





# focus on LONGON

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Billion. This term is used to represent a thousand million.

*Provisional and estimated data.* Some data for the latest year (and occasionally for earlier years) are provisional or estimated. To keep footnotes to a minimum, these have not been indicated; source departments will be able to advise if revised data are available.

Non-calendar years.

Financial year - eg 1 April 1998 - 31 March 1999 would be shown as 1998-99

Academic year - eg September 1998/July 1999 would be shown as 1998/99

Data covering more than one year - eg 1997, 1998 and 1999 would be shown as 1997-1999

Units. Figures /are shown in italics when they represent percentages.

Symbols. The following symbols have been used throughout:

- .. not available
- . not applicable
- negligible (less than half the final digit shown)
- 0 nil

### **Foreword**

As with previous editions, those who live in, work in or visit London will find the information about contemporary London and Londoners contained in *Focus on London 2000* of interest and use in studying contemporary trends and issues in the capital city.

The beginning of the new millennium, which saw around two and a half million people celebrating on the streets of central London, will bring many changes for the United Kingdom's capital city. But this year is particularly significant for London, because of the re-establishment of city-wide government, and the consequent first elections for the Mayor of London and the London Assembly.

Some of the functions carried out by the Government Office for London will be transferred to the new Greater London Authority and the London Research Centre will be absorbed into it, making this volume the last to be produced in partnership between the two organisations and the Office for National Statistics. The three partners first drew their complementary skills, knowledge and resources together for *Focus on London 97*. The editors warmly thank colleagues in all three organisations, and more widely, who have contributed both to *Focus on London 2000* and to the previous editions.

Following positive feedback from users, we have again produced a complementary CD-ROM which allows users to carry out their own analyses of the data contained in *Focus on London 2000*. We welcome any comments and suggestions from users about the publication and the CD-ROM. Please send them to:

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### Introduction

The Office for National Statistics, the London Research Centre and the Government Office for London have once again worked together to produce *Focus on London 2000*, the most comprehensive picture of life in our capital city. Elections for the new London mayor will take place on 4<sup>th</sup> May 2000, and these authoritative and up-to-date statistics will assist in future decision-making processes.

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

Key facts and figures are provided at the beginning of the main chapters and the commentary is illustrated with tables, charts and maps. More detailed reference tables, many at borough level, are contained in the Appendix towards the back of the book, starting on page 147. Technical notes and definitions follow.

Following positive feedback from users, a complementary CD-ROM has been included again this year. This contains all the data from the book, together with a full electronic version of the paper publication. An entry-level interactive map is also included which allows for some complex queries to be constructed from a selection of borough level data. A demonstration version of this map can be downloaded from the ONS website at http://www.ons.gov.uk. An additional map shows London's main communication links – its motorways, airports and main-line stations.

Focus on London 2000 is aimed at both general and specialist readers. It provides information which is detailed, but not exhaustive, in the areas covered. Sources are given at the foot of each table, chart and map. Readers who would like further information will find a list of references and further reading starting on page 201, followed by a list of contact points in the relevant Government Departments and outside organisations.

Further information about *Focus on London 2000* can be obtained from the editorial team in the Social and Regional Division, Office for National Statistics, 1 Drummond Gate, London SW1V 2QQ; telephone 020 7533 5804, fax 020 7533 5799 or Email 'martin.smith@ons.gov.uk'.

Further information about the work of the Government Office for London can be obtained from the Government Office for London, Riverwalk House, 157-161 Millbank, London SW1P 4RR; telephone 020 7217 3111.

Further information about the work of the London Research Centre can be obtained from the London Research Centre, 81 Black Prince Road, London SE1 7SZ; telephone 020 7787 5500 or fax 020 7787 5606 or Email 'michael.minors@london-research.gov.uk'.

For general enquiries about official statistics, please contact the General Enquiry line; telephone 020 7533 5888, Email 'info@ons.gov.uk'.

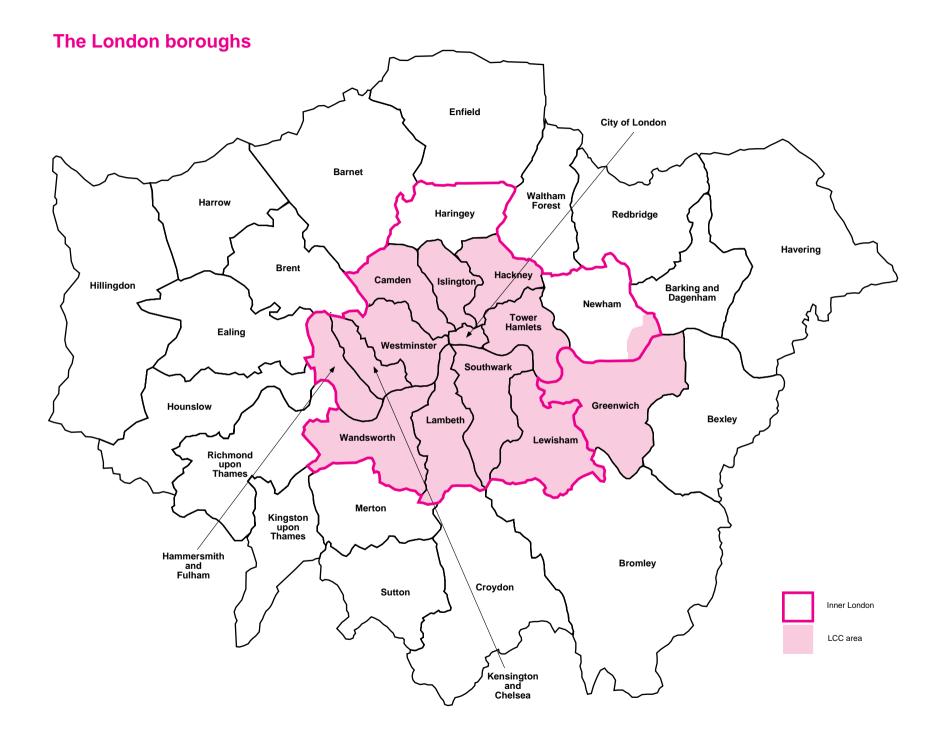
### **Boundaries**

For over 30 years London was included in the South East Standard Statistical Region (SSR) for statistical purposes. However, with the introduction of Government Offices for the Regions in 1994, including the Government Office for London, the primary classification for the presentation of regional statistics was changed from the SSRs to the Government Office Regions. This means that London became a statistical region in its own right. At the same time, the definition of the South East changed from the sub-region traditionally known as the Rest of the South East (ROSE) to align with the boundary of the Government Office for the South East — that is Berkshire, Buckinghamshire, East Sussex, Hampshire, Isle of Wight, Kent, Oxfordshire, Surrey and West Sussex. The counties of Essex, Hertfordshire and Bedfordshire became part of the new East of England region. However, the concept of ROSE has been retained for key analyses of transport where Essex, Hertfordshire and Bedfordshire are, and will remain, integral to the London picture. (A Gazetteer, available on request from the ONS, has been prepared to assist users adapt to the Government Office Regions and the new structure of local government in England, Wales and Scotland. London was not affected by this local government reorganisation.)

Unless otherwise indicated, London is defined as the 32 administrative areas of the former Greater London Council together with the Corporation of the City of London. The boroughs which comprise Inner and Outer London are listed at the beginning of the Notes and Definitions and a map showing their location can be found overleaf. This Inner/Outer split has been used consistently throughout the volume, with the exception of some specified tables in Chapters 7 and 11, which examine certain aspects of education and social services. Here, Inner London is defined as the area of the former Inner London Education Authority, and the boroughs contained within it are listed at the beginning of the Notes and Definitions for Chapter 7.

In addition, data in Chapter 5 are presented using the Nomenclature of Territorial Statistics area classification (NUTS). NUTS is a hierarchical classification of areas that provide a breakdown of the European Union's economic territory for producing regional statistics that are comparable across the Union. It has been used since 1988 in EU legislation for determining the distribution of the Structural Funds. A map showing the NUTS 3 boundaries for London is shown in Table A5.1 in the Appendix.

From time to time, there are minor boundary changes between the boroughs. Some detail of the effect of these boundary changes between 1991 and 1997 on the population of boroughs can be found in Chapter 2. A few of the maps contained within this publication show the borders in place at the time of the 1991 Census, but most have been created using the revised 1996 boundaries.



# 1 An overview of London

In May 2000 London will have an elected Mayor, an Assembly and a strategic authority. The new structures are being put in place to improve coordination and strategic development.

Internationally, London will once again be represented by one voice and one strategic authority. However, London government combines many regional, sub-regional and local elements and the existing 32 Boroughs and the City Corporation will continue their roles and responsibilities.

Focus on London 2000 is a graphical, explanatory and statistical digest of the affairs, problems and successes of London. It is also the last in the current series of publications arising from a joint venture between the Government Office for London, the Office for National Statistics and the London Research Centre. Since the beginning of this joint venture in 1997, Focus on London has proved valuable as the only comprehensive annual source of data and analysis about the Capital. Future information requirements will need to be met in new ways.

London has been described as a cluster of communities, great and small, famous and unsung; a city of contrasts, and extremes. The City can be seen as the powerhouse of London. Its share of the global foreign exchange market, at over 32 per cent, is nearly twice that of New York. The London Stock Exchange lists 497 foreign companies, more than any other exchange, with 20 per cent of Japanese and 50 per cent of Korean firms located there. But London is much more than the Square Mile alone. The size and diversity of London's economy as a whole helps to sustains its position as a pre-eminent world city. It is attractive to foreign investment, benefiting from good transport connections, and continuous regenerative adjustment.

Over 300 languages are spoken in the Capital and one in four Londoners belongs to an ethnic minority. This combination of economic vitality and cultural diversity gives London its dynamism.

However, not everyone shares in the affluence or sense of global status. London contains five of the ten most deprived local authorities in England based on the 1998 *Index of Local Deprivation*. In addition to gaining Government regeneration funds, some of London's areas have been recognised as suffering from social exclusion and deprivation by the European Commission, and have received its Objective 2 and Assisted Area funds. Regeneration clearly needs to target former industrial areas, deprived communities and transport, to enable the most needy people to gain access to employment and social facilities.

There is now a strong commitment to the regeneration of brown field land, concentrating the work of public and private sector partnerships on priority areas - such as the Thames Gateway Corridor in East London, the Lea Valley in northeast London, the Cray Valley in south-east

London, the Wandle Valley in south-west London, the City Fringe, London South Central (focusing on North Lambeth and northern Southwark) and the West London Corridors.

Whilst London's history spans more than 2000 years, the most remarkable changes have taken place in the last 100 years. Increased numbers of roads and railways have been constructed to move people and goods in and out of the centre, attracting industry and housing, and spreading London's influence beyond the City boundaries.

Since the 1960s, major economic restructuring has triggered urban regeneration and the adjustment of urban and social functions. Whilst manufacturing industry has declined dramatically, the service sector and particularly the financial services sector has expanded, renewing London's strategic role in Europe and the rest of the world.

Focus on London 2000 presents a snapshot of this great city as it moves into the twenty first century, under new government.

## 2 Population

- Following decades of decline up to 1983, London's population continues to grow again: in 1998 the total was approaching 7.2 million an average increase of 28 thousand in every year since 1983.
- Between 1991 and 1998 London's high birth and low death rate
   accounted for over a third of the total natural growth of the UK although
   the capital is home to less than an eighth of the total population.
- The population in London aged over the current retirement age is projected to fall during the next 20 years, in contrast to the same age group in the United Kingdom as a whole, which is projected to grow.
- Around a quarter of London's people belong to ethnic minority groups.
- 8 per cent of households in London are headed by a lone parent with dependent children – a higher proportion than in any other region.

This chapter starts by describing the trends in the population of London, then it looks at the components which 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, age and ethnic structure, and finally it looks at the household structure of London's residents.

### **General comparisons**

London is one of the largest cities in the developed world in terms of its built-up area, and is by a considerable margin the most populous city in the European Union, with over 7 million residents (Table 2.1 overleaf). It is also one of the European Union's most densely settled areas. Only Brussels and Paris are more densely populated: Paris, the area within the Périphérique, has a density of over 20 thousand residents per square kilometre, four and a half times more than London and equivalent to London's most densely populated ward, Colville in Kensington and Chelsea. The crude birth rate in London, at nearly 15 per thousand residents, is high compared with those for most cities on mainland Europe, while London's crude death rate, at just under 9 per thousand residents, is much more consistent with the average.

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

### Cities in Europe<sup>1,2</sup>, 1997

			Population		Crude birth		Crude death
	<b>5</b> 17		density	D: 4	rate	5 4	rate
	Population	Land area	(persons	Births	(per 1,000	Deaths	(per 1,000
	(thousands)	(sq km)	per sq km)	(thousands)	population)	(thousands)	population)
London <sup>3,4</sup>	7,187	1,578	4,554	105.3	14.7	62.1	8.6
Inner London <sup>3</sup>	2,761	321	8,613	43.7	15.8	21.8	7.9
Outer London <sup>3</sup>	4,427	1,258	3,519	61.6	13.9	40.3	9.1
Birmingham <sup>3</sup>	1,013	265	3,826	14.8	14.6	10.4	10.2
Glasgow <sup>3</sup>	620	175	3,541	7.4	11.5	8.4	13.5
Manchester <sup>3</sup>	430	116	3,690	5.8	13.6	4.9	11.5
Amsterdam <sup>6</sup>	1,132	897	1,262	14.4	12.7	10.3	9.1
Athens	3,449	3,808	906	36.5	10.6	32.9	9.5
Barcelona	4,609	7,733	598	43.0	9.3	41.6	9.0
Berlin <sup>5</sup>	3,442	891	3,864	30.4	8.8	36.4	10.6
Brussels	952	161	5,898	12.8	13.4	10.5	11.0
Lisbon	1,834	1,055	1,738	20.6	11.3	18.5	10.1
Madrid	5,022	7,995	628	48.1	9.6	37.3	7.4
Milan	3,733	1,983	1,883	33.2	8.9	33.3	8.9
Munich <sup>6</sup>	1,231	311	3,965	12.5	10.2	12.4	10.1
Paris	2,122	105	20,135	29.7	14.0	17.0	8.0
Rome	3,792	5,352	709	34.3	9.0	35.1	9.3
Stockholm	1,754	6,490	270	20.6	11.8	15.7	9.0
Vienna	1,600	415	3,856	15.5	9.7	18.5	11.5

<sup>1</sup> NUTS 3 area classification unless otherwise stated. See Notes and Definitions.

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

2.2

### Population trends and projections

								Th	ousands
	1961	1971	1981	1983	1991	1998	2001¹	2011¹	20211
Inner London	3,481	3,060	2,550	2,523	2,627	2,761	2,765	2,863	2,963
Outer London	4,496	4,470	4,255	4,242	4,263	4,427	4,450	4,607	4,773
London	7,977	7,529	6,806	6,765	6,890	7,187	7,215	7,470	7,736
United Kingdom	52,807	55,928	56,352	56,377	57,808	59,237	59,954	61,773	63,642

<sup>1 1996-</sup>based London and 1998-based United Kingdom projections. See Notes and Definitions.

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

Compared with other British cities, London has an average birth rate but a low death rate. In a later section in this chapter, London's fertility and mortality are compared with the national average taking account of the age structure of the population.

### Trends in total population

From a peak of 8.6 million residents at the time of the National Registration in 1939, the population of London fell for 44 years. The decline was particularly rapid during the 1960s and 1970s. The population reached a low point in 1983 of just 6.76 million, a size which had been originally achieved when London's population was rising rapidly in the Edwardian era, 80 years earlier. The most recent estimate

<sup>2</sup> NUTS areas are based on national administrative structures which differ greatly. Comparisons should be treated with caution.

<sup>3</sup> Figures relate to 1998.

<sup>4</sup> NUTS 1 area classification.

<sup>5</sup> NUTS 2 area classification.

<sup>6</sup> Figures relate to 1996.

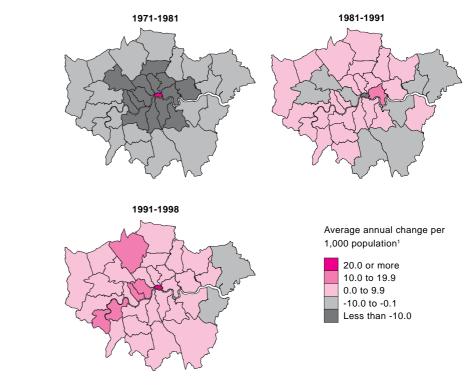
of London's population, for mid-1998, shows there to be 7.19 million residents, an annual average increase of about 28 thousand since 1983. The net change increased each year from 1991, reaching 67 thousand in the year to mid-1996, but fell back a little in the following year to 48 thousand before returning to 65 thousand in the year to mid-1998. This gave an average growth of 42 thousand a year over the period mid-1991 to mid-1998. Table 2.2 shows population trends since 1961, taking the picture forward through government projections to 2021, and Table A2.1 in the Appendix gives the 1998 population estimates at borough level.

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

In 1901, the area that is now termed Inner London had 4.9 million residents, with nearly 600 thousand in each of the present areas of the boroughs of Southwark and Tower Hamlets. Inner London's population peaked at just over 5 million in 1911 and in 1998 stood at 2.76 million, having reached a recent low point in 1983 of 2.52 million. The present population of Inner London is the same as in the 1850s, and accounts for 38 per cent of the population of London as a whole.

Outer London, in contrast, expanded much later than Inner London; in 1901 its population stood at only 1.6 million, with around 200 thousand people in each of the areas of Greenwich and Waltham Forest. The most rapid growth in Outer London took place in the 1920s and 1930s. In 1939 its population was 4.18 million and the Census recorded a peak of

### **Population change**



1 Geometric mean.
Source: Office for National Statistics

4.52 million in 1951. Population decline in Outer London was relatively slow and over the past few years has been reversed. The lowest recent population estimate was of 4.22 million in 1988, with the 1998 estimate being 4.43 million.

After decades of decline the four central London boroughs (City of London, Camden, Kensington and Chelsea, and City of Westminster) are once again showing increases in population, from a recent trough of 494 thousand in 1988 to 585 thousand in 1998.

The first borough to experience a population peak was the City, which recorded its highest population at the time of the first Census in 1801, when there were 129 thousand residents within the 'square mile'. The remaining Inner boroughs peaked between 1871 (City of Westminster) and 1931. The first Outer

19

### Mid-year estimate change analysis 1991-1998

								Thousands
					International			
					migration			
					including			
	Resident				asylum	Internal		Resident
	population				seekers	migration		population
	at start			Natural	and visitor	and other	Total	at end
Mid-year to mid-year	of period	Births	Deaths	change	switchers	changes1	change	of period
London								
1991-1996	6,889.9	523.7	-335.8	187.9	208.9	-212.5	184.3	7,074.3
1996-1997	7,074.3	106.4	-65.2	41.2	53.6	-46.9	47.9	7,122.2
1997-1998	7,122.2	105.3	-61.5	43.8	68.6	-47.3	65.1	7,187.3
1996-1998	7,074.3	211.7	-126.8	84.9	122.2	-94.1	113.0	7,187.3
United Kingdom								
1991-1996	57,813.8	3,781.1	-3,202.4	578.7	381.2	33.6	993.4	58,807.2
1996-1997	58,807.2	740.0	-638.1	101.9	96.6	8.2	206.7	59,014.0
1997-1998	59,014.0	718.3	-618.0	100.3	114.8	7.5	222.6	59,236.5
1996-1998	58,807.2	1,458.3	-1,256.2	202.1	211.4	15.7	429.3	59,236.5

<sup>1</sup> For London, includes migration within UK as well as changes in the numbers of boarding pupils, prisoners, armed forces, boundary changes, revisions to past data and reconciliation adjustments. For the UK net internal migration is zero and so these data are limited to the other changes. Other changes also includes the effect of the Northern Ireland revisions to data from years mid 1991 - mid 1997

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

borough to reach a peak was Greenwich in 1931. Waltham Forest followed in 1939, with the majority peaking in 1951. The exceptions are Bromley, Croydon and Havering which peaked in 1971, Bexley which has changed little over the last decade and Hillingdon which is still on a slowly rising trend. These examples point to a dispersal of the population towards the edges of the present area of London, though with major pockets of growth in Inner London at various times, most notably in Tower Hamlets in the 1980s.

The influence of the metropolis may also be seen outside its present boundaries with the patterns of the build up of populations in those parts of the South East and East of England regions that are traditionally known as the Outer Metropolitan Area (OMA) – broadly the 'Home Counties' – and beyond. But even these

areas are past their periods of major growth and the OMA has experienced population decline in some recent periods. The present high growth regions are all in the south and east of England: the East of England, the East Midlands, the South East and the South West.

### 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 boundary changes and changes in the numbers of resident armed forces. In recent years, population growth in the capital has been underpinned by a high level of natural change as can be seen in Table 2.4. The components of population change between 1996 and 1998 at borough level are given in Table A2.2 in the Appendix.

In the year to mid-1998 there were 105 thousand live births and 62 thousand deaths in London, a natural increase of 44 thousand people. London has a high crude birth rate compared with the United Kingdom (14.7 births per thousand residents in 1998 compared with 12.1) and a low crude death rate (8.7 deaths per thousand residents in 1998 compared with 10.6) (Table 2.5). The rate of natural change in London - an increase of 6.0 persons for every thousand residents in 1998 - is therefore high compared with that for the United Kingdom as a whole at only 1.5 persons per thousand. The result is that between mid-1991 and mid-1998 London accounted for 35 per cent of the total natural growth of the United Kingdom, in contrast to being home to 12 per cent of the total population.

### **Fertility**

The reason for London's comparatively high crude birth rate is, as will be discussed later in the chapter, the high proportion of women of child-bearing age relative to the United Kingdom as a whole, so it has a large number of births relative to its total population. One measure of overall fertility which takes account of the age structure of the female population is the total fertility rate (TFR). In 1998, this rate in London was 1.77 children per woman compared with 1.72 in the United Kingdom (Table 2.6).

Age-specific fertility rates, also shown in Table 2.6, reveal differences in the timing of child-bearing. Throughout the past 25 years or so, age-specific fertility rates for teenagers and women in their twenties have been lower in London than in the country as a whole (although there are signs that the rates for the 25 to 29 year age group are converging). In 1971, women in their thirties and forties living in the capital had similar fertility rates to those in the United Kingdom.

### Live births, deaths and natural change

Thousands and rates per 1,000 population

		London		United Kingdom			
	Live births	Deaths	Natural change	Live	Deaths	Natural change	
	Dirtiis	Deatris	Change	Dirtiis	Deatilis	Change	
Thousands							
1971	113.1	85.0	28.1	901.6	645.1	256.5	
1981	92.4	77.6	14.8	730.8	658.0	72.8	
1991	105.8	68.9	36.9	792.5	646.2	146.3	
1996	105.4	65.4	40.0	733.4	636.0	97.4	
1997	106.2	63.5	41.8	726.8	629.7	97.1	
1998	105.3	62.1	43.8	717.1	627.6	89.6	
Rate per 1,000 population							
1971	15.0	11.3	3.7	16.1	11.5	4.6	
1981	13.6	11.4	2.2	13.0	11.7	1.3	
1991	15.4	10.0	5.4	13.7	11.3	2.5	
1996	14.9	9.2	5.7	12.5	10.8	1.7	
1997	14.8	8.9	5.9	12.3	10.7	1.6	
1998	14.7	8.7	6.0	12.1	10.6	1.5	

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

2.6

### Age-specific fertility rates and total fertility rates

Live births per 1,000 women

	London					United	Kingdom	
	1971	1981	1991	1998	1971	1981	1991	1998
Age group								
Under 20 <sup>1</sup>	45	29	29	26	50	28	33	31
20-24	115	83	70	61	154	107	89	74
25-29	134	114	99	102	155	130	120	102
30-34	79	80	97	99	79	70	87	90
35-39	35	31	47	53	34	22	32	40
40 and over <sup>2</sup>	9	6	10	13	9	5	5	8
Total Fertility Rate <sup>3</sup>	2.09	1.71	1.74	1.77	2.41	1.81	1.82	1.72

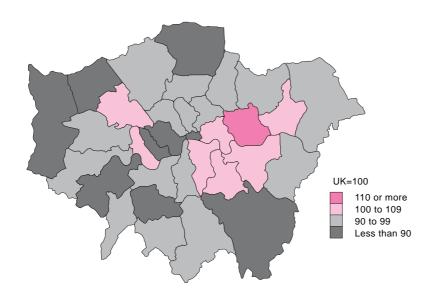
<sup>1</sup> Population base is women aged 15-19.

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

<sup>2</sup> Population base is women aged 40-44.

<sup>3</sup> UK rates for 1991 and 1998 are based upon single years of age; all other rates are based upon five-year age groups.

### Standardised mortality ratios, 1998



Source: Office for National Statistics

There are, of course, large variations within London. Borough level fertility statistics are shown in Table A2.3 in the Appendix. While TFRs in central boroughs, notably Westminster (1.09 in 1998), are some of the lowest in the country, the levels in Tower Hamlets (2.30), Hackney (2.38) and Newham (2.69) are amongst the highest.

### **Mortality**

The young age structure of the population also contributes to London's low crude death rate. Taking the age structure into account, overall mortality in London is 6 per cent lower than that for the United Kingdom, as measured by the 1998 standardised mortality ratio (SMR) of 94.

However there are slight gender differences in the comparison with the UK average as indicated in Table 8.11 in Chapter 8: mortality rates from all causes in 1998 were 3 per cent lower in London for males, and 6 per cent lower for females. Borough level SMRs are shown in Table A2.3 in the Appendix and Map 2.7. In general, Outer London boroughs tend to have SMRs below 100 and Inner

London boroughs above 100. The major exceptions to this pattern are the low values (80) recorded in the City of Westminster and Kensington and Chelsea, and the high level (105) in Barking and Dagenham. The highest SMR is found in Newham (111), but this value is lower than that for several districts in other parts of the country. Although these values are based upon mortality and population statistics for one year only – 1998 – the patterns shown are consistent with the situation as recorded in most years since the London boroughs were established in 1965.

### Migration and other changes

In spite of the high levels of natural change in recent years, the main reason for the turnaround in the 1980s from population decline to increase was the levels of estimated net migration. Throughout the 1960s and 1970s, and into the early 1980s, London was losing as many as 100 thousand residents annually through the balance of migration. Since 1984 the net migration losses have been consistently less than the natural growth, and in some years, including all years from 1994 to 1998, the balance of migration and other changes has once again been positive.

The present levels of net migration affecting London are the sum of separate estimates of movements within the United Kingdom and migration to and from overseas. Throughout the 1980s the average annual net migration (and other changes) loss was about 16 thousand (Table 2.8); this has reduced consistently through the 1990s and since 1994 annual increases have been the case. During that period London's annual net migration loss to the rest of the United Kingdom, as measured by the National Health Service Central Registers (see Notes and Definitions), has fluctuated around 50 thousand persons; in 1997-98 it was 52 thousand (Table A2.4 in the Appendix). However, these losses disguise a

### The standardised mortality ratio (SMR)

compares overall mortality in an area with that for the United Kingdom. The ratio expresses the number of deaths in an area as a percentage of the hypothetical number that would have occurred if the area's population had experienced the sex/age-specific rates of the United Kingdom in that year.

consistently large net inflow of young adults, that is those aged between 16 and 24, (21 thousand in 1997-98) amongst net losses for all other age groups (Table 2.9).

As Table A2.4 also shows, London has received an annual net inflow from a majority of regions of the United Kingdom since 1994. but the few exceptions were critical to the overall balance as the total net loss to the South East and the East of England regions together was of the same order as the total net loss to all parts of the United Kingdom. Apart from Northern Ireland, the other regions which consistently show a net gain from London are the other fast growing parts of England: the South West and, in most years, the East Midlands. A regular feature of the migration patterns within the United Kingdom is that around 60 to 65 per cent of those leaving London only make the short journey to live in the South East or East of England regions.

London tends to have annual net inflows from overseas, as indicated by the International Passenger Survey (IPS) (see Notes and Definitions). In 1997-98 this flow was estimated to have been 40 thousand people, and more than 100 thousand over the last three years. The figures increased substantially in 1995-96 due both to increased in-migration, principally in the 25 to 44 age group, and to decreased outflow in the same age group. However, there is another important element to international migration: in recent years the numbers of people given UK residence either as a result of seeking asylum or entering the country as visitors and subsequently requesting residence, has been an increasingly significant part of the total change in London's population. These people are not covered by the IPS estimates of migrants because the IPS measures intentions. Their numbers amounted to around 212 thousand between mid-1991 and mid-1998, and they are included in the estimates of population change. In the year to

### Net migration and other changes

Thousands

		Total			Annual average		
	1981-91	1991-96	1996-98	1981-91	1991-96	1996-98	
Inner London	-35.0	-10.3	9.7	-3.5	-2.1	4.8	
Outer London	-122.6	6.7	18.4	-12.3	1.3	9.2	
London	-157.6	-3.6	28.1	-15.8	-0.7	14.0	

Source: Office for National Statistics

mid-1998 alone, 34 thousand such individuals became resident in London as their first destination in the United Kingdom. As shown in Table 2.4, 56 per cent of the net international migration into the United Kingdom over the last seven years has been estimated to have come to London, with the international inflow more than balancing the internal outflow and other changes.

Since 1991 all London boroughs have had some boundary changes. Many have been trivial and affected the transfer of only tens of households and people; however, a few have been radical and brought about large net population transfers between the boroughs and Internal migration: the estimates for internal population movements are counts of the transfers of NHS doctor's patients between Health Authorities in England and Wales and Area Health Boards in Scotland and Northern Ireland.

International migration: a migrant to the United Kingdom is defined as a person who has resided abroad for a year or more and states the intention to stay in the United Kingdom for a year or more, and vice versa for a migrant from the United Kingdom.

Further details can be found in the Notes and Definitions.

**2.9** 

### Migration to and from London: by age, 1997-981

Thousands

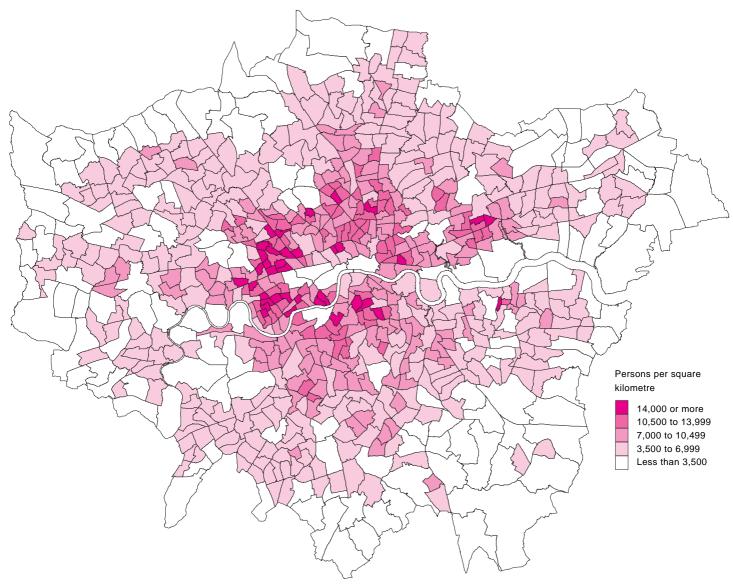
		Within the UK			International <sup>2</sup>		
	То	From	Net	То	From	Net	
0-15	15.6	37.4	-21.8	8.1	4.0	4.0	
16-24	66.6	45.4	21.2	53.8	23.1	30.7	
25-44	71.7	95.1	-23.4	47.0	40.4	6.6	
45-64	10.9	27.8	-17.0	4.0	4.7	-0.7	
65+	4.9	15.6	-10.7	0.2	0.6	-0.3	
All ages	169.5	221.3	-51.8	113.1	72.7	40.3	

<sup>1</sup> Miid-1997 to mid-1998.

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

<sup>2</sup> Excludes asylum seekers/visitor switchers and movements to and from the Irish Republic.

### Population density: by ward, 1991



Source: 1991 Census, Office for National Statistics

also with some surrounding county districts.

Barking and Dagenham has had the greatest net gain in population from boundary alterations, mostly from its neighbour Redbridge which has had the greatest overall loss. When the effect of boundary changes is removed only the City of London, Barking and Dagenham, Bexley, Havering, and Wandsworth have had underlying declines in population since 1991. Three out of these five boroughs are in Outer London and have received relatively few asylum seekers and other visitor switchers.

### **Population density**

As stated earlier, London is one of the most densely populated parts of the European Union. In 1998 the overall density was 4,554 persons per square kilometre (Table 2.1 earlier in this chapter shows), but there were considerable differences between the boroughs. The highest levels were in Kensington and Chelsea with 14,200 persons per square kilometre, and Islington with 12,000. Except for the City of London, which had the lowest borough density at 1,900 persons, all other Inner boroughs had densities in excess of 6,300 persons, while the

### Population: by age

Percentages and thousands

		London				United Kingdom						
	1971	1981	1991	1998	2011¹	20211	1971	1981	1991	1998	2011²	2021 <sup>2</sup>
0-4	7.3	5.8	7.0	7.0	6.4	6.4	8.1	6.1	6.7	6.2	5.6	5.6
5-10			7.2	7.9	7.3	7.0	10.0	8.1	7.6	7.9	6.8	6.7
11-15			5.2	5.7	6.0	5.5	7.4	8.0	6.0	6.3	5.9	5.5
16-19			4.6	4.8	5.0	4.6	5.5	6.7	5.3	5.0	5.0	4.5
20-24	8.7	8.8	9.1	7.4	7.6	7.2	7.7	7.6	7.8	5.9	6.7	5.9
25-44	24.9	27.5	33.2	33.9	30.4	29.7	24.1	26.2	29.4	29.9	26.6	25.4
45-59/64 <sup>3</sup>	22.3	19.5	17.2	18.2	23.0	23.5	20.9	19.4	18.8	20.6	23.7	24.0
60/65-744	11.8	12.1	9.8	8.7	9.0	10.5	11.6	12.0	11.4	10.8	12.0	13.6
75-84	3.9	4.9	5.1	4.4	3.8	4.1	3.9	4.7	5.4	5.4	5.5	6.3
85 or over	1.0	1.2	1.5	1.7	1.5	1.5	0.9	1.1	1.5	1.9	2.2	2.5
Pensionable age <sup>5</sup>	16.7	18.2	16.3	14.9		13.2	16.3	17.8	18.3	18.1	19.3	19.2
All ages (=100%)												
(thousands)	7,529	6,806	6,890	7,187	7,470	7,736	55,928	56,352	57,808	59,237	61,773	63,642

- 1 1996-based sub-national projections.
- 2 1998 based national projections.
- 3 Age band covers from 45 for both genders to current state retirement age: 64 for men and 59 for women.
- 4 Age band covers from current state retirement age: 65 for men and 60 for women, to 74 for both genders.
- 5 The pensionable age population covers those over the state retirement age. The 2021 figure takes account of planned changes in state retirement age from 65 for men and 60 for women at present to 65 for both genders. This change will be phased in between 2010 and 2020, as a result the London figure for 2011 is unavailable.

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

most dense Outer boroughs were Brent and Waltham Forest at 5,700 and 5,600 respectively. Seven boroughs – Kensington and Chelsea, Islington, the City of Westminster, Hackney, Lambeth, Hammersmith and Fulham and Tower Hamlets – have densities in excess of twice the London average, with Camden only marginally below that figure.

Brent, Ealing, Merton and Barking and Dagenham all have densities in excess of the London average, and while they are Outer boroughs, none of them shares borders with the surrounding counties. 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 amongst all boroughs.

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

These differences can be better visualised by the densities at ward level in 1991 (Map 2.10) which show clearly the centres of 19th Century settlement in Outer London and, in some cases, their radial linkages to the centre of the City by the railway network. Obvious exceptions to the general pattern of density, such as the sparsity of Heathrow airport and the major parks and open spaces, and the

### Population<sup>1</sup>: by ethnic group, 1998-99<sup>2</sup>

Percentages	and	thousands
-------------	-----	-----------

			•	
	Inner	Outer		Great
	London	London	London	Britain
Ethnic group				
Black Caribbean	5.8	2.9	4.0	0.8
Black African	7.2	2.5	4.3	0.7
Black Other	3.4	1.6	2.3	0.5
Indian	2.3	7.4	5.4	1.6
Pakistani	1.0	2.0	1.6	1.1
Bangladeshi	4.0	0.7	2.0	0.5
Chinese	0.9	0.5	0.7	0.3
Other Asian	1.5	2.0	1.8	0.3
Other	3.8	2.4	3.0	0.7
All ethnic minority groups	29.9	22.0	25.1	6.6
White	70.1	78.0	74.9	93.4
All persons (=100%) (thousands)	2,696	4,309	7,005	56,857

<sup>1</sup> The population includes residents in private households, students in halls of residence and those in NHS accommodation.

2 Four quarter average: Autumn 1998 to Summer 1999.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

newer residential developments of Thamesmead and the Docklands within the generally sparsely populated industrial and marshland areas along the Thames, are clearly visible.

### **Population structure**

As with most parts of the United Kingdom, London has a higher proportion of females among its resident population than males, at 50.6 per cent (Table A2.1 in the Appendix). However, while both in the United Kingdom as a whole and in London, women outnumber men in all five-year age groups above age 45, in London there is near parity between males and females aged 20 to 29 (50.1 per cent males) compared with the strong male dominance at these ages in the United Kingdom (51.2 per cent).

London is also different from the United Kingdom with regard to its age structure, the population tending to be younger, on average, than in the country as a whole (Table 2.11 on the previous page). In 1998 London had proportionately more children under 5 and

adults aged between 20 and 44 than the United Kingdom, but considerably fewer persons aged between 5 and 15, or 45 or over. Of particular importance is the 41 per cent of London's residents who were in the age band 20 to 44 compared with only 36 per cent of the UK population: apart from the high economic activity rates in this age band, females aged between 20 and 44 also account for nearly all of the births. This excess of young adults, in particular the proportionately high population of women in their twenties, helps to explain London's high crude birth rate compared with the UK average. Likewise, London's relative dearth of residents over state retirement age (15 per cent compared with 18 per cent) puts into context London's low crude death rate.

The main reasons for these differences from the national norms are to be found in the analysis of London's migration patterns. London, particularly the central area, is a great attractor of young people and there is a tendency for young women to 'leave home' at an earlier age than young men and to do so in greater numbers. Some of this migration is associated with opportunities for further education, but most will be to move to employment. As most of the opportunities for education and work, let alone night life, are in central parts of the city, the result is a mass movement of young adults to areas with good access to the centre giving rise to the somewhat unbalanced age structure.

As the young population ages and enters different stages in the life cycle – especially raising a family – there is a need for different kinds of accommodation which is generally better catered for either in Outer London or beyond London completely. This demand for living space creates high levels of net outflow of persons in their thirties and forties. However, women are slightly less likely to leave London at these ages, leading to the female majority in the population from age 45. There are better

career opportunities for women in London than in other parts of the country and this is an attraction for unmarried women to remain living there. London also experiences large annual net outflows of people at and above retirement age, leading to their relatively low numbers in the population.

These variations from the national age/gender structure are an enduring feature of London's population, being maintained as a result of the relative balance of the large flows of people who move both to and away from the city each year. The 1996-based projections to 2021 tend to maintain the present differences, showing there to be relatively more young adults in London throughout ages 20 to 44, and an even wider difference in the proportions over retirement age. In London the population over retirement age (on the current definition - see Box) is projected to form a smaller portion (16.1 per cent) in 2021 than in 1991, while across the United Kingdom the proportion is projected to grow to 22.3 per cent.

### **Ethnic origin**

In 1998-99 the Labour Force Survey (LFS) showed that 1.8 million people belonging to an ethnic minority group lived in London. This accounted for 25 per cent of the city's total population (Table 2.12). London was home to nearly half (47 per cent) of Great Britain's ethnic minority population, whilst only 12 per cent of the total population of Great Britain live in the capital. The ethnic group categories used in the LFS are based on those from the 1991 Census and therefore some ethnic minority populations, for example Cypriots and Turks, will have been included within the White group. In London in 1991, the Census showed that 10 per cent of London's population were White people who were born outside the UK, including around 5 per cent born in Ireland and another 5 per cent born in Cyprus, Turkey, the Middle East and other countries.

### International migration flows to and from London

Thousands

	Asylum Seekers and	All international migrants <sup>1</sup>			
	Visitor Switchers Assigned to London	Inflow	Outflow	Net	
1991-92	32.9	66.9	75.0	-8.1	
1992-93	29.2	64.3	58.5	5.8	
1993-94	22.2	83.1	61.6	21.5	
1994-95	28.8	79.0	67.1	12.0	
1995-96	36.3	91.6	58.4	33.1	
1996-97	29.1	90.7	66.2	24.5	
1997-98	34.0	115.0	80.4	34.6	
1991-98	212.5	590.6	467.2	123.4	

1 Excludes asylum seekers and visitor switchers.

Source: Office for National Statistics

Of the total ethnic minority population in 1998-99 in London, 42 per cent were Black and 36 per cent were of South Asian origin. A further 22 per cent were of mixed ethnic origin or from other ethnic minority groups. Indians are the largest ethnic minority group recorded in London by the LFS, followed by Black Africans and Black Caribbeans. The data also show differences between Inner and Outer London. Black people and Bangladeshis are more likely to live in Inner London, whereas Indians are more likely to live in Outer London.

Changes within the ethnic minority population in each borough in London are given by the Local Area Database of the Labour Force Survey. The boroughs with the largest ethnic minority proportion are Newham and Brent, where the majority (58 per cent) of the population were from an ethnic minority group in 1998-99. Just under half of the population of Tower Hamlets (46 per cent) were from ethnic minority groups. There are several boroughs in London with ethnic minority populations of less than 10 per cent. The boroughs with the smaller ethnic minority populations tend to be the outer London boroughs to the south and east, such as Bromley, Richmond upon Thames, Kingston upon Thames, Sutton, Bexley and Havering.

Retirement age: the age at which men and women receive state pension is to be equalised to 65 in phases over ten years, starting in April 2010. Women born before 6 April 1950 will be unaffected, while the pensionable age for those born between 6 April 1950 and 5 March 1955 will gradually increase. All women born on or after 6 March 1955 will not become eligible to receive state retirement pension until they reach the age of 65.

### Households, 1998

			Househol	d type (perc	entages)		All house- holds
	Average household	Married	Co- habiting	Lone-	One-	Other multi-	(=100%) (thou-
	size	couple	couple	parent <sup>1</sup>	person	person	sands)
Inner London	2.18	27	10	10	39	14	1,239
Outer London	2.40	45	9	6	30	10	1,822
London	2.32	38	9	8	34	12	3,061

<sup>1</sup> Lone parents with dependent children.

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

### Asylum seekers and international migrants

Between mid-1991 and mid-1998 it is estimated that 212,500 asylum seekers and visitor switchers became residents of London (Table 2.13 on the previous page), an average of just over 30 thousand per year. Asylum seekers include all those applying for asylum, whilst visitor switchers are people who have entered the country with a short-term visa, such as a tourist, and have then had a more permanent status granted, such as a student or spouse, allowing them to remain in the UK for a year or more.

The out-migration of persons who had sought asylum in the UK is included in the overall outflow of migrants from London measured by the International Passenger Survey (IPS). The IPS samples both international inflows and outflows. The estimated total in, out and net flows since mid-1991 are recorded in Table 2.13. The table shows the considerable rise in the inflows coupled with more stable outflows. This has led to a small net loss in 1991-92 changing to gains of over 24 thousand in each year since mid-1995.

Detailed IPS results for 1998 show that 33 per cent of migrants into the UK were British. Of those who were not British, 31 per cent were European Union citizens, 26 per cent were Old Commonwealth citizens, 16 per cent were New Commonwealth citizens and 27 per cent were other foreign nationals.

### Household structure

The 1998 estimates of households for London (consistent with the 1996-based household projections) are given in Table 2.14 and for each of the boroughs in Table A2.5 in the Appendix. London's young age structure is a major contributory factor in the distribution of households by type and by size. London has one of the lowest average household sizes in the country at 2.32 in 1998; no region and, of counties only Devon, Dorset, East and West Sussex and Norfolk - had a lower average size. In 1998, 13 boroughs, 12 Inner London boroughs plus Richmond upon Thames, had an average household size below 2.30, the lowest being the City of London at 1.75 and Kensington and Chelsea at 1.94. 'One person living alone' make up one third of households in London overall, nearly one half of households in Kensington and Chelsea and Westminster, and over half in the City of London. The proportion of one-person households in London is 5 percentage points higher than in England as a whole and higher than in any other English region. The dominant household type, however, remains the married couple (38 per cent in 1998) and, although declining, it still accounts for almost half the households in Outer London, and at least 50 per cent in three boroughs.

The proportion of lone-parent households with dependent children varies significantly between the boroughs, ranging from less than 5 per cent in the City of London, Kingston upon Thames, Redbridge and Richmond upon Thames to 14 per cent in Lambeth. Overall 8 per cent of households in London are headed by a lone parent with dependent children, a higher proportion than in any other region.

Households: a household is defined as a person living alone or a group of people who have the address as their only or main residence and who either share one meal a day or share the living accommodation.

### 3 The environment

- There were about 13 thousand hectares of land in agricultural holdings in London in June 1998, almost half of which was arable land.
- London has over 19 thousand entries in the list of buildings of architectural or historic interest: 600 of these are Grade I and 1,300
   Grade II\*.
- Each household in London produces around one tonne of waste in a year.
- Over 40 per cent of London's rivers and canals are rated as 'fairly good' or better.
- In 1998, London had its wettest year since 1960, but this included the driest February since 1959.

This chapter describes land use in London including the distribution of protected land in the Green Belt and areas of Open Land, and the important legacy of the capital's historic buildings and areas. It continues with a description of the waste collection and disposal services in London, followed by a discussion of air and river quality, and noise pollution. The chapter closes with a brief look at the weather in 1998.

### The use of land and buildings

The Institute of Terrestrial Ecology's Land Cover Map, based on images from the Landsat satellite, provides information on 25 types of land cover for the whole of Great Britain. It shows that although London is predominantly an urban area, it is not entirely built-up: over a third of its total land area is semi-natural or mown grass, tilled land and deciduous

Land cover specifically refers to the make up of the land surface, eg trees, grass, buildings. The land cover map for Great Britain was produced using high resolution images from the Landsat satellite, between 1988 and 1991. Comparisons were made between images recorded in both summer and winter. The appearance of urban areas and bare land remained consistent between the seasons, whereas arable areas alternated between bare ground and full cover.

### Land cover<sup>1</sup>, 1988-1991

London	Thousand hectares and percentages				
		Thousands	Per-		
		of hectares <sup>2</sup>	centages		
Suburban		66	38		
Continuous url	ban	36	20		
Semi-natural grass		29	17		
Mown grass		13	8		
Tilled land		12	7		
Deciduous wo	odland	8	4		
Other vegetati	on	5	3		
Inland water		2	1		
Estuary		1	1		
Other land		3	2		
Total		174	100		

<sup>1</sup> Data taken from the Land Cover Map of Great Britain.

Source: Institute of Terrestrial Ecology, Monks Wood © NERC

woodland. Table 3.1 summarises the principal categories of land coverage in London, while Map 3.2 illustrates their extent. The analysis is based on the Ordnance Survey's 1 x 1 kilometre grid squares and includes grid squares which cross the London boundary.

The analysis of land cover derived from satellite images identifies non-urban areas but does not indicate whether these areas are used for agriculture. However, the Census of Agriculture indicates there were 13.3 thousand hectares of land in agricultural holdings in London in June 1998, of which 48 per cent was arable land, only slightly lower than the proportion in England as a whole (54 per cent). London had its share of set-aside land too: 4 per cent of its total land in agricultural holdings was set-aside compared with 3 per cent across the whole of England. This was a reduction of 2 percentage points over 1996 in both the capital and nationally.

Since the majority of land in London is already in some form of urban use, most changes in use involve replacing existing buildings with new ones, or putting old buildings to new uses. Map changes recorded by the Ordnance Survey in the period 1994 to 1999 show that 81 per cent of land changing to urban uses in 1994 had previously been in some form of urban use, and a further 5 per cent was urban land which had previously been vacant (Table 3.3). Some 14 per cent of land changing to urban uses was previously in agricultural or other rural uses. The proportions are similar for land used specifically for housing. These figures are broadly similar to those reported for 1991, 1992 and 1993 although the total amount of land changing to urban uses has been reducing.

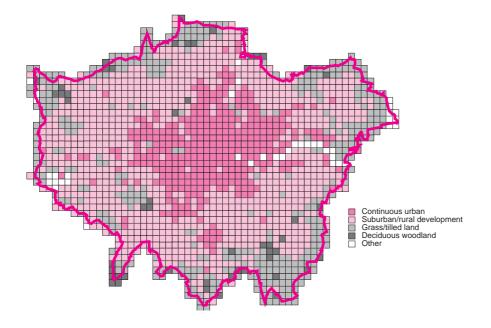
Some land has been so damaged by industrial or other development, that it is incapable of beneficial use without treatment. This includes disused tips, worked-out mineral excavations, and abandoned industrial installations. Some of this land may be contaminated as a result of leakage or because wastes were disposed of on site. The last survey of derelict land carried out by the then Department of the Environment showed that there were 1,625 hectares in London in 1993 (Table 3.4).

Significant changes in the use of land or buildings, and the construction of new buildings and other structures, require consent under the *Town and Country Planning Act 1990* and associated legislation. Applications are submitted to the relevant London Borough Council as the local planning authority.

Table 3.5 overleaf shows the number of planning applications received during 1998-99. Most decisions are made by the local authority and only a small proportion of applications are withdrawn, called in by the Secretary of State for the Environment, Transport and the Regions, or turned away. If consent is refused

3.2

### Land cover by kilometre square<sup>1</sup>, 1988-1991



<sup>1</sup> Plot and data taken from the Land Cover Map of Great Britain. The satellite classification may involve a degree of misallocation, and the results should be used with caution.

Source: Institute of Terrestrial Ecology, Monks Wood © NERC

<sup>2</sup> The satellite classification may also involve a degree of imprecision and misallocation and the results should be used with caution.

or the local planning authority fails to make a decision within eight weeks of receiving the application, the applicant may appeal to the Secretary of State. Applications received in both Inner and Outer London in 1998-99 fell back a little from the levels of 1997-98 following large increases in the previous two years. The table also shows the number of applications granted, granted on appeal and refused. Of those which were granted by the local planning authority, around 9 per cent related to commercial developments.

Table 3.6 overleaf shows the number and floor area of commercial and industrial buildings in London in 1994, and how these have changed since 1984. The most dramatic change is the reduction in the number of factories and their floor area. However, the 1994 figures for factories do not include some of the largest and most complex factories and so the drop in floor-space is likely to have been less dramatic than the table shows. Nevertheless, the decline in London's factories reflects the reduction in both manufacturing's contribution to gross domestic product, as discussed in Chapter 5, and the number of jobs in manufacturing, covered in Chapter 6.

The number of shops with associated living accommodation fell by 42 per cent between 1984 and 1994, whereas the number of shops and restaurants without any associated living accommodation, including banks, betting shops, showrooms and similar premises, rose by almost 6 per cent. Commercial offices, excluding central and local government offices, increased by 28 per cent in number and by nearly 17 per cent in floor area. The number of warehouses and workshops also increased, by 17 per cent, although the floor area fell by nearly 10 per cent. There are significant variations between different London boroughs and further information is given in Table A3.1 in the Appendix.

### Change in land use, 1994<sup>1,2</sup>

London			Hectares a	and percentages		
		Land changing to urban use		Land changing to residential use		
		Percentage		Percentage		
	Hectares <sup>3</sup>	of total	Hectares <sup>3</sup>	of total		
Previous use of land						
Agriculture	40	6	20	8		
Other rural uses	50	8	25	10		
Previously developed for						
urban uses	510	81	185	72		
Vacant urban land not						
previously developed	30	5	25	10		
Total	630	100	255	100		

<sup>1</sup> The information relates only to map changes recorded by the Ordnance Survey between 1994 and 1999 for which the year of change is judged to be 1994.

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

### **Protected land**

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

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

### Derelict land, 1993

Derelict
land
386
243
220
219
151
100
49
48
41
168
1,625

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

3.4

<sup>2</sup> See Notes and Definitions.

<sup>3</sup> Figures are rounded to the nearest 5 hectares.

### Planning applications, 1998-991

T	'nc	us	and

	Inner London	Outer London	London
Received <sup>2</sup>	34.2	39.3	73.5
Withdrawn <sup>3</sup>	5.3	2.3	7.6
Granted <sup>2</sup>	22.1	27.3	49.4
Granted on appeal <sup>4,5</sup>	0.2	0.4	0.5
Refused	3.5	6.3	9.9

- 1 Figures do not include estimates for the non-responding authorities.
- 2 Applications received in one year might not be decided in the same year; similarly some applications granted in one year might relate to applications received in the previous year.
- 3 The figures also include applications which were called in by the Secretary of State for the Environment, Transport and the Regions or turned away by the local authority.
- 4 The figures are the number of appeals allowed in 1998-99 under Section 78 (i) of the Town and Country Planning Act 1990. They may relate to applications which were refused in the preceding year.
- 5 These figures differ from those in other categories in the table in that they exclude certain types of applications eg applications for listed building consent and conservation area consent.

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

Map 3.7 gives a general indication of the extent of both adopted and proposed Green Belt and Metropolitan Open Land in London.

**Map 3.8** gives a general indication of the extent of environmental designations in London shown in borough Unitary

Development Plans. Information used to compile the map was provided by Land Use Consultancy, and is from *Conservation in London*, English Heritage and the London Planning Advisory Committee, 1995.

More detailed Information may be obtained from local planning authorities.

### 3.6

### Industrial and commercial buildings and floorspace

London			Thousands and	l million sq m
	Number of hereditaments (thousands)		Stock of floorspace (million sq m)	
	1984	1994	1984	1994
Factories and mills	16.8	4.7	20.9	6.7
Commercial offices	50.2	64.4	18.0	21.0
Shops and restaurants	80.4	85.1	11.9	13.5
Shops with accommodation	25.5	14.7	1.7	1.1
Warehouses and workshops	39.9	46.6	20.0	18.1
All building types	212.8	215.5	72.4	60.4

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

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

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

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

These areas of Metropolitan Open Land are also shown on Map 3.7, and some of them are also designated as conservation areas. As well as these protected areas, there are 59 Local Nature Reserves and 35 Sites of Special Scientific Interest (SSSIs) in London including Epping Forest and Hainault Forest. Although the latter is partly in Essex, it is managed by the London Borough of Redbridge.

### Historic buildings and areas

London is one of the most important historic cities in the world. This importance is embodied in individual buildings and in areas, many of which are subject to legal protection.

A statutory list of buildings of architectural or historic interest is drawn up by the Department for Culture, Media and Sport on advice from

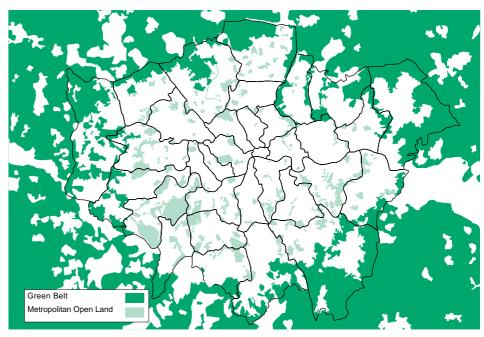
English Heritage. The objective is to preserve the special architectural or historic features and the setting of buildings and other structures on the list, which are generally referred to as 'listed buildings'. A summary of the numbers of list entries for 1999 in each London borough is shown in Table A3.2 in the Appendix. Some list entries include several buildings where they are grouped together, for example in a terrace. Altogether, there are over 19 thousand list entries for London, of which just over 3 per cent are Grade I and almost 7 per cent are Grade II\* (see Notes and Definitions). A fifth of the total are in Westminster alone.

World Heritage Sites are designated by the inter-governmental World Heritage Committee under the World Heritage Convention, which was ratified in Britain in 1984. The objective of the Convention is the identification, protection, conservation and preservation of cultural and natural sites of outstanding world value. However, designation as a World Heritage Site does not give any additional protection as such. There are three World Heritage Sites in London – The Palace of Westminster and Westminster Abbey, the Tower of London, and Maritime Greenwich.

Ancient Monuments are designated by the Department for Culture, Media and Sport under the *Ancient Monuments and Archaeological Areas Act 1979*. The objective is the protection of monuments which are of national importance by virtue of their historic, architectural, artistic or archaeological interest. There are 152 scheduled Ancient Monuments in London, a third of them within the City of London (see Table A3.2 in the Appendix).

Map 3.8 shows the areas of London which have been designated conservation areas (see Notes and Definitions). The objective of such a designation is the protection and enhancement

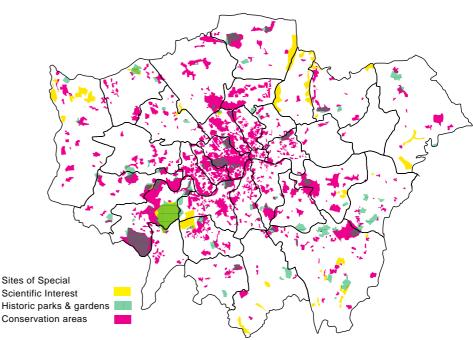
### London's Green Belt, 1995



Source: Strategic Guidance for London Planning Authorities, Government Office for London

3.8

### **Environmental designations, 1995**



Source: Strategic Guidance for London Planning Authorities, Government Office for London

### **London Waste Disposal Authorities, 2000**



Source: Explanatory Notes to the Greater London Authority Act, 1999

of the character and appearance of whole areas which are of special architectural or historic interest in a local context. There are some 800 conservation areas in London, 10 per cent of the total for England and Wales.

English Heritage maintains a Register of Parks and Gardens of Special Historic Interest but inclusion does not confer any additional protection. As Map 3.8 shows, many historic parks and gardens are included within conservation areas. Out of 1,200 entries on the Register in England, some 10 per cent are in London. They include Bushy Park, the gardens of Hampton Court, Greenwich Park and Finsbury Park as well as many smaller parks and gardens, particularly in central London.

### Waste generation and disposal

In 1998-99, each household in London produced around one tonne of waste. The 33 London local authorities, acting as waste collection authorities, collected over 3 million tonnes of municipal waste from households as well as educational establishments, hospitals

residential homes, and some commercial premises. Four statutory waste disposal authorities and 12 non-aligned authorities (Map 3.9), some of which are organised into voluntary disposal consortia, disposed of this waste. The Environment Agency controls the storage, transport and exchange and disposal of waste. Its regulatory duties include licensing and monitoring waste management facilities, and implementing the packaging waste regulations. The Agency is divided into seven regions with London falling within the Thames Region.

Provisional data from a national survey of 20 thousand companies, recently completed by the Environment Agency, indicated that industrial and commercial waste (excluding construction and demolition waste) accounted for around 7.9 million tonnes of additional waste in London each year. There was also an estimated 14.2 million tonnes of construction and demolition waste produced in 1999, as shown in Table 3.10. However, a large proportion of this was recycled and only an estimated 3.9 million tonnes of construction and demolition waste was sent for disposal.

Although municipal waste makes up only about 12 per cent of the total waste produced in London each year, it is highly visible and as it is collected by the London boroughs, it is potentially easier to influence its production or recovery. Despite this, according to data collected for the Capital Challenge Programme, municipal waste has increased at an annual rate of around 3 per cent in recent years. The programme is part of a series of projects which aims to move London towards more sustainable waste management. It is steered by a cross sector partnership, London Waste Action, whose current programme of activities also includes the development of a waste reduction programme, stakeholder dialogue, a new markets programme (London Remade) and increasing waste awareness.

Numbers

The Capital Challenge programme shows that an increasing amount of municipal waste produced in London is being recovered, where recovery includes the recycling, composting or production of energy from waste. Table 3.10 indicates a rate of 11.5 per cent for the diversion of waste from disposal through recycling or composting in London in 1998-99. A further 17.3 per cent was incinerated. More detailed information on the amount of municipal waste collected in London, by individual London borough, including the tonnage recycled, composted, sent for incineration and land-filled, is given in Table A3.3 in the Appendix.

There is capacity within London for the equivalent of over 30 per cent of London's municipal waste to be disposed of through energy-from-waste (EfW) at London's two EfW plants. The South East London Combined Heat and Power plant (SELCHP) in Lewisham processed approximately 420 thousand tonnes of mostly municipal refuse in 1998-99 from Greenwich, Lewisham, Westminster and Bexley and exported around 30 megawatts of electricity. The London Waste plant, at Edmonton in Enfield processes over 500 thousand tonnes of waste per year, of which about 450 thousand tonnes is municipal waste, mostly from the seven London boroughs which make up the North London Waste Authority group. The remainder is commercial waste. The power plant exports 32 megawatts of electricity. Ferrous metal recycling is well established at EfW facilities but further developments include non ferrous metal recycling and the recycling of bottom ash into building materials for use in the construction industry.

Waste not reused, recycled, composted or converted into electricity through incineration, is disposed of by controlled landfill. Nationally, around 85 percent of municipal waste is

disposed of by landfill whereas in London in 1998-99, only 71 per cent of municipal waste was dealt with in this way. However, around 90 per cent of this landfill material from London was deposited in sites outside the capital.

One of the London Mayor's eight strategies will cover municipal waste management. This must contain:

 the Mayor's policies and proposals for the recovery, treatment and disposal of municipal waste which originates in Greater London,

and in preparing the strategy, the Mayor must have regard to:

- the waste recycling plans prepared by the waste collection authorities;
- the national waste strategy; and
- guidance from the Secretary of State on implementation of the national waste strategy or relating to the content of the municipal waste management strategy.

It will be the duty of the Mayor to consider waste contracts and draft recycling plans from London authorities to ensure regard is paid to the national waste strategy and subsequently to the London municipal waste management strategy when it is published. It will be the duty of waste collection and disposal authorities to provide these to the Mayor for consideration. The Mayor will be able to give a waste collection or disposal authority in Greater London a direction requiring the authority to exercise a function in a manner specified, where the Mayor considers that it is necessary for the purposes of implementation of the strategy.

### **Waste Management**

London

	Waste (tonnes)
Municipal waste disposal	
(excluding sweepings), 1998-99	
Diverted through Recycling	
or Composting	347,148
Incinerated	520,980
Landfilled	2,139,370
Total municipal waste	3,007,498

### Commercial and industrial waste, 1998-99<sup>4</sup> Commercial<sup>2</sup> 4,000,0

Commercial <sup>2</sup>	4,000,000
Industrial <sup>2</sup>	3,900,000
Total Commercial and	
Industrial Waste	7,900,000

### Construction and demolition waste, 1999

Disposal	3,900,000
Total Construction and	
<b>Demolition Waste</b>	14,200,000

Total waste

1 Provisional figures

Recycled

Source: Capital Challenge, London Waste Action; The Environment Agency; Managing London's Wastes, London Waste Action

3.11

10.400.000

25.100.000

### Draft National targets for municipal waste recycling and recovery

England and Wales	ngland and Wales Percentages		entages
	2005	2010	2015
Recycling or composting of household waste	25	30	33
Recovery of municipal waste <sup>1</sup>	40	45	66

<sup>1</sup> Recovery includes the production of energy from waste as well as the reuse of materials and composting.

Source : Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

<sup>2</sup> The margin of error on the commercial figure is 0.5 million tonnes and for the industrial figure 0.4 million tonnes

### Estimated composition of waste collected by refuse collection vehicles, 1997-98

London	Percentages
	Percentage
	composition
Material	by weight
Paper and card	26.8
Of which newspapers and	
magazines	18.2
Plastic film	1.1
Dense plastic	6.1
Textiles	2.5
Miscellaneous combustible	5.9
Miscellaneous non-combustible	7.3
Glass	8.1
Ferrous metal	4.6
Non ferrous metal	0.9
Organics	33.7
Of which green garden waste	11.2
Of which kitchen green waste	8.5
Fines	5.5

Source: Towards a Waste Reduction Plan for London, London Waste Action Recent developments in municipal waste management include the launch in December 1999, by the Environment Agency, of a Life Cycle Assessment software tool for waste management, called WISARD. This will assist local authorities in the assessment of the Best Practicable Environmental Option (BPEO), taking into account local circumstances.

Following a trial in the Anglia region in 1999, the National Waste Awareness Initiative coordinated by Waste Watch, is due to be launched Spring 2000. 1999 also saw the launch by Waste Watch of a report on 'Jobs from Waste – Employment Opportunities in Recycling' which highlighted the potential for job creation if the draft national recycling targets are met. The report also emphasized the lack of data in this field but it is hoped that it will stimulate further debate and discussion.

Two London authorities have been high-lighted for best practice in dealing with waste within the sustainable development section of the government's Beacon Council Programme. The London boroughs of Bexley and Hounslow will officially gain beacon status in March 2000 and will hold their titles until March 2001.

Strategic Waste Management Assessments (SWMA) are expected to be available in mid-2000 from the Environment Agency. SWMAs will contain information in a standard format on waste management across England and Wales. There is likely to be an SWMA for the London area which will contain a summary of information on waste quantities and management, and may include forecasts of future waste production. It is intended that SWMAs will provide information for local authorities and regional planning bodies in the production of waste management plans, and 'waste local plans' and in the determination of planning applications for waste facilities.

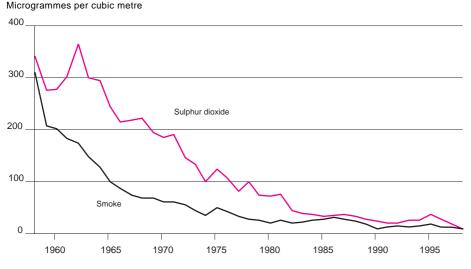
A draft waste strategy for England and Wales, A Way with Waste was produced by the Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions in June 1999 and the final strategy is due early in 2000. Draft national targets for municipal waste set out in the strategy are indicated in Table 3.11 on the previous page.

The Government's Best Value initiative in seeking to secure continuous improvement in local services has developed a performance management framework which will allow the assessment and improvement of services. It will also ensure that local people are better informed about the quality of local services they are getting. Combined with three retained Audit Commission Performance Indicators (ACPI's) there are to be twelve Best Value Performance Indicators (BVPI's), relating to waste services for 2000-01, covering strategic objectives, cost and efficiency, service delivery

### 3.13

### Annual average smoke and sulphur dioxide levels<sup>1</sup>

### **Central London**



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

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

outcomes, quality and fair access. Most of the targets are to be set locally by authorities, with regard to the National Waste Strategy.

However, the BVPI relating to the cost of waste collection per household requires the setting of local targets consistent with reaching, over five years, the performance of the top 25 per cent of authorities at the time the targets were set.

The materials of which waste in London is composed will affect the future options for the management of waste to meet the targets for recycling, composting and recovery. In particular, the European Union Landfill Directive has implications for the future disposal to landfill of biodegradable municipal waste. This affects not just the organic fraction of the waste but also other components such as paper and card, textiles, fines, and miscellaneous non-combustibles and combustibles. Table 3.12 contains estimates of the composition of London's waste collected by refuse collection vehicles.

#### Air quality

As far back as the 13th Century London had air pollution problems. These were linked to the lime industry production process, which required the burning of large quantities of coal. Between the 15th and 17th centuries, shortages in the supply of fuel wood, coupled with an increasing population, brought a further increase in the use of coal and its associated air pollution problems. By the 19th Century, London was frequently engulfed in thick fogs and in one week of December 1873, during an extreme fog, there were 700 more deaths than would normally have been expected at that time of year. In December 1952, London suffered from one of the worst smogs it had ever experienced, lasting for 4 days and leading to an estimated 3.5 to 4 thousand premature deaths.

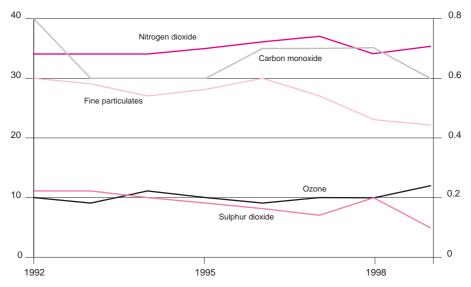
#### Annual average concentrations of selected pollutants

#### Bloomsbury

Microgrammes per cubic metre (left-hand scale - fine particulates)

Parts per billion (left-hand scale - nitrogen dioxide, ozone and sulphur dioxide)

Parts per million (right-hand scale - carbon monoxide)



Source: National Air Quality Information Archive, Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

During the latter part of the 20th Century, the occurrence of fogs declined, due to the marked decrease in the use of coal, as a fuel, and of heavy fuel oils, brought about by the creation of smokeless zones, which now cover more than 90 per cent of London. The combined effect has not only reduced smoke concentrations, but also lowered concentrations of sulphur dioxide as shown in Chart 3.13. However, one form of pollution has been replaced by another with the growth in motor vehicles, as shown in Chapter 10. Chart 3.14 shows trends in five pollutants at the central London monitoring site in Bloomsbury, over the eight years 1992 to 1999. Measurements taken at this site are intended to be representative of background air quality in central London. The measurements show a slight increase in nitrogen dioxide and ozone, a very slight fall in carbon monoxide, and a fall in both fine particulates (PM<sub>10</sub>) and sulphur dioxide.

# Estimated contribution of road traffic to total emissions, 1996

London	Percentages
	Percentage from
	road traffic
Pollutant	
Sulphur dioxide	23
Oxides of nitrogen	76
Carbon monoxide	97
Carbon dioxide	30
NMVOC1	62
Benzene	86
1,3-butadiene	97
PM <sub>10</sub> <sup>2</sup>	77

<sup>1</sup> Non-methane volatile organic compounds.

Source: London Research Centre

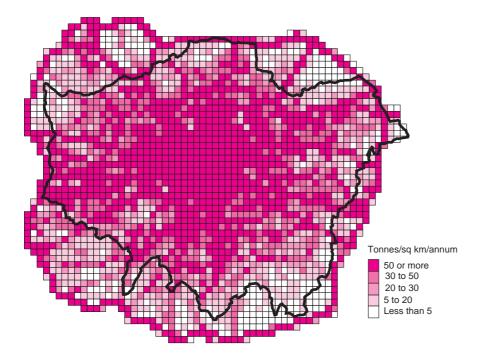
The car has had an increasingly important impact on London's air quality, responsible for a growing proportion of emissions of carbon monoxide, nitric oxide, fine particulates (PM<sub>10</sub>) and secondary pollutants such as nitrogen dioxide and ozone. Table 3.15 shows the contribution of road traffic to total emissions in London. The part played by road vehicles in exposing people to pollutants of concern to health, particularly PM<sub>10</sub>, is clearly shown. Map 3.16 illustrates the geographical spread of the nitrogen oxides emissions within the ring formed by the M25 motorway. The lines of many of the major roads can be traced. Urban traffic emissions have fallen during the last decade following the introduction of catalytic converters and other emission controls. Controls on vehicles will bring emissions down in the next decade, but without further controls emissions will increase with the growth in traffic.

Air traffic also affects London's air quality, both directly and indirectly. Aircraft landing and taking off at London's airports, including Heathrow and London City Airport, account for 3 per cent of London's nitrogen oxides emissions. Traffic associated with the airports adds further to this. Power stations outside the city on the Thames estuary are the main source of sulphur dioxide, which often descends on London when there are light easterly winds.

Information about the air pollutants measured at the 79 continuous automatic monitoring sites in London is given in Table A3.4 in the Appendix, including 25 which have been added over the past year. The latest measurements as well as historic data and statistical summaries are available from the Department of the Environment, Transport and the Region's (DETR) national Air Pollution Monitoring Networks at http://www.aeat.co.uk/netcen/ airqual/. Information from sites operated by the London boroughs is available from the South East Institute of Public Health at http:// www.seiph.umds.ac.uk/graph-asp/daily.asp/. Summaries are included in Air Quality in London by the South East Institute of Public Health. In addition to the automatic monitoring sites listed, lead is measured at two sites, toxic organic micro-pollutants (TOMPS) at two sites, smoke and sulphur dioxide at 12 sites and, in 1997, nitrogen dioxide was measured at 72 sites using diffusion tubes, all on behalf of DETR. Detailed information on emissions of pollutants to the atmosphere in London is available in the London Atmospheric Emissions Inventory published by the LRC.

# 3,16

# Estimated emissions of nitrogen oxides, 1996



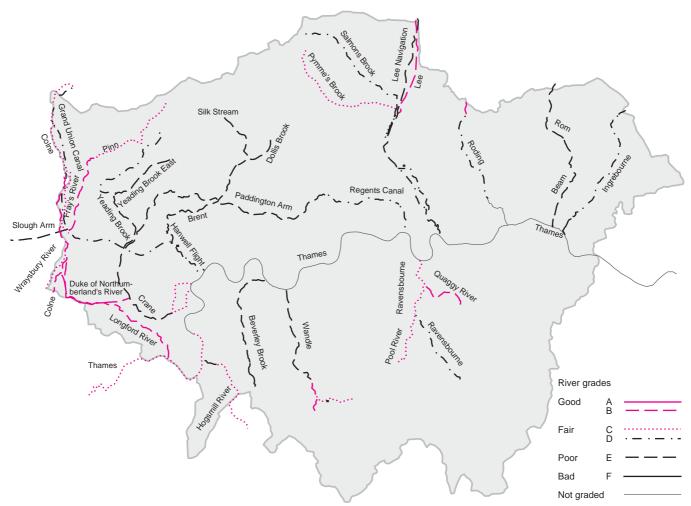
Source: London Research Centre

# River and canal water quality

The Environment Agency undertakes regular assessments of the water quality in rivers and canals throughout England and Wales. The results are available from the Agency's Water Quality Archive.

<sup>2</sup> Particulate matter less than 10 microns in diameter.

# River and canal water quality, 1996-1998

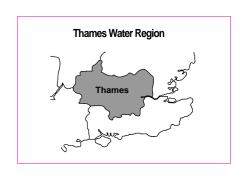


Source: Environment Agency

The General Quality Assessment Scheme defines six grades (denoted A to F) on the basis of the concentrations of biological oxygen demand (BOD), total ammonia and dissolved oxygen. Grades A and B represent water of 'good 'chemical quality, whilst grades C and D together equate to 'fair' quality, and grades E and F represent 'poor' and 'bad' quality respectively. Further information on the chemical grading system is given in a booklet summarising the 1995 quinquennial river quality survey *The Quality of Rivers and Canals in England and Wales 1995* published by the Environment Agency, and on the

Agency's web site at http://www.environmentagency.gov.uk:80/s-enviro/viewpoints/ 3compliance/2fwater-qual/3-2-1.html

Map 3.17 shows the grading of rivers and canals within Greater London for the period 1996 to 1998. Most of London's rivers and canals fall into the B to E range of grades. The Longford River in west London and the King's Weir to Tottenham Lock section of the River Lee in north London, the only sections of river graded A in the 1992-1994 Assessment were down-graded to B in the 1993-1995 Assessment. Indeed that stretch of the Lee



# Percentage of river length for each quality grade, 1996-1998

Percentages

	Englan						
		Thames and					
Grade	London	Region	Wales				
A - Very good	0.0	13.0	27.6				
B - Good	16.0	35.2	31.6				
C - Fairly good	24.6	21.8	20.2				
D - Fair	23.5	15.1	10.7				
E - Poor	35.0	14.6	9.3				
F - Bad	1.0	0.3	0.7				

Source: Environment Agency

was further downgraded to C in the 1995-1997 Assessment but has reverted to grade B in the latest Assessment. This also shows sections of the Ravensbourne, Brent, Grand Union Canal, Lee and Salmon Brook had deteriorated but sections of Crane, Lee Navigation, Pinn, Pymmes Brook and Wraysbury River had improved. Overall, the length of river and canal that had improved (60.5 kilometres) was significantly greater than the length that had deteriorated (24.3 kilometres). Nearly 41 per cent of London's rivers and canals are now in the top three grades, A to C, but this is still well below the peak of 58 per cent in the top three grades in 1992-94. The Riverside Sewage Treatment Works to Thames section of the River Ingrebourne (1.8 kilometres) continues to be the only stretch of river graded F or 'bad'.

Table 3.18 compares the percentage of rivers in each grade in England and Wales, in the Thames Region and in London. It can be seen from this that the percentage of river length in the upper three grades in London is

Numbers and percentages

2.1

7.2

significantly lower than in that in the Thames Region as a whole (70 per cent) or England and Wales (79 per cent).

As part of an overall water quality management strategy for the Thames estuary, the Environment Agency has established water quality objectives that include dissolved oxygen standards to allow the passage of migratory fish and to sustain the resident fish population. Water quality in the estuary is most vulnerable during the summer when the water temperature is elevated and incoming freshwater flows are low. During heavy summer storms the estuary receives a large pollution load from storm sewage discharges causing a deterioration in dissolved oxygen concentrations. The Environment Agency's water quality management strategy for the tidal Thames incorporates a formal operating agreement with Thames Water Utilities. This is necessary to ensure that the dissolved oxygen levels do not fall sufficiently low to endanger fish or other wildlife. Under the operating agreement, the Environment Agency can request improved effluent quality standards from the sewage treatment works during the summer and the suspension of abstraction for the drinking water supply in order to increase freshwater flows into the estuary. Thames Water Utilities also provides two oxygenation vessels, Thames Bubbler and Thames Vitality, which inject oxygen into the river water to counter the effects of storm sewage.

The estuary has been divided into three reaches for determining water quality objectives, - Teddington to Battersea, Battersea to Mucking, and Mucking to the Seaward Limit - each representing a different salinity regime and supporting different biological communities. In 1998 all three reaches achieved their dissolved oxygen standards. During the 3rd quarter of 1999 (July-September) the middle reach failed to

3.19

#### Water pollution incidents1: by source, 1998

	Major ir	ncidents	All inc	cidents	As percentage of all incidents in England and Wales		
	London	Thames region	London	Thames region	London	Thames region	
Type of pollution							
Organic wastes	0	0	25	69	1.2	3.4	
Fuels and oils	0	3	219	513	4.2	10.0	
Sewage	0	0	139	368	3.2	8.6	
Chemicals	0	4	36	73	2.6	5.3	
Other	0	5	9	420	0.1	5.8	

12

428

1,443

0

All types

<sup>1</sup> Substantiated incidents only.

Source: Environment Agency

achieve its dissolved oxygen standard, largely due to storm sewage discharges. Exceptionally wet weather, particularly in August and September meant that the Thames Water oxygenation vessels were deployed on 30 days in 1999.

Table 3.19 summarises the number of substantiated water pollution incidents occurring in London and the Environment Agency's wider Thames Region during 1998. Nationally, the number of reported and substantiated incidents in England increased between 1985 and 1995 but this is believed to be mainly attributable to increased rates of reporting by the public of minor incidents. These account for over 90 per cent of all substantiated incidents. The increased reporting rates may be associated with heightened public concern about pollution and encouragement of the public by the Environment Agency to report such incidents. During 1998, incidents in London involving fuels and oils and sewage formed substantially higher proportions of total incidents than in the Thames region as a whole. None of the 146 major incidents reported in England and Wales in 1998 was in London.

# Table 3.21 shows the number of complaints about noise received by London Borough Environmental Health Officers (EHOs) during 1997-98. Complaints about noise from domestic premises remain the most common source of enquiries to EHOs. They accounted for more than two thirds of all noise complaints in 1997-98. Local authorities received increased powers as a result of the Environmental Protection Act 1990, and the Noise and Statutory Nuisance Act 1993, but most disturbances resulting from domestic noise are dealt with informally.

#### Weather report 1998

1998 was wet but warm. Central London suffered 27.09 inches of rain, 29 per cent above average, making the year the wettest since 1960 (Chart 3.22 overleaf). On the other hand, sunshine was very close to normal with 1,518.2 hours or 99 per cent of average and the mean temperature for the year was 12.4°C, almost one degree above average (Chart 3.23 overleaf). Hail was recorded on only one day in the year this being only the second such day in three years. Snow or sleet was recorded only on two days, the smallest number for six years.

# Vehicle noise: prosecutions and convictions, 1997

London		Numbers
		City of
	Metropolitan	London
	Police District	Police
Prosecutions	708	26
Convictions	511	18
Written warnings	23	0
Fixed penalty notices	83	5

Source: Home Office

# Noise pollution

Table 3.20 gives the numbers of written warnings, fixed penalty notices, prosecutions, and resulting convictions, for noise offences relating to motor vehicles for the Metropolitan Police District and the City of London in 1997. Overall the figures of prosecutions and convictions showed a reduction compared with 1996. Written warnings and fixed penalty notices increased although the numbers are small. Prosecutions for vehicle noise have now fallen by more than 26 per cent since 1995 and convictions by a similar amount.

# Noise complaints received by Environmental Health Officers<sup>1</sup>, 1997-98

London		Rates and numbers
	Complaints	Boroughs
	received per	responding
	10,000 residents	(numbers)
Domestic	139.6	13
Industrial	11.1	13
Commercial/Leisure	31.2	13
Vehicles	7.1	13
Equipment in the street	4.6	13
Construction/demolition sites	12.2	13

<sup>1</sup> Noise source categories have been revised for 1997-98.

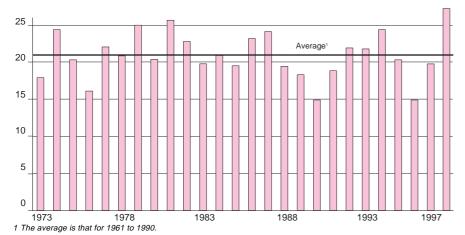
Source: Chartered Insititute of Environmental Health

3.21

#### **Annual rainfall**

#### London

Inches



Source: London Weather Centre, Meteorological Office

The first week of the year was wet and windy with two thirds of the normal January rainfall and south westerly winds gusting to 50 knots. The temperature of 14.9°C on the ninth was the highest January temperature since 1983. A more settled period followed at the end of the month, heralding an exceptional February. The average maximum temperature for the month (11.9°C) and the temperature recorded on the thirteenth (19.1°C) were both the highest since

records began in 1940. The month was also very dry – the driest February since 1959 – with less than a fifth of an inch of rainfall, and sunny – the sunniest since 1988.

The warm weather extended into March, making it the warmest since 1991, but it was also dull with only 77 per cent of the average March sunshine and with above average rainfall. April was even wetter with almost two and a half times the normal rainfall for the month, and even more dull (72 per cent of average), in fact the dullest April since 1966. There were also eight days in the month on which thunder was heard. May saw a change for the better with the highest May temperatures since 1992, below average rainfall and more sunshine (115 per cent of average).

In June there was a return to duller, wetter weather. Twice the average rainfall descended on London amidst the attendant gloom of only 75 per cent of the normal hours of sunshine. The dull weather continued into July although the rain did not and the first week of the month was particularly dry. High Summer came with August which was a dry, sunny and hot month. Daytime maximum temperatures were 1.8°C above the August average.

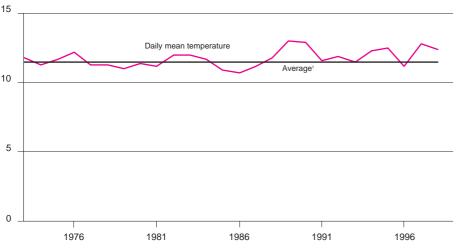
September temperatures were above average, especially at night – the minimum temperature recorded on the ninth was 16.6°C. Otherwise the month was wet and dull. October followed in the same vein with more than an inch of rain recorded on the last day of the month. The second half of the month was quite windy with gusts of 40 knots or more recorded on five different occasions. The beginning of November saw some very warm days but the month as a whole was colder than average. In contrast December was milder than normal with the mean temperature identical to November's. There was only one frost recorded during the month.

3.23

# Daily mean temperature

#### London

Degrees Celsius



1 The average is that for 1961 to 1990.

Source: London Weather Centre, Meteorological Office

# 4 Housing

- In 1998-99, 44 per cent of dwellings in London were flats, either purposebuilt or converted, compared with 18 per cent nationally.
- Around 34 per cent of the housing stock in London was built prior to 1919,
   compared with a national average of 25 per cent.
- In 1998 there were 12.9 thousand new dwellings completed in London,73 per cent of them in the private sector.
- In March 1999, there were 35.2 thousand households who had been accepted as homeless by the London boroughs and were living in temporary accommodation.
- Average dwelling prices in London rose by 24 per cent between the third quarters of 1998 and 1999.

#### Introduction

The quantity, quality and cost of housing play a vital role in the well-being of London residents. Not only does housing fulfil a basic human need, but housing activity (repair, improvement, new building or even simply market turnover) can also play a major role in the economy in terms of job creation, in at least three respects – building industry jobs, other jobs created through the multiplier effect

as employees spend their earnings, and the increased demand for 'white goods' through household expenditure when moving house.

This chapter seeks to present the main indicators for which information is available. Readers are recommended to refer to the London Research Centre's (LRC) annual London Housing Statistics for a fuller analysis of housing statistics.

Dwelling: in the 1981 Census, a dwelling was defined as: structurally separate accommodation whose rooms, excluding bathrooms and WCs, are self contained. In the 1991 Census, the definition changed to: structurally separate accommodation whose rooms, including bath or shower, WC, and kitchen facilities, are self-contained. Estimates of the stock are based on data from the Censuses, supplemented by surveys and other sources.

#### Housing stock: by tenure<sup>1</sup>

				Percenta	iges and th	ousands
	1981	1991	1995	1996	1997	1998
London						
Owner-occupied	50	57	57	57	56	56
Rented from local authority	32	24	22	22	20	20
Rented from private owners or with						
job or business	13	13	15	15	17	17
Rented from registered social landlord	5	5	7	7	7	7
Total dwellings (=100%)(thousands)	2,682	2,927	2,996	3,011	3,025	3,040
Great Britain						
Owner-occupied	57	66	67	67	67	
Rented from local authority						
or New Town <sup>2</sup>	30	22	19	19	17	
Rented from private owners or with						
job or business	11	9	10	10	11	
Rented from a registered social landlord	2	3	4	5	5	
Total dwellings (=100%)(thousands)	21,085	23,141	23,860	24,037	24,216	

<sup>1</sup> At December each year.

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

# 4.2

#### Council house sales

London							Numbers
	1992-93	1993-94	1994-95	1995-96	1996-97	1997-98	1998-99
Right-to-Buy sales	7,325	7,321	6,363	4,641	5,220	7,123	8,089
Other sales <sup>1</sup>	14,204	2,380	980	744	933	15,186	9,965
All sales	21,529	9,701	7,343	5,385	6,153	22,309	18,054

<sup>1</sup> Includes non-Right-to-Buy sales to sitting tenants, other sales into owner-occupation, shared ownership and transfers to registered social landlords and any other sales. 1992-93 total includes some 12,300 dwellings transferred under Large Scale Voluntary Transfer by Bromley and 1997-98 total includes some 8,200 similarly transferred by Bexley. Figures since 1996-97 also include Estates Renewal Challenge Fund transfers, some 14,400 in total.

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

#### The housing stock

London's housing stock totals more than 3 million dwellings. Table 4.1 shows that there have been considerable changes in the relative proportion of stock in each tenure, mirroring to a certain extent the changes in the national picture. In particular, local authority stock has declined both proportionately and absolutely, with a fall of around 250 thousand dwellings since 1981. The decline was due mainly to tenants exercising their 'Right-to-Buy' (Table 4.2), and also to the drop in local authority house-building programmes, down from 13.4 thousand completions in 1981 to fewer than 100 in each year from 1996 to 1998 (Table 4.6 overleaf). 'Right-to-Buy' sales are at about 75 per cent of the level of 1991-92, this decline in the early 1990s followed by a partial recovery coinciding with the general fluctuations in the housing market. Owneroccupation, on the other hand, grew considerably in importance in the 1980s, but has stabilised in the 1990s at nearly three in five dwellings in London.

Another contribution to the fall in local authority stock was the introduction in 1988 of Large Scale Voluntary Transfers (LSVTs). Under this scheme, a local authority can transfer all or part of its housing stock to a new landlord, usually a non-profit-making registered social landlord (RSL, formerly known as a housing association). The biggest LSVT in London in the 1990s occurred in 1992-93 (Table 4.2) when Bromley transferred over 12 thousand of its housing stock to RSLs. More recently Bexley has followed the same path, transferring 8,200 dwellings in 1997-98. In addition, the main responsibility for building

<sup>2</sup> Including Scottish Homes, formerly the Scottish Special Housing Association.

Percentages

new social housing has transferred from local authorities to registered social landlords (although the last three years have seen a decline in new building output by RSLs) (Table 4.6 later in this chapter). Consequently, RSL lettings have become an increasingly important source of social sector accommodation. However, while their stock has increased, the rise has not matched the loss of local authority accommodation; overall, the social rented sector shrank by over 170 thousand dwellings during 1981 to 1998. There has been a very gradual increase in the level of private renting; traditionally this form of tenure has been more common in London than elsewhere in the country.

Table A4.1 in the Appendix shows the pattern of tenure in 1998 by borough. There are considerable differences in the pattern in Inner London compared with Outer London: the public sector stock accounts for over two fifths of dwellings in Inner London, more than double the proportion in the Outer area. Dwelling stock increased by more than 13 thousand in Inner London (the third year running with a comparable increase) and 9 thousand in Outer London in the 12 months to April 1998 with the greater increases being in private sector stock.

The types of dwelling in each borough are given in Table A4.2 in the Appendix. These figures for London from the 1991 Census are confirmed to be generally true still by the results of the 1998-99 Survey of English Housing (Table 4.3). The profile of London's housing stock is very different from England's overall. Only about 6 per cent of dwellings in the capital are detached houses compared with 21 per cent in England generally, while 29 per

cent of London dwellings are purpose-built flats compared with 13 per cent nationally.

Approaching half of London dwellings are flats, either purpose-built or converted, compared with less than a fifth in England as a whole; in Inner London this proportion rises to almost three quarters.

The 1996 English House Condition Survey showed that flats in London were broadly similar in size to those in England as a whole. However, houses had substantially larger floor areas in London, probably due to a higher incidence of houses with more than two storeys rather than increased plan dimensions. Much of the older core of Inner London has housing of three or more storeys, not all of which has been converted into flats.

Table 4.3 also shows the length of time residents have been at their current address. The greater mobility of Londoners is shown by the 41 per cent of households who have been living at their current address for less than five years compared with 37 per cent nationally. It is likely that mobility will have increased even more recently, due to the revival in the housing market since these data were collected.

In terms of amenities, London is substantially below the national level in double-glazing, smoke detectors and parking provision, but above in dwelling security. Interestingly, the provision of double glazing had increased by 8 per cent from 52 per cent nationally since 1991, whereas the London figure had risen by less than 1 per cent in the same period. London clearly fares slightly worse in terms of satisfaction with both accommodation and the area.

#### Household characteristics

	1 6	riceritages
	London	England
Household accommodation	type, 19	98-99
Detached house	6	21
Semi-detached house	18	31
Terraced house	32	29
Purpose built flat		
or maisonette	29	13
Converted flat	15	5
Other	0	0
Types of amenity, 1996		
Central heating	88	88
Double glazing	51	60
Secure windows and doors	s <i>35</i>	30
Smoke detector	57	67
Parking provision <sup>1</sup>	53	69
Length of time at current ad	dress, 1	998-99
Under a vear	13	12

lress, 1998	3-99
13	12
9	9
8	7
11	11
16	16
21	23
22	24
49	59
<i>35</i>	30
42	52
36	33
	13 9 8 11 16 21 22 49 35

<sup>1</sup> Includes only facilities that are an integral part of the property, ie excludes street parking. Figures for England are based on households in houses only, excluding flats.

Source: Survey of English Housing and English House Condition Survey, Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

#### Vacant housing stock1

<b>London</b> Numbers and percentage							
	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Local authority <sup>2</sup>	17,768	18,675	19,037	20,781	18,544	15,689	14,703
Registered social landlord	7,492	7,080	6,693	6,420	6,161	6,639	7,182
Private	133,779	126,495	109,457	101,747	94,825	88,326	89,310
Total <sup>3</sup>	159,039	152,250	135,187	128,948	119,530	110,654	111,195
Vacant stock as a percentage							
of the total housing stock	5.4	5.1	4.7	4.3	3.9	3.6	3.7

<sup>1</sup> Dwellings known to be vacant on 1 April.

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

# 4.5

# Poor housing conditions<sup>1</sup>: by tenure, 1996

Thousands and percentages

	Lor	ndon	England		
	Number of households in poor housing (thousands)	Percentage in poor housing	Number of households in poor housing (thousands)	Percentage in poor housing	
Owner-occupied	56	14.6	1,566	11.6	
Private rented	13	23.7	521	28.7	
Local authority	18	15.5	573	17.2	
Registered Social Landlords	2	3.6	74	8.2	
Total	89	14.8	2,734	13.9	

<sup>1</sup> See Notes and Definitions.

Source: English House Condition Survey, Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

#### Vacant stock

In April 1999, as Table 4.4 shows, around 111.2 thousand dwellings in London were empty, representing 3.7 per cent of the total stock. The figure fell consistently from the recent peak in 1993 until 1998 with a very slight increase in 1999. However, the proportion varies significantly by tenure. Over half the boroughs had vacancy levels of 2 per cent or less in their own stock, whereas in only two boroughs - Hackney and Harrow - was the private sector vacancy level below 2 per cent (Table A4.3 in the Appendix). The LRC's 1998 London Housing Statistics shows the reasons for vacancies amongst local authority stock for example, around 40 per cent are awaiting or undergoing major works, or awaiting demolition.

#### Stock conditions

According to estimates by the London boroughs, around 243 thousand dwellings – 8 per cent of London's housing stock – are statutorily 'unfit for human habitation', more than three quarters of which are in the private sector. In general terms, the worst conditions are found amongst private rented accommodation, with the lowest reported rates amongst the RSL sector.

Table 4.5 shows, for London and England, the pattern of poor housing conditions by tenure. Overall, conditions are slightly worse in London, mainly because of the larger proportion of owner-occupiers in poor housing. The other tenures all showed worse conditions in the rest of the country. The data for London on registered social landlords may need to be treated with caution because of the relatively small sample size, although the national estimate is likely to be accurate.

<sup>2</sup> Includes dwellings owned by authorities outside their own area, some of which will be outside London.

<sup>3</sup> These totals differ from those shown in Table A4.3 in the Appendix (in this and previous editions) because they exclude, dwellings owned by certain public sector bodies (see footnote 3 to Table A4.3).

#### New dwellings completed1: by sector

Thousands and rates

	Thousands					Rates	per 1,000 p	opulation		
	1981	1991	1996	1997	1998	1981	1991	1996	1997	1998
London										
Private enterprise <sup>2</sup>	4.0	12.8	8.3	9.0	9.4	0.6	1.9	1.2	1.2	1.3
Registered social landlords	2.0	2.7	5.5	4.0	3.5	0.3	0.4	0.7	0.6	0.5
Local authorities, new towns										
and government departments	13.4	0.7	-	-	-	0.3	0.1	-	-	-
England										
Private enterprise <sup>2</sup>	98.9	131.2	121.6	127.9	121.1	2.1	2.7	2.5	2.6	2.5
Registered social landlords	16.8	15.3	27.0	20.9	19.9	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.4
Local authorities, new towns										
and government departments	54.9	8.1	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	-	-	-

<sup>1</sup> Permanent dwellings only: ie those with a life expectancy of 60 years or more.

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

London has a relatively old housing stock.

Around 34 per cent of the stock was built prior to 1919, compared with a national average of 25 per cent; the proportion of post-1970 dwellings nationally is one and a half times the proportion in London.

The level of funding available to local authorities and RSLs, including grant assistance to the private sector, is presented in the LRC's London Housing Statistics, and Housing Needs and Resources, analyses.

# Stock changes

In 1998, an estimated 12.9 thousand new dwellings were completed in London, almost exactly the same number as in 1997. Table 4.6 shows the output for each tenure from 1981 to 1998, both overall and expressed as a rate per thousand population. As already remarked, the main responsibility for building new social housing has transferred from local authorities

to RSLs. Thus the local authority programme has effectively disappeared both in London and in England, while RSL output increased steeply between 1991 and 1993 and broadly maintained that level until it dropped in 1997 and 1998. In 1998, 27 per cent of new dwellings completed in London were by RSLs and 73 per cent by the private sector.

The overall target for London, set by the then Government in the March 1995 Strategic Guidance for London Planning Authorities, and including conversion activity net gain, is 260 thousand in the period 1992 to 2006, representing just over 17 thousand dwellings a year. Separate analysis undertaken during the 1992 London Housing Capacity Study by the London Planning Advisory Committee suggests that around 4 thousand net gains are derived from conversions each year which, together with the 12.9 thousand new dwellings in 1998, means that current output is broadly on target.

New dwellings completed: a dwelling is defined for the purposes of Table 4.5 as a building or any part of a building which forms a separate self-contained set of premises designed to be occupied by a single family. A dwelling is counted as completed when it becomes ready for occupation, whether occupied or not.

<sup>2</sup> Includes private landlords (persons or companies) and owner-occupiers.

# House building: completions

Rates per 1,000 population



Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

4.8

# Supply of permanent lettings<sup>1</sup> by local authorities and demand met, 1998-99

London					Numbers
		Reistered social			
	Own	landlord etc	Out		
	stock	nominations	mobility	Other	Total
Homeless	10,069	4,117	48	272	14,506
Other new tenants	10,116	3,370	272	0	13,758
Transfers	11,282	3,190	787	0	15,259
Mutual exchanges	3,711	0	0	0	3,711
Incoming mobility	973	0	0	0	973
Total	36,151	10,677	1,107	272	48,207

<sup>1</sup> To which the London boroughs had access.

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

Chart 4.7 presents the pattern for new housing completions as a rate per thousand population. During the period 1981 to 1998, completions in London generally followed the pattern in England as a whole, but ranged from less than half the national level in the middle of the eighties to around three quarters at the beginning of the nineties. In 1998 there were 1.8 completions per thousand population in London compared with 2.9 per thousand in England as a whole.

#### Access to housing

Table 4.8 shows the supply of lettings to which London boroughs had access in 1998-99, and the demands for accommodation that were met from that supply. Around 69 per cent of those permanently rehoused after being accepted as homeless were allocated a council tenancy, and 28 per cent an RSL tenancy.

Chart 4.9 looks at how the number of permanent lettings to homeless households, waiting list applicants and existing tenants has changed since 1981-82. Lettings to applicants from the waiting list decreased as homelessness increased during the 1980s, but they have recovered considerably since 1989-90. Since 1 April 1997, local authorities have been prevented from allocating secure tenancies directly to homeless households unless the household is on the housing register and has an appropriate level of priority. Due to this and a change in the methods of collection from the same date, there is a discontinuity in the data illustrated. Homeless households are no longer separately identifiable from the number of lettings from the waiting list and through transfers and exchanges. These two categories (which now include homeless households) accounted for 76 per cent of the

total allocations in 1997-98 and 69 per cent in 1998-99. The pattern within boroughs is shown in Table A4.4 in the Appendix.

The trend in nominations to registered social landlords (housing associations) in recent years is illustrated in Chart 4.10. Total nominations nearly quadrupled between 1985-86 and 1993-94. The biggest increase was amongst homeless households: RSLs rehoused more than nine times as many homeless applicants in 1993-94 as they did in 1985-86. Since 1993-94 there has been a reduction in nominations, with a fall in total nominations for homeless households more than offsetting a small rise in other nominations, although these fell in 1998-99.

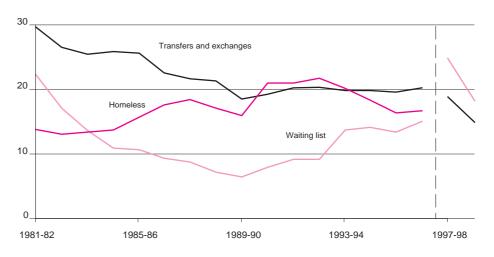
The LRC's report Housing Needs In London (1995), undertaken for the London Planning Advisory Committee, presents the most comprehensive picture to date of the requirements for additional accommodation in London and for maximising the use of existing resources.

# Homelessness

Table 4.11 on the next page shows that in March 1999 there were 35.2 thousand households who had been accepted as homeless by the boroughs and were living in temporary accommodation. This number had declined from a peak of around 41.8 thousand in 1992, although both of the last two years have seen increases; by more than 17 per cent in 1999. The 1999 level continues to represent well over double the number homeless in 1986. The numbers of non-priority homeless, and people sleeping rough, are not known. Changes in the legislation make comparison with the more recent figures complicated.

# Lettings by local authorities to selected rehousing groups<sup>1</sup>



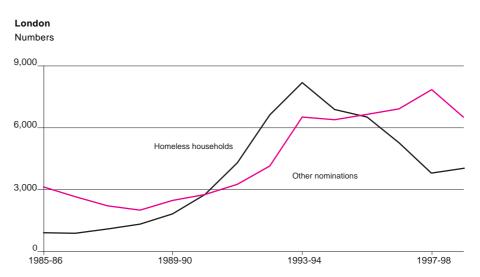


1 From 1 April 1997, by virtue of Part VI of the Housing Act 1996, local authorities have been prevented from allocating secure tenancies directly to homeless households unless the household is on the housing register and has an appropriate level of priority under their allocation scheme. Thus, homeless households have not been shown separately from 1 April 1997.

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

4.10

# **Nominations to Registered Social Landlords**



Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

#### Households in temporary accommodation<sup>1</sup>

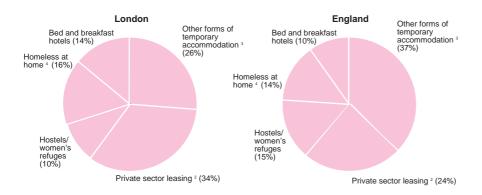
London						Numbers
	1994	1995	1996	1997²	1998²	1999²
Households in						
Bed and breakfast hotels	2,360	2,540	3,160	2,830	3,460	4,790
Private sector accommodation <sup>3</sup>	17,050	10,340	8,180	9,820	10,060	13,350
All forms of temporary accommodation	34,350	29,020	28,290	28,090	29,930	35,160

<sup>1</sup> Households temporarily accommodated by local authorities pending enquiries, while awaiting rehousing under the 1985 Act or after being accepted as homeless under the 1996 Act, as at the end of March each year. Includes households which, after acceptance, remain in their existing accommodation while having the same right to accommodation as those placed in temporary accommodation. Figures include estimates for missing data.

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

4.12

#### Types of temporary accommodation used, 1999<sup>1</sup>



<sup>1</sup> Households temporarily accommodated by local authorities pending enquiries, while awaiting rehousing under the 1985 Act or after being accepted as homeless under the 1996 Act, as at the end of March. The figures include estimates for missing data.
2 Private sector properties leased by local authorities or by registered social landlords.

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

Chart 4.12 illustrates the proportions of homeless households in different forms of accommodation nationally and in London in March 1999 and Table A4.5 in the Appendix shows the pattern by borough. Across London just one in seven of these households was in bed and breakfast accommodation, almost 65 per cent more than in 1997, the first year in which the revised categories were used.

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

# **Housing costs**

The early 1990s saw significant changes in the relative costs of renting (privately or through the social rented sector) and buying. In the owner-occupied sector, the house price boom of the late 1980s was followed by a sharp downturn. House prices in London fell by 13 percentage points between 1990 and 1995, twice as much as in the United Kingdom as a whole. However, since the middle of 1996 a strong upturn has been evident and the increase in London has been greater than in the United Kingdom generally, as shown in Chart 4.13. In the third quarter of 1999, the average price for all transactions from the Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions' 5 per cent Survey of Mortgage Lenders (including sitting tenant purchases) was £149,900 in London (an increase of 24 per cent in one year), and £96,800 in the United Kingdom as a whole (up 14 per cent on the previous year).

Much attention was drawn in the early 1990s to negative equity (that is, where the value of the property is less than the outstanding amount of the mortgage), and the ultimate threat of repossession. Overall, the number of owners in

<sup>2</sup> Figures for earlier years are not directly comparable because of changes to the homelessness legislation and revisions to categories of households in temporary accommodation.

<sup>3</sup> The definition of private sector accommodation differs from that used in Items 4.12 and A4.05.

<sup>3</sup> Includes lettings within a local authority's own stock, by a registered social landlord on assured shorthold tenancies, and directly by a private sector landlord.

<sup>4</sup> Includes households which, after acceptance, remain in their existing accommodation while having the same right to accommodation as those placed in temporary accommodation.

London with negative equity fell from 142 thousand in the fourth quarter of 1995. It remained over 100 thousand until well into 1996, but since then, as house prices have increased, has decreased rapidly: by the second quarter of 1998 it had almost disappeared.

Table 4.14 shows there has been a gradual decline since 1991 in the number of mortgage possession actions and orders made in the courts in London. The figures do not indicate how many homes have been repossessed through the courts as not all orders result in the issue and execution of warrants of possession. In addition it should be noted that the figures relate to the location of the court rather than the address of the property.

Table 4.15 on the next page shows indices of relative changes in selected housing-related costs in the period March 1992 to March 1999. While the table does not show the whole picture, it does show that rents and prices in all sectors have increased by more than the rise in inflation.

The impact on Housing Benefit has been considerable; among council tenants, for example, around 67 per cent were on full or partial benefit in May 1998 compared with 57 per cent in April 1988. A much fuller analysis of rents, prices, and Housing Benefit levels is contained in the LRC's London Housing Statistics as well as the regular LRC bulletins on private sector rents and house prices.

Table A4.6 in the Appendix shows the comparative housing costs of a two-bedroom dwelling in each tenure in 1998 or 1999 (depending on latest available data) for each borough. As might be expected, there is generally a greater divergence between private housing costs and social sector rents in central

#### **Dwelling prices**

Index of dwelling prices<sup>1</sup> (1993=100)



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

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions



# County Court mortgage possession actions<sup>1</sup>

London			Thousands
	Actions entered	Orders made	Suspended orders
1991	33.3	13.7	11.9
1992	24.4	10.4	11.0
1993	21.3	8.8	10.6
1994	15.5	6.8	8.4
1995	12.1	6.0	6.7
1996	11.4	4.8	6.4
1997	10.1	4.0	5.6
1998	9.4	3.0	4.4

<sup>1</sup> See Notes and Definitions.

Source: Court Service

# Indices of selected average housing costs: by tenure<sup>1</sup>

London 19							
	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Purchase price	97	93	95	103	117	139	156
Private rent	100	104	113	118	125	141	152
Local authority rent	110	114	123	123	125	129	
Housing association rent	121	130	140	151	160	170	

1 At 31 March each year.

Source: London Research Centre

or Inner London (for example, in Camden and in Kensington and Chelsea). Local authority rents have considerable diversity, ranging from £43 a week in Newham in April 1998 to £74 in Kensington and Chelsea, but with high rents in areas such as Croydon, Harrow and Redbridge where private housing costs are low compared with London as a whole. RSL rents, on the other hand, exhibit a much more even profile, ranging from £52 in Lambeth and Lewisham in March 1998 to £67 in Barking and Dagenham.

# 5 The economy

- In 1997, London's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per head was more than
   40 per cent higher than the UK average.
- GDP per head in Inner London in 1996 at over £24,000 was more than double that of Outer London and higher than any other NUTS level 2 area in the UK.
- Between 1996 and 1999 there was a marked expansion in the number of service industry sites in London, with growth as high as 49 per cent in some boroughs.
- More than £700 million has been invested in millennium projects in London since 1997. This led to a 15 per cent increase in spending on total new construction work in the capital between 1997 and 1998.
- There were 251 thousand businesses registered for VAT in London in 1999;
   3 per cent of these had an annual turnover of £5 million or more.
- Nearly 37 per cent of businesses registered for VAT in London were within business, financial and real estate services compared with 24 per cent nationally.

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

Regional economic indicators have to be based on a number of different concepts and definitions according to the data source. Although every effort is made in this chapter to provide a consistent picture, this is not always possible and the different perspectives may produce different results.

# **Gross domestic product**

Gross domestic product (GDP) is the standard measure of the value of goods and services produced in the economy. Table 5.5 on page 56 indicates that in 1997, London's share of the United Kingdom's GDP was more than 17 per cent whereas the corresponding share of population was just 12 per cent. London's GDP per head was therefore more than 40 per cent higher than the United Kingdom average.

The workplace-based data for London and the United Kingdom contained in Table 5.5 are based on the European System of Accounts 1995 and on

The Office for National Statistics produces income-based estimates of regional GDP. This approach measures the income of the region, defined as the sum of all incomes earned from productive activity in, in this instance, London. Regional GDP estimates in this publication are consistent with the national figures published in the *United Kingdom National Accounts* (Blue Book) 1998 edition, but local estimates are consistent with the 1997 edition. Further details can be found in the Notes and Definitions.

# Gross domestic product at current prices: by local area<sup>1,2</sup>

£ millions and £ per head

	£ million			£ per head			£ per head UK=100					
	1993	1994	1995	1996	1993	1994	1995	1996	1993	1994	1995	1996
United Kingdom	540,139	570,944	597,741	629,839	9,282	9,777	10,199	10,711	100	100	100	100
Inner London	56,759	59,390	61,979	65,255	21,440	22,315	23,152	24,099	231	228	227	225
Inner London – West	37,394	39,380	41,385	43,928	39,595	41,367	43,089	44,811	427	423	423	418
Inner London – East	19,365	20,010	20,594	21,327	11,371	11,706	11,997	12,346	123	120	118	115
Outer London	36,369	37,653	38,783	41,402	8,486	8,744	8,957	9,482	91	89	88	89
Outer London – E & NE	9,787	10,198	10,553	11,241	6,410	6,682	6,910	7,350	69	68	68	69
Outer London - South	8,967	9,414	9,811	10,268	8,140	8,489	8,775	9,095	88	87	86	85
Outer London – W & NW	17,615	18,041	18,419	19,893	10,629	10,796	10,932	11,647	115	110	107	109

<sup>1</sup> Based on European System of Accounts 1979 and Blue Book 1997 national totals.

Source: Office for National Statistics

Blue Book 1998 national totals. Therefore they cannot be directly compared to the sub-regional data contained in Table 5.1.

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

The data contained in Table 5.1 indicate that the average figures for London mask widely differing levels of GDP per head for NUTS areas within the capital. GDP per head in the Inner London NUTS-2 area during 1996, at around £24,000, was more than twice that of Outer London. The NUTS-3 area with the highest GDP per head was Inner London West, at more than £44,800. This was more than six times that of London's lowest NUTS-3 area. In terms of absolute GDP, Inner London West accounted for more than the whole

of the Outer London NUTS-2 area, despite being only an eleventh of the physical size, and containing less than a quarter of the resident population.

A high proportion of the GDP of the Inner London West area is generated by commuters who do not live in the area. Therefore these data alone do not necessarily show that people living within one area are more prosperous than those in another.

Not only was GDP higher in Inner than Outer London, it also grew at a faster rate. Between 1993 and 1996, absolute GDP in Inner London grew by 15 per cent compared with a change of 13.8 per cent in Outer London during this time. It is notable though, that these growth rates for both Inner and Outer London were well below the rate for the United Kingdom as a whole, which grew by 16.6 per cent during the same period. This may suggest that London's recovery from the recession of the early 1990s has not been sustained over recent years when compared to the performance of the United Kingdom as a whole.

The data for GDP in Table 5.1 allocate the income of commuters to their place of work rather than to their area of residence, in line with the concept

**5.2** 

# Gross domestic product per head as a percentage of the UK average<sup>1</sup>



<sup>1</sup> Excluding Extra-Regio and the statistical discrepancy of the income-based measure.

Source: Office for National Statistics

<sup>2</sup> Excluding Extra-Regio and the statistical discrepancy of the income-based measure



that GDP measures the total domestic economic activity taking place within a given area. For all regions and sub-regions, GDP per head figures are calculated by dividing total GDP by the number of residents living in that area. It follows that in London, the total workplace-based GDP estimates (which include commuter incomes) are divided by a resident population that does not include these commuters. These factors help to explain the exceptionally high workplace-based GDP per head levels in Inner London, particularly in the Inner London West area, which incorporates both the City of London and the West End within Westminster.

Chart 5.2 shows changes in GDP per head in London with the UK average between 1993 and 1996. This time series indicates that London's recovery from the recession of the early 1990s has not been sustained in the long term. The difference in GDP per head between Inner London and the United Kingdom as a whole declined steadily between 1993 and 1996 as growth in Inner London fell behind that for the United Kingdom as a whole. While GDP in Outer London also followed a similar trend between 1993 and 1994, its decline compared to the United Kingdom average was not as severe as in Inner London, and there was a slight upturn in GDP per head between 1995 and 1996.

These figures should be interpreted with some degree of caution, as differences in GDP per head can say as much about the social, geographic and demographic characteristics of an area or population as they do about actual differences between areas economies. For example the high living costs in some Central London boroughs act to deter a large resident population.

It is often the case that national capitals and large, city-dominated areas have high per capita GDP relative to the rest of their countries. Table 5.3 shows selected NUTS level 2 city regions of the

City-regions<sup>1,2</sup> in the European Union with above-average GDP per head, 1995-1997

		Indices and millions
	Index of GDP per head (PPP) <sup>3</sup> (EU15 =100)	Resident population (millions)
Inner London	229	2.7
Hamburg	198	1.7
Luxembourg	172	0.4
Brussels	170	1.0
Darmstadt region (including Frankfurt)	167	3.7
Wien	166	1.6
Oberbayern (including Munich)	165	4.0
Ile de France (including Paris)	156	11.3
Bremen	146	0.7
London (both Inner and Outer)	143	7.1
Hessen	142	6.0

<sup>1</sup> NUTS 2 regions (excluding London). See Notes and Definitions for Chapter 2.

Source: Eurostat

European Union whose GDP per head is 40 per cent or more above the average of the European Union as a whole.

The data in Table 5.3 are presented on a "Purchasing Power Parities" (PPP) basis. PPP's are an artificial currency that reflect differences in the price levels between countries that are not explained by the exchange rates alone, and therefore permit better comparability of the GDP data. PPP's are calculated on a national basis, and so do not fully reflect the price differences that may exist between individual regions within a country.

Inner London leads the European Union NUTS 2 regions with GDP per head at 229 per cent of the European Union average in 1995-1997, followed by Hamburg at 198 per cent. Altogether four of the regions in the table (including London) are capitals. The remainder incorporate large or 'second' cities. Capitals or not, these city regions are all centres of intensive economic activity, with

<sup>2</sup> Regions with a per capita GDP of 40 per cent or more above the EU average are listed.

<sup>3</sup> Purchasing Power Parities: See accompanying text.

#### Residence-based gross domestic product: at current prices<sup>1,2</sup>

£ million and £ per head

	£m	£ million		r head
	London	United Kingdom	London	United Kingdom
1989	69,148	439,644	10,171	7,665
1990	74,670	477,507	10,897	8,296
1991	77,880	498,562	11,303	8,624
1992	80,907	520,503	11,718	8,973
1993	85,627	547,524	12,351	9,409
1994	90,346	578,647	12,967	9,909
1995	93,849	606,878	13,393	10,355
1996	98,292	641,105	13,894	10,903
1997	102,638	677,914	14,411	11,488

<sup>1</sup> Based on European System of Accounts 1995 and Blue Book 1998 national totals.

Source: Office for National Statistics

# **5.5**

# Workplace-based gross domestic product: at current prices<sup>1,2</sup>

 ${\mathfrak L}$  million and  ${\mathfrak L}$  per head

	£n	nillion	£ per head		
	London	United Kingdom	London	United Kingdom	
1989	79,947	439,644	11,759	7,665	
1990	86,030	477,507	12,554	8,296	
1991	89,390	498,562	12,974	8,624	
1992	92,582	520,503	13,409	8,973	
1993	97,577	547,524	14,074	9,409	
1994	103,009	578,647	14,784	9,909	
1995	107,347	606,878	15,320	10,355	
1996	111,392	641,105	15,746	10,903	
1997	116,555	677,914	16,365	11,488	

<sup>1</sup> Based on European System of Accounts 1995 and Blue Book 1998 national totals.

Source: Office for National Statistics

some, like London, subject to special economic and demographic factors. Hamburg and Bremen, for example, have their GDP augmented by a particularly large number of foreign workers and commuters, and the majority of these areas, for example, Brussels, Darmstadt and lie de France encompass major financial and services centres.

For London as a whole (Inner London plus Outer London), GDP per head was lower at 143 per cent of the European Union average, for the period 1995-1997. The lower level for London as a whole was a direct result of the marked difference between the level of GDP in Inner London and that in Outer London. GDP for Outer London, for the same period was only 90 per cent of the European Union average, (and is thus not included in the table). The figure for Outer London was still more than double that of the poorest region in the European Union, Ipeiros in Greece, whose GDP was 43 per cent of the European Union average for the period.

Although Table 5.3 compares NUTS-2 regions across the European Union, these vary considerably both in size and in terms of their population. For example, the IIe de France region not only includes Paris, but also much of the surrounding area. GDP per head in Paris alone rises to nearly 300 per cent of the European Union average.

The Eurostat preferred methodology for calculating GDP is to allocate the income of commuters to where they work rather than to where they live. Figures on a residence basis are, however, available in greater detail. Residence-based GDP figures are therefore used in Table 5.4 and from Table 5.6 onwards. On a residence

<sup>2</sup> Excluding Extra-Regio and the statistical discrepancy of the income-based measure

<sup>2</sup> Excluding Extra-Regio and the statistical discrepancy of the income-based measure.

basis, London's share of the United Kingdom's GDP was just over 15 per cent in 1997 compared with nearly 16 per cent for the South East (GOR).

Table 5.4 shows total GDP on a residence-basis for London and the United Kingdom since 1989. In London, GDP has increased by nearly 5 per cent per year since 1990. This was about half the annual average increase during the latter half of the 1980s. This is partly accounted for by a lower rate of inflation in the 1990s and partly by a slowdown in volume growth. In the absence of a price index relating specifically to London it is impossible to separate the two effects. What is apparent is that during this period growth in London has been lower than that in the United Kingdom as a whole.

Although GDP calculated on a residence-basis does not include the income of any commuters travelling into London, the GDP per head figure for London during 1997 was still more than 25 per cent above the average for the United Kingdom as a whole. It also exceeded that of any other UK region. The ratio between London's GDP per head and the UK average has followed a generally downward trend since 1989, when the difference between London and the United Kingdom had been as high as 33 per cent.

Table 5.5 details workplace-based GDP figures for London and the United Kingdom, which, unlike the data in table 5.4, allocate the incomes of commuters to their region of workplace rather than their region of residence. Although both the absolute and per head levels of GDP are somewhat higher than the residence-based figures in table 5.4, both the

# Components of gross domestic product<sup>1,2</sup>

				Per	centages an	d £ million
	London			l	Jnited King	dom
	1991	1994	1997	1991	1994	1997
Compensation of employees	64.8	61.6	64.8	66.6	63.7	63.6
Operating surplus/mixed income	35.2	38.4	35.2	33.4	36.3	36.4
Total GDP (=100%)(£ million)	77,880	90,346	102,638	498,562	578,647	677,914

<sup>1</sup> Based on European System of Accounts 1995 and Blue Book 1998 national totals

Source: Office for National Statistics

workplace and residence series have followed a similar trend since 1989. GDP per head on a workplace basis increased, on average, by just over 4.2 per cent per year between 1989 and 1997. This was nearly 1 per cent lower than the average increase for the United Kingdom as a whole during this time.

Table 5.6 shows GDP for London and the United Kingdom, split by compensation of employees and other income. Compensation of employees, comprising wages and salaries plus employers national insurance contributions – broadly speaking people's wages – accounted for more than 60 per cent of the total. The proportion in London was slightly below the UK average in 1991, but having fallen to a low in 1994, it increased again, and during 1997 was marginally higher than the national average. Table A5.2 in the Appendix shows the full time-series for the period 1989 to 1997.

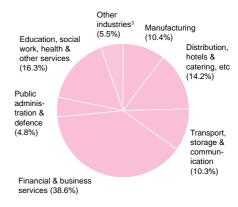
One of the factors affecting the level of GDP per head is the mix of industries in a region. This is particularly true of London where the mix, shown in Chart 5.7, is very different from any other part of the United Kingdom. The proportion of London's GDP attributable to financial and business

**5.7** 

# Share of gross domestic product<sup>1</sup>: by industry group<sup>2</sup>, 1996

# London

Percentages



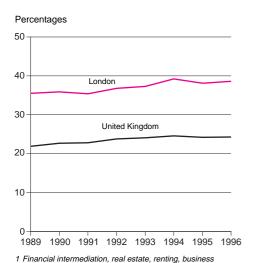
<sup>1</sup> At factor cost before adjustment for financial services 2 Industry breakdown based on SIC 1992.

Source: Office for National Statistics

<sup>2</sup> Excluding Extra-Regio and the statistical discrepancy of the income-based measure

<sup>3</sup> Agriculture, mining, energy, construction, etc.

# Financial/business services<sup>'1</sup> contribution to gross domestic product<sup>2</sup>



- activities.
- 2 At factor costs before adjustment for financial services.

Source: Office for National Statistics

services (almost 39 per cent) in 1996 was more than half as high again as the United Kingdom average (25 per cent). Only in one region other than London, the South East Standard Statistical Region (excluding London), did the share of this sector exceed 25 per cent. The proportion accounted for by manufacturing shows a reverse effect; manufacturing in London accounts for around 10 per cent of GDP in 1996, compared with the UK average of 21 per cent, and a figure of around 30 per cent for the whole of the Midlands, for the North (of England), and for Wales. The sheer size of the financial and business services sector in London means that the shares of all other sectors are correspondingly reduced. It does not follow though, that the remaining sectors are insignificant in cash terms compared with other regions.

A full time-series of GDP by industry group for the period 1989 to 1996 is provided in Table A5.3 in the Appendix. The Appendix also includes tables on other aspects of the regional accounts, namely household income and individual consumption expenditure.

# Major economic sectors

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

Financial and business services are the key sector in London's economy. Over and above their direct contribution to GDP, the activity which they generate helps to sustain many other industries such as transport and communications, restaurants and hotels. The relatively high salaries paid add considerably to aggregate spending power and the sector regularly generates a large surplus for the United Kingdom's balance of payments. Chart 5.8 shows the growing

importance of this industry to both the national and London economies: in 1996, financial and business services contributed £41 billion to London's GDP – half as much again as in 1989. Over the period 1989 to 1996 the industry's share of London's GDP rose from 36 to 39 per cent.

Financial and business services have seen strong growth throughout the United Kingdom over the eight years to 1996 and London has maintained it's dominant share of the sector – a quarter of the industry, in terms of GDP, is located in London.

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

In the more settled conditions of the 1990s there has been no comparable expansion in the scale of activity, but London has continued to strengthen its position as the dominant dealing centre in Europe, particularly for foreign exchange and securities. The City is generally regarded as one of the three most important financial centres in the world, together with New York and Tokyo. (A full description of the structure and characteristics of financial and business services in London was given in the Government Office for London's publication *London Facts and Figures*.)

In terms of the proportion of people employed, public administration and defence are slightly more important in London than in the United Kingdom generally. Chart 5.9 shows, however, that in terms of the contribution to the capital's

# **5.9**

# Public administration and defence's<sup>1</sup> contribution to gross domestic product<sup>2</sup>



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

Source: Office for National Statistics

GDP, the sector is less important in London than for the United Kingdom as a whole. This apparent contradiction is explained partly by the non-profit-making nature of the sector. The sector does, of course, provide benefits to London's economy beyond its direct outputs. For example, many commercial headquarters, representative organisations and service providers locate themselves in London, at least partly in order to be close to national decision-making. There is no sign of the capital's dominance in this area being weakened.

Manufacturing declined during the 1980s and early 1990s throughout the United Kingdom but particularly in London. Manufacturing has continued to decline in London as Chart 5.10 shows: between 1989 and 1997 manufacturing as a percentage of GDP in the capital fell from 13 per cent to just over 10 per cent, while nationally the decline halted in 1993. This component of GDP fell not only in relation to the region's total GDP but also as a proportion of the United Kingdom's manufacturing GDP - from 9 per cent in 1989 to less than 8 per cent in 1996. With modest levels of output, investment and productivity, manufacturing is not the 'engine' which drives London's economy, but, as the section on Businesses shows, it remains a significant and integral part of it.

London's share of total manufacturing GDP, at around 8 per cent in 1996, was somewhat higher than its share of net capital expenditure (6.5 per cent) and was comparable with its current share of gross value added (GVA). London's share of GVA has been stable between 1996 and 1997, although during this time it reached its lowest level since 1988, as shown in Table 5.11.

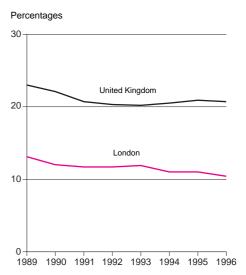
The figures presented in Table 5.11 are supplied for the first time on a basic prices basis, consistent with recent ESA95 methodological changes. These data are not consistent with those

published in previous editions of *Focus on London*. See Notes and Definitions for more information.

Capital investment in manufacturing has been constrained over recent years by competitive trading conditions and by modest growth in profits. The steady decline in London's share of the United Kingdom's net capital expenditure could suggest that these constraints have been acute in the capital's manufacturing sector.

Despite this, gross value added at basic prices per person employed within manufacturing during 1997 was nearly 12.5 per cent greater than the average for the United Kingdom as a whole. This represents a slight increase of around half a per cent on 1996. The London / United Kingdom ratio

# Manufacturing industries' contribution to gross domestic product<sup>2</sup>



1 Definition of manufacturing as revised in SIC 1992. 2 At factor cost before adjustment for financial services.

Source: Office for National Statistics

**5.11** 

#### Net capital expenditure and gross value added in manufacturing<sup>1,2</sup>

£ and percentages

	Net capital	expenditure	Gross value added			
		London as a percentage		London as a percentage	•	person
	London (£ million)	of United Kingdom	London (£ million)	of United Kingdom	London	United Kingdom
1988	1,188	9.1	9,999	9.6	22,520	20,597
1989	1,281	8.4	10,518	9.5	24,787	21,901
1990	1,154	7.7	9,986	8.7	25,429	23,091
1991	1,458	10.3	10,379	9.1	27,141	23,514
1992	1,103	8.2	9,976	8.7	28,801	24,819
1993	941	7.2	9,544	8.2	30,326	27,093
1994	970	7.0	10,643	8.5	34,171	29,378
1995	1,247	7.1	11,430	8.3	34,765	30,868
1996	1,159	6.5	11,130	7.9	37,097	33,106
1997	1,299	6.5	11,381	7.9	37,812	33,614

1 Data for 1987 to 1992 are based on SIC 1980; data for 1993 onwards are based on SIC 1992. See Notes and Definitions. 2 At basic prices.

Source: Annual Business Inquiry, Office for National Statistics

#### Classification<sup>1</sup> of business sites<sup>2</sup>, 1999<sup>3</sup>

Percentages	and	thousands
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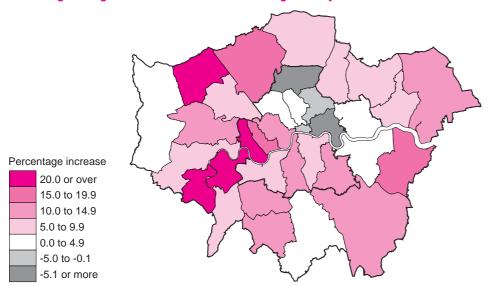
	London	United Kingdom
Agriculture, hunting, forestry & fishing	0.3	7.2
Mining & quarrying, energy, water supply & manufacturing	6.8	8.4
Construction	5.8	8.9
Distribution, hotels & catering	26.7	29.6
Transport & communications	3.9	4.3
Financial intermediation, real estate, renting & business	38.7	25.1
Education & health	5.5	6.5
Public administration & other services	12.3	10.0
Total business sites (=100%) (thousands)	378.4	2,508.0

<sup>1</sup> Based on SIC 1992.

Source: Inter Departmental Business Register, Office for National Statistics

5.13

#### Percentage change in the number of manufacturing industry sites<sup>1</sup> 1996-1998<sup>2</sup>



<sup>1</sup> Registered for VAT and/or PAYE, local unit basis eg an individual factory. Based on SIC 1992. See Notes and Definitions. 2 At April.

Source: Inter Departmental Business Register, Office for National Statistics

varied widely during the late eighties and early 1990s, peaking at around 16 per cent in 1994 from a low of just over 9 per cent in 1988.

#### **Businesses**

Detailed information on the location and nature of businesses is available from the ONS Inter-Departmental Business Register (see Notes and Definitions), which combines information on VATregistered traders and employers with PAYE employees. The register covers 2 million enterprises in the United Kingdom, around 99 per cent of economic activity. In April 1999, there were over 251 thousand businesses registered for VAT in London; approximately 16 per cent of the United Kingdom total. This was a higher proportion than the capital's relative share of either the adult United Kingdom population (11.9 per cent) or it's share of the workforce (12 per cent). These figures can, in part, be explained by the fact that businesses generally give their Head Office address when registering for VAT.

Some businesses are single-site, but many have multiple local sites, that is, individual shops or factories, spread across both the capital and other regions. Altogether there were over 378 thousand VAT and/or PAYE-registered individual business sites in London in April 1999, just over 15 per cent of the United Kingdom total.

Table 5.12 analyses these individual business sites by broad industry group. The breakdown confirms the greater importance of the financial and professional services sector to London than to the United Kingdom generally. Nearly two fifths of individual business sites in London fell within this sector compared with a quarter of business sites for the United Kingdom as a whole. The proportion of financial and professional services increased to more than three quarters of total sites in the City of London itself, the heaviest concentration throughout the region. Not surprisingly, the City

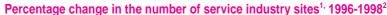
<sup>2</sup> Registered for VAT and/or PAYE, local unit basis eg an individual factory or shop. See Notes and Definitions. 3 At April.

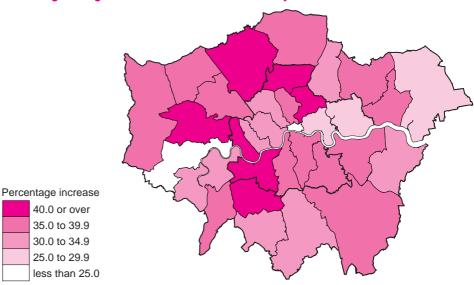
alone accounted for more than 8 per cent of businesses in the financial and professional services sector in London during 1999. This was a higher proportion of the total than in any other borough, with the exception of Westminster, where the proportion was higher at nearly 16 per cent. However, Westminster is seven times the physical area of the City of London and contains more than three times the total number of business units.

In 1999, around 7 per cent of individual business sites in London were production-based, a slight fall on 1998. The heaviest concentration of production relative to the total number of business sites was in Hackney: 14 per cent of all local units in that borough were production - related. The highest actual number of production sites was in the City of Westminster, with nearly double the number of manufacturing sites in Hackney.

In addition to this cross-sectional picture of the economy in London, it is also useful to assess how its economic structure develops and changes over time. Maps 5.13 and 5.14 illustrate the percentage changes that have occurred in the number of manufacturing and services sites by borough between the years of 1996 and 1999.

The numbers of manufacturing sites increased in most boroughs during this time, with the greatest growth in Hammersmith and Fulham, Richmond-Upon-Thames and Harrow, where growth in manufacturing ranged between 22 and 28 per cent. In contrast to this, there were falls in Hackney, Haringey, Tower Hamlets and the City of London of between 1 and 7 per cent. It is notable that this growth in the numbers of manufacturing sites was far outweighed by substantial expansion in the service industries. Between 1996 and 1999. the numbers of service industry sites increased considerably across all London boroughs, with growth between 45 and 49 per cent in the boroughs of Hammersmith and Fulham, Hackney, Merton and Barnet. The largest single volume





1 Registered for VAT and/or PAYE, local unit basis eg an individual shop. Based on SIC 1992. See Notes and Definitions. 2 At April.

Source: Inter Departmental Business Register, Office for National Statistics

increase in the numbers of service sites between 1996 and 1999 occurred within the City of Westminster, with a rise in excess of 11.5 thousand.

As expected, the growth in services during these years has led to changes in the industry composition of many boroughs. The increases in services sites as a proportion of all business sites were highest in: Hackney, Haringey, Tower Hamlets, Merton, Newham and Greenwich, with changes of between 3 and 7 per cent during this period. The growing importance of services in Tower Hamlets and Newham can be explained in part by the increasing popularity among businesses of the East London Docklands developments such as Canary Wharf. These have proved popular since the economic upturn of the mid 1990s, and the ongoing infrastructure improvements such as the Docklands Light Rail and Jubilee Line extension. As a result, Inner London boroughs in general, were more likely than Outer London boroughs to contain a higher proportion of service industry sites, and show a greater proportional shift toward services between 1996 and 1999.

# Manufacturing and service industry business sites<sup>1,2</sup>: by employment size band<sup>3</sup>, 1999<sup>4</sup>

Р	ercer	eanet	and	thou	cando

	Manufacturing		Services		
	London	United Kingdom	London	United Kingdom	
Employment size bands					
1 - 9	82.2	73.7	86.0	83.1	
10 - 19	9.4	11.2	7.2	8.9	
20 - 49	5.0	7.8	3.9	5.2	
50 - 199	2.6	5.5	2.2	2.3	
200+	0.7	1.8	0.6	0.5	
All local units (=100%) (thousands)	25.2	205.0	329.6	1,892.0	

<sup>1</sup> Based on SIC 1992.

Source: Inter Departmental Business Register, Office for National Statistics

# 5.16

# VAT-registered enterprises1: by turnover size band, 19992

Percentages and thousands

	London	United Kingdom
Turnover size (£ thousand)		
1 - 49	20.2	23.0
50 - 99	25.5	26.0
100 - 249	23.5	24.2
250 - 499	11.6	11.1
500 - 999	7.7	6.8
1,000 - 4,999	8.3	6.6
5,000 or more	3.3	2.3
All VAT-registered enterprises (=100%) (thousands)	251.2	1,595.7

<sup>1</sup> See Notes and Definitions.

Source: Inter Departmental Business Register, Office for National Statistics

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

Table 5.15 tabulates the breakdown of business sites in the manufacturing and service sectors in London by the levels of employment that they provide. It is clear that manufacturing units in London are, on average, smaller than those in the United Kingdom generally. In 1999, just over 82 per cent of manufacturing sites in London had fewer than ten employees on average, (including those of working proprietors) compared with nearly 74 per cent in the United Kingdom. The proportion of small units was highest in Inner London at almost 84 per cent. At the other end of the scale, just over 3 per cent of factories in London had, on average, 50 or more employees. This was less than half the average for the United Kingdom as a whole. In addition, London also had a larger than average proportion of the smallest shops, offices and other service sector businesses. The relatively high proportion of small manufacturing and service units in London as compared to the United Kingdom as a whole could be partly explained by the high cost of both land and building space, especially in Inner London.

Table 5.16 looks at the size of businesses from a different point of view – by turnover size band. It indicates that around a fifth of VAT-registered enterprises had a turnover of less than £50,000 in April 1999, in spite of the threshold for compulsory VAT-registration of £51,000. Businesses in London tended to have a higher turnover than those in the United Kingdom generally - the capital had a lower proportion of enterprises with a turnover of less than £250,000 than the United Kingdom as a

<sup>2</sup> Registered for VAT and/or PAYE, local unit basis eg individual factory or shop. See Notes and Definitions.

<sup>3</sup> Includes paid full and part-time employees and working proprietors.

<sup>4</sup> At April.

<sup>2</sup> At April.

whole, and had a higher proportion with a turnover of £250 thousand or more. In conjunction with the data from table 5.15, these figures reinforce the impression of "small size, high productivity, and high turnover" industry in London and in particular, Inner London.

A total of 39.7 thousand businesses in London were newly registered for VAT in 1998, while 28.4 thousand were deregistered (Table 5.17). Reasons for deregistration include turnover falling below the VAT threshold, change of ownership, and businesses ceasing trading. London accounted for just over 21 per cent of all new registrations in the United Kingdom in 1998 and more than 18 per cent of all deregistrations.

The rate of business stock replacement (as measured by the registration and deregistration rates) was consistently greater in London than the United Kingdom average, indicating that the business stock in London may be less stable than nationally. Although business registration and deregistration rates in London have followed a very similar pattern to the national trend over the past three years, registration rates in London have consistently remained around 3.5 per cent higher than in the United Kingdom as a whole, with deregistration rates being between 1 and 2 per cent higher.

Based purely on new business registrations, the capital appears to have recovered from the recession more quickly than the United Kingdom overall. In 1996 the net increase in the business stock in London was one and a half times the net increase for the country as a whole; and in 1997 London alone accounted for half of the net national increase. This pattern continued during 1998, with new business registrations in London accounting for approximately a third of total registrations in the United Kingdom. The

#### Business registrations and deregistrations<sup>1</sup>

Thousands and rates

		London			nited Kingdo	om
	1996	1997	1998	1996	1997	1998
Registrations	34.1	37.2	39.7	168.2	182.6	186.3
Deregistrations	29.3	28.3	28.4	165.1	164.5	155.9
Net change	4.7	8.9	11.3	3.1	18.1	30.3
End-year stock	249.8	258.7	270	1,603.2	1,621.3	1651.6
Registration rate <sup>2</sup>	13.9	14.9	15.3	10.5	11.4	11.5
Deregistration rate <sup>2</sup>	12.0	11.3	11.0	10.3	10.3	9.6
Registration rate <sup>3</sup>	61	66	70	36	39	40
Deregistration rate <sup>3</sup>	52	50	50	35	35	33

<sup>1</sup> Enterprises registered for VAT. See Notes and Definitions.

Source: Department of Trade and Industry

difference between new registration and deregistration rates in London grew from 3.6 per cent during 1997 to 4.8 per cent in 1998.

Businesses can cross the VAT threshold for a variety of reasons. Therefore the data in table 5.17 should not be interpreted simply as business 'births' and 'deaths'. However, VAT registrations and deregistrations do serve as a useful proxy to the underlying birth and death rates.

As well as births and deaths in the business population, an important indicator of economic health is the longevity of new firms. Nearly 89 per cent of businesses registered in London during

<sup>2</sup> Registrations and deregistrations during the year as a percentage of the stock figure at the start of the year.

<sup>3</sup> Registrations and deregistrations during the year per 10,000 of the resident adult population.

#### Business survival rates<sup>1,2</sup>

Percentages

		London			United Kingdom		
	12 months	24 months	36 months	12 months	24 months	36 months	
1989	84.3	65.7	50.1	85.3	67.5	53.4	
1990	80.9	60.7	46.9	81.7	63.1	50.4	
1991	81.3	62.9	50.1	81.7	64.4	52.0	
1992	82.5	64.6	52.6	83.4	67.0	54.8	
1993	84.6	68.2	56.5	84.7	68.5	56.9	
1994	85.4	69.8	58.2	85.3	69.9	58.8	
1995	85.6	70.8	59.6	86.7	72.1	61.0	
1996	86.1	71.5		86.9	72.7		
1997	88.8			88.4			

- 1 The percentage of businesses surviving the stated number of months after year of registration.
- 2 The increase of VAT threshold from £25,400 to £35,000 in 1991 means that the figures for 1992 onwards are not entirely comparable with those for earlier years.

Source: Department of Trade and Industry

1997 were still trading a year later, more than 71 per cent of those registered in 1996 were still trading after two years, and nearly 60 per cent of businesses registered in 1995 were still trading three years later (Table 5.18). These proportions were, in most cases, below the average for the United Kingdom as a whole. This was particularly the case with survival rates beyond the initial 12 month period. The recent trend in London is very similar to the pattern during the late 1980s and early 1990s, where the survival rates for businesses in London had been lower than the national averages as the recession appeared to affect London to a greater extent than the United Kingdom as a whole. Although survival rates in London recovered slightly, to reach parity with the United Kingdom during the mid 1990s, this performance has not been sustained in recent years.

The value of new construction work being undertaken in London is shown in Chart 5.19. The chart differentiates between new house building,

infrastructure projects, repairs and other new work, the last of these being principally commercial schemes.

Data for 1998 indicate growth in new housing, repairs and other new work. The last of these shows a rise of nearly 27 per cent since 1997. This was the largest single increase in new construction work since the property boom of the late 1980s. It should be noted, however, that the data on which Chart 5.19 is based are not adjusted for inflation. Yearly changes in construction spending are therefore the result of movements in price as well as movements in volume.

The increases in commercial construction spending since 1997 were primarily the result of a series of millennium projects, which included the development of the Greenwich Peninsula. During 1997, more than £700 million pounds of lottery funds and private sector sponsorship were allocated by the Millennium Commission to projects in Greenwich and several surrounding boroughs.

These millennium developments span across several construction categories and London boroughs. They included: the Millennium Dome, 1,400 new homes in Greenwich, a hotel and a supermarket. As well as these developments, plans remain in place for the construction of a medical centre and 3,500 new homes in several surrounding boroughs.

# Assistance to industry

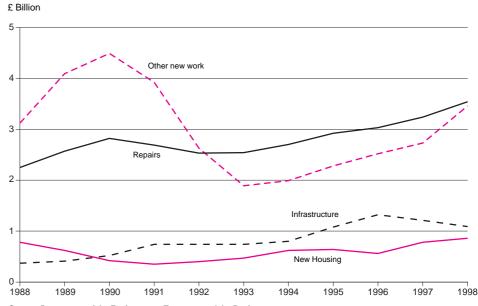
Individual regional and sub-regional areas of the United Kingdom are eligible for assistance from the European Structural Funds. These funds are allocated according to specific development

objectives. For the period 1994-1999, Objective 1 funds promoted the development of regions which were lagging behind the rest of the European Union. To be eligible, NUTS-2 regions needed to have a GDP per capita of 75 per cent or less than the European Union average, which meant that London did not qualify. However, parts of Enfield, Hackney, Haringey, Newham, Tower Hamlets and Waltham Forest were given Objective 2 status until the end of 1999. These funds were given to areas undergoing socio-economic change in the industrial and service sectors. Objective 2 funding aimed to create new jobs, encourage new businesses, renovate land and buildings, and stimulate Research and Development. The Objective 2 areas in London - known collectively as the East London and Lee Valley area - were allocated 178 million ECU, some £124 million, between 1994 and 1999.

The structural funding budget also provided assistance via community initiative programmes to areas to address specific development needs. In all, there were four schemes under which areas in London received a total of almost £17 million between 1994 and 1999. These schemes addressed such issues as urban regeneration and the depletion of traditional industries.

Unemployment was one of the key indicators used for the allocation of Objective 2 structural funds. The growth in either employment or businesses can serve as a useful indicator of the success of these funding initiatives. Based on these analyses, it is apparent that the boroughs that contained areas with Objective 2 funding status between 1994 and 1999 experienced substantial increases in the numbers of service industry units. The greatest growth was in Hackney, Haringey, Tower Hamlets, Waltham Forest and Enfield. All of the boroughs that contained Objective 2 areas

#### Value of construction work



# 5,20

# Provisional Objective 2 funding areas 2000-2006



Source: Department of Trade and Industry

also demonstrated sizeable shifts in their industry makeup during this period, shifting from manufacturing to the services sector.

Whilst these points do not take account of changes in employment or the size and profitability of new businesses, they do suggest that the aims of the 1994 to 1999 Objective 2 programme have by and large, been met in London. Specifically, in those areas awarded Objective 2 status, declines or very limited growth in the more traditional manufacturing industries have been offset by marked increases in the numbers of service sector units. For an employment analyses of the effect of these funding programmes refer to Chapter 6.

Map 5.20 shows the areas within boroughs which have been proposed by the United Kingdom for Objective 2 status for the 2000 to 2006 funding

period. The European Commission is considering the United Kingdom's proposals and a final map will be available in the near future.

Under current European Commission guidelines the vast majority of the previous Objective 2 areas would not automatically qualify for funds during the new funding period. This is due to the relatively low unemployment in the United Kingdom compared to the European Union as a whole. The United Kingdom, however was successful in securing transition payments for the previous Objective 2 areas. This left some £2.5 billion available to United Kingdom regions, which has at least partially cushioned the cuts in Objective 2 funding in both London and the United Kingdom as a whole.

In addition to these changes, the 2000 to 2006 structural funding programme has also seen the introduction of a series of new eligibility criteria for Objective 2 status. The main difference from the previous funding programme is that Objective 2 funds now cover agriculture, fishing and urban deprivation as well as industry. There are two criteria with particular relevance to the London economy. The first covers industrial funding and bases eligibility around wards which fall within a local authority with an unemployment rate greater than 7.5 per cent that have also experienced a marked decline in the proportion of industrial jobs between 1991 and 1997. The second criteria covers urban areas enduring serious deprivation and/or structural decline. Individual wards have been identified using the Index of Local Deprivation (see Chapter 8 for further details). These changes to the structural funding programme are representative of a growing tendency by the European Commission toward the centralisation of its funding initiatives.

# 6 The labour market

- The proportion of the labour force in London aged between 25 and 34 rose by
   5 per cent in the 10 years since 1988, whilst the proportion aged between
   16 and 24 fell by 9 per cent.
- In Spring 1999, there were 451 thousand self-employed people in the capital overall, 25 thousand less than a decade ago (a 5 per cent decrease).
- In London, male employees are more likely to work part-time than those in the United Kingdom overall, while female employees are less likely to work parttime than those nationally.
- The ILO unemployment rate in London was 7.5 per cent in Spring 1999,
   compared to the UK average of 6.0 per cent.
- There was a sharp rise in employee jobs in the financial and business services industry in London between 1989 and 1999 from 25 per cent to 32 per cent.

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

# **Employment**

In Spring 1999 in London, 72 per cent of the working age population (16 to 64 for men and 16 to 59 for women) were in employment. This is two percentage points lower that the United Kingdom working age employment rate. Table 6.1 overleaf shows the composition of employment. The main

difference between the current compostion in London and in the United Kingdom is that London has a higher proportion of self-employed people and consequently proportionally fewer employees. As the economy grew in the late 1980s, so the number of employees living in London grew, peaking at nearly 2.9 million in 1990. However, London suffered more severely from the recession of the early 1990s than the United Kingdom as a whole, and employment fell to 2.5 million employees in 1994 (Chart 6.2 overleaf). Since then, there has been a recovery, and there were 2.8 million employees in Spring 1999.

The Labour Force Survey (LFS) is a survey of private households and its results are therefore residence-based. Surveys of employers such as the Annual Employment Survey (AES) and the New Earnings Survey give workplace-based results. The LFS therefore measures people in an area while the AES counts jobs. Further details of all the surveys used in this chapter can be found in the Notes and Definitions. A Glossary of terms is shown overleaf.

#### Glossary of terms

Employees (Labour Force Survey) – a household-based measure of persons aged 16 or over who regard themselves as paid employees. People with two or more jobs are counted only once.

Employee jobs (employer surveys) – a measure, obtained from surveys of employers, of jobs held by civilians who are paid by an employer who runs a PAYE tax scheme. People with two or more jobs are counted in each job.

The self-employed – a household-based measure (from the LFS) of persons aged 16 or over who regard themselves as self-employed in their main job (ie who work on their own account, whether or not they have employees, and are responsible for payment of their own income tax and National Insurance contributions.)

# Government-supported employment and training programmes – a

household-based measure of persons aged 16 or over participating in Youth Training, Training for Work or Community Action programmes or a programme organised by a Training and Enterprise Council (England and Wales), Local Enterprise Company (Scotland) or the Training and Employment Agency (Northern Ireland).

**Employment** – a household-based measure of employees, self-employed persons, participants in government-supported training and employment programmes, and persons doing unpaid work for a family business.

**Workforce jobs** – a measure of employee jobs (obtained from employer surveys), self-employment jobs, all HM Forces, and participants on government-supported training programmes.

The ILO unemployed – an International Labour Organisation (ILO) recommended measure, used in household surveys such as the Labour Force Survey, which counts as unemployed those aged 16 or over who are without a job, are available to start work in the next two weeks and who have been seeking a job in the last four weeks, or who are waiting to start a job already obtained.

The claimant count – a count derived from administrative sources, of those people who are claiming unemployment-related benefits at Employment Service local offices (formerly Unemployment Benefit Offices).

The economically active/the labour force – the number in employment *plus* the ILO unemployed.

**ILO unemployment rate** – the percentage of the economically active who are ILO unemployed.

Claimant count rate – the number of claimants resident in an area expressed as a percentage of the sum of claimants and workforce jobs in the area.

**The population of working age** – males aged 16 to 64 years and females aged 16 to 59 years.

**Economic activity rate** – the percentage of the population in a given age group which is in the **labour force**.

Since 1989, the numbers of self-employed followed a similar pattern in London to that in the United Kingdom as a whole, although between 1997 and 1998 there was an increase of around 8 per cent in London while the number of self-employed continued to fall in the United Kingdom as a whole. In Spring 1999, there were 451 thousand self-employed people in the capital overall, 25 thousand less than a decade ago (a 5 per cent decrease). The number of self-employed women in London has remained broadly constant reaching 113 thousand in Spring 1999.

The labour market in the United Kingdom has become more flexible in recent years although the flexibility varies with the economic cycle. Part-time work, second jobs, job sharing, shift working, flexitime and fixed-term or temporary contracts are now more common. Women employees remain much more likely than men to work part-time (Table 6.3 overleaf). In Spring 1999, almost a tenth of male employees in London worked parttime, more than double the proportion of 10 years earlier. Just under a third of female employees in London worked part-time in Spring 1999, which was 4 per cent more than in 1989. In London, male employees are more likely to work part-time than those in the United Kingdom overall, while female employees were less likely to work parttime than those nationally.

# Industrial and occupational composition

London has a unique industrial structure as detailed in the previous chapter. This is reflected in the composition of the capital's Gross Domestic Product (GDP), which provides a measure of the value of goods and services produced within the region and an indication of the region's competitiveness. London's employment structure follows a similar pattern to output. However, the percentage contribution of financial and business services to total employee jobs is less than the percentage contribution to GDP (32 per cent and

#### Components of employment<sup>1</sup>

			Percentage	es and thousands
				Total labour force
		Self-	Others in	(=100%)
	Employees	employed	employment <sup>2</sup>	(thousands)
Males				
London				
1989	73.6	18.2	0.9	2,010
1999	74.0	17.1	0.6	1,983
United Kingdom				
1989	74.3	16.4	1.9	16,434
1999	77.7	14.6	0.9	16,120
Females				
London				
1989	85.8	7.1	0.8	1,546
1999	85.7	7.1	0.7	1,589
United Kingdom				
1989	84.8	6.8	1.5	12,330
1999	87.6	6.4	0.9	12,872

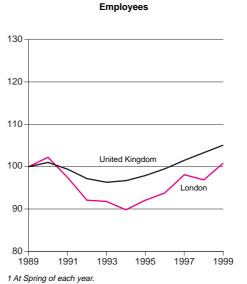
<sup>1</sup> At Spring each year.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

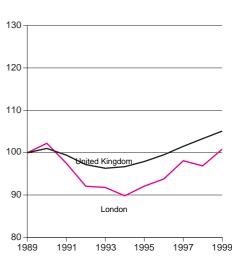
6.2

#### Employees and the self-employed<sup>1</sup>

Index (1988=100)



Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics



Self-employed

69

<sup>2</sup> Covers people on government-supported employment and training schemes, unpaid family workers (1999 only) and those who did not state their employment status (1989 only).

# Employees working part-time<sup>1,2,3</sup>

Percentage
------------

	Inner London	Outer London	London	United Kingdom
Males				
1989	4.6	4.5	4.6	4.5
1999	10.0	9.5	9.7	8.4
Females				
1989	26.6	34.3	31.6	43.2
1999	25.9	36.6	32.8	43.7

<sup>1</sup> Based on respondents' own definiton of part-time.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

6.4

# Industrial composition<sup>1</sup> of employee jobs

Percentages and thousands

	London		United Kingdom	
	1989	1999	1989	1999
Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing	0.0	0.1	1.5	1.3
Mining & quarrying; Electricity, gas & water	1.1	0.3	1.8	0.9
Manufacturing	12.0	7.5	21.3	16.7
Construction	3.9	2.9	5.4	4.7
Distribution, hotels and catering, repairs	19.8	22.3	21.0	22.7
Transport, storage and communication	8.8	8.6	6.0	6.0
Financial and business services	25.1	32.0	15.4	18.7
Public administration and defence	7.0	5.8	6.0	6.0
Education, social work and health services	17.9	14.0	17.4	18.2
Other Services	4.3	6.6	4.3	4.8
All industries and services (=100%) (thousands)	3,476	3,676	23,201	24,175

<sup>1</sup> At September each year. Figures are based on SIC 1992. See Notes and Definitions.

Source: Short-term Employment Survey, Office for National Statistics

39 per cent respectively). For all other industries, the reverse is true. The decline in manufacturing jobs between 1989 and 1999 was steeper in London than nationally; this sector's share of jobs fell by 145 thousand in London from 417 thousand to 272 thousand, almost double the proportional decline for the United Kingdom (from 4,942 thousand to 4,037 thousand in 1999). This was offset by a sharp rise in jobs in the financial and business services industry, particularly in London (Table 6.4).

This chapter so far has predominantly treated London either as a single unit or in terms of Inner and Outer London. However it should be noted that there are considerable variations across London (Maps 6.5 and 6.6). Employee jobs in the manufacturing industries are most prevalent in Barking and Dagenham, traditionally a centre of the motor industry. In 1997, it was the only borough to have a higher proportion (almost 31 per cent) of employee jobs in the manufacturing sector than the average for the United Kingdom as a whole (17 per cent), and indeed had almost twice the concentration of the next highest borough, Waltham Forest. The next highest - Merton, Brent and Bexley - are also in Outer London. Conversely, the service sector is heavily concentrated within Inner London, in the City, Westminster, Kensington and Chelsea, Wandsworth, and Hammersmith and Fulham. Barnet was the only borough in Outer London with more than 90 per cent of employee jobs in service industries in 1997.

There are wide variations in employment rates between boroughs. (Table A6.1 in the Appendix shows the working age employment rate by borough). Tower Hamlets has the lowest employment rate not just in London but in the whole of Great Britian. At the other end of the scale, Sutton has an employment rate of almost 87 per cent.

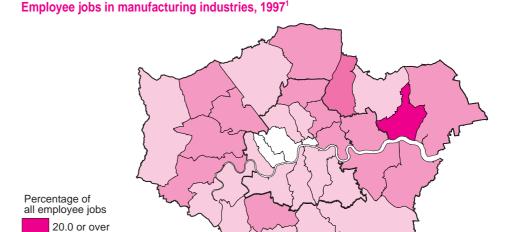
<sup>2</sup> At Spring each year.

<sup>3</sup> Bases for calculation of percentages exclude people who did not state whether they worked full- or part-time.

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

# **Earnings**

Average earnings in London have traditionally been higher than average earnings in Great Britain as a whole. Table 6.8 overleaf shows that this continues to be the case, although the size of the differential varies by type of work and by gender. In April 1999, the earnings of full-time manual employees in London were on average 13 per cent higher than in Great Britian as a whole for males, while the difference for females was 18 per cent. The equivalent differentials for nonmanual employees were 26 and 27 per cent respectively. The earnings gap between London and Great Britain was even more striking among the highest earning non-manual males, with the top 10 per cent of the earners in London earning on average more than a third as much per week as their counterparts in Great Britain as a whole. The proportions of employees earning below £200 per week were lower in London than in Great Britain as a whole for all categories of employees. However, more than a third of women in full-time manual work in London earned less than £200 per week. The difference in non-manual earnings between London and Great Britain may partly reflect the high salaries paid in financial and business services, which are concentrated in London. They may also reflect the fact that



1 Based on SIC 1992.

15.0 to 19.9

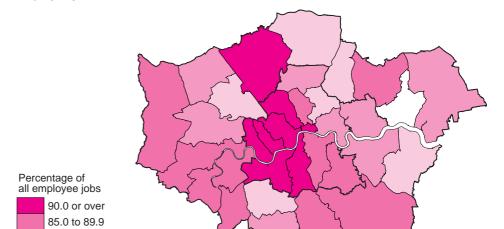
10.0 to 14.9 5.0 to 9.9

less than 5.0

Source: Annual Employment Survey, Office for National Statistics

Employee jobs in service industries, 1997<sup>1</sup>

6.6



1 Based on SIC 1992.

80.0 to 84.9 75.0 to 79.9

less than 75.0

Source: Annual Employment Survey, Office for National Statistics

#### Occupations of employees, Spring 1999

Percentages and thousands

	Males		Females	
	London <sup>1</sup>	United Kingdom	London <sup>1</sup>	United Kingdom
Managerial and administrators	22.0	18.9	14.4	10.4
Professional, associate professional and technical	25.9	20.3	25.3	20.7
Clerical and secretarial	10.3	8.1	29.0	26.0
Craft and related	11.6	17.1	0.9	2.0
Personal and protective services	9.2	7.6	14.2	16.8
Sales	6.5	5.6	9.0	12.1
Plant and machine operatives	7.3	14.5	2.1	3.9
Other	7.3	7.8	5.2	8.1
All employees (=100%) (thousands) <sup>2</sup>	1,466	12,531	1,362	11,280

<sup>1</sup> Resident in London.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

6.8

# Gross weekly earnings<sup>1</sup>, April 1999

£ per week and percentages

	Average gross	ŭ		Po	rcentage e	arning un	der
	weekly	Less	Less More		icentage e	zarriirig uri	uei
	earnings	than	than	£200	£250	£350	£460
London							
Males - manual	376.9	207.3	572.4	8.6	19.2	49.2	76.1
- non-manua	664.6	269.2	1,166.3	3.2	7.9	21.5	38.6
Females - manual	261.2	155.0	393.2	34.6	56.3	83.3	94.1
- non-manua	l 439.1	230.8	682.5	4.9	13.6	40.2	65.7
Great Britain							
Males - manual	335.0	194.9	500.6	11.1	26.8	62.2	85.4
- non-manua	525.5	233.5	862.6	5.4	12.5	30.8	51.9
Females - manual	221.9	140.4	327.8	48.9	71.4	92.8	98.2
- non-manua	346.9	184.0	540.9	14.5	32.7	61.5	81.1

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

Source: New Earnings Survey, Office for National Statistics

London residents tend to have higher costs for some outgoings than people in other parts of Great Britian, particularly housing and transport, as shown in Chapter 8, and that salaries in the capital can include an extra allowance to partially offset this.

Table 6.9 shows earnings for individual occupational groups. Among men, the earnings gap between London and Great Britain ranged from those in associate professional and technical occupations in London earning 39 per cent more than those in the country as a whole, to a differential of 9 per cent for those in sales occupations. The differential between women in London and Great Britain was highest in clerical and secretarial occupations at 26 per cent, and lowest for those in professional occupations and for plant and machine operatives at 17 per cent.

In the majority of occupations, male earnings exceed female earnings in both Great Britain and London. The gap between male and female earnings in the capital ranged from a negligible difference in clerical and secretarial occupations to 50 per cent for those in associate professional and technical occupations. The differential was also high for managers and administrators at 45 per cent, and for plant and machine operatives and those in personal and protective services, at around 40 per cent.

Table 6.10 looks at the average hours of paid work. Full-time employees in London work fewer paid hours than those in Great Britain as a whole, but the differential is small and has not changed much in 20 years. Men work longer hours than women partly because they do more paid overtime, though men in London work less paid overtime than across Great Britain overall. It should be stressed that the figures in the table include paid overtime only. According to responses to the Labour Force Survey in Spring 1999, full-time male employees in London usually worked an average of around 4 hours of unpaid

<sup>2</sup> Includes those who did not state their occupation, but percentages are based on totals that exclude this group.

overtime a week, an hour longer than the UK average. The corresponding figure for women was just over 5 hours, also an hour longer than the national average. That women on average work more unpaid overtime than men is probably related to the greater proportion of women who work in non-manual occupations – the practice of working unpaid hours is recognised as being more prevalent in these occupation types. In addition to this Londoners spend more time travelling to work. While the average time spent travelling to and from work in Great Britain was 2 hours and 5 minutes per week in 1998, for Londoners, it was 3 hours and 25 minutes per week.

### Unemployment

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

Throughout the 1990s, the ILO and claimant count figures followed similar trends in terms of accelerations, decelerations and cyclical turning points (Chart 6.11 overleaf). Throughout the period, UK rates have been similar for ILO unemployment and the claimant count. However, in London the differences have been greater, particularly since 1994. The main contributory factor to this is that the ILO rate is based on the economically active population resident in each area, whilst the claimant count rate is based on the number of jobs in each area plus the number of claimants. The difference is particularly marked in London because of commuting, an important

# Average gross weekly earnings1: by occupational group, April 1999

£ per week

	Males		Females	
	London	Great Britain	London	Great Britain
Managers and administrators	821.2	657.3	564.6	461.4
Professional	692.7	584.3	557.3	477.2
Associate professional and technical	734.6	528.8	488.4	394.4
Clerical and secretarial	335.4	299.1	336.1	267.3
Craft and related	429.3	367.0		234.3
Personal and protective services	395.5	351.5	282.3	232.8
Sales	385.5	353.0	290.6	245.2
Plant and machine operatives	387.7	337.1	276.9	236.1
Other	335.6	290.2	243.4	201.6
All occupations	584.4	442.4	422.8	326.5

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

Source: New Earnings Survey, Office for National Statistics

6.10

# Average weekly hours<sup>1</sup> of full-time employees<sup>2</sup>

Hours

	Male	S	Fema	ales				
	Total		Total					
	including	Over-	including	Over-				
	overtime	time	overtime	time				
London								
1979 <sup>3</sup>	42.1	4.1	37.3	0.7				
1989 4	40.7	3.3	37.2	1.0				
1999 4	40.2	2.0	37.2	0.7				
Great Britain								
1979 <sup>3</sup>	43.2	4.5	37.5	0.6				
1989 4	42.3	4.0	37.6	1.0				
1999 4	41.4	2.7	37.5	0.8				

<sup>1</sup> Including paid overtime.

Source: New Earnings Survey, Office for National Statistics

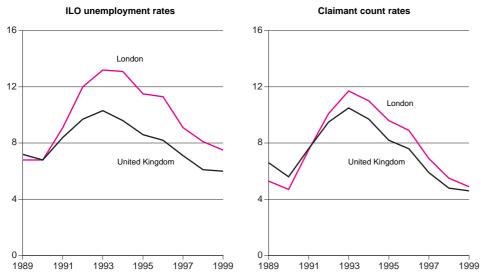
<sup>2</sup> At April each year.

<sup>3</sup> Data from the 1979 New Earnings Survey were compiled on the basis of males aged over 21 and females aged over 18

<sup>4</sup> Data from the 1989 and 1999 New Earnings Survey were compiled on the basis of employees on adult rates.

## Unemployment rates<sup>1</sup>





1 Averages for Spring (March to May) quarters of each year based on those aged 16 or over. Not seasonally adjusted.

Source: Office for National Statistics

feature of the London labour market. (See Chapter 10 for more information on commuting both into and out of London.)

Prior to 1990, the ILO unemployment rate in London was lower than the UK average, and in 1990 the two rates were the same. Since then, however, the rate for London has been higher than the national average, by as much as 3 percentage points or more over the period 1993 to 1996. Having peaked at 14.4 per cent in Autumn 1993, the ILO unemployment rate in London fell back to 7.5 per cent in Spring 1999, but this was still one of the highest rates in the United Kingdom and higher than the United Kingdom average of 6.0 per cent.

Not surprisingly, there is considerable variation in the ILO unemployment rate between the boroughs. For those boroughs where a rate can be reliably estimated, the annual average from March 1998 to February 1999 ranged from 5.0 per cent in Wandsworth and 5.4 per cent in Barnet to 16.7 per cent in Newham and 14.8 per cent in Hackney (Table A6.1 in the Appendix).

# 6.12

# Claimant count<sup>1</sup>: by age and duration (computerised claims only), October 1999

London							Percentages ar	nd thousands
		Ma	les aged		Females aged			
	18-24	25-49	50 or over	All ages <sup>2</sup>	18-24	25-49	50 or over	All ages <sup>2</sup>
2 weeks or less	10.4	5.3	4.8	6.2	11.1	7.5	6.0	8.3
Over 2 weeks, up to 8	26.2	13.5	10.8	15.4	28.7	18.6	13.7	20.7
Over 8 weeks, up to 13	16.0	8.7	6.9	9.8	17.0	11.2	8.9	12.4
Over 13 weeks, up to 26	25.4	17.2	13.7	18.1	23.9	18.5	17.4	19.8
Over 26 weeks, up to 1 year	16.5	19.1	16.3	18.2	14.5	17.6	17.0	16.6
Over 1 year, up to 2	4.5	18.9	17.9	16.2	3.9	15.9	17.4	12.8
Over 2 years, up to 3	0.6	6.7	8.3	5.9	0.6	5.1	7.1	4.2
Over 3 years, up to 5	0.3	4.8	7.5	4.4	0.3	3.2	5.7	2.8
Over 5 years	0.1	5.8	13.7	5.9	0.0	2.5	6.8	2.5
Claimant count								
(=100%) (thousands)	24.6	96.5	20.0	141.7	13.7	29.5	8.1	51.8

<sup>1</sup> Count of unemployment-related claimants.

Source: Office for National Statistics

<sup>2</sup> Includes some aged under 18.

araantaaaa and tha...aanda

In October 1999, there were around 193 thousand people claiming unemployment-related benefits in London, just over a quarter of them women (Table 6.12). Men were far more likely than women to have been claiming unemployment-related benefits for over a year – around a third of men and a fifth of women had been doing so. For both men and women, the proportions rose with age - almost half of male and nearly two fifths of female claimants aged 50 or over had been unemployed and claiming benefits for over a year.

Nearly a fifth of all claimants were under the age of 25. In April 1998 the Government introduced the New Deal for Young Unemployed people as part of the Welfare to Work strategy. The aim of the scheme is to help young people who have been unemployed and claiming jobseeker's allowance for six months or more, to find work and to improve their longer-term employability. The London Training and Enterprise Council's annual report based on a survey of employers and individuals across London found that awareness of the New Deal programme is relatively high. Awareness however was found to be lowest in the distribution, hotels and catering sector, which is the sector most likely to recruit young people. Only 3.2 per cent of all workplaces reported that they had signed up for the programme, although 12 per cent did not know whether they had signed up for the programme. Awareness and take up of the New Deal is lower among ethnic minority owned workplaces. Overall 58 per cent of respondents from ethnic minorities were aware of the programme and only 2.2 per cent had signed up for it.

# **Economic Activity**

The size of the labour force is influenced by, amongst other things; demographic factors (which are reflected in the population of working age) and socio-economic trends (such as participation in further and higher education and patterns of retirement). The size of the male labour force

### Age structure of the labour force

				Percen	tages and t	housands
		London		United Kingdom		
	1988¹	1998¹	2006²	1988¹	1998¹	2006²
Percentages aged						
16-24	22.8	13.9	14.4	22.4	15.4	15.0
25-34	26.5	31.5	23.9	24.1	26.4	21.2
35-44	21.7	25.5	29.2	23.5	24.6	27.3
45-59 (females) /64 (males)	26.3	26.4	29.5	27.4	30.9	33.3
60 (females) /65 (males) or over	2.7	2.7	3.0	2.6	2.8	3.1
Total labour force (=100%)						
(thousands)	3,492	3,489	3,707	28,345	28,713	30,235

<sup>1</sup> Percentage of the household population who are in the labour force at Spring each year.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

living in London decreased by over 1 per cent over the period 1989 to 1999, compared with a fall of almost 2 per cent in the United Kingdom as a whole. In contrast, the female labour force increased by almost 3 per cent in London and by over 4 per cent nationally. The number of economically active women in London grew by nearly 3 per cent over the same period, compared with 2 per cent nationally (Table 6.1 at the beginning of the chapter). The economically active population includes people who are either in full or part-time work, and those who are unemployed and actively seeking work. Children and pensioners fall outside of the ages when people will normally have a job. Some people who are of working age are unable to work, while others choose not to work.

Demographic changes affect not only the overall size of the labour force but also its internal structure. Since 1988, there have been large rises in the proportion of the labour force aged between 25 and 44 and a large fall in the percentage aged between 16 and 24 (Table 6.13). One of the reasons for this is that there are fewer young people than there were 30 years ago, since the birth rate was low in the second half of the 1970s. In addition, a much higher proportion of those of

<sup>2</sup> The London projections are based on 1994 estimates of the labour force, but the United Kingdom projections use 1997 estimates for Great Britain and 1994 estimates for Northern Ireland.



### Economic activity rates: by gender

Percentages

		London			United Kingdom		
			All			All	
	Males	Females	persons	Males	Females	persons	
Estimates <sup>1</sup>							
1989	88.4	70.9	79.9	88.3	70.9	80.0	
1990	88.7	71.9	80.6	88.3	71.3	80.2	
1991	86.7	70.6	78.9	87.7	71.0	79.8	
1992	85.5	68.6	77.3	86.3	70.6	78.8	
1993	85.9	69.6	78.0	85.6	70.6	78.4	
1994	84.3	68.2	76.5	85.2	70.6	78.2	
1995	84.1	68.6	76.6	84.7	70.6	78.0	
1996	83.9	69.8	77.1	84.6	71.1	78.1	
1997	84.6	70.4	77.7	84.4	71.4	78.2	
1998	82.6	69.3	76.1	83.9	71.5	78.0	
1999	84.2	70.2	77.5	84.1	72.1	78.4	

<sup>1</sup> Percentage of the household population of working age (males aged 16-64 and females aged 16-59)who are in the labour force at Spring each year.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

minimum school-leaving age have continued in full-time education than previously (see Chapter 7 for more details on those in full-time education). At the end of peoples' working lives, fewer men are in the labour force than in the past. The proportion of men aged 60 to 64 in the labour force has declined by nearly half since 1971.

Table 6.14 looks at the proportion of the population of working age (16 to 64 for men; 16 to 59 for women) who are economically active. Until 1990, the economic activity rates for both men and women of working age in London were generally similar to those for the United Kingdom as a whole. Since 1991, however, the overall economic activity rates in the capital have been slightly lower than the national ones. In 1999 the rates for both men and women in London were lower than in 1990 overall, but lower for men and higher for women.

London's ethnically diverse population is reflected in its labour force (see Chapter 2 for more information on London's population). Table 6.15 shows economic activity rates of people from different ethnic origins living in Inner and Outer London. In 1998-99, economic activity rates were higher in Inner London than in Outer London for all ethnic groups; although the most pronounced differences occur among people of Indian/ Parkistani/Bangladeshi origin and those of 'other' ethnic origins.

The 1998, London Employer Survey collected information on the ownership of private businesses and found that 17 per cent of workplaces had an owner from an ethnic minority community. It also found that the Indian community owns a higher proportion of London's businesses than any other ethnic minority group. Black ethnic groups are considerably under represented, accounting for 8 per cent of the population but only 1 per cent of private sector business owners.

The younger age profiles of ethnic minority groups is one reason why they tend to have lower economic activity rates than those from the White group. Young people are much more likely to be in full-time education and therefore less likely to be economically active than those over 25, and young people from ethnic minorities tend to have particularly high participation rates in full-time education. People from all ethnic minority groups had higher unemployment rates than the White group in 1998-99. This is linked to the concentration of certain ethnic minority groups in urban areas such as Inner London, where unemployment rates are generally higher than the national average. Over half of London's Black Africans live in Inner London, However, even within Inner London unemployment rate for Black Africans was more than twice that of Whites in 1998-99.



The differences in employment rates between ethnic minority groups were found to be much smaller for those born in the United Kingdom than for those who were not. In addition, the length of time spent living in the United Kingdom may also be a factor. For example, for those born abroad, Indian men aged 25 to 49 had the longest average period of residence in the United Kingdom (21 years) and they also had the highest employment rate. Cultural differences and time taken to become fluent in English may be more direct influences.

The European Social Fund provides resources to help meet the aims of all the Structural Fund objectives except 5a. Under Objective 3, there are 3 main priorities: Priority 1 is concerned with pathways to employment where the aim is to facilitate the integration of unemployed people exposed to long-term unemployment by helping those aged 25 and over who have been unemployed for 6 months or more to compete effectively in the labour market and find and retain jobs. Priority 2 aims to facilitate the integration of young people into working life by helping those aged 16 to 24 who are at risk of exclusion from the labour market. Priority 3 aims to promote equal opportunities for unemployed men and women in all respects of employment including training and recruitment, consistent with the provisions of the Sex Discrimination Act 1975.

Objective 3 is a national programme, available across Great Britain as a whole rather than for designated areas. However, information on the grants awarded to individual projects in London under the 1999 program is available and Table A6.2 in the Appendix shows the 25 highest grants awarded. Over half of these grants (amounting to more than £8 million) were awarded to projects concerning Priority 2: Pathways to a Good Start in Working Life. Only one project was

### Economic activity: by ethnic origin, 1998-991

		Thousands	and percentages
	Inner	Outer	Great
	London	London	Britain
Economic activity rate (percentages	s) <sup>3</sup>		
White	77.3	82.4	80.0
Black <sup>5</sup>	71.4	76.1	73.2
Indian/Pakistani/Bangladeshi	54.0	71.2	62.3
Other <sup>6</sup>	61.8	71.5	66.2
All origins <sup>2</sup>	73.9	80.2	79.1
Total (= 100%) (thousands)	1,343	2,236	28,402
ILO unemployment rate (percentage	es) <sup>4</sup>		
White	6.8	5.4	5.7
Black <sup>5</sup>	17.3	13.1	14.7
Indian/Pakistani/Bangladeshi	19.4	9.6	12.4
Other <sup>6</sup>	18.3	9.1	12.1
All origins <sup>2</sup>	9.5	6.5	6.1
Total (= 100%) (thousands)	127	144	1,732

<sup>1</sup> Four-quarter average from Autumn 1998 to Summer 1999.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

<sup>2</sup> Includes those who did not state their ethnic origin.

<sup>3</sup> People of working age. Males aged 16-64 and females aged 16-59.

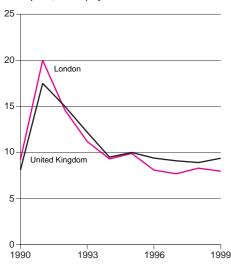
<sup>4</sup> People aged 16 and over.

<sup>5</sup> Excludes Black-mixed.

<sup>6</sup> Includes Black-mixed

### Redundancies<sup>1</sup>

Rates per 1,000 employees



1 In the three months prior to each Spring survey; based on those aged 16 or over.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

awarded a grant under Priority 3: Pathways to Equal Opportunities between Men and Women, although this was one of the top five highest value grants in London. A new program for the years 2000 to 2006 will be launched in late Spring 2000.

### Job losses

Chart 6.16 looks at the trends in redundancies since 1990. The redundancy rate in London more than doubled between Spring 1990 and Spring 1991 and then took three more years to return roughly to its 1990 level. At the peak in 1991, up to 1 in 50 employees in London were made redundant in the three months prior to Spring 1991. For the most part the redundancy rate for London has followed very closely that for the United Kingdom as a whole. The most notable exception was the peak year of 1991, when London noticeably suffered more from the recession than the United Kingdom overall. Conversely, since 1996 there has been a lower

redundancy rate in London than nationally. The reason for the higher rates in the United Kingdom is a rise in redundancies in manufacturing which has not affected London to the same extent.

Redundancy of course is just one way of reducing staff. Turnover of staff gives companies the choice of whether or not to replace them. In the 1998 London Employer Survey respondents were asked if staff turnover had increased or decreased in the 12 months prior to the survey. It also found that 24 per cent more companies reported an increase in staff turnover than reported a fall. The difference was even greater in the business services where 32 per cent more workplaces reported an increase in turnover/activity than reported a fall. In addition, a number of forms of flexible employment, such as fixed-term or casual contracts, are used increasingly and a reduction in this segment of the workforce will generally not be reflected in the redundancy figures.

# Education and training

- In 1997/98, 65 per cent of under five year olds were in education in London, a higher participation rate than the average for England (62 per cent).
- In January 2000, there were more than 250 beacon schools in England; 60 of these were in the London area.
- The proportion of 16 year olds in Inner London with no graded results fell faster in the 1990s than the corresponding proportion for England.
- Around a sixth of employees in London received some form of job-related training in Spring 1999.
- More than 40 per cent of the resident labour force in Inner London have a higher education qualification of some sort compared with almost 30 per cent for Outer London and around 25 per cent for the United Kingdom as a whole.

The schools, colleges and universities in London are an important feature of life in the capital; providing a wide range of education services for children, young people and adults. The international importance of London as an education centre is reflected in the large number of overseas students who come to study.

Schools and pupils

Compulsory schooling starts at the age of five, but in recent years there has been a trend for more children below the age of five to start formal education. Table 7.1 shows that between 1985/86 and 1997/98, the proportion of under fives receiving full-time or part-time education in

Under fives in school<sup>1</sup>

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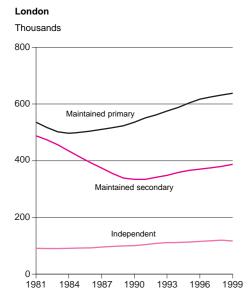
Percentages

		Maintained nursery and primary schools		Independent and special schools		All schools	
	London	England	London	England	London	England	
1985/86	49	43	4	3	53	46	
1990/91	50	48	5	4	56	52	
1995/96	58	54	6	4	64	59	
1996/97	60	56	6	5	67	60	
1007/09	50	57	6	5	65	62	

1 As a percentage of the 3 and 4 year old population.

Source: Department for Education and Employment

# Headcount of pupils1: by type of school



1 Excludes pupils in nursery schools, special schools and pupils referral units.

Source: Department for Education and Employment

England increased by 16 percentage points, compared with 12 percentage points in London. In 1997/98, 65 per cent of under five year olds were in full-time education in London, a higher participation rate than the average for England (62 per cent). However, the difference in participation rates between the capital and the rest of the country is the lowest it has been for over a decade.

The number of children in education is of course heavily dependent on the birth rate in earlier years. A peak in the number of births will, all other things being equal, tend to result in an increase in primary school admissions around five years later, and an increase in secondary school admissions some time after that. Birth rates nationally (in London as well as the United Kingdom) fell in the 1970s and then began increasing. Consequently, following earlier falls, school admissions started to rise in maintained primary schools from 1984 (Chart 7.2). There has been an overall rise of

around 100 thousand in the number of pupils attending primary schools in London between the years 1981 and 1999. The rise in admissions in maintained secondary schools has been from 1992 onwards.

The number of children attending independent schools in London (around 10 per cent) is proportionately higher than the average of seven per cent for England as whole. Numbers of children attending independent schools will depend on factors other than the birth–rate (such as parent's choice and the ability to pay school fees) and increased every year between 1982 and 1998, and declined slightly in 1999.

The proportion of children with statements of special educational needs who are educated in special schools in London is falling, reflecting a nation-wide trend for children with special needs to be educated in mainstream schools. Details of the number of children with statements of special educational needs can be found in Table A7.1 in the Appendix. Compared with Outer London, a slightly higher proportion of pupils in Inner London have statements of special educational needs. The overall rates for London are in line with rates for the whole of England.

School rolls in Outer London are consistently higher than the national average. Table 7.3 shows that in England as a whole in 1997/98, 47 per cent of children in maintained primary schools were in schools with more than 300 pupils, while in Inner London this rose to 58 per cent and in Outer London to 71 per cent. Secondary schools serve wider areas and require more specialised facilities, so they tend to be larger. The proportion of pupils attending secondary schools with more than 900 pupils in Outer London is again higher than the national average (around 70 per cent, compared with 60 per cent for England as a whole). The comparable figure for secondary schools in Inner London is lower than the natural average (58 per cent).

# **7.3**Distribution of pupils¹: by size of school, 1997/98

Percentages and thousands

	Inner London <sup>2</sup>	Outer London <sup>2</sup>	England
Maintained primary schools			
200 pupils or fewer	6.9	3.4	18.5
201- 300 pupils	35.2	25.7	34.7
Over 300 pupils	57.9	71.0	46.8
Total pupils in primary schools (=100%) (thousands)	228.1	403.4	4,460.6
Maintained secondary schools			
600 pupils or fewer	7.7	6.0	12.6
601- 900 pupils	33.9	23.6	27.8
901- 1,200 pupils	30.9	42.5	32.0
Over 1,200 pupils	27.5	27.9	27.5
Total pupils in secondary schools (=100%) (thousands)	119.3	260.7	3,072.8

<sup>1</sup> Full-time and part-time (ie headcounts).

Source: Department for Education and Employment

<sup>2</sup> Figures relate to the standard definition of Inner and Outer London used elsewhere in the publication. They are therefore not comparable with those shown in Table 7.3 in earlier editions of Focus on London which relate to the former ILEA area and the rest of London.

Figures given in Table A7.1 in the Appendix show that, in spite of the recent increases in the number of pupils, London has a significant number of surplus places in its maintained schools, though the proportions are slightly smaller than those for England as a whole. The proportions vary a great deal between boroughs, reaching as high as 19 per cent for secondary schools in Lambeth and as low as 0.7 per cent for primary schools in Kingston upon Thames. Overall, the proportions of places in both primary and secondary schools which are surplus are substantially higher in Inner London than Outer London – around 50 per cent higher in the case of secondary schools.

The type of secondary school attended is shown in Table 7.4. The comprehensive system of statemaintained, non-selective schools has provided education for the majority of children in England since the 1970s, particularly in London. Ninety per cent of pupils in London in state-maintained schools attended a comprehensive school in 1998/99, compared with 86 per cent in England as a whole. In recent years, Local Education Authorities (LEAs) have had more flexibility in being able to determine entry requirements for their schools, and a number of London boroughs have introduced selective entrance requirements in the form of interviews and entrance exams for comprehensive schools under their management.

A handful of Local Education Authorities in London have maintained the selective grammar school system which existed before comprehensives were introduced. Overall, 5 per cent of pupils in maintained secondary schools in London attend grammar schools, around the same proportion as in England as a whole.

Until recently, state-maintained schools had the option of moving to grant-maintained (GM) status if approved by ballot of parents at the school in question. The governing body of a grant-maintained school took sole responsibility for management (within the framework of legislation) and was directly accountable to parents for the

# Distribution of pupils in maintained secondary schools: by type of school, 1998/99

Thousands	and	percent	tades
-----------	-----	---------	-------

	Lor	ndon	England	
	Thousands	Percentages	Thousands	Percentages
Middle, deemed secondary	1	-	157	5
Secondary modern	8	2	92	3
Grammar	18	5	141	5
Comprehensive	350	90	2,690	86
Technical and other	11	3	42	1
All pupils	388	100	3,122	100

Source: Department for Education and Employment

running of the school. Since the scheme's inception in 1990, schools in London opted-out of LEA control at a faster rate than across England as a whole. Over the three years to 1999, however, growth in the proportion of schools choosing grant-maintained status in London slowed in comparison with England. Table 7.5 overleaf shows that by 1999, almost a third of secondary pupils in London were in grantmaintained schools compared with around a fifth in England overall. Opting-out by primary schools started later and did not take off so fast, affecting only three per cent of London's pupils in 1999. From 1 September 1999, all previous categories of maintained school, including grant-maintained, were replaced by four new categories, all maintained (or funded) by the LEA. More details of the new categories of school established can be found in the Notes and Definitions. However, figures are not yet available for these new categories.

Beacon schools are schools which have been identified as among the best performing in the country and represent examples of successful practice which are to be brought to the attention of

# Grant-maintained schools: numbers and pupils1

	Number of schools		in so	Number of pupils in schools (thousands)		Percentage of pupils in grant-maintained schools	
	London	England	London	England	London	England	
Primary schools							
1992	0	13	0	3.2	0.0	0.1	
1993	11	75	3.4	21.6	0.6	0.5	
1994	43	260	13.4	71.4	2.3	1.7	
1995	58	410	18.2	109.7	3.0	2.5	
1996	61	448	20.2	122.5	3.3	2.8	
1997	66	483	22.5	134.4	3.6	3.0	
1998	70	508	23.7	142.9	3.7	3.2	
1999	72	511	24.4	146.2	3.8	3.3	
Secondary schools							
1991	9	50	7.6	36.4	2.2	1.3	
1992	29	130	26.8	105.8	7.7	3.6	
1993	48	262	46.0	221.4	12.9	7.5	
1994	102	554	96.3	485.3	26.9	16.5	
1995	114	622	108.2	553.0	29.6	18.5	
1996	116	642	112.7	579.9	30.4	19.3	
1997	119	652	118.1	602.9	31.5	19.8	
1998	120	667	120.8	625.8	31.8	20.4	
1999	121	668	123.4	641.8	31.9	20.6	

<sup>1</sup> As at January each year.

Source: Department for Education and Employment

# **7.6**

# Average class sizes1

				Numbers
	Inner London <sup>2</sup>	Outer London <sup>2</sup>	London	England
Primary schools				
1980/81			23.1	25.2
1990/91	24.3	26.4	25.8	26.3
1998/99	26.7	27.5	27.3	27.4
Secondary schools				
1980/81			19.6	20.8
1990/91	21.3	20.3	20.6	20.3
1998/99	22.6	21.5	21.8	21.9

<sup>1</sup> One-teacher classes in maintained schools only.

Source: Department for Education and Employment

the rest of the education service with a view to sharing that practice with others. They work in partnership with other schools to pass on their particular areas of expertise. By January 2000, over 250 Beacon (primary, middle and secondary schools) had been established in England around 60 of these were in the London area. In March 1999 the government launched its "Excellence in cities" strategy. Under these proposals, the Beacon School initiative will be rapidly expanded. At least one in four beacons will be in or serving a city area and all Beacons outside city areas will have specified inner city school partners written into their contracts. The strategy will have particular relevance to London as nearly all Inner London Education Authorities have been chosen as appropriate areas for the strategy to be implemented.

There is some dispute about the educational significance of class size and pupil-teacher ratios, but they are widely regarded by parents as key indicators of the quality of education. Class sizes in schools in London are broadly in line with the national average for England. Primary schools in Inner London have average class sizes slightly lower than the comparable figure for England (26.7 compared to a national average of 27.4); in Outer London, average primary school classes are almost exactly the same size as class sizes in England (Table 7.6). Secondary schools in Inner London have average class sizes slightly higher than the comparable figure for England; for Outer London they are slightly lower, resulting in average secondary school class sizes for London matching almost exactly average class sizes for England as a whole. Historically, class sizes in London have been smaller that the rest of the country, although this gap has narrowed considerably over the period since 1980/81.

Pupil-teacher ratios are obviously closely related to class size. Over the past ten years the number of pupils per teacher in London has increased in

<sup>2</sup> Figures for 1998/99 relate to the standard definition of Inner and Outer London used elsewhere in the publication and are not strictly comparable with the figures for earlier years which relate to the former ILEA area and the rest of London. See Notes and Definitions.

both primary and secondary schools (Table 7.7). Nevertheless, the Inner London ratios in 1998/99 were still lower than those for Outer London, which themselves were lower than England as a whole. All categories of maintained schools in Inner and Outer London had ratios at least marginally lower than the corresponding England figure. Only for non-maintained schools in both Inner and Outer London were the pupil-teacher ratios greater than those for England.

The recent hiring of a large number of classroom assistants to help with the government's literacy and numeracy strategies have helped reduce the ratio of pupils to responsible adults working in schools, although the full impact of this initiative has yet to be fully assessed.

Average figures for pupil-teacher ratios conceal appreciable differences between boroughs. Information given in Table A7.1 in the Appendix shows that behind the average pupil-teacher ratio of 22 for London maintained primary schools in 1998/99, the range varies from 25 pupils per teacher in both Bexley and Newham to 14 in the Corporation of London. The corresponding figures for secondary schools show similar variation: an average of 16 for the whole of London; with the highest pupil-teacher ration of 18 in Hammersmith and Fulham, and the lowest ratio, 14, in Kensington and Chelsea.

Absence rates from school is one indicator that is of interest. The measurement of absence from school is not straightforward - pupils may be absent from schools for a number of authorised reasons; equally, unauthorised absence may be recorded if a pupil arrives at school late and is recorded as being present. For both primary and secondary schools unauthorised absence rates in 1998/99 were higher in Inner London than Outer London. Unauthorised absence rates in Outer London are the same as rates for England as a whole (Table 7.8 overleaf).

## Pupil-teacher ratios: by type of school

Pupils per teacher (numbers)

	1988/89			1998/99		
	Inner London <sup>1</sup>	Outer London <sup>1</sup>	England	Inner London <sup>1</sup>	Outer London <sup>1</sup>	England
Nursery schools	16.4	18.4	19.5	16.9	15.1	18.4
Primary schools	18.3	21.3	22.0	21.3	22.9	23.5
Of which grant-maintained				20.8	22.9	23.5
Secondary schools	14.4	14.7	15.3	15.8	16.3	17.0
Of which grant-maintained				16.0	16.3	16.7
Non-maintained schools	11.3	12.1	11.1	10.2	10.8	10.0
Special schools	5.8	5.2	6.2	5.7	6.1	6.5

<sup>1</sup> Figures for 1998/99 relate to the standard definition of Inner and Outer London used elsewhere in the publication and are not strictly comparable with the figures for earlier years which relate to the former ILEA area and the rest of London. See Notes and Definitions.

Source: Department for Education and Employment

Further details about the classification of schools, pupils, teachers and pupil-teacher ratios can be found in the Notes and Definitions.

# Pupil absence from maintained schools, 1998/991

Numbers	and	percentages

	Inner London <sup>2</sup>	Outer London <sup>2</sup>	England
Average number of half days			
missed per absent pupil			
Primary schools			
Authorised absence	19	19	18
Unauthorised absence	12	10	10
Secondary schools			
Authorised absence	26	25	26
Unauthorised absence	22	19	19
Percentage of half days			
missed			
Primary schools			
Authorised absence	5.6	5.7	5.4
Unauthorised absence	1.4	0.7	0.5
Secondary schools			
Authorised absence	7.6	7.7	7.8
Unauthorised absence	2.4	1.1	1.1

<sup>1</sup> Absences during the school year up to 22 May 1999.

Source: Department for Education and Employment

7.9

# 16 and 17 year olds participating in education<sup>1</sup> or training<sup>2</sup>

				Percentages
	16 yea	ar olds	17 year olds	
	1990/91	1997/98	1990/91	1997/98
In education				
Inner London <sup>3</sup>	62	74	45	64
Outer London <sup>3</sup>	73	82	56	68
London	69	79	53	67
England	72	76	58	65
In training				
London		5		6
England	19	10	19	11
In education and/or training				
London		83		72
England	83	84	71	74

<sup>1</sup> Full or part-time.

Source: Department for Education and Employment

Just under half of the UK ethnic minority population live in London. As a consequence there is a much higher cultural diversity in schools and colleges in London than the rest of the country. London's multi-ethnic population (see Table 2.12 in the Population Chapter) is reflected in the proportion of pupils for whom English is an additional language. For maintained secondary schools in January 1999, this was 28 per cent. The corresponding figure for primary schools was 29 per cent. In both primary and secondary schools, Inner London has proportionally roughly twice as many pupils for whom English is an additional language than Outer London. For more than a quarter of all pupils in London, English is a second language and is not the main one used at home. Other languages spoken include Bengali, Cantonese, Greek, Gujerati, Hindi, Italian, Portuguese, Punjabi, Spanish, Turkish and Urdu.

# **Further and Higher Education**

So far this chapter has described education up to the minimum leaving age of 16. However, for some years, close attention has also been directed towards what happens to young people beyond that point in the preparation for working life.

A White Paper, *Learning to Succeed*, published in June 1999, announced proposals for a new Learning and Skills Council for the whole of England. Consequently, provision of Further and Higher Education in London will be subject to substantial change. From April 2001, the Council will deliver all post-16 education and training (excluding higher education).

The White Paper also announced a new nationwide government supported training strategy aimed mainly at 16 to 19 year olds called Connexions. This replaces Work based training for young people.

<sup>2</sup> Figures relate to the standard definition of Inner and Outer London used elsewhere in the publication. They are therefore not comparable with those shown in earlier editions which relate to the former ILEA area and the rest of London.

<sup>2</sup> Government-supported training only.

<sup>3</sup> Figures relate to the standard definition of Inner and Outer London used elsewhere in the publication.

Connexions plans to ensure that all young people have access to high-quality education and training, irrespective of whether they opt to take up education in a school sixth form, further education college or work-based training through an apprenticeship, traineeship or other arrangement. In addition, under the Welfare-to-Work programme (see Notes and Definitions for Chapter 6), all young unemployed people are guaranteed education and training opportunities, while those with poor basic skills have the option of participating in full-time study on an approved course. More details about the further and higher education sectors; the training options open to young people and the qualifications they obtain can be found in the Notes and Definitions

Table 7.9 shows the percentages of 16 and 17 year olds participating in education and government-supported training. In 1990/91, the proportions of 16 and 17 year olds in London who remained in education were lower than those for England. In the case of Inner London, the difference was as much as 13 percentage points for 17 year olds. However, the participation rates grew much faster in London than in England as a whole, so that in 1997/98 the proportions of young people participating in education were slightly higher (2 percentage points) in London than in the country as a whole.

For 16 and 17 year olds, participation in government-supported training (principally but not exclusively Work Based Training for Young People) was lower in London than nationally, with five per cent of 16 year olds and six per cent of 17 year olds in London in some form of education or training in 1997/98. Comparative figures for the whole of England stood at 10 and 11 per cent respectively. The most popular course in the Work Based Training for young people scheme is Modern Apprenticeships, accounting for just under half of all enrolments for all young people in the London area.

Higher education students at institutions in London, 1997/98

Thousands	and	noroon	+0000
HIDUSanus	and	Dercen	เสนษร

	Number of	Part-time	Overseas
	students	students	students
	(thousands)	(percentages)	(percentages)
Universities			
London <sup>1</sup>	100.7	32	22
South Bank	20.1	38	13
Middlesex	20.7	19	19
Westminster	19.6	49	12
Thames Valley	15.7	40	24
Greenwich	17.0	35	11
Brunel	13.5	25	10
Kingston	14.4	23	10
North London	14.1	31	12
East London	11.5	29	16
City	13.2	51	19
London Guildhall	12.3	36	12
London Business School	1.2	36	62
Royal College of Art	0.8	7	26
All universities	274.7	33	18
Other higher education institutions	27.1	26	15
Higher education students within			
further education establishments	16.0	71	3
All higher education students	317.8	35	17

<sup>1</sup> Including all the constituent colleges of the University.

Source: Department for Education and Employment

Much of further education is vocational in character, ranging from lower-level technical and commercial courses to those leading to professional qualifications. Courses and examinations are offered by many bodies including the Business and Technology Education Council (BTEC), the City and Guilds of London Institute and the Royal Society of Arts Examination Board. To provide an integrated framework a National Council for Vocational Qualifications was set up in 1986. The Council does not award qualifications itself but those accredited by it are callled

National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs). As an extension of these, for people seeking a wider range of study, General National Vocational Qualifications (GNVQs) have been introduced since 1992 as a vocational counterpart to GCSE and A Level. An intermediate level GNVQ is equivalent to five good GCSEs and an advanced GNVQ to two A Levels. More detail about the further (including adult) and higher education sectors, and Youth Training can be found in the Notes and Definitions.

# Employees<sup>1</sup> receiving job-related training<sup>2</sup>

Percentages of employees of working age<sup>3</sup>

		London		United Kingdom		
	1989	1994	1999⁴	1989	1994	1999⁴
Males						
Any job-related training	16.3	15.4	13.9	14.3	14.9	14.7
On-the-job training only	4.6	5.3	3.9	3.9	4.5	4.2
Off-the-job training only	8.8	8.5	8.1	8.0	8.4	7.8
Both on and off-the-job training	2.9	1.6	1.8	2.3	2.0	2.7
Females						
Any job-related training	17.4	18.9	18.1	14.4	16.3	17.3
On-the-job training only	4.7	5.3	5.0	4.4	4.9	4.6
Off-the-job training only	9.6	11.4	9.9	7.9	9.4	9.6
Both on and off-the-job training	3.0	2.2	3.1	2.1	2.0	3.0

<sup>1</sup> Employees are those in employment excluding the self-employed, unpaid family workers and those on government-supported employment and training schemes.

Source: Department for Education and Employment, from the Labour Force Survey

7.12

# **Enrolments on LEA adult education courses**

						Thousands	
		London			England		
	1990/91	1995/96¹	1997/98¹	1990/91	1995/96¹	1997/98¹	
Males							
Part-time day courses	32.7	26.7	29.9	93.1	91.2	113.2	
Evening courses	58.0	32.3	24.6	263.1	191.1	160.7	
Females							
Part-time day courses	116.5	92.0	96.2	385.5	399.9	395.7	
Evening courses	120.3	71.8	58.4	607.1	447.9	392.5	

<sup>1</sup> Includes enrolments on courses provided by contracted-out provision.

Source: Department for Education and Employment

Table 7.10 on the previous page shows that nearly a third of Higher Education students in London study at University of London, a collection of around eighteen constituent colleges scattered throughout the capital. The University of London is Britain's largest University after the Open University. Founded by Royal charter in 1836 it was the first to admit women onto degree courses and the first University to appoint a female professor.

South Bank, Westminster, and Middlesex universities are also popular destinations for higher education students in London, each having around twenty thousand enrolments. Other specialist art, drama and music colleges are also based in London, reflecting the importance of the capital as an internationally recognised centre of excellence for the performing and expressive arts.

### Job-related training

Education and training are now recognised as being important not only for young people, but throughout a person's working life. The proportion of employees in London receiving some form of job-related training is broadly in line with the rest of the country (Table 7.11). Overall, around 16 per cent of employees in London received some form of job-related training in Spring 1999. One in six women working in the capital received such training compared to one in seven men.

### **Adult education**

Women also outnumber men in enrolments on adult education courses provided by local education authorities in London, as shown in Table 7.12, by a factor of more than 2:1 for evening courses and just over 3:1 for day sessions. The total number of enrolments in London fell by more than a third in the seven years to 1997/98, compared with a fall of around a fifth for England as a whole. Nationally there had been traditionally more enrolments on evening classes than on part-time day courses for both

<sup>2</sup> Job-related training includes both on and off-the-job training received in the four weeks before interview. Interviews take place in the spring quarter of each year.

<sup>3</sup> Working age is defined as males aged 16-64 and females aged 16-59.

<sup>4</sup> Due to a change in the LFS questionnaire in 1994, data for 1999 are not directly comparable with earlier years.

## Examination achievements of young people: by gender, 1998/99

Percentages and thousands

	Inner London		Outer London		England	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Pupils in their last year of compulsory						
schooling achieving (percentages)						
5 or more GCSEs grades A* to C or GNVQs	33.6	43.4	45.0	56.7	42.8	53.4
1 to 4 GCSEs grades A* to C or GNVQs	31.4	33.4	26.7	25.1	24.8	24.5
GCSEs grades D to G only or GNVQs	26.4	17.3	21.9	13.5	25.4	17.2
No graded results	8.6	5.9	6.4	4.7	7.1	5.0
Total pupils (=100%) (thousands)	12.1	12.5	25.3	24.5	297.1	283.9
Students in post-compulsory education <sup>1</sup>						
achieving (percentages)						
1 GCE A level or AS equivalent	6.7	7.5	6.5	7.6	5.2	5.8
2 GCE A levels or AS equivalents	8.5	11.0	12.5	14.2	9.8	11.3
3 or more GCE A levels or AS equivalents	14.2	18.7	21.7	28.0	21.4	26.9
Total population (=100%) (thousands)	15.0	14.6	27.2	25.5	314.7	298.7

<sup>1</sup> Students in schools and further education colleges aged 17-19 at end of the academic year as a percentage of the 18 year old population. See Notes and Definitions. Source: Department for Education and Employment

men and women. In 1997/98 national figures for women enrolled on part-time day courses outnumbered women enrolled on evening classes for the first time. For men, in London in 1997/98, there were around 10 per cent more enrolments on London–based part time day courses than evening courses. The figures in Table 7.12 include enrolments on courses for leisure purposes as well as on those leading to qualifications. The majority of enrolments are on the former.

### **Educational attainment**

Examination results are an important indicator of educational attainment, both for comparing individual schools and assessing progress over time. Table 7.13 shows the examination achievements of pupils in their last year of compulsory schooling and students aged 17 to 19 in post-compulsory education. In 1998/99, the proportions of young people gaining five or more GCSE grades A\* to C or the GNVQ equivalent

and three or more GCE A levels or AS equivalents in Outer London were slightly higher than those achieved across England as a whole. However, for Inner London, the proportions were well below those for England. The variations in results between London and England have generally not altered over time, as can be seen from Table 7.14 overleaf. However, the proportion of 16-year-olds in Inner London with no graded results fell faster in the 1990s than the corresponding proportion for England.

As for the country overall, the examination achievements of 16 and 17 year olds in London show a marked gender difference. Girls consistently out-performed boys throughout the 1990s, at both GCSE and GCE A level. The gap is particularly wide for GCSE English and modern languages. Only in GCSE craft, design and technology, and GCE A level mathematics and sciences are boys ahead.

In this section on academic qualifications, Inner London refers to the area formerly covered by the Inner London Education Authority, ILEA; see Notes and Definitions.

## Trend in GCSE/GCE A level examination results: by gender

					P	ercentages
	Inner London		Outer London		England	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Pupils <sup>1</sup> achieving at least						
5 GCSE grades A* to C						
1991/92	26.1	32.6	34.1	43.1	34.1	42.7
1993/94	29.6	37.0	39.2	48.5	39.1	47.8
1995/96	31.4	39.9	41.0	50.7	39.9	49.4
1997/98	32.8	41.7	43.7	55.3	41.3	51.5
1998/99	33.6	43.4	45.0	56.7	42.8	53.4
No graded results						
1991/92	19.5	14.3	10.5	8.2	9.7	7.0
1993/94	14.9	11.8	8.8	7.0	8.7	6.6
1995/96	13.1	9.3	8.4	6.1	8.9	6.6
1997/98	8.9	5.8	7.4	4.6	7.7	5.4
1998/99	8.6	5.9	6.4	4.7	7.1	5.0
Students <sup>2</sup> achieving at least						
3 GCE A levels or AS equiv	valents					
1991/92	12.1	13.2	15.5	17.1	15.9	17.5
1993/94	13.6	14.9	17.2	20.4	18.4	21.4
1995/96	15.1	16.9	20.3	24.2	20.4	24.4
1997/98	14.7	18.6	21.4	27.3	21.0	26.2
1998/99	14.2	18.7	21.7	28.0	21.4	26.9

<sup>1</sup> Pupils in their last year of compulsory schooling as a percentage of the school population of the same age.

Source: Department for Education and Employment

# 7.15

# Attainment of National Learning Targets for young people<sup>1</sup>

Percentages of the population





Aged 21-23 qualified to at least NVQ level 3

Source: Department for Education and Employment, from the Labour Force Survey

The National Learning Targets, set in 1998, are for young people entering the labour market who need to have a firm basis on which to develop their skills. The first target for young people is that by the year 2002 at least 85 per cent of 19 year olds should be reaching 'NVQ2', that is a National Vocational Qualification of level 2, an 'Intermediate' GNVQ or five GCSE passes at grades A\* to C. A second target is that 60 per cent of 21 year olds should be achieving the higher 'NVQ3' (including an 'Advanced' GNVQ or two GCE A levels). Chart 7.15 shows progress towards these targets in London and England. In respect of the higher-level target London was well ahead of the field up to 1996, but only just retained its lead in 1997,1998 and 1999. For the lower target the national average overtook London's figure in 1998, and then in 1999 matched it exactly.

### Qualifications of the adult population

This section looks at the 'stock' of people in the workforce and the extent to which they are qualified. In principle this is a very different perspective from that discussed earlier, which focused on the flow of young people through the educational system. Being a major centre of business, administration and learning, London tends to attract people who have been well educated. Table 7.16 shows that 43 per cent of the resident labour force in Inner London have a higher education qualification of some sort (for example, a degree, NVQ level 4/5, HNC/D, teaching/nursing qualifications or higher level BTEC) compared with nearly 30 per cent in Outer London and around 25 per cent for the United Kingdom as a whole. In addition, London has a slightly lower proportion of its resident labour force with no qualifications at all than the United Kingdom, with little difference between Inner and Outer London.

<sup>2</sup> Students in schools and further education colleges aged 17-19 at the end of the academic year as a percentage of the 18 year old population. See Notes and Definitions.

<sup>1</sup> Changes in the LFS qualifications questions in 1993 and 1996 mean that the figures for 1988-1992, 1993-1995 and 1996-1999 are not directly comparable.

The first National Learning Target for economically active adults, complementing National Learning Targets for young people is that, by the year 2002, 50 per cent of the working-age labour force should be qualified to 'NVQ3' level, broadly equivalent to two GCE A levels. The second target is that, again by the year 2002, 28 per cent of the workforce should have a vocational, professional, management or academic qualification at NVQ level 4 or above, broadly equivalent to a first degree. Chart 7.17 shows progress towards achieving these targets.

### Spending on education

Differences in educational expenditure per pupil over time or between places (either geographically or by types of establishment) can arise for various reasons and do not necessarily reflect differences in the quality of the service delivered. For example, secondary schooling requires more specialised facilities and, as shown earlier in this chapter, is associated with smaller class sizes and lower pupil-teacher ratios. It is therefore not surprising that it is more expensive than primary education, by between a third and a half. This means that the overall cost of schools is affected by the balance between sectors as well as changes in their individual unit costs.

At the beginning of this chapter it was shown that in the second half of the 1980s the primary school population was increasing and the secondary school population decreasing, changing the ratio between them from about 1.1:1 to about 1.7:1; this helped restrain the overall increase in expenditure.

Chart 7.18 overleaf shows how expenditure per pupil changed over the ten years to 1997-98 for London and for England. The figures have been adjusted for inflation (using the GDP deflator),

# Economically active of working age¹: by highest qualification achieved, Spring 1999

		Percentages	s and thousands
	Inner London	Outer London	United Kingdom
Higher education	42.6	29.2	25.6
GCE A level or equivalent	11.6	14.7	15.6
Recognised trade apprenticeship	4.0	7.0	9.1
GCSE grades A* to C or equivalent	13.6	21.6	22.8
Qualifications at NVQ level 1 or below	2.8	4.9	6.1
Other qualifications (level unknown)	15.4	12.0	8.2
No qualifications	10.1	10.7	12.5
Total economically active (=100%) (thousands)	1,293	2,174	28,159

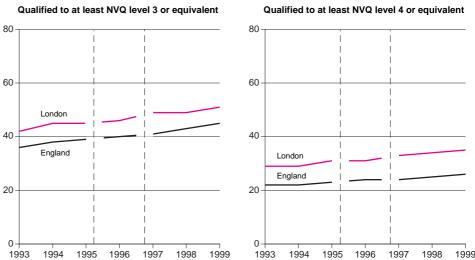
<sup>1</sup> Working age is defined as males aged 16-64 and females aged 16-59.

Source: Labour Force Survey, Office for National Statistics

7.17

# Attainment of National Learning Targets for economically active adults<sup>1</sup>

Percentages of economically active adults<sup>2</sup>



<sup>1</sup> Changes in the LFS qualifications questions in 1996 have caused a discontinuity in these data

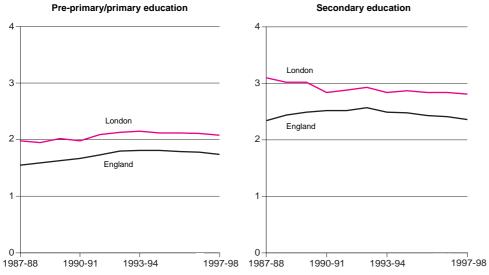
Source: Department for Education and Employment, from the Labour Force Survey

. . . .

<sup>2</sup> Adults are defined as men aged 18-64 and women aged 18-59.

# Local government expenditure per pupil at constant prices<sup>1</sup>





1 Revalued to 1997-98 prices using the December 1999 GDP deflator.

Source: Department for Education and Employment

although comparisons may be affected by differences between London and elsewhere in the cost of supplying a given unit of service at a single point of time. The pattern which emerges is that in the late 1980s spending per secondary pupil fell back in London while it was still increasing (very slowly) in England as a whole, but in the 1990s the two series have shown very similar trends. Pre-primary/primary school spending per pupil has risen slowly through most of the 1990s, with a slight narrowing of the differential between London and England as a whole over the period.

In 1997-98, spending per pupil in London was around 20 per cent higher than in England as a whole for both pre-primary/primary and secondary schools, at £2,080 and £2,810 respectively.

Table A7.1 in the Appendix shows that there was considerable variation across boroughs. Excluding the City of London, Lambeth had the highest spending per pupil for pre-primary/primary schools at £2,832 and Brent had the highest for secondaries at £3,799. Bexley had the lowest spending per pupil for both pre-primary and secondary schools at £1,595 and £2,366 respectively.

# 8 Living in London

- The proportion of households with an average gross income of £600 or more per week over the period 1996-99 was larger in London than in the United Kingdom as a whole at 31 per cent compared with 23 per cent.
- Londoners spend more on eating out than residents of any other region.
- In 1998-99, one in six Londoners reported a limiting long-standing illness compared with around one in five across Great Britain as a whole.
- The proportion of non-drinkers was significantly higher in London than in the country as a whole in 1998-99.
- The proportion of 16-29 year olds in 1998 who admitted taking some kind of illegal drug in the previous 12 months was higher in London (32 per cent) than in England and Wales as a whole (25 per cent).
- Sixteen per cent of all persons sentenced for indictable offences in England and Wales in 1998 were from London.

The size and unique position of London as the capital of Britain make living in London a distinctive experience for its seven million inhabitants. This chapter covers general themes which affect Londoners on a day to day basis, from household income and expenditure, to deprivation and chronic illness. Smoking, drinking, drugs and crime-related issues affecting Londoners are also explored. The picture which emerges is one of contrasts: a region which in some ways stands apart from the rest of the country but in other respects is a microcosm of it.

### Income levels

The importance of London as a major financial and business centre has already been examined in the Economy and Labour market chapters.

Many highly paid employees live and work in the area. The proportion of households with an average gross income of £600 or more per week over the period 1996-99 was larger in London than in the United Kingdom as a whole at 31 per cent compared with 23 per cent. The higher proportion of high income households is at least partially

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

# Distribution of gross household income<sup>1</sup>, 1996-99<sup>2</sup>

	P	ercentages and £
	London	United Kingdom
Percentage of households in each weekly income group		
Under £100	12	12
£100 but under £150	9	10
£150 but under £250	13	16
£250 but under £350	12	13
£350 but under £450	10	11
£450 but under £600	13	14
£600 but under £750	10	9
£750 or over	21	14
Average gross weekly household income (£)	523	430

<sup>1</sup> Excluding Housing Benefit, Council Tax Benefit.

Source: Family Expenditure Survey. Office for National Statistics

### Gross household income: by source, 1996-99

Percentages and £
Linitad

	London	United Kingdom
Wages and salaries	70	67
Self-employment	9	8
Investments	5	4
Annuities and pensions <sup>2</sup>	6	7
Social security benefits <sup>3</sup>	9	13
Other sources	1	1
Average gross weekly		
household income (£)	523	430

<sup>1</sup> Combined data from the 1996-97, 1997-98 and 1998-99 surveys.

Source: Family Expenditure Survey, Office for National Statistics

explained by the income generated by the highlypaid occupations which are a feature of the London economy. The percentages of households in each of the middle income groups were slightly lower for London than for the rest of the country. The proportion of households with low incomes (below £100 per week) was the same for London and rest of the United Kingdom at 12 per cent (Table 8.1).

Gross income, however, is a crude measure of living standards as it does not take into account the size and composition of households. These factors can be taken into account through a process known as equivalisation (described in detail in the reports on Households Below Average Income). Analysis of the Family Resources Survey for 1997-98 shows that the proportion of Londoners with high equivalised incomes is almost the same before and after housing costs with around a quarter of individuals having incomes in the top quintile. Living standards vary

more for those in the lower income groups: before housing costs, 22 per cent of individuals in London households had net equivalised household incomes in the bottom quintile (that is in the bottom 20 per cent) of the national income distribution; after housing costs were taken into account, 27 per cent of individuals living in London were in the bottom quintile – a higher proportion than in any other region of Great Britain. Thus the relatively high cost of housing in London has a substantial influence on the living standards of people in London with low incomes.

Table 8.2 looks at the sources of household income. Seventy per cent of gross income for households in London came from wages and salaries between 1996 and 1999, a slightly higher proportion than in the United Kingdom as a whole; and 9 per cent of income came from selfemployment, again marginally higher than the national average. The average London household draws a lower proportion of its income (9 per cent) from social security benefits than the average UK household (13 per cent).

Table 8.3 focuses on social security benefits. It shows that the proportions of households in Inner London in 1997-98 receiving the main meanstested benefits (Income Support, Family Credit, Housing Benefit and Council Tax Benefit) are higher than the proportions in Outer London. On the other hand, the proportion of households in receipt of Retirement Pension or Child Benefit is higher in Outer London than in Inner London. Reasons for the differing proportions of households taking up various social security benefits across the London region are complex. Household income and household composition are two important factors determining eligibility for benefits. The higher proportions of families with children living in the Outer London area is an explanation for the higher proportion of Outer London households in receipt of child benefit. The higher proportions of low income families living in

<sup>2</sup> Combined data from the 1996-97,1997-98 and 1998-99 surveys.

<sup>2</sup> Other than social security benefits.

<sup>3</sup> Excluding Housing Benefit and Council Tax Benefit.

the Inner London area is one explanation for the higher proportions of Inner London families in receipt of means-tested benefits.

As far as benefits go, the residents of London as a whole have perhaps most in common with residents in six metropolitan county areas in England (Greater Manchester, Merseyside, South Yorkshire, Tyne and Wear, West Midlands and West Yorkshire). The proportions of households receiving most types of benefit are quite similar here, though Londoners are more likely to draw Council Tax and Housing Benefit and less likely to receive retirement pensions than residents of other metropolitan areas. Receipt of incapacity benefits varies markedly between regions, the London figure being similar to the rest of south east England (including the East of England) but appreciably less than anywhere else in Great Britain.

There are wide variations across London in the proportions of residents receiving Income Support (Table A8.1 in the Appendix). The range is from 22 per cent of the adult population in Hackney and Newham to 5 per cent in Richmond. In general, there are proportionately fewer Income Support beneficiaries in Outer London than in Inner London. The issue of inter-borough differentials in standard of living is addressed more comprehensively in the section on Deprivation.

### Saving and spending

The composition of household savings varies between Inner London and Outer London.

Table 8.4 shows the proportion of households with different types of savings. The figures for the region as a whole are little different from those for Great Britain in 1997-98, with around four fifths having a current account, and over three fifths having other bank or building society accounts, more than a quarter owning Premium Bonds and nearly 30 per cent of households having stocks

# Households in receipt of social security benefits, 1997-981

Percentages	of all	house	aholds

			М	etropolitan		
	Inner London	Outer London	London	county areas <sup>2</sup>	Great Britain	
Family Credit or Income Support	25	14	18	15	15	
Housing Benefit	32	16	22	17	18	
Council Tax Benefit	34	21	26	23	24	
Unemployment Benefit/Jobseeker's	S					
Allowance	7	5	5	4	4	
Retirement Pension	23	26	25	29	29	
Incapacity or Disablement Benefits	<sup>3</sup> 13	10	11	16	15	
Child Benefit/One Parent Benefit	28	31	30	29	29	
Any benefit	69	67	68	70	70	

<sup>1</sup> Households in which at least one member is currently in receipt of benefit.

Source: Family Resources Survey, Department of Social Security

8.4

# Methods of saving used by households<sup>1</sup>, 1997-98

Percentages of all households

			М	etropolitan	
	Inner	Outer		county	Great
	London	London	London	areas <sup>2</sup>	Britain
Accounts					
Current <sup>3</sup>	76	88	84	78	84
Post Office	9	11	10	10	12
TESSA	7	16	13	11	14
Other bank/building society	52	68	62	54	64
Other savings					
Gilts or unit trusts	4	6	6	4	7
Stocks and shares	22	34	29	22	29
National Savings	6	10	8	7	9
Save As You Earn	1	2	2	2	2
Premium Bonds	20	32	28	22	28
PEPs	10	14	13	9	13

<sup>1</sup> Households in which at least one member has an account.

Source: Family Resources Survey, Department of Social Security

<sup>2</sup> Excluding London.

<sup>3</sup> Incapacity Benefit, Disability Living Allowance (Care and Mobility components), Severe Disablement Allowance, Industrial Injuries Disablement Benefit, War Disablement Pension, War Widow's Pension and Attendance Allowance.

<sup>2</sup> Excluding London.

<sup>3</sup> With either a bank or building society.

### Household expenditure: by commodity and service, 1996-991

£ per week and percentages

	fne	r week	averag	centage of le weekly expenditure
		United		United
	London	Kingdom	London	Kingdom
Housing(net) <sup>2</sup>	69.30	52.50	18	16
Fuel and power	11.70	12.50	3	4
Food and non-alcoholic drinks	63.10	57.40	17	17
Alcoholic drink	14.10	13.80	4	4
Tobacco	6.00	6.10	2	2
Clothing and footwear	22.80	20.20	6	6
Household goods and services	50.80	45.30	13	14
Motoring and fares	56.40	55.20	15	17
Leisure goods and services	65.40	55.80	17	17
Personal goods and services	15.40	12.60	4	4
Miscellaneous	1.50	1.10	-	-
Average household expenditure	376.40	332.60	100	100
Average expenditure per person	157.70	140.20		

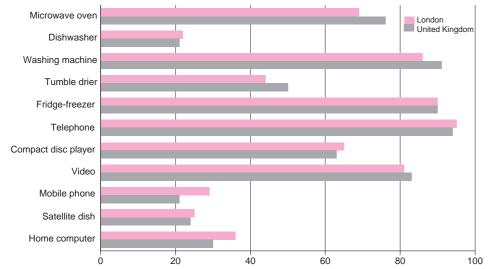
<sup>1</sup> Combined data from the 1996-97, 1997-98 and 1998-99 surveys.

Source: Family Expenditure Survey, Office for National Statistics

# 8.6

# Households with selected durable goods, 1996-991

### Percentages



<sup>1</sup> Combined data from the 1996-97, 1997-98 and 1998-99 surveys.

Source: Family Expenditure Survey, Office for National Statistics

and shares, an increase of 8 percentage points on the previous financial year. The proportion of households in Inner London with each form of savings is, however, lower than in Outer London, and is similar to the pattern of savings in other metropolitan county areas.

The typical London household has higher than average expenditure. Table 8.5 indicates that on average, London households spend around 13 per cent more each week than the UK national average. For most of the major categories of expenditure (with the exception of fuel and power), households in London spend more in cash terms than the average UK household. Proportionally, Londoners spend more of their income on housing, and less on motoring and fares than the national average. The higher proportions of expenditure on housing can be explained by the relatively high cost of housing in the area. The lower proportions spent on motoring and fares can be explained at least partly by the lower levels of car ownership, which at 63 per cent is lower than the national average of 70 per cent.

Possession of consumer durables such as mobile phones and home computers is often used as an indicator of affluence, and Chart 8.6 shows that households in London are more likely than those in the United Kingdom as a whole to have these. Ownership of consumer durables may also be influenced by factors such as household size or composition, need and availability of facilities. As noted in Chapter 2, a third of households in London are one-person households, a higher proportion than in any other region, while launderettes are more common in London than in many parts of the country; which partly explain why, when compared to the national average, a lower proportion of households in London have washing machines and tumble driers.

Changes in food consumption say something about trends in the style of living brought about by shifting preferences, concerns for health and other factors. As can be inferred from Table 8.7, the

<sup>2</sup> Net of Housing Benefit, Council Tax Benefit (rates rebate in Northern Ireland).

time-trends for London match closely those for Great Britain as a whole, with more consumption of fruit in 1998 than in 1981 but less of meat, vegetables, bread and milk and only half as many eggs eaten in 1998 as in 1981. The long-term shift away from butter and margarine and towards other fats is another common feature. Overall, the largest differences in eating patterns in 1998 were that Londoners ate more fruit, fresh vegetables (other than potatoes) and fish but rather less bread and milk and cream than the national average. It should be noted that the figures in the table relate to food bought for household consumption and take no account of meals eaten out. Londoners spent more on eating out - over £7 per week compared with a national average of just over £5.

### **Deprivation**

The problem of deprivation has many facets including, for example, unemployment, low income, health and education. Since the 1970s, the Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions (DETR) (and its predecessor DoE) has developed measures of multiple deprivation to help the targeting of its regeneration policies to the most deprived areas. These indices have typically been based on census data and have been produced for all local authorities, wards and, in 1991, enumeration districts in England.

DETR used 12 indicators in compiling the 1998 Index of Local Deprivation which measured the relative levels of deprivation across the 354 local authority districts of England (including London boroughs) as they stood on 1 April 1998. The indicators used in the 1998 index covered unemployment, low income, health, education, environment, crime and housing. Details of the indicators, the methodology used in combining them, and a summary of how they compared with the 13 indicators used in compiling the earlier 1991 Index of Local Conditions can be found in the DETR publication 1998 Index of Local Deprivation – A Summary of Results.

# Household consumption of selected foods

Grams per person per week, except where otherwise stated

		London			Great Britair	า
	1981	1991	1998	1981	1991	1998
Vegetable and vegetable						
products <sup>1</sup>	2,344	2,297	2,136	2,455	2,223	2,005
Fresh and other fruit	996	1,229	1,295	790	951	1,090
Meat and meat products	1,223	1,032	906	1,115	962	941
Fish	141	139	178	139	139	146
Milk and cream (ml)	2,403	2,033	1,986	2,533	2,124	2,045
Cheese	110	121	92	110	117	104
Eggs (numbers)	3.6	2.2	1.7	3.7	2.3	1.7
Bread	756	699	656	885	752	742
Cooking and spreading fats						
and oils	274	242	220	314	248	195
Butter	103	46	42	105	44	39
Margarine	81	78	16	117	89	26
All other fats	89	118	162	92	115	131

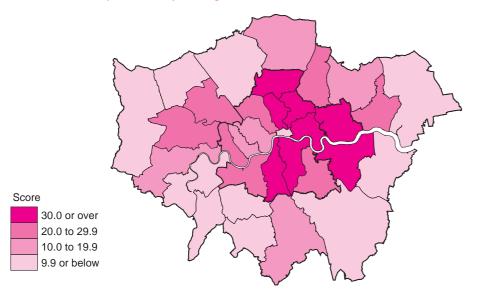
<sup>1</sup> Including tomatoes, fresh potatoes and potato products.

Source: National Food Survey, Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food

Over the last few years there has been a greater understanding of what constitutes deprivation, who suffers from it and where they live. Much of this understanding has been developed as a result of using these indices. DETR has commissioned a team at the University of Oxford to carry out a fundamental review of the 1998 Index of Local Deprivation. Extensive consultation including local authority chief executives, other government departments, academics and research organisations took place throughout the review; consultation on the methodology for the 1999 Index closed in January 2000. A draft 1999 index was produced as part of this review—solely for the purposes of consultation. Results of the review and a new index are due to be published in spring 2000

Pending the outcome of the review and construction of a new 1999 Index, the 1998 Index continues to be used to examine patterns of deprivation. In the 1998 Index, different areas scored differently on the various criteria. Map 8.8 overleaf shows how the London boroughs

# Index of Local Deprivation<sup>1</sup>: by borough, 1998



<sup>1</sup> The higher the score, the greater the overall level of deprivation.

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

# 8.9

# Most severely deprived districts in England, 1998<sup>1</sup>

Ranking <sup>1</sup>	Districts	Ranking <sup>1</sup>	Districts
1	Liverpool	16	Nottingham
2	Newham	17	Camden
3	Manchester	18	Hammersmith and Fulham
4	Hackney	19	Newcastle upon Tyne
5	Birmingham	20	Brent
6	Tower Hamlets	21	Sunderland
7	Sandwell	22	Waltham Forest
8	Southwark	23	Salford
9	Knowsley	24	Middlesbrough
10	Islington	25	Sheffield
11	Greenwich	26	Kingston-upon-Hull
12	Lambeth	27	Wolverhampton
13	Haringey	28	Bradford
14	Lewisham	29	Rochdale
15	Barking and Dagenham	30	Wandsworth

<sup>1</sup> Based on the Index of Local Deprivation.

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

compared with each other in terms of the degree of deprivation; the higher the score, the greater the overall level of deprivation.

The index enabled each borough to be ranked alongside the other 353 English districts on four different measures of deprivation on three different spatial scales. On the degree measure, which measures overall deprivation across the district, five of the ten most deprived districts in the country, and 13 of the 20 most deprived, were in London. Table 8.9 lists the 30 most deprived districts in England in 1998. Altogether, 15 of these districts were in London and all but three of the remainder were in Metropolitan county areas.

These figures apply to each borough district as a whole but 1991 Census data have also been used to calculate a similar index down to the level of enumeration districts—very small areas used in conducting the Census—of which there are about 250 in each London borough. Enumeration districts within the bottom 7 per cent of the national ranking were, for the purposes of constructing this measure, classified as very deprived and the proportion of a borough's enumeration districts which fell into this category was a measure of the internal spread of its deprivation. Using this measure, London boroughs could fare quite differently: for example, Lambeth ranked 12th using borough averages but moved up to 7th position when concentrations of deprivation at enumeration district level were considered, while Barking and Dagenham moved from 15th position to 89th. Altogether eight of the ten most deprived districts in England were in London on the enumeration district level basis, and ten were of the 20 most deprived. A third way of viewing the figures is to rank the average score of the three most deprived wards in each area. On this basis Lambeth was ranked 9th and Barking and Dagenham 65th.

As indicated in both Map 8.8 and Table A8.1 in the Appendix, not all boroughs suffered great degrees of deprivation. Bromley, the City of London, Sutton

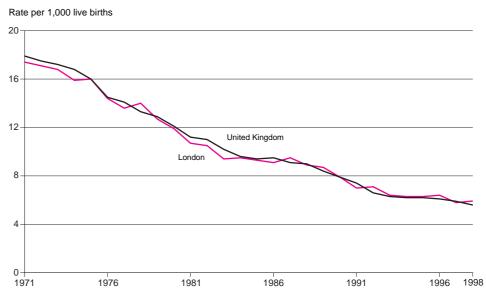
and Kingston upon Thames had high ranks on the deprivation index (ie less deprivation). However, even boroughs with high ranks had some relatively deprived wards within them. For example, Bromley ranked 179th using borough averages, moved up to 97th out of 354 English districts when ranked by the standard of its most deprived wards. An analysis of the 1991 Index of Local Conditions at ward level for London was included in the London Research Centre's publication *The Capital Divided*.

# Mortality and morbidity

Improvements in living conditions and education as well as in health and nursing care have brought about a reduction of nearly two thirds over the last 25 years in London's infant mortality rate – the proportion of live-born babies dying in their first year. As Chart 8.10 shows, in the last couple of years the infant mortality rate has levelled out at just under six per thousand live births. The rates for London throughout the period have been very close to the national ones. There are, however, differences between boroughs but the pattern varies from year to year and it is appropriate only to draw broad conclusions.

Mortality rates vary with age so the crude rates for different areas will be affected by the age structure of their populations. The figures in Table 8.11 have been adjusted to take account of these differences in age structure by standardising to the mid-1991 UK populations for males and females. Male rates can be compared between areas, as can female rates; but male and female rates for an area cannot be directly compared using this table. Overall, death rates for Londoners are slightly lower than those for the UK population, although the most common causes of death - circulatory diseases and cancers - are the same. However, Londoners are more likely than the population in general to die from a respiratory disease - for example pneumonia or bronchitis and just as likely to die from cancer. The figures for 1998 continue the general long-term decline in

### Infant Mortality<sup>1</sup>



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

8.11

# Age-adjusted mortality rates1: by cause2 and gender, 1998

Rates	per	100,	,000	popu	lation

	Males		Females	
	London	United Kingdom	London	United Kingdom
Circulatory diseases	351	384	331	381
Respiratory diseases	144	134	156	149
Cancer <sup>3</sup>	255	259	230	233
Injury and poisoning	36	41	19	21
Other causes <sup>4</sup>	124	120	146	156
All causes <sup>4</sup>	911	939	882	939

<sup>1</sup> Rates are standardised to the mid-1991 UK population for males and females separately.

Source: Office for National Statistics

<sup>2</sup> Deaths at ages under 28 days occurring in England and Wales are not assigned an underlying cause.

<sup>3</sup> Malignant neoplasms only.

<sup>4</sup> Including deaths at ages under 28 days.

# Prevalence of limiting long-standing illness

	London	Great Britain
Males		
Maioo		
1990-91	19	19
1998-99	16	19
Females		
1990-91	21	22
1998-99	18	21

Source: General Household Survey, Office for National Statistics

# 8,13

# Cigarette smoking amongst people aged 16 or over: by gender<sup>1</sup>

Percentages

		Great
	London	Britain
Males		
1980	44	42
1986	36	35
1990-91	32	31
1994-95	32	28
1996-97	32	29
1998-99	33	28
Females		
1980	36	37
1986	31	31
1990-91	29	29
1994-95	26	26
1996-97	27	28
1998-99	27	26

<sup>1</sup> The interviewing period was changed from calendar year to financial year in 1988.

Source: General Household Survey, Office for National Statistics

age-adjusted mortality rates. Map 2.7 in the Population Chapter shows age-adjusted mortality rates for the individual boroughs.

Morbidity - the prevalence of ill-health - is more difficult to measure than mortality but such evidence as there is suggests that there are differences between London and Great Britain as a whole. For example, Table 8.12 looks at the proportions of people suffering from long-standing illness which limits their activities in any way. It shows that in 1998-99 around one in six of Londoners reported a limiting long-standing illness compared with around one in five in Great Britain as a whole. As the incidence of limiting longstanding illness increases with age, these differences may be partly a result of London's younger age structure compared with that of Great Britain. Females reported a higher prevalence of ill-health than men, a feature common in both London and Great Britain. It is important to note that these results are based on people's subjective assessment of their health and may therefore reflect their expectations as well as the actual incidence of chronic sickness.

Two conditions where London also stands out from other regions are the prevalence of HIV infection and AIDS. The prevalence of both of these is much greater in London than elsewhere in England and Wales. For example, of the 16,581 people with diagnosed HIV infection seen for treatment in England and Wales in 1998, 63 per cent were resident in London. Ten per cent of homosexual and bisexual men attending Genitourinary Medical (GUM) clinics in London in 1998 were HIV-1 infected, three times the proportion elsewhere. HIV prevalence among pregnant women in London in 1998 was 0.22 per cent, 11 times higher than in the rest of England and Wales. The incidence of other sexuallytransmitted diseases (STDs) seen at STD clinics was also higher in London, though the differential with other regions was less marked than for AIDS and HIV infection.

### Smoking, drinking and drugs

The health risks associated with cigarettes are now well recognised and help account for a reduction in the proportion of adults who smoke of more than a quarter since 1980. Table 8.13 shows that smoking is slightly more common among men in London than among those in Great Britain as a whole, although their average consumption in 1998-99, at 98 cigarettes per smoker per week, was less than the GB average of 109. Women in London also smoke fewer cigarettes than women nationally – 84 per week in 1998-99 compared with 93 – but there is little difference between the capital and Great Britain in the proportions who smoke.

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

Figures on alcohol consumption show London has a smaller proportion of heavy drinkers than the population in general. In 1998-99, 31 per cent of men in London drank more than four units of alcohol a day compared with 38 per cent in Great

Britain and 17 per cent of women drank more than 3 units a day compared with 21 per cent in Great Britain (Table 8.14). Just over a third of men in London drank up to four units a day and a similar proportion of women drank up to three units a day. The proportion of non-drinkers has increased in recent years, and is significantly higher in London than in the country as a whole for both men and women.

Results from the 1998 British Crime Survey indicates that nearly half of 16 to 29 year olds have tried a prohibited drug at some time, with cannabis being by far the most widely consumed drug. Table 8.15 shows that 32 per cent of that age group in London admitted to having taken some kind of drug in the previous 12 months compared with 25 per cent across England and Wales as a whole. This was a higher proportion than in any other region. Similarly, the highest level of opiate+ (heroin, methadone, cocaine and crack) use was in London: the most common of these was cocaine. However, the proportion reporting they had used a hallucinant or 'dance' drug (amphetamine, LSD, magic mushrooms, ecstasy or poppers) was the same as the England and Wales average at one in ten 16 to 29 year olds.

Comparisons with 1996 indicate that the use of any drug remained comparatively stable for the 16 to 29 year old group throughout England and Wales with a slight decline in the use of hallucinants. This pattern is similar for London as the decline in the proportion reporting the use of hallucinants reflects the decline of the rave phenomenon, which started in London. Evidence from the British Crime Survey suggests most new trends in drug use tend to start in London and the South and then spread to other easily accessible cities, to the North, and to rural areas. The use of opiate+ substances (the bulk of which is cocaine), has increased in London from 4 per cent of 16 to 29 year olds in 1996 to 9 per cent in 1998 and Merseyside now has the second highest opiate+ usage after London. These patterns of increase

# Alcohol consumption amongst people aged 161 or over: by gender

					P	ercentages
		London		Great Britain		
	1986	1990-91	1998-99	1986	1990-91	1998-99
Males - number of units pe	r week					
None	8	10	13	6	6	8
Up to 10	46	44	46	45	45	44
11 to 21	21	18	17	22	22	21
22 or more	25	27	23	27	27	27
Females - number of units	per week					
None	16	15	21	11	12	14
Up to 7	60	61	54	65	63	56
8 to 14	13	14	14	14	14	16
15 or more	10	10	12	11	11	15

<sup>1</sup> People aged 18 or over in 1986. The interviewing period was changed from calendar year to financial year in 1988. Source: General Household Survey, Office for National Statistics

are consistent with an initial diffusion of these drugs, and of cocaine in particular, from London to the rest of the country.

### Crime and justice

Possession – as opposed to misuse – of a drug is a criminal offence. Turning to crime in general,

Table 8.16 overleaf shows the number of notifiable offences by category recorded by the police per 100,000 population and the percentage of these cases cleared up in recent years. Figures for 1998-99 (the year ending March 1999) are not directly comparable with those for earlier years as new counting rules for recorded crime, together with an expanded coverage of offences (hereafter referred to as the change in counting rules), were introduced on 1 April 1998.

Recorded crime in London was on a rising trend until the peak in 1992; this mirrored the national trend, but the rate of increase was lower in London than in England and Wales overall. The crime rate for notifiable offences recorded by the police in London fell between 1992 and 1997, by

8.15

# Drug misuse by people aged 16 to 29: 1996<sup>1</sup> and 1998<sup>1</sup>

	F	Percentages
		England
	London	Wales
1996		
Used any drug	29	24
Used any hallucinant <sup>2</sup>	9	11
Used opiate+ substances	s <sup>3</sup> 4	2
1998		
Used any drug	32	25
Used any hallucinant <sup>2</sup>	10	10
Used opiate+ substances	s <sup>3</sup> 9	3

<sup>1</sup> In the previous 12 months.

Source: British Crime Survey, Home Office

<sup>2</sup> Amphetamine, LSD, magic mushrooms, ecstasy and poppers.

<sup>3</sup> Heroin, methadone, cocaine and crack.

# Notifiable offences<sup>1,2</sup> recorded by the police and percentage cleared up

Rates and percentages

	C	Offences recorded per 100,000 population				Percentage cleared up						
	London <sup>3</sup>		Eng	England and Wales			London <sup>3</sup>		England and Wales			
	1992	1997	1998-99	1992	1997	1998-99	1992	1997	998-99	1992	1997	1998-99
Violence against the person	514	695	1,733	395	482	963	61	70	44	76	79	71
Sexual offences	80	100	107	58	64	69	58	61	42	<i>75</i>	77	68
Burglary	2,614	1,869	1,632	2,652	1,952	1,826	11	23	13	20	23	19
Robbery	320	362	346	104	121	128	13	24	16	22	27	23
Theft and handling stolen goods	6,377	4,903	5,091	5,581	4,163	4,197	13	19	14	24	24	22
Fraud and forgery	545	571	1,068	330	258	535	44	41	15	53	48	36
Criminal damage <sup>2</sup>	1,632	1,737	1,800	1,339	1,423	1,685	8	18	13	17	19	17
Drug offences⁴	29	63	429	27	45	260	98	91	97	98	98	97
Other	63	104	148	50	70	122	88	86	58	94	94	78
All notifiable offences <sup>2</sup>	12,174	10,404	12,354	10,535	8,576	9,785	16	26	22	26	28	29

<sup>1</sup> Revised counting rules and expanded coverage of offences from 1 April 1998 have particularly impacted on the offence groups of violence against the person, fraud and forgery, criminal damage and "other" offences.

Source: Home Office

# 8.17

# Offences committed against households, 1997

_		
Rates	and	percentages

	too ana p	
		England
		and
L	ondon.	Wales
Offences per 10,000		
households1		
Vandalism	1,135	1,345
Burglary	710	756
Vehicle thefts <sup>2</sup>	2,372	2,122
Bike thefts	781	556
Other household thefts	623	953
Percentage of households		
victimised at least once1		
Vandalism	7.9	8.2
Burglary	5.7	5.6
Vehicle thefts <sup>2</sup>	15.6	15.7
Bike thefts	6.3	4.8
Other household thefts	4.5	6.7

<sup>1</sup> Vehicle thefts are based on vehicle-owning households.

Source: British Crime Survey, Home Office

15 per cent overall, compared with 19 per cent across England and Wales. Comparing 1997-98 and 1998-99, and allowing for the change in the counting rules, the underlying trend for crime in London was a decrease of 1.2 per cent (the new counting rules for recorded crime had the effect of increasing the number of crimes recorded in the Metropolitan Police area by 21.7 per cent, in the City of London area by 18.4 per cent, and in England and Wales by 14 per cent). As Table 8.16 shows, burglary is the one offence group where the number recorded per 100,000 population is lower in London than in England and Wales. Overall, the crime rate in London, almost one and a half times the national one in 1981, was just over a quarter higher in 1998-99.

The clear-up rate in London rose from 1992 while that for England and Wales remained fairly constant, so that by 1995 they were almost the same. In 1996, the London rate fell back again

slightly, although it rose again in 1997 to its highest rate (26 per cent) since 1975. Under the effect of the new counting rules (see above) the clear-up rate for 1998-99 was 22 per cent. The national clear-up rate rose from 26 per cent in 1992 to 28 per cent in 1997, and in 1998-99 (again under the new counting rules) was 29 per cent. Details on offences and clear-up rates can be found in the Notes and Definitions.

Table A8.2 in the Appendix shows the numbers of notifiable offences in each borough recorded by the police in 1998-99 and include the changes in counting rules. The presence of the business centre and the West End in Westminster results in particularly high levels there; the City of London and Camden have high levels for the same reasons. Otherwise, the greatest incidences in 1998-99 were in Lambeth and Southwark. Fortyone per cent of all offences in London were thefts and handling stolen goods, though this rose to

<sup>2</sup> Excluding offences of criminal damage valued at £20 or less before 1998-99.

<sup>3</sup> Metropolitan Police and City of London Police areas.

<sup>4</sup> Pre-1998-99 figures are drug trafficking only. 1998-99 also includes possession and other drug offences.

<sup>2</sup> Comprises thefts of vehicles, thefts from vehicles and associated attempts

56 per cent in Westminster and to 60 per cent in the City of London. Total violent crime - that is violence against the person, sexual offences and robbery - represented 18 per cent of all recorded notifiable offences, with Brent accounting for the highest proportion, 24 per cent, in any one borough. The highest incidences of fraud and forgery occurred in Redbridge and Barnet at 13 per cent of all offences, with the City of London close behind at 12 per cent. Criminal damage accounted for 14 per cent of all notifiable offences committed in the capital, although for individual boroughs this percentage ranged from 21 per cent in Bexley and Sutton to 4 per cent in the City of London. Burglary represented 13 per cent of all notifiable offences, with both the City of London and Westminster, at 7 per cent, barely half the overall rate for London. The highest proportions of drug offences were in the City of London and in Southwark, at 7 per cent, well above the London average of 3 per cent.

Because not all crimes are reported to the police or recorded by them, a more complete count of crime against private households is given by the British Crime Survey. Results from the most recent survey in 1997 are given in Table 8.17. This indicates that generally the rate of crimes committed against households in London in 1997 was lower than that for England and Wales, though the incidence of bike theft and of vehicle theft was greater. The incidence of burglary in London fell by almost half between 1993 and 1997, from 1,271 offences per 10,000 households to 710.

If households were only victimised once in 1997 for a particular type of crime the rate per 10,000 households would be the same as the percentage of households victimised (apart from a scaling factor of 100). The fact that the two are so different demonstrates that some households suffer more than once within the year, whether in London or elsewhere.

# Persons found guilty of or cautioned for indictable offences: by age and gender, 1998

		Rates	per	100	.000	por	pul	latio	n
--	--	-------	-----	-----	------	-----	-----	-------	---

	Male	es	Females		
	London¹	England and Wales	London <sup>1</sup>	England and Wales	
10-13	1,331	1,385	607	561	
14-17	7,367	6,059	1,924	1,650	
18-20	8,883	8,295	1,433	1,499	
21 or over	1,899	1,356	382	276	
All ages	2,501	1,923	518	412	

<sup>1</sup> Metropolitan Police and City of London Police areas.

Source: Home Office

Table 8.18 presents the incidence rates by age and gender, for 1998, of those found guilty of, or cautioned for, indictable offences. This shows that 14 to 20 year olds are the most likely to be found guilty of, or cautioned for, an indictable offence – between four to six times as likely as adults aged 21 or over. This general pattern is much the same for London as for England and Wales, but adults are rather more likely to be found guilty or cautioned in London than in the country as a whole while for children under 14 there is little difference between the two areas.

In Table 8.18 the differences by gender are more significant than those of geography and the same is true of Table 8.19 overleaf, showing the sentences handed down for indictable offences in 1998. Females in London are almost one and three quarter times as likely as males to be discharged (the same as in England and Wales as a whole) and almost three quarters as likely to receive an immediate custodial sentence

# Sentences for indictable offences: by gender, 1998

			Percentage	s and numbers	
	Lor	ndon¹	England and Wales		
	Males	Females	Males	Females	
Percentages of those sentenced					
Absolute or conditional discharge	13	22	16	29	
Fine	36	29	28	21	
Any community sentence	22	29	28	33	
Fully suspended sentence	1	2	1	2	
Immediate custodial sentence	27	18	24	12	
Otherwise dealt with	2	2	3	2	
Total persons sentenced					
(=100%)(numbers)	46,253	7,459	292,389	47,247	

<sup>1</sup> Metropolitan Police and City of London Police areas.

Source: Home Office

8.20

Fear of crime, 1998

(compared with one half nationally). However, these differences will, at least partly, reflect differences in the types and severity of offences committed and their frequency. For both males and females fines are more commonly imposed in London than in England and Wales overall, and discharges and community sentences less so.

It is now recognised that fear of crime is a social problem in itself. The British Crime Survey asks people about their fears and the results are shown in Table 8.20. Women are generally more worried about crime than men, particularly violent crime. They are also considerably more likely than men to feel 'very' or 'fairly unsafe' alone at night (whether at home or walking outside). Yet again the differences by gender are more significant than those of geography. For both genders there is more concern about racial attack in London, but this is against the background of a relatively large proportion of the population belonging to ethnic minorities. All in all, Londoners are only slightly more fearful than the nation as a whole about becoming victims of crime.

								Percentages
		Lor	ndon			England	and Wales	
	Males		Females		Males		Females	
	Aged 16-59	Aged 60 or over						
Percentage feeling very worried about:								
Burglary	22	12	25	25	15	14	23	24
Mugging	16	11	28	27	10	10	23	26
Theft of car <sup>1</sup>	22	10	23	16	21	16	23	22
Theft from car <sup>1</sup>	23	11	19	7	19	12	16	14
Racial attack	11	7	18	10	5	3	11	7
Rape	9	3	35	21	7	3	33	25
Percentage feeling very or fairly								
unsafe when:								
Alone at home at night	3	4	13	18	3	5	13	15
Walking alone at night	19	27	46	63	12	24	43	60

<sup>1</sup> Theft of and from cars based on owners only.

Source: British Crime Survey, Home Office

# 9 Tourism and leisure

- On 31 December 1999, an estimated two and a half million people flooded onto the streets of central London to see one of the most spectacular fireworks displays in the world set off along the Thames.
- In 1998, almost 18 per cent of all trips taken abroad were made by London residents and they are slightly more inclined to take trips further afield than other UK residents.
- More than three fifths of the adult population living in London take part in some sporting or physical activity during the course of a month.
- A study of international conferences held in key cities in 1998 rated London as the second most popular venue behind Paris but ahead of Brussels, Geneva, Vienna, Singapore, New York, Amsterdam and Washington DC.

This chapter focuses on London's extensive leisure industry. The first half examines the provisions for overseas tourists and domestic visitors, while the second half provides an analysis of how London residents spend their free time. This chapter also looks at how Londoners and visitors celebrated the new Millennium and finally, leisure as a business.

# Numbers and expenditure of visitors

London continues to be one of the most popular cities in the world for overseas tourists. In 1998, overseas visitors (staying one night or more),

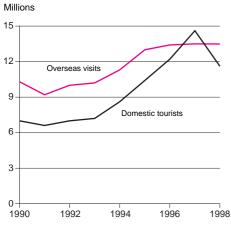
made 13 and a half million trips to London - which is equivalent to two in every five trips made to the United Kingdom (Chart 9.1 overleaf). This number has remained reasonably constant since 1995, but is an increase of 24 per cent since 1990. The average length of stay was almost seven nights.

London also remains popular with UK residents as a destination for tourism; over 11 and a half million domestic visits were made to London in 1998.

Domestic visits to London doubled between 1990 and 1996, with a peak of nearly 15 million in 1997, when for the first time they outnumbered overseas visits. However, this peak, can be partly attributed

Data for the overseas visits element of the first four items in this chapter are drawn from the International Passenger Survey (IPS). The IPS provides information on passengers entering and leaving the United Kingdom by the main air, sea and tunnel routes. Routes between the United Kingdom and the Irish Republic, and those between the Channel Islands, Isle of Man and the rest of the world are excluded. Further details of the IPS can be found in the Notes and Definitions for Chapter 2.

### Number of visits1 to London



1 Staying one night or more. Figures for tourism by UK residents are rounded to the nearest 100,000 trips; figures for overseas tourism are rounded to nearest 10,000 trips.

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

9.2

# Numbers of and expenditure by visitors<sup>1</sup> to London

		Numbers (millions)		diture lion) <sup>2</sup>	Average expenditure (£)		
	Overseas visits	Domestic tourists	Overseas visits	Domestic tourists	Overseas visits	Domestic tourists	
1990	10.3	7.0	4,227	680	410	97	
1991	9.2	6.6	3,924	720	427	109	
1992	10.0	7.0	4,152	640	415	91	
1993	10.2	7.2	4,850	875	475	122	
1994	11.3	8.6	5,205	1,005	461	117	
1995	13.0	10.4	6,336	880	488	85	
1996	13.4	12.2	6,509	935	486	77	
1997	13.5	14.6	6,449	1,040	478	71	
1998	13.5	11.6	6,736	1,055	499	91	

<sup>1</sup> Staying one night or more

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

to the 'Diana Effect' as people flocked to London after Princess Diana's death to pay their respects and leave flowers at Kensington Palace.

Table 9.2 gives the expenditure of both domestic and overseas visitors. The figures are not adjusted for inflation and it could be misleading to apply a general price index. Tourists' budgets are heavily concentrated on a few elements which may not move in line with the rest of goods and services. In 1998, domestic tourists spent a total of £1,055 million while in London, which is equivalent to £2.89 million a day. Overseas visitors spent on average £499 each trip; more than five times as much as domestic visitors who spent £91 on average (domestic tourists tend to stay for shorter periods, and pay less, if anything on accommodation). Figures from the London Tourist Board suggest that the greatest proportion of spending by domestic tourists was on eating and drinking (26 per cent) closely followed by accommodation, (25 per cent) and travel (21 per cent). Shopping and entertainment each accounted for just 8 per cent of their spending.

# Origins and destinations of visitors

In 1998, over half of all overseas visitors to London (excluding those from the Irish Republic) were from North America and Western Europe (Table 9.3). Since 1991, the proportion of visitors from the top ten countries has remained fairly stable. The largest proportional increase between 1991 and 1998 was in the number of visitors from USA, Belgium and France. The number of visitors from these countries rose by three fifths during this time. This growth is possibly as a result of the strength of the American economy and London's accessibility via the Channel Tunnel respectively.

The reasons why overseas travellers visit London have not changed much since 1991. In 1998, half of trips were made for the purpose of holidaying, while over a fifth of trips were for business and almost a fifth for visiting friends or relatives (Table 9.4). Domestic tourists' reasons for visiting

<sup>2</sup> At current prices. Expenditure by domestic tourists is rounded to the nearest £5 million.

London, however, have changed considerably. In 1991, the principle purpose for visiting the capital was for a holiday, (41 per cent) but this has now been replaced by visiting friends or relatives (53 per cent). This in part may be explained by the increased availability of cheap flights and the strong pound making foreign countries more attractive than London for a holiday, but also because people see London as a short break destination either for a long weekend or a day trip. Improved rail and road links have increased the accessibility of London for most UK residents who are now able to come to London for just a day or weekend to visit friends and family or visit the popular tourist attractions. For example, in 1998, nearly 169 million tourism day visits were made to the capital by UK residents aged 15 or over.

London is not only a popular destination for tourists, it is also one of the conference capitals of the world. A study of international conferences held in key cities in 1998 rated London as second after Paris and ahead of Brussels, Geneva, Vienna, Singapore, New York, Amsterdam and Washington DC. In the same year, just over four and a half million trips were made to London for the purpose of attending a conference or for business, which is nearly a fifth of all visits, and an increase of 38 per cent since 1991.

As visiting friends and family is the most common reason for domestic tourists coming to London, it is not surprising that in 1998, almost three quarters of domestic visitors stayed with friends and relatives compared with just a third of overseas visitors, while almost half of overseas visitors stayed in guesthouses and hotels (Table 9.5 overleaf). Hostels and colleges are more popular with overseas visitors than domestic tourists, as many overseas visitors are students or backpackers and this accommodation is generally inexpensive.

The number of hotels remained virtually constant until the early 1990s when there was a peak in growth although there has not been much change

Origin of overseas visitors1: top ten countries of residence2

			Percentages	and millions
	Visits to London			s to the Kingdom
	1991	1998	1991	1998
USA	19.0	21.4	15.6	17.9
France	9.1	10.1	12.6	12.0
Germany	8.9	8.8	13.5	11.9
Italy	5.2	5.2	4.8	4.9
Netherlands	4.8	4.6	6.5	6.8
Japan	4.7	3.5	3.1	2.5
Spain	4.1	3.5	4.2	3.8
Sweden	4.4	3.3	3.3	3.0
Australia	3.4	3.1	3.2	2.8
Belgium	2.7	3.0	3.5	3.8
All other countries	33.6	33.5	29.8	30.6

<sup>1</sup> Staying one night or more.

Total visits (=100%) (millions)

9.2

13.5

17.1

Source: International Passenger Survey, Office for National Statistics

25.7

### Reasons for visiting<sup>1</sup> London

			Percentages	and millions
	Overseas visits		Domestic visits	
	1991	1998	1991	1998
Holiday	49	50	41	27
Visiting friends/relatives	16	17	31	53
Business/conference	23	22	21	16
Other	12	11	6	4
Total visits <sup>2</sup> (=100%) (millions)	9.2	13.5	6.6	11.6

<sup>1</sup> Staying one night or more.

the national Tourist Boards

<sup>2</sup> Ranked according to percentage of visits to London in 1998. Excludes visits made by residents of the Irish Republic.

<sup>2</sup> Total visits include visits made by residents of the Irish Republic, but percentages are based on figures which exclude them. Source: International Passenger Survey, Office for National Statistics; United Kingdom Tourism Survey, sponsored by

# Types of accommodation in London used by tourists, 1998

Percentages and millions

	Overseas visitors <sup>1</sup>	Domestic tourists
Hotel/guesthouse	48	20
Friends/relatives	30	73
Hostel/college	13	1
Rented property	6	2
Paying guest	1	2
Other accommodation	2	2
Total visitors (=100%) (millions)	13.5	11.6

<sup>1</sup> Survey among overseas visitors to London between June and October 1998.

Source: London Tourist Board; United Kingdom Tourism Survey, sponsored by the National Tourist Boards since. The number of bed and breakfasts has varied a lot over the last 15 years, with a large peak in 1989, and then a huge drop in 1990. Since this time there has been consistent growth again.

In the mid 1990s, a study carried out by the London Tourism Board identified a sustainable need for another 20 thousand hotel bedspaces. In response to this survey a target of 10 thousand bedspaces to be created between 1995 and the year 2000 was set. Table 9.6 shows the distribution of tourist accommodation between Inner and Outer London in 1999. The number of bed spaces has increased by nearly 6 per cent since 1998. The Tourist Board estimates that almost 8 thousand extra bedspaces in hotels, motels and guest houses have been created since 1985.

Interest has also grown in the accommodation development in non-traditional tourist areas such as Lambeth, Sutton and Islington – not as an over-flow demand but due to genuine interest in these areas. This provides an indication that as developers and tourism industries become increasingly aware of the value of Outer London boroughs, the future of London tourism will not be purely concentrated in the "West End".

Table A9.1 in the Appendix shows number of bedspaces by individual borough. There is a very heavy concentration in the centre area, though not in the City of London itself, with three boroughs – Westminster, Kensington and Chelsea and Camden – having nearly 70 per cent of all bedspaces in hotels and over 75 per cent of those in bed and breakfast accommodation. This is also where there is the greatest concentration of deluxe five-star and four-star hotels. London establishments tend to be large; especially the Inner London establishments, which accommodate on average 312 beds per hotel, and 52 beds per bed and breakfast establishment.

### Visitor attractions

Many of London's visitors come for the world famous attractions, and the top 20, shown in Table 9.7, between them received nearly 35 and a half million visitors in 1998; five times the resident population of London. As Table A9.2 in the Appendix shows, the majority of the attractions are in the centre of London, with just under half of the top attractions in Westminster. Museums make up over a third of the top attractions followed by art galleries making up a fifth. The British Museum is the single most popular attraction with 5.6 million visitors in 1998. For most of the attractions the changes in numbers have been variable over the seven years from 1991, although for 16 out of 20 of the top attractions, the number of visits have increased. It is estimated that Westminster Abbey had an extra 500 thousand visitors in 1998, which was an increase of 20 per cent on the previous year. The Tate Gallery had an extra 423 thousand visitors, which was a 24 per cent increase. Despite being the primary attraction in London, the largest decrease was to the British Museum, with 437 thousand less visits, however this constituted a 7 per cent drop. The Rock Circus however, had a reduction of 158 thousand which was a quarter of visitors in 1997.

# 9.6

### Number of bedspaces in London, 1999<sup>1</sup>

			Numbers
	Inner	Outer	
	London	London	London
Hotels, motels, inns and guesthouses			
Number of establishments	326	150	476
Number of bedspaces	101,821	22,663	124,484
Bed and breakfast establishments <sup>2</sup>			
Number of establishments	408	270	678
Number of bedspaces	21,273	4,662	25,935

<sup>1</sup> Known stock of serviced accommodation as at September.

Source: London Tourist Board Accommodation Services

<sup>2</sup> An establishment that provides accommodation, some service and breakfast but no other meal.

### The New Millennium

The 31st December 1999 saw the opening of two spectacular new attractions to celebrate the year 2000; the Millennium Dome in Greenwich and British Airways London Eye. The Millennium Dome based in Greenwich houses the world's largest concentration of attractions under one roof and is expected to attract 10 million visitors during the year. The London Eye sited on the South Bank of the Thames, is the worlds tallest observation wheel and at 135 metres is the fourth tallest structure in London. The 2 million visitors who are expected to ride the London Eye in the first year will be able to enjoy panoramic views of London with in-flight commentary. If estimates are correct, both attractions will figure in the top 10 attractions in the year 2000, with the Millennium Dome being the most visited attraction. The Millennium Dome is expected to create an additional 10,000 tourist related jobs, and bring in an additional £500 million of overseas tourist revenue.

Along with the opening of the British Airways
London Eye and the Millennium Dome, on
31 December 1999, London was home to a
massive street party to see in the new millennium.
An estimated 2 and a half million people flooded
onto the streets of central London at its peak, to
listen to live music, ride on the funfair along the
Mall and see one of the most spectacular
fireworks displays in the world set off along the
Thames.

# **Facilities for residents**

Londoners in general watch slightly less television than the average UK resident (Table 9.8). This is particular true among those aged 35 to 64. People in this age group in London watch on average, just under 23 hours a week, while the UK average for the same age group is over 26 hours per week – just under 30 minutes more per day. This is possibly as a result of the numerous other

### Top tourist attractions: by number of visits, 1998<sup>1</sup>

				Т	housands
Ranking	Attraction visits	Total	Ranking	Attraction visits	Total
1	British Museum	5,620	11	Victoria and Albert Museum	1,110
2	National Gallery	4,770	12	London Zoo	1,053
3	Westminster Abbey	3,000	13	National Portrait Gallery	1,017
4	Madame Tussaud's	2,773	14	Royal Botanic Gardens	1,000
5	Tower of London	2,551	15	Royal Academy of Arts	913
6	Tate Gallery	2,181	16	Hampton Court Palace	605
7	St Paul's Cathedral	2,000	17	National Maritime Museum	474
8	Natural History Museum	1,905	18	Imperial War Museum	472
9	World of Adventures	1,650	19	Rock Circus	455
10	Science Museum	1,600	20	Photographers Gallery	400

<sup>1</sup> The number of visitors to the London Dungeon in 1998 is not available. In 1995, there were 610 thousand admissions. Source: London Tourist Board

g g

### Average weekly television viewing

						Hours
	London			United Kingdom		
	1992	1997	1998	1992	1997	1998
Persons aged						
4-15	19.0	16.1	16.1	19.6	17.8	17.6
16-34	21.5	19.2	19.9	23.4	21.4	22.3
35-64	24.8	23.3	22.6	27.5	26.3	26.0
65 or over	36.4	36.0	35.9	37.7	36.3	36.5
All aged 4 or over	24.6	22.8	22.6	26.7	25.2	25.2

Source: Broadcasters' Audience Research Board Limited; RSMB Television Research Limited

### Sports facilities, 1999<sup>1</sup>

		Numbers
	Inner	Outer
	London	London
Sports halls <sup>2</sup>	39	47
Dual use sports halls <sup>2,3</sup>	35	129
Swimming pools	41	63
Dual use swimming pools <sup>3</sup>	11	29
Athletics tracks	11	21
Indoor tennis centres	12	22
Indoor bowling centres	7	20
10-pin bowling centres	5	9
Ice rinks	3	2
Climbing walls	13	10
Floodlit pitches <sup>4</sup>	21	41
Dry ski slopes	2	4

- 1 As at 31 December.
- 2 Halls of a size equalling at least four badminton courts.
- 3 Dual use sports halls and swimming pools are facilities that are located on school sites which are open to the community on a limited basis, evenings and weekends.
- 4 Full size, with artificial grass.

Source: Sport England

9.10

### Frequency of cinema attendance<sup>1,2</sup>

		Percentages
	London	Great Britain
12 or more times a year Between 2 and 11 times	19	13
a year	29	27
Once a year	12	13
Never	40	47
Estimated total population	n 100	100

<sup>1</sup> Between July 1998 and June 1999.

Source: National Readership Survey July 1998 -June 1999 attractions available in London, including clubs and courses and because of the extra length of time that Londoners spend travelling.

According to the General Household Survey, more than three fifths of the adult population living in London take part in some sporting or physical activity during the course of a month and Table 9.9 shows the nature and scale of provisions for some of these activities. The most numerous types of facilities are sports halls and swimming pools and Inner London is relatively well supplied with these, despite the fact that less than 40 per cent of the region's population live there. This provides many city workers and commuters with the opportunity to use sports facilities and swimming pools on the way home from work and in their lunch breaks. Sixty per cent of London's ice rinks and over 50 per cent of its climbing walls are in the Inner London area but provision of other specialised facilities, particularly indoor tennis and bowling centres, is more plentiful in Outer London. In addition to these facilities, the River Thames, London's reservoirs and the regenerated Docklands area make possible many types of watersports, including canoeing, rowing, dinghy sailing and windsurfing. Detailed information on sports facilities by borough is provided in Table A9.3 in the Appendix. Bromley, Croydon and Redbridge have the largest number of dual use sports hall facilities used by schools and the general public.

Playing and watching football continues to be one of the most popular pastimes for Londoners as London is home to 13 teams playing in the Professional Leagues, six of which were in the FA Premier League in 1998-99. In the same year, the average gate for the Premier clubs was 28,432; an increase of 10 per cent on the previous year. The highest average attendance at a Premier club game in London was 38,053 for Arsenal while the lowest was for Wimbledon who had an average of

18,207 spectators. The largest growth in attendance, largely due to their being promoted that year, was to Charlton Athletic who saw an increase of nearly 50 per cent on the previous season.

The wide range of cultural activities available in London is recognised as one of the main factors bringing in visitors both from the provinces and abroad but it also makes an important contribution to the quality of life of its residents. Cinemas are the most popular activity. Nearly half of Londoners aged 15 and over, surveyed by the National Readership Survey attended the cinema more than twice a year between July 1998 and June 1999 (Table 9.10). Nearly a fifth of those interviewed attended the cinema more than 12 times a year. Londoners are also more likely to attend the cinema than those in the rest of Great Britain, possibly due to a greater variety of films on offer.

London residents are also more likely than those in the rest of the United Kingdom, to attend a cultural event (Table 9.11). Two in five London residents went to the theatre at least once in 1997 with an average frequency of nearly two and a half visits per person. The Society of London Theatres calculated that there were nearly 12 million seats sold in West End theatres in 1998; an increase of 10 per cent on ten years ago, with each seat costing an average £21.60.

### Spending on leisure

As would be expected, London residents spend more than the rest of the United Kingdom on all leisure activities (Table 9.12). According to the Family Expenditure Survey for the combined three year period, 1996-97, 1997-98 and 1998-99, on average London households spent £81 a week on leisure goods and services and eating out, which is 16 per cent more than households in the rest of

<sup>2</sup> All aged 15 and over.

the United Kingdom. The greatest difference in expenditure was on education and training, followed by cinemas, theatres, restaurants and cafés. In general, 17 per cent of London residents' expenditure was on leisure services and goods, which is the equal second greatest expenditure after housing. In the United Kingdom as whole it was also the second greatest expenditure over the three year period, but after food and non-alcoholic drinks.

# The National Lottery

The National Lottery has been a major source of funds for the arts, leisure pursuits and other good causes since it began in November 1994.

Currently, some 28 per cent of the lottery proceeds are allocated to good causes, divided equally between six separate funds, administered by the Arts Council and the Film Council, the National Lotteries Charities Board, the Millennium Commission, the National Heritage Memorial Fund, Sport England and the New Opportunities Fund. By December 1999, £2.1 billion had been awarded by the six funds to organisations based in London.

The Millennium Commission distributed 32 per cent of the total value of grants awarded to London, followed by the Arts Council with 23 per cent and the Heritage Lottery Fund with 18 per cent totalling £374 million. The National Lottery Charities Board and Sport England distributed 15 and 11 per cent respectively. Almost half of the £2.1 billion awarded to London organisations went to institutions which have a national significance, or organisations that benefit more than the London area alone.

Altogether, 5,700 grants for London had been awarded by December 1999; most of which were for less than £100,000. However, 190 were for over £1 million, of which, 30 were for £10 million

# Attendances by London residents at cultural events, 1997

P6	ercentages and thous					
	London adults <sup>1</sup>	Annual attendance				
Theatre	40.4	5,668				
Art galleries/exhibitions	29.2	4,264				
Plays	28.9	3,972				
Pop/Rock	24.7	2,546				
Classical music	15.8	2,352				
Opera	10.5	1,082				
Ballet	9.5	653				
Jazz	9.2	1,054				
Contemporary dance	6.9	514				

<sup>1</sup> Aged over 15 years.

Total

Source: 1997/98 Target Group Index Data, BMRB/Arts Council of England

9.12

22.103

# Average weekly household expenditure on leisure activities, 1996-991

£ per week United London Kingdom Leisure goods 18.50 17.20 8.20 7.20 TVs, videos, computers and audio equipment<sup>2</sup> Books, maps, diaries, newspapers, magazines 4.30 and periodicals 4.90 Toys and hobbies 1.30 1.70 Sports and camping equipment 1.00 0.80 Photography and camcorders 1.00 1.20 2.00 Horticultural goods, plants and flowers 1.90 46.50 38.80 Leisure services Cinema and theatre 1.40 1.00 Sports admissions and subscriptions 2.50 2.40 Miscellaneous entertainments 1.50 1.20 TV. video and satellite rental, television licences 3.40 3.40 Educational and training expenses 7.10 4.70 Hotels and holidays 20.20 16.20 Gambling payments 4.10 4.00 5.90 Cash gifts, donations 6.30 Eating away from home 16.00 12.20 Restaurant and café meals 11.50 8.70 Take-away food and snack food3 4.50 3 50

Total

81.10

Source: Family Expenditure Survey, Office for National Statistics

68.30

<sup>1</sup> Combined data from the 1996-97, 1997-98 and 1998-99 surveys.

<sup>2</sup> Includes digital TV decoder for 1998-99.

<sup>3</sup> Excludes take-away meals eaten at home. Details of the survey can be found in the Notes and Definitions for Chapter 8.

# National Lottery grants¹ over £10 million made to organisations in London

			£ million
Fund	Recipient	Purpose	Amount
Millennium	New Millennium Experience		
	Company Limited	The New Millennium Experience	449.0
Sport	English National Stadium Trust	English National Stadium Wembley	120.0
Art	Royal Opera House	Restoration and refurbishment	55.0
Millennium	Tate Gallery	Tate Gallery of Modern Art, Bankside	50.0
Art	Royal National Theatre Board	Improvement and plant modernisation	31.6
Millennium	British Museum	The British Museum Great Court	30.0
Millennium	Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew	The Millennium Seed Bank	29.9
Art	Sadler's Wells Foundation	Redevelopment of Sadler's Wells Theatre	28.5
Heritage	Heather Trust For The Arts	Gilbert Collection, Somerset House	28.3
Art	Royal Opera House	Supplementary to main application 95-95	23.5
Heritage	Science Museum	Construction of the new "Wellcome Wing"	23.0
Art	Royal Academy of Dramatic Art	To purchase and redevelop building	22.8
Art	Royal Albert Hall	Redevelopment of Albert Hall	20.2
Heritage	Corporation of the Hall of		
	Arts and Sciences	Royal Albert Hall Development	20.2
Heritage	Tate Gallery	Centenary Development, Tate Gallery	18.8
Art	English Stage Company	Restore and enhance facilities	15.8
Heritage	British Museum	Education and Information Centre	15.1
Heritage	Victoria and Albert Museum	Victoria and Albert Museum British Galleri	es 15.0
Art	London Borough of Newham	Creation of a new arts centre	13.7
Sport	London Borough Of Newham	New East Ham Leisure Centre	13.5
Heritage	Imperial War Museum	South West Infill Development	12.6
Art	Shakespeare Globe Trust	Reconstruction of theatre	12.4
Millennium	London Borough of Tower Hamlets	Creation of Mile End Park	12.3
Heritage	National Maritime Museum	Neptune Hall Project	12.1
Heritage	National Portrait Gallery	NPG Centenary Development	11.9
Heritage	Council of the Museum of the		
	Port of London and Docklands	Museum in Docklands	11.0
Heritage	Somerset House Ltd	Somerset House Restoration	10.3
Sport	London Borough Of Hackney	Clissold Leisure Centre	10.0
Millennium	Action with the Communities in		
	Rural England (ACRE)	21st Century Halls (162 sites)	10.0
Arts	British Film Institute	'IMAX' cinema	10.0

<sup>1</sup> All grants up to 30 December 1999.

Source: Department for Culture, Media and Sports

or more, this latter group accounting for 55 per cent of the total amount awarded (Table 9.13). Islington received the largest number of awards with 540, but the City of Westminster received the greatest value of grants with 469 awards totalling over £892 million, followed by Camden (526 awards totalling £186 million). At the other end of the scale, Kingston-upon-Thames received 65 awards totalling £3.6 million and Hillingdon received 44 awards totalling some £2.9 million. Details of the largest individual grants are shown in Table 9.13.

### Londoners abroad

In 1998, London residents made almost 18 per cent of all trips taken abroad (Table 9.14). and are slightly more inclined to take trips further afield than other UK residents. Just over eight in ten trips taken by UK residents were to Western Europe compared with over seven in ten of those taken by London residents. Asia was visited by more than 7 per cent of London travellers, which is double the UK average. Africa is also more popular with London tourists with over 4 per cent of trips in comparison with over 2 per cent for the average UK traveller. Although the percentages are small, this is still indicative of the different travel patterns of London residents and also of the cosmopolitan and multi-national make-up of the capital's residents who may have family and friends living all over the world. For example nearly a quarter of all trips to Africa by Londoners were to visit friends and family compared with just over one tenth of UK residents' visits as a whole. On average, London residents also earn more money than the UK average and so many are in a financial position to take more exotic trips. London residents are also more likely to take trips abroad for business purposes; 19 per cent of all visits were business related in comparison with just over 14 per cent of visits by UK residents.

The greater proportion of trips taken further afield, would explain in part why Londoners spent a greater proportion of all private spending on trips abroad. In 1997, Londoners spent almost 3.5 per cent of their total expenditure abroad, while the UK average was just under 3 per cent. This trend has been consistent since 1991, with the largest difference being in 1996 when there was a boom in overseas travel and spending (Chart 9.15). Another possible reason is due to the fact that London recovered slightly quicker than the rest of the United Kingdom from the recession after 1992. The rest of the United Kingdom is now catching up, which would explain why the gap between London spending and the UK average is narrowing. In 1997, for the first time since 1991, spending abroad was actually down, particularly by Londoners. Year on year changes in the strength of the pound would also affect spending abroad. Given the high national importance of the London economy relative to the UK economy, this effect would be noticeable sooner and be more magnified in London than the rest of the United Kingdom.

industries: an 11 per cent increase on the previous year. Within the industry, restaurants and cafés had an 18 per cent increase in number of employees compared with 1996, which reflects the increase in the number of establishments in the area. Compared with Great Britain as a whole, London had a larger share of employees in restaurants and cafés (over two thirds compared with the GB average of over a fifth) but a lower proportion in pubs, bars and clubs (less than a fifth compared with almost a third) reflecting the distribution of business units.

# Trips taken abroad, 1998

Percentages and thousands

	London	United Kingdom
Western Europe <sup>1</sup>	71.4	80.4
North America	9.8	8.7
Asia	7.4	3.7
Africa	4.1	2.4
Other America	3.3	2.1
Eastern Europe	2.9	1.6
Oceania	1.0	1.1
Total trips		
(= 100%) (thousands)	8,581	37,776

<sup>1</sup> Excludes visits to the Republic of Ireland.

Source: International Passenger Survey, Office for National Statistics

# The business of leisure

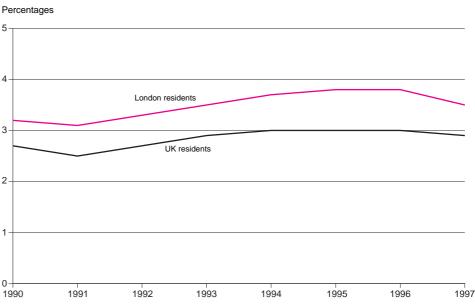
Table 9.16 overleaf shows the number of business units in leisure related industries in April 1999.

Clearly London is well provided with restaurants and cafés, having nearly a fifth of the national total. But in other branches of activity, London's share is surprisingly small – around 10 per cent for clubs, 10 per cent for libraries and museums, 9 per cent for hotels and pubs, and only 5 per cent for other tourist accommodation. Part of the explanation lies in the large size of London establishments, already noted on page 106.

Another measure of business activity is the number of employee jobs in each activity, which is shown in Table 9.17 overleaf. In 1997, 263 thousand employees in London (7.6 per cent of London's total employees) were in leisure-related

re abreed as a proportion of total consumption

# Individual consumption expenditure abroad as a proportion of total consumption



Source: Office for National Statistics

# Leisure-related sites: by type<sup>1,2</sup> 1999<sup>3</sup>

Numbers and	nercentages

	London	London as a percentage of United Kingdom
Restaurants, cafés, etc <sup>4</sup>	12,155	18.5
Pubs and bars	5,245	8.7
Clubs	745	9.6
Hotels	1,415	9.4
Other tourist accommodation	275	5.4
Libraries, museums, etc	705	10.0
Sports, recreation, etc	5,330	12.5
Total of above	25,875	12.7

<sup>1</sup> Registered for VAT and/or PAYE, local unit basis eg an individual factory or shop. Based on SIC92.

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

9.17

# Employee jobs in leisure-related industries, September 1997<sup>1</sup>

Thousands and percentages London as a percentage of London Great Britain Restaurants, cafés, etc<sup>2</sup> 86.0 24.9 Pubs and bars / clubs 44.3 10.1 Hotels 43.1 16.9 Camping sites and other 1.0 2.2 short-stay accommodation 15.8 19.7 Libraries, museums, etc 28.9 39.5 Theatres, cinemas, etc Sports, recreation, etc 43.9 12.9 Total of above 263.0 16.7

Source: Annual Employment Survey, Office for National Statistics

The leisure related industry in which London employs the largest proportion of the national total is theatres and cinemas, etc: just under two fifths of all those employed in this field work in London, underlining the capital's leading role in the world of entertainment, although this is a slight reduction on the previous years total. There has been no change in the number of theatres, so there in unlikely to be an increase in employees while efficiency drives would push the number of employees down.

### The future of leisure

The late 1990s were dominated by the growth of technology for leisure purposes, principally computer games and the Internet. In 1999, 16 per cent of London households had an Internet connection compared with 10 per cent of UK households. Online people can do practically anything; chatting to others, buying household goods and services and playing virtual sports and games. While home Internet connections are growing rapidly, so is the idea of Internet cafés. The Internet is likely to have a major impact upon leisure services and the accessibility of leisure products in the next decade, not just for Londoners but the entire world.

<sup>2</sup> Figures for theatres, cinemas, concert halls etc are excluded as the information is not available to that level of dissaggregation.

<sup>3</sup> At April.

<sup>4</sup> Includes takeaway food shops.

<sup>1</sup> See the Glossary of terms and Notes and Definitions in Chapter 6.

<sup>2</sup> Includes takeaway food shops.

# 10 Travel and communications

- Households in London spend £6.90 a week less on motoring than do those in the United Kingdom as a whole, but £8.10 a week more (almost twice as much) on other travel costs.
- Londoners travel only about half as far by car as residents in the South
   East (excluding London) and under two thirds as far as residents of Great
   Britain as a whole.
- Sixteen per cent of households in London have two or more cars, less than half the percentage in the rest of the South East.
- For the first time more than 100 million passengers were handled at London's airports in a year (1998).

10.1

# Household expenditure on travel, 1996-991

5

This chapter begins by looking at spending on travel and the journeys made by Londoners. It goes on to consider the movement of traffic and people around the capital, followed by an analysis of casualties in road accidents. Finally it looks at communications in the capital.

# Household spending on travel

Over the three years 1996-97, 1997-98, and 1998-99, household expenditure on motoring in London averaged £40.10 per week, compared with £57.30 in the South East (Government Office Region), and £47.00 across the United Kingdom as a whole (Table 10.1). This broadly

	Average weekly household expenditure						
	London	South East (GOR²)	United Kingdom <sup>3</sup>				
All motoring	40.10	57.30	47.00				
All fares and travel costs	16.30	10.10	8.20				
Rail and tube fares	3.80	2.70	1.60				
Bus and coach fares	1.90	1.00	1.40				
Combined fares season tickets and other	3.80	0.50	0.60				
Taxis and hired cars with drivers	2.00	0.90	1.10				
Air and other travel and transport	4.00	3.60	2.40				
Bicycles, boats, purchase and repair	0.80	1.40	1.00				

- 1 Combined data from the 1996-97, 1997-98 and 1998-99 surveys. The table is based on weighted data and includes children's expenditure.
- 2 Government Office Region see page 13.
- 3 The United Kingdom includes the enhanced Northern Ireland dataset for 1998-99 only.
- 4 Includes: combined season ticket; travelcard season ticket; tube pass one day; bus and train travelcard one day; day ticket rover; bus + train fare.

Source: Family Expenditure Survey, Office for National Statistics

# Distance travelled per person per year1: by mode of transport

Miles

	Walk		Car drivers and passengers		Local bus		Rail <sup>2</sup>		All modes	
	1985-86	1996-98	1985-86	1996-98	1985-86	1996-98	1985-86	1996-98	1985-86	1996-98
Inner London	316	250	2,630	2,370	393	377	1,000	866	4,644	4,336
Outer London	265	206	3,682	4,013	334	279	682	798	5,263	5,595
London	281	223	3,343	3,393	353	316	784	823	5,064	5,120
Other English Metropolitan county areas	261	192	3,092	4,381	516	384	158	194	4,371	5,509
South East (excluding London)	219	187	5,184	6,804	148	137	636	533	6,599	8,061
Great Britain	244	193	4,024	5,536	297	249	336	342	5,317	6,728

<sup>1</sup> Figures relate to the area of residence of the traveller and therefore some journeys may have been undertaken outside the area.

Source: National Travel Survey, Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

10.3

# Distance walked and cycled per person per year<sup>1</sup>

Source: National Travel Survey, Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

reflects differences of car ownership as shown later in Table 10.5. Spending on fares and other travel, however, was substantially higher in London than in any other region of the United Kingdom, averaging £16.30 per household per week, compared with £10.10 in the South East and £8.20 in the United Kingdom. The biggest differences in cash terms between London and the averages for the South East and the United Kingdom were for taxis and hired cars with drivers, rail and tube fares, and especially for travelcards and other combined fares or season tickets, where expenditure was much higher in London.

Altogether, spending on motoring and fares by householders in London accounted for 15 per cent of their total expenditure in 1996-99 compared with 18 per cent in the South East and 17 per cent in the United Kingdom.

Spending on motoring was a lower proportion of household spending in London than in either the South East or the United Kingdom, while spending on fares and other travel was higher.

### Distance travelled

Table 10.2 shows the average distances travelled per person per year by London residents by different modes, in 1985-86 and 1996-98. Overall in 1996-98, London residents typically travelled a third less far than those in

<sup>2</sup> Including London Underground.

<sup>1</sup> Figures relate to the area of residence of the traveller and therefore some journeys may have been undertaken outside the area.

<sup>2</sup> Cycling data for London by age/gender are not available due to small sample sizes; data shown in previous editions should be treated with caution.

# Journeys per person per year1: by journey purpose

Percentages and journeys

										ner onal				
	Comn	nuting	Busi	ness	Educ	ation	Shop	oping	busi	ness	Leis	sure	All pu	rposes
	1985-	1996-	1985-	1996-	1985-	1996-	1985-	1996-	1985-	1996-	1985-	1996-	1985-	1996-
	86	98	86	98	86	98	86	98	86	98	86	98	86	98
Inner London	19	15	4	4	7	10	24	20	18	24	28	27	995	916
Outer London	18	16	3	4	7	7	20	22	21	24	29	27	1,071	1,007
London	19	15	4	4	7	8	21	21	21	24	29	27	1,047	973
Other English Metropolitan county areas	16	15	3	2	8	8	21	22	21	22	32	31	993	1,017
Rest of the South East	18	16	4	4	7	6	20	19	22	24	31	31	1,062	1,111
Great Britain	17	16	3	3	8	7	21	21	20	22	32	31	1,024	1,051

<sup>1</sup> Figures relate to the area of residence of the traveller and therefore some journeys may have been undertaken outside the area.

Source: National Travel Survey, Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

the rest of the South East, and around a quarter less than in Great Britain as a whole. London residents drove cars, or travelled as passengers in cars, only about half as far, on average, as residents in the rest of the South East, and under two thirds as far as the average for Great Britain. Car travel was even lower in Inner London. There was virtually no increase compared with 1985-86 in the average number of miles driven by those living in London, compared with a rise of more than a third for Great Britain as a whole. Special factors, such as acute traffic congestion, parking restraints, etc, are likely to have constrained the growth in car travel by those living in London. This may have been particularly true for those living in Inner London where car driver/passenger mileage actually fell by almost 10 per cent compared with 1985-86.

In 1996-98, Londoners travelled over twice as far by bus as residents in the rest of the South East. Inner London residents travelled 35 per cent further than Outer London residents. However, the distance Londoners travelled by bus declined by 10 per cent between 1985-86 and 1996-98. In Great Britain as a whole, the decline was 16 per cent.

The figures for rail include journeys on the London Underground. Rail mileage by Londoners is almost two and a half times as high as the national average. Average mileage for London residents appeared to increase by 5 per cent between 1985-86 and 1996-98.

Inner London residents walked 21 per cent further than those living in Outer London in 1996-98 although distances everywhere have fallen compared with ten years earlier.

Londoners walked 19 per cent further than residents of the rest of the South East, and 16 per cent further than the national average.

As well as reflecting lower car availability, this may be because more facilities are 'within walking distance' in London. In addition, apart from a few public parks, most walking in London has to be done alongside public highways and thus gets counted in the National Travel Survey.

Table 10.3 looks in more detail at average distances walked per year, and also at distances cycled. The most enthusiastic walkers (in terms of distance walked) are those aged 11 to 17, both in London and in Great Britain as a whole. In common with the rest of the country, the average distance walked by

Rest of the South East: This chapter contains a number of comparisons between London and the rest of the South East. This area comprises the following counties:

Bedfordshire, Berkshire, Buckinghamshire, East Sussex, Essex, Hampshire,
Hertfordshire, Isle of Wight, Kent,
Oxfordshire, Surrey and West Sussex.

### Households with cars1

Percentages
-------------

				reiceillages
	No car	1 car	2 cars	3 or more cars <sup>2</sup>
Inner London				
1985-86	57	32	9	2
1989-91	54	35	9	2
1996-98	49	41	9	1
Outer London				
1985-86	34	47	16	3
1989-91	31	46	19	3
1996-98	33	47	17	3
London				
1985-86	42	42	13	2
1989-91	40	42	15	3
1996-98	39	44	14	2
Other English Metropolitar	n county areas			
1985-86	49	40	10	1
1989-91	41	44	14	2
1996-98	38	41	18	3
Rest of South East				
1985-86	28	47	21	4
1989-91	23	44	27	6
1996-98	20	47	27	6
Great Britain				
1985-86	38	45	15	2
1989-91	33	45	19	3
1996-98	30	45	21	4

- 1 Includes cars and light vans normally available to the household. See Notes and Definitions.
- 2 Numbers of households with 3 or more cars are not as precisely estimated as the other categories, but there is a high confidence level due to the small percentages involved.

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

The National Travel Survey, the source for several tables in this chapter, is the only comprehensive national source of travel information for Great Britain which links different kinds of travel with the characteristics of travellers and their families. Further details of the survey can be found in the Notes and Definitions.

The Family Expenditure Survey and the General Household Survey also provide data for some tables in this chapter. Further details of these surveys can be found in the Notes and Definitions for Chapter 8.

Londoners in 1996-98 was about 20 per cent lower than in 1989-91, after a long period of stability.

Cycle mileage fell in London by about 16 per cent between 1985-86 and 1996-98, slightly more than the fall nationally. However the figures involved are small.

# **Purpose of journeys**

Over the period 1996-98, residents of London made, on average, some 12 per cent fewer journeys per year in total than those in the rest of the South East, and over 7 per cent fewer

than the national average (Table 10.4 on the previous page). The average Inner London resident made fewer trips than those in Outer London.

In 1996-98 the proportion of journeys for commuting was similar throughout the country, while in 1985-86 a slightly higher proportion of trips by London residents had been for commuting. Commuting as a proportion of all trips therefore fell more steeply in London between 1985-86 and 1996-98 than in the rest of the South East or Great Britain, to 15 per cent of all trips by Londoners.

Other personal business travel, which includes escort journeys (for example a parent taking a child to school), appear to have risen more sharply in London than outside, especially in Inner London. Leisure trips were a little less prominent in London than elsewhere, but still comprised 27 per cent of trips by London residents in 1996-98.

# Car ownership

Nationally, there has been an increase over recent years in the proportion of multi-car households, while the proportion of households with one car available has remained at about 44 to 45 per cent. This is illustrated in Table 10.5. In London, multiple car availability is considerably lower than in the rest of the South East, and somewhat lower than nationally: 16 per cent of London households had two or more vehicles available in 1996-98, compared with 33 per cent in the rest of the South East and 25 per cent in Great Britain as a whole.

Generally, there was a rapid increase in household car ownership between 1985-86 and 1989-91, but the rate has slowed since. In London, there was virtually no change between 1989-91 and 1996-98. It is possible that increasing congestion and parking difficulties

may be having some deterrent effect. Almost half the households in Inner London did not have a car or van available to them in 1996-98, compared with a third in Outer London. Overall there were only slightly higher levels of car ownership in London than in the other English metropolitan areas, despite the higher average incomes of those living in London.

## Licences

The number of vehicles licensed to addresses in London in 1998, at just over 2.7 million, was 3 percentage points higher than in 1988 compared with a rise of 19 per cent in Great Britain as a whole (Chart 10.6). However, within this overall rise, the number of licensed motor cycles, scooters and mopeds in London fell to a low of 62 thousand in 1995 before rising sharply to 81 thousand in 1998 – up 7 per cent on 1988. The number of goods vehicles over 3.5 tonnes fell fairly continuously, by some 37 per cent between 1988 and 1998. Table A10.1 in the Appendix gives the numbers of vehicles licensed in each taxation class.

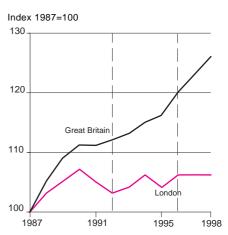
The number of taxis licensed to ply for hire in London (the 'black cabs') increased by a little less than a quarter over the decade to 1999 to 19.2 thousand. The numbers holding a cab driver's licence increased over the same period by 16 per cent to 23.3 thousand.

### **Traffic**

Table 10.7 looks at average traffic speeds in different parts of London at different times of the day. With some fluctuations, traffic speeds averaged across London have fallen slowly, by about 2 to 3 miles per hour (mph) since the earliest surveys in 1968.

Speeds in central London have fallen to some 10 mph, with little difference between morning and evening peaks, and the daytime off-peak. Speeds in Inner London outside the centre have fallen to about 12 mph in the peaks, and to 15 mph off-peak. Outer London speeds are more variable – some 17 mph in the morning peak, 19 mph in the evening peak, and just under 23 mph off-peak.

# Vehicles registered 1



1 Following local authority reorganisation in 1996, an updated post code directory has been used to allocate vehiclekeepers' addresses to local authority areas. Retrospective adjustments are not available.

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

10.7

# Average traffic speeds

									Mile	es per hour
	1968-70	1971-73	1974-76	1977-79	1980-82	1983-86	1986-90	1990-94	1994-96	1996-98
Morning peak, 7.45am - 9.15am										
Central area	12.7	12.9	14.2	12.3	12.1	11.8	11.5	10.3	10.9	10.0
Rest of Inner London	15.1	14.5	15.9	13.9	14.2	13.5	11.8	13.3	13.4	
Outer London	20.5	20.0	19.3	18.7	19.6	18.8	18.4	17.5	17.0	
London average	18.1	17.7	17.9	16.9	17.5	16.9	16.0	15.8	15.6	
Evening peak, 4.45pm - 6.15pm										
Central area	11.8	12.7	13.2	11.9	12.2	11.5	11.0	10.3	10.8	10.2
Rest of Inner London	15.2	14.5	15.5	13.5	14.1	13.1	11.6	13.2	12.8	
Outer London	21.9	21.5	20.7	20.1	20.5	20.1	19.8	19.7	19.0	
London average	18.6	18.3	18.3	17.2	18.0	17.2	16.5	17.0	16.6	
Daytime off-peak, 10am - 4pm										
Central area	12.1	12.6	12.9	12.6	11.6	11.9	11.0	10.6	10.9	10.0
Rest of Inner London	18.3	18.6	18.6	17.3	17.2	16.3	14.6	15.8	15.0	
Outer London	26.5	26.2	26.1	25.0	24.9	25.3	22.7	22.8	22.7	
London average	21.3	21.6	21.7	20.9	20.6	20.9	18.9	19.3	19.1	

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

## Road traffic movements<sup>1, 2, 3</sup>

				Thousands
	Pedal			All motor
	cycles	Cars	Taxis	vehicles
Central London Cordon				
1981	46	1,078	125	1,591
1983	47	1,071	125	1,574
1985	44	1,105	131	1,631
1987	30	1,086	131	1,597
1989 <sup>2</sup>	43	1,160	158	1,750
1991	37	1,094	162	1,644
1993	35	1,017	161	1,541
1995	45	1,054	165	1,613
1997	51	1,030	162	1,585
Inner London Cordon				
1981	27	1,502	35	1,992
1984	33	1,552	42	2,064
1987	24	1,606	40	2,098
1990	25	1,652	49	2,173
1993	27	1,606	39	2,080
1996	30	1,644	47	2,151
London Boundary Cordon				
1980	14	1,440	6	1,838
1983	15	1,565	6	1,984
1986	16	1,670	8	2,100
1989²	15	1,991	10	2,454
1992	12	1,983	10	2,430
1995	13	2,023	10	2,519
1998	10	2,060	10	2,554

<sup>1</sup> Radial traffic movements, 24 hour flows, both directions.

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

Metropolitan county areas: these are the areas which comprised the former metropolitan counties of Greater Manchester, Merseyside, South Yorkshire, Tyne and Wear, West Midlands and West Yorkshire.

Information on radial traffic flows in London is obtainable from counts at cordons around central London, Inner London and the boundary of London. The boundary cordon roughly corresponds to the old Greater London Council boundary. The Inner London cordon encloses an area roughly corresponding to the old London County Council area, but excludes much of the boroughs of Greenwich and Lewisham. The central London cordon encloses an area within a radius of 1.5 to 2 miles of Aldwych and is approximately the area bounded by the mainline railway termini.

The surveys give a somewhat variable picture, but generally indicate slow, long-term traffic growth (Table 10.8). This is most evident from traffic crossing the boundary cordon where growth approached 40 per cent between 1980 and 1998. Taxi movements across the central London cordon have risen by 30 per cent since the early 1980s. After falls in earlier years, pedal cycle figures at the Central and Inner London cordons are showing an up-turn, cyclists perhaps encouraged by the co-ordinated network of cycle routes throughout London, known as the London Cycle Network (LCN), being developed by local authorities. It was estimated at the end of 1999 that LCN was 35 per cent complete.

Map 10.9 shows some of the main components of the transport infrastructure in London. Bus priority and cycle and strategic walking routes form denser networks which are difficult to show at this scale.

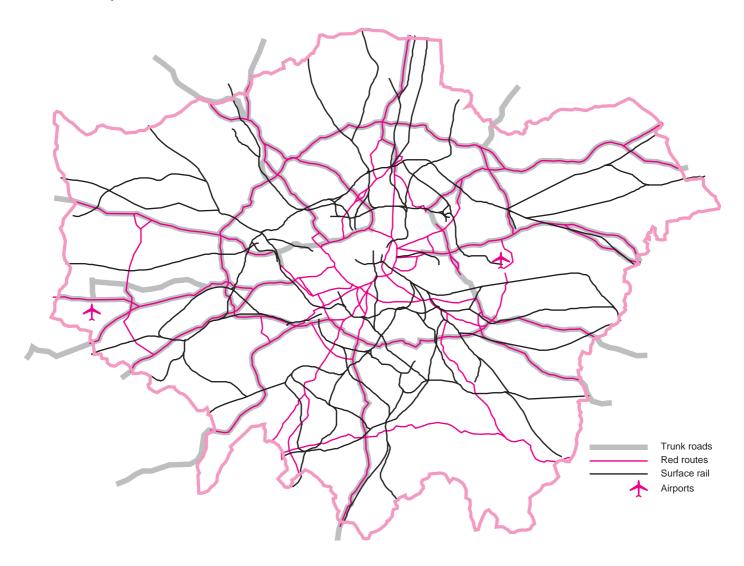
Table 10.10 overleaf shows where London's residents and in-commuters in 1991 worked. Out-commuting was about 5 per cent. This means that, of London's total of 2.8 million working residents, some 2.7 million or 95 per cent worked within London itself. The City of Westminster accommodated the highest number of jobs held by London residents (325 thousand or 11.5 per cent), followed by the City of London (155 thousand or 5.5 per cent), Camden (152 thousand or 5.4 per cent) and Croydon (107 thousand or 3.8 per cent). At the other end of the scale, Kingston upon Thames was the workplace of only 45 thousand London residents (1.6 per cent).

Out-commuting was higher in the west than the east. Of the counties within the rest of the South East, Surrey provided the highest number of jobs to London residents (43 thousand or 1.5 per cent), followed by

<sup>2</sup> The 1989 figures may be overestimated, being influenced by extreme changes in late evening and night time flows, based on counts at very few sites, and thus subject to sampling variation.

<sup>3</sup> Some types of vehicle are not shown separately but are included under 'All motor vehicles'.

# London's transport infrastructure, 1999



Source: London Research Centre

Hertfordshire (24 thousand or 0.9 per cent), Essex (21 thousand or 0.7 per cent) and Kent (14 thousand or 0.5 per cent).

Of the 3.3 million people working in London in 1991, 80 per cent lived in London, while 18 per cent lived in the rest of the South East, and 2 per cent elsewhere in the United Kingdom. The largest sources of labour among the counties surrounding London were Essex

(139 thousand), Surrey (125 thousand), Hertfordshire (99 thousand) and Kent (96 thousand).

Table A10.2 in the Appendix shows commuting patterns in each London borough at the time of the 1991 Census, while Table A10.3 looks at the main mode of transport for those residents in each borough who commuted.

# Where London's residents and incommuters work<sup>1</sup>, 1991

Percentages and thousands		
	1991	
Percentage of London's employed		
residents working		
In central London <sup>2</sup>	23.1	
Elsewhere in London	71.6	
Outside London	5.3	

# Percentage of in-commuters working

Total working residents (=100%)

(thousands)

In Central London<sup>2</sup> 38.6 Elsewhere in London 61.4

2,826

# Total in-commuters (=100%) (thousands) 673

Source: 1991 Census, Office for National Statistics

The number of people entering central London between 7 am and 10 am on a typical weekday in 1998 increased for the fifth year running, this year by 30 thousand (and 77 thousand since 1996 or nearly 8 per cent over two years compared with the total increase of 34 thousand or just over 3 per cent over the previous three years). However, the 1998 level at 1.09 million remains 6 per cent or almost 70 thousand below the 1988 peak, when 1.2 million people entered central London (Table 10.11).

Some 13 per cent of those entering central London in 1998 did so by car, a similar proportion to recent years, but on a generally downward trend. Recent increases in morning peak travel into central London may be attributed mainly to rail, both surface and underground, with bus use being more stable.

The number of journeys made by bus passengers in London increased by 12 per cent between 1981 and 1987-88, but declined for six consecutive years to 1993-94, since when there were annual increases of 3 or 4 per cent up to 1997-98. The 1998-99 figure indicates a slight fall from the previous year but still records a net increase of more than 5 per cent over the decade from 1988-89 (Table 10.12). The average distance travelled by bus passengers remained unchanged over the year at 3.4 kilometres.

The actual number of bus vehicle kilometres driven has increased by about 32 per cent over the last decade, despite the much smaller rise in the number of bus passengers carried. New routes are now being covered, often using smaller buses, leading to a reduced average vehicle occupancy.

# 10.11

# People entering central London¹ during morning peak 7-10am

								Thousands
	Su	rface rail						
	Total	Of which transfers to LUL/DLR <sup>2</sup>	LUL and DLR only <sup>2</sup>	LT bus²	Coach/ minibus	Private car	Motorcycle/ pedal cycle	All modes
1981	394	127	336	105	16	173	26	1,050
1986	421	166	381	91	25	166	21	1,105
1988	468	188	411	80	21	160	17	1,157
1991	426	169	347	74	20	155	21	1,042
1997	435	195	373	68	20	142	22	1,059
1998	448	196	394	68	17	140	23	1,088

<sup>1</sup> Excluding passengers in taxis.

Source: London Transport

<sup>1</sup> The figures are derived from 10% data and relate to residents who are employed.2 Defined as the West End and the City of London.

<sup>2</sup> LUL= London Underground Limited; DLR=Docklands Light Railway; LT= London Transport.

Passenger journeys on London underground peaked in 1988-89, but fell by 11 per cent up to 1992-93. Since then an increase of almost a fifth has been recorded. The 1998-99 figure represents a net increase of 6 per cent over the decade from 1988-99 (Table 10.13).

Passenger kilometres travelled on the underground show a net increase of 7 per cent over the decade, the average distance per journey travelled by underground passengers having remained around 8 kilometres, more than twice as far as the average bus journey. The number of train kilometres run increased by 20 per cent during the decade to 1998-99, while the average number of passengers per train fell by 12 per cent.

The number of passengers using London's airports increased by 63 per cent between 1988 and 1998 and by more than 7 per cent between 1997 and 1998. For the first time more than 100 million passengers were handled in a year. The increase in the number of air transport movements was lower over the decade (just under 50 per cent), reflecting, among other things, use of larger aircraft. Chart 10.14 overleaf shows that it is in the last few years that the growth rate at Heathrow has slackened relative to those at Gatwick and other airports. But Heathrow clearly remains the dominant airport among all the London area airports: in 1998 it handled 59 per cent of passengers, and was responsible for over half of the air transport movements.

### **Bus traffic**

### London

	Bus	Bus	Average passenger		
	passenger	passenger	journey	Bus	Occupancy -
	journeys	kilometres	length	kilometres	passengers
	(millions)	(millions)	(km)	(millions)	per bus
1981	1,079	4,023	3.7	280	14.4
1987-88	1,211	4,258	3.5	249	17.1
1988-89	1,206	4,231	3.5	261	16.2
1991-92	1,149	3,996	3.5	301	13.3
1997-98	1,277	4,350	3.4	342	12.7
1998-99	1,267	4,315	3.4	344	12.5
Percentage change					
1988-89 to 1998-99	5.1	2.0	-2.9	31.8	-22.6

Source: London Transport

10.13

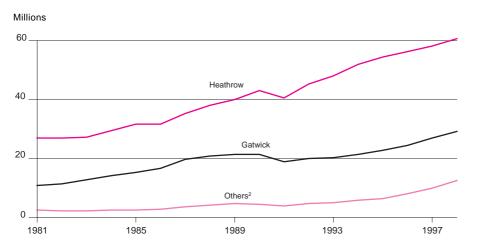
## **Underground rail traffic**

### London

	London	London	Average		
	· ·	Underground	passenger	Train	Occupancy
	passenger	passenger	journey		
	journeys	kilometres	length	kilometres	passengers
	(millions)	(millions)	(km)	(millions)	per train
1981	541	4,088	7.6	50	81.8
1988-89	815	6,292	7.7	51	125.0
1991-92	751	5,895	7.8	53	112.0
1997-98	832	6,479	7.8	62	104.3
1998-99	866	6,716	7.8	61	109.7
Percentage change					
1988-89 to 1998-99	6.3	6.7	0.4	20.0	-12.2

Source: London Transport

# Passengers handled at London area airports<sup>1</sup>



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

Source: Civil Aviation Authority

# 10.15

### **Road casualties**

Numbers and percentages

	Fatal and serious casualties			Total casualties		
		Percentage			F	ercentage
		change				change
		1998 over				1998 over
	Average		1981-85	Average		1981-85
	1981-85	1998	average	1981-85	1998	average
Inner London	3,608	3,091	-14.3	24,189	20,984	-13.2
Outer London	4,609	3,764	-18.3	29,864	24,568	-17.7
London <sup>1</sup>	8,230	6,870	-16.5	54,156	45,679	-15.7
South East (GOR) <sup>2</sup>	12,069	5,632	-53.3	45,503	45,135	-0.8
Great Britain	80,132	44,255	-44.8	321,919	325,212	1.0

<sup>1</sup> Includes Heathrow Airport

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

### Road accident casualties

Total road accident casualties (see Notes and Definitions) in London in 1998 were 15.7 per cent lower than the annual average for the period 1981-85 (Table 10.15). This compares with an increase of 1 per cent nationally, and a marginal decrease (0.8 per cent) in the South East (Government Office Region). In 1987 the then Government set a target to reduce road accident casualties by a third by the year 2000, using the 1981-85 annual average as a baseline. A new road safety target after the year 2000 is to be announced early in 2000.

Looking only at fatal and serious casualties, a reduction of 16.5 per cent had been achieved in London by 1998, compared with over 53 per cent in the South East (GOR), and 45 per cent in Great Britain.

Table 10.16 indicates that over half of those dying as a result of accidents on London's roads in 1998 were pedestrians. Pedestrians also suffered 29 per cent of serious casualties and 18 per cent of slight injuries. However, under-reporting of slight injury pedestrian accidents is relatively high, especially those involving children on minor urban roads. Some 23 per cent of fatalities, 40 per cent of serious casualties, and 48 per cent of all slight casualties were car drivers or passengers.

Fatal pedestrian casualties declined consistently between the 1980s and the mid-1990s but increased by a third between 1995 and 1997, falling back to the 1995 level in 1998. Total pedestrian casualties have continued to fall. Some other categories have exhibited different trends – for example, car occupant slight casualties have been broadly steady over the last decade. Exposure to risk needs to be borne in mind. For example, although road safety engineering and other measures have helped to reduce the risk of

<sup>2</sup> Government Office Region – see page 13.

accidents for vulnerable road users, this is likely to be at least partly attributable to reductions in walking, such as children being driven to school and other destinations, and to people walking less on roads now considered more dangerous. Table A10.4 in the Appendix gives the number of fatal and serious casualties in each borough in 1998 by type of road user.

# Freight

Road freight tonnage delivered in London increased during the 1980s, before falling back sharply during the recession of the early 1990s (Table 10.17). There has been some recovery since 1993, although the level in 1998 was still lower than that in 1988. By contrast, road freight tonnage delivered in Great Britain as a whole remained almost unchanged between 1988 and 1998.

During the period for which there are data, between 1988 and 1994, the fall in rail freight delivered in London was 26 per cent compared with 32 per cent in Great Britain.

Internal freight on the Thames fell by two fifths over the period from 1988 to the early 1990s. After recovery in 1994 to 2.8 million tonnes, it has since fallen away again to 1.7 million tonnes in 1997-99, 59 per cent of its 1988 level. Seagoing freight tonnage was almost 7 per cent higher in 1998 as a decade earlier and only 1 per cent below the peak in 1990. Seagoing traffic is mainly in petroleum products, sea-dredged aggregates and other building materials, coal and vegetable oil.

Air freight at London-area airports almost doubled between 1988 and 1998 to 1.7 million tonnes. Three quarters of this was handled at Heathrow Airport alone. London-area airports handle a high proportion of the United Kingdom's air freight.

# Casualties: by mode of travel, 1998

London				Numbers
	Fatal	Serious	Slight	Total
Pedestrian	118	1,936	6,987	9,041
Pedal cycle	12	603	3,703	4,318
Powered cycle	36	985	5,834	6,855
Car	53	2,658	18,761	21,472
Taxi	0	40	438	478
Goods vehicle	3	145	993	1,141
Public Service Vehicle	3	262	1,984	2,249
Other vehicle	1	15	109	125
Total casualties	226	6,644	38,809	45,679

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

10.17

# Freight traffic in London: goods lifted

Million tonnes and percentages

	Road ( vehic		Ra	nil <sup>2</sup>	Wa	ıter³	
					Internal	Port of London	
	Desti-		Desti-		traffic	sea-	
	nation	Great	nation	Great	River	going	
	London	Britain I	London <sup>4,5</sup>	Britain <sup>6</sup>	Thames	traffic	Air <sup>7</sup>
1988	104	1,653	5.8	150	2.9	53.7	0.9
1989	101	1,704	5.7	143	3.2	54.0	1.0
1990	113	1,645	4.9	138	2.0	58.1	1.0
1991	82	1,505	4.5	136	1.8	52.8	0.9
1992	75	1,463	3.9	122	1.8	48.9	1.0
1993	80	1,523	4.4	103	1.9	50.9	1.1
1994	91	1,597	4.3	97	2.8	51.8	1.3
1995	90	1,609		101	2.2	51.4	1.4
1996	88	1,628		102	1.7	52.9	1.4
1997	97	1,643		105	1.7	55.7	1.6
1998	92	1,630		102	1.7	57.3	1.7
Percentage change							
1988 to 1998	-12	-1		-32	-41	6.7	88

<sup>1</sup> Excludes goods carried by light vans.

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

<sup>2</sup> From 1990, data collected on a financial year basis.

<sup>3</sup> Cargo handled at about 75 wharves along the River Thames between Teddington and the North Sea covered by the Port of London Authority.

<sup>4</sup> Data refer to domestic services only.

<sup>5</sup> Data on freight arriving in London are not available since privatisation of rail freight operators in 1994.

<sup>6</sup> Great Britain data are collected on a financial year basis covering domestic and international traffic. The figure for 1994 was affected by industrial action.

<sup>7</sup> Cargo handled at Heathrow, Gatwick, Luton, Southend, Stansted and London City airports.

# Telecommunications quality – top ten European cities

		Rank
	1999	1998
London	1	1
Frankfurt	2	3
Paris	3	2
Amsterdam	4	6
Berlin	5	9
Zurich	5	8
Stockholm	7	5
Brussels	8	4
Helsinki	9	
Munich	10	7

Source: European Cities Monitor, Healey and Baker

# 10.19

# Household expenditure on telephone and postal services, 1996-99<sup>1</sup>

Average weekly household expenditure

£

	expenditure
Telephone services (excluding	
mobile phones)	
London	6.20
United Kingdom <sup>2</sup>	5.00
Mobile phone services	
London	1.80
United Kingdom <sup>2</sup>	1.00
Postage	
London	0.70
United Kingdom <sup>2</sup>	0.60

<sup>1</sup> Combined data from the 1996-97, 1997-98 and 1998-99 surveys. The table is based on weighted data and includes children's expenditure.

Source: Family Expenditure Survey, Office for National Statistics

### **Communications**

In June 1999, there were 97 thousand employee jobs in London in the post and telecommunications industry, just under 3 per cent of the total number of employee jobs in the capital. This was a higher proportion than in the rest of the South East or the United Kingdom as a whole, both around 2 per cent. The sector in London saw growth of about 4 per cent between 1994 and 1999, compared with 15 per cent in the rest of the South East and 10 per cent nationally. Table A10.5 in the Appendix gives the number of employee jobs in the post and telecommunications industry in each borough in September 1997.

In Healey and Baker's 1999 survey of top business people in nine European countries, London was, once again, placed first in terms of quality of telecommunications, followed by Frankfurt and Paris (Table 10.18).

London is covered by four main cable operators providing services to domestic users (the number fell by two between 1996 and 1997 and by a further one between 1998 and 1999). These operations have focused on

television and telephone services, with the exception of NTL which does not provide domestic telephone services. Table A10.6 in the Appendix gives details of the operators with the number of homes passed and the number connected for television in different areas.

Average weekly household expenditure on telephone and postal services tends to be higher in London than nationally at £8.70 and £6.60 respectively in 1996-99 (Table 10.19). The typical London household spent a third more than the national average on telephone services in 1996-99, and a sixth more on post. Mobile phone expenditure continued to grow both nationally and in London to an average of £1.80 per week (compared with £1.00 nationally).

Telephone ownership has tended to be higher in London than nationally, but the rates are converging. In 1996-99, 95 per cent of London households had a telephone, compared with 94 per cent in the UK as a whole. However, as Chart 8.6 shows, 29 per cent of households in London had a mobile phone in 1996-99 compared with a UK average of 21 per cent.

<sup>2</sup> The United Kingdom total includes the enhanced Northern Ireland dataset for 1998-99 only.

# 11 Public services

- There was a higher proportion of General Practitioners in London in single-handed practices or who were aged 65 or over, than in England generally, but there was also a higher proportion of women doctors.
- The percentage of children immunised by their second birthday against measles, mumps and rubella fell by four percentage points in a year.
- The number of places available in residential homes for adults was 55 per thousand population in London compared with 91 per thousand in England as a whole.
- There were almost five thousand children in London on the child protection registers.
- The London Ambulance Service responds to almost two thousand emergency calls per day.

11.1

London Health Authorities within the area covered by the London Regional Office<sup>1</sup>

The chapter describes briefly the organisation and work of the health and social services, and the emergency and court services in London.

# Health

### Health Service organisation

The London Regional Office of the Department of Health was established on 1 January 1999, replacing the North and South Thames Regional Offices which extended well beyond London's boundaries. It will enable pan-London



1 As at 1 January 1999.

Source: Department of Health

# Hospital activity1: all specialties

			Thousand	s and rates
	North Thames		South Thames	
	1987-88	1997-98	1987-88	1997-98
Ordinary admissions				
Finished consultant episodes (thousands)	1,081	1,127	986	1,045
Average daily available beds (thousands)	45	29	42	25
Cases treated per bed (rates)	22	36	21	39
Day case admissions (thousands)	112	424	103	350
Outpatient attendances (thousands)	6,762	6,801	5,069	5,614
Accident and emergency attendances (thousands)	2,335	2,122	1,986	2,171

1 See Notes and Definitions.

Source: Department of Health

issues to be addressed within a body focused entirely on the capital. Some data are still based on the Thames Regions.

Within the London Region there are 16 health authorities in London (see Map 11.1 on the previous page). These are the agencies within the National Health Service responsible for commissioning health services for their populations. They are also responsible for general practitioners, dentists, pharmacists and opticians over the same area. Within these health authorities, 66 Primary Care Groups (PCGs) were formally established on 1 April 1999. The PCGs have responsibility for promoting the health of the local population in partnership with other agencies and contributing to a local health improvement programme (HImP). Within the framework of the HImP, PCGs commission hospital and community-based health services. PCGs are also responsible for developing the quality of primary health care received by patients.

Hospitals and other health providers are formed into NHS Trusts, of which there were a total of 58 in London in 1999-2000. These cover a variety of functions: some are general

hospitals, including some of the big teaching hospitals, some are specialist hospitals, such as Moorfields Eye Hospital, some provide community health services and some mental health services.

## Hospital activity

There have been significant changes in hospital activity over the last ten years alongside the reforms in organisation, both in London and in the country as a whole. Table 11.2 shows various measures of hospital activity in 1997-98 compared with 1987-88. Data are not readily available for London for 1987-88, so information is shown for the Thames Regions. There are large differences in the rate of growth of different treatment types. The number of ordinary finished consultant episodes increased by 4 and 6 per cent in North and South Thames respectively, while the number of day cases treated rose sharply by 280 per cent in North Thames and 240 per cent in South Thames.

In parallel with the slow growth in ordinary admissions and the rapid growth in day case treatment, the number of beds available fell by 35 per cent in North Thames and 41 per cent in South Thames between 1987-88 and 1997-98. This meant that the number of cases treated per bed increased over this period from 22 to 36 in North Thames, a rise of 59 per cent, and from 21 to 39 in South Thames, an 81 per cent increase

Proportionately, the greatest decreases in bed numbers have been in the geriatric, mental illness and learning disabilities sectors as there has been a shift in long-term care from a hospital setting into the community. In the Thames area as a whole, the numbers of acute beds fell by 9 thousand between 1987-88 and 1997-98 (a rate of 2.8 per cent per year);

geriatric beds fell by 5 thousand (3.9 per cent per year); mental illness beds by 10 thousand (6.1 per cent per year); and learning disabilities beds by 9 thousand (14.0 per cent per year).

Outpatient attendances were almost 11 per cent higher in South Thames in 1997-98 than in 1987-88, while in North Thames there was little difference between the two years.

Accident and emergency attendances were just over 9 per cent lower in North Thames in 1997-98 than a decade earlier, but over 9 per cent higher in South Thames. In both areas there had been small increases since 1996-97.

Hospital activity data for individual NHS Trusts in the area covered by the new London Regional Office for 1997-98 are shown in Table A11.1 in the Appendix. These show a total of almost 32 thousand beds available on average each day across London, with an average of 36.5 cases treated per bed. There is a great deal of variation, however, because of the kinds of cases treated. Mental Health Trusts, for instance, have a much lower number of cases treated per bed, because of longer lengths of stay which may be needed to help people suffering from mental illness. Accident and emergency services were provided by 35 Trusts; they handled nearly 2.6 million cases. Altogether, there were 475.5 thousand day cases and over 7.8 million outpatient attendances in London.

### Hospital waiting lists

The overall number of people on hospital waiting lists fell by 24 per cent in London Health Authorities, compared with 17 per cent in England as a whole, between 31 March 1998 and 31 March 1999 (Table 11.3), following increases of 15 and 13 per cent respectively in London and England in the previous year. The proportion who had been

## Hospital waiting lists1

	London Health Authorities		England	
	1998	1999	1998	1999
Months waited (percentages)				
Less than 6 months	64.4	70.8	70.5	73.9
6 months but less than 12	26.8	22.7	24.3	21.7
12 months or longer	8.8	6.5	5.3	4.4
Total waiting (=100%) (thousands)	191.0	145.2	1,277.0	1,060.4
Average numbers admitted from waiting list				
per month, 3 month average (thousands) <sup>2</sup>		42.4		319.6
Mean waiting time (months) <sup>3</sup>	5.2	4.6	4.6	4.3
Median waiting time (months) <sup>3</sup>	4.1	3.2	3.4	3.0

<sup>1</sup> People waiting for admission as either an inpatient or a day case as at 31 March. Figures are based on area of residence. See Notes and Definitions.

Source: Department of Health

waiting for 12 months or longer decreased from 8.8 per cent in London and 5.3 per cent in England to 6.5 per cent and 4.4 per cent respectively. Waiting times for patients still on the list remain higher for London residents than for those in England generally although the gap is narrowing. These data are not directly comparable with those published for years prior to 1996 since these are the resident-based figures, whereas it was provider-based figures that were formerly reported.

Table A11.2 in the Appendix shows the waiting list information for individual Health Authorities in London. All authorities registered falls in the number on the waiting list over the previous year, with Kensington and Chelsea and Westminster the only authority not showing a decrease in the proportion of patients waiting for more than six months, but the proportion in this health authority was the lowest in London.

The average (median) waiting time for patients still on the list fell by around a month between 1998 and 1999 in London, compared with a

<sup>2</sup> No data available for 1998 due to poor data quality of annual data collection for that year only. Quarterly data collection resumed for 1998/99.

<sup>3</sup> At 31 March 1998 and 1999.

# General practitioners<sup>1</sup>, 1998<sup>2</sup>

			Numbers
	London Health	Authorities	
			England
	Number of	Average	average
	practitioners	list size	list size
General Medical Practitioners	3,931	2,036	1,866
General Dental Practitioners	3,025	972	1,363
Ophthalmic Practitioners	1,672		

<sup>1</sup> See Notes and Definitions.

11.5

# Prescriptions<sup>1</sup>, 1998

		Percentage Average net of ingredient cost <sup>2</sup>				
	Prescription	prescription	Number of			
	items	items	prescription		Per	Number of
	dispensed in	exempt	items	Per head of	prescription	pharmacies
	community	from	per head of	population4	item	(at
	(millions)	charge <sup>3</sup>	population4	(£)	(£)	31 March)
London	63.5	86.0	8.9	85.61	9.64	1,812
England	513.2	85.4	10.4	95.09	9.16	9,781

<sup>1</sup> The data cover all prescription items dispensed by community pharmacists and appliance contractors, dispensing doctors and prescriptions submitted by prescribing doctors for items personally administered.

Source: Department of Health

decrease of around half a month in England as a whole. These brought the figures back to the levels of the previous year.

### General practitioners

There were 3,931 General Medical Practitioners (GPs) in London in 1998, an increase of 2 per cent since 1997. The average list size, at 2,036 per GP in London, was higher than the average for England as a whole – 1,866 (Table 11.4), but is falling in line with falls in the national figure. All London Authorities exceeded the England average (Table A11.3 in the Appendix). The proportion of single-handed practices was much higher in London at 43 per cent than in England generally - 30 per cent. London also had a higher proportion of GPs who were aged 65 or over - 4 per cent, compared with 1 per cent in England – and a lower proportion of younger GPs - 11 per cent were aged under 35, compared with 13 per cent in England as a whole. A higher proportion of GPs in London were women - 39 per cent compared with 31 per cent in England.

On average, London general medical practices employed fewer practice staff in 1998 than practices across England generally – five whole-time equivalent staff compared with nearly seven.

There were 3,025 General Dental Practitioners in London in 1998, about three quarters of the number of GPs. Around 41 per cent of the population in London was registered with a General Dental Service dentist in 1998, less than the England average (just over 47 per cent) – lower than in 1997 because of the reduction in the registration period to 15 months. There were 1,672 ophthalmic practitioners holding contracts with London health authorities in 1998.

<sup>2</sup> As at 1 October 1998 for doctors; as at 30 September 1998 for Dentists; as at 31 December 1998 for ophthalmic practitioners.

Source: NHS Executive, Department of Health

<sup>2</sup> Net ingredient cost relates to the basic cost of the drug and does not take account of discounts, dispensing costs, fees or prescription charge income.

<sup>3</sup> Figures are based on a 1 in 20 sample of all prescriptions submitted to the Prescription Pricing Authority by community pharmacists and appliance contractors only. Figures exclude prescription items dispensed to patients who have a prepayment certificate purchased in advance.

<sup>4 1998</sup> Office for National Statistics' mid-year estimates of population have been used to calculate the rates.

### **Prescriptions**

A total of 63.5 million prescription items were dispensed within the community in London in 1998 (Table 11.5), at a total net ingredient cost of £611.8 million. This averages a net cost of £85.61 per head of the population in London, lower than the England average of £95.09 per person. Eighty six per cent of prescription items dispensed in London were exempt from charges. The equivalent information is shown for each Health Authority in London in Table A11.4 in the Appendix. The number of prescription items per person dispensed in 1998 was highest in the East London and City Health Authority (10.9 per person) which was the only London authority where the England figure (10.4 items per person) was exceeded. The percentage of prescription items exempt from charges was also highest in East London and City (91 per cent), followed by Lambeth, Southwark and Lewisham (89 per cent), and lowest in Kensington, Chelsea and Westminster (79 per cent).

It should be noted that the prescription data are for the Health Authority where the prescription was dispensed. Some prescription items will therefore be included which do not relate to the resident population. This can be expected to have some inflationary effect on the rate for London as a whole and for some Health Authorities more than others.

# NHS hospital and community health service staff

Table 11.6 shows the number of medical, nursing and other staff employed by the NHS in 1998. On average, London NHS Trusts employ about the same number of health visitors, midwives and district nurses per 10,000 population as England, but substantially more NHS hospital nursing staff. There are

# NHS Hospital and Community Health Service staff, 1998<sup>1, 2</sup>

	Whole-time equivalents and					
	Whole-time equ	uivalents	Rates per 10,000 population			
	London Health		London Health			
	Authorities	England	Authorities	England		
Hospital medical staff	11,890	58,740	16.5	11.9		
Consultants	3,720	19,380	5.2	3.9		
Other career grades	560	4,100	0.8	0.8		
Registrar group	3,010	11,060	4.2	2.2		
Other junior grades	3,510	18,040	4.9	3.6		
Other hospital grades	250	1,840	0.3	0.4		
Hospital Dental staff	320	1,440	0.4	0.3		
PHM and CHS medical staff <sup>3</sup>	340	1,860	0.5	0.4		
CHS Dental staff <sup>3</sup>	180	1,030	0.3	0.2		
Community nursing and						
health visiting staff	9,130	59,770	12.7	12.1		
Health visitors	1,620	10,070	2.3	2.0		
District nurses	1,600	11,430	2.2	2.3		
Other community nursing staff	5,910	38,270	8.2	7.7		
Midwives (hospital and community)	2,860	18,170	4.0	3.7		
Hospital nursing staff- unqualified	7,380	72,520	10.3	14.7		
Hospital nursing staff- qualified	31,940	181,290	44.4	36.6		
Other direct care staff <sup>4</sup>	22,630	126,820	31.5	25.6		
Administration and estates staff	29,010	167,700	40.4	33.9		
Other management and support staff <sup>5</sup>	9,980	80,920	13.9	16.3		
All directly employed staff	124,810	765,960	173.7	154.8		

<sup>1</sup> As at 30 September

Source: Non-Medical Workforce Census and Medical and Dental Workforce Census, Department of Health

<sup>2</sup> Figures are rounded to the nearest ten and totals may not equal the sum of component parts.

<sup>3</sup> PHM=Public Health Medicine; CHS=Community Health Service.

<sup>4</sup> Includes 430 nursing staff others, nursing learners, scientific, therapeutic and technical staff and healthcare assistants.

<sup>5</sup> Includes support staff, ambulance staff and other staff including those employed by Special Health Authorities, Other Statutory Authorities and other centrally based services.

### Immunisation of children<sup>1</sup>

Percentages

	199	1-92	1998-99		
	London	England	London	England	
Diphtheria	87	93	92	95	
Tetanus	87	93	92	95	
Pertussis (whooping cough)	83	88	91	94	
Polio	87	93	92	95	
MMR (Measles, mumps and rubella)	83	90	82	88	
Hib2 (meningitis)	83	90	92	95	

<sup>1</sup> Data relate to children reaching their second birthday during 1991-92 and 1998-99 and immunised by that birthday.

Source: Department of Health

also considerably more hospital medical staff in London. It has to be borne in mind, however, that the rates given are for the resident population, whereas hospitals in London also treat people from outside the capital.

# Immunisation of children

The proportions of children immunised by their second birthday in London and in England in 1991-92 and 1998-99 are shown in Table 11.7. Rates have increased overall since 1991-92 in both London and the country as a whole. However, rates in London are still several percentage points lower than national averages, and the rates in London in 1998-99 were down on those in the previous year, with

the single exception of Hib where the rate remained static. The most notable fall was in take-up of the MMR vaccine where the rate had dropped by 4 percentage points in the year. A fall in MMR coverage was also seen in England and these decreases are most likely to be due to unsubstantiated adverse publicity about the vaccine: this may be a factor in a reduction of take-up for all vaccines.

Table A11.5 in the Appendix shows the 1998-99 figures for the London Health Authorities. Immunisation rates are lowest in Croydon followed by East London and the City. The take-up in London continues to be below that in England as a whole across all schemes, with coverage for the measles, mumps and rubella vaccine the lowest by the second birthday. The take-up of MMR increased in only one of the 16 London authorities over the previous year.

The gradually increasing numbers of Londoners suffering from food poisoning and tuberculosis which was noted in *a*, continues. Notifications of food poisoning have increased by more than 50 per cent since 1992, and those of tuberculosis by more than 20 per cent although the increase between 1997 and 1998 was very small.

### Social services

The delivery and organisation of social services have undergone considerable changes in the 1990s, mainly through the implementation of two major pieces of legislation. The first was the Children Act 1989, implemented in October 1991, which set out the responsibilities of parents and local authorities towards children in need. The second was the community care section of the NHS and Community Care Act 1990, which came into force in April 1993. This gave local authorities the duty to assess people with care needs and where possible to provide services which would enable them to stay in their own homes.

11.8

# Staff of local authority social services departments, 19981

	Whole-time	equivalents	Rates per 10,000 population		
	London	England	London	England	
Area office/fieldwork staff	17,300	111,800	24.1	22.6	
Residential care staff	7,400	62,100	10.3	12.5	
Day care staff	4,100	30,300	5.7	6.1	
Central/strategic HQ staff	2,800	17,300	3.9	3.5	
Other staff not included elsewhere	500	1,900	0.7	0.4	
Total	32,100	223,500	44.7	45.2	

<sup>1</sup> As at 30 September.

Source: Department of Health

<sup>2</sup> Haemophilus influenzae type b.

Table A11.6 in the Appendix gives summary figures for selected social services activities in each borough.

### Social Services Staff

Table 11.8 shows the number of social services staff employed by local authorities. London boroughs employ fieldwork and central staff at a slightly higher rate than the England average, but relatively fewer day care and residential staff. Day care and residential services are often bought from independent agencies, as are home care services, and are not included in these figures.

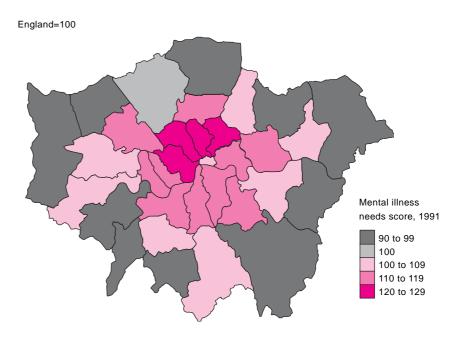
### Mental illness needs index

Needs for these services are likely to be higher in some areas of London than the average for England. The prevalence of mental illness, in particular, is higher in parts of London and this is illustrated by Map 11.9. This shows the mental illness needs index, calculated to show the difference in need from the England average of 100. The score is based on factors associated with mental illness, such as social isolation, poverty, unemployment, sickness and poor quality housing, derived from the 1991 Census. As the map shows, boroughs such as Hammersmith and Fulham, Westminster, Camden, Islington, Lambeth, Hackney and Tower Hamlets have scores around 20 per cent higher than the England average.

# Home help/care for adults

In 1998, the number of households in London receiving home help/care equated to 219 per thousand households headed by someone aged 75 or over, 13.5 per cent higher than the England rate of 193 per thousand (Table 11.10) (figures for London are based on those local authorities providing data). The average number of contact hours per household helped (6.2 per week) was also slightly higher in

### Mental illness needs index



Source: Department of Health



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# Non-residential community care, 1998<sup>1</sup>

	London	England
Households receiving home help/care <sup>2</sup>	70,443	447,200
Percentage of total who are aged 65 or over	86	85
Rate per 1,000 households aged 75 or over <sup>2</sup>	219	193
Number of contact hours per household per week	6.2	5.8
Meals provided per week per 1,000 population aged 75 or over <sup>3</sup>	363	274
Day centre places available <sup>4</sup>	81,000	682,900
Percentage of total <sup>5</sup>		
Elderly people aged 65 or over	40	37
People with physical and/or sensory disabilities aged 16 to 64	9	9
People with learning disabilities aged 16 to 64	34	41
People with mental illness aged 16 to 64	16	11
Others/unknown aged 16 to 64	1	1

- 1 Care purchased or provided by local authorities during a survey week in September 1998.
- 2 The household figures do not include information for Haringey, the contact hours figures do not include information for Haringey or Havering.
- 3 The figures for London do not include details for Lewisham, Southwark, Bromley and Haringey.
- 4 Whole-day equivalent places available.
- 5 The London figure does not include details for Barnet.

Source: Department of Health

### Residential care, 1998<sup>1</sup>

	Nursing care		Residential care	
	London	England	London	England
Total number of places available <sup>2</sup>	17,750	205,585	30,201	347,915
Places available per 10,000 population (aged 18+)	32	54	55	91
Residents supported by local authorities	7,683	72,904	26,793	179,540
Per 10,000 population (aged 18+)	14	19	48	47
Percentage supported outside the authority	44	17	37	15

<sup>1</sup> As at 31 March.

Source: Department of Health

London than in England as a whole (5.8 hours per week). In both London and England generally, the trend has been towards providing more contact hours to fewer households. Compared with 1997, the number of contact hours for 1998 for England as a whole remained fairly constant, while for London they decreased by 9 per cent. Between 1994 and 1998 the total number of home help/

11.12

# Day care places available for children under eight1

Thousands and percentages

Local authority provided and registered day-care places

		With		Out of
	Day nurseries	child-minders	Playgroups	school clubs
	(under 5s)	(under 8s)	(under 5s)	(5-7s)
Inner London <sup>2,3</sup>				
1998	18	16	16	13
1999	19	13	10	14
Outer London <sup>2,3</sup>				
1998	19	39	30	10
1999	19	33	29	9
London <sup>3</sup>				
1998	36	55	46	22
1999	39	45	39	23
London as a percentage	of England³			
1998	16	15	12	24
1999	16	13	11	20

<sup>1</sup> At 31 March each year.

Source: Department for Education and Employment

care contact hours increased by 18 per cent in England, while the number of households receiving home help/care decreased by 17 per cent. In London, the change in contact hours was even more pronounced, with an increase of 27 per cent in contrast to a 12 per cent decrease in the number of households receiving home help/care. A major feature of development since the implementation of the community care changes in April 1993 has been the rapid growth in the purchase by local authorities of independent sector home care services, and this growth has been particularly marked in London.

The provision of meals was much higher in London in 1998 than in England – 363 meals served per week per thousand population aged 75 or over, compared with 274 (figures for London are based on those local authorities that provided data).

The proportion of all day centre places available for people aged 65 or over was higher in London than in England in 1998 – 40 per cent, compared with 37 per cent. The share for people with mental illness was also higher in London, while smaller proportions of places were for people aged 16 to 64 with learning disabilities and physical or sensory disabilities.

### Residential care for adults

The 1980s saw a large growth in places in private residential homes in the country as a whole, partly fuelled by the availability of funding from the Department of Social Security for individuals to pay for their care. In London, however, the number of places in independent residential homes increased much less rapidly. Since 1991, when the NHS and Community Care Act 1990 was published, there has been a levelling off in the number of places in residential homes in England as a whole. The increase in the number of places in nursing

<sup>2</sup> Reaistered beds for nursing homes.

<sup>2</sup> Inner and Outer London refer to the former ILEA area and the rest of London respectively; see Notes and Definitions for Chapter 7.

<sup>3</sup> Includes estimates (where borough data was unavailable).

homes seems to be continuing, however, and there is also an increase in the number of homes which are dual registered for both residential and nursing care. In London, there has been a decrease in the number of places in residential homes, while the number in nursing homes has increased.

London has far fewer places per 10,000 population for residential and nursing home care than England as a whole. As Table 11.11 on the previous page shows, the number of places available in residential homes for adults at 31 March 1998 represented 55 per 10,000 total population in London, compared with a rate of 91 per 10,000 in England as a whole. The number of nursing home places in London represented 32 per 10,000 total population, much lower than the rate of England provision, at 54 per 10,000 population.

London boroughs support residents at a similar rate to the England average: at 31 March 1998, residents in both residential and nursing homes supported by London boroughs represented a rate of 62 per 10,000 population aged 18+, compared with 66 per 10,000 for all English authorities. The proportion of supported residents placed outside the local authority was much higher for London boroughs than for authorities in England as a whole.

### Day care for children under eight

Overall, the number of places available in day nurseries for children under five years old in London increased between 1997 and 1999 while the numbers available with childminders decreased (Table 11.12). Out-of-school clubs which had increased by 4 thousand places to 19 thousand throughout the capital between 1995 and 1996, saw a further similar increase between 1998 and 1999, to 23 thousand places. Both Inner and Outer London saw a continuing reduction in playgroup places for the under fives.

# Children and young people on child protection registers, 1999<sup>1</sup>

	Number of children	Rate per 10,000 children aged under 18		•	ge of childr egory of ab	en in each ouse <sup>2</sup>	
	on registers <sup>3</sup>		Neglect	Physical injury	Sexual abuse	Emotional abuse	Other <sup>4</sup>
Inner London <sup>5</sup>	2,087	37	55	23	13	19	-
Outer London <sup>5</sup>	2,814	26	48	24	18	18	2
London	4,901	30	51	24	16	18	1
England	31,900	28	44	29	21	17	2

<sup>1</sup> As at 31 March.

Source: Department of Health

## Child protection registers

There were almost five thousand children on the child protection registers in London in 1999 (Table 11.13). The numbers have been falling gradually. The figure in Inner London in 1999 represented 37 per 10,000 children aged under 18 – 42 per cent higher than the rate in Outer London (26 per 10,000) and 32 per cent higher than the rate for England as a whole. Over half the cases in Inner London were due to neglect which was also a more significant factor in Outer London than in England as a whole. On the other hand, sexual abuse was a relatively less common factor in London than nationally. A higher proportion of those on child protection registers in London were in the older age groups - 31 per cent were aged ten or over, compared with 29 per cent in England, although this difference was less marked than in previous years.

<sup>2</sup> The total of the percentages exceed 100 as children in mixed categories are counted more than once.

<sup>3</sup> Includes a number of unborn children.

<sup>4</sup> Data relate to children or young people on the child protection registers who have not been allocated a specific category.

<sup>5</sup> Inner and Outer London refer to the former ILEA area and the rest of London respectively; see Notes and Definitions for Chapter 7.

# Children looked after by local authorities, 1999<sup>1</sup>

Rates a	and	percent	ages
---------	-----	---------	------

	Inner London	Outer London	London	England
Number of children looked after				
per 1,000 population	8.5	4.4	5.8	4.9
Type of placement (percentages)				
Foster homes	67.2	67.3	67.3	65.5
Community homes	6.0	7.4	6.7	8.7
Other	26.8	25.3	26.0	25.8

<sup>1</sup> Provisional figures at 31 March.

Source: Department of Health

# 11.15

### **Police Areas in London**



Source: Metropolitan Police; City of London Police

### Children looked after

Around 9,500 children were being looked after by London boroughs and over 55 thousand by all authorities in England at the end of March 1999. The rate of children looked after by Inner London boroughs, at 8.5 per thousand population, was over 70 per cent more than the rate across England as a whole (4.9 per thousand population) (Table 11.14). A slightly higher proportion of looked-after children in London were placed in foster homes compared with those in England as a whole – 68 compared with 66 per cent. Conversely, slightly fewer placements in London were in community homes compared with England.

# **Emergency services**

### Police

Police territorial responsibility in London is divided between the Metropolitan and City of London Forces. Other police presence in London includes the British Transport Police and the Royal Parks Constabulary. The responsibilities of the City force are, of course, confined to the historic 'square mile'; the Metropolitan Police Service (MPS) has for many years policed the rest of the capital and beyond. Map 11.15 shows how far the MPS's duties have, until this year, extended beyond the boundaries of London into the neighbouring counties of Essex, Hertfordshire and Surrey – the 'Metropolitan Police District' (MPD).

From 1 April 2000, those parts of the historic MPD which lie outside the Greater London boundary will be policed by the respective county forces. The new structure of Government for London, and the establishment of the Metropolitan Police Authority, are explained in Chapter 12.

The pressures and complexities of policing the capital are reflected in the greater numbers of people, both police and civil staff, employed. Table 11.16 shows that, in terms of numbers per 100,000 population, London has about one and a half times the complement, of police officers and civil staff, found in England and Wales as a whole. This partly reflects the problems of policing urban areas, but also follows from the additional services provided by the two London forces. Some of these services are national in their nature, for instance the security of certain people, such as the royal family, ministers of government and diplomatic staff, and particular places, such as Parliament, the royal palaces, embassies and the law courts.

The higher levels of service provided, result, naturally, in higher costs. Table 11.17 shows these to be almost 75 per cent higher, per head of resident population, than in England and Wales as a whole. However, costs of the London forces have been rising less quickly than in England and Wales (7.6 per cent increase in London between 1994-95 and 1998-99, as opposed to 11.4 per cent nationally).

In addition, as shown in Chapter 8, London has some of the most serious concentrations of deprivation in the country. Certain facets of deprivation are demonstrably associated with higher levels of crime; perhaps more importantly, London has large numbers of vulnerable people requiring special protection.

As shown in Chapter 2, around a quarter of the capital's population is drawn from ethnic minority backgrounds. Events of recent years have ensured that racially motivated or aggravated crimes are regarded as especially serious, both by government and the majority of citizens. This adds to the responsibility of London police officers to promote the safety of London and of all its people.

### Police personnel, 1999<sup>1</sup>

Numbers a	and rates	ŝ
-----------	-----------	---

	London			metro	nbined opolitan y areas²	England and Wales	
			Per		Per		Per
	1991		100,000		100,000		100,000
	numbers	Numbers	population	Numbers	population	Numbers	population
Police officers	29,043	26,851	352	30,332	265	123,841	237
Civilian staff	14,123	11,571	152	11,563	101	52,465	100

<sup>1</sup> As at 31 March, for police force areas.

Source: Home Office

11.17

# Costs of police services, 1998-99

						£ million
	London		Coml metrop county	oolitan		ıland Wales
		Per		Per		Per
		100,000		100,000		100,000
	Total po	pulation	Total po	opulation	Total p	opulation
Current expenditure	1,835	23.9	1,641	14.3	7,209	13.8
Capital expenditure	43	0.6	36	0.3	179	0.3
Total expenditure	1,878	24.4	1,677	14.6	7,388	14.1

<sup>1</sup> Includes Greater Manchester, Merseyside, South Yorkshire, Northumbria, West Midlands and West Yorkshire.

<sup>2</sup> Excluding London (Comprises Greater Manchester, Merseyside, South Yorkshire, Northumbria, West Midlands and West Yorkshire)

### Police services, 1997-1998

Numbers and percentages					
	Metropolitan Police	City of London Police			
Crime, 1998-99					
Notifiable offences recorded	934,254	7,144			
Percentage cleared up	22	33			
Arrests <sup>1</sup>	208,850	5,257			
Motoring offences, 1997					
Prosecutions	262,945	15,638			
Written warnings	13,774	5,840			
VDRS <sup>2</sup> notices	16,536	1,541			
Fixed penalties <sup>3</sup>	290,510	11,269			
Breath tests, 1998					
Roadside screening tests	111,400	3,300			
Percentage positive or refused	13	14			
Other services, 1998					
Firearm certificates					
New applications granted	374	1			
Renewals granted <sup>4</sup>	56	0			
Certificates on issue at 31 December	7,127	31			
Shotgun certificates					
New applications granted	1,583	1			
Renewals granted⁴	561	0			
Certificates on issue at 31 December	33,139	30			
Firearms dealers registered at 31 Decemb	er 243	0			

- 1 Arrests for the year April 1998 to March 1999; Metropolitan Police notifiable offences, City of London Police total offences.
- 2 Vehicle Defect Rectification Scheme
- 3 Excludes 3,686 thousand penalty charge notices issued by local authorities.
- 4 The extension of the period of the certificates from 3 years to 5 years in 1995 means that no renewals were due in 1998. Those shown are delayed applications from 1997.

Source: Home Office

Finally the London forces have to provide for the safety of the millions of workers and visitors who come into the conurbation every day.

Table 11.18 summarises the work carried out by the two London forces. The apparent large increase in notifiable offences recorded (796,862 in 1997) can be attributed to expanded coverage and the adoption of new national counting rules since 1 April 1998.

These now include all indictable crimes, all 'triable either way' offences, and closely associated summary offences, such as common assault and criminal damage. More detailed information on notifiable offences recorded by the police can be found in Chapter 8 and its associated Appendix table at borough level.

Although the figures are down on those reported for 1996, the large volume of work still associated with traffic control and regulation is illustrated by the 278.6 thousand prosecutions, the 301.8 thousand fixed penalties issued, and the 114.7 thousand roadside breath tests taken in 1998.

More than 7 thousand firearm certificates and around 33 thousand shotgun certificates were current at the end of 1998; the numbers have fallen in each of the last four years . The introduction of the ban on hand-guns in the Firearms (Amendment) Act 1997, resulted in substantial numbers of large calibre hand-guns being handed in. Between July and September 1997, 14,388 were surrendered in London. During the same period, 3,026 small calibre pistols were also surrendered in London, in anticipation of the statutory ban which was subsequently instituted. Owners had until the end of February 1998 to hand in these small calibre pistols.

# Fire services

The London Fire Brigade provides services for the whole of London, dividing its work into three Commands as shown on Map 11.19. The Brigade is currently administered by the London Fire and Civil Defence Authority following the abolition of the Greater London Council in 1986. In July 2000 however, responsibility will transfer to the London Fire and Emergency Planning Authority (LFEPA) as a functional body of the forthcoming Greater London Authority (GLA) which is designated as

a Best Value authority. This means the GLA must ensure continuous improvement in the way it exercises its functions, having regard to a combination of economy, efficiency and effectiveness. The LFEPA will as a result issue a best value performance plan giving details of how they plan to continue to reduce the numbers of total incidents in London.

There were almost 8 thousand people employed by the London Fire Brigade at 31 March 1999, 6 thousand of whom were operational staff (Table 11.20). This was a reduction of 7 per cent in operational staff compared with 1 January 1994. Administrative and clerical staff were reduced by nearly 17 per cent over the same period.

# **London Fire Brigade Command Areas**



Source: Home Office

11.20

# Fire Brigade staffing and costs, 1999<sup>1</sup>

	Londo	on Fire Briga	ade		oined metrop county areas			Great Brita	in
	Total		Rate per 100,000 opulation	Total		Rate per 100,000 opulation	Total		Rate per 100,000 population
Fire Brigade staff (numbers)									
Operational <sup>3</sup>									
Officers	747	(0)	10.4	1,141	(2)	10.2	5,274	(242)	9.2
Firefighters	5,226	(0)	72.7	8,465	(328)	75.9	50,218	(17,091)	87.3
Control staff	89	(0)	1.2	307	(0)	2.8	1,660	(0)	2.9
Non-uniformed	900	(0)	12.5	1,505	(0)	13.5	6,555	(0)	11.4
Administration and clerical	721		10.0						
Others	180		2.5						
Fire Brigade costs (£ million) <sup>4</sup>									
Current expenditure	265		3.72	330		2.96	1,501		2.62
Capital expenditure	13		0.18	14		0.13	65		0.11
Total expenditure	278		3.90	344		3.09	1,566		2.73

<sup>1</sup> As at 31 March 1999.

Source: Home Office; Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions; The Scottish and Welsh Executives

<sup>2</sup> Includes Greater Manchester, Merseyside, South Yorkshire, Tyne and Wear, West Miidlands and West Yorkshire.

<sup>3</sup> The ranks of firefighter, leading firefighter and sub officer have been included under the heading of 'Firefighters'. All other ranks have been counted as 'Officers'. The figures in brackets are the numbers of retained firefighters within the total for each category of the brigade staff.

<sup>4</sup> Data relate to 1997-98.



# London Fire Brigade: analysis of incidents

Number								
	1996	1997	1998					
Fire incidents								
Primary fires <sup>1</sup>	19,929	19,650	19,098					
Secondary fires <sup>1</sup>	31,729	26,970	21,971					
Chimney fires	170	125	102					
Special services <sup>2</sup>	65,998	49,008	47,599					
Fire false alarms								
Malicious	16,175	14,204	13,083					
Good intent	22,413	19,476	16,284					
Due to apparatus	32,655	39,649	42,778					
Total incidents	189,069	169,082	160,915					

London Fire Brigade has steadily reduced in recent years and in 1998 was 15 per cent less than it was in 1996 (Table 11.21). The analysis of incidents shows that fires are reducing in line with total incidents: this is mainly due to a large fall in secondary (outdoor) fires. The number of false alarms in 1998 (45 per cent of total incidents) has increased compared with 38 per cent of total incidents in 1996. The London Fire Brigade have established specific measures to reduce false alarms caused by the

malfunction of fire and smoke detection

The total number of incidents dealt with by the

equipment as well as constantly giving advice where appropriate as part of their statutory duty.

Table A11.7 in the Appendix gives a breakdown of special service calls. These calls cover a wide range of incidents, from the rescue of animals to major accidents. 30 per cent of the special service calls in 1996-97 were to effect an entry to premises. A change in policy from 1 April 1997, resulted in a substantial reduction in attendances to these incidents. The London Fire Brigade will now only effect entry to premises where there is danger of fire or a risk to life. This contributed towards an immediate reduction of 26 per cent in the number of special service calls in 1997-98 and a further reduction of 3 per cent in 1998-99.

A further very important function carried out by the London Fire Brigade is in the area of fire safety. This includes fire safety inspections by dedicated fire safety officers and fire station personnel under regulations contained in the Fire Precautions Act 1971. The Community Fire Safety campaign currently being established by the London Fire Brigade will lead to a vast increase in the number of hours spent issuing Fire Safety advice. This will in turn assist the London Fire Brigade in it's main objective of making London a safer city by minimising the risks, and social and economic costs, of fires and other hazards. The London Fire Brigade has set itself a target of a 20 per cent reduction by 2005 in the number of fires and deaths and injuries caused by fires.

# London Ambulance Service

The London Ambulance Service NHS Trust also provides services for the whole of London, working, in 1998-99, through three operational

Source: Home Office

# 11.22

# **London Ambulance Service Divisions**



Source: London Ambulance Service

<sup>1</sup> See Notes and Definitions.

<sup>2</sup> Special service incidents recorded for the 12 months beginning April.

divisions (Map 11.22). Its origins are similar to those of the Fire Brigade, developing from the public health and emergency service responsibilities of local authorities. The London Ambulance Service was separated from the Greater London Council in 1974, some ten years earlier than the Fire Brigade, when the relationship of ambulance services with hospitals, and the Health Service in general, was recognised to be stronger than with the fire and police services which remained largely under local municipal control. The London Ambulance Service is the smallest of the three emergency services in London with about 2.9 thousand staff. The numbers of operational staff have remained more or less constant since staff-funding was last increased in 1995, despite an increase in emergency demand of nearly 14 per cent in the same period. The Service's costs in 1997-98 totalled £102 million, equivalent to just over £14 per head of population. This contrasted with costs of £647 million in the whole of England, a little over £13 per head.

The number of emergency patient journeys per 100,000 population – 7.4 in 1998-99, compared with 5.5 in England as a whole – demonstrates the additional need in London for highly qualified 'paramedics' (Table 11.23). This is offset by what appears to be less reliance on the London Ambulance Service for journeys carrying a lower priority. The Service now has nearly 800 paramedics (falling back from a high of 896 in 1998) and almost 400 ambulances. On average they respond to almost 2 thousand emergency calls a day.

The London Ambulance Service has attracted much publicity in recent years, over difficulties it has experienced in implementing a new computer control system and in achieving

acceptable response times to emergency calls. The new computerised control room was opened in January 1996. Table 11.24 suggests that there has been a sustained improvement in response times since then, which are now consistently nearer to the 95 per cent target for responding to emergency calls within 14 minutes: in 1998-99, almost 87 per cent of emergency calls were responded to within 14 minutes, with almost 39 per cent – three times the percentage of four years earlier – within the more stringent 8 minute response time (target 50 per cent).

# Ambulance services: by priority of patient journey, 1998-99

Thousand	Thousands and rates							
London Ambulance								
Service	England							
Thousands of journeys								
529.2	2,721.6							
76.4	1,078.7							
763.2	14,837.9							
1,368.9	18,638.2							
ulation								
7.4	5.5							
1.1	2.2							
10.6	30.0							
	London Ambulance Service /s 529.2 76.4 763.2 1,368.9 ulation 7.4 1.1							

Source: Department of Health

11.24

# **London Ambulance Service: response times**

Percentage of responses within targ							target	
	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
	-92	-93	-94	-95	-96	-97	-98	-99
Target								
95% response within 14 minutes	64.0	58.5	62.2	68.2	75.9	89.9	90.5	86.9
50% response within 8 minutes		11.3	12.0	12.9	17.3	35.1	36.8	38.7

Source: Department of Health

# Work of the magistrates' courts,19981

		Days and percentages
	London <sup>2</sup>	England and Wales
Average time from offence to completion for defendants (days)	121	127
Percentage convicted <sup>3</sup>	<i>57</i>	55
Percentage use of custody <sup>4</sup>	15	12
Percentage use of fine	43	35
Percentage use of community sentences <sup>5</sup>	23	29

- 1 For indictable offences (including triable-either-way).
- 2 Metropolitan Police and City of London Police force areas except for the 'offence to completion' figure which relates to London only, ie the 33 boroughs.
- 3 Convictions as a percentage of total proceeded against. The latter includes those committed for trial to the Crown Court or who had proceedings discontinued or charges withdrawn.
- 4 Secure training order, detention in a young offender institution and unsuspended imprisonment.
- 5 Probation order, supervision order, community service order, attendance centre order, combination order and curfew order.

Source: Home Office; Lord Chancellor's Department

ambulance service calls, into 'immediately life-threatening' (category A) and 'others' (category B), will be implemented by March 2001. The date for the associated targets for response – 90 per cent within eight minutes for category A and 95 per cent with 14 minutes for category B – are still to be decided, but by February 2000, London's ambulances were reaching 60 per cent of category A calls within eight minutes and 92 per cent of category B calls within 14 minutes.

The government's new classification of

By mid-1999, improvements in computer and telephonic systems have enabled delays due to callers giving wrong or incomplete addresses, to be further reduced. This had had a particular effect on long delays in response (over 20 minutes) thus reducing clinical risk. It is expected that a full automatic vehicle location system will be introduced during 2000, which should also prove beneficial to the service by further improvements in response times.

These improvements in the service have been accomplished against a background of increasing work as evidenced by the rise in numbers of calls requiring the attendance of an ambulance. The numbers of emergency calls resulting in an ambulance arriving at the scene of an incident increased by 44 per cent in London between 1992-93 and 1998-99. Much of this increase has been the result of a substantial increase in demand at the weekend, so that Saturdays and Sundays are now as busy as weekdays.

# The Courts and Probation Services

The magistrates' courts in London are organised into 22 magistrates' courts committee areas: the City of London Magistrates' Court, an Inner London Area and

# 11.26

# Work of the Crown Court, 19981

	London <sup>2</sup>	England and Wales
Average waiting time (weeks) <sup>3</sup>	13.6	13.2
Average hearing time (hours) <sup>3</sup>	7.5	4.3
Percentage convicted <sup>4</sup>	66	75
Percentage use of custody <sup>5</sup>	62	61
Percentage use of fine	5	3
Percentage use community sentences <sup>6</sup>	26	28

- 1 For indictable offences (including triable-either-way).
- 2 Metropolitan Police and City of London Police force areas.
- 3 Courts situated in the Inner London area.
- 4 Convictions as a percentage of the total number who were tried including those who pleaded guilty at the outset.
- 5 S53 of the Children and Young Persons Act 1933, secure training order, detention in a young offender institution and unsuspended imprisonment.
- 6 Probation order, supervision order, community service order, attendance centre order, combination order and curfew order.

Source: Home Office; Court Service



each of the 20 Outer London boroughs (those London boroughs outside the former Inner London Education Authority area).

Table 11.25 shows that in 1998 the average waiting time of defendants from offence to completion of court proceedings at magistrates' courts in London was a little less than that for the whole of England and Wales; both figures had decreased in the previous year, but the London courts by 12 per cent compared with 6 per cent nationally. The percentage of those proceeded against who were convicted was slightly higher in London. There were some differences in sentencing practice with greater use of fines and custodial sentences and less of community sentences in London. These are consistent with the patterns of earlier years and may, at least partly, reflect differences in the types and severity of offences for which people were convicted.

Table 11.26 gives details of the work of the Crown Court. In 1998, as in 1997, the average waiting time was slightly higher in London than in England and Wales as a whole, both figures increasing by a week or more. The increase in the national figure reversed the falling trend of the previous two years. The average hearing time in London in 1998 was not far short of double the national average, at 7.5 and 4.3 hours respectively. Conviction rates were lower in London, though the sentencing practice was very similar to the national picture. However, the small differences which were evident showed, as with the magistrates' courts, a greater use of fines.

The work of the London County Courts for 1991 and 1998 is summarised in Table 11.27. The numbers of both bankruptcy and winding-up petitions in 1998 were lower than in 1991, reflecting the change in the economic climate nationally, indeed, bankruptcy petitions fell by

## **Work of the London County Courts**

		Number
	1991	1998
Proceedings started		
Plaints entered	280,836	194,540
Bankruptcy petitions		
County Courts	246	159
Royal Courts of Justice	11,522	8,589
Winding-up petitions		
County Courts	16	6
Royal Courts of Justice	10,947	4,854
Adoption applications	748	454
Divorce, nullity and judicial separation petitions		
County Courts	12,202	12,058
Probate Registry of the Family Division	8,683	8,653
Proceedings disposed of		
By trial	4,549	4,870
By arbitration	6,369	16,583
Applications made and injunctions granted und Domestic Violence and Matrimonial Proceeding Part IV of the Family Law Act 1996 (for 1998 fig Applications made	gs Act 1976 (for 1991 figur	res)
County Courts	2,115	3,420
Probate Registry of the Family Division	567	683
Injunctions granted	307	003
County Courts	3,842	3,595
Probate Registry of the Family Division	551	717

Source: Court Service

23 per cent between 1997 and 1998. The number of divorce, nullity and judicial separation petitions heard in County Courts were also lower in 1998 than in 1991. More than three quarters of proceedings were disposed of by arbitration compared with less than three fifths in 1991.

The work of the Probation Service in London is organised in five areas: Inner London, North East London, South East London, South West London and Middlesex. In 1998, 23,790 people

began criminal supervision by the Probation Service in London and a further 48 began Family Court supervision. Table A11.8 in the Appendix shows the number of people commencing supervision by type of order. The numbers vary widely but the distribution by court order is broadly similar between the areas, and the figures are broadly comparable to the previous year. The largest changes were in combination orders and probation orders which increased by more than 12 per cent and 6 per cent respectively.

# 12 London government

# London government - administrative changes

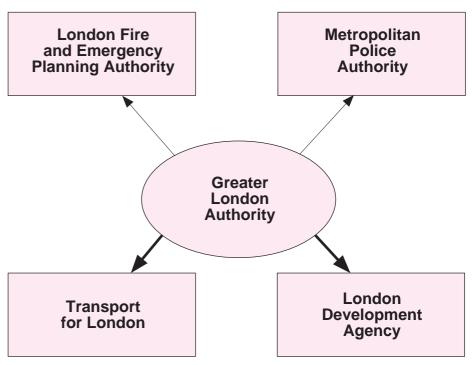
This chapter notes the progress towards the new arrangements for government in London from the year 2000 and summarises the political composition of the London borough councils at the end of February 2000.

Following the Parliamentary General Election of 1 May 1997, the then new government set in motion its plans for revising the government of London and a Green Paper was published for consultation. New Leadership for London: the Government's proposals for a Greater London Authority sought Londoners' views on a wide variety of issues relating to the establishment of a new London government. Two key issues were already resolved in the Green Paper: the fundamental idea of a directly elected Mayor and Assembly was not for negotiation and the new government of London would rule over the same boundaries as the old Greater London Council.

The White Paper A Mayor and Assembly for London was published at the end of the consultation period. It set out in detail the Government's plans for the proposed new administrative bodies for London (Chart 12.1). A referendum of Londoners was held on 7 May 1998 when Londoners were asked to vote yes

12.1

# New administrative bodies for London



Source: White Paper, A Mayor and Assembly for London; Government Office for London

# Results of the Greater London Authority Referendum, May 1998

Numbers and percentages

			Vo	Voting 'Yes'				
				Percentage of		Spoilt papers per-		
	Electorate	Turnout	Number	Votes	Electorate	centage <sup>1</sup>		
Inner London	1,847,806	32.8	468,253	78.7	25.3	1.9		
Outer London	3,168,258	35.6	762,506	68.5	24.1	1.3		
London	5,016,064	34.6	1,230,759	72.0	24.5	1.5		

<sup>1</sup> This percentage is based on the total number of people voting, ie the number of ballot papers included in the count. Source: London Research Centre

or no to the question 'Do you agree with the Government's proposals for a Mayor and Assembly for London?' There was a clear majority in support of the proposals with 72 per cent of votes cast for 'Yes' (Table 12.2), albeit from a very low turnout (34.6 per cent).

The Queen's speech of 24 November 1998 confirmed the inclusion of a Bill to establish a Greater London Authority in the 1998/99 legislative session and the Greater London Authority Act received Royal Assent on 11 November 1999. Most sections of the Act will be brought into force gradually.

The Mayor's function will be clearly strategic (Chart 12.3). He or she will define objectives and set benchmarks and budgets, and run new transport and economic development bodies:

Transport for London and the London

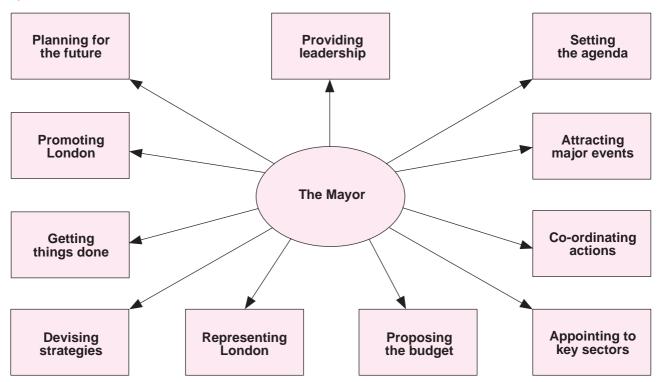
Development Agency. In addition, the

Metropolitan Police Authority and the London

Fire and Emergency Planning Authority will be

# 12,3

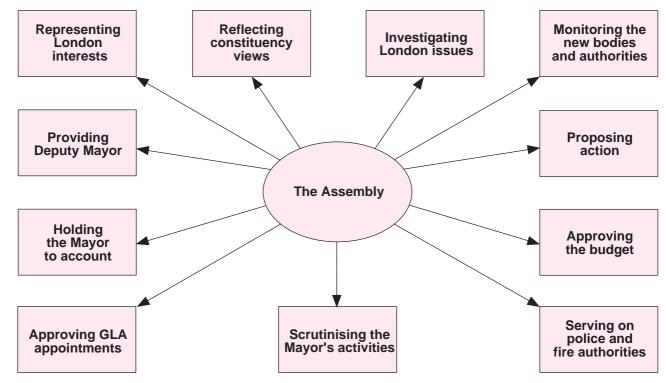
# Role of the Mayor



Source: White Paper, A Mayor and Assembly for London; Government Office for London

## 12.4

### Role of the Assembly



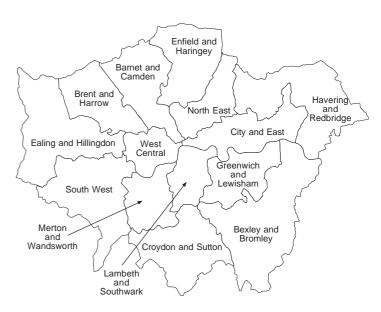
Source: White Paper, A Mayor and Assembly for London; Government Office for London

established with members of the Assembly appointed to the boards by the Mayor. The Mayor will also have powers or duties in planning and the environment, in promoting tourism, culture and sport, and in raising London's profile at home and abroad. The Assembly (Chart 12.4) will have the power of veto over the budget and have the capacity to carry out enquiries into policy issues facing London.

The first elections for the Mayor and Assembly of London have been set for 4 May 2000. The Mayor will be elected using the supplementary vote system, where voters mark both their first and second choices. If one candidate receives more than 50 per cent of first choices, he or she will be elected. If no-one achieves this position, all but the two leading candidates will be eliminated and second votes for these two added in to give an overall winner. The elections for the Assembly will use 14 new constituencies (Map 12.5) drawn up by the Boundary Commission after wide consultation.

**12.5** 

### **Greater London Assembly Constituencies**



Source: London Research Centre

Assembly members will be elected by the additional member system which was also used for the Scottish Parliament and Welsh Assembly. 14 members will each represent a constituency, with a further 11 London-wide members. Voters will have two votes: one for their constituency member and one for a party or independent candidate. Constituency members will be elected on a first-past-the-post basis and the remaining 11 will be allocated to ensure that the overall distribution of seats reflects the proportion of votes cast for each party or independent.

Two innovations are being introduced with these first elections for the GLA and Mayor. Electronic counting will be used to achieve the earliest possible declaration of result following the closure of the polls, and provisions are to be made for early voting on three days during the week before the principal election day on 4 May. One or two locations will be provided in each borough for this process.

The new authority will take up its main responsibilities on 3 July 2000. The gap between the elections and this date is to ensure that the Mayor and Assembly have time to prepare for their new work and to make senior appointments. There will be a pool of permanent staff supporting the work of both the Mayor and Assembly and the Mayor will, in addition, be able to appoint up to ten members of staff and will decide what they do. These latter jobs will lapse when the Mayor leaves office.

The Authority will take over several existing government programmes in London, on police, fire, transport, and economic development and regeneration. It will also absorb a number of

existing London bodies including the London
Planning Advisory Committee, the London
Ecology Unit and the London Research Centre.

#### The London boroughs

Table 12.6 shows the state of the political parties in each London borough at the end of February 2000. As they approached the midpoint between borough general elections, exactly half of the councils had experienced changes in the political balance since May 1998, as reported in Focus on London 99. With three seats vacant across London, the Labour Party was showing a net loss of 11 seats, the Conservative Party a net loss of two seats, and the Liberal Democrat Party no change. A substantial proportion of the losses experienced by the major parties was caused by Councillors being 'denied the whip' by their colleagues or otherwise declaring themselves independent.

All this has resulted in change in administration in three authorities - significant change in two cases. In Islington, the Liberal Democrat's gain of a seat from Labour at a by-election in December 1999 gave them a clear majority in the Council and they replaced the Labour administration which had been operating by use of the mayoral casting vote. Following a Conservative gain from Labour in Redbridge, a minority administration by Labour has been replaced by one operated by the Conservative Party. In Southwark, Labour have lost their overall majority and are now working with the mayoral casting vote. Overall, Labour has control of 19 councils, the Conservatives of seven and the Liberal Democrats of three, two authorities are governed jointly between Labour and the Liberal Democrats, and in one borough, Hackney, no party is in control.

## 12.6

## State of the parties in the London boroughs, February 2000

Numbers of seats

						INUITIE	pers of seats
	Labour	Conservative	Liberal Democrat	Other	Vacant	Administration	Total acets
		Conservative					
Barking and Dagenham	46	0	2	3	0	Labour	51
Barnet	26	28	6	0	0	Labour and LibDem	60
Bexley	24	32	6	0	0	Conservative	62
Brent	43	19	4	0	0	Labour	66
Bromley	7	29	24	0	0	LibDem and Labour	60
Camden	42	11	6	0	0	Labour	59
Croydon	38	31	1	0	0	Labour	70
Ealing	52	16	3	0	0	Labour	71
Enfield	43	23	0	0	0	Labour	66
Greenwich	51	7	2	0	2	Labour	62
Hackney	29	11	17	3	0	No overall control	60
Hammersmith and Fulham	35	14	0	1	0	Labour	50
Haringey	54	2	3	0	0	Labour	59
Harrow	32	20	9	2	0	Labour	63
Havering	31	13	3	16	0	Labour minority	63
Hillingdon	31	33	4	0	1	Conservative minority	69
Hounslow	44	11	4	1	0	Labour	60
Islington	25	0	27	0	0	Liberal Democrat	52
Kensington and Chelsea	15	39	0	0	0	Conservative	54
Kingston upon Thames	10	20	19	1	0	Conservative minority	50
Lambeth	41	5	18	0	0	Labour	64
Lewisham	60	2	4	1	0	Labour	67
Merton	36	12	3	6	0	Labour	57
Newham	59	0	0	1	0	Labour	60
Redbridge	29	24	9	0	0	Conservative minority	62
Richmond upon Thames	4	14	34	0	0	Liberal Democrat	52
Southwark	32	4	27	1	0	Labour - mayoral vote	64
Sutton	5	5	46	0	0	Liberal Democrat	56
Tower Hamlets	41	0	8	1	0	Labour	50
Waltham Forest	30	14	12	1	0	Labour	57
Wandsworth	11	50	0	0	0	Conservative	61
Westminster, City of	13	47	0	0	0	Conservative	60
Total	1,039	536	301	38	3		1,917

Source: London Research Centre

**A2.1** 

## Estimated mid-year resident population<sup>1</sup>, London boroughs, 1998

Thousands

						Ma	les				
	Persons all ages	Under 1	1-4	5-15	16-29	30-44	45-64	65-74	75 and over	18 and over	All ages
Inner London	2,760.6	21.8	82.9	187.5	294.2	396.6	246.5	79.1	52.3	1,038.9	1,361.0
Inner London - West	1,007.6	6.6	24.9	53.0	114.9	148.4	97.0	29.1	20.3	401.0	494.2
Camden	188.6	1.3	4.8	10.8	21.6	25.6	19.0	5.8	4.1	74.3	93.1
City of London	5.2	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.9	0.9	0.3	0.2	2.5	2.9
Hammersmith and Fulham	157.5	1.2	4.1	8.4	16.9	23.1	14.3	4.2	2.8	59.9	74.9
Kensington and Chelsea	169.9	1.0	4.1	9.0	20.0	24.2	17.4	4.7	3.2	68.0	83.5
Wandsworth	265.6	1.9	7.1	14.3	28.7	42.0	23.0	6.9	5.3	103.8	129.3
Westminster, City of	220.8	1.1	4.7	10.4	27.5	32.7	22.3	7.1	4.7	92.4	110.5
Inner London - East	1,753.0	15.3	58.0	134.5	179.3	248.2	149.5	50.1	32.0	637.9	866.9
Hackney	194.7	1.9	6.6	15.2	20.8	26.8	16.3	5.2	3.5	70.0	96.4
Haringey	221.6	1.8	6.9	15.3	22.8	33.8	20.0	6.1	3.6	83.9	110.3
Islington	179.0	1.3	4.9	11.7	18.5	25.7	16.4	5.4	3.5	67.4	87.2
Lambeth	269.5	2.2	8.5	19.4	28.2	40.5	22.0	7.3	4.6	99.8	132.5
Lewisham	243.8	2.0	7.5	17.8	22.9	34.4	21.2	7.1	4.9	87.7	117.8
Newham	231.3	2.3	9.1	21.9	22.3	30.9	19.6	6.2	3.9	79.6	116.2
Southwark	232.0	2.1	7.9	17.4	22.3	33.6	20.0	6.9	4.8	85.0	115.0
Tower Hamlets	181.3	1.8	6.7	15.8	21.5	22.5	13.9	5.9	3.3	64.5	91.4
Outer London	4,426.6	31.4	123.7	315.4	446.4	552.9	470.3	144.4	102.4	1,662.4	2,186.9
Outer London - E & NE	1,535.0	10.9	43.8	115.3	148.7	183.5	162.6	53.1	37.0	565.9	754.8
Barking and Dagenham	155.6	1.3	5.1	13.0	14.8	17.9	14.6	5.8	3.9	54.9	76.2
Bexley	217.8	1.4	5.8	16.2	19.0	25.6	24.9	8.3	5.5	80.7	106.8
Enfield	264.9	1.9	8.0	19.1	25.9	32.6	28.3	8.8	6.2	98.8	130.9
Greenwich	215.1	1.6	6.4	17.2	21.9	25.8	20.7	6.6	4.8	77.1	105.0
Havering	228.3	1.2	5.2	15.9	21.1	25.7	27.3	9.8	6.1	87.1	112.3
Redbridge	231.9	1.6	6.4	17.2	23.1	27.3	25.5	7.6	5.9	86.4	114.5
Waltham Forest	221.4	1.8	7.0	16.7	22.9	28.6	21.3	6.2	4.6	80.9	109.1
Outer London - South	1,144.1	7.8	30.9	78.7	113.7	142.1	124.4	37.9	27.0	431.9	562.4
Bromley	297.1	1.9	7.6	19.4	27.1	33.8	34.6	11.9	8.2	112.3	144.6
Croydon	338.2	2.4	9.4	24.8	33.9	42.8	36.3	10.6	6.8	126.3	167.0
Kingston upon Thames	147.3	0.9	3.9	9.5	17.1	17.4	16.0	4.6	3.6	57.2	73.1
Merton	184.3	1.4	5.2	12.5	18.5	25.9	18.6	5.2	4.1	70.3	91.4
Sutton	177.1	1.2	4.9	12.5	17.0	22.2	18.8	5.7	4.2	65.8	86.4
Outer London - W & NW	1,747.6	12.7	49.1	121.3	184.1	227.2	183.4	53.3	38.5	664.7	869.7
Barnet	331.5	2.2	9.0	22.5	35.2	42.3	33.7	10.0	8.2	125.5	163.2
Brent	253.2	2.0	7.6	18.1	27.6	33.7	25.9	7.9	4.5	96.4	127.5
Ealing	302.1	2.2	8.8	21.2	32.8	41.4	30.9	8.7	5.9	115.9	151.9
Harrow	211.3	1.5	5.7	15.4	20.6	26.1	23.5	6.4	5.2	78.7	104.2
Hillingdon	251.2	1.9	6.9	17.8	26.3	31.6	26.1	8.2	6.1	95.3	124.8
Hounslow	211.6	1.7	6.4	15.2	23.7	27.6	21.8	6.4	4.2	80.8	106.8
Richmond upon Thames	186.7	1.3	4.8	11.2	17.7	24.5	21.6	5.8	4.4	72.2	91.3
London	7,187.3	53.2	206.6	502.9	740.6	949.5	716.8	223.5	154.8	2,701.3	3,547.9
United Kingdom	59,236.5	366.0	1,516.1	4,328.1	5,563.8	6,763.4	6,767.0	2,290.3	1.533.6	22,162.4	29.128.4

<sup>1</sup> See Notes and Definitions for Chapter 2.

## **A2.1**

## Estimated mid-year resident population<sup>1</sup>, London boroughs, 1998

Thousands

						oloo				
					Fem	ales				
	Under 1	1-4	5-15	16-29	30-44	45-64	65-74	75 and over	18 and over	All ages
Inner London	21.1	78.2	180.7	302.4	377.6	257.4	87.3	95.0	1,091.0	1,399.6
Inner London - West	6.4	23.6	51.8	121.9	138.2	100.9	32.5	38.2	423.0	513.5
Camden	1.3	4.6	10.5	21.9	23.7	19.6	6.3	7.7	77.4	95.6
City of London	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.7	0.2	0.3	2.0	2.3
Hammersmith and Fulham	1.1	4.0	8.6	19.8	23.8	15.1	4.7	5.5	67.5	82.6
Kensington and Chelsea	1.0	3.5	8.5	20.6	23.0	18.4	5.2	6.1	71.8	86.4
Wandsworth	1.9	7.0	13.6	31.0	38.9	24.8	8.6	10.5	111.6	136.3
Westminster, City of	1.1	4.4	10.4	28.4	28.2	22.2	7.6	8.1	92.6	110.4
Inner London - East	14.7	54.6	128.9	180.5	239.4	156.5	54.9	56.8	668.0	886.1
Hackney	1.8	6.3	14.4	19.9	26.7	17.6	5.7	5.7	73.4	98.3
Haringey	1.7	6.4	14.5	23.3	30.6	21.4	6.5	6.9	86.3	111.3
Islington	1.3	4.7	12.1	19.5	25.5	16.9	5.8	6.0	71.8	91.7
Lambeth	2.1	7.6	18.4	29.2	40.4	22.8	8.1	8.3	106.0	137.0
Lewisham	1.9	7.2	17.5	24.4	33.9	22.7	8.6	9.8	96.8	126.0
Newham	2.2	8.7	20.6	21.9	28.7	20.0	6.2	6.8	80.4	115.1
Southwark	2.0	7.5	16.4	22.5	32.1	20.7	8.0	7.8	88.7	117.0
Tower Hamlets	1.6	6.1	14.9	19.9	21.5	14.4	5.9	5.6	64.7	89.8
Outer London	29.6	116.6	299.4	423.1	528.2	480.9	169.4	192.5	1,743.8	2,239.7
Outer London - E & NE	10.5	41.6	109.2	140.5	178.0	167.4	62.6	70.5	600.8	780.2
Barking and Dagenham	1.2	4.6	11.7	14.3	17.7	14.8	7.4	7.7	60.0	79.3
Bexley	1.3	5.4	15.3	18.2	25.2	26.1	9.5	9.9	86.4	111.1
Enfield	2.0	7.7	18.3	24.1	30.2	29.1	9.9	12.6	103.1	134.0
Greenwich	1.5	6.0	16.4	21.7	25.8	21.3	8.0	9.3	83.4	110.1
Havering	1.2	5.1	15.1	18.8	24.4	28.7	11.6	11.0	91.9	116.0
Redbridge	1.5	6.1	16.5	21.5	26.5	25.6	9.0	10.6	90.4	117.4
Waltham Forest	1.8	6.5	15.8	21.7	28.0	21.8	7.2	9.4	85.7	112.3
Outer London - South	7.2	28.9	74.8	109.0	135.6	128.4	45.7	52.1	458.3	581.7
Bromley	1.7	7.0	18.2	25.9	32.7	36.7	14.5	15.9	122.5	152.6
Croydon	2.2	8.7	23.8	33.1	41.0	37.4	12.2	12.8	132.4	171.2
Kingston upon Thames	0.9	3.5	9.3	15.6	16.7	16.3	5.3	6.7	59.1	74.3
Merton	1.3	5.0	11.6	18.1	24.1	18.5	6.5	7.9	73.4	93.0
Sutton	1.2	4.8	11.9	16.3	21.1	19.6	7.2	8.7	70.9	90.7
Outer London - W & NW	11.9	46.2	115.4	173.6	214.6	185.1	61.1	69.9	684.7	877.9
Barnet	2.1	8.4	22.0	34.5	39.7	34.6	12.4	14.7	132.0	168.4
Brent	1.9	7.3	17.4	25.2	32.8	25.9	8.2	7.0	96.1	125.7
Ealing	2.2	8.3	19.9	30.7	38.6	30.6	9.6	10.3	116.5	150.2
Harrow	1.3	5.4	14.5	19.7	24.5	24.3	7.6	9.7	83.2	107.1
Hillingdon	1.6	6.4	16.7	25.1	29.4	26.7	9.6	10.8	98.9	126.3
Hounslow	1.6	6.0	13.9	20.8	25.9	21.7	7.0	8.0	80.9	104.8
Richmond upon Thames	1.2	4.3	11.0	17.7	23.7	21.3	6.8	9.5	77.1	95.4
London	50.6	194.8	480.1	725.5	905.8	738.3	256.7	287.4	2,834.7	3,639.3
United Kingdom	348.6	1,439.9	4,111.2	5,286.0	6,583.4	6,871.3	2,674.2	2,793.4	23,491.7	30,108.1

<sup>1</sup> See Notes and Definitions for Chapter 2.

**A2.2** 

## Components of population change<sup>1</sup>, London boroughs, 1996-1998<sup>2</sup>

Thousands

	Resident population 1996	Births	Deaths	Natural change	Migration and other changes <sup>3</sup>	Total change	Resident population 1998
Inner London	2,707.8	88.3	45.2	43.1	9.7	52.8	2,760.6
Inner London - West	980.3	26.9	16.5	10.4	17.0	27.4	1,007.6
Camden	189.1	5.3	3.3	2.0	-2.5	-0.5	188.6
City of London	5.2	0.1	0.1	_	0.0	0.0	5.2
Hammersmith and Fulham	156.7	4.6	2.6	2.0	-1.3	0.8	157.5
Kensington and Chelsea	159.0	4.0	2.4	1.6	9.3	10.9	169.9
Wandsworth	266.2	8.1	4.9	3.2	-3.8	-0.6	265.6
Westminster, City of	204.1	4.8	3.3	1.5	15.3	16.8	220.8
nner London - East	1,727.5	61.5	28.7	32.8	-7.3	25.5	1,753.0
Hackney	193.8	7.7	2.9	4.8	-3.9	0.8	194.7
Haringey	216.1	7.2	3.3	3.9	1.5	5.5	221.6
Islington	176.0	5.1	2.9	2.2	0.8	3.0	179.0
Lambeth	264.7	8.7	4.1	4.6	0.2	4.8	269.5
Lewisham	241.5	7.9	4.7	3.2	-0.9	2.3	243.8
Newham	228.9	9.4	3.7	5.6	-3.2	2.4	231.3
Southwark	229.9	8.4	4.0	4.5	-2.4	2.1	232.0
Tower Hamlets	176.6	7.1	3.0	4.0	0.6	4.6	181.3
Outer London	4,366.4	123.4	81.6	41.8	18.4	60.2	4,426.6
Outer London - E & NE	1,529.4	43.3	30.1	13.1	-7.6	5.6	1,535.0
Barking and Dagenham	153.7	4.9	3.5	1.4	0.5	1.8	155.6
Bexley	219.3	5.5	4.1	1.4	-2.8	-1.5	217.8
Enfield	262.6	7.9	4.9	3.1	-0.8	2.3	264.9
Greenwich	212.1	6.3	4.3	2.0	1.0	3.0	215.1
Havering	230.9	5.0	4.8	0.2	-2.8	-2.6	228.3
Redbridge	230.6	6.4	4.4	1.9	-0.6	1.3	231.9
Waltham Forest	220.2	7.2	4.1	3.1	-2.0	1.1	221.4
Outer London - South	1,129.0	30.6	21.4	9.2	5.8	15.0	1,144.1
Bromley	295.6	7.4	6.0	1.4	0.2	1.5	297.1
Croydon	333.8	9.4	5.7	3.6	0.8	4.4	338.2
Kingston upon Thames	141.8	3.7	2.7	0.9	4.6	5.5	147.3
Merton	182.3	5.5	3.2	2.3	-0.2	2.0	184.3
Sutton	175.5	4.7	3.6	1.1	0.5	1.6	177.1
Outer London - W & NW	1,708.0	49.5	30.1	19.4	20.2	39.6	1,747.6
Barnet	319.4	8.5	6.2	2.3	9.9	12.2	331.5
Brent	247.5	8.0	4.0	4.1	1.6	5.6	253.2
Ealing	297.0	8.9	4.9	3.9	1.2	5.1	302.1
Harrow	210.7	5.6	3.8	1.7	-1.1	0.6	211.3
Hillingdon	247.7	7.1	4.4	2.7	0.8	3.4	251.2
Hounslow	205.8	6.6	3.5	3.1	2.7	5.8	211.6
Richmond upon Thames	179.9	4.9	3.2	1.6	5.2	6.8	186.7
London	7,074.3	211.7	126.8	84.9	28.1	113.0	7,187.3

Figures may not add to totals due to rounding.
 Mid-year to mid-year.
 These include boundary changes, asylum seekers and visitor switchers, armed forces and dependants, boarding school pupils, prisoners, reconciliation adjustments and corrections.

### Vital statistics<sup>1</sup>, 1998

					is outside riage				Standard- ised
	Live births (numbers)		Total Fertility Rate		Jointly registered at same address <sup>2</sup>	Live births under 2,500 grams <sup>3</sup>	Deaths <sup>4</sup> (numbers)	) population)	mortality ratio <sup>5</sup> (United Kingdom = 100)
Inner London	43,695	15.8	1.75		46.1	8.4	21,781	7.9	97
Inner London - West	13,297	13.2	1.36		51.7	7.2	7,950		90
Camden	2,655	14.1	1.71	31.5	52.8	7.2	1,638	8.7	93
City of London	41	7.9	2.21	34.1	64.3	9.8	55		87
Hammersmith and Fulham	2,347	14.9	1.39		49.3	6.9	1,274	8.1	100
Kensington and Chelsea	2,001	11.8	1.23	23.9	50.4	7.1	1,126	6.6	80
Wandsworth	3,956	14.9	1.46	31.3	54.2	6.9	2,305	8.7	98
Westminster, City of	2,297	10.4	1.09	26.6	48.5	7.8	1,552	7.0	80
Inner London - East	30,398	17.3	2.02		44.3	9.0	13,831	7.9	101
Hackney	3,905	20.1	2.38		42.1	9.7	1,427	7.3	97
Haringey	3,599	16.2	1.84	39.7	46.8	8.4	1,523	6.9	92
Islington	2,564	14.3	1.55	46.6	52.0	7.2	1,438	8.0	99
Lambeth	4,249	15.8	1.66	49.2	40.3	8.5	1,969	7.3	99
Lewisham	3,883	15.9	1.83	48.4	46.0	9.5	2,322	9.5	107
Newham	4,662	20.2	2.69	32.8	40.7	10.0	1,827	7.9	111
Southwark	4,118	17.8	2.10	49.5	44.2	8.4	1,938	8.4	102
Tower Hamlets	3,418	18.9	2.30	22.6	46.8	9.5	1,387	7.7	101
Outer London	61,609	13.9	1.78		58.4	7.6	40,349		93
Outer London - E & NE	21,766	14.2	1.93	37.0	57.9	7.6	14,919	9.7	96
Barking and Dagenham	2,417	15.5	2.15	49.0	60.8	6.6	1,700	10.9	105
Bexley	2,770	12.7	1.81	36.4	67.8	6.8	2,178	10.0	96
Enfield	3,982	15.0	2.05	32.0	54.6	8.1	2,461	9.3	88
Greenwich	3,255	15.1	1.96	46.8	51.4	8.3	2,045	9.5	103
Havering	2,583	11.3	1.70	35.1	63.9	7.1	2,357	10.3	96
Redbridge	3,156	13.6	1.85	26.0	59.7	7.7	2,196	9.5	92
Waltham Forest	3,603	16.3	2.01	36.8	53.2	7.7	1,982	9.0	96
Outer London - South	15,165	13.3	1.68	34.4	61.0	7.1	10,714	9.4	92
Bromley	3,644	12.3	1.71	34.3	62.8	6.3	3,025	10.2	88
Croydon	4,651	13.8	1.74	40.2	54.1	8.7	2,820	8.3	93
Kingston upon Thames	1,914	13.0	1.67	25.8	71.8	5.6	1,415	9.6	97
Merton	2,689	14.6	1.67	30.9	60.0	7.6	1,594	8.6	89
Sutton	2,267	12.8	1.62		69.2	6.0	1,860	10.5	98
Outer London - W & NW	24,678	14.1	1.73	27.4	57.0	7.9	14,716	8.4	91
Barnet	4,227		1.54		58.5	7.2	3,008		90
Brent	3,877		1.84		45.8	8.8	1,944		101
Ealing	4,507		1.76		52.4	8.3	2,499		99
Harrow	2,749		1.72		60.1	7.9	1,809		82
Hillingdon	3,534		1.76		60.3	8.2	2,172		89
Hounslow	3,281	15.5	1.97		58.4	9.1	1,722		91
Richmond upon Thames	2,503		1.58		76.5	5.2	1,562		79
London	105,304	14.7	1.77	34.7	52.8	7.9	62,130	8.6	94

<sup>1</sup> Details of the terms used in this table can be found in the Notes and Definitions for Chapter 2.

<sup>2</sup> Number of births outside marriage which were registered by both parents who gave the same address of usual residence as a percentage of all births outside marriage.

3 Number of live births under 2,500 grams as a percentage of all live births for which the birth weights were known.

<sup>4</sup> Based on deaths occurring in 1998.

<sup>5</sup> Based on deaths registered in 1998.

**A2.4** 

### Migration to and from the UK regions<sup>1,2,3</sup>

Thousands Area June 1993 June 1994 June 1995 June 1996 June 1997 June 1998 To London from: North Fast 4.3 4.3 5 1 5 1 4.9 5.0 North West 12.1 12.6 13.7 13.9 13.7 13.9 Yorkshire and the Humber 8.8 9.1 10.1 10.6 10.5 10.7 East Midlands 9.7 8.7 8.9 10.3 10.1 10.3 West Midlands 10.3 10.4 11.5 11.9 11.6 11.6 28.0 28.3 29.9 30.3 30.5 30.2 Fastern South East 49.8 51.3 56.0 55.5 55.5 56.2 South West 14.5 14.5 16.2 16.5 16.6 16.7 Wales 5.3 5.1 5.6 5.8 5.7 5.8 Scotland 6.7 6.7 7.3 7.4 7.7 7.9 Northern Ireland<sup>1</sup> 1.6 1.5 1.7 1.6 1.8 1.5 Total 149.9 152.7 166.6 168.8 168.5 169.5 Outside the United Kingdom<sup>3</sup> 52.6 73.8 70.5 82.3 84.8 113.1 From London to: North East 4.3 3.9 3.6 3.8 3.5 3.8 North West 10.8 10.8 11.6 10.9 11.1 10.7 Yorkshire and the Humber 9.2 8.3 8.5 8.2 8.1 8.1 East Midlands 10.2 10.1 10.0 10.0 10.1 10.5 West Midlands 9.8 9.1 9.1 9.7 9.5 9.8 45.5 47.8 50.3 51.0 54.6 56.3 Eastern South East 74.9 79.1 80.5 80.4 85.7 86.3 South West 19.2 19.6 20.4 20.5 21.5 21.6 Wales 5.5 5.2 5.3 5.4 5.3 5.4 Scotland 7.5 7.5 6.7 6.3 6.5 7.0 Northern Ireland<sup>1</sup> 2.7 2.1 2.2 2.7 1.9 1.8 200.3 203.5 207.6 209.2 221.3 Total 217.4 Outside the United Kingdom<sup>3</sup> 55.4 57.1 60.8 52.6 52.7 72.7 Net gain to London: North East 0.5 1.3 0.1 1.4 1.4 1.2 North West 0.5 1.8 2.8 2.8 2.9 3.2 Yorkshire and the Humber -0.4 8.0 1.6 2.4 2.4 2.6 East Midlands -1.5 -1.2 -0.3 0.3 0.0 -0.2 West Midlands 0.4 1.3 2.4 2.1 2.2 1.8 Eastern -17.4 -19.5 -20.5 -20.7 -24.1 -26.2 South Fast -25.2 -27.8 -30.2-30.1 -24.5-24.9South West -4.7 -5.1 -4.2 -4.0 -5.0 -4.9 Wales -0.2 -0.1 0.3 0.4 0.4 0.4 Scotland -0.9 -0.8 0.5 1.1 1.3 0.9 Northern Ireland<sup>1</sup> -0.6 -1.1 -0.6-1.1 -0.1 -0.2Total -50.4-50.8-41.0 -40.3-48.9-51.8 Outside the United Kingdom<sup>3</sup> -2.8 16.7 29.7 32.1 40.3 9.6

<sup>1</sup> Incorporating agreed cross-border flows. These figures taken from the National Health Service Central Register provide a continuous monitoring of people who re-register with a doctor in a different health administration area. See Notes and Definitions for Chapter 2.

<sup>2</sup> Government Office Regions - see page 13.

<sup>3</sup> These figures are taken from the International Passenger Survey (IPS) and exclude Asylum seekers, visitor switchers and movements to and from the Irish Republic.

Source: Office for National Statistics

## **A2.5**

## Households<sup>1</sup>, 1998

		Household type	e (percentages)	A.II.
	Average household size	Lone- parent households <sup>2</sup>	One-person households	All households (=100%) (thousands)
Inner London	2.18	10	39	1,239
Inner London - West	2.04	7	43	478
Camden	2.09	8	44	86
City of London	1.75	4	53	3
Hammersmith and Fulham	2.03	9	41	76
Kensington and Chelsea	1.94	7	49	85
Wandsworth	2.15	8	36	121
Westminster, City of	1.96	6	48	107
Inner London - East	2.28	12	36	761
Hackney	2.28	13	37	84
Haringey	2.24	11	36	98
Islington	2.15	12	39	81
Lambeth	2.13	14	37	125
Lewisham	2.25	11	33	107
Newham	2.63	11	30	87
Southwark	2.21	12	38	104
Tower Hamlets	2.41	12	37	74
Outer London	2.40	6	30	1,822
Outer London - E & NE	2.43	6	30	627
Barking and Dagenham	2.49	7	31	62
Bexley	2.42	5	27	90
Enfield	2.44	6	29	108
Greenwich	2.38	10	32	89
Havering	2.43	5	26	93
Redbridge	2.50	4	29	92
Waltham Forest	2.35	8	33	94
Outer London - South	2.35	6	30	481
Bromley	2.32	5	31	126
Croydon	2.39	7	30	140
Kingston upon Thames	2.37	4	32	61
Merton	2.35	6	30	78
Sutton	2.33	5	31	75
Outer London - W & NW	2.42	6	31	714
Barnet	2.45	6	31	133
Brent	2.43	10	31	103
Ealing	2.40	7	32	124
Harrow	2.52	, 5	27	83
Hillingdon	2.43	<i>5</i>	29	102
Hounslow	2.44	6	30	86
Richmond upon Thames	2.23	4	37	83
London	2.32	8	34	3,061

<sup>1</sup> See Notes and Definitions for Chapter 2. 2 Lone parents with dependent children.

**A3.1** 

## Commercial and industrial buildings and floorspace, 1994

Numbers and thousand sq m

		Estimated number of hereditaments and stock of floorspace (thousand sq m)										
		Factories and mills		nercial ces	Shop restau		Shops			nouses rkshops	All buildir	ng types
	No.	Area	No.	Area	No.	Area	No.	Area	No.	Area	No.	Area
Inner London												
Inner London - West												
Camden	50	24	5,720	1,750	4,280	572	250	24	2,210	539	12,510	2,908
City of London	0	0	7,340	4,002	1,370	388	10	9	1,610	121	10,330	4,520
Hammersmith and Fulham	40	80	1,580	530	2,490	279	350	30	1,110	327	5,570	1,246
Kensington and Chelsea	10	8	2,150	430	2,980	404	250	24	730	125	6,120	991
Wandsworth	100	102	2,270	331	3,070	478	700	53	1,740	499	7,880	1,464
Westminster, City of	10	8	14,060	4,241	8,660	1,940	230	32	1,730	230	24,690	6,452
Inner London - East												
Hackney	420	275	1,800	390	2,450	283	570	46	2,970	794	8,210	1,788
Haringey	200	201	840	135	2,620	368	530	40	1,690	614	5,880	1,358
Islington	160	109	3,200	1,053	2,950	338	510	38	2,370	724	9,190	2,262
Lambeth	110	90	1,120	576	2,840	322	650	48	1,440	423	6,160	1,459
Lewisham	80	65	530	106	2,510	379	690	52	1,510	475	5,320	1,078
Newham	250	314	670	203	2,370	363	800	58	1,280	761	5,370	1,699
Southwark	230	214	1,950	853	2,620	321	610	39	2,500	939	7,910	2,365
Tower Hamlets	410	310	2,490	1,158	2,800	376	240	22	3,240	1,035	9,180	2,900
Outer London												
Outer London - E & NE												
Barking and Dagenham	110	428	340	71	1,280	204	320	23	880	661	2,930	1,386
Bexley	160	400	510	106	1,750	290	420	32	900	551	3,740	1,379
Enfield	220	396	930	172	2,330	421	450	32	1,260	778	5,190	1,798
Greenwich	100	167	510	103	1,630	313	440	32	1,100	473	3,780	1,088
Havering	170	261	590	120	2,010	401	310	23	1,100	547	4,180	1,352
Redbridge	120	143	800	155	2,170	314	490	39	640	190	4,220	840
Waltham Forest	220	358	670	79	2,480	275	830	52	1,490	394	5,690	1,158
Outer London - South												
Bromley	100	230	1,200	291	2,870	472	470	36	870	302	5,510	1,330
Croydon	130	207	1,750	623	3,340	620	740	52	1,550	584	7,510	2,086
Kingston upon Thames	80	83	1,050	264	1,590	377	330	29	590	309	3,640	1,062
Merton	170	276	1,010	283	1,410	270	450	26	890	433	3,930	1,288
Sutton	70	151	780	233	1,680	241	350	27	630	338	3,510	990
Outer London - W & NW												
Barnet	 80	138	1,480	335	3,420	 512	340	26	740	312	6,060	1,322
Brent	200	433	1,140	279	2,820	380	350	46	1,850	938	6,360	2,077
Ealing	290	435	1,140	315	2,820	441	590	42	2,050	1,330	6,890	2,563
Harrow	40	151	1,060	265	1,950	288	160	11	490	1,330	3,700	2,303 874
Hillingdon	160	311	1,580	681	1,980	293	310	23	1,500	1,015	5,530	2,323
Hounslow	170		990		1,980		490					
Richmond upon Thames	40	275 42	1,150	568 277	1,880	318 236	530	38 39	1,290 690	1,007 220	4,610 4,290	2,207 814
London	4,670	6,685	64,420	20,975	85,080	13,475	14,720	1,143	46,630	18,148	215,520	60,426

## A3.2

## Historic buildings<sup>1</sup>, 1999

Numbers and percentages

				Total		
	Grade I	Grade II*	Grade II	number		
	list	list	list	of list	Percentage of	Ancient
	entries <sup>2</sup>	entries <sup>2</sup>	entries <sup>2</sup>	entries <sup>2</sup>	London total	Monuments
Inner London	450	972	12,622	14,044	73.4	78
Inner London - West	397	786	8,208	9,391	49.1	58
Camden	95	228	2,997	3,320	17.4	1
City of London	83	71	446	600	3.1	50
Hammersmith and Fulham	1	16	212	229	1.2	1
Kensington and Chelsea	15	104	1,017	1,136	5.9	2
Wandsworth	4	28	248	280	1.5	1
Westminster, City of	199	339	3,288	3,826	20.0	3
Inner London - East	53	186	4,414	4,653	24.3	20
Hackney	4	25	477	506	2.6	0
Haringey	6	15	226	247	1.3	0
Islington	11	18	912	941	4.9	4
Lambeth	6	53	834	893	4.7	0
Lewisham	1	11	273	285	1.5	0
Newham	4	5	89	98	0.5	2
Southwark	4	26	818	848	4.4	7
Tower Hamlets	17	33	785	835	4.4	7
Outer London	155	333	4,597	5,085	26.6	74
Outer London - E & NE	46	100	1,129	1,275	6.7	19
Barking and Dagenham	3	3	24	30	0.2	1
Bexley	6	8	95	109	0.6	3
Enfield	3	13	250	266	1.4	5
Greenwich	27	39	445	511	2.7	7
Havering	6	15	123	144	0.8	3
Redbridge	1	11	103	115	0.6	0
Waltham Forest	0	11	89	100	0.5	0
Outer London - South	20	47	936	1,003	5.2	26
Bromley	7	12	319	338	1.8	7
Croydon	6	8	127	141	0.7	5
Kingston upon Thames	3	10	126	139	0.7	6
Merton	3	9	214	226	1.2	3
Sutton	1	8	150	159	0.8	5
Outer London - W & NW	89	186	2,532	2,807	14.7	29
Barnet	2	33	561	596	3.1	2
Brent	1	5	72	78	0.4	0
Ealing	6	16	259	281	1.5	6
Harrow	4	19	246	269	1.4	6
Hillingdon	6	23	360	389	2.0	5
Hounslow	32	21	388	441	2.3	6
Richmond upon Thames	38	69	646	753	3.9	4

<sup>1</sup> Definitions can be found in the Notes and Definitions for Chapter 3.

Source: Department for Culture, Media and Sport

<sup>2</sup> A list entry can cover more than one building. These figures are not comparable with those shown in Table A3.2 in Focus on London 1997.

**A3.3** 

## Management of Municipal Solid Waste in London,1998-99

	Recycling	Composting	Incineration	Landfill	Total
Inner London	76,114	11,064	273,889	699,988	1,061,055
Inner London - West	41,207	6,851	50,606	270,691	369,355
Camden	10,278	578	7,330	66,010	84,196
City of London	8	0	0	2,609	2,617
Hammersmith and Fulham	5,504	173	0	54,379	60,056
Kensington and Chelsea	7,900	3,500	0	45,680	57,080
Wandsworth	8,509	2,600	0	97,205	108,314
Westminster, City of	9,008	0	43,276	4,808	57,092
Inner London - East	34,907	4,213	223,283	429,297	691,700
Hackney	2,200	120	60,023	24,783	87,126
Haringey	3,951	0	61,529	16,356	81,836
Islington	4,440	80	10,567	52,333	67,420
Lambeth	7,207	0	0	77,593	84,800
Lewisham	9,907	1,008	89,337	2,820	103,072
Newham	2,038	905	88	120,000	123,031
Southwark	3,366	2,100	1,725	80,280	87,471
Tower Hamlets	1,798	0	14	55,132	56,944
Outer London	194,001	65,969	247,091	1,439,382	1,946,443
Outer London - E & NE	62,544	8,532	244,268	365,270	680,614
Barking and Dagenham	1,820	729	0	87,910	90,459
Bexley	20,099	3,576	48,097	25,963	97,735
Enfield	10,464	705	72,932	43,266	127,367
Greenwich	10,494	1,105	57,286	10,877	79,762
Havering	7,500	200	0	99,300	107,000
Redbridge	6,220	1,069	27,000	59,000	93,289
Waltham Forest	5,947	1,148	38,953	38,954	85,002
Outer London - South	64,371	39,461	2,823	398,980	505,635
Bromley	16,104	16,000	386	119,022	151,512
Croydon	13,093	10,502	2,437	89,357	115,389
Kingston upon Thames	9,810	4,800	0	54,769	69,379
Merton	13,072	90	0	73,988	87,150
Sutton	12,292	8,069	0	61,844	82,205
Outer London - W & NW	67,086	17,976	0	675,132	760,194
Barnet	10,277	1,271	0	118,444	129,992
Brent	4,357	825	0	91,816	96,998
Ealing	11,377	3,275	0	114,758	129,410
Harrow	7,294	2,624	0	84,003	93,921
Hillingdon	9,697	2,022	0	119,666	131,385
Hounslow	11,960	1,600	0	83,279	96,839
Richmond upon Thames	12,124	6,359	0	63,166	81,649
London	270,115	77,033	520,980	2,139,370	3,007,498

Source: Capital Challenge, London Waste Action

### London air quality monitoring stations, January 2000

Location	Pollutants monitored	Site description
City of London		
City of London 1	$SO_2$ , $NO_2$ , $O_3$	Urban background
City of London 3	$SO_2^{2'}$ , $NO_2^{2'}$ , $O_3^3$	Urban background
City of London 4	SO <sub>2</sub> , NO <sub>2</sub> , CO	Roadside
City of London 5	NO <sub>2</sub> , CO	Roadside
City of London 6	PM <sub>10</sub>	Roadside
City of London 7	PM <sub>10</sub>	Urban background
Barking and Dagenham	10	ordan badiigi dana
Barking and Dagenham 1	$SO_2$ , $NO_X$	Suburban *
Barking and Dagenham 2	PM <sub>10</sub>	Suburban *
Barnet	10	
Barnet	NO <sub>x</sub> , PM <sub>10</sub>	Kerbside *
Bexley	χ, <sub>10</sub>	
London Bexley	$SO_2$ , $NO_X$ , $CO$ , $O_3$ , $PM_{10}$ , $PM_{2.5}$	Suburban ‡
Bexley 2	NO <sub>X</sub> , PM <sub>10</sub> , PM <sub>2.5</sub>	Suburban *
Bexley 3	PM <sub>10</sub> , PM <sub>2.5</sub>	Suburban *
Bexley 4	PM <sub>10</sub> , 1 W <sub>2.5</sub>	Roadside *
Bexley 5	SO <sub>2</sub> , NO <sub>x</sub> , CO	Suburban *
Brent	$\mathcal{O}_{2}$ , $\mathcal{O}_{\chi}$ , $\mathcal{O}_{\chi}$	Cabalball
Brent	SO <sub>2</sub> , NO <sub>x</sub> , CO, O <sub>3</sub> , PM <sub>10</sub>	Urban background *
London Brent	SO <sub>2</sub> , NO <sub>x</sub> , CO, O <sub>3</sub> , PM <sub>10</sub>	Urban background †
Bromley	$\mathcal{O}_2$ , $\mathcal{O}_X$ , $\mathcal{O}_3$ , $\mathcal{O}_{10}$	Orban baokground
London Bromley	NO <sub>2</sub> , CO, PM <sub>10</sub> , PM <sub>25</sub>	Roadside ‡ *
Bromley 5		Suburban *
Bromley 8	${\sf O_3} \atop {\sf NO_x}$	Urban background
Camden	$\mathcal{N}_{\chi}$	Orban background
Camden Kerbside	NO <sub>2</sub> , PM <sub>10</sub>	Kerbside ‡ *
London Bloomsbury	$SO_2$ , $NO_X$ , $CO$ , $O_3$ , $PM_{10}$	Urban centre †
London UCL	VOC	Roadside †
Croydon	VOC	Noauside
Croydon 2	NO	Roadside *
Croydon 3	NO <sub>x</sub>	Suburban *
Croydon 4	$O_3$ , $PM_{10}$ $SO_2$ , $NO_X$ , $PM_{10}$	Roadside *
Croydon Crystal Palace	$SO_2$ , $NO_X$ , $TM_{10}$ $SO_2$ , $NO_X$ , $CO$ , $PM_{10}$	Roadside *
Ealing	$SO_2$ , $NO_X$ , $CO$ , $FNI_{10}$	Noauside
Ealing 1	SO NO O	Urban background *
•	SO <sub>2</sub> , NO <sub>X</sub> , O <sub>3</sub>	Roadside *
Ealing 2	CO, NO <sub>x</sub> , PM <sub>10</sub> , PM <sub>2.5</sub>	
Ealing 5	SO <sub>2</sub> , NO <sub>x</sub> , PM <sub>10</sub>	Roadside *
Enfield 1	NO	Cuburban
Enfield 1	NO <sub>x</sub>	Suburban
Enfield 2	CO, NO <sub>x</sub> , PM <sub>10</sub>	Roadside *
Enfield 3	$SO_2$ , $NO_X$ , $CO$ , $O_3$ , $PM_{10}$	Urban background *
Greenwich 5	NO DM	Decade de *
Greenwich 5	NO <sub>x</sub> , PM <sub>10</sub>	Roadside *
London Greenwich (Eltham)	$SO_2$ , $NO_2$ , $O_3$ , $PM_{10}$ , $VOC$	Urban background ‡ *
Hackney	NO 00 0 BM	
London Hackney	$NO_2$ , $CO$ , $O_3$ , $PM_{2.5}$	Urban background ‡
Hammersmith and Fulham		
Hammersmith & Fulham	NO <sub>x</sub> , PM <sub>10</sub>	Roadside *
Haringey		
Haringey 3	NO <sub>x</sub> , SO <sub>2</sub> , PM <sub>10</sub>	Roadside *
Haringey Roadside	$NO_2$ , $SO_2$ , $PM_{10}$	Roadside ‡ *
London Haringey	$NO_{x}$ , $PM_{10}$ , $O_{3}$	Urban background ‡ *
Harrow		
Harrow	$NO_x$ , $PM_{10}$	Urban background *

Automatic Urban Network site

O₃ NOC PAH Volatile organic compounds Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions; South East Institute for Public Health

Local authority site managed by SEIPH

Nitrogen dioxide co Carbon monoxide

Particulate matter less than 2.5  $\mu m$  aerodynamic diameter

PM<sub>2.5</sub> PM<sub>10</sub> BS Particulate matter less than 10 µm aerodynamic diameter Black smoke

Local authority site affiliated to the Automatic Urban Network

SO<sub>2</sub> Sulphur dioxide Oxides of nitrogen Ozone

## **A3.4**

### London air quality monitoring stations, January 2000

Location	Pollutants monitored	Site description
Havering		
Havering 1	$NO_x$	Roadside *
Havering 2	$PM_{10}^{X}$	Suburban *
Havering 3	NO <sub>x</sub> , SO <sub>2</sub> , PM <sub>10</sub>	Roadside *
Hillingdon	$M_{\chi}, M_{2}, M_{10}$	rtoddoldo
Hillingdon 1	$NO_x$ , $PM_{10}$	Roadside *
London Hillingdon	$SO_2$ , $NO_X$ , $CO$ , $O_3$ , $PM_{10}$	Suburban †
Hounslow	$OO_2$ , $NO_X$ , $OO$ , $O_3$ , $NN_{10}$	Suburban
London Hounslow	NO CO O	Roadside ‡ *
	$NO_2$ , $CO$ , $O_3$	Suburban *
Hounslow 2 Hounslow 3	NO <sub>x</sub> , SO <sub>2</sub> , PM <sub>10</sub>	
	PM <sub>10</sub>	Roadside *
Hounslow 4	$NO_{x}$ , $SO_{2}$ , $PM_{10}$	Roadside *
Islington	NO DM	Habitan In a discourse of *
Islington	$NO_{x}$ , $PM_{10}$	Urban background *
Kensington and Chelsea		
Kensington & Chelsea 2	PM <sub>10</sub>	Roadside *
London Cromwell Road	SO <sub>2</sub> , NO <sub>x</sub> , CO, O <sub>3</sub>	Roadside †
London North Kensington	$SO_2$ , $NO_2$ , $CO$ , $O_3$ , $PM_{10}$	Urban background ‡ *
West London	NO <sub>x</sub> , CO	Urban background †
Kingston upon Thames		
Kingston 1	$O_{_3}$	Suburban *
Kingston 2	$NO_{x}$ , $PM_{10}$	Roadside *
London A3 Roadside	NO <sub>x</sub> , CO, PM <sub>10</sub>	Roadside †
Lewisham	X 10	
London Lewisham	$SO_2$ , $NO_2$ , $O_3$	Urban background ‡
Redbridge	2. 2. 3	· ·
Redbridge 1	$NO_x$ , $O_3$ , $PM_{10}$	Urban background *
Redbridge 2	NO <sub>x</sub> , CO	Roadside *
Redbridge 3	NO <sub>x</sub> , PM <sub>10</sub>	Roadside *
Redbridge 4	SO <sub>2</sub> , NO <sub>x</sub> , CO, PM <sub>10</sub>	Roadside *
Richmond upon Thames	20 <sub>2</sub> , x, <sub>10</sub>	
London Teddington	$SO_2$ , $NO_X$ , $O_3$	Urban background †
Southwark	$\mathcal{O}_{2}^{2}$ , $\mathcal{O}_{\chi}^{2}$ , $\mathcal{O}_{3}^{3}$	Orbair baokgroana
London Southwark	SO <sub>2</sub> , NO <sub>2</sub> , CO, O <sub>3</sub>	Urban background ‡
Southwark Roadside	SO <sub>2</sub> , NO <sub>2</sub> , CO	Roadside ‡
Sutton	30 <sub>2</sub> , 110 <sub>2</sub> , CO	Noausiue +
London Sutton	NO O	Suburban ‡ *
Sutton 2	$NO_2$ , $O_3$	Urban background *
	NO <sub>x</sub>	Roadside ‡ *
Sutton Roadside	SO <sub>2</sub> , NO <sub>2</sub> , CO, PM <sub>10</sub>	Roadside ‡
Tower Hamlets	CO NO O DM	Lirban background *
Tower Hamlets 1	$SO_2$ , $NO_X$ , $O_3$ , $PM_{10}$	Urban background *
Tower Hamlets Roadside	NO <sub>2</sub> , CO	Roadside ‡ *
Tower Hamlets 3	$SO_2$ , $NO_X$ , $PM_{10}$	Urban background *
Waltham Forest	00 110 514	
Waltham Forest	$SO_2$ , $NO_X$ , $PM_{10}$	Urban background *
Wandsworth		
London Wandsworth	SO <sub>2</sub> , NO <sub>2</sub> , CO, O <sub>3</sub>	Urban background ‡ *
Wandsworth 3	SO <sub>2</sub>	Suburban *
Wandsworth 4	$NO_{X}^{2}$ , CO, $PM_{10}$	Roadside *
Westminster		
Westminster 1	SO <sub>2</sub> , NO <sub>2</sub> , O <sub>3</sub> , benzene, toluene	Urban background
Westminster 2	CO, PM <sub>10</sub>	Roadside
London Bridge Place	$SO_2$ , $NO_X$ , $CO$ , $O_3$	Urban background †
London Marylebone Road	SO <sub>2</sub> , NO <sub>x</sub> , CO, O <sub>3</sub> , PM <sub>10</sub> , PM <sub>2,5</sub> , VOC, PAH, BS	Roadside ‡ *

Automatic Urban Network site

Local authority site managed by SEIPH Nitrogen dioxide Carbon monoxide

NO,

CO PM<sub>2.5</sub> Particulate matter less than 2.5 μm aerodynamic diameter

Particulate matter less than 10 µm aerodynamic diameter

<sup>‡</sup> SO<sub>2</sub> NO<sub>X</sub> Local authority site affiliated to the Automatic Urban Network

Sulphur dioxide Oxides of nitrogen

Ozone

Volatile organic compounds

Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons

Source: Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions; South East Institute for Public Health

## Housing stock: by tenure, 1998<sup>1</sup>

Thousands

						Inousands
		Public se	ector			Total
	Local authority <sup>2</sup>	Registered social landlord	Other	Total	Private sector	dwelling stock
Inner London <sup>3</sup>	364.4	131.1	7.5	503.0	742.6	1,245.5
Inner London - West	87.1	50.6	3.0	140.6	340.8	481.4
Camden	28.2	7.8	0.8	36.8	55.5	92.3
City of London	0.5	0.3	0.3	1.1	3.2	4.3
Hammersmith and Fulham	16.0	10.0	0.9	26.8	49.1	76.0
Kensington and Chelsea	7.5	11.7	0.1	19.3	59.6	78.9
Wandsworth	20.0	9.1	0.3	29.4	90.5	119.8
Westminster, City of	14.8	11.8	0.6	27.3	82.9	110.2
Inner London - East	277.3	80.6	4.5	362.4	401.8	764.1
Hackney	36.0	13.4	0.2	49.7	35.2	84.9
Haringey	19.7	8.6	0.1	28.3	65.1	93.5
Islington	36.1	8.9	0.5	45.5	34.2	79.7
Lambeth	41.9	12.2	0.4	54.5	62.1	116.5
Lewisham <sup>3</sup>	33.5	7.5	0.4	41.4	70.0	111.4
Newham	24.0	10.2	0.3	34.4	56.2	90.6
Southwark	51.5	11.6	1.0	64.1	47.3	111.5
Tower Hamlets	34.6	8.1	1.7	44.4	31.6	76.1
Outer London <sup>3</sup>	224.8	106.5	15.1	346.4	1,462.6	1,809.0
Outer London - E & NE	104.9	32.2	4.7	141.8	505.6	647.4
Barking and Dagenham	25.5	1.3	0.2	27.0	39.2	66.2
Bexley	0.0	11.1	0.0	11.1	80.1	91.2
Enfield	14.5	3.4	0.5	18.5	95.9	114.4
Greenwich	30.8	6.0	1.4	38.3	52.8	91.1
Havering	12.8	1.4	0.2	14.5	79.4	93.9
Redbridge	6.4	2.9	0.7	10.0	83.1	93.0
Waltham Forest	14.9	6.1	1.5	22.5	75.1	97.6
Outer London - South	38.5	34.7	1.0	74.2	400.3	474.5
Bromley <sup>3</sup>	0.0	18.0	0.3	18.3	109.7	128.1
Croydon	15.8	7.6	0.1	23.5	112.2	135.7
Kingston upon Thames	5.3	1.7	0.4	7.4	52.8	60.1
Merton	7.7	4.0	0.1	11.9	64.0	75.9
Sutton	9.6	3.4	0.0	13.0	61.7	74.7
Outer London - W & NW	81.4	39.6	9.4	130.4	556.7	687.1
Barnet	12.7	5.3	2.4	20.5	102.3	122.8
Brent	12.1	12.6	2.4	27.0	78.2	105.2
Ealing	15.4	7.2	0.4	23.0	95.2	118.2
Harrow	6.2	1.9	0.3	8.4	72.3	80.8
Hillingdon	12.3	4.2	2.9	19.4	79.1	98.4
Hounslow	15.7	5.1	0.7	21.6	64.0	85.6
Richmond upon Thames	6.8	3.3	0.3	10.4	65.7	76.1
London <sup>3</sup>	589.1	237.6	22.6	849.4	2,205.2	3,054.5

Source: London Research Centre

<sup>2</sup> Stock owned within borough boundaries.
3 The 'Other public sector' figures for Bromley and Lewisham were taken from the previous year. The totals therefore include these estimates.

Dwellings: by type, 1991

Numbers and percentages

	5 .	P / 1	,		Perc	entage of un	shared dwe	llings	
		lings (numb Shared	Unshared	Detached houses	Semi- detached	Terraced houses	Purpose built flats	Converted flats	Other
Inner London	1,176,749	11,095	1,165,654	1.0	3.5	24.3	48.6	22.3	0.3
Inner London - West	455,543	4,761	450.782	1.0	2.5	17.6	47.8	30.8	0.3
			, -						
Camden	85,351	1,080	84,271	1.4	2.4	9.7	51.8	34.3	0.3
City of London	2,905	2	2,903	0.1	_	0.9	98.4	0.5	0.0
Hammersmith and Fulham	73,568	892	72,676	0.4	2.2	24.4	40.6	31.9	0.5
Kensington and Chelsea	78,603	826	77,777	0.6	1.6	13.6	39.9	44.0	0.4
Wandsworth	114,256	1,209	113,047	1.6	4.7	30.1	43.3	20.0	0.3
Westminster, City of	100,860	752	100,108	0.7	0.9	8.7	59.5	29.9	0.3
Inner London - East	721,206	6,334	714,872	1.0	4.2	28.6	49.0	17.0	0.2
Hackney	80,223	810	79,413	0.4	1.9	20.3	60.4	16.5	0.4
Haringey	88,431	1,370	87,061	1.3	5.2	41.0	28.8	23.4	0.2
Islington	77,090	927	76,163	0.3	1.1	16.0	53.7	28.4	0.5
Lambeth	113,853	1,222	112,631	1.3	6.2	22.1	48.5	21.6	0.2
Lewisham	103,243	765	102,478	1.9	8.8	37.0	33.3	18.8	0.3
Newham	85,144	604	84,540	0.8	2.8	57.0	30.9	8.3	0.2
Southwark	103,672	534	103,138	1.3	3.8	19.0	63.1	12.6	0.2
Tower Hamlets	69,550	102	69,448	0.3	0.8	13.8	81.6	3.4	0.1
Outer London	1,735,102	8,160	1,726,942	7.9	25.7	33.7	25.4	7.1	0.1
Outer London - E & NE	616,815	2,178	614,637	4.6	23.7	42.2	24.6	4.8	0.1
Barking and Dagenham	60,120	59	60,061	0.7	9.0	64.2	23.9	2.2	
Bexley	88,254	92	88,162	6.5	44.0	27.9	20.4	1.1	_
Enfield	105,633	487	105,146	6.5 4.7	20.4	43.1	25.9	5.8	0.1
	·								
Greenwich	88,750	329	88,421	2.7	15.5	39.2	35.6	6.9	0.1
Havering	91,712	125	91,587	10.5	39.6	32.1	16.9	0.9	_
Redbridge	91,707	517	91,190	4.2	22.0	47.8	19.5	6.5	0.1
Waltham Forest	90,639	569	90,070	1.6	10.8	48.2	29.9	9.2	0.2
Outer London - South	456,587	1,891	454,696	12.5	24.8	31.4	24.1	7.1	0.1
Bromley	124,131	308	123,823	18.4	29.2	24.5	21.7	6.1	0.1
Croydon	130,543	659	129,884	12.1	23.0	34.0	21.5	9.3	0.1
Kingston upon Thames	57,183	325	56,858	13.1	32.0	21.3	26.6	6.9	0.1
Merton	73,143	367	72,776	4.4	12.8	48.5	25.3	8.8	0.1
Sutton	71,587	232	71,355	10.6	27.1	29.3	29.4	3.4	0.1
Outer London - W & NW	661,700	4,091	657,609	7.9	28.2	27.4	27.1	9.3	0.2
Barnet	121,272	684	120,588	11.0	30.8	20.4	29.2	8.5	0.1
Brent	98,924	1,232	97,692	4.5	23.8	23.7	29.1	18.6	0.3
Ealing	112,635	914	111,721	3.3	18.9	35.5	29.4	12.7	0.2
Harrow	78,866	231	78,635	10.9	38.8	23.4	21.0	5.7	0.1
Hillingdon	94,361	149	94,212	13.7	34.9	27.6	22.2	1.4	-
Hounslow	82,722	487	82,235	3.4	29.4	31.4	29.6	6.0	0.1
Richmond upon Thames	72,920	394	72,526	8.4	29.4 22.7	31.2	27.3	10.3	0.1
London	2,911,851	19,255	2,892,596	5.1	16.8	30.0	34.7	13.2	0.2

Source: 1991 Census, Office for National Statistics

### Vacant housing stock<sup>1</sup>, 1999

Numbers and percentages

	Local	authority <sup>2</sup>		istered landlord	Drives	te sector		LA owned
	Local	authority <sup>2</sup>	Socia	andiord	Privat	e sector	Total	dwellings
	Vacant dwellings	Percentage of stock	Vacant dwellings	Percentage of stock	Vacant dwellings	Percentage of stock	vacant dwellings <sup>3</sup>	outside own borough
Inner London	9,946	2.8				••		45
Inner London - West	1,447	1.7						20
Camden	470	1.7	190	2.4	5,535	9.8	6,241	3
City of London	0	0.0	1	0.4				17
Hammersmith and Fulham	269	1.8	205	2.0	3,159	6.3	3,633	0
Kensington and Chelsea	73	1.0			1,300	2.2		0
Wandsworth	351	1.8	329	3.5	1,820	2.0	2,544	0
Westminster, City of	284	1.9	442	3.7	2,505	3.0	3,371	0
Inner London - East	8,499	3.2	3,321	3.6	25,701	6.3	37,924	25
Hackney	1,886	5.9	801	4.8	511	1.4	3,202	1
Haringey	518	2.7	185	2.1	4,911	7.5	5,616	12
Islington	1,253	3.5	240	2.6	1,463	3.9	2,958	0
Lambeth	1,270	3.1	234	1.8	2,856	4.4	4,392	0
Lewisham	691	2.1	300	4.1	2,300	3.3	3,291	0
Newham	444	1.9	650	5.8	5,037	9.0	6,131	12
Southwark	1,390	2.7	546	4.6	4,940	10.0	6,885	0
Tower Hamlets	1,047	3.4	365	2.6	3,683	11.7	5,449	0
Outer London	4,682	2.1			49,130	3.3		30
Outer London - E & NE	2,557	2.6			17,353	3.4		12
Barking and Dagenham	612	2.5	20	1.3	1,293	3.3	1,933	0
Bexley	0	0.0	171	1.6	2,040	2.5	2,211	0
Enfield	252	1.9	13	0.3	2,954	3.1	_,	6
Greenwich	622	2.2	227	3.0	3,537	6.6	4,449	0
Havering	228	1.8			2,926	3.7	.,	0
Redbridge	328	5.3			2,923	3.5		0
Waltham Forest	515	3.6	118	 1.7	1,680	2.3	2,588	6
Outer London - South	469	1.2	765	2.1	12,256	3.1		1
Bromley	0	0.0	502	2.8	3,216	2.9	3,718	0
Croydon	160	1.0	168	2.1	4,226	3.8	4,555	0
Kingston upon Thames	80	1.5	6	0.4	1,060	2.0	.,000	0
Merton	77	1.0	74	1.7	1,621	2.5	1,775	1
Sutton	152	1.6	15	0.4	2,133	3.4	2,300	0
Outer London - W & NW	1,656	2.1	850	2.1	19,521	3.5	22,683	17
Barnet	125	1.0	131	2.3	4,326	4.0	4,702	0
Brent	741	6.4	274	2.5	3,896	5.0	5,107	0
Ealing	247	1.6	185	2.5	4,986	5.2	5,434	0
Harrow	96	1.6	8	0.4	1,175	1.6	1,290	0
Hillingdon	89	0.7	127	2.8	2,053	2.5	2,535	0
Hounslow	197	1.3	52	1.0	1,712	2.6	2,002	0
Richmond upon Thames	161	2.4	73	1.9	1,373	2.1	1,613	17
London <sup>4</sup>	14,628	2.6	7,182	2.8	89,310	4.0	112,902	75

<sup>1</sup> Dwellings known to be vacant on 1 April.
2 Excludes dwellings which authorities own outside their own area.
3 Includes dwellings owned by government departments and other public sector bodies (including other local authorities) which are not shown separately in the table.
4 These totals include estimates for missing data.

### Allocation of local authority dwellings, 1998-99

Numbers

	New secure tenancies								
	Waiting O	Other new		Of which homeless buseholds in priority need	Transfers	Mutual exchanges	Mobility schemes	New non- secure tenancies	Total allocations
Inner London	9,870	400	10,270	4,627	6,843		565	7,527	
Inner London - West	1,926	305	2,231	996	1,709	445	118	2,120	6,623
Camden	1,077	1	1,078	714	577	202	46	62	1,965
City of London	129	2	131	12	62	2	6	12	213
Hammersmith and Fulham	604	114	718	270	382	98	16	269	1,483
Kensington and Chelsea	116	184	300	0	122	32	2	0	456
Wandsworth	0	1	1	0	303	95	46	1,187	1,632
Westminster, City of	0	3	3	0	263	16	2	590	874
Inner London - East	7,944	95	8,039	3,631	5,134		447	5,407	
Hackney	457	58	515	19	327		10	829	
Haringey	800	0	800	381	340	94	9	603	1,846
Islington	1,345	13	1,358	812	543	183	43	163	2,290
Lambeth	161	3	164	46	1,053	134	94	2,044	3,489
Lewisham	1,440	0	1,440	672	766	288	95	103	2,692
Newham	416	0	416	413	455	171	34	981	2,057
Southwark	2,068	19	2,087	692	1,055	112	125	132	3,511
Tower Hamlets	1,257	2	1,259	596	595	202	37	552	2,645
Outer London	8,363	1,552	9,915	5,154	4,439	1,898	408	4,536	21,196
Outer London - E & NE	4,607	224	4,831	1,978	2,383	680	229	1,955	10,078
Barking and Dagenham	1,132	4	1,136	275	617	65	53	344	2,215
Bexley	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Enfield	526	94	620	352	214	135	19	0	988
Greenwich	1,859	69	1,928	940	806	291	65	488	3,578
Havering	558	33	591	0	389	64	82	624	1,750
Redbridge	0	0	0	0	94	22	7	259	382
Waltham Forest	532	24	556	411	263	103	3	240	1,165
Outer London - South	861	49	910	541	528	429	61	2,139	4,067
Bromley	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	. 0	. 0
Croydon	522	3	525	391	172	213	16	1,244	2,170
Kingston upon Thames	5	3	8	0	104	40	16	287	455
Merton	0	12	12	0	144	57	8	447	668
Sutton	334	31	365	150	108	119	21	161	774
Outer London - W & NW	2,895	1,279	4,174	2,635	1,528	789	118	442	7,051
Barnet	733	1	734	462	217	128	17	22	1,118
Brent	457	120	577	386	165	19	16	46	823
Ealing	711	68	779	450	288	115	31	108	1,321
Harrow	273	38	311	200	92	60	5	7	475
Hillingdon	178	396	574	386	305	202	19	233	1,333
Hounslow Richmond upon Thames	206 337	644 12	850 349	540 211	356 105	218 47	20 10	16 10	1,460 521
London <sup>2</sup>	18,233	1,952	20,185	9,781	11,282		973	12,063	48,214

<sup>1</sup> Includes tenants who were displaced through slum clearance or redevelopment and homeless household referrals.

<sup>2</sup> These totals include estimates for missing data.

### Households temporarily accommodated by local authorities<sup>1</sup>, March 1999

Numbers

						Numbers
	Bed and breakfast hotels	Hostels/ women's refuges	Private sector leasing <sup>2</sup>	Other forms of temporary accommodation <sup>3</sup>	Homeless at home <sup>1</sup>	Total
Inner London						
Inner London - West						
Camden						
City of London	33	1	0	22	0	56
Hammersmith and Fulham	263	91	375	122	22	873
Kensington and Chelsea	466	82	155	12	0	715
Wandsworth						
Westminster, City of	1,058	0	816	159	401	2,434
Inner London - East						
Hackney						
Haringey	151	309	1,703	428	935	3,526
Islington	67	257	112	567	0	1,003
Lambeth	14	281	158	760	151	1,364
Lewisham						•••
Newham						
Southwark	42	278	0	116	524	960
Tower Hamlets						
Outer London						
Outer London - E & NE						
Barking and Dagenham	0	8	0	212	0	220
Bexley	19	3	29	71	0	122
Enfield	206	136	887	514	0	1,743
Greenwich	0	67	0	181	453	701
Havering	0	67	0	0	0	67
Redbridge						
Waltham Forest						
Outer London - South						
Bromley						
Croydon	157	0	174	1,530	0	1,861
Kingston upon Thames				, 		·
Merton	10	53	0	1	2	66
Sutton	64	17	0	186	0	267
Outer London - W & NW						
Barnet	116	26	462	368	362	1,334
Brent						·
Ealing						
Harrow	183	43	813	54	166	1,259
Hillingdon	295	113	832	203	252	1,695
Hounslow						
Richmond upon Thames	203	80	183	15	201	682
London <sup>4</sup>	4,792	3,521	11,880	9,287	5,680	35,160

<sup>1</sup> Households temporarily accommodated by local authorities pending enquiries, while awaiting rehousing under the 1985 Act or after being accepted as homeless under the 1996 Act, as at end March. Includes households which, after acceptance, remain in their existing accommodation while having the same right to accommodation as those placed in temporary accommodation ("homeless at home").

<sup>2</sup> Private sector properties leased by local authorities (LAs) or by Registered Social Landlords (RSLs)

<sup>3</sup> Includes lettings within LAs own stock, by RSLs on assured shorthold tenancies, and directly by a private sector landlord.

<sup>4</sup> Figures include estimates for missing data.

### Comparative housing costs of a two bedroom dwelling: by tenure, 1998-1999

				£
	Average		Average weekly	
	purchase price <sup>1</sup> (Jan-Mar 1999)	Private rent new lettings² (Jan-Mar 1999)	Local authority rent <sup>s</sup> (April 1998)	Registered social landlord rent <sup>3</sup> (March 1998)
Inner London				
Inner London - West			••	
Camden	198,800	316	60	62
City of London		307	61	54
Hammersmith and Fulham	170,200	291	56	55
Kensington and Chelsea	248,700	427	74	53
Wandsworth	140,900	250	59	61
Westminster, City of	210,400	416	73	60
Inner London - East				
Hackney	124,200	194	56	55
Haringey	110,800	211	56	58
Islington	160,900	295		56
Lambeth	117,200	207	55	52
Lewisham	72,200	166	50	52
Newham	66,300	157	43	61
Southwark	118,200	260	51	54
Tower Hamlets	134,900	262	50	56
Outer London				
Outer London - E & NE				
Barking and Dagenham	59,100	129	44	67
Bexley	74,400	117		57
Enfield	86,100	171	55	61
Greenwich	100,900	150	49	59
Havering	74,500	126	46	57
Redbridge	78,800	155	68	63
Waltham Forest	73,400	145	52	60
Outer London - South				
Bromley	91,000	142		60
Croydon	75,200	141	61	65
Kingston upon Thames	112,300	182	61	63
Merton	117,500	240	52	62
Sutton	81,900	159	54	61
Outer London - W & NW				
Barnet	103,500	203	55	65
Brent	98,600	198	65	57
Ealing	125,600	227	60	60
Harrow	95,700	188	64	62
Hillingdon	91,400	220	65	64
Hounslow	102,800	268	52	62
Richmond upon Thames	158,600	269	57	66
London <sup>4</sup>	114,100	278	54	58

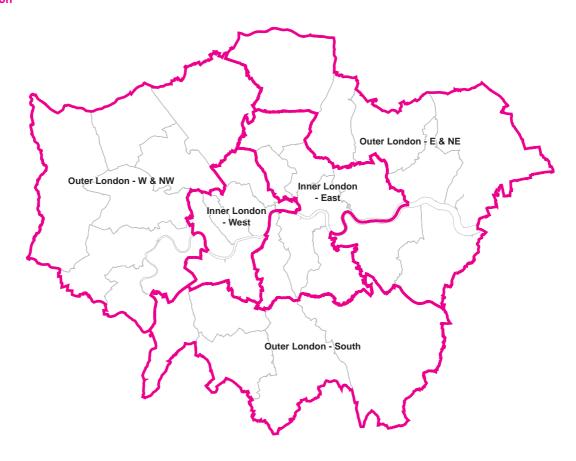
<sup>1</sup> The purchase price excludes 'Right-to-Buy' and others below market value. 2 Private rents are of advertised lettings, not achieved rents.

Source: Halifax Bank; Nationwide Building Society; Chartered Institute of Public Finance and Accountancy; Housing Corporation; London Research Centre

<sup>3</sup> The local authority rent and registered social landlord rent are the weekly net unrebated rent exclusive of ancillary charges.
4 The City of London is excluded from 'Average purchase price' for London.

## **A5.1**

### **NUTS 3 Areas in London**



Source: Office for National Statistics

**A5.2** 

## **Gross domestic product and factor incomes**

#### London

		Gross dom	estic product		Incomo componer	nts as a percentage of to	tal CDD
	Total (£ million)	percentage of UK total <sup>1</sup>	£ per head	Total as a £ per head, UK = 1001	Compensation of employees	Operating surplus/ mixed income	Rent
1989	69,148	15.7	10,171	132.7	62.9	37.1	12.0
1990	74,670	15.6	10,897	131.4	64.3	35.7	11.8
1991	77,880	15.6	11,303	131.1	64.8	35.2	13.3
1992	80,907	15.5	11,718	130.6	64.5	35.5	14.3
1993	85,627	15.6	12,351	131.3	62.8	37.2	14.2
1994	90,346	15.6	12,967	130.9	61.6	38.4	13.8
1995	93,849	15.5	13,393	129.3	61.7	38.3	14.1
1996	98,292	15.3	13,894	127.4	62.8	37.2	12.2
1997	102,638	15.1	14,411	125.4	64.8	35.2	

<sup>1</sup> Excluding Extra-Regio and the statistical discrepancy of the income-based measure.

## **A5.3**

## Gross domestic product: by industry group<sup>1,2</sup>

London								£ million
	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	56	48	48	52	59	66	93	93
Mining and quarrying	353	508	653	499	416	418	392	436
Manufacturing	9,824	9,648	9,660	10,216	10,864	10,799	11,219	11,053
Electricity, gas and water	1,278	1,259	1,546	1,543	1,579	1,379	1,384	1,363
Construction	3,984	4,378	3,895	3,440	3,178	3,428	3,738	3,969
Distribution, hotels and catering	10,211	11,002	11,085	11,728	12,381	13,148	14,035	15,098
Transport and communication	8,191	8,896	9,187	9,496	9,704	10,604	10,567	10,924
Financial and business services <sup>3</sup>	26,586	28,964	29,294	32,089	34,173	38,488	38,734	41,134
Public administration and defence4	3,858	4,364	4,695	5,005	5,403	5,217	5,255	5,082
Education, social work and health	7,373	7,584	8,130	8,445	8,887	8,780	9,842	10,406
Other services	3,261	3,974	4,466	4,679	4,896	5,906	6,333	6,906
Financial services adjustment	-5,827	-5,953	-4,779	-6,285	-5,914	-7,888	-7,744	-8,172
Total Gross domestic product	69,148	74,670	77,880	80,907	85,627	90,346	93,849	98,292

<sup>1</sup> Industry breakdown based on SIC 1992.

Source: Office for National Statistics

## **A5.4**

### Household income and household disposable income<sup>1,2</sup>

#### London

		Household income					Household disposable income			
	Total (£ million)	Total as a percentage of UK total	£ per head	£ per head, UK = 100	Total (£ million)	Total as a percentage of UK total	£ per head	£ per head, UK = 100	income as a percentage of total household income	
1989	70,129	14.8	10,315	124.8	47,060	14.7	6,922	124.7	67.1	
1990	79,742	15.1	11,637	126.9	53,285	14.9	7,776	125.7	66.8	
1991	84,976	14.8	12,367	124.5	56,718	14.5	8,254	122.1	66.7	
1992	89,199	14.5	12,933	122.2	60,231	14.2	8,733	119.4	67.5	
1993	93,046	14.5	13,448	122.3	64,379	14.2	9,305	119.8	69.2	
1994	96,991	14.5	13,955	122.1	67,185	14.4	9,667	120.5	69.3	
1995	102,631	14.5	14,688	121.9	70,901	14.3	10,147	120.2	69.1	
1996	111,071	14.8	15,776	123.7	75,872	14.6	10,776	121.5	68.3	
1997³	115,210	14.6	16,231	121.3	78,676	14.2	11,084	117.9	68.3	

<sup>1</sup> Household income covers both the income received by households and non-profit institutions serving households.

<sup>2</sup> Gross domestic product at factor cost.
3 Financial intermediation, real estate, renting, business activities.
4 Public administration, national defence and compulsory social security.

<sup>2</sup> See notes and definitions for Chapter 5 for details of ESA 95 changes.

<sup>3</sup> Provisional.

## **A5.5**

### Individual consumption expenditure<sup>1</sup>

#### London

	Total (£ million)	Total as a percentage of UK total	£ per head	£ per head, UK = 100
1990	50,670	14.6	7,394	122.6
1991	52,921	14.4	7,702	120.7
1992	55,244	14.3	8,010	119.8
1993	59,254	14.4	8,564	120.7
1994	61,112	14.1	8,793	118.2
1995	62,988	13.9	9,015	116.1
1996	66,431	13.7	9,435	114.1
1997 <sup>2</sup>	70,661	13.7	9,955	113.5

<sup>1</sup> Expenditure by households UK consumers, including private non-profit institutions serving households and UK households abroad but excluding expenditure in the UK by foreign residents.

Source: Office for National Statistics

**A5.6** 

## Individual consumption expenditure<sup>1</sup>: by function<sup>2,3</sup>

London				£ million
	Food, drink and tobacco	Housing and fuel	Other	Total
1994	10,758	11,617	38,737	61,112
1995	10,946	12,452	39,590	62,988
1996	11,438	12,678	42,315	66,431
1997	11,907	12,544	46,210	70,661

<sup>1</sup> Expenditure by UK households and foreign residents in the United Kingdom. See Notes and Definitions for Chapter 5.

<sup>2</sup> Provisiona

<sup>2</sup> Includes expenditure by non-profit institutions serving households

<sup>3</sup> Estimates not yet available prior to 1994

## **A6.1**

### Labour market statistics<sup>1</sup>

Thousands and percentages

			" 0		Claimant count,	quarter ending (	October 1999
	Economic activity rate <sup>2,3</sup> (percentages) Mar 1998 - Feb 1999	Employment rate <sup>4,3</sup> (percentages) Mar 1998 - Feb 1999	ILO unemployment rate <sup>5,3</sup> (percentages) Mar 1998 - Feb 1999	Total (thousands)	Of which were females (percentages)	Of which were long-term unemployed <sup>6</sup> (percentages)	Rate <sup>7</sup> (percentages)
Inner London	71.9	64.5	10.2	110.2	26.6	31.4	4.7
Inner London - West	73.6	68.0	7.5	28.6	28.5	31.6	2.0
Camden	72.9	67.5	7.9	7.5	28.4	33.5	3.0
City of London				-			-
Hammersmith and Fulham	74.1	70.9		5.3	27.2		5.2
Kensington and Chelsea	72.0	64.3		3.7	32.9	33.0	2.7
Wandsworth	77.4	73.4		6.1	27.5		5.2
Westminster, City of	70.4	62.7		5.8	27.9		1.0
Inner London - East	71.0	62.4	11.9	81.5	26.0	31.4	8.9
Hackney	66.1	56.2	14.8	10.4	26.0	31.1	10.1
Haringey	69.1	60.7	12.2	10.9	25.1	35.7	13.0
Islington	72.1	63.2	12.0	8.7	29.9	35.7	5.5
Lambeth	76.7	70.8	7.6	12.4	27.7	30.1	9.8
Lewisham	79.2	72.5	8.3	9.6	26.4	33.2	12.1
Newham	67.1	55.8	16.7	9.8	23.2		12.6
Southwark	72.4	62.7		10.7	27.5		6.8
Tower Hamlets	59.7	51.3	13.8	9.0	21.5		6.9
Outer London	79.4	74.2	6.5	86.1	27.1	26.3	4.5
Outer London - E & NE	77.9	71.7	7.9	35.7	26.8	27.8	6.5
Barking and Dagenham	74.0	66.3	10.2	3.3	27.6	25.7	5.6
Bexley	79.4	73.8	7.0	3.3	28.8	23.5	4.4
Enfield	79.3	73.4	7.2	6.8	26.2	31.7	6.2
Greenwich	76.8	68.6	10.6	7.4	26.7	30.8	9.3
Havering	85.1	81.5		3.1	28.2	27.0	3.7
Redbridge	76.8	70.0		4.9	27.6	24.0	5.8
Waltham Forest	71.7	65.0	9.3	7.0	25.2	26.9	10.9
Outer London - South	82.5	77.7	5.7	17.9	27.4	25.6	3.6
Bromley	81.0	76.4	5.5	4.0	26.2	25.9	3.4
Croydon	81.3	76.4	5.8	7.4	26.3	28.6	5.0
Kingston upon Thames	79.9	75.7		1.5	30.3	21.4	1.8
Merton	85.1	78.9	7.1	3.0	28.8		3.9
Sutton	86.7	82.6		2.0	29.0		2.8
Outer London - W & NW	78.8	74.0	5.9	32.4	27.3	25.1	3.8
Barnet	80.4	76.0	5.4	5.5	28.2		3.9
Brent	77.3	68.4		8.8	25.5		7.1
Ealing	74.4	69.7		6.8	26.9		5.0
Harrow	81.4	76.8	5.3	3.2	29.1	25.3	4.0
Hillingdon	81.7	78.8		3.0	27.3	19.0	1.9
Hounslow	78.8	75.4		3.2	29.1	16.3	2.5
Richmond upon Thames	77.8	74.3		2.0	28.3		2.5
London	76.5	70.4	7.9	196.3	26.8	29.2	4.6

<sup>1</sup> A Glossary can be found in Chapter 6.

<sup>2</sup> Percentage of the household population of working age (males aged 16-64 and females aged 16-59) who are in the labour force.

3 Data are from the Labour Force Survey Annual Local Area Database and are not seasonally adjusted. For some boroughs, sample sizes are too small to provide a reliable estimate.

<sup>4</sup> Percentage of the household population of working age (males aged 16-64 and females aged 16-59) who are in employment.

<sup>5</sup> Percentage of the labour force (all aged 16 and over) who are unemployed according to the ILO definition (see Glossary, Chapter 6).

<sup>6</sup> Persons who have been unemployed for 12 months or more (computerised claims only) as a percentage of all claimants.

<sup>7</sup> Percentage of claimants plus the workforce who are claiming unemployment-related benefits.

**A6.2** 

## Highest grants from the European Social Fund to projects in London¹: by priority measure and organisation, 1998-99

£

Priority measure <sup>2</sup>	Project title	Organisation	ESF Funding
2	Youth2Work	Lambeth College	2,457,501
2	Voluntary Sector Option	Pecan Ltd	1,386,135
2	SkillZone	North London TEC	1,000,125
3	Construction Training for Women	Women's Education in Building	630,947
2	A New Deal for the Millenium	Woolwich College	627,119
1	VT2CT	Lambeth College	576,810
1	First Step Programme -LMAA	College of North West London	570,074
1	VT2E	Lambeth College	500,000
2	Skills for Employment (16-24s)	Woolwich College	454,095
1	Skills for Employment (25+)	Woolwich College	454,095
1	EESS-Disability Training In Ealing	London Borough of Ealing	395,293
2	Young People into Work	CSV	376,793
2	Level 2&3 Youth Beauty Therapy	London College Beauty Therapy	376,200
2	New Deal - Key Growth Sectors	Newham College of FE	348,000
1	Combatting Exclusion (25+)	Woolwich College	339,554
1	Off the Streets - Over 25s	FOCUS Central London	330,159
2	ICT for the Millenium(16-24S)	Woolwich College	323,865
1	ICT for the Millenium (25+)	Woolwich College	323,865
2	Business Applications of New ICT	Newham College of FE	310,405
1	Refugee Training Partnership	Brtitish Refugee Council	310,200
2	Skills for the Bus & Fin Serv	Newham College of FE	308,432
2	Voc Training in Computing & IT	Newham College of FE	307,369
1	Step up to employment	Action for Blind People	302,250
1	North London Euro Deal	North London TEC	300,768
2	New Deal - Training in IT and MT	Newham College of FE	296,545

Source: European Unit, Government Office for London

<sup>1</sup> Figures relate to Ojective 3 projects only. Amounts of funding approved at the application stage rather than actual spend.
2 Priority measures group projects under the following headings: Pathways to equal opportunities between men and women (3) and Enhancing capacity for community development(4). No Priority 4 projects fell within the 25 highest grants awarded.

**A7.1** 

### Key statistical indicators for maintained schools

		acher ratio, (numbers)	Percentage of pupils with special	Expenditure by LEAs, 19		as a pe	aces, 1998/99 rcentage of I places <sup>3</sup>
	Primary schools	Secondary schools	educational needs <sup>1</sup> 1998/99	Pre-primary/ primary education	Secondary education	Primary schools	Secondary schools
Inner London	21	16	3.5	2,360	3,092	8.2	11.4
Inner London - West							
Camden	21	15	3.7	2,381	3,154	5.2	6.3
City of London	14	0	1.4	3,946	0	4.8	0.0
Hammersmith and Fulham	21	18	4.2	2,535	3,464	10.4	12.6
Kensington and Chelsea	19	14	2.5	2,649	3,458	16.0	18.0
Wandsworth	21	16	4.3	2,210	2,680	8.9	7.1
Westminster, City of	19	15	3.0	2,553	3,121	5.4	10.1
Inner London - East							
Hackney	20	16	3.6	2,384	3,050	9.8	12.4
Haringey	22	15	2.7	2,314	3,154	3.3	9.0
Islington	22	16	3.9	2,332	3,147	12.0	15.0
Lambeth	21	16	4.3	2,832	3,363	12.0	18.8
Lewisham	21	16	3.5	2,335	3,043	4.7	17.3
Newham	25	16	2.8	1,854	2,804	3.0	8.0
Southwark	22	16	3.5	2,313	3,022	9.0	12.0
Tower Hamlets	21	16	4.0	2,513	3,206	12.2	9.3
Outer London	23	16	2.9	1,917	2,635	6.0	7.2
Outer London - E & NE					,		
Barking and Dagenham	23	16	2.8	1,974	2,621	6.8	7.4
Bexley	25	17	2.6	1,595	2,366	4.0	8.2
Enfield	23	16	2.4	1,894	2,607	3.9	7.5
Greenwich	22	16	4.2	2,150	2,642	9.9	11.6
Havering	24	17	2.8	1,741	2,737	5.8	12.6
Redbridge	23	17	1.9	1,812	2,737	<i>4.7</i>	2.8
Waltham Forest	23	16	3.7	2,117	2,599	7.2	2.6 9.1
Outer London - South							
Bromley	24	17	3.6	1,741	2,539	2.0	2.8
Croydon	24	16	2.2	1,905	2,682	4.6	11.7
Kingston upon Thames	24	17	2.7	1,820	2,468	0.7	7.4
Merton	23	18	3.2	2,054	2,474	6.3	13.7
Sutton	24	17	2.9	1,872	2,578	2.3	3.4
Outer London - W & NW							
Barnet	22	 15	2.4	1,846	2,631	5.6	5.2
Brent	22	15	3.3	2,018	3,799	8.7	9.9
Ealing	23	17	2.5	2,010	2,723	10.6	2.0
Harrow	22	16	3.0	2,158	2,858	6.9	10.6
Hillingdon	23	16	3.1	1,735	2,738	6.1	5.8
Hounslow	22	17	2.9	2,062	2,630	10.5	4.2
Richmond upon Thames	22	16	3.0	1,932	2,542	2.5	6.8
London	22	16	3.1	2,079	2,810	6.8	8.6
England	24	17	3.1	1,739	2,359	9.3	9.5

<sup>1</sup> According to the LEA area in which they go to school. Excludes pupils registered in both Special Schools and Pupil Referral Units.

Source: Department for Education and Employment

<sup>2</sup> Based on number of full-time equivalent pupils.

<sup>3</sup> Surplus places data are taken after summer entry to primary schools. Data for secondary schools are as at January.

<sup>4</sup> Figures for pupil/teacher ratios and the percentage of pupils with special needs relate to the standard definition of Inner and Outer London used elsewhere in the publication, not to the former ILEA area.

## **A8.1**

### **Measures of deprivation**

	Income Support beneficiaries¹ August 1999 (percentages)	Ranking from Index of local Deprivation <sup>2</sup> 1998
Inner London		
Inner London - West		
Camden	15	17
City of London	-	183
Hammersmith and Fulham	12	18
Kensington and Chelsea	9	63
Wandsworth	10	30
Westminster, City of	9	57
Inner London - East		
Hackney	22	4
Haringey	17	13
Islington	17	10
Lambeth	15	12
Lewisham	13	14
Newham	22	2
Southwark	16	8
Tower Hamlets	21	6
Outer London		
Outer London - E & NE		
Barking and Dagenham	16	15
Bexley	7	148
Enfield	12	70
Greenwich	14	11
Havering	7	143
Redbridge	10	90
Waltham Forest	13	22
Outer London - South		
Bromley	6	179
Croydon	9	88
Kingston upon Thames	6	220
Merton	7	122
Sutton	6	284
Outer London - W & NW		
Barnet	8	130
Brent	14	20
Ealing	12	36
Harrow	9	145
Hillingdon	8	120
Hounslow	11	59
Richmond upon Thames	5	156
London		

<sup>1</sup> Claimants and their partners aged 16 or over at May 1998 as a percentage of the population aged 16 or over. Data are from the Income Support Quarterly Statistical Inquiry and are based on a 5 per cent sample and are therefore subject to sampling error.

Source: Department of Social Security; Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions; Office for National Statistics

error.
2 See text accompanying Map 8.8 and Table 8.9.

**A8.2** 

### Notifiable offences<sup>1</sup> known to the police: by offence group and borough, 1998-99

Numbers

	Violence against the person	Sexual offences	Robbery	Burglary <sup>2</sup>	Theft and handling stolen goods	Fraud and forgery	Criminal damage	Drug offences <sup>3</sup>	Other notifiable <sup>2</sup>	Total
Inner London	65,910	4,313	16,893	59,122	211,935	42,198	58,877	19,833	5,566	484,647
Inner London - West	24,547	1,624	5,958	21,645	107,289	20,367	20,045	8,948	2,533	212,956
Camden	5,066	317	1,288	4,805	19,043	3,875	4,569	2,378	413	41,754
City of London	510	31	29	521	4,273	866	297	509	131	7,167
Hammersmith and Fulham	3,860	224	794	3,179	11,068	1,647	3,356	923	290	25,341
Kensington and Chelsea	2,788	146	736	3,144	14,007	2,671	2,381	885	272	27,030
Wandsworth	4,539	260	795	4,088	14,512	3,158	4,371	636	277	32,636
Westminster, City of	7,784	646	2,316	5,908	44,386	8,150	5,071	3,617	1,150	79,028
Inner London - East	41,363	2,689	10,935	37,477	104,646	21,831	38,832	10,885	3,033	271,691
Hackney	5,689	405	1,580	4,710	13,414	2,285	5,038	1,241	426	34,788
Haringey	4,496	348	1,518	4,265	11,444	3,036	4,610	799	346	30,862
Islington	4,484	326	1,098	4,241	13,459	2,584	4,482	1,194	383	32,251
Lambeth	6,758	438	2,597	6,221	16,389	3,471	5,917	1,679	428	43,898
Lewisham	4,321	274	831	4,120	10,486	2,305	4,502	938	311	28,088
Newham	5,427	283	1,187	3,832	12,393	2,416	5,115	906	340	31,899
Southwark	5,726	360	1,319	6,099	15,136	3,348	5,050	2,621	457	40,116
Tower Hamlets	4,462	255	805	3,989	11,925	2,386	4,118	1,507	342	29,789
Outer London	61,698	3,582	9,234	60,248	159,562	36,203	71,334	11,922	4,600	418,383
Outer London - E & NE	22,687	1,338	3,011	21,969	58,372	13,082	24,704	4,576	1,631	151,370
Barking and Dagenham	2,694	191	308	2,451	6,364	1,521	3,197	566	178	17,470
Bexley	2,315	151	166	2,803	6,400	846	3,503	415	189	16,788
Enfield	3,386	208	590	3,739	9,285	2,278	3,471	1,011	265	24,233
Greenwich	5,146	288	476	4,095	10,482	1,658	4,886	1,016	357	28,404
Havering	2,264	124	153	2,260	7,748	1,257	2,682	471	203	17,162
Redbridge	2,999	177	599	3,214	9,164	2,903	3,259	513	207	23,035
Waltham Forest	3,883	199	719	3,407	8,929	2,619	3,706	584	232	24,278
Outer London - South	14,242	814	1,577	14,297	39,504	8,228	18,125	2,698	1,082	100,567
Bromley	2,794	173	345	3,852	9,878	1,905	4,365	618	242	24,172
Croydon	4,948	308	736	4,848	12,758	3,421	5,670	872	327	33,888
Kingston upon Thames	2,044	119	160	1,368	5,173	1,095	2,449	584	176	13,168
Merton	2,487	97	204	2,562	6,508	1,155	3,019	348	207	16,587
Sutton	1,969	117	132	1,667	5,187	652	2,622	276	130	12,752
Outer London - W & NW	24,769	1,430	4,646	23,982	61,686	14,893	28,505	4,648	1,887	166,446
Barnet	3,665	201	552	3,845	9,304	3,452	4,295	573	266	26,153
Brent	4,735	266	1,708	4,009	9,256	3,089	4,006	1,043	367	28,479
Ealing	5,755	345	1,191	4,539	12,629	2,633	5,823	1,053	418	34,386
Harrow	2,141	118	374	2,500	5,399	1,413	2,431	434	174	14,984
Hillingdon <sup>4</sup>	3,048	211	267	3,813	9,377	1,356	4,561	516	278	23,427
Hounslow <sup>4</sup>	3,908	210	406	3,025	9,801	2,274	4,604	789	273	25,290
Richmond upon Thames	1,517	79	148	2,251	5,920	676	2,785	240	111	13,727
Heathrow Airport	285	22	9	67	3,170	689	219	50	780	5,291
Others	2	2	0	4	159	499	21	0	83	770
London <sup>5</sup>	127,895	7,919	26,136	119,441	374,826	79,589	130,451	31,805	11,029	909,091

<sup>1</sup> Revised Home Office counting rules and expanded coverage of offences from 1 April 1998 mean that comparisons with earlier years could be misleading.

Source: City of London and Metropolitan Police Forces

<sup>2</sup> Figures for "going equipped", previously included under "burglary", are now part of the "other notifiable" category.

<sup>3</sup> New category

<sup>4</sup> Excludes offences that fall within the borough boundaries at Heathrow Airport.

<sup>5</sup> The London totals include Heathrow Airport, Thames Division, Central Cheque Squad and other crime recording units which cannot be allocated to a borough.

## **A9.1**

## Number of bedspaces in London: by borough, 1999¹

Numbers

	Hotels, mot and guestl		Bed and bi establishi	
	Number of establishments	Number of bedspaces	Number of establishments	Number of bedspaces
Inner London	326	101,821	408	21,273
Inner London - West	291	92,067	341	19,952
Camden	52	19,313	65	3,808
City of London	1	316	-	-
Hammersmith and Fulham	14	4,627	14	346
Kensington and Chelsea	71	19,924	83	5,559
Wandsworth	3	183	6	60
Westminster, City of	150	47,704	173	10,179
Inner London - East	35	9,754	67	1,321
Hackney	4	362	8	327
Haringey	4	264	12	180
Islington	9	2,643	7	209
Lambeth	4	1,293	6	65
Lewisham	2	778	24	169
Newham	3	95	3	118
Southwark	7	1,884	7	253
Tower Hamlets	2	2,435	-	-
Outer London	150	22,663	270	4,662
Outer London - E & NE	36	2,683	58	666
Barking and Dagenham	1	29	=	-
Bexley	4	527	7	78
Enfield	4	369	3	64
Greenwich	7	353	35	257
Havering	8	563	2	38
Redbridge	6	370	8	178
Waltham Forest	6	472	3	51
Outer London - South	42	3,699	62	783
Bromley	8	470	13	163
Croydon	20	2,198	31	333
Kingston upon Thames	5	376	4	61
Merton	5	322	10	146
Sutton	4	333	4	80
Outer London - W & NW	72	16,281	150	3,213
Barnet	8	844	19	409
Brent	4	712	13	281
Ealing	10	1,098	22	1,131
Harrow	8	723	13	239
Hillingdon	20	11,349	7	155
Hounslow	11	971	16	332
Richmond upon Thames	11	584	60	666
London	476	124,484	678	25,935

<sup>1</sup> Known stock of serviced accommodation as at October 1999.

Source: London Tourist Board Accommodation Services

<sup>2</sup> An establishment that provides accommodation, some service and breakfast but no other meal.

**A9.2** 

## Visitors to top 20 tourist attractions<sup>1</sup>

								Thousands
	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
City of London								
St Paul's Cathedral	1,500	1,400	1,900	1,900	1,500	2,000	2,000	2,000
Camden								
British Museum	5,061	6,309	5,823	5,897	5,746	6,228	6,057	5,620
Greenwich								
National Maritime Museum	588	507	504	538	609	458	476	474
Kensington & Chelsea								
Science Museum	1,328	1,213	1,277	1,269	1,556	1,548	1,537	1,600
Victoria & Albert Museum	1,066	1,182	1,072	1,440	1,224	1,300	1,041	1,110
Natural History Museum	1,572	1,700	1,700	1,625	1,507	1,607	1,793	1,905
Kingston upon Thames								
Chessington World of Adventures	1,410	1,170	1,495	1,614	1,770	1,700	1,700	1,650
Richmond upon Thames								
Royal Botanic Gardens	988	953	940	989	1,060	994	937	1,000
Hampton Court Palace	502	580	577	543	580	612	643	605
Southwark								
London Dungeon	440	465	527	597	610			
Imperial War Museum	338	392	435	468	478	444	519	472
Tower Hamlets								
Tower of London	1,938	2,235	2,332	2,407	2,537	2,539	2,615	2,551
Westminster								
Westminster Abbey	2,250	2,750	2,500	2,200	2,245	2,500	2,500	3,000
National Gallery	4,280	4,314	3,882	4,302	4,469	5,000	4,809	4,770
Madame Tussaud's	2,249	2,264	2,450	2,632	2,703	2,715	2,799	2,773
Royal Academy of Arts	808	1,007	922	952	881	780	859	913
Tate Gallery	1,816	1,576	1,760	2,226	1,770	2,002	1,758	2,181
Photographers Gallery	400	360	350	372	400	400	350	400
London Zoo	1,116	936	863	1,047	1,043	1,002	1,098	1,053
Rock Circus	520	554	682	692	709	702	613	455
National Portrait Gallery	590	576	611	1,044	849	808	888	1,017

<sup>1</sup> In 1998. In addition, admission figures for the London Dungeon are shown as this attraction had been in the top 20 in earlier years.

Source: London Tourist Board



## Sports facilities: by borough, 1999<sup>1</sup>

Numbers

	Sports halls <sup>2</sup>	Dual use sports halls <sup>3</sup>	Swim- ming pools	Dual use swim- ming pools <sup>3</sup>	Athletics tracks	Indoor tennis centres	Indoor bowling centres	10 pin- bowling centres	Ice rinks	Climbing walls	Floodlit pitches <sup>4</sup>	Dry ski slopes
	Tidilo		Poolo	Pools	tracks		0011100	CONTROL	100 111110	Wallo	Pitorico	оюроо
Inner London	39	35	41	11	11	12	7	5	3	13	21	2
Inner London - West	17	3	15	5	5	7	2	1	1	4	6	0
Camden	5	0	3	1	1	0	1	0	0	2	1	0
City of London	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Hammersmith and Fulham		1	1	1	1	5	0	0	0	0	1	0
Kensington and Chelsea	2	0	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	0
Wandsworth	5	2	4	2	2	0	0	0	0	1	2	0
Westminster, City of	4	0	4	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0
Inner London - East	22	32	26	6	6	5	5	4	2	9	15	2
Hackney	1	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0
Haringey	3	9	3	1	2	2	2	1	0	0	2	1
Islington	4	0	4	1	0	1	1	0	1	2	1	0
Lambeth	3	2	3	0	0	0	2	1	1	1	1	0
Lewisham	2	6	3	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0
Newham	3	3	3	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1
Southwark	4	7	4	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	4	0
Tower Hamlets	2	4	3	1	1	2	0	0	0	3	3	0
Outer London	47	129	63	29	21	22	20	9	2	10	41	4
Outer London - E & NE	17	50	23	11	8	5	8	3	2	2	14	1
Barking and Dagenham	3	6	3	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0
Bexley	3	3	3	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	2	0
Enfield	1	9	5	1	1	2	2	1	0	0	5	0
Greenwich	4	7	4	3	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	1
Havering	4	9	3	2	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	0
Redbridge	1	12	2	3	2	1	1	0	0	0	1	0
Waltham Forest	1	4	3	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	3	0
Outer London - South	11	37	16	13	6	9	6	3	0	3	11	2
Bromley	4	12	5	5	2	3	3	0	0	1	5	2
Croydon	2	12	4	5	1	1	2	1	0	1	2	0
Kingston upon Thames	1	4	2	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	2	0
Merton	2	2	3	2	1	3	0	1	0	0	1	0
Sutton	2	7	2	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0
Outer London - W & NW	19	42	24	5	7	8	6	3	0	5	16	1
Barnet	5	10	5	2	1	2	1	0	0	1	2	0
Brent	3	3	2	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	4	0
Ealing	3	7	4	0	1	2	0	0	0	0	1	0
Harrow	2	3	3	1	1	0	1	1	0	2	0	0
Hillingdon	4	4	4	0	1	1	0	1	0	2	2	1
Hounslow	2	6	5	0	1	2	1	0	0	0	4	0
Richmond upon Thames	0	9	1	2	1	1	2	0	0	0	3	0
London	86	164	104	40	32	34	27	14	5	23	62	6

<sup>1</sup> As as December 31.

Source: Sport England

<sup>2</sup> Halls of a size equalling at least four badminton courts.

3 Dual use sports halls and swimming pools are facilities that are located on school sites which are open to the community on a limited basis, evenings and weekends.

4 Full size, with artificial grass.

### Licensed vehicles<sup>1</sup>

**London** Thousands

		Public Private and transport vehicles light goods Motor						
	Car	Other vehicles	cycles, scooters and mopeds	Including taxis and buses	Buses only	Goods vehicles over 3.5 tonnes	Others <sup>2</sup>	All vehicles
1988	2,274	246	76	22		46	73	2,737
1989	2,329	252	77	21		43	74	2,796
1990	2,368	252	77	22		41	71	2,831
1991	2,322	254	72	22		38	73	2,781
1992 <sup>3</sup>	2,325	230	68	22		35	66	2,745
1993	2,261	220	64	22		34	74	2,674
1994	2,298	221	64	22		35	77	2,716
1995⁴	2,263	220	62		8	33	97	2,684
1996	2,286	221	66		8	31	107	2,720
1997	2,277	220	72		8	31	114	2,723
1998	2,287	215	81		8	29	113	2,733

<sup>1</sup> Vehicles with keeper's address in London at the end of the year. Some company cars kept outside London may be registered to a London head office address.

Source: Driver Vehicle Licensing Agency; Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions

<sup>2</sup> Includes crown and exempt vehicles, agricultural tractors etc, three-wheelers, pedestrian-controlled vehicles and showmen's haulage vehicles.

<sup>3</sup> Up to and including 1992, estimates were based on Driver Vehicle Licensing Agency data but from 1993 onwards they were taken from the Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions' Vehicle Information Database. Untill 1992 vehicles which has been sold, but where no new owner was known, were allocated to the old address; from 1993 they have not been allocated to an address. This is likely to produce an under-count of about 1.5 per cent.

<sup>4</sup> A number of changes were made to the vehicle taxation system in 1995. On licence renewal, vehicles with 8 or fewer seats were taxed in the private and light goods class, and those with 9 or more in the bus tax class. New exempt vehicle classes were created for police vehicles and for all vehicles over 25 years of age.

## Commuting patterns, 1991<sup>1</sup>

Thousands and percentages

	Con	nmuting	Net commuting	Living and working	Percentage working
	Into area	Out of area	in	in area	at home <sup>2</sup>
Inner London	968.5	116.2	852.4	840.8	2.8
Inner London - West	826.1	79.4	746.6	301.0	2.5
Camden	162.4	35.4	127.1	34.3	3.3
City of London	245.7	1.0	244.7	1.3	0.2
Hammersmith and Fulham	56.2	40.7	15.5	24.1	4.6
Kensington and Chelsea	62.9	33.1	29.8	22.9	6.9
Wandsworth	44.8	72.0	-27.2	43.8	5.7
Westminster, City of	384.1	27.3	356.8	44.6	1.5
nner London - East	352.5	246.7	105.7	329.9	3.3
Hackney	46.9	32.9	14.0	23.5	3.7
Haringey	29.9	49.0	-19.1	27.9	7.2
Islington	83.5	37.2	46.3	26.5	2.9
Lambeth	65.0	59.1	6.0	32.7	3.6
Lewisham	25.7	60.2	-34.5	32.9	4.8
Newham	33.5	39.2	-5.7	31.3	2.8
Southwark	88.7	43.7	45.0	33.2	2.5
Tower Hamlets	77.8	24.1	53.8	23.5	1.1
Outer London	379.3	708.8	-329.5	1,160.7	4.7
Outer London - E & NE	125.9	301.7	-175.8	342.4	4.2
Barking and Dagenham	32.5	32.1	0.4	24.8	1.8
Bexley	23.0	60.2	-37.2	38.6	4.0
Enfield	33.8	57.9	-24.1	56.5	4.5
Greenwich	29.5	45.2	-15.8	36.0	3.9
Havering	23.5	58.0	-34.5	47.8	4.1
Redbridge	27.6	63.7	-36.1	35.9	5.6
Waltham Forest	23.0	51.6	-28.5	35.9	4.9
Outer London - South	115.3	214.0	-98.8	288.5	4.9
Bromley	31.5	73.9	-42.4	60.4	6.5
Croydon	50.1	66.7	-16.7	78.1	4.0
Kingston upon Thames	30.2	33.4	-3.2	31.5	5.0
Merton	32.5	49.7	-17.2	28.7	4.7
Sutton	24.9	44.2	-19.2	36.1	4.5
Outer London - W & NW	198.5	253.5	-55.0	469.4	4.9
Barnet	40.5	68.4	-27.9	58.0	8.4
Brent	48.8	56.1	-7.4	43.8	3.8
Ealing	51.7	69.8	-18.1	52.0	4.6
Harrow	27.4	55.4	-28.1	37.3	7.1
Hillingdon	82.3	46.6	35.6	64.3	2.5
Hounslow	57.9	49.9	8.0	44.0	3.0
Richmond upon Thames	28.7	45.9	-17.1	31.4	8.6
London	672.7	149.8	522.9	2,676.6	3.7

Source: 1991 Census, Office for National Statistics

<sup>1</sup> Figures are from the Census 10% data. 2 Percentage of those working in the area.

## Commuting: by main mode of travel, 1991

Percentages and thousands

	Surface	Othor			Car	Motor	Dodol	0-		Total <sup>2</sup>
	rail train	Other train	Bus	Driver	Passenger	Motor cycle	Pedal cycle	On foot	Other (t	(=100%) (housands)
Inner London	9.7	24.4	17.0	27.7	2.7	1.2	2.9	13.6	0.7	872.7
Inner London - West	6.6	30.0	13.9	25.3	2.5	1.1	3.2	16.4	1.0	338.6
Camden	4.6	29.1	14.7	23.5	2.6	0.8	3.2	20.1	1.2	60.4
City of London	1.7	24.6	9.7	9.1	1.7	0.6	1.7	47.4	3.4	1.8
Hammersmith and Fulham	1.7	38.7	13.3	24.7	2.1	1.2	4.2	13.6	0.4	58.9
Kensington and Chelsea	1.5	37.7	12.9	23.6	3.0	1.0	3.0	15.9	1.4	47.8
Wandsworth	15.1	23.2	13.0	30.8	2.4	1.4	3.3	10.5	0.3	107.6
Westminster, City of	2.4	28.4	16.2	19.6	2.8	0.8	2.5	25.0	2.3	62.2
Inner London - East	11.6	20.9	19.0	29.2	2.8	1.3	2.7	11.9	0.5	534.2
Hackney	5.9	16.5	29.0	27.0	2.8	1.3	4.4	12.7	0.4	51.7
Haringey	6.3	31.0	14.1	34.4	2.8	1.2	2.1	7.9	0.3	70.2
Islington	4.0	25.9	21.6	23.9	2.2	1.1	3.9	16.6	0.8	57.9
Lambeth	12.2	26.9	17.5	26.2	2.2	1.4	3.3	10.1	0.4	84.9
Lewisham	32.0	3.1	14.8	34.9	3.0	1.5	1.7	8.5	0.3	87.5
Newham	7.6	29.4	14.2	31.4	3.9	1.1	1.5	10.6	0.4	66.1
Southwark	11.0	13.5	26.6	27.4	2.8	1.3	3.1	13.9	0.5	71.4
Tower Hamlets	2.5	26.9	18.0	24.6	3.1	1.0	2.6	20.2	1.1	44.5
Outer London	13.0	12.3	9.8	48.0	4.4	1.3	1.8	8.9	0.5	1,757.1
Outer London - E & NE	16.5	11.7	9.6	45.9	4.4	1.3	1.4	8.7	0.5	611.1
Barking and Dagenham	9.7	16.8	11.0	43.0	4.8	1.3	1.9	11.3	0.3	54.3
Bexley	27.0	0.1	8.2	49.2	5.0	2.0	1.0	7.0	0.5	94.6
Enfield	10.3	10.5	10.6	51.0	4.9	1.1	1.9	9.3	0.3	107.4
Greenwich	28.1	0.5	13.8	40.2	4.0	1.3	1.2	10.3	0.6	77.0
Havering	19.2	8.5	8.2	49.5	4.3	1.0	1.0	7.6	0.6	101.2
Redbridge	10.2	23.7	7.0	44.9	4.3	1.1	1.3	6.8	0.6	94.1
Waltham Forest	9.9	24.0	9.6	39.8	3.8	1.2	1.6	9.7	0.4	82.5
Outer London - South	20.1	3.7	9.9	49.0	4.3	1.5	1.8	9.3	0.4	473.5
Bromley	28.0	0.2	7.3	50.1	4.0	1.3	1.1	7.6	0.5	125.9
Croydon	19.5	0.9	14.7	47.1	4.5	1.4	1.1	10.4	0.4	137.0
Kingston upon Thames	18.0	1.5	8.5	51.5	4.1	1.7	3.4	10.7	0.5	60.7
Merton	15.0	17.5	8.8	42.0	3.9	1.5	2.4	8.5	0.5	73.9
Sutton	14.7	3.2	7.6	55.3	4.8	1.9	2.2	9.9	0.4	76.1
Outer London - W & NW	4.9	18.9	10.0	49.3	4.4	1.1	2.3	8.8	0.5	672.5
Barnet	4.7	22.2	9.0	49.2	4.5	0.9	0.8	7.9	0.8	115.0
Brent	4.8	26.7	13.6	38.5	4.3	0.7	1.3	9.7	0.4	92.8
Ealing	3.0	23.5	12.3	44.6	4.4	1.0	2.0	8.9	0.3	113.7
Harrow	3.5	22.4	6.9	53.3	3.8	0.9	1.1	7.9	0.3	86.5
Hillingdon	1.8	11.6	7.9	59.7	5.2	1.2	2.8	9.3	0.5	105.3
Hounslow	3.9	14.1	11.3	50.3	4.9	1.4	4.1	9.5	0.4	88.6
Richmond upon Thames	15.8	8.2	8.5	49.4	3.0	1.3	4.8	8.5	0.5	70.7
London	11.9	16.3	12.2	41.3	3.8	1.2	2.2	10.5	0.5	2,629.8

Source: 1991 Census, Office for National Statistics

<sup>1</sup> Figures are from the Census 10% data.
2 The number of residents excludes those whose means of travel was not stated and those who work at home.

### Fatal and serious road casualties1: by type of road user, 1998

Numbers

						Numbers
	Pedestrian	Pedal cycle	Powered cycle	Car <sup>2</sup>	Other road users	Total
Inner London	1,117	343	556	863	212	3,091
Inner London - West	505	168	265	275	101	1,314
Camden	88	34	43	61	9	235
City of London	32	7	16	7	6	68
Hammersmith and Fulham	54	27	37	31	13	162
Kensington and Chelsea	81	20	32	42	10	185
Wandsworth	69	33	52	63	19	236
Westminster, City of	181	47	85	71	44	428
Inner London - East	612	175	291	588	111	1,777
Hackney	65	19	24	71	12	191
Haringey	56	10	30	76	8	180
Islington	92	32	33	55	14	226
Lambeth	119	39	49	85	17	309
Lewisham	66	14	33	89	23	225
Newham	71	11	22	85	11	200
Southwark	71	36	43	76	18	244
Tower Hamlets	72	14	57	51	8	202
Outer London	936	271	462	1,879	216	3,764
Outer London - E & NE	353	80	135	743	74	1,385
Barking and Dagenham	30	7	12	74	6	129
Bexley	30	8	16	82	7	143
Enfield	72	20	25	138	15	270
Greenwich	54	10	27	102	16	209
Havering	50	9	17	146	9	231
Redbridge	46	15	13	115	9	198
Waltham Forest	71	11	25	86	12	205
Outer London - South	193	66	145	438	55	897
Bromley	45	19	38	136	11	249
Croydon	67	10	36	128	21	262
Kingston upon Thames	23	17	30	45	6	121
Merton	34	9	23	55	9	130
Sutton	24	11	18	74	8	135
Outer London - W & NW	390	125	182	698	87	1,482
Barnet	69	15	39	141	14	278
Brent	80	21	28	99	13	241
Ealing	70	21	37	105	10	243
Harrow	31	7	9	58	7	112
Hillingdon	60	20	17	124	16	237
Hounslow	49	23	25	123	17	237
Richmond upon Thames	31	18	27	48	10	134
Heathrow Airport	1	1	3	9	1	15
London <sup>3</sup>	2,054	615	1,021	2,751	429	6,870

<sup>1</sup> See Notes and Definitions for Chapter 10.

<sup>2</sup> Includes taxis. 3 Includes Heathrow Airport.

## Employee jobs in transport and communications<sup>1</sup>, September 1997

Т				

	Transport	Post and telecommunications	Total employee jobs <sup>2</sup>
	папэроп	telecommunications	employee jobs
nner London	47.6	56.3	1,991.3
nner London - West	25.5	28.4	1,282.1
Camden	5.0	8.3	220.8
City of London	1.0	9.3	267.5
Hammersmith and Fulham	1.8	1.2	80.9
Kensington and Chelsea	2.4	1.2	110.7
Wandsworth	1.8	2.9	88.0
Westminster, City of	13.5	5.5	514.2
nner London - East	22.1	27.9	709.1
Hackney	2.0	0.8	77.0
Haringey	2.1	1.4	55.4
Islington	1.9	13.7	130.1
Lambeth	3.1	2.9	95.3
Lewisham	1.5	1.2	52.9
Newham	1.8	2.1	56.3
Southwark	5.9	3.0	128.7
Tower Hamlets	3.8	2.8	113.4
Outer London	55.8	36.8	1,465.3
Outer London - E & NE	10.4	8.8	406.6
Barking and Dagenham	2.1	0.7	47.9
Bexley	1.0	1.1	54.4
Enfield	2.1	1.7	80.9
Greenwich	1.2	1.4	55.0
Havering	1.6	1.9	64.4
Redbridge	1.1	1.4	58.8
Waltham Forest	1.3	0.6	45.2
Outer London - South	5.7	10.6	390.7
Bromley	1.1	1.4	86.4
Croydon	2.1	5.9	118.5
Kingston upon Thames	0.2	1.3	72.5
Merton	1.4	0.8	58.8
Sutton	0.9	1.2	54.5
Outer London - W & NW	39.7	17.5	667.8
Barnet	1.6	2.9	102.1
Brent	3.3	2.1	90.5
Ealing	3.8	2.2	107.7
Harrow	0.7	1.8	60.8
Hillingdon	26.5	2.9	137.8
Hounslow	3.5	4.5	110.1
Richmond upon Thames	0.3	1.1	58.8
ondon	103.4	93.1	3,456.6

Source: Annual Employment Survey, Office for National Statistics

<sup>1</sup> Details of the survey can be found in the Notes and Definitions for Chapter 6.
2 Employee jobs in agriculture are included in the London total and the Inner London and Outer London borough totals.

# A10.6

#### Cable TV availability, 1999

		Thousands
		Homes
		connected
London borough	Homes passed <sup>1</sup>	for TV <sup>2</sup>
Operator		
Cable London		
Camden	83.3	20.2
Enfield	108.1	30.1
Hackney and Islington	116.9	27.5
Haringey	75.1	19.7
Cable and Wireless Communications		
Barking and Dagenham, Redbridge		
and Bexley (Greater London East)	200.5	44.3
Barnet, Brent, Hammersmith and	200.0	
Fulham (North West London)	142.1	30.0
Bromley	116.5	27.8
Ealing	81.1	20.3
Greenwich and Lewisham	141.5	30.6
Harrow	68.1	17.0
Havering	82.7	8.8
Kensington and Chelsea	70.8	15.0
Lambeth and Southwark	141.8	29.5
Tower Hamlets and Newham	114.1	18.5
Waltham Forest	81.2	17.0
Wandsworth	65.0	12.3
Telewest Communications		
Croydon	124.5	29.0
Hillingdon and Hounslow	169.1	28.1
Kingston upon Thames and		20
Richmond upon Thames	106.2	25.1
Merton and Sutton	135.0	31.9
NTL		
Westminster	101.2	23.3

Source: Independent Television Commission

<sup>1</sup> Service available but not necessarily taken up as at 1 July 1999.
2 Franchises with more than 2,500 subscribers. All the cable TV operators provide telephone services except for Westminster.

#### Hospital activity<sup>1</sup>, all specialties,1997-98

Numbers and rates

	Ord	inary admissio	ns			
	Finished consultant episodes	Average daily available beds	Cases treated per bed <sup>2</sup> (rates)	Day case admissions	Outpatient attendances	Accident and emergency attendances
Barking, Havering & Brentwood Community Health NHS Trust	3,591	872	4.1	0	9,248	
Barnet Community Healthcare NHS Trust	2,677	715	3.7	0	9,531	20,814
Bethlem & Maudsley NHS Trust	4,497	676	6.7	0	58,118	
Bexley Community Health NHS Trust	2,797	664	4.2	0	22,414	
Bromley Hospitals NHS Trust	37,060	587	57.7	14,955	172,531	64,571
Camden & Islington Community Health Service NHS Trust	4,314	510	8.5	3	105,992	
Central Middlesex Hospital NHS Trust	19,940	312	58.7	8,486	163,562	67,990
Chase Farm Hospital NHS Trust	29,064	429	60.3	9,856	150,838	61,984
Chelsea and Westminster Healthcare NHS Trust	33,808	562	54.4	9,865	230,219	82,617
City & Hackney Community Services NHS Trust Croydon Community NHS Trust <sup>3</sup>	2,222	327	6.8	0	12,252	
Ealing Hospital NHS Trust	21,306	351	54.5	6,554	114,748	70,636
Enfield Community Care NHS Trust	3,294	429	7.7	0	7,381	
Forest Healthcare NHS Trust	43,057	1,153	33.7	14,806	192,517	76,672
Great Ormond Street Hospital For Sick Children NHS Trust	14,415	360	40.1	7,751	76,474	
Greenwich Healthcare NHS Trust	29,875	594	46.3	9,049	164,273	97,842
Guys & St Thomas's NHS Trust	68,866	1,273	50.1	22,254	498,119	171,114
Hammersmith Hospitals NHS Trust	49,683	1,141	39.6	32,141	275,905	65,938
Harefield Hospital NHS Trust	7,593	113	67.5	2,555	27,139	
Haringey Health Care NHS Trust	3,786	450	8.4	0	39,282	2,094
Harrow and Hillindon Healthcare NHS Trust	2,714	246	11.0	0	8,268	
Havering Hospitals NHS Trust	46,832	791	54.4	21,451	280,602	95,051
Hillingdon Hospital NHS Trust	25,792	566	39.9	8,657	159,373	64,219
Homerton Hospital NHS Trust	23,431	439	45.9	5,243	116,974	54,448
Hounslow & Spelthorne Community & Mental Health NHS Trust	1,096	205	5.3	0	11,081	
King's Healthcare NHS Trust	45,140	970	43.1	19,231	306,838	93,911
Kingston Hospital NHS Trust	35,693	450	69.8	14,421	199,360	78,674
Kingston and District Community NHS Trust	2,852	346	8.2	0	7,120	
Lewisham Hospital NHS Trust	29,253	551	47.5	6,651	105,581	82,142
Lewisham and Guys Mental Health NHS Trust	1,531	150	10.2	0	20,912	
Lifecare NHS Trust <sup>3</sup>	491	0		0	406	
Mayday Health Care NHS Trust	37,932	748	46.1	16,827	190,913	94,627
Merton & Sutton Community Healthcare NHS Trust	1,356	327	4.1	0	1,794	
Moorfields Eye Hospital NHS Trust	5,656	56	100.3	8,605	183,702	41,406
Mount Vernon and Watford General Hospitals NHS Trust	39,573	621	58.7	13,298	222,484	71,262
Newham Community Health Services NHS Trust	2,741	264	10.4	148	10,639	

<sup>1</sup> See Notes and Definitions for Chapter 11.

<sup>2</sup> Calculation excludes well babies from finished consultant episodes as neonatal cots in maternity wards are not included in the bed data.

3 Some NHS Trusts do not have patient admissions or attendances but provide consultant or medical services to people in residential care.

#### Hospital activity<sup>1</sup>, all specialties,1997-98

Numbers and rates

	Ord	inary admissio	ns			
	Finished consultant episodes	Average daily available beds	Cases treated per bed <sup>2</sup> (rates)	Day case admissions	Outpatient attendances	Accident and emergency attendances
Newham Healthcare NHS Trust	29,949	605	43.3	11,112	138,482	56,873
North Middlesex Hospital NHS Trust	25,901	357	64.9	14,999	176,471	80,929
North West London Mental Health NHS Trust	1,679	321	5.2	0	9,281	
Northwick Park Hospital NHS Trust	35,184	553	57.6	14,395	186,494	74,026
Parkside Health NHS Trust	2,096	464	4.5	0	5,179	
Pathfinder NHS Trust	2,077	377	5.5	0	25,038	
Queen Mary's, Sidcup NHS Trust	32,709	434	66.7	7,783	146,705	79,951
Ravensbourne Priority Health NHS Trust	23	10	2.4	0	2,526	
Redbridge Health Care NHS Trust	31,894	1,083	25.9	10,779	154,977	81,551
Richmond, Twickenham & Roehampton NHS Trust	13,527	253	53.5	6,223	107,462	27,911
Riverside Community Health NHS Trust <sup>3</sup>		:				
Riverside Mental Health NHS Trust	2,087	545	3.8	0	34,598	
Royal Brompton Hospital NHS Trust	10,979	246	44.6	5,273	45,949	
Royal Free NHS Trust	45,272	1,028	41.3	13,009	306,936	62,717
Royal Hospital's NHS Trust	63,707	1,197	50.2	21,042	448,271	122,485
Royal London Homeopathic Hospital NHS Trust	190	4	49.3	206	26,745	
Royal Marsden Hospital NHS Trust	12,968	257	50.4	13,131	109,128	
Royal National Orthopaedic NHS Trust	6,476	251	25.8	878	33,484	
St George's Group NHS Trust	48,261	1,014	44.2	19,173	289,413	77,532
St Helier NHS Trust	42,288	686	57.2	12,630	211,596	80,615
St Mary's Hospital NHS Trust	40,752	696	54.2	20,966	292,897	87,357
Tavistock and Portman NHS Trust					38,462	
Teddington Memorial NHS Trust	472	50	9.4	0	7,655	
Tower Hamlets Healthcare NHS Trust	2,845	352	8.1	849	7,671	•
University College London Hospitals NHS Trust Wandsworth Community Health NHS Trust <sup>3</sup>	45,804	875	49.4	18,737	382,142	63,540
Wellhouse NHS Trust	26,615	424	57.1	11,377	164,715	76,270
West Lambeth Community Care NHS Trust	1,791	178	10.0	0	15,265	7 0,2.0
West London Healthcare NHS Trust	3,137	468	6.7	0	19,767	•
West Middlesex University NHS Trust	21,463	414	45.1	10,350	112,674	62,081
Whittington Hospital NHS Trust	30,408	440	62.5	9,812	151,884	66,143
London	1,264,482	31,831	36.5	475,531	7,808,457	2,557,993

<sup>1</sup> See Notes and Definitions for Chapter 11.

<sup>2</sup> Calculation excludes well babies from finished consultant episodes as neonatal cots in maternity wards are not included in the bed data.

3 Some NHS Trusts do not have patient admissions or attendances but provide consultant or medical services to people in residential care.

#### Hospital waiting lists, 1999<sup>1</sup>

Numbers and percentages

_		Months wa	aited (percer	ntages)
II	otal waiting (numbers)	Less than 6	6-11	12 or longer
London Health Authorities				
Barking and Havering	12,038	66.9	25.9	7.2
Barnet	5,658	74.0	20.8	5.2
Brent and Harrow	8,791	74.3	21.1	4.6
Camden and Islington	5,478	79.6	17.2	3.2
Ealing, Hammersmith and Hounslow	13,831	71.7	21.7	6.6
East London and City	13,149	74.0	20.4	5.7
Enfield and Haringey	10,569	67.6	24.6	7.8
Hillingdon	4,211	68.8	22.7	8.6
Kensington, Chelsea and Westminste	r 3,911	81.2	16.9	1.9
Redbridge and Waltham Forest	11,696	67.7	25.7	6.6
Bexley and Greenwich	8,246	70.7	23.3	6.1
Bromley	6,402	68.0	24.9	7.1
Croydon	7,158	73.9	20.1	6.0
Kingston and Richmond	6,784	70.1	23.4	6.4
Lambeth, Southwark and Lewisham	16,897	65.5	24.6	9.8
Merton, Sutton and Wandsworth	10,341	73.1	21.5	5.4
London	145,160	70.8	22.7	6.5

<sup>1</sup> People waiting for admission as either an inpatient or a day case as at 31 March. See Notes and Definitions for Chapter 11.

#### General Medical Practices and Practitioners, 1998<sup>1</sup>

Numbers and percentages

		Ofb: - b		Gen	eral Practi	tioners (GPs)2			Dunati	
		Of which practices				Percentage	es		Praction	ce staff
	Number of general	with one GP				Aged				Direct care staff <sup>4</sup>
	medical practices	(per centages)	Total (numbers)	Average list size	Female GPs	Under 35 65 or	over	Part-time GPs	(WTE <sup>3</sup> ) (numbers)	(per- centages)
London Health Authorities										
Barking and Havering	96	53	183	2,187	25	8	6	8	427	17
Barnet	85	47	188	1,952	48	11	3	14	392	20
Brent and Harrow	122	43	275	2,041	44	13	5	13	557	19
Camden and Islington	107	52	231	2,032	42	11	4	20	423	21
Ealing, Hammersmith and Hounslow	188	45	380	2,090	41	10	6	13	966	20
East London and City	171	45	387	1,871	36	8	5	15	673	19
Enfield and Haringey	122	42	268	2,175	35	7	4	11	527	16
Hillingdon	55	42	125	1,989	37	14	1	10	313	17
Kensington, Chelsea and Westminste	r 113	50	189	2,153	42	8	4	13	477	28
Redbridge and Waltham Forest	123	47	230	2,050	32	9	6	14	513	15
Bexley and Greenwich	90	47	215	2,055	41	10	3	15	537	15
Bromley	56	30	156	1,993	39	17	1	16	342	16
Croydon	71	32	169	2,025	41	10	5	9	356	19
Kingston and Richmond	61	30	180	1,954	49	17	1	21	408	20
Lambeth, Southwark and Lewisham	168	37	423	2,019	39	11	2	15	946	23
Merton Sutton and Wandsworth	129	33	332	2,041	40	10	5	15	741	19
London	1,757	43	3,931	2,036	39	11	4	14	8,596	19
England	8,994	30	27,392	1,866	31	13	1	16	61,332	20

<sup>1</sup> As at 1 October .

<sup>2</sup> Unrestricted Principals, Personal Medical Services (PMS) Contracted GPs and PMS Salaried GPs. Prior to 1998 the figures related to unrestricted principals. Further definition can be found in the Notes and Definitions for Chapter 11.

<sup>3</sup> Whole-time equivalents.

<sup>4</sup> Due to a recalegorisation of practice staff within the General Medical Service census there is now a separate staff group called 'Direct Patient Care' which includes dispensers, physiotherapists, chiropodists, counsellors, complementary therapists. Previously the direct care staff category in this table included the staff groups within Direct Patient Care as well as practice nurses, for comparability practice nurses are included but the title has had to change to avoid confusion.

#### Prescriptions<sup>1</sup>, 1998

		Percentage of				age net ient cost <sup>2</sup>	
	Prescription items dispensed in community (millions)	prescription items exempt from charge <sup>3</sup>	Number of prescription items per head of population <sup>4</sup>	Net ingredient cost <sup>2</sup> (£ million)	Per head of population <sup>4</sup> (£)	Per prescription item (£)	Number of pharmacies (at 31 March)
London Health Authorities <sup>5</sup>							
Barking and Havering	3.7	86.0	9.5	34.7	90.81	9.51	83
Barnet	2.7	85.5	8.3	28.2	86.14	10.33	81
Brent and Harrow	4.2	86.5	9.0	40.9	88.35	9.83	134
Camden and Islington	3.2	86.6	8.7	32.1	87.17	10.03	113
Ealing, Hammersmith and Hounslow	5.7	85.9	8.6	56.2	84.48	9.78	168
East London and City	6.7	91.2	10.9	54.2	88.59	8.15	170
Enfield and Haringey	4.5	87.4	9.4	40.9	84.50	9.00	117
Hillingdon	2.2	82.4	8.6	24.7	97.54	11.36	62
Kensington, Chelsea and Westminster	2.7	78.7	7.3	30.9	82.80	11.32	152
Redbridge and Waltham Forest	4.4	86.5	9.7	38.9	86.00	8.87	109
Bexley and Greenwich	3.9	85.8	9.1	36.7	85.05	9.32	94
Bromley	2.5	83.0	8.6	25.5	85.94	10.03	57
Croydon	2.7	83.8	8.1	27.1	79.91	9.89	71
Kingston and Richmond	2.5	80.7	7.7	26.2	79.44	10.37	76
Lambeth, Southwark and Lewisham	6.5	89.0	8.8	60.8	82.43	9.35	178
Merton, Sutton and Wandsworth	5.2	84.4	8.3	53.6	85.24	10.26	147
London	63.5	86.0	8.9	611.8	85.61	9.64	1,812
England	513.2	85.4	10.4	4,701.5	95.09	9.16	9,781

<sup>1</sup> The data cover all prescription items dispensed by community pharmacists and appliance contracters, dispensing doctors and prescriptions submitted by prescribing doctors for items personally administered.

administered.

2 The net ingredient cost (NIC) is the basic cost of a drug and does not take account of discounts, dispensing costs, fees or prescription charges income.

<sup>3</sup> Figures are based on a 1 in 20 sample of all prescriptions submitted to the Prescription Pricing Authority by community pharmacists and appliance contractors only. Figures exclude prescription items dispensed to patients who have a prepayment certificate.

<sup>4 1998</sup> mid year estimates of population have been used to calculate the rates.

<sup>5</sup> Figures relate to the Health Authority where the prescription was dispensed and not where it was prescribed.

#### Immunisation of children, 1998-99

Numbers and percentages

			Percentage	of children immur	ised by their 2	nd birthday	
	Number of children			Pertussis (whooping		Measles, mumps and	Hib <sup>3</sup>
	aged 2	Diphtheria	Tetanus	cough)	Polio	rubella	(meningitis)
London Health Authorities							
Barking and Havering	4,876	95	95	95	95	88	95
Barnet	4,116	94	94	93	94	85	94
Brent and Harrow	6,304	94	94	94	94	87	93
Camden and Islington	4,697	93	93	92	93	81	92
Ealing, Hammersmith and Hounslow	9,135	91	91	90	91	81	90
East London and City	11,928	87	87	86	87	79	86
Enfield and Haringey	7,478	92	92	91	92	84	91
Hillingdon	3,437	96	96	94	96	87	96
Kensington, Chelsea and Westminster	3,113	94	94	94	93	84	94
Redbridge and Waltham Forest	6,623	96	96	96	96	91	96
Bexley	5,813	95	95	94	95	83	95
Bromley	3,654	94	94	93	94	85	94
Croydon	4,834	84	84	83	84	71	84
Kingston and Richmond	3,983	93	93	93	93	81	93
Lambeth, Southwark and Lewisham	11,420	92	92	91	92	77	92
Merton, Sutton and Wandsworth	5,565	92	92	91	92	78	92
London	91,411	92	92	91	92	82	92
England	609,783	95	95	94	95	88	95

<sup>1</sup> Haemophilus influenzae type b.

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#### Summary of social services activity, 1998

			Services for ac	lults		Comicac	for obildron
	Residents s by local a		Contact hours of	Day centre	Number	Number on child	for children  Number of
	In residential homes	In nursing homes	home care provided <sup>2</sup>	places available <sup>2</sup>	of meals at home <sup>2</sup>	protection registers <sup>1</sup>	children looked after <sup>1,3</sup>
Inner London	11,217	3,547		35,857		2,487	5,074
Inner London - West	3,960	1,119	102,661	12,050	17,985	724	1,420
Camden	868	186	21,824	2,704	4,306	190	297
City of London	49	11	1,424	29	164	1	0
Hammersmith and Fulham	542	188	18,005	1,397	3,655	146	294
Kensington and Chelsea	481	94	13,652	2,156	2,233	28	201
Wandsworth	1,154	392	24,807	3,903	4,534	242	348
Westminster, City of	866	248	22,949	1,861	3,093	117	280
Inner London - East	7,257	2,428		23,807		1,763	3,654
Hackney	928	235	20,509	1,765	3,430	208	469
Haringey	950	139		3,568		260	349
Islington	795	200	13,113	3,792	2,832	239	405
Lambeth	1,346	291	10,452	2,197	5,032	199	629
Lewisham	973	410	13,491	4,252	7,608	197	490
Newham	868	354	15,436	2,247	3,123	236	450
Southwark	691	540	27,047	2,976	·	242	598
Tower Hamlets	706	259	13,840	3,010	3,745	182	264
Outer London	15,576	4,136				2,506	4,058
Outer London - E & NE	5,314	1,205		16,220	29,498	1,009	1,457
Barking and Dagenham	249	17	11,290	1,058	3,708	158	147
Bexley	573	246	11,410	3,171	4,899	179	178
Enfield	1,165	252	18,379	2,840	3,196	141	210
Greenwich	786	217	15,214	2,057	6,514	231	377
Havering	732	186		2,076	3,534	95	134
Redbridge	616	218	9,384	3,109	3,786	78	154
Waltham Forest	1,193	69	9,581	1,909	3,861	127	257
Outer London - South	4,371	1,484	42,543	15,154		595	960
Bromley	1,686	453	10,412	1,826		127	233
Croydon	1,043	416	9,762	4,142	3,622	254	337
Kingston upon Thames	536	144	6,510	2,456	2,570	39	95
Merton	624	184	9,531	3,481	3,535	101	178
Sutton	482	287	6,328	3,249	2,660	74	117
Outer London - W & NW	5,891	1,447	99,312		35,493	902	1,641
Barnet	1,185	180	20,747		6,856	179	189
Brent	682	300	14,627	2,800	4,260	94	312
Ealing	753	389	18,595	1,733	9,258	167	348
Harrow	709	85	12,547	2,539	3,692	131	147
Hillingdon	1,008	207	11,900	2,537	4,537	94	303
Hounslow	708	160	12,080	2,500	3,481	164	260
Richmond upon Thames	846	126	8,816	1,663	3,409	73	82
London	26,793	7,683	650,997	129,907	195,100	4,993	9,132

At 31 March 1998.
 During survey week September 98.
 Figures for children looked after exclude agreed series of short term placements.

#### London Fire Brigade: analysis of special service incidents

Numbers 1992 1993-94 1994-95 1995-96 1996-97 1997-98 1998-99 Road accidents Persons extricated from vehicles 629 481 566 523 612 576 658 Services only rendered<sup>1</sup> 3,480 3,476 3,356 4,006 3,807 3,904 3,875 490 669 No service rendered 331 305 335 546 540 4,262 5,019 5,088 5,026 Total 4,440 4,257 5,073 Other than road accidents 70 44 59 50 51 62 Railway accidents 51 Aircraft incidents (no fire situation) 4 2 3 8 11 9 1 50 54 61 37 49 Industrial accidents 59 52 Sports activity accidents 13 7 7 13 19 12 4 0 0 Farming accidents 0 1 3 0 1 7,486 Effecting entry<sup>2</sup> 16,467 17,301 18,840 19,611 19,653 7,141 Releasing people from lifts 16,029 15,240 16,279 16,995 16,083 16,467 16,391 Rescue/release of people 350 451 531 826 748 794 849 1,419 1,225 1,125 1,266 894 738 726 Rescuing animals Removal of objects from people 237 273 281 291 356 388 389 319 244 340 337 314 282 267 First aid Suicide (including attempts and threats) 48 53 57 66 56 85 108 1.210 1.256 1.515 2.305 2.174 1.840 1.964 Spills and leaks Water - removal/provision 6,273 5,129 5,462 7,845 7,807 6,073 5,752 401 776 713 709 735 1,048 676 Making safe Recovery/retrieval of objects 46 76 71 51 36 93 57 17 14 28 27 Standby or precautionary action only 33 18 15 555 682 735 678 688 Assisting police 641 640 Advice/inspection3 34 56 94 120 177 156 174 Services not required2,4 7,704 7,555 8,198 10,425 11,047 7,745 7,137 Other special service incidents<sup>5</sup> 2,575 3,514 2,808 57 164 38 53,633 Total 53,791 57,316 62,067 60,910 43,982 42,526

58,073

58,053

61,573

67.086

65,998

49,008

47,599

Total special service incidents

Source: Home Office

<sup>1</sup> Includes first aid, washing down spillage of petrol, dealing with vehicles involved, etc.

<sup>2</sup> From 1 April 1997 the London Fire Brigade's policy changed to attend only where there was a danger of fire or immediate risk to life.

<sup>3</sup> Refers to advice, inspections etc. only, but not fire prevention advice, following a request for special service.

<sup>4</sup> Excludes fire false alarms

<sup>5</sup> Since 1995-96 each incident initially placed in this category was examined in detail and recategorised.

#### Work of the Probation Service: by type of supervision<sup>1</sup>, 1998

						Numbers
	Inner London	NE London	SE London	SW London	Middlesex	London <sup>2</sup>
Court orders						
Probation	3,579	1,012	559	463	1,796	7,409
Supervision under Children and Young Persons Act 1969	49	18	64	2	22	155
Suspended sentence supervision	40	13	9	7	14	83
Money payment supervision	416	35	33	25	95	604
Community service order	2,569	1,087	676	444	1,561	6,337
Combination	1,175	409	313	226	705	2,828
All court orders	7,258	2,479	1,582	1,102	3,979	16,400
All pre and post-release supervision	3,890	958	1,079	352	1,889	8,168
Family court supervision	23	9	2	8	6	48
All supervision	10,821	3,360	2,517	1,417	5,723	23,838

<sup>1</sup> Persons starting supervision by the Probation Service. Each person is counted only once in the total even if they started several types of supervision in the year. 2 London boroughs and the City of London.

Source: Home Office

#### Notes and Definitions

#### **LONDON BOUNDARIES**

Unless otherwise indicated, London has been defined throughout this publication as the 32 administrative areas of the former Greater London Council together with the Corporation of the City of London. A map showing their location can be found on page 14. The boroughs which comprise Inner and Outer London are as follows:

#### Inner London

City of London, Camden, Hackney, Hammersmith and Fulham, Haringey, Islington, Kensington and Chelsea, Lambeth, Lewisham, Newham, Southwark, Tower Hamlets, Wandsworth and City of Westminster.

#### **Outer London**

Barking and Dagenham, Barnet, Bexley, Brent, Bromley, Croydon, Ealing, Enfield, Greenwich, Harrow, Havering, Hillingdon, Hounslow, Kingston upon Thames, Merton, Redbridge, Richmond upon Thames, Sutton and Waltham Forest.

This Inner/Outer split has been used consistently throughout the volume, with the exception of certain tables in Chapters 7 and 11, where the difference in definition is highlighted as necessary. See Notes and Definitions for Chapter 7.

# Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics

The Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics (NUTS) provides a single, uniform breakdown of territorial units for producing regional statistics across the European Union. It has been used since 1988 in Community legislation for determining the distribution of the Structural Funds. The current NUTS nomenclature includes the main levels of spatial disaggregation used within the United Kingdom for statistical purposes.

In June 1998, the nomenclature for the United Kingdom was revised to reflect the creation of unitary authorities throughout Wales, Scotland and parts of England, and the adoption of the Government Office Regions of England for statistical purposes.

Level 1 of the classification (12 areas for the United Kingdom) represents Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland and the Government Office Regions of England.

Level 2 (37 areas) represents individual or groups of old counties in England, groups of unitary authorities in Wales, groups of councils or Local Enterprise Company areas in Scotland and the whole of Northern

Ireland. Level 2 was devised purely for European purposes and to date has been used very little for internal UK purposes.

Level 3 (133 areas) represents smaller areas which, in England, generally separate the new unitary authority areas from the remaining two-tier local government areas. In Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland, level 3 represents groups of unitary authority or district areas.

Level 4 represents the unitary authorities or districts in England, while Level 5 are wards.

Level 5 has mainly been used as the building blocks for analysing Census data, and in particular for deriving travel-to-work areas

For London, the revised structure means that London as a whole becomes 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). There are no changes at NUTS-4 and NUTS-5 levels; NUTS-4 areas are the London boroughs. Details of this structure are available on request from ONS.

#### **CHAPTER 2: POPULATION**

#### Resident population

The estimated population of an area includes all those usually resident in the area, whatever their nationality. HM Forces stationed outside the United Kingdom are excluded but foreign forces stationed here are included. Students are taken to be resident at their term-time address. Estimates are based upon information from the Census, with appropriate adjustments for undercounting and definitional differences between the Census and the population estimates. Allowances are made for births, deaths, migration, and other changes and ageing of the population since the Census.

#### Population projections

The projected population figures for London and the United Kingdom are not directly comparable. The 1996-based sub-national projections are constrained to the 1996-based national projections. There have been changes to the assumptions for fertility, mortality and migration used in the 1998-based national projections. In particular, a higher level of net inward migration is assumed in the 1998-based projection and greater improvements in mortality, especially for males have been assumed.

#### Crude birth rate

Total annual births to residents of an area per thousand resident population, of all ages, of that area at mid-year.

#### Crude death rate

Total annual deaths of residents of an area per thousand resident population, of all ages, of that area at mid-year.

#### Death rates

For England and Wales, death figures up to 1992 represent the numbers of deaths registered in each year; from 1993, they represent the number of deaths which occurred in each year. New procedures for coding cause of death adopted in 1993 mean that figures (by cause) for 1993 onwards may not be exactly comparable with earlier years.

#### Live births, deaths and natural change

Crude birth/death rates and natural increase take no account of the age and sex structure of the population. For example, for any given levels of fertility and mortality, a population with a relatively high proportion of persons in the younger age-groups will have a higher crude birth-rate and a lower crude death-rate, and consequently a higher rate of natural increase, than a population with a higher proportion of elderly people.

#### Total fertility rate

The total fertility rate (TFR) is the average number of children which would be born to a woman if she experiences the current agespecific fertility rates throughout her childbearing years. It is sometimes called the total period fertility rate (TPFR).

#### Standardised mortality ratios

The standardised mortality ratio (SMR) compares overall mortality in a region with that for the United Kingdom. The ratio expresses the number of deaths in an area as a percentage of the hypothetical number that would have occurred if the area's population had experienced the sex/age-specific rates of United Kingdom in that year.

#### National Health Service Central Register

The system which passes the records of patients who transfer from one general practitioner to another. It enables an estimate to be made of migration between former Family Health Service Authority (FHSA) areas within the United Kingdom.

#### Internal migration

Estimates of internal migration are counts of the transfers of NHS doctors' patients between former Family Health Service Authorities (FHSAs) in England and Wales and Area Health Boards (AHBs) in Scotland and Northern Ireland. These transfers are recorded at the NHS Central Registers (NHSCRs), Southport and Edinburgh, and at the Central Services Agency, Belfast. The figures have been adjusted to take account of differences in recorded cross-border flows between England and Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland.

The figures provide a detailed indicator of population movement within the United Kingdom. However, they should not be regarded as a perfect measure of migration as there is variation in the delay between a person moving and registering with a new doctor. Additionally, some moves may not result in a re-registration, ie individuals may migrate again before registering with a doctor. Conversely, there may be others who move and re-register several times in a year.

The NHSCR at Southport was computerised in 1990. Before 1991, the time lag was assumed to be three months between a person moving and the re-registration with an NHS doctor being processed onto the NHSCR. (It was estimated that processing at NHSCR took two months.) Since computerisation, estimates of internal migration derived from the NHSCR are based on the date of acceptance of the new patient by the former FHSA (not previously available), and a one-month time lag assumed.

# International migration and the International Passenger Survey

International migration data are mainly derived from the International Passenger Survey (IPS). It is a continuous voluntary sample survey, covering around 250 thousand travellers in the year to mid-1997, and has been running since 1961. The IPS provides information on passengers entering and leaving the United Kingdom by the principal air, sea and tunnel routes. Routes between the United Kingdom and the Irish Republic, and those between the Channel Islands, Isle of Man and the rest of the world are excluded. The IPS is also used to collect information on the travel account of the Balance of Payments, and for tourism policy. It shows how many people travelled, where they went and why, and gives a picture of how long they stayed and what they spent. It currently samples between 0.1 and 5 per cent of passengers depending on route and time of year.

It is believed that IPS migration figures exclude most 'visitor switchers': persons admitted as short-term visitors who are subsequently granted an extension of stay for a year or more, for example as students, on the basis of marriage or because they applied for asylum after entering the country. It is estimated that there were 58 thousand such persons in mid-1997, after taking account of persons leaving the United Kingdom for a short-term period who stay overseas for longer than originally intended.

For demographic purposes, a migrant into the United Kingdom is defined as a person who has resided abroad for a year or more and states the intention to stay in the United Kingdom for a year or more, and vice versa for a migrant from the United Kingdom. Migrants, defined in this way were asked an additional group of questions which form the basis of these statistics.

In view of the small number of migrants in the sample, it should be noted that the estimates of migration, in particular the differences between inflow and outflow, are subject to large sampling errors. As a rough guide, the standard error for an estimate of 1 thousand migrants is around 40 per cent, whilst that for an estimate of 40 thousand migrants reduces to about 10 per cent, but on occasions these standard errors can be higher. However, the structure of the sample is such that estimates based on the sampling of passengers on certain routes have much larger standard errors associated with them.

#### **CHAPTER 3: ENVIRONMENT**

#### Land use change statistics

Details of changes in land use are recorded for the Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions by Ordnance Survey (OS) as part of its map revision work in England. The data recorded by OS in any one year depend on OS resources and how these are deployed on different types of map revision survey. The main consequence of this is that physical development (eg new houses) tends to be recorded relatively sooner than changes between other uses (eg between agriculture and forestry), some of which may not be recorded for some years. The statistics are best suited to analyses of changes to urban uses and of the recycling of land already in urban uses.

Land is classified into 24 categories which are then grouped into 'urban uses' and 'rural uses'. Urban uses include: residential; transport and utilities; industry and commerce; community services; vacant land (classified according to whether it was previously developed or within a built-up area, but not previously developed). Rural

uses include; agriculture; forestry; open land and water; minerals and landfill; outdoor recreation; defence.

#### Listed buildings

These buildings are classified as:

Grade I: buildings of exceptional interest; Grade II\* particularly important buildings of more than special interest; Grade II buildings of special interest.

Listed buildings may include objects and structures not normally described as buildings such as bollards, railings, war memorials, boundary walls, pillar boxes and mile posts. Places of worship were originally graded by a different system. However, as English Heritage reviews the list, they are being re-graded using a secular system. Local authorities may also prepare nonstatutory lists of locally significant buildings and buildings of townscape merit. Table A3.2 in the Appendix shows the number of list entries in each London borough. Some list entries include several buildings where they are grouped together, for example in a terrace.

#### Conservation areas

Conservation areas are normally designated by local planning authorities. However, they may also be designated by the Secretary of State for the Environment, Transport and the Regions, English Heritage within London, and county planning authorities outside London. The objective is the protection and enhancement of the character and appearance of areas which are of special architectural or historic interest in a local or regional context. Additional approvals are required for building works undertaken with Conservation areas, which are not required elsewhere, but these are less stringent than the approvals required for work to listed buildings

#### Air quality standards

Air quality limit values and/or guidelines have been established under European Community Directives, for sulphur dioxide and suspended particulates, nitrogen dioxide, lead in air and ozone. More recently, the Ambient Air Quality Assessment and Management Directive has established a framework under which the Community will agree new air quality limit or guide values for specific pollutants in a series of 'daughter directives'. The World Health Organisation has also issued guidelines covering these pollutants as well as carbon monoxide. The Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions (DETR) has a set of public information air quality criteria in which air

pollution concentrations are banded into four categories: low, moderate, high and very high. The criteria presently cover sulphur dioxide, nitrogen dioxide, carbon monoxide, particulate matter  $10\mu m$  or less in aerodynamic diameter  $(PM_{10})$  and ozone, although the banding will be extended in future to cover other pollutants.

The Environment Act 1995 required the Government to prepare a National Air Quality Strategy, including 'standards relating to the quality of air' and 'objectives for the restriction of the levels at which particular substances are present in the air'. The United Kingdom National Air Quality Strategy, published in March 1997, contains stringent proposals for standards, and objectives to be achieved by 2005, for eight pollutants. These are benzene, 1, 3butadiene, carbon monoxide, lead, nitrogen dioxide, ozone, particulate matter 10µm or less in aerodynamic diameter (PM<sub>10</sub>), and sulphur dioxide. The Strategy, was revised by DETR and the revised Strategy published in January 2000.

The results of national automatic air quality monitoring network stations in the United Kingdom, including those in London, are published annually by the National **Environmental Technology Centre** (NETCEN) in Air pollution in the UK, and summarised in the DETR's Digest of Environmental Statistics published annually by The Stationery Office. They are also available in the National Air Quality Information Archive whose INTERNET address is 'http://www.aeat.co.uk/netcen/ airqual'. Details of current air quality levels are publicised on Teletext page 106 and Ceefax page 410-417. Results of the monitoring undertaken by the London boroughs are analysed by the South East Institute of Public Health and summarised annually in Air Quality in London, jointly published by the Institute and the Association of London Government

#### **CHAPTER 4: HOUSING**

#### Poor housing

Poor housing refers to dwellings that suffer from any of the following:

a) they are assessed as being statutorily unfit for human habitation as defined in section 604 of the 1989 *Local Government and Housing Act*; and/or

b) are in a state of 'substantial disrepair' where urgent work to a value of £40/sqm is required to bring them to a satisfactory condition; and/or

c) require 'essential modernisation' to kitchen facilities or electrical components, or where there is no fixed space heating.

# County Court mortgage possession actions Actions entered: a plaintiff begins an action for an order for possession of residential

for an order for possession of residential property by way of a summons in a County Court.

Orders made: the court, following a judicial hearing, may grant an order for possession immediately. This entitles the plaintiff 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.

#### **CHAPTER 5: THE ECONOMY**

#### Gross Domestic Product (GDP)

The estimates of Gross Domestice Product (GDP) contained in Tables/Charts 5.4, 5.5 – 5.10 and A5.2 – A5.5 are produced under the European System Accounts 1995 (ESA95) (see below). Figures published in previous editions and in Tables/Charts 5.1 and 5.2 of this edition are based on ESA 1979.

Regional GDP is measured as the sum of incomes earned from the production of goods and services in the region. This approach breaks down into two components under ESA95: compensation of employees (formerly known as income from employment) and the operating surplus/ mixed income. The figures for all regions are adjusted to sum to the national totals as published in *United Kingdom National Accounts (Blue Book)1998* (The Stationery Office), but local estimates in Table 5.1 are consistent with the 1997 edition.

The definitions used are in accordance with the Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) Revised 1992.

#### European System of Accounts 1995

The impact of European System of Accounts 1995 (ESA95) at the regional level is two-fold: (i) the incorporation of the conceptual changes at the national level, and (ii) the implementation of changes specific to

regional accounts. The national changes are summarised in an article in the August 1998 edition of ONS' *Economic Trends*. The effects of the regional breakdown of the national changes are reflected in the residence-based figures published in this volume. The national changes were described in a family of six publications in 1998. The 1998 Blue Book and Introducing the European System of Accounts 1995 in the United Kingdom publications are particularly relevant.

At the regional level, conceptual and methodological changes have been agreed as part of the implementation of ESA95 across EU Member States. Two of these changes have resulted in significant changes to regional GDP. The first change relates to the method of regionalisation of profits for those sectors where actual data are not available. In the past, the national estimate for profits within such industries was apportioned to regions according to the share of employment in the relevant industry. The apportionment is now carried out using wages and salaries for the industry, under the assumption that wages and salaries are more closely related to profits than employment. The effect of this change is that, due to higher wage levels in London and the South East, a slightly higher proportion of national profits are allocated to these regions and a lower proportion to other regions. ONS will be working to extend the range of industries for which actual data, from surveys such as the Annual Business Inquiry, are available over the coming years.

The second change relates to the compensation of employees of offshore oil workers. The GDP for the Continental Shelf only included the profits generated offshore. Wages and salaries of offshore workers were previously attributed to the region where they were resident, but have now been allocated to the 'Extra-Regio' territory. Extra-Regio GDP therefore comprises Compensation of Employees and Gross Operating Surplus which cannot be assigned to specific regions. The effect of this change is greatest on Scotland, reducing GDP by about £300 million in 1997, out of a UK total of about £500 million in each of the latest two years.

In addition, and also as part of ESA95 implementation, other changes have been made which have had a less significant effect on regional shares of GDP. For instance, the GDP of UK embassies abroad and UK forces stationed overseas is included Extra-Regio, while the GDP of foreign embassies in the United Kingdom is deducted from London's GDP.

A further major change under ESA95 is that the personal sector no longer exists. In line with this, personal income and personal disposable income published in Table A5.3 in Focus on London 1999 is replaced by household income and household disposable income (Table A5.4). The personal sector included persons living in households and institutions, and unincorporated private businesses (sole traders & partnerships) such as farms. It also included private non-profit making bodies serving persons (PNPMBs), private trusts and the funds of life assurance companies and pension schemes. Under ESA95, some of these sub-sectors of the personal sector have been redefined and classified under different sector headings. The new household sector still includes persons living in households and institutions, and sole traders. However, partnerships are now excluded; they form part of the new corporate sector. PNPMBs have been retitled non-profit institutions serving households (NPISH), and form a separate sector under ESA95. Separate data of sufficient quality are not yet available for NPISHs, and therefore, the household and NPISH sectors have been combined for the time being. Consequently, the figures given in the new Table A5.4 refer to total household and NPISH income and disposable income. Pension schemes have been reclassified to form part of the financial corporations sector viz. insurance corporations and pension funds. However, the savings by individuals put into life insurance and pension schemes is still included in household sector income and disposable income, via a transfer between the sectors in the income accounts. For further details on sectoral changes due to ESA95 users should consult the United Kingdom Sector Classification for the National Accounts (MA23) as well as the 1999 Blue Book.

Individual consumption expenditure now replaces the consumers expenditure tables: A5.5 and A5.6, published in *Focus on London 1999*. This measures expenditure by households and NPISHs in a region. In accordance with national accounts definitions it includes rent imputed for owner-occupied dwellings rather than mortgage payments and the administrative costs of life assurance and superannuation schemes.

Under ESA95, at the national level, GDP is measured only at market prices. Value added is measured at basic prices, which excludes taxes on products, such as VAT and excise duties, and subsidies. This aggregate is named Gross Value Added at

basic prices. The former measure of GDP at factor cost, which is not a central concept in ESA95, also excludes taxes and subsidies on production. However, the regional data published in this volume are still at factor cost as estimates of the regional breakdown of production and product taxes have not yet been compiled.

#### Revisions to the regional accounts

All items in the regional accounts are subject to revision when better information becomes available, either from the national accounts for the United Kingdom, from regional data sources, or from improvements to regional accounts methodology. Revisions to one year frequently suggest the need for revisions to other years, and all regional series have previously been maintained back to 1971. However, changes due to ESA95 have so far only been taken back to 1989.

#### **Annual Production Survey**

The Annual Production Survey covers UK businesses engaged in the production and construction industries: Divisions 1-5 of the Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) Revised 1980 and Section C to F of the SIC Revised 1992. Regional information is available only for manufacturing industry: ie Divisions 2-4 of the SIC 1980 and Section D of the SIC 1992.

For most businesses, the returned data are appropriate to a single activity heading of SIC(92) and fall within a single geographical region. Where information covers a mixture of activities, the business is classified according to the main activity. For regional analyses, information from the Inter Departmental Business Register on employment and region of the local units, is used to estimate the regional breakdown.

#### Gross Value Addedd

Gross Value Added (GVA) at basic prices is defined as:

The value of total sales and work done, adjusted by any changes during the year for work in progress and goods on hand for sale

Less: the value of purchases, adjusted by any changes in the stocks of material, stores and fuel etc.

Less: taxes on products, such as VAT and excise duties.

Less: the cost of non-industrial services.

Less: subsidies receivable on units of output as a result of production or sale.

GVA per head is derived by dividing the estimated GVA by the total number of people employed.

The data include estimates for businesses not responding, or not required to respond, to the survey.

Gross value added at basic prices includes taxes on production (like business rates), net of subsidies but excludes taxes less subsidies on production (for example, VAT and excise duty)

#### Net capital expenditure

Net capital expenditure is defined as:

The value of new building work added to (acquisitions less disposals of) land, vehicles and plant and machinery.

#### Inter-Departmental Business Register

The IDBR is a structured list of business units for the selection, mailing and grossing of statistical inquiries. Information is provided at both the enterprise and local unit level. The enterprise is usually the business registered for VAT and/or PAYE. The local units are the individual sites (or factories shops etc) operated by the enterprise. The IDBR covers nearly 99 per cent of UK output. All analyses are based on enterprises that are VAT and/or PAYE-registered.

#### Business registrations and deregistrations

Annual estimates of registrations and deregistrations are compiled by the Department of Trade and Industry. They are based on VAT information which the Office for National Statistics holds. The estimates are a good indicator of the pattern of business start-ups and closures, although they do exclude firms not registered for VAT, either because they have a turnover below the VAT threshold (£51,000 with effect from 1st April 1999) and have not registered voluntarily; or because they trade in VAT exempt goods or services. Large rises in the VAT threshold in 1991 and 1993 affected the extent to which the VAT system covers the small business population. This means that the estimates are not entirely comparable before and after these years.

#### CHAPTER 6: THE LABOUR MARKET

A glossary of terms can be found in Chapter 6.

#### The Labour Force Survey

The Labour Force Survey (LFS) is a sample survey of about 60,000 private households in the United Kingdom each quarter, with

questions also being asked about students living away from home in halls of residence; a sample of people living in NHS accommodation is also interviewed. The survey poses a series of questions about respondents' personal circumstances and their activity in the labour market. The survey results are grossed up to give the correct population total and reflect the distributions by gender, age and region shown by the population figures. All LFS estimates have been rounded to the nearest thousand, and those of less than 10,000 taken from one quarter's survey (and averages of four quarters of less than 6,000) are not given because they are likely to be subject to high sampling error and are therefore considered unreliable. Since April 1998 selected results for the latest 3 months will be published monthly.

The Office for National Statistics (ONS) is currently undertaking a project to improve the quality of Labour Force Survey (LFS) estimates. This involves regrossing previous estimates to the most up-to-date population estimates. The regrossed estimates, available from the 19th April 2000, have not been included in this publication. For more information on the LFS regrossing project please see the February 2000 Labour Market Trends article 'Improvements to LFS estimates: weighting and seasonal adjustment', pp83-90.

# Short-term Turnover and Employment Surveys

The employer-based estimates of employee jobs, formerly produced by Employment Department statisticians, are now produced by Prices and Business Group (PBG) of ONS. Before the merger, both departments were running similar surveys to businesses, collecting information on employees. The merger prompted the integration of these two surveys - now known as the Short-term Turnover and Employment Surveys (STTES).

Although the old-style employment surveys were addressed to individual workplaces, PBG business surveys are enterprise-based. This distinction is crucial; enterprises are a collection of workplaces under common ownership. Enterprise totals can be broken down to give estimates for individual workplaces and this decomposition method is used in building the current published employee jobs series. The 'short-term' surveys are used to monitor monthly and quarterly movements (monthly for the production sector and quarterly for the rest of the economy).

#### Annual Employment Survey

The Annual Employment Survey (AES) is a sample survey which ran for the first time in 1995 and replaced the Census of Employment which ran until 1993. The AES is the only source of employment statistics for GB analysed by the local area and by detailed industrial classification.

The sample was drawn from the Inter-Departmental Business Register (IDBR) and the AES 96 sample comprised 125,000 enterprises. An enterprise is roughly defined as a combination of local units (ie individual workplaces with PAYE schemes or registered for VAT) under common ownership. These enterprises covered 0.5 million local units and 15 million employees (out of a total population of roughly 22 million employees in employment).

The AES results are used to benchmark the monthly/quarterly employment surveys (STTES) which measure 'movements' (by region and industrial group) between the annual survey dates.

#### **New Deal**

The New Deal has 4 programs:

#### Welfare-to-Work

The Government's Welfare-to-Work programme is a series of measures designed to tackle youth and long-term unemployment, promote employability and develop skills, and move people from welfare into jobs. A key aspect is the concept of a 'gateway', which gives all people of working age a single point of access to welfare, and ultimately to work.

#### Young people

The New Deal for the young unemployed is available to young people aged 18–24 who have been unemployed for more than six months, through four options:

- a job attracting a wage subsidy of £60 a week, payable to employers for up to six months:
- 2. a work placement with a voluntary organisation;
- 3. a six-month work placement with an Environment Task Force; and
- 4. for those without basic qualifications, a place on a full-time education and training course, which might last for up to one year.

All the options include an element of training. For each young person the programme begins with a 'gateway' period of

careers advice and intensive help with looking for work, and with training in the skills needed for the world of work.

#### Long-term unemployed

Under the New Deal for the long-term unemployed, which started in 1998, employers receive a subsidy of £75 a week for six months if they employ anyone who has been unemployed for two years or longer. Since November 1998 a series of pilot schemes has been offering 90,000 opportunities for the long-term unemployed aged 25 and over, with similar arrangements to the New Deal for the young unemployed, including a 'gateway' period of intensive help with looking for, and preparing for, work.

#### Lone parents

Since October 1998 the New Deal for Lone Parents has provided job search help, advice and training for lone parents on income support.

#### **New Earnings Survey**

These tables contain some of the regional results of the New Earnings Survey 1999, fuller details of which are given for the Government Office Regions in part E of the New Earnings Survey 1999 (The Stationery Office), published by ONS direct in December 1999. The survey measured gross earnings of a 1 per cent sample of employees, most of whom were members of Pay-As-You-Earn (PAYE) schemes for a pay-period which included 14 April 1999. The earnings information collected was converted to a weekly basis where necessary, and to an hourly basis where normal basic hours were reported.

Data relating to 1999 are given where the number of employees reporting in the survey was ten or more and the standard error of average weekly earnings was 5 per cent or less. Gross earnings are measured before tax, National Insurance or other deductions. They include overtime pay, bonuses and other additions to basic pay but exclude any payments for earlier periods (e.g. back pay), most income in kind, tips and gratuities. All the results in this volume relate to full-time male and female employees on adult rates whose pay for the survey pay-period was not affected by absence. Employees were classified to the region in which they worked (or were based if mobile), Part A of the report for Great Britain gives full details of definitions used in the survey.

Full-time employees are defined as those normally expected to work more than 30 hours per week, excluding overtime and

main meal breaks (but 25 hours or more in the case of teachers and academics) or, if their normal hours were not specified, as those regarded as full-time by the employer.

#### Unemployment

There are advantages and disadvantages with both the ILO unemployment series and the claimant count. The claimant count has the advantage of being available quickly and down to small geographic areas. The disadvantages are that, as it measures only those who are receiving unemploymentrelated benefits, movements over time can be affected by changes in the rules governing entitlement to benefit, and its level at any one time is not internationally comparable. These deficiencies are largely overcome by the ILO measure but it too has disadvantages: for example survey results are subject to sampling error and ILO unemployment can be increased by government measures to encourage people to actively seek employment or be decreased by measures to put more people on government training programmes.

#### **CHAPTER 7: EDUCATION**

#### Inner and Outer London

Where specified, Inner London refers to the area formerly covered by the Inner London Education Authority (ILEA). Outer London refers to the 20 boroughs outside this area. The boroughs included within these definitions are:

#### Inner London (ILEA)

Corporation of London, Camden, Greenwich, Hackney, Hammersmith and Fulham, Islington, Kensington and Chelsea, Lambeth, Lewisham, Southwark, Tower Hamlets, Wandsworth and City of Westminster.

#### Outer London (non-ILEA)

Barking and Dagenham, Barnet, Bexley, Brent, Bromley, Croydon, Ealing, Enfield, Haringey, Harrow, Havering, Hillingdon, Hounslow, Kingston upon Thames, Merton, Newham, Redbridge, Richmond upon Thames, Sutton and Waltham Forest.

#### School classifications

Schools are generally classified according to the ages for which they cater, or the type of education they provide. Nursery education is for children below compulsory school age. Pupils in England generally undertake six of their 11 years of compulsory education in primary schools and five in secondary. Primary education generally consists of infants' schools (for children up to age 7) and junior schools for children aged 7-11.

Some local education authorities in England operate a system of middle schools which caters for pupils on either side of the transition age between primary and secondary and these are deemed either primary or secondary according to the age of the pupils. Special schools provide education for children with special educational needs who cannot be educated satisfactorily in an ordinary school.

From September 1999, United Kingdom state maintained educational establishments in England fall into one of four categories: Community- schools formerly known as 'county' plus some former GM schools. The LEA is the legal employer of the school's staff, the land owner and the admissions authority

Foundation - most former GM schools. The governing body is the legal employer and admissions authority, as well as landowner unless that is a charitable foundation.

Voluntary Aided - schools formerly known as 'aided' and some former GM schools. The governing body is the legal employer and admissions authority, but the landowner is usually a charitable foundation. The governing body contribute towards the capital costs of running the school.

Voluntary Controlled - schools formerly known as 'controlled'. The LEA is the legal employer and admissions authority, but the landowner is usually a charitable foundation.

#### Pupil-teacher ratios by type of school

The pupil-teacher ratio within schools is the ratio of all pupils on the schools registers (counting each part-time pupil as 0.5) to all teachers (including the full-time equivalent of part-time teachers) employed in the school on the day of an annual count.

Care is needed when comparing different LEA areas because of factors such as the numbers of schools and the varying systems of school organisation eg some LEAs operate a middle school (three-tier) system.

#### Further (including adult) education

Further education (FE) includes home students on courses of further education in further education institutions. The FE sector includes all provision outside schools that is below higher education (HE) level. This ranges from courses in independent living skills for students with severe learning difficulties up to GCE A level, advanced GNVQ and level 3 NVQ courses. The FE sector also includes many students pursuing

recreational courses not leading to a formal qualification. Students are counted once only, irrespective of the number of courses for which a student has enrolled. Most FE students are in FE colleges and sixth form colleges that were formerly maintained by Local Education Authorities (LEAs), but in April 1993 became independent self-governing institutions receiving funding through the Further Education Funding Council (FEFC). There are also a small number of FE students in higher education (HE) institutions, and conversely some HE students in FE institutions.

Students may be of any age from 16 upwards, and full or part-time. Full-time students aged under 19 are exempt from tuition fees and fully funded by the FEFC. For other students tuition fees are payable, but may be remitted (for example) for students in receipt of certain social security benefits. In some cases discretionary grants may be available from LEAs.

LEAs continue to make some FE provision (often referred to as 'adult education') exclusively part-time, and predominantly recreational. The majority of LEAs make part or all this provision directly themselves, but some pay other organisations (usually FE colleges) to do so on their behalf. The latter 'contracted out' provision is not included in the figures for 1990/91 in Table 7.12; however, 'contracted out' provision is included in the figures for 1995-96 and 1997/98. Please note that Table 7.12 contains enrolment data. Consequently, it is possible for a student to be counted more than once if they have enrolled on several courses.

The aims of Youth Training were to provide broad-based training for 16 to 17 year olds and to provide better qualified young entrants into the labour market. Training and Enterprise Councils in England were responsible for the planning and delivery. Leavers were followed up six months after they left. In April 1998, Youth Training was replaced by Work-based Training for Young People. The new Connexions strategy includes improvements to the work-based routes to qualification.

Two key courses in the Connexions programme are:

 Foundation Modern Apprenticeships, offering broad and flexible learning programmes, including the key skills of communication, numeracy and IT, and operate to agreed national standards — National Vocational Qualification (NVQ) at Level 2 (see chapter 7) is the primary qualification to be achieved—set by industry and employers in 40 industry sectors.

· Advanced Modern Apprenticeships, designed to increase significantly the number of young people trained to technician, supervisory and equivalent levels. The primary achievement of an Advanced Modern Apprenticeship is the NVQ at Level 3. Evaluation studies have found that Modern Apprenticeships are of high quality, are very popular and have met the expectations of both employers and young people.

From April 2001, all arrangements for post 16 education (excluding universities) will fall under the auspices of the Learning Skills Council, which will combine responsibilities of the FEFC and the TECS.

#### Higher education

Higher education courses are those of a level higher than A level, Advanced GNVQ or ONC/OND. They include NVQ levels 4 and 5, those leading to a first degree or equivalent qualification, all approved initial teacher training qualifications (including the Postgraduate Certificate in Education), a University Certificate or Diploma, the Diploma of Higher Education and Higher National Diploma.

Higher education in publicly funded HE institutions in England is funded by block grants from the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE). Some HE activity takes place in FE sector institutions, some of which is funded by the HEFCE and some by the FEFCE. From the academic year 1999/2000 the direct funding of HNDs and HNCs have transferred from the FEFCE to the HEFCE as recommended in the Dearing review.

New student support arrangements in higher education were announced by the Government on 23 July 1997. The financial support arrangements for mandatory awards holders in 1997/98 who continued to attend their courses in 1998/99 and beyond, and those new students who were exceptionally treated as existing award holders, remained largely unchanged.

New entrants to full-time HE courses in 1998/99 are, with certain specified exceptions, expected to contribute up to £1,000 a year towards the cost of their tuition. For 1998/99 only, eligible new entrants will receive support for living costs through both grants and loans. From 1999/

2000 new entrants, together with those classed as new entrants in 1998/99, will be expected to contribute up to £1,025 a year towards the cost of their tuition; they will receive support for living costs solely through loans which will be partly incomeassessed and repayable on an income contingent basis.

#### **Examination achievements**

In England the main examination for school pupils at the minimum school-leaving age is the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) which can be taken in a wide range of subjects. This replaced the GCE O Level and CSE examinations in the summer examinations of 1988. The GCSE is awarded in eight grades, A\* to G, the highest four (A\* to C) being regarded as equivalent to O Level grades A to C or CSE grade 1. Some students also take the GNVQ part one, foundation or immediate and the figures for 1996/97 for GCSEs also include the GNVQ equivalent.

GCE A levels are usually taken after a further two years of study in a sixth form or equivalent, passes being graded from A (the highest) to E (the lowest).

GCSE and equivalent figures relate to achievements by 16 year olds at the end of the academic year and are shown as percentages of 16 year olds in school. GCE A level and equivalent figures for pupils aged between 17 and 19 at the end of the school year are based on the 18 year old population. The age spread in the examination result figures takes account of those pupils sitting examinations a year early or resitting them.

Pupils may sit non-GCSE/GCE examinations such as BTEC, City and Guilds, RSA, Pitman and advanced GNVQs. Inevitably, a proportion of pupils who are recorded as achieving no GCSE or A or AS level qualification will have passes in one or more of these other examinations.

#### Educational qualification levels

Higher education includes higher and first degrees, NVQ levels 4 and 5, other degree level qualifications such as graduate membership of a professional institute, higher education below degree level, higher level BTEC, HNC/HND, RSA higher diploma, nursing and teaching qualifications.

GCE A level or equivalent includes NVQ level 3, BTEC National Certificate, RSA Advanced diploma, City and Guilds advanced craft, A/AS levels.

GCSE grades A\* to C or equivalent includes NVQ level 2, BTEC First or general diploma, RSA diploma, City and Guilds craft, GCSE grades A\* to C or equivalent, O level and CSE Grade 1.

Qualifications at NVQ level 1 or below includes NVQ level 1, BTEC First or general certificate, other RSA qualifications, other City and Guilds qualifications, GCSE grade D to G, CSE below grade 1 and Youth Training certificate.

Other qualifications includes other professional, vocational or foreign qualifications.

#### **CHAPTER 8: LIVING IN LONDON**

#### Family Expenditure Survey

The Family Expenditure Survey (FES) is a continuous, random sample survey of about 6,400 private households a year in the United Kingdom. It collects information about incomes as well as detailed information on expenditure. All members of the household aged 16 or over keep individual diaries of all spending for a period of two weeks, as do most young people aged 7 to 15.

See the FES annual report, *Family Spending*, for a description of the concepts used and details of the definitions of expenditure and income.

#### Family Resources Survey

The Family Resources Survey (FRS) is a continuous survey of over 25,000 private households in Great Britain and is sponsored by the Department of Social Security. The estimates are based on sample counts which have been adjusted for non-response using multi-purpose grossing factors which control for region, Council Tax Band and a number of demographic variables. Estimates are subject to sampling error and to variability in non response. In common with other surveys, there is evidence to suggest some problems of misreporting certain types of benefit, such as the under-reporting of Disability Living Allowance, where respondents have stated that all money received comes from a single benefit eg Income Support. See the FRS annual report for more information.

#### **National Food Survey**

The National Food Survey (NFS) is a continuous sample survey in which about 6,000 GB households per year keep a record of the type, quantity and amount spent on foods entering the home during a one week period. Nutrient intakes are

estimated from the information collected. Recent developments include, from 1996, the participation in the survey of Northern Ireland (though figures quoted in this report and elsewhere still generally cover GB for the sake of continuity). From 1994, data are also available on food eaten out in Great Britain (but not Northern Ireland), though these are not included in this report to maintain continuity.

#### **Index of Local Deprivation**

The Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions (DETR) used 12 indicators in compiling the Index of Local Deprivation which measures the relative levels of deprivation across the 354 local authority districts of England (including London boroughs) as they stood on 1 April 1998. The indicators used in the 1998 index cover unemployment, low income, health, education, environment, crime and housing.

#### **General Household Survey**

The General Household Survey (GHS) is a continuous survey which has been running since 1971 and is based each year on a sample of the general population resident in private (that is, non-institutional) households in Great Britain. It is a multi-purpose survey, providing information on aspects of housing, employment, education, health and social services, health related behaviour, transport, population and social security. Since the 1988 GHS the fieldwork has been based on a financial rather than calendar year and due to this data was not collected for the first quarter of 1988.

#### **British Crime Survey**

The British Crime Survey (BCS is conducted by the Home Office. The 1998 BCS asked about 15,000 people aged 16 or over in England and Wales about their experiences of crime in the year preceding that of the survey. .The response rate for the 1998 survey was 79 per cent.

The 1994, 1996 and 1998 surveys all included the same self-report drugs component. In each of these years it was completed by around 10,000 people aged 16 to 59. For this period the BCS provides the best available guide to changing patterns of drug use on the part of the adult population. The BCS monitors drug use through questions frames in terms of three different recall periods: ever/lifetime, the last year, and the last month. These represent the international 'gold standard' for self-report drugs surveys

BCS respondents are asked about offences against their household (such as theft or damage of household property) and against them personally (such as assault or robbery). The BCS, therefore, provides a count of crime that includes offences not reported to the police. The survey does not provide a complete count of crime as many offence types cannot be covered in a household survey (eg shoplifting, fraud or drug offences). Crime surveys are prone to various forms of error, mainly to do with the difficulty of ensuring that samples are representative, the frailty of respondents' memories, their reticence to talk about their experiences as victims, and their failure to realise an incident is relevant to the survey.

#### Crime: offences

Notifiable offences recorded by the police broadly cover the more serious offences. Up to March 1998 most indictable and triableeither-way offences were included, as well as some summary ones; from April 1998, all indictable and triable-either-way offences were included, plus a few closely related summary ones. Recorded offences are the most readily available measures of the incidence of crime, but do not necessarily indicate the true level of crime. Many less serious offences are not reported to the police and cannot, therefore, be recorded while some offences are not recorded due to lack of evidence. Moreover, the propensity of the public to report offences to the police is influenced by a number of factors and may change over time.

Indictable offences cover those offences which must or may be tried by jury in the Crown Court and include the more serious offences. Summary offences are those for which a defendant would normally be tried at a magistrates' court and are generally less serious – the majority of motoring offences fall into this category.

#### Crime: clear up rates

Offences recorded by the police as having been cleared up include offences for which persons have been charged, summonsed or cautioned, those admitted and taken into consideration when persons are tried for other offences, and those admitted by prisoners who have been sentenced for other offences. In addition, an offence may be cleared up where no further action is taken, although there is sufficient evidence to charge a person. This would include offences admitted by persons who are serving a custodial sentence for another

offence, where the offender is below the age of criminal responsibility, or where the victim is unable to give evidence.

The clear-up rate is the ratio of offences cleared up in the year to offences recorded in the year. Some offences cleared up may relate to offences recorded in previous years. There is a considerable 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 clear-up rate.

There are marked differences in clear-up rates for different types of offence. Some offences have high clear-up rates because there is a high likelihood of the victim being able to identify the offender eg most sexual offences, or because the knowledge of the offence directly identifies the offender, such as handling stolen goods and drug trafficking.

# CHAPTER 10: TRAVEL AND COMMUNICATION

#### **National Travel Survey**

The National Travel Survey (NTS) is the only comprehensive national source of travel information for Great Britain which links different kinds of travel with the characteristics of travellers and their families. The 1985/86 survey ran from July 1985 to June 1986 and collected data successfully from 10,266 households. Since July 1988, the NTS has been conducted on a small scale continuous basis with an annual sample about one third the size of the 1985/86 survey. Data from the continuous survey is normally aggregated into three year blocks before being disseminated.

From about 3,400 households in Great Britain each year, every member provides personal information (eg age, gender, working status, driving licence, season ticket) and details of journeys carried out in a sample week, including purpose of journey, method of travel, time of day, length, duration, and cost of any tickets bought.

Travel included in the NTS covers all journeys by GB residents within Great Britain for personal reasons, including travel in the course of work, which involves a person moving from one place to another in

order to reach a destination. Travel information is recorded at two levels for multi-stage journeys: journey and stage.

A journey is defined as a one-way course of travel having a single main purpose. It is the basic unit of personal travel in the survey. A round trip is split into two journeys, with the first ending at a convenient point about half way round as a notional stopping point for the outward destination and return origin.

A stage is that portion of a journey defined by the use of a specific method of transport or of a specific ticket (a new stage being defined if either the mode or ticket changes).

Travel for leisure purposes is normally included. However, journeys which are themselves a form of recreation are not. Travel by foot away from the public highway is excluded unless both the surface is paved or tarred and there is unrestricted access. Thus walks across open countryside on unsurfaced paths are excluded; and so are walks in pedestrian precincts or parks that are closed at night.

#### Car ownership

The figures for household ownership of a car include four-wheeled and three-wheeled cars, off-road vehicles, minibuses and motor caravans.

Cars and vans are defined as road motor vehicles other than motorcycles, intended for the carriage of passengers and designed to seat no more than nine people (including the driver). The term 'passenger car' therefore covers microcars (which need no permit to be driven), taxis and hired passenger cars, provided that they have fewer than ten seats. This category may also include pickups.

The data in Table 10.5 are compiled by the Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions from the combined results of the Family Expenditure Survey, the General Household Survey and the National Travel Survey (NTS). Data for Inner and Outer London and for the Metropolitan county areas are available from the NTS only.

#### Road accidents/casualties

An accident is one involving personal injury occurring on the public highway (including footways) in which a road vehicle is involved and which becomes known to the police

within 30 days. The vehicle need not be moving and it need not be in collision with anything.

Persons killed are those who sustained injuries which caused death less than 30 days after the accident.

A serious injury is one for which a person is detained in hospital as an in-patient, or sustains any of the following injuries whether or not they are detained in hospital: fractures, concussion, internal injuries, crushing, severe cuts and lacerations, severe general shock requiring medical treatment, injuries causing death 30 or more days after the accident.

#### **CHAPTER 11: PUBLIC SERVICES**

#### Hospital activity

A finished consultant episode is a completed period of care of a patient using an NHS hospital bed, under one consultant within one health care provider (an NHS Trust or a Directly Managed Unit). If a patient is transferred from one consultant to another, even if this is within the same provider, the episode ends and another one begins. The transfer of a patient from one hospital to another with the same consultant and within the same provider does not end the episode. Healthy live-born babies are included as are deaths.

A day case is a person who comes for investigation, treatment or operation under clinical supervision on a planned non-resident basis and who occupies a bed for part or all of that day.

An out-patient is defined as a person attending an out-patients' department for treatment or advice. A new out-patient is one whose first attendance of a continuous series (or single attendance where relevant) at a clinical out-patient department for the same course of treatment falls within the period under review. Each out-patient attendance of a course or series is included in the year in which the attendance occurred. Persons attending more than one department are counted in each department.

#### Hospital waiting lists

The March 1998 and 1999 waiting list figures contained in *Focus On London* are resident-based. That is, they are based on figures received from English Health Authorities. In 1996 the figures used were

NHS Trust-based, ie based on data received from English Trusts. Resident-based returns exclude all patients living outside England and all privately funded patients waiting for treatment in NHS hospitals. However, they do include NHS-funded patients living in England, who are waiting for treatment in Scotland, Wales or Northern Ireland, abroad, and at private hospitals, which are not included in the corresponding NHS Trust-based returns.

Mean waiting time: this is calculated approximately for any category as the total waiting times for patients still on the list for that category divided by the corresponding number of people waiting in that category.

Median waiting time: the waiting time for the middle case of those still on the list when all cases in a category are ranked by waiting time. The waiting time of 50 per cent of those patients will be less than or equal to the median length. This is a better indicator of the 'average' case since it is generally unaffected by abnormally long or short waiting times at the ends of the distribution.

#### **General Medical Practitioners**

The figures for General Medical Practitioners relate to unrestricted principals and equivalents (UPEs) ie unrestricted principals, Personal Medical Services (PMS) contracted GPs and PMS salaried GPs. A UPE is a practitioner who provides the full range of general medical services but whose list is not limited to any particular group of persons. In a few cases, he/she may be relieved of the liability for emergency calls out-of-hours from patients other than his/her own. Other types of Practitioners practising general and personal medical services are restricted principals, GP Retainers, Assistants and PMS other GPs.

The figures provided for practice staff involved in direct patient care relate to dispensers, physiotherapists, chiropodists, councellors and complementary therapists.

The figures for General Dental Practitioners include principals, assistants and vocational trainees in the General Dental Service. Some dentists have contracts in more than one Health Authority. These dentists have been counted only once, in the Health Authority in which they hold their main contract. Salaried dentists are excluded. Neither the Hospital Dental Service nor the Community Dental Service are reflected.

The figures for Ophthalmic Practitioners relate to Optometrists and Ophthalmic Medical Practitioners who had a contract with a London Health (HA) at 31 December 1998 to carry out an NHS sight test. Practitioners are counted only once even if they held a contract with more than one such HA.

#### Primary and secondary fires

Primary fires: these are reportable fires (as listed below) or any fires involving casualties, rescues, or fires attended by five or more appliances. An appliance is counted if either the appliance, equipment from it or personnel riding on it, were used to fight the fire.

- a Buildings
- b Caravans, trailers etc.
- c Vehicles and other methods of transport (not derelict)
- d Outdoor storage, plant and machinery
- e Agricultural and forestry premises and property
- f Other outdoor structures including post boxes, tunnels, bridges etc.

Secondary fires: these are reportable fires that:

- were not chimney fires in buildings;
- were not in primary fire locations;
- did not involve casualties or rescues;
- were attended by four or fewer appliances.

#### Magistrates' court waiting times

The total time between the offence and case completion for each defendant in sampled cases divided by the total number of defendants. Where the time between the offence and charge or summons is over ten years, or the time between either charge or summons and first court listing, or first listing and completion is over one year, then the defendants are excluded from the calculation.

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#### **Public services**

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White paper: A Mayor and Assembly for London: The Government's proposals for modernising the governance of London March 1998 (Cm3897); The Stationery Office

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#### FOL 2000 CD-ROM Help

#### Overview

The Focus on London 2000 (or FO L2000 for short) CD-ROM is a large Adobe PDF file created from the pages of the book. The spreadsheets behind the tables, charts and m aps are available for you to use in MS ExcelorLotus 1-2-3, and there are two special interactive m aps of London with embedded data to interrogate.

#### Navigation

Each PDF file has a "bookm arks" paneldown the side which allows you to jump from one section to another. The main chapters and the appendix have bwerlevels of bookm arks enabling you to jump to sub-headings within a file. You can show and hide the bookm arks panel using the two leftmost buttons on the Acrobat Reader too bar (shown below). Thum bnails are also available (3 rd left button).



Where appendix tables are referenced in the text, clicking on the table name (surrounded by a red box) will jim p to the table, and the double arrow (see above) will take you back to the text.

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#### Spreadsheets

Near the top of each table is an Exceliron which will kunch Excelwith the relevant spreadsheet baded. If you are a Lotus 1-2-3 user, this program will be kunched instead provided it is associated in W indows with the file extension XLS. The sheets are saved in the older Excels form at so you don't need the kitestversion of Excelor 1-2-3 (in both cases v5 or kiter is required).

#### Interactive Maps [NOTWEB VERSION]

The interactive maps can be launched from the bookmarks panel. The first is a simple map of London boroughs, and the other a complex multi-layered map including transport links. In order to access the underlying data you will need to have installed the Jam Buddy Map Tool (32-bitonly).

Help forusing each map can be obtained by double-clicking the red and blue notes attached to each map, and forusing Jam Buddy in general (the Q and Ibuttons) the file JAM BUDDY PDF.

Note that there is no bookmarks panel for these files so you need to use the double back arrow in order to navigate back to the book.

#### Screen Resolution

Adobe Acrobat works fine in any screen resolution, but in general the bigger the better. For this product 800x600 is acceptable, but 1024x768 is best if yourm on itorand graphics card can manage it. On the View menu in Acrobat Reader, you can change the view type to one which best suits your screen.

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In AcrobatReader, its worth a bok at the File Menu, Preferences, General

For example, if the text boks a bit blury on screen, try switching "Smooth Text and Monochrome images" off.

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# focus on CON



 A joint publication from the Government Statistical Service, the Government Office for London and the London Research Centre

#### **Government Office for London**

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