Improving Opportunity, Strengthening Society

A third progress report on the Government’s strategy for race equality and community cohesion

Volume 2 Race Equality in Public Services – Statistical Report
### Volume 2: Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledgements</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary of key findings</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 1: Introduction</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 2: Education</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 3: The labour market</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 4: Housing</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 5: Health and personal social services</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 6: The Criminal Justice System</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 7: Perceptions of community cohesion</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 8: Culture and sport</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter 9: Conclusions</td>
<td>175</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Acknowledgements

This publication has relied on the contributions and expertise of many people across a range of government departments.

We are grateful to Andrew Ledger at the Department for Children, Schools and Families, and Stijn Broecke, Kathy Murphy, Alicia Childs and Matthew Bursnall at the Department for Innovation, Universities and Skills for providing data and guidance on schools, further education and higher education.

At the Department for Work and Pensions, we would like to thank Rickson Gunzo, Peter Matejic, Liz Such and Christine Wright for providing data and guidance on race and the labour market.

We are grateful to Sacha Keshavarz, Barry Mussenden and Ray Warburton at the Department of Health, and Veena Raleigh at the Healthcare Commission, who provided information and advice on health and personal social services.

Thanks are due to Alex Jones and Lawrence Singer at the Office for Criminal Justice Reform, Joanna Perry and Seamus Taylor at the Crown Prosecution Service, and Krista Jansson at the Home Office, for data and guidance on race and the Criminal Justice System.

At the Department for Culture, Music and Sport, we would like to thank Rebebecca Aust and Michelle Jobson, for providing data and guidance on culture and sport.

We would also like to thank the following colleagues from Communities and Local Government for providing data and advice: Keith Kirby, David Wall, Karen Irving, Emma Crowhurst, Terry McIntyre, Philip Davies, Reannan Rottier, Farzana Bari and Marianne Law.

For their helpful comments on drafts of the report, thanks are also due to the following colleagues in Communities and Local Government: Jennifer Ashby, Tony Lord, David Anderson, Ian Naysmith, Matt West, Tim Morgan, Jenny Harland, Amanda White and Stella Yarrow.

Final thanks are due to the authors of the report, Katherine Cane and Helen Connolly from Cohesion Research at Communities and Local Government, and independent researcher Ian Hearnden.
Summary of key findings

This edition of the Race Equality in Public Services (REPS) report provides a statistical annex to the third annual report on the Government’s strategy to improve race equality and community cohesion.

This summary brings together the main race equality findings for seven policy areas:

- **Education** (Chapter 2)
- **The labour market** (Chapter 3)
- **Housing** (Chapter 4)
- **Health and personal social services** (Chapter 5)
- **The Criminal Justice System** (Chapter 6)
- **Perceptions of community cohesion** (Chapter 7)
- **Culture and sport** (Chapter 8).

The final chapter at the end of the report summarises findings for each of the individual ethnic groups. **Conclusions** (Chapter 9) brings together the main findings across each of the policy areas for each group in turn, highlighting the areas where groups are doing particularly well or particularly badly compared with other ethnic groups.
Chapter 2: Education

In relation to minority ethnic groups and education, trends are generally positive:

- Across most minority ethnic groups there was an increase between 2003 and 2007 in the proportion of pupils who gained five or more A*-C grade GCSEs or equivalent (in any subject)

- In 2007, 70 per cent of Chinese pupils gained five or more A*-C grade GCSEs (including English and mathematics). Indian pupils had the next highest achievement levels, with 62 per cent gaining five or more A*-C grades (including English and mathematics)

- Between 2005 and 2007 most groups showed an improvement in the proportions of pupils achieving the equivalent of five or more A*-C GCSEs (including English and mathematics). Exceptions were Travellers of Irish Heritage and Gypsy/Roma pupils, and pupils from any other White background and any Other Asian background. Bangladeshi pupils saw the greatest improvement between 2005 and 2007

- Teachers from minority ethnic groups made up 5.5 per cent of the teacher population in 2007, a rise from 4.7 per cent in 2004. There has been an increase in the proportion of teachers from minority ethnic backgrounds in all Government Office regions

- Success rates in Further Education institutions (colleges and external institutions) have risen each year for the past three years (2004-05 to 2006-07)

- Between 2001-02 and 2006-07, the proportion of students from a minority ethnic background in Higher Education institutions rose, from 13.7 per cent to 16.6 per cent. However, these students are highly concentrated in new universities (particularly in the London area)

- Between 1995 and 2005, growth in all categories of permanent academic staff at higher education institutions was at a faster rate for minority ethnic staff than for White staff, though from a low starting point.

But inequalities persist:

- Gypsy/Roma and Traveller of Irish Heritage pupils had the lowest levels of achievement at GCSE level in 2007, and their achievement levels have declined between 2003 and 2007. However, there were very low numbers in these groups

- In 2007 the achievements of Black Caribbean, any other Black background and Mixed White/Black Caribbean pupils were also relatively low, with only a third of pupils from these groups gaining the equivalent of five or more A*-C grade GCSEs (including English and mathematics)

- Girls out perform boys in GCSE attainment across all ethnic groups

- In 2004, Black Caribbean pupils were three times more likely to be excluded from school than White pupils and, even when other factors such as eligibility for free school meals were taken into account, were still 2.6 times more likely to be excluded than White pupils
In further education, learners from minority ethnic groups continue to have lower success rates than learners from White backgrounds, with the exception of those from Chinese and Indian backgrounds.

Although their participation rates in higher education are increasing, minority ethnic students still have poorer outcomes in terms of class of degree attained.

Chapter 3: The labour market

Key positive findings in relation to minority ethnic groups and the labour market are:

- Minority ethnic employment rates have continued to increase. The gap between the employment rate of the minority ethnic population and the total population narrowed from around 19 percentage points in 1996 to around 14 percentage points in 2006-07.
- In 2006-07, Indian men (78 per cent) had employment rates very close to those of White men (80 per cent).
- In 2006-07, women from Black Caribbean, Mixed and Indian groups continued to have relatively high rates of employment (65, 63 and 61 per cent respectively) and low rates of economic inactivity (28, 30 and 33 per cent respectively).
- The proportion of people living in low income households decreased for all ethnic groups between 1994-97 and 2004-07.
- The proportion of Pakistani/Bangladeshi people living in low income households (before housing costs) decreased from 73 per cent in 1994-97 to 55 per cent in 2004-07.
- The proportion of children living in low income households (after housing costs) fell for all ethnic groups between 1994-97 and 2004-07. The steepest fall was for Pakistani/Bangladeshi children (down 18 percentage points).

Some areas for improvement remain

Among men:

- In 2006-07, employment rates were relatively low among men from a Chinese (59 per cent), Bangladeshi (61 per cent) and Mixed ethnic group (63 per cent).
- Men from minority ethnic groups were more than twice as likely as their White counterparts to be unemployed in 2006-07 (11 per cent compared with 5 per cent).
- In 2006-07, the highest unemployment rates among men were for those from the Black Caribbean (18 per cent) and Bangladeshi groups (16 per cent).
- Economic inactivity rates were highest among men from the Chinese (34 per cent), Bangladeshi (28 per cent), Pakistani and Mixed groups (both 27 per cent).
And among women:

- Bangladeshi and Pakistani women had the lowest employment rates (27 per cent and 28 per cent) and highest economic inactivity rates (65 per cent and 66 per cent)
- The employment gap between Pakistani and Bangladeshi women and White women changed very little between 1970 and 2005
- In 2006-07, unemployment rates were highest among Pakistani women (19 per cent). This compared to an unemployment rate of 5 per cent among White women.

These labour market inequalities have broader implications:

- Based on three-year moving averages to 2006-07, before housing costs, 50 per cent of the Pakistani/Bangladeshi population, 26 per cent of the Black population, and 23 per cent of the Indian population lived in low income households, compared with 16 per cent of the White population
- In 2007-08, for people from minority ethnic groups who had been turned down for a job in the last five years, the most frequently specified reason was race (by 21 per cent)
- In 2007-08, of people who had been turned down for a job in the last five years, Black people were more likely than people in other ethnic groups to feel that this was for reasons of race (28 per cent).

Chapter 4: Housing

Trends are generally positive among minority ethnic groups:

- Rates of overcrowding and dissatisfaction with housing have declined among the minority ethnic population since 1996-97
- Between 1996 and 2006, the proportion of minority ethnic households living in non-decent homes fell from 51 per cent to 29 per cent. This level of improvement has reduced the gap between minority ethnic and White households living in sub-standard accommodation
- The number of minority ethnic households accepted as homeless decreased by 46 per cent between 2003-04 and 2006-07

However, some areas for improvement remain:

- Despite overall improvements on overcrowding, between 1996-97 and 2006-07, rates of overcrowding remained higher for minority ethnic households than for White households and there has been little improvement since 2000-01. Overcrowding rates were highest for Bangladeshi households and lowest for White households (27 per cent and 2 per cent respectively in 2006-07)
- Between 1996-97 and 2006-07, minority ethnic households had higher levels of dissatisfaction with their accommodation than White households (12 per cent and 5 per cent respectively were dissatisfied in 2006-07)
• Between 2002-03 and 2006-07, dissatisfaction with housing among Bangladeshi households increased from 20 per cent to 25 per cent

• Bangladeshi households (25 per cent) and Black African households (21 per cent) were the most dissatisfied in 2006-07, as they have been in each year since 1996-97. Dissatisfaction with housing is related to housing tenure and the concentration of Bangladeshi and Black African households in social sector housing is an important explanatory factor

• In 2006-07, Bangladeshi and Black African households had the lowest levels of owner occupation, at 37 and 26 per cent respectively. These proportions were very similar to those for 2005-06

• Pakistani, Bangladeshi, Black Caribbean and Black African people were more likely than the population as a whole to live in the 10 per cent most deprived areas in England and Wales in 2001

• The proportion of White people feeling they would be racially discriminated against by a housing organisation increased from 15 per cent to 25 per cent between 2001 and 2007-08.

Chapter 5: Health and personal social services

Positive findings include:

• Between 1999 and 2004 the prevalence of bad or very bad self-reported general health fell for Indian women from 12 per cent to eight per cent. Among Indian women rates of limiting long-term illness also fell – from 25 per cent in 1999 to 19 per cent in 2004

• In 2004, after standardising for age, Black African men and women were less likely than the general population to report having ischaemic heart disease or stroke

• Between 1999 and 2004 the prevalence of cigarette smoking fell among Black Caribbean men (35 per cent to 25 per cent), and among Irish men (39 per cent to 30 per cent) and women (33 per cent to 26 per cent)

• In 2004, the prevalence of obesity was lower than the general population for Pakistani, Indian, Chinese and Bangladeshi men.

But for many groups, inequalities persist:

• Babies in the Pakistani and Caribbean ethnic groups had particularly high infant mortality rates

• Among Pakistani women rates of limiting long-term illness rose between 1999 and 2004 (from 23 per cent to 30 per cent)

• Among Pakistani men the prevalence of ischaemic heart disease or stroke increased between 1999 and 2004, from five per cent to nine per cent

• In 2004, after standardising for age, Pakistani men were twice as likely as men in the general population to report ischaemic heart disease or stroke
• In 2004, Pakistani women were five times more likely to report doctor-diagnosed diabetes than women in the general population. Bangladeshi men were nearly four times more likely than men in the general population to report this condition

• In 2004, the prevalence of obesity was higher than the general population for Black African, Black Caribbean and Pakistani women

• Gypsies and Travellers have poorer health status and higher proportions of self-reported symptoms of ill-health than other groups. They also face considerable barriers in accessing health care services

• Patient surveys show that minority ethnic patients are more likely than White patients to report that they are not as involved as they would like to be in decisions affecting their care and treatment

• In 2007, as in 2005 and 2006, admission rates to mental health facilities were highest in Black and mixed White/Black groups (three or more times higher than average).

Chapter 6: The Criminal Justice System

Key positive trends in relation to ethnic groups’ experience of the criminal justice system are:

• As in 2004-05 and 2005-06, people from the Asian group and the Chinese and Other group were more likely in 2006-07 than other ethnic groups, in particular White people, to rate each agency (the police, the Crown Prosecution Service, judges, magistrates, prisons, probation service and youth courts) as doing a good or excellent job

• Asian people, and those in the Chinese and Other group, were more likely to have high levels of confidence in various functions of the CJS compared with people from the other ethnic groups, in particular people from White ethnic backgrounds

• Between 2003-04 and 2006-07, White people had increased levels of confidence that the CJS respects the rights of and treats fairly people accused of committing a crime. Over the same period, Asian people and White people had increased confidence that the CJS is very or fairly effective in reducing crime, and that the CJS deals with cases promptly and efficiently

• Between 2001 and 2007-08, perceptions of race discrimination in the courts, the Crown Prosecution Service (CPS), the police, and the prison service and the Probation Service improved among minority ethnic communities

• Between 2003-04 and 2006-07 there were decreases in the risk of being a victim of crime for White people, and for those from Asian ethnic backgrounds
• The disproportionate rate at which Black people become homicide victims dropped between the three-year period ending 2006-07 and the three-year period ending 2004-05. However, people from all minority ethnic groups are still more likely to be homicide victims than White people.

• Of the 13,544 charges relating to racist incidents reported in the Racist and Religious Incident Monitoring Scheme in 2006-07, 66 per cent resulted in a successful prosecution – a rise of 2 percentage points on the previous year.

• The proportion of staff from a minority ethnic group has increased every year since 2004-05 in the police, prison and probation services.

• Between 2005-06 and 2006-07, the number of police officers from a minority ethnic group increased by around 5 per cent, and prison officers by around 6 per cent.

• Between 2005-06 and 2006-07, in common with the previous two years, the greatest percentage increases in the number of police officers were for the Asian and Mixed groups.

• The proportions of minority ethnic staff in the CPS and the Probation Service continue to be above their proportion in the overall population, and have been since 2002-03.

However, areas for improvement remain:

• In 2006-07, those from Asian and Black ethnic backgrounds showed the highest levels of worry about burglary, car crime and violence.

• Between 2003-04 and 2006-07, levels of worry about burglary and violence both rose among people from Asian backgrounds.

• Between 2003-04 and 2006-07, confidence that the CJS is very or fairly effective in dealing with young people accused of crime fell among people from Black and White backgrounds.

• British Crime Survey (BCS) data show that levels of confidence in how the CJS performs various functions decreased between 2005-06 and 2006-07 among all ethnic groups apart from those from Asian backgrounds.

• People from Mixed ethnic backgrounds had a higher risk of becoming a victim of crime (36 per cent) than people from all other ethnic groups (Black, 27 per cent; Asian, 25 per cent; Chinese or Other, 25 per cent; and White, 24 per cent). This is likely to reflect the socio-demographic characteristics of the Mixed ethnic group, particularly the young age profile.

• There were increases in the risk of victimisation between 2005-06 and 2006-07 for White people and for those from Black ethnic backgrounds.

• In 2006-07, the number of racially motivated crimes estimated by the British Crime Survey (BCS) was 184,000, compared with 139,000 in 2005-06, 179,000 in 2004-05, and 206,000 in 2003-04. Police figures showed a slight increase over the same period; there were 53,000 incidents in 2003-04, 57,000 in 2004-05, 59,000 in 2005-06, and 61,000 in 2006-07. However, this may indicate better recording and a greater willingness to report.
Black people continue to be over-represented at every stage of the CJS:

- In 2006-07, Black people were seven times more likely than White people to be stopped and searched under section 1 of the Police and Criminal Evidence Act (1984). Asian people were twice as likely as White people to be stopped and searched. This over-representation is similar to 2005-06 and has increased since 2004-05
- In 2006-07, the arrest rate for Black people was 3.6 times that for White people. The arrest rate among Asian people and those from Other ethnic groups was very close to the rate for White people, but still higher. These findings are similar to those since 2003-04
- In June 2007, for every thousand Black people in the population, 7.4 were in prison. This proportion has increased from 7.3 in June 2006, and 7.1 in June 2005
- In 2007-08, 28 per cent of people from minority ethnic groups felt that they would be treated worse than people of other races by one or more of five CJS agencies; however, this has decreased from 33 per cent in 2001.

Chapter 7: Perceptions of community cohesion

There are some positive trends:

- In 2007-08, 82 per cent of people in England agreed that they lived in an area where people of different backgrounds got on well together; this represented an increase in perceptions of cohesion since 2003 and 2005 (both 80 per cent)
- Perceptions of cohesion increased from 81 per to 86 per cent among Indian people between 2003 and 2007-08.
- Between 2005 and 2007-08, perceptions of cohesion improved among both Muslims (from 81 per cent to 85 per cent) and Christians (from 80 per cent to 83 per cent)
- Between 2005 and 2007-08, perceptions of cohesion improved in the North East from 69 per cent to 77 per cent
- Between 2003 and 2007-08, the percentage of people who felt strongly that they belonged to their neighbourhood increased from 70 per cent to 75 per cent
- In 2007-08, 80 per cent of people mixed socially at least once a month with people from different ethnic or religious backgrounds.
Although some areas for improvement remain:

- In 2007-08, one in five (20 per cent) Bangladeshi households in the Survey of English Housing (SEH) reported that racial harassment was a problem in their local area.
- In 2007-08, using a new Citizenship Survey measure, 37 per cent of households overall and 65 per cent of Bangladeshi households reported that racial or religious harassment was a problem in their local area to some extent.
- Almost three in five Sikh and Muslim households (59 per cent and 56 per cent respectively) felt that racial or religious harassment was a problem to some extent in their local area.

And differences in perceptions between ethnic and faith groups remain:

- In 2007-08, Indian (86 per cent) and Black African people (85 per cent) living in ethnically diverse areas were more likely than their White counterparts (80 per cent) to feel that people from different backgrounds got on well together.
- Hindus (88 per cent), Muslims (85 per cent) and Christians (83 per cent) were all more likely than people with no religion (77 per cent) to feel that people from different backgrounds got on well together in their local area.
- Pakistani (85 per cent) and Indian people (80 per cent) were more likely than White people (75 per cent) to feel a strong sense of belonging to their neighbourhood.
- Muslims (81 per cent), Hindus (79 per cent), Christians (77 per cent) and Sikhs (77 per cent) were all more likely than people with no religion (62 per cent) to feel strongly that they belonged to their neighbourhood.

Chapter 8: Culture and sport

Trends:

- Between 2005-06 and 2006-07, there were very few changes in participation rates in culture and sport, either overall or for individual minority ethnic groups. All changes are described in the commentary.
- In 2006-07 people in the Chinese/Other group were less likely to have visited an historic environment site (59 per cent) than in 2005-06 (72 per cent) or to have visited a museum or gallery: 44 per cent did so in 2006-07 compared with 55 per cent in 2005-06.
- People in the White and Chinese/Other groups were less likely to have participated in arts events in 2006-07 (23 per cent and 17 per cent respectively) than in 2005-06 (24 per cent and 27 per cent respectively).

---

1 All changes described in the commentary are statistically significant at the 5% level. Where a chart seems to show a year on year change but this isn’t noted in the text, it is because the change is not statistically significant.
2006-07:

- Overall, in 2006-07 people from minority ethnic groups were less likely than White people to have visited an historic environment site during the previous twelve months (48 per cent and 72 per cent respectively). Black people were least likely to have visited an historic environment site (41 per cent).

- Black and Asian people were less likely than other groups to have visited a museum or gallery in the last twelve months (27 per cent and 31 per cent respectively).

- Overall, people from minority ethnic groups were less likely than White people to have attended two or more arts events over the last twelve months (23 per cent and 34 per cent respectively).

- People from the Mixed ethnic group were more likely to participate in active sport (66 per cent) than their White, Asian and Black counterparts (54, 50 and 47 per cent respectively). The higher rates of participation in active sports in the Mixed group were the product of relatively high rates among both men (78 per cent) and women (53 per cent).
Chapter 1
Introduction

The focus of this annex

This statistical annex is an accompaniment to Communities and Local Government’s third and final annual Improving Opportunity, Strengthening Society report. It updates the statistical annex which accompanied the 2007 report, Improving Opportunity, Strengthening Society : Two Years On. This year’s annex provides updated information of the progress of minority ethnic communities across a range of public sectors. It aims to provide a quantifiable demonstration of progress, and to identify areas where improvements are needed.

The Government's Improving Opportunity, Strengthening Society strategy was launched in 2005 in the Home Office. The strategy set out the Government’s commitment to ensure that people are not discriminated against because of their race or religion. A key element of the strategy was to tackle inequalities. Responsibility for the Government’s Improving Opportunity, Strengthening Society strategy transferred to Communities and Local Government following the creation of the new department in May 2006.

The Improving Opportunity, Strengthening Society Strategy relates to Communities and Local Government’s Public Service Agreement 10, which covered the Spending Review period 2005-06 to 2007-08. The PSA 10 target was:

“To reduce race inequalities and build community cohesion.”

Data and definitions

The focus of this annex is on the progress of the ‘visible minorities’. The definition of ‘minority ethnic’, in this context, therefore excludes the White minority categories of White Irish and Other White. Unless otherwise stated, the White group includes the White British, White Irish and Other White ethnic group categories.

---

2 Prior to January 2005 this statistical annex appeared as a report, entitled “Race Equality in Public Services” (REPS). Traditionally the document, published by the Home Office, reported developments across Government on the promotion of race equality.

3 Formerly Home Office PSA 7.

4 The data on these groups is often limited and findings are difficult to interpret. For example, it is known that the White Irish population, as recorded in surveys and censuses, excludes many of the descendants of Irish migrants, most having been subsumed into the White British population (Bosveld, K. and Connolly, H., 2006). The ‘Other White’ group is highly heterogeneous, encompassing people from very different countries of origin, with widely differing socio-economic circumstances (Gardener, D. and Connolly, H., 2005).
Data are drawn from published surveys and official statistics provided by government departments. As a result, the breakdown of ethnic groups used varies across chapters. Where data allow, figures for each of the individual minority ethnic groups are shown separately, with the exception of data for people from a Mixed group. The 2001 Census included four Mixed ethnic groups – Mixed White and Asian, Mixed White and Black Caribbean, Mixed White and Black African and Other Mixed – but data for the combined Mixed group are generally presented as the individual Mixed groups are usually too small for robust analysis.5

Where data on the individual ethnic groups are not available, figures are presented for the broad ethnic groups, for example Asian and Black, or, as a last resort, for the total minority ethnic population as a whole.

The annex uses the most up-to-date statistics currently available, and trend data are included where possible. Where reported, changes over time and differences between groups are statistically significant at the 95 per cent confidence level. Data cover different time periods for different topics, reflecting the variety of sources used throughout the report.

The structure of this annex

This annex covers seven cross-Government areas with PSA targets relevant to the reduction of race inequality and the building of community cohesion.

These are:
- Education
- The labour market
- Housing
- Health and personal social services
- The Criminal Justice System
- Community cohesion
- Culture and sport.

Each of these is considered in turn in chapters 2 to 8. Chapter 9 presents some conclusions, highlighting positive findings as well as areas for improvement for each of the main minority ethnic groups.


5 Whilst findings for the combined Mixed group give an indication of the circumstances of people of Mixed ethnicity, research has indicated wide variations between the three main Mixed groups, with more positive findings for the Mixed White and Asian group compared with the two Mixed Black groups (Bradford, B., 2006). This should be borne in mind when interpreting data for the combined Mixed group.
Population size and growth

The only available statistics on population for the combined populations of England and Wales are from the 2001 Census. Table 1.1 shows the ethnic distribution of the population of England and Wales in April 2001. At that time, Indian people formed the largest minority ethnic group (2 per cent of the population), followed by Pakistani people (1.4 per cent) and Black Caribbean people (1.1 per cent).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>England &amp; Wales</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>47,520,866</td>
<td>91.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British</td>
<td>45,533,741</td>
<td>87.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish</td>
<td>641,804</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other White</td>
<td>1,345,321</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>661,034</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White and Black Caribbean</td>
<td>237,420</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White and Black African</td>
<td>78,911</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White and Asian</td>
<td>189,015</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Mixed</td>
<td>155,688</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian or Asian British</td>
<td>2,273,737</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>1,036,807</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistani</td>
<td>714,826</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladeshi</td>
<td>280,830</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Asian</td>
<td>241,274</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black or Black British</td>
<td>1,139,577</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black Caribbean</td>
<td>563,843</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black African</td>
<td>479,665</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black Other</td>
<td>96,069</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese or other ethnic groups</td>
<td>446,702</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>226,948</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other ethnic group</td>
<td>219,754</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All ethnic groups</td>
<td>52,041,916</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Census, April 2001, Office for National Statistics
More recent population estimates are available for England, but not Wales. Table 1.2 compares the estimated size of the different ethnic populations in England in 2001 and 2005. There was growth in all minority ethnic populations and the minority ethnic population as a whole grew from 4.5 million to 5.5 million people (from 9.2 to 10.9 per cent of the total population).

In 2005, as in 2001, the Indian (1,215 thousand) and Pakistani populations (825 thousand) were the largest minority ethnic groups. However, the Black Caribbean population was no longer the third largest ethnic group. Among the Black population, the Black African group increased at a faster rate than the Black Caribbean group between 2001 and 2005, so that, by 2005 the Black African population, at 658 thousand, was larger than Black Caribbean population (590 thousand), marking a reversal of the pattern in 2001.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>England</th>
<th>Mid-2001</th>
<th>Mid-2005</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number (000s)</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>44,897</td>
<td>90.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White British</td>
<td>42,926</td>
<td>86.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White Irish</td>
<td>629</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other White</td>
<td>1,342</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>654</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed White and Black Caribbean</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed White and Black African</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed White and Asian</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Mixed</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian or Asian British</td>
<td>2,291</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>1,046</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistani</td>
<td>720</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladeshi</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Asian</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black or Black British</td>
<td>1,158</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black Caribbean</td>
<td>570</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black African</td>
<td>491</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Black</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese or Other</td>
<td>449</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other ethnic group</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All minority ethnic groups</td>
<td>4,553</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All ethnic groups</td>
<td>49,450</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
(1) The Mid-2001 and Mid-2005 population estimates are published by ONS as experimental statistics. For more information see http://www.statistics.gov.uk/StatBase/Product.asp?vlnk=14238
Source: Population Estimates by Ethnic Group (Experimental), Office for National Statistics
Figure 1.1 shows the percentage growth in the different ethnic populations in England between 2001 and 2005. While the total population increased by 2 per cent over this period, the minority ethnic population increased by 21 per cent. The largest percentage increases were in the Chinese (53 per cent), ‘Other ethnic’ (46 per cent) and Black African populations (34 per cent). The Black Caribbean population saw the smallest growth of all ethnic minority populations (4 per cent) but the population with the smallest growth pattern was the White Irish population which fell by 6 per cent between 2001 and 2005. These differences partly reflect differences in the age structure of populations and partly reflect current migration trends.

The size of the White British population in 2005 was similar to the population in 2001. This indicates a reversal to the pattern of reducing population size among the White British group that was evident in previous years. For example, although the White British population fell from 42,926 to 42,709 thousand people between 2001 and 2004, it had increased since 2004, accounting for 42,753 thousand people in 2005.

Figure 1.1 Population growth (percentages) by ethnicity, England, Mid-2001 to Mid-2005 (estimated)\(^1\)

Notes:
(1) The Mid-2001 and Mid-2005 population estimates are published by ONS as experimental statistics. For more information see http://www.statistics.gov.uk/StatBase/Product.asp?vlnk=14238
Source: Population Estimates by Ethnic Group (Experimental), Office for National Statistics

Minority ethnic populations are generally younger than White populations. Figure 1.2 shows the age profiles of different ethnic groups in England in 2005. The Mixed ethnic groups had the youngest age structure. Among the Mixed White and Black Caribbean group, half (52 per cent) were under 16 years of age. The Other Black, Bangladeshi and Pakistani groups also had young age structures: around one in three people in each group were under 16 years of age (35 per cent, 34 per cent and 32 per cent respectively). This compared with around one in five White British (19 per cent), Indian (19 per cent) or Black Caribbean (18 per cent) people.

The largest proportions over retirement age were in the White Irish (34 per cent) and White British groups (20 per cent),7 but among the minority ethnic groups, the Black Caribbean group had the oldest age structure - 15 per cent were over retirement age in 2005.

The size of the working age population varied accordingly. Around eight in ten Chinese people (81 per cent) and seven in ten Other Asian (73 per cent), Indian (72 per cent) and Black African (71 per cent) people were of working age. This compared with around six in ten people in the Pakistani (63 per cent), Bangladeshi, White British and Other Black groups (each 61 per cent).

Figure 1.2 Age structure of the population by ethnicity, England, Mid-2005 (estimated)1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Under 16</th>
<th>16 to 59/64*</th>
<th>60/65** and over</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All people</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White British</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White Irish</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other White</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed White &amp; Black Caribbean</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed White &amp; Black African</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed White and Asian</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Mixed</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistani</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladeshi</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Asian</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black Caribbean</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black African</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Black</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other ethnic group</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
(1) Mid-2005 population estimates published by ONS as experimental statistics. For more information see http://www.statistics.gov.uk/StatBase/Product.asp?vlnk=14238
*16-64 for males; 16-59 for females. ** 65 and over for males; 60 and over for females.
Source: Office for National Statistics

7 The older age structure of the White Irish population is partly affected by the tendency for the children of White Irish migrants to be classified as White British in censuses and surveys, rather than White Irish (Bosveld, K, and Connolly, H., 2006).
Figure 1.3 shows the proportion of the population from minority ethnic groups for the English regions. In 2005, people from a minority ethnic group accounted for around one in every three people in London (30 per cent) but for less than one in every twenty people living in the South West and North East regions (each 4 per cent).

However, as discussed previously, minority ethnic populations are younger than the White population and they consequently account for a larger percentage of the school-age population in all regions. In 2004, minority ethnic children accounted for four in ten children under 16 years of age in London (40 per cent), around two in ten children in the West Midlands (19 per cent) and around one in ten children in Yorkshire and the Humber (12 per cent), the East Midlands (11 per cent), the North West and East of England regions (each 10 per cent) and the South East region (9 per cent).

Figure 1.3 The minority ethnic population as a percentage of total population, by government office region and age, England, Mid-2005 (estimated)

Notes:
(1) Mid-2005 population estimates published by ONS as experimental statistics.
For more information see http://www.statistics.gov.uk/StatBase/Product.asp?vlnk=14238
Source: Office for National Statistics
References


CHAPTER 2: EDUCATION
This chapter provides evidence on minority ethnic groups in the education system. The first section focuses on school level attainment and includes attainment at the end of Key Stage 4 by sex, and Free School Meals; differences in attainment across Key Stages 1 to 3; and exclusions. The second section concentrates on access to Further and Higher Education. Both sections present data on the ethnic composition of teaching staff.

Summary

In relation to minority ethnic groups and education, trends are generally positive:

- Across most minority ethnic groups there was an increase between 2003 and 2007 in the proportion of pupils who gained five or more A*-C grade GCSEs or equivalent (in any subject)
- In 2007, 70 per cent of Chinese pupils gained five or more A*-C grade GCSEs (including English and mathematics). Indian pupils had the next highest achievement levels, with 62 per cent gaining five or more A*-C grades (including English and mathematics)
- Between 2005 and 2007 most groups showed an improvement in the proportions of pupils achieving the equivalent of five or more A*-C GCSEs (including English and mathematics). Exceptions were Travellers of Irish Heritage and Gypsy/Roma pupils, and pupils from any other White background and any other Asian background. Bangladeshi pupils saw the greatest improvement between 2005 and 2007
- Teachers from minority ethnic groups made up 5.5 per cent of the teacher population in 2007, a rise from 4.7 per cent in 2004. There has been an increase in the proportion of teachers from minority ethnic backgrounds in all Government Office regions
- Success rates in Further Education institutions (colleges and external institutions) have risen each year for the past three years (2004-05 to 2006-07)
- Between 2001-02 and 2006-07, the proportion of students from a minority ethnic background in Higher Education institutions rose, from 13.7 per cent to 16.6 per cent. However, these students are highly concentrated in new universities (particularly in the London area)
- Between 1995 and 2005, growth in all categories of permanent academic staff at higher education institutions was at a faster rate for minority ethnic staff than for White staff, though from a low starting point.

But inequalities persist:
• Gypsy/Roma and Traveller of Irish Heritage pupils had the lowest levels of achievement at GCSE level in 2007, and their achievement levels have declined between 2003 and 2007. However, there were very low numbers in these groups.

• In 2007 the achievements of Black Caribbean, any other Black background and Mixed White/Black Caribbean pupils were also relatively low, with only a third of pupils from these groups gaining the equivalent of five or more A*-C grade GCSEs (including English and mathematics).

• Girls outperform boys in GCSE attainment across all ethnic groups.

• In 2004, Black Caribbean pupils were three times more likely to be excluded from school than White pupils and, even when other factors such as eligibility for free school meals were taken into account, were still 2.6 times more likely to be excluded than White pupils.

• In further education, learners from minority ethnic groups continue to have lower success rates than learners from White backgrounds, with the exception of those from Chinese and Indian backgrounds.

• Although their participation rates in higher education are increasing, minority ethnic students still have poorer outcomes in terms of class of degree attained.

Public Service Agreements

In the Spending Review period 2004-05 – 2007-08 there were two targets relevant to narrowing differences between ethnic groups in educational attainment and participation:

• ‘By 2008, 60 per cent of those aged 16 [to] achieve the equivalent of five GCSEs at grades A* to C, and in all schools at least 20 per cent of pupils [to] achieve this standard by 2004, rising to 25 per cent by 2006 and 30 per cent by 2008’ (DCSF PSA 10, formerly DfES PSA 10).

• ‘By 2010, increase participation in Higher Education towards 50 per cent of those aged 18 to 30. Also, make significant progress year-on-year towards fair access, and bear down on rates of non-completion’ (DIUS PSA 3 formerly DfES PSA 14).
Chapter 2: Education

GCSE attainment

Figure 2.1 shows the percentage of pupils achieving five or more A*-C grades at GCSE or equivalent in any subject, for 2003 and 2007. Chinese and Indian pupils had the highest attainment in 2007: 83 per cent and 74 per cent respectively achieved five or more A*-C grades at GCSE (in any subject).

There has been a continued improvement in attainment levels across most ethnic groups. Pupils from Black Caribbean, any other Black and Black African backgrounds showed the biggest improvements: since 2003 the proportion of pupils attaining five or more A*-C grades at GCSE (in any subject) in each group was up 16 percentage points for the Black Caribbean and any other Black groups and 15 percentage points for the Black African group. Bangladeshi pupils improved by 12 percentage points between 2003 and 2007, while Pakistani and any other ethnic group pupils improved by 11 percentage points.

Traveller of Irish Heritage and Gypsy/Roma pupils were the only groups to show a decline in attainment between 2003 and 2007 (26 and 9 percentage points respectively). These groups also had the lowest attainment, with just 16 per cent and 14 per cent of pupils respectively gaining five or more A*-C grades at GCSE and equivalent (in any subject). However, very small numbers of pupils were recorded in these two categories so the data should be treated with caution.
Girls outperform boys across all ethnic groups in GCSE attainment (see Figure 2.5). However, as shown in Figure 2.2, the rate of improvement for boys and girls varies between minority ethnic groups.

Overall, between 2003 and 2007 boys improved at a slightly greater rate than girls (9 percentage points, compared with 8 percentage points for girls). This pattern holds true for many minority ethnic groups. For example, between 2003 and 2007 Black African boys improved by 16 percentage points; girls by 14 percentage points. Bangladeshi boys
improved by 14 percentage points; girls by 12 percentage points. The largest differential between girls’ and boys’ improvement was for Mixed White/Black African pupils: between 2003 and 2007 boys improved by 18 percentage points and girls improved by 3 percentage points. However, Mixed White/Black African pupils make up a very small proportion of school pupils.

![Percentage point change between 2003 & 2007 in the proportions of pupils at the end of KS4 achieving five or more A*-C grades at GCSE (in any subject), by ethnicity and sex, England](image)

**Notes**  
(1) Refers to maintained schools only  
*Source: National Pupil Database*
In line with new DCSF reporting measures, Figure 2.3 shows the percentage of pupils achieving five or more A*-C grades (including English and mathematics) at GCSE and equivalent in 2007. There are considerable variations in attainment: 70 per cent of Chinese pupils achieved five or more A*-C grades at GCSE and equivalent (including English and mathematics), compared with just 7 per cent of Gypsy/Roma pupils and 8 per cent of Traveller of Irish Heritage pupils. However, very small numbers of pupils were recorded in these two categories. The next lowest achievers were Black Caribbean (33 per cent), any other Black (33 per cent), and Mixed White/Black Caribbean (34 per cent) pupils. Pakistani, Black African and Bangladeshi pupils also performed relatively poorly. However, as shown in Figure 2.4, these pupils have displayed the greatest improvement in attainment between 2003 and 2007.

Figure 2.3 Percentage of pupils achieving 5+ A*-C grades at GCSE and equivalent (including English & Mathematics), by ethnicity, England, 2007

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed White/Asian</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other Asian background</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any Other Mixed background</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White British</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other White background</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed White/Black African</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other Ethnic group</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladeshi</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black African</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistani</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed White/Black Caribbean</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other Black background</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black Caribbean</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traveller of Irish Heritage</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gypsy/Roma</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Pupils</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes
(1) Refers to maintained schools only
Source: National Pupil Database
Figure 2.4 shows the percentage point change in the proportions of each ethnic group achieving five or more A*-C GCSEs (including English and mathematics) between 2005 and 2007. Most groups showed considerable improvement. As with the GCSEs (any subject) measure, Bangladeshi, pupils from any other Black backgrounds, Black Caribbean and Black African pupils were among those making the biggest improvements.

### Figure 2.4 Percentage point change in the proportions of pupils at the end of KS4 achieving five or more A*-C grades at GCSE (including English and mathematics), by ethnicity, England, 2005 and 2007

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnic Group</th>
<th>Percentage Point Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladeshi</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other Black background</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black Caribbean</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black African</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistani</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed White/Black Caribbean</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White British</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other Mixed background</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other ethnic group</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed White/Asian</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed White/Black African</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other Asian background</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other White background</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gypsy/Roma</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traveller of Irish Heritage</td>
<td>-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Pupils</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Notes**

(1) Refers to maintained schools only

**Source:** National Pupil Database
Improving Opportunity, Strengthening Society

Girls outperformed boys across all ethnic groups. As Figure 2.5 shows, overall 50 per cent of girls achieved five or more A*-C grades (including English and mathematics) compared with 41 per cent of boys. Gypsy/Roma and Traveller of Irish Heritage boys performed particularly poorly: only 6 per cent of Gypsy/Roma and 4 per cent of Traveller of Irish Heritage boys obtained five or more A*-C grades, including English and mathematics.

Figure 2.5 Percentage of pupils achieving 5+ A*-C grades at GCSE and equivalent (including English and mathematics), by ethnicity and sex, 2007

Notes
(1) Refers to maintained schools only
Source: National Pupil Database
GCSE attainment by ethnicity and free school meals (FSMs) eligibility

Figure 2.6 shows the percentage of pupils from each minority ethnic group achieving five or more A*-C grades at GCSE (including English and mathematics) in 2007 according to whether they were eligible for free school meals.

Across all ethnic groups, those not eligible for free school meals (non-FSM) had higher achievement than those who were eligible for free school meals (FSM); 49 per cent and 21 per cent nationally.

Apart from Gypsy/Roma pupils, White British pupils eligible for free school meals had the lowest attainment: only 17 per cent achieved five or more A*-C grades at GCSE (including English and mathematics) compared with 49 per cent of those not eligible for free school meals. Chinese FSM pupils still performed well (59 per cent attaining five or more A*-C GCSEs including English and mathematics) but for all other FSM groups less than half attained this level of achievement. Only 19 per cent of Mixed White/Black Caribbean pupils eligible for free school meals, and 23 per cent of Irish, Black Caribbean and any other Black pupils eligible for free school meals, attained five or more A*-C GCSEs including English and mathematics.

---

8 Eligibility for FSMs is often used as a proxy measure of poverty and disadvantage. Children whose parents receive the following are entitled to free school meals: Income Support; Income Based Jobseekers Allowance; support under part VI of the Immigration and Asylum Act 1999; Child Tax Credit (provided they are not entitled to working Tax Credit and have an annual income, as assessed by the Inland Revenue, that (for 2007-08) does not exceed £14,495; or the guaranteed element of State Pension Credit. Children who receive Income Support or Income Based Jobseekers Allowance in their own right are also entitled to free school meals.
### Figure 2.6 Percentage of pupils achieving 5+ A*-C grades at GCSE and equivalent (including English and mathematics), by ethnicity and eligibility for FSMs, England, 2007

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity and Eligibility</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>FSM</th>
<th>Non-FSM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>42</td>
<td></td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladeshi</td>
<td>36</td>
<td></td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other Asian background</td>
<td>36</td>
<td></td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other ethnic group</td>
<td>33</td>
<td></td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistani</td>
<td>29</td>
<td></td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed White/Asian</td>
<td>29</td>
<td></td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other Mixed background</td>
<td>29</td>
<td></td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black African</td>
<td>28</td>
<td></td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed White/Black African</td>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other White background</td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other Black background</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black Caribbean</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed White/Black Caribbean</td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White British</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gypsy/Roma</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Pupils</td>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
1. Refers to maintained schools only.
2. Traveller of Irish Heritage figures not shown due to small numbers.

Source: National Pupil Database
Analysis by DfES in 2006 showed that across the Key Stages, there were differentials in performance against the national average for different minority ethnic groups. Figure 2.7 shows the percentage point difference against the national average for English tests at the different Key Stages.

In 2006, as in 2004, Indian, Chinese and Irish pupils performed consistently above the national average at all Key Stages. Indeed, for all these groups, the gap in their performance relative to the national average increased across the Key Stages. With the exception of Mixed White/Black African and White British pupils, other ethnic groups performed consistently below the national average at all Key Stages. For Black Caribbean and Mixed White/Black Caribbean pupils, performance relative to the national average worsened across the Key Stages.

Between 2003 and 2007, the proportion of pupils reaching the expected level in reading, writing and mathematics at Key Stage 1 remained relatively unchanged for most ethnic groups.

Notes
(1) Covers pupils in maintained schools
(2) These pupils were from the different cohorts taking Key Stage tests/GCSEs in 2006.
   The chart does not track the attainment of one cohort through the school system
(3) Traveller of Irish Heritage and Gypsy Roma figures not shown due to small and variable numbers/
Source: DfES internal analysis, 2006

Key Stage 1 covers pupils aged 5 to 7 (and results relate to testing at age 7)
However, over the same period, there were increases in the proportion of pupils across all ethnic groups reaching the expected level at Key Stage 2\(^\text{10}\) in English and mathematics. As shown in Figure 2.8a, all groups showed improvements in attainment in English at Key Stage 2. This is particularly the case for Pakistani and Bangladeshi pupils, although these groups still have relatively low achievement.

In mathematics (Figure 2.8b) Chinese pupils had the highest attainment across all five years. In 2007, Black Caribbean, Pakistani and Black African pupils had the lowest attainment levels, although the three groups have improved between 2003 and 2007.

\(^{10}\text{Key Stage 2 covers pupils aged 7 to 11 (and results relate to testing at age 11)}\)
The proportion of pupils achieving the expected level in Key Stage 2 science remained roughly the same for most groups between 2003 and 2007, although there were improvements of four percentage points for Black Caribbean and Black African pupils, and improvements of six percentage points for Bangladeshi and Pakistani pupils.

The same pattern can be observed at Key Stage 3: improvements for Black Caribbean, Black African, Pakistani and Bangladeshi pupils were most noticeable. In science, the proportion of pupils achieving the expected level increased by 5 percentage points between 2003 and 2007. Pakistani and Black Caribbean pupils improved by 10 percentage points, Black African pupils improved by 11 percentage points and Bangladeshi pupils improved by 12 percentage points over this period.
Numerous studies have explored the factors which influence attainment across various Key Stages. For example, as described in last year’s *Improving Opportunity, Strengthening Society* report, findings from the DCSF-funded EPPE11 longitudinal study show that although ethnicity has an impact on children’s attainment, this is not as strong as other background factors, such as mother’s highest qualification level, family socio-economic status, low income (based on FSM), birth weight and home learning environment. Moreover, the impact of socio-economic status on children’s attainment differs for different ethnic groups – it is actually less strong for some minority ethnic groups than for White groups. The impact of socio-economic status is strongest for White and Mixed race groups and lowest for Black Caribbean, Black African, Pakistani and Bangladeshi groups.

**Contextual value added scores**

DCSF work on contextual value added scores enabled the effect of a particular characteristic on attainment (such as ethnicity) to be isolated, whilst controlling for other factors that impact upon attainment (such as prior attainment, gender and deprivation). Using this measure shows that, all other things being equal, pupils eligible for FSMs, or pupils living in areas of higher deprivation, make a lot less progress at primary and secondary school than non-FSM pupils or pupils living in less deprived areas. This shows – as the EPPE research does – that deprivation has a greater impact on pupils’ progress than ethnicity.

Furthermore, once factors such as deprivation are controlled for, most minority ethnic groups make more progress at school than similar White British pupils. For example, the Chinese, Bangladeshi and Black African groups make more progress across each phase of education than White British pupils with the same levels of prior attainment, and with similar characteristics.

However, there are still some ethnic groups who make less progress at primary school than White British pupils even once prior attainment, deprivation and other factors are taken into account. These groups are:

- Traveller of Irish Heritage
- Gypsy/Roma
- Mixed White/Black Caribbean (although the difference is minimal)
- Pakistani
- Black Caribbean
- Any other Black background.

---

11 The EPPE 3-11 project is a major longitudinal study funded by DCSF. It builds on the work of the earlier Effective Provision of Pre-School Education (EPPE) project (1996-2003) which investigated the impact of pre-school provision on a national sample of young children in England between the ages of 3 and 7 years. EPPE 3-11 is following the same sample of around 2,500 children to age 11, the end of Key Stage 2
After the transition to secondary school, between Key Stages 2 to 4, all of these groups except the Gypsy/Roma group, the Traveller of Irish Heritage group and the Mixed White/Black Caribbean group go on to make more progress than White British pupils with similar characteristics and levels of prior attainment.

Exclusions

In 2004, a DCSF-commissioned study reported that Black Caribbean pupils were three times more likely to be excluded from school than White pupils and, even when other factors such as FSM were taken into account, were still 2.6 times more likely to be excluded than White pupils.

In past years, 1,000 Black pupils were permanently excluded and nearly 30,000 received a fixed period exclusion. On average, these pupils were one-third less likely than average to achieve five A*-C at GCSE; and 3 per cent more likely to be unemployed (DfES 2006).

The most recent (2006-07) figures show that there were 640 permanent exclusions and 25,490 Fixed Period Exclusions for Black pupils.

Boys are much more likely to be excluded from school than girls. Communities and Local Government published an analysis of the economic costs of exclusions of Black boys in England and Wales, as part of the REACH project to raise the aspirations and attainment of Black boys and young Black men. This showed that, if Black boys were excluded at the same rate as their non-Black counterparts, there would be a saving of £1.6m a year, or £46m over the next 50 years. This figure is the cost of providing alternative education and support and does not include the negative impacts such as under-achievement in education and employment (Communities and Local Government, 2007).

Ethnicity of school teaching staff

As shown in Figure 2.9, there has been a gradual increase in the proportion of teachers from minority ethnic backgrounds in all Government Office Regions. In England, minority ethnic staff (in both primary and secondary schools) comprised 5.5 per cent of the teacher population in 2007, up from 4.7 per cent in 2004. London had the highest proportion of teachers from minority ethnic backgrounds: 18.0 per cent in 2007, up from 16.3 per cent in 2004.
The Citizenship Survey\(^\text{12}\) is a household survey of adults (aged 16 and over) in England and Wales, covering a wide range of issues, including perceptions of racial prejudice. The 2007-08 Citizenship Survey found that, for all ethnic groups, proportions expecting local schools to treat them worse\(^\text{13}\) than people of other races were very low. In 2007-08, 6 per cent of minority ethnic people expected local schools to treat them worse than people of other races, compared with 3 per cent of White people. These proportions are unchanged since 2001. Figure 2.10 shows the Citizenship Survey findings on perceptions of treatment in 2001 and 2007-08.

---

**Notes**

(1) Refers to maintained schools only
(2) Information not provided for 14 per cent of teachers

Source: 618g survey, DCSF http://www.dfes.gov.uk/sgateway/DDB/SFR/s000743/index.shtml

---

**Perceptions of treatment by local schools**

The Citizenship Survey\(^\text{12}\) is a household survey of adults (aged 16 and over) in England and Wales, covering a wide range of issues, including perceptions of racial prejudice. The 2007-08 Citizenship Survey found that, for all ethnic groups, proportions expecting local schools to treat them worse\(^\text{13}\) than people of other races were very low. In 2007-08, 6 per cent of minority ethnic people expected local schools to treat them worse than people of other races, compared with 3 per cent of White people. These proportions are unchanged since 2001. Figure 2.10 shows the Citizenship Survey findings on perceptions of treatment in 2001 and 2007-08.

---

\(^{12}\) Previously known as the Home Office Citizenship Survey; under machinery of government changes in May 2006 responsibility for the survey passed from the Home Office to Communities and Local Government. The Citizenship Survey is a household survey covering a representative core sample of almost 10,000 adults in England and Wales each year. There is also a minority ethnic boost sample of 5,000 to ensure that the views of these groups are robustly represented. Since 2007, the survey has moved to a continuous design, allowing the provision of headline findings on a quarterly basis.

\(^{13}\) The focus is on worse treatment because in the Spending Review period 2004-05-2007-08, Communities and Local Government’s PSA 10 target was a decrease in the percentage of people from minority ethnic communities who feel that one or more of the key public services would treat them worse than people of other races.
Communities and Local Government commissioned qualitative research in order to understand the drivers of Black and Asian people’s perceptions of racial discrimination in eight key public services, including education (Communities and Local Government, 2008). As shown above, relatively few people from minority ethnic groups expect local schools to treat them worse than people of other races. For those people, however, the main reasons for expected discrimination were the perceived experience of mismanagement of racist and/or religious bullying in schools; the view that schools have lower expectations of Black pupils; and a perception of higher rates of detention and school exclusions amongst Black pupils.

**Participation and success in further education**

In 2006-07, 19 per cent of the learner population at further education institutions were from minority ethnic groups (this is up from 18 per cent in 2005-06), 78 per cent were White (down from 79 per cent in 2005-06), and ethnicity data were not collected for the remaining 3 per cent of learners.
Overall success rates in further education institutions (colleges and external institutions) in England increased from 74 per cent in 2004-05 to 77 per cent in 2006-07 (LSC SFR 2008). As shown in Figure 2.11, there have been improvements across all ethnic groups over this period. The Black Caribbean success rate, for example, improved from 65 per cent in 2004-05 to 71 per cent in 2006-07 while the Indian success rate improved from 74 per cent to 79 per cent over the same period.

**Figure 2.11** Success rates of Learning and Skills Council (LSC)-funded learners in all further education institutions by ethnicity, England, 2004-05 and 2006-07

Success rates are calculated as the number of learning aims achieved divided by the number of starters, excluding any learners who transferred onto another qualification within the same institution. The qualification a learner transfers to will be included as a start (DfES 2006)
Participation in higher education

The Department for Innovation, Universities and Skills (DIUS) aims to increase and widen participation in higher education particularly among groups traditionally under-represented.

The proportion of higher education students coming from a minority ethnic background has risen from 14 per cent in 2001-02 to 17 per cent in 2006-07. Note that these figures do not say anything about the proportion of ethnic minority people in the general population, and hence about the higher education participation rates of people from an ethnic minority background.

Figure 2.12a shows participation rates in higher education by ethnicity and gender, for English-domiciled young people (up to the age of 19), who were not in independent schools at Year 11, in 2005-06. It shows that, with the exception of the Black Caribbean and Black Other groups, young people from White backgrounds had the lowest higher education participation rates. Chinese and Indian young people had the highest higher education participation rates. Across all groups, women were more likely to enter into higher education than men. Once prior attainment (using individuals’ GCSE attainment) is controlled for, all ethnic minority groups are more likely than White people to participate in higher education by age 19 (including the Black Caribbean and Black Other groups).
The above measure is different to that used in last year’s *Improving Opportunity, Strengthening Society* report. Figure 2.12b shows the measure that was previously used: higher education participation rates, by ethnicity, for people aged 17-30. Although it is more out of date and constructed using aggregate (rather than individual) data, this measure is still useful because it suggests that some groups (for example, the Black Caribbean group) are more likely to go to university at an older age, and it shows how these groups ‘catch up’, to some extent, later on, despite early under-achievement.
In 2001-02 all minority ethnic groups aged 17-30 were more likely than the White population to participate in higher education. People from the Other Asian group were most likely to do so (83 per cent). There were differences within ethnic groups. While 71 per cent of Indian people aged 17-30 participated in higher education, only 49 per cent of the Pakistani and 39 per cent of the Bangladeshi population did so. Within the Black group, 73 per cent of Black African people participated in higher education compared with 45 per cent of the Black Caribbean group. However, rates for Pakistani, Bangladeshi and especially Black Caribbean people were impressive given their attainment levels for GCSEs (Connor et al. 2004).

**Figure 2.12b** Participation in Higher Education by ethnicity, age 17-30, England, 2001-02

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladeshi</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed ethnicity</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black Caribbean</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistani</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Black</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black African</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Asian</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Notes**

1. The overall HEIPR were adjusted to exclude people of unknown ethnicity, so are lower (at 40 per cent) than the published overall HEIPR (43.5 per cent) for 2001-02.
2. The HEIPR figures for all ethnic groups should be treated with caution because of some unreliability and uncertainty inherent in the data sources.
3. The HEIPR figures show rates for English domiciled first-time entrants (full- and part-time) to HE courses (in universities and colleges).
4. Later data are not available.

*Source: Census April 2001, HESA and ILR records 2001-02*
Types of higher education institutions attended

Figures based on data collected by the Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA) for 2006-07 show that the distribution of ethnic minority students is highly skewed across institutions. A considerable proportion of the total number of ethnic minority students is concentrated in new universities in large cities (London in particular), although institutions like the School of Oriental and African Studies (SOAS), Imperial College, King’s College, London School of Economics (LSE) and University College London (UCL) also have a very high proportion of students from ethnic minority backgrounds. These figures do not control for any other factors which are associated with participation in certain types of institution, such as prior attainment and geographical proximity to the institution.

Analysis of UCAS applicant data (HEFCE 2005, based on Shiner and Modood 2002) suggests that, once students decide to apply, there is no general ‘ethnic penalty’ specific to ‘old’ (pre-1992) universities. The authors did find some evidence, however, that Pakistani applicants had a slightly lower than expected offer rate across the whole higher education sector.
Types of higher education courses attended

Data from 2006-07 show that, expressed as a percentage of the total number of degree students in each subject, minority ethnic students were well represented in courses on computer sciences, medicine and dentistry, law and business and administrative studies at universities in England. However, they were particularly less likely to be represented in historical and philosophical studies, the physical sciences, languages and education. A similar pattern was observed in previous years.

Influences on higher education participation

As shown, minority ethnic groups have higher participation rates in post-16 education than White British people (as described above and in DfES 2005). While young people from minority ethnic groups were as likely as White people to gain entry qualifications to go to university by age 19, the type of qualification held and post-16 education varied significantly. Overall, minority ethnic degree entrants had lower entry qualifications; fewer had ‘A’ levels; and more were likely to enter higher education from further education colleges. However, there were differences between ethnic groups. Indian and Chinese entrants were more likely than average to enter with ‘A’ levels, were better qualified, and were more likely to have been at grammar or independent schools. Black ethnic groups, particularly Black Caribbean students, were generally older on entry, had a wider range of entry qualifications (particularly vocational qualifications), and were more likely to enter from further education colleges. Pakistani and Bangladeshi entrants did not gain as high ‘A’ level results as Indian and Chinese entrants but did better at ‘A’ level than Black groups (Connor et al. 2004).

Higher education drop-out rates by ethnicity

Data on drop out rates for minority ethnic groups are not currently published. However, the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE) carried out an analysis of the continuation rates from year of entry, based on entrants in 2004-05. This showed that young minority ethnic full-time first-degree students had non-continuation rates which were very similar to those for young White students, at seven per cent. In comparison, mature minority ethnic full-time first-degree students had slightly higher non-continuation rates than mature White students – 17 per cent against 13 per cent. Much of this difference can be accounted for by the subject and entry qualification mix of the students. When allowances were made for these factors and age, young minority ethnic students appeared to do slightly better than expected, but mature students did less well. This suggests that other factors, both positive and negative, impact on the likelihood of students from different minority ethnic groups completing their degree studies.
Achievement in higher education by ethnicity

Figure 2.14 presents data on class of degree obtained by White and minority ethnic students in UK higher education institutions. White students were more likely than minority ethnic students to achieve a first or upper second class honours degree, while minority ethnic students were more likely to achieve a lower second or third class honours degree. However, these data do not take into account other differences that might drive academic success, such as qualifications on entry which will in turn be affected by socio-economic disadvantage, which some minority ethnic students are more likely to experience.

**Figure 2.14** Class of first degree by ethnicity, all UK higher education institutions, 2006-07

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class of Degree</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Class Honours</td>
<td>13 (White) 7 (Minority ethnic)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper Second Class Honours</td>
<td>49 (White) 39 (Minority ethnic)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower Second Class Honours</td>
<td>27 (White) 37 (Minority ethnic)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third Class Honours</td>
<td>3 (White) 7 (Minority ethnic)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>8 (White) 10 (Minority ethnic)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Notes**
(1) Chart only includes students whose normal residence is in the UK (including the Channel Islands and Isle of Man). Students who ordinarily reside overseas are not included.
(2) Includes full-time first degrees only.
(3) ‘Other’ category includes fourth class honours, unclassified honours and passes.
Source: 2006-07 HESA Student Record. Figures are on a HESA Standard Registration Population basis.
A 2007 report by Broecke and Nicholls showed that even when sex, prior attainment, disability, deprivation, subject of study, type of higher education institution, term-time accommodation and age were taken into account, belonging to a minority ethnic group is still a statistically significant factor in explaining final attainment. Following on from this research, the Higher Education Academy and Equality Challenge Unit undertook further work between 2007 and 2008 to look at the degree attainment of ethnic minorities. This project confirmed the results of the earlier study: it showed that even after controlling for the majority of contributory factors, being from a minority ethnic group (except the Other Black, Mixed and Other groups) was still found to have a statistically significant and negative effect on degree attainment.

These results potentially have quite serious implications. For example, a number of studies have found that obtaining a ‘good’ degree carries a premium in the labour market, and that this premium has been increasing over time as the higher education system has expanded (Battu et al. 1999; Naylor et al. 2003; Bratti et al. 2005). As a result, there is a considerable cost attached to this attainment gap identified in relation to minority ethnic students.

Ethnicity of academic staff in English higher education institutions

In 2005-06, six per cent of professors were from a minority ethnic background (HEFCE 2007). Table 2.1 shows that between 1995 and 2005, growth in all categories of permanent academic staff was at a much faster rate for minority ethnic staff than for White staff, though from a very low starting point.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2.1 Growth in permanent academic staff, by ethnicity, England, 1995 to 2005, and numbers 2005/06</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Staff in HEFCE funded HEIs by ethnicity, 2005-06</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior lecturers and researchers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes
(1) Percentage growth normalised to account for unknown data
(2) Unknown staff allocated proportionately to white and minority ethnic groups
(3) A change in definition of grade means this table should not be compared with previous years
(see HEFCE 2007/36 for further details)

Source: HESA individualised staff records, 1995-06 through to 2005-06 (HEFCE 36/2007)
References


Communities and Local Government (2007) REACH, An independent report to Government on raising the aspirations and attainment of Black boys and young Black men


Communities and Local Government (2008) The Drivers of Black and Asian People’s Perceptions of Racial Discrimination by Public Services: A Qualitative Study. Communities and Local Government


DIUS (2008) Gender Gaps in Higher Education Participation: An Analysis of the Relationship Between Prior Attainment and Young Participation by Gender, Socio-Economic Class and Ethnicity. DIUS


Higher Education Academy Equality and Challenge Unit (2008) Ethnicity, Gender and Degree Attainment Project www.heacademy.ac.uk/projects/detail/ethnicity_Degree_Attainment_project
Higher Education Statistics Agency (2006-07) Students at individual universities 2006-07


Chapter 3
The Labour Market

This chapter provides evidence on the position of minority ethnic groups in the labour market. It focuses on rates of employment, unemployment and economic inactivity.\textsuperscript{15} The chapter begins by looking at long-term labour market trends and the direction of change. Next it considers the latest labour market data and discusses the variations by ethnicity, first among men and then among women. The chapter then examines the impact of labour market disadvantage on minority ethnic groups. Finally, it presents findings on perceptions of racial discrimination in the workplace.

Summary

Key positive findings in relation to minority ethnic groups and the labour market are:

- Minority ethnic employment rates have continued to increase. The gap between the employment rate of the minority ethnic population and the total population narrowed from around 19 percentage points in 1996 to around 14 percentage points in 2006-07
- In 2006-07, Indian men (78 per cent) had employment rates very close to those of White men (80 per cent)
- In 2006-07, women from Black Caribbean, Mixed and Indian groups continued to have relatively high rates of employment (65 per cent, 63 per cent and 61 per cent respectively) and low rates of economic inactivity (28 per cent, 30 per cent and 33 per cent respectively)
- The proportion of people living in low income households decreased for all ethnic groups between 1994-97 and 2004-07

\textsuperscript{15} The employment rate is the percentage of the working age population (16-59 years for women, 16-64 years for men) who are in employment – including employees, self-employed people, participants in government employment and training programmes, and people doing unpaid family work – that is, family members who work in businesses owned by family members or relatives. The economic inactivity rate is the percentage of the working age population who are neither in employment nor seeking employment. This includes those looking after a home or family, those permanently unable to work, and students. The International Labour Organisation (ILO) unemployment rate is the percentage of the economically active population who are without a job, available to start work within two weeks and have either looked for work in the previous four weeks or are waiting to start a job they have already obtained. These three measures of labour market activity do not sum to 100 per cent because they are calculated on different populations. The employment rate and economic inactivity rate are calculated as proportions of the working age population. The remainder of the working age population, who are neither in employment nor classified as inactive, are sometimes described as ‘unemployed’. However, this chapter uses the preferred ILO definition of unemployment, which is calculated on a subset of the working age population, the ‘economically active’ population, which is comprised of those in work or actively seeking, and available to start, work. Hence, the ILO unemployment rate is the proportion of all people who are active in the labour market that are currently without a job.
• The proportion of Pakistani/Bangladeshi people living in low income households (before housing costs) decreased from 73 per cent in 1994-97 to 55 per cent in 2004-07

• The proportion of children living in low income households (after housing costs) fell for all ethnic groups between 1994-97 and 2004-07. The steepest fall was for Pakistani/Bangladeshi children (down 18 percentage points).

Some areas for improvement remain.

Among men:

• In 2006-07, employment rates were relatively low among men from a Chinese (59 per cent), Bangladeshi (61 per cent) and Mixed ethnic group (63 per cent)

• Men from minority ethnic groups were more than twice as likely as their White counterparts to be unemployed in 2006-07 (11 per cent compared with 5 per cent)

• In 2006-07, the highest unemployment rates among men were for those from the Black Caribbean (18 per cent) and Bangladeshi groups (16 per cent)

• Economic inactivity rates were highest among men from the Chinese (34 per cent), Bangladeshi (28 per cent), Pakistani and Mixed groups (both 27 per cent).

And among women:

• Bangladeshi and Pakistani women had the lowest employment rates (27 per cent and 28 per cent) and highest economic inactivity rates (65 per cent and 66 per cent)

• The employment gap between Pakistani and Bangladeshi women and White women changed very little between 1970 and 2005

• In 2006-07, unemployment rates were highest among Pakistani women (19 per cent). This compared to an unemployment rate of 5 per cent among White women.

These labour market inequalities have broader implications:

• Based on three-year moving averages to 2006-07, before housing costs, 50 per cent of the Pakistani/Bangladeshi population, 26 per cent of the Black population, and 23 per cent of the Indian population lived in low income households, compared with 16 per cent of the White population

• In 2007-08, for people from minority ethnic groups who had been turned down for a job in the last five years, the most frequently specified reason was race (by 21 per cent)

• In 2007-08, of people who had been turned down for a job in the last five years, Black people were more likely than people in other ethnic groups to feel that this was for reasons of race (28 per cent).
Trends in employment, unemployment and inactivity

This section provides a brief overview of labour market trends in order to clarify whether change has taken place and to identify the direction of change.\(^{16}\) This is then followed by a more detailed consideration of the current picture and the variations by ethnicity.

The 2004 Spending Review (Treasury, 2005) includes targets for the Department of Work and Pensions (DWP) to:

“Over the three years to Spring 2008, taking account of the economic cycle:

• demonstrate progress on increasing the employment rate
• increase the employment rate of disadvantaged groups (lone parents, ethnic minorities, people aged 50 or over, those with the lowest qualifications and those living in the local authority wards with the poorest initial labour market position); and
• significantly reduce the difference between the employment rates of the disadvantaged groups and the overall rate” (DWP PSA 4).

---

\(^{16}\) Trends were measured using data from the Labour Force Survey. In 2006 the Labour Force Survey moved from providing datasets linked to seasonal quarters – Spring, Winter, Summer and Autumn – to providing datasets linked to calendar quarters – 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th quarters. There is an overlap of one month between seasonal and calendar quarters. Where possible, when comparing seasonal and calendar data, the same periods have been compared.
Figure 3.1 shows the employment rate of the working age minority ethnic population and the gap relative to the total population (Labour Force Surveys, 1996 to 2007). Since 1996 the minority ethnic employment rate has increased by 7.7 percentage points, compared to an increase in the overall rate of 2.6 percentage points. This has led to a reduction of the employment rate gap between 1996 and 2007, from 18.9 percentage points to 13.8 percentage points. The gap has narrowed slightly since 2006 when it was 14.3 percentage points.

Figure 3.1 Employment rate of the minority ethnic population and the total population, Great Britain, 1996 to 2007

Notes:
(1) Employment rates refer to the percentage of the working age population in employment – men aged 16-64, women aged 16-59
Source: Labour Force Survey four quarter averages – 1996 to 2005 based on Autumn to Summer seasonal quarters; 
2006 and 2007 based on four quarter averages to 3rd calendar quarters

The employment rate is the percentage of the working age population (16-59 years for women, 16-64 years for men) who are in employment – including employees, self-employed people, participants in government employment and training programmes, and people doing unpaid family work (family members who work in businesses owned by family members or relatives)
Figure 3.2 demonstrates the changes in employment rates across minority ethnic groups between 2001 and 2007. The overall employment rate for minority ethnic groups increased from 57.7 to 60.7 per cent between Spring 2001 and first quarter 2007.

Employment rates have fluctuated over the period. However, for all minority ethnic groups rates were higher in 2007 than in 2001, although the increase was not statistically significant in all groups. For all minority ethnic groups the trend was upwards between Spring 2001 and first quarter 2007. The Other ethnic group, covering a range of different ethnic backgrounds, saw the highest increase, of 9.4 percentage points. Of the individual ethnic groups, the Black African group saw the highest increase, of 8.3 percentage points.

**Figure 3.2 Employment rates by ethnicity, Great Britain, 2001 to 2007**

Notes:
(1) Employment rates refer to the percentage of the working age population in employment – women aged 16-59, men aged 16-64
(2) The 'Other ethnic group' comprises those who do not fit into any other of the ethnic groups shown. Hence the rate for this group is the average for a number of different ethnic groups with varying rates
(3) Figures for the Other Black group between Spring 2002 and Spring 2006 are not shown due to small numbers
Source: Labour Force Survey four quarter averages: Spring 2001 to Spring 2006 based on Summer to Autumn seasonal quarters; first quarter 2007 figures are four quarter averages to first quarter 2007, based on new weights derived from the 2007 population estimates
Figure 3.3 shows ILO unemployment rates from 2001 to 2007. Rates for Great Britain as a whole have increased from 5.2 per cent to 5.7 per cent since Spring 2006.

Since 2001 economic inactivity rates have fallen among all minority ethnic groups. The overall minority ethnic inactivity rate fell from 34.5 per cent to 31.2 per cent between 2001 and 2007, a reduction of 3.3 percentage points (Figure 3.4). The inactivity rate among the Other ethnic group, covering a range of different ethnic backgrounds, fell by 9.9 percentage points over this period. The largest decrease for an individual ethnic group was for the Black African group, down by 7.7 percentage points.

Notes:
(1) Figures for the Other Black and Chinese groups are not shown due to small numbers
(2) Figures for the Bangladeshi group in 2003 and 2004, and for the Other ethnic group before 2007, are not shown due to small numbers
Source: Labour Force Survey four quarter averages: Spring 2001 to Spring 2006 based on Summer to Autumn seasonal quarters; first quarter 2007 figures are four quarter averages to first quarter 2007, based on new weights derived from the 2007 population estimates

18 The ILO unemployment rate is based on ILO guidelines and refers to the percentage of the economically active population (those in employment or seeking employment) that were without a job, available to start work within two weeks and had either looked for work in the previous four weeks or were waiting to start a job they had already obtained
19 The economic inactivity rate is the percentage of the working age population (16-59 for women, 16-64 for men) who are neither in employment nor seeking employment. This includes, for example, those looking after a home or family, those permanently unable to work, and students. It will also include people below retirement age who have taken early retirement
Participation in the labour market: the current picture

This section looks at the latest labour market data for 2006-07. Variations between ethnic groups on employment, ILO unemployment and economic inactivity are explored in detail. Employment rates are discussed first, followed by unemployment and economic inactivity rates.\(^{20}\)

The labour market participation patterns of men and women are very different – for example, women have much higher rates of economic inactivity. For this reason, the variations among men of different ethnic groups are discussed first, followed by the variations among women.

\(^{20}\) As in the 2007 REPS, this chapter uses the ILO definition which calculates unemployment as a percentage of the economically active population. A different definition was used in the 2006 REPS, calculating unemployment as a percentage of the working age population.
Labour market participation of men

Figure 3.5 shows that in 2006-07 the employment rate for minority ethnic men overall was 11 percentage points lower than for White men (69 per cent and 80 per cent respectively). Employment rates were particularly low for men from the Chinese (59 per cent) and Bangladeshi ethnic groups (61 per cent). Employment rates for men from the Mixed (63 per cent), Pakistani (65 per cent), Black Caribbean (66 per cent) and Black African groups (71 per cent) were lower than the rate for Indian men (78 per cent).

**Figure 3.5 Male employment, ILO unemployment and economic inactivity rates (percentages), by ethnicity, Great Britain, 2006-07**

Notes:
(1) Unemployment figures for the Chinese group are not shown due to small numbers
(2) Economic inactivity and unemployment figures for the Other Black group are not shown due to small numbers
Unemployment figures not shown for Other Asian group

Source: Labour Force Survey, four quarter average, 4th quarter 2006 to 3rd quarter 2007
Overall, men from the minority ethnic population had unemployment rates more than twice those of White men in 2006-07 (11 per cent compared with 5 per cent).

In 2006-07, Indian men had the lowest unemployment rate in the minority ethnic population, at 6 per cent, but rates were higher among Bangladeshi men (16 per cent), and Black Caribbean men (18 per cent). The higher unemployment rates of some groups may be partly related to the younger age structure of minority ethnic groups; in all ethnic groups young people tend to have higher rates of unemployment than older counterparts.

As Figure 3.5 shows, in 2006-07 the overall economic inactivity rate for men in the minority ethnic population (22 per cent) was 6 percentage points higher than the rate for White men (16 per cent). Economic inactivity rates were highest among men from the Chinese (34 per cent), Bangladeshi (28 per cent), and Pakistani and Mixed groups (both 27 per cent). The high economic inactivity rate and the low employment rate among Chinese men partly reflect the large number of students among the Chinese population, many of whom have come to the UK in order to study. Indian men had the lowest economic inactivity rate in the minority ethnic population; their inactivity rate (17 per cent) was virtually the same as the rate for White men.

**Labour market participation of women**

Figure 3.6 shows the labour market pattern among women. As with men, there is an employment rate gap between minority ethnic women and White women, but the gap between women is larger than the gap between men. In 2006-07 the employment rate among minority ethnic women overall was 20 percentage points lower than the employment rate among White women (52 per cent and 72 per cent respectively).
Employment rates were particularly low among Bangladeshi and Pakistani women; just over one in four women of working age from these groups were in employment in 2006-07 (27 per cent and 28 per cent respectively). Women from Black Caribbean, Mixed and Indian groups had much higher rates of employment (65 per cent, 63 per cent and 61 per cent respectively).

For the Chinese, Black Caribbean and Mixed groups, there was little or no difference between the employment rates of women and those of men. However, women from Pakistani and Bangladeshi groups were far less likely to be in employment than their male counterparts; in the case of the Pakistani group, the gap was 37 percentage points, and for the Bangladeshi group it was 34 percentage points.
Women from the minority ethnic population had unemployment rates more than twice those of White women in 2006-07 (12 per cent compared with 5 per cent). Indian women had the lowest unemployment rates of women in the minority ethnic population, at 9 per cent, but rates were more than double this among Pakistani women (19 per cent).

In most ethnic groups unemployment rates among women were the same as or slightly below those of male counterparts. The Indian group and the Pakistani groups were exceptions; for the latter, the gap was 8 percentage points (11 per cent of Pakistani men were unemployed, compared with 19 per cent of Pakistani women).

An important factor in the different rates of participation in the labour market was the high levels of economic inactivity among women of working age in some groups. However, rates of economic inactivity for women were not high in all minority ethnic groups. Economic inactivity rates among women from Black Caribbean (28 per cent) and Other Black groups (27 per cent) were similar to White women’s inactivity rates (24 per cent).

Although employment rates have been gradually rising in all ethnic groups over previous decades the employment rate gap between Pakistani and Bangladeshi women and White women changed very little. Lindley et al (2004) reported a fall in economic inactivity for Pakistani women between 1992-95 and 2000-02, from 71 per cent to 65 per cent. However, rates for Bangladeshi women rose in this period, from 77 per cent to 78 per cent, and were much higher for these two ethnic groups than for any other groups over this period.

A number of explanations have been offered for the persistence of low employment and high economic inactivity among Pakistani and Bangladeshi women. These have included educational levels, problems with spoken English and the presence of dependent children. However, research published by DWP in 2007 concluded that educational level and family composition could explain only a small part of the employment gap between Pakistani and Bangladeshi women and White women (Berthoud and Blekesaune, 2007). Between 1970 and 2005, when women’s family positions were taken into account, Pakistani and Bangladeshi women were still between 27 and 31 percentage points less likely than White women of similar family circumstances to be in employment. Furthermore, the employment gap between Pakistani, Bangladeshi and White women remained large when education, family type, and regional characteristics were controlled for. Longitudinal analysis also showed that very few Pakistani and Bangladeshi women who were not working in 1991 had moved into employment by 2001. Among the majority of Bangladeshi and Pakistani women who were not working in 1991, only 8 per cent and 15 per cent respectively were in employment ten years later.

Other research published by DWP in the same year (Aston et al, 2007) also focused on Pakistani and Bangladeshi women. Interviews were conducted with 60 women from these groups in Britain to explore cultural and practical issues faced by women of working age. In relation to accessing employment, language barriers and poor health were seen by
women as the key barriers. Some younger women mentioned encountering discrimination when trying to enter particular careers, or had felt uncomfortable working in particular sectors or working environments. The report concluded that there needed to be greater assistance for mothers from these groups who were seeking to return to the job market. The authors also recommended that employment opportunities should be flexible, as some women with children would not work at all if they were not able to work part-time hours which fitted around caring for their children.

Regional variations

Regional differences existed in the employment rates of minority ethnic groups and in the gap between rates for minority ethnic groups and the White population. Figure 3.7 shows the differences in the five regions of Great Britain where minority ethnic groups were most concentrated. East Midlands had the highest minority ethnic employment rate (63 per cent). West Yorkshire had the lowest (51 per cent). The employment rate for White people in West Yorkshire was 77 per cent, making this the region with the largest gap between employment rates for minority ethnic groups and the White population, of 26 percentage points. The East Midlands had the smallest employment rate gap, of 14 percentage points. The employment rate gap in London was 15 percentage points.

**Figure 3.7 Employment rates by region, Great Britain, 2006-07**

Notes:
(1) In employment – a measure of employees, self-employed people, participants in government employment and training programmes, and people doing unpaid family work in businesses owned by family members or relatives
Source: Labour Force Survey, four quarter average, 4th quarter 2006 to 3rd quarter 2007
Types of employment

There are industrial and occupational differences between the minority ethnic population and the overall population. As in 2005-06, differences are larger among men than among women. In 2006-07 employed men from minority ethnic groups were more likely than men in Great Britain overall to be employed in the distribution, hotel and restaurant sector (24 per cent and 17 per cent respectively). Employed men from minority ethnic groups were less likely than men overall to be employed in the construction sector (6 per cent compared with 14 per cent of men overall) and in the manufacturing sector (13 per cent and 18 per cent respectively). By far the largest proportion of employed women in both minority ethnic groups and the total population worked in public administration, education and health, which accounted for 44 per cent and 43 per cent respectively.

In terms of occupation, employment in skilled trades showed the greatest disparity for men; 11 per cent of those from minority ethnic groups were employed in this area, compared with 19 per cent of men in Great Britain overall. There were smaller differences between women. Women from minority ethnic groups were slightly less likely than women overall to be employed in administrative and secretarial occupations (17 per cent compared with 20 per cent) but slightly more likely to work in associate professional and technical occupations (19 per cent compared with 16 per cent).

The larger differences between men compared with those between women may be in part due to the small number of women from some minority ethnic groups in employment. Pakistani and Bangladeshi women are largely absent from the occupational structure. If Pakistani and Bangladeshi women were to enter the employment market, their choices may be limited in a similar way to their male counterparts (who have fewer qualifications than other ethnic groups and, therefore, reduced occupational choices). This may increase differences in the female industrial and occupational structure.

As Figure 3.8 shows, overall, minority ethnic people have similar self-employment rates (13 per cent) to the general population. However, there were considerable variations within the minority ethnic population. Working Pakistani people had high self-employment rates (26 per cent). The Black African group, at 7 per cent, had the lowest self-employment rate.
Impact of labour market disadvantage

The major result of low employment rates for people from minority ethnic groups is poverty. The Households Below Average Income analysis uses the Family Resources Survey to calculate various measures of poverty. Table 3.1 shows the proportion of individuals in low income households (before housing costs) by ethnicity, based on three-year moving averages covering Great Britain, beginning with the period 1994-95 - 1996-97, and ending with the period 2004-05 - 2006-07. These figures show that minority ethnic people were more likely to be in poverty than White people. The Pakistani/Bangladeshi group had the highest proportion of people in poverty across all time periods. However, the proportion of Pakistani/Bangladeshi people in low income households has decreased: it was 64 per cent in 1994-95 - 1996-97, and 50 per cent in 2004-05 - 2006-07. Over the same period, the proportions of Black/Black British people in low income households also decreased.

Notes:
(1) Self-employment rates are expressed as a percentage of the working age population in employment
(2) Sample size for the Other Black group is too small for a reliable estimate
Source: Labour Force Survey, four quarter average, 4th quarter 2006 to 3rd quarter 2007

For children, the national target on halving the number of children in poverty is based on a threshold of 60 per cent of median equivalised household income measured Before Housing Costs. Equivalised household income is income adjusted to account for variations in household size and composition. Income is divided by scales that vary according to the number of adults and the number and age of dependants in the households. For the overall population there is no official poverty line but, for consistency, the poverty threshold used here is the same.

"Before housing costs" is the Government’s preferred measure. As noted in paragraph 25 of “Measuring Child Poverty” (2003), the Government’s strategy document for monitoring child poverty long term, this is the focus of the Modified Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) equivalisation scale.
Tables 3.2 and 3.3 present information for children over the same time periods, showing figures before and after housing costs\(^{23}\) respectively. Both measures show that children from all minority ethnic groups were more likely than White children to be living in poverty. Higher proportions of Pakistani/Bangladeshi children were in poverty across all time periods, followed by Black/Black British children. However, since 1994-95 - 1996-97, the proportion of children in low income households has steadily declined for all ethnic groups. The fall was steepest for Pakistani/Bangladeshi children (down 17 percentage points before housing costs, from 72 per cent to 55 per cent).

### Table 3.1 Percentage of people living in low income households (before housing costs), by ethnicity, Great Britain, 1994-95 - 1996-97 to 2004-05 - 2006-07

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>94-95 to 96-97</th>
<th>95-96 to 97-98</th>
<th>96-97 to 98-99</th>
<th>97-98 to 99-00</th>
<th>98-99 to 00-01</th>
<th>99-00 to 01-02</th>
<th>00-01 to 02-03</th>
<th>01-02 to 03-04</th>
<th>02-03 to 04-05</th>
<th>03-04 to 05-06</th>
<th>04-05 to 06-07</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black or Black British</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistani/Bangladeshi</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other ethnic group</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All people</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
1. Sample sizes for some ethnic groups are small, so care should be exercised when comparing across years.
2. Figures are based on OECD equivalisation factors. Therefore they will not be the same as figures previously published, which were based on McClements equivalisation factors.

Source: The Households Below Average Income Survey, DWP, 1994-95 to 2006-07

Tables 3.2 and 3.3 present information for children over the same time periods, showing figures before and after housing costs\(^{23}\) respectively. Both measures show that children from all minority ethnic groups were more likely than White children to be living in poverty. Higher proportions of Pakistani/Bangladeshi children were in poverty across all time periods, followed by Black/Black British children. However, since 1994-95 - 1996-97, the proportion of children in low income households has steadily declined for all ethnic groups. The fall was steepest for Pakistani/Bangladeshi children (down 17 percentage points before housing costs, from 72 per cent to 55 per cent).

### Table 3.2 Percentage of children living in low income households (before housing costs), by ethnicity, Great Britain, 1994-95 - 1996-97 to 2004-05 - 2006-07

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>94-95 to 96-97</th>
<th>95-96 to 97-98</th>
<th>96-97 to 98-99</th>
<th>97-98 to 99-00</th>
<th>98-99 to 00-01</th>
<th>99-00 to 01-02</th>
<th>00-01 to 02-03</th>
<th>01-02 to 03-04</th>
<th>02-03 to 04-05</th>
<th>03-04 to 05-06</th>
<th>04-05 to 06-07</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black or Black British</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistani/Bangladeshi</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other ethnic group</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All children</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
1. Sample sizes for some ethnic groups are small, so care should be exercised when comparing across years.
2. Figures are based on OECD equivalisation factors. Therefore they will not be the same as figures previously published, which were based on McClements equivalisation factors.

Source: The Households Below Average Income Survey, DWP, 1994-95 to 2006-07

---

\(^{23}\) Figures for children are shown after housing costs as well as before, for three reasons. First, a large proportion of minority ethnic groups live in London, where high housing costs may not accurately reflect the standard of living. Second, many members of minority ethnic groups are in receipt of housing benefit which may skew ‘before housing costs’ figures. Third, showing after housing costs retains continuity from previous years’ REPS reports, which used the ‘after’ measure. The two measures show different things, but are complementary.
A Communities and Local Government study estimated the potential economic benefit of removing the under-achievement of Black men in the labour market. The higher a person’s educational achievements are, the higher their gross (pre-tax) earnings are over the course of a lifetime, all other things being equal. As a result of lower educational achievements, Black men on average have lower lifetime earnings. This arises from spending a greater proportion of their lifetimes out of work and earning less when in work. Lower gross earnings and a higher unemployment rate also mean that this group pays lower taxes and receives more working tax credits. Higher unemployment also results in more payments of benefits, together with increased costs of administering benefits and aiding job search. The study concluded that if the gap in the achievements of Black men and non-Black men was closed, there could be an annual increase of £215m in gross earnings and taxes (£176m net of tax and benefits) associated with educational under-achievement. Over 50 years, there could be an increase of £7.1bn gross (£5.8bn net)24. There could also be a saving of £8m annually and £286m over 50 years in the costs of administering benefits and aiding job search (Communities and Local Government, 2007).

In another study, over two years to September 2007, researchers at the Institute for Employment Studies evaluated three pilot projects. Based in Bradford, Birmingham and Brent, these were intended to help disadvantaged minority ethnic residents gain steady work and new careers (Atkinson et al, 2008). The aim was also to test the effectiveness and value-for-money in addressing labour market disadvantage of a ‘demand-led’ approach. This involved the use of interventions designed to meet the requirements of specific employers’ job vacancies, as opposed to generic support of prospective employees in the open labour market.

---

24 This figure is not 50 times the annual figure because under Treasury Guidance for estimating costs over periods of time, costs should be reduced (‘discounted’) by a small percentage annually, reflecting the fact that people prefer to receive benefits sooner rather than later. The discount rate is used to convert all costs and benefits to ‘present values’ so that they can be compared. The discount rates recommended by the Treasury were used in this study (HM Treasury, The Green Book. Appraisal and Evaluation in Central Government)
Those from minority ethnic groups constituted three-quarters of those who began jobs overall, and in two of the pilots comprised between 80 and 90 per cent. However, numbers gaining employment were “disappointingly small”. Of those who had completed courses, only 40 per cent were hired, and sustainability of employment was also much lower than envisaged. The pilots were also found to have relatively high operational costs, making them “a significantly more expensive proposition than most comparable initiatives”.

The report concluded that, beyond fairly readily employable individuals in minority ethnic communities, the pilots’ reach had not been greatly tested and that they might well be quite inadequate for addressing “more profound… or more entrenched barriers to employment”. However, the authors also noted that:

“If membership of [minority ethnic] communities per se constitutes an important and constraining disadvantage in the labour market (and there is some evidence that it might), the pilots can claim a good measure of success in reaching, and helping, disadvantaged individuals.”

Perceptions of labour market discrimination

The 2004 Spending Review (Treasury, 2005) included a target for Communities and Local Government to reduce the proportion of people from minority ethnic groups who believe that they are likely to suffer discrimination in the labour market. The PSA was measured by the Citizenship Survey.

Overall, as shown in Table 3.4, the most frequently specified reason for people feeling that they had been turned down for a job in the last five years was because of their age (21%). However, among people from minority ethnic groups, the most frequently specified reason was their race (21%), followed by colour (17%) and age (13%). The proportion of people from minority ethnic groups feeling they had been turned down for a job because of their race is unchanged from 2003, when 24 per cent of people thought this.

Since 2003, the overall proportion of current employees who feel they have been discriminated against with regard to promotion or progression has fallen from 12 per cent to 9 per cent. In 2007-08, 16 per cent of people from minority ethnic groups in current employment felt they had been discriminated against with regard to promotion or progression compared with 8 per cent of White people.

The most frequently specified reason for being treated unfairly at work with regard to promotion or progression was age (27%), followed by gender (22%). However, for people from minority ethnic groups, race (49%) and colour (46%) were the most frequently specified reasons. There has been no statistically significant change in the proportion of people from minority ethnic groups who have been treated unfairly with regards to promotion or progression who feel that this was for reason of race since 2003 (46%).
Minority ethnic groups’ perceptions of themselves as suffering disadvantage were strengthened by results from the British Social Attitudes Survey. Across a range of professions, almost a quarter of all White employers and managers (24 per cent) reported some level of racial prejudice, with rates over a third in the transport (40 per cent), distribution (39 per cent), construction (38 per cent) and manufacturing industries (36 per cent). The results suggest that people from minority ethnic groups may experience discrimination from employers (Heath and Cheung, 2006).

Other research (Roberts and Campbell, 2006) explored whether minority ethnic candidates encounter systematic disadvantage in job interviews. Drawing on 29 case studies, the research did not uncover any overt discrimination by interviewers against these candidates on the basis of ethnicity; however, it concluded that the job interview created a linguistic penalty for this group, arising from:

‘…the largely hidden demands on candidates to talk in institutionally credible ways and from a mismatch of implicit cultural expectations, evidenced by mutual misunderstandings, protracted attempts to resolve them and negative judgements by interviewers.’ (p149).

The study focused on interviews for low-paid, mainly manual work, and highlighted the need to establish whether similar processes are at work in interviews for higher paid and managerial level jobs.

---

Table 3.4 Reasons for being refused a job, by ethnicity, 2007-08

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>White</th>
<th>Asian</th>
<th>Black</th>
<th>Mixed</th>
<th>Chinese/ Other</th>
<th>All minority ethnic</th>
<th>All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faith</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colour</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area of residence</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Base = all respondents (refused a job in last five years) 588 356 320 63 87 826 699

Source: Citizenship Survey, 2007-08

---

The British Social Attitudes Survey asked respondents, “How would you describe yourself: as very prejudiced against people of other races, a little prejudiced, or not prejudiced at all?”
References


Communities and Local Government (2007) *REACH, An independent report to Government on raising the aspirations and attainment of Black boys and young Black men*


Chapter 4
Housing

This chapter provides evidence on the living conditions of minority ethnic groups, using 2006-07 data from the Survey of English Housing and 2006 data from the English House Condition Survey to update the trends that were reported in the statistical annex of the 2007 *Improving Opportunity, Strengthening Society* report.

This chapter begins by considering rates of overcrowding. This is followed by a discussion of households’ satisfaction with accommodation, which makes comparisons by type of tenure for each ethnic group. Findings on housing conditions from the English House Condition Survey are then presented, followed by an assessment of ethnicity and homelessness. Next the evidence on Gypsies and Travellers is considered, and finally the chapter looks at perceptions of racial discrimination by council housing departments and housing associations.

Summary

Key findings in relation to minority ethnic groups and housing are:

**Trends are generally positive among minority ethnic groups:**

- Rates of overcrowding and dissatisfaction with housing have declined among the minority ethnic population since 1996-97
- Between 1996 and 2006, the proportion of minority ethnic households living in non-decent homes fell from 51 per cent to 29 per cent. This level of improvement has reduced the gap between minority ethnic and White households living in sub-standard accommodation
- The number of minority ethnic households accepted as homeless decreased by 46 per cent between 2003-04 and 2006-07.
However, some areas for improvement remain:

- Despite overall improvements on overcrowding, between 1996-97 and 2006-07, rates of overcrowding remained higher for minority ethnic households than for White households and there has been little improvement since 2000-01. Overcrowding rates were highest for Bangladeshi households and lowest for White households (27 per cent and 2 per cent respectively in 2006-07).

- Between 1996-97 and 2006-07, minority ethnic households had higher levels of dissatisfaction with their accommodation than White households (12 per cent and 5 per cent respectively were dissatisfied in 2006-07).

- Between 2002-03 and 2006-07, dissatisfaction with housing among Bangladeshi households increased from 20 per cent to 25 per cent.

- Bangladeshi households (25 per cent) and Black African households (21 per cent) were the most dissatisfied in 2006-07, as they have been in each year since 1996-97. Dissatisfaction with housing is related to housing tenure and the concentration of Bangladeshi and Black African households in social sector housing is an important explanatory factor.

- In 2006-07, Bangladeshi and Black African households had the lowest levels of owner occupation, at 37 and 26 per cent respectively. These proportions were very similar to those for 2005-06.

- Pakistani, Bangladeshi, Black Caribbean and Black African people were more likely than the population as a whole to live in the 10 per cent most deprived areas in England and Wales in 2001.

- The proportion of White people feeling they would be racially discriminated against by a housing organisation increased from 15 per cent to 25 per cent between 2001 and 2007-08.

Public Service Agreements

In the Spending Review period 2004-05 – 2007-08, there were two PSA targets on housing relevant to race equality that became the responsibility of Communities and Local Government when it was created:

1. “Achieve a better balance between housing availability and the demand for housing, including improving affordability, in all English regions whilst protecting valuable countryside around our towns, cities and in the green belt and the sustainability of towns and cities.” (Communities and Local Government PSA 5).

2. “By 2010, bring all social housing into a decent condition with most of this improvement taking place in deprived areas, and for vulnerable households in the private sector, including families with children, increase the proportion in homes that are in decent condition.” (Communities and Local Government PSA 7).

---

26 Before this, the two 2004 PSA targets had been the responsibility of the Office of the Deputy Prime Minister (ODPM)
Overcrowding

Overcrowding for minority ethnic households declined from 13 per cent in 1996-97 to 11 per cent in 2006-07 (Survey of English Housing). This remains much higher than rates of overcrowding among White households, which stayed at around two per cent. Bangladeshi households saw the biggest improvement over this period, with overcrowding falling from 40 per cent in 1996-97 to 27 per cent in 2006-07 (all of this improvement occurred between 1996-97 and 2000-01). Figure 4.1 shows the breakdown for the main ethnic groups.27

Bangladeshi households were the most likely to be overcrowded in 2006-07 (27 per cent). Over the period from 1996-97, Bangladeshi households also had consistently higher overcrowding rates than other households. Pakistani households had the second highest rate (18 per cent), followed by Black African households (15 per cent). Bangladeshi and Pakistani groups tend towards larger family sizes, possibly contributing to overcrowding. However, the much higher rates of overcrowding among Bangladeshi households, compared with Pakistani households, suggests that other factors, including housing tenure, may contribute to overcrowding. Pakistani households are much more likely than Bangladeshi households to be owner occupied. Black African households, which have the third highest rates of overcrowding, are much smaller on average than Pakistani or Bangladeshi households but they have low rates of home ownership, in common with Bangladeshi households.

27 The Mixed, Chinese and Other ethnic group were aggregated into “Other”, because there were too few households in each group for separate estimates.
Over the four years up to and including 2006-07, rates of overcrowding were higher in London than in other Government Office regions for both White (4 per cent) and minority ethnic households (14 per cent). Minority ethnic households also had high rates of overcrowding in the North West and West Midlands Government Office regions (10 and 11 per cent respectively), but overcrowding among White households in these regions was much lower (2 per cent in each region).

**Dissatisfaction with accommodation**

Figure 4.2 shows the percentage of households dissatisfied with their accommodation between 1996-97 and 2006-07. Minority ethnic households as a whole were more likely to be dissatisfied with their accommodation than White households although the overall rate of dissatisfaction has been falling. Over the four years to 2006-07, Bangladeshi households had the highest rates of dissatisfaction with their accommodation (25 per cent), with levels also high for Black African households (21 per cent).

For all ethnic groups, rates of dissatisfaction were lower in 2006-07 than had been the case in 1996-97, pointing to an overall increase in satisfaction. The percentage of minority ethnic households that were dissatisfied with their accommodation fell from 16 per cent to 12 per cent between 1996-97 and 2006-07. However, rates of dissatisfaction have increased since 2002-03 among Bangladeshi households – dissatisfaction rates fell from 31 per cent in 1996-97 to 20 per cent in 2002-03 before rising to 25 per cent in 2006-07.

**Figure 4.2 Percentage of householders dissatisfied with accommodation, by ethnicity, four-year moving average rates, England, 1996-97 to 2006-07**

*Source: Survey of English Housing, four-year moving average, 1996-97 to 2006-07*
Since 1996-97, dissatisfaction rates have fallen in all four regions measured (the North, the Midlands, the South and London) for both White and minority ethnic households. Over this period, rates in all regions were higher for minority ethnic households, and highest in London. Figure 4.3 shows differences in 2006-07 between the dissatisfaction rates of White and minority ethnic households in the North of England (5 and 11 per cent respectively), the South of England (5 and 9 per cent respectively), in London (7 and 15 per cent respectively) and in the Midlands (5 and 8 per cent respectively).

**Figure 4.3** Dissatisfaction with accommodation by ethnicity and region, England, four-year moving averages, 2003-04 - 2006-07

Satisfaction with accommodation is highly correlated with tenure. Figure 4.4 shows the proportions dissatisfied with their accommodation together with tenure type for each ethnic group. As in 2005-06, in 2006-07 the ethnic groups with the highest levels of dissatisfaction with their accommodation were most likely to live in social sector housing: Bangladeshi (55 per cent), Black African (44 per cent) and Black Caribbean households (42 per cent). In 2006-07, Bangladeshi and Black African households had the lowest levels of owner occupation, at 37 and 26 per cent respectively. These proportions were very similar to those for 2005-06. White, Indian and Pakistani households, which have low rates of dissatisfaction, were most likely to be owner occupied (71, 76 and 70 per cent respectively).
While tenure is an important factor in dissatisfaction it is not the entire explanation. Table 4.1 shows that whilst rates of dissatisfaction were highest among social rented sector tenants as compared to other tenures, among those who shared the same tenure there were variations by ethnicity. Bangladeshi households had the highest rates of dissatisfaction among social rented sector households (33 per cent). Black African households had the highest rates of dissatisfaction among private rented households (22 per cent).
Table 4.1 Percentage of householders dissatisfied with accommodation by ethnicity and tenure, four-year moving average rates, England, 2003-04 – 2006-07

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnic group</th>
<th>Owner Occupied</th>
<th>Social Rented Sector</th>
<th>Private Rented Sector</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistani</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladeshi</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black Caribbean</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black African</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All minority ethnic</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All households</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey of English Housing, four-year moving average rates, 2003-04 to 2006-07

Housing conditions

The English Housing Condition Survey (EHCS) assesses overall national performance for meeting the Communities and Local Government’s 2004-05 - 2007-08 PSA 7 target for decent homes. The EHCS has been run as a continuous survey since 2002 and covers 8,000 homes annually.

The Communities and Local Government 2005-2008 PSA 7 relates to all social sector tenants (making the social sector stock decent as a whole) and to private sector ‘vulnerable’ households (increasing the proportion of households living in decent homes among those in receipt of means-tested and disability-related benefits). In order for a home to be ‘decent’ and for the target to be met, it must be free from hazards assessed as serious under the Housing, Health and Safety Rating System, and must be warm, weatherproof and have reasonably modern facilities.

In 2006, a disproportionate number of minority ethnic households fell within the PSA 7 population. Nearly half (44 per cent) of minority ethnic households were social tenants or private sector vulnerable households, compared with 31 per cent of White households. Particular ethnic groups were more heavily concentrated in the PSA 7 target population – for example, Black, Pakistani and Bangladeshi households.
Disparities and trends

Figure 4.5 draws on the EHCS for 1996 and 2006. It shows modelled results for the percentage of households living in non-decent homes by ethnic group, and PSA target groups.²⁸

There has been a substantial reduction in the proportion of minority ethnic households living in non-decent homes since 1996. The modelled results show that around half (51 per cent) of minority ethnic households lived in non-decent homes in 1996 (compared with 43 per cent of White households). This decreased substantially to 29 per cent by 2006 – a 44 per cent reduction in the proportion living in non-decent homes.

The gap between the percentage of minority ethnic households and White households living in non-decent homes has narrowed since 1996. It was 8 percentage points in 1996 and 4 percentage points in 2006. Although the narrowing was not statistically significant, the gap between the PSA 7 target population (among whom ethnic minority households are over-represented) and others narrowed significantly over the same period. This suggests that inequalities for minority groups are decreasing.

²⁸ Trends in the disparities between minority ethnic and White households were modelled. This was partly because of a restrictive sample size but also because of the difficulties of assessing disparities between groups over time where the evidence is based on a sample survey with confidence intervals around each of its estimates. Further details can be found in http://www.communities.gov.uk/documents/housing/pdf/ehcstrp05.pdf
Minority ethnic households were also over-represented in areas of multiple deprivation in England and Wales. The 2001 Census found that around four in ten Bangladeshis and Pakistanis (44 per cent and 38 per cent respectively) lived in the 10 per cent most deprived areas of multiple deprivation, compared with one in ten of the population overall. Black Caribbean (23 per cent) and Black African people (24 per cent) were twice as likely as the general population to live in the most deprived areas. Indians (11 per cent) were less likely to live in the 10 per cent most deprived areas and White people were least likely to do so (9 per cent).29

Homelessness

Minority ethnic households are over-represented among households accepted as homeless in England. Minority ethnic households made up 21 per cent of all households accepted as homeless and in priority need by local authorities in England in 2006-07. This was a considerably larger proportion than their relative share of all households; minority ethnic households accounted for 11 per cent of all households in England in mid-2005. There were however marked differences between minority ethnic groups in 2006-07. Black African and Black Caribbean households together accounted for 10 per cent of those accepted as homeless while Indian, Pakistani and Bangladeshi households together accounted for six per cent of acceptances.

The number of households accepted as homeless rose steadily between 1997-98 and 2003-04. Since 2003-04 the number has fallen by 46 per cent to the 2006-07 number of around 73,000 homeless households. The decrease occurred among both White and minority ethnic households (Figure 4.6).

---

29 This is partly circular. An area is classified as deprived partly based on the characteristics of its resident population. Factors such as high unemployment, low economic activity and low educational levels in the resident population are taken into consideration. Hence areas that contain groups with these characteristics, such as Bangladeshi, Pakistani and Black groups, are more likely to be classified as deprived.
Qualitative research (Ethnos, 2005) suggested that the most common causes of homelessness among particular ethnic groups were:

- **Black Caribbean people**: pregnancy and overcrowding (young, single women); child abuse, time in care, drug abuse, school exclusion, crime and mental health problems
- **Black African people**: pregnancy, family tensions and relationship breakdown, and overcrowding
- **South Asian people**: domestic violence, forced marriages and family disputes (households headed by single women); being forced by private landlords to leave their accommodation (couples with children); and overcrowding.

**Figure 4.6** Homeless households in priority need accepted by local authorities, by ethnicity, England, 1997-98 to 2006-07

Notes
(1) Households found to be eligible for assistance, unintentionally homeless and falling within a priority need group, and consequently owed a duty by a local housing authority. Figures reflect decisions under the 1996 Housing Act, and any residual 1985 Housing Act cases

(P) Provisional

Gypsies and Travellers

There is currently very little data on the housing conditions and requirements of the Gypsy and Traveller population, both for those living on sites and those living in bricks and mortar housing. However, the accommodation needs assessments required by the Housing Act 2004, that have been completed by local authorities in England, will help to address that lack of information. Alongside the work on assessing accommodation needs, a bi-annual count of Gypsy and Traveller caravans has been undertaken by local authorities in England since 1979.

Figure 4.7 shows that the number of caravans in England increased from just over 15,000 in July 2004 to almost 18,000 in January 2008. The general increase in caravan numbers may be due to more accurate counting and a general increase in the Gypsy and Traveller population in line with the settled population. The East and South East Government Office regions had the largest concentration of caravans in January 2008 – 4,443 and 3,420 caravans respectively.

Gypsies and Travellers live on a variety of sites. These include authorised sites, where the pitches may be socially-rented or privately-owned, and unauthorised sites, some of which are also on land owned by Gypsies and Travellers. Table 4.2 shows changes between January 2007 and January 2008 in the distribution of caravans across the different types of site. In all periods, the majority of caravans were on authorised sites. The final column of Table 4.2 shows that in January 2008, 78 per cent of caravans were on authorised sites, with a slightly greater percentage of caravans on privately-owned sites (41 per cent) compared with those that were socially rented (37 per cent).
Just under a quarter (22 per cent) of Gypsy and Traveller caravans were on unauthorised sites in January 2008 and just over half of these were ‘not tolerated’ – that is, local authorities, the police or landowners were actively seeking to remove the encampment or development. Unauthorised sites include those where caravans are on land owned by Gypsies and Travellers, but where they do not have permission to develop that land, and those that are on roadside encampments. In both cases, there was a greater number of caravans on unauthorised sites that were ‘not tolerated’ than those that were ‘tolerated’.

### Table 4.2 Number and percentage of Gypsy caravans by type of site, England, January 2007, July 2007 and January 2008

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authorised sites (with planning permission)</td>
<td>13073</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>13157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socially rented¹</td>
<td>6564</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>6605</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>6509</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>6552</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unauthorised sites (without planning permission)</td>
<td>3538</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3977</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caravans on Sites on Gypsies’ own land</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerated²</td>
<td>997</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not tolerated</td>
<td>1255</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caravans on Sites on land not owned by Gypsies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerated</td>
<td>491</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>573</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not tolerated</td>
<td>795</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total caravans</td>
<td>16611</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>17134</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(1) Previously referred to as local authority sites. Includes sites owned by Registered Social Landlords
(2) Tolerated sites are those where the local authority, police or landowner have not instigated procedures to remove the encampment

Source: Bi-annual Gypsy and Traveller Count, Communities and Local Government

### Perceptions of treatment

The Citizenship Survey asks people whether they would be treated better, worse or the same as people of other races by a range of organisations. These include council housing departments or housing associations as well as other public organisations such as the police and the prison service. Among people from minority ethnic groups, perceptions of housing departments are very positive, compared with their perceptions of other organisations. In 2007-08, no more than 11 per cent of people from a minority ethnic group believed that they would be treated worse than people of other races by a council housing department or housing association. People from minority ethnic groups were also less likely than White people to expect worse treatment than people of other races by council housing departments or housing associations (Figure 4.8). This was true across the period 2001 to 2007-08. The proportion of White people feeling they would be

---

³⁰ The focus is on worse treatment because in the Spending Review period 2004-05-2007-08, Communities and Local Government’s PSA 10 target was a decrease in the percentage of people from minority ethnic communities who feel that one or more of the key public services would treat them worse than people of other races.
treated worse than other races increased from 15 per cent to 25 per cent between 2001 and 2007-08. There was no change between 2001 and 2005 for minority ethnic people, for whom the figure remained at around 13 per cent over this period, and in 2007-08 the figure decreased to 11 per cent. The relatively positive views expressed by people from minority ethnic groups are encouraging. However, the perception by White people that they are discriminated against may contribute to race and cohesion problems.

**Figure 4.8** Percentage who feel they would be treated worse than other races by a housing organisation, by ethnicity, England and Wales, 2001, 2003, 2005 and 2007-08

Communities and Local Government commissioned qualitative research in order to understand the drivers of Black and Asian people's perceptions of racial discrimination in eight key public services, including housing (Communities and Local Government, 2008). It found that respondents tended to perceive that housing services had become fairer. However, the main reasons for expected discrimination by housing services revolved around allocation policies: the perception that refugees are prioritised, and the perception that minority ethnic applicants get worse areas and properties than other applicants.
References


Communities and Local Government (2008) The Drivers of Black and Asian People’s Perceptions of Racial Discrimination by Public Services: A Qualitative Study. Communities and Local Government


CHAPTER 5: HEALTH AND PERSONAL SOCIAL SERVICES
Chapter 5
Health and personal social services

This chapter examines health and personal social services and ethnicity. It begins by considering health inequalities using a range of measures: infant mortality, self-reported health status, limiting long-term illness, ischaemic heart disease or stroke, diabetes, smoking and obesity. (All but the first of these measures are taken from the Health Survey for England, and since the 2004 survey is the most recent survey that focused on minority ethnic people, it has not been possible to update these findings.) Some data on the health of Gypsies and Travellers are also included; these focus specifically on issues around access to services and variation in health outcomes. Data on service provision across ethnic groups are then presented, drawing on a range of large scale national surveys.

Summary

Key points about variations in health outcomes between minority ethnic groups are given below.

Positive findings include:

- Between 1999 and 2004 the prevalence of bad or very bad self-reported general health fell for Indian women from 12 per cent to 8 per cent. Among Indian women rates of limiting long-term illness also fell – from 25 per cent in 1999 to 19 per cent in 2004
- In 2004, after standardising for age, Black African men and women were less likely than the general population to report having ischaemic heart disease or stroke
- Between 1999 and 2004 the prevalence of cigarette smoking fell among Black Caribbean men (35 per cent to 25 per cent), and among Irish men (39 per cent to 30 per cent) and women (33 per cent to 26 per cent)
- In 2004, the prevalence of obesity was lower than the general population for Pakistani, Indian, Chinese and Bangladeshi men.
But for many groups, inequalities persist:

- Babies in the Pakistani and Caribbean ethnic groups had particularly high infant mortality rates.
- Among Pakistani women rates of limiting long-term illness rose between 1999 and 2004 (from 23 per cent to 30 per cent).
- Among Pakistani men the prevalence of ischaemic heart disease or stroke increased between 1999 and 2004, from 5 per cent to 9 per cent.
- In 2004, after standardising for age, Pakistani men were twice as likely as men in the general population to report ischaemic heart disease or stroke.
- In 2004, Pakistani women were five times more likely to report doctor-diagnosed diabetes than women in the general population. Bangladeshi men were nearly four times more likely than men in the general population to report this condition.
- In 2004, the prevalence of obesity was higher than the general population for Black African, Black Caribbean and Pakistani women.
- Gypsies and Travellers have poorer health status and higher proportions of self-reported symptoms of ill-health than other groups. They also face considerable barriers in accessing health care services.
- Patient surveys show that minority ethnic patients are more likely than White patients to report that they are not as involved as they would like to be in decisions affecting their care and treatment.
- In 2007, as in 2005 and 2006, admission rates to mental health facilities were highest in Black and Mixed White/Black groups (three or more times higher than average).
Public Service Agreements

The Department of Health’s 2004-05 - 2007-08 spending period targets relevant to race equality were to:

‘Secure sustained annual national improvements in [NHS] patient experience by 2008, as measured by independently validated surveys, ensuring that individuals are fully involved in decisions about their healthcare, including choice of provider.’ (DH PSA 7)

The Department of Health (2004) requires that the experience of minority ethnic groups is monitored as part of these surveys.

There is also a national health inequalities target to: ‘reduce health inequalities by 10 per cent by 2010 as measured by infant mortality and life expectancy at birth.’

This target is underpinned by two more detailed objectives:

• Starting with children under one year, by 2010 to reduce by at least 10 per cent the gap in mortality between the routine and manual group and the population as a whole
• Starting with local authorities, by 2010 to reduce by at least 10 per cent the gap in life expectancy at birth between the fifth of areas with the ‘worst health and deprivation indicators’ and the population as a whole.

Health inequalities

The aim of the Government’s health inequalities strategy is to narrow the gap in health outcomes across a range of dimensions including geographical areas, across socio-economic groups, between men and women, across different minority ethnic groups, across age groups, and between the majority of the population and vulnerable groups and those with special needs.

People from minority ethnic communities experience significant inequality in health outcomes, with many also experiencing other social conditions that cause social inequality. Patterns of mortality and morbidity in the population vary by ethnicity. Lifestyle factors and social factors affecting health also vary by ethnicity. However, it should be borne in mind that much of the inequality in health outcomes associated with ethnicity is likely to be related to deprivation.

31 For example, see Chapters 2 (on employment), 3 (education) and 4 (housing)
Infant mortality

Data on infant mortality by ethnic group were published for the first time in 2008. Rates per 1,000 live births are shown in Figure 5.1a.

The data indicate that there are differences in the infant mortality rates of ethnic groups in England and Wales. For babies born in 2005, those in the Caribbean and Pakistani groups had particularly high infant mortality rates, 9.8 and 9.6 deaths per 1,000 live births respectively. This was double the rate in the White British group of 4.5 deaths per 1,000 live births.
Data on infant mortality are also collected by mother’s country of birth. This is not the same as measuring infant mortality by ethnic group, as it identifies only mothers who were born overseas and about half the minority ethnic population is UK-born. However, it is included in this report because it allows us to see trends over time. Rates per 1,000 births, based on numbers of live births and infant deaths, are shown in Figure 5.1b.

**Figure 5.1b** Infant mortality by mother’s country of birth (for selected countries), three-year rolling averages, England and Wales, 1999-2001 and 2004-2006

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All mothers who gave birth in England &amp; Wales</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>England &amp; Wales and elsewhere in the UK</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scotland</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Ireland</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish Republic</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rest of Europe</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Africa</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern Africa</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rest of Africa</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Far East</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caribbean</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Notes**

1. In order to minimise fluctuations for small groups, three-year rolling average rates are used. However, some of the rates shown are still based on small numbers (for example the Far East); consequently annual rates can fluctuate.
2. Based on infant deaths registered in England and Wales that have been linked to their corresponding birth records. Linkage enables analysis by risk factors collected at birth registration, including mother’s country of birth.
3. “Elsewhere in the UK” includes Channel Islands, Isle of Man, UK (part not stated).

Source: Data published in Mortality Statistics: Childhood, Infant and Perinatal (Series DH3) volumes 32-34, 37-39 (ONS)
The data indicate inequalities for some groups. In 2004-2006, the infant mortality rate in England and Wales (based on deaths linked to birth records) was 4.9 per 1,000 live births, 0.6 fewer deaths per 1,000 live births than in 1999-2001. However, babies of mothers born in Pakistan and the Caribbean (as well as parts of Africa) had considerably higher infant mortality rates than the average for all mothers.

General health

This section presents the same data (as used in the 2007 progress report) from the 1999 and 2004 Health Surveys for England on a range of health issues for both men and women. Since the 2004 survey is the most recent survey that focused on minority ethnic people, it has not been possible to update these findings.

The Health Survey for England is a survey of people living in private households in England. The 1999 and 2004 surveys focused on the health of adults from various minority ethnic groups and included a boosted sample of minority ethnic people for this purpose. In other years there is no ethnic boost sample and so meaningful analyses by ethnicity are not possible. The data show inequalities between ethnic groups in general health (self-reported health and limiting long-term illness), prevalence of specific conditions (ischaemic heart disease and stroke, and diabetes) and health-related behaviour (smoking).

The age profile of the different ethnic groups varied considerably, and health outcomes and behaviours are related to age. Age-standardised risk ratios for 2004 are included in each table alongside the percentages to enable ethnic groups to be compared allowing for differences in age profile. Risk ratios greater than one indicate a higher prevalence in the ethnic group than the general population, after taking into account differences in age profile. Risk ratios less than one indicate lower prevalence than the general population. Comparisons between percentages for 1999 and 2004 for an ethnic group do not take into account possible changes in age profile over time.

---

32 The standardised risk ratio is the ratio of the age-standardised prevalence in an ethnic group to the age-standardised prevalence in the general population. The ‘general population’ is not intended to represent the remainder of the population (that is, all who are not members of these groups), but refers to the entire population of England, and therefore includes minority ethnic groups. For further details see: http://www.archive.official-documents.co.uk/document/doh/survey99/fse99-01.htm#1.4

33 Percentages in tables are rounded
Self-reported general health

Table 5.1 presents data on self-reported general health in 1999 and 2004. It shows the proportion reporting their health as ‘bad’ or ‘very bad’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Black Caribbean</th>
<th>Black African</th>
<th>Indian</th>
<th>Pakistani</th>
<th>Bangladeshi</th>
<th>Chinese</th>
<th>Irish</th>
<th>General population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Men</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentages 1999</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentages 2004</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standardised risk ratio</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Women</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentages 1999</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentages 2004</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standardised risk ratio</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>0.55074</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes
(1) The Black African group was included in the 2004 survey but not the 1999 survey
Source: Health Survey for England, 1999 and 2004

In 2004 both men and women from Bangladeshi and Pakistani groups and Black Caribbean women were more likely than the general population to report bad or very bad health, after allowing for differences in age profile (standardised risk ratios between 1.90 and 4.02). Chinese women were less likely than the general population to report bad or very bad health (standardised risk ratio of 0.55). Differences from the general population for other ethnic groups were not statistically significant. This pattern of health inequality was the same as that in 1999.

Among the general population, there was no significant change in the prevalence of bad or very bad self-reported general health between 1999 and 2004. The same was true for all minority ethnic groups, with the exception of Indian women, where the rates of bad or very bad health fell from 12 per cent in 1999 to 8 per cent in 2004.
Self-reported limiting long-term illness

Table 5.2 shows the proportions of adults reporting a limiting long-term illness.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Black Caribbean</th>
<th>Black African</th>
<th>Indian</th>
<th>Pakistani</th>
<th>Bangladeshi</th>
<th>Chinese</th>
<th>Irish</th>
<th>General population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Men</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentages 1999</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standardised risk ratio 2004</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Women</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentages 1999</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standardised risk ratio 2004</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes
(1) The Black African group was included in the 2004 survey but not the 1999 survey
Source: Health Survey for England, 1999 and 2004

In 2004 Pakistani women and Bangladeshi men were more likely than those in the general population to report a limiting long-term illness, after allowing for differences in age profile. In contrast, Black African men, and Chinese men and women, were all less likely than the general population to report having a limiting long-term illness.

The overall prevalence of limiting long-term illness for men and for women in the general population was about the same in 2004 as it had been in 1999. For Indian women, rates of reported limiting long-term illness fell between 1999 and 2004 (from 25 per cent to 19 per cent). By contrast, rates for Pakistani women rose (from 23 per cent to 30 per cent).
Ischaemic heart disease and stroke

Table 5.3 shows the prevalence of ischaemic heart disease (IHD) or stroke.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5.3: Proportion suffering ischaemic heart disease or stroke, by ethnicity, England, 1999 and 2004</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentages 1999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standardised risk ratio 2004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentages 1999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standardised risk ratio 2004</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes
(1) The Black African group was included in the 2004 survey but not the 1999 survey
(2) Comparative data for the general population were not available on the prevalence of stroke from the 1999 and 2004 surveys, so data for the general population were taken from the 1998 and 2003 surveys. There were some differences between the weighting in the 1998 and 2003 surveys compared with the 1999 and 2004 surveys

In 2004 the prevalence of IHD or stroke was lower than the general population for Black African men and women (standardised risk ratios of 0.22 and 0.37), but higher than the general population for Pakistani men (standardised risk ratio of 2.12), after allowing for differences in age profile. The pattern of disease between minority ethnic groups was similar to that reported in 1999.

Between 1999 and 2004, the prevalence of IHD or stroke increased among Pakistani men from 5 per cent in 1999 to 9 per cent in 2004. In all other groups there was no statistically significant difference in the prevalence of IHD or stroke between 1999 and 2004.
Diabetes

Table 5.4 shows the prevalence of diabetes\(^{34}\).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Black Caribbean</th>
<th>Black African</th>
<th>Indian</th>
<th>Pakistani</th>
<th>Bangladeshi</th>
<th>Chinese</th>
<th>Irish</th>
<th>General population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Black Caribbean</td>
<td>Black African</td>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>Pakistani</td>
<td>Bangladeshi</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>Irish</td>
<td>General population</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>5.32</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes

(1) The Black African group was included in the 2004 survey but not the 1999 survey
(2) Comparative data for the general population are not available on the prevalence of doctor-diagnosed diabetes from the 1999 and 2004 surveys, so data for the general population are taken from the 1998 and 2003 surveys. There are some differences between the weighting in the 1998 and 2003 surveys compared with the 1999 and 2004 surveys

Source: Health Survey for England, 1999 and 2004

After adjusting for age, in 2004 diabetes was almost four times as likely in Bangladeshi men, and almost three times as likely in Pakistani and Indian men compared with men in the general population. Among women, diabetes was more than five times as likely among Pakistani women, at least three times as likely in Bangladeshi and Black Caribbean women, and two-and-a-half times as likely in Indian women compared with women in the general population.

Between 1999 and 2004, there was no significant change in the prevalence of diabetes for any minority ethnic group. However, rates in the general population increased slightly over the period.

\(^{34}\) This refers to reported doctor-diagnosed diabetes. Respondents were asked whether they ever suffered from diabetes. If they had, they were then asked if their doctor had made this diagnosis. Respondents were classified as having diabetes only if they reported that the diagnosis was confirmed by a doctor.
Smoking

Table 5.5 shows the proportion of current cigarette smokers by ethnic group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Black</th>
<th>Black</th>
<th>Indian</th>
<th>Pakistani</th>
<th>Bangladeshi</th>
<th>Chinese</th>
<th>Irish</th>
<th>General population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Caribbean</td>
<td>African</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentages 1999</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>Standardised risk ratio 2004</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>1.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>Percentages 1999</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Standardised risk ratio 2004</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes
(1) The Black African group was included in the 2004 survey but not the 1999 survey
Source: Health Survey for England, 1999 and 2004

In 2004 both Bangladeshi and Irish men were more likely to report current smoking than the general population (standardised risk ratios of 1.43 and 1.30), after allowing for differences in age profile. Indian men were less likely to report currently smoking cigarettes than men in the general population.

The pattern of cigarette smoking among minority ethnic groups was very different for women compared with men. Around one quarter of Black Caribbean women, Irish women and women in the general population were current cigarette smokers. Among all other minority ethnic groups, prevalence of cigarette smoking was low, ranging from 2 per cent among Bangladeshi women to 10 per cent among Black African women.

Between 1999 and 2004 prevalence of cigarette smoking in the general population fell for both men and women. Among Irish men and women cigarette smoking fell, as it did for Black Caribbean men. For all other minority ethnic groups there was no significant change in the prevalence of cigarette smoking over this period.
Obesity

Table 5.6 shows obesity levels by ethnicity. Obesity is defined in terms of Body Mass Index (BMI). The relationship between BMI and body fat varies between ethnic groups; however, there are no agreed ethnicity-specific BMI cut-off points for obesity. Therefore, the data presented here uses the general population obesity cut-off point (over 30kg/m²), although this may not be entirely appropriate for all minority ethnic groups.

Obesity prevalence in the general population has increased since the early 1990s. As shown in Table 5.6, between 1999 and 2004, the prevalence of obesity showed an increase among men and women in the general population and across several minority ethnic groups - however, the increase was statistically significant only for Black Caribbean men: among this group, obesity increased from 18 per cent in 1999 to 25 per cent in 2004.

After adjusting for age, the prevalence of obesity was lower than the general population for Pakistani and Indian men and markedly lower for Chinese and Bangladeshi men. After adjusting for age, Bangladeshi men were almost five times, and Chinese men almost four times, less likely to be obese than men in the general population.

For women in 2004, after adjusting for age, obesity was more prevalent among Black African, Pakistani, and Black Caribbean women than in the general population. Black African women were twice as likely, and Pakistani and Black Caribbean women about 50 per cent more likely, to be obese. Obesity was less prevalent among Chinese women who were about three times less likely to be obese than women in the general population.

| Table 5.6: Proportion who are obese (Body Mass Index over 30kg/m²), by ethnicity, England, 1999 and 2004 |
|---------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
|                                | Black        | Black       | Indian      | Pakistani   | Bangladeshi | Chinese     | Irish       | General     |
|                                | Caribbean    | African     |             |             |             |             |             | population  |
| **Men**                        |              |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |
| Percentages 1999               | 18           | n/a         | 12          | 13          | 5           | 6           | 20          | 19          |
| 2004                           | 25           | 17          | 14          | 15          | 6           | 6           | 25          | 23          |
| Standardised risk ratio 2004   | 1.03         | 0.79        | 0.60        | 0.76        | 0.22        | 0.26        | 1.07        | 1.00        |
| **Women**                      |              |             |             |             |             |             |             |             |
| Percentages 1999               | 32           | n/a         | 20          | 26          | 10          | 5           | 21          | 21          |
| 2004                           | 32           | 38          | 20          | 28          | 17          | 8           | 21          | 23          |
| Standardised risk ratio 2004   | 1.43         | 2.00        | 0.89        | 1.48        | 0.89        | 0.32        | 0.88        | 1.00        |

Notes
(1) Based on those aged 16 and over with both valid height and weight measurements
(2) The Black African group was included in the 2004 survey but not the 1999 survey
Source: Health Survey for England, 1999 and 2004
The health status of Gypsies and Travellers

While it is generally accepted that Gypsies and Travellers have poorer health than the general population, reliable data on the health of adult Gypsies and Travellers is relatively scarce. In an attempt to fill this gap an epidemiological study of Gypsies and Travellers in five areas of England (London, Bristol, Sheffield, Leicester and Norfolk) was undertaken (Parry et al. 2004).

The health status of Gypsy and Travellers and their access to health services may be influenced by their nomadic lifestyle (whether by choice or through necessity), their minority ethnic status, their social deprivation and educational disadvantages, or their socio-economic status. Rather than simply compare the health status of Gypsies and Travellers to UK norms, Parry et al. (2004) made planned comparisons which allow these factors to vary systematically. In their study, 260 Gypsy and Travellers were matched for age and sex with a non-Gypsy and Traveller comparator living in one of the five locations. All the comparators were English-speaking and were from one of four sub-groups:

- Low income White residents (English or Irish) in a socially deprived area
- Residents of mixed income levels from a rural community (of any ethnicity)
- British Muslim people of Pakistani origin, of any socio-economic status

When compared with the comparator group, Gypsies and Travellers were found to have a range of poorer health outcomes. Key findings for a range of health conditions are shown in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7: Health Conditions of Gypsies and Travellers compared with comparator group, England, 2004

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Health condition</th>
<th>Gypsies and Travellers Base 260</th>
<th>Comparator groups Base 260</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Health status over last year reported as ‘not good’</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reported long-term illness or disability</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depression</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bronchitis</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respiratory problems including asthma</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accidents in last 6 months calling for visit to GP or hospital</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes
(1) The comparative percentages are adjusted for age and gender of the different groups
The health conditions which show the most marked inequality are bronchitis (41 per cent compared with 10 per cent), self-reported anxiety (38 per cent compared with 13 per cent) and respiratory problems including asthma (65 per cent compared with 40 per cent). An increased prevalence of miscarriages, stillbirths, neonatal deaths and premature death of older offspring was also observed. There was less inequality observed in diabetes, stroke and cancer (Parry et al. 2004).

Research on Gypsies and Travellers’ access to health services (see Parry et al. 2004; Doyal et al. 2002) has also identified that:

- GPs often do not accept Gypsies or Travellers onto their lists or refuse treatment after first surgeries
- Among Gypsy and Traveller communities, there is poor take-up of dental services, often caused by poor access
- Preventive care and screening can be inadequate, sometimes due to the mobility of Gypsies and Travellers
- There is poor continuity of care and follow-up for Gypsies and Travellers, made worse by lack of medical records
- Gypsies and Travellers value mobile clinics
- Gypsies and Travellers make a greater use of A&E for primary care compared with the general population.

Patients’ experiences of health services

The National Health Service Patient Survey programme is funded by the Department of Health and co-ordinated by the Healthcare Commission. This is one vehicle by which patients’ experiences of health services in England can be assessed. The 2006-07 round of surveys focused on community mental health services and adult inpatients. Across these areas, experiences varied according to ethnic group.

In May 2008, the Department of Health, in partnership with the Healthcare Commission, published a report on the self-reported experience of patients from Black and minority ethnic groups. Using data from the patient survey programme up to and including the 2006-07 surveys, the report compares results for different ethnic groups with the White British group.
In the survey of community mental health services, overall few differences between minority ethnic groups were observed. However, Black people were less likely than the White British group to say they received talking therapies if they wanted them. Notably, Black patients were more likely to give positive responses to questions about information around their diagnosis and medications than their White British counterparts. Asian people were more negative than the White British group in questions about being given a phone number for out-of-hours services and receiving information about local support groups (Department of Health, 2008).

The adult inpatient survey showed different patterns of variation depending on the topic. Whilst in some areas patients from some minority ethnic groups tended to give more negative responses, there were also other examples where they were consistently more positive about their experiences in hospital. Most minority ethnic groups, and in particular Asian people, were more negative than the White British group for questions around access and waiting (eg was your admission date changed by the hospital?). A similar pattern was found in questions around building relationships with staff (ie did doctors/nurses talk in front of you as if you weren’t there?). Black people gave more positive responses than the White British group in questions around information they were given before they went home. Minority ethnic groups were overall more positive than the White British group in relation to questions about noise at night. However, minority ethnic groups were more likely than the White British group to report that they would have liked more involvement in decisions about their care and treatment (Department of Health, 2008).

Mental health

The ‘Count Me In’ census was carried out by the Healthcare Commission for the first time in 2005, again in 2006 and most recently in 2007. In 2007, data were collected for 31,187 inpatients on mental health wards in 257 NHS and independent health care organisations in England and Wales. Ethnicity data were available for 99 per cent of patients – the ethnic group of the patients in the census is shown in Table 5.8. Note that the data have not been standardised for age, and that ethnic differences in the age profiles of minority ethnic populations may contribute to some of the patterns in the mental health inpatient population.
In 2007, admission rates to mental health facilities were lower than average for White British, Indian and Chinese groups, and average for Pakistani and Bangladeshi groups, and higher than average in all other ethnic groups. Rates of admission were highest for Black and Mixed White/Black groups (three or more times higher than average).

43 per cent of inpatients to mental health hospitals were detained under the Mental Health Act on their admission to hospital, a somewhat higher proportion to that found in 2005 (39 per cent) and 2006 (40 per cent). Of all detained patients, over a quarter (29 per cent) were from a minority ethnic group. Those from the Black Caribbean, Black African, Other Black, Mixed White/Black Caribbean, and Mixed White/Black African groups were more likely than average to be detained. The Black Caribbean, Other Black and Mixed White/Black Caribbean groups had higher than average rates of detention under section 37/41 – where a person is sent to hospital for treatment by the courts, under a restriction order by the Home Office.
The patterns observed in the 2007 Count Me In census are broadly similar to those observed in the 2005 and 2006 censuses. This is in part because some patients are long-stay: 30 per cent of patients had been in hospital for one year or more.

**Learning disabilities**

In 2007 the Count Me In census also collected information about 4,153 inpatients in 120 organisations providing services for those with learning disabilities in England and Wales. Ethnicity data were available for 99 per cent of inpatients. The census found that admission rates were lower than average among the South Asian, Chinese, and White Irish groups, and two to three times higher than average for the Black Caribbean, Other Black, Mixed White/Black Caribbean and Mixed White/Black African groups. There were, however, no differences between groups in detention rates.

**Social services provision**

2006-07 was the sixth year for which performance indicators on social services for older people, broken down by ethnicity, were published. The indicators on receiving assessments and social services show whether minority ethnic groups are over- or under-represented among social services users. Figures should be interpreted with caution due to data quality problems.

**Assessment and review**

There are two personal social services performance indicators relating to minority ethnic groups in England. The first relates to the proportion of older people from a minority ethnic group receiving an assessment. The second relates to the proportion of older people from a minority ethnic group receiving services following an assessment.

In 2006-07, the proportion of minority ethnic older people receiving an assessment was higher than the proportion of White older people receiving an assessment.

Among older people receiving an assessment in 2006-07, there was little difference by the main ethnic groups in the percentage that had started, or intended to start, services. The percentages were 72 per cent among Mixed ethnicity clients, followed by 71, 69, 69 and 67 per cent for White, Asian, Black and Other ethnic group clients respectively. Clients from Other ethnic groups were least likely to have new service provision after assessment; 22 per cent were offered no new services.

In 2006-07, 91 per cent of Asian clients aged 18 and over received community-based services. As in previous years, this is higher than other ethnic groups, as Table 5.9 shows.

The Asian or Asian British group also had the lowest percentage of clients receiving independent residential services (4 per cent). This figure is slightly lower than in 2005-06 (5 per cent).
Perceptions

The 2007-08 Citizenship Survey found that, for all ethnic groups, proportions expecting local GPs to treat them worse than other races were extremely low, and lower than for seven other public service agencies measured. This was also the case in 2005, 2003 and 2001. In 2007-08, only 4 per cent of people from minority ethnic groups felt they would be treated worse than people of other races by local GPs.

Table 5.9 Percentage distribution of type of service for adults aged 18 and over, by ethnicity, England, 2003-04 to 2006-07

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>White %</th>
<th>Mixed %</th>
<th>Asian %</th>
<th>Black %</th>
<th>Other ethnic group %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Community based services</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003-04</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004-05</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005-06</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006-07</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Authority residential services</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003-04</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004-05</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005-06</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006-07</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent residential services</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003-04</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004-05</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005-06</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006-07</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nursing home care</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003-04</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004-05</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005-06</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006-07</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
(1) There will be some double counting across services, as movement between services is possible within the year
(2) 2003-04 figures are derived from estimations based upon the actual figures from 145 P4 forms

35 The focus is on worse treatment because in the Spending Review period 2004-05-2007-08, Communities and Local Government’s PSA 10 target was a decrease in the percentage of people from minority ethnic communities who feel that one or more of the key public services would treat them worse than people of other races
References


Parry, Glenys, Patrice Van Cleemput, Jean Peters, Julia Moore, Stephen Walters, Kate Thomas and Cindy Cooper (2004) The Health Status of Gypsies and Travellers in England University of Sheffield
Chapter 6
The Criminal Justice System

This chapter presents the evidence on minority ethnic groups’ experiences of the criminal justice system (CJS). First, it focuses on attitudes towards crime and CJS agencies. Next, it concentrates on people’s experiences of using the CJS. Findings are then presented on suspects, defendants and prisoners. Finally, there is a section on CJS employment for minority ethnic groups.

Summary

Key positive trends in relation to ethnic groups’ experience of the criminal justice system are:

- In 2006-07, as in 2004-05 and 2005-06, people from the Asian group and the Chinese and Other group were more likely than other ethnic groups, in particular White people, to rate each agency (the police, the Crown Prosecution Service, judges, magistrates, prisons, probation service and youth courts) as doing a good or excellent job.

- Asian people, and those in the Chinese and Other group, were more likely to have high levels of confidence in various functions of the CJS compared with people from the other ethnic groups, in particular people from White ethnic backgrounds.

- Between 2003-04 and 2006-07, White people had increased levels of confidence that the CJS respects the rights of and treats fairly people accused of committing a crime. Over the same period, Asian people and White people had increased confidence that the CJS is very or fairly effective in reducing crime, and that the CJS deals with cases promptly and efficiently.

- Between 2001 and 2007-08, perceptions of race discrimination in the courts, the Crown Prosecution Service (CPS), the police, the prison service and the Probation Service improved among minority ethnic communities.

- Between 2003-04 and 2006-07 there were decreases in the risk of being a victim of crime for White people, and for those from Asian ethnic backgrounds.

- The disproportionate rate at which Black people become homicide victims dropped between the three-year period ending 2006-07 and the three-year period ending 2004-05. However, people from all minority ethnic groups are still more likely to be homicide victims than White people.

---

Of the 13,544 charges relating to racist incidents reported in the Racist and Religious Incident Monitoring Scheme in 2006-07, 66 per cent resulted in a successful prosecution – a rise of 2 percentage points on the previous year.

The proportion of staff from a minority ethnic group has increased every year since 2004-05 in the police, prison and probation services.

Between 2005-06 and 2006-07, the number of police officers from a minority ethnic group increased by around 5 per cent, and prison officers by around 6 per cent.

Between 2005-06 and 2006-07, in common with the previous two years, the greatest percentage increases in the number of police officers were for the Asian and Mixed groups.

The proportions of minority ethnic staff in the CPS and the Probation Service continue to be above their proportion in the overall population, and have been since 2002-03.

However, areas for improvement remain:

In 2006-07, those from Asian and Black ethnic backgrounds showed the highest levels of worry about burglary, car crime and violence.

Between 2003-04 and 2006-07, levels of worry about burglary and violence both rose among people from Asian backgrounds.

Between 2003-04 and 2006-07, confidence that the CJS is very or fairly effective in dealing with young people accused of crime fell among people from Black and White backgrounds.

British Crime Survey (BCS) data show that levels of confidence in how the CJS performs various functions decreased between 2005-06 and 2006-07 among all ethnic groups apart from those from Asian backgrounds.

People from Mixed ethnic backgrounds had a higher risk of becoming a victim of crime (36 per cent) than people from all other ethnic groups (Black, 27 per cent; Asian, 25 per cent; Chinese or Other, 25 per cent; and White, 24 per cent). This is likely to reflect the socio-demographic characteristics of the Mixed ethnic group, particularly the young age profile.

There were increases in the risk of victimisation between 2005-06 and 2006-07 for White people and for those from Black ethnic backgrounds.

In 2006-07, the number of racially motivated crimes estimated by the British Crime Survey (BCS) was 184,000, compared with 139,000 in 2005-06, 179,000 in 2004-05, and 206,000 in 2003-04. Police figures showed a slight increase over the same period; there were 53,000 incidents in 2003-04, 57,000 in 2004-05, 59,000 in 2005-06, and 61,000 in 2006-07. However, this may indicate better recording and a greater willingness to report.
• Black people continue to be over-represented at every stage of the CJS:
  – In 2006-07, Black people were seven times more likely than White people to be stopped and searched under section 1 of the Police and Criminal Evidence Act (1984). Asian people were twice as likely as White people to be stopped and searched. This over-representation is similar to 2005-06 and has increased since 2004-05
  – In 2006-07, the arrest rate for Black people was 3.6 times that for White people. The arrest rate among Asian people and those from Other ethnic groups was very close to the rate for White people, but still higher. These findings are similar to those since 2003-04
  – In June 2007, for every thousand Black people in the population, 7.4 were in prison. This proportion has increased from 7.3 in June 2006, and 7.1 in June 2005
• In 2007-08, 28 per cent of people from minority ethnic groups felt that they would be treated worse than people of other races by one or more of five CJS agencies; however, this has decreased from 33 per cent in 2001.

Public Service Agreements

In the Spending Review period 2004-05-2007-08, Home Office PSA 2 (Treasury, 2005) set out a target to:

“Reassure the public, reducing the fear of crime and anti-social behaviour, and building confidence in the Criminal Justice System without compromising fairness.”

PSA 2(e) was specifically concerned with confidence among minority ethnic groups. Its target was for:

“The percentage of people from Black and minority ethnic communities who think that one or more CJS agency would treat them worse than people of other races [to be] lower than in the baseline year (2001).”

Responsibility for the three reassurance components of the overall PSA 2 target lay with the Home Office. The three elements relating to confidence were shared between Communities and Local Government, the Home Office, the Ministry of Justice and the Attorney General’s Office.
Context

Over the last two decades, people from certain minority ethnic groups have been more likely than the White population and people from other minority ethnic groups to be:

- stopped and searched
- arrested
- prosecuted, and
- sent to prison.

People from minority ethnic groups are often disadvantaged compared with the White population in terms of education, employment and housing37 – all of which partly predict offending behaviour and involvement in the criminal justice process. Disproportionate outcomes reported in this chapter, where they exist, do not equate to discrimination; instead, they offer prima facie evidence of discrimination which requires more examination to see if the processes underlying the disproportionality are legitimate (Hearnden and Hough, 2004).

Differences in measurement and classification of ethnicity

This chapter draws on data from various surveys and CJS organisations. Although all analyses show variations by ethnicity, the data are obtained by different methods and by using different classification systems.

The 2001 Census included 16 ethnic groups in England and Wales and was based on self-identified ethnic group. Most social surveys, including the Citizenship Survey and the British Crime Survey (BCS), use the 2001 Census classification. This means that people have been offered 16 choices of ethnic group and asked which group they feel they belong to.

Administrative data from the Youth Justice System, Probation and Prisons, and employment data from CJS agencies, are also based on self-identified ethnicity.

However, data from the police and the courts – including stop and search and arrest data – continue to draw on visual perception classifications. The ethnicity of suspects and defendants is therefore the ethnic group that is perceived by the police officer recording the information. Because of this, ethnicity is only coded to five categories – White, Black, Asian, Other and ‘Not known’. A police officer’s perception may not always correspond with a suspect’s self-identified ethnicity. In particular, there may be inconsistency in the recording of people from a Mixed ethnic group. Also, apparent changes over time in the ethnicity of suspects may reflect changes in the recording of ethnicity by police officers as well as changes in the ethnic composition of those stopped and searched or arrested.

37 See Chapters 2, 3 and 4 of this annex
Since 1 April 2003, it has been mandatory for all police forces to record ethnicity using self-assessment by the suspect, selecting from the 16-point 2001 Census classification. However, due to the high proportion of missing data, the five-point visual perception classification data are believed to be more robust, and are used in presentation of police force data for 2007-08.

Attitudes towards crime and the CJS

This section includes details on attitudes towards CJS agencies, worry about crime and perceptions of treatment. It draws on two main sources: the BCS, which covers self-reported crime; and the Citizenship Survey.

Attitudes to the CJS

The BCS asks how good a job seven CJS agencies are doing. Figure 6.1 shows results for 2006-07. As in 2004-05 and 2005-06, people from the Asian group and the Chinese and Other group were more likely than people from other ethnic groups, in particular White people, to rate each agency as doing a good or excellent job. Other than for the police, ratings were low across all groups (Jansson et al., 2007).

![Figure 6.1 Perception that CJS agencies are doing a good or excellent job, by ethnicity, England and Wales, 2006-07](chart)

Notes:
(1) Police ratings relate to confidence in the police in general, not the local police
Source: British Crime Survey, 2006-07

38 For further information see Statistics on Race and the Criminal Justice System 2006-07 Ministry of Justice 2008, page 4
Between 2005-06 and 2006-07, the proportion of White people who thought the local police do a good or excellent job increased from 49 per cent to 50 per cent. Compared with 2005-06, there was a decrease in 2006-07 in the proportion of people from White, Asian, Black, and Chinese and Other groups who rated judges, magistrates, prisons and probation services as doing a good or excellent job. The proportion of people from White backgrounds and from Chinese and Other backgrounds who rated Youth Courts as doing a good or excellent job also decreased between 2005-06 and 2006-07.

The BCS also asks respondents about their confidence in how the CJS performs various functions. Results for 2006-07 are shown in Figure 6.2.

**Figure 6.2 Confidence in the CJS, by ethnicity, England and Wales, 2006-07**

Source: British Crime Survey, 2006-07
Asian people, and those in the Chinese and Other group, were more likely to have high levels of confidence compared with people from the other ethnic groups, in particular people from White ethnic backgrounds. People from Asian ethnic backgrounds, and from Chinese and Other backgrounds, were more likely to have a high level of confidence in the CJS being effective in bringing offenders to justice, in reducing crime, and dealing with cases promptly and efficiently than people from Mixed, Black and White ethnic groups. Those from Black ethnic backgrounds were also more likely to have higher levels of confidence than White people, other than in relation to the treatment of witnesses, and respecting the rights of people accused of committing a crime and treating them fairly. Those from White ethnic backgrounds were less likely to have confidence than people from minority ethnic backgrounds that the CJS meets the needs of victims and is effective in dealing with young people accused of crime.

Levels of confidence in the CJS decreased between 2005-06 and 2006-07 for all ethnic groups other than those from Asian backgrounds. Between 2003-04 and 2006-07, White people had increased levels of confidence that the CJS respects the rights of and treats fairly people accused of committing a crime, is very or fairly effective in reducing crime, and deals with cases promptly and efficiently. Over the same period, there was an increase in the proportion of Asian people who were confident in the CJS being effective in reducing crime (rising from 51 per cent to 56 per cent), and in the CJS dealing with cases promptly and efficiently (rising from 54 per cent to 57 per cent). However, between 2003-04 and 2006-07, confidence that the CJS is very or fairly effective in dealing with young people accused of crime fell among people from Black and White backgrounds.

**Perceptions of treatment**

The 2007-08 Citizenship Survey asks respondents about expectations of treatment by five CJS agencies; their responses are shown in Figure 6.3. Over the period 2001 to 2007-08, people from minority ethnic groups were consistently more likely than White people to report that CJS organisations would treat them worse than other races (Communities and Local Government, 2008a).

Despite this, the proportion of people from minority ethnic communities who thought that each of the five agencies would discriminate against them fell between 2001 and 2007-08. Overall in 2007-08, 28 per cent of people from minority ethnic groups felt that they would be treated worse than people of other races by one or more of the agencies. This represented a considerable decline from the level in 2001 (33 per cent).

---

39 Confidence in how well witnesses are treated was not measured in 2003-04
The reasons underlying perceptions of discrimination in the CJS are complex. Qualitative research in 2006 with Black and Asian people into the drivers of perceptions of discrimination indicated that trust in the police also influenced perceptions of discrimination by other CJS agencies (Communities and Local Government, 2008b).

The research suggested that views about the police were shaped by personal experience; respondents who had dealings with professional, courteous and sensitive police officers were more inclined to think that the police were fair. However, those who had personally experienced unprofessional or aggressive treatment, or who personally knew someone who had done so, were more likely to think of the police as racist.

Negative experiences of the police usually occurred in the context of stop and search. Wider knowledge of the disproportionality of police stop and search, discussed later in this chapter, was also cited by respondents as evidence of discrimination by police.

However, respondents also cited high profile cases involving perceived unfair treatment by the police as evidence that the police discriminated against minority ethnic groups. Another driver of perceptions of racial discrimination by the police was a perceived lack of accountability.
Worry about crime

Between 2005-06 and 2006-07, no changes in the levels of worry about any of the three crime types were statistically significant among any ethnic groups. However, between 2003-04 and 2006-07, levels of worry rose among people from Asian backgrounds for burglary (from 25 per cent to 29 per cent) and for violence (from 36 per cent to 39 per cent). Between 2003-04 and 2006-07, the proportion of White people with high levels of worry about car crime fell from 14 per cent to 12 per cent.

BCS data in Figures 6.4a to 6.4c show the extent of worry about burglary, car crime and violent crime for 2003-04 to 2006-07 for each of the five ethnic groups. In 2005-06 and 2006-07, those from Asian and Black ethnic backgrounds showed the highest levels of worry about burglary, car crime and violence, while people from White ethnic backgrounds had the lowest levels of worry. Rates for those in the Chinese and Other group were similar to those for people from Asian and Black backgrounds in 2004-05, but were lower in the two following years for all three crime categories.

Figure 6.4a Percentage of people with a high level of worry about burglary, by ethnicity, England and Wales, 2003-04 to 2006-07

Sources:
British Crime Survey, 2006-07
British Crime Survey, 2004-05
Communities and Local Government, Improving Opportunity, Strengthening Society – One Year On
British Crime Survey, 2003-04
Figure 6.4b Percentage of people with a high level of worry about car crime, by ethnicity, England and Wales, 2003-04 to 2006-07

Sources:
British Crime Survey, 2006-07
British Crime Survey, 2004-05
Communities and Local Government, Improving Opportunity, Strengthening Society – One Year On
British Crime Survey, 2003-04

Figure 6.4c Percentage of people with a high level of worry about violent crime, by ethnicity, England and Wales, 2003-04 to 2006-07

Sources:
British Crime Survey, 2006-07
British Crime Survey, 2004-05
Communities and Local Government, Improving Opportunity, Strengthening Society – One Year On
British Crime Survey, 2003-04
Experiences of crime

The 2006-07 BCS found that people from Mixed ethnic backgrounds had a higher risk of becoming a victim of any BCS crime (36 per cent) than people from all other ethnic groups (Black, 27 per cent; Asian, 25 per cent; Chinese and Other, 25 per cent; and White, 24 per cent). This is likely to reflect the socio-demographic characteristics of the Mixed ethnic group, particularly the young age profile. 38 per cent of men from Mixed ethnic backgrounds were aged 16-24. The proportions for men from Asian and Black ethnic backgrounds were 20 per cent and 16 per cent respectively.

Figure 6.5 shows BCS findings on the risk of victimisation for each ethnic group for each year between 2003-04 and 2006-07 (Jansson, 2007). Between 2003-04 and 2006-07 there were decreases in the risk of victimisation for White people (from 26 per cent to 24 per cent), and for those from Asian ethnic backgrounds (from 31 per cent to 25 per cent). Other apparent changes were not statistically significant.

Figure 6.5 Percentage at risk of all BCS crime, by ethnicity, England and Wales, 2003-04 to 2006-07

Notes:
(1) All BCS crime is calculated treating a household crime as a personal crime. It is the estimated percentage of adults who have been a victim of at least one personal crime or have been resident in a household that was a victim of at least one household crime
Sources:
British Crime Survey, 2006-07
Communities and Local Government, Improving Opportunity, Strengthening Society – One Year On

The BCS includes crimes that are not reported to the police and crimes which are not recorded by them. It includes property crimes and personal crimes. It does not cover commercial victimisation, crime against children, so-called victimless crime (eg illegal drug use) or crime such as murder where a victim is no longer available for interview.
Homicide is extremely rare. However, there were wide disparities between ethnic groups in the risk of homicide (that is, murder, manslaughter and infanticide). In the three years from 2004-05 to 2006-07, the police recorded 2,241 homicides, of whom 492 were known to be from minority ethnic groups. Just under three-quarters of victims were White (72% per cent), 11 per cent were Black, 8 per cent were Asian and 3 per cent Other. In 6 per cent of homicides the ethnicity was not known.

Black people were three times more likely than White people to be a victim of homicide while Asian people were just over twice as likely (see Figure 6.6). The respective figures for the three years from 2003-04 to 2005-06 were 4.5 times more likely and 1.5 times more likely.

![Figure 6.6 Number of homicides per 10,000 population, England and Wales, by ethnicity, combined data for 2004-05 to 2006-07](image)

Notes:
(1) Offences recorded as homicide as at 12 November 2007. Figures are subject to revision as cases are dealt with by the police and the courts, or as further information becomes available.
(2) Number of victims: White 1,610; Black 248; Asian 169; Other 75. Overall total includes 52 victims of the 7 July 2005 London bombings.
Sources:
Ministry of Justice, Statistics on Race and the Criminal Justice System 2006-07
Mid-2006 population estimates, published by ONS as experimental statistics, consistent with the mid-year population estimates for each year current in August 2008 http://www.statistics.gov.uk/StatBase/Product.asp?vlnk=14238

While the risk for White people was similar for men and women and all age groups, research has shown that Black victims were predominantly young men (Bullock and Tilley, 2002). As Figure 6.7 shows, over the period 2004-05 to 2006-07, 27 per cent of Black victims died from shooting, compared to 5 per cent of White victims. Both White and Asian victims were more likely to fall victim to hitting or kicking (19 per cent and 15 per cent respectively) than Black victims (4 per cent).

41 The 2003-04-2005-06 figures exclude 20 homicides at Morecambe Bay, which would distort figures. In this incident, which took place in February 2004, a group of Chinese cockle pickers died in Morecambe Bay, Lancashire after being trapped by fast-moving tides. Their gangmaster was convicted of their manslaughter in March 2006.
There are two types of data on racist incidents – those reported to the BCS, and those recorded by police forces. BCS data are obtained by asking all BCS victims of a crime whether they believe that there was a racist element, and then multiplying up to arrive at a national estimate for England and Wales; the police force data are based on all incidents recorded by police.

During 2006-07 61,000 racist incidents were recorded by the police, a rise of 3.7 per cent on the 2005-06 total of 59,000. Totals have increased from 48,000 in 2002-03, possibly reflecting greater encouragement and willingness to report, and better recording, rather than actual rises in numbers. The BCS estimated a total of 184,000 racist incidents across England and Wales in 2006-07. This compares with 139,000 in 2005-06, 179,000 in 2004-05, and 206,000 in 2003-04.

In 2006-07, of all BCS crimes where the victim was from a minority ethnic group, 10 per cent were perceived as racially motivated, compared with 1 per cent of crimes where the victim was White (Jansson, 2007). This applied to both household and personal crimes. These figures compare with rates of 11 per cent for minority ethnic groups, and 1 per cent for White people, in 2004-05 (Jansson, 2006).
The Crown Prosecution Service compiles information on prosecution decisions and outcomes in all cases identified by the police or the CPS as racist or religious incidents.\(^{44}\) Between April 2006 and March 2007, 9,145 racist incident defendant cases were submitted by the CPS to the Racist and Religious Incident Monitoring Scheme (RRIMS), equating to a total of 13,544 charges. Of the 13,544 charges, 10,179 (75 per cent) were prosecuted, and 8,947 (66 per cent) resulted in a successful prosecution – a rise of 2 percentage points on the previous year.

The number of RRIMS charges is substantially lower than the 60,400 racist incidents recorded by the police in 2005-06. This may reflect a pre-charge decision not to proceed; the difference between a perceived racist incident and a prosecutable offence; withdrawal of the complaint; the disappearance of the defendant; or incomplete proceedings – that is, the case may have been referred to the CPS but may require further investigations at the pre-charge stage.

However, the number of defendants reported to the RRIMS for racist incidents increased by 23 per cent between 2005-06 and 2006-07, and increased by 28 per cent between 2004-05 and 2005-06. Since 1998-99, the number of defendants reported has risen by at least 13 per cent each year.\(^{45}\) This may indicate an increase in the proportion of racist incidents recorded on the RRIMS.

### Table 6.1 Ethnic distribution of suspects and offenders at different stages of the criminal justice process, England and Wales, 2006-07

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity((^{1}))</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>Black</th>
<th>Asian</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>All minority ethnic</th>
<th>Unknown/ not recorded</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stops and searches((^{2}))</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arrests((^{3}))</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cautions((^{3}))</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crown Court((^{4}))</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Notes:**

1. Ethnicity was classified by the police officer based on their visual perception, not the suspect’s self-identified ethnicity
2. Stops and searches recorded by the police under section 1 of the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984 and other legislation
3. Arrests and cautions are for notifiable offences only
4. Crown Court information on ethnicity was missing in 18 per cent of cases; therefore, percentages are based on known ethnicity
5. * = not applicable

**Source:** Ministry of Justice, Statistics on Race and the Criminal Justice System 2007-08

----

\(^{44}\) A racist incident is defined by the police and the CPS as “any incident which is perceived to be racist by the victim or any other person”. (Macpherson definition)

\(^{45}\) Annual reports are available at [www.cps.gov.uk/publications/docs](http://www.cps.gov.uk/publications/docs)
Experience as suspects, defendants and prisoners

Most minority ethnic groups have experienced social and economic deprivation. Historic discrimination and over-policing are also possible factors resulting in disproportional representation within the CJS. Tables 6.1 to 6.3 show that, in 2005-06, as in previous years, people from minority ethnic groups as a whole were over-represented at each stage of the CJS (Ministry of Justice, 2008). This was especially true for Black and Asian suspects and offenders.

Table 6.1 shows the ethnicity of people who were stopped and searched, arrested, cautioned and dealt with by the Crown Court, as recorded by police officers according to their visual perception. In 2006-07, about one in four people (26 per cent) stopped and searched by police were recorded as belonging to a minority ethnic group. Black people alone accounted for just over one in six (16 per cent) of those stopped and searched. Black people were also more prominent in the Crown Court caseload although this is partly due to a tendency to elect for jury trial more often than other groups.46

Stops and searches

An important ‘gateway’ for offenders into the CJS is the process of stop and search. Section 1 of the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984 (PACE) gives police the power to search people in public if they have reasonable grounds for suspecting a person to have committed, or be about to commit, an offence. In 2006-07, there were 955,000 stops and searches recorded by the police under section 1 of PACE and other legislation. This is an increase of almost 9 per cent on 2005-06, and is the highest figure since 1998-89 (Ministry of Justice, 2008).

Compared with 2005-06, there was a 9 per cent increase in the number of searches recorded for White people, a 12 per cent increase for Black people, a 12 per cent increase for Asian people and a 5 per cent increase for the Other ethnic group. These increases could be explained, in part, by the London bombings of 7 July 2005, which led to an increase in the use of stop and search powers, not only under Section 44 of the Terrorism Act 2000, but also under section 1 of PACE.

---

46 The Crown Court has introduced an ethnic monitoring system which relies on court staff extracting the ethnicity of a suspect from the charge sheet supplied by the police. Figures are only published for those police force areas with the most complete data. In 2006 figures were based on 22 areas, an improvement from 2003, when figures were published for five police force areas, and from 2004 and 2005, which drew on 16 areas.
Figure 6.8 shows the number of stop and searches carried out under Section 1 of the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984 (PACE) for the different ethnic groups, per 1,000 people in their respective populations, for each of the four years to 2006-07. In 2006-07, the number of stops and searches carried out on Black people was 114 per 1,000 Black people in the population. Among White people the rate was 16 searches per 1,000 White people (Ministry of Justice, 2008). Black people were seven times more likely to be stopped and searched in 2006-07 compared with White people, a similar rate to 2005-06, and a higher rate than in 2004-05, when they were six times more likely to be stopped and searched. In 2006-07, Asian people were twice as likely as White people to be stopped and searched than White people. Again, this was a similar rate to 2005-06.

As discussed, the disproportionate use of stop and search is an important driver of the perception among minority ethnic people that the police, and other CJS agencies, discriminated against them.

Figure 6.8 Persons stopped and searched under Section 1 of PACE and other legislation, by ethnicity, England and Wales, per 1,000 population, 2003-04 to 2006-07

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number of searches per 1,000 population

Notes:
(1) Stops and searches recorded by the police under Section 1 of the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984 and other legislation
(2) Ethnicity was classified by the police officer based on their visual perception
Sources:
Home Office, Statistics on Race and the Criminal Justice System 2006
Ministry of Justice, Statistics on Race and the Criminal Justice System 2006-07

Arrests

Revised figures for 2004-05 are presented in the 2006 report on s95 statistics (Ministry of Justice, 2007), so are not consistent with those presented in the 2007 REPS report.
Figure 6.9 shows the incidence of arrests per 1,000 people in the population for different ethnic groups for the four years from 2003-04 to 2006-07. In 2006-07, the arrest rate for a notifiable offence for Black people was 3.6 times the arrest rate for White people, a slight rise from 2005-06, when it was 3.5 times the rate. Rates for Asian people and those from the Other ethnic group were similar to those for White people, but still higher. These disproportionality ratios are similar to those recorded since 2003-04 (Ministry of Justice, 2008). Compared with 2005-06, the number of arrests of Asian people increased in 2006-07 by nearly 5 per cent, those of Black people by nearly 6 per cent, and those of White people by almost 3 per cent. Arrests for people from the Other ethnic group fell by just under 3 per cent.

Patterns of disproportionality were similar to stop and search, but the differences less pronounced.

Figure 6.9 Persons arrested for notifiable offences, by ethnicity, per 1,000 population, England and Wales, 2003-04 to 2006-07

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
(1) Ethnicity was classified by the police officer based on their visual perception
(2) Three police forces were excluded from all four periods due to incomplete data in 2006-07
Sources:
Home Office, Statistics on Race and the Criminal Justice System 2005
Ministry of Justice, Statistics on Race and the Criminal Justice System 2006
Ministry of Justice, Statistics on Race and the Criminal Justice System 2006-07
Charging decisions

The Crown Prosecution Service commissioned equality and diversity impact assessments (EDIAs) of statutory charging decisions for the years 2004-05 and 2005-06. The EDIAs assess charging decisions (that is, whether or not the suspect is charged and, if charged, the type of offence with which the suspect is charged) by gender, age and ethnicity of the suspect. The 2005-06 EDIA found there was no variation of charging decision by the ethnic group of the suspect, except that non-White suspects were slightly less likely to receive a decision to No Prosecution on evidential grounds.

Cautions and proceedings

In 2006, a total of 343,718 persons were cautioned for notifiable offences, an increase of 19 per cent on the previous year. Of these, 279,557 (81 per cent) were recorded by police officers as White, 22,147 (over 6 per cent) as Black, 15,263 (4 per cent) as Asian, and 4,194 (1 per cent) were classified in the Other group. These proportions were very similar to those recorded for the previous year (Ministry of Justice, 2008).

In 2006, looking at the percentage of arrests resulting in a caution, Black people were slightly less likely to be cautioned (16 per cent) than Asian (20 per cent) or White people (24 per cent). The type and seriousness of the offence, the preparedness of the individual to admit guilt, police judgement that the offender has shown remorse, and local cautioning policy and practice may all contribute to variations in the use of cautions (Ministry of Justice, 2008).

Data on proceedings by ethnic group in 2006 were only available for magistrates’ courts for seven police force areas, and for the Crown Court for 22 police force areas. Data were not available from some areas with a high percentage of people from minority ethnic groups. The results presented here are not therefore representative of the national picture for England and Wales, and results must be treated with caution.

Ethnicity was recorded in 20 per cent of the magistrates’ court data supplied to the Home Office for cases in England and Wales for 2006 – the same proportion as in 2005, and one percentage point up on 2004. Figures for magistrates’ courts (combining data from seven police force areas, and excluding those committed to the Crown Court for trial) showed that:

- 60 per cent of White defendants were convicted, compared with 52 per cent of Black defendants and 44 per cent of Asian defendants
- 17 per cent of White defendants were committed to Crown Court for trial, 23 per cent of Black defendants and 33 per cent of Asian defendants.

---

48 Three forces were omitted from the analysis due to incomplete data
49 Criminal proceedings involve the examination of evidence and statements to determine mode of trial (ie whether at Crown or magistrates’ court) and the innocence or guilt of the defendant. The 22 police force areas are those with the most complete data (ie where ethnicity details were available for at least 85 per cent of defendants)
These variations, which are similar to those found in 2004 and 2005, may stem from differences in the types of offences, the decision by members of minority ethnic groups to have their cases tried in the Crown Court, or magistrates declining jurisdiction (Bowling and Phillips, 2002).

Figures for the Crown Court (combined data from 22 police force areas) showed that:
- 75 per cent of White defendants were found guilty in 2006, compared with 71 per cent of Black defendants and 69 per cent of Asian defendants. These proportions are similar to those reported in the previous three years.

**Sentencing**

Assessing disproportionality in sentencing is difficult, as the decision on how to sentence reflects the nature of the offence, the plea, the offender’s criminal history, and mitigating or aggravating factors. Sentencing decisions may therefore reflect these factors (which should legitimately be taken into account), disproportionality at earlier points in the CJS, or discrimination.

In magistrates’ courts, combining information for the seven police force areas (Ministry of Justice, 2008) showed that:
- similar proportions of White (10 per cent) and Black people (11 per cent) were sentenced to custody
- a slightly lower percentage (8 per cent) of Asian offenders received a custodial sentence at the magistrates’ court
- Asian offenders and Black offenders (both 16 per cent) were less likely to be given an absolute or conditional discharge than White offenders (23 per cent)
- Asian offenders (23 per cent) and Black offenders (22 per cent) were more likely to receive a fine than White offenders (19 per cent)
- Asian offenders (43 per cent) and Black offenders (42 per cent) were more likely to receive a community sentence than White offenders (39 per cent).

Most of these findings are similar to 2006 figures.

Of those sentenced in the 22 Crown Court areas in 2006, custody was given to a greater proportion of Black offenders (68 per cent), and those in the Other ethnic category (66 per cent), than White (55 per cent) and Asian offenders (59 per cent). This pattern is similar to those found in 2004 and 2005.
Young offenders

In 2006-07, 295,129 offences were notified to and dealt with by Youth Offending Teams, a decrease of 2.2 per cent on 2005-06. Table 6.2 shows that people from a minority ethnic group accounted for just over one in 10 cases (12 per cent) dealt with by a Youth Offending Team in 2006-07 – 6 per cent were Black, 3 per cent were Asian, 3 per cent were Mixed race and 1 per cent were classified in the Chinese and Other group. These findings are similar to those for 2004-05 and 2005-06.

Table 6.2 Ethnicity of persons dealt with by Youth Offending Teams, England and Wales, 2006-07

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>England and Wales</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ethnicity(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth offences</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General population aged 10-17 years</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
(1) Data on ethnicity are based on self-identified ethnic group
(2) Figures have been rounded and may not sum to 100
(3) * = not applicable

Sources:
2001 Census in England and Wales, Office for National Statistics
Ministry of Justice, Statistics on Race and the Criminal Justice System 2006-07

The overall percentage of youth offenders from minority ethnic groups is the same as their representation in the general population – in 2001, 12 per cent of the population of England and Wales aged 10 to 17 years belonged to a minority ethnic group. However, young Black people were over-represented, forming 6 per cent of youth offenders compared with 3 per cent of 10- to-17-year-olds in England and Wales.

Offences committed by Black youths (10 per cent) were more likely to result in a custodial sentence than those committed by those from any other ethnic background. However, the decision to impose a custodial sentence can be influenced by a variety of factors, including the nature and seriousness of the offence. Offences committed by young offenders who self-classified as Asian were most likely to attract a Referral Order (29 per cent).50

---

50 Referral orders are available for all young people aged 10-17 who appear in court for the first time. Those admitting the offence may be referred to a youth offender panel which, depending on the seriousness of the crime, can issue a referral order of between three and twelve months.
Prison population

Minority ethnic groups were over-represented among the prison population. On 30 June 2007, over a quarter (26 per cent) of prisoners aged 15 and over in England and Wales was from a minority ethnic group. This included foreign nationals, who comprised 39 per cent of all minority ethnic prisoners, a similar proportion to 2006.

Minority ethnic prisoners were also over-represented among British nationals. Figure 6.10 shows that on 30 June 2007, minority ethnic prisoners accounted for almost one in five (18.8 per cent) of the British national prison population. Black prisoners were particularly over-represented, accounting for 10.6 per cent of British national prisoners.

Figure 6.10 Population in prison establishments (excluding foreign nationals) by ethnicity, England and Wales, 30 June 2006 and 30 June 2007

Notes:
(1) Data on ethnicity are based on prisoners’ self-identified ethnic group
(2) Percentages for Unknown/not recorded were 0.7 per cent in both years
(2) Figures have been rounded and may not sum to 100
Sources:
Ministry of Justice, Statistics on Race and the Criminal Justice System 2006
Ministry of Justice, Statistics on Race and the Criminal Justice System 2006-07

51 Due to the changes in the classification systems, and the introduction of the Mixed category, it is not possible to compare prison population figures for 2007 and 2006 with earlier years
Figure 6.11 shows the rate of imprisonment per 1,000 people in the population, calculated for each ethnic group.

On 30 June 2007, for every thousand Black people in the population, 7.4 were in prison (British nationals only). This rate was over five times higher than the rate for White people. The rate for those of Chinese and Other ethnicity was lower than for White people, and the rate for people from Asian groups was higher than for White persons but lower than that for the Mixed or Black groups. These proportions were similar to those for 2006.

A study examining the impact of disadvantage and exclusion amongst Black boys and young men estimated the potential economic benefits of reducing the over-representation of Black males in the CJS in England and Wales as suspects, defendants and offenders. This considered what savings could be made to the costs of running the CJS if the representation of Black males was on a par with that of non-Black males. These benefits amounted to £583m annually or £17bn over 50 years (Communities and Local Government, 2007b).
Employment in the Criminal Justice System

This section summarises the latest data on the representation of minority ethnic groups as employees within some of the main criminal justice agencies. In most agencies there have been increases in the employment of people from minority ethnic groups in recent years. However, there was an extremely broad range of proportions of minority ethnic staff employed. Although most agencies are close to or have exceeded the proportion of minority ethnic representation in the general population, the majority of minority ethnic staff are employed in relatively junior roles.

Figure 6.12 shows that, between 2004-05, 2005-06 and 2006-07, minority ethnic staff as a whole increased from 3.5 per cent to 3.9 per cent among police officers, from 4.4 per cent to 4.8 per cent among prison officers and from 10.9 per cent to 12.9 per cent among National Probation Service staff.

**Figure 6.12** Percentage of Minority Ethnic police officers, prison officers and staff in National Probation Service, England and Wales, 2004-05, 2005-06 and 2006-07

Notes:
(1) All figures based on total staff, including those whose ethnicity was not known
(2) The periods covered differed slightly for each agency

Sources:
Ministry of Justice, Statistics on Race and the Criminal Justice System 2006
Ministry of Justice, Statistics on Race and the Criminal Justice System 2006-07
In addition to the years shown, proportions have increased every year for all three agencies. Despite these increases, the proportions of minority ethnic staff employed as police officers and prison officers were still lower than their proportion in the overall population, which was 10.9 per cent in mid-2005. The police figure, although an increase on the previous year’s figure, is still well below the 2009 target for minority ethnic representation of 7 per cent. However, the Probation Service exceeded the target set for it, of 8.3 per cent. The proportion of minority ethnic staff in the Probation Service staff has exceeded the proportion in the overall population every year since 2002-03.

**Police officers**

Between 2005-06 and 2006-07, there was an increase of 5.2 per cent in the number of police officers from a minority ethnic group, while there was a slight percentage decrease in the number of White officers (by 0.1 per cent). The increase varied according to ethnic group. The number of police officers from a Mixed ethnic background increased by 7.2 per cent between 2005-06 and 2006-07 and the number from an Asian background increased by 5.9 per cent (see Figure 6.13). However, the number of police officers from a Black ethnic group saw a smaller increase, of 2.7 per cent. The number of Chinese and Other police officers rose by 3.9 per cent, having fallen by 1.6 per cent in 2005-06.

![Figure 6.13 Percentage increase in police officers by ethnicity, England and Wales, 2005-06 to 2006-07](source: Ministry of Justice, Statistics on Race and the Criminal Justice System 2006-07)
Prison officers

Figure 6.14 shows the change in the proportions of prison officers from different ethnic groups between 2005-06 and 2006-07. As with the police, the percentage increase among minority ethnic prison officers as a whole was greater than the increase among White prison officers (6.4 per cent and 2.8 per cent respectively). The greatest percentage increase was for prison officers in the Other ethnic group (rising by 9.8 per cent).

![Figure 6.14 Percentage increase in prison officers by ethnicity, England and Wales, 2005-06 to 2006-07](image)

Notes:
(1) Data are not available for the Mixed ethnic group

Source: Ministry of Justice, Statistics on Race and the Criminal Justice System 2006-07

Courts and the CPS

On 31 March 2007, minority ethnic groups accounted for 6.8 per cent of all staff at magistrates’ courts. For the CPS, on 31 March 2007, minority ethnic staff comprised 14.8 per cent of all staff (a slight decrease from 15.2 per cent in 2005-06). Minority ethnic groups continue to be over-represented among CPS staff, as they have been since 2002-03, but under-represented among magistrates’ courts staff, relative to their size in the general population (10.9 per cent in mid-2005).
References


Communities and Local Government (2007b) REACH: An independent report to Government on raising the aspirations and attainment of Black boys and young Black men. Communities and Local Government


Chapter 7
Perceptions of community cohesion

This chapter presents findings relevant to community cohesion, using trend data from the Citizenship Survey and Survey of English Housing to explore variations between ethnic and faith groups. The chapter begins with perceptions of whether people from different backgrounds in the local areas get on well together and whether ethnic differences are respected. In addition to presenting the picture for England, results from the 10 areas included in the Local Areas Survey are discussed. The chapter then considers new analyses of the factors that predict community cohesion, including the relationship between social networks, perceptions of racial prejudice and cohesion. The chapter then turns to perceptions of racial harassment, using trend data from the Survey of English Housing, and for the first time, new data on racial and religious harassment from the 2007-08 Citizenship Survey.

The chapter concludes with new data from the 2007-08 Citizenship Survey on two other dimensions that may be relevant to community cohesion: people’s sense of belonging, both to their local areas and to Britain; and ‘meaningful interaction’, the extent to which people mix with people from different ethnic and faith groups to themselves.

Summary

Key findings in relation to community cohesion are as follows:

There are some positive trends:

- In 2007-08, 82 per cent of people in England agreed that they lived in an area where people of different backgrounds got on well together; this represented an increase in perceptions of cohesion since 2003 and 2005 (both 80 per cent)
- Perceptions of cohesion increased from 81 per to 86 per cent among Indian people between 2003 and 2007-08
- Between 2005 and 2007-08, perceptions of cohesion improved among both Muslims (from 81 per cent to 85 per cent) and Christians (from 80 per cent to 83 per cent)

52 Communities and Local Government’s definition of community cohesion is described in The Government’s response to the Commission on Integration and Cohesion (page 11) http://www.communities.gov.uk/documents/communities/doc681738.doc
53 The periods covered vary according to when the particular data was collected: Citizenship Survey data was collected biennially from 2001 to 2005 and then collected continuously from 2007 onwards (2007-08 figures cover the year 1 April 2007 to 31 March 2008); Survey of English Housing (SEH) data is collected annually
• Between 2005 and 2007-08, perceptions of cohesion improved in the North East from 69 per cent to 77 per cent
• Between 2003 and 2007-08, the percentage of people who felt strongly that they belonged to their neighbourhood increased from 70 per cent to 75 per cent
• In 2007-08, 80 per cent of people mixed socially at least once a month with people from different ethnic or religious backgrounds.

Although some areas for improvement remain:
• In 2007-08, one in five (20 per cent) Bangladeshi households in the Survey of English Housing (SEH) reported that racial harassment was a problem in their local area
• In 2007-08, using a new Citizenship Survey measure, 37 per cent of households overall and 65 per cent of Bangladeshi households reported that racial or religious harassment was a problem in their local area to some extent
• Almost three in five Sikh and Muslim households (59 per cent and 56 per cent respectively) felt that racial or religious harassment was a problem to some extent in their local area.

And differences in perceptions between ethnic and faith groups remain:
• In 2007-08, Indian (86 per cent) and Black African people (85 per cent) living in ethnically diverse areas were more likely than their White counterparts (80 per cent) to feel that people from different backgrounds got on well together
• Hindus (88 per cent), Muslims (85 per cent) and Christians (83 per cent) were all more likely than people with no religion (77 per cent) to feel that people from different backgrounds got on well together in their local area
• Pakistani (85 per cent) and Indian people (80 per cent) were more likely than White people (75 per cent) to feel a strong sense of belonging to their neighbourhood
• Muslims (81 per cent), Hindus (79 per cent), Christians (77 per cent) and Sikhs (77 per cent) were all more likely than people with no religion (62 per cent) to feel strongly that they belonged to their neighbourhood.

Public Service Agreements

This chapter focuses on two Public Service Agreement (PSA) targets which have a cohesion focus:
• **2004 Spending Review PSA 10 (Communities and Local Government):**
  The cohesion element of this PSA target involved increasing positive perceptions of community cohesion in the majority of the ten local areas measured in the Local Areas Survey (an extension of the Citizenship Survey)
Chapter 7: Perceptions of community cohesion

• 2007 Comprehensive Spending Review PSA 21 (cross-government): This PSA is about three associated and reinforcing agendas, building cohesive, empowered and active communities:
  – that maximise the benefits of diversity rather than fear it
  – where individuals are empowered to make a difference both to their own lives and to the communities and wider environment in which they live; and
  – where individuals are enabled to live active and fulfilled lives.

Three of the six PSA 21 indicators are directly linked with community cohesion: perceptions of community cohesion, the extent to which people have meaningful interactions with people from different backgrounds and perceptions of belonging to the neighbourhood. It is around these three strands of community cohesion – all measured using the Citizenship Survey – that this chapter is focused.

Relationships between people from different backgrounds

The Citizenship Survey is a large nationally representative survey of people in England and Wales that includes questions measuring perceptions of the local area. In 2007-08, 82 per cent of people in England perceived their community as cohesive, agreeing that their local area is a place where people from different backgrounds get on well together, an increase from 80 per cent in 2003 and 2005. Older people are more likely than younger people to think that their local area is cohesive. Cohesion is highest among those aged 75 or over (91 per cent) and lowest among those aged 16-24 years (76 per cent).

In 2007-08, as in previous years, people from a minority ethnic background were more likely than White people to feel that their local area was a place where people from different backgrounds got on well together (83 per cent compared with 81 per cent).

Figure 7.1 shows that in 2007-08 there was little variation between individual ethnic groups with the exception of Indian people, who were more likely than White people to think that their local area was cohesive (86 per cent compared with 81 per cent).

Between 2003 and 2007-08, perceptions of cohesion among individual ethnic groups remained largely unchanged, although there was an increase in perceptions of cohesion among Indian people (from 81 per cent to 86 per cent).

---

54 Responsibility for delivering 2007 PSA 21 is shared between Communities and Local Government (lead), the department for Culture, Media and Sport and the Office of the Third Sector
55 Although the Citizenship Survey includes Wales, only data for England is reported as the cohesion PSA does not cover Wales
56 Cohesion Research Statistical Release 4, June 2008, Communities and Local Government
57 Cohesion Research Statistical Release 4, June 2008, Communities and Local Government
Table 7.1 draws only on the 10 areas in Local Areas Survey to show changes between 2005 and 2007 in those agreeing that the local area is a place where people from different backgrounds get on well together. This shows an increase in three of the areas and a decrease in only one area.

Table 7.1  Change in proportion agreeing that the local area is a place where people from different backgrounds get on well together, Local Areas Survey, 2005 to 2007

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceptions of community cohesion</th>
<th>Number of areas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increased</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No change</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decreased</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
The Local Areas Survey – an extension of the Citizenship Survey – was carried out in ten case study areas in 2005 and 2007
Source: Local Areas Survey, 2005 and 2007

Figure 7.1 Percentage agreeing that people in the local area from different backgrounds get on well together, by ethnicity, England, 2003 to 2007-08

Notes:
From April 2007 the Citizenship Survey became a continuous survey
Figure 7.2 shows perceptions of community cohesion among those living in ethnically diverse areas across England.\footnote{An area is classified as ‘diverse’ if five per cent or more of the population are from a minority ethnic group (based on the 2001 Census)} Indian (86 per cent) and Black African people (85 per cent) living in diverse areas were more likely than White counterparts (80 per cent) to feel that their local area is a place where people from different backgrounds get on well together; other differences were not statistically significant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistani</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladeshi</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Asian</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black Caribbean</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black African</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other ethnic group</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All people</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 7.3 shows the pattern among faith groups across England. In 2007-08, Hindus (88 per cent) were more likely than Christians (83 per cent) to agree that in their local area people from different backgrounds get on well together. Hindus (88 per cent), Muslims (85 per cent) and Christians (83 per cent) were all more likely than those with no religion (77 per cent) to feel that people from different backgrounds get on well together in their local area.

Between 2005 and 2007-08 perceptions of cohesion improved among both Muslims (from 81 per cent to 85 per cent) and Christians (from 80 per cent to 83 per cent). Other groups also showed an upwards trend although the differences were not statistically significant.
There are regional variations in people’s views about whether people from different backgrounds get on well together. As Figure 7.4 shows, in 2003, 2005 and 2007-08, those in the south of England held more favourable views than those in the north. In 2007-08, perceptions of community cohesion were lowest in the North East (77 per cent) but perceptions had returned to the 2003 level (77 per cent), after having fallen to 69 per cent in 2005.
Respecting ethnic differences

The Citizenship Survey also asked respondents living in ethnically mixed areas whether they believed their local area was a place where residents respected ethnic differences. In 2007-08, 83 per cent of people in England agreed that their local area was a place where residents respected ethnic differences between people although there were variations by ethnicity. Figure 7.5 shows that Chinese (93 per cent), Indian (88 per cent), Black African (88 per cent) and Pakistani people (87 per cent) were all more likely than White people (83 per cent) to agree that their local area was a place where residents respected ethnic differences. Other minority ethnic groups had similar perceptions to their White counterparts.

Between 2003 and 2007-08 the percentage of White people in ethnically mixed areas in England who believed that residents respected ethnic differences increased from 78 per cent to 83 per cent. There was an upwards trend in perceptions among Indian, Black African, Chinese, the Other Asian group and the Other ethnic group, although these did not reach the level of statistical significance.

Notes:
From April 2007 the Citizenship Survey became a continuous survey
Table 7.2 shows findings from the 10 areas in the Local Areas Survey on whether people believed that the local area was a place where residents respected ethnic differences. Between 2005 and 2007 perceptions that residents respected ethnic differences increased in three areas and decreased in only one area. Perceptions were stable in the remaining six areas.

Notes:
(1) From April 2007 the Citizenship Survey became a continuous survey
(2) Figures for the Other Black group are not shown due to the small sample size

In 2007-08, Hindus (89 per cent) and Muslims (86 per cent) were both more likely than Christians (83 per cent) and those with no religion (81 per cent) to believe that residents in their local area respected ethnic differences between people (Figure 7.6). The views of Sikhs (84 per cent) and Buddhists (90 per cent) were not statistically different to those of Christians; although the difference between Buddhists (90 per cent) and Christians (83 per cent) appears large the sample size of the Buddhist group is very small. There were no statistically significant changes between 2005 and 2007-08 in any group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respect ethnic differences between different groups</th>
<th>Number of areas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increased</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No change</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decreased</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
The Local Areas Survey – an extension of the Citizenship Survey – was carried out in ten case study areas in 2005 and 2007.

Source: Local Areas Survey, 2005 and 2007

Table 7.2 Change in proportion agreeing that the local area is a place where residents respect ethnic differences, Local Areas Survey, 2005 to 2007

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respect ethnic differences between different groups</th>
<th>Number of areas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increased</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No change</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decreased</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
The Local Areas Survey – an extension of the Citizenship Survey – was carried out in ten case study areas in 2005 and 2007.

Source: Local Areas Survey, 2005 and 2007

In 2007-08, Hindus (89 per cent) and Muslims (86 per cent) were both more likely than Christians (83 per cent) and those with no religion (81 per cent) to believe that residents in their local area respected ethnic differences between people (Figure 7.6). The views of Sikhs (84 per cent) and Buddhists (90 per cent) were not statistically different to those of Christians; although the difference between Buddhists (90 per cent) and Christians (83 per cent) appears large the sample size of the Buddhist group is very small. There were no statistically significant changes between 2005 and 2007-08 in any group.

Figure 7.6 Percentage agreeing that residents respect ethnic differences between people, by religion, England, 2005 and 2007-08

Notes:
(1) From April 2007 the Citizenship Survey became a continuous survey.
(2) Figures for the Jewish group are not shown due to the small sample size.
(3) It is not possible to compare 2005 and 2007-08 rates with those from the 2001 or 2003 Citizenship Survey because of differences in the religion questions.

Source: Citizenship Survey 2005 and 2007-08
People’s views about whether residents respected ethnic differences vary by region. As Figure 7.7 shows, those in the south of England held more favourable views than those in the north. In general there was an upwards trend in perceptions between 2003 and 2007-08, although only increases in the South East, Yorkshire and the Humber, the West Midlands and the North East were statistically significant. The greatest improvement was in the North East, where the percentage feeling that residents respected ethnic differences increased from around 70 per cent in 2003 and 2005 to 82 per cent in 2007-08. The only area which showed a decrease was in the East of England, where the percentage feeling that residents respected ethnic differences fell significantly from 84 per cent in 2003 and 2005 to 79 per cent in 2007-08.

**Figure 7.7 Percentage of people in ethnically mixed areas agreeing that residents respected ethnic differences, by Government Office Region, England, 2003, 2005 and 2007-08**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2007-08</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>South West</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East of England</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South East</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>London</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Midlands</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yorkshire and the Humber</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Midlands</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North West</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North East</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Notes:**
From April 2007 the Citizenship Survey became a continuous survey
Tension between different ethnic groups

Table 7.3 shows findings from the 10 areas in the Local Areas Survey on tension between people from different ethnic groups. Between 2005 and 2007 perceptions of tension between different ethnic groups decreased in three areas and increased in two areas.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tension between different ethnic groups</th>
<th>Number of areas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increased</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No change</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decreased</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes:
The Local Areas Survey – an extension of the Citizenship Survey – was carried out in ten case study areas in 2005 and 2007
Source: Local Areas Survey, 2005 and 2007

Predictors of cohesion

Data from the 2005 Citizenship Survey showed a relationship between perceptions of cohesion and perceptions of racial prejudice; those who had positive views of cohesion in their local area were less likely than others to say that racial or religious prejudice in Britain had increased over the past five years (Kitchen et al, 2006). The 2007-08 Citizenship Survey also showed the same pattern. Among those who agreed that people from different backgrounds got on well in their local area, just over half (52 per cent) believed that there was more racial prejudice today compared with five years ago; among those who did not agree that their area was cohesive, almost two thirds (65 per cent) believed that racial prejudice had worsened in the last five years.

Previous analysis of the 2005 Citizenship Survey also found that people who did not have any friends from different ethnic backgrounds were most likely to feel that racial prejudice had increased (Kitchen et al, 2006). In 2007-08, as in previous years, the likelihood of people having friends from different ethnic backgrounds varied regionally; it was most likely in London (75 per cent) and least likely in the North East of England (29 per cent). The differences largely reflect variations in ethnic diversity between regions.

Further analysis of the 2005 Citizenship Survey by Laurence and Heath (2008) has shed more light on the factors that predict perceptions of community cohesion. Multi-level modelling was used to explore people’s attitudes to cohesion, taking account of both their individual characteristics, such as ethnicity, age and sex; their attitudes on other measures, such as empowerment and fear of crime; and the characteristics of the area in which they lived, including the extent of deprivation and ethnic diversity. The research concluded that an individual’s sense of cohesion is a product both of their individual characteristics and of the community they live in.
A range of factors predicted people's perceptions of cohesion in their local area. These included:

**Positive predictors**
- Increasing age
- Higher level of qualifications
- Being from a higher socio-economic group
- Being born outside the UK
- Living in an area which has a broad mix of residents from different ethnic groups
- Having friends from ethnic groups other than one's own
- Feeling able to influence local decisions
- Having trust in institutions
- Engaging in formal volunteering
- Having a greater sense of belonging to Britain.

**Negative predictors**
- Living in an area with an increasing percentage of in-migrants from outside the UK
- Feeling that an individual would be treated unfairly because of their race
- Increasing levels of crime and fear of crime
- Individual disadvantage, such as socio-economic status
- Living in a deprived area
- Local authority tenancy.

In all communities, living in a deprived area consistently undermined perceptions of cohesion. However, among deprived communities, those that were ethnically diverse had higher perceptions of cohesion than those that were less diverse. The authors concluded that deprivation, rather than diversity, undermines cohesion.

**Household perceptions of racial harassment**

A further measure relevant to community cohesion is provided by the Survey of English Housing (SEH). Figure 7.8 shows trends in people's perceptions of racial harassment in their local area. Respondents were asked whether racial harassment was 'a serious problem', 'a problem, but not serious' or 'not a problem' in their local area. Figure 7.8 combines the proportions saying that racial harassment was either 'a serious problem' or 'a problem, but not serious'.
Among all minority ethnic households the proportion rating racial harassment as a problem rose from 14 per cent in 1996-97 to 17 per cent in 2000-01. It then declined to 13 per cent in 2004-05 and remained stable at 13 per cent in 2005-06. The measure of racial harassment was changed in 2005-06 – previously, respondents were asked whether racial harassment was a problem in their area, but from 2005-06 respondents were asked whether it was a problem in their area, *even if it did not affect them personally*. This change in wording may have been expected to increase the proportions saying that racial harassment was a problem and indeed the latest data, based on a rolling four-year average up to 2006-07 does show an increase. The percentage of all minority ethnic households saying that racial harassment was a problem rose to 14 per cent in 2006-07 compared with 13 per cent in each of the previous two years.

The highest rates in the late 1990s were recorded for Pakistani and Bangladeshi households (around 20 per cent). From then on, rates for Pakistani households fell to 15 per cent, where they have remained since 2003-04. Rates for Bangladeshi households, however, have fluctuated around 20 per cent, where they remain in 2006-07. This may indicate that Bangladeshi households experience greater levels of harassment than other ethnic groups; alternatively, it may reflect the fact that Bangladeshi households lived in areas that have greater problems with racial harassment.
White households were consistently less likely than minority ethnic households to report that racial harassment was a problem in their area. However, White households’ perceptions depended on where they lived. Over the four years to 2006-07 as many as 11 per cent of White households in London thought there was a problem, compared with only 4 per cent of White households outside London (Figure 7.9). For minority ethnic groups, the disparity between London and the rest of England is not as great as it is for White households. So over the four years to 2006-07, 16 per cent of minority ethnic groups in London felt that racial harassment was a problem compared with 13 per cent of minority ethnic groups outside London.

From April 2007 a new question was included on the Citizenship Survey asking people about the extent of racial or religious harassment in their local area. The question, and the answer categories, differed from the SEH question and, as would be expected, produced slightly different results. As with the SEH question, White households were least likely to report that racial or religious harassment was a problem in their local area, and Bangladeshi households were most likely to report that it was a problem. However, with the question in the Citizenship Survey, large proportions of households in all ethnic groups reported that there was, to some extent at least, a problem with racial or religious harassment in their local area. Overall, 37 per cent of households reported this, increasing to 65 per cent among Bangladeshi households. It is not possible to discern how much of the difference between the SEH and Citizenship Survey results is due to the different questions, or the different contexts in which the questions are asked,60 and how much is due to the inclusion of religious harassment in the Citizenship Survey question.

60 The Citizenship Survey includes questions about racial and religious discrimination, which may influence responses to this question.
The new Citizenship Survey question presents the first opportunity to measure perceptions of harassment among different faith groups. In 2007-08, Muslim and Sikh households were most likely to report that racial or religious harassment was a problem in their local area – almost three in five Sikh and Muslim households (59 per cent and 56 per cent respectively) felt that it was a problem to some extent.

**Figure 7.10** Extent of racial or religious harassment by ethnic group, England, 2007-08

Notes:
(1) Data is for households
(2) This question was included for the first time in the Citizenship Survey in 2007-08
(3) Respondents were asked, “In this local area (15-20 minutes walking distance)... how much of a problem is racial or religious harassment (even if it doesn’t affect you personally)”
(4) Figures for the Other Black group are not shown due to small numbers
Source: Citizenship Survey 2007-08
Figure 7.11 Extent of racial or religious harassment by religion, England, 2007-08

Notes:
(1) Data is for households
(2) This question was included for the first time in the Citizenship Survey in 2007-08
(3) Respondents were asked, “In this local area (15-20 minutes walking distance)... how much of a problem is racial or religious harassment (even if it doesn’t affect you personally)生产设备?”
(3) Figures for the Jewish group are not shown due to small numbers
Source: Citizenship Survey 2007-08

Sense of belonging to the neighbourhood and Britain

In 2007-08, 75 per cent of people felt they belonged strongly to their neighbourhood, including 34 per cent who said they belonged very strongly (Figure 7.12). The proportion of people who said they belonged strongly to their neighbourhood has increased since 2003 (70 per cent).

People showed stronger attachments to Britain. In 2007-08, 84 per cent of people felt they belonged strongly to Britain, including 45 per cent who said they belonged very strongly. The proportion of people feeling a strong sense of belonging to Britain has declined very slightly since 2005 (86 per cent), although it is not significantly different to the proportion feeling a strong sense of belonging to Britain in 2003 (85 per cent).
Sense of belonging to the neighbourhood varied by ethnicity (Figure 7.13). Pakistani (85 per cent) and Indian people (80 per cent) were more likely than White people (75 per cent) to feel a strong sense of belonging to their neighbourhood. Black Caribbean and Bangladeshi people also felt a strong sense of belonging to their neighbourhood, compared with White people, although these differences were not significant due to the smaller sample sizes. Chinese people were least likely to show attachment to the neighbourhood; just half (50 per cent) said that they felt a strong sense of belonging to their neighbourhood. A relatively large proportion of the Chinese population are overseas students, which may explain their relatively weak sense of attachment; in 2001, students accounted for 30 per cent of the Chinese working age population (Bosveld and Connolly, 2006).

Attachments to Britain also varied by ethnicity. Indian and Pakistani people (both 89 per cent) were more likely than White people (84 per cent) to feel strongly that they belonged to Britain. Chinese people showed the least attachment – 67 per cent felt strongly that they belonged to Britain. There were no differences between White, Mixed, Black Caribbean or Black African people; 84 per cent in each group felt strongly that they belonged to Britain.
There were also variations between faith groups in people’s sense of belonging to the
neighbourhood (Figure 7.14). Muslims (81 per cent) were more likely than Christians (77
per cent) to feel that they belonged strongly to their neighbourhoods, while Muslims,
Christians, Hindus (79 per cent) and Sikhs (77 per cent) were all more likely than people
with no religion (62 per cent) to feel this.

Sense of belonging to Britain showed a similar pattern. Muslims (89 per cent) and Sikhs
(91 per cent) were more likely than Christians (85 per cent) to feel strongly that they
belonged to Britain. Buddhists (69 per cent) and those with no religion (80 per cent) were
least likely to feel that they belonged to Britain and were significantly less likely to do so
than Christians, Muslims, Sikhs and Hindus (88 per cent).
Meaningful interaction

Meaningful interaction, which is measured by the extent to which people mix socially with people from different ethnic and faith groups to themselves, may be another factor impacting on perceptions of community cohesion. The Citizenship Survey began measuring meaningful interaction in 2007-08. Overall, 80 per cent of people mixed socially at least once a month with people from different ethnic or religious backgrounds, either at work, at a place of education, through a leisure activity, at a place of worship, at the shops or through volunteering.

Young people are more likely than older people to mix with people from different backgrounds. For example, 93 per cent of people aged 16-24 years mixed regularly compared with 52 per cent of people aged 75 years or over. The situations in which people mix also varied by age: younger people tend to mix at work, school or college while older people tend to mix at the shops.
Not surprisingly, people from minority ethnic backgrounds are more likely than White people to mix socially with people from different ethnic or religious backgrounds (95 per cent compared with 78 per cent), reflecting their greater opportunity to do so. Lower mixing among White people compared with minority ethnic people reflects the nature of the areas in which people live. For example, White people who live in more ethnically diverse areas (where more than 5 per cent of the population are from minority ethnic backgrounds) are more likely than White people who live in relatively homogeneous areas to mix socially with people from different backgrounds (89 per cent compared with 71 per cent). The older age structure of the White population also contributes to lower rates of mixing.

As Figure 7.15 shows, within the minority ethnic groups, there is little difference in the levels of mixing, although people from Black (both Caribbean and African) backgrounds mix more than people from Pakistani backgrounds (96 per cent compared with 93 per cent).

**Figure 7.15** Percentages mixing with people from different ethnic and faith groups by ethnicity, England, 2007-08

![Bar chart showing percentages mixing with people from different ethnic groups](chart.png)

**Notes**
(1) Excludes mixing in the home
(2) Based on mixing at least once a month
(3) Figures for the Other Black group are not shown due to the small sample size

*Source: Citizenship Survey 2007-08, Communities and Local Government*

---

63 Cohesion Research Statistical Release 4, June 2008, Communities and Local Government
People are most likely to mix socially with people from different backgrounds at the shops, followed by work, school or college, and then a pub, club, café or restaurant. This pattern is true for most groups. However, levels of social mixing vary considerably between ethnic groups in some situations. For example, Black African people are more likely than Pakistani people to mix in a place of worship (68 compared with 36 per cent), while 51 per cent of Indian people mix in a pub, club, café or restaurant compared with 40 per cent of Bangladeshi people.64

Among faith groups, Christians (77 per cent) were least likely to mix with people from other ethnic groups or faith groups. Hindus (95 per cent), Muslims (93 per cent), Sikhs (91 per cent) and Buddhists (88 per cent), as well as people with no religion (86 per cent), were all more likely than Christians to mix with people from different groups to themselves. This is partly explained by the older age structure of the Christian population, as well as their greater likelihood to live in ethnically and religiously homogeneous areas. While people with no religion are, like Christians, more likely than Muslims, Sikhs and Hindus to live in homogeneous areas, they have a younger age profile than their Christian counterparts, which is associated with greater mixing.

Figure 7.16 Percentages mixing with people from different ethnic and faith groups by religion,1,2 England, 2007-08

Notes
(1) Excludes mixing in the home
(2) Based on mixing at least once a month
(3) Figures for the Jewish group are not shown due to the small sample size
Source: Citizenship Survey 2007-08, Communities and Local Government

It is difficult to separate the effects of faith, ethnic background and other characteristics which may be important for meaningful interaction, such as age and the extent of ethnic and religious diversity in the local area. It is likely that variations in social mixing reflect opportunities to mix, as much as choices.

64 Cohesion Research Statistical Release 4, June 2008, Communities and Local Government
References

Annex A: Research on the influences on cohesion, in Cohesion Delivery Framework (2008), Communities and Local Government


Murphy, Wedlock and King (2005) Early findings from the 2005 Home Office Citizenship Survey, Communities and Local Government
Chapter 8
Culture and Sport

This chapter provides evidence on the take-up of cultural, arts and sporting opportunities by adults and young people aged 16 and above. It outlines differences by ethnic group in attending historic environment sites, museums and galleries, and participation in arts and sport.

The analyses presented here use data from the 2005-06 and 2006-07 Taking Part Survey in England. In general, minority ethnic groups have lower rates of participation. In this report it has not been possible to measure the extent to which socio-economic differences account for the variations by ethnicity. Previously published findings from the Taking Part Survey have shown that people from lower socio-economic groups have lower rates of participation in arts, cultural and sports activities than the overall adult population. The lower socio-economic position of some minority ethnic groups almost certainly contributes to their lower rates of participation. Gender is also a factor in participation in arts, cultural and sporting activities. The chapter addresses the extent to which gender differences exist on some, but not all, activities, and in some ethnic groups but not others.

Summary

Key findings in relation to participation in culture and sport:

Trends:

- Between 2005-06 and 2006-07, there were very few changes in participation rates in culture and sport, either overall or for individual minority ethnic groups. All changes are described in the commentary.

- In 2006-07 people in the Chinese/Other group were less likely to have visited an historic environment site (59 per cent) than in 2005-06 (72 per cent) or to have visited a museum or gallery: 44 per cent did so in 2006-07 compared with 55 per cent in 2005-06.

- People in the White and Chinese/Other groups were less likely to have participated in arts events in 2006-07 (23 per cent and 17 per cent respectively) than in 2005-06 (24 per cent and 27 per cent respectively).

---

65 For more information follow link: http://www.culture.gov.uk/images/publications/FINAL_PSA3_report_(2).pdf
66 All changes described in the commentary are statistically significant at the 5% level. Where a chart seems to show a year on year change but this is not noted in the text, it is because the change is not statistically significant.
2006-07:

- Overall, in 2006-07 people from minority ethnic groups were less likely than White people to have visited a historic environment site during the previous twelve months (48 per cent and 72 per cent respectively). Black people were least likely to have visited a historic environment site (41 per cent).

- Black and Asian people were less likely than other groups to have visited a museum or gallery in the last twelve months (27 per cent and 31 per cent respectively).

- Overall, people from minority ethnic groups were less likely than White people to have attended two or more arts events over the last twelve months (23 per cent and 34 per cent respectively).

- People from the Mixed ethnic group were more likely to participate in active sport (66 per cent) than their White, Asian and Black counterparts (54, 50 and 47 per cent respectively). The higher rates of participation in active sports in the Mixed group were the product of relatively high rates among both men (78 per cent) and women (53 per cent).

Public Service Agreements

The Department for Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS) had one key target (PSA 3) relevant to improving race equality from the 2004-05-2007-08 Spending Review period. It was:

‘By 2008, increase the take up of cultural and sporting opportunities by adults and young people aged 16 and above from priority groups’ (including those from Black and minority ethnic groups).

The DCMS PSA is measured using six indicators. These aim to increase the number of people from minority ethnic groups:

- visiting designated historic environment sites (by three percentage points)
- accessing museums and galleries collections (by two percentage points)
- attending arts events at least twice a year (by three percentage points)
- participating in an arts activity at least twice a year (by two percentage points)
- participating in active sports at least twelve times a year (by three percentage points); and
- engaging in at least 30 minutes of moderate intensity sport, at least three times a week (by three percentage points).

Information about participation in arts and sports events is collected by a continuous national survey, *Taking Part*[^68], which was commissioned by the Department for Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS) and four of its partner bodies: Arts Council England; English Heritage; Museums, Libraries and Archives Council; and Sport England. The survey is the key mechanism to monitoring progress against PSA 3. Figure 8.1 summarises the PSA 3 measures. The variations by ethnicity are discussed below.

### Figure 8.1 Attendance and participation in cultural, arts and sports activities by ethnicity, England, 2005-06 and 2006-07

![Attendance and participation in cultural, arts and sports activities by ethnicity](chart.png)

**Source:** *Taking Part Survey, 2005-06 and 2006-07*

#### Historic environment sites

The DCMS’ PSA 3 target aimed to increase the percentage of people from minority ethnic groups visiting designated historic environment sites by three percentage points by 2008. The target covers a wide variety of designated historic environment sites, including cities or towns with historic character, historic buildings, historic parks/gardens, places connected with industrial history or historic transport systems, historic places of worship, monuments such as a castle, fort or ruin, sites of archaeological interest and sites connected with sports heritage.

Figure 8.2 shows attendance at historic environment sites.

Among ethnic minority people there was no change between 2005-06 and 2006-07 in the proportion who had visited an historic environment site (51 per cent compared to 48 per cent). Among the population as a whole there had also been no change over this period. The only change amongst ethnic minority groups since 2005-06 was that people in the Chinese/Other group were less likely to have visited an historic environment site in 2006-07 (59 per cent) than in 2005-06 (72 per cent).

As in 2005-06, in 2006-07 people from the minority ethnic group as a whole were less likely than White people to have visited historic environment sites. Almost half (48 per cent) of adults from a minority ethnic group had visited at least one type of historic environment site, compared with 72 per cent of White adults. All minority ethnic groups had lower attendance rates than White people, and Black people had lower rates than all other ethnic groups.

There were gender differences in some, but not all, ethnic groups. Women from a White or Asian group were more likely than their male counterparts to have visited an historic environment site. There were no gender differences in the Mixed, Black or Chinese/Other groups.

**Figure 8.2** Percentage attending at least one designated historic environment site in the last 12 months, by ethnicity, England, 2005-06 and 2006-07

Source: Taking Part Survey, 2005-06 and 2006-07
Museums and galleries

Figure 8.3 shows attendance at museums or galleries.

Among ethnic minority people there was no change between 2005-06 and 2006-07 in the proportion who had visited a museum or gallery (35 per cent compared to 34 per cent). Among the population as a whole there had also been no change over this period. The only change amongst ethnic minority groups since 2005-06 was that people in the Chinese/Other group were less likely to have visited a museum or gallery in 2006-07 (44 per cent) than in 2005-06 (55 per cent).

As in 2005-06, in 2006-07 people from the minority ethnic group as a whole were less likely than White adults to have visited a museum or gallery. Just over one in three (34 per cent) from a minority ethnic group reported making at least one visit to a museum or gallery in the last twelve months, compared with 42 per cent of White people. Black and Asian people were less likely than other groups to have done so (31 per cent and 27 per cent respectively).

The only gender difference in the proportions attending a museum or gallery was for White people: White men were more likely to have done so than White women (44 per cent and 41 per cent respectively).

**Figure 8.3** Percentage attending a museum or gallery by ethnicity, England, 2005-06 and 2006-07

![Figure 8.3](image)

*Source: Taking Part Survey, 2005-06 and 2006-07*
Arts opportunities

The arts component of PSA 3 had two elements: increasing attendance among people from a minority ethnic group at an arts event; and increasing participation at an arts event. Attendance at an arts event includes attending art exhibitions or collections; video or electronic art events; culturally specific festivals; theatre performances; opera/operetta; classical music or jazz performances; live music events; ballet or contemporary dance; African people’s dance or South Asian and Chinese dance or other live dance events.

Figure 8.4a shows attendance at arts events.

Among ethnic minority people there was no change between 2005-06 and 2006-07 in the proportion who had attended arts events (24 per cent compared to 23 per cent). Among the population as a whole there had also been no change over this period. There were no changes between 2005-06 and 2006-07 for individual minority ethnic groups.

As in 2005-06, in 2006-07 people from the minority ethnic group as a whole were less likely than White people to have attended arts events: 23 per cent compared to 34 per cent respectively. People from a Mixed ethnic group had a higher rate of attendance (30 per cent) than those from Asian (22 per cent) and Black (21 per cent) groups.

In 2006-07 the only gender difference in the proportions attending arts events was for White people: White women were more likely to have attended than White men (36 per cent and 32 per cent respectively).

Figure 8.4a Percentage attending two or more arts activities by ethnicity, England, 2005-06 and 2006-07

Source: Taking Part Survey, 2005-06 and 2006-07
The second element, *participation* in arts, comprises an extensive list of activities. These include performing ballet or other dance; singing to an audience; playing a musical instrument to an audience; playing a musical instrument for personal pleasure; writing music; performing a play/drama; performing opera/operetta; painting, drawing, printmaking or sculpture; producing photography as an artistic activity; making films or videos as an artistic activity; using a computer to create original artworks or animation; using textile crafts such as embroidery, crocheting or knitting; using wood crafts such as wood turning, carving or furniture making; using other crafts such as calligraphy, pottery or jewellery making; writing stories, plays or poetry.

Figure 8.4b shows participation in arts activities.

Among ethnic minority people there was no change between 2005-06 and 2006-07 in the proportion who had participated in arts activities (21 per cent compared to 20 per cent). Among the population as a whole there had also been no change over this period. The only change amongst minority ethnic groups was that people in the White and Chinese/Other groups were less likely to have participated in arts events in 2006-07 (23 per cent and 17 per cent respectively) than in 2005-06 (24 per cent and 27 per cent respectively).

As in 2005-06, in 2006-07 people from the minority ethnic group as a whole were less likely than White people to have participated in arts activities: 20 per cent compared to 23 per cent respectively. People from a Mixed ethnic group were more likely to have participated than any other ethnic group, including White people. There was no difference in levels of participation between White and Black people.

In 2006-07 the only gender difference in participating in arts activities was among White people: White women were more likely to have participated than White men (25 per cent and 22 per cent respectively).
Sports opportunities

The sport opportunities target of PSA 3 had two elements, active sport, and moderate intensity level sport. Active sport includes all forms of physical activity which aim at expressing or improving physical fitness and well-being, or forming social relationships or competing at any level. It includes all sport as well as more sedentary activities such as angling, snooker, pool and darts. Recreational walking is not included as an active sport. Moderate intensity level sport excludes sedentary activities such as angling, snooker, pool and darts but includes recreational walking (provided that it is done at a brisk or fast pace). Both measures of sports activity are based on participation in the previous four weeks – active participation is defined as activity once in the previous four weeks while moderate intensity level participation is defined as activity for at least 30 minutes on at least three occasions in the previous week (measured as activity on 12 occasions in the last four weeks).

Figure 8.5a shows participation in active sport.

Among ethnic minority people there was no change between 2005-06 and 2006-07 in the proportion who had participated in active sport (53 per cent compared to 52 per cent). Among the population as a whole there had also been no change over this period. There were no changes between 2005-06 and 2006-07 for individual minority ethnic groups.
As in 2005-06, in 2006-07 minority ethnic groups had generally higher levels of involvement in active sport than for other cultural indicators. Participation in active sports was the only activity where there was no difference between White people (54 per cent) and people from minority ethnic groups as a whole (52 per cent).

The highest involvement in active sport was among people from the Mixed ethnic group (66 per cent), who were more likely than their White (54 per cent), Asian (50 per cent) and Black counterparts (47 per cent) to have participated in active sports in the past four weeks. White people were more likely to have taken part than Asian and Black people. The higher rates of active sport in the Mixed group were the product of relatively high rates among both men (78 per cent) and women (53 per cent).

There were gender differences across the majority of ethnic groups. White women were less likely than White men to have participated in active sport in the previous four weeks (47 per cent and 61 per cent respectively), and this was also the case with Asian, Black and Mixed race women and their respective male counterparts.

There were also variations among women: Asian and Black women were less likely than White women to have participated (38 per cent, 39 per cent and 47 per cent respectively). There were no differences between men from Asian, Black or White groups.

**Figure 8.5a** Participation in active sport by ethnicity, England, 2005-06 and 2006-07

Source: Taking Part Survey, 2005-06 and 2006-07
Figure 8.5b shows participation in moderate intensity sports (at least 30 minutes of exercise for a minimum of three times a week).

Among ethnic minority people there was no change between 2005-06 and 2006-07 in the proportion who had participated in moderate intensity sport (19 per cent compared to 20 per cent). Among the population as a whole there had also been no change over this period. There were no changes between 2005-06 and 2006-07 for individual minority ethnic groups.

As in 2005-06, in 2006-07 people from the minority ethnic group as a whole were less likely than White people to have participated in moderate intensity sports (20 per cent and 22 per cent respectively). However, people from the Mixed group were more likely to participate than any other group, with 30 per cent participating in moderate intensity sports. Asian people, Black people, and people in the Chinese/Other ethnic group were the least likely to have participated (18 per cent, 19 per cent and 17 per cent respectively).

![Figure 8.5b Participation in moderate intensity sport by ethnicity, England, 2005-06 and 2006-07](image)

Source: Taking Part Survey, 2005-06 and 2006-07

Sex and age are both important factors that affect participation in sport.

Figure 8.6 shows participation in moderate intensity sport by ethnicity and sex in 2006-07.

Apart from men from a Mixed race background having higher levels of participation than White men, there were no other differences in levels of moderate intensity level sport between men from different ethnic groups. Among women, White women were more likely than Asian women and women in the Chinese/Other ethnic group to have engaged in
moderate level intensity sport. Within ethnic groups, there were participation differences between White men and White women (25 per cent and 19 per cent respectively) and also Asian men and Asian women (22 per cent and 13 per cent respectively).

Participation in sports is also related to age, with young people having higher rates of participation than older people. There were no ethnic differences in rates of participation between White and minority ethnic young people aged 16 to 24, or between White and minority ethnic older people aged 65 to 74. For the 25-44 and 45-64 age groups, however, White people were more likely to participate in moderate intensity sports than minority ethnic people (27 per cent compared with 18 per cent for the 25-44 age group, and 20 per cent compared with 13 per cent for the age 45-64 age group). The number of respondents in the 75 and older age group was too small for this group to be analysed.

Although there were no ethnic differences in the rates of participation for young people aged 16-24, gender differences remained. Among 16 to 24 year olds, around two in five young men (44 per cent of White men and 41 per cent of minority ethnic men) had participated in moderate intensity sport on at least 12 occasions in the previous four weeks. This compared with around one in five women aged 16 to 24 years (21 per cent of White women and 19 per cent of minority ethnic women).

**Figure 8.6** Participation in moderate intensity level sport by ethnicity and sex, England, 2006-07

![Bar chart showing participation rates](Source: Taking Part Survey, 2006-07)
Chapter 9
Conclusions

This report brings together the most recent evidence on race equality in a range of public services in England and Wales, and on residents’ perceptions of community cohesion. This chapter summarises developments for the main minority ethnic groups, highlighting positive trends as well as areas for improvement.

Findings are presented for the individual minority ethnic groups where possible, but some data (in particular data from the CJS) are only available for the combined Black and Asian groups.

Note that some of the health data dates back to 2004, because the 2004 Health Survey for England is the most recent survey that focused on minority ethnic people.

Indian

Most findings for the Indian group are positive, particularly by comparison with other minority ethnic groups but also compared with the White group on some measures, for example educational attainment.

There are positive trends in many areas for the Indian group.

Education:
• Indian pupils were the second highest achievers in 2007 in terms of the proportion gaining five or more A*-C grades including English and mathematics at GCSE and equivalent
• In 2006-07, Indian students at further education institutions had the highest success rates of any ethnic group
• In 2005-06, the Indian population had the joint highest level of participation in higher education by age 19.

Labour market:
• In 2006-07, Indian men had the highest employment rates among men from minority ethnic groups and their employment rates were very close to those of White men.

Housing:
• In 2006-07 Indian households had the highest rates of home ownership of any ethnic group, and the second lowest level of dissatisfaction with accommodation.
Health:
• Indian women were the only ethnic group for whom there was a fall in the prevalence of bad or very bad self-reported general health between 1999 and 2004.
• Self-reported rates of long-term limiting illness also fell for Indian women over this period.

Community cohesion:
• Perceptions of cohesion increased among Indian people between 2003 and 2007-08.

Pakistani

There is a mixed picture for the Pakistani group.

There are some positive trends:

Education:
• Pakistani pupils’ GCSE attainment, and attainment at Key Stages 2 and 3, is improving at a faster rate than that of all pupils, although attainment is still below average.
• In 2005-06, the Pakistani population’s rate of entry into higher education by age 19 was higher than that of the White population.
• Pakistani students’ success rates in further education improved between 2004-05 and 2006-07.

Housing:
• Pakistani households have the third highest rates of home ownership, with home ownership rates very similar to the White British population.

Health:
• In 2004, the prevalence of obesity was lower for Pakistani men than the general population.

Community cohesion:
• In 2007-08, Pakistani people’s sense of belonging to their neighbourhood was very strong.

But challenges remain in other areas:

Labour market:
• In 2006-07, among women, Pakistani women had the highest rate of unemployment, the highest rate of economic inactivity and the second lowest rate of employment.
• Among men, Pakistani men had the joint third highest rate of economic inactivity.
Housing:
- Pakistani households have the second highest rates of overcrowding.

Health:
- Of babies born in 2005, those in the Pakistani group had a particularly high infant mortality rate.
- In 2004 both men and women from the Pakistani group were more likely than the general population to report bad or very bad health.
- Among Pakistani women rates of limiting long-term illness rose between 1999 and 2004.
- Among Pakistani men the prevalence of ischaemic heart disease or stroke increased between 1999 and 2004.
- In 2004 Pakistani women were five times more likely to report doctor-diagnosed diabetes than women in the general population.

Bangladeshi

There is a mixed picture for the Bangladeshi group.

There are positive trends in education:
- Bangladeshi pupils saw the greatest improvement in GCSE (including English and mathematics) attainment in 2007. Bangladeshi pupils’ attainment at Key Stages 2 and 3 is also improving at a faster rate than that of all pupils. However, attainment is still below average.
- Participation in higher education by age 19 is higher than that of White British people.

But there are still challenges in many areas:

Labour market:
- In 2006-07, among women, Bangladeshi women had the second highest economic inactivity rate and the lowest employment rate.
- Among men, Bangladeshi men had the second highest unemployment rate, the second highest economic activity rate and the second lowest employment rate.

Housing:
- Rates of overcrowding and dissatisfaction with housing are consistently high for Bangladeshi households compared with other households, and rates of dissatisfaction with housing have increased since 2003-04.
- Bangladeshi households have the highest levels of social rented sector housing and the second lowest levels of home ownership.
Health:
- Of babies born in 2005, those in the Bangladeshi group had a lower infant mortality rate than that of the general population
- In 2004 both men and women from the Bangladeshi group were more likely than the general population to report bad or very bad health
- After standardising for age, Bangladeshi men were four times more likely than men in the general population to report doctor-diagnosed diabetes.

Community cohesion:
- Bangladeshi people were more likely than other ethnic groups to report that racial or religious harassment was a problem in their area.

Other findings for the Asian group

Labour market:
- Pakistani/Bangladeshi people and children were more likely than other ethnic groups to live in low income households. However, the rate for Pakistani/Bangladeshi people and children fell more steeply than for other ethnic groups between 1994-97 and 2004-07.

CJS:
- Between 2003-04 and 2006-07, Asian people had increased confidence that the CJS is very or fairly effective in reducing crime, and that the CJS deals with cases promptly and efficiently
- In 2006-07, Asian people showed high levels of worry about burglary, car crime and violence. Levels of worry about burglary and violence increased between 2003-04 and 2006-07
- In 2006-07, Asian people were twice as likely as White people to be stopped and searched; this is similar to 2005-06.

Black Caribbean

The picture for the Black Caribbean group is mixed.

There are some positive trends:

Education:
- Black Caribbean pupils have seen greater than average improvements in GCSE, Key Stage 2 and Key Stage 3 attainment
Labour market:
• Among women, Black Caribbean women had the second highest employment rate and the third lowest economic inactivity rate.

Health:
• Among men, the prevalence of cigarette smoking fell between 1999 and 2004.

But challenges remain:

Education:
• Despite the improvements described above, Black Caribbean pupils are still amongst the lowest achievers at GCSE and have relatively low success rates in further education
• In 2006, Black Caribbean pupils’ performance in English tests was below the national average at Key Stages 1, 2, 3 and GCSE, and worsened across the Key Stages
• In 2004, Black Caribbean pupils were three times more likely to be excluded from school than White pupils.

Labour market:
• Among men, Black Caribbean men have the highest unemployment rate.

Housing:
• Black Caribbean households are the third most likely to live in social rented sector housing
• Black Caribbean households have the third highest rates of dissatisfaction with housing.

Health:
• Of babies born in 2005, those in the Caribbean group had a particularly high infant mortality rate
• In 2004, among women, Black Caribbean women were three times more likely than women in the general population to report doctor-diagnosed diabetes.

Black African

There is a mixed picture for the Black African group.

There are positive trends in some areas:

Education:
• Black African pupils have seen greater than average improvements in Key Stage 3 and GCSE attainment
• Black Africans have the third highest participation rates in higher education by age 19. (This may reflect the historic and ongoing migration to the UK of Black Africans for the purpose of studying.)

Labour market:
• Between 2001 and 2007, the Black African group saw the highest increase in employment, and the largest decrease in economic inactivity.

Community cohesion:
• Black African people living in ethnically diverse areas were more likely than their White counterparts to feel that people from different backgrounds got on well together.

But some challenges remain:

Labour market:
• In 2007, the Black African group had relatively high unemployment, compared to the general population.

Housing:
• Since 1996-97, Black African households have consistently been among the groups with the highest levels of dissatisfaction with accommodation and the highest levels of overcrowding
• In 2006-07, Black African households had the lowest levels of owner occupation and the second highest levels of social sector housing.

Health:
• In 2004, Black African women were twice as likely as women in the general population to be obese.

Other findings for the Black group

Labour market:
• Black/Black British people and children were more likely than all other ethnic groups, apart from Pakistani/Bangladeshi, to live in low income households. However, like all other ethnic groups, the rate for Black/Black British people and children fell between 1994-97 and 2004-07.
Health:

- In 2007, as in 2005 and 2006, the Black group had high admission rates to mental health facilities (three or more times higher than average).

CJS:

- In 2006-07, Black people showed high levels of worry about burglary, car crime and violence
- There was an increase in the risk of victimisation between 2005-06 and 2006-07 for Black people
- In 2006-07, Black people were three times more likely than White people to be a victim of homicide
- In 2006-07, Black people were seven times more likely than White people to be stopped and searched. This is similar to 2005-06 and an increase since 2004-05
- In 2006-07, the arrest rate for Black people was 3.6 times higher than for White people; this ratio is similar to those since 2003-04
- On 30 June 2007, for every thousand Black people in the population, 7.4 were in prison (British nationals only). This rate was over five times higher than the rate for White people.

Chinese

Data on the Chinese group is often limited as it is one of the smallest ethnic populations in England and Wales. However, the Chinese population saw the largest percentage growth between 2001 and 2005 in England, growing by an estimated 53 per cent.

There are positive trends in education:

- In 2007, Chinese pupils had the highest achievement levels at GCSE (including English and mathematics)
- In 2006-07, Chinese learners at further education institutions had the second highest success rates of any ethnic group
- In 2005-06, the Chinese population had the joint highest level of participation in higher education by age 19.

But there may be challenges in the labour market:

- Among men, Chinese men had the lowest employment rate and the highest economic inactivity rate in 2006-07. However, this may reflect the large number of students among the Chinese population, many of whom have come to the UK in order to study.
Mixed ethnic groups

In general, this report has looked at the Mixed group as a whole, rather than the individual groups such as White and Asian, White and Black Caribbean, and White and Black African. While this provides an indication of the circumstances of people of Mixed ethnicity, other research – and where this report does look at individual groups, such as in the education chapter – indicates differences between the Mixed groups, with more positive findings for the White and Asian group compared with the White and Black Caribbean and White and Black African groups.

There are some positive trends:

Education:
- Mixed White and Asian pupils were the third highest achievers in 2007 in terms of the proportion gaining five or more A*-C grades including English and mathematics at GCSE and equivalent
- In 2005-06, the Mixed population had a higher than average level of participation in higher education by age 19.

Labour market:
- Women from the Mixed group have a relatively high rate of employment and a relatively low rate of economic inactivity.

Culture and sport:
- People from the Mixed ethnic group were more likely to participate in active sport than people from all other ethnic groups.

However, there are some challenges:

Education:
- In 2007, the achievements at GCSE level of Mixed White/Black Caribbean pupils were relatively low
- In 2006, Mixed White/Black Caribbean pupils’ performance in English tests was below the national average at Key Stages 1, 2, 3 and GCSE, and worsened across the Key Stages
- In 2006-07, Mixed White/Black Caribbean students had the second lowest success rate in further education, although this has improved since 2004-05.

Labour market:
- Among men, men from the Mixed ethnic group had a relatively low employment rate.
Health:
- In 2007, as in 2005 and 2006, the Mixed White/Black group had high admission rates to mental health facilities (three or more times higher than average).

CJS:
- In 2006-07, People from Mixed ethnic backgrounds had a higher risk of becoming a victim of crime than people from all other ethnic groups.

Gypsy and Traveller groups

There are currently very little data available for Gypsy and Traveller populations. From the education data that are available, the two groups are the poorest performers in education. However, numbers are very small.

Education:
- In 2007, Gypsy/Roma and Traveller of Irish Heritage pupils had the lowest levels of achievement at GCSE level, and their achievement levels have declined between 2003 and 2007.

Health:
- Gypsies and Travellers have poorer health status and higher proportions of self-reported symptoms of ill-health than other groups. They also face considerable barriers in accessing health care services.
This report consists of two volumes.
Volume 1 consists Improving Opportunity, Strengthening Society – A third progress report on the Government’s strategy for race equality and community cohesion

£25

Volume 2: not to be sold separately