	1.0
South East	13	22	1.7
South West	17	26	1.0
England	22	29	10.8
Scotland	22	25	1.0
Wales	24	28	0.6
Great Britain	22	29	12.4
Northern Ireland	25	27	0.4
UK[4]	22	30	12.8

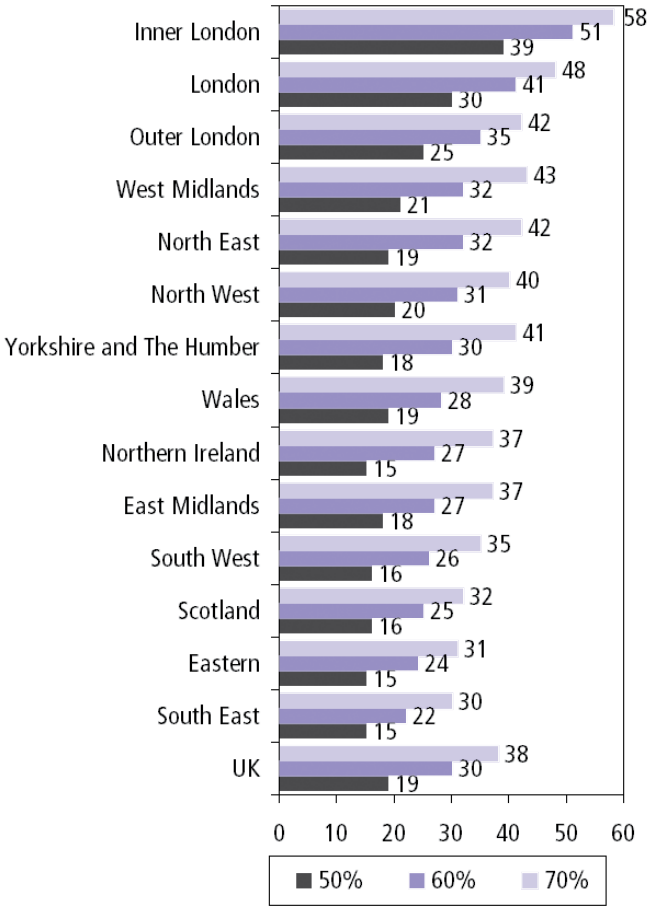
1 Percentage of children living in households with below 60 per cent median income.
2 Three year average.
3 Children in the HBAI are defined as under 16's plus 17 and 18 year olds in full time education.
4 UK figure is based on a single year.

Source: Department for Work and Pensions, Households Below Average Income 2002/03- 2005/06

Figure 6.3

Children living under the poverty line by region: by 50, 60 and 70 per cent median income measures[1], 2003/4-2005/6[2]

Percentages



1 After housing costs.

2 Three year averages.

Source: Department for Work and Pensions, Households Below Average Income 2002/03- 2005/06

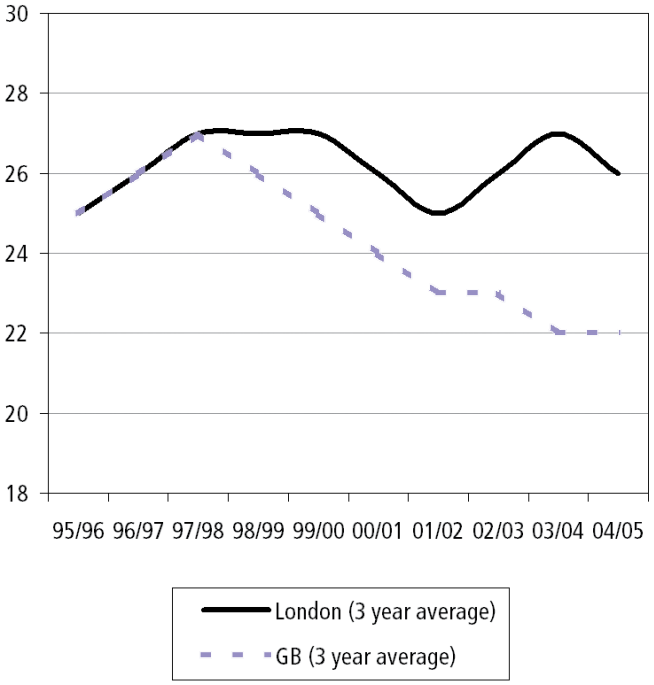
(25 per cent), it remains higher relative to all other GB regions. Whereas on the 70 per cent measure, the rate in Outer London (42 per cent) moves closer to the national average (38 per cent) and is almost equal to the rate in the West Midlands.

Figures 6.4 and 6.5 show trends in child poverty over the last 12 years for London and Great Britain both before and after housing costs. To provide a like for like comparison, estimates are presented on the basis of three year rolling averages for both London and GB. Table 6.15 presents these data along with single year estimates, which are shown for comparison.

Figure 6.4

Children living in households with below 60 per cent median income (before housing costs), 1994-2006[1]

Percentages



1 The year shown is the middle year of the 3 year average.

Source: Department for Work and Pensions, Households Below Average Income 1994/95- 2005/06

On both before and after housing cost measures, London's relative position on child poverty appears to have worsened over the period 1994 to 2006, although there was a slight fall on the before housing costs (BHC) measure in the latest figures.

On the BHC measure, the child poverty rates in London and GB were the same between 1994/95 and 1997/98. Since then, the national rate has fallen but the London rate has remained around its 1997/98 level (with a dip in 2001/02), leading to a gap in rates of around four percentage points (during 2003/06).

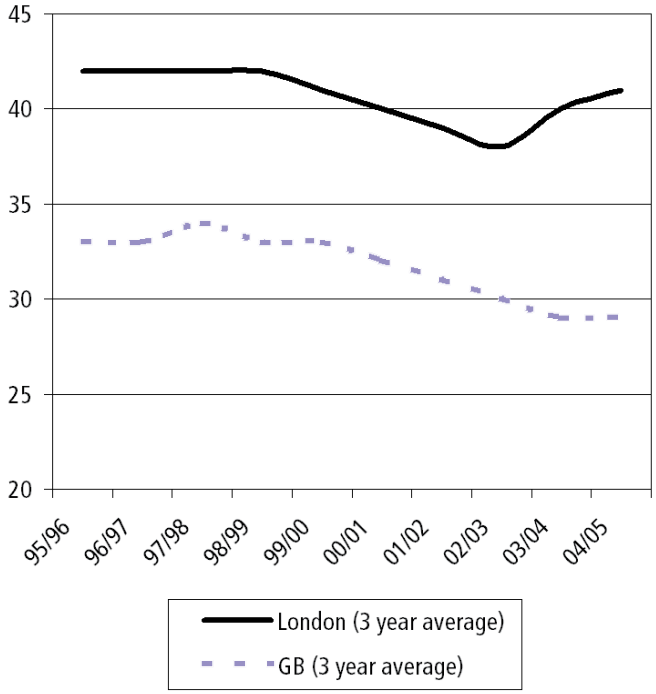
On the after housing costs measure, London child poverty rates have been consistently higher than national figures since the measure began in 1994. While child poverty rates in London did show some improvement between 1999 and 2002 on this measure, more recently they have started to rise again.

The chart shows that over the long term London's relative position has not improved. In 1994/97, the percentage

Figure 6.5

Children living in households with below 60 per cent median income (after housing costs), 1994-2006[1]

Percentages



1 The year shown is the middle year of the 3 year average.

Source: Department for Work and Pensions, Households Below Average Income 1994/95- 2005/06

of children in poverty in London (three year average) was 42 per cent relative to 33 per cent for GB – a gap of 9 percentage points. The latest data show that in London the rate for 2003/06 averaged 41 per cent while the GB rate had fallen to 29 per cent – a gap of 12 percentage points.

In summary, according to both before and after housing costs measures, child poverty rates in Great Britain have shown consistent improvement since 1996/97, but these improvements have not been evident in the capital to the same extent where rates have remained stubbornly high.

Working age poverty

As with child poverty, working-age income poverty rates before housing costs (BHC) in London are significantly higher than in the neighbouring South East and East regions. Some 15 per cent of working age adults are in poverty in London, compared with 10 per cent in the South East and 12 per cent in the East region (Table 6.6).

The national rate is 14 per cent. The highest regional rates are in the North East and Wales, both have a BHC poverty rate of 19 per cent. The poverty rate in Inner London is 18 per cent, while for Outer London it is 14 per cent. The Outer London rate is still significantly higher than in neighbouring regions, while the Inner London rate is as high as the North East and Wales.

Rates of income poverty after housing costs (AHC) for working age adults in London are the highest in the UK. Some 24 per cent of working age adults live in households with incomes below 60 per cent of the median, compared with 20 per cent nationally.

In Inner London, the AHC poverty rate is 29 per cent, higher than for any region or country in the UK, while in Outer London it is 22 per cent.

Table 6.6

Working age[1] adults living in poverty 2003-06[2]

Percentages

	Before Housing Costs	After Housing Costs	All adults (millions)
North East	18	21	1.5
North West	16	20	4.0
Yorkshire and The Humber	16	20	2.9
East Midlands	16	19	2.5
West Midlands	17	20	3.1
East	12	16	3.2
London	15	24	4.7
Inner London	18	29	1.8
Outer London	14	22	3.0
South East	10	15	4.7
South West	12	18	2.9
England	14	19	29.5
Scotland	15	19	3.0
Wales	18	21	1.7
Northern Ireland	17	18	1.0
UK[3]	15	20	35.5

1 Percentage of working age population living in households with below 60 per cent median income.
2 Three year average.
3 UK figure is based on a single year.

Source: Department for Work and Pensions, Households Below Average Income 2002/03- 2005/06

Pensioner poverty

Pensioners as a group have a higher risk of being in poverty than working age adults. The latest figures show that pensioner poverty is falling over the longer-term, both nationally and in London, whereas figures for the working age population have been stable for several years in Great Britain and have increased slightly in London. The gap is therefore reducing, but poverty remains higher among pensioners than among younger adults in Great Britain.

Before housing costs are considered, pensioners in Britain are more likely to be in the bottom two fifths of the income distribution than the population as a whole. In London, the figures are a little lower than the national picture. After housing costs are taken into account, London pensioners, in both Inner and Outer London, are more likely to be in the lowest income group than is the case nationally. In terms of the government's poverty threshold of 60 per cent of median income after housing costs, 21 per cent of London pensioners are in a household with an income below the poverty line. In Inner London this rises to 27 per cent – this is a higher rate of poverty for pensioners than in any region or country of Great Britain.

Before housing costs, 20 per cent of pensioners in London are living in income poverty. While BHC poverty rates for working age adults and children tend to be significantly higher in London than in neighbouring regions, this is not the case for pensioners, who have similar rates in the South East and East regions.

In fact, the BHC pensioner poverty rate in London is one of the lowest in Great Britain, and there was no significant difference between the rates in Inner and Outer London (Table 6.7).

The AHC pensioner poverty rate in Inner London is 27 per cent. This figure is substantially higher than for any other region or country of the UK. The incidence in Outer London is 19 per cent.

Table 6.7

Pensioners[1] living in poverty 2003/04-2005/06[2]

Percentages and numbers

	Before Housing Costs	After Housing Costs	All pensioners (millions)
North East	20	17	0.5
North West	24	19	1.2
Yorkshire and The Humber	22	17	0.9
East Midlands	26	21	0.8
West Midlands	25	20	1.0
East	20	18	1.0
London	20	21	1.0
Inner London	21	27	0.3
Outer London	19	19	0.7
South East	19	16	1.5
South West	20	16	1.0
England	21	18	8.9
Scotland	21	18	0.9
Wales	25	20	0.6
Northern Ireland	27	19	0.3
UK[3]	21	17	10.8

1 Percentage of pensioners living in households with below 60 per cent median income.
2 Three year average.
3 UK figure is based on a single year.

Source: Department for Work and Pensions, Households Below Average Income 2002/03- 2005/06

Benefit Claimants

Benefits data offer a particularly useful source of information about the spatial distribution of poverty and low incomes, as well as providing proxy measures of unemployment, disability and ill health. Table 6.8 shows claimant rates for all the main benefits.

Income Support

Income Support (IS) is intended to help people on low incomes who are not required to be available for employment. The main groups of people who receive IS are:

- lone parents,
- the long and short-term sick,
- people with disabilities, and
- other special groups.

In November 2006, there were 377,000 London residents in receipt of Income Support. Expressed as a proportion of those of aged 16-59, London had an Income Support claimant rate of 7.7 per cent – the rate has remained at approximately the same level since 2003 (Table 6.10). The rates of IS receipt for Inner London and Outer London are 9.2 and 6.6 per cent respectively. The Inner London rate is significantly above the average for Great Britain while

Table 6.8

Claimant rates by benefit type - summary, November 2006

Percentages

Benefit type	Great Britain	London	Inner London	Outer London	Base population[1]
Income Support	6.1	7.7	9.2	6.6	*Aged 16-59*
Jobseeker's Allowance	2.5	3.2	3.9	2.7	*Working age*
Incapacity Benefit	6.4	5.6	6.5	5.0	*Aged 16-64*
Disability Living Allowance:					
Under 16	2.5	2.3	2.4	2.3	*Aged under 16*
16-59	4.2	3.3	3.6	3.1	*Aged 16-59*
60 and over	8.6	7.2	9.1	6.3	*Aged 60 and over*
Attendance Allowance	17.8	16.1	16.4	15.9	*Aged 65+*
Housing Benefit	16.4	21.5	29.2	17.5	*All households*[2]
Council Tax Benefit	20.7	22.5	28.0	20.2	*All households*[2]
Pension Credit	21.7	24.9	33.5	20.9	*Aged 60+*
State Pension	96.7	91.6	85.9	94.3	*Pensionable age*
Children dependent on benefits	19.5	28.9	37.0	24.1	*Aged 0-18*

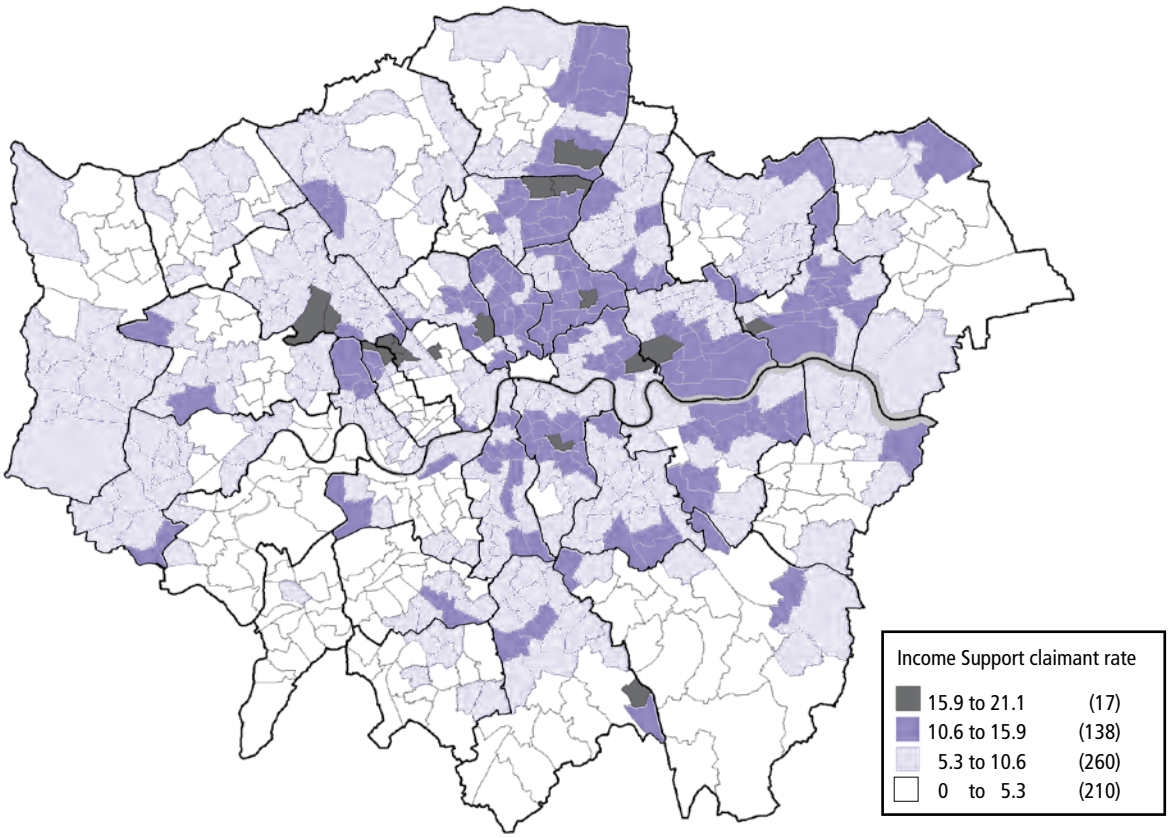
1 Rates are calculated as a percentage of 2006 mid-year estimates, ONS.
2 Rates are calculated as a percentage of 2003-based household projections, CLG.

Source: DWP Information Directorate: Work and Pensions Longitudinal Study and 5% sample

Map 6.9

Income Support claimant rates by ward, November 2006

Rates



Source: DWP Information Directorate: Work and Pensions Longitudinal Study

Table 6.10

Benefits claimants, 2001-2006[1]

Rates

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Jobseeker's Allowance, claimant rates[2]						
Great Britain	2.6	2.5	2.3	2.1	2.4	2.5
London	3.2	3.3	3.2	3.0	3.2	3.2
Incapacity Benefit[3], claimant rates[4]						
Great Britain	6.6	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.5	6.4
London	5.5	5.6	5.7	5.8	5.6	5.6
Income Support, claimant rates[5,6]						
Great Britain	-	-	6.5	6.3	6.1	6.1
London	-	-	7.9	7.8	7.7	7.7
Attendance Allowance, claimant rates[7]						
Great Britain	-	16.5	16.9	17.1	17.4	17.8
London	-	14.6	14.9	15.4	15.7	16.1
Children in families on key benefits[8]						
Great Britain	18.5	18.0	20.3	19.6	19.5	19.5
London	26.7	26.4	27.8	28.0	28.1	28.9

1 Data are taken from November in each year.
2 Rates are calculated as a percentage of working age from the mid-year estimates for the relevant year, ONS.
3 These figures are affected by the introduction of Child Tax Credit in April 2003.
4 Rates are calculated as a percentage of all those aged 16-64 from the mid-year estimates for the relevant year, ONS.
5 Rates are calculated as a percentage of all those aged 16-59 from the mid-year estimates for the relevant year, ONS.
6 Before November 2003: there was a sharp decline in the number of claimant's aged 60 or over. This is due to the migration of most existing Minimum Income Guarantee claimants to Pension Credit, which was introduced in October 2003. Some residual cases remain.
7 Rates are calculated as a percentage of all those aged 65+ from the 2005 mid-year estimates, ONS.
8 Rates are calculated as a percentage of all aged 0-18 from the mid-year estimates for the appropriate year, ONS.

Source: DWP Information Directorate: Work and Pensions Longitudinal Study and Department for Work and Pensions 5% sample

the Outer London rate is also higher but closer to the national average.

Claimant rates by London borough reflect the extremes in the city. As would be expected the spread across London is similar to the patterns illustrated by indicators such as deprivation indices and unemployment rates. The highest claimant rates are in Inner London, spreading to the East and North of London.

The London Borough of Hackney has the highest rate in London and the second highest in Great Britain. Hackney has a rate of 13.3 per cent; Islington is the next highest London borough with 11.8 per cent. Seven London boroughs appear in the 20 highest rates for Local Authorities, all are in Inner London apart from Barking and Dagenham. The highest Income Support rate in Great Britain is in Knowsley in the North West with 13.5 per cent, only slightly higher than the rate for Hackney (Table 6.16).

Map 6.9 shows claimant rates by ward. The general pattern is for the highest levels of receipt to be concentrated in the inner east part of London with groups of wards clustered together. While, generally, the lowest rates of receipt are to be found in Outer London, there are nevertheless wards with high rates of receipt in boroughs such as Enfield, Brent and Ealing.

Jobseeker's Allowance

Jobseeker's Allowance (JSA) replaced Unemployment Benefit and Income Support for unemployed people on 7 October 1996. It is payable to people under state

pension age who are available for work of at least 40 hours a week and actively seeking work.

There were nearly 160,000 people in London during November 2006 claiming Jobseeker's Allowance, this amounted to 3.2 per cent of the working age population. The rate has remained fairly consistent since 2001. The rate for Great Britain was 2.5 per cent in 2006 (Table 6.10).

Figures for London as a whole hide disparity within the capital. For example, while the rate in Outer London was similar to the country as a whole (2.7 compared to 2.5 per cent), the rate for Inner London was 3.9 per cent.

Tower Hamlets and Hackney have the highest rates of all the boroughs with 5.6 per cent. They are the second and third highest rates in the country after Birmingham. Seven London Boroughs have rates ranked amongst the 20 highest in the country (Table 6.17).

Disability related Benefits

Incapacity Benefit (IB) replaced Sickness Benefit and Invalidity Benefit from 13 April 1995. It is paid to people who are assessed as being incapable of work and who meet certain contribution conditions.

In November 2006 there were 291,000 people in London claiming Incapacity benefit. Overall, London had a low claimant rate for this benefit compared to the country as a whole, due primarily to the capital's younger age structure. The rate for Great Britain was 6.4 per cent compared to a rate for London of 5.6 per cent. The rate for Outer London was 5.0 per cent, whereas at 6.5 per cent, the Inner London rate was nearly equal to the national rate. The overall rates have remained virtually unchanged from 2001 to 2006 (Table 6.10).

None of the London boroughs had an overall claimant rate ranked in the highest 20 local authorities. The London borough of Hackney had the highest rate in London with 8.8 per cent – this is ranked 56th out of 408 local authorities in Great Britain. As with most benefit claimant rates the highest were in Inner London.

Disability Living Allowance (DLA) provides a non-contributory, non means-tested and tax-free contribution for severely disabled people who claim help with those costs before the age of 65. It replaced and extended Attendance Allowance and Mobility Allowance for people in this age group from April 1992. In November 2006 there were 282,000 people in London claiming DLA. The borough claimant rates, when compared to Great Britain, were not particularly high. The claimant rate for those claiming on behalf of under 16 year olds was 2.3 per cent compared to 2.6 per cent for Great Britain as a whole. 7.2 per cent of those aged over 60 claim DLA compared with 8.4 per cent for Great Britain as a whole.

Attendance Allowance (AA) is a benefit for people over the age of 65 who are so severely disabled, physically or mentally, that they need a great deal of help with personal care or supervision. They could need either frequent attention coping with their bodily functions or continual supervision to stop them hurting themselves or others. If the claimant needs help both night and day they qualify for the higher rate.

People who have a terminal illness, and are unlikely to live longer than six months, can claim Attendance Allowance under the 'special rules' provisions. This means that they will automatically receive the higher rate of Attendance Allowance even if they have no care or supervision needs and without the need to satisfy the normal six month qualifying criteria.

People disabled before the age of 65 can claim Disability Living Allowance provided they make their claim prior to their 65th birthday.

There were 142,000 claimants of AA in London in November 2006, which was a claimant rate of 16.1 per cent. The rate for Great Britain as a whole was 17.8 per cent. The rates for both London and Great Britain have been steadily rising since 2002 (Table 6.10).

Housing and Council Tax Benefit

People are eligible to receive Housing Benefit (HB) only if they are liable to pay rent in respect of the dwelling they occupy as their home. Couples are treated as a single benefit unit. The amount of benefit depends on eligible rent, income, deductions in respect of any non-dependants and deductions where food, fuel and water are included. People who are liable to pay rent but who have capital in excess of £16,000 are not entitled to HB.

In November 2006, there were 694,000 households in London claiming HB - 21.5 per cent of all households in

London. The rate was nearly 30 per cent in Inner London. The rate for the whole of Great Britain was 16.4 per cent (Table 6.18).

The London Borough of Hackney had the highest rate of Housing Benefit claimants, not only in London but also in the whole of Great Britain – with 39.2 per cent. This was followed closely by Tower Hamlets with 38.0 per cent – the second highest in the country. There were a further five boroughs with rates over 30 per cent, all of them in Inner London. The boroughs of Richmond upon Thames and Kingston upon Thames had the lowest rates in London. Two-thirds of London boroughs had rates above the Great Britain average and there were eleven with rates that rank amongst the 20 highest in the country.

Council Tax Benefit (CTB) is designed to help people on low incomes pay their council tax. Generally, it mirrors the Housing Benefit scheme in the calculation of claimants' applicable amount, resources and deductions in respect of any non-dependants. Nearly 730,000 households in London were claiming Council Tax Benefit in November 2006, giving a claimant rate of 22.5 per cent. The rate for Great Britain as a whole was 20.7 per cent – just higher than the Outer London rate but much lower than the rate for Inner London at 28 per cent.

Hackney had the highest percentage of households claiming with just over 38 per cent – this was the third highest rate in the country after Sefton and Liverpool in the North West. Tower Hamlets had the 4th highest rate in the country (Table 6.18). Newham, Islington and Barking & Dagenham also had rates that rank amongst the 20 highest in the country. Richmond upon Thames again had the lowest rate in London – just under 12 per cent. Half the London boroughs had rates above the average for Great Britain.

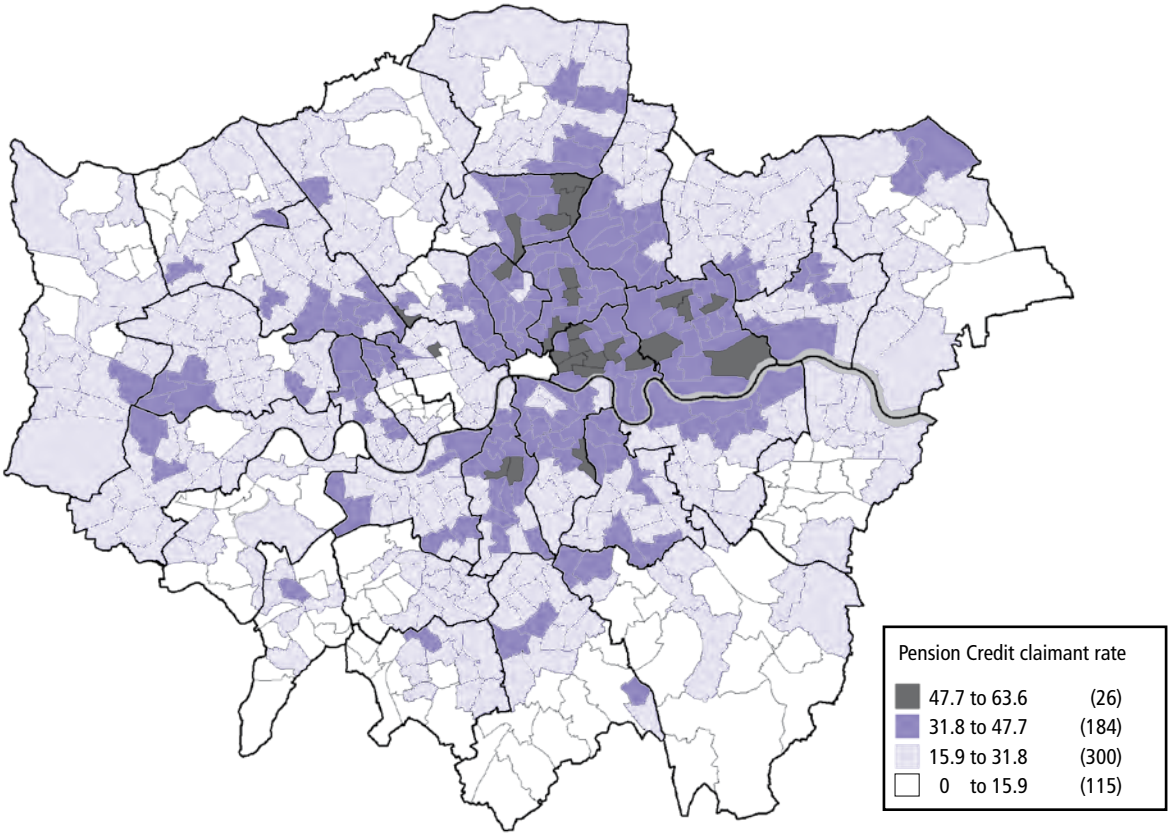
Pension Credit

Pension Credit was introduced in October 2003. It is an entitlement for people aged 60 and over living in Great Britain, designed to give extra help to the poorest

Map 6.11

Pension Credit claimant rates by ward, November 2006

Rates



Source: DWP Information Directorate: Work and Pensions Longitudinal Study

pensioners and also to reward those savers with low or modest incomes who missed out under the previous system. It is not necessary to have paid National Insurance contributions to be eligible.

As Table 6.19 shows there were 292,000 claimants of Pension Credit in London in November 2006, representing 25 per cent of the London population aged 60 and over. Pensioners in London had one of the highest rates of Pension Credit receipt in Great Britain, however, the rate for London as a whole disguises the high rates amongst some boroughs, particularly in Inner London where the overall rate of receipt was a third of the 60 and over population.

Tower Hamlets had the highest claimant rate in London with half those aged 60 and over claiming Pension Credit. It was also the highest rate in Great Britain. The three highest rates in Great Britain belonged to London boroughs: Hackney and Newham being the other two. Islington had the fifth highest rate. The lowest rate in London (apart from the City) is in Bromley with 14.3 per cent followed by Richmond upon Thames with 14.4 per cent (Map 6.11).

Children in families claiming benefit

The 'children' analyses are based on children in families where an adult of working age claims a key benefit (see Notes and Definitions).

In November 2006 there were just over 493,000 children in London in families where an adult of working age was claiming a key benefit. That is 29 per cent of all children in London aged 0 to 18. This was by far the highest rate of all regions in the country. The rate for Great Britain as a whole was 19.5 per cent, (Table 6.10). London accounts for over 19 per cent of all children in Great Britain dependent on benefits.

The DWP have allocated claimants and their families to statistical groups to give an indication of the main reason why they are claiming benefits. Table 6.20 shows the proportion of children in each category. Ten per cent of all children were in the unemployed group – in families receiving Jobseeker's Allowance – slightly higher than the proportion for Great Britain as a whole. London had the smallest proportion in the country of children in the sick and disabled group – 26 per cent, well below the proportion for Great Britain with 36 per cent. London had the highest proportion in the lone parent group with just over 63 per cent, 10 percentage points more then Great Britain.

Not surprisingly within London the rates of children dependent on benefits by London boroughs reflect the general picture for most benefits – with most Inner London boroughs being above the London average. In Inner London as a whole 37 per cent of children are in families claiming a benefit compared to 24 per cent in Outer London.

In Tower Hamlets over half the children aged 0 to 18 are in families dependent on benefits. Tower Hamlets not only has the highest rate in London but also in the whole of Great Britain. The rate is 8 percentage points higher than the rate for Islington, which has the second highest rate in the country and over 10 percentage points higher than Hackney which had a rate of nearly 43 per cent – the third highest rate for a Local Authority in Great Britain. Twelve London boroughs were in the 20 highest rates in the country, with seven of them in the ten highest rates.

The lowest rate in London is in Richmond upon Thames with only 8 per cent of children in families claiming a benefit – this is one of the lowest rates in the country (352nd out of 408).

In terms of the main reason for claiming benefits at the borough level, Tower Hamlets is different to the other boroughs with high claimant rates. Over a fifth (21 per cent) of children in families claiming benefits have been allocated to the unemployed groups compared to only 7 per cent in Islington and Hackney and 11 per cent in Newham. Under 50 per cent of children in benefit claiming families in Tower Hamlets have been allocated to the lone parent group – this is the lowest proportion in London and reflects differences in household structure between Tower Hamlets and other boroughs.

Tax Credits

Working Tax Credits (WTC) are paid to lower income families where an adult is in employment and Child Tax Credits (CTC) are paid to people with children, whether they are in, or out of, work. However this section only covers in-work families.

To qualify for working tax credit a person must be in low-paid work and be:

- over 16, have a child and work at least 16 hours a week; or
- over 16, be disabled and work at least 16 hours a week; or
- over 25 and work at least 30 hours a week; or
- 50 or more, work at least 16 hours a week and be receiving certain benefits.

To qualify for child tax credit a person must be at least 16 and be responsible for a child (i.e. be the main carer). It is paid in addition to child benefit.

In 2005/06 396,000 families received tax credits in London, of these 381,000 were families with children – 44 per cent of all families with children in London. In England and Wales as a whole the percentage that received tax credits was 59 per cent (Table 6.12). The rate for Inner London was only 39 per cent.

In London, 32 per cent of families with children who received tax credits (cases) were lone parent families; this was the highest in England and Wales, which had an overall percentage of 24.2 per cent. In Inner London 42 per cent of cases were lone parent families.

Table 6.21 shows the number of cases in 2005/06 compared with the previous year. There has been little change in numbers, in England and Wales there was a 0.2 per cent decrease from 2004/05 and London had an increase between 2004/05 and 2005/06 of 0.8 per cent.

In Inner London the increase was 1.2 per cent, double that of Outer London.

Deprivation

The Indices of Deprivation 2007 (ID 2007) consist of three separate but related indices used by central government and other bodies to identify areas where disadvantage is concentrated, in order to build programmes or allocate resources appropriately. The indices use statistical techniques to combine information on economic and social issues to produce scores for small areas across the whole of England. These are then used to rank these small areas according to their relative level of deprivation. The Index of Multiple Deprivation (IMD) combines 38 indicators into seven domains:

- Income deprivation
- Employment deprivation
- Health deprivation and disability
- Education, skills and training deprivation
- Barriers to Housing and Services
- Living environment deprivation
- Crime

Of the 33 London local authorities (the 32 boroughs and the City of London), 20 rank within the top 50 of the 354 local authorities in England on at least one of the summary measures of deprivation. These are: Barking and Dagenham, Barnet, Brent, Camden, Croydon, Ealing, Enfield, Greenwich, Hackney, Hammersmith and Fulham, Haringey, Islington, Lambeth, Lewisham, Newham,

Table 6.12

Average number of tax credit cases, change between 2004/05 and 2005/06

Numbers and rates

	Families with children				
	2004/05		2005/06		
	Total cases (000s)	Rate - percent of population (all families with children) %[1]	Total cases (000s)	Rate - percent of population (all families with children) %[1]	Percentage change in numbers, 2004/05 to 2005/06
Inner London	120.6	38.6	122.0	39.0	1.2
Outer London	257.4	46.3	259.0	46.6	0.6
London	378.0	43.5	381.0	43.9	0.8
England and Wales	3,754.0	58.9	3,745.0	58.7	-0.2

1 The rate is as a percentage of all families with children from the 2001 Census

Source: HM Revenue and Customs

Redbridge, Southwark, Tower Hamlets, Waltham Forest and Wandsworth. Of these only Redbridge and Wandsworth were not ranked in the top 50 on the ID2004. Westminster is the only borough ranked in the top 50 in 2004 but not in 2007.

Just two boroughs rank within the top 50 on all six summary measures: Hackney and Tower Hamlets. A further eight boroughs rank in the top 50 on five summary measures: Greenwich, Haringey, Islington, Lambeth, Lewisham, Newham, Southwark and Waltham Forest. Five boroughs are within the top 50 only on the basis of the number of people affected by income deprivation and/or employment deprivation: Barnet, Croydon, Ealing, Enfield, Redbridge and Wandsworth. Boroughs were least likely to rank in the top 50 on the `Local Concentration' measure, which identifies the `hot spots' by calculating the average rank for the most deprived areas containing ten per cent of the borough's population. Only Tower Hamlets and Hackney were in the top 50 (Table 6.22).

Eight LAs within London have shown a change for the better in their relative position, only three of them significant. Camden has the largest improvement in its relative deprivation status according to the ID2007, although it still ranks in the top 50 on three summary measures and in the top 60 in a further two.

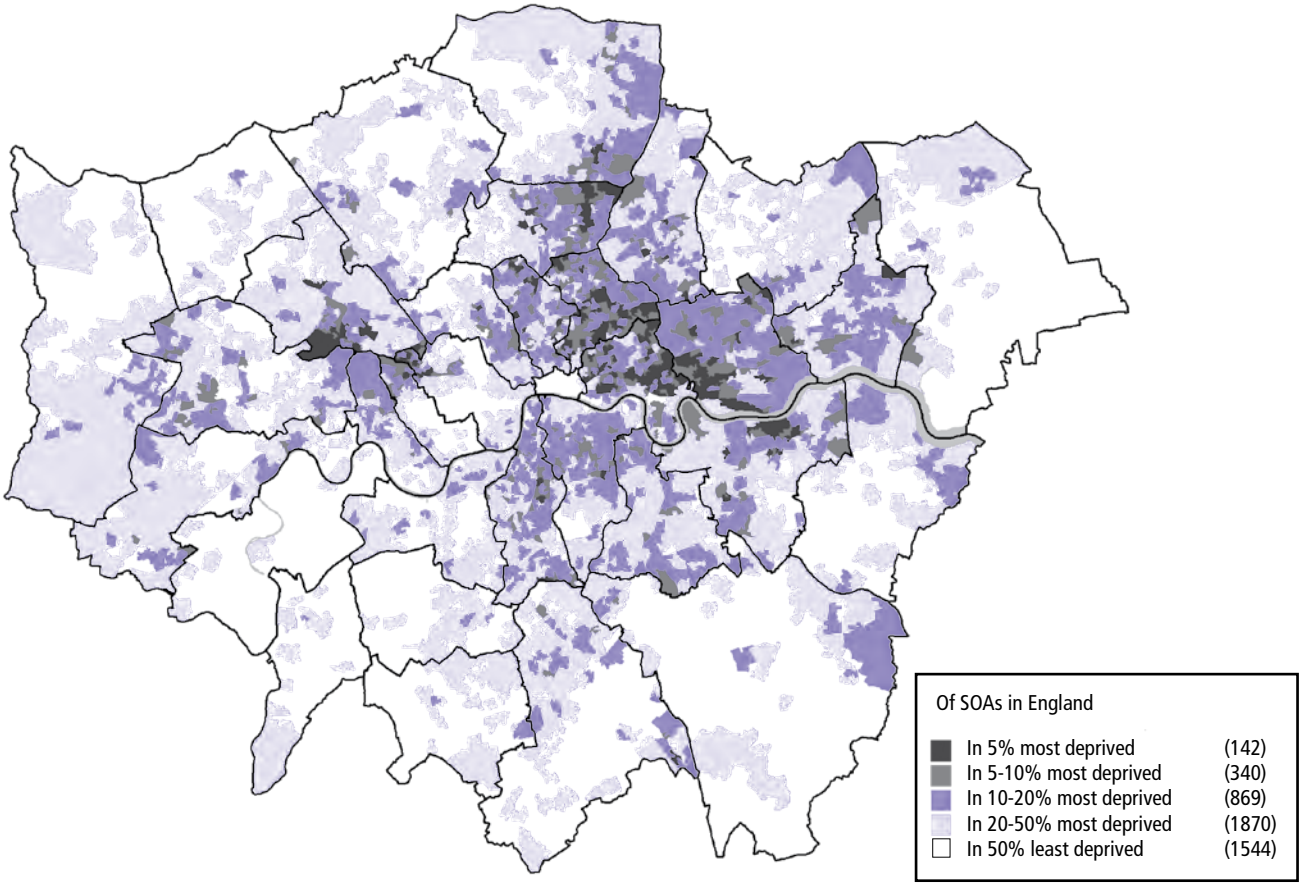
The IMD for small areas within London

Just over ten per cent of London Lower Super Output Areas (LSOAs) are ranked in the ten per cent most deprived areas in the country, a worse position than shown in the ID2004. Additionally, the proportion in the next ten per cent, that is ranked between 10 and 20 per cent most deprived is well above average, at over 18 per cent of all London areas, again higher than in 2004. However, just under three per cent of London LSOAs are

Map 6.13

IMD for Lower Super Output Areas in London in relation to England for 2007

Percentiles



Source: Indices of Deprivation 2007, Department of Communities and Local Government

among the 5 per cent most deprived areas in England, very close to the level in 2004. The percentage of London areas ranking as less deprived than the national average fell from 35 per cent in the IMD2004 to 32 per cent in the IMD2007.

More than half of all London local authorities contain at least one LSOA among the 5 per cent most deprived LSOAs in England, with three boroughs having no LSOAs at all among the least deprived 50 per cent in England: Hackney, Islington and Newham (Map 6.13).

At a regional level, London has just over 28 per cent of its LSOAs ranked among the most deprived 20 per cent in England, behind the North East and North West. At the other end of the scale, London has fewest LSOAs ranked among the 20% least deprived in England (less than 9 per cent).

The domains of the IMD

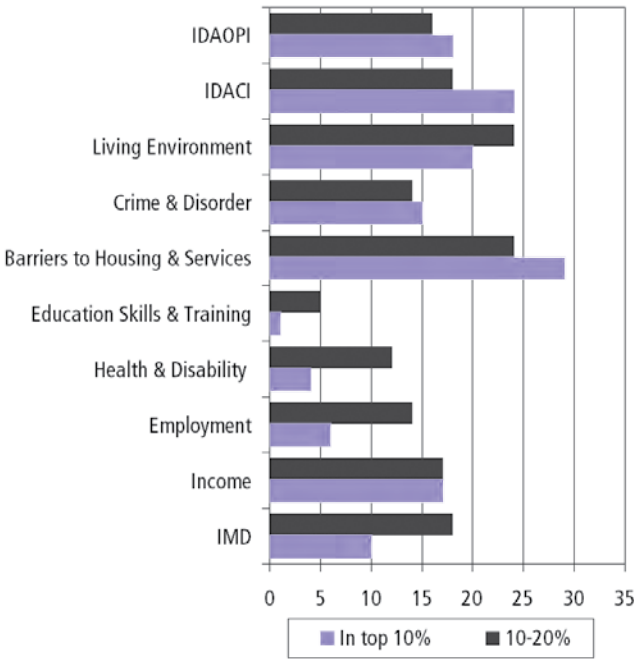
Each of the domains of the IMD measures a different aspect of deprivation. Some areas are ranked highly in terms of deprivation on one measure, but may be ranked very low on another. Overall, London has very few areas with high levels of deprivation in the education, training and skills domain and few ranked highly in terms of health deprivation and disability. In contrast, more than half of London areas rank among the 20 per cent most deprived on the Barriers to Housing and Services domain and there are also many areas that are relatively deprived in terms of income deprivation, crime and living environment. The living environment domain has seen the greatest increase in numbers in the highest 20 per cent since the ID2004, from 37 per cent of London LSOAs to 45 per cent in ID2007.

Figure 6.14 shows what proportions of London LSOAs rank among the most deprived 10 and 20 per cent in England on each of the domains. The chart also shows clearly that the number of areas in London with large proportions of children and older people affected by income deprivation are well above average - around twice as many as would be expected if London had an average profile on these measures. The proportion of LSOAs in the 20 per cent most deprived when looking at children in income deprivation has increased from 36 per cent of areas to 42 per cent.

Figure 6.14

Percentage of London Lower Super Output Areas among the most deprived in England, 2007

Percentages



Abbreviations:
IMD – Index of Multiple Deprivation
IDACI – Income Deprivation Affecting Children Index
IDAOPI – Income Deprivation Affecting Older People Index

Source: Indices of Deprivation 2007, Department of Communities and Local Government

Table 6.15

Children living in households below 60 per cent median income (equivalised), London & Great Britain, 1994-2006

Percentages

	London		Great Britain	
	Before housing costs	After housing costs	Before housing costs	After housing costs
	Three year averages		Three year averages	
1994/97	25	42	25	33
1995/98	26	42	26	33
1996/99	27	42	27	34
1997/00	27	42	26	33
1998/01	27	41	25	33
1999/02	26	40	24	32
2000/03	25	39	23	31
2001/04	26	38	23	30
2002/05	27	40	22	29
2003/06	26	41	22	29
	Single year estimates		Single year estimates	
1994/95	25	40	25	33
1995/96	24	41	24	33
1996/97	27	43	27	34
1997/98	28	43	27	33
1998/99	26	40	26	34
1999/00	27	41	26	33
2000/01	27	41	23	31
2001/02	24	37	23	31
2002/03	26	38	23	30
2003/04	27	40	22	29
2004/05	27	41	21	28
2005/06	24	40	22	30

1 Based on OECD equivalisation scales.

Source: Department for Work and Pensions, Households Below Average Income

Table 6.16

Income Support claimants: rates and borough rankings, November 2006

Rates, ranks and numbers

	Total Claimants (000s)	Claimant rate[1] (%)	Rank of rate (1=highest rate out of 408 in GB)
City of London	0.16	2.9	347
Barking and Dagenham	11.19	11.3	7
Barnet	12.07	6.0	146
Bexley	6.70	5.1	187
Brent	15.09	8.4	49
Bromley	8.70	5.0	199
Camden	13.36	8.2	60
Croydon	14.96	7.2	86
Ealing	14.06	6.9	98
Enfield	15.61	8.9	40
Greenwich	14.60	10.3	14
Hackney	18.39	13.3	2
Hammersmith and Fulham	9.93	8.2	57
Haringey	16.75	10.9	10
Harrow	7.15	5.4	175
Havering	6.83	5.2	185
Hillingdon	9.44	6.1	137
Hounslow	9.80	6.8	105
Islington	15.65	11.8	6
Kensington and Chelsea	6.97	5.8	154
Kingston upon Thames	3.56	3.5	297
Lambeth	18.57	9.7	23
Lewisham	16.02	9.3	28
Merton	5.58	4.3	251
Newham	18.41	11.3	8
Redbridge	10.01	6.5	122
Richmond upon Thames	3.67	3.2	317
Southwark	17.69	9.4	25
Sutton	5.09	4.5	232
Tower Hamlets	15.77	10.7	12
Waltham Forest	12.50	8.8	43
Wandsworth	11.05	5.5	169
Westminster	11.54	6.9	102
Inner London	190.26	9.2	-
Outer London	186.61	6.6	-
London	376.87	7.7	-
Great Britain	2,141.95	6.1	-

1 Rates are calculated as a percentage of 2006 mid-year estimates from the ONS.

Source: DWP Information Directorate: Work and Pensions Longitudinal Study

Table 6.17

Jobseeker's Allowance claimant rates and borough rankings, November 2006

Rates, ranks and numbers

	Total Claimants (000s)	Claimant rate[1] (%)	Rank of rate (1=highest rate out of 408 in GB)
City of London	0.13	2.2	167
Barking and Dagenham	3.98	3.9	31
Barnet	5.01	2.4	137
Bexley	2.96	2.2	171
Brent	7.48	4.1	25
Bromley	3.47	1.9	213
Camden	4.98	3.0	73
Croydon	5.96	2.8	95
Ealing	6.06	2.9	82
Enfield	6.43	3.5	43
Greenwich	5.48	3.8	37
Hackney	7.81	5.6	3
Hammersmith and Fulham	3.82	3.1	63
Haringey	7.85	5.0	8
Harrow	2.98	2.2	172
Havering	2.55	1.9	223
Hillingdon	3.59	2.2	162
Hounslow	3.38	2.3	151
Islington	5.74	4.3	20
Kensington and Chelsea	2.57	2.1	192
Kingston upon Thames	1.29	1.2	330
Lambeth	8.58	4.4	16
Lewisham	7.02	4.0	26
Merton	2.81	2.1	188
Newham	8.06	4.9	11
Redbridge	4.40	2.8	96
Richmond upon Thames	1.56	1.3	307
Southwark	7.78	4.1	24
Sutton	1.99	1.7	244
Tower Hamlets	8.39	5.6	2
Waltham Forest	6.53	4.5	15
Wandsworth	4.79	2.3	144
Westminster	3.93	2.3	155
Inner London	81.45	3.9	
Outer London	77.91	2.7	
London	159.36	3.2	
Great Britain	904.23	2.5	

1 Rates are calculated as a percentage of 2006 mid-year estimates from the ONS.

Source: DWP Information Directorate: Work and Pensions Longitudinal Study

Table 6.18

Housing and Council Tax Benefit recipients, November 2006

Rates, ranks and numbers

	All HB recipients (000s)	All HB recipients as % of all households[1]	Rank of rate (1=highest rate out of 408 in GB)	All CTB recipients (000s)	All CTB recipients as % of all households[1]	Rank of rate (1=highest rate out of 408 in GB)
City of London	1.2	30.0	11	-	-	-
Barking and Dagenham	18.2	27.6	14	21.6	32.7	16
Barnet	21.0	16.2	135	24.3	18.7	190
Bexley	11.6	12.8	224	15.1	16.6	251
Brent	27.8	25.1	30	28.2	25.4	70
Bromley	15.7	12.3	244	18.4	14.4	313
Camden	28.2	30.3	10	25.5	27.4	50
Croydon	26.5	19.1	83	29.1	20.9	149
Ealing	24.2	19.1	84	26.0	20.5	156
Enfield	24.4	21.4	53	29.7	26.1	59
Greenwich	25.5	27.4	16	26.5	28.5	40
Hackney	35.3	39.2	1	34.5	38.3	3
Hammersmith and Fulham	20.5	25.3	27	18.5	22.8	112
Haringey	31.6	32.9	6	30.5	31.8	21
Harrow	12.5	14.9	171	14.5	17.3	228
Havering	11.1	11.9	259	17.1	18.4	202
Hillingdon	16.1	16.1	140	18.5	18.5	197
Hounslow	17.1	19.4	75	19.2	21.8	131
Islington	29.5	36.0	4	28.2	34.4	10
Kensington and Chelsea	10.5	12.7	227	14.0	16.9	240
Kingston upon Thames	7.2	11.4	282	8.1	12.9	345
Lambeth	36.0	28.1	13	33.3	26.0	61
Lewisham	29.5	26.3	22	28.9	25.8	63
Merton	10.4	12.7	228	12.2	14.9	298
Newham	34.1	36.3	3	34.4	36.6	7
Redbridge	14.4	15.0	165	19.6	20.4	159
Richmond upon Thames	8.0	10.3	319	9.3	11.9	367
Southwark	35.2	30.9	9	33.7	29.6	36
Sutton	9.6	12.5	237	11.3	14.7	307
Tower Hamlets	31.9	38.0	2	32.2	38.3	4
Waltham Forest	21.9	23.3	39	25.0	26.6	57
Wandsworth	23.6	19.7	70	21.1	17.6	223
Westminster	24.0	26.7	20	19.9	22.1	120
Inner London	371.1	29.2	-	354.7	28.0	-
Outer London	323.2	17.5	-	373.7	20.2	-
London	694.3	21.5	-	728.9	22.5	-
Great Britain	4,028.8	16.4	-	5,084.3	20.7	-

1 Household figures for rates: Mid-2004 household projections, CLG.

Source: DWP Information Directorate

Table 6.19

Pension Credit claimants, by London borough, November 2006

Rates, ranks and numbers

	Total Claimants (000s)	Claimant rate[1] (%)	Rank of rate (1=highest rate out of 408 in GB)
City of London	0.17	11.7	393
Barking and Dagenham	8.42	30.7	30
Barnet	11.39	19.1	207
Bexley	7.34	15.8	301
Brent	12.22	29.1	42
Bromley	9.33	14.3	351
Camden	8.69	30.7	31
Croydon	11.21	19.3	199
Ealing	12.06	26.3	69
Enfield	11.75	23.5	116
Greenwich	9.40	27.0	64
Hackney	10.65	43.8	2
Hammersmith and Fulham	6.64	28.9	44
Haringey	10.14	35.8	13
Harrow	8.08	20.1	183
Havering	9.34	17.9	243
Hillingdon	8.07	18.1	232
Hounslow	8.18	25.4	78
Islington	9.30	40.5	5
Kensington and Chelsea	5.87	19.6	192
Kingston upon Thames	3.98	15.5	312
Lambeth	11.21	36.2	11
Lewisham	10.40	30.9	28
Merton	5.82	18.8	216
Newham	11.91	43.7	3
Redbridge	9.72	22.5	132
Richmond upon Thames	4.48	14.4	345
Southwark	11.24	34.0	17
Sutton	5.70	16.7	273
Tower Hamlets	11.21	51.2	1
Waltham Forest	9.83	30.3	34
Wandsworth	9.90	28.1	51
Westminster	8.28	24.1	106
Inner London	125.61	33.5	-
Outer London	166.32	20.9	-
London	291.93	24.9	-
Great Britain	2738.56	21.7	-

1 Rates are calculated as a percentage of all those aged 60+ from the 2006 mid-year estimates, ONS.

Source: DWP Information Directorate: Work and Pensions Longitudinal Study

Table 6.20

Children in families on key benefits, by Statistical Group, November 2006

Rates, ranks and numbers

	All Claimants (000s)	Claimant rate[1] (%)	Rank of rate (1=highest rate out of 408 in GB)	Statistical Group - % of total			
				Unemployed	Sick/ Disabled	Lone Parents	Others[3]
City of London[2]	0.2	-	-	-	-	-	-
Barking and Dagenham	16.2	35.3	12	9	25	65	1
Barnet	16.2	20.7	114	8	27	64	1
Bexley	8.6	15.9	196	8	28	63	1
Brent	21.8	36.0	11	12	25	61	3
Bromley	11.3	16.1	193	7	29	64	1
Camden	13.7	32.9	20	10	28	61	1
Croydon	21.6	25.7	53	9	20	68	3
Ealing	19.8	29.0	33	9	30	60	2
Enfield	23.5	33.2	19	14	29	57	1
Greenwich	18.8	34.3	16	7	21	70	2
Hackney	23.0	42.6	3	7	22	68	2
Hammersmith and Fulham	10.4	32.4	23	7	28	65	1
Haringey	21.1	40.7	6	6	26	65	2
Harrow	10.0	19.4	139	16	29	52	2
Havering	8.8	16.7	180	8	34	56	2
Hillingdon	14.1	23.1	83	11	27	60	2
Hounslow	14.3	28.2	39	6	27	65	3
Islington	16.2	45.1	2	7	19	71	3
Kensington and Chelsea	6.1	19.2	144	7	33	57	3
Kingston upon Thames	3.8	11.3	297	13	29	58	-
Lambeth	20.8	36.6	8	7	21	71	1
Lewisham	19.3	32.5	22	7	24	68	1
Merton	8.7	20.4	118	13	21	64	2
Newham	29.3	42.1	5	11	27	60	3
Redbridge	14.8	23.1	82	13	26	57	4
Richmond upon Thames	3.4	8.4	352	9	29	62	3
Southwark	21.6	37.7	7	5	22	71	1
Sutton	6.4	14.5	223	9	28	59	3
Tower Hamlets	27.3	52.8	1	21	28	47	4
Waltham Forest	19.2	35.0	13	14	23	60	3
Wandsworth	12.6	25.6	54	10	25	65	1
Westminster	10.7	30.2	31	8	38	50	3
Inner London	232.3	37.0		9	25	63	2
Outer London	261.3	24.1		10	26	62	2
London	493.6	28.9		10	26	63	2
Great Britain	2,631.80	19.5		9	36	53	2

1 Rates are calculated as a percentage of all aged 0-18 from the 2006 mid-year estimates, ONS.
2 City of London is Nil or Negligible.
3 Most of these figures are subject to a high degree of sampling error and should only be used as a guide.

Source: DWP Information Directorate: Work and Pensions Longitudinal Study

Table 6.21

Average number of tax credit cases by London borough, 2005/06

Rates and numbers

	All cases - including those without children (000s)	Families with children			
		All cases with children (000s)	Rate - percent of population[2] (families with children) %	of which, lone parents (000s)	Lone parents - percent of all cases (%)
Barking and Dagenham	12.30	11.84	52.1	3.58	30.2
Barnet	14.80	14.25	36.5	3.81	26.7
Bexley	16.36	15.91	57.1	3.70	23.3
Brent	15.49	14.83	45.2	4.74	32.0
Bromley	16.30	15.88	43.4	4.25	26.8
Camden	6.13	5.70	29.2	2.07	36.3
Croydon	21.83	21.27	47.6	7.24	34.0
Ealing	16.34	15.79	43.2	4.04	25.6
Enfield	17.05	16.61	46.3	4.78	28.8
Greenwich	13.77	13.10	47.3	4.84	36.9
Hackney	11.54	10.93	42.7	4.72	43.2
Hammersmith and Fulham	5.09	4.78	29.6	2.28	47.7
Haringey	10.71	10.13	38.1	4.37	43.1
Harrow	12.49	12.18	46.7	2.44	20.0
Havering	15.38	15.01	55.3	3.13	20.9
Hillingdon	16.26	15.96	51.9	3.70	23.2
Hounslow	13.58	13.17	49.3	3.20	24.3
Islington	6.70	6.25	32.3	2.83	45.3
Kensington and Chelsea	2.99	2.76	18.4	1.14	41.3
Kingston upon Thames	7.35	7.17	41.3	1.61	22.5
Lambeth	13.73	13.01	42.2	6.84	52.6
Lewisham	15.39	14.73	45.4	6.80	46.2
Merton	9.95	9.67	43.0	2.66	27.5
Newham	17.86	17.02	49.6	5.29	31.1
Redbridge	14.87	14.43	47.0	3.26	22.6
Richmond upon Thames	5.83	5.67	28.2	1.52	26.8
Southwark	13.76	13.09	44.2	7.08	54.1
Sutton	12.17	11.91	52.1	2.78	23.3
Tower Hamlets	9.85	9.45	42.8	2.13	22.5
Waltham Forest	14.83	14.34	51.3	4.49	31.3
Wandsworth	9.53	9.06	35.4	3.74	41.3
Westminster/City of London[1]	5.40	5.09	32.5	1.61	31.6
Inner London	128.68	122.00	39.0	50.90	41.7
Outer London	266.95	258.99	46.6	69.77	26.9
London	395.63	380.99	43.9	120.67	31.7
England and Wales	3,972.00	3,745.00	58.7	908.00	24.2

1 The City of London contributes 200 to the total number of awards.
2 The rate is as a percentage of all families with children from the 2001 Census.

Source: HM Revenue and Customs

Table 6.22

Borough ranks on summary measures of IMD2007[1]

Ranks

	Rank of Average Score	Rank of Average Rank	Rank of Extent	Rank of Local Concentration	Rank of Income Scale	Rank of Employment Scale
City of London	252	253	209	223	353	353
Barking and Dagenham	**22**	**11**	**21**	74	**47**	64
Barnet	128	112	146	149	**38**	53
Bexley	194	199	177	178	86	92
Brent	53	**30**	74	72	**19**	**32**
Bromley	228	241	179	173	66	70
Camden	57	**42**	57	108	**42**	**43**
Croydon	125	123	129	144	**25**	**41**
Ealing	84	75	91	116	**22**	**35**
Enfield	74	70	76	100	**17**	**37**
Greenwich	**24**	**17**	**26**	61	**33**	**48**
Hackney	**2**	**1**	**1**	**39**	**10**	**24**
Hammersmith and Fulham	59	**38**	72	113	65	72
Haringey	**18**	**13**	**13**	57	**14**	**29**
Harrow	205	196	218	211	69	85
Havering	200	197	187	186	79	83
Hillingdon	157	153	183	188	59	71
Hounslow	105	83	136	155	53	69
Islington	**8**	**6**	**6**	56	**36**	**39**
Kensington and Chelsea	101	98	94	110	95	99
Kingston upon Thames	245	244	261	254	155	184
Lambeth	**19**	**9**	**17**	93	**16**	**16**
Lewisham	**39**	**22**	**47**	122	**28**	**31**
Merton	222	223	215	213	89	108
Newham	**6**	**2**	**2**	51	**7**	**26**
Redbridge	143	121	172	175	**46**	63
Richmond upon Thames	309	310	271	291	150	168
Southwark	**26**	**19**	**18**	104	**18**	**22**
Sutton	234	240	199	197	110	126
Tower Hamlets	**3**	**3**	**3**	**21**	**8**	**36**
Waltham Forest	**27**	**15**	**30**	73	**30**	**50**
Wandsworth	144	128	159	166	**49**	54
Westminster	72	67	79	69	57	60

1 Figures in bold denote rank inside top 50.

Source: Department for Communities and Local Government, Indices of Deprivation 2007

Health

Chapter 7

- Males in London have a life expectancy at birth of 77.4, which has increased from 73.9 in 1994-96. For females life expectancy increased from 79.7 in 1994-96 to 82.0 in 2004-06.
- The highest life expectancies both in London and in England and Wales are in Kensington and Chelsea, where expectancy for men is 83.1 years and for women is 87.2 years. The lowest expectation of life in London for males is in Islington (74.9 years) and for females is in Newham (79.4 years).
- Among men, the life expectancy at 65 in the UK is 17.0 additional years compared with 17.5 in London. Women in London have a life expectancy at 65 of 20.3 years compared with 19.8 in the UK on average.
- Disabled Londoners comprise 17 per cent of London's working-age population, around 805,000 people according to the 2006 APS. This is slightly lower than the UK figure of 19 per cent. Almost one-third (31 per cent) of disabled Londoners reported musculo-skeletal problems as their main impairment.
- The employment rate for disabled people living in London (46 per cent) is lower than the rate for those in the rest of the UK (49 per cent), although this is consistent with the rates among the population who have no disability, which are also lower in London relative to those in the rest of the UK (69 and 74 per cent).
- Only four per cent of London Lower Super Output Areas (LSOAs) appear in the bottom ten per cent of all LSOAs nationally for the Health Deprivation and Disability Domain in the Indices of Multiple deprivation (IMD) 2007. However, London has just over half (55 per cent) of its LSOAs in the 50 per cent most health deprived.
- The rate of alcohol-attributable mortality for men in London under 75 years is 34.3 per 100,000, slightly better than the national average (35.6). For women the pattern is the same but rates are far lower.
- The rate of alcohol-specific mortality is linked to deprivation. In men aged under 75 in London the directly-standardised rate per 100,000, ranges from 3.9 in men classified in the least deprived quintile, to 17.9 in the most deprived quintile.
- The age-standardised rate of hospital admissions due to alcohol increased in London for men from 627 per 100,000 in 2001/02 to 896 in 2005/06, while for women the rate increased from 311 to 449.

Introduction

The health indicators in this chapter show aspects of both good and poor health in London. For example:

- The capital has seen the biggest improvements of life expectancy in the country but still has the greatest differential between male and female life expectancies – an indicator of deprivation.

- The rate of disability among London's working-age population is lower than in the UK as a whole (17 and 19 per cent). However, the employment rate of disabled people is 46 per cent in London compared with 49 per cent for the UK, which is in line with the difference in rates for those without a disability.

- There is a wide variation of London Lower Super Output Areas (LSOAs) across the deciles of the health and disability domain in the Indices of Multiple Deprivation 2007, indicating that there are high numbers of both relatively healthy and unhealthy areas in London.

- Alcohol-attributable mortality rates are improving in London while binge drinking and average alcohol consumption are relatively low in London when compared with other regions, but hospital admissions for alcohol-attributable conditions are increasing and alcohol-related violent crime rates are high in London.

This chapter will focus on four different aspects of health in London - life expectancy, people with disabilities, health deprivation according to the Indices of Multiple Deprivation 2007 and the effect of alcohol on health.

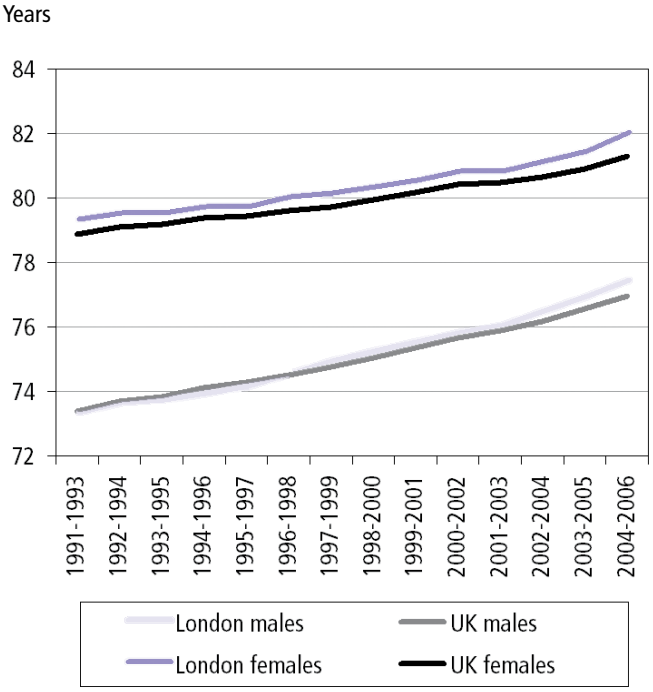
Life Expectancy

For the UK, expectation of life at birth has increased over the last decade; for males there has been an increase of 2.86 years between 1994-96 and 2004-06 to reach 77.0 years, while for females the increase has been more modest at 1.91 years, reaching 81.3 years. In 1994-96 female life expectancy was 5.28 years more than for males; by 2004-06 this gap had closed to 4.33 years. At a national level, for both males and females, the highest expectancies are seen in England and the lowest in Scotland.

The most recent data (2004-06) shows males in London have a life expectancy at birth of 77.4, which has increased from 73.9 in 1994-96. For females life expectancy increased from 79.7 in 1994-96 to 82.0 in 2004-06 (Figure 7.1). All regions have seen an increase in life expectancy over the decade. However, the largest increases for both males and females are in London, where there was an increase of 3.52 years for males and 2.30 for females.

Figure 7.1

Life expectancy at birth by sex, 1991-93 to 2004-06



Source: Office for National Statistics

The most recent data (2004-06) shows that males and females in London have higher life expectancies than England and have the fourth highest expectancies after South East, South West and East regions.

As with the UK as a whole the gender gap is closing for all regions. London has seen the greatest reduction in the gender gap between 1994-96 and 2004-06, falling 1.22 years to 4.58 years. Despite this fall, the greatest differential between male and female life expectancies remains in London compared with the smallest differential in the South East (3.86 years). There have been studies that have showed that differences between sexes are most marked in areas of high deprivation.

The lowest expectancy in England and Wales at local authority level for males is found in Manchester (73.0

years) and for females in Liverpool (78.3 years). The highest life expectancies both in London and in England and Wales are in Kensington and Chelsea, where expectancy for men is 83.1 years and for women is 87.2 years. The lowest expectation of life in London for males is in Islington (74.9 years) and for females is in Newham (79.4 years).

It should be noted that these data are critically dependent upon the accuracy of the population estimates that underpin them. If the estimates are generally (across the age groups) too high then the life expectancy at birth will also be too high, and vice versa.

ONS also produce life expectancy at age 65, which is an estimate of the average number of years a 65 year old would survive if he or she experienced the age-specific mortality rates for that particular area throughout the rest of his or her life. The figure reflects mortality among those living in the area, rather than mortality among those born in the area.

Life expectancy at 65 is higher than that from birth because it reflects the fact that survival from a particular age depends only on the mortality rates beyond that age, whereas survival from birth is based on mortality rates at every age.

Life expectancies at age 65 show a similar geographical pattern to the results at birth with the highest expectancies being in South West followed by South East, East and London regions and the North East having the lowest expectancies in 2004-06.

Among men, the life expectancy at 65 in the UK is 17.0 additional years compared with 17.5 in London. Women in London have a life expectancy at 65 of 20.3 years compared with 19.8 in the UK on average. The differential between men and women in London is 2.84 years, slightly higher than the UK difference of 2.74 years (Table 7.2).

Since 2000-02, London has seen the greatest increase in life expectancy at 65 for both men and women. For men the estimate has increased by 1.3 years compared with 1.0 years in the UK as a whole, while for women the estimate has increased by 0.8 compared with 0.7 in the UK.

Table 7.2

Life expectancy at age 65 (years), by sex by Government Office Region, 2004-2006[1]

Years

	Males	Females
North East	16.2	18.8
North West	16.3	19.1
Yorkshire and The Humber	16.8	19.6
East Midlands	17.1	19.7
West Midlands	16.8	19.7
East	17.6	20.3
London	17.5	20.3
South East	17.9	20.5
South West	17.9	20.8
UK	17.0	19.8

1 In each region the 95% confidence interval is +/- 0.1 years.

Source: Office for National Statistics

Life expectancy targets for Spearhead authorities

Government-wide targets known as Public Service Agreements, set targets in 2001 to reduce health inequalities. They aim for faster improvement in health outcomes in the fifth of areas with the worst health and deprivation indices (in life expectancy, death from heart disease and stroke, and cancers). These areas are known as Spearhead authorities of which there are 11 in London, mostly located in east London, both north and south of the Thames (see Notes and Definitions).

Life expectancy in the London Spearhead Group was 74.6 for males in 2002-04, compared with 76.6 in England. In females life expectancy was 79.9 and 80.9 respectively.

Research by the London Health Observatory indicates if London's 11 Spearhead authorities could increase life expectancy to that of England overall in 2002-4, over 1,300 lives would be saved annually in the capital. Excess deaths from heart disease and stroke account for 30 per cent of the life expectancy gap between the London Spearhead group and England. A further 20 per cent is made up of deaths from cancers.

By eradicating excess deaths from smoking alone (which includes a significant proportion of deaths from heart disease, stroke and cancers) that would reduce the life

expectancy gap by 37 per cent in men and 30 per cent in women.

Unlike the national picture, improvements in life expectancy between the London Spearhead group and England is on track to meet the life expectancy government target for a 10 per cent reduction in the gap. However, the inequalities gap in heart disease and stroke between the London Spearhead group and England continues to widen.

Disability by main impairment

The Annual Population Survey (APS) is a large ONS sample survey of UK households. The APS is designed to collect a wide range of data about people and their labour market circumstances. The survey has a relatively large sample (around 360,000 people in the UK and 30,000 in London) and has wide topic coverage, which includes health.

Respondents are asked to say, out of a list of 16 different health problems/disabilities which they have, or to say 'other' if their health problem is not one of the options. If they list more than one, they are also asked to specify which is their main health problem/disability. Health questions on the survey are only asked to people of working age.

Disabled people are defined here as those who have a current long-term disability according to the Disability Discrimination Act 1995 (DDA) definition and/or the APS work-limiting definition of disability (see Notes and Definitions).

Disabled Londoners comprise 17 per cent of London's working-age population, around 805,000 people according to the 2006 APS. This was slightly lower than the UK figure of 19 per cent. Almost one-third (31 per cent) of disabled Londoners reported musculo-skeletal problems as their main impairment. Within this group, the largest group were those reporting problems with their back or neck (17 per cent). A further 9 per cent reported problems with their legs or feet and 5 per cent with their arms or hands.

Eleven per cent of disabled Londoners reported heart, blood pressure and circulation as their main problem and 10 per cent cited problems with their chest and breathing. Seven per cent reported diabetes as their main health problem. Around one in nine disabled Londoners (11 per cent) suffered from mental health problems as their main impairment, which included those suffering from depression, bad nerves, mental illness, phobia and panic attacks (Figure 7.3).

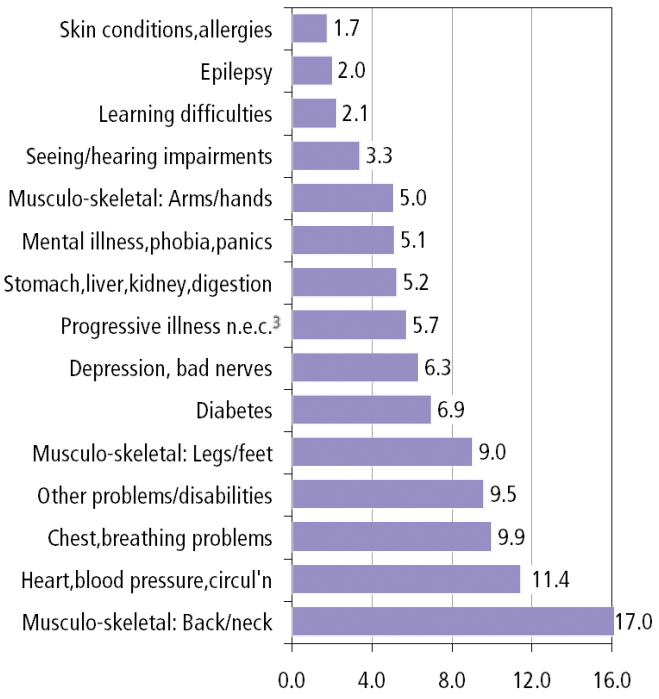
Other problems reported included: stomach and digestive problems; progressive illnesses; epilepsy; sensory impairments (i.e. seeing/hearing), learning difficulties; skin conditions or allergies. These groups were smaller in size each comprising between 1 and 5 per cent of the disabled population.

One in ten disabled people had a main health problem or impairment classed as 'Other', with no further disaggregation. It is important to bear in mind that these percentages are not prevalence rates because disabled people may and often do have more than one impairment, and importantly the data excludes children

Figure 7.3

Disabled people[1] by main health problem or impairment, persons working age, London, 2006[2]

Percentages



1 Base = 805,000 (working-age disabled people).
2 All figures which are 3.3 per cent or less are based on relatively small samples of less than 100, and are subject to high levels of sampling variability.
3 n.e.c. = not elsewhere classified.

Source: Annual Population Survey 2006 (January-December)

and older people. Furthermore, many people who are not disabled may report similar health problems/ impairments but are not included here as they would not necessarily be defined as disabled under APS/DDA definitions (see Notes and Definitions).

The percentage of the population who have a disability increases with age. Eight per cent of young Londoners (aged 16 to 24) are disabled relative to one third (33 per cent) of those aged 55 to retirement age. The strong association between disability and age is evident for both men and women, though women have slightly higher rates of disability than men across most age groups, other than at age 16 to 24 where men have slightly higher rates than women (Figure 7.4). Overall, 16 per cent of women aged 16 to 59 are disabled relative to 15 per cent of men aged 16 to 59.

The employment rate for disabled people living in London (46 per cent) was lower than the rate for those in the rest of the UK (49 per cent). Within the population who have no disability (including full-time students), employment rates were also lower in London relative to those in the rest of the UK (69 and 74 per cent).

Of the total disabled population, almost two-thirds (62 per cent) were disabled according to both the DDA and work-limiting definitions – 10 per cent of the working-age population. The remainder were disabled according to one disability definition only and accounted for around 3 per cent of the working age population each.

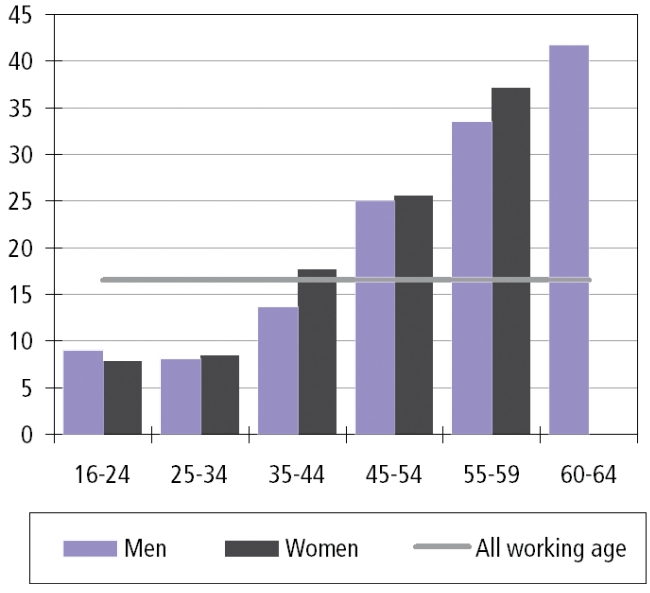
Those who were disabled according to the DDA definition but not according to the work-limiting definition had a much higher employment rate (74 per cent), which was the same employment rate for the population for those without disabilities (74 per cent). By definition, this group have said that their health problem does not affect the type or amount of work they can do, consistent with their higher participation rates. The employment rate for all those who were work-limiting disabled but not DDA disabled was 61 per cent and the rate for those who were disabled according to both the DDA and APS work-limiting definitions of disability was very low at 32 per cent (Table 7.5).

Disabled people who reported mental health problems (including depression) had by far the lowest employment rate of all groups. In London, the employment rate for this group was 19 per cent, similar to the rate nationally (21 per cent). The rate for those with musulo-skeletal problems (including back, neck, hands, feet, arms and legs) was 47 per cent compared with 49 per cent in the UK. The comparison between London and UK employment rates for many of the health problems showed the rates to be either very close or London

Figure 7.4

Working age[1] population with disability by age and gender, 2006[2]

Percentages



1 Working age is 16 to 64 for men and 16 to 59 for women.
2 Percentages for men and women aged 16-24 and for men aged 25-34 are based on samples of 100 to 200 and will have higher levels of sampling variability.

Source: Annual Population Survey 2006 (January-December)

Table 7.5

Working-age employment rates by current disability, 2006

Percentages

	London	UK
DDA disabled and work-limiting disabled	32	33
DDA disabled only	74	81
Work-limiting disabled only	61	67
All disabled	46	49
Not disabled	74	80
All working-age	69	74

Source: Annual Population Survey 2006

to have slightly lower rates. However, there are a few categories where employment rates were considerably lower in London than the UK. These included those with stomach, liver, kidney or digestion problems (9 percentage points lower in London), learning difficulties and difficulty in seeing (both 8 percentage points lower in London).

Health Deprivation and Disability domain

The Indices of Multiple deprivation (IMD) 2007 are a measure of multiple deprivation at the small area level. Scores are calculated for all Lower Super Output Areas (LSOAs) in England and summaries are presented at district and county council levels (see Notes and Definitions). The 2007 IMD contains seven Domains, and includes the Health Deprivation and Disability Domain.

This domain measures rates of poor health, early mortality and disability and covers the entire age range.

There are 208 LSOAs in London that appear in the bottom 10 per cent of all LSOAs nationally for this domain. That accounts for 4 per cent of all LSOAs in London, which is a considerably lower proportion than in the North East (31 per cent), North West (28 per cent), Yorkshire and The Humber (14 per cent) and West Midlands (11 per cent) regions. The South East and East regions only have 1 per cent of LSOAs in the bottom decile.

Measures included in the Health Deprivation and Disability Domain

- Years of Potential Life Lost (YPLL) (2001 to 2005)
- Comparative Illness and Disability Ratio (CIDR) (2005)
- Measures of acute morbidity, derived from Hospital Episode Statistics (2004 to 2005)
- The proportion of adults under 60 suffering from mood or anxiety disorders based on prescribing (2005), Hospital Episode Statistics (2004 to 2005) and Incapacity Benefit data (2005).

London has just over half of its LSOAs in the 50 per cent most health deprived (55 per cent). The North East (84 per cent) and North West (78 per cent) have by far the highest proportions in the bottom half.

Each of the five 'healthiest' deciles contain 9 per cent of London's LSOAs. While most regions have a concentration of LSOAs at either end of the scale, London has a fairly even spread throughout the ten deciles. Only the East Midlands region has a slightly more even spread than London (Table 7.6).

Within London, there are 19 boroughs with at least one LSOA in the bottom decile. Six of these boroughs have more than ten LSOAs in the bottom decile, and they are Tower Hamlets (46 LSOAs), Islington (32), Hackney (30), Newham (27), Camden (14) and Greenwich (12).

Table 7.6

Lower Super Output Areas falling into each decile for the Indices of Multiple Deprivation 2007 Health domain by region

Percentages

	Most health deprived									Least health deprived
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th
North East	31	18	14	10	10	8	5	3	1	0
North West	28	15	13	12	10	8	6	5	2	1
Yorkshire and The Humber	14	14	11	11	12	10	10	8	7	4
East Midlands	8	10	10	10	10	11	12	12	11	7
West Midlands	11	15	12	11	12	11	11	9	5	3
East	1	3	6	8	10	11	12	15	18	16
London	4	12	15	13	11	9	9	9	9	9
South East	1	3	5	7	7	9	10	12	15	30
South West	3	5	6	9	11	13	14	16	16	7
England	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10

Source: Department for Communities and Local Government

Table 7.7

Rate of alcohol-attributable mortality for people aged under 75 (directly standardised rate) per 100,000, 2001 to 2005

Rates per 100,000 males/females

	Males					Females				
	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
North East	40.2	41.6	41.6	46.0	42.6	18.8	16.5	18.8	19.5	17.9
North West	44.5	43.6	45.0	44.3	45.7	20.2	19.5	19.3	20.3	20.0
Yorkshire and The Humber	34.6	35.6	37.3	36.6	38.9	14.7	14.7	15.7	15.9	15.3
East Midlands	33.4	33.5	34.2	32.5	33.5	14.5	15.9	15.5	16.6	15.2
West Midlands	38.9	38.9	41.9	39.6	39.5	16.8	16.6	15.9	17.3	17.3
East	28.7	30.1	29.4	28.0	28.5	12.6	13.2	12.5	12.7	12.8
London	37.8	37.3	38.3	35.8	34.3	15.3	14.7	15.3	13.7	13.3
South East	32.0	31.4	31.9	30.3	30.2	13.2	13.4	13.4	13.3	13.5
South West	31.4	31.9	31.3	30.9	33.3	13.7	13.6	12.9	12.6	12.8
England	35.4	35.5	36.3	35.2	35.6	15.3	15.2	15.2	15.5	15.1

Source: North West Public Health Observatory from Office for National Statistics mortality data and mid-year population estimates

The overall age-standardised mortality rate in London (830) is lower than the UK average (875). This is the case for all the main causes of death other than respiratory diseases where London is slightly above average, though still lower than several other regions (Table 7.13).

The effect of alcohol on health outcomes

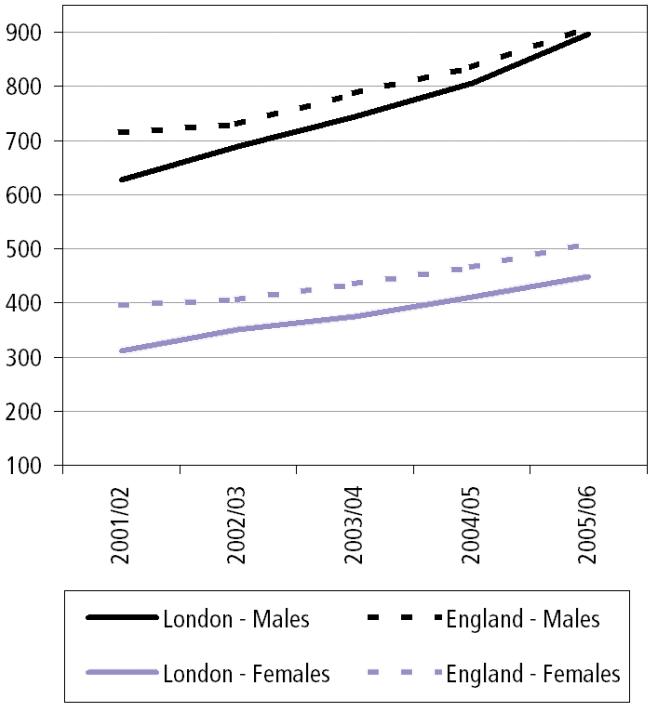
The topic of alcohol has been an emerging issue for a number of years. Alcohol consumption can lead to a range of public health problems, such as alcoholic poisoning, violence and accidents as well as the more chronic effects, such as alcohol-induced pancreatitis, liver disease and stomach cancer, all of which can lead to premature mortality and place a burden on the NHS. Indeed, according to the government's Alcohol Harm Reduction project, around a third of all attendances at hospital Accident and Emergency departments are alcohol-related. Alcohol misuse can also lead to other issues attributable to alcohol such as employment and relationship/family problems, anti-social behaviour and an increase in crime rates, road accidents, unwanted pregnancies and sexually transmitted infections.

In London, 5.8 per cent of total deaths among men are alcohol-attributable (2005) but the figure is lower for women at 3.9 per cent. Both of these figures are the same as the national average. From 2001 to 2005, the figures for women in London and England have remained fairly constant – as have figures for each of the nine English regions. The figures for men have also stayed about the same over the same period in London

Figure 7.8

Age standardised rate of hospital admissions for alcohol-attributable conditions (directly standardised rate) per 100,000 (2005/06)

Rates per 100,000 males/females



Source: North West Public Health Observatory

but the national average worsened slightly. London is the only region to see no change in the percentage of male deaths attributable to alcohol, while all other regions experienced an increase. The regions with the largest increases are Yorkshire and The Humber and the North East.

On average the number of years of life lost per person dying from alcohol-attributable conditions in London was 21.7 for men and 15.7 for women based on data from 2003-05, which were slightly higher than the national averages of 20.2 and 15.1 respectively. The number of years lost for men was greater in London than for any other region, while for women, London was third behind the North West (16.4) and North East (16.3).

The rate of alcohol-attributable mortality for men in London under 75 years was 34.3 per 100,000, slightly better than the national average (35.6). The North West and North East had the highest rates (45.7 and 42.6). For women the pattern was the same but rates were far lower. In London the rate for women was 13.3, compared with the national average of 15.1 and again the North West and North East had the highest rates (20.0 and 17.9). The rates have remained about the same nationally since 2001 for both sexes, but London had the most significant improvement in rates of any region for both men and women, although the improvements had occurred only over the last two years of data (2004 and 2005) (Table 7.7).

The rate of alcohol-specific mortality is linked to deprivation. In men aged under 75 in London the directly-standardised rate per 100,000, ranges from 3.9 in men classified in the least deprived quintile, to 17.9 in the most deprived quintile, a ratio of 4.6. For women the ratio between the least and most deprived is much smaller (2.3), with mortality rates ranging from 2.5 (least deprived) to 5.8 (most deprived).

The average number of months of life lost in the whole population due to alcohol is 9.6 months for men and 3.8 months for women in London. Both of these figures are close to the national average. However, months of life lost and mortality attributable to alcohol are typically increasing in the North East, North West and Yorkshire and The Humber, but decreasing or remaining static in

Figure 7.9

Rate of alcohol-related crime per 1,000 population (2006/07) by region[1]

Rates per 1,000 persons

1 England average is 10.2 crimes per 1,000 population.

Source: Home Office

London, East and the South East with London having the biggest improvements.

While alcohol-attributable mortality rates are improving in London, the rates of hospital admission for alcohol-attributable conditions have steadily increased between 2001/02 and 2005/06. It is possible that while improvements have been seen in older people evidenced in the mortality rates, the consumption of alcohol among younger people is leading to an increase in hospital admissions. Some of the long-term health effects of heavy drinking among young people may not be seen for many years.

In London the age-standardised rate of hospital admissions due to alcohol has increased by 44 per cent for men and 43 per cent for women, the greatest percentage increases anywhere in England. The rate for men in London increased from 627 per 100,000 in 2001/02 to 896 in 2005/06, while for women the rate increased from 311 to 449. The rates in London are still slightly below the national average, which also significantly increased between 2001/02 and 2005/06,

Table 7.10

Average weekly alcohol consumption and drinking last week[1,2]

Percentages

	Men	Women	Total
Average weekly alcohol consumption (units)[3]			
London	16.9	6.8	11.4
England	18.9	9.2	13.7
Drank last week			
London	62	46	53
England	72	57	64
Drank on 5 or more days last week			
London	19	7	12
England	21	12	16
Drank more than 4/3 units on at least one day[4]			
London	35	27	31
England	40	33	36
Drank more than 8/6 units on at least one day[4]			
London	21	11	15
England	23	15	19

1 Persons aged 16 and over .
2 Results for 2006 include longitudinal data.
3 Improved method.
4 The first of each pair of units shown relates to men, and the second, to women.

Source: General Household Survey, 2006

because all regions have shown an increase in rates of hospital admissions over the period (Figure 7.8).

The increasing rates of hospital admissions in London seemingly lend support to the high alcohol-related crime rate that exists in the capital. Alcohol-related crime in London is higher than the national average at 13.5 crimes per 1,000 population in 2006/07 compared with 10.2 (Home Office) (Figure 7.9). The vast majority of alcohol-related crimes are violent crimes and in London this rate is 9.0 per 1,000 people compared with 7.2 for England.

In the 2006 GHS results about maximum drunk on any one day last week, the proportion of men who drank more than 8 units and women who drank more than 6 units is lower in London than the national average (21 per cent of men and 11 per cent of women compared with 23 per cent and 15 per cent for England) (Table 7.10). Drinking more than these levels is commonest in the North West for men (31 per cent) and in Yorkshire and The Humber for women (23 per cent). Following research into under-counting the number of units in some types of drink, the methods for estimating alcohol consumption in the GHS were changed in 2006. Among other less significant changes the GHS now classifies a glass of wine as two units of alcohol rather than one. This had a greater impact on figures in areas of high wine consumption, which includes London and the South East. The methodological change increases average weekly consumption in London from 8.5 units to 11.4 units in 2006.

According to ONS, there is evidence from five years combined GHS data that suggests alcohol consumption is higher among White ethnic groups than BAME groups. London has a high proportion of BAME residents compared with other regions, which has the effect of lowering the consumption average for London. The proportions of White residents in London who had exceeded the recommended daily amounts, although still a little lower than average, were more similar to those in other regions.

Although it is illegal for those under 18 years old to purchase alcohol, there is clear evidence that drinking among children is common. According to results from the 2006 survey of smoking, drinking and drug use among young people in England, carried out by NatCen, around 21 per cent of pupils aged 11-15 drank alcohol in the last week, though this figure has steadily fallen since 2001 when it was 26 per cent. The proportion who had drunk alcohol increases with age and ranges from 3 per cent of 11-year-olds to 41 per cent of 15-year-olds. Among pupils who drank alcohol in the last seven days, boys drank more than girls, an average of 12.3 units a week for boys and 10.5 for girls.

According to combined results for 2003-2006 from the School Health Education Unit, nationally, 5.5 per cent of pupils in year 8 (aged 12 or 13) consumed seven or more units in the last seven days. London had by far the lowest proportion (2.9 per cent) with the next lowest regions being East and Yorkshire and The Humber (both 5.3 per cent), while East Midlands had the highest proportion (12.7 per cent).

Table 7.11

Pupils who consumed seven or more units in the last seven days[1]

Percentages

	Year 8 (2003-06)	Year 10 (2002-06)[2]
England	5.5	19.0
North East	8.7	26.8
North West	5.7	20.2
Yorkshire and The Humber	5.3	21.6
East Midlands	12.7	13.6
West Midlands	6.0	20.4
East	5.3	19.9
London	**2.9**	**8.4**
South East	7.5	20.3
South West	6.1	22.5

1 Confidence intervals unavailable.
2 This includes an extra year's data.

Source: School Health Education Unit [SHEU] & Department for Education and Skills

For pupils aged 14 or 15 in year 10, again London has a significantly lower proportion who had consumed seven or more units in the last seven days than any other region (2002-2006 combined). The figure of 8.4 per cent is less than half the national average of 19.0 per cent. The North East region has the highest percentage (26.8 per cent) (Table 7.11).

The ONS have produced figures at local authority level of age-standardised alcohol-related death rates for the combined years 1998 to 2004. In London the highest rate for males was in Camden at 32.5, compared with the England and Wales average of 14.1 (for 1999 to 2003). 25 of the 33 boroughs had above average rates. Among women, Hammersmith and Fulham had the highest rate in London at 11.1 compared with the England and Wales rate of 6.9 (Table 7.12).

Table 7.12

Age-standardised[1] alcohol-related[2] death rate by borough[3], 1998-2004 combined[4]

Rates per 100,000 males/females

	Males				Females			
	1998-2004 rate	1998-2004 rank[5]	1991-1997 rank[5]	Change in rank	1998-2004 rate	1998-2004 rank[5]	1991-1997 rank[5]	Change in rank
Barking and Dagenham	14.8	159	149	10	7.6	149	309	-160
Barnet	9.7	314	168	146	4.2	363	271	92
Bexley	14.7	161	221	-60	5.2	291	249	42
Brent	21.7	58	33	25	7.5	156	106	50
Bromley	10.4	286	225	61	5.2	290	224	66
Camden	32.5	17	7	10	9.2	88	43	45
Croydon	14.4	170	146	24	5.7	255	112	143
Ealing	18.5	89	23	66	7.7	141	73	68
Enfield	11.3	246	273	-27	5.5	265	235	30
Greenwich	19.2	84	88	-4	9.1	90	62	28
Hackney	20.2	74	31	43	8.0	128	45	83
Hammersmith and Fulham	28.7	23	4	19	11.1	40	5	35
Haringey	18.3	93	48	45	5.1	301	42	259
Harrow	11.0	259	169	90	5.5	266	199	67
Havering	8.2	356	274	82	4.1	369	338	31
Hillingdon	15.8	132	87	45	6.8	191	40	151
Hounslow	26.4	33	32	1	9.0	94	191	-97
Islington	23.1	47	30	17	10.9	43	27	16
Kensington and Chelsea	16.5	117	42	75	7.5	157	19	138
Kingston upon Thames	15.2	151	74	77	9.2	89	114	-25
Lambeth	25.8	37	28	9	9.4	84	32	52
Lewisham	21.5	62	59	3	8.9	101	98	3
Merton	15.2	150	126	24	8.1	124	102	22
Newham	23.9	45	43	2	9.8	71	44	27
Redbridge	12.2	225	226	-1	5.0	306	250	56
Richmond upon Thames	16.9	111	55	56	8.0	127	180	-53
Southwark	22.3	52	16	36	9.7	76	47	29
Sutton	10.7	271	212	59	5.0	309	164	145
Tower Hamlets	26.3	34	52	-18	7.8	136	41	95
Waltham Forest	14.2	176	132	44	4.9	314	209	105
Wandsworth	22.8	49	39	10	6.5	211	67	144
Westminster	25.5	39	14	25	9.5	83	7	76

1 Age-standardised rate per 100,000 persons to the European standard population.
2 See Notes and Definitions for more about the ICD - 10 codes used to select alcohol-related deaths.
3 City of London had fewer than 10 deaths so no rates have been calculated.
4 England and Wales rate for the combined years 1999-2003, for men is 14.1 and for women is 6.9.
5 Ranking is out of 422 authorities in the UK where a ranking of 1 represents the highest rate.

Source: ONS, published in Health Statistics Quarterly 33

Table 7.13

Age-standardised mortality rates[1]: by cause[2] and sex, 2005

Rates per 100,000 population

	All circulatory diseases			All respiratory diseases			All injuries and poisonings				
	Total	Ischaemic heart disease	Cerebro-vascular disease	Total	Bronchitis and allied conditions	Cancer[3]	Total	Road traffic accidents	Suicides and open verdicts	All other causes	All causes[4]
All people											
United Kingdom	310	152	84	119	42	239	32	6	9	176	875
North East	330	170	90	140	58	272	33	5	10	193	967
North West	336	170	90	141	52	259	36	5	10	182	954
Yorkshire and The Humber	317	163	87	130	48	244	31	6	9	180	902
East Midlands	300	148	80	122	40	232	33	7	8	183	869
West Midlands	313	148	90	122	41	236	33	5	8	189	892
East	288	137	76	107	34	219	30	6	8	163	807
London	293	138	74	121	43	226	27	3	8	162	830
South East	280	129	76	105	34	221	29	6	8	157	791
South West	277	131	80	95	32	221	29	6	9	163	784
England	302	146	82	118	41	234	31	5	9	172	857
Wales	335	170	85	121	45	242	34	7	9	171	903
Scotland	361	187	104	128	53	276	41	6	15	204	1010
Northern Ireland	315	171	82	121	38	235	46	11	12	174	891
Males											
United Kingdom	284	163	60	101	41	237	41	9	14	140	802
London	273	149	54	104	45	225	33	5	12	139	773
Females											
United Kingdom	327	136	106	134	41	233	24	3	5	210	928
London	308	124	93	134	40	220	22	2	4	185	869

1 Based on deaths registered in 2005. 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; General Register Office for Scotland; Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency

Chapter 8

Housing

- Population growth between 1991 and 2006 in London was just over 10 per cent, compared with 5 per cent for the rest of England, increasing the pressures on London's housing requirements.
- The average income, be it single or joint, of those who succeed in buying homes in London has risen to £79,000, compared with £55,000 in England as a whole.
- In 2007, lower quartile house prices in London were over 9 times the lower quartile earnings, compared with around 4 times in 1997.
- The number of households newly accepted as statutorily homeless has fallen by almost a half, from 30,080 in 2003/04 to 15,390 in 2006/07.
- Repossession orders have risen from 5,200 in 2000 to 13,940 in 2007 but still remain well below the 1991 figure of 27,500.
- In recent years there has been a sharp rise in overcrowding in the private rented sector from 7 per cent of households in 2000-03 to 11 per cent in 2004-07.
- Conventional housing supply (new build, conversions and changes of use) has risen strongly in London since the turn of the century, up from 17,130 in 1999 to 27,290 in 2006/07.
- Flats account for 86 per cent of supply in 2006/07 compared with 50 per cent in 1996/97.
- There are currently around 100,000 net new units with planning permission but with construction not yet started, and a further 60,000 under construction.
- London's domestic buildings account for 38 per cent of the city's overall carbon dioxide emissions (excluding aviation), with 'space heating and cooling' by far the biggest factor.

Introduction

The number of people seeking housing in London has long outstripped the availability of homes adequate to house them, and today things are no different. London's housing requirements can be roughly understood as a combination of demand for housing in the market and the need for suitable accommodation for the homeless, overcrowded or others in inappropriate housing. While demand and need tend to come from opposite ends of the social spectrum, both are influenced by underlying changes in demographics, the wider economy and the available housing stock.

Demographic pressures

The pressures on London's housing requirements from household and population growth remain strong, though there is evidence that they have moderated somewhat in recent years. London's population increased twice as fast as that of England as a whole in the 1990s, but since 2001 population growth in the capital has fallen to the same as the national average of 0.5 per cent a year. Population growth between 1991 and 2006 in London was just over 10 per cent, compared with 5 per cent for the rest of England (Figure 8.1).

The growth in the number of households in London clearly depends in large part on the trend in population, but it is constrained by the increase in the usable housing stock due to new construction and return to use of long-term empty homes. In other words, household formation in London is significantly constrained by housing supply. The pent-up demand from those who would have formed separate households if they could, keeps upward pressure on house prices.

By 2016, the number of households is predicted to have increased in London (on 2006 figures) by 11 per cent. One person households will increase by 20 per cent and the average household size will fall from 2.34 to 2.24 persons (Table 8.10).

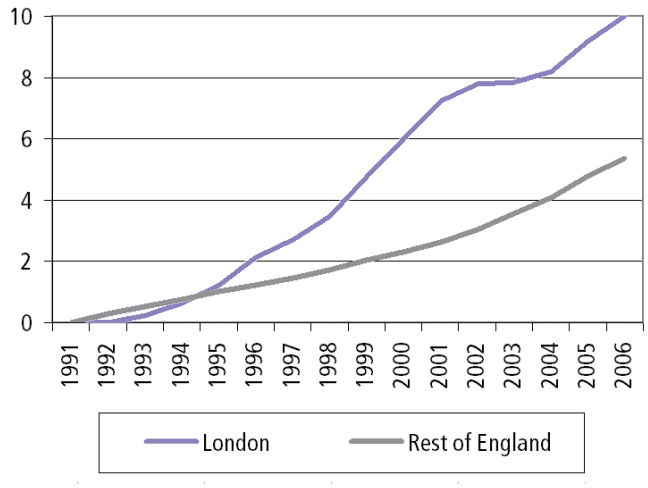
Affordability

Although housing supply has steadily increased in recent years, demand has grown even faster. This has meant that house prices have risen strongly in London until very recently, leading to a worsening of affordability. According to CLG data, at the end of 2007 the average income, be it single or joint, of those who succeed in buying homes in London had risen to £79,000, compared with £55,000 in England as a whole. In 1996, the average first-time buyer in the UK paid a deposit of under 10 per cent of the house price, by 2007, this had increased to 17.2 per cent (from Regulated Mortgage Survey data). London is the region with the highest proportion of potential first-time buyers able to pay more

Figure 8.1

Cumulative population growth since 1991

Percentages

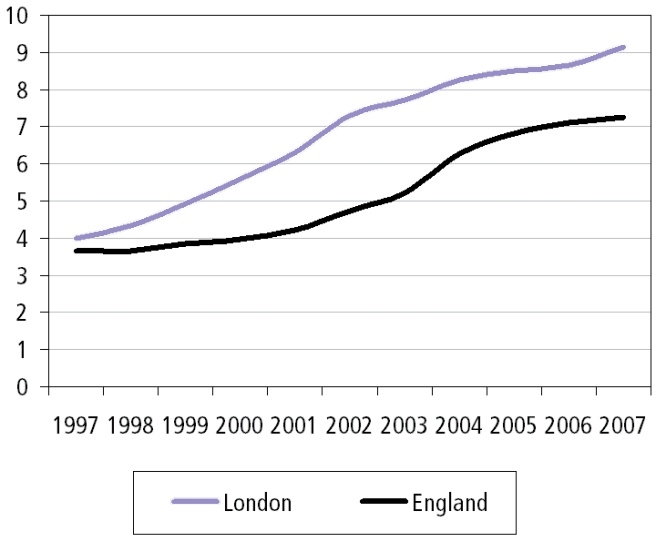


Source: Mid-year estimates, ONS

Figure 8.2

Ratio of lower quartile house prices to lower quartile earnings

Ratio



Source: Department for Communities and Local Government (CLG)

than social rent but unable to buy even at the low end of the housing market (41 per cent of young working households). Furthermore, the average age of first-time buyers in London is higher than any other region at 31 years old (Table 8.12).

The government prefers to use the ratio of lower quartile house prices to lower quartile earnings to measure affordability, as it indicates whether those on low incomes can access entry-level market housing. The ratio has increased at a faster rate in London than in England as a whole since 1997. In 2007, house prices in the lower quartile were over 9 times the lower quartile earnings in London, compared with around 4 times in 1997 (Figure 8.2).

According to Land Registry data, the average price of homes sold in London in April 2008 was £351,000, down 0.5 per cent on the previous month but still up 6.8 per cent on 12 months previously. Prices vary hugely by borough. Table 8.11 shows prices by type and borough from 2006. Averages vary from £179,000 in Barking and Dagenham to £883,000 in Kensington and Chelsea.

Homelessness

The lack of secure, appropriately sized and affordable housing has also contributed to homelessness and overcrowding. The flow of newly homeless households in London has fallen dramatically in recent years, at least according to official definitions. The proactive preventative approach being adopted by councils has resulted in the number of households newly accepted as statutorily homeless falling by almost half from 30,080 in 2003/04 to 15,390 in 2006/07 (CLG). The reason given for around half of these homelessness cases is that the applicant was no longer willing or able to remain with parents, relatives or friends (Table 8.9). This is a significantly higher proportion than in the rest of England and may be linked to higher levels of overcrowding in London.

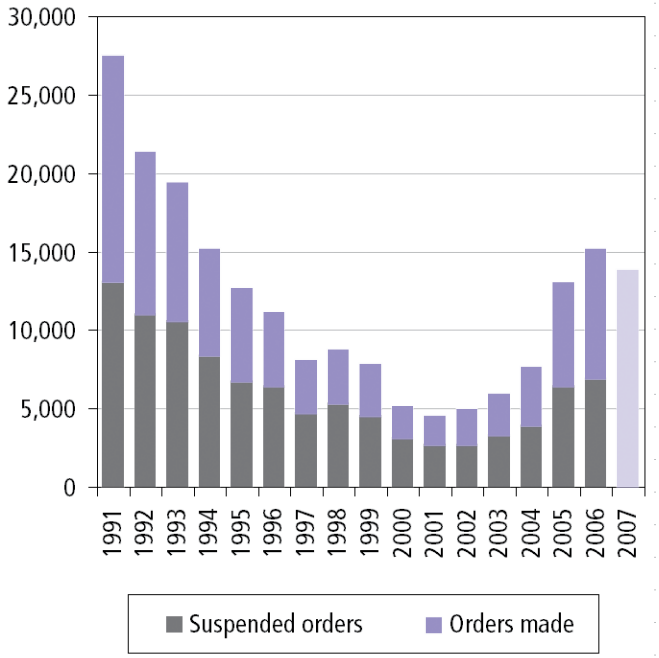
Homeless households in temporary accommodation

Even though the number of homeless households living in temporary accommodation in London appears to have peaked, the figure still remains stubbornly high at 57,000, due to the continuing fall in lettings to secure long-term social housing. If there is a significant increase

Figure 8.3

Number of mortgage possession orders[1] made in county courts in London, 1991 to 2007[2]

Numbers



Year	Suspended orders	Orders made	Total
1991	13,100	14,400	27,500
1992	11,000	10,400	21,400
1993	10,600	8,800	19,400
1994	8,400	6,800	15,200
1995	6,700	6,000	12,700
1996	6,400	4,800	11,200
1997	4,700	3,400	8,100
1998	5,300	3,500	8,800
1999	4,500	3,400	7,900
2000	3,100	2,100	5,200
2001	2,700	1,900	4,600
2002	2,700	2,300	4,900
2003	3,300	2,700	6,000
2004	3,900	3,800	7,800
2005	6,400	6,700	13,100
2006	6,900	8,300	15,200
2007	-	-	13,900

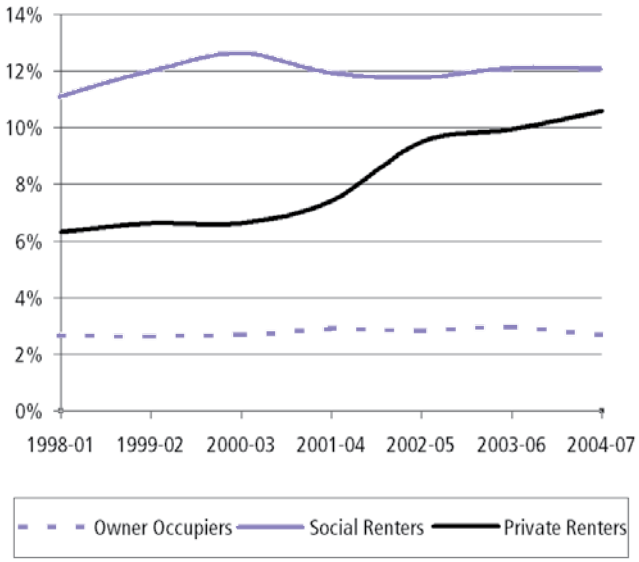
1 Local authority and private.
2 The split of suspended and made orders is not available for 2007 for which only the total is shown.

Source: The Court Service and parliament.uk

Figure 8.4

Proportion of households overcrowded by tenure, London

Percentages



Source: Communities and Local Government

in home repossessions, there could be a knock-on effect of higher homelessness applications. Repossession orders have risen from 5,200 in 2000 to 13,900 in 2007 but still remain well below the 1991 figure of 27,500 (Figure 8.3).

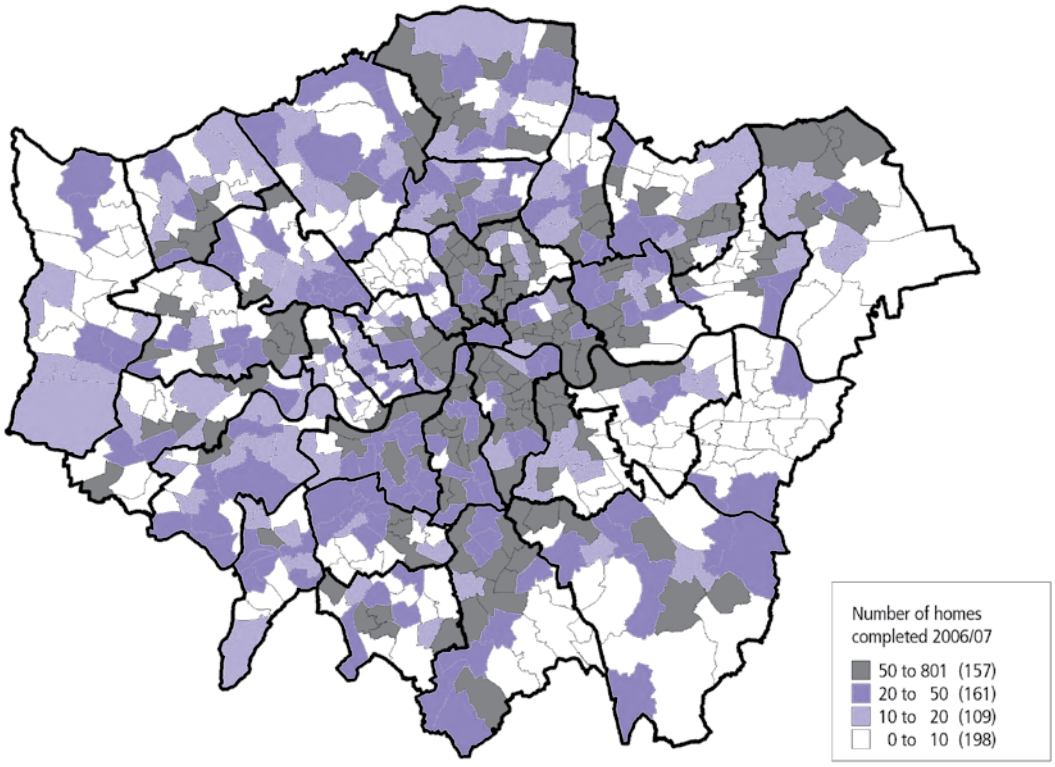
Overcrowding

Evidence from the 1991 and 2001 Censuses shows that overcrowding grew in London's social rented sector through the 1990s. This is predominantly because families have outgrown their current accommodation but have been unable to move on due to the loss of family housing from the stock and falling turnover in what is left. According to the Survey of English Housing, there are now just over 200,000 overcrowded households in London, almost half of them in social housing. However, in recent years the most striking change has been a sharp rise in overcrowding in the private rented sector (from 7 per cent of households in 2000-03 to 11 per cent in 2004-07), possibly linked to a change in the composition of international immigrants (Figure 8.4). Black and

Map 8.5

Completed housing developments: number of homes, 2006/07

Numbers

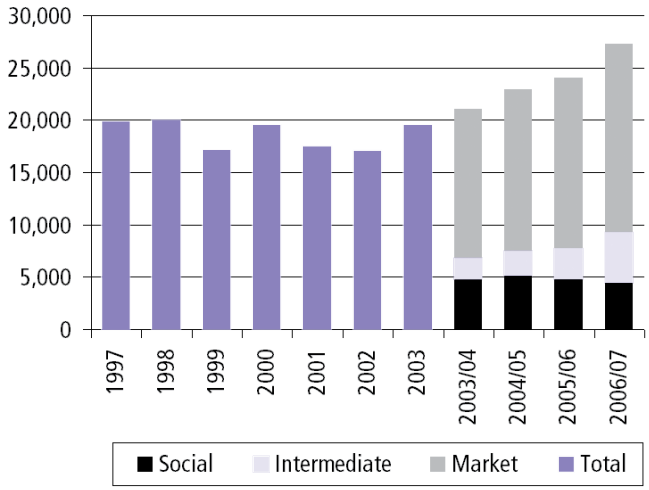


Source: GLA London Development Database

Figure 8.6

Net conventional housing completions in London, 1997 to 2006/07

Number of homes



Source: GLA, Housing Provision Survey and London Plan Annual Monitoring Report

minority ethnic households are disproportionately likely to be overcrowded, even when family size is taken into account.

Housing supply

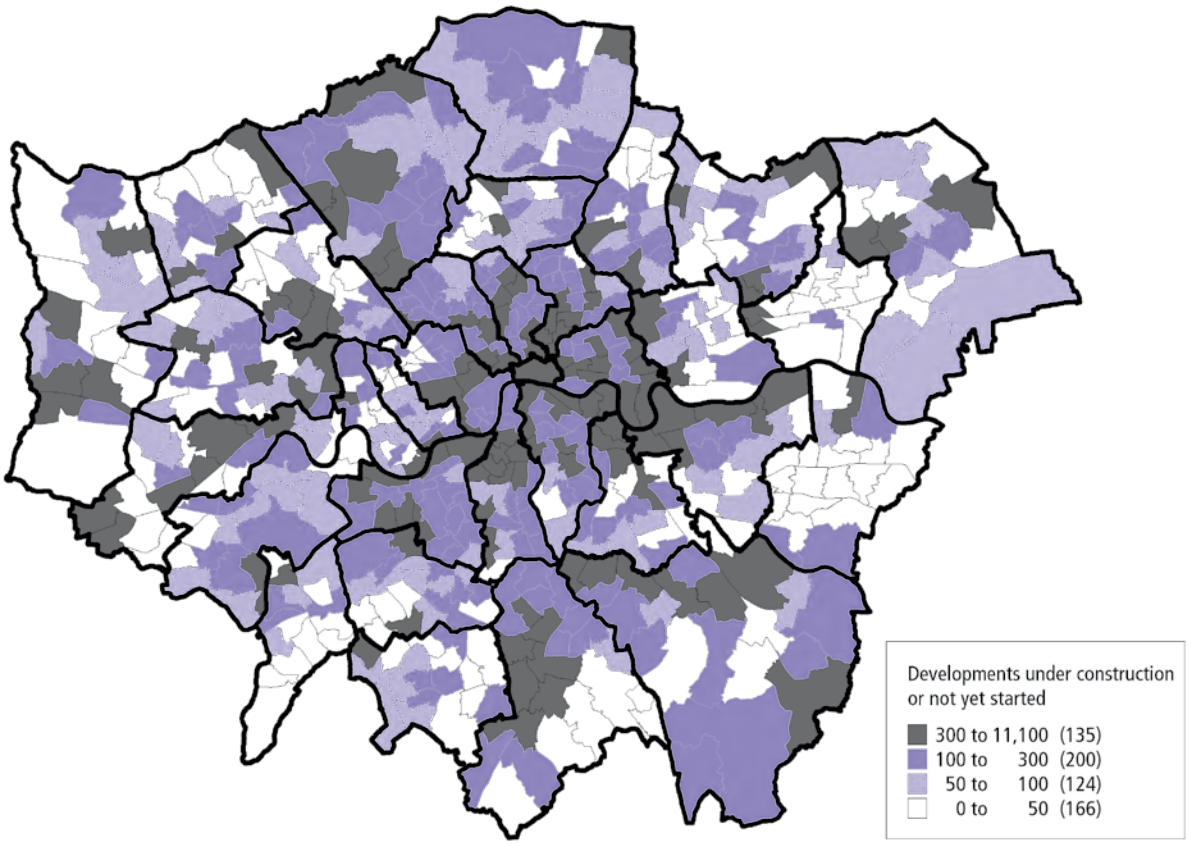
London's housing supply has risen strongly in recent years, with conventional supply (new build, conversions and changes of use) up from 17,130 in 1999 to 27,290 in 2006/07 (see Notes and Definitions). Map 8.5 shows the distribution of new conventional housing completions in 2006/07. When supply from non self-contained homes (hostels and student halls of residence) and long-term empty homes returned to use are taken into account, total housing supply in London reached 31,430 in 2006/07, the highest level since the late 1970s.

Changes in the size and type of new homes being built are also important. According to CLG figures, the proportion of newly built homes in London with three or

Map 8.7

Developments under construction or not yet started by scheme size, 2006/07

Numbers



Source: GLA London Development Database

more bedrooms has fallen from 35 per cent in 1996/97 to 15 per cent in 2006/07, clearly linked to the trend for more flats, which account for 86 per cent of supply in 2006/07 compared with 50 per cent in 1996/97.

The number of new homes considered 'affordable' (constituting social housing and homes for those on 'intermediate' incomes such as shared ownership and intermediate rent) has also risen but the proportion has remained at around one-third of total supply and has not risen fast enough to satisfy need (Figure 8.6). The number of households on local authorities' housing waiting lists, in London has increased from 177,000 in 1998 to 334,000 in 2007. The absolute level of social housing supply, which according to the London Housing Requirements Study accounts for almost 60 per cent of London's estimated net requirements, has remained about the same. However, it is expected to significantly increase in the next few years.

Future housing development

There is a healthy 'pipeline' of future housing development. In comparison with the 2006/07 supply of 31,430 homes, there are currently around 100,000 net new units with planning permission but with construction not yet started, and a further 60,000 under construction. Map 8.7 shows the distribution of homes in the planning pipeline.

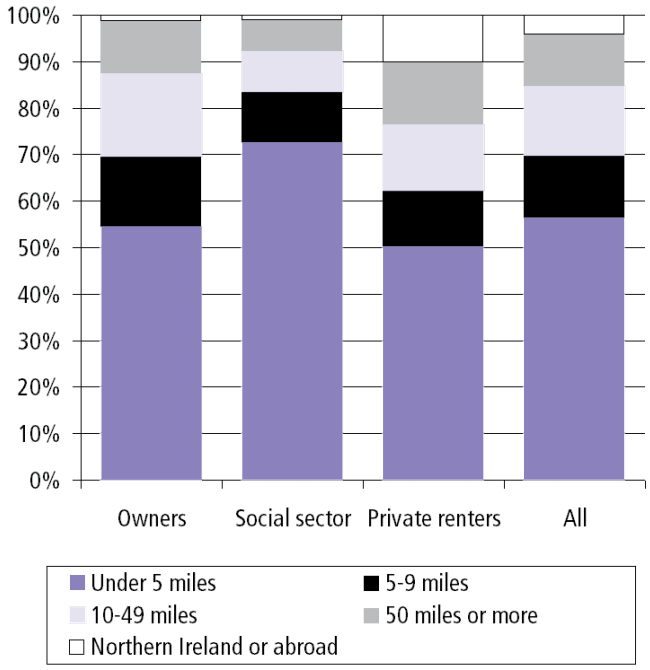
Mobility

Patterns of mobility vary significantly across the different tenures, with mobility particularly low in social housing, partly due to household characteristics but also the difficulty of moving across administrative boundaries. Less than 30 per cent of those moving within social housing move more than five miles, compared with almost half of private renters (Figure 8.8). Mobility is much higher among private sector renters than in any other sector.

Figure 8.8

Distance moved[1] by current tenure, England[2] 2005-06

Miles



1 By Household reference persons resident for less than three years.
2 These figures are for England as a whole, but unpublished data provided to GLA by CLG indicate the relative rates in London are similar to the national picture.

Source: Survey of English Housing, CLG 2007

Design quality

The design quality of new homes is somewhat better in London than elsewhere in England, but with much room for improvement. According to studies by the government's design watchdog, the Commission for Architecture and the Built Environment, the design standards of new housing developments are higher in London than in other regions, with 12 per cent assessed as 'very good' versus 5 per cent in England as a whole. However, the overwhelming majority of developments were still found to be 'average' or 'poor' (67 per cent and 15 per cent respectively).

Housing design also makes a significant impact on the environment. Using data from the London Energy and CO_2 Emissions Inventory 2003, London's domestic buildings account for 38 per cent of the city's overall carbon dioxide emissions (excluding aviation), with 'space heating and cooling' most likely the biggest factor. The GLA estimate that housing could contribute 39 per cent of the total CO_2 savings in London, with the vast majority of savings coming from existing homes. London's homes are slightly more energy efficient than the national average, due largely to its higher proportion of flats and terraced housing, but according to the English House Condition Survey it also has a high proportion of less energy-efficient older home. Furthermore, the growth of the private rented sector, to 19 per cent of all homes in London, poses challenges for achieving greater energy efficiency across the stock.

Table 8.9

Households accepted as homeless[1], by reason, 2006/07

Percentages and numbers

	Reasons for homelessness							
	No longer willing or able to remain with:			Break-down of relation-ship with partner	Mortgage arrears	Rent arrears or other reason for loss of rented or tied accommodation	Other reasons[2]	Total[3] (=100%) (numbers)
	Parents	Relatives or friends	Parents, relatives or friends					
North East	23	9	33	29	6	18	15	4,790
North West	19	10	29	25	3	17	25	11,380
Yorkshire and The Humber	20	13	33	24	3	19	22	8,220
East Midlands	22	13	35	24	5	22	14	6,020
West Midlands	20	12	33	26	5	21	15	8,740
East	26	12	38	18	4	25	15	6,890
London	27	23	49	10	2	21	18	15,390
South East	28	12	39	16	3	25	16	6,660
South West	24	10	34	17	3	27	19	5,270
England	23	14	37	20	4	21	18	73,360
Wales	22	9	31	21	3	21	24	6,802
Scotland[4]	21	14	35	23	1	12	28	32,245
Northern Ireland	-	-	21	10	1	15	53	9,744

1 See Notes and Definitions for further details of homelessness.
2 A large proportion of the Northern Ireland total is classified as 'Other reasons' due to differences in the definitions used. For Wales 'Other reasons' includes 'Violence/harassment' and 'In institution/care'.
3 Percentages may not sum to 100 because of rounding.
4 In Scotland, the basis of these figures is households assessed by the local authorities as unintentionally homeless, or potentially homeless, and in priority need, as defined in section 24 of the Housing (Scotland) Act 1987. The figures for Scotland relate to the financial year 2004/05.

Source: Communities and Local Government; Welsh Assembly Government; Scottish Government; Department for Social Development, Northern Ireland

Table 8.10

Household projections[1] by household type and region

Thousands

	2004	2006	2011	2016	2021	2026	2029
London							
Household types:							
married couple	1,068	1,043	981	933	900	873	859
cohabiting couple	299	333	406	466	516	559	584
lone parent	295	308	331	350	365	377	382
other multi-person	338	346	366	388	406	420	428
one person	1,102	1,145	1,255	1,374	1,494	1,606	1,665
All households	3,101	3,175	3,339	3,511	3,681	3,835	3,917
Private household population	7,296	7,419	7,630	7,853	8,066	8,248	8,345
Average household size	2.35	2.34	2.29	2.24	2.19	2.15	2.13
England							
Household types:							
married couple	9,522	9,415	9,181	9,050	8,978	8,897	8,832
cohabiting couple	1,990	2,181	2,605	2,944	3,204	3,424	3,552
lone parent	1,594	1,656	1,762	1,832	1,884	1,930	1,951
other multi-person	1,422	1,451	1,538	1,629	1,709	1,776	1,819
one person	6,535	6,815	7,560	8,382	9,198	9,948	10,344
All households	21,063	21,518	22,646	23,836	24,973	25,975	26,497
Private household population	49,217	49,808	51,044	52,331	53,625	54,787	55,381
Average household size	2.34	2.32	2.25	2.20	2.15	2.11	2.09

1 See Notes and Definitions.

Source: Communities and Local Government household projections

Table 8.11

Average dwelling prices[1], 2006

£ thousands and percentages

	Average sale price (£ thousands)				All dwellings		
	Detached houses	Semi-detached houses	Terraced houses	Flats/ maisonettes	Average price 2005	Average price 2006	Percentage increase 2005 to 2006
England and Wales	315	185	157	175	188	204	8.5
London	625	360	331	275	289	319	10.4
Inner London							
Camden	1,997	1,653	952	400	420	514	22.4
City of London	..	..	..	413	332	413	24.4
Hackney	622	552	409	244	258	289	12.0
Hammersmith and Fulham	330	661	701	334	404	435	7.7
Haringey	1,536	507	351	229	259	302	16.6
Islington	892	833	696	305	326	381	16.9
Kensington and Chelsea	..	2,664	1,794	672	760	883	16.2
Lambeth	809	526	391	243	280	298	6.4
Lewisham	508	331	263	184	209	230	10.0
Newham	290	236	226	191	207	213	2.9
Southwark	888	469	376	268	276	307	11.2
Tower Hamlets	..	295	384	290	259	299	15.4
Wandsworth	1,484	793	509	322	338	408	20.7
Westminster	1,229	2,080	1,262	498	605	572	-5.5
Outer London							
Barking and Dagenham	308	220	183	140	173	179	3.5
Barnet	889	414	317	232	319	345	8.2
Bexley	376	248	200	148	198	216	9.1
Brent	600	373	333	223	268	293	9.3
Bromley	555	311	246	198	273	289	5.9
Croydon	469	289	223	164	213	238	11.7
Ealing	773	384	316	228	268	290	8.2
Enfield	610	320	238	173	230	238	3.5
Greenwich	697	268	238	208	228	235	3.1
Harrow	609	335	274	219	293	302	3.1
Havering	421	251	205	165	222	233	5.0
Hillingdon	457	272	240	170	241	260	7.9
Hounslow	682	338	302	222	259	284	9.7
Kingston-upon-Thames	652	364	284	223	271	317	17.0
Merton	900	399	310	222	273	300	9.9
Redbridge	589	318	269	190	242	266	9.9
Richmond-upon-Thames	946	606	470	305	388	452	16.5
Sutton	508	302	236	174	225	248	10.2
Waltham Forest	414	310	245	181	206	229	11.2

1 Excludes those bought at non-market prices. Averages are taken from the last quarter of each year.

Source: Land Registry

Table 8.12

Mortgage advances, income and age of borrowers[1], 2006

£, years and percentages

	First-time buyers			Previous owner-occupiers		
	Average percentage of price advanced	Average recorded income[2] (£ per annum)	Median[2] age of borrowers (years)	Average percentage of price advanced	Average recorded income[3] (£ per annum)	Median[2] age of borrowers (years)
United Kingdom	83.6	40,523	29	64.6	56,774	39
North East	87.0	30,705	28	66.8	44,332	38
North West	81.9	33,004	28	62.7	48,123	38
Yorkshire and The Humber	85.5	33,124	28	66.7	47,089	38
East Midlands	85.6	34,268	28	65.9	46,758	38
West Midlands	81.1	35,007	29	66.2	49,697	38
East	85.2	41,955	29	65.3	57,848	39
London	84.3	61,674	31	64.7	88,065	38
South East	82.6	45,809	30	61.0	64,444	40
South West	83.5	40,187	29	62.3	53,605	40
England	83.5	42,049	29	64.1	58,361	39
Wales	84.7	33,345	28	63.9	46,001	39
Scotland	84.9	30,872	28	71.1	46,971	37
Northern Ireland	78.0	32,799	29	61.8	44,933	37

1 Figures in this table are taken from The Regulated Mortgage Survey, a survey of mortgages at completion stage. First-time buyers include sitting tenant purchases.
2 Median values are used instead of means (averages) as they are less affected by extremes of age of borrowers at either ends of the scale with half the ages above the stated age and half below.
3 The income of borrowers is the total recorded income taken into account when the mortgage is granted.

Source: Communities and Local Government

Chapter 9

Environment

- Two-thirds of London's area is occupied by green spaces or water of which a third is private gardens, another third is parks or sports-use and the remaining third is wildlife habitat.
- The biological and chemical quality of rivers in England and Wales has improved greatly since 1990. Yet London still ranks as the poorest in regional terms. However, the percentage of good biological quality water (rated very good or good) in the capital has increased from 11 per cent in 1990 to 21 per cent in 2006. The percentage of good chemical quality by water has increased almost three fold, from 13 per cent in 1990 to 36 per cent in 2006.
- Eighty per cent of London's public water supplies come from the rivers Thames and Lee. The water companies store this water in reservoirs around the capital; the remainder comes from water trapped in chalk layers under London and surrounding areas.
- In 2006/07, London produced the second highest amount of municipal waste in England, over 4.2 million tonnes, of which just over 80 per cent was from households.
- Although concentrations of key pollutants have reduced in the last ten years, it is important to recognise that air quality in London continues to breach the EU and national health-based targets.
- Energy use in existing homes is the largest single source of carbon dioxide emissions in London: the majority being from the use of natural gas, most likely used for space heating and hot water provision.
- The majority of noise complaints are about noise from domestic sources.
- Data show higher average noise levels for Inner London than in Outer London, together with a smaller difference between day and night time noise levels in Inner London.
- Overall, the trend for London is towards warmer and wetter weather. 2006 was the warmest year in London on record. The average temperature in the last decade in London was over a degree warmer compared with 1975 to 1984.

Introduction

The state of the environment in London is a key issue for people working and living in the capital. The region makes up less than 1 per cent of the land area of the UK and approximately 12 per cent of the population (around 7.5 million people). This increases the demand for resources such as water, energy and land development and in turn can lead to damaging changes in the environment. It is important to monitor this change to assess levels of damage and potential risks. There are a range of indicators, including land use, water quality and consumption, waste disposal, air quality, noise pollution and changes in temperature and rainfall, which all can be found in this chapter, to help to assess environmental change.

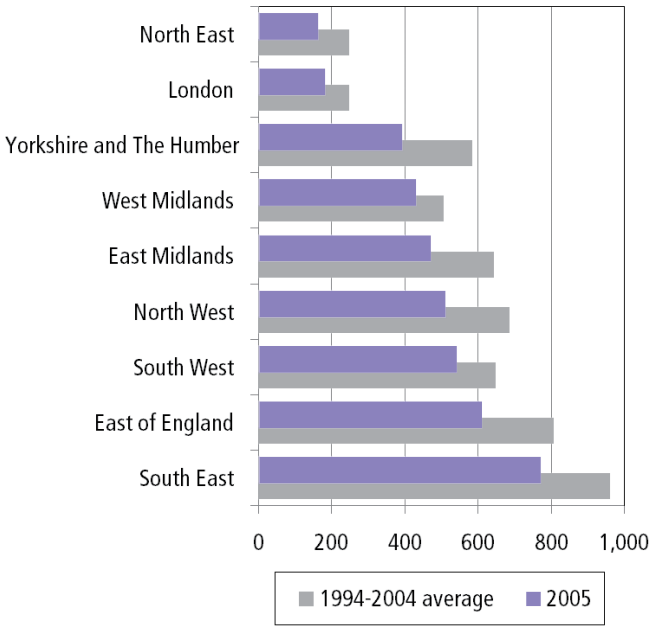
Land use

Two-thirds of London's 1,600 square kilometres is occupied by green spaces or water. Around a third of this is private gardens, another third is parks or sports-use and the remaining third is wildlife habitat. In addition to the green belt, which forms 22 per cent of London's land, London is unique in designating nearly 10 per cent of its area as Metropolitan Open Land (MOL) within the built environment, protecting spaces such as Richmond Park and Hampstead Heath.

Figure 9.1

Hectares of land changing to residential use, 1994-2004[1] and 2005

Hectares



1 Numbers of hectares incomplete for 1999.

Source: Land use change statistics, CLG

Table 9.2

Previous use of land changing to residential use, 2003 to 2006[1,2]

Percentages and hectares

	Previously developed uses			
	Residential	Vacant and derelict land	Other previously developed uses[3]	All previously developed uses
North East	8	36	9	53
North West	15	37	14	67
Yorkshire and The Humber	20	19	19	59
East Midlands	19	17	13	49
West Midlands	22	27	16	64
East	27	16	17	59
London	34	40	20	94
South East	39	14	16	68
South West	28	7	16	51
England	25	20	16	61

1 There is an inevitable time lag between land use change occurring and it being recorded, therefore data are constantly being updated.
2 The data in the table are based on records received from Ordnance Survey up to June 2007.
3 Includes transport and utilities, industry and commerce and community services, minerals and landfill.

Source: Communities and Local Government

In terms of change in land use, data from Communities and Local Government shows that the amount of land changing to residential use in England has fallen over the past fifteen years: from 7,230 hectares in 1990 to 4,040 hectares in 2005. London had the lowest overall amount of land changing to residential use between 1990 and 2005 in England: from 260 hectares to 180 hectares between these years which equates to around 5 per cent of the amount of land changing in England (Figure 9.1). However, London had the greatest proportion of previously developed land changing to residential use (94 per cent), with the highest proportion being previously vacant and derelict (40 per cent) (Table 9.2).

Table 9.3

River and canal water quality[1] by region, 2006

km of water

Biological quality	A	B	C	D	E	F
North East	951	706	242	132	48	5
North West	941	1,693	975	618	410	68
Yorkshire and The Humber	1,177	1,111	595	369	237	83
East Midlands	880	1,325	799	256	106	0
West Midlands	1,078	1,128	758	397	256	131
East	1,233	1,318	648	128	96	10
London	12	59	121	104	36	10
South East	1,804	1,447	712	161	79	2
South West	3,717	1,843	523	112	43	26
Wales	1,260	2,304	631	88	34	0

Chemical quality	A	B	C	D	E	F
North East	784	933	242	84	45	0
North West	2,124	1,303	1,004	568	380	45
Yorkshire and The Humber	1,212	1,394	734	356	289	30
East Midlands	746	1,467	750	352	220	4
West Midlands	1,070	1,374	779	354	229	24
East	328	1,224	1,009	525	437	7
London	17	128	92	56	93	12
South East	1,048	1,807	876	402	243	15
South West	2,842	2,430	804	243	183	3
Wales	3,487	772	113	31	76	10

1 General Quality Assessment (GQA) grades river stretches into six categories. A = very good, B = good, C = fairly good, D = fair, E = poor , F = bad.

Source: Environment Agency

River and canal water quality

Rivers and canals in London are subject to a number of pressures including pollution, low flows, habitat degradation and recreation. The river Thames, despite its brown and murky appearance (caused by the silt suspended in the water due to tidal movements) has very good water quality and is one of the cleanest metropolitan rivers in the world.

The Environment Agency monitors water quality at around 7,000 sites, which represents 40,000 kilometres of rivers and canals in England and Wales, though London's rivers only account for around one per cent of this total length. Water quality is assessed using the General Quality Assessment (GQA) scheme. Rivers and canals are awarded one of six grades: A and B represent water of 'very good' and 'good' quality, grades C and D equate to 'fairly good' and 'fair', whilst E and F represent 'poor' and 'bad' quality respectively.

Data from the Environment Agency show that the biological and chemical quality of rivers in England and Wales has improved greatly since 1990. This is in part due to a greater focus on pollution prevention including tighter enforcement of discharge from industry and sewage-treatment works. However, despite an improvement in the quality of water in London, it still ranks as the poorest in regional terms.

Table 9.4

River quality in Thames region

Percentage of total river length

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Chemistry[1]	5.5	3.0	4.6	5.4	5.4	6.1	7.4
Biology[2]	3.2	-	3.8	3.7	3.8	4.0	4.3
Nitrate[3]	55.3	50.3	51.7	54.1	55.7	55.5	55.5
Phosphate[4]	86.0	80.3	78.2	77.0	76.1	75.6	74.9

1 Chemical quality that is poor or bad.
2 Biological quality that is poor or bad.
3 Nitrate concentrations that are high or very high.
4 Phosphate concentrations that are high, very high or excessively high.

Source: Environment Agency

Chemical quality - an indicator of organic pollution in general

In 2006, 70 per cent of river lengths in England and Wales were of good chemical quality, compared with 48 per cent in 1990. The region with the highest percentage of good quality rivers in 2006 was Wales (95 per cent). The region with the highest percentage of poor or bad quality rivers in 2006 was London (26 per cent), and a total of 105km of river fell into these categories (Table 9.3). The percentage of river lengths that was classified as either poor or bad in the Thames region increased from 3 per cent in 2001 to 7 per cent in 2006, though in London was far higher. However, overall, the chemical quality of rivers in London has improved since 1990. The percentage of good quality water has increased almost three fold, from 13 per cent in 1990 to 36 per cent in 2006. The percentage of poor or bad quality rivers has fluctuated; from the highest level at 36 per cent in 1997 to its lowest at 12 per cent in 2001.

Biological quality - an indicator of overall 'health' of rivers

The percentage of total river lengths in England and Wales of good biological quality has risen, from 62 per cent in 1990 to 72 per cent in 2006. The region with the highest percentage of good quality rivers in 2006 was the South West (90 per cent). The region with the highest percentage of poor or bad quality rivers in 2006 was London (14 per cent). Despite this fact, recent data shows that biological quality of rivers in London has improved since 1990. The percentage of good quality water increased from 11 per cent in 1990 to 21 per cent in 2006. Indeed, the majority (73 per cent) of London's rivers were ranked as either good or fair in 2006. The percentage of poor or bad quality water has been decreasing, from 35 per cent in 1990 to 14 per cent in 2006.

Nitrate and Phosphate concentrations

The percentage of total river length in the Thames region with either high or very high Nitrate concentrations increased between 2001 and 2003 and then levelled off at around 55.5 per cent.

The percentage of rivers that have Phosphate concentrations that are high, very high or excessively high has been decreasing steadily since 2000 (Table 9.4).

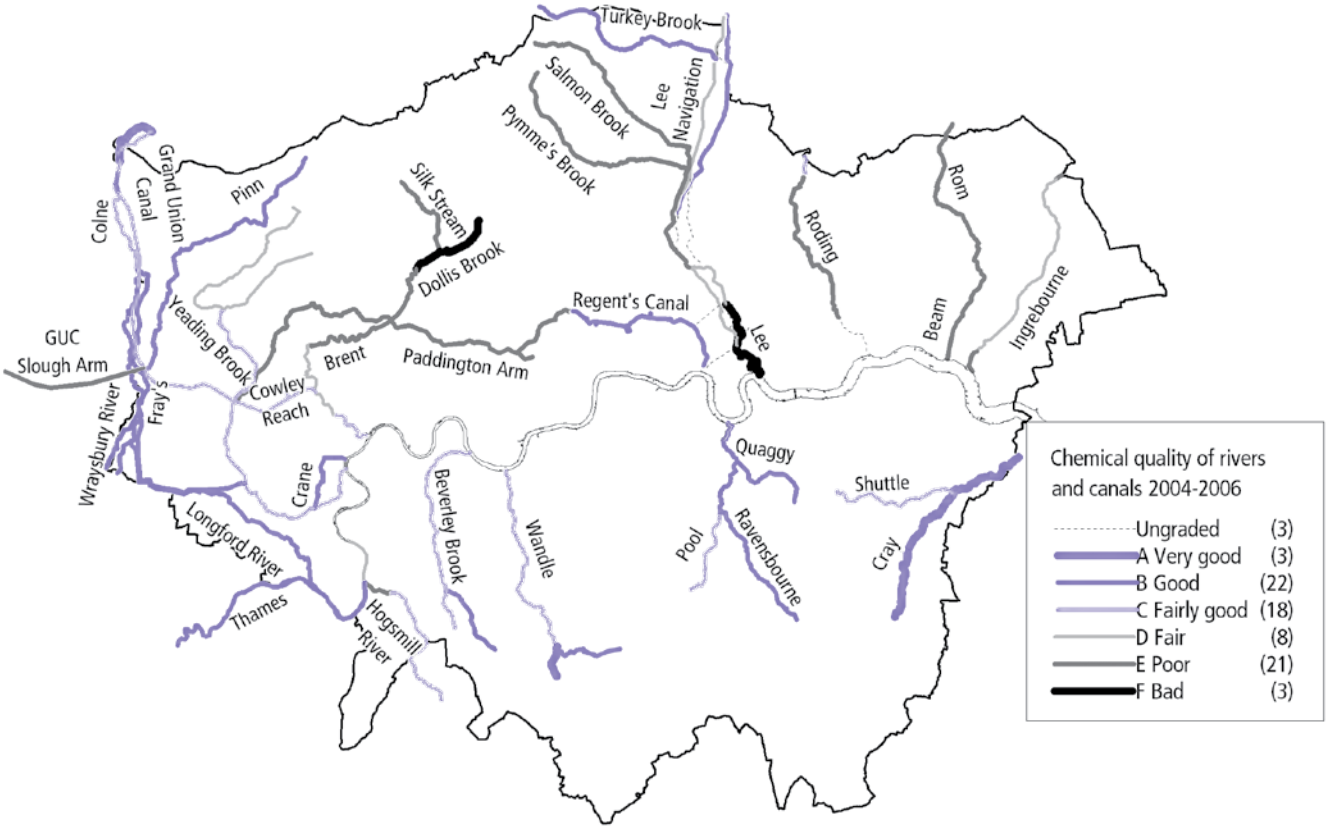
Rivers and canals in London

Map 9.5 shows the GQA grading of rivers in London. There were 75 graded sections of river in 2004-06. Just over half of the rivers, and 56 per cent of total London river length, were grade B or C and a further 23 per cent of river length was grade E. Only three river sections, The River Colne from the Chess to the Harefield Reach of the Grand Union Canal, the River Wandle from source to Carshalton Arms and the River Cray from source to River Darent were the only sections given a grade A. These totalled a length of 20km (4 per cent of total river length). Dollis Brook plus parts of the Rivers Brent and Lee, totalling 13km, were the only three sections to be grade F. Between the assessments in 1999-2001 and 2004-06, the river quality in 22 sections of rivers worsened, while 13 improved and all the rest remained the same. Over that period, the percentage of London's rivers and canals in the top three grades, A to C,

Map 9.5

River and canal quality, 2004-2006

River grades



Source: Environment Agency

increased from 50 per cent to 60 per cent. This is equal to the peak in London's river quality which occurred in 1992-94.

Water consumption

London's annual rainfall is perhaps less than might be perceived, receiving less than in Rome, Istanbul and Dallas for example. It is though fairly uniform throughout the year and evaporation is modest. During most summers, there is sufficient water in the rivers Thames and Lee to meet London's demand for water. Low rainfall over the winter months limits the refill of groundwater stocks, which in turn lead to low river flows in the following spring and summer. Typically it takes two winters of below average rainfall to initiate drought actions, as was seen in the winters of 2004/05 and 2005/06. It is periods of low rainfall that threaten the supply which means restrictions such as hosepipe bans could be used more frequently or for longer periods.

Table 9.6

Domestic water consumption 1999-2006

Litres per person per day

	Thames Water[1]		England & Wales	
	Metered	Unmetered	Metered	Unmetered
1999-00	156	166	137	151
2000-01	154	167	134	152
2001-02	150	161	136	153
2002-03	149	165	137	153
2003-04	154	164	141	158
2004-05	153	161	139	154
2005-06	154	167	136	155
2006-07	143	157	133	154

1 Data relates to Thames Water service area, not just the parts within London

Source: OFWAT Security of Supply 2006-07 report data tables and reports for earlier years

Table 9.7

Water loss through leakage

Cubic meters per km of main per day

	Thames Water[1]	Three Valleys Water[1]	Essex & Suffolk Water[1]	Sutton & East Surrey Water[1]	England & Wales average
1999-00	21	10	9	7	10
2000-01	22	10	9	7	10
2001-02	28	11	9	7	10
2002-03	30	11	8	7	11
2003-04	30	11	8	7	11
2004-05	29	10	8	7	11
2005-06	28	10	8	7	11
2006-07	25	10	8	7	10

1 Data relates to whole company service areas, not just the parts within London

Source: OFWAT Security of Supply 2006-07 report data tables and reports for earlier years

Eighty per cent of London's public water supplies come from the rivers Thames and Lee. The water companies store this water in reservoirs around the capital: the main reserves are located in west London and the Lee Valley. The remainder comes from water trapped in chalk layers under London and surrounding areas.

It is thought that water consumption is higher than average in London and the South East because summers are generally hotter and drier and that there is a greater use of more water-using appliances, such as power showers. Moreover, there are also more households with a single occupant, which places a relatively greater demand on water supply.

It is worth noting that London is supplied with water by four companies: Thames, Three Valleys, Sutton & East Surrey, and Essex & Suffolk (part of Northumbrian) water companies. The service areas of all the companies extend well beyond London. Tables 9.6 and 9.7 present data that is an average for each company including metropolitan, urban and rural areas.

The proportion of households that have metered water usage is increasing slowly in the Thames region in line with national trends. However, the region is still below the national average with 23 per cent of households on a meter compared with 30 per cent in England and Wales according to OFWAT data.

The amount of water lost through leakage continues to raise severe concerns, with Thames Water having the highest leakage rates in England and Wales. However, recent years have started to see a decline in levels lost, due to the ongoing programme of replacing Victorian-era mains pipes in London. Before this programme began, over 60 per cent of London's mains network dated from before 1900 (Table 9.7).

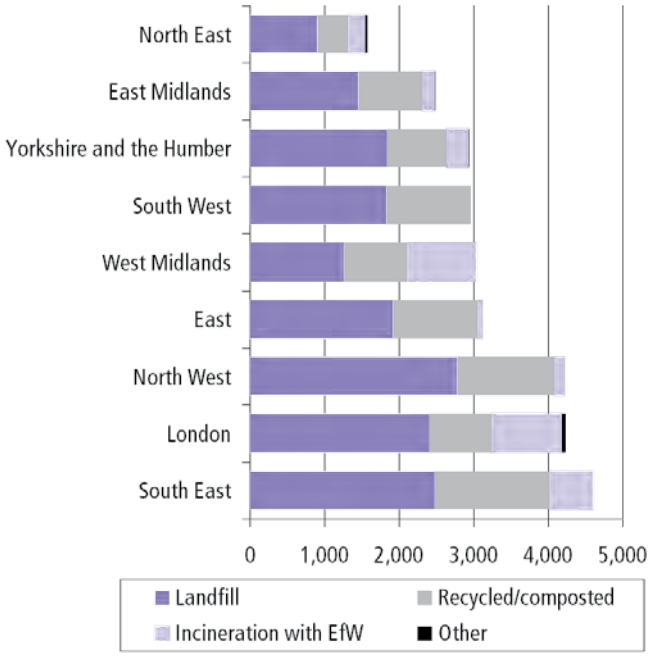
Municipal waste management

In 2006/07, London produced the second highest amount of municipal waste in England, over 4.2 million tonnes, of which just over 80 per cent was from households. The amount of waste per household was just above average at 1.33 tonnes compared with 1.36 tonnes for England as a whole, with the North East and North West regions having the highest amounts (both 1.43 tonnes). Despite London's rising population and economic growth, the total amount of waste produced has fallen slightly since 2000, with a five per cent reduction in total municipal waste produced between 2000/01 and 2006/07. However, this decrease has been

Figure 9.8

Method of municipal waste[1] management by region, 2006/07

Tonnes (000s)



1 EfW = Energy from Waste

Source: Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs

achieved largely due to a decrease in non-household waste collected by local authorities of more than 25 per cent, with the household total remaining fairly stable. Within the household fraction however, recycling has more than doubled since 2000/01 (rising from 9% to 23%), though London recycled the least household waste of any English region in 2006/07.

Figure 9.8 shows how the municipal waste is being managed: the quantity recycled or composted and the amount disposed of in landfill, by incineration with energy recovery, and by other residual waste treatment methods. In 2006/07, 57 per cent of London's municipal waste was sent to landfill. At just under 2.5 million tonnes London landfilled the third largest amount of municipal waste in England after the North West and South East. London incinerated more municipal waste than any other region (929,000 tonnes), which was more than it recycled (just under 850,000 tonnes).

Air quality and Greenhouse gas emissions

In many of today's modern cities, the main environmental health hazard to the population is exposure to air pollution and London is no exception.

Concentrations of air pollution are monitored on a regular basis at many sites across London and these data are used to determine whether the government's national objectives are being achieved. Data is reported on the London Air Quality Network. Automatic air quality monitoring is undertaken on behalf of government, the London boroughs and Transport for London (TfL) at over 100 sites in London.

Air pollutant concentrations

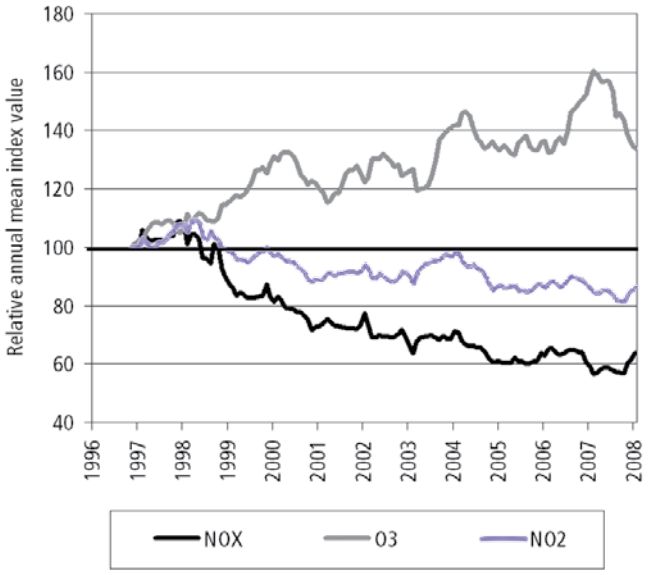
Data from the air pollution-monitoring network in London makes it possible to look at the relative changes in pollutant concentrations between 1996 and 2008 across a range of automatic monitoring sites (data from 2006 onwards are provisional).

King's College Environmental Research Group derived the time series using data from long-term sites (both roadside and background locations are included). Six sites were used for the PM_{10} time series, seven for CO, O_3 and SO_2, and 16 for NOx and NO_2. The time series consist of the relative running annual mean concentrations, at

Figure 9.9

Relative annual mean pollutant concentrations (O_3, NOx, and NO_2) monitored at several sites in London

Relative Annual Mean Index Value



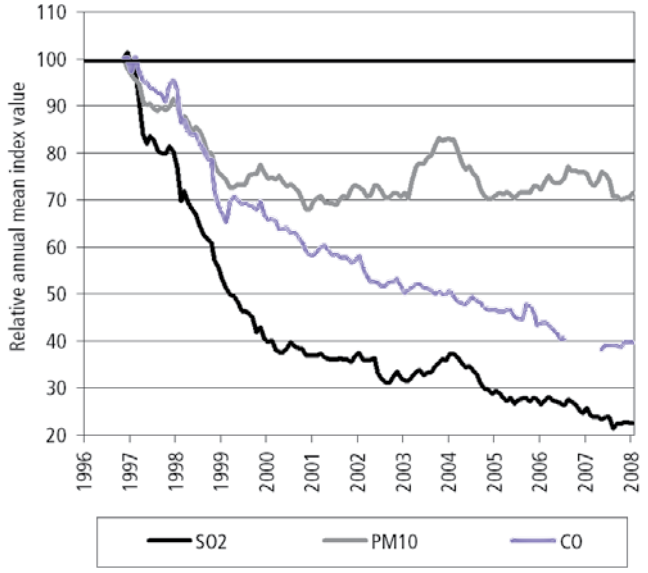
1 Measurements after March 2006 are provisional

Source: Environmental Research Group, King's College London

Figure 9.10

Relative annual mean pollutant concentrations (CO, PM_{10} and SO_2) monitored at several sites in London

Relative Annual Mean Index Value



1 Measurements after March 2006 are provisional

Source: Environmental Research Group, King's College London

monthly intervals labelled as time ended (See Notes and Definitions).

Between 1997 and 2008, PM_{10} concentrations decreased by 26 per cent, NOx concentrations declined by around 36 per cent and NO_2 concentrations fell by 13 per cent; O_3 concentrations rose by 31 per cent and CO and SO_2 concentrations decreased by 59 per cent and 77 per cent respectively, with the greatest reductions occurring prior to 2000 (Figures 9.9 and 9.10).

However, although concentrations of key pollutants have reduced in the last ten years, it is important to recognise that air quality in London continues to breach the EU and national health-based targets, and affect Londoners' health and quality of life (see Notes and Definitions for air quality targets).

Energy consumption and carbon dioxide emissions

Energy use in existing homes is the largest single source of carbon dioxide emissions in London. Table 9.11 provides a breakdown of emissions and energy consumption by fuel and sector. From this, it can be seen that the majority of emissions from the domestic sector is from the use of natural gas, most likely used for space heating, and hot water provision.

Compared with the domestic sector, a larger proportion of emissions in the commercial sector came from electricity usage. This is primarily due to greater energy consumption for purposes such as heating and cooling, lighting and computing.

Unlike other sectors, transport emissions in London have stayed flat since 1990 despite the rapid growth of London's population and economy. This can be explained by long-term increases in levels of public transport use and, since 2000, investment in the public transport network, plus the implementation of road traffic management policies such as the congestion charge.

The total energy consumption of London was 160,883 Gigawatt hours in 2003, emitting a total of 43,665 Kilotonnes of carbon dioxide. The borough that had the highest amount of carbon dioxide emissions was Hillingdon, which made up around 6.5 per cent of all London's emissions (Table 9.17).

Table 9.11

Energy consumption and carbon dioxide emissions by fuel and sector, London 2003

Gigawatt hours and Kilotonnes

	Energy Consumption (GWh)	Carbon Dioxide emissions[1] (Kilotonnes)
Electricity		
Domestic	13,696	5,889
Industrial and Commercial	25,541	11,749
Gas		
Domestic	55,360	10,387
Industrial and Commercial	25,947	5,169
Oil		
Domestic	566	153
Industrial and Commercial	2,792	753
Rail		
Transport	1,533	917
Road		
Transport	28,691	7,478
Coal		
Domestic	48	15
Industrial and Commercial	23	7
Shipping		
Transport	10	7
Aviation		
Transport	4,405	1,133
Renewables and Wastes		
Industrial and Commercial	267	0
Totals	158,879	43,661

1 Numbers are rounded so may not sum exactly to the total

Source: London Energy and CO_2 Emissions Inventory 2003 (LECI 2003), GLA 2006

Other Greenhouse Gases

In addition to carbon dioxide there are a number of other greenhouse gases emitted to the atmosphere. These include methane (CH_4), nitrous oxide (N_20), sulphur hexafluoride (SF_6), hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs), and perfluorocarbons (PFCs). These gases are emitted in much smaller quantities, but are much more powerful in their global warming potential.

The Kyoto Protocol, agreed in December 1997, requires a reduction in overall emissions across a range of six greenhouse gases. A survey of the impact of the full range of greenhouse gases in London was last undertaken by AEA Technology in 2003. This analysed

Table 9.12

Non-carbon dioxide Greenhouse gas emissions per year in London

Kilotonnes of carbon dioxide equivalent

	Kilotonnes CO_2e 2000[1]	Kilotonnes CO_2e 2001[1]
Methane (CH_4)	443	395
Nitrous oxide (N_20)	533	564
Sulphur hexafluoride (SF_6)	35	36
Hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs)	186	200
Perfluorocarbons (PFCs)	17	18
Total greenhouse gas emissions	1,214	1,195

1 CO2eq or CO2e is a metric measure that expresses the amount of global warming of greenhouse gases (GHGs) in terms of the amount of carbon dioxide that would have the same global warming potential (see Notes and Definitions).

Source: London Emissions of Greenhouse Gases 1990 – 2001, AEAT 2003, and State of the Environment Report 2003, GLA

the impact of the six main greenhouse gases over the time period 1990-2001 and is based on data collected by the National Atmospheric Emissions Inventory (NAEI). A proportion of each of these gases has been allocated to London on the basis of population, industrial activity and other indicators appropriate to the individual gases.

The total emissions for the five non-CO_2 greenhouse gases for 2000 and 2001 are provided in Table 9.12.

The five non-CO_2 greenhouse gases contribute the equivalent of approximately two per cent of London's total CO_2 emission output.

Nitrous oxide, N_2O, is emitted from power stations and vehicles which use certain types of pollution abatement technologies, such as catalytic converters. This equipment substantially reduces emissions of other types of pollution, especially nitrogen dioxide, NO_2, which has a significant impact on health. These technologies are being refined and optimised to minimise the production of N_2O emissions.

The main sources of methane from human activities in London result from waste disposal (including emissions from landfill sites) and leakage from the gas distribution system. However, landfill emissions have declined by over 50 per cent since 1990 because of the implementation of methane recovery systems. A reduction of emissions from the leakage of methane from the gas distribution system due to gas main replacement has also helped reduce overall emissions in London.

Hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs), perfluorocarbons (PFCs) and sulphur hexafluoride (SF_6) are gases with particular industrial applications, few of which take place within London.

Noise pollution

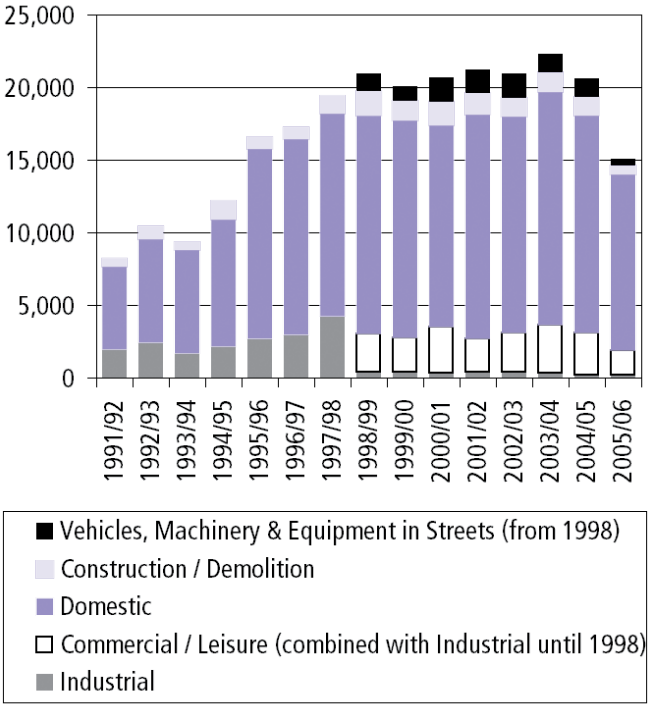
Excessive levels of noise can affect quality of life. Potential effects of noise on human wellbeing can include nuisance, disrupted sleep patterns, hearing loss and stress-related health effects, which can be psychological, behavioural or physical in manifestation.

The Chartered Institute of Environmental Health annually requests noise complaint data from local authorities in 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. Also, different boroughs in London may respond in different years. Figure 9.13

Figure 9.13

Noise complaints by type

Complaints per million population



Source: Chartered Institute of Environmental Health (unpublished data)

attempts to reduce this lack of consistency by looking at complaints per million people living in the authorities that respond each year.

The majority of noise complaints are those about noise from domestic sources - about 12,000 per million for 2005/06. Commercial / leisure sources are the next highest source of noise complaints with about 1,800 per million, followed by construction and vehicles and machinery in streets with about 580 and 450 per million. Industry has been a very small source of noise complaints in London since 1998/99 when it was first reported as a separate category. Complaints in 2005/05 appear to have fallen significantly since the previous year (2004/05), although it is not possible to state why. One possible factor is a drop in the number of boroughs responding, from 24 in 2004/05 to 17 in 2005/06. Despite adjusting to complaints per million population in the responding boroughs, the boroughs that actually respond may still affect the data, as some boroughs may experience very different rates of complaint in a given category than others. For example, some boroughs have large numbers of construction sites, whilst others have far fewer.

Although the majority of complaints are about the sources listed above, which are often short-lived events or sporadic in nature, many homes in London are exposed on a daily basis to significant levels of 'ambient' noise, mainly from transport sources (especially road traffic). People may complain less about such sources of noise, over which the local authority appears to have little influence.

Noise surveys show higher average noise levels for Inner London than seen in Outer London. There is also a smaller difference between day and night time noise levels in Inner London. When looking at other noise indicators, there is also some evidence of a slightly later decrease in noise level in the evening and increase in noise level in the morning for Inner London than is seen for Outer London.

Climate

The average temperature recorded at the London Weather Centre (LWC) in 2006 was 12.8°C. This is higher than the average for London since 1975, which was 11.7°C. This was also the highest average temperature since at least 1961, though 1989 was the same.

Figure 9.14 shows an upward trend line for average temperature in London. Since the 1970's, average temperatures have been increasing on a consistent basis. Indeed, 1995 to 2006 was on average over a degree warmer than the ten year period 1975 to 1984.

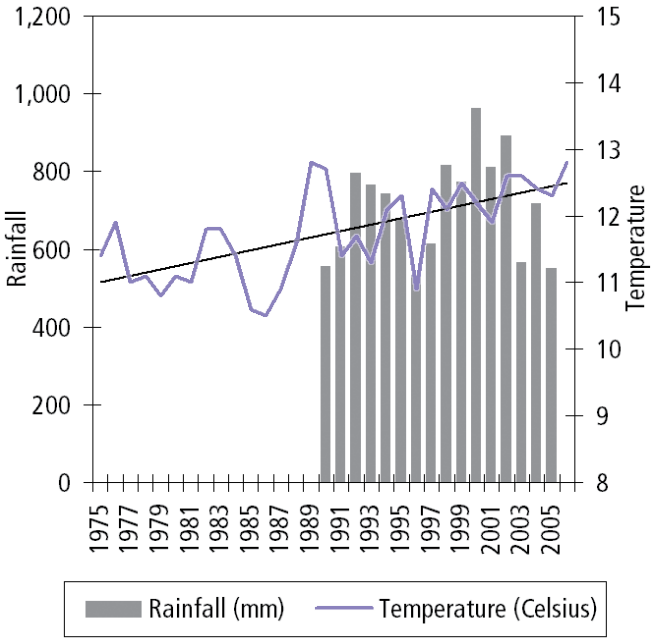
The average rainfall for London (the Thames region) is also increasing. Between 1961 and 1990, the average annual rainfall in the region was 688mm, whereas since 1990 the average has been 712mm, an increase of 3 per cent, which follows the national trend. The Thames region consistently has lower rainfall than the England and Wales average and between both 1961-1990 and 1990-2005, the region had 23 per cent lower rainfall (Figure 9.15).

The Thames region is the second driest region after Anglian where the average rainfall for 1990-2005 was just 622mm (Table 9.16).

Figure 9.14

Annual average temperatures and annual rainfall at London Weather Centre

Millimetres and degrees Celsius



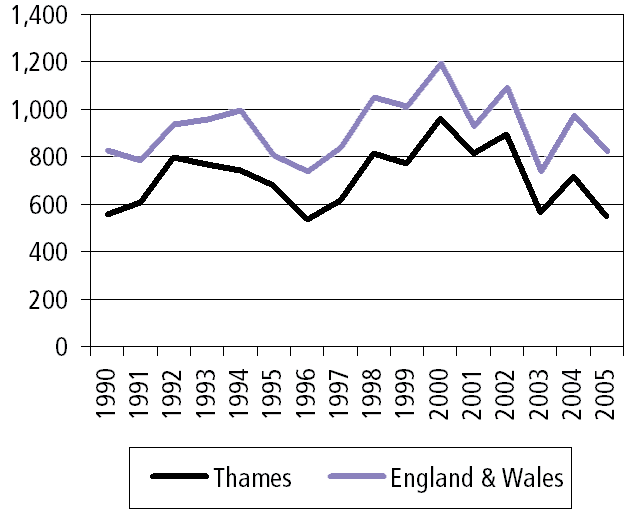
1 Rainfall for individual years prior to 1990 is not available.

Source: Rainfall compiled by the Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, Wallingford using data supplied by the National Climate Information Centre, Met Office. Temperature Obtained from British Atmospheric Data Centre hourly temperature time series.

Figure 9.15

Amounts of annual rainfall, 1990-2005

Millimetres



Source: Compiled by the Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, Wallingford using data supplied by the National Climate Information Centre, Met Office.

Table 9.16

Average rainfall by water region

Millimetres and percentages

	1961-1990	1990-2005[1]	As a % of E&W[2]	% change in rainfall
Anglian	596	622	68	4
Thames	688	712	77	3
Severn-Trent	754	778	85	3
Southern	778	812	88	4
Yorkshire	821	828	90	1
England	823	840	91	2
Northumbrian	853	874	95	2
Wessex	839	893	97	6
North West	1,201	1,200	131	0
South West	1,173	1,229	134	5
Welsh	1,313	1,363	148	4
England & Wales	895	919	100	3

1 1990-2003 rainfall data were revised in 2004.
2 The 1990 to 2005 average as a percentage of the England and Wales average.

Source: Compiled by the Centre for Ecology and Hydrology, Wallingford using data supplied by the National Climate Information Centre, Met Office.

Table 9.17

All energy usage and carbon dioxide emissions 2003

Gigawatt hours, Kilotonnes and percentages

	Energy Consumption (GWh)	Carbon Dioxide emissions (Kilotonnes)	Energy Consumption as % of London	Carbon Dioxide Emissions as % of London
City of London	3,082	1,096	1.9	2.5
Barking and Dagenham	2,737	758	1.7	1.7
Barnet	6,582	1,673	4.1	3.8
Bexley	4,696	1,188	2.9	2.7
Brent	4,818	1,311	3.0	3.0
Bromley	5,637	1,468	3.5	3.4
Camden	4,525	1,268	2.8	2.9
Croydon	6,539	1,707	4.1	3.9
Ealing	5,379	1,457	3.3	3.3
Enfield	5,064	1,329	3.1	3.0
Greenwich	4,877	1,198	3.0	2.7
Hackney	3,157	851	2.0	1.9
Hammersmith and Fulham	3,905	1,076	2.4	2.5
Haringey	3,808	1,009	2.4	2.3
Harrow	4,076	998	2.5	2.3
Havering	4,630	1,212	2.9	2.8
Hillingdon	10,642	2,842	6.6	6.5
Hounslow	5,134	1,410	3.2	3.2
Islington	4,127	1,171	2.6	2.7
Kensington and Chelsea	3,404	994	2.1	2.3
Kingston	2,878	754	1.8	1.7
Lambeth	5,090	1,324	3.2	3.0
Lewisham	4,935	1,233	3.1	2.8
Merton	4,022	1,023	2.5	2.3
Newham	4,546	1,232	2.8	2.8
Redbridge	4,165	1,053	2.6	2.4
Richmond	4,046	1,067	2.5	2.4
Southwark	7,058	2,020	4.4	4.6
Sutton	2,996	768	1.9	1.8
Tower Hamlets	5,889	1,946	3.7	4.5
Waltham Forest	3,630	945	2.3	2.2
Wandsworth	5,832	1,493	3.6	3.4
Westminster	8,978	2,791	5.6	6.4
Total	160,883	43,665	100.0	100.0

Source: London Energy and CO_2 Emissions Inventory 2003 (LECI 2003), GLA 2006

Chapter 10

Transport

- People in London travelled further by public transport, by bicycle and on foot than in any other region in Great Britain, whilst the lowest number of miles travelled by cars and other private road vehicles occurred in London.
- In 2006, on an average day in London, just under 24 million trips were made, 30 per cent of which were by public transport, slightly more than in 2005. In general, women tended to use buses more and to walk more than men, while men had slightly higher use of cars.
- In 2006, over 1.1 million people entered central London between 7am and 10am on an average working day: 44 per cent made all or some of their journey by rail, 34 per cent were made by London Underground or DLR, 10 per cent were by bus and 7 per cent by car.
- The average time taken to travel to work in London is 43 minutes, the highest in the United Kingdom. For other regions, mean commuting times varied between 21 and 24 minutes.
- The use of public transport including buses, Underground, DLR and Tramlink, rose to its highest level since the 1950s.
- Since its introduction, Oyster card usage has increased with a steady monthly growth and accounted for 80 per cent of all bus and Underground journeys in March 2007.
- In 2005, 35 per cent of households in London did not have the use of a car. Between 1996 and 2006, new registrations of motor cars in London fell by 30 per cent, the only region to show a decrease.
- The number of road casualties in London in 2006 decreased by almost 34 per cent compared with the UK average for 1994 to 1998, which was the largest decrease in the UK.
- Between 1987 and 2007 the number of passengers using London's airports increased by over 140 per cent from over 57 million passengers per year to just under 140 million passengers per year. Heathrow is the busiest airport, with a throughput of nearly 68 million passengers in 2007 – nearly half of the total volume for all five London airports.

Introduction

London's transport system is an important issue for people working and living in the capital. This chapter will examine current travel patterns in London, including the distances travelled and number of trips made. It will also look at the modes of transport used to commute to work, plus the use of public and private transport. Finally this chapter will look at the number of road casualties in London and to conclude, will analyse air passenger numbers travelling through airports in the London area.

Travel patterns

According to the Department for Transport's National Travel Survey, people in London travelled further by public transport, by bicycle and on foot than in any other region in Great Britain in 2005-06. However, overall, people in London also travelled the least distance than in any other region. This is mainly because people living in London have much lower annual travel mileage by car than residents of other areas. (Table 10.1).

Trip rates

In 2006, on an average day in London, just under 24 million trips were made: 43 per cent of these were by car, 13 per cent by bus or tram, 9 per cent by Underground, 8 per cent by rail, 2 per cent by cycle and 24 per cent were on foot. Of these trips, 30 per cent were by public transport, slightly more than in 2005. The proportion of public transport usage has steadily increased from 24 per cent in 1996, whilst the proportion of private transport has continued to decline (Table 10.2).

Between 2001 and 2006/07 the number of weekday trips made by Londoners remained almost unchanged at 2.8 trips per person per day. On average, in 2006/07 both men and women used buses more, and used cars less, than in 2001. In both years, women tended to use buses more and to make more walks than men, while men had slightly higher use of cars (Table 10.3).

Table 10.4 shows the share of weekday trips made by people with disabilities. Most of these trips were by car or on foot/wheelchair, followed by bus. Rail use (including Underground, DLR and National Rail) was low

Table 10.1

Distance travelled per person[1] per year, by mode of transport, 2005-2006[2]

Miles

	Walk	Pedal cycle	Cars and other private road vehicles	Public transport				All modes of transport
				Bus	Rail	Taxi and other	All public transport	
Great Britain	199	38	5,891	288	534	221	1,044	7,171
North East	188	25	4,970	338	269	351	958	6,140
North West	215	35	5,630	303	360	144	808	6,687
Yorkshire and The Humber	203	36	6,086	294	393	181	867	7,192
East Midlands	212	46	6,136	233	375	135	744	7,138
West Midlands	165	19	5,868	288	180	161	629	6,681
East	198	46	6,967	166	733	152	1,051	8,261
London	231	53	3,103	495	1,258	254	2,007	5,395
South East	187	45	7,034	171	715	226	1,112	8,378
South West	204	44	7,079	185	321	240	745	8,073
England	202	40	5,849	277	569	199	1,046	7,137
Wales	160	20	6,686	264	154	116	535	7,401
Scotland	191	23	5,846	407	412	497	1,316	7,376

1 Within Great Britain only. Figures relate to region of residence of the traveller and include trips undertaken outside this region.
2 Data are averaged over a two year period.

Source: National Travel Survey, Department for Transport

Table 10.2

Daily average number of trips

Millions

Year	Rail	Underground and DLR	Bus	Taxi	Car	Motor cycle	Bicycle	Walk	All modes
1993	1.3	1.4	2.1	0.2	10.2	0.2	0.3	5.2	20.7
1994	1.3	1.5	2.1	0.2	10.3	0.2	0.3	5.2	21.0
1995	1.3	1.6	2.2	0.2	10.3	0.2	0.3	5.2	21.2
1996	1.4	1.5	2.3	0.2	10.4	0.2	0.3	5.3	21.4
1997	1.5	1.6	2.3	0.2	10.4	0.2	0.3	5.3	21.8
1998	1.5	1.7	2.3	0.2	10.5	0.2	0.3	5.3	22.0
1999	1.6	1.8	2.3	0.2	10.6	0.2	0.3	5.4	22.4
2000	1.7	2.0	2.4	0.2	10.6	0.2	0.3	5.5	22.7
2001	1.7	2.0	2.6	0.2	10.6	0.2	0.3	5.5	23.1
2002	1.7	1.9	2.8	0.2	10.7	0.2	0.3	5.5	23.4
2003[5]	1.8	2.0	2.8	0.1	10.5	0.2	0.3	5.5	23.2
2004[5]	1.7	2.1	3.1	0.1	10.4	0.2	0.3	5.6	23.5
2005[5]	1.8	2.0	3.1	0.1	10.3	0.2	0.4	5.6	23.5
2006	1.9	2.1	3.2	0.1	10.3	0.2	0.4	5.6	23.8

1. Trips are complete one-way movements from one place to another.
2. Trips may include use of several modes of transport and hence be made up of more than one journey stage.
3. Trips are classified by main mode, ie the mode that typically is used for the longest distance within the trip.
4. Round trips are counted as two trips, an outward and an inward leg.
5. Estimates for 2003 to 2005 have been revised.

Source: TfL Planning

Table 10.3

Modal shares of weekday trips[1] by gender and main mode of travel (2001 and 2006/07)

Percentages

	2001			2006/07		
	Male	Female	All	Male	Female	All
National Rail	5	4	5	6	4	5
Underground/DLR	8	6	7	9	6	7
Bus	10	13	11	13	16	14
Taxi	1	1	1	2	1	1
Car/Van	45	42	44	40	37	39
Cycle	2	1	2	2	1	2
Walk	28	33	30	28	34	31
All modes	100	100	100	100	100	100
Trips per person	2.77	2.85	2.81	2.76	2.93	2.85

1 The London Travel Demand Survey is a continuous household interview survey designed to update results from the decennial London Area Transport Survey and to provide more frequent estimates of travel demand.

Source: LATS 2001 Household Survey, LTDS 2006/07 Household survey

Table 10.4

Modal share of weekday trips by disability type (2006/07)

Percentages

	No disability	Wheelchair user	Walking difficulties	Other disability
National Rail	5	-	3	3
Underground/DLR	8	3	3	3
Bus	14	17	19	25
Taxi	1	3	4	2
Car/van	39	47	36	27
Cycle	2	2	1	-
Walk	31	20	34	38
Other	-	9	2	1
All modes	100	100	100	100
Trips per person	2.93	1.48	1.99	2.61

Source: LTDS 2006/07 Household Survey

Table 10.5

People entering central London in the morning peak (7am to 10am)

Thousands

	All modes	All rail	LUL or DLR only	Bus	Coach/ minibus	Car	Taxi[1]	Two-wheeled motor vehicles	Cycle
1981	1,050	394	336	105	16	173	..	..	..
1991	1,042	426	347	74	20	155	..	12	9
1992	992	401	337	61	24	150	..	11	9
1993	977	382	340	64	20	150	..	11	9
1994	989	392	346	63	23	145	..	11	9
1995	993	395	348	63	21	145	..	11	10
1996	992	399	333	68	20	143	9	11	10
1997	1,035	435	341	68	20	142	9	11	10
1998	1,063	448	360	68	17	140	8	13	10
1999	1,074	460	363	68	15	135	8	15	12
2000	1,108	465	383	73	15	137	8	17	12
2001	1,093	468	377	81	10	122	7	16	12
2002	1,068	451	380	88	10	105	7	15	12
2003	1,029	455	339	104	10	86	7	16	12
2004	1,043	452	344	116	9	86	7	16	14
2005	1,065	473	344	115	9	84	8	16	17
2006	1,114	491	380	116	8	78	7	15	18

1 Data for taxis were not recorded before 1996.

Source: CAPC, TfL

amongst people with disabilities, perhaps reflecting the difficulty in accessing these modes of transport.

According to the National Travel Survey from the Department for Transport, the top three reasons for making trips for people who live in London were for shopping purposes (20 per cent), closely followed by commuting to work (19 per cent) and visiting friends (16 per cent). It is worth noting that London was the region where commuting had the highest share of journeys by purpose. Despite this Londoners made the fewest trips of any region at 903 trips per person per year compared with 1,040 in Great Britain as a whole (Table 10.19).

Travel to central London

In 2006, over 1.1 million people entered central London in the morning peak between 7am and 10am on an average autumn working day. The number of people travelling into central London is closely related to the levels of employment in the area, and has grown annually since 2003, increasing by 5 per cent between 2005 and 2006.

In 2006, the largest proportion, 491,000 (44 per cent), made all or some of their journey by rail. The second highest proportion of journeys, 380,000 (34 per cent) were made by London Underground or DLR only. Around 10 per cent entered central London by bus and 7 per cent entered by car, compared with 16 per cent who travelled by car in 1981 (Table 10.5).

The time taken to travel to work in London is more than twice that of the North East and East Midlands. The mean time spent travelling to London workplaces was 43 minutes in 2006, the highest in the UK. For other regions, mean commuting times varied between 21 and 24 minutes. This in part reflects the greater distances travelled by commuters to London (Table 10.20).

Table 10.6

Bus operation and patronage in London

Millions

	Passenger journeys	Passenger kilometres	Bus operating kilometres[1]
1970	1,502	..	..
1980	1,183	4,152	278
1990/91	1,180	4,141	285
2000/01	1,354	4,709	357
2005/06	1,816	6,653	454
2006/07	1,880	7,014	458

1 Total operating kilometres is the total distance covered by all buses in London.

Source: TfL

Public transport - Bus

There were 1,880 million passenger journeys on the London bus network in 2006/07. This was an increase of 4 per cent on the previous financial year and shows that bus journey numbers are even higher than in 1970.

Between 2005/06 and 2006/07, bus passenger kilometres grew at a slightly faster rate (5 per cent) than the total number of journeys, due to an increase in average journey length (Table 10.6).

Table 10.7

London Underground operation and patronage in London

Millions

	Passenger journeys	Passenger kilometres	Train operating kilometres[1]
1970	672	..	..
1980	559	4,249	50
1990/91	775	6,164	52
2000/01	970	7,470	64
2005/06	971	7,586	69
2006/07	1,014	7,665	70

1 Total operating kilometres is the total distance covered by all trains in London.

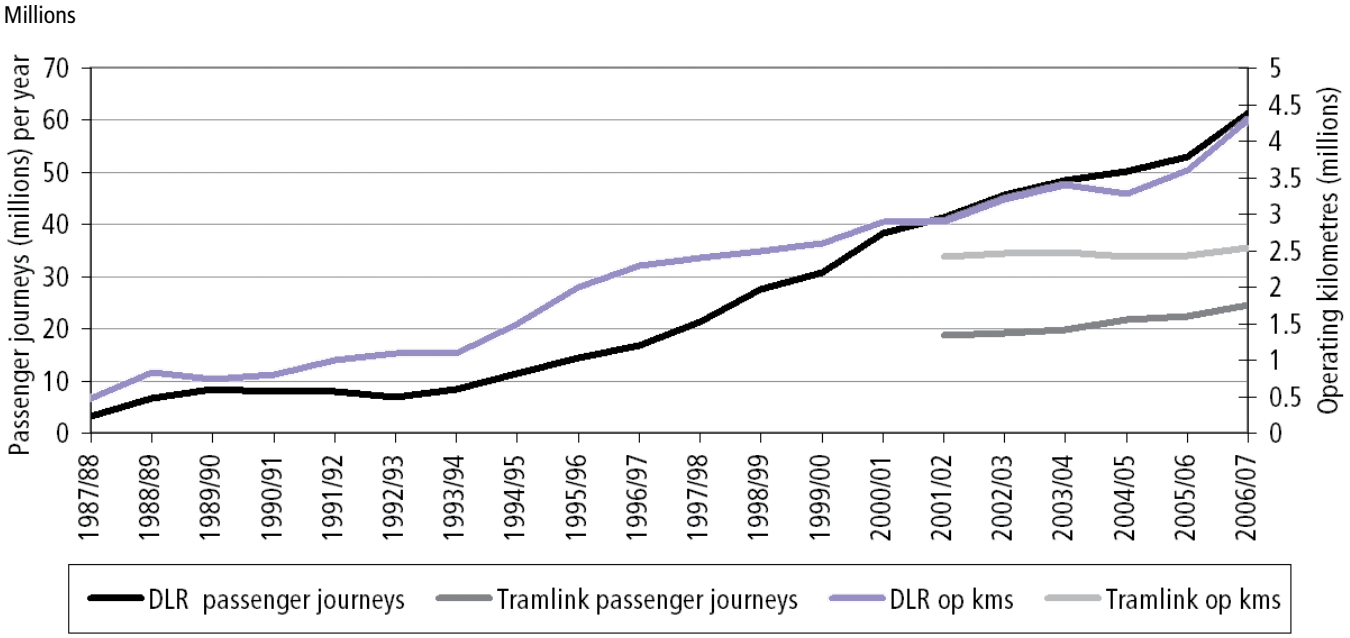
Source: TfL

London Underground

The London Underground system carried 1,014 million passenger journeys in 2006/07, an increase of 4 per cent from the 971 million journeys in 2005/06. The total number of passenger journeys in 2006/07 was the largest ever. In addition, passenger kilometres rose by 1 per cent between 2005/06 and 2006/07 (Table 10.7). Total operating kilometres has steadily increased since

Figure 10.8

DLR and Tramlink operation and patronage



Source: TfL

1990/91. This more than likely shows that the frequency of trains has increased, though may also be as a result of a change in some routes.

Docklands Light Railway and Tramlink

In 1988/89, its first full year of operation, 6.6 million passenger journeys were made on the Docklands Light Railway (DLR). This figure had grown almost ten-fold by 2006/7 (Figure 10.8). During this time the network had expanded from 13 kilometres to 31 kilometres and operated train kilometres had increased from 0.74 million kilometres a year to 5.3 million kilometres a year. The original network has been extended to Bank, Beckton, Stratford, Lewisham and London City Airport. Further extensions to Woolwich Arsenal and between Stratford and Canning Town are under construction.

The Tramlink became operational in May 2000 with a network centred on Croydon. The number of passenger journeys increased from 18.6 million in 2001/02, its first full year of operation, to 24.5 million in 2006/07. Operated tram kilometres have risen from 2.4 million kilometres to 2.5 million kilometres a year.

Oyster

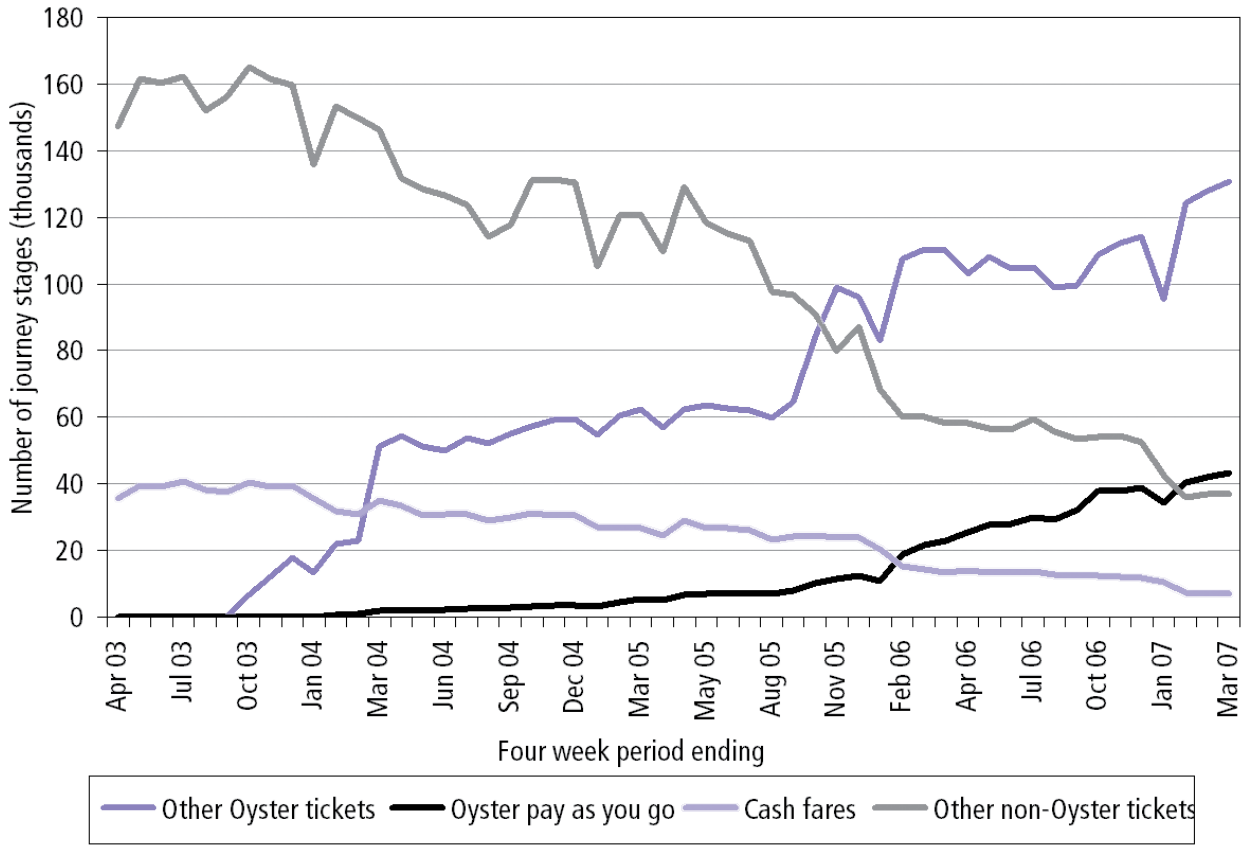
The introduction of the Oyster card has been the single biggest change to London's transport system since the introduction of the Travelcard in the 1980's. The Oyster card is a cashless electronic ticketing system used on Transport for London services. It was introduced in September 2003 for use on bus, Underground, the Docklands Light Railway (DLR) and Tramlink, and is now the UK's most widely used travel smartcard.

The types of ticket and passes included within Oyster have been added to since its introduction. In particular, Freedom Passes for free travel by the elderly and disabled people were transferred to Oyster in 2004 and

Figure 10.9

Use of Oyster card for Underground and bus travel

Thousands



Source: TfL

Travelcards were transferred to Oyster in September 2005.

Oyster card usage has grown steadily and accounted for 80 per cent of all bus and Underground journeys by March 2007. The proportion of cash fares had fallen from 20 per cent in August 2003 to around 3 per cent in March 2007. Oyster 'Pay as you go' accounted for 20 per cent of journeys in March 2007. The proportion of journeys using paper based pre-paid tickets and passes had fallen from 80 per cent to 17 per cent between August 2003 and March 2007 (Figure 10.9).

Private transport - vehicles

The number of private cars registered in London continues to rise. Over the ten years from the end of 1996, the number of registered vehicles had increased from 2,262,000 to 2,480,000, an increase of 9 per cent. Over this period, this figure had increased by 6 per cent within Inner London and 11 per cent in Outer London (Table 10.10).

However, it is worth noting that between 1996 and 2006, new registrations of cars in London fell by 30 per cent, which is the only decrease of any region in England (Table 10.21). While road traffic in Great Britain as a whole increased by over 8 per cent between 1999 and 2006, traffic on major roads in London fell by 2 per cent. Despite a slight increase in the year to 2006, car and taxi traffic on London's major roads remained 4 per cent lower in 2006 than in 1999. Motorcycle traffic increased by 5 per cent in this period. In contrast, road traffic in Britain as a whole has increased by over 8 per cent between 1999 and 2006. Vehicle flows on major roads in London have remained relatively stable since the start of the century. There was a slight increase in the number of cars and taxis in 2006, which was 2 per cent higher than 2005 levels. The number of motorcycles on London's major roads also increased by 14 per cent during this time (Table 10.11).

In 2005, 35 per cent of households in London did not have the use of a car. In addition, just 21 per cent of households had two or more cars, which is by far the lowest percentage of all regions in England and 10 per cent lower than the average for Great Britain (Table 10.12). In 1986, 17 per cent of households in Great Britain had two or more cars, only slightly higher than the London average of 15 per cent. Almost twenty years later, the proportion of households with two or more cars

Table 10.10

Private cars registered in London

Thousands

Year	London	Inner London	Outer London
1996	2,262	679	1,583
1997	2,259	688	1,571
1998	2,287	697	1,590
1999	2,319	707	1,611
2000	2,331	709	1,622
2001	2,379	721	1,657
2002	2,390	717	1,672
2003	2,397	714	1,682
2004	2,438	718	1,720
2005	2,473	724	1,750
2006	2,480	719	1,761

Source: DfT, from DVLA vehicle record

Table 10.11

Average daily vehicle flows on major roads[1] in London by vehicle type

Thousand vehicles per day

	Cars and taxis	Two-wheeled motor vehicles	Buses and coaches	Light vans	Goods vehicles	All motor vehicles
1993	24.8	0.6	0.4	3.1	1.3	30.3
1994	25.2	0.6	0.5	3.2	1.3	30.8
1995	25.1	0.6	0.5	3.4	1.3	30.8
1996	25.3	0.6	0.5	3.3	1.3	31.1
1997	25.4	0.7	0.5	3.4	1.3	31.3
1998	25.4	0.7	0.5	3.3	1.5	31.3
1999	25.8	0.7	0.5	3.5	1.4	31.9
2000	25.6	0.7	0.5	3.5	1.4	31.8
2001	25.5	0.7	0.5	3.6	1.4	31.7
2002	25.2	0.7	0.6	3.4	1.4	31.2
2003	24.7	0.8	0.6	3.7	1.3	31.1
2004	24.5	0.7	0.6	3.5	1.4	30.8
2005	24.4	0.7	0.6	3.6	1.4	30.7
2006	24.8	0.8	0.7	3.8	1.4	31.4

1 Major roads include motorways, all-purpose trunk and principal roads; in 2001 all-purpose trunk roads in London were reclassified as principal roads.

Source: National Road Traffic Survey, DfT

Figure 10.12

Households with regular use of 2 or more cars[1]

Percentages

1 Includes cars and light vans normally available to the household.

Source: General Household Survey and Expenditure and Food Survey, Office for National Statistics; National Travel Survey, Department for Transport

in London was only 6 percentage points higher, whereas, in Great Britain as a whole, there was an increase of 14 percentage points.

Traffic speeds in central London during the morning peak increased from under 10 mph in 2002 to 11 mph in 2003, as a result of reduced traffic levels following the introduction of congestion charging. However, in recent years, there has generally been a downward trend in speeds across London. Speeds in Inner and Outer London decreased by almost 1 mph and 2 mph, respectively, between 2003 and 2006 (Table 10.13).

Traffic patterns in and around the central London Congestion Charging zone remained broadly stable during 2006. The number of vehicles with four or more wheels entering the zone was 21 per cent lower than in 2002, the last year before the charge was put in place. The number of cars decreased by 36 per cent during this period. Among non-chargeable vehicles, there were 49 per cent more pedal cycles entering the zone than in 2002, 13 per cent more licensed taxis and 25 per cent more buses and coaches (Figure 10.14).

Table 10.13

Average traffic speeds in London

Miles per hour

	Central London	Rest of Inner London	All Inner	Outer London	All areas
Morning peak period					
1977-1982	12.2	14.1	13.6	19.2	17.2
1983-1990	11.7	12.7	12.4	18.6	16.5
1990-1997	10.6	13.3	12.4	17.2	15.7
1997-2000	10.0	12.0	11.4	18.2	15.9
2000-2002	9.9	11.6	11.1	16.9	15.0
2003-2006	10.6	11.7	11.4	16.3	14.8
2006-2009	9.3	11.2	10.7	..	..
Daytime off-peak period					
1977-1982	12.1	17.3	15.3	25.0	20.8
1983-1990	11.5	15.5	14.1	24.0	19.9
1990-1997	10.7	15.4	13.7	22.7	19.2
1997-2000	10.0	14.8	13.0	21.9	18.5
2000-2002	9.0	13.7	12.0	21.4	17.7
2003-2006	10.5	14.1	12.9	21.3	18.3
2006-2009	9.4	13.7	12.3	..	..
Evening peak period					
1977-1982	12.1	13.8	13.3	20.3	17.6
1983-1990	11.3	12.4	12.1	20.0	16.9
1990-1997	10.6	13.0	12.2	19.3	16.8
1997-2000	10.2	11.4	11.0	19.1	16.2
2000-2002	9.6	11.3	10.8	18.4	15.7
2003-2006	10.6	12.3	11.9	17.9	16.0
2006-2009	10.2	12.2	11.7	..	..

Source: TfL Traffic Speed Survey

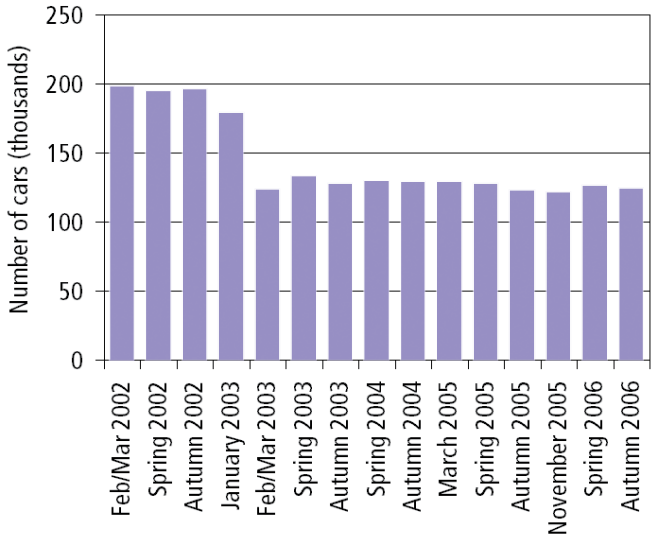
Walking and cycling

Across all age groups, men made more cycle trips than women in London. This is especially apparent in the 25-44 age group, where men made nearly twice as many trips as women. A large proportion of cycle trips (44 per cent) are for commuting purposes, with shopping and leisure trips each accounting for just under 20 per cent of all cycle trips. In all age groups except children, women made more trips on foot than men. In the 25-44 age group, women make over 80 per cent more trips on foot than men. Nearly 40 per cent of all walk trips are for shopping or personal business, with almost a quarter being for leisure purposes. Only 11 per cent of people walk to work in London (Figure 10.15).

Figure 10.14

Cars[1] entering the Congestion Charging zone during charging hours[2,3]

Numbers



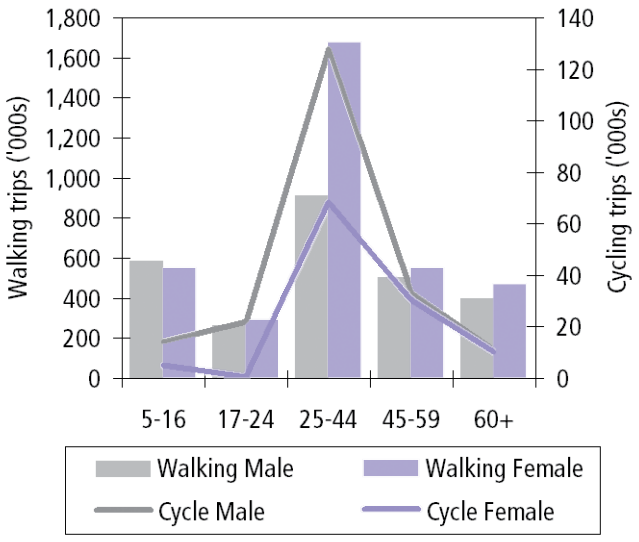
1 Including minicabs.
2 Congestion charging began February 2003.
3 Congestion charge variation July 2005.

Source: TfL, Congestion Charging

Figure 10.15

Walk and cycle trips by age group (2006/07)

Numbers



Source: LTDS 2006/07 Household Survey

Road casualties

There were 3,946 people killed or seriously injured (KSI) on London's roads in 2006, down 41 per cent on the 1994 to 1998 average. The total number of road casualties in London in 2006 decreased by almost 34 per cent compared with the average for 1994 to 1998. This was the largest decrease in the UK (Table 10.22). This downward trend continued in 2006 due to a drop in the number with slight injuries. There have been reductions of numbers of KSI in all of the target categories over the period with child totals falling by 58 per cent, pedestrians by 39 per cent, pedal cyclists by 31 per cent and powered two-wheelers by 9 per cent (Table 10.16).

The number of people killed on roads in London in 2006 was 231, and the total number of people seriously injured and slightly injured were 3,715 and 25,864 respectively (Table 10.17). While the largest proportion of people involved in collisions were in cars (48 per cent), the majority were only slightly injured. In comparison, pedestrians, cyclists and motorcyclists were more likely to be KSI when involved in collisions.

The number of children who were killed or seriously injured on London's roads in 2006 was 392, down by almost 60 per cent since 1994-98, which is the government target by 2010.

Table 10.16

Changes in casualties for London casualty reduction target categories

Numbers and percentages

	Casualties			Change 1994/1998 average to 2006	Govt. target by 2010 (per cent)
	1994-98 average	2005	2006		
Fatal and serious casualties					
Total	6,684	3,650	3,946	-41	-50
Children	935	355	392	-58	-60
Pedestrians	2,137	1,224	1,303	-39	-50
Pedal cyclists	567	372	392	-31	-50
Powered two-wheelers	933	845	848	-9	-40
Slight casualties	38,997	28,180	25,864	-34	-25

Source: Department for Transport

Table 10.17

Road casualties in London and Great Britain by type, 2006

Index

Year	Killed		Seriously Injured		Slightly Injured		All casualties	
	London	GB	London	GB	London	GB	London	GB
1994-1998 average	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1991	148	128	117	117	99	94	102	97
1992	126	118	108	112	101	94	102	97
1993	115	107	95	102	101	95	101	96
1994	109	102	92	106	102	97	100	99
1995	87	101	98	103	99	96	99	97
1996	101	101	102	101	99	100	100	100
1997	111	101	105	98	101	103	101	102
1998	92	96	103	93	99	103	100	102
1999	105	96	88	89	102	102	100	100
2000	114	95	91	87	102	102	100	100
2001	120	96	90	84	98	100	97	98
2002	112	96	83	82	92	97	91	95
2003	109	98	76	76	85	93	84	91
2004	87	90	61	71	78	91	76	88
2005	86	89	53	66	72	88	70	85
2006	93	89	58	65	66	83	65	81
2006 number of casualties	231	3,172	3,715	28,673	25,864	226,559	29,810	258,404

1 Index based on 1994-1998 average.

Source: TfL London Road Safety Unit.

Air passengers

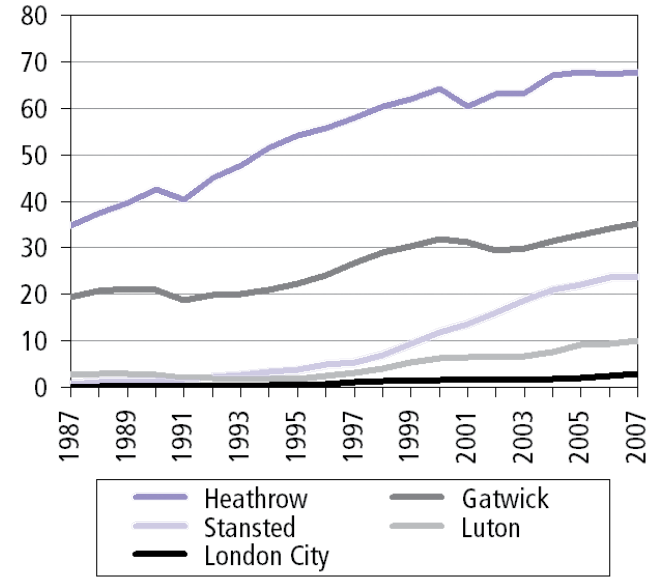
Between 1987 and 2007 the number of passengers using London's airports (Heathrow, Gatwick, Stansted, Luton and London City) increased by over 140 per cent from 57,437,000 passengers per year to 139,609,000 passengers per year. Heathrow is the busiest airport, with a throughput of nearly 68 million passengers in 2007 – nearly half of the total volume for all five airports. Gatwick is the second busiest airport, handling just over 35 million passengers.

Over the period 1997 to 2007, Stansted has experienced the largest level of growth in absolute terms, growing from a throughput of 5 million passengers to just under 24 million passengers per year (Figure 10.18).

Figure 10.18

Air passengers[1] using airports in London[2]

Millions



1 Passengers are recorded at both airport of departure and arrival.
2 Arrivals and departures.

Source: Civil Aviation Authority

Table 10.19

Trips by purpose by region of residence, 2005-2006[1,2,]

Trips per person per year

	Commuting	Business	Education	Shopping	Personal business	Escort	Visiting friends	Sport and entertain-ment	Holidays and day trips	Other including just walk	All purposes
North East	163	26	54	218	106	122	163	59	41	43	994
North West	161	37	72	229	114	152	185	68	36	46	1,101
Yorkshire and The Humber	159	35	68	217	107	142	193	64	33	39	1,058
East Midlands	162	32	75	213	103	165	173	63	37	46	1,070
West Midlands	155	34	68	213	103	150	182	62	39	37	1,043
East	166	37	61	212	109	149	180	77	40	47	1,079
London	168	30	64	178	99	106	147	53	27	29	903
South East	161	41	57	221	110	152	154	75	44	41	1,056
South West	149	47	58	223	116	155	165	79	60	56	1,108
England	161	36	64	213	108	144	170	67	39	42	1,044
Wales	152	37	65	198	99	154	171	64	37	52	1,029
Scotland	159	36	61	216	107	128	155	65	35	51	1,014
Great Britain	160	36	64	212	107	143	169	67	39	43	1,040
Nothern Ireland[3]	140	39	70	194	126	115	141	52	23	37	937

1 Combined survey years.
2 All figures are based on weighted data and are therefore not comparable with previously published figures which were based on unweighted data.
3 Data for Northern Ireland is based on combined survey years 2004-2006.

Source: Department for Transport, National Travel Survey

Table 10.20

Time taken to travel to work by workplace, fourth quarter 2006[1]

Percentages and minutes

	Percentage of journeys to workplace					Mean
	Up to 20 minutes	21 to 40 minutes	41 to 60 minutes	61 to 80 minutes	over 80 minutes	time (mins)
United Kingdom	58	24	13	2	3	26
North East	67	23	9	1	1	21
Tyne & Wear[2]	61	25	12	1	1	23
Rest	72	21	6	0	1	20
North West	61	25	12	1	2	24
Greater Manchester[2]	52	27	17	1	2	28
Merseyside[2]	61	28	8	1	1	23
Rest	68	22	8	1	2	21
Yorkshire and The Humber	61	25	12	1	2	24
South Yorkshire[2]	57	29	11	1	1	25
West Yorkshire[2]	57	25	15	1	3	26
Rest	69	21	8	0	2	22
East Midlands	68	23	8	1	2	21
West Midlands	61	25	11	1	2	24
West Midlands[2]	55	27	14	2	2	27
Rest	68	23	7	1	2	21
East	65	23	9	1	2	23
London	29	26	29	6	11	43
South East	62	24	10	1	3	24
South West	64	23	10	1	2	23
England	57	24	13	2	3	27
Wales	69	21	8	0	1	21
Scotland	60	25	12	1	3	25
Northern Ireland	63	24	10	1	2	23

1 The Labour Force Survey (LFS) has moved to publishing data for calendar quarters.
2 Data relate to former Metropolitan Counties.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

Table 10.21

Motor cars currently licensed and new registrations[1]

Thousands and percentages

	Currently licensed			Percentage company cars			New registrations		
	1996	2001	2006	1996	2001	2006	1996	2001	2006
Great Britain[2]	22,784	25,340	27,830	10	10	9	2,077	2,586	2,340
North East	783	893	1,015	6	6	6	74	94	80
North West	2,501	2,820	3,196	12	12	14	235	308	316
Yorkshire and The Humber	1,707	1,931	2,176	9	8	8	138	184	179
East Midlands	1,609	1,863	2,086	10	9	8	140	213	203
West Midlands	2,183	2,479	2,693	16	17	15	275	325	289
East	2,295	2,640	2,834	9	8	6	200	271	219
London	2,362	2,461	2,569	14	9	6	277	258	193
South East	3,469	4,006	4,403	10	10	9	292	427	390
South West	2,109	2,447	2,640	10	10	7	130	197	178
England	19,018	21,539	23,612	11	10	9	1,762	2,277	2,048
Wales	1,067	1,217	1,413	7	5	6	73	96	91
Scotland	1,674	1,939	2,173	9	9	8	154	206	196
Northern Ireland	540	645	801	9	..	..	55	89	67

1 At 31 December.
2 Totals for Great Britain include motor vehicles where the country of the registered keeper is unknown, that are under disposal or from countries unknown within Great Britain (but not Northern Ireland).

Source: Annual Vehicle Census/Vehicle Information Database, Department for Transport; Department of the Environment, Northern Ireland

Table 10.22

Road casualties[1] by age and type of road user, 2006

Percentages and numbers

	Percentage of all road casualties									Percentage change compared with 1994-1998 average[4]
	Who were aged[2]			Type of road user					All road casualties (=100%) (numbers)	
	0 to 15	16 to 59	60 or over	Pedestrians	Pedal cyclists	Motor cyclists	Car occupants	Other road users		
United Kingdom	9.9	77.6	10.1	11.9	6.1	8.9	66.6	6.6	267,586	..
North East	11.7	78.2	10.1	12.9	5.1	6.6	68.2	7.3	10,364	-14.1
North West	12.0	77.6	9.9	12.8	5.6	6.3	68.6	6.6	33,986	-24.8
Yorkshire and The Humber	10.8	78.1	10.6	11.8	5.6	7.2	67.6	7.8	24,643	-14.5
East Midlands	10.1	77.1	9.4	9.8	5.9	9.1	68.7	6.5	19,588	-15.3
West Midlands	10.2	76.4	9.1	12.1	4.9	7.6	69.4	6.1	24,363	-14.8
East	9.1	80.0	10.0	8.1	6.8	9.8	69.8	5.5	25,025	-17.1
London	7.4	75.4	8.1	18.6	9.9	15.7	47.8	8.0	29,831	-33.6
South East	8.9	78.4	10.8	9.1	6.9	10.0	68.5	5.4	37,996	-17.0
South West	8.5	77.0	11.6	10.2	6.6	10.0	68.2	4.9	22,781	-5.4
England	9.7	77.6	10.0	11.7	6.5	9.4	66.0	6.4	228,577	-19.2
Wales	10.2	78.5	11.1	10.4	3.9	6.4	73.0	6.2	12,692	-14.6
Scotland	11.7	75.9	12.2	16.5	4.5	6.2	64.1	8.7	17,135	-23.2
Northern Ireland	10.7	80.0	9.3	8.7	1.9	4.8	77.3	7.4	9,182	-26.5

1 Casualties in accidents occurring on a public highway in which a road vehicle is involved.
2 Excludes age not reported.
3 Includes occupants of taxis and minibuses.
4 Used as the baseline for the government targets for reducing road casualties in Great Britain by 40 per cent by the year 2010.

Source: Department for Transport; The Police Service of Northern Ireland

Chapter 1

Crime

- The rate of recorded crime in London in 2006/07 was the highest of all English regions and Wales at 124 offences per 1,000 head of population. This is based on crimes recorded by the police. However, the crime rate has fallen significantly since 2003/04.
- The overall rate of detection (21 per cent) of recorded crime being cleared up by the police in London was the lowest of all the UK regions.
- The rate of robbery in London was more than three times higher than average for England and Wales.
- Vehicle-related thefts were higher in London than in other areas of the country with 1,371 thefts per 10,000 households. This was almost 50 per cent higher than the average for England and Wales.
- Almost 8 per cent of London's police officers were from an ethnic minority – higher than any other region and over twice the UK percentage of 3.4 per cent.
- According to a range of data sources, Inner London generally had higher rates of violent incidents than Outer London. The incidence of violence in Outer London boroughs, recorded by TFL through driver incident records, was a notable exception.
- When considering a range of data sources, violent crimes were more likely to occur on Fridays, Saturdays and Sundays than on other days of the week and in the early afternoon to late evening as opposed to the early hours of the morning.
- The London Ambulance Service recorded much higher rates of assault in Inner London (6.0 per 1,000 population) than Outer London (3.9 per 1,000 population).

Introduction

London suffers from a range of crime and disorder problems and has higher rates of recorded crime than other regions in England and Wales. This chapter draws on a range of data sources, including the 2006/07 British Crime Survey, police recorded crimes and incidents, as well as data from other pan-London agencies. Considering a range of data sources around crime and disorder allows for a more complete picture of crime to be obtained. The Crime and Disorder Act 1998 requires these and other agencies to set up Crime and Disorder Reduction Partnerships (CDRPs) and to work together to tackle local crime problems.

This chapter also presents information by offence type and various levels of geography, such as Local Authority, to demonstrate variations in crime rates in relation to these factors.

Recorded Crime

According to Home Office figures, the total number of crimes recorded by the police in London in 2006/07 was 929,752, a fall of 6 per cent when compared with 2005/06 or 13 per cent compared with 2003/04. Only the West Midlands and Yorkshire and The Humber have seen slightly bigger reductions since 2003/04 (both 15 per cent), while the South East was the only region to have an increase in recorded crime (2 per cent).

In 2006/07 the total recorded crime rate in London (at 124 offences per 1,000 population) was the highest rate of all English regions and Wales and compares with the national average of 100. However, London's crime rate is increased by the large numbers of visitors and workers relative to the resident population. The crime rate has fallen significantly since 2003/04 when it stood at 145 per 1,000 population, which is a fall of 21 (Figure 11.1). The drop in rate is the second largest in the country behind Yorkshire and The Humber, which fell by 23 (Table 11.2).

However, comparing London to other regions is often problematic given the differences in characteristics between a big city and regions that are largely rural. The most comparable forces are likely to be the Greater Manchester and the West Midlands Police Forces, where the total recorded crime rates per 1,000 population during 2006/07 were 131 and 108 respectively. Forces with higher rates than London include Nottinghamshire (131) and Humberside (127) (Table 11.3).

The number of burglaries, criminal damage and violence against the person offences recorded decreased (by 6 per cent, 7 per cent and 8 per cent respectively) between 2005/06 and 2006/07, and these were the largest percentage decreases seen for all the English regions and

Figure 11.1

Total recorded crime rate 2003/04 to 2006/07

Rates per 1,000 population

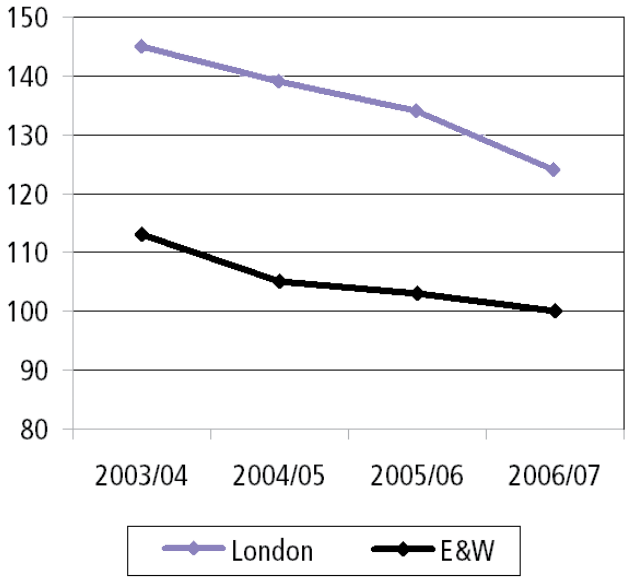


Table 11.2

Total recorded crime rate 2003/04 to 2006/07

Rates per 1,000 population

	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	2006/07
North East	111	102	101	98
North West	121	115	115	110
Yorkshire and The Humber	137	118	118	114
East Midlands	117	107	102	100
West Midlands	113	100	98	95
East	93	88	86	83
London	145	139	134	124
South East	91	90	90	91
South West	93	89	86	86
Wales	99	91	87	87
England and Wales	113	105	103	100

Source: Home Office

Table 11.3

Top ten recorded crimes rates by police force area, England and Wales, 2006/07

Numbers per 1,000 population

	Total	Violence against the person	Burglary	Offences against vehicles[1]	Other theft offences	Criminal damage	Other offences
Greater Manchester	131	22	18	23	22	30	16
Nottinghamshire	131	21	20	23	26	29	12
Humberside	127	27	18	18	25	30	9
Cleveland	124	25	14	16	26	34	9
South Yorkshire	124	22	17	22	22	31	10
Metropolitan Police	123	24	13	18	31	15	22
West Yorkshire	118	20	17	18	23	28	12
Merseyside	114	19	14	16	20	30	15
West Midlands	108	22	14	16	18	22	16
Avon and Somerset	105	20	12	16	23	22	12
England and Wales	100	19	12	14	22	22	11

1 Includes theft of a motor vehicle, theft from a vehicle, aggravated vehicle taking and interfering with a motor vehicle.

Source: Home Office

Wales for these offences. Over the same period there was a 6 per cent decrease in offences of or from vehicles.

There were almost 922,000 crimes recorded by the Metropolitan Police Service (MPS) in 2006/07 (Table 11.10). Crimes recorded by the Metropolitan Police account for 99 per cent of all police recorded crime in the London region.

Between 2002/03 and 2006/07, MPS recorded crime in London fell by 15 per cent. All major categories of offending have fallen with the exception of robbery (up 8 per cent) and violence against the person (up 2 per cent). Large reductions have been recorded for burglary (down 15 per cent), theft and handling (down 21 per cent), sexual offences (down 11 per cent) and criminal damage (down 21per cent). When looking at specific types of crime, vehicle theft reduced considerably (down 36 per cent), as did snatch theft (down 34 per cent), picking pockets (down 23 per cent) and rape (down 16 per cent). In 2007, the Metropolitan Police had targets to reduce violent crime by 5 per cent and levels of gun crime by 4 per cent across the Metropolitan Police Area. In 2007, 'violent crime' was reduced by 7.2 percent on 2006 levels but 'gun enabled' crime increased by 4 per cent.

In 2006/07 almost 197,000 of the crimes recorded were cleared up. The crime detection rate of recorded crime for London was 21 per cent in 2006/07, the lowest of all the UK regions, and compared with a national average of 27 per cent. The detection rate in London fell from 24 per cent in 2005/06. Detection rates vary by type of crime from 11 per cent for theft and handling stolen goods to 93 per cent for drugs offences (Table 11.4). The detection rates for violence against the person, theft and handling stolen goods and fraud and forgery are particularly low in London compared with the national average.

Table 11.11 shows recorded crime rates for six selected crimes, namely violence against the person, sexual offences, robbery, domestic burglary, theft of a motor vehicle and theft from a motor vehicle. The rate recorded for these crimes taken together in London was over 40 per cent higher than for the whole of England and Wales. However, the rate has fallen in London by 7 per cent on the previous year compared with just a 3 per cent fall nationally. Violence against the person has the highest rate of these selected crimes at 243 per 10,000 people in London. The rate has fallen from 266 in 2005/06. At a local authority level, rates varied from 114 in Richmond to 1,053 in the City, though rates in

Table 11.4

Recorded crimes detected[1] by the police, by offence group, 2006/07[2]

Percentages

	Violence against the person	Sexual offences	Burglary	Robbery	Theft and handling stolen goods	Fraud and forgery	Criminal damage	Drugs	Other[3]	Total[3]
England and Wales	51	32	14	18	18	28	15	95	70	27
North East	67	44	17	28	29	54	18	95	83	36
North West	57	37	14	21	20	28	14	96	75	28
Yorkshire and The Humber	54	32	15	27	21	30	15	98	73	28
East Midlands	52	34	12	19	18	26	14	97	73	26
West Midlands	54	31	12	21	21	33	15	95	70	29
East	60	33	13	20	20	31	15	98	73	29
London	31	28	16	14	11	16	12	93	60	21
South East	50	28	13	22	17	29	14	96	67	26
South West	49	29	13	21	20	32	14	95	64	27
England	50	32	14	18	18	27	14	95	70	27
Wales	65	35	15	27	22	38	18	94	75	33
Scotland[4]	67	74	26	37	35	76	23	95	97	46
Northern Ireland[3,5]	34	26	13	19	20	31	12	88	68	24

1 The detection rate is the ratio of offences cleared up in the year to offences recorded in the year. See Notes and Definitions.
2 Offences detected in the current year may have been initially recorded in an earlier year and for this reason some percentages may exceed 100.
3 The Northern Ireland figure includes offences against the state.
4 Figures for Scotland are not comparable with those for England and Wales because of the differences in the legal systems, recording practices and classifications.
5 In April 2006 Police Service of Northern Ireland (PSNI) adopted a higher evidential standard in respect of non-sanction clearances. Detection rates for Northern Ireland are now more comparable with those for England and Wales and should not be compared with those for earlier years.

Source: Home Office; Scottish Government; Police Service of Northern Ireland

the City will appear high due to low population figures compared with the number of visitors and workers.

Inner London had a higher rate at 691 recorded offences per 10,000 population than Outer London at 488. Both have fallen since 2005/06 when they were 749 and 534 respectively. The Inner London areas with the highest rates were the City of London, Islington and Newham. The lowest rates were all in Outer London, with Richmond upon Thames having the lowest rate (307) followed by Kingston upon Thames (336) and Bexley (343).

Crimes committed against households

The British Crime Survey (BCS) is considered as the best measure of crime over a period of time because the BCS includes crimes which are not reported to the police, so it is an important alternative to police records and it has been carried out in the same way for 25 years and therefore is unaffected by changes in levels of public reporting and police recording. The sample size is almost 3,500 in London (see Notes and Definitions).

In 2006/07 there were 3,317 crimes per 10,000 households in London. This is the highest rate in England and Wales, though North East, North West, Yorkshire and The Humber, East Midlands and the South East regions have just slightly lower rates. However, the rates in London are lower than in a comparable area such as Greater Manchester (3,872).

In total there were just under 1.1 million crimes against households in London in 2006/07. The most prevalent type of crime against households is vehicle thefts

Table 11.5

Crimes committed against households[1], 2006/07

Rates per 10,000 households and percentages

	Crimes per 10,000 households				Percentage of households victimised at least once			
	Vandalism	Burglary[2]	Vehicle thefts[3]	All household offences[4]	Vandalism	Burglary[2]	Vehicle thefts[3]	All household offences[4]
England and Wales	1,281	311	925	3,038	7.9	2.5	7.5	18.9
North East	1,575	200	824	3,232	9.4	1.9	6.2	18.6
North West	1,467	371	1,013	3,316	9.4	2.9	8.0	20.5
Yorkshire and The Humber	1,146	401	1,058	3,314	7.2	3.1	8.4	20.2
East Midlands	1,285	353	866	3,077	8.1	2.9	7.1	19.4
West Midlands	1,116	268	1,017	2,754	6.8	2.2	8.0	17.7
East	1,169	213	732	2,643	7.5	1.7	6.0	16.9
London	1,189	422	1,371	3,317	7.3	3.6	11.1	20.6
South East	1,414	292	776	3,026	8.5	2.5	6.3	18.5
South West	1,221	206	710	2,675	7.3	1.8	6.2	17.1
England	1,282	312	927	3,043	7.9	2.6	7.5	18.9
Wales	1,263	293	892	2,955	7.5	2.1	7.0	17.9
Scotland[5]	1,197	282	..	2,615	7.8	2.1	..	16.2
Northern Ireland	598	211	346	1,521	4.0	1.9	2.7	10.5

1 See Notes and Definitions for details of surveys.
2 The term used in Scotland is housebreaking. The figures include attempts at burglary/housebreaking.
3 Comprises theft of vehicles, thefts from vehicles and associated attempts. Data for vehicle thefts are based on vehicle-owning households only.
4 Comprises the three individual categories plus thefts of bicycles and other household thefts.
5 Data for Scotland relate to 2005/06.

Source: British Crime Survey, Home Office; Scottish Crime and Victimisation Survey, Scottish Government; Northern Ireland Crime Survey, Northern Ireland Office

accounting for 41 per cent of the total. Vehicle-related thefts were higher in London than in other areas of the country, with 1,371 thefts per 10,000 households. This was almost 50 per cent higher than the average for England and Wales. London also recorded the highest rate of burglary (422 per 10,000 households) of all the regions in the country. Just over a fifth (21 per cent) of households in London were victimised at least once in 2006/07, which was slightly higher than the national average (19 per cent) (Table 11.5). The rates for burglary, vehicle crime and violent crime in London remained stable showing no significant change between the 2005/06 and 2006/07 surveys.

Crimes committed against the person

The BCS indicates the rate of personal crime was higher in London than the national average at 1,280 crimes per 10,000 population compared with 963 in England and Wales and was the highest rate of all the UK regions. There was a total of 777,000 crimes against the person in 2006/07 according to the BCS. The BCS shows a stable trend for both crimes against the person and property in London.

Police Service Strength

The total number of police officers has remained around the same since 2006 at just under 32,000. There are considerably more police officers per head of population in London than any other region.

The number of Community Support Officers (CSOs) in London, at 3,730, was by far the highest of any region. This is more than double the next largest, the North West (1,731) where the population served is about 10 per cent lower. The number of CSOs has increased by 60 per cent since 2006 when the number was 2,326.

Almost 8 per cent of London's police officers were from ethnic minorities - higher than any other region and over twice the UK percentage of 3.4 per cent. (Table 11.6)

The rate of special constables per thousand police officers has increased from 41 in 2006 to 57 in 2007. However, this is still the lowest of any region in the UK and compares to the UK average of 98.

Table 11.6

Police service strength[1] by type, March 2007

Numbers and Percentages

	Police officers on ordinary duty[2]				Special Constables and civilian staff (rates per 1,000 officers on ordinary duty)			
		Percentage of which						
	Number	Minority ethnic groups	Women officers	Population per officer[3]	Special Constables	Police staff	Community Support Officers (numbers)	Traffic wardens (numbers)[5,6]
United Kingdom	166,430	3.4	23.0	391	98	591	..	1,031
North East	7,425	1.4	21.6	345	66	497	503	32
North West	19,569	3.0	23.5	350	83	566	1,731	70
Yorkshire and The Humber	12,908	2.9	24.7	392	102	676	1,333	34
East Midlands	9,293	3.8	21.9	463	156	682	891	24
West Midlands	14,049	5.0	25.6	382	128	574	1,191	33
East	11,083	2.4	25.0	500	150	737	1,178	31
London	31,989	7.8	20.9	235	57	565	3,730	317
South East	16,943	2.5	25.7	482	88	728	1,268	62
South West	11,006	1.2	23.2	461	142	712	1,031	56
England	134,265	4.0	23.4	376	99	628	12,856	658
Wales	7,627	1.3	22.6	388	105	573	641	106
Scotland	16,234	1.2	21.8	315	88	453	..	267
Northern Ireland[7]	8,304	0.3	19.9	..	104	318	..	..

1 Full-time equivalents as at 31 March 2007 for England and Wales and for Scotland. Actual numbers (whether full or part-time) for Northern Ireland. Includes staff on career breaks or maternity / paternity leave.
2 Includes full-time reserves in Northern Ireland.
3 Based on mid-2006 population estimates for England and Wales. Based on mid-2005 population estimates for Scotland. Northern Ireland figures not available.
4 Part-time reserves in Northern Ireland.
5 Traffic warden numbers exclude local authority staff.
6 Total is for Great Britain.
7 Civilian staff and traffic wardens; part-time staff are counted as half full-time.

Source: Home Office; Scottish Government; Police Service of Northern Ireland

Violent crime

Overall, Inner London had much higher rates of violent incidents in 2006/07 according to a range of data sources analysed. The exception was Transport for London (TfL) Incident Records, where Outer London had a higher rate.

According to incidents reported by the Metropolitan Police Service (MPS), Tower Hamlets had the highest rate of violent incidents of all London Boroughs, followed by Westminster and Hackney. The Outer London Boroughs of Richmond Upon Thames and Harrow had the lowest rates of violent incidents.

When looking at violent incidents recorded by other agencies, the pattern was somewhat different. For example, TfL incident record rates for violent incidents were highest for the City of London, though this is probably mainly down to low resident population figures compared with the numbers of workers and visitors in the area. The Outer London boroughs of Greenwich, Hillingdon and Havering also had high rates.

The highest rates of violent incidents recorded by the London Ambulance Service (LAS) were in Inner London; the City of London, Westminster, Lambeth and Islington.

The British Transport Police (BTP) also recorded the highest rates of violent incidents in the Inner boroughs, with City of London, Westminster, Lambeth and Camden recording the highest rates.

The boroughs that had rates consistently in the top 20 per cent across all data sources were Westminster, City of London, Lambeth and Islington (top 20 per cent across three data sources); and Greenwich, Hackney, Newham, Southwark and Tower Hamlets (top 20 per cent across two data sources) (Table 11.7).

Violent incidents by time of week

Table 11.8 compares the pattern of activity for violent incidents over a typical week from incidents recorded by the MPS, LAS and BTP and from TfL incident records.

Consistent temporal patterns are apparent across all data sources, where peak times of the week for violent incidents are between 10pm and 12am on Fridays, Saturdays and Sundays and 5pm to 9pm on Fridays and Saturdays.

Overall, violent incidents were more likely to occur on Fridays, Saturdays and Sundays than on other days of the week and in the early afternoon to late evening as opposed to the early hours of the morning.

LAS and MPS data reveal high concentrations of activity between 10pm and 12:59am on Fridays, Saturdays and Sundays. During these three 3-hour periods, the MPS alone dealt with over 24,000 violent incidents in 2006/07 out of a total of 237,000. That means over 10 per cent of all the incidents occur within just 5 per cent of the hours. During these 'late night' hours at weekends the MPS deal with 52 violent incidents on average every hour. LAS data also reveals high concentrations in the early hours (1am to 5am on Saturday and Sunday morning).

London Ambulance Service assault rates

The London Ambulance Service (LAS) recorded much higher rates of assault incidents in Inner London (6.0 per 1,000 population) than Outer London (3.9 per 1,000 population).

The City of London had the highest rate of assault incidents by far. Other high rates were seen in Westminster (7.8), Lambeth (7.3), Greenwich (6.9), Islington (6.9), Southwark (6.5) and Hackney (6.4). The lowest rates of assault incidents attended to by the LAS were seen in Outer London, with Richmond Upon Thames and Havering recording the lowest rates. Greenwich had the highest rate of assault incidents of all the Outer London boroughs.

Assault incident rates recorded by the LAS in 2006/07 were 3.1% lower than in 2005/06 (Table 11.9).

Table 11.7

Rates of violent incidents by local authority[1,2], 2006/07

Rates per 1,000 population

	Metropolitan Police Service	Transport for London	London Ambulance Service	British Transport Police
Inner London	39.8	1.1	6.5	1.1
Camden	37.5	1.2	6.4	1.7
City of London[3,4]	*not reported*	4.3	22.2	30.4
Hackney	44.2	1.3	6.7	0.3
Hammersmith & Fulham	37.5	0.6	5.7	0.6
Haringey	35.0	1.2	6.7	0.5
Islington	43.5	1.5	7.4	0.8
Kensington & Chelsea	25.8	0.4	3.7	0.7
Lambeth	43.1	1.1	7.8	2.2
Lewisham	43.4	1.2	6.2	0.4
Newham	42.1	2.0	6.4	0.8
Southwark	43.0	1.2	6.9	0.7
Tower Hamlets	47.2	1.1	6.1	0.8
Wandsworth	27.7	0.4	4.5	0.4
Westminster	46.3	1.0	8.5	3.4
Outer London	26.2	1.4	4.2	0.3
Barking & Dagenham	37.5	2.1	4.9	0.3
Barnet	20.9	0.9	3.6	0.2
Bexley	19.7	2.2	3.5	0.2
Brent	32.0	1.1	5.9	0.5
Bromley	23.6	1.7	3.4	0.3
Croydon	26.5	1.4	4.8	0.5
Ealing	33.7	1.0	4.6	0.3
Enfield	24.9	1.3	4.1	0.1
Greenwich	41.9	3.1	7.4	0.3
Harrow	17.9	0.6	3.0	0.3
Havering	19.1	2.3	2.6	0.3
Hillingdon	28.6	2.3	4.4	0.3
Hounslow	30.4	0.8	4.7	0.3
Kingston Upon Thames	22.2	0.6	4.4	0.3
Merton	20.9	0.7	3.6	0.4
Redbridge	23.3	1.4	3.3	0.2
Richmond Upon Thames	14.8	0.5	2.4	0.4
Sutton	19.2	0.7	3.3	0.1
Waltham Forest	37.2	1.2	5.1	0.3
London	31.6	1.3	5.1	0.6

1 Cells in grey are in the top 20 per cent of agency incidents, cells in dark purple are top 20-50 per cent of agency incidents and cells in light purple are in the bottom 50 per cent of agency incidents.
2 Rates are based on ONS 2006 mid-year population.
3 The Metropolitan Police Service do not have jurisdiction over the area within the boundaries of the Corporation of London, therefore rates for this area are not reported as part of Metropolitan Police official statistics.
4 Caution needs to be taken when considering crime rates in City of London. Rates are calculated using resident populations.

Source: Metropolitan Police Service (MPS); Transport for London; London Ambulance Service; British Transport Police

Table 11.8

Number of violent incidents in 2006/07 per hour by time period of the week[1,2,3]

Numbers

	Metropolitan Police Service[4]	Transport for London	London Ambulance Service[5]	British Transport Police
1am - 5am (Monday to Friday)	517.5	11.3	133.2	5.1
6am - 11am (Monday to Friday)	764.2	16.3	84.0	23.6
12am - 4pm (Monday to Friday)	1782.0	60.2	189.4	34.9
5pm - 9pm (Monday to Thursday)	1984.4	126.3	301.6	45.6
10pm - 12am (Monday to Thursday)	1856.9	61.4	332.5	32.5
5pm - 9pm (Friday)	2230.6	137.0	351.0	57.4
10pm - 12am (Friday)	2766.0	121.3	519.3	68.3
1am - 5am (Saturday)	1665.8	40.4	510.2	8.8
6am - 11am (Saturday)	715.5	14.0	110.7	15.7
12am - 4pm (Saturday)	1575.0	70.0	185.6	27.6
5pm - 9pm (Saturday)	2238.8	140.0	359.2	50.8
10pm - 12am (Saturday)	3019.3	133.7	629.3	60.3
1am - 5am (Sunday)	1533.2	35.6	421.0	5.8
6am - 11am (Sunday)	604.3	13.8	98.0	14.3
12am - 4pm (Sunday)	1399.2	50.4	164.6	25.0
5pm - 9pm (Sunday)	1884.6	102.4	308.0	29.6
10pm - 12am (Sunday)	2363.0	74.7	476.3	35.0

1 Cells in grey are in the top 20 per cent of agency incidents, cells in dark purple are top 20-50 per cent of agency incidents and cells in light purple are in the bottom 50 per cent of agency incidents
2 Reflects the average number of incidents during particular times in a typical week.
3 The time periods in the table include the hour after the one stated. For example 10pm-12am includes all incidents up to 12:59am. The total number of violent incidents dealt with by the MPS in 2006/07 on Fridays-Sundays between 10pm and 12:59am was 9,058 (i.e 3 x 3,019.3)
4 The Metropolitan Police Service do not have jurisdiction over the area within the boundaries of the Corporation of London, therefore rates for this area are not reported as part of Metropolitan Police official statistics.
5 London Ambulance Service figures exclude records where borough was not recorded.

Source: Metropolitan Police Service; Transport for London; London Ambulance Service; British Transport Police

Table 11.9

London Ambulance Service assault incident rates[1,2], by Local Authority[3] 2006/07

Rates per 1,000 population

	Assault incident rate[4]	% change from 2005/06
Inner London	6.0	-5.8
Camden	5.8	2.7
City of London	19.8	-11.0
Hackney	6.4	-15.0
Hammersmith & Fulham	5.3	-4.0
Haringey	6.3	-11.0
Islington	6.9	-2.0
Kensington & Chelsea	3.3	3.4
Lambeth	7.3	-8.4
Lewisham	5.9	-2.5
Newham	6.2	0.1
Southwark	6.5	-11.0
Tower Hamlets	5.9	0.9
Wandsworth	4.0	-5.2
Westminster	7.8	-8.7
Outer London	3.9	-0.2
Barking & Dagenham	4.7	-3.4
Barnet	3.2	4.1
Bexley	3.3	0.1
Brent	5.5	3.1
Bromley	3.2	-4.1
Croydon	4.4	-2.1
Ealing	4.3	-8.7
Enfield	3.8	1.2
Greenwich	6.9	1.8
Harrow	2.8	-1.0
Havering	2.4	5.9
Hillingdon	4.0	2.0
Hounslow	4.3	-6.1
Kingston Upon Thames	3.8	12.5
Merton	3.2	3.1
Redbridge	3.1	-1.1
Richmond Upon Thames	2.1	-1.8
Sutton	3.0	6.6
Waltham Forest	4.9	-2.1
London	4.7	-3.1

1 Cells in grey are in the top 20 per cent of agency incidents, cells in dark purple are top 20-50 per cent of agency incidents and cells in light purple are in the bottom 50 per cent of agency incidents.
2 Caution needs to be taken when considering crime rates of city centre areas. The very high reported crime rates in city centres are partly down to rates that are calculated using resident populations that do not include large numbers of workers and visitors to city centres.
3 LAS figures exclude records where local authority was not recorded.
4 Rate per 1,000 population (based on ONS 2006 mid-year population).

Source: London Ambulance Service

Table 11.10

Metropolitan Police Service offences by borough, 2006/07

Numbers

	Violence Against the Person	Sexual Offences	Robbery	Burglary	Theft and Handling	Fraud or Forgery	Criminal Damage	Drugs	Other Notifiable Offences	Total
Barking and Dagenham	5,150	263	805	2,117	6,540	1,585	3,696	985	243	21,384
Barnet	5,512	301	1,063	3,904	11,818	2,076	3,949	1,015	282	29,920
Bexley	3,742	181	448	2,076	4,917	833	4,031	556	213	16,997
Brent	6,216	336	2,144	3,330	10,330	1,487	3,300	2,949	382	30,474
Bromley	5,697	261	1,115	3,588	9,684	1,326	5,526	996	231	28,424
Camden	6,586	339	1,597	4,322	21,693	1,138	3,800	2,445	515	42,435
Croydon	6,741	354	1,829	3,464	10,251	2,073	5,014	1,515	269	31,510
Ealing	7,641	319	2,359	3,957	13,117	1,400	4,981	2,483	477	36,734
Enfield	5,342	241	1,507	3,638	9,061	1,177	3,741	2,099	252	27,058
Greenwich	7,486	361	1,479	3,241	8,733	1,921	5,007	1,317	284	29,829
Hackney	7,148	385	1,685	2,687	12,521	786	3,142	2,466	340	31,160
Hammersmith and Fulham	5,054	209	1,172	2,732	11,328	816	2,381	1,390	252	25,334
Haringey	5,651	296	1,946	3,559	11,518	1,654	3,296	2,351	324	30,595
Harrow	2,870	200	769	1,959	6,199	850	2,074	724	192	15,837
Havering	3,639	147	549	2,511	7,636	1,265	3,421	659	170	19,997
Hillingdon	5,911	255	974	3,182	9,983	1,026	4,810	1,647	356	28,144
Hounslow	5,502	274	869	2,594	8,958	1,217	3,782	1,005	284	24,485
Islington	6,289	294	1,488	3,728	16,775	1,387	3,433	1,540	314	35,248
Kensington and Chelsea	3,597	201	787	2,182	13,308	804	1,706	1,511	232	24,328
Kingston upon Thames	3,003	152	302	1,038	5,186	445	2,290	552	137	13,105
Lambeth	8,344	468	2,911	3,685	13,851	1,060	4,463	3,453	633	38,868
Lewisham	8,062	411	2,635	3,579	9,621	1,759	4,052	1,644	387	32,150
Merton	3,361	177	598	1,828	5,971	946	2,484	481	232	16,078
Newham	7,578	360	2,520	3,371	13,091	2,414	4,190	1,657	416	35,597
Redbridge	4,323	204	1,353	3,053	9,420	2,222	2,648	1,213	210	24,646
Richmond Upon Thames	2,122	129	408	2,085	5,616	293	2,268	402	85	13,408
Southwark	8,435	455	2,695	4,087	14,707	2,079	4,031	2,662	562	39,713
Sutton	2,989	139	413	1,451	5,760	558	3,246	667	185	15,408
Tower Hamlets	7,727	403	1,908	2,890	12,484	895	3,523	2,198	599	32,627
Waltham Forest	6,052	240	1,954	3,116	10,247	1,556	3,510	1,903	349	28,927
Wandsworth	5,647	342	1,724	3,943	11,827	1,139	2,956	2,191	270	30,039
Westminster	8,414	572	1,756	3,801	40,276	2,266	3,070	5,234	878	66,267
Heathrow Airport	524	36	9	30	3,287	504	117	57	489	5,053
London	182,355	9,305	45,771	96,728	365,714	42,957	113,938	53,967	11,044	921,779

Source: Metropolitan Police Service 2007

Table 11.11

Sub-regional selected recorded crimes by local authority, 2006/07[1]

Rates per 10,000 population

	Violence against the person	Sexual offences	Robbery	Domestic Burglary[2]	Theft of a motor vehicle	Theft from a motor vehicle	Total selected recorded offences
England and Wales	192	11	19	54	36	93	404
England	192	11	19	56	36	93	407
London	243	12	61	80	50	122	569
Inner London	300	16	83	96	54	142	691
Camden	291	15	71	111	53	191	733
City of London	1,053	49	45	40	82	170	1,438
City of Westminster	344	23	72	59	30	146	675
Hackney	344	19	81	89	67	137	736
Hammersmith & Fulham	281	12	65	118	35	193	704
Haringey	252	13	87	121	61	137	671
Islington	344	16	82	134	65	196	837
Kensington & Chelsea	183	10	40	71	40	121	465
Lambeth	310	17	108	103	48	108	694
Lewisham	326	17	107	101	68	88	705
Newham	308	15	102	88	77	184	772
Southwark	327	18	105	92	58	132	732
Tower Hamlets	363	19	90	77	61	139	747
Wandsworth	201	12	61	94	42	111	520
Outer London	206	10	46	69	47	109	488
Barking & Dagenham	313	16	49	73	70	112	633
Barnet	167	9	32	75	41	119	444
Bexley	170	8	20	50	41	54	343
Brent	230	12	79	85	47	124	578
Bromley	189	9	37	66	39	102	441
Croydon	197	10	53	61	44	78	444
Ealing	253	11	78	89	58	163	652
Enfield	190	9	54	85	53	96	487
Greenwich	328	16	65	85	62	96	652
Harrow	134	9	36	62	26	98	366
Havering	161	7	24	52	55	108	406
Hillingdon	234	10	39	74	67	148	571
Hounslow	259	13	41	79	48	145	585
Kingston upon Thames	196	10	20	34	20	57	336
Merton	173	9	31	51	37	71	371
Redbridge	172	8	54	84	55	127	499
Richmond upon Thames	114	7	22	57	23	85	307
Sutton	168	8	23	37	35	94	364
Waltham Forest	270	11	87	83	65	167	682

1 Caution needs to be taken when considering crime rates of city centre areas. The very high reported crime rates in city centres are partly down to rates that are calculated using resident populations that do not include large numbers of workers and visitors to city centres.

2 Figures do not include non domestic or commercial burglaries.

Source: Home Office

Education

Chapter 12

- One in 7 pupils in England attend a school in London.
- The primary school roll in London is set to increase by more than 46,000 between 2007 and 2011, an increase of 9 per cent, while the secondary roll is forecast to remain about the same.
- Pupils attending schools in London are more likely to attend independent schools than pupils in England as a whole.
- There are 10 pupils to each teacher in independent schools compared with 18 in maintained schools.
- Nearly a third (31 per cent) of candidates achieve 3 or more A grades at A level in Independent schools compared with just under 10 per cent in maintained schools.
- The percentage of pupils aged 15 achieving five or more GCSE passes at grade C or above, or their equivalent was slightly higher in London (60.5 per cent) than England as a whole (59.8 per cent) in 2007. The figure for London has been above the national average in each year from 2004 onwards.
- Pupils in all major ethnic groups, except Pakistani, form a higher proportion of the school roll in London than in any other region.
- Differences between the attainment of pupils from minority ethnic groups and White pupils are consistently smaller than differences between pupils in the same ethnic group from areas of high and low socio-economic status.
- The percentage of pupils reaching nationally expected levels of attainment increases with the level of income of the area in which the pupil lives.
- Nine out of 10 Chinese and four in five Indian pupils entitled to free school meals (FSM) achieved at least one higher grade pass at GCSE in 2006. By contrast approximately half of White British pupils entitled to FSM did not achieve any GCSE passes higher than a grade D.
- Pupils living in more affluent areas were less likely than pupils in less affluent areas to remain in the low attaining group from key stage 3 to the end of compulsory schooling.
- The majority of those accepted on higher education courses are women (54 per cent).
- London accepts a higher proportion of students from its own region than average and more students from overseas than any other region.

Introduction

There were approximately 1,023,000 full time equivalent pupils attending over 2,200 maintained (state) primary and secondary schools in London in 2007. There were also 41 higher education (HE) institutions in the capital; nearly a quarter of all HE establishments in the UK.

This chapter begins with the numbers of pupils on roll in London schools, and then provides information on the link between school choice and level of affluence. It looks at attainment by income level, and analyses whether differences in attainment are more closely related to ethnicity or to socio-economic status. Finally, summary information is provided on accepted applications to HE in London. At the end of the chapter are additional tables showing GCSE and level 3 point scores by borough as well as qualifications held by the adult population by region.

Numbers of pupils

In January 2007 7,826,380 pupils attended schools, including independent schools, in England. Of these, 1,156,420, 14.8 per cent of the total, attended schools in London.

The total number of people living in London fell throughout much of the second half of the twentieth century, which presented education administrators with the challenge of planning for a decline in school places. More recently, education administrators have been presented with the challenge of planning for growth.

Table 12.1 shows the numbers of pupils aged 5 to 10 and 11 to 15. These correspond to the primary and secondary age ranges in maintained schools, and together cover the years of compulsory education. The figures for 2004 to 2007 show the actual school roll, and those for 2008 to 2001 are extrapolations of trends in the numbers in individual age groups between 2004 and 2007.

In reality several factors will influence the numbers of pupils on roll in London in the future. However, looked at purely in terms of existing trends, the primary age range outside London shows a decline from 2004 to 2009 of approximately 175,000 pupils, before increasing again slightly by 2011. The secondary roll outside London shows a sustained decline from 2004. In contrast, the primary roll in London is set to increase by more than 46,000 between 2007 and 2011, an increase of 9 per cent. The secondary roll in London fluctuates between

Table 12.1

Actual rolls 2004 to 2007 and projected rolls 2008 to 2011

Numbers

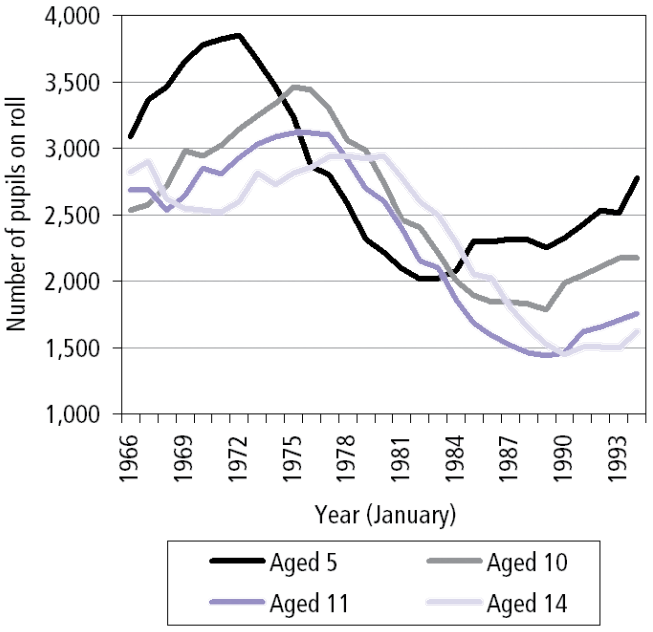
	London ages 5 to 10	London ages 11 to 15	England outside London, ages 5-10	England outside London, ages 11 to 15
2004	540,300	429,700	3,161,700	2,832,600
2005	539,400	429,900	3,126,900	2,816,300
2006	539,100	430,900	3,079,000	2,806,400
2007	538,400	430,700	3,034,400	2,772,800
2008	539,300	429,600	3,005,600	2,724,500
2009	544,900	430,100	2,987,600	2,690,800
2010	563,200	431,000	2,998,600	2,664,700
2011	584,800	429,700	3,030,300	2,630,400

Source: School rolls 2004 to 2007 Department for Children Schools and Families (DCSF). Projected rolls 2008 to 2001, DMAG Education

Figure 12.2

Maintained School Rolls, London Borough of Haringey 1966 to 1994

Numbers



Source: London Borough of Haringey

Table 12.3

Full-time equivalent (fte) teachers and pupils in maintained and independent schools[1] and pupil-teacher ratios (ptrs), 2002 to 2004

Numbers, percentages and ratios

	Fte pupils			Fte teachers			Pupil teacher ratios (ptrs) in maintained primary and secondary schools[2]	Pupil teacher ratios in independent schools[2]
	Maintained Primary and Secondary	Independent	% attending independent schools	Maintained Primary and Secondary	Independent	% teaching in independent schools		
London								
2002	1,021,800	121,800	11.9	55,500	11,500	20.7	18	11
2003	1,024,500	122,900	12.0	56,000	12,300	21.9	18	10
2004[3]	1,023,400	124,500	12.2	56,300	12,800	22.7	18	10
England								
2002	7,478,300	564,000	7.5	392,000	56,200	14.3	19	10
2003	7,472,900	568,700	7.6	393,500	59,300	15.1	19	10
2004[3]	7,437,300	573,100	7.7	393,100	61,900	15.7	19	9

1 Academies and City Technology Colleges are not included with other independent schools.
3 Ptrs are calculated by dividing the number of pupils by the number of teachers to provide an estimate of pupils to each teacher.
3 Equivalent data after 2004 have not been published.

Source: Department of Children, Schools and Families (DCSF)

2004 and 2011, but does not show the steady decline likely elsewhere in England.

Effective planning to meet local needs may seem to be a simply matter of matching the total number of places to the total number of young people. However, trends in the number of children in individual age groups can differ, and this may have major implications for the pressures which schools, parents and young people face.

Figure 12.2 shows changes in the number of pupils aged 5, 10, 11 and 14 in maintained schools in one London borough, Haringey, between 1966 and 1994. The scale of the change may well have reflected change in numbers in the population, but importantly, trends in different age groups can work in opposite directions over time. The number of pupils aged 5 fell between 1972 and 1975, while the number of 10 year old pupils increased. The opposite happened between 1982 and 1990. This can result in some schools having unfilled spaces for older pupils and insufficient space for younger pupils (or vice versa) (see Notes and Definitions for more about GLA pupil projections).

Independent schools

Table 12.3 refers to children on roll in maintained (state) primary and secondary schools and in independent (private) schools in London and in England from 2002 to 2004. Pupils attending schools in London were more likely to attend independent schools (12.2 per cent) than pupils in England as a whole (7.7 per cent). This may reflect parental assessments of the quality of London's maintained schools, the presence of an unusually high proportion of the population in London in high income ranges who can meet the costs of private education, or possibly both.

There were lower numbers of pupils to each teacher, measured as pupil teacher ratios (ptrs), in independent schools (10) than in maintained schools (18), and this may prove attractive to at least some parents. Nonetheless, evidence on the impact of different levels of school funding, class size and pupil teacher ratios on attainment is mixed, and in some cases points to only limited effects. However, the evidence mainly refers to maintained schools, where differences in ptrs are small compared with the difference in ptrs between maintained and independent schools. One indication of

Table 12.4

Candidates achieving 3 or more A grades at A level[1], England 2007

Percentages

	All maintained schools[2]	All independent schools
Boys	9.6	29.6
Girls	10.1	32.7
All	9.9	31.1

1 GCE/VCE/ Applied A level and Double Awards
2 Including special schools and Pupil Referral Units

Source: Department of Children, Schools and Families

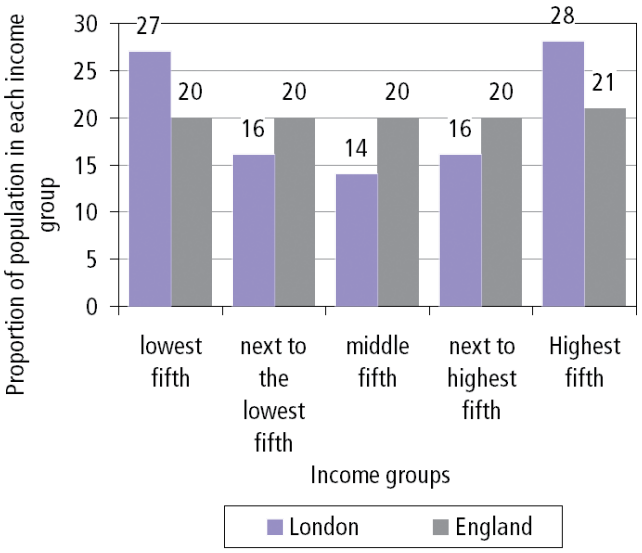
the size of that gap is that an additional 49,000 teachers would be needed in London's maintained primary and secondary schools to achieve the same ptrs found in independent schools.

Levels of attainment in London's maintained secondary schools taken as a whole have been above the national average for the last four years. However, the benefits of lower ptrs aside, there are clear differences in England as a whole in the headline attainment figures for maintained and independent schools. Table 12.4 shows

Figure 12.5

Proportion of population in different income[1] groups after housing costs, 2001

Percentages



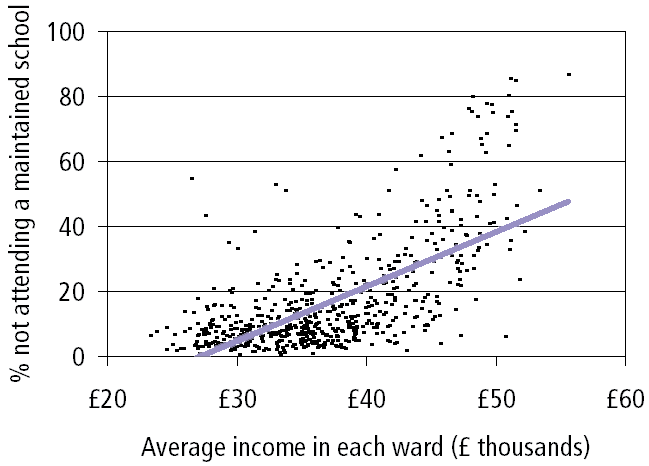
1 Total income of all members of the household after deductions of income tax and other contributions.

Source: Households Below Average Income, Department for Work and Pensions

Figure 12.6

Percentage of children aged 4 to 15 not on roll in a maintained school in 2002, by average income in the home ward

£ Thousands and percentages



Source: 2002 London Pupil Dataset, 2001 Census and CACI Paycheck

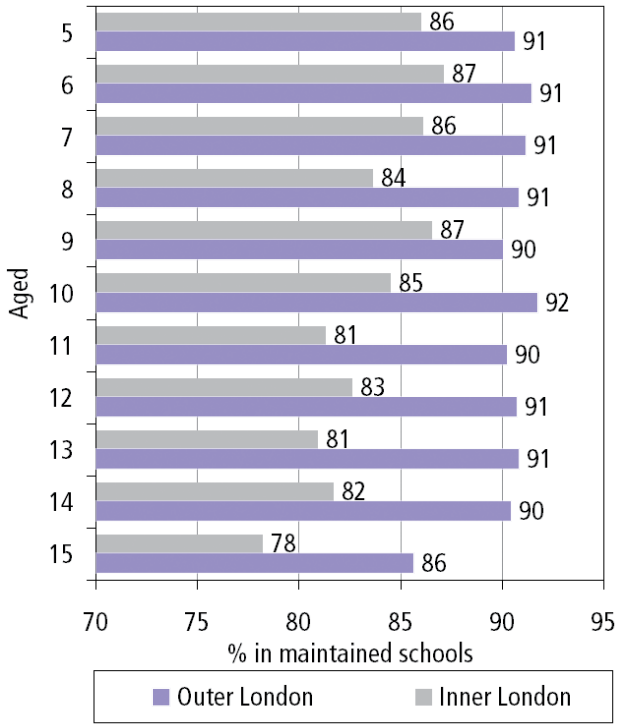
the percentage of pupils with high levels of attainment in GCE 'A' levels, which are the single main qualifications needed for entry to what are often thought of as the more prestigious universities. Independent schools had over 3 times the proportion of candidates achieving 3 or more A grades than those in maintained schools. Headline attainment figures of this sort may be a further factor attracting parents to independent schools.

Due to either entrance requirements, bursary awards or scholarships, independent schools may attract parents of academically minded students. This could mean that the school destination preferences of high-attaining pupils have, in effect, taken away those pupils from London maintained schools, thus leading to lower average attainment in this sector. However, attainment in London's maintained schools taken as a whole is slightly above the national average. This may indicate that the maintained schools in London are providing a good standard of teaching overall. Therefore, the above average proportion of pupils attending independent schools in London may instead be more related to the number of people in the capital who are able to afford independent school fees. Figure 12.5 shows that an unusually high proportion of Londoners is in a high income group, and Figure 12.6 shows that the

Figure 12.7

Percentage of 2002 locally resident population attending maintained schools, by age group

Percentages

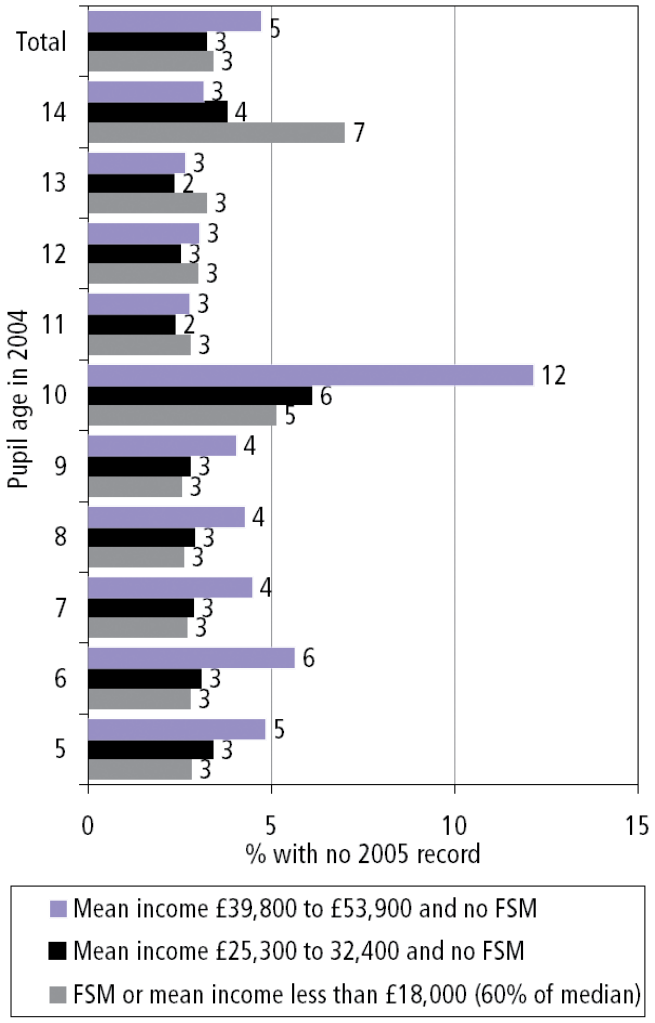


Source: 2001 Census and 2002 London Pupil Dataset (LPD).

Figure 12.8

Percentage within selected income groups[1] on roll in 2004 but with no 2005 record[2] by pupil age[3]

Percentages



1 Estimates of equivalised income in each pupil's home full home postcode area have been used to indicate six different levels of social advantage and disadvantage.
2 The records for 2005 include pupils attending schools in London, in the home counties and other authorities around London.
3 Pupil age is age as it would have been at the beginning of the school year.

Source: Merged 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005 LPD

percentage of the school age population in each of London's wards not accounted for by the maintained school roll, increases with the average level of income in the ward.

Some young people will attend independent schools throughout the years of compulsory schooling (from age 5 to 15). Others will transfer between independent and maintained schools at different points in their time at school. Figure 12.7 compares the number of young people in individual age groups on roll in maintained schools with the numbers of young people in the population as a whole. Young people of primary school age are more likely than young people of secondary school age to attend a maintained school.

Figure 12.8 shows the percentage of pupils in each age group who were on the roll of a maintained school in 2004, but who had no record in a maintained school in 2005. Pupils are grouped in terms of the income of the area in which they live. Pupils living in high income areas are more likely than other pupils to be missing from the maintained school record after transfer to secondary school, and it is likely that a high proportion of these will have transferred to independent schools at that point.

The tendency to be 'missing' from state education, and by implication attending independent schools, is associated with affluence. However, Figures 12.7 and 12.8 point to another consideration. Pupils aged 15, the last year of compulsory schooling, are the least likely to be accounted for by the maintained school

roll. The tendency for 15 year olds to be 'missing' from maintained schools is greatest in the lowest income group. Some of these pupils will have transferred to Pupil Referral Units (PRUs), where rolls are recorded differently than in maintained mainstream or special schools. However, there are not enough pupils attending PRUs in London on a full time basis to account for the 'missing' 15 year olds. In some cases poverty, rather than affluence, is associated with young people being 'missing' from London's maintained schools.

Maintained schools

A third of London's maintained mainstream primary and secondary schools are Voluntary Aided or Foundation schools compared with a quarter in England. This difference is especially marked for secondary schools (50 per cent in London compared with 34 per cent in England). The proportion of London primary and secondary schools, which have either Voluntary Aided or Foundation status, increased between 2002 and 2007 (Table 12.9).

Voluntary Aided schools are usually church schools. Voluntary Aided schools, Foundation schools, City Technology Colleges (CTCs) and Academies, are their own admissions authorities. The local authority is the admissions authority for Community and Voluntary Controlled schools.

There are clear differences in London between the characteristics of pupils attending and transferring to Voluntary Aided and Foundation schools and CTCs on the one hand, and pupils attending or transferring to Community or Voluntary Controlled schools on the other.

Figure 12.10 refers to pupils of compulsory school age who lived in London in 2004 and attended a mainstream maintained school. Pupils attending schools which determine their own admissions were less likely than pupils attending Community or Voluntary Controlled schools to be entitled to free school meals (FSM), or to have a record of support for special educational needs. Additionally, in January 2004, pupils who had transferred to secondary schools which determine their own admissions were more likely than pupils who had

Table 12.9

Mainstream maintained primary and secondary schools, Academies and City Technology Colleges, 2002 and 2007

Numbers and percentages

	Maintained primary schools				Maintained secondary schools				
	Community	Voluntary Controlled	Voluntary Aided	Foundation	Community	Voluntary Controlled	Voluntary Aided	Foundation	Academies and CTCs[1]
Number									
London									
2002	1,333	18	485	43	215	6	118	72	4
2007	1,275	18	485	45	193	4	117	81	27
England									
2002	11,260	2,643	3,720	362	2,278	129	549	501	14
2007	10,726	2,542	3,731	362	2,112	113	554	564	56
Percentage									
London									
2002	70.9	1.0	25.8	2.3	52.3	1.5	28.7	17.5	
2007	69.9	1.0	26.6	2.5	48.9	1.0	29.6	20.5	
England									
2002	62.6	14.7	20.7	2.0	65.9	3.7	15.9	14.5	
2007	61.8	14.6	21.5	2.1	63.2	3.4	16.6	16.9	

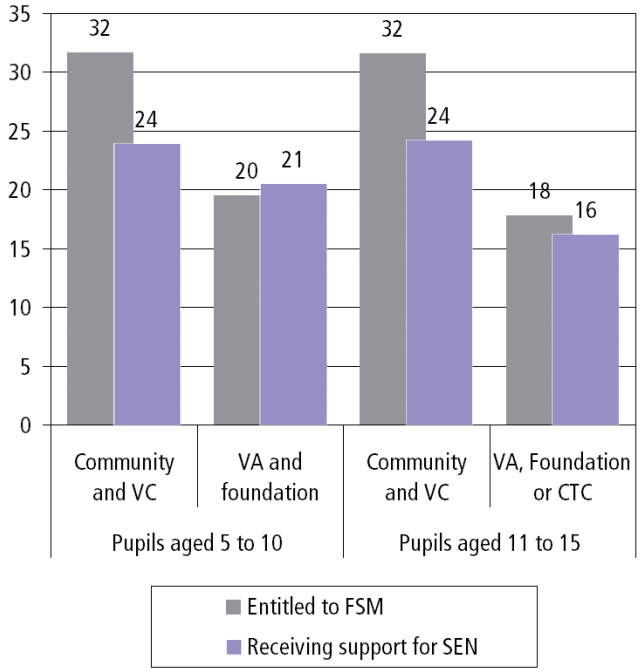
1 Academies and City Technology Colleges are registered as independent schools, though they are largely maintained from public funds. Academies can, in principle, offer places for children of primary and secondary school age together but, for the main part, operate as secondary schools.

Source: Department of Children, Schools and Families (DCSF)

Figure 12.10

Pupils[1] entitled to Free School Meals (FSM) or receiving support for Special Educational Needs (SEN) by school type, London 2004

Percentages



1 Attending mainstream maintained schools (including CTCs)
2 Entitlement to free school meals is a commonly used measure of poverty, and tends to be associated with lower levels of educational attainment. SEN also tends to be associated with lower levels of attainment.

Source: 2004 London Pupil Dataset (LPD). See Notes and Definitions.

transferred to Community or Voluntary Controlled schools to have reached nationally expected levels of attainment in key stage 2 English, mathematics and science tests at the end of primary schooling in 2003.

In London as a whole, schools which determine their own admissions tend to admit a higher proportion of pupils who are socially and educationally advantaged, though it is not entirely clear whether this is a matter of schools choosing pupils, parents choosing schools or both. When the same analysis is repeated on a borough-by-borough basis for locally resident pupils (regardless of which borough they attend school in) it does become clear that this form of social sorting in education is widespread in London, rather than concentrated in a limited number of areas.

Voluntary Aided and Foundation schools have a lower proportion of pupils entitled to FSM than Community and Voluntary Controlled schools in all boroughs for both the primary and secondary age ranges. This also applies to children in all boroughs in the first year of secondary schooling in terms of their prior attainment in key stage 2 English and mathematics tests at the end of primary schooling, and in all boroughs but one for prior attainment in key stage 2 science tests. In the primary age range, pupils living in all but two London boroughs are less likely to have a statement of SEN if they attend a Voluntary Aided or Foundation school. The same point applies to pupils aged 11 to 15 living in all but four London boroughs.

It should be stressed that some voluntary aided and foundation schools will have an unusually high proportion of socially and educationally disadvantaged children on roll, and that some community and voluntary controlled schools will have unusually high proportions of socially and educationally advantaged pupils on roll.

Table 12.11

Attainment at key stages[1] 1,2 and 3 and GCSE or equivalent, 2007

Percentages

	London	England (maintained schools)
Key stage 1 teacher assessments		
Reading	82	84
Writing	78	80
Mathematics	89	90
Science	86	89
Key stage 2 tests		
English	80	80
Mathematics	76	77
Science	87	88
Key stage 3 tests		
English	75	74
Mathematics	75	76
Science	70	73
Pupils age 15 achieving 5 or more GCSE higher grade passes or their equivalent	60.5	59.8

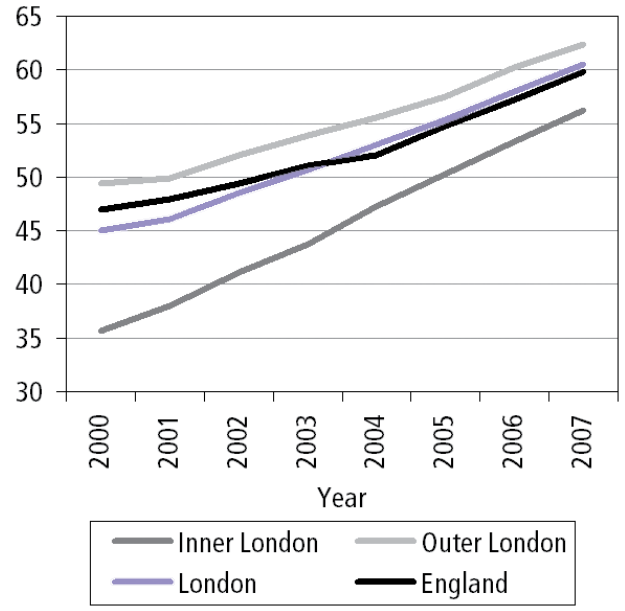
1 Pupils reaching nationally expected levels at the end of each key stage

Source: Department of Children, Schools and Families

Figure 12.12

Percentage of pupils aged 15 achieving 5 or more higher grade GCSE passes or equivalent, 2000 to 2007

Percentages



Source: DCSF

Attainment

National school performance tables are misleading if readers suppose that all schools in a particular borough are high (or low) attaining or that all pupils in a particular ethnic group are high (or low) attaining pupils.

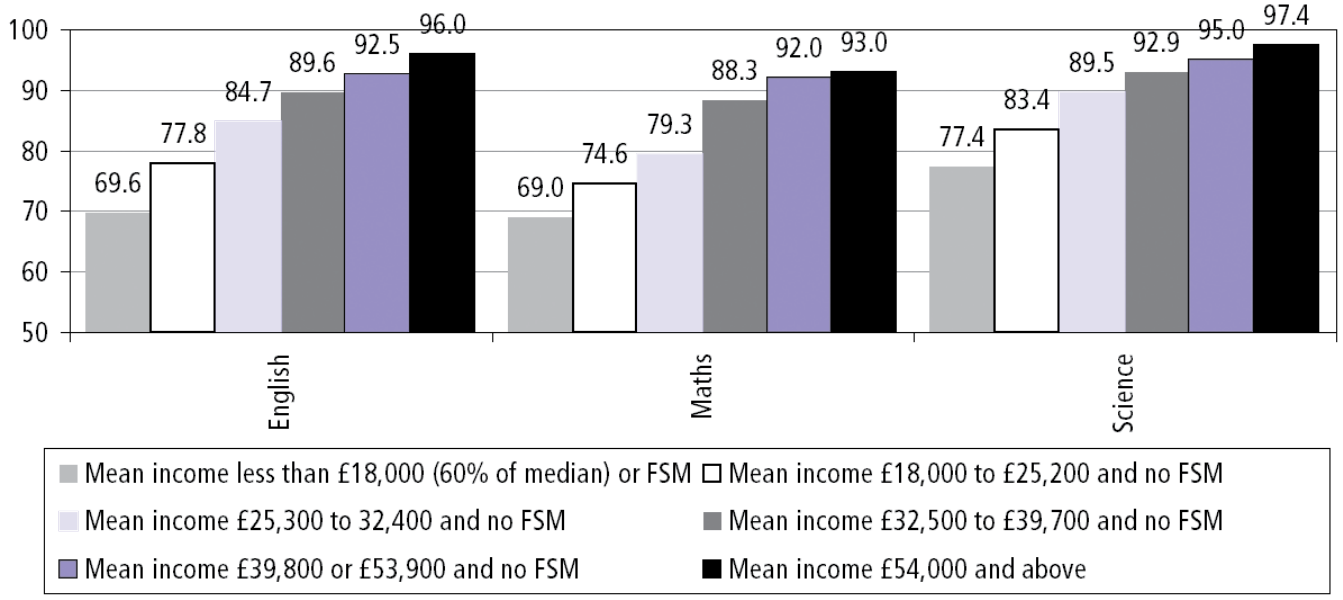
In 2007, the proportion of pupils reaching nationally expected levels of attainment in key stage 1 teacher assessments in London maintained schools was marginally below the national average. That gap was reduced at the end of key stage 2. At the end of compulsory schooling, the proportion of pupils gaining 5 or more GCSE higher grade passes was higher in London than in England as a whole (Table 12.11).

The percentage of pupils achieving 5 or more higher grade GCSE passes, or their equivalent, has increased over time in London and nationally. The figure for London has been above the national average in each year from 2004 onwards (Figure 12.12). In 2007, the proportion that achieved 5 or more higher grade passes, including maths and English, was 48 per cent in London, compared with 46 per cent in England. The figure in Inner London was lower (42 per cent) than Outer London

Figure 12.13

Pupils[1] reaching expected levels in key stage 2 tests, by income level[2]

Percentages



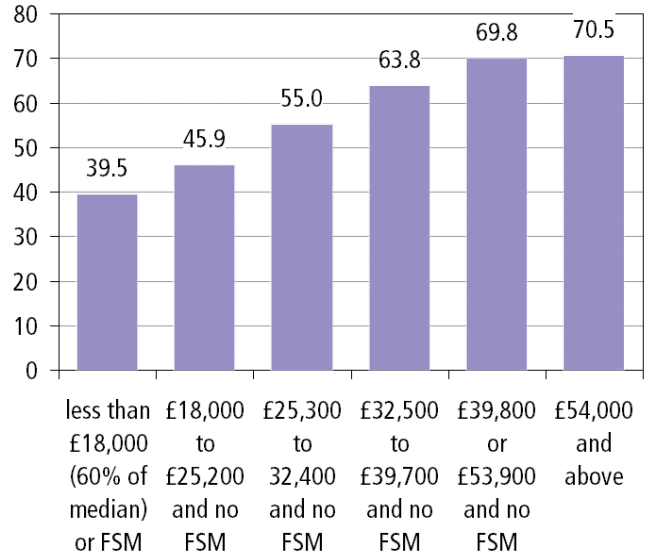
1 Pupil aged 10 in 2004 with records in the LPD. Excluding pupils with no key stage 2 record.
2 Equivalised income level in pupil home postcode.

Source: Merged 2002-05 LPD and CACI Paycheck

Figure 12.14

Pupils[1] achieving 5 or more GCSE A*-C grades or equivalent by home income group

Percentages



1 Pupils aged 15 in 2004.

Source: Merged 2002 2003 2004 2005 LPD

(50 per cent), while Sutton was the borough with the highest percentage (65 per cent) (Table 12.25).

Figures 12.13 and 12.14 show the percentage of pupils reaching nationally expected levels at key stage 2 and at the end of compulsory schooling, increases with the level of income of the area in which the pupil lives. There is a clear difference in the attainment of pupils from the poorest and the wealthiest areas, but there are also differences in the attainment of pupils in the groups in-between.

Pupils living in 'intermediate' income areas, which would not necessarily be classified as either poor or wealthy, are less likely than young people from more affluent areas to achieve nationally expected levels of attainment at key stage 2 and in public examinations. Educational underachievement is not confined to children experiencing poverty.

Attainment, ethnicity and socio-economic status

The school roll in London is ethnically more diverse than in any other English region, and this is particularly the case in Inner London (Figure 12.15). With the exception of Travellers of Irish Heritage, and pupils with a Gypsy/Roma heritage, pupils in all major ethnic groups but one form a higher proportion of the school roll in London than in any other region. The exception are pupils with a Pakistani heritage, who form 3.7 per cent of the roll in London, 6.6 per cent of the roll in Yorkshire and The Humber and 6.3 per cent of the roll in the West Midlands (Table 12.27).

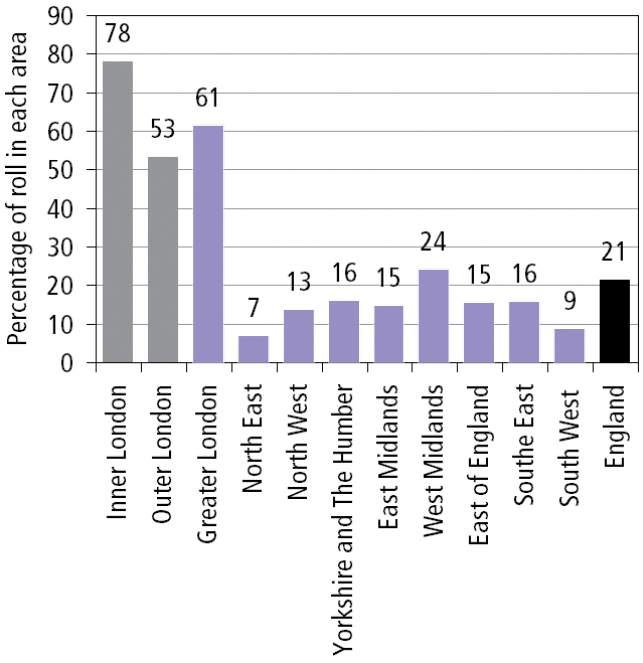
Pupils in some ethnic groups, for example Black Caribbean, are less likely than average to achieve 5 or more higher grade passes at GCSE, or equivalent (45 per cent compared with 57 per cent). Pupils in some other groups, for example those with an Indian ethnic heritage (72 per cent), are more likely than other pupils to reach that national benchmark (Table 12.28). It is not clear whether this reflects cultural factors, including the culture of the English school, or whether it is a consequence of other socio-economic factors

Each pupil's attainment at the end of each key stage and in public examinations is also measured in terms of point scores, in which higher levels of attainment in an

Figure 12.15

Black, Asian and Minority Ethnic (BAME) pupils as a percentage of all pupils[1]

Percentages



1 Pupils of compulsory school age and above in maintained primary and secondary schools

Source: DCSF

individual subject are given higher point scores. The total point score for each pupil provides a measure of the full range of attainment, including very high and very low attainment.

Compared with White pupils, a higher proportion of Black Caribbean pupils have low levels of attainment in public examinations. However, in all ethnic groups a minority of pupils have very high levels of attainment, and a minority have very low levels of attainment. The majority of pupils have point scores in between the two. Figure 12.16 shows the attainment of Black Caribbean pupils and White pupils in 2002 to illustrate this point.

Point scores also show the extent of similarity and dissimilarity between the attainment of minority ethnic pupils and White pupils. Analysis of the London Pupil Dataset (LPD) shows that the middle 80 per cent of White pupils and Black Caribbean pupils had similar point scores. The 'difference score' between the two groups was 20 per cent, which is made up of the greater proportion of White pupils in the higher attainment ranges and the greater proportion of Black Caribbean pupils in the low attainment ranges. On balance, the extent of similarity in the attainment between pupils from these two ethnic groups was greater than the extent of dissimilarity.

Table 12.17 shows differences between the attainment of pupils in the same ethnic group who lived in high socio-economic status (SES) areas and those who lived in low SES areas, and also the difference between pupils in each Black, Asian and minority ethnic (BAME) group and White pupils.

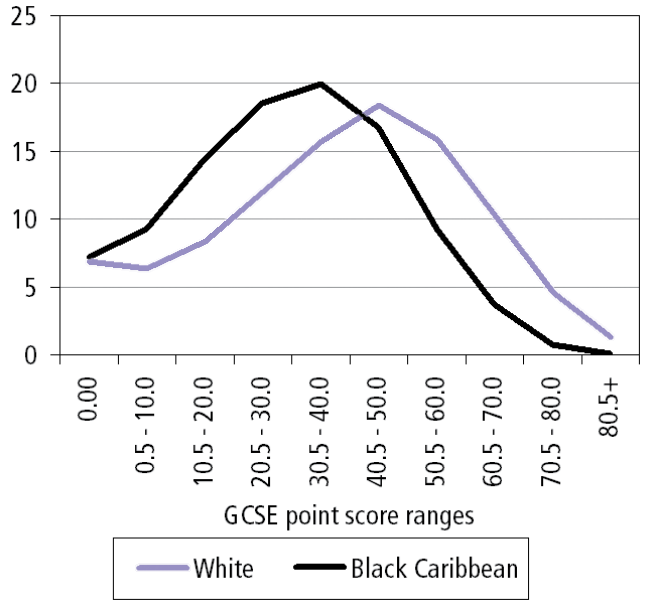
Differences between the attainment of pupils from minority ethnic groups and White pupils were consistently smaller than differences between pupils in the same ethnic group from areas of high and low socio-economic status. The largest difference of any type was between White pupils from areas of high socio-economic status and White pupils from areas of low socio-economic status (47 per cent). However, this does not mean that the differences of attainment which exist between pupils from different ethnic groups are only a matter of their respective socio-economic situations.

Figure 12.18 shows the proportion of pupils attending London maintained schools who achieved no higher

Figure 12.16

Percentage of White and Black Caribbean pupils in different GCSE point score ranges, 2002

Percentages



Source: Department of Children, Schools and Families

Table 12.17

Attainment difference between pupils from BAME groups and White pupils, and between pupils in the same ethnic group living in high and low socio-economic status (SES) areas[1]

Percentages

	2002 GCSE point scores	
	Difference between BAME and White pupils	Difference within BAME group between pupils in high to low SES areas [1,2]
White		46.7
Black Caribbean	19.9	22.1
Black African	11.7	20.5
Black Other	14.3	32.1
Indian	16.9	42.3
Pakistani	9.6	40.8
Bangladeshi	6.1	9.3
Chinese[3]	24.6	-

1 Output areas
2 High socio-economic status is defined as at least 60 per cent of the working population in higher level occupations in the 2001 Census.
3 In this case there are an insufficient number of pupils to make a comparison between pupils in high and low SES areas.

Source: 2002 LPD

grade pass in a GCSE or equivalent examination in 2006, and takes account of ethnicity and entitlement to free school meals (FSM). Around 14 per cent of White British pupils were entitled to FSM. White British pupils entitled to FSM were the most likely to have low levels of attainment, with 46 per cent not achieving a GCSE pass above grade D, compared with 34 per cent on average. White British pupils do not have the lowest level of low attainment amongst pupils not entitled to FSM, but the gap between that group and the White British group entitled to FSM is more pronounced than in any other ethnic group. It is possible that London's improved position against the national average, at the end of compulsory schooling, is at least in part the consequence of an increase in the number of pupils in some ethnic groups in London's schools. Black Caribbean pupils (28 per cent) and pupils with an 'Any Other Black' ethnic heritage (27 per cent), who were not entitled to FSM, were the most likely to have no grade better than a 'D' in public examinations in 2006. The average was 19 per cent.

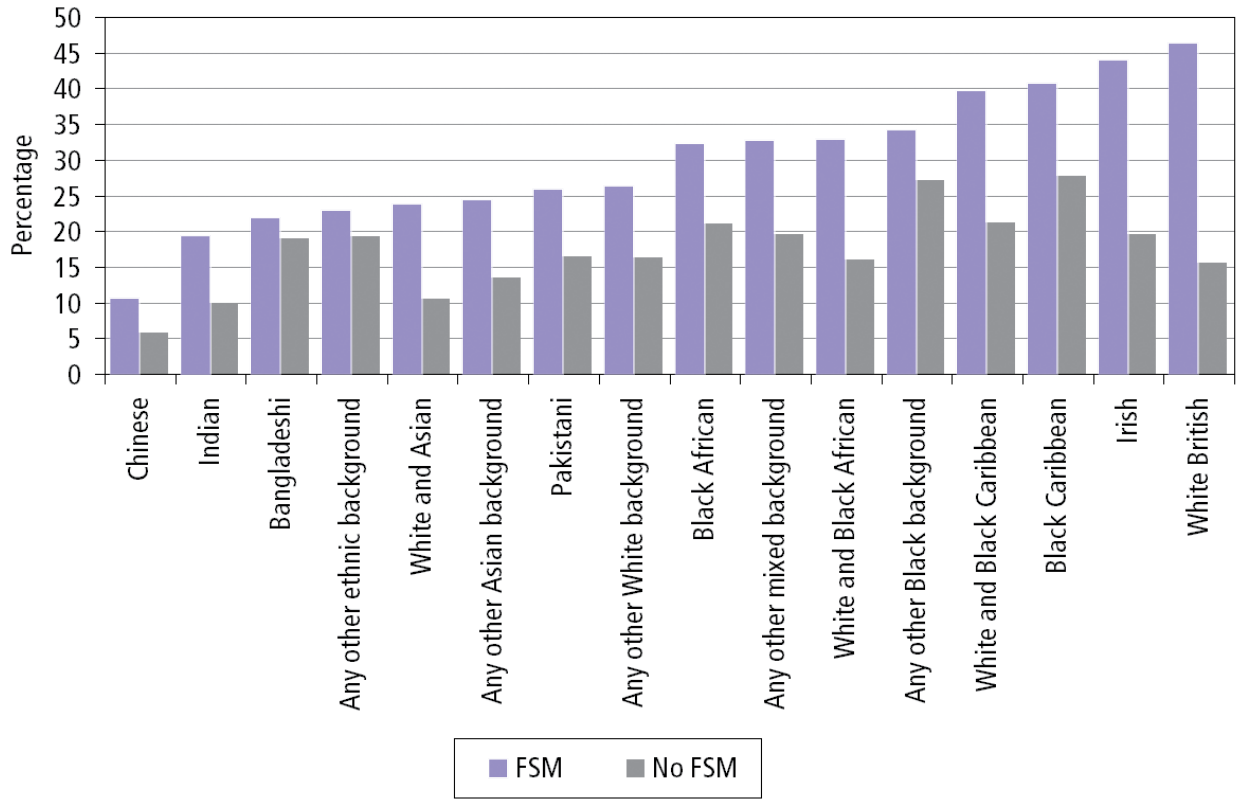
While poverty (as measured by eligibility for FSM) is associated with low attainment in all ethnic groups, the impact is not the same across those groups. Nine out of 10 Chinese and 4 in 5 Indian pupils entitled to FSM nonetheless achieved one or more higher grade pass at GCSE or equivalent in 2006. By contrast approximately half of White British pupils entitled to FSM did not achieve any GCSE passes higher than a grade 'D' in that year.

Table 12.19 shows the number of pupils aged 13 at the start of the 2002/03 school year, who were living in London and attending a maintained school and who were also on roll in a maintained school at age 15 at the start of the 2004/05 school year. The Table provides information on pupil average point scores at key stage 3 in 2003 and GCSE and equivalent point scores in 2005. For each of these, pupils have been divided into four

Figure 12.18

Percentage of pupils aged 15 not achieving a GCSE pass above grade D by FSM in 2006

Percentages



Source: 2006 LPD

Table 12.19

Pupils aged 13 in 2003 living in London, average key stage 3 point scores and average GCSE and equivalent point score at age 15 in 2005

Numbers and percentages

	GCSE 2005				
	Lowest quartile	Next to lowest quartile	Next to highest quartile	Highest quartile	Total
Number					
KS3 lowest quartile 2003	10,619	3,667	1,184	627	16,097
KS3 next to lowest quartile 2003	4,569	6,831	4,405	2,230	18,035
KS3 next to highest quartile 2003	2,031	5,529	6,246	4,871	18,677
KS3 highest quartile 2003	688	2,636	5,432	10,270	19,026
Total	17,907	18,663	17,267	17,998	71,835
Percentage					
KS3 lowest quartile 2003	**66.0**	22.8	7.4	3.9	100
KS3 next to lowest quartile 2003	25.3	**37.9**	24.4	12.4	100
KS3 next to highest quartile 2003	10.9	29.6	**33.4**	26.1	100
KS3 highest quartile 2003	3.6	13.9	28.6	**54.0**	100
Total	24.9	26.0	24.0	25.1	100

Source: Merged 2002 2003 2004 2005 LPD

groups, ranging from the lowest attaining to the highest attaining.

Pupils with low levels of attainment at key stage 3 were particularly likely (66 per cent) to have low levels of attainment in public examinations at the end of compulsory schooling. Additionally, 54 per cent of pupils with high levels of attainment at key stage 3 went on to have high levels of attainment in public examinations two years later showing that pupils who have low levels of attainment at key stage 3 are more likely to remain in that group at the end of compulsory schooling.

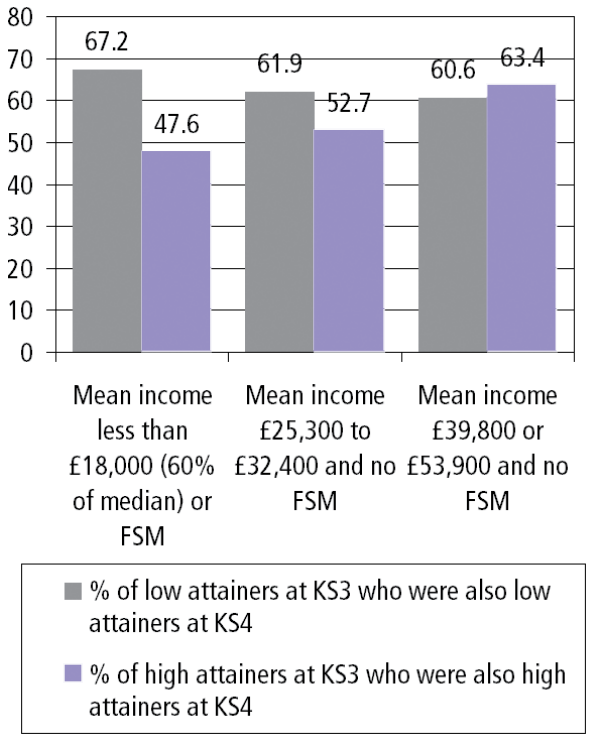
Figure 12.20 is based on outcomes for the same pupils shown in Table 12.19, for those living in low, intermediate and higher income areas. Pupils living in more affluent areas were less likely than pupils in less affluent areas to remain in the low attaining group from key stage 3 to the end of compulsory schooling. Pupils in more affluent areas were also more likely than pupils in less affluent areas to remain in the high attaining group over this period.

Figure 12.21 provides information on the proportions of low and high attaining pupils at key stage 3 who

Figure 12.20

Consistency of attainment of pupils at key stage 3 in 2003 to key stage 4 in 2005 by selected income[1] groups, London

Percentages



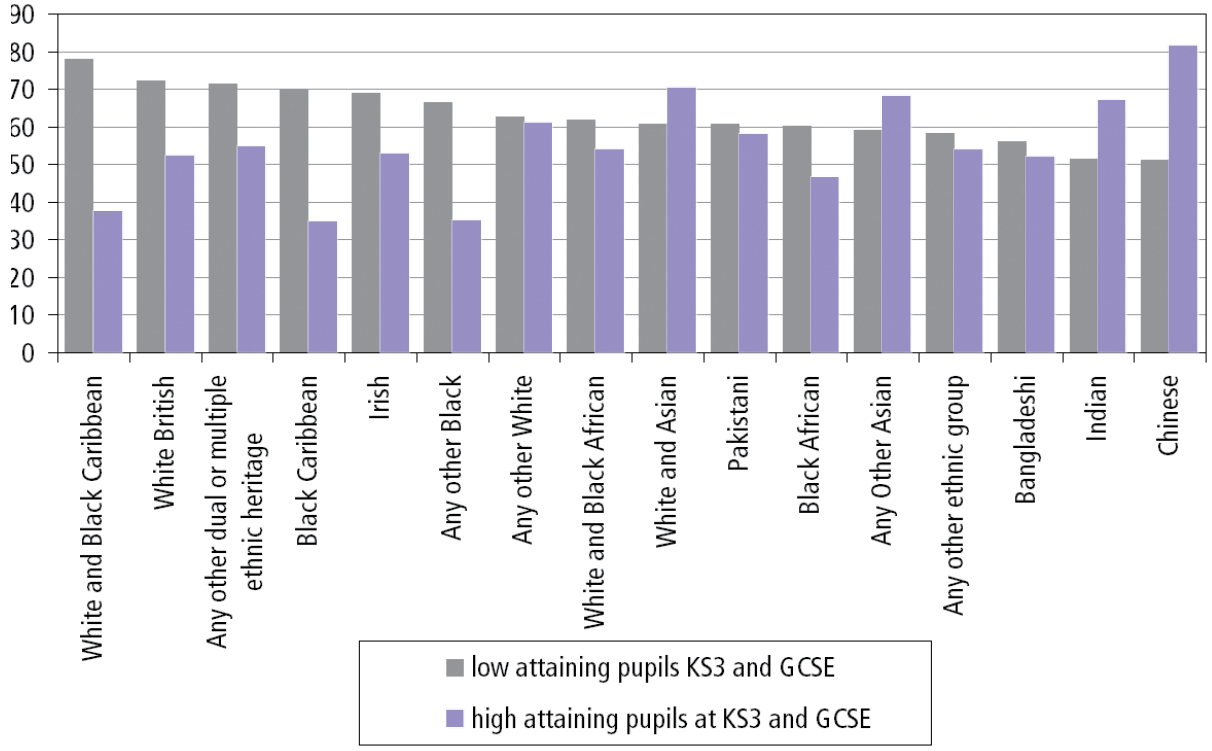
1 PayCheck data equivalised for individual full home postcodes.

Source: Merged 2002 2003 2004 2005 LPD and CACI paycheck

Figure 12.21

Pupils with low or high attainment at ks3 and GCSE by ethnic group

Percentages



Source: Merged 2002 2003 2004 2005 LPD

remained in the same attainment group at the end of compulsory schooling in 2005 by the pupils' ethnic group.

Pupils with a dual White and Black Caribbean heritage and White British pupils with low levels of attainment at key stage 3 were particularly likely to have low levels of attainment in public examinations at the end of compulsory schooling. This contrasts with the position of Indian and Chinese pupils. Those who had low levels of attainment at key stage 3 were most likely of all ethnic groups to have moved out of the 'lowest attaining' category 2 years later. Chinese and Indian pupils were also amongst the most likely to be in the highest attaining category at key stage 3 and to stay in that category in public examinations. Pupils with a dual White and Caribbean heritage were amongst the ethnic groups least likely to stay in the highest attaining category from key stage 3 to public examinations.

Black Caribbean and pupils with an 'Any Other Black' ethnic heritage were the two groups where pupils in the highest attaining category at key stage 3 were least likely to be in that category two years later.

Table 12.22

Percentage of young people[1] with level 3+ qualifications[2]

Percentages

Cohort	16	17	18	19	20	21	Population
London							
19 in 2004	0.1	8.7	35.8	43.1	46.1	47.7	80,118
19 in 2005	0.1	12.1	37.8	45.8	49.3	50.7	80,984
19 in 2006	0.1	12.6	40.0	48.5	51.9	-	82,843
19 in 2007	0.1	13.9	42.1	50.5	-	-	85,763
England							
19 in 2004	0.1	11.8	36.3	42.0	44.8	46.5	614,564
19 in 2005	0.1	15.0	39.0	45.4	48.2	49.8	618,397
19 in 2006	0.1	15.2	40.0	46.6	49.4	-	631,893
19 in 2007	0.1	15.8	41.2	48.0	-	-	652,184

1 Includes information for pupils who had attended independent schools and colleges of further education.
2 2 or more GCE A levels, 4 or more AS levels, or level 3 vocational qualifications.

Source: Department of Children, Schools and Families SFR 04 2008

Post-compulsory education

Table 12.22 shows the levels of attainment of four cohorts of young people (including those at independent schools) who were aged 19 in the years 2004 to 2007. Cumulative attainment is shown from aged 16. For example it shows that, amongst those aged 19 in 2007, 42.1 per cent of young people in London had achieved level 3 by age 18, compared with 41.2 per cent nationally. However, level 3 point scores for students in the maintained sector are lower in London than any other region with London candidates scoring 674 points on average compared with 711 in England. The North West had the highest average in 2007 (Table 12.26).

Young people in the most recent cohort were more likely than those in the earliest cohort to reach level 3, and this is so in London and nationally. However, up to age 17 young Londoners were less likely than young people nationally to reach that level. That position is reversed amongst those aged 18 and over, and by age 19 young people in London are more likely than average to hold level 3 qualifications. This increases further with age and in the adult population (over 18) London has a higher proportion (55 per cent) with level 3 or above qualifications than any other region or UK country. (Table 12.29).

Tables 12.23 and 12.24 are based on information from the Universities and Colleges Admissions Service (UCAS). The UCAS Service operates across the United Kingdom, and not just in England. The gender balance across those accepted for all higher education courses

Table 12.23

Accepted applicants, by area of domicile, 2007

Numbers and percentages

	Degree	Foundation degree	HND	Other	Total
Numbers					
London					
Male	27,357	1,100	497	85	29,039
Female	32,335	1,503	387	197	34,422
Total	59,692	2,603	884	282	63,461
UK outside London					
Male	147,403	7,654	4,714	875	160,646
Female	176,446	7,937	2,849	2,091	189,323
Total	323,849	15,591	7,563	2,966	349,969
Percentages					
London					
Male	45.8	42.3	56.2	30.1	45.8
Female	54.2	57.7	43.8	69.9	54.2
Total	100	100	100	100	100
UK outside London					
Male	45.5	49.1	62.3	29.5	45.9
Female	54.5	50.9	37.7	70.5	54.1
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Department of Children, Schools and Families

Table 12.24

Accepted applications to HE institutions in different parts of the UK (degree courses), 2007

Percentages

	Students accepted for places in home region[1]	Students accepted for places in any UK region[2]	Overseas students in the region as a % of all in UK[3]	All students in the region[4] as a % of all in UK[5]
North East	62.7	3.5	2.6	4.5
North West	63.2	11.6	8.7	12.1
Yorkshire and The Humber	57.3	7.5	9.2	10.8
East Midlands	41.4	6.4	6.7	7.8
West Midlands	46.9	8.6	8.9	7.8
East	27.0	8.6	4.3	4.7
London	**55.9**	**16.1**	**22.9**	**15.6**
South East	39.0	13.7	13.5	11.9
South West	41.8	7.6	5.7	7.6
Wales	67.8	4.8	3.9	5.5
Scotland	93.5	7.7	12.6	9.2
Northern Ireland	66.5	3.8	1.1	2.4
UK	53.4	100	100	100

1 Locally domiciled students accepted for places in the home region as a proportion of all locally resident students with acceptances
2 Locally domiciled students accepted for places in any UK region as a percentage of all acceptances to any UK region
3 Accepted applications by individuals from overseas to institutions in the region as a percentage of all accepted applications by those living overseas
4 All accepted applications to institutions in the region as a percentage of accepted applications to all UK institutions
5 All accepted application includes figures for 533 students in 'other UK' areas, and 68 students whose area or country of domicile is not known or who are stateless

Source: Department of Children, Schools and Families

is almost identical for applicants living in London, and for applicants living in the UK outside London; the majority (54 per cent) of those accepted are women. Men in London form a marginally higher proportion of those accepted for degree courses than is the case in the UK outside London. However, men formed a lower proportion of applicants accepted on foundation degree and Higher National Diploma (HND) courses.

Table 12.24 points to other similarities and differences between those accepted for courses in higher education institutions located in London and elsewhere. One sixth of all accepted student applications in the UK are in London. Young people living in London are more likely than average to be accepted on a course in their home area (ie London) (56 per cent compared with 53 per cent). However, the proportion is not as high as in some areas, most notably Scotland where 94 per cent of students chose to study in Scottish institutions. London higher education institutions also accept the largest proportion of overseas students of any region with almost a quarter of all international students studying in London.

With an international student enrollment of around 330,000 students (not including overseas domiciled students) in the 2005/06 academic year, the United Kingdom is the second largest host of international students after the United States. The UK attracts large numbers of students from Asia, the United States, and other places of origin within Europe. Just under a quarter of all overseas students in the UK study in London. Over a fifth of all students in London are from overseas.

Table 12.25

GCSE and equivalent achievements, including English and mathematics for pupils at the end of key stage 4 by gender and by London Borough and Region, 2006/07

Percentages

	5+ A*-C GCSEs		
	Boys	Girls	Total
North East	37.9	45.8	41.8
North West	40.9	48.7	44.7
Yorkshire and The Humber	38.2	46.9	42.5
East Midlands	40.4	48.6	44.4
West Midlands	39.1	47.7	43.3
East	44.5	52.4	48.4
London	43.6	52.3	47.9
South East	45.8	53.1	49.4
South West	42.7	51.9	47.2
TOTAL (Maintained sector, including CTCs and Academies)	41.8	50.1	45.9
England Average[1]	42.4	51.2	46.7
Inner London	37.7	46.9	42.4
Camden	38.7	50.6	45.6
Hackney	33.4	47.0	41.9
Hammersmith and Fulham	53.2	62.6	57.9
Haringey	32.0	42.9	37.4
Islington	34.2	40.9	37.4
Kensington and Chelsea	63.4	48.3	56.6
Lambeth	42.5	40.5	41.4
Lewisham	38.7	42.2	40.4
Newham	38.8	49.0	44.0
Southwark	32.9	44.0	38.4
Tower Hamlets	31.6	42.0	36.5
Wandsworth	43.0	52.1	46.9
Westminster	32.3	58.7	46.0
Outer London	46.1	54.8	50.4
Barking and Dagenham	37.5	42.2	39.7
Barnet	56.7	63.2	59.7
Bexley	46.8	52.7	49.7
Brent	46.2	56.0	51.0
Bromley	51.7	58.8	55.3
Croydon	38.1	50.3	44.4
Ealing	46.3	51.8	49.1
Enfield	44.0	51.2	47.5
Greenwich	27.1	40.0	34.0
Harrow	48.0	64.0	56.1
Havering	49.1	58.5	53.7
Hillingdon	41.5	48.2	44.9
Hounslow	43.8	57.3	50.5
Kingston upon Thames	55.3	67.3	61.7
Merton	36.5	43.4	39.7
Redbridge	57.1	66.0	61.5
Richmond upon Thames	42.8	53.1	47.9
Sutton	61.5	68.7	65.0
Waltham Forest	38.7	45.4	42.1

1 England averages include all schools.

Source: Department of Children, Schools and Families (DCSF)

Table 12.26

Level 3 point scores of 16-18[1] year old candidates[2] by gender, 2006/07

Point scores

	Average QCA[3] point score per candidate by students achieving all Level 3[4] qualifications					
	Males	Females	Total		Males	Females	Total
North East	665.7	708.6	689.4	Barking & Dagenham	588.2	614.7	601.6
North West	709.5	737.5	725.1	Barnet	704.4	764.8	737.6
Yorkshire and The Humber	699.5	740.7	722.5	Bexley	722.0	753.1	737.6
East Midlands	689.9	733.8	714.0	Brent	640.3	689.9	665.2
West Midlands	666.0	722.6	696.7	Bromley	685.8	744.2	717.4
East	703.0	739.0	722.6	Camden	619.9	676.2	655.4
London	653.5	690.8	674.1	Croydon	627.8	672.9	654.5
Inner London	594.2	637.3	618.8	Ealing	698.1	728.8	715.8
Outer London	675.3	712.6	695.7	Enfield	639.4	642.8	641.2
South East	700.8	744.7	724.3	Greenwich	528.7	581.3	558.7
South West	700.7	732.4	717.9	Hackney	521.8	556.1	542.5
Total (Maintained[5] sector)	689.5	729.1	711.2	Hammersmith & Fulham	638.8	667.0	652.8
England Average[6]	712.9	746.5	731.1	Haringey	559.2	617.8	592.6
				Harrow	667.6	732.4	702.7
				Havering	746.6	788.7	769.6
				Hillingdon	656.4	699.7	679.4
				Hounslow	645.2	672.9	660.9
				Islington	578.9	611.3	600.1
				Kensington & Chelsea	692.1	681.3	686.3
				Kingston upon Thames	691.6	732.4	714.5
				Lambeth	562.4	590.1	578.4
				Lewisham	608.1	629.9	620.9
				Merton	628.5	620.4	624.7
				Newham	529.9	594.3	564.1
				Redbridge	668.0	717.9	696.2
				Richmond upon Thames	655.7	714.8	689.3
				Southwark	597.7	591.9	594.5
				Sutton	858.4	802.1	829.1
				Tower Hamlets	604.7	632.2	621.5
				Waltham Forest	616.0	665.8	643.4
				Wandsworth	634.8	692.1	666.8
				Westminster	565.0	661.9	617.7

1 Age at the start of the 2006/07 academic year i.e. 31 August 2006.
2 Students entered for a GCE or VCE A level or other Level 3 qualification equivalent in size to an A level.
3 QCA stands for Qualifications And Curriculum Authority.
4 Cumulative results obtained in academic years 2005/06 and 2006/07.
5 Maintained Sector includes LA maintained schools, CTCs and FE sector colleges.
6 England averages include all schools and FE colleges.

Source: Department of Children, Schools and Families (DCSF)

Table 12.27

Pupils of compulsory school age and above attending mainstream maintained primary, middle and secondary schools, by ethnicity, 2007

Percentages and thousands

	Inner London	Outer London	London	North East	North West	Yorkshire and The Humber	East Midlands	West Midlands	East	South East	South West	England
White British	22.0	46.8	38.6	93.1	86.5	84.2	85.5	76.1	84.5	84.4	91.4	78.7
Irish	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.4
Traveller of Irish Heritage	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1
Gypsy/Roma	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1
Any other White background	10.2	7.4	8.3	0.8	1.1	1.3	1.8	1.3	3.1	2.9	2.1	2.8
White & Black Caribbean	3.2	2.0	2.4	0.1	0.6	0.9	1.2	1.7	1.0	0.8	0.6	1.1
White & Black African	1.1	0.8	0.9	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3
White & Asian	0.8	1.2	1.1	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.4	0.7
Any other mixed background	3.4	2.6	2.9	0.3	0.7	0.6	0.8	1.0	1.1	1.1	0.7	1.1
Indian	2.8	7.7	6.1	0.4	1.4	1.2	3.7	4.3	1.1	1.5	0.5	2.4
Pakistani	3.0	4.0	3.7	1.0	3.7	6.6	1.4	6.3	1.6	1.6	0.2	3.0
Bangladeshi	11.5	1.3	4.6	0.7	0.9	0.6	0.4	1.4	0.8	0.5	0.2	1.2
Any other Asian background	2.1	4.0	3.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.9	0.3	1.0
Black Caribbean	10.4	4.5	6.4	0.0	0.3	0.4	0.6	1.8	0.5	0.3	0.2	1.3
Black African	16.9	8.7	11.4	0.3	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.3	1.1	1.0	0.4	2.3
Any other Black background	3.0	1.5	2.0	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.5
Chinese	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.4
Any other ethnic group	6.2	3.7	4.5	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.8	0.5	0.5	0.3	1.1
Unclassified	1.3	1.9	1.7	1.4	1.2	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.9	2.4	1.7	1.5
All Pupils (thousands)	296	604	901	331	920	682	583	737	745	1034	639	6,573

Source: Department of Children, Schools and Families (DCSF)

Table 12.28

Achievements at GCSE and Equivalents in 2006 by ethnicity, England

Percentages

	% achieving 5 A* to C	5 A* to C including English and Maths	Any Passes
White	57.5	44.4	97.3
White British	57.5	44.3	97.3
Irish	61.3	50.1	96.6
Traveller of Irish Heritage	19.0	11.1	77.0
Gypsy / Roma	10.4	3.9	78.6
Any other White background	60.1	46.8	97.5
Mixed	56.1	42.8	96.9
White and Black Caribbean	47.3	32.6	96.3
White and Black African	56.8	43.1	96.9
White and Asian	68.9	59.4	97.8
Any other mixed background	58.7	45.2	97.2
Asian	61.0	46.1	98.4
Indian	71.7	59.1	99.1
Pakistani	51.4	34.6	97.9
Bangladeshi	56.6	39.0	98.6
Any other Asian background	64.6	51.6	97.4
Black	48.1	33.6	97.5
Black Caribbean	44.9	29.5	97.4
Black African	51.0	37.5	97.8
Any other Black background	47.1	31.2	96.4
Chinese	80.0	65.8	99.1
Any other other ethnic group	56.3	41.7	96.7
Unclassified	52.1	39.3	96.2
All Pupils	57.3	44.0	97.3

Source: Department of Children, Schools and Families (DCSF)

Table 12.29

Level of highest qualification[1] held by people of aged 19-59/64[2], Quarter 4 2007

Percentages and thousands

	All people aged 19-59/64 (thousands)	Level 7-8	Level 4-6	Level 3	Level 2	Below Level 2	No qualifications
North East	1,424	5.0	19.3	23.8	22.4	16.2	13.2
North West	3,813	5.7	23.1	20.4	21.0	17.0	12.8
Yorkshire and The Humber	2,849	5.7	21.0	20.5	20.9	19.1	12.8
East Midlands	2,441	5.6	20.4	20.0	21.2	20.2	12.6
West Midlands	2,980	6.2	22.0	19.0	20.2	17.7	14.9
East	3,137	6.8	22.6	19.2	21.4	19.5	10.6
London	4,658	11.0	28.4	15.3	16.5	16.9	12.0
South East	4,707	7.6	25.4	20.5	20.3	17.5	8.7
South West	2,813	6.8	24.4	22.8	20.3	17.6	8.1
England	28,822	7.1	23.7	19.7	20.1	17.9	11.5
Wales	1,659	6.6	20.8	20.3	21.6	15.8	15.0
Scotland	2,918	7.1	29.3	20.1	17.4	13.4	12.7
Northern Ireland	1,000	6.5	21.4	20.0	20.8	10.9	20.4
United Kingdom	34,399	7.1	23.9	19.8	20.0	17.2	12.0

1 Qualifications at level 7-8 include higher degrees, postgraduate level professional qualifications and NVQ level 5.
Level 4-6 qualifications include foundation or first degrees, recognised degree-level professional qualifications, NVQ level 4, teaching or nursing qualifications, HE diploma, HNC/HND or equivalent vocational qualification.
Qualifications at level 3 include either 2 A-levels grades A-E, 4 AS levels graded A-E, an advanced GNVQ or NVQ level 3 or equivalent vocational qualification.
Trade apprenticeships have been assigned to level 3 and level 2 in the ratio 50:50.
Level 2 qualifications include either 5 GCSEs grades A*-C (or equivalent), an Intermediate GNVQ, two AS levels, an NVQ level 2 or equivalent vocational qualification.
Qualifications below level 2 include one or more GCSE grade G or equivalent (but less than five at grades A*-C), BTEC general certificates, YT certificates, other RSA certificates, other City and Guilds certificates or NVQ level 1. Key Skills and Basic Skills qualifications are also classified here.
Those qualifications that don't fit into the existing pre-code list are recorded as 'Other' qualifications, along with all foreign qualifications and any other professional qualifications. People with Other qualifications as their only, and therefore highest qualification level are assigned to level 3, level 2 and below level 2 in the ratio 10:35:55.
2 Males aged 19 - 64 and females aged 19 - 59.

Source: Department for Innovation, Universities and Skills (DIUS) estimates from the Labour Force Survey, 4th quarters; Department of Children, Schools and Families (DCSF)

Chapter 13

London Government

- In the 2008 Mayoral election Boris Johnson of the Conservative party had the highest proportion of first choice votes at 43 per cent, followed by Labour's Ken Livingstone with 37 per cent.
- The Conservative candidate had an increase in share of first choice votes from 2004 of 14.1 percentage points, while the Labour and Green candidates both slightly increased their share and all other parties, which competed in both years, lost share.
- With second choice votes included, the Conservative candidate increased share from 45 per cent to 53 per cent between 2004 and 2008. Ken Livingstone's share fell from 55 per cent to 47 per cent.
- The eight Assembly constituencies where Boris Johnson had the highest percentage of votes were all won by the Conservative candidate, while the other six were won by Labour.
- The Conservatives had 37 per cent of the Assembly Constituency vote up from 31 per cent in 2004. Labour candidates took a 28 per cent share, up from 25 per cent in 2004.
- In the Assembly London-wide election, the Conservative party gained the highest share of the vote in the list election with almost 35 per cent of the total, an increase from 29 per cent in 2004. Labour came second with 28 per cent, up from 25 per cent in 2004, followed by Liberal Democrats with 11 per cent down from 17 per cent in 2004.
- The list elections added 3 more Conservative and 2 additional Labour members to the Assembly as well as 3 Liberal Democrats, 2 Greens and 1 BNP. The BNP secured 5.4 per cent of the vote, up from 4.8 per cent in 2004. No other parties gained the 5 per cent required for a seat on the Assembly.
- The turnout for the Mayoral election was significantly higher at 45.3 per cent compared with 36.9 per cent in 2004 and 34.4 in 2000. There were over 2.4 million valid first choice votes.
- The Conservative party have the highest share of borough councillors in London at 42 per cent compared with 36 per cent that are Labour seats. The Conservatives have political control in 15 London borough councils.

Introduction

This chapter gives a summary of the 2008 London elections, including the Mayoral, Assembly Constituency and Assembly London-wide elections. Electoral turnout figures are considered to be an important measure of the extent that people are connected with those who govern their affairs, and of citizen involvement in public matters. Turnout is analysed towards the end of the chapter. Finally, the political composition of the 32 London boroughs is briefly summarised.

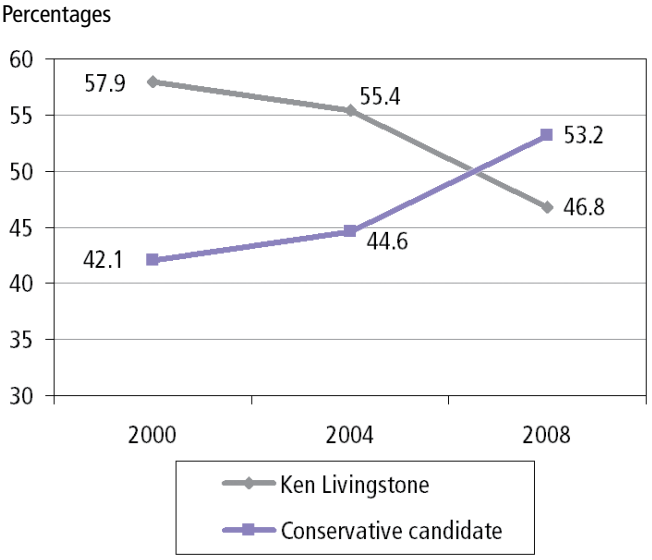
2008 Mayoral election results

The Mayoral and Assembly Elections took place on 1st May 2008. The election was based on the Supplementary Vote System whereby voters are to mark the ballot paper with a first choice candidate and then, if they wish, to indicate a second preference. The first choice votes are counted and if one candidate has over 50 per cent of the vote (absolute majority), he or she is elected. If no one has achieved this then the second choice votes are considered. Only the top two candidates go forward and all the second choice votes for these two candidates from the eliminated candidates are added to their total. The candidate with the most votes is declared the winner.

In an election notable for a much-increased turnout, no candidate gained 50 per cent of the first preference votes. Boris Johnson of the Conservative party had the highest proportion at 43 per cent, followed by Labour's Ken Livingstone with 37 per cent. For the Conservative candidate, this represented an increase in share over the 2004 result of 14.1 percentage points. The Labour and Green candidates also increased their share, but only slightly. All the other parties that competed in both

Figure 13.2

Trend of proportion of votes[1] for top two candidates 2000[2]-2008



1 Results are after the second preference votes have been included
2 Ken Livingstone stood as an Independent candidate in 2000

Source: London Elects

Table 13.1

Change in first choice votes for main parties between 2004 and 2008

Numbers and percentages

Party	2004 candidate	2004 Votes	2004 share	2008 Candidate	2008 Votes	2008 share	Change
Labour Party	Ken Livingstone	685,541	36.8	Ken Livingstone	894,316	37.0	0.2
Conservative Party	Steve Norris	542,423	29.1	Boris Johnson	1,044,068	43.2	14.1
Liberal Democrats	Simon Hughes	284,645	15.3	Brian Paddick	236,685	9.8	-5.5
UK Independence Party	Frank Maloney	115,665	6.2	Gerard Batten	22,422	0.9	-5.3
British National Party	Julian Leppert	58,405	3.1	Richard Barnbrook	69,710	2.9	-0.2
Green Party	Darren Johnson	57,331	3.1	Siân Berry	77,374	3.2	0.1
CPA[1]	Ram Gidoomal	41,696	2.2	Alan Craig	39,249	1.6	-0.6
Other candidates	-	77,965	4.2	-	32,134	1.4	-2.8
TOTAL		1,863,671	100.0		2,415,958	100.0	0.0

1 Christian Peoples Alliance

Source: Greater London Authority, London Boroughs and Association of Liberal Democrat Councillors.

elections, lost share, with the Liberal Democrats and UKIP having the biggest falls (Table 13.1).

Once the second preference votes were added to the two top candidates, Boris Johnson received almost 1.2 million votes, which represented 53.2 per cent of the vote. This compares with the Conservative (Steven Norris) share in 2004 of 44.6 per cent (and represents more than half a million votes more than in 2004) and 42.1 per cent in 2000. Ken Livingstone had increased his number of votes from 828,390 in 2004 (over 200,000 more votes), though partly due to a high turnout, it still meant his share of the vote against the Conservative candidate fell from 55.4 per cent to 46.8 per cent (Figure 13.2). Boris Johnson's majority over Ken Livingstone after second choice votes was 139,640.

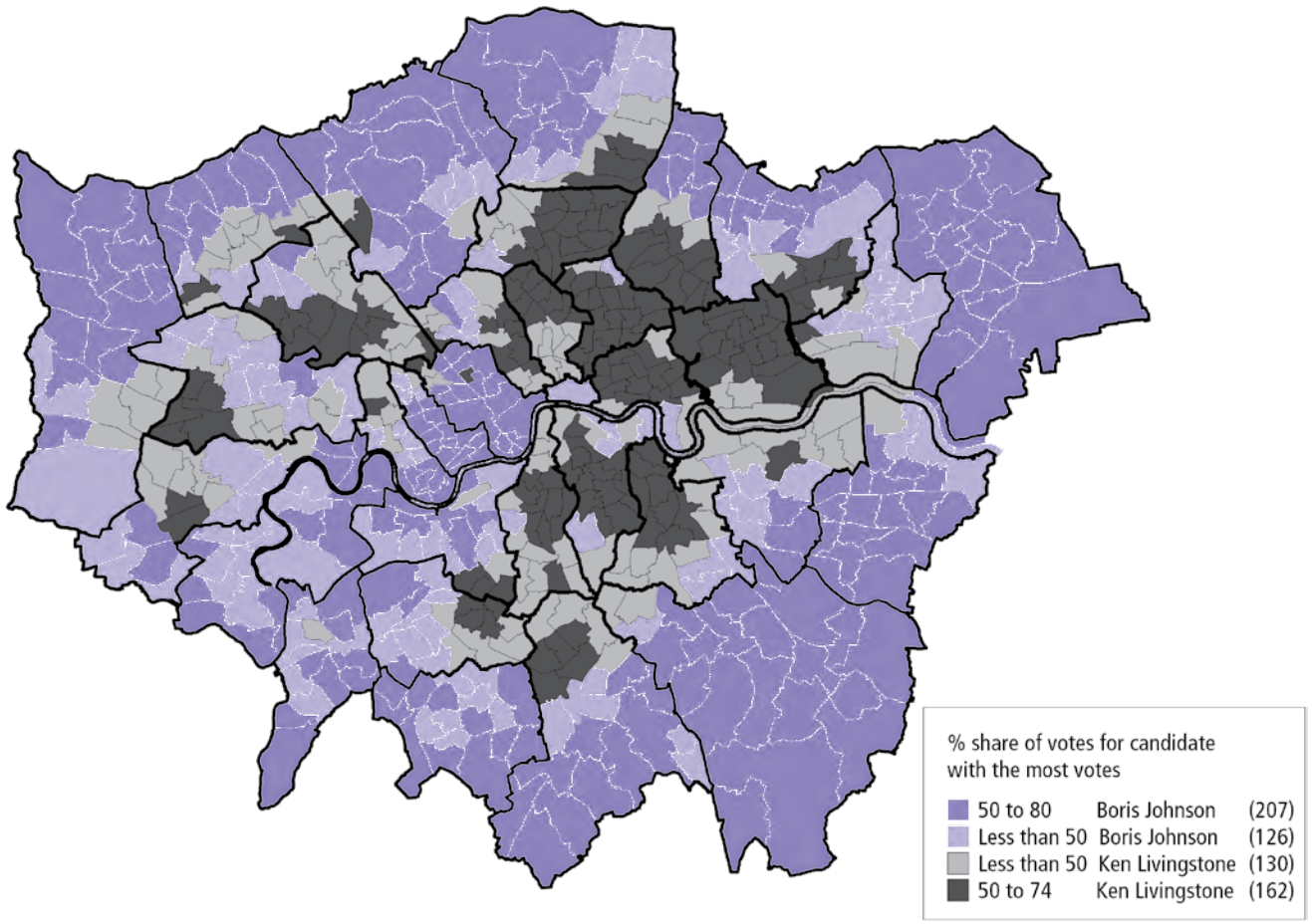
Boris Johnson 'won' constituencies mostly in the suburbs while Ken Livingstone did better in Inner London. The exceptions were the closely fought constituencies of Enfield and Haringey, and Brent and Harrow, which were both edged by Ken Livingstone. Boris Johnson also won the West Central constituency (Table 13.4).

At ward level the only two candidates to have received the most votes in any ward were Boris Johnson and Ken Livingstone. Boris Johnson had the most votes in 334 wards, while Ken Livingstone was top in 293. Map 13.3 shows the areas where Boris Johnson was strongest in darker purple, and where Ken Livingstone was strongest in darker grey. Wards which were more closely fought are in lighter shading.

Map 13.3

Mayoral candidate with the highest number of votes as a percentage of all valid first choice votes by ward

Percentages



1 The City of London is made up of 3 electoral areas. On this map data for the City of London has been merged.

Source: London Elects

Table 13.4

Summary of Mayoral election results by constituency

Numbers and percentages

Constituency	Party of candidate with most votes	Winning first choice votes	Proportion of first choice votes for winning candidate	Majority over second placed candidate (of first choice votes)	Turnout
Barnet and Camden	Cons	81,718	45.9	17,806	47.9
Bexley and Bromley	Cons	122,052	60.8	81,382	49.9
Brent and Harrow	Lab	65,862	42.5	4,037	43.2
City and East	Lab	94,921	52.0	45,255	39.8
Croydon and Sutton	Cons	85,480	49.1	35,382	49.1
Ealing and Hillingdon	Cons	80,368	46.3	20,448	44.1
Enfield and Haringey	Lab	66,683	42.0	6,444	46.1
Greenwich and Lewisham	Lab	63,043	42.8	11,892	43.0
Havering and Redbridge	Cons	87,302	52.8	41,387	45.5
Lambeth and Southwark	Lab	80,172	48.9	32,418	42.2
Merton and Wandsworth	Cons	77,543	45.9	16,468	46.9
North East	Lab	96,402	49.4	39,008	43.9
South West	Cons	90,061	47.6	32,123	46.2
West Central	Cons	91,515	55.6	43,810	48.6

Source: London Elects

Assembly Constituency results

These results mirrored the Mayoral voting, in that the eight constituencies where Boris Johnson has the highest percentage of votes were all won by the Conservative candidate, while the other six were won by Labour. Overall, the Conservatives had 36.7 per cent of the vote, compared with 27.5 per cent for Labour candidates. The Conservative and Labour shares had increased from 31.2 per cent and 24.7 per cent respectively in 2004. The UKIP and Liberal Democrats saw the biggest falls in share, dropping by 7.1 and 5.0 percentage points respectively. Nine of the 14 winning candidates were the same as in 2004 (Table 13.5).

The only change in winning party from 2004 was in Brent and Harrow, which was a Labour gain. The Conservatives had gained the same constituency from Labour in 2004. Each winning candidate, whether Conservative or Labour, increased their share of the vote from 2004, with the only exception being Brent and Harrow (Table 13.6).

Assembly London-wide election

The list election is for 'topping up' the remaining 11 Assembly seats on a London-wide basis from party lists and independent candidates. This provides proportional representation to the Assembly. The Conservative party gained the highest share of the vote in the list election with 35 per cent of the total, an increase from 29 per cent in 2004. Labour came second with 28 per cent, up from 25 per cent in 2004, followed by Liberal Democrats with 11 per cent down from 17 per cent in 2004. This fall for the Liberal Democrats meant a loss of two Assembly seats. The Green Party share (8 per cent) was about the same as 2004. The only other party to gain more than the 5 per cent of the vote required for a seat on the Assembly was the BNP with 5.4 per cent, up from 4.8 per cent in 2004. In 2004, the UKIP share of the vote was 8.4 per cent and this fell to just 1.9 per cent in 2008, meaning a loss of their two seats.

The list elections added 3 more Conservative and 2 additional Labour members to the Assembly as well as 3 Liberal Democrats, 2 Greens and 1 BNP. When added to the constituency seats Conservatives had the most seats

Table 13.5

Share of Assembly Constituency vote by party of candidate[1]

Numbers and percentages

Constituency	Conservative	Eng Dem	Green	Labour	Left List	Lib Dem	UKIP	Other parties /spoilt vote	Turnout
Barnet and Camden	40.4	1.2	9.3	29.4	1.2	12.3	2.0	4.2	48.0
Bexley and Bromley	51.8	1.4	4.6	14.8	0.5	10.5	4.0	12.5	49.9
Brent and Harrow	35.4	1.4	6.4	36.5	1.4	12.2	1.9	4.8	43.2
City and East	17.1	1.1	6.1	34.0	1.2	7.3	1.6	31.5	39.9
Croydon and Sutton	43.3	2.4	5.1	19.2	0.8	18.3	5.4	5.6	49.1
Ealing and Hillingdon	42.2	1.1	7.1	26.0	1.4	10.2	2.5	9.5	44.1
Enfield and Haringey	31.7	1.4	7.7	32.5	3.5	14.6	2.9	5.7	46.0
Greenwich and Lewisham	24.8	1.2	10.5	35.6	1.4	12.2	2.6	11.8	43.0
Havering and Redbridge	46.7	3.9	5.4	21.1	0.9	7.4	7.3	7.3	45.5
Lambeth and Southwark	19.7	1.1	10.8	36.4	1.2	22.2	1.8	6.7	42.2
Merton and Wandsworth	43.9	1.3	8.3	28.6	1.0	10.1	2.5	4.4	47.2
North East	22.8	1.8	13.1	37.2	3.0	14.6	2.7	4.8	44.0
South West	40.2	1.0	6.7	15.8	0.8	26.1	2.0	7.6	46.2
West Central	52.1	1.1	10.1	21.2	1.0	9.6	1.8	3.1	48.7
London	36.7	1.5	7.9	27.5	1.4	13.4	2.9	8.7	45.3
London (numbers)	900,569	37,171	194,059	673,855	33,438	330,018	71,984	212,994	2,454,088

1 Only the 7 parties represented in all 14 constituencies are included in this table

Source: London Elects

Table 13.6

Change in Assembly Constituency votes 2004 to 2008

Numbers and percentages

Constituency	Winning party 2004	Winning party 2008	Gain/ Hold	2004 Vote %	2008 Vote %	% Change	Majority 2004	Majority 2008	Change in majority
Barnet and Camden	Cons	Cons	Hold	33.4	40.4	7.0	11,519	19,693	8,174
Bexley and Bromley	Cons	Cons	Hold	39.0	51.8	12.8	34,254	75,237	40,983
Brent and Harrow	Cons	Lab	Gain	31.5	36.5	4.9	4,686	1,649	-3,037[1]
City and East	Lab	Lab	Hold	26.1	34.0	7.9	14,336	31,553	17,217
Croydon and Sutton	Cons	Cons	Hold	36.8	43.3	6.6	23,694	42,665	18,971
Ealing and Hillingdon	Cons	Cons	Hold	30.5	42.2	11.7	11,016	28,638	17,622
Enfield and Haringey	Lab	Lab	Hold	27.3	32.5	5.2	1,574	1,402	-172
Greenwich and Lewisham	Lab	Lab	Hold	31.4	35.6	4.3	14,083	16,134	2,051
Havering and Redbridge	Cons	Cons	Hold	32.7	46.7	14.0	16,706	43,025	26,319
Lambeth and Southwark	Lab	Lab	Hold	29.1	36.4	7.3	5,475	23,648	18,173
Merton and Wandsworth	Cons	Cons	Hold	36.8	43.9	7.2	16,878	26,293	9,415
North East	Lab	Lab	Hold	26.8	37.2	10.4	13,338	28,437	15,099
South West	Cons	Cons	Hold	31.5	40.2	8.6	4,067	26,928	22,861
West Central	Cons	Cons	Hold	41.7	52.1	10.4	29,944	51,381	21,437

1 In Brent and Harrow the winning party changed, so the swing was 6,335 votes

Source: London Elects

Table 13.7

Numbers and shares of votes in the Assembly London-wide election, 2004 and 2008

Numbers and percentages

	Conservative	Labour	Lib Dem	Green	UKIP	BNP	Respect	Christian Party	Others	Total
Number of Votes										
2004	533,696	468,247	316,218	160,445	156,780	90,365	87,533	54,914	4,968	1,873,166
2008	835,535	665,443	275,272	203,465	46,617	130,714	59,721	70,294	125,546	2,412,607
Change	301,839	197,196	-40,946	43,020	-110,163	40,349	-27,812	15,380	120,578	539,441
% Share of Votes										
2004	28.5	25.0	16.9	8.6	8.4	4.8	4.7	2.9	0.3	100.0
2008	34.6	27.6	11.4	8.4	1.9	5.4	2.5	2.9	5.2	100.0
Change	6.1	2.6	-5.5	-0.1	-6.4	0.6	-2.2	0.0	4.9	0.0
List seats Won										
2004		2	5	2	2					11
2008	3	2	3	2		1				11
Change	+3	0	-2	0	-2	+1				-
Assembly Constituency seats won										
2004	9	5								14
2008	8	6								14
Total seats 2008	11	8	3	2		1				25

1 List seats are distributed using the d'Hondt formula. See Notes and Definitions.

Source: London Elects

(11), followed by Labour (8), then Liberal Democrats (3), Green (2) and BNP (1). Six of the list members were also elected four years ago while five are new members. Overall there are 10 new members on the 25 seat Assembly (Table 13.7).

Turnout

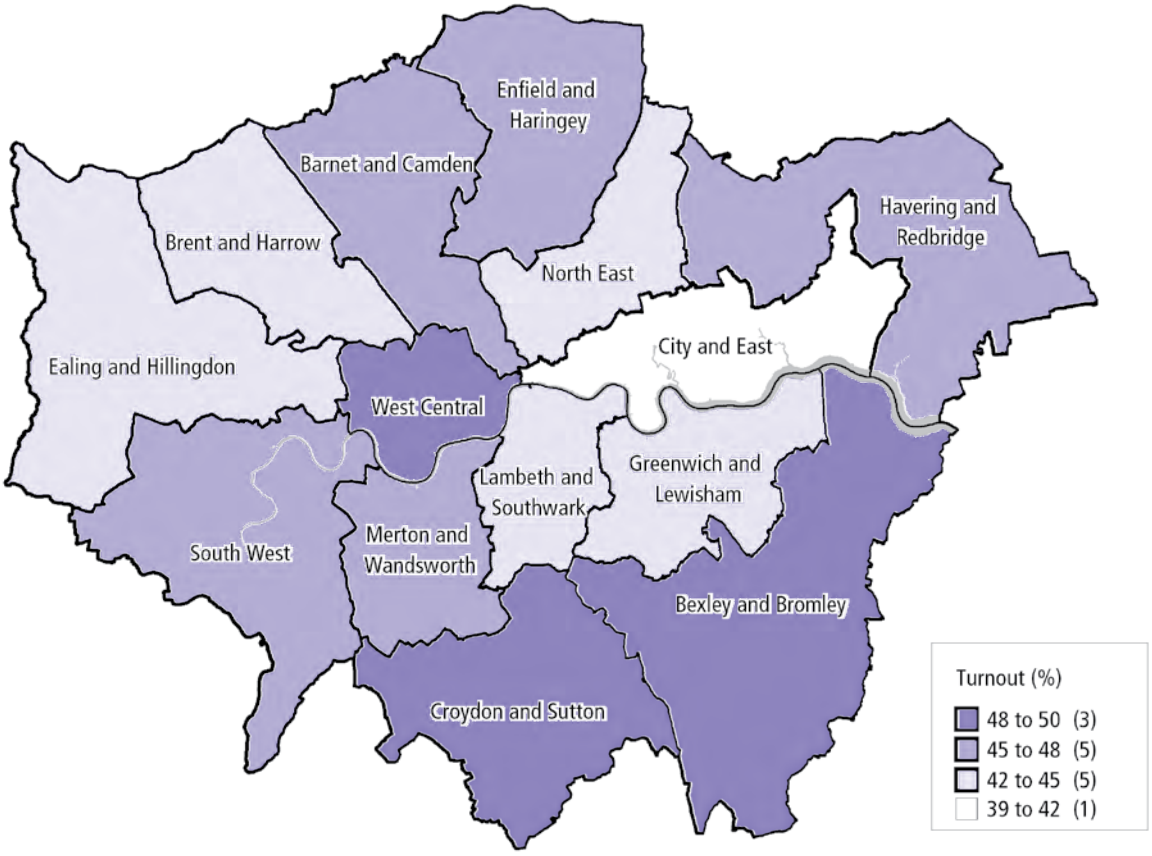
The turnout for the 2008 Mayoral election was significantly higher at 45.3 per cent compared with 36.9 per cent in 2004 and 34.4 in 2000. This represented an additional 552,000 valid votes from 2004. The total electorate was 5,419,913, which was up from 5,197,792 in 2004, a four per cent increase. There were over 2,416,886 valid first choice votes and over 2,004,834 valid second choice votes meaning 83 per cent of voters recorded a second choice vote. Turnout increased in every constituency with the largest increase in Croydon and Sutton (11.4 percentage points), and the smallest in Brent and Harrow (5.2 percentage points).

The highest turnout was in Bexley and Bromley (50 per cent), while the lowest was in City and East (40 per cent) (Map 13.8).

Map 13.8

Mayoral election turnout by constituency

Percentages



Source: London Elects

London borough council political composition

Since the 2002 Borough Elections, there have been 1,861 members within the 32 London borough councils. In 2002 the split between the main parties was 652 Conservative (35 per cent of seats), 866 Labour (47 per cent), 310 Liberal Democrat (17 per cent), 1 Green (0.1 per cent) and 32 'Other' (2 per cent) councillors in London. By May 2008 (including the 39 by-elections since May 2006), the numbers of Conservative seats had increased to 789 (42 per cent), making it the highest represented party within councils in London. Labour's total had fallen to 676 seats (36 per cent), while the Liberal Democrats total remained about the same on 310 seats (17 per cent), Greens have 13 seats (1 per cent) and 'Others' hold 63 seats (3 per cent), around double the 2002 figure. Within 'Other', the majority of seats were either Residents' Associations (19 seats), BNP (14 seats), or Respect (10 seats) (Table 13.9).

In terms of political control within the 32 councils, 15 are controlled by the Conservatives, 8 by Labour (including the Labour Mayors in Hackney, Newham and Lewisham), and 4 by Liberal Democrats, while 3 are Liberal Democrat and Conservative, 1 Liberal Democrat and Labour, and 1 Conservative and Independent controlled.

Table 13.9

Local political compositions of London Borough Councils, May 2008

Numbers and percentages

	Control	Conservative	Labour	Lib Dem	Green	Others	Total
Barking & Dagenham	Lab	1	38	0	0	12	51
Barnet	Con	37	20	6	0	0	63
Bexley	Con	54	9	0	0	0	63
Brent	Lib Dem + Con	15	21	27	0	0	63
Bromley	Con	49	4	7	0	0	60
Camden	Lib Dem + Con	13	16	22	3	0	54
Croydon	Con	43	27	0	0	0	70
Ealing	Con	43	23	3	0	0	69
Enfield	Con	34	27	0	0	2	63
Greenwich	Lab	13	36	2	0	0	51
Hackney	Lab	9	44	3	1	0	57
Hammersmith & Fulham	Con	33	13	0	0	0	46
Haringey	Lab	0	30	27	0	0	57
Harrow	Con	37	24	2	0	0	63
Havering	Con	34	2	1	0	17	54
Hillingdon	Con	45	18	2	0	0	65
Hounslow	Con + Ind	22	24	4	0	10	60
Islington	Lib Dem (minority)	0	23	24	1	0	48
Kensington & Chelsea	Con	45	9	0	0	0	54
Kingston upon Thames	Lib Dem	21	2	25	0	0	48
Lambeth	Lab	6	38	18	1	0	63
Lewisham	Lab mayor	3	26	17	6	2	54
Merton	Con (minority)	30	27	0	0	3	60
Newham	Lab	0	54	0	0	6	60
Redbridge	Con	34	18	10	0	1	63
Richmond upon Thames	Lib Dem	18	0	36	0	0	54
Southwark	Lib Dem + Con	6	29	27	1	0	63
Sutton	Lib Dem	22	0	32	0	0	54
Tower Hamlets	Lab	8	28	5	0	10	51
Waltham Forest	Lab + Lib Dem	15	25	20	0	0	60
Wandsworth	Con	51	9	0	0	0	60
Westminster	Con	48	12	0	0	0	60
London Totals		**789**	**676**	**320**	**13**	**63**	**1,861**
Percentage share of seats		42.4	36.3	17.2	0.7	3.4	100
May 2002							
Seats		**652**	**866**	**310**	**1**	**32**	**1,861**
Percentage share of seats		35.0	46.5	16.7	0.1	1.7	100

1 Correct at 15 May 2008, including changes caused by by-elections

Source: Greater London Authority, London Boroughs and Association of Liberal Democrat Councillors.

Notes and Definitions

Boundaries

Regional geography

The primary regional classification used in *Focus on London 2008* is the Government Office Region (GOR). The GORs were established in England in 1994 and are now the standard regional geography for statistical purposes.

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.

Lower and Middle Layer Super Output Areas (LSOAs and MSOAs)

Super Output Areas (SOAs) are a geographic hierarchy designed to improve the reporting of small area statistics in England and Wales. To support a range of potential requirements two layers of SOA have been created - Lower and Middle.

Lower Layer Minimum population 1,000; mean 1,500. Built from groups of Output Areas (typically 4 to 6) and constrained by the boundaries of the Census Standard Table (ST) wards.

Middle Layer Minimum population 5,000; mean 7,200. Built from groups of Lower Layer SOAs and constrained by the 2003 local authority boundaries used for 2001 Census outputs.

Nomenclature of Units for Territorial Statistics (NUTS)

Certain tables use the Nomenclature of Units for Territorial Statistics (NUTS). This 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.

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.

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).

Symbols and conventions

Rounding of figures. In tables where figures have been rounded to the nearest final digit, there may be an apparent discrepancy between the sum of the constituent items and the total as shown.

Non-calendar years.

- *Financial year* - eg 1 April 2005 to 31 March 2006 would be shown as 2005/06
- *Academic year* - eg September 2005 / August 2006 would be shown as 2005/06
- *Combined Years* - eg 2004-06 shows data for more than one year have been combined
- *Mid-year to mid-year* - eg The change between 2005 and 2006 would be shown as 2005-06.

Symbols. The following symbols have been used throughout.

.. not available

. not applicable

- negligible (less than half the final digit shown)

0 nil

Chapter 1 - Population and migration

Mid-year estimates

(Tables 1.1, 1.2, 1.3 and 1.11)

The estimated resident population of an area includes all people who usually live there, whatever their nationality. People arriving into an area from outside the UK are only included in the population estimates if their total stay in the UK is 12 months or more. Visitors and short-term migrants (those who enter the UK for 3 to 12 months for certain purposes) are not included. Similarly, people who leave the UK are only excluded from the population estimates if they remain outside the UK for 12 months or more. This is consistent with the United Nations recommended definition of an international long-term migrant. Members of UK and non-UK armed forces stationed in the UK are included in the population and UK forces stationed outside the UK are excluded. Students are taken to be resident at their term time address.

'Other changes' includes changes in population due to changes in the number of armed forces (both non-UK and UK) and their dependants resident in the UK. In calculating the international migration component of the population estimates, ONS uses the United Nations recommended definition of an international long-term migrant (someone who changes their country of residence for at least 12 months). This component does not include short-term migrants and visitors. The other component of population change is 'Natural Change' - the number of births less the number of deaths.

Total Fertility Rate

Age-specific birth rates for the United Kingdom figures have been calculated from all births registered in the UK, i.e. including births to mothers usually resident outside the UK apart from those to the non-residents of Northern Ireland, which are excluded. Data relate to year of occurrence in England and Wales, and year of registration in Scotland and Northern Ireland. The total fertility rate (TFR) is the average number of live children that a woman would bear if the female population experienced the Age Specific Fertility Rate (ASFRs) of the calendar year in question throughout their childbearing life-span.

Standardised mortality ratio

The standardised mortality ratio (SMR) compares overall mortality in a region with that for the UK. The ratio expresses the actual number of deaths in a region as a percentage of the hypothetical number that would have occurred if the region's population had experienced the sex/age-specific rates of the UK that year.

Inter-regional migration

(Tables 1.2, 1.4, 1.5 and 1.12)

Estimates for internal population movements are based on the movement of NHS doctors' patients between former Health Authorities (HAs) in England and Wales and Area Health Boards (AHBs) in Scotland and Northern Ireland. The figures provide a detailed indicator of population movement within the UK. 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. Not everyone registers with a doctor so their movement will not be recorded.

International migration

(Tables 1.2, 1.4, and 1.12)

The richest source of information on international migrants comes from the International Passenger Survey (IPS), which is a sample survey of passengers arriving at, and departing from, the main United Kingdom air and sea ports and Channel Tunnel. This survey provides migration estimates based on respondents' intended length of stay in the UK or abroad and excludes most persons seeking asylum and some dependents of such asylum seekers. More can be found about the IPS from the following link: www.statistics.gov.uk/ssd/surveys/international_passenger_survey.asp

Population Turnover Rate

(Map 1.7 and Table 1.13)

To help users who wish to compare different areas the migration estimates are converted into rates using the average population estimates of 2001 and mid-year 2006. An inflow rate of 141 therefore means that for every 1,000 people estimated to be living in the area at the end of the year, 141 people lived outside the area, one year previously. The rates include international migrants (people moving to or from England and Wales).

Chapter 2 - Diversity

Country grouping definitions

(Figure 2.4)

A8 relates to eight Eastern European countries that joined the EU in 2004. They are: Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia. Malta and Cyprus also joined in 2004 but are not part of the A8 group.

EU15 refers to the 15 member states who formed the European Union prior to enlargement in 2004. They are Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom.

The two other countries that make up the **EU27** are Bulgaria and Romania who joined the EU in January 2007.

Indian Subcontinent is defined here as India, Pakistan and Bangladesh.

Black, Asian and minority ethnic groups (BAME)

(Figure 2.5 and Table 2.8)

BAME includes all ethnic groups other than White. Therefore it excludes White British, White Irish and White Other.

Simpson's Diversity Index

(Tables 2.13 and 2.14)

A diversity index is a mathematical measure of group diversity in an area. Simpson's Diversity Index, takes into account both richness and equitability. Richness is the number of different groups present in the population and equitability is a measure of the size of these distinct groups relative to each other.

To determine ethnic diversity using Simpson's Index the proportion of the population in each ethnic group is first calculated. Each proportion is then squared and the squares summed. The equation is:

$D = \text{sum of } (n / N)^2$

n = the population in each ethnic group

N = the total population

The reciprocal of the sum is taken (i.e. one divided by D).

Ethnic group projections

(Table 2.8, 2.9, Map 2.10 and Figures 2.11, 2.12)

These GLA ethnic group population projections are consistent with the projections by age and gender produced at borough level by the GLA. They distribute the borough populations by age, gender and ethnic group. The projections incorporate data from the 2001 Census although the ten categories for which the GLA has produced ethnic group projections are aggregations of the 2001 Census categories. Please note that all migration structures in the demographic modelling of these projections relate to moves between 2000 and 2001. More recent migration patterns will not be adequately reflected in these projections, for example EU accession migration from Eastern Europe (A8). At present, it is difficult to get detailed information relating to the migration structures of more recent migrant trends such as those from A8 countries. See *DMAG Briefing 2008-03* for more detail.

Chapter 3 - Labour Market

The labour market chapter draws on a range of GLA published research, most of which is based on analysis of survey data from the Office for National Statistics.

Annual Population Survey (APS) and the Labour Force Survey (LFS)

(Figures 3.1, 3.3, 3.5, 3.6, 3.12, 3.16 and Tables 3.2, 3.4, 3.9, 3.13, 3.18, 3.19)

The APS is carried out by the Office for National Statistics (ONS) and is the largest regular household survey in the UK. The survey questionnaire is large and collects a wide range of data about people and their labour market position. The APS is a new name for the annual Labour Force Survey dataset, which it replaced in 2004. The 2006 APS dataset comprises two key elements:

(i) Data from the core quarterly Labour Force Surveys, which still exist in their own right and are used for a wide range of analytical purposes (see below).

(ii) Annual sample boosts for England, Wales and Scotland.

The APS/LFS has a panel survey design and respondents are interviewed more than once, in person or by telephone. The APS is based on four successive quarters of the regular quarterly LFS survey and created by taking waves 1 and 5 from each of the consecutive quarters. Each wave is interviewed in 5 successive quarters, such that in any one quarter, one wave will be receiving their first interview, one their second, and so on, with one receiving their fifth and last interview. This means that

the APS sample drawn avoids the inclusion of responses from the same household twice.

Household Labour Force Survey datasets

Figures 3.7, 3.8, 3.10, 3.14 and 3.11

While the APS is extensively used for analysis of individuals and their levels of labour market participation, ONS also produce household level datasets for family level analysis. These are produced from the quarterly LFS data and have been used here for analysis of employment rates of parents. The household datasets are available for two quarters per year. To improve the reliability of time series comparisons, trend data were averaged over 2 years (four survey periods per 2 years), and are presented on a moving average basis.

Reliability of LFS/APS data

As the LFS/APS is a sample survey, all estimates are subject to sampling variability. As a rule, the smaller the estimate the greater the margin of error as a proportion of the estimate. The degree of variability attached to an estimate is often expressed through '95% confidence intervals'. These allow the user to take a view, based on statistical probability theory, about how close an estimate is likely to be to the true population value. For example, if the employment rate for Camden was 66.1% and this figure was estimated from the APS, then 95 times out of 100, the APS employment rate estimate would fall in the range of 62.3% to 69.9% (ie ±3.8 percentage points). All confidence intervals quoted in this report are in terms of percentage point intervals. Sampling variability can be very high for some groups in the population (eg data at London borough level or for ethnic groups) and should be considered when drawing conclusions from data.

Headline APS data are available for the 32 London boroughs but is not published here for the City of London because the resident population, and the subsequent sample size is too small.

As the APS is a sample survey, all data need to be grossed up/weighted to reflect the size and composition of the general population. The datasets are usually grossed up according to the most up to date (official) population data available at the time of the data release. APS population estimates are usually slightly lower than the official ONS mid-year estimates and the GLA's own demographic estimates. This is because:

a) ONS APS/LFS datasets are currently grossed up population data that has been superseded
b) APS/LFS data relate mainly to those living in private households and exclude many groups living in communal establishments

In the case of the 2006 dataset, the APS estimate for the working age population is around 3 per cent lower than the official mid-year population estimate for London.

Working age population estimates for London

APS 2006 population estimate	4.869m
ONS mid-year estimate for 2006	5.033m

Acknowledgements: The GLA would like to kindly thank both the Office for National Statistics for permission to access the APS dataset, under special licence arrangements and also the UK Data Archive (University of Essex) who manage and supply both APS and LFS datasets.

APS and LFS Definitions

The APS/LFS employs a range of concepts and definitions to explore and measure labour market activity: some of the key definitions are presented below.

Disability definitions used on the APS/LFS

(Figure 3.12)

The APS uses two different (but overlapping) definitions of disability to categorise respondents: the DDA definition and the work-limiting definition.

DDA definition: relates to those who identify themselves as having a current disability as covered by the 1995 Disability Discrimination Act. This covers people who said their disability would last more than a year and who said their disability would substantially limit their ability to carry out normal day-to-day activities. Additionally, people with progressive illnesses (eg cancer, multiple sclerosis) are also included under this definition.

The 'work-limiting' definition: relates to people who said they had a health problem or disability they felt would last more than a year and who said that the health problem or disability in question affected the kind or amount of work they could do.

People can be disabled according to one or both definitions – just under two thirds of all disabled people (people who qualify on either of the definitions) are disabled according to both definitions. In this report, people who are disabled according to one or both definitions are referred to as 'disabled people'.

Dependent children, families and parents

(Figure 3.8)

Dependent children are children aged under 16 and those aged 16-18 who are never married and in full-time education.

A **family unit** comprises either a single person or a married/co-habiting couple on their own, or with children (who are never married and who have no children of their own) or lone parents with such children.

In the narrative, the term **parents** (and fathers and mothers) refers to those who have one or more dependent children living with them, or away at boarding school or university halls of residence. Adoptive and step-parents are included but foster parents and those who live in a separate household from their children are not. In this analysis, only parents of working age are covered.

Lone parents are people with dependent children who head a lone parent family unit (ie are not living with a partner or spouse).

Economic activity

Economically active people are those aged over 16 who are either in employment or ILO unemployed (defined below). This group of people are those active in the labour force.

Economic activity rate (%)

(Table 3.18)

The economic activity rate is the number of people who are economically active as a percentage of the total population. Rates can be calculated for any population or age group.

Economically inactive

People who are neither in employment nor unemployed (on the ILO measure). This group includes, for example, people who caring for their family or retired (as well as those aged under 16).

Employment

People aged 16 or over who did some paid work in the reference week (whether as an employee or self-employed); those who had a job that they were temporarily away from (eg on holiday); those on government supported training and employment programmes; and those doing unpaid family work (ie working in family business).

Employment rate (%)

(Table 3.2)

The number of people in employment expressed as a percentage of the population in that age group.

Ethnic groups

(Table 3.13)

Ethnic groups are defined using the National Statistics interim standard classification of ethnic groups. The final categories presented are broadly similar to those used in the 2001 Census (though there is no separate 'White Irish' category). The term BAME (Black, Asian & minority ethnic groups) is used in this context to refer to all ethnic groups except White groups.

ILO unemployment

(Table 3.17)

The International Labour Organisation's (ILO) measure of unemployment refers to people without a job who were able to start work in two weeks following their APS interview and who had either looked for work in the four weeks prior to interview or were waiting to start a job they had already obtained.

ILO unemployment rate (%)

The percentage of economically active people who are unemployed on the ILO measure, usually refers to those aged 16 and over or those of working age.

Modelled unemployment rates for local authorities

(Table 3.17)

The APS does not provide reliable unemployment estimates at local authority level due to small samples of unemployed residents. For this reason, ONS has developed a new statistical model to improve upon direct estimates from the APS. The model considers unemployment data from the APS and brings these together with data from the claimant count, the count of Jobseekers' Allowance claimants. While the final estimates are more reliable than direct survey based estimates from the APS, they still have sizeable confidence intervals. These new modelled data are the preferred source of local authority level data on unemployment. More information on how the modelled estimates are produced can be found at the following link: www.statistics.gov.uk/downloads/theme_labour/User_Guide.pdf

Additional notes of quoted statistics

Introduction:

The jobs figure of 4.7m quoted in the introduction relates to civilian workforce jobs, not seasonally adjusted as at September 2007 (Source: Office for National Statistics, Labour Market Statistics First Release for London, January 2008)

Commuting proportions, quoted in the introduction, are based on GLA analysis using the 2006 Annual Population Survey.

Unemployment by region and borough:

Unemployment rates quoted in this section all relate to those aged 16 and over, except for disabled people, where the rate applies to the working age disabled population.

Diversity and employment:

For more information on the 2001 Census analysis referred to in this section, please see *DMAG Briefing 2005-01 Country of birth and labour market outcomes in London*, available on the GLA website at the following link: www.london.gov.uk/gla/publications/factsandfigures/factsfigures/labour_market.jsp

Chapter 4 - Economy

Industrial Structure

The Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) is used for classifying business establishments and other statistical units by the type of economic activity in which they are engaged. It provides a framework for the collection, tabulation, presentation and analysis of data and its use promotes uniformity.

The SIC is divided into 17 sections. Each of these are then broken down into sections denoted by a two-digit code. In turn, these sections may be broken down again into three-digit groups and then into classes (four-digit). Finally, there may be a further breakdown into sub-classes (five-digit).

The 17 employment sections in the SIC 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 communications

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 and personal service activities

P: Private households employing domestic staff and undifferentiated production activities of households for own use

Q: Extra–Territorial organisations and bodies.

In London there are a number of sections which only have very low levels of employment and are therefore often combined in employment analysis. Additionally, because some of the names of the sections above are a little long and unwieldy, they are often shortened.

(Figure 4.5)

The breakdown used is as follows:

London's employment categories

Employment category	SIC sections
Primary and utilities	A,B,C,E
Manufacturing	D
Construction	F
Wholesale	part of G
Retail	part of G
Hotels and restaurants	H
Transport and communications	I
Financial services	J
Business services	K
Public administration	L
Health and education	M,N
Other services	O

(Tables 4.13 and 4.15)

The SIC codes are given in each table for each industrial sector to allow comparison with other tables.

(Table 4.14)

The table on business services employment is based on a breakdown of section K of the SIC: Real estate, renting and business activities, into its component groups and classes.

Further details about the SIC can be found at: www.statistics.gov.uk/methods_quality/sic/downloads/UK_SIC_Vol1(2003).pdf

GVA

(Tables 4.1, 4.2, 4.9 and 4.10)

Regional GVA is measured as the sum of incomes by resident individuals or corporations earned from the production of goods and services. 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 are based on the European System of Accounts 1995 (ESA95). The figures for all United Kingdom NUTS 1 areas are consistent with the UK National Accounts (Blue Book) 2007.

Regional GVA is currently calculated both on a workplace and a residence basis. Residence-based GVA allocates the incomes of individuals to their place of residence, whereas workplace GVA allocates their incomes to where they work. There are differences between the two bases only in London, the South East and the East regions.

(Table 4.2)

GVA data for NUTS levels 2 and 3 areas are currently only available up to 2005. The NUTS levels 2 and 3 GVA estimates are only produced on a workplace basis.

(Table 4.12)

GVA data by industry at NUTS 1 (e.g. for London) is only available up to 2004. The scope of the 2007 UK National Accounts Blue Book was reduced from normal and hence no industrial breakdowns of regional data were produced for 2005. The 2004 industry figures were not revised and those shown in this table are the most recently available. Because they were not updated to match the 2007 Blue Book, the regional GVA totals in this table are not the latest numbers and are not consistent with those presented in Tables 4.2 or 4.19. Users requiring regional GVA totals should use those in Table 4.9.

Employment - ONS Workforce Jobs Series

(Figure 4.3)

The Workforce Jobs (WFJ) series is a quarterly measure of the number of jobs in the United Kingdom and is the preferred measure of jobs by industry. It is the sum of employee jobs measured by surveys of employers, self-employment jobs from the Labour Force Survey (LFS), and government-supported trainees and Her Majesty's Forces from administrative sources.

The employee jobs measure within WFJ is taken from the ABI/1 (see below). Methodological changes to ABI/1 have caused a discontinuity between December 2005 and September 2006 (see below). Ideally, the discontinuity would be removed, at least for WFJ, which should be a continuous time-series. However, there is insufficient information to do this, particularly for detailed breakdowns by industry and region. Users should note that estimates of change across December 2005 to September 2006 are now unreliable. More details of this change can be found at: www.statistics.gov.uk/articles/nojournal/Revisions_WFJs_Dec07.pdf

London Workforce Jobs – Experian Business Strategies for GLA Economics

(Figure 4.5)

GLA Economics maintains its own workforce employment data. These data are fully compatible with the official data supplied by the Office of National Statistics (ONS), primarily through Labour Market Trends. They are derived from the same primary sources. However, the official data have a number of limitations which make them insufficient for the GLA group's planning purposes.

For this reason, GLA Economics supplements the official regional statistics, as do a number of private providers of regional labour market data and other regional government agencies. GLA data cover a much longer time period (three business cycles from 1971), with breakdowns by borough and by sector based on the UK Standard Industrial Classification of Economic Activities (SIC 92). The data are compiled on a comparable basis so that long-term trends can be clearly identified.

For more details and methodology, see the GLA Economics publication 'The GLA's London Workforce Employment Series' – September 2003.

www.london.gov.uk/mayor/economic_unit/docs/london_workforce_employment_series.pdf

Annual Business Inquiry (ABI/1)

(Tables 4.4, 4.6, Map 4.7 and Tables 4.13, 4.14, 4.15).

The Annual Business Inquiry (ABI) is a two-part survey of a representative sample of employers in the United Kingdom. ABI/1 collects information on employment and ABI/2 collects financial information. Completion of the survey is compulsory under the Statistics of Trade Act 1947.

The ABI replaced the Annual Employment Survey (AES) in 1998, which itself replaced the Census of Employment in 1995.

The ABI samples approximately 78,000 businesses each year, with the sample being drawn from the Inter-Departmental Business Register. The sample is stratified by industry, using Standard Industrial Classification SIC 92/ SIC 2003, and by six size bands. The largest size band (250 or more employees) is completely surveyed. Enterprises in with fewer employees are sampled, with the proviso that those employing fewer than 10 people are replaced annually and half of the sample in the intermediate four bands is replaced each year.

Results from the ABI are used by the Office for National Statistics (ONS) in the compilation of the National Accounts, and are also used in the calculation of estimates of the number of employees in the UK. Other government departments also use ABI results to develop and monitor policies. Local authorities use the data to monitor local employment levels. In terms of measuring employment, the ABI is the best source for measuring jobs, rather than people in employment, which is better measured by the Labour Force Survey.

In 2005, the Office for National Statistics undertook a review of the ABI. As a result, a decision was made to move the reference date from December to September starting from the ABI 2006 inquiry, the inquiry covering calendar year 2006. One advantage of this looking ahead is that data collected by the ABI can now be directly compared to data collected by the Business Register Survey (BRS), enabling an improvement in the quality of statistics. However, the change has created a discontinuity in the ABI employment data between 2005 and 2006. A measure of the discontinuities which affect comparisons of the 2006 ABI/1 employment estimates with earlier years were published alongside the 2006 ABI/1 data. See the following article for details.

www.nomisweb.co.uk/articles/328.aspx?

Employment by Firm Size

(Table 4.6)

This is a new table compiled for the first time in 2008 by GLA Economics using data sourced from the Inter Departmental Business Register (IDBR) of the Office for National Statistics (ONS).

The IDBR combines administrative information on VAT traders and Pay As You Earn (PAYE) employers with ONS survey data in a statistical register comprising over two million enterprises. These comprehensive administrative sources combined with ONS survey data contribute to the coverage on the IDBR representing nearly 99 per cent of UK economic activity. The IDBR only misses some very small businesses without VAT or PAYE schemes.

The IDBR has facilities to provide statistical samples at enterprise and at local unit level where the enterprise address is generally the head office and an individual site (factory, shop etc.) in an enterprise is called a local unit. Therefore, one enterprise may consist of one or many local units. Previous estimates of London employment by firm size have only focused on the enterprise data alone. However, Table 4.6 has utilised a methodology that uses both the enterprise and local unit data together. Table 4.6 is therefore considered to provide the most robust dataset on private sector employment by firm size in London currently available.

Private sector firms are defined as those enterprises on the IDBR that are registered as either a company, a sole proprietor, or a partnership.

- Large enterprises are defined as those employing 250 or more people in the UK;
- Medium enterprises are defined as those employing 50-249 people in the UK;
- Small enterprises are defined as those employing 0-49 people in the UK.
- Ultra Large enterprises are a subset of Large enterprises and are defined as those employing 2,500 or more people in the UK.

More information is available in *GLA Economics Working Paper 31 – Analysis of employment in London by Firm Size* (2008).

Business Start-Ups and Closures

(Table 4.8)

Annual estimates of registrations and de-registrations are compiled by the Department for Business, Enterprise and Regulatory Reform (BERR). They are based on VAT information held by the Office for National Statistics. 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 their main activity is exempt from VAT; or because they have turnover below the VAT threshold and have not registered voluntarily. More detailed guidance and methodology relating to VAT registrations and de-registrations data can be found at: stats.berr.gov.uk/ed/vat/VATGuidance2006.pdf

Chapter 5 - Income and Lifestyles

Expenditure and Food Survey

(Table 5.1, 5.11, 5.12, 5.14 and Figures 5.13, 5.15)

The Expenditure and Food Survey (EFS) (formerly the Family Expenditure Survey) is a sample survey of private households in the United Kingdom. The sample is representative of all regions of the UK and of different types of households. The survey is continuous with interviews spread evenly over the year to ensure that estimates are not biased by seasonal variation. The survey results show how households spend their money; how much goes on food, clothing and so on; and how spending patterns vary depending upon income, household composition, and regional location of households.

Households selected for the EFS are asked to complete an interview covering information about the household, regular items of household expenditure and income details. Following this, all adults within the household are asked to keep a diary to record all items of expenditure in the following two weeks. Children aged 7 to 15 years are also asked to keep a record of their personal expenditure.

Since 2001/02, the Classification Of Individual Consumption by Purpose (COICOP) system has been used to classify expenditure on the EFS. COICOP is the internationally agreed standard classification for reporting household consumption expenditure within National Accounts. COICOP is also used on Household Budget Surveys (HBS) across the European Union.

One of the main purposes of the EFS is to define the weights for the 'basket of goods' for the Retail Price Index (RPI) and the Consumer Price Index (CPI). The RPI has a vital role in the uprating of state pensions and welfare benefits, while the CPI is a key instrument of the government's monetary policy. Information from the survey is also a major source for estimates of Household Expenditure in the UK National Accounts. In addition, many other government departments use EFS data as a basis for policy making, for example in the areas of housing and transport. The Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs (DEFRA) uses EFS data to report on trends in food consumption and nutrient intake within the UK. Users of the EFS outside government include independent research institutes, academic researchers, and business and market researchers.

In 2005/06, 6,785 households in the United Kingdom participated in the survey. The response rate was 57 per cent in Great Britain and 50 per cent in Northern Ireland. Like all surveys based on a sample of the population, the EFS results are subject to sampling variability, and potentially to some bias due to non-response. Regional data are averaged over three years (where possible) to reduce the volatility of the data.

Income distribution

(Table 5.2, 5.6 and 5.10)

The measure of income used in compiling this table is that used in the Department for Work and Pensions, Households Below Average Income series which is derived from the Family Resources Survey (FRS).

No adjustment has been made in the income distribution table for any differences between regions in cost of living, as the necessary data for adjustment are not available. In the analysis of regions it is therefore assumed that there is no difference in the cost of living between regions, although the 'after housing costs' measure will partly take into account differences in housing costs. As this assumption is unlikely to be true, statements have been sensitivity tested where possible against alternative cost of living regimes. Results suggest that estimates of income before housing costs are not sensitive to regional price differentials, but results after housing costs are. In particular, for London and to a lesser extent the South West, living standards may be overstated, and in Wales, the North East, and in Yorkshire and The Humber living standards may be understated on the before housing costs measure.

Households Below Average Income

(Table 5.5)

The Households Below Average Income (HBAI) series is based on data from the FRS, a continuous survey of around 29,000 private households in the United Kingdom and is sponsored by the Department for Work and Pensions (DWP). Results are based on weighted survey data which are adjusted for non-response. The overall response rate was 62 per cent for 2004/05, but varied regionally.

The income of a household before housing costs is defined as the total income of all members of the household after the deduction of income tax, National Insurance contributions, contributions to personal pension schemes, additional voluntary contributions to personal pensions, maintenance/child support payments, parental contributions to students living away from home and Council Tax.

Income includes earnings from employment and self-employment, social security benefits including Housing

Benefit, occupational and private pensions, investment income, maintenance payments, educational grants, scholarships and top-up loans and some in-kind benefits such as luncheon vouchers, and free TV Licences for the over 75s.

The income of a household after housing costs is derived by deducting a measure of housing costs from the above income measure. Housing costs include rent (gross of housing benefit), water rates, community water charges and council water charges, mortgage interest payments (net of tax relief), structural insurance premiums (for owner occupiers), ground rent and service charges.

The income measure used in HBAI is weekly net (disposable) equivalised household income. This comprises total income from all sources of all household members including dependants.

Income is adjusted for household size and composition by means of the McClements equivalence scale (see below). This reflects the common sense notion that a household of five will need a higher income than a single person living alone in order to enjoy a comparable standard of living. The total equivalised income of a household is used to represent the income level of every individual in that household; all individuals are then ranked according to this level. This adjusted income is referred to as equivalised income.

McClements equivalence scale

	Before housing costs	After housing costs
Household member:		
First adult (head)	0.61	0.55
Spouse of head	0.39	0.45
Other second adult	0.46	0.45
Third adult	0.42	0.45
Subsequent adults	0.36	0.40
Each dependent aged:		
0 to 1	0.09	0.07
2 to 4	0.18	0.18
5 to 7	0.21	0.21
8 to 10	0.23	0.23
11 to 12	0.25	0.26
13 to 15	0.27	0.28
16 or over	0.36	0.38

Disaggregation by geographical region is presented as three year averages. This presentation has been used for the first time in the Households Below Average Income series for 2004/05, as single-year estimates are considered too volatile. The use of such three year averages reduces year-on-year variation by smoothing out differences.

Survey of Personal Incomes

(Table 5.7, 5.8 and Figure 5.9)

The sample survey is based on information held by HM Revenue & Customs (HMRC) tax offices on persons who could be liable to UK tax. It is carried out annually and covers the income assessable for tax in each tax year. The tables in this section are based on the survey for 2004/05.

Samples were selected from three HMRC operational IT systems, which are as follows:

COP: this covers all employees and occupational or personal pension recipients with a PAYE record;

CESA: this covers the self-assessment population; those with self-employment, rent or untaxed investment income, directors and other people with complex tax affairs or very high incomes (over £100k). Some people have both a COP and CESA record, although after the refinement of many higher rate employees out of Self-Assessment this group has reduced.

Claims: this covers people without COP or CESA records who have had too much tax deducted at source and claim repayment.

The approximate sample size for the survey was 430,000.

Notes on the tables

The tables in this section only cover individuals shown by HMRC records to have some liability to tax. There may be no record if an individual's income is less than the personal allowance (£4,745 in 2004/05). The lowest level of total income in the tables start at these levels and no attempt has been made to estimate the numbers of cases below the tax threshold or the amount of their incomes.

Some components of investment income (e.g. interest and dividends) are estimated for the sample cases drawn from COP because the information is not held on that HMRC business system.

The sample for the SPI is drawn at random from records held by HMRC of persons who could be liable to UK tax, irrespective of where they live. The population of records is not grouped (stratified) by geographical region before the sample is selected. The geography indicators are attached only to the selected sample based on address

and postcode. It follows that sub-UK estimates based on SPI are not controlled to known and fixed taxpayer population figures for each area. They are subject to random error caused by sampling and, where sample size is small, estimates for a geographical area can be subject to large sampling errors.

Household expenditure

(Table 5.11)

Expenditure excludes savings or investments (e.g. life assurance premiums), income tax payments, National Insurance contributions and the part of rent paid by housing benefit.

Estimates of household expenditure on a few items are below those which might be expected by comparison with other sources e.g. alcoholic drink, tobacco and, to a lesser extent, confectionery and ice cream.

The table of expenditure by commodity and service shows total weekly household expenditure in the UK and expenditure by the 12 Classification of individual consumption by purpose (COICOP) headings. COICOP is the internationally agreed classification system for reporting household consumption expenditure.

Total expenditure is made up from the total of the COICOP expenditure groups (1-12) plus 'Other expenditure items (13)'.

Definitions

Housing (net), fuel and power includes: rent, maintenance and repair, water, electricity, gas and other fuels. Mortgage capital repayments and amounts paid for the outright purchase of the dwelling or for major structural alterations are not included as housing expenditure under the COICOP classification.

Household goods and services includes: furnishings, textiles, appliances, tools and equipment for house and garden, goods and services for routine household maintenance.

Health includes: medicines, prescriptions, healthcare products, spectacles, lenses, accessories and repairs, hospital services.

Transport includes: purchase of vehicles; operation of personal transport i.e. fuel, servicing, spares, etc.; transport services (including rail, tube, bus and coach fares).

Communication includes: postal services, telephone and telefax equipment and services.

Recreation and culture includes: audio-visual, photographic and information processing equipment (including TV, videos, computers, cd players); games, toys, hobbies, sport equipment, pets, gardens; recreational and cultural services (including cinema, TV licences, TV subscriptions, leisure class fees, internet); newspapers, books and stationery; package holidays (not including spending money).

Miscellaneous goods and services includes: personal care i.e. hairdressing, toiletries, personal effects; social protection; household, medical and vehicle insurances; other services (including moving house costs, banking charges and professional fees).

Other expenditure are those items excluded from COICOP classifications, such as mortgage interest payments; council tax and domestic rates; licences, fines and transfers; holiday spending; cash gifts and charitable donations; and interest on credit cards.

Households with Internet Access

(Figure 5.15)

The data for 2003/04 to 2005/06 were all collected from the Expenditure and Food Survey; however, they are not directly comparable to the previous three-year average, which includes data from both the Family Expenditure Survey (2000/01) and the Expenditure and Food Survey (2001/02, 2002/03).

International Passenger Survey

(Table 5.17)

The International Passenger Survey (IPS) is a survey of a random sample of passengers entering and leaving the UK by air, sea or the Channel Tunnel. Over a quarter of a million face-to-face interviews are carried out each year with passengers entering and leaving the UK through the main airports, seaports and the Channel Tunnel.

Data from the survey are used:

- in compiling the travel account of the balance of payments;
- in estimating the numbers and characteristics of migrants into and out of the UK; and
- to provide information on international tourism.

Passengers are sampled on all major routes in and out of the UK, and travellers on these routes make up around 90 per cent of all travellers entering and leaving the UK. The sampling procedures for air, sea and tunnel passengers are slightly different but the underlying principle for each is similar. In the absence

of a readily available sampling frame, time shifts or crossings are sampled at the first stage. During these shifts or crossings, the travellers are counted as they pass a particular point (for example, after passing through passport control) then travellers are systematically chosen at fixed intervals from a random start. Interviewing is carried out throughout the year and over a quarter of a million face-to-face interviews are conducted each year, and represents about 1 in every 500 passengers.

The majority of interviews are carried out within the UK terminal, however at some locations it is not practical to do this so interviews take place instead on board the ferry, train or at the quayside overseas.

The interview usually takes 3-5 minutes and contains questions about passengers' country of residence (for overseas residents) or country of visit (for UK residents), the reason for their visit, and details of their expenditure and fares. There are additional questions for passengers migrating to or from the UK. While much of the content of the interview remains the same from one year to the next, new questions are sometimes added or appear periodically on the survey.

As one of the main aims of the survey is to provide information of people migrating to and from the UK, in addition to the main fieldwork, special shifts are carried out to increase the number of migrants interviewed.

Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings

(Table 5.19, 5.20 and Figure 5.18)

The *Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings* (ASHE) is based on a sample of employee jobs taken from HM Revenue and Customs PAYE records. Information on earnings and hours is obtained in confidence from employers. ASHE does not cover the self-employed nor does it cover employees not paid during the reference period. In 2007 information related to the pay period which included 18 April. The 2007 ASHE is based on approximately 142,000 returns.

The headline statistics for ASHE are based on median rather than mean earnings. The median is the value for which half of all employees earn more and half less. It is preferred over the mean for earnings data as it is influenced less by extreme values and because of the skewed distribution of earnings data.

In March 2007, ONS released information on its statistical work priorities over the period 2007-8. ONS announced that the sample size of the ASHE was to be reduced by 20 per cent. ASHE results for 2007 are based on approximately 142,000 returns, down from 175,000 in 2006. The impact of this change has been minimised by reducing the sample in an optimal way, with the largest sample reductions occurring in industries where earnings are least variable.

For 2006 and 2007 ASHE results, ONS has also introduced a small number of methodological changes, which will improve the quality of the results. These include changes to the sample design itself

The earnings information presented relates to gross pay before tax, National Insurance or other deductions, and excludes payments in kind. With the exception of annual earnings, the results are restricted to earnings relating to the survey pay period and so exclude payments of arrears from another period made during the survey period; any payments due as a result of a pay settlement but not yet paid at the time of the survey are also excluded.

Most of the published ASHE analyses relate to full-time employees on adult rates whose earnings for the survey pay period were not affected by absence. They do not include the earnings of those who did not work a full week, and whose earnings were reduced because of sickness, short time working, etc. Also they do not include the earnings of employees not on adult rates of pay, most of whom will be young people. Full-time employees are defined as those who work more than 30 paid hours per week or those in teaching professions working 25 paid hours or more per week.

Annuities

This is a product sold by an insurance or other financial services company. In return for handing over a one off payment, the company then pays over regular sums until a particular event, whose date cannot be predicted (usually death in the pensions field) occurs. An annuity is used to provide a pension by any scheme that builds up a pensions pot. Different kinds of annuities are available depending on whether you want to provide for dependents and to what extent you want your pension payments to increase.

Chapter 6 - Poverty

Households Below Average Income data

(Figures 6.1, 6.3 6.4, 6.5 and Tables 6.2, 6.6, 6.7, 6.15)

The data presented in Chapter 6 on income poverty are drawn from the *Households Below Average Income* (HBAI) series which is based on data from the Family Resources Survey (FRS). The FRS is an annual survey of UK households carried out by the Department for Work and Pensions. The survey comprises around 28,000 UK households, including 2,500 London households.

Table A1

Children below 60 per cent median income in 2004/05 with 95 per cent confidence intervals

Percentages

Percentage of children	Before Housing Costs		After Housing Costs		All children (millions)
	below 60%	confidence interval	below 60%	confidence interval	
England	19	18 - 20	28	26 - 29	10.9
of which					
North East	26	21 - 31	31	26 - 36	0.5
North West and Merseyside	20	17 - 22	28	24 - 31	1.5
Yorkshire and The Humber	24	20 - 28	27	23 - 32	1.1
East Midlands	20	17 - 24	24	20 - 28	0.9
West Midlands	24	20 - 27	29	25 - 33	1.2
East	13	10 - 17	22	18 - 26	1.2
London	24	21 - 27	41	37 - 44	1.6
of which					
Inner London	34	28 - 40	53	47 - 59	0.5
Outer London	18	15 - 22	34	30 - 39	1.1
South East	13	11 - 15	23	20 - 26	1.8
South West	15	12 - 18	22	18 - 25	1.0
Scotland	19	17 - 21	23	21 - 25	1.0
Wales	23	17 - 28	27	21 - 33	0.6

Source: Department and Work and Pensions, Households Below Average Income, 2004/05

The chapter refers to children living under the poverty line. This is defined as those children living in households with below 60 per cent of median income and is a measure of relative income poverty. This is the headline measure used by the Government to measure its progress on child poverty targets. Children are defined as those aged under 16 or those aged 16-18 who are unmarried and in full-time education.

Income here relates to the notion of equivalised household income, which is income adjusted to take account of differences in household size and composition. This enables 'like for like' comparisons of the disposable income and effective living standards of different types of households. Income estimates are routinely produced before and after housing costs are paid. Given that housing costs are so high in the Capital, the after housing cost measure is often considered as more meaningful for London analysis.

While estimates are available for London, and more recently for Inner and Outer London, they are subject to wide confidence intervals. By way of illustration, confidence intervals attached to single year HBAI data for 2004/05 are shown in Table A1.

To minimise problems with confidence intervals when comparing data over time or when looking at smaller groups within the population, data are averaged over three years to improve the reliability of estimates. However, three year data still have significant confidence intervals attached and readers need to bear this in mind when interpreting the data.

Further information about the Households Below Average Income data series can be found at the DWP website: www.dwp.gov.uk/asd/hbai.asp

Benefit Statistics

(Tables 6.8, 6.10, 6.18 and 6.20)

The source of the data used in this section is the Work and Pensions Longitudinal Study. The WPLS is a series of linked databases that allows detailed, cross cutting analysis of DWP customers. From January 2004, DWP has been able to link benefit and programme information held on its customers with employment records from HM Revenue and Customs (HMRC).

As from 27th October 2005, the WPLS data became the DWP's key data source for many benefit statistics. These data are used to produce headline National Statistics. WPLS data are based on 100% of claimants.

Statistical Groups

Claimants and their families have been allocated to statistical groups to give an indication of the main reason why they are claiming benefit. Families are assigned to statistical groups according to the following hierarchy:

- Unemployed: claimants of JSA
- Sick/Disabled: claimants of IB, SDA, DLA or IS with a disability premium
- Lone Parent: Single people with children on IS and not receiving a disability related premium
- Other: IS claimant not in other groups, e.g. carers, asylum seekers, pensioners (Minimum Income Guarantee/Pension Credit)

DWP data on children in key benefits households

The section profiles the percentage of children who live in families on key benefits. The data are supplied by the Department of Work and Pensions and are based on a five per cent sample of claimants. Children refers to dependent children who are aged under 16, together with those aged 16 to 18 still in full-time education. The data relate to children in families where an adult of working age claims one or more of the five key benefits:

Jobseeker's Allowance (JSA)

JSA was introduced on October 7th 1996 and is a contributory or income-related benefit paid to people under State Pension age who are available for and actively seeking work of at least forty hours per week. They agree with Jobcentre Plus any restrictions on their availability for work and the steps they intend to take in order to find work.

Incapacity Benefit (IB)

IB is paid to people who have been incapable of work because of sickness or disability for at least four days in a row and who have paid sufficient contributions throughout their working lives.

Disability Living Allowance (DLA)

DLA is paid to people who have become disabled before the age of 65 and who need assistance with personal care and/or mobility.

Income Support (IS)

Income Support (IS) is available to those under 60 who have a low income. Until October 2003, IS was also payable to males aged 60 to 64 and was called Minimum Income Guarantee (MIG). From October 2003 Pension Credit replaced MIG. However both MIG and Pension Credit claimants aged 60 to 64 are included in the children and families client group datasets as IS claimants.

Severe Disablement Allowance (SDA)

SDA was paid to those unable to work for 28 weeks in a row or more because of illness or disability. Since April 2001 it has not been possible to make a new claim for Severe Disablement Allowance.

Children in Working Age Families on key benefits

The 'children' analyses are based on children in families where an adult of working age claims a key benefit and either:

- receives an additional allowance of benefit for children or young adult dependants (i.e. those aged 16-18 and still in full-time education); or
- receives contribution-based Jobseeker's Allowance (JSA) or JSA National Insurance credits only, with children or young adult dependants recorded in the assessment; or
- receives Child Tax Credit (CTC).

The family type is derived from a combination of information about a claimant's dependent children and whether the claimant has a partner, as recorded for benefit or child tax credit (CTC) administration purposes.

Confidence intervals

DWP benefit and client group datasets consist of five per cent samples of claimants and the statistics produced from them are subject to sampling error. The statistics produced, by rating up frequencies obtained from the 5% samples, are estimates of the true population values and, by chance, may be either lower or higher than the true population value. An indication of the effect of these sampling errors can be gained from the Table A2. The true value will most probably lie somewhere in a range around this estimate. The size of this range is usually indicated by a 95% confidence interval, and there is only a 1 in 20 chance that the true value lies outside this range. Further information may be obtained from www.dwp.gov.uk/asd/cga.asp

Indices of Deprivation 2007

(Map 6.3)

The Index of Multiple Deprivation 2007 combines a number of indicators, chosen to cover a range of economic, social and housing issues, into a single

Table A2

Confidence intervals (CI) attached to data on children in key benefit families (DWP, 5% sample)

Numbers and percentages

Estimated value	95% CI (+ or -)	CI as a % of estimate (+ or -)
1,000	270	27
2,000	382	19
3,000	468	16
4,000	540	14
5,000	604	12
6,000	662	11
7,000	715	10
8,000	764	10
9,000	811	9
10,000	854	9
20,000	1,208	6
30,000	1,480	5
40,000	1,709	4
50,000	1,910	4
100,000	2,702	3
200,000	3,821	2
300,000	4,679	2
400,000	5,403	1
500,000	6,041	1
600,000	6,618	1
700,000	7,148	1
800,000	7,641	1
900,000	8,105	1
1,000,000	8,543	1

Source: Department and Work and Pensions

deprivation score for each small area in England. This allows each area to be ranked relative to one another according to their level of deprivation. As with the 2004 Indices, the Indices of Deprivation 2007 have been produced at Lower Super Output Area level, of which there are 32,482 in the country.

There are also six district summary scores for each Local Authority district (there are 354 districts in England) and for each County Council and higher tier authority (there are 149 of these). A relative ranking of areas, according to their level of deprivation is then provided. There are also supplementary Indices measuring income deprivation amongst children and older people: the Income Deprivation Affecting Children Index (IDACI) and the Income Deprivation Affecting Older People Index (IDAOPI).

Together these various Indices make up the Indices of Deprivation 2007.

The methodology underpinning the ID 2004 and the ID 2007 are largely the same though there have been small changes to some of the underlying indicators. Comparison between the two Indices is therefore acceptable.

The Indices are used widely to analyse patterns of deprivation, identify areas that would benefit from special initiatives or programmes and as a tool to determine eligibility for specific funding streams.

The ID 2007 includes the following measures of deprivation:

- The Index of Multiple Deprivation (IMD 2007) as described above;
- Local Authority Summaries of the IMD 2007
- County Council summaries of the IMD 2007
- Income Deprivation Affecting Children Index 2007
- Income Deprivation Affecting Older People Index 2007

Six summary measures of the overall IMD 2007 have been produced at district level to describe differences between districts.

- Average of LSOA ranks: Population weighted average of the combined ranks for the LSOAs in a district.
- Average of LSOA scores: Population weighted average of the combined scores for the LSOAs in a district
- Local Concentration: Local Concentration is the population weighted average of the ranks of a district's most deprived LSOAs that contain exactly 10% of the district's population.
- Extent: Proportion of a district's population living in the most deprived LSOAs in the country.
- Scale (two measures): Income Scale is the number of people who are Income deprived; Employment Scale is the number of people who are Employment deprived

Further information about the Indices can be found here: www.communities.gov.uk/publications/communities/indiciesdeprivation07

Chapter 7 - Health

Life expectancy

(Figure 7.1 and Table 7.2)

All figures presented here are period life expectancies. Period expectation of life at a given age for an area in 2004-06 is the average number of years a person

could be expected to live, if he or she experienced the particular area's age-specific mortality rates for that time period throughout his or her life. It is not therefore the number of years someone of that age in the area in that time period could actually expect to live, both because the death rates of the area are likely to change in the future and because people may live in other areas for at least some part of their lives.

A historical series of National Interim Life Tables is available from 1982-82 to 2004-06 (from ONS). The data for England and Wales from 1991-93 to 2004-06 have been updated to reflect recently revised Population Estimates, and deaths are calculated by the number of registrations during a given period instead of the number of occurrences, which these tables previously reflected.

Spearhead Authorities

The Spearhead Group is made up of 70 Local authorities and 88 Primary Care Trusts, based upon the local authority areas that are in the bottom fifth nationally for 3 or more of the following 5 indicators:

- Male life expectancy at birth
- Female life expectancy at birth
- Cancer mortality rate in under 75s
- Cardio Vascular Disease mortality rate in under 75s
- Index of Multiple Deprivation 2004 (Local Authority Summary), average score

There are 11 Spearhead Authorities in London and they are Hammersmith and Fulham, Newham, Greenwich, Barking and Dagenham, Haringey, Southwark, Islington, Tower Hamlets, Lambeth, Hackney and Lewisham

Disability

(Figure 7.3 and Tables 7.4, 7.5)

Definition of APS Work-limiting disabled

The first health question in the Annual Population Survey is: 'Do you have any health problems or disabilities that you expect will last more than a year?'

Those who answer 'yes' are then asked a series of follow up questions:

'Does this health problem affect the kind of paid work that you might do?'

'Does this health problem affect the amount of paid work that you might do?'

If a respondent says yes to either of these two questions, they are defined as having a work-limiting disability.

Definition of DDA disabled

One of the health categories is: 'progressive illness not specified elsewhere (eg Cancer, multiple sclerosis, symptomatic HIV, Parkinson's disease, muscular dystrophy)', which is used as one of the criteria to determine whether someone is disabled according to the 1995 DDA – see below.

After these questions, respondents are then asked:

'Do these health problems or disabilities, when taken singly or together, substantially limit your ability to carry out normal day to day activities? If you are receiving medication or treatment, please consider what the situation would be without the medication or treatment.'

Those who answered yes to this question or said they had a progressive illness (as specified above) are defined as having a current DDA disability. It should be noted that there have been changes to the DDA definition since 1995 but the APS data presented is based on the 1995 definition.

People who have a current long-term impairment according to one or both of these definitions are referred to as disabled people in the health chapter. APS data on disability are only available for working age respondents (16-59 for women and 16-64 for men).

Lower and Middle Layer Super Output Areas (LSOAs)

See 'Boundaries' at the start of Notes and Definitions.

Decile - In any dataset, if the sorted results are divided into ten equal parts, each part is called a decile. Each decile represents a tenth of the data.

Quintile - In any dataset, if the sorted results are divided into five equal parts, each part is called a quintile. Each quintile represents a fifth of the data.

Age-standardised mortality rates

(Table 7.7)

Directly age-standardised rates make allowances for differences in the age structure of the population. The age-standardised rate for a particular condition is that which would have occurred if the observed age-specific rates for the condition had applied in a given standard population. Rates are based on deaths registered in each calendar year and are directly age-standardised using the European Standard Population. This is a hypothetical population standard which is the same for both males and females allowing standardised rates to be compared for each sex, and between males and females.

General Household Survey and Continuous Household Survey

(Table 7.10)

The General Household Survey (GHS) and Continuous Household Survey (CHS) in respect of Northern Ireland are continuous surveys that have been running since 1971 for the GHS and 1983 for the CHS. They are based each year on samples of the general population resident in private (noninstitutional) households in Great Britain and Northern Ireland. As multi-purpose surveys, they provide information on aspects of housing, employment, education, health and social services, health-related behaviour, transport, population and social security. Between 1988 and 2004, GHS fieldwork was based on a financial rather than calendar year and as a result data were not collected for the first quarter of 1988. Results for the 2005 GHS relate to the calendar year. From 2000/01, GHS data are weighted to compensate for non-response and to match known population distributions.

Care should be exercised when making comparisons between the regions or over time, as year-to-year fluctuations in the households sampled mean that small changes in value may not be significant. Both alcohol consumption and smoking are age-related and therefore the composition of the region affects the results. The proportion of minority ethnic population in each region also has an impact.

Alcohol-related deaths

(Table 7.12)

The codes used to select alcohol-related deaths are listed below:

ICD - 10

ICD-10 F10	Mental and behavioural disorders due to use of alcohol
ICD-10 G31.2	Degeneration of nervous system due to alcohol
ICD-10 G62.1	Alcoholic polyneuropathy
ICD-10 I42.6	Alcoholic cardiomyopathy
ICD-10 K29.2	Alcoholic gastritis
ICD-10 K70	Alcoholic liver disease
ICD-10 K73	Chronic hepatitis, not elsewhere classified
ICD-10 K74 (Excluding K74.3-K74.5 Biliary cirrhosis)	Fibrosis and cirrhosis of liver
ICD-10 K86.0	Alcohol induced chronic pancreatitis
ICD-10 X45	Accidental poisoning by and exposure to alcohol
ICD-10 X65	Intentional self-poisoning by and exposure to alcohol
ICD-10 Y15	Poisoning by and exposure to alcohol, undetermined intent

Alcohol consumption

(Table 7.10)

A unit of alcohol is 8 grammes of pure alcohol, approximately equivalent to half a pint of ordinary strength beer, a glass of wine, or a standard pub measure of spirits. Sensible Drinking, the 1995 inter-departmental review of scientific and medical evidence on the effects of drinking alcohol, concluded that the daily benchmarks were more appropriate than the previously recommended weekly levels. The daily recommendations could help individuals decide how much to drink on single occasions and how to avoid episodes of intoxication with their attendant health and social risks. The report concluded that regular consumption of between three and four units a day for men, and two to three units for women, does not carry a significant health risk. However, consistently drinking more than four units a day for men, or more than three for women, is not advised as a sensible drinking level because of the progressive health risk it carries. The government's advice on sensible drinking is now based on these daily benchmarks.

Other health data

Regional Trends 40 from ONS includes data and analysis on still births, perinatal mortality and infant mortality, mortality rates, cancer, cervical and breast screening, incidence of HIV, incidence of TB, cigarette smoking, alcohol consumption, illegal drugs, hospital activity, prescriptions, GPs and dentists, council supported residents in care homes and children looked after by local authorities.

Chapter 8 - Housing

Affordability

(Figure 8.2)

Lower quartile house prices have been measured using Land Registry data while quartile earnings have been obtained from the Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings.

County Court actions for mortgage possessions

(Figure 8.3)

The figures do not indicate how many houses have been repossessed through the courts; not all the orders will have resulted in the issue and execution of warrants of possession. The regional breakdown relates to the location of the court rather than the address of the property.

Actions entered: a claimant begins an action for an order of 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.

Overcrowding

(Figure 8.4)

The bedroom standard

This indicator of occupation density was developed by the Government Social Survey in the 1960's for use in social surveys. It incorporates assumptions about the sharing of bedrooms that would now be widely considered to be at the margin of acceptability.

A standard number of bedrooms required is calculated for each household in accordance with its age/sex/marital status composition and the relationship of the members to one another. A separate bedroom is required for each married or cohabiting couple, for any other person aged 21 or over, for each pair of adolescents aged 10 - 20 of the same sex, and for each pair of children under 10. Any unpaired person aged 10 - 20 is paired, if possible with a child under 10 of the same sex, or, if that is not possible, he or she is counted as requiring a separate bedroom, as is any unpaired child under 10.

This standard is then compared with the actual number of bedrooms (including bed-sitters) available for the sole use of the household. Bedrooms converted to other uses are not counted as available unless they have been denoted as bedrooms by the residents, bedrooms not actually in use are counted unless uninhabitable. If a household has fewer bedrooms than implied by the standard then it is deemed to be overcrowded. As even a bed-sitter will meet the bedroom standard for a single person household, or for a married/cohabiting couple, single person and couple households cannot be overcrowded according to the bedroom standard.

Housing Provision Survey (HPS)

(Figure 8.6)

The HPS is now on a financial year basis for use in the London Plan annual monitoring reports. HPS is now undertaken on a joint basis with CLG, so that the CLG and the GLA completions figures are based on the same data set.

London Development Database

(Map 8.5 and 8.7)

Designed to record the progress of planning permissions in the London area, Planning permissions in London (also known as the London Development Database or LDD) makes it possible for the public to find information on live and completed planning permissions anywhere in London.

For each permission, the database provides the date that the permission was granted, its status (not-started, started or completed), the name of the borough in which the site is located, the address of the site, a brief description of the permission and a link to the borough's website.

Additional information about planning applications and permissions (for example, schemes that are awaiting a decision or have been rejected) may be obtained by visiting the appropriate borough website or contacting the borough planning department.

Developed by the Greater London Authority to assist with monitoring the implementation of the Mayor's London Plan, the database records permissions meeting specific criteria only; it does not record all permissions granted within London. The GLA is not responsible for adding any information to the database: all information is input by staff in the London boroughs. Boroughs are expected to add permissions to the database within three months of granting permission.

Housing supply figures

(Map 8.5)

Figures are taken from Housing in London: The evidence base for the Mayor's Draft Housing Strategy, GLA 2007 and London Plan Annual Monitoring Report 4, GLA 2008. These figures differ from CLG house-building statistics but are considered more reliable as they cover all developments in London to a high level of detail.

Survey of English Housing (SEH)

(Figure 8.8)

The SEH was a continuous household survey that collected information from nearly 20,000 households each year about the characteristics of their housing and their attitudes to housing and related issues.

In April 2008 the Survey of English Housing (SEH) merged with the English House Condition Survey (EHCS) to form the new English Housing Survey (EHS).

The Survey is a National Statistics data source.

Households accepted as homeless: by reason

(Table 8.9)

In England, households are accepted as homeless on the basis that they are found to be eligible for assistance, unintentionally homeless and falling within a priority need group, and consequently owed a main homelessness duty by a local authority under the homelessness provisions of the Housing Act 1996.

In Wales, the basis for these figures is households accepted for re-housing by local authorities under the homelessness provisions of Part III of the Housing Act 1985, and Part IV of the Housing Act 1996.

In Scotland, the basis of these figures is households assessed by the local authorities as unintentionally homeless or potentially homeless and in priority need, as defined in Section 24 of the Housing (Scotland) Act 1987.

In Northern Ireland, the Housing (Northern Ireland) Order 1988 (Part II) defines the basis under which households (including one-person households) are classified as homeless. The figures relate to priority cases only.

Household projections

(Table 8.10)

The revised 2004-based household projections update the 2004-based projections that were published in 2007 They show the number of households that would form if recent demographic trends continue. They are linked to the Office for National Statistics revised 2004-based Population Projections.

The household projections are produced by projecting household formation rates and applying these to the Office for National Statistics population projections.

The household projections are not an assessment of housing need. They do not take account of future policies. They are an indication of the likely increase in households given the continuation of recent demographic trends. They are one part of the evidence that Regional Planning Bodies and local authorities use in the assessment of future housing requirements

Household definition: One person living alone or a group of people living at the same address with common housekeeping - that is, sharing either a living room or at least one meal a day.

Other notes

The income figures of first time buyers is from CLG Housing Live Table 514, 2008.

Chapter 9 - Environment

Land use

The Generalised Land Use Database (GLUD) provides new experimental statistics showing land type for all of England. The figures are as at January 2005 and are based on an enhanced base map. They have been produced by Communities and Local Government on behalf of the Office for National Statistics' Neighbourhood Statistics service. This follows on from the pilot GLUD results for 2001 previously published. GLUD statistics for 2005 are significantly more accurate and more up-to-date than GLUD statistics for 2001. Users should note that owing to the improvements in the accuracy of the underlying base map the 2005 (Enhanced Basemap) figures are not comparable with those for 2001, and time series analysis is not possible.

In addition, 2005 (Enhanced Basemap) statistics provide improved figures for the extent of Domestic Gardens in rural areas, of Greenspace, Roads and Paths more generally, and of Water in coastal areas. There is further information about the methodology used to create

Table A3

Air quality standards for Particulate Matter, Nitrogen dioxide and Fine Particulates

Millionth of a gram per cubic metre of air

Pollutant	Averaging Period	European or National standard	Criteria	Date by which standard is to be met
PM_{10}	1 day	European Limit value	50 µg/ m^3, not to be exceeded more than 35 times a calendar year	01/01/2005
		National objective	50 µg/ m^3, not to be exceeded more than 35 times a calendar year	31/12/2004
	Calendar year	European Limit value	40 µg/m^3	01/01/2005
		National objective	40 µg/ m^3	31/12/2004
$PM_{2.5}$	Calendar year	European Target Value	25 µg/m^3	2010
		European Limit Value	25 µg/m^3	2015
		National objective	25 µg/m^3	2020
			Target of 15% reduction in concentrations at urban background	2010 to 2020
NO_2	1 hour	European Limit value	200 µg/m^3, not to be exceeded more than 18 times a calendar year	01/01/2010
		National objective	200 µg/m^3, not to be exceeded more than 18 times a calendar year	31/12/2005
	Calendar year	European Limit value	40 µg/m^3	01/01/2010
		National objective	40 µg/m^3	31/12/2005

GLUD, and the differences between GLUD 2001 and GLUD 2005 (Enhanced Basemap) in comprehensive metadata available from the ONS NeSS website www.neighbourhood.statistics.gov.uk

River and canal water quality

(Table 9.3)

The Environment Agency is introducing the new Water Framework Directive (WFD) which will replace the GQA. This is important new European water legislation and requires all inland and coastal water bodies to reach at least "good" status by 2015, subject to certain exemptions. The emphasis will be on biological monitoring because this gives a broader assessment of the health of rivers. The current indicators will be produced for several more years, although based on fewer monitoring sites, which means regional and local level results will no longer automatically be produced. More details are available of the Environment Agency website. www.environment-agency.gov.uk

Air quality abbreviations

(Figure 9.9 and 9.10)

SO_2	Sulphur Dioxide
PM_{10}	Particulate matter
$PM_{2.5}$	Particles less than 2.5 micrometers in diameter
CO	Carbon monoxide
NOx	Nitrogen oxides
NO_2	Nitrogen dioxide
O_3	Ozone

Air quality standards

Air quality standards for Particulate Matter, Nitrogen dioxide and Fine Particulates are in Table A3.

Carbon dioxide equivalent

(Table 9.12)

Carbon dioxide equivalent (CO_2eq or CO_2e) is an internationally accepted measure that expresses the amount of global warming of greenhouse gases (GHGs) in terms of the amount of carbon dioxide (CO_2) that would have the same global warming potential (GWP),

measured over a specified timescale (generally, 100 years). CO_2eq is a more correct/broad measure of total GHG contribution.

GWPs are used to compare the abilities of different GHGs to trap heat in the atmosphere. The GWP provides a construct for converting emissions of various gases into a common measure, which allows climate analysts to aggregate the radiative impacts of various GHGs into a uniform measure denominated in carbon dioxide equivalents. For example, the GWP for methane (CH_4) is 21 and for nitrous oxide (N_2O) is 310. This means that emissions of 1 tonne of methane and nitrous oxide respectively are equivalent to emissions of 21 and 310 tonnes of CO_2. The CO_2eq for a gas is derived by multiplying the tonnes of the gas by the associated GWP. The generally accepted authority on GWPs is the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC).

London Energy and CO_2 Emissions Inventory 2003

(Table 9.11 and 9.17)

The LECI 2003 is an annually updated database of related electronic files that hold geographically referenced datasets of energy consumption and the resulting carbon dioxide (CO_2) emissions for the London area in 2003. Energy consumption is expressed in gigawatt-hours (GWh) and CO_2 emissions in kilotonnes. The LECI 2003 is compiled and maintained by the Greater London Authority as part of the delivery of the London Mayor's Energy Strategy and the Climate Change Action Plan (CCAP).

The emissions estimation methodologies employed in the LECI 2003 are based predominantly on emission factors (e.g., a known amount of carbon dioxide is emitted from a given type of vehicle exhaust at a given speed, per kilometre travelled) and activity data (e.g., vehicle kilometre travelled, fuel consumption) estimated or measured in the base year (2003).

The emission factors used in preparing the LECI 2003 were derived predominantly from:

- The UK Emission Factor Database (UK EFD.)
- DTI's Digest of United Kingdom's Energy Statistics (DUKES).
- UK and European energy consumption and CO_2 emission studies and literature.

Where recent activity data of acceptable quality were available, they were used in estimating energy consumption and CO_2 emissions in the LECI 2003. Most of the activity datasets were derived from local and surrogate information such as fuel consumption, vehicle kilometres travelled (VKT), or some other measure of activity relating to energy consumption and CO_2 emissions. Generally, emission factors were applied to activity data to estimate energy consumption and CO_2 emissions.

Noise pollution

(Figure 9.12)

The annual data on noise complaints collected by the Chartered Institute of Environmental Health (CIEH), while highly valuable, has historically been limited by the response rate and by a relatively limited breakdown of the cause of the complaints. A new scheme for gathering more in-depth noise categories, cross-referenced according to the type of dwelling, plus setting up a website to encourage authorities to provide their data in electronic form may encourage reporting and facilitate collation. However it is anticipated that it will be some time before all local authorities are able to supply the more detailed data.

Chapter 10 - Transport

Trip

(Tables 10.2, 10.3, 10.4, 10.19 and Figure 10.15)

A trip is defined as a one way movement from one place to another to achieve a single main purpose. Round trips are divided so that the return leg is treated as a separate trip. These definitions apply to data from interview surveys such as the London Area Transport Household Survey.

Trips may be further subdivided into journey stages, the component parts of a trip using a single mode of transport between interchanges. Walking is counted as a separate mode, but walks within single premises or between platforms at interchange stations are not included. The main mode of a trip is the mode of transport used for the longest stage (by distance).

Central London

(Table 10.5)

The Greater London Conurbation Centre or Central Statistical Area – an area roughly rectangular in shape, bounded by Regent's Park to the north, Whitechapel to the East, Elephant & Castle and Vauxhall to the South, and Kensington Gardens to the West. It is a larger area than the central London Congestion Charging zone, and includes the Inner Ring Road and Paddington, Marylebone, Euston and King's Cross rail stations.

Central Area Peak Counts (CAPC)

CAPCs are TfL estimates of people entering central London in the morning peak period, derived from vehicle and passenger counts annually each Autumn.

Roads classification

(Table 10.11)

Major Roads: include motorways and all class A (principal) roads.

TLRN: the Transport for London Road Network is those major roads in London for which TfL has direct responsibility, comprising 580kms of London's red routes and other important streets.

Minor Roads: B and C classified roads and unclassified roads.

National Road Traffic Estimates (DfT)

National and regional statistics of road traffic for Great Britain, derived from data from manual and automatic traffic counts. The London series is constructed from the subset of counts within London. A summary description 'How the national traffic estimates are made' is available from www.dft.gov.uk/stellent/groups/dft_transstats/documents/page/dft_transstats_027415.hcsp

London Area Transport Survey 2001 (LATS)

(Table 10.13)

LATS is an interviewer administered sample survey of 30,000 London households, carried out for TfL between January 2001 and April 2002. The survey included a one-day travel diary to collect data on Londoners' weekday travel patterns. The data have been grossed to represent the household population of London as measured by the 2001 Census of Population.

Chapter 11 - Crime

Offences

(Table 11.1, 11.2, 11.3 and 11.4)

Figures are compiled from police returns to the Home Office or directly from court computer systems; from police returns to the Scottish Executive Justice Department and from statistics supplied by the Police Service of Northern Ireland.

Recorded crime statistics 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.

In England, Wales and Northern Ireland, 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. In general in Northern Ireland non-indictable offences are dealt with at a magistrates' court. Some indictable offences can also be dealt with there.

England and Wales

In England and Wales, Home Office counting rules for recorded crime were revised with effect from 1 April 2002, principally to take account of the National Crime Recording Standard (NCRS) which was produced by the Association of Chief Police Officers (ACPO) in consultation with the Home Office. The Standard aims to promote greater consistency between police forces in recording crime and to take a more victim orientated approach to crime recording.

Scotland

In Scotland the term 'crimes' is generally used for the more serious criminal acts (roughly equivalent to indictable offences); less serious are termed 'offences'. In general, the Procurator Fiscal makes the decision as to which court a case should be tried in or, for lesser offences, whether alternatives to prosecution such as a fixed penalty might be considered. Certain crimes, such as rape and murder, must be tried by a jury in the High Court; cases can also be tried by jury in the Sheriff Court. The majority of cases (97 per cent) are tried summarily (without a jury), either in the Sheriff Court or in the lay District Court.

Cautions

If a person admits to committing an offence they may be given a formal police caution by, or on the instruction of, a senior police officer as an alternative to court proceedings. The figures exclude informal warnings given by the police, written warnings issued for motoring

offences and warnings given by non-police bodies, e.g. a department store in the case of shoplifting. Cautions by the police are not available in Scotland, but warnings may be issued on behalf of the Procurator Fiscal.

Detection Rates

(Table 11.4)

In England, Wales and Northern Ireland detected offences recorded by the police include offences for which individuals have been charged, summonsed or cautioned; those admitted and taken into consideration when individuals are tried for other offences, and others where the police can take no action for various reasons. In Scotland a revised definition of 'cleared up' came into effect from 1 April 1996. Under the revised definition a crime or offence is regarded as cleared up where there is sufficient evidence under Scots Law to justify consideration of criminal proceedings notwithstanding that a report is not submitted to the Procurator Fiscal because either:

a) by standing agreement with the Procurator Fiscal, the police warn the accused due to the minor nature of the offence, or

b) reporting is inappropriate due to the age of the accused, death of the accused or other similar circumstances.

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,
- where no further action is taken and the case is not proceeded with because, for example, 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.

Crime Surveys

(Table 11.5)

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. From 2001/02 the survey has measured crimes experienced by respondents in the 12 months prior to their interview 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 2005/06 survey had a nationally representative sample of 47,796 respondents in England and Wales. The sample was drawn from the Small User Postcode Address File - a listing of all postal delivery points. The first results from the 2005/06 sweep of the BCS were published in July 2006.

Scotland participated in sweeps of the BCS in 1982 and 1988 and ran its own Scottish Crime Surveys (SCS) in 1993, 1996, 2000 and 2003 based on nationally representative samples of around 5,000 respondents aged 16 or over interviewed in their homes. For 2004 a smaller survey of 3,000 respondents was conducted as the Scottish Crime and Victimisation Survey (SCVS). The sample was drawn from addresses randomly generated from the Postcode Address File. Both the 1993 and 1996 surveys had response rates of 77 per cent, the 2000 survey had a response rate of 72 per cent, the 2003 survey had a response rate of 68 per cent and the response rate in 2004 was 67 per cent. The results of the 2004 SCVS were published in July 2006.

The Northern Ireland Crime Survey (NICS) was conducted on behalf of the Northern Ireland Office (NIO) in 1994/95, 1998, 2001 and 2003/04. Since January 2005 it has been running as a continuous survey. The survey is based on an annual sample of 6,420 addresses systematically selected at random from the Valuation and Lands Agency (VLA) list of domestic addresses. Interviews are carried out every month and at each cooperating

address one person (16 or over) is chosen at random to take part in the survey.

In each of the surveys, respondents answered questions about offences against their household (such as theft or damage of household property) and about offences against them personally (such as assault or robbery). However, none of the surveys provides a complete count of crime. Many offence types cannot be covered in a household victim oriented survey (for example shoplifting, fraud or drug offences). Crime surveys are also 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.

As BCS estimates are subject to sampling error, differences between estimates from successive years of the survey or between population subgroups may occur by chance. Tests of statistical significance are used to identify which differences are unlikely to have occurred by chance. Small sample sizes mean that apparently large changes between years may not be statistically significant, therefore the actual percentage changes are not shown.

Additional Data Sources

(Table 11.7, 11.8 and 11.9)

Data from a range of London Statutory Authorities and Service Providers can provide valuable insights into the level of crime and disorder across London. The following data sources have been included in analysis of violent incidents in London:

Metropolitan Police Service – Notifiable Offences

The Metropolitan Police Service (MPS) data used in this chapter relates to notifiable offences. Notifiable offences are designated categories of crimes that all police forces in England and Wales are required to report to the Home Office. See http://www.met.police.uk/crimestatistics/ for more information about offence data.

Transport for London – Driver Incident Records

Incident data for crime and disorder incidents relating to bus travel is provided by London Buses, a part of Transport for London (TfL). Incidents can be reported using a dedicated radio channel by bus drivers, revenue staff and roadside operational staff, and are known as Code Red calls. Calls are logged and assistance provided by relevant emergency response or simply by advice and guidance.

London Ambulance Service

The data source is the London Ambulance Service (LAS) Performance Management Database. Each vehicle that is dispatched to an incident requiring attendance by LAS equates to a record on this database. The attending staff (paramedics etc) can often deduce what was the cause of the incident and record this information against this record as well as the time, date and location to supplement the medical data.

British Transport Police – Incidents

This dataset is taken from the British Transport Police's (BTP) computerised crime reporting system, 'CRIME'. The BTP is the national police force for the railways providing a policing service to rail operators, their staff and passengers throughout England, Wales and Scotland. The force is responsible for policing the London Underground system and Docklands Light Railway in addition to other systems throughout England, Wales and Scotland.

The crime statistics are broken down into the designated categories of crimes that all police forces in England and Wales are required to report to the Home Office.

Violent Incidents by Local Authority

(Table 11.7)

The measurement of violent incidents by various London Statutory Authorities will differ according to the scope of responsibility of that particular agency. The following fields have been included for the purposes of analysis of violent incidents by Statutory Authority:

a) Metropolitan Police Service – Violent incidents includes the three major crime categories of 'Violence Against the Person', 'Sexual Offences' and 'Robbery'.
b) London Ambulance Service – Violent incidents include all incidents where the incident type was recorded as 'Assault' or 'Police Incident'.
c) British Transport Police – Violent incidents include all incidents categorised as either 'Homicide', 'Attempted Murder', 'Serious Assault', 'Common Assault (including RA)', 'Police Assault', 'Firearms/Explosive Offences', 'Racially Aggravated Harassment' or 'Other Violence'.
d) Transport for London – Violent incidents include all incidents categorised as either 'Assault Crew'; 'Assault Crew Personal Injury'; 'Assault LBSL Personal Injury'; 'Assault LBSL Staff'; 'Assault Off Bus'; 'Assault Off Bus Personal Injury'; 'Assault Passenger'; 'Assault Passenger Personal Injury'; 'Object Thrown Damaged Bus'; or 'Object Thrown No Damage'.

Rates are based on Office of National Statistics (ONS) 2006 mid-year population estimates. Crime rates better reflect the risk of being a victim and are also used to compare areas.

Caution needs to be taken when considering crime rates of city centre areas, due to the very small population and household levels in these areas. The very high reported crime rates in city centres are partly due to the use of small resident population and household figures as the denominator of the crime rate. The 'transient population' that migrates into these areas on a daily basis, either for work or leisure, will not be reflected in the resident population figures.

The basic street-level policing of London, excluding the City of London, is carried out by 33 Borough Operational Command Units (BOCUs), which operate to the same boundaries as the 32 London borough councils apart from one BOCU which is dedicated to Heathrow Airport. The figures for the separate BOCU dedicated to Heathrow Airport have been excluded from analysis of Inner and Outer London MPS rates, but has been included in the MPS rate for London.

Violent Incidents by Time of Week

(Table 11.8)

The temporal analysis in this report draws on data from a range of sources, and therefore the recording of date and time of incident varies according to the dataset and the way in which incidents are recorded by the organisation. For example, the incident date and time recorded by the LAS reflects the hour of day that the call was made to the LAS. Incidents reported to the MPS are based on the reported time that the incident occurred. It is therefore likely that LAS analysis is skewed very slightly to later in the day from what an analysis of MPS data might reveal. TfL Driver Incident Records reflect the time and day that the calls (as described above) were logged. BTP temporal data, on the other hand, reflects the date and time incidents occurred.

Chapter 12 - Education

GLA pupil projections

(Table 12.1)

The GLA works, under contract, with 23 London local authorities to ensure that projected numbers of pupils in individual age groups are available to education planners.

London pupil dataset (LPD)

(Figures 12.6, 12.7, 12.8, 12.10, 12.13, 12.14, 12.18, 12.20, 12.21 and Tables 12.17, 12.19)

The London Pupil Dataset (LPD) is based largely, but not entirely, on an anonymised extract of pupil by pupil records from the National Pupil Dataset (NPD). The NPD came into being in 2002, contains records for pupils attending maintained schools in England and, originally, was updated annually. The LPDs for 2002, 2003 and 2004 contained records for pupils who lived in London (regardless of where they went to school) or who went to school in London (regardless of where they lived). The 2005 LPD also contains records for pupils in the shire counties and unitary authorities around London. The 2006 and 2007 extracts were for all pupils attending maintained schools in England.

Data are released to the GLA for analysis of pan-London and strategic issues, such as social inclusion, social exclusion and mobility. Records are of pupils in the maintained sector who live in London, regardless of where they attend school.

The NPD holds individual pupil level and other information gathered in a range of separate data collection exercises each year, such as the Pupil Level Annual Schools Census (PLASC) and the separate exercises for collecting pupil level key stage assessments and public examination results.

The data collection exercises used to populate the NPD have a statutory basis, which improves the quality of returns from schools, and data are collected for all children in maintained schools. That is, information in the NPD relates to the total population of children in those schools, rather than to a sample.

In excess of 8 million individual pupil records are added each year, covering a range of items including pupil age, gender, ethnicity, special educational needs, free school meal entitlement, key stage assessments and public examination results, home postcode and school attended. Because it is updated annually, and records from one year can be linked to records from another, it can provide cross-sectional and longitudinal views of education.

Types of school

(Figure 12.10)

Academies and City Technology Colleges are publicly funded independent schools. Academies can be established in rural areas and in any area where there is a need for additional school places. Pupil Referral

Units (PRUs) provide education on a temporary basis for children of compulsory school age who are not able to attend a full-time school and cannot be accommodated in mainstream or special schools. In community schools, the local authority owns the land and the buildings, provides the funding, employs the staff, and determines and administers school admissions arrangements. Voluntary controlled schools are in a similar position, except that a voluntary organisation, usually a church, owns the land and the buildings. In voluntary aided schools, a voluntary organisation, again usually a church, owns the land and the buildings, and also part-funds the school. Additionally, staff are employed by the governing body, which is also responsible, in consultation with the local authority, for school admissions policy. In foundation schools, the governing body owns the land and the buildings, employs the staff and, in consultation with the local authority, determines school admissions policy.

Free School Meals (FSM)

(Table 12.10 and Figure 12.18)

Free school meals are offered to children of families who are in receipt of Income Support, Income Based Job Seekers Allowance or Guaranteed Element of State Pension Credit. They are also offered to children of families of families who are in receipt of Child Tax Credit only, but who are not entitled to Working Tax Credit, and whose annual income (as assessed by the Inland Revenue) does not exceed £14,495.

Key stages

(Tables 12.11, 12.19 and Figures 12.13, 12.20, 12.21)

The national curriculum has four key stages. Key Stage 1 is for pupils who are in years 1 and 2 of the national curriculum. Key Stage 2 is for pupils in years 3 to 6 and Key Stage 3 is for pupils in years 7 to 9. Tests are taken at the end of each key stage. For most pupils, these are taken in the summer when the pupils are aged 7, 11 or 14. Assessments at Key Stages 1 to 3 are in terms of levels, which are intended to reflect the extent of learning. Typically, children are expected to move up by one level over a two-year period. At the end of Key Stage 1, the majority of pupils are expected to have reached level 2. The national expected level for pupils at the end of Key Stage 2 is level 4 and at Key Stage 3 it is level 5 or 6. Key Stage 4 covers the examinations taken at the end of compulsory secondary schooling. Pupils who were aged 15 at the beginning of the school year take exams at the end of that school year.

Chapter 13 - London Government

The d'Hondt formula

(Table 13.6)

The calculation is carried out using all the votes cast in the Assembly list election.

In 'round one', the votes cast for each party or individual candidate are examined and the one receiving the highest number gains the first seat.

In 'round two', the total number of votes for each party or candidate is divided by the number of seats that each party has already won plus one. In other words the party or candidate which won the first seat has their vote divided by two and all the others have their vote divided by one. The results of this calculation are examined and the party or candidate with the highest number wins the second seat.

The process is then repeated until all seats have been allocated, with, at each round, the parties' or candidates' votes being divided by the number of seats they have already gained plus one, and the party or candidate with the largest result from this calculation gaining the next seat.

In the Assembly election, the intention is that the overall political composition of the Assembly should reflect as far as possible, the distribution of votes cast across the whole of London. The seats won in the constituency member stage of the election are, therefore, taken into account in allocating the London-wide seats. A d'Hondt formula is used to allocate the London-wide seats, modified to allow only those parties or individual candidates who have gained more than 5 per cent of the vote to be considered.

Websites, references and further reading

Chapter 1 - Population and migration

Websites

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Government Actuary's Department	www.gad.gov.uk
Data Management and Analysis Group (DMAG), GLA	www.london.gov.uk/gla/dmag/
DMAG Extranet	https://extranet.london.gov.uk/
Office for National Statistics	www.statistics.gov.uk

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Population Trends, The Office for National Statistics	www.statistics.gov.uk/statbase/product.asp?vlnk=6303
Regional Snapshot, ONS	www.statistics.gov.uk/regionalsnapshot/

Annual Abstract of Statistics 2007 edition, ONS,
www.statistics.gov.uk/downloads/theme_compendia/AA2007/AA2007.pdf

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Household estimates and projections, CLG
www.communities.gov.uk/housing/housingresearch/housingstatistics/housingstatisticsby/householdestimates/

DMAG Population briefings	www.london.gov.uk/gla/publications/factsandfigures/factsfigures/population.jsp

GLA 2007 Round Demographic Projections
www.london.gov.uk/gla/publications/factsandfigures/dmag-briefing-2008-07.pdf

Chapter 2 - Diversity

Websites

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http://www.ind.homeoffice.gov.uk/	UK Border Agency
Visit London, Multicultural London	www.visitlondon.com/maps/multicultural_london/
Multicultural London	www.multicultural.co.uk/multiculturalondon.htm

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Chapter 3 - Labour Market

Websites

Department for Work and Pensions www.dwp.gov.uk

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Nomis® www.nomisweb.co.uk

References and further reading

Country of birth and labour market outcomes in London, DMAG Briefing 2005-01 www.london.gov.uk/gla/publications/factsandfigures/factsfigures/labour_market.jsp

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Chapter 4 - Economy and Industry

Websites

Department for Business, Enterprise and Regulatory Reform www.berr.gov.uk/

GLA Economics www.london.gov.uk/mayor/economic_unit/glaepublications.jsp

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References and further reading

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Historical revisions to the GLA workforce employment series www.london.gov.uk/mayor/economic_unit/docs/current-issues-note-11.pdf

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Chapter 5 - Income and Lifestyles

Websites

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Department for Work and Pensions www.dwp.gov.uk

References and further reading

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Survey of Personal Incomes, HM Revenue and Customs www.hmrc.gov.uk/stats/income_distribution/menu.htm

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Expenditure and Food Survey, Office for National Statistics
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General Household Survey, Office for National Statistics
www.statistics.gov.uk/ssd/surveys/general_household_survey.asp

Family Resources Survey, Department for Work and Pensions www.dwp.gov.uk/asd/frs/

Households Below Average Income, Department for Work and Pensions www.dwp.gov.uk/asd/hbai.asp

United Kingdom Tourism Survey
www.tourismtrade.org.uk/MarketIntelligenceResearch/DomesticTourismStatistics/UKTS/UKTS.asp

Chapter 6 - Poverty

Websites

Department for Work and Pensions www.dwp.gov.uk

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Chapter 7 - Health

Websites

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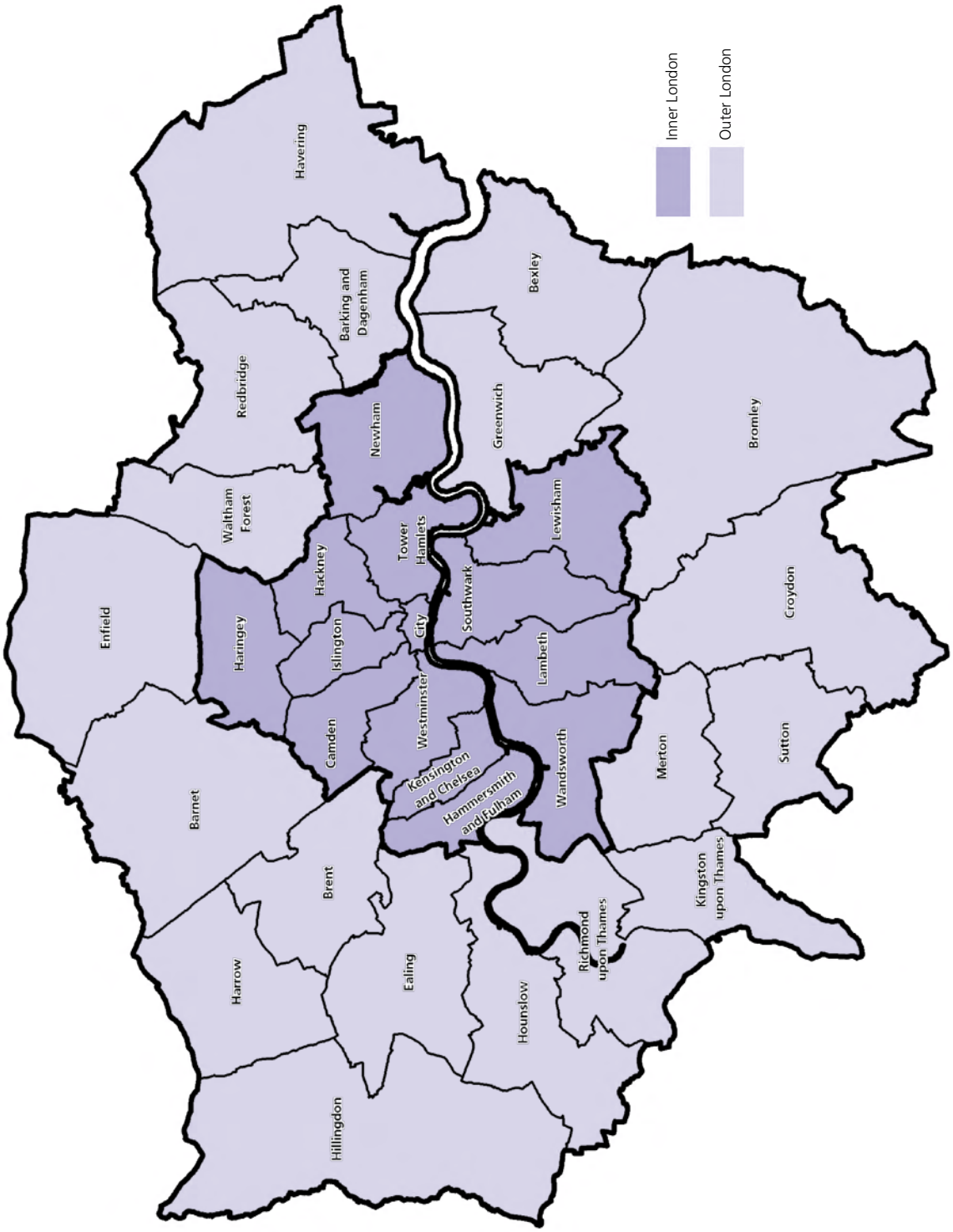

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