

Home Office Research Study 289

2003 Home Office Citizenship Survey: People, Families and Communities

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Home Office Research Studies

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RDS is part of the Home Office. The Home Office's purpose is to build a safe, just and tolerant society in which the rights and responsibilities of individuals, families and communities are properly balanced and the protection and security of the public are maintained.

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Executive summary

This report presents findings from the 2003 Home Office Citizenship Survey of England and Wales. It highlights key issues for the government's reform agenda by focusing on changes in active citizenship between the 2001 and 2003 Citizenship Surveys.

The findings are based on a nationally representative sample of 9,486 adults in England and Wales and a supplementary sample of 4,571 adults from minority ethnic groups. Interviews took place between March and September 2003.

The report presents findings under six headings:

1. rights and responsibilities, influencing political decisions, and institutional trust;
2. perceptions of racial prejudice and discrimination;
3. people's involvement in their neighbourhood;
4. social networks;
5. active community participation; and
6. family networks.

Key issues highlighted in the report include:

1. Rights and responsibilities, influencing political decisions, and institutional trust

- People's trust in political institutions has risen between 2001 and 2003¹:
 - 51 per cent of people trusted their local council in 2001, compared with 54 per cent in 2003;
 - Over the same period, the proportion trusting Parliament went up from 36 per cent to 38 per cent.
- People were more likely to believe they could influence decisions affecting their local area than decisions affecting Britain. Both these proportions were lower in 2003 than 2001.
 - The proportion of people who felt they could influence decisions in their local area fell from 43 per cent in 2001, to 38 per cent in 2003;

¹ All changes and differences described in this report are statistically significant at the 95 per cent confidence level.

- Over the same period, the proportion of people who felt they could influence decisions affecting Britain as a whole fell from 24 per cent to 19 per cent.
- Trust in the criminal justice system did not change over the period, with 80 per cent of people saying they trusted the police and 73 per cent trusting the courts.

2. Perceptions of racial prejudice and discrimination

- The proportion of people feeling there is now more racial prejudice in Britain than five years ago increased from 43 per cent in 2001 to 47 per cent in 2003:
 - The perception that racial prejudice had increased was only evident among people describing themselves as White;
 - People living in ethnically mixed areas had the most positive views about the extent of racial prejudice.
- People from minority ethnic groups were more likely than White people to feel public sector organisations would treat them worse than people of other races:
 - The organisations felt to be most discriminatory were the immigration authorities, police, local housing departments, Prison Service and the armed forces;
 - Whilst people from minority ethnic groups expressed the most concerns about public sector discrimination, White people were particularly concerned about being discriminated against by local housing departments.

3. People's involvement in their neighbourhood

- The proportion of people who said they definitely enjoyed living in their neighbourhood fell from 67 per cent in 2001 to 63 per cent in 2003;
- The proportion who felt people in their neighbourhood could be trusted rose from 40 per cent to 47 per cent over the same period.

4. Social networks

- High levels of social engagement with friends and neighbours complement the strong feelings of neighbourliness evident from the survey:
 - 65 per cent had friends or relatives round to their homes and 67 per cent went out with them at least once a month;

- There were high levels of mixing among people from different social and ethnic backgrounds:
 - In 2003, 66 per cent of people said they had friends from different ethnic groups to them;
 - 56 per cent reported having friends with different educational qualifications.

5. Active community participation

- Patterns of active community participation in England and Wales varied between 2001 and 2003, but there was no consistent trend:
 - In 2003, 38 per cent of people had undertaken one of the specified civic activities in the twelve months prior to interview, but only 3 per cent had done so at least once a month. These percentages have shown no change since 2001.
 - Informal volunteering at least once a month showed an upward trend – increasing from 34 per cent in 2001 to 37 per cent in 2003. But informal volunteering at least once in the twelve months prior to interview declined – from 67 per cent in 2001 to 62 per cent in 2003.
 - In 2003, 42 per cent of people volunteered formally (through groups, clubs or organisations) in the twelve months before interview, increasing from 39 per cent in 2001. But monthly formal volunteering (28% of people in 2003) was static.
- In England, the percentage of people who participated at least once a month in civic activities, informal volunteering or formal volunteering (the measurement required for Public Service Agreement 8) increased from 48 per cent in 2001 to 51 per cent in 2003, an increase of more than 1.5 million people. Much of this increase was in informal volunteering, whilst civic participation and formal volunteering remained relatively stable.

6. Family networks

- Between 2001 and 2003 the proportion of people living as married couples rose from 48 per cent to 53 per cent, whilst the number of households with two or more families living in them fell from 5 per cent to 1 per cent:
 - Among Black and Asian respondents, the proportions living as married couples rose (from 28% to 38% for Black, and 59% to 70% for Asian, respondents) whilst the proportions living in multiple family households fell (from 12% to 1% for Black, and 17% to 10% for Asian, respondents).

- The proportions of parents asking close relatives for advice on child rearing fell over the period:
 - in 2001, 28 per cent asked their mothers for advice, compared with 23 per cent in 2003.

- At the same time parents were more likely to seek advice from formal sources:
 - the proportions asking advice of their doctor, health visitors / nurses, and teachers went up from 22 per cent to 29 per cent, 21 per cent to 27 per cent, and 17 per cent to 25 per cent, respectively.

- Over 80 per cent of parents preferred to receive advice on child rearing by speaking to someone face-to-face rather than through books, the internet or telephone help-lines.

The 2003 Citizenship Survey also contained Children and Young People (8 to 15 years old) and Local Area Boosts. Findings from these boosts are to be reported in forthcoming DfES and Home Office research publications.

Aims of the survey

This report presents the results of the 2003 Home Office Citizenship Survey. The 2003 Citizenship Survey is the second in a biennial series which started in 2001. The survey is designed to provide information for the Home Office's Aim Seven Community Policy evidence base, along with wider cross-cutting evidence contributing to delivery across the whole of the Home Office.

The principal aims of the Home Office Community Policy are:

To support strong and active communities in which people of all races and backgrounds are valued and participate on equal terms by developing social policy to build a fair, prosperous and cohesive society in which everyone has a stake.

To work with other departments and local government agencies and community groups to regenerate neighbourhoods and to support families; to develop the potential of every individual; to build the confidence and capacity of the whole community to be part of the solution; and to promote good race and community relations, combating prejudice and xenophobia.

To promote equal opportunities both within the Home Office and more widely, and to ensure that active citizenship contributes to the enhancement of democracy and the development of civil society.

The specific aims of the survey are:

- to inform policy development and implementation; and
- to provide information for the measurement of Home Office Public Service Agreements².

² Public Service Agreements (PSAs) form an integral part of the Government's spending plans. PSAs set out each department's aims, objectives and key outcome targets. Progress against PSAs is reported annually.

Report structure

The report presents findings relating to six areas within the Home Office's Community Policy:

- Rights and responsibilities, influencing political decisions, and institutional trust (Chapter 2).
- Perceptions of racial prejudice and discrimination (Chapter 3).
- People's involvement in their neighbourhoods (Chapter 4).
- Social networks (Chapter 5).
- Active participation in communities (Chapter 6).
- Family networks and parenting support (Chapter 7).

Methodology

The main features of the survey methodology are summarised below. A more detailed description is given in the 2003 Citizenship Survey Technical report – www.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds/citizensurvey.html

The 2001 survey was carried out jointly by the British Market Research Bureau (BMRB) and IPSOS-RSL. The 2003 survey was carried out by the Office for National Statistics (ONS). Every effort was made to ensure that the design and conduct of the 2003 survey were the same as for the 2001 survey so as to ensure that trends can be analysed on a comparable basis.

Sample design

The sample has two components:

- The Core sample consisting of 9,486 face-to-face interviews with a nationally representative sample of adults aged 16 or over living in England and Wales.
- The Minority Ethnic Boost sample consisting of 4,571 face-to-face interviews with a sample of adults aged 16 or over living in England and Wales who identified themselves as Black, Asian, Chinese or from any other non-White ethnic group.

The boost interviews were achieved by two methods:

- Focused enumeration sample – achieved by screening two addresses either side of the core sample address (1,817 interviews).
- High concentration boost sample – achieved by screening a separate sample of addresses in postal sectors with an estimated non-White population of 18 per cent or more based on the 1991 Census (2,754 interviews).

The sample was selected from the Small User Postcode Address File (PAF). The file was stratified by region, socio-economic group of the head of household and the male unemployment rate to ensure that the sample represented these characteristics of the population in their correct proportions. A sample of postal sectors was selected and then, within these sectors, a sample of addresses was selected. At each eligible address, an adult aged 16 or over was randomly sampled by the interviewer using a standard procedure which gave each adult an equal probability of selection. If the household contained a child (aged eight to ten) or a young person (aged eleven to fifteen), the interviewer also randomly selected one for interview. The data for children and young people will be presented in a separate report.

Additional information for 2003 will be provided by a local area study designed specifically to address issues in the Home Office's community cohesion policy area. This study consists of 500 interviews in each of 20 local areas. The findings will be reported in a separate publication – see www.homeoffice.gov.uk/rds/citizensurvey.html.

The 2003 sample design is essentially the same as that used for the 2001 survey. The main difference is that, in 2003, the focused enumeration sample was achieved by screening two addresses either side of the core address; in 2001, three addresses either side were screened.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed jointly by ONS and the Home Office. The development work included cognitive testing and a full dress rehearsal. The topics covered related to the policy areas described earlier with additional demographic data for use in the analysis.

As is usual with large-scale surveys, many of the core questions remain the same over time, to develop trend data. However, to be flexible to evolving policy requirements and to take on lessons learned, the 2001 and 2003 Citizenship Survey questionnaires are different: about a half of the questions included in the 2001 questionnaire were repeated in 2003, while the other half were new questions. The questionnaire and associated documents are included in the 2003 Citizenship Survey Technical Report.

Fieldwork for the survey

Interviews were carried out by ONS interviewers between mid-March and the end of September 2003. The interviewers used Computer-Assisted Personal Interviewing (i.e. using a laptop computer). Prior to fieldwork, interviewers attended a full-day briefing which included exercises and practice interviews. In the briefing, particular attention was paid to the focused enumeration sampling and the doorstep selection of an adult (and child) for interview.

In total, 14,057 interviews were achieved, 9,486 in the core sample and 4,571 in the Minority Ethnic Boost. The response rates were:

- Core sample: 64 per cent (based on all eligible adults).
- Focused enumeration sample: 62 per cent (based on those known to be eligible).
- High concentration boost sample: 52 per cent (based on those known to be eligible).

A detailed analysis of response is given in the 2003 Citizenship Survey Technical Report.

Weighting

Weighting has been applied to the core sample data to correct for unequal sampling probabilities and for differential non-response among subgroups. The weighting for the combined core and minority ethnic boost sample also corrects for the over-representation of non-White groups. The final stage of weighting ensured that both samples matched the population figures in terms of their age, sex and regional distribution. Further information about the weighting process is provided in the Technical Report.

Notes on analysis and data presentation

Core and combined samples

For most measures, the core sample provides more robust estimates than the combined core and minority ethnic boost sample and so most tables are based on the core sample (9,486 interviews). The combined sample provides the better estimates for ethnic groups or related characteristics (for example, religion, country of birth) and analyses of these variables are based on the combined sample (14,057 interviews). In these tables, the base is denoted 'Combined Sample'³.

Missing information

Information may be missing because a respondent could not, or would not, answer a question or because they were unable to answer in the terms required. These cases have been excluded from the analysis of the question concerned unless 'Don't know' was offered as a valid answer on a showcard or in a prompt. At most questions fewer than one per cent of respondents failed to answer. The small number which had more than five per cent with missing information are noted in the text and on the table.

Tables

For most topics, logistic regression models were used as a guide to deciding which tables to present. Analyses are generally presented by age, sex and ethnicity whether or not these were significant in the model. Conversely, not all significant variables were tabulated as this would have resulted in an excessive number of tables.

Tables show weighted percentages and unweighted bases. Percentages have not been calculated on bases of less than 30 because of the large sampling errors attached to small numbers. Percentages may not sum to 100 because of rounding.

3 In the combined sample, cases eligible for the boost have been given a much smaller weight than other cases, to reflect their much larger chance of being sampled. The resulting wide range of weights leads to larger variances than for an equal probability sample of the same size. There is also some evidence of a lower response rate for some of the boost cases than for the core cases which will only partly be offset by the non-response weighting. The impact of the weighting and the different response patterns has less impact where the analysis is restricted to the boosted ethnic groups and for this analysis the combined file is needed to provide sufficient cases for analysis. However, to produce robust estimates for the general population, we restrict the analysis to the core cases.

The following conventions have been used:

- .. data not available
- * base less than 30.

Figures

All data shown in Figures are included in tables which also show the base numbers of respondents.

Statistical significance

Changes and differences mentioned in the text are statistically significant at the 95 per cent confidence level.

Sampling errors

The results presented in this report are estimates based on a sample survey. They are therefore subject to sampling error. Percentages based on the full sample (core or combined) will have relatively small errors but those based on small subgroups should be treated with caution. In particular, some minority ethnic groups contain small numbers and, because they tend to be concentrated in particular areas, the sampling errors are quite large. Sampling errors for key variables are given in the 2003 Citizenship Survey Technical Report.

Ethnic group

Most tables show the detailed 11-category classification of ethnic group. This gives separate figures for the main Asian and Black subgroups and combined figures for 'All Asian' and 'All Black' respondents. Tables which are based on partial samples or which tabulate another characteristic within ethnic group, age or sex, for example, usually show the combined categories because the bases are too small to show separate figures for each subgroup. These analyses allow broad differences between White, Black and Asian groups to be identified but not variations between Asian and Black subgroups.

Classificatory variables

Definitions are given in Appendix A.

Summary

Rights and responsibilities

- The rights that most people thought they actually had as UK citizens were the right to: access to free education for children (88%); freedom of thought, conscience and religion (86%); free health-care if they needed it (86%); free elections (85%); and freedom of speech (84%).
- Smaller proportions thought they actually had the right to be looked after by the state if they could not look after themselves (71%) or that they had the right to a job (58%), although 86 per cent and 67 per cent respectively felt that they should have such rights.
- Among both Pakistani and Bangladeshi people, the proportions who felt that they should have the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion (84% and 81% respectively), were greater than the proportions who thought that they actually had this right (76% and 74%). Among other ethnic groups, there was no such disparity.
- 80 per cent of people thought that everyone had a responsibility to vote.

Influencing political decisions

- The proportion of people who definitely or tended to agree that they could influence decisions affecting Britain declined from 24 per cent in 2001 to 19 per cent in 2003, while for decisions affecting the local area the decline was from 43 per cent to 38 per cent.
- Asian and Black people were more likely than White people to feel they could influence decisions, with regard to both the local area (43% and 47%, compared with 37% respectively) and Britain as a whole (28% and 27%, compared with 18%).

Trusting public institutions

- As in 2001, people generally expressed greater confidence in criminal justice organisations than in political bodies: 80 per cent said they trusted the police and 73 per cent trusted the courts 'a lot' or 'a fair amount'. These proportions are about twice as high as the proportion trusting Parliament (38%).

- Local political institutions fared a little better than national. The Welsh and Greater London Assemblies were trusted by 44 per cent and 43 per cent of their constituents while 54 per cent trusted their local council.

This chapter explores the following aspects of rights and responsibilities:

- What do people think are the actual rights of everyone living in the UK?
- What do people think *should* be the rights of everyone living in the UK?
- What do people think *should* be the responsibilities of everyone living in the UK?
- How do people balance rights with responsibilities?

People are likely to take an active role in their governance if they believe they can influence the political decision-making process and they have confidence in their public institutions. In this context, the chapter addresses the following issues:

- Do people feel they can influence political decisions?
- How much do people trust public institutions?

Where possible, results are compared with those from the 2001 Citizenship Survey⁴.

Respondents who were interviewed through a translator, usually someone from within the household, were excluded from some of the questions about rights and responsibilities because of the difficulty of ensuring that the concepts were translated in a standard way⁵. However, all respondents were asked the questions about influencing political decisions and trust in public institutions.

4 It is not possible to compare 2001 and 2003 data on some of the questions about rights and responsibilities because of differences in questions asked and the way in which the answers were collected. In 2001, respondents were asked two open questions about what they believed were their rights and what they thought were their responsibilities, as someone living in the UK. Answers were recorded verbatim and, after fieldwork had been completed, researchers devised a list based on people's answers. The 2001 Citizenship Survey presented figures for the unprompted rights and responsibilities mentioned by six per cent or more of respondents. For 2003, a different approach was adopted. Drawing on the information obtained by the 2001 Survey, respondents were shown a list of the nine rights and eleven responsibilities most commonly mentioned. Because of the different data collection methods, the proportion of respondents citing any of the rights or responsibilities in 2001 is much smaller than the equivalent proportion in 2003. In general, however, the variations by ethnic group and socio-economic classification reported in 2001 were observed again in 2003.

5 Asian people were most likely to have been interviewed through a translator, particularly Asian women (30%) and Asian people aged 50 or over (39%).

Rights and responsibilities

Respondents were asked to look at a list of rights and say which ones they thought they *actually* had and then which they felt they *should* have. Finally, they were asked which of the listed responsibilities they thought *should* be the responsibility of everyone.

What do people think are the actual rights of everyone living in the UK?

The rights that the largest proportion of people thought they actually had were the right to:

- access to free education for children (88%);
- freedom of thought, conscience and religion (86%);
- free health-care if they needed it (86%);
- free elections (85%); and
- freedom of speech (84%).

Smaller proportions thought they actually had the right to:

- be looked after by the state if they could not look after themselves (71%); and
- a job (58%). (Table 2.1)

Table 2.1 *Rights that people think they have*

<i>Percentages</i>	<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
	Rights which citizens actually have
To have free education for children	88
To have freedom of thought, conscience and religion	86
To have free health-care	86
To have free elections	85
To have freedom of speech	84
To be treated fairly and equally	81
To be protected from crime	78
To be looked after by the state if you cannot look after yourself	71
To have a job	58
<i>All respondents¹</i>	<i>9,248</i>

¹ Excludes respondents who were interviewed using a translator. Respondents could give more than one answer so percentages sum to more than 100 per cent.

Sex, age and ethnic group

Women were more likely than men to believe that they had the right to have a job – 61 per cent, this compared with 55 per cent of men. It is possible that women were thinking of the *right to work* if they chose, rather than the right to a job. Men have had a different relationship to the labour market in that work has historically been viewed as an obligation, rather than a right. Women were also more likely than men to say that, as someone living in the UK, they had the right to free health-care although the difference was smaller (87% and 85%). Women tend to have more contacts with health services throughout their lives, partly because of their greater involvement in child rearing, and this may account for some of the variation. Women were *less* likely than men to cite the right to free elections (83% compared with 86%) although, as is discussed later in this chapter, female respondents were no less likely than their male counterparts to have voted in the last general or local election. (Table 2.2)

Table 2.2 *Rights that people think they have, by sex*

Percentages	England & Wales, 2003		
	Male	Female	All
To have free education for children	87	89	88
To have freedom of thought, conscience and religion	86	86	86
To have free health-care	85	87	86
To have free elections	86	83	85
To have freedom of speech	85	84	84
To be treated fairly and equally	81	80	81
To be protected from crime	78	77	78
To be looked after by the state if you cannot look after yourself	70	71	71
To have a job	55	61	58
<i>All respondents</i> ¹	4,122	5,126	9,248

¹ Excludes respondents who were interviewed using a translator.
Respondents could give more than one answer so percentages sum to more than 100 per cent.

In general, the proportion of people believing they had any particular right increased with age – those aged 75 and over were most likely to say that they had rights whilst those aged 16 to 24 years were least likely to do so. People also had a tendency to mention the rights of particular concern to people of their own age group. Among young people aged 16 to

24 years, the right most commonly mentioned was the right to free education for children (86%); they were also more likely than other age groups to feel that they had the right to a job. Older people were more likely to mention the right to free health-care (92% of those aged 75 and over) and the right to be looked after by the state (77%). (Table 2.3)

Table 2.3 *Rights that people think they have, by age*

Percentages	England & Wales, 2003						
	16 to 24	25 to 34	35 to 49	50 to 64	65 to 74	75 or over	All
To have free education for children	86	90	91	89	84	80	88
To have freedom of thought, conscience and religion	80	82	88	88	87	87	86
To have free health-care	83	83	86	86	89	92	86
To have free elections	70	81	87	90	88	88	85
To have freedom of speech	77	81	86	87	86	88	84
To be treated fairly and equally	78	78	81	81	83	83	81
To be protected from crime	77	75	77	78	81	81	78
To be looked after by the state if you cannot look after yourself	67	67	71	71	75	77	71
To have a job	65	58	56	58	56	56	58
<i>All respondents</i> ¹	717	1,538	2,513	2,260	1,197	1,023	9,248

¹ Excludes respondents who were interviewed using a translator.

Respondents could give more than one answer so percentages sum to more than 100 per cent.

On most measures, White people were more likely than Asian or Black people to say that they had any particular right, but the differences were small – between three and six percentage points. The gap was greater on the question of free elections. Among White people, 86 per cent said they had the right to free elections, compared with 76 per cent of Asians and 75 per cent of Black people. A similarly large difference was observed on the question of the right to work, but the variation was in the opposite direction – Black and Asian people were *more* likely than White people to say that they had the right to work (68%, 66% and 57% respectively). (Table 2.4)

Table 2.4 Rights that people think they have, by ethnic group

Percentages	England & Wales, 2003											
	White			Asian		Black		Mixed race		Other		
	All	Indian	Pakistani	Bangladeshi	All	Caribbean	African	Other	Chinese	All		
To have access to free education for children	89	87	86	89	87	85	86	83	84	66	69	88
To have freedom of speech	85	79	81	75	75	80	79	80	80	76	80	84
To have freedom of thought, conscience and religion	86	81	84	76	74	82	82	83	84	88	76	86
To have free elections	86	76	81	73	67	75	77	74	77	64	70	85
To be looked after by the state if you cannot look after yourself	71	67	69	67	58	68	73	64	70	54	62	71
To be protected from crime	78	76	78	75	69	73	75	72	74	74	69	78
To be treated fairly & equally	81	76	78	74	67	74	75	72	74	70	77	81
To have free health-care if you need it	86	86	88	84	80	83	84	83	90	77	74	86
To have a job	57	66	67	66	64	68	69	68	62	62	60	58
All respondents¹	8,609	2,046	932	500	297	1,570	899	604	321	127	327	13,000

¹ Excludes respondents who were interviewed using a translator.

The 'All' figures include data for groups not shown in the table.

Respondents could give more than one answer so percentages sum to more than 100%.

Views on rights varied among different Asian groups. Indians were the most likely to say that they had any particular right whilst Bangladeshi people were the least likely. Pakistani people's views were similar to those of Indian people with regard to the right to be looked after by the state, to be protected from crime, and to be treated fairly and equally. However, they were closer to Bangladeshi people with regard to freedom of speech and freedom of thought, conscience and religion. On the question of free elections and free health-care, Pakistani people's views were between those of Indian and Bangladeshi people. There was no variation with regard to access to free education and the right to have a job. (Table 2.4)

The views of Caribbean and African people were very similar except in one respect. Caribbean people were more likely than African people to say that they had the right to be looked after by the state if they needed help (73% versus 64%). The proportion of Black Caribbeans who thought this was very similar to the proportion among White people (71%), which may suggest that the difference reflects the longer established nature of the Caribbean community and, consequently, their greater familiarity with the availability of state assistance for those who need it. (Table 2.4)

Chinese respondents were least likely of all respondents to say that they had the right to be looked after by the state (54%), the right to free elections (64%), the right to free education for children (66%) and the right to free health-care (77%). However, one in seven Chinese respondents in the sample were students born outside the UK and they would not therefore have been entitled to some of these rights. (Table 2.4)

Highest qualification level and socio-economic classification

People with higher level qualifications were typically more aware of their rights than the less well-educated. The difference between people with degrees and those with no qualifications was particularly noticeable with regard to the proportions who thought they had the right to free elections (92% versus 75%) and the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion (93% versus 77%). The largest difference, however, was in the proportions who thought they had the right to a job and, in this respect, the pattern was reversed. People with a degree or equivalent qualification were less likely than those with no qualifications to say that they had the right to a job (46% and 66% respectively). (Table 2.5)

Table 2.5 Rights that people think they have, by highest qualification level

Percentages	England & Wales, 2003						
	Degree or equivalent	Higher education	GCE A level or equivalent	GCSE Grades A-C or equivalent	GCSE Grades DE or equivalent	Foreign or other qualifications	All
To have access to free education for children	92	91	89	91	91	84	88
To have freedom of speech	88	86	82	84	85	84	84
To have freedom of thought, conscience and religion	93	87	87	87	82	80	86
To have free elections	92	88	83	84	84	80	85
To be looked after by the state if you cannot look after yourself	69	72	69	69	70	70	71
To be protected from crime	75	79	77	77	78	78	78
To be treated fairly & equally	80	82	80	82	79	83	81
To have free health-care if you need it	83	86	84	86	86	85	86
To have a job	46	58	57	60	68	68	58
All respondents ¹	1,615	1,109	1,025	1,421	412	326	9,248

¹ Excludes respondents who were interviewed using a translator and respondents aged 70 or over. These are included in the figures for all respondents. Respondents could give more than one answer so percentages sum to more than 100%.

Table 2.6 Rights that people think they have, by socio-economic classification¹

Percentages	England & Wales, 2003					
	Higher/lower managerial and professional occupations	Intermediate occupations, Small employers and own account workers	Lower supervisory and technical, Semi-routine occupations	Routine occupations	Never worked and long-term unemployed	All Full-time students
To have access to free education for children	92	89	87	82	83	88
To have freedom of speech	88	86	82	81	78	84
To have freedom of thought, conscience and religion	92	89	82	76	74	86
To have free elections	91	88	82	77	70	85
To be looked after by the state if you cannot look after yourself	71	70	70	75	65	71
To be protected from crime	77	80	78	78	68	78
To be treated fairly & equally	82	81	80	81	70	81
To have free health-care if you need it	85	87	86	88	81	86
To have a job	49	60	64	66	51	60
All respondents²	3,188	1,819	2,519	1,186	238	132
						9,248

1 This is the National Statistics Socio-economic classification (NS-SEC). The figures for socio-economic class in this table exclude respondents who had been unemployed for less than one year. These are included in the figures for all respondents.

2 Excludes respondents who were interviewed using a translator. Respondents could give more than one answer so percentages sum to more than 100%.

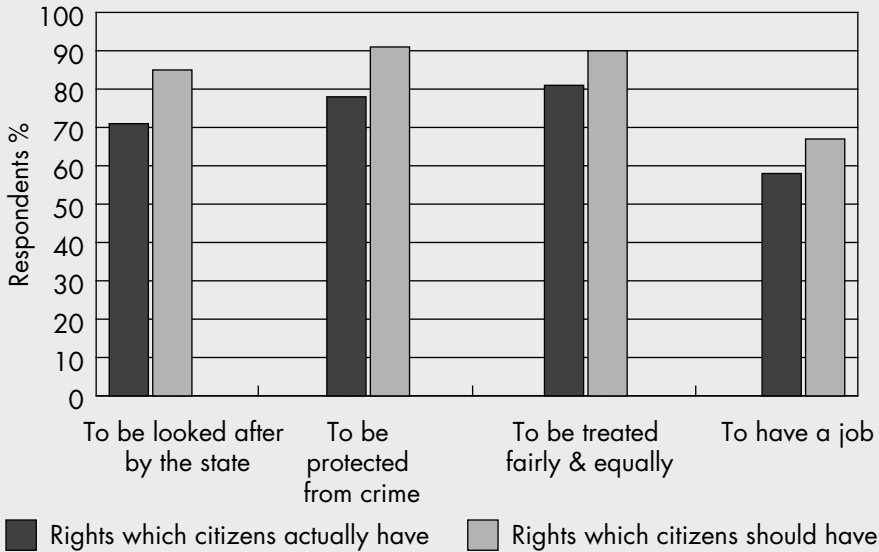
People's socio-economic status was not consistently associated with views concerning their rights. On three of the nine measures, people in routine occupations were the most likely to say that they had rights. Interestingly, this group scored highest on the rights related to health and welfare – the right to free health-care, the right to state provision for those requiring care and the right to a job. People in managerial and professional occupations scored highest on the more 'political' rights such as the right to freedom of speech, the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion and the right to free elections. These variations are probably reflecting the particular relevance of access to free health and welfare to the less affluent. (Table 2.6)

What do people think should be the rights of everyone living in the UK?

People's views about the rights they should have were similar to their views about the rights they actually had. Women were more likely than men to say that they should have the right to a job and less likely to say that they should have the right to free elections. People aged 35 to 49 years placed the most importance on all rights with the exception of the right to work, which was wanted most by young people aged 16 to 24. The right to free health-care and state provision were wanted most by people aged 65 and over. People with qualifications at degree level and above were, in general, most likely to say that they should have each right, with the exception of the right to a job – just 60 per cent cited this compared with 66 per cent to 73 per cent among other groups. People classified in managerial and professional occupations were most likely to say they should have each right. The exception, again, was the right to a job, which was most wanted by people in routine occupations. (Tables not shown)

Table 2.7 shows the rights which people thought they actually had and the rights they thought they *should* have, with Figure 2.1 highlighting the disparities. The proportion of people who felt they should have the right to be looked after by the state if they could not look after themselves, 85 per cent, was considerably higher than the proportion who thought they actually had this as a right, 71 per cent. There was a similar-sized difference in the proportion who felt they should have the right to protection from crime, 91 per cent, and the proportion who thought they already had this as a right, 78 per cent. There was also disparity in the proportions who felt they should have the right to fair and equal treatment (90%) and the right to a job (67%) and the proportions who thought they actually had these as rights (81% and 58%). (Figure 2.1; Table 2.7)

Among both Pakistani and Bangladeshi people, the proportions who felt they should have the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion (84% and 81% respectively), were greater than the proportions who thought they actually had these rights (76% and 74%). There was also a disparity on the right to freedom of speech among Pakistani people – 85 per cent felt they should have this right but just 75 per cent thought they actually had it. (Table 2.8)

Figure 2.1 *Rights that people feel they actually have and those that they think they should have***Table 2.7** *Rights that people feel they actually have and those that they think they should have*

Percentages	England & Wales, 2003	
	Rights which citizens actually have	Rights which citizens should have
To have access to free education for children	88	87
To have freedom of speech	84	90
To have freedom of thought, conscience and religion	86	86
To have free elections	85	83
To be looked after by the state if you cannot look after yourself	71	85
To be protected from crime	78	91
To be treated fairly & equally	81	90
To have free health-care if you need it	86	89
To have a job	58	67
<i>All respondents¹</i>	<i>9,248</i>	<i>9,236</i>

¹ Excludes respondents who were interviewed using a translator.

Respondents could give more than one answer so percentages sum to more than 100 per cent.

Table 2.8 Rights that people think they should have, by ethnic group

Percentages	England & Wales, 2003											
	White	Asian		Black Caribbean	Mixed race	Chinese	Other	All				
	All	Indian	Pakistani	Bangladeshi	All	African						
To have access to free education for children	88	83	84	74	80	81	80	70	78	87		
To have freedom of speech	91	83	84	77	82	82	83	73	86	90		
To have freedom of thought, conscience and religion	87	83	84	81	78	79	83	81	82	86		
To have free elections	84	76	78	75	75	76	78	68	77	83		
To be looked after by the state if you cannot look after yourself	86	78	80	78	79	76	80	75	78	85		
To be protected from crime	92	87	88	86	87	86	88	80	85	91		
To be treated fairly & equally	91	88	90	88	88	86	89	78	82	90		
To have free health-care if you need it	90	85	86	86	82	81	83	75	82	89		
To have a job	67	76	74	81	78	78	77	63	73	67		
<i>All respondents'</i>												
<i>(Combined sample)</i>	8,601	2,035	928	496	296	1,567	898	602	321	125	328	12,977

1 Excludes respondents who were interviewed using a translator. The 'All' figures include data for groups not shown in the table. Respondents could give more than one answer so percentages sum to more than 100 per cent

What do people think should be the responsibilities of everyone living in the UK?

Table 2.9 shows the responsibilities that people felt everyone living in the UK should have. Almost all respondents thought it should be everyone's responsibility to:

- obey and respect the law (96%);
- raise children properly (96%);
- treat others with fairness and respect (95%); and
- behave responsibly (95%).

In contrast, just 80 per cent of people considered everyone had a responsibility to vote.

Table 2.9 Responsibilities that people think everyone living in the UK should have

<i>Percentages</i>	<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
Responsibilities everyone should have	
To obey and respect the law	96
To raise children properly	96
To treat others with fairness and respect	95
To behave responsibly	95
To help and protect your family	94
To respect and preserve the environment	93
To treat all races equally	92
To behave morally and ethically	92
To work to provide for yourself	90
To help others	88
To vote	80
<i>All respondents¹</i>	<i>9,256</i>

¹ Excludes respondents who were interviewed using a translator.

Respondents could give more than one answer so percentages sum to more than 100 per cent.

Sex, age and ethnic group

Women were more likely than men to say that everyone had a responsibility to help others (89% compared with 86%). Women were also more likely to say that everyone had a responsibility to vote (81% and 79% respectively).

Young people (aged 16 to 24) were less likely to perceive themselves as having responsibilities. The group aged 16 to 24 contained the lowest proportions advocating responsibilities in all respects except with regard to the responsibility to treat all races

equally. Young people aged 16 to 24 years were just as likely as their peers aged 25 to 65 years to subscribe to the responsibility to treat all races equally – 92 per cent to 94 per cent did so – and more likely to do so than people aged 65 and over, 87 per cent of whom subscribed to this view. As Chapter 3 discusses, age was associated with increasingly negative views about the extent of racial prejudice in Britain. (Table 2.10)

Table 2.10 Responsibilities that people think everyone living in the UK should have, by age

Percentages	England & Wales, 2003						
	16 to 24	25 to 34	35 to 49	50 to 64	65 to 74	75 or over	All
To obey and respect the law	93	96	96	97	98	97	96
To behave morally and ethically	88	92	94	92	91	90	92
To help and protect your family	90	92	95	96	94	93	94
To raise children properly	94	96	97	97	95	95	96
To work to provide for yourself	84	89	90	93	91	89	90
To behave responsibly	92	94	96	96	95	94	95
To vote	65	74	80	86	89	88	80
To respect and preserve the environment	88	92	94	95	93	91	93
To help others	82	84	87	91	89	91	88
To treat others with fairness and respect	92	96	97	96	95	94	95
To treat all races equally	94	94	94	92	87	87	92
<i>All respondents</i> ¹	716	1,538	2,515	2,260	1,200	1,027	9,256

¹ Excludes respondents who were interviewed using a translator.

Respondents could give more than one answer so percentages may sum to more than 100 per cent.

Variations by ethnic group showed a fairly consistent pattern. Among the three main ethnic groups, White people were most likely to advocate each responsibility, followed by Black people and then Asian people. However, the differences were small, even between White and Asian people, although they still achieved statistical significance. Differences between White and Black people were even smaller and in most cases were not statistically significant. Again, there were variations within the Asian sub-groups and the pattern was the same as that for rights. Indian people were the most likely to cite each responsibility whilst the views of Pakistani people were usually either close to those of Indian people or mid-way between

Indian and Bangladeshi people. Bangladeshi people were least likely of all the Asian groups to cite each responsibility. However, differences were not always statistically significant. It is possible that results reflect a cultural bias in terms of the language used and the meanings ascribed by different people to the listed rights and responsibilities. (Table 2.11)

As with rights, there were few differences between the views of Black Caribbean and African people. One exception was the proportion who felt everyone had a responsibility to help and protect their family – 94 per cent of Black Caribbeans endorsed this view compared with 88 per cent of Africans. (Table 2.11)

Closer examination of the data showed that the difference is accounted for by a significant variation between Caribbean and African males. Whilst the views of Black Caribbean males were the same as those for White males, their African counterparts were considerably less likely to endorse the view that all people should be responsible for helping and protecting their family – just 72 per cent of African males advocated this, compared with 94 per cent of Caribbean and White males. No such differences were evident between their female counterparts. (Table not shown)

Table 2.11 Responsibilities that people think everyone living in the UK should have, by ethnic group

Percentages	England & Wales, 2003										
	White					Black			Other		All
	All	Indian	Pakistani	Bangladeshi	All	Caribbean	African	Mixed race	Chinese		
To obey and respect the law	96	96	97	96	93	96	96	96	90	95	96
To behave morally and ethically	92	88	90	88	82	90	90	91	89	91	92
To help and protect your family	94	90	92	88	88	91	94	88	94	89	94
To raise children properly	97	91	92	91	87	94	95	93	94	89	96
To work to provide for yourself	90	86	88	83	80	90	91	90	88	87	90
To behave responsibly	95	91	92	90	84	93	92	94	89	91	95
To vote	80	78	81	74	71	78	77	81	72	80	80
To respect and preserve the environment	94	87	89	84	81	90	89	92	89	89	93
To help others	88	85	87	83	81	85	87	84	85	90	88
To treat others with fairness and respect	96	93	94	94	87	94	94	94	92	91	95
To treat all races equally	92	95	96	95	92	94	95	93	93	90	92
<i>All respondents¹</i>											
<i>(Combined sample)</i>	8,618	2,043	930	499	296	1,573	898	609	321	128	328
											13,011

¹ Excludes respondents who were interviewed using a translator. The 'All' figures include data for groups not shown in the table. Respondents could give more than one answer so percentages sum to more than 100%.

How do people balance rights and responsibilities?

People were asked whether they agreed or disagreed with five statements about rights and responsibilities. The statements, and the responses to them were as follows:

- If people treated others as they would want to be treated themselves, our society would be a better place (98% definitely or tended to agree).
- You can't demand rights as someone living in the UK without also accepting responsibilities (96% definitely or tended to agree).
- Some people take advantage of public services and benefits without putting anything back into the community (93% definitely or tended to agree).
- People are entitled to basic human rights, regardless of whether they are a good person or not (83% definitely or tended to agree).
- If people would mind their own business, our society would be a better place (36% definitely or tended to agree). (Table 2.12)

Table 2.12 Agreement with statements on rights and responsibilities

Percentages

England & Wales, 2003

	Definitely agree	Tend to agree	Tend to disagree	Definitely disagree	All respondents ¹
People are entitled to basic human rights, regardless of whether they are a good person or not	46	37	13	4	9,197
If people treated others as they would want to be treated themselves, our society would be a better place	80	18	2	0	9,255
You can't demand rights as someone living in the UK without also accepting responsibilities	64	32	3	1	9,171
Some people take advantage of public services and benefits without putting anything back into the community	65	28	5	3	9,200
People are entitled to basic human rights, regardless of whether they are a good person or not	46	37	13	4	9,197
If people would mind their own business, our society would be a better place	15	21	43	21	9,172

¹ Excludes respondents who were interviewed using a translator.

The same questions were asked in 2001 and, as shown in Table 2.13, the percentages agreeing were very similar.

Table 2.13 Agreement with statements on rights and responsibilities, 2001 & 2003

Percentages saying definitely/tend to agree	England & Wales, 2001 & 2003	
	2001	2003
If people treated others as they would want to be treated themselves, our society would be a better place	97	98
<i>All respondents¹</i>	9,908	9,255
You can't demand rights as someone living in the UK without also accepting responsibilities	96	96
<i>All respondents¹</i>	9,650	9,171
Some people take advantage of public services and benefits without putting anything back into the community	93	93
<i>All respondents¹</i>	9,788	9,200
People are entitled to basic human rights, regardless of whether they are a good person or not	85	83
<i>All respondents¹</i>	9,775	9,197
If people would mind their own business, our society would be a better place	34	36
<i>All respondents¹</i>	9,727	9,172

¹ 2003 bases exclude respondents who were interviewed using a translator. These were included in the 2001 survey.

Variations by ethnic group

Ethnic groups responded differently to four out of five statements:

- *If people treated others as they would want to be treated themselves, our society would be a better place.* There were no variations by ethnic group.
- *You can't demand rights as someone living in the UK without also accepting responsibilities.* Among Asian people, Indians (95%) were most likely to definitely or tend to agree with the statement; there were no differences between Indian and White respondents (96%). Pakistani and Bangladeshi people however, were less likely to agree (90% and 89%). Among Black people, Africans' views were no different to those of White people (95% and 96%) but Caribbean people were less likely to agree with the statement (93%).

- *Some people take advantage of public services and benefits without putting anything back into the community.* White people were most likely to definitely or tend to agree (94%), followed by Caribbeans (91%), Africans and Indians (90%), Bangladeshis (87%), Pakistanis (81%) and Chinese (74%).
- *People are entitled to basic human rights, regardless of whether they are a good person or not.* White people were the least likely to agree with this statement – just 83 per cent agreed compared with 90 per cent of Black people and a similar proportion of Asian people (89%). The views of Asian people were similar whether Indian, Pakistani or Bangladeshi, as were the views of Caribbean and African people.
- *If people would mind their own business, our society would be a better place.* Asians were more likely than White or Black people to definitely or tend to agree with this statement. Among Asian people, 46 per cent of Indians, 50 per cent of Bangladeshi people and 52 per cent of Pakistani people agreed with the statement, compared with 35 per cent of White people and 34 per cent of Black people. The result is anomalous as, on most other measures where there were differences by ethnic group, Asian people tended to have comparatively positive attitudes and a relatively strong sense of citizenship. It is possible that some respondents may have misunderstood the idiom ‘mind your own business’. People born outside of the UK may be unfamiliar with this term and may have misinterpreted the phrase to mean that people should ‘look after their own business’, perhaps in the sense of owning and working in their own business. (Table 2.14)

The ethnic variations observed in 2003 were similar to those recorded in 2001.

Table 2.14 Agreement with statements on rights and responsibilities, by ethnic group

	England & Wales, 2003											
	White	All Indian	Asian Pakistani	Bangladeshi	All Caribbean	Black African	Mixed race	Chinese	Other	All		
Percentages saying they definitely or tend to agree												
If people treated others as they would want to be treated themselves, our society would be a better place	98	96	96	97	98	97	97	97	97	98		
You can't demand rights as someone living in the UK without also accepting responsibilities	96	93	95	90	89	94	93	97	93	96		
Some people take advantage of public services and benefits without putting anything back into the community	94	87	90	81	87	90	91	90	86	93		
People are entitled to basic human rights, regardless of whether they are a good person or not	83	89	88	90	91	90	88	92	88	87		
If people would mind their own business, our society would be a better place	35	48	46	52	50	34	36	33	30	45		
All respondents¹	8,548	1,986	911	486	285	1,550	889	595	321	123	318	12,848

¹ Excludes respondents who were interviewed using a translator. The 'All' figures include data for groups not shown in the table.

Do people feel they can influence political decisions?

Citizens are most likely to play an active role in their governance if they feel they are able to influence political decision-making processes. This is sometimes referred to as political efficacy or empowerment. The survey asked people two questions to gain some measure of the extent to which they felt politically empowered:

- 1) Do you agree or disagree that you can influence decisions affecting your local area?
- 2) Do you agree or disagree that you can influence decisions affecting Britain?

Respondents living in Wales and London were also asked whether they could influence decisions affecting their areas.

As Table 2.15 shows, on all four measures, the proportions who felt unable to influence decisions were considerably greater than the proportions who felt able to do so. Of the four measures, people were most likely to feel able to influence decisions in their local area, but even here, the proportion who *definitely disagreed* that they could influence decisions (22%) was three times greater than the proportion who *definitely agreed* (7%). The contrast between the proportions who definitely felt unable to affect decisions and those who definitely felt able to, was even more striking on the other measures. On the question of influencing decisions affecting Britain, the proportion who definitely disagreed that they could influence decisions (39%) was thirteen times greater than the proportion who definitely agreed (3%). There were comparable disparities in views about influencing decisions in Wales and London. (Table 2.15)

Furthermore, people's sense of political empowerment has declined since 2001, when the same questions were asked in the first Citizenship Survey. The proportion of people who definitely or tended to agree that they could influence decisions in their local area declined from 43 per cent in 2001 to 38 per cent in 2003. On the question of whether people could influence decisions affecting Britain, the decline was from 24 per cent in 2001 to 19 per cent in 2003. The corresponding figures for decisions affecting Wales were 26 per cent and 23 per cent and for London, 31 per cent and 23 per cent. (Figure 2.2; Table 2.16)

Table 2.15 *Whether people feel able to influence decisions affecting their local area, London, Wales and Great Britain*

<i>Percentages</i>		<i>England & Wales, 2001 & 2003</i>			
<i>People agreeing they can influence decisions affecting:</i>	<i>Definitely agree</i>	<i>Tend to agree</i>	<i>Tend to disagree</i>	<i>Definitely disagree</i>	<i>All respondents</i>
Local area	7	31	40	22	9,315
London ¹	3	20	44	32	1,063
Wales ²	2	20	46	32	560
Great Britain	3	17	42	39	9,349

1 Respondents living in London.

2 Respondents living in Wales.

Figure 2.2 *Whether people feel able to influence decisions affecting their local area and Great Britain: 2001 and 2003*

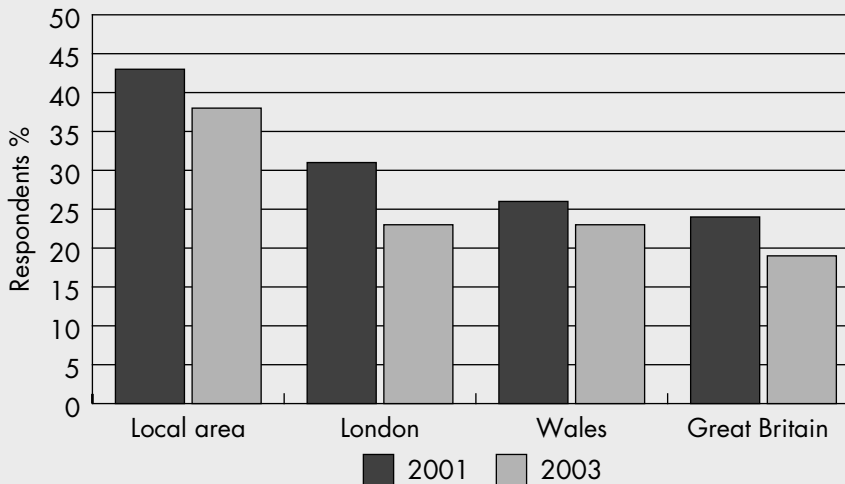


Table 2.16 *Whether people feel able to influence decisions affecting their local area and Great Britain, 2001 & 2003*

People agreeing ¹ they can influence decisions affecting:	<i>England & Wales, 2001 & 2003</i>			
	2001		2003	
	%	Respondents	%	Respondents
Local area	43	9,607	38	9,315
London ²	31	1,302	23	1,063
Wales ³	26	537	23	560
Great Britain	24	9,659	19	9,349

1 Percentage saying that they definitely agreed or tended to agree.

2 Respondents living in London.

3 Respondents living in Wales.

Sex, age and ethnic group

People's sense of political efficacy showed no variation by sex. There was a relationship with age and the pattern was similar to that found in 2001. On the question of political efficacy in the local area, people aged 35 to 49 years were most likely to feel able to influence decisions (42%) whilst those aged 65 and over were least likely to do so (33%). Young people aged 16 to 19 showed relatively high levels of political empowerment – 36 per cent definitely or tended to agree that they could influence decisions in the local area. However, the pattern was not repeated with regard to influencing decisions in Britain as a whole. Those aged 35 to 49 were again most likely to feel that they could influence decisions in Britain (21%) but young people aged 16 to 19 were the least likely to do so (16%). (Table 2.17)

People's views also varied by ethnic group. White people were less likely than Asian or Black people to feel that they could influence decisions with regard to both the local area (37% compared with 43% and 47% respectively) and Britain as a whole (18% compared with 28% and 27%). Among Black people, Africans were more likely than Caribbean people to feel able to influence decisions in Britain as a whole (31% and 24%). (Table 2.18)

Table 2.17 Whether people feel able to influence decisions affecting their local area and Great Britain by age

Percentages	England & Wales, 2003						
	16 to 19	20 to 24	25 to 34	35 to 49	50 to 64	65 to 74	75 or over
People agreeing ¹ they can influence decisions affecting:							All
Local area	36	34	39	42	39	33	32
Great Britain	16	17	19	21	20	18	18
All respondents	293	422	1,562	2,543	2,256	1,205	1,034
							9,315

¹ Percentage saying that they definitely agreed or tended to agree.

Table 2.18 Whether people feel able to influence decisions affecting their local area and Great Britain, by ethnic group

Percentages	England & Wales, 2003										
	White		Asian		Black		Mixed		Other		All
People agreeing ¹ they could influence decisions affecting:	All	Indian	Pakistani	Bangladeshi	All	Caribbean	African	race	Chinese	Other	
Local area	37	43	40	43	45	47	44	50	35	39	38
Great Britain	18	28	28	29	26	27	24	31	19	23	19
All respondents (Combined sample)	8,618	2,543	1,115	673	408	1,600	882	650	322	149	419
											13,651

¹ Proportion saying that they definitely agreed or tended to agree.
The 'All' figures include data for groups not shown in the table.

The overall decline in political efficacy between 2001 and 2003 occurred among White, Black and Asian people and in each sub-group of Asian and Black people. The largest decline occurred among Caribbean and Bangladeshi people. Among Caribbean people, the proportion who definitely or tended to agree that they could influence decisions in the local area declined from 52 per cent in 2001 to 44 per cent in 2003 and the proportion who felt they could influence decisions in Britain as a whole declined even more steeply from 35 per cent in 2001 to 24 per cent in 2003. Among Bangladeshi people, the proportion who felt they could influence decisions in Britain declined from 33 per cent in 2001 to 26 per cent in 2003.

Educational qualifications and socio-economic classification

Beliefs concerning political efficacy were associated with educational qualifications. People whose highest qualification was a degree or equivalent were most likely to feel that they could influence decisions (52% definitely or tended to agree), whilst people with no qualifications were least likely to do so (31%). The same pattern was observed with regard to influencing decisions affecting Britain but the difference was smaller – 24 per cent agreement among people with a degree, declining to 18 per cent among people with qualifications at 'A' level or below, or with no qualifications. (Table 2.19)

Socio-economic classification showed a similar pattern, with people classified in higher managerial and professional occupations expressing the most political empowerment (47% definitely or tended to agree) and people in routine occupations expressing the least (30%). There was a similar, but less consistent, pattern on the question of influencing decisions in Britain as a whole but, again, the differences were smaller – 22 per cent of people classified in higher managerial and professional occupations agreed that they could influence decisions in Britain, compared with 18 per cent of people in a routine occupational group. (Table 2.20)

Table 2.19 *Whether people feel able to influence decisions affecting their local area and Great Britain, by highest qualification level*

Percentages	England & Wales, 2003							
	People agreeing ² they can influence decisions affecting:	Degree or equivalent	Higher education below degree	GCE A level or equivalent	GCSE Grades A-C or equivalent	GCSE Grades D-E or equivalent	Foreign or other qualifications	No qualifications
Local area	52	40	38	36	33	32	31	38
Great Britain	24	20	18	18	17	18	18	19
All respondents	1,614	1,117	1,020	1,411	410	340	1,793	9,315

1 The qualification figures exclude respondents aged 70 or over. These are included in the figures for all respondents.

2 Proportion saying that they definitely agreed or tended to agree.

Table 2.20 Whether people feel able to influence decisions affecting their local area and Great Britain, by socio-economic classification¹

Percentages People agreeing ² they can influence decisions affecting:	England & Wales, 2003							All students		
	Higher managerial and professional occupations	Lower managerial and professional occupations	Intermediate occupations	Small employers and own account workers	Lower supervisory and technical	Semi-routine occupations	Routine occupations		Never worked/ long-term unemployed	
Local area	47	44	38	35	35	32	30	35	40	38
Great Britain	22	21	19	16	17	19	18	16	16	19
All respondents	1,019	2,175	1,128	687	908	1,602	1,210	276	132	9,315

1 This is the National Statistics Socio-economic classification (NS-SEC). The figures for socio-economic class in this table exclude respondents who had been unemployed for less than one year. These are included in the figures for all respondents.

2 Proportion saying that they definitely agreed or tended to agree.

Voting in general and local elections

The means by which most individuals influence local and national policy-making is through voting. Respondents in the 2003 Citizenship Survey were asked whether they had voted in the last general election (in 2001) and the last local election. The tables show the results for the population aged 18 or over who were eligible to vote in either election⁶.

Overall, 72 per cent of respondents eligible to vote said they had voted in the last general election and 53 per cent had voted in the last local election. There were no differences between men and women in this respect. The percentage who said they voted in the last general election is considerably higher than the actual turnout figure⁷ of 59 per cent and the figure for local elections is higher than is normally achieved. One possible reason for these differences is that people who take part in social surveys are probably more likely to vote than those who do not co-operate since both activities are founded in public-spiritedness. Another may be that there is a general tendency for survey respondents to give a 'socially acceptable' response. (Table 2.21)

Table 2.21 *Whether voted in last general and local election, by sex*

<i>Percentages</i>	<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>		
	Male	Female	All
Percentage who:			
voted in the last general election	71	73	72
voted in the last local election	53	54	53
did not vote in either election	26	24	25
<i>Respondents aged 18 or over eligible to vote</i>	<i>4,038</i>	<i>5,041</i>	<i>9,079</i>

Age

People aged 50 or over were twice as likely as those aged 20 to 24 to say that they voted in the last general election, 85 per cent compared with 43 per cent. The age variation for voting in the last local election showed an even stronger association with age, the proportion who had voted rising from 26 per cent among 20 to 24 year olds to 73 per cent of those aged 75 or over. (Figure 2.3; Table 2.22)

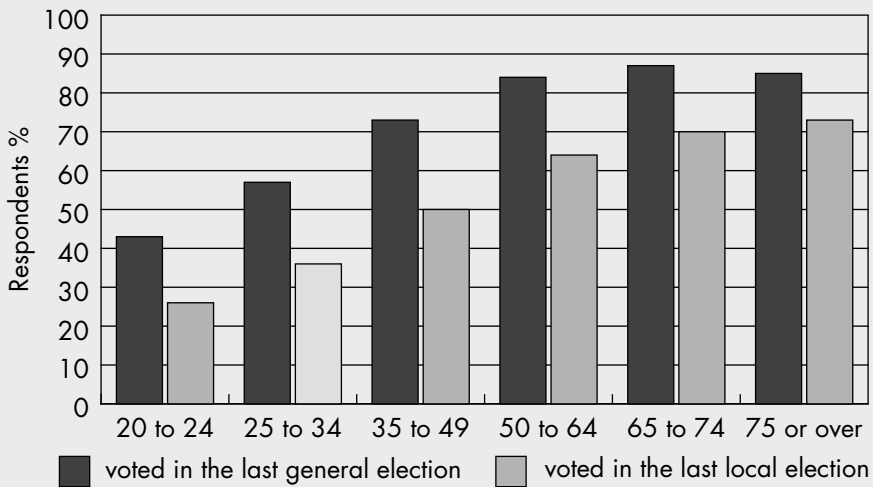
⁶ This is based on self-reported eligibility. The question allowed people to say that they were ineligible to vote but it was not specifically prompted. It is possible that some of those who said they did not vote were actually ineligible.

⁷ UK general election data, 2001.

Table 2.22 Whether voted in last general and local election by age

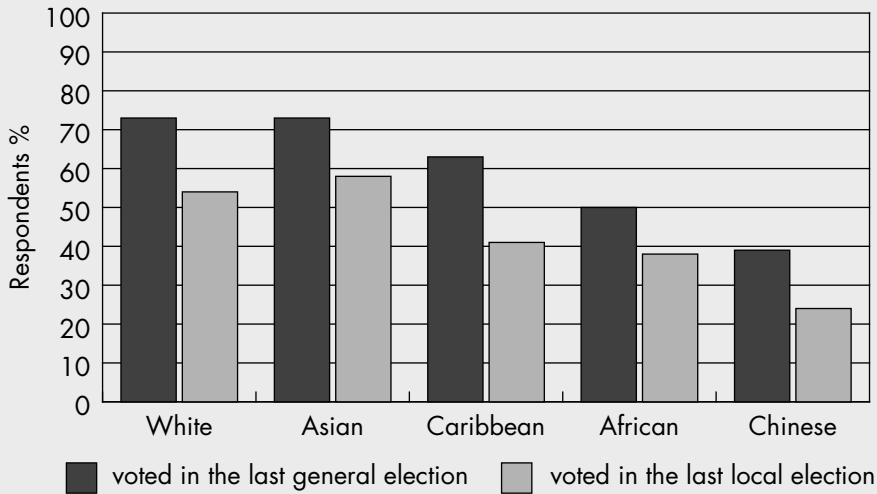
Percentages	England & Wales, 2003									
	Under 20	20 to 24	25 to 34	35 to 49	50 to 64	65 to 74	75 or over	All		
Percentage who:										
voted in the last general election	*	43	57	73	84	87	85	72		
voted in the last local election	26	26	36	50	64	70	73	53		
did not vote in either election	74	53	40	24	14	12	13	25		
Respondents aged 18 or over eligible to vote	79	409	1,511	2,528	2,268	1,224	1,060	9,079		

* Base too small for percentages

Figure 2.3 *Percentage who voted in the last general and local elections, by age***Ethnic group**

While Asian and Black people displayed greater belief in their political efficacy than White people, they were no more likely to have voted in the last general election. Among those eligible to vote, White and Asian people were equally likely to say that they voted in the last general election, although Asians were slightly the more likely to have voted in the last local election, 58 per cent compared with 54 per cent. There were no statistically significant differences between the Asian subgroups. Black people, particularly Africans, were less likely to say that they had voted: 63 per cent of Caribbeans and 50 per cent of Africans had voted in the last general election compared with 73 per cent of White people. Likewise, for local elections the corresponding proportions were: 41 per cent Caribbeans, 38 per cent Africans and 54 per cent White. Chinese people were least likely of all to have voted: only 39 per cent of those eligible had voted in the last general election and only 24 per cent in the last local election. (Figure 2.4; Table 2.23)

Figure 2.4 *Percentage who voted in the last general and local elections, by ethnic group*



Socio-economic classification

It is well established that the propensity to vote is closely associated with socio-economic status. Among people in higher or lower managerial and professional occupations, 80 per cent claimed they had voted in the last general election compared with 64 per cent among those in routine occupations and 59 per cent of those who were long-term unemployed or who had never worked (which includes some young people). The variation for voting in the last local election was not so marked, the corresponding proportions being 58 per cent, 49 per cent and 45 per cent. (Table 2.24)

Table 2.23 Whether voted in last general and local election, by ethnic group

Percentages	England & Wales, 2003											
	White		Asian		Black Caribbean		African		Mixed race		Other	
	All	Indian	Pakistani	Bangladeshi	All	Black Caribbean	African	Mixed race	Chinese	Other	All	
Percentage who:												
voted in the last general election	73	73	75	71	78	57	63	50	53	39	47	72
voted in the last local election	54	58	59	60	58	40	41	38	37	24	36	53
did not vote in either election	24	23	21	22	19	39	33	47	42	58	48	25
Respondents aged 18 or over eligible to vote (Combined sample)	8,434	2,379	1,063	641	384	1,494	867	566	280	102	311	13,000

The 'All' figures include data for groups not shown in the table.

Table 2.24 Whether voted in last general and local election by socio-economic classification¹

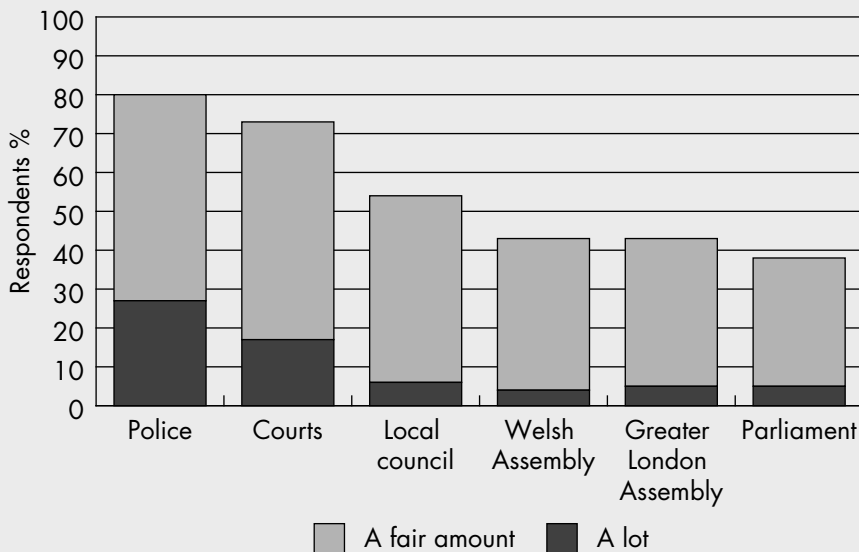
Percentages	England & Wales, 2003									
	Higher managerial and professional occupations	Lower managerial and professional occupations	Intermediate occupations	Small employers and own account workers	Lower supervisory and technical occupations	Semi-routine occupations	Routine occupations	Never worked/long-term unemployed	Full-time students	All
Percentage who: voted in the last general election	81	79	76	69	69	69	64	59	42	72
voted in the last local election	59	58	56	50	51	51	49	45	25	53
did not vote in either election	17	19	22	29	28	28	32	36	49	25
Respondents aged 18 or over eligible to vote	1,006	2,164	1,113	688	901	1,545	1,184	252	70	8,923

¹ This is the National Statistics Socio-economic classification (NS-SEC). The figures for socio-economic class in this table exclude respondents who had been unemployed for less than one year. These are included in the figures for all respondents.

How much do people trust public institutions?

All respondents to the 2003 Citizenship Survey were asked how much they trusted the police, courts, their local council and Parliament. Those living in Wales and London were also asked about trust in the Welsh/Greater London Assembly. As in 2001, people generally expressed greater trust in criminal justice organisations than in political bodies. Thus, 80 per cent said that they trusted the police and 73 per cent trusted the courts 'a lot' or 'a fair amount'⁸. These proportions are about twice as high as the proportion trusting Parliament, 38 per cent. The Welsh and Greater London Assemblies fared a little better (44% and 43% of their constituents trusted them a lot or a fair amount), while a higher proportion (54%) trusted their local council a lot or a fair amount. The police was the only organisation trusted a lot by a substantial proportion of people and, even then, it was only about a quarter (27%). The corresponding figure for the courts was 17 per cent while no more than six per cent expressed a lot of trust in the governmental bodies. (Figure 2.5; Table 2.25)

Figure 2.5 *How much people trust institutions*



⁸ Five per cent of respondents did not express an opinion about the courts. These have been excluded from the analysis.

Table 2.25 Trust in institutions

<i>Percentages</i>		<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>				
<i>How much people trust institution</i>	<i>Police</i>	<i>Courts¹</i>	<i>Local council</i>	<i>Parliament</i>	<i>Welsh Assembly</i>	<i>Greater London Assembly</i>
A lot	27	17	6	5	4	5
A fair amount	53	56	48	33	39	38
Not very much	16	21	34	42	37	40
Not at all	4	6	12	20	20	17
<i>All respondents</i>	<i>9,421</i>	<i>9,022</i>	<i>9,227</i>	<i>9,295</i>	<i>548</i>	<i>1,006</i>

1 Five per cent of respondents did not express an opinion about the courts. These have been excluded from the analysis.
 The percentages for the Welsh Assembly are based on people living in Wales.
 The percentages for the Greater London Assembly are based on people living in London.

Between 2001 and 2003, the proportion saying that they trusted their local council a lot or a fair amount increased from 51 per cent to 54 per cent and the proportion trusting Parliament increased from 36 per cent to 38 per cent. Again, these results show a different pattern to views about political efficacy. As discussed earlier, there was a downward trend between 2001 and 2003 in the proportions who felt able to influence local and national decisions. Levels of trust in the police and courts did not change. (Table 2.26)

Table 2.26 Trust in institutions, 2001 and 2003

<i>Percentage who trust institution a lot or a fair amount</i>	<i>2001</i>		<i>2003</i>	
	<i>%</i>	<i>Respondents</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Respondents</i>
<i>Respondents</i>				
Police	80	9,847	80	9,421
Courts	73	8,948	73	9,022
Local council	51	9,263	54	9,227
Parliament	36	9,559	38	9,295

Who has most trust in public institutions?

The people **most** likely to trust the **police**:

- lived in the 40 per cent least deprived areas of England;
- were aged 75 or over;
- were female;
- were married or widowed;
- were of Chinese ethnic origin;
- were in the three highest socio-economic groups (managerial, professional or intermediate occupations);
- had qualifications at degree level or above.

And the people **least** likely to trust the **police**:

- lived in the in the 20 per cent most deprived areas of England;
- were male;
- were cohabiting;
- were of mixed race or Black ethnic origin, especially Caribbean;
- were in the routine occupations socio-economic group;
- had lower level or no qualifications.

The people **most** likely to trust the **courts**:

- lived in areas classified as 'Prosperous Professionals, Metropolitan Areas'(ACORN);
- were aged 16 to 24;
- were single;
- were of Asian or Chinese ethnic origin;
- were in the managerial and professional occupations socio-economic groups or were full-time students;
- had qualifications at degree level or above.

And the people **least** likely to trust the **courts**:

- lived in areas classified as 'Prosperous Pensioners, Retirement Areas' (ACORN);
- were aged 65 or over;
- were divorced;
- were of Black Caribbean ethnic origin;

- were in the small employers and own account workers or lower supervisory and technical socio-economic groups;
- had lower level or no qualifications.

The people **most** likely to trust the **local council**:

- lived in areas classified as 'Affluent Greys, Rural Communities' or 'Affluent Urbanites, Town and City Areas'(ACORN);
- were in the youngest (16 to 24) or oldest (75 or over) age groups;
- were single or widowed;
- were of Asian, African or Chinese ethnic origin;
- were long-term unemployed or had never worked or were full-time students.

And the people **least** likely to trust the **local council**:

- lived in the 50 per cent most deprived areas in England;
- were middle-aged;
- were cohabiting;
- were of Black Caribbean ethnic origin;
- were in the small employers and own account workers or lower supervisory and technical socio-economic groups.

The people **most** likely to trust **Parliament**:

- lived in areas classified as 'Multi-ethnic Low Income Areas' (ACORN);
- lived in London;
- were aged under 25;
- were single;
- were of Asian, African or Chinese ethnic origin;
- were long-term unemployed or had never worked or were full-time students;
- had qualifications at degree level or above.

And the people **least** likely to trust **Parliament**:

- lived in areas classified as 'Affluent Greys, Rural Communities' or 'Older People, Less Prosperous Areas'(ACORN);
- were aged 50 to 74;
- were of White ethnic origin;
- had qualifications below 'A' level or no qualifications.

How does people's trust in institutions vary by area characteristics?

In general there were few consistent patterns of variation with measures of deprivation, type of area or region. People in deprived areas tend to be least likely to trust local institutions, the police and the council. A relatively high proportion of Londoners said they trusted Parliament a lot or a fair amount (44% compared with 34% to 41% in other regions). (Tables 2.27 to 2.29)

Table 2.27 Trust in institutions, by type of area

<i>Percentage who trust institution a lot or a fair amount</i>					<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
Type of area (ACORN classification)	Police	Courts ¹	Local council	Parliament	Respondents ¹
Wealthy Achievers, Suburban Areas	85	77	55	36	1,453
Affluent Greys, Rural Communities	85	77	65	30	188
Prosperous Pensioners, Retirement Areas	81	64	62	40	252
Affluent Executives, Family Areas	85	72	55	41	377
Well-Off Workers, Family Areas	81	74	56	38	720
Affluent Urbanites, Town and City Areas	87	78	66	38	198
Prosperous Professionals, Metropolitan Areas	87	85	60	46	181
Better-Off Executives, Inner City Areas	78	76	53	43	277
Comfortable Middle Agers, Mature Home Owning Areas	81	73	59	37	1,304
Skilled Workers, Home Owning Areas	78	71	50	36	1,137
New Home Owners, Mature Communities	76	69	48	35	772
White Collar Workers, Better-Off Multi-Ethnic Areas	78	72	49	40	374
Older People, Less Prosperous Areas	77	68	50	32	320
Council Estate Residents, Better-Off Homes	72	67	49	39	903
Council Estate Residents, High Unemployment	79	73	61	39	243
Council Estate Residents, Greatest Hardship	75	67	48	39	172
People in Multi-Ethnic Low-Income Areas	76	80	60	57	142
All	80	73	54	38	9,022

1 Five per cent of respondents did not express an opinion about the courts. These have been excluded from the analysis.
Figures shown are the bases for trust in courts which had fewest respondents.

Table 2.28 Trust in institutions, by Index of Multiple Deprivation

<i>Percentage who trust institution a lot or a fair amount</i>					<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
<i>Index of Multiple Deprivation for England²</i>	<i>Police</i>	<i>Courts¹</i>	<i>Local council</i>	<i>Parliament</i>	<i>Respondents¹</i>
1 Least deprived	86	74	61	38	711
2	85	74	58	35	799
3	83	76	58	38	600
4	83	76	58	39	701
5	79	72	58	34	740
6	79	69	53	33	831
7	80	72	50	38	837
8	80	75	54	41	838
9	76	69	49	38	1,170
10 Most deprived	75	74	52	43	1,254
All (including Wales)	80	73	54	38	9,022

1 Five per cent of respondents did not express an opinion about the courts. These have been excluded from the analysis.

2 The Index is not available for Wales.

Figures shown are the bases for trust in courts which had fewest respondents.

Table 2.29 Trust in institutions, by Government Office Region and country

<i>Percentage who trust institution a lot or a fair amount</i>					<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
<i>Government Office Region and country</i>	<i>Police</i>	<i>Courts¹</i>	<i>Local council</i>	<i>Parliament</i>	<i>Respondents¹</i>
North East	82	76	51	40	443
North West	80	73	51	41	1,168
Yorkshire & Humberside	78	72	50	37	909
East Midlands	79	74	55	34	758
West Midlands	80	69	54	37	918
Eastern	81	73	56	35	965
London	79	75	57	44	1,034
South East	81	74	57	38	1,420
South West	80	71	55	35	866
All England	80	73	54	38	8,481
All Wales	80	73	52	35	541
All	80	73	54	38	9,022

1 Five per cent of respondents did not express an opinion about the courts. These have been excluded from the analysis.

Figures shown are the bases for trust in courts which had fewest respondents.

How does people's trust in institutions vary by demographic characteristics?

Relatively high proportions of young adults and, associated with this, single people trusted in the courts, their local council and Parliament but they were no more likely than other groups to trust the police. Older people were most likely to trust local bodies, the police and their council, and least likely to trust the courts and Parliament. Women were more likely than men to trust the police (82% compared with 77%) but there was little sex variation in trust of the other institutions. (Table 2.30)

Table 2.30 Trust in institutions by age, sex and marital status

	Percentage who trust institution a lot or a fair amount				England & Wales, 2003
	Police	Courts ¹	Local council	Parliament	Respondents ¹
Age					
16 to 24	78	79	63	47	709
25 to 34	79	76	53	40	1,522
35 to 49	81	73	51	37	2,503
50 to 64	79	71	49	33	2,202
65 to 74	81	68	54	34	1,148
75 or over	83	66	65	39	938
Sex					
Men	77	72	54	39	4,070
Women	82	74	55	37	4,952
Marital status²					
Married	82	73	52	37	4,386
Cohabiting	74	68	49	35	743
Single	78	77	59	42	1,758
Widowed	83	69	64	38	1,000
Divorced	77	66	51	34	829
Separated	78	70	52	38	287
All	80	73	54	38	9,022

Figures shown are the bases for trust in courts which had fewest respondents.

1 Five per cent of respondents did not express an opinion about the courts. These have been excluded from the analysis.

2 Data for same sex couples is excluded because of the small number of cases. 'All' figures include responses for all respondents.

How does people’s trust in institutions vary by ethnic group?

People from different ethnic groups varied in the extent to which they trusted the four institutions. Among the main ethnic groups, Asian people had the greatest trust overall. They were more likely than White people to trust the courts, the local council and Parliament and equally likely to trust the police. For example, 82 per cent of Asian people compared with 72 per cent of White people trusted the courts a lot or a fair amount. The corresponding proportions for the local council were 67 per cent and 53 per cent and for Parliament 56 per cent and 36 per cent. As discussed earlier, Asian people were more likely than White people to believe that they could influence local and national decisions.

Black Caribbean people had the lowest levels of trust in all institutions except Parliament where they had similar views to White people. The difference was particularly marked for the criminal justice organisations. Thus 59 per cent trusted the police a lot or a fair amount, compared with 80 per cent of White people, while the proportions for trust in the courts were 55 per cent and 72 per cent respectively.

Among the smaller ethnic groups, Chinese people had high levels of trust in all four organisations – 88 per cent trusted the police and 90 per cent trusted the courts a lot or a fair amount. (Figure 2.6; Table 2.31)

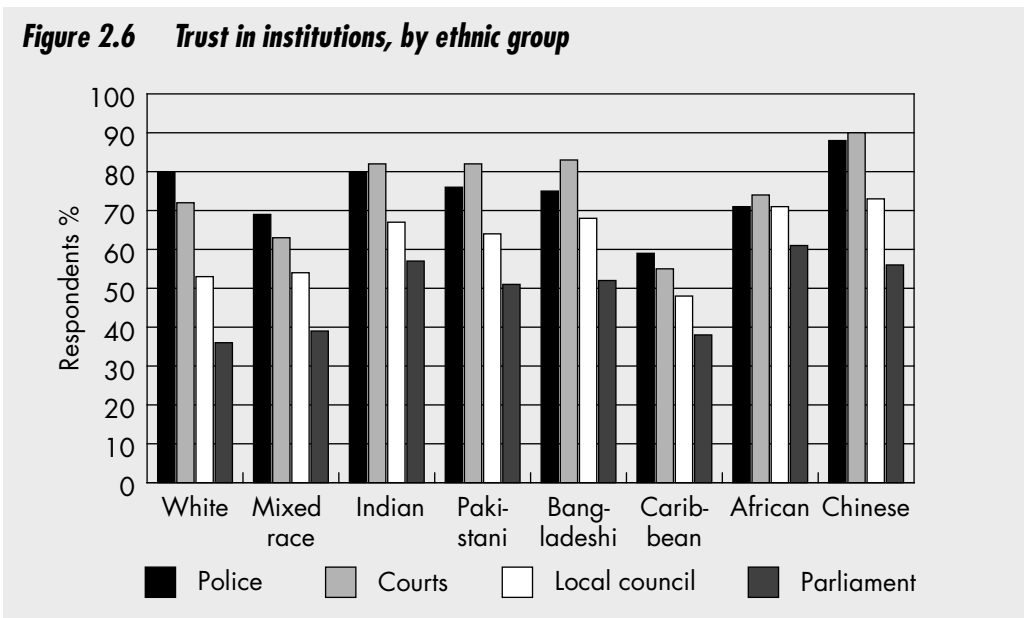


Table 2.31 Trust in institutions, by ethnic group

	Percentage who trust institution a lot or a fair amount				England & Wales, 2003
	Police	Courts ¹	Local council	Parliament	Respondents ¹
White	80	72	53	36	8,341
Mixed race	69	63	54	39	323
All Asian	79	82	67	56	2,433
Indian	80	82	67	57	1,051
Pakistani	76	82	64	51	647
Bangladeshi	75	83	68	52	396
Other Asian	86	84	75	65	339
All black	65	64	59	48	1,525
Caribbean	59	55	48	38	840
African	71	74	71	61	620
Other Black	67	78	60	33	65
Chinese	88	90	73	56	139
Any other	79	80	66	57	412
All (Combined sample)	80	73	54	37	1,373

Figures shown are the bases for trust in courts which had fewest respondents.

¹ Five per cent of respondents did not express an opinion about the courts. These have been excluded from the analysis.

Figure 2.7 shows the percentage who trusted the police a lot or a fair amount analysed by age for White, Asian and Black Caribbean groups. The Asian subgroups have been combined because there were few differences between them. Among White, Asian and Black Caribbean people, the percentage trusting the police a lot or a fair amount tended to increase with age. However, as the figure shows, distrust of the police is not confined to younger Caribbeans. In all but the oldest age group, the proportion trusting the police among Black Caribbean people was considerably lower than that among Asian and White people. Nor, is the distrust confined to Caribbean men. As Figure 2.8 shows, although Caribbean women were more likely than their male counterparts to trust the police a lot or a fair amount (63% and 55%), they were still much less likely to do so than White or Asian women (63% compared with 83% and 80%). (Figures 2.7, 2.8; Tables 2.32, 2.33)

Figure 2.7 Trust in police, by age within ethnic group

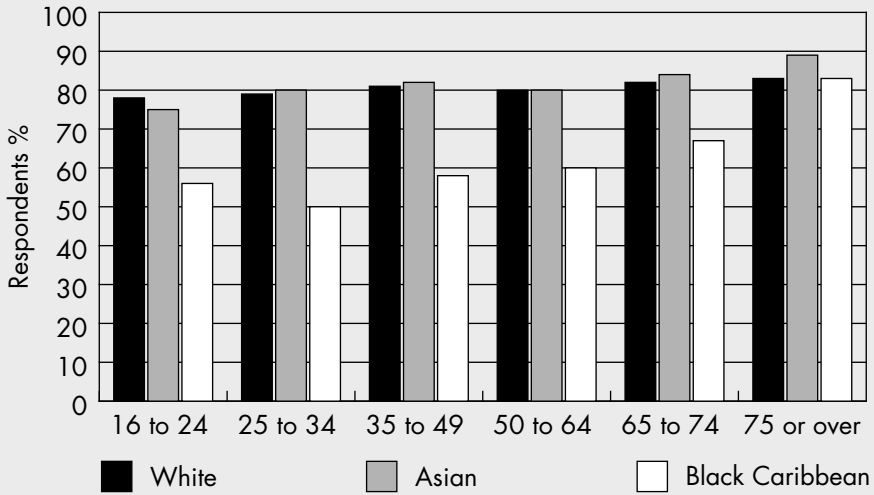


Figure 2.8 Trust in police, by sex within ethnic group

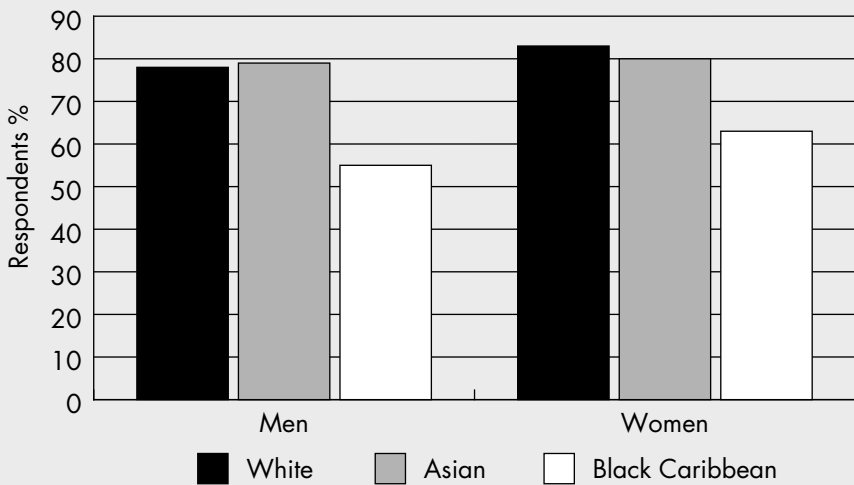


Table 2.32 Trust in police, by age within ethnic group

<i>Percentage who trusted the police a lot or a fair amount</i>				<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>		
<i>Age</i>	<i>White</i>	<i>Asian</i>	<i>Black Caribbean</i>	<i>White</i>	<i>Asian</i>	<i>Black Caribbean</i>
				<i>Respondents (Combined sample)</i>		
16 to 24	78	75	56	624	467	86
25 to 34	79	80	50	1,387	725	137
35 to 49	81	82	58	2,312	819	346
50 to 64	80	80	60	2,173	367	144
65 to 74	82	84	67	1,174	188	122
75 or over	83	89	83	1,029	52	54
All	80	79	59	8,699	2,618	889

Table 2.33 Trust in police, by sex within ethnic group

<i>Percentage who trust police a lot or a fair amount</i>		<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>	
<i>Sex within ethnic group</i>	<i>Police</i>	<i>Respondents¹</i>	
<i>White</i>			
Men	78	3,851	
Women	83	4,848	
<i>Asian</i>			
Men	79	1,309	
Women	80	1,309	
<i>Black Caribbean</i>			
Men	55	348	
Women	63	541	

People who were born outside the UK were more likely than UK-born people to trust the courts, the council and Parliament. This pattern was evident across White, Asian and Caribbean groups but the differences were only consistently statistically significant for Parliament. Among those born outside the UK, 45 per cent of White and Caribbean people and 60 per cent of Asian people trusted Parliament a lot or a fair amount. Among those born in the UK, the proportions trusting Parliament were 36 per cent, 30 per cent and 47 per cent. This variation is not reflecting age because those born in the UK tended to be younger than those born elsewhere and, overall, young people were more likely than older people to trust Parliament. Both Asian and Caribbean people born outside the UK were more likely to trust the police than

their UK-born counterparts (82% versus 74% and 66% versus 51%). This finding may reflect the younger age profile of those born in the UK. (Figure 2.9; Table 2.34)

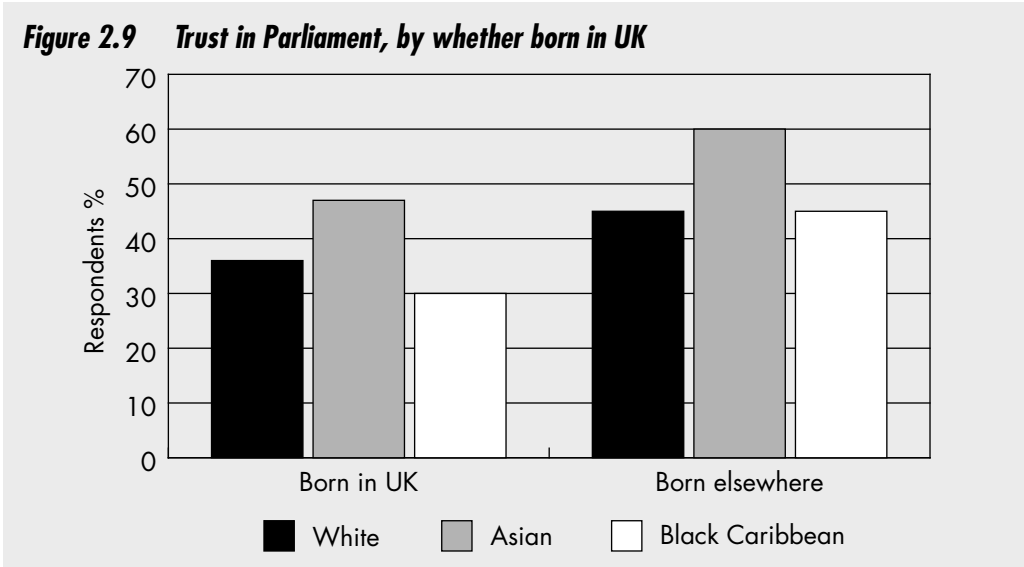


Table 2.34 Trust in institutions, by country of birth within ethnic group

Percentage who trust institution a lot or a fair amount England & Wales, 2003

	Police	Courts ¹	Local council	Parliament	Respondents ¹
White					
Born in UK	80	72	52	36	7,928
Born elsewhere	82	77	60	45	412
Asian					
Born in UK	74	80	64	47	614
Born elsewhere	82	83	69	60	1,819
Black Caribbean					
Born in UK	51	52	44	30	371
Born elsewhere	66	57	50	45	469
All (Combined sample)²					
Born in UK	80	72	53	36	9,297
Born elsewhere	81	78	64	52	3,880

¹ Five per cent of respondents did not express an opinion about the courts. These have been excluded from the analysis.
² The figures for All include groups not shown in the table. Figures shown are the bases for trust in courts which had fewest respondents.

How does people's trust in institutions vary by socio-economic characteristics and educational attainment?

Trust in all four institutions was associated with being in the highest socio-economic group and having qualifications of degree level or above. For example, 85 per cent of people in the top three socio-economic groups trusted the police a lot or a fair amount compared with 72 per cent to 79 per cent of those in lower groups. Among those qualified at degree level or higher, the proportion was 86 per cent compared with 74 per cent to 80 per cent among those with lower or no qualifications. Full-time students and those who had never worked or were long-term unemployed had particularly high levels of trust in all institutions except the police. These groups tend to include relatively high proportions of young people and, as discussed earlier, younger adults had greater trust than older people in the courts, their council and Parliament. (Tables 2.35, 2.36)

Table 2.35 Trust in institutions, by socio-economic group

<i>Percentage who trust institution a lot or a fair amount</i>					<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
<i>Socio-economic group²</i>	<i>Police</i>	<i>Courts¹</i>	<i>Local council</i>	<i>Parliament</i>	<i>Respondents¹</i>
Higher managerial and professional occupations	86	81	58	44	1,007
Lower managerial and professional occupations	84	78	53	39	2,143
Intermediate occupations	85	73	53	34	1,099
Small employers and own account workers	76	64	49	37	677
Lower supervisory and technical	74	65	50	33	879
Semi-routine occupations	79	70	55	37	1,516
Routine occupations	72	67	52	34	1,133
Never worked and long-term unemployed	82	77	66	52	267
Full-time students	81	84	65	53	133
All	80	73	54	38	9,022

1 Five per cent of respondents did not express an opinion about the courts. These have been excluded from the analysis.

2 This is the National Statistics Socio-economic Classification (NS-SEC). The figures for socio-economic class in this table exclude respondents who had been unemployed for less than one year. These are included in the All figures.

Figures shown are the bases for trust in courts which had fewest respondents.

Table 2.36 Trust in institutions, by highest qualification level

<i>Percentage who trust institution a lot or a fair amount</i>				<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>	
<i>Highest qualification level²</i>	<i>Police</i>	<i>Courts¹</i>	<i>Local council</i>	<i>Parliament</i>	<i>Respondents¹</i>
Degree or equivalent	86	83	57	46	1,599
Higher education below degree	80	74	50	38	1,081
GCE A level or equivalent	80	76	58	43	1,010
GCSE Grades A-C or equivalent	80	72	51	33	1,395
GCSE Grades D-E or equivalent	77	65	48	34	397
Foreign or other qualifications	75	67	54	38	336
No qualifications	74	67	50	32	1,721
All	80	73	54	38	9,009

1 Five per cent of respondents did not express an opinion about the courts. These have been excluded from the analysis.

2 The qualification figures exclude respondents aged 70 or over. These are included in the figures for all respondents.
Figures shown are the bases for trust in courts which had fewest respondents.

Conclusion

This chapter highlights a broad consensus around rights and responsibilities respondents think people living in Britain should have. Many of the rights are policy issues cutting across many government departments, highlighting the importance of joined-up policy thinking. And a very high percentage of people believed everyone had a responsibility to vote.

Whilst the proportion of people who believed they could influence local decision-making is higher than the proportion feeling they could influence national decision-making, these percentages are low and have declined between 2001 and 2003. This is a particularly important finding as increasing political efficacy is a central part of the civil renewal policy agenda.

Levels of trust, a key output in the civil renewal agenda, are higher in the criminal justice system than political organisations. And, as with feelings of influence, feelings of trust are higher in local than national political organisations. Increasing trust in both national and local political organisations remains a key issue for Home Office policy.

The next chapter goes on to explore people's perceptions of racial prejudice and discrimination in Britain.

3

Perceptions of racial prejudice and discrimination

Summary

Perceptions of racial prejudice

- The proportion of people feeling there is now more racial prejudice in Britain than five years ago increased from 43% in 2001 to 47% in 2003:
- People who lived in multi-ethnic areas had the most positive views about the extent of racial prejudice in Britain. Among people living in the 10% of areas in England and Wales with the highest proportion of minority ethnic households, just 37% thought prejudice was worse today than five years ago.
- White people were most likely to say there was more prejudice now (49%) followed by Pakistanis (39%), Indians (31%), people of mixed race (30%), Bangladeshis (25%), Black Caribbeans (24%) and Africans (14%). The pattern in 2001 was similar.
- The proportions saying there was more racial prejudice today were also relatively high among people aged 50 years or over (54%) and those with no educational qualifications (55%).
- The increase in the proportion saying there was now more prejudice than five years ago occurred only among White people. Among Black and Asian women the proportions saying there was more racial prejudice compared with five years ago actually decreased between 2001 and 2003 (from 28% to 19% and from 38% to 33%). Among Black and Asian men, there was no significant change over the period.
- People's expectations about trends over the next five years were very similar to their views about the past five years.
- Among people who said there was more prejudice today, 55% cited prejudice against 'asylum-seekers' or 'refugees' and 18% cited prejudice against 'new immigrants'. The next group most commonly mentioned was Asians. Thirty-eight per cent of those who thought racial prejudice was greater today than five years ago said there was more prejudice against Asians and 17% said there was more prejudice against Muslims.

Perceptions of organisational discrimination

- Most people thought they would be treated the same as people of other races by a range of public sector organisations.

- However, some organisations were considered likely to treat some races worse than others, particularly: immigration authorities, police, private landlords, local housing departments, Prison Service and armed forces. The organisations judged to be least discriminatory were GP practices, local schools, and banks or building societies.
- In general, people from minority ethnic backgrounds were more likely than White people to feel they would be treated worse than others and, conversely, White people were more likely to feel they would be treated better than other races. Hence, the perception that many organisations discriminated in favour of White people was held by both White and minority ethnic people alike.
- Among respondents from minority ethnic groups, Black people were generally more likely than Asian people to consider that organisations would discriminate against them. Black Caribbeans particularly thought they would be discriminated against by the criminal justice organisations – for example, 40% said the police would treat them worse than other races.
- The proportions expecting discriminatory treatment by the police were also relatively high, 20% or more, among the Asian subgroups, particularly Bangladeshi (30%), Africans (28%) and people of mixed race (25%).
- The only organisation believed by a substantial proportion of White people to discriminate against them was a local council housing department or housing association.
- There was little change between 2001 and 2003 in people's perceptions of discrimination but there were some exceptions. Among Black Caribbeans, the proportion saying they would be treated worse than other races by the Crown Prosecution Service decreased from 32% to 25% and the proportion saying they would be treated worse by the armed forces decreased from 33% to 27%.

Experience of discrimination in the employment market

- Black people had the highest rates of job refusal and perceived unfair treatment at work. In the five years before interview, 39% of Black people who had worked or sought employment had been refused a job and 21% of employees thought that they had been treated unfairly with regard to a promotion or move to a better job. For White people, the proportions were 20% and 12% and for Asians, 31% and 16%. Black people of African origin were more likely than any other group to have been refused a job in the last five years (48%).
- Race was considered by Asian and Black people to be the main obstacle to obtaining a job or promotion. About a half of Asian and Black employees who had been refused a promotion or a move to a better job in the previous five years thought this was because of their race.

This chapter addresses four aspects of racial prejudice and discrimination:

- 1) Perceptions of racial prejudice.
- 2) Which groups there is more, or less, prejudice against today.
- 3) People's feelings on whether they would be treated worse, the same or better than people of other races by a range of organisations.
- 4) Experience of discrimination in the employment market and the work-place.

Because the Citizenship Survey includes a large boost sample of people from minority ethnic backgrounds it is possible to compare their views with those of the White majority. Many of the tables by ethnicity show the full range of minority ethnic groups for comparison. In general, the main differences occurred between White, Asian and Black groups and these are usually discussed first. For this purpose, Indian, Pakistani and Bangladeshi people were grouped together, as were Black Caribbean and African people. Following this, variations within the Asian and Black groups are considered – for example, the views of Black Caribbean people are compared with those of African people. Variations between sub-groups are only discussed within the chapter if the differences achieved statistical significance at the 95% confidence limit.

Perceptions of racial prejudice

The survey asked people whether they thought there was less, more or about the same amount of racial prejudice in Britain today, compared with five years ago. Those who said there was 'less' or 'more' prejudice were asked whether there was much or just a little less/more. Respondents were also asked whether they thought there would be less, more or about the same amount of racial prejudice in Britain in five years' time, compared with today.

Forty seven per cent of people questioned thought there was now more racial prejudice in Britain, compared with five years ago – 29 per cent thought there was *much more* prejudice and 18 per cent that there was a *little more*. Thirty per cent thought the amount of racial prejudice was the same as five years ago and just 17 per cent thought there was now less prejudice. The remaining six per cent were unable to give a view. White people were more likely than those from minority ethnic backgrounds to say there was more racial prejudice today than five years ago.

Views about the extent of racial prejudice in the future showed a similar pattern: 42 per cent of people expected there would be more prejudice in five years time, 30 per cent expected it to remain the same and 18 per cent were optimistic that there would be less prejudice in the future. (Figure 3.1; Table 3.1)

Figure 3.1 Perceptions of racial prejudice today compared with five years ago

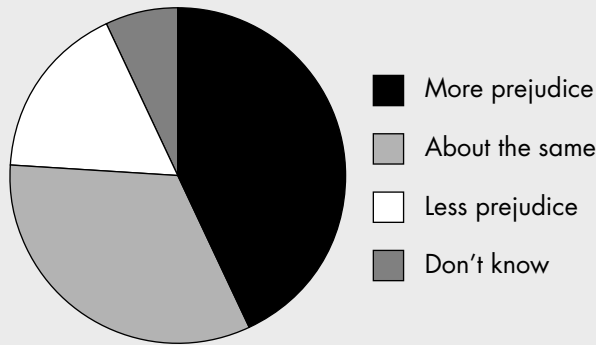


Table 3.1 Perceptions of racial prejudice in Britain

Percentages	England & Wales, 2003	
	Changes in the amount of prejudice	
	In the last 5 years	In the next 5 years
More	47	42
A little more	18	..
Much more	29	..
About the same	30	30
Less	17	18
Much less	4	..
A little less	13	..
Don't know	6	10
<i>All respondents</i>	<i>9,482</i>	<i>9,482</i>

Respondents in 2003 were more likely than those interviewed in 2001 to say that prejudice had worsened in the preceding five years – 47 per cent compared with 43 per cent in 2001. However, there was no significant change with regard to people’s expectations about the amount of prejudice in the future. (Table 3.2)

Table 3.2 Changes in perceptions of racial prejudice in Britain between 1983 and 2003

Percentages	England & Wales, 1983 to 2003											
	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1989	1990	1991 ¹	2000 ²	2001 ³	2003 ³	
Changes in the amount of prejudice												
In the last 5 years												
More	45	40	38	49	50	31	32	24	30	43	47	
About the same	36	37	39	36	35	44	45	50	43	33	30	
Less	16	20	20	12	13	21	20	24	21	17	17	
Don't know	3	3	3	3	2	4	3	2	6	7	6	
In the next 5 years												
More	42	40	42	46	46	32	37	21	36	43	42	
About the same	36	38	35	36	37	45	39	50	40	30	30	
Less	17	18	18	13	12	19	20	25	18	19	18	
Don't know	5	4	5	5	5	4	4	4	6	8	10	
All respondents	1,719	1,645	1,769	3,066	2,766	2,930	1,353	1,473	661	10,015	9,482	

1 1983-1991: findings from the British Social Attitudes Survey.

2 2000: findings from the British Crime Survey.

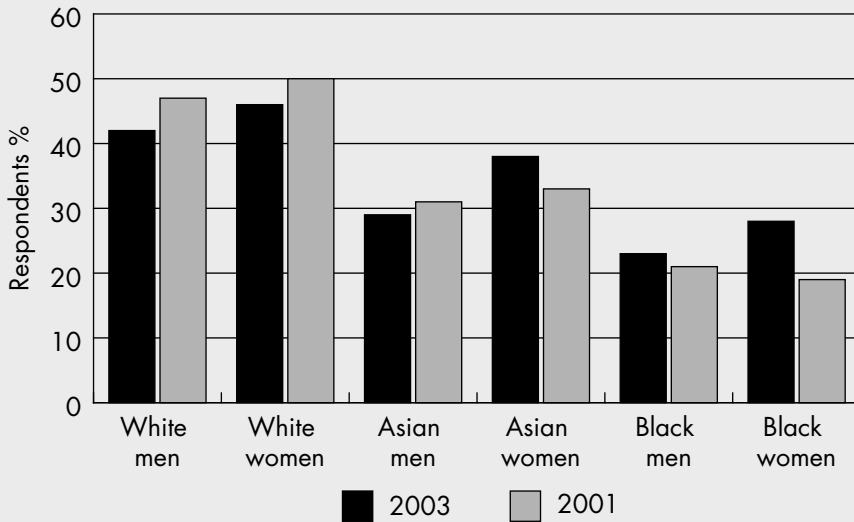
3 2001, 2003: findings from the Citizenship Survey.

Similar questions have been asked in other surveys over the last two decades. Table 3.2 shows figures for 1983 to 1991 (excluding 1988) from the British Social Attitudes Survey and for 2000 from the British Crime Survey⁹. It is important to note that opinion information of this kind is very subject to context effects and slight differences in question wording or order can have a large impact on the results. Therefore, the figures from the different sources should be viewed as separate time series rather than as continuous trend data.

Trends between 1983 and 1990 from the British Social Attitudes Survey show that the proportion of people saying that prejudice had increased compared with five years ago reached a peak of 50 per cent in 1987 before falling steeply to 24 per cent in 1991. The British Crime Survey reports a corresponding proportion of 30 per cent in 2000. Figures from the Citizenship Survey in 2001 and 2003 are considerably higher, 43 and 47 per cent but, because of the different sources, we cannot assume that this is a genuine increase. Trends in people's expectations of increased prejudice over the next five years showed the same pattern during the 1980s, reaching a peak of 46 per cent in 1986-7 and then decreasing to 21 per cent in 1991. However, the figure recorded by the British Crime Survey in 2000, 36 per cent was closer to the Citizenship Survey figures of 43 and 42 per cent in 2001 and 2003. (Table 3.2)

Returning to recent trends from the Citizenship Survey, further analysis revealed that the increase in negative perceptions between 2001 and 2003 occurred only among White people (from 44% to 49%). Among Asian people there were no changes in perceptions between 2001 and 2003 whilst Black people were less likely to feel that prejudice had worsened in the previous five years – 20 per cent expressed this view in 2003 compared with 25 per cent in 2001. This decline was greater among Black women than Black men. Among Black women the proportions saying there was more racial prejudice compared with five years ago fell from 28 per cent in 2001 to 19 per cent in 2003. Among Black men, there was no significant difference between the 2001 and 2003 proportions (23% and 21%). Asian women showed a similar but less marked pattern of change to that for Black women – the proportions saying there was more racial prejudice declined from 38 per cent in 2001 to 33 per cent in 2003 while, again, there was no significant change among Asian men (29% and 31%). (Figure 3.2; Tables 3.3, 3.4)

9 There are no published data available for 1988 and from 1992 to 1999.

Figure 3.2 Percentage saying that there is more racial prejudice today, by ethnic group and sex: 2001 and 2003**Table 3.3** Changes in perceptions of racial prejudice between 2001 and 2003, by ethnic group

England & Wales, 2001, 2003

Ethnic group	Percentage saying that there is more racial prejudice today			
	2001		2003	
	%	Respondents	%	Respondents
White	44	9,358	49	8,747
Asian	33	3,263	32	2,664
Black	25	1,852	20	1,679
Mixed race	32	380	30	338
Chinese/Other	28	614	22	611
All (Combined sample)	43	15,475	47	14,039

Table 3.4 Perceptions of racial prejudice, by sex within ethnic group: 2001 and 2003*England & Wales, 2001, 2003*

Sex within ethnic group	Percentage saying that there is more racial prejudice today			
	2001		2003	
	%	Respondents	%	Respondents
White men	42	4,038	47	3,874
White women	46	5,320	50	4,873
Asian men	29	1,605	31	1,320
Asian women	38	1,658	33	1,344
Black men	23	766	21	644
Black women	28	1,086	19	1,035
All (Combined sample)	43	15,475	47	14,039

Which characteristics were associated with having negative perceptions about racial prejudice in Britain?

The people most likely to say there was **now more** prejudice:

- lived in an area with relatively few minority ethnic households;
- lived in the North East or Yorkshire and Humberside;
- lived in areas classified as 'New Owners, Mature Communities' (ACORN);
- had no regular contact with people of a different ethnic origin;
- were aged 50 years or over;
- were of White ethnic origin;
- had no educational qualifications;
- were in the middle range of the socio-economic classification;
- were economically inactive;
- had an annual income of £5,000 to £20,000;
- had a long-term illness or disability;
- regularly read a national newspaper.

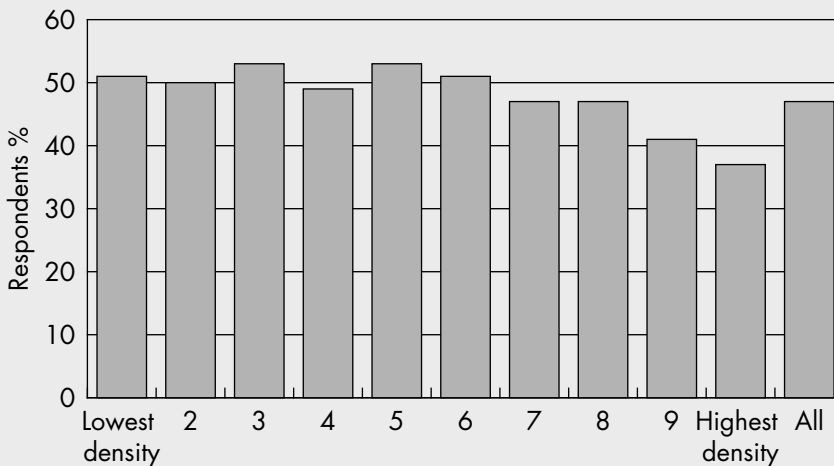
There was a close relationship between people's perceptions about prejudice today and their expectations for the future. Hence, the same characteristics were associated with thinking prejudice had worsened in the past five years and believing that it would worsen over the next five. To avoid unnecessary duplication, the following discussion examines the characteristics associated with the first measure – perceptions of prejudice today compared

with five years ago – but the patterns discussed generally apply equally to the question about prejudice in the future.

What is the relationship between the type of area people live in and their perceptions of racial prejudice?

The survey results indicate that people who live in multi-ethnic areas, those with the greatest opportunity to mix with people from minority ethnic groups, have the most positive views about the extent of racial prejudice in Britain. Among people living in the ten per cent of areas in England and Wales with the highest proportion of minority ethnic households, just 37 per cent thought prejudice was worse today than five years ago. (Figure 3.3; Table 3.5)

Figure 3.3 *Percentage saying that there is more racial prejudice today, by minority ethnic density*



A comparison of Government Office Regions showed the same pattern. Among people in London, where approximately half of all minority ethnic people in Britain live, 36 per cent thought there was now more prejudice in Britain compared with five years ago. The equivalent proportion among people in the North East and Yorkshire and Humberside, which contain 2 per cent and 7 per cent of the minority ethnic population, was 59 per cent. (Table 3.6)

Table 3.5 *Perceptions of racial prejudice, by percentage of minority ethnic households in the area**England & Wales, 2003*

Percentage of minority ethnic households in the area (deciles) ¹	Percentage saying that there is more racial prejudice today	Respondents
1 (Lowest density)	51	666
2	50	651
3	53	807
4	49	1,155
5	53	999
6	51	1,092
7	47	1,198
8	47	1,497
9	41	1,155
10 (Highest density)	37	4,824
All (Combined sample)	47	14,039

¹ The measure is based on the percentage of households in the postal sector headed by someone from a minority ethnic group, based on the 2001 Census.

Table 3.6 *Perceptions of racial prejudice, by Government Office Region and country**England & Wales, 2003*

Government Office Region and Country	Percentage saying that there is more racial prejudice today	Respondents
North East	59	465
North West	52	1,230
Yorkshire & Humberside	59	973
East Midlands	49	799
West Midlands	53	968
Eastern	46	1,009
London	36	1,090
South East	42	1,486
South West	42	898
All England	47	8,918
All Wales	43	564
All	47	9,482

Similarly, among people living in areas classified (by ACORN) as 'Prosperous Professionals – Metropolitan Areas' and 'Multi-Ethnic, Low-Income Areas' just 29 per cent and 31 per cent respectively thought there was more prejudice today compared with five years ago. Among people living in areas classified as 'New Owners, Mature Communities', the equivalent proportion was 57 per cent. (Table 3.7)

Table 3.7 Perceptions of racial prejudice, by type of area (ACORN)

<i>Percentages</i>	<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>	
Type of area (ACORN)	Percentage saying that there is more racial prejudice today	Respondents
Wealthy Achievers, Suburban Areas	46	1,505
Affluent Greys, Rural Communities	37	194
Prosperous Pensioners, Retirement Areas	47	268
Affluent Executives, Family Areas	41	384
Well-Off Workers, Family Areas	49	744
Affluent Urbanites, Town & City Areas	35	206
Prosperous Professionals, Metropolitan Areas	29	188
Better-Off Executives, Inner City Areas	39	289
Comfortable Middle Agers, Mature Home Owning Areas	48	1,373
Skilled Workers, Home Owning Areas	52	1,199
New Home Owners, Mature Communities	57	806
White Collar Workers, Better-Off Multi-Ethnic Areas	39	390
Older People, Less Prosperous Areas	49	341
Council Estate Residents, Better-Off Homes	52	971
Council Estate Residents, High Unemployment	39	276
Council Estate Residents, Greatest Hardship	48	184
People in Multi-Ethnic, Low-Income Areas	31	154
All	47	9,482

People who reported that they regularly met and talked with people of a different ethnic origin to themselves also expressed more positive views than those who said such encounters seldom occurred. Among the former, 45 per cent said there was more racial prejudice today, compared with 55 per cent of people who had no regular contact with people of a different ethnic origin. (Table 3.8)

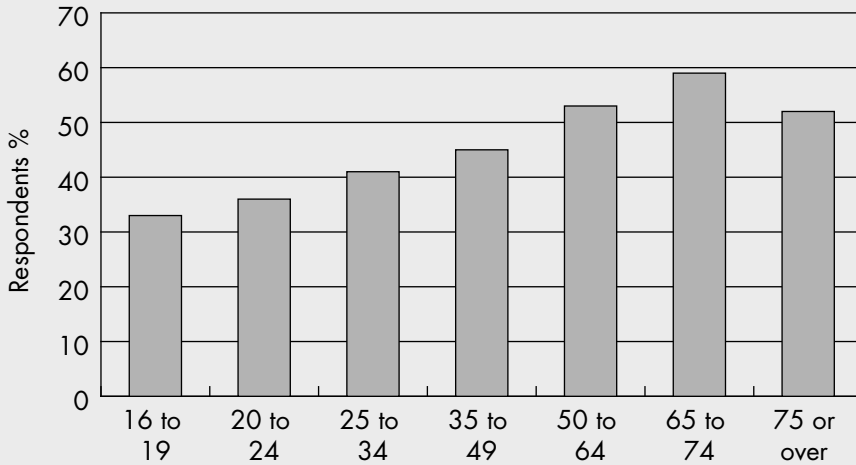
Table 3.8 Perceptions of racial prejudice, by whether respondents had contact with people of a different ethnic group to themselves

<i>Percentages</i>		<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
<i>Whether respondent has regular contact with people of a different ethnic group</i>	<i>Percentage saying that there is more racial prejudice today</i>	<i>Respondents</i>
Yes – regular contact	45	11,791
No	55	2,243
All (Combined sample)	47	14,039

What is the relationship between people’s personal characteristics and their perceptions of racial prejudice?

Age and sex

The analysis showed that negative perceptions about racial prejudice in Britain increased with age. The proportion saying prejudice is worse now compared with five years ago increased from 33 per cent of 16 to 24 year olds to 54 per cent of people aged 50 or over. Women were more likely than men to report that prejudice had worsened but, as discussed below, this variation was only statistically significant among White people. (Figure 3.4; Table 3.9)

Figure 3.4 *Percentage saying that there is more racial prejudice today, by age***Table 3.9** *Perceptions of racial prejudice, by age and sex*

Percentages		England & Wales, 2003
Age and sex	Percentage saying that there is more racial prejudice today	Respondents
Age		
16 to 19	33	297
20 to 24	36	434
25 to 34	41	1,587
35 to 49	45	2,579
50 to 64	53	2,293
65 to 74	59	1,227
75 or over	52	1,065
Sex		
Male	46	4,216
Female	48	5,266
All	47	9,482

Ethnic group and country of birth

White people were more likely than those from minority ethnic backgrounds to say there was more racial prejudice today compared with five years ago. Among White respondents, 49 per cent said there was more prejudice today.

The pattern among people from minority ethnic groups was very different. Asian people as a whole were more evenly divided in their opinions – 32 per cent thought there was *more* prejudice today whilst 27 per cent thought there was *less* prejudice. Within the Asian sub-groups however, there were marked differences. Pakistani people were most likely to say there was more prejudice today – 39 per cent reported this compared with 31 per cent of Indian people and 25 per cent of Bangladeshi people.

Black people overall had the most positive views – 20 per cent thought there was now *more* prejudice but a considerably larger proportion, 30 per cent, thought there was now *less* prejudice than five years ago. As with Asian respondents, there were differences between the Black sub-groups. Black Caribbean people were evenly divided between those who thought there was more prejudice (24%) and those who thought there was less (26%). Africans however, were more likely to say there was now less prejudice (35%); more than twice the proportion who thought there was more prejudice (14%).

Among people of mixed race, 30 per cent thought there was now more prejudice and exactly the same proportion thought there was now less prejudice.

For some ethnic groups, the proportion who were unable to give an opinion was particularly large – for example, 28 per cent of Chinese people said they did not know whether there was more or less prejudice today compared with five years ago. This may be because these respondents had only come to live in the UK within the last five years – a relatively high proportion of the Chinese respondents were students. (Figure 3.5; Table 3.10)

The tendency for young people to have the most positive views about racial prejudice was observed within all three of the main ethnic groups. However, the converse pattern of older people having the most negative views was only evident among White people. Among Asian and Black people, those aged 50 or over were no more likely than 25 to 49 year olds to say prejudice had worsened over the last five years. Likewise, the more negative views of women compared with men occurred only among White people. The differences between Black and Asian men and women were not statistically significant. (Figure 3.6; Tables 3.11, 3.12)

Figure 3.5 *Percentage saying that there is more racial prejudice today, by ethnic group*

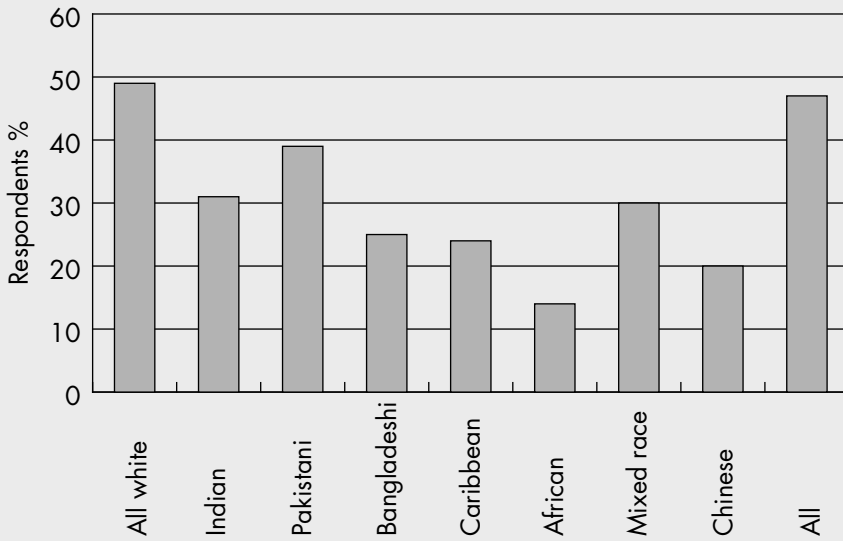


Figure 3.6 *Percentage saying that there is more racial prejudice today, by age within ethnic group*

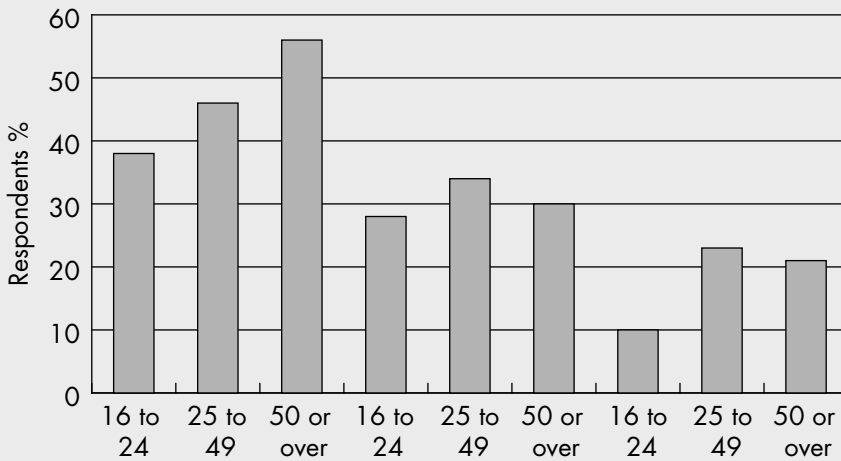


Table 3.10 Perceptions of racial prejudice, by ethnic group

Percentages	England & Wales, 2003										
	White			Asian		Black		Mixed race		Other	
	All	Indian	Pakistani	Bangladeshi	All	Caribbean	African	Mixed race	Chinese	Other	All
Prejudice today compared with 5 years ago											
More racial prejudice	49	32	31	39	25	20	14	30	20	24	47
About the same	30	29	29	28	30	38	33	28	26	28	30
Less racial prejudice	16	27	27	23	36	30	35	30	26	17	17
Don't know	5	13	12	9	9	12	18	12	28	31	6
Amount of prejudice now compared with 5 years ago											
Much more now	30	17	18	20	11	12	8	14	9	11	29
A little more now	19	15	12	19	14	8	7	15	11	13	18
About the same	30	29	29	28	30	38	33	29	26	28	30
A little less now	12	19	20	14	25	20	22	22	22	12	13
Much less now	4	8	8	9	11	10	12	8	4	4	4
Don't know	5	13	12	9	9	12	18	12	28	31	6
Prejudice in 5 years time compared with today											
More racial prejudice	44	30	30	38	30	22	18	29	16	24	43
About the same	31	28	29	27	23	30	24	32	20	24	30
Less racial prejudice	16	24	23	19	30	33	40	27	31	23	17
Don't know	9	18	18	16	17	15	18	12	33	28	10
All respondents											
(Combined sample)	8,747	2,664	1,159	707	430	1,679	691	338	153	458	14,039

The 'All' figures include data for groups not shown in the table.

Table 3.11 *Perceptions of racial prejudice, by age within ethnic group*

<i>Percentages</i>		<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
<i>Age within ethnic group</i>	<i>Percentage saying that there is more racial prejudice</i>	<i>Respondents</i>
White		
16 to 24	38	624
25 to 49	46	3,716
50 or over	56	4,407
Asian		
16 to 24	28	468
25 to 49	34	1,573
50 or over	30	623
Black		
16 to 24	10	194
25 to 49	23	1,043
50 or over	21	442
All (Combined sample)	47	14,039

Table 3.12 *Perceptions of racial prejudice by sex within ethnic group*

<i>Percentages</i>		<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
<i>Sex within ethnic group</i>	<i>Percentage saying that there is more racial prejudice</i>	<i>Respondents</i>
White men	47	3,874
White women	50	4,873
Asian men	31	1,320
Asian women	33	1,344
Black men	21	644
Black women	19	1,035
All (Combined sample)	47	14,039

Educational attainment, socio-economic classification, economic status and income

People's educational attainment was strongly associated with views about prejudice in Britain. People who had qualifications at degree level or above were least likely to feel there was more racial prejudice today whilst people with no qualifications were most likely to do so (36% and 55% respectively). (Table 3.13)

Analysis by socio-economic classification showed an interesting pattern. People who occupied the middle range of the scale expressed the most negative views about the amount of perceived racial prejudice in Britain. Among people in this group – intermediate occupations, small employers and own account workers, lower supervisory and technical, semi-routine and routine occupations – the proportion who thought there was now more racial prejudice ranged from 50 per cent to 54 per cent. People at the two ends of the spectrum – those in higher managerial and professional occupations and those who had never worked or were long-term unemployed expressed comparatively positive views. Among people in these groups, 38 per cent thought there was now more racial prejudice. Full-time students were least likely to think that racial prejudice had increased – 26 per cent held this view. (Table 3.13)

Further exploration of the data revealed that, compared with people in the four socio-economic groups with the most negative views about racial prejudice, those in higher managerial and professional occupations were more likely to say they had regular contact with people of a different ethnic origin to themselves. As discussed previously, contact with people of a different ethnic origin was associated with having more positive views about prejudice in Britain. People who had never worked or were long-term unemployed were no more likely to say they had regular contact with people of a different ethnic origin but this group contained the largest proportion of people from a minority ethnic group and this may, to some extent, account for their more positive views. The student group contained a high proportion of people from a minority ethnic group, were more likely to say they had regular contact with people of a different ethnic origin to themselves and had a relatively young age profile. All three factors were associated with having more positive views about racial prejudice in Britain.

Economic status showed a similar pattern. Again, unemployed people were least likely to say prejudice had worsened over the last five years (38%) whilst the economically inactive¹⁰ group were most likely to feel prejudice was worse today (50%). The latter group contains a large proportion of retired people and, as discussed previously, older people tended to hold the most negative views. (Table 3.13)

People with relatively low gross annual incomes, between £5,000 and £20,000, were most likely to say there was more prejudice today. This group tended to include people with low educational attainment who were more often employed in routine and semi-routine occupations – characteristics which are associated with holding negative views.

¹⁰ People who are neither in employment nor unemployed. This includes those who want a job but have not been seeking work in the last four weeks, those who want a job and are seeking work but not available to start work, and those who do not want a job.

Table 3.13 *Perceptions of racial prejudice, by highest qualification level, socio-economic classification, economic status and gross annual income*

<i>Percentages</i>		<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>	
<i>Socio-economic characteristics</i>	<i>Percentage saying that there is more racial prejudice today</i>	<i>Respondents</i>	
<i>Highest qualification level¹</i>			
Degree or equivalent	36	1,635	
Higher education below degree	48	1,123	
GCE A level or equivalent	40	1,034	
GCSE Grades A-C or equivalent	47	1,435	
GCSE Grades D-E or equivalent	49	418	
Foreign or other qualifications	50	353	
No qualifications	55	1,831	
<i>Socio-economic classification²</i>			
Higher managerial and professional occupations	38	1,029	
Lower managerial and professional occupations	45	2,201	
Intermediate occupations	50	1,146	
Small employers and own account workers	52	699	
Lower supervisory and technical	54	924	
Semi-routine occupations	50	1,640	
Routine occupations	51	1,233	
Never worked and long-term unemployed	38	294	
Full-time students	26	134	
<i>Economic status</i>			
Employed	45	5,239	
Unemployed	38	238	
Economically inactive	50	3,999	
<i>Gross income</i>			
Under £5,000	45	1,987	
£5,000-£9,999	51	2,117	
£10,000-£14,999	48	1,381	
£15,000-£19,999	49	1,109	
£20,000-£29,999	44	1,312	
£30,000-£49,999	44	834	
£50,000-£74,999	37	206	
£75,000 or more	41	136	
All	47	9,482	

1 The qualification figures exclude respondents aged 70 or over. These are included in the figures for all respondents.

2 This is the National Statistics Socio-economic classification (NS-SEC). The figures for socio-economic class in this table exclude respondents who had been unemployed for less than one year. These are included in the figures for all respondents.

Whether respondent regularly reads a national newspaper

People who regularly read a national newspaper were more likely to hold negative perceptions about the extent of racial prejudice in Britain today and in the future. Among regular readers, 49 per cent thought there was more prejudice today compared with five years ago. Among people who did not regularly read a national newspaper, 41 per cent expressed this opinion. This may in part be due to extensive media coverage relating to asylum and immigration issues at the time of the survey. As the next section shows, when people were asked which groups there was now more prejudice against, over half cited asylum-seekers and refugees. (Table 3.14)

Table 3.14 *Perceptions of racial prejudice, by whether respondent has a long-term illness or disability and whether regularly reads a national newspaper*

Percentages	England & Wales, 2003	
	Percentage saying that there is more racial prejudice	Respondents
Whether respondent has a long-term illness or disability		
Yes	55	2,374
No	45	7,104
Whether respondent regularly reads a national newspaper		
Yes	49	6,918
No	41	2,558
All	47	9,482

Which groups is there more, or less, prejudice against today?

One of the limitations of asking people whether there is more prejudice in society today is that we do not know which groups they are talking about when they give their answer. In the 2003 survey, people who said there was now *more* prejudice in Britain compared with five years ago, or who said there was less prejudice, were asked which groups there was more, or less, prejudice against. To avoid leading respondents, no showcards were used and interviewers recorded respondents' unprompted answers to a concealed on-screen list. In order to capture the wide range of answers, the list included racial groups, religious groups and generic groups such as 'asylum-seekers/refugees' and 'new immigrants'. Respondents could mention as many groups as they wished. (Figure 3.7; Table 3.15)

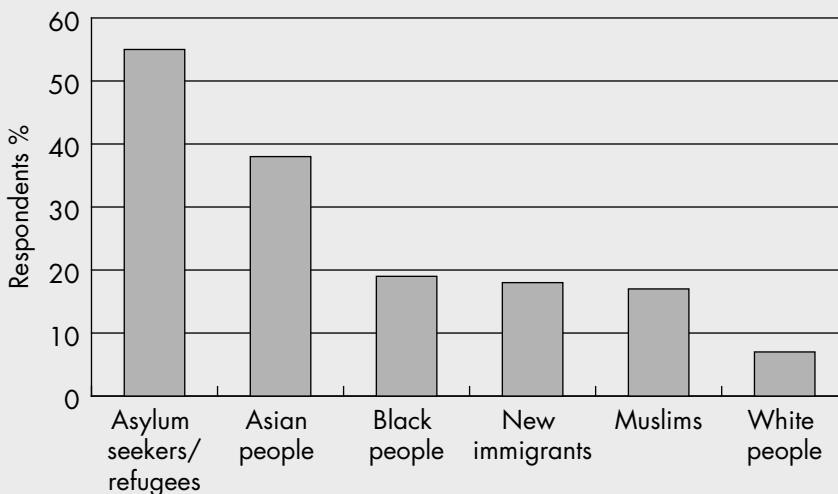
Much of the research and discussion on racial prejudice and discrimination in Britain has focused on South Asian and Black groups. However, the 2003 Citizenship Survey data suggest that the focus of prejudice today is 'asylum-seekers' and 'refugees'. Whilst a large proportion of White people believed prejudice had worsened they were not primarily thinking of prejudice against established minority ethnic groups. In addition, significant proportions of Black and Asian people thought prejudice had decreased in the last five years and these people were overwhelmingly talking about the prejudice experienced by themselves and their peers.

The next part of the chapter discusses first, the groups against whom people felt there was more prejudice today and second, the groups against whom there was perceived to be less prejudice today.

Which groups is there more prejudice against today?

Among people who said there was more prejudice today compared with five years ago, 55 per cent cited prejudice against 'asylum-seekers' or 'refugees' and 18 per cent cited prejudice against 'new immigrants'¹¹. Next to prejudice against asylum-seekers, the group most commonly mentioned was Asians¹². Of those who thought that racial prejudice was greater today than five years ago, 38 per cent said there was more prejudice against Asians and 17 per cent said there was more prejudice against Muslims.

Figure 3.7 *Main groups that there is more prejudice against today*



¹¹ Percentages sum to more than 100% because people could mention more than one group.

¹² During the interview, references to Asian or Black sub-groups, for example Pakistani, or African, were not recorded separately but coded to the relevant merged ethnic group, either Asian or Black.

Variations by ethnicity

White respondents' views about which groups there was more prejudice against today were virtually identical to those described for all respondents.

People from minority ethnic groups who thought there was now more prejudice tended to be speaking, first and foremost, about prejudice against their own ethnic group.

Hence, Asian people overall were more likely than other respondents to feel there was now more prejudice against Asians and Muslims – 54 per cent of Asian people who thought there was more prejudice today cited prejudice against Asians, and 38 per cent cited prejudice against Muslims. Asians were also more likely than White people to feel that prejudice against Black people was greater today – 31 per cent of Asian people who thought prejudice was greater today cited greater prejudice against Black people compared with 19 per cent of their White counterparts. Asians were more likely than other people to mention prejudice against Hindus and Sikhs but, even among Asian people who thought there was more prejudice today, no more than five per cent cited these groups. Conversely, Asians were less likely than all other people to mention prejudice against asylum-seekers – just 27 per cent of Asian people overall who thought there was more prejudice today mentioned prejudice against asylum-seekers and refugees. However, there was some variation within the Asian sub-groups on this measure. Indian people were more likely than their Pakistani counterparts to mention increased prejudice against asylum-seekers and refugees (34% and 18% respectively).

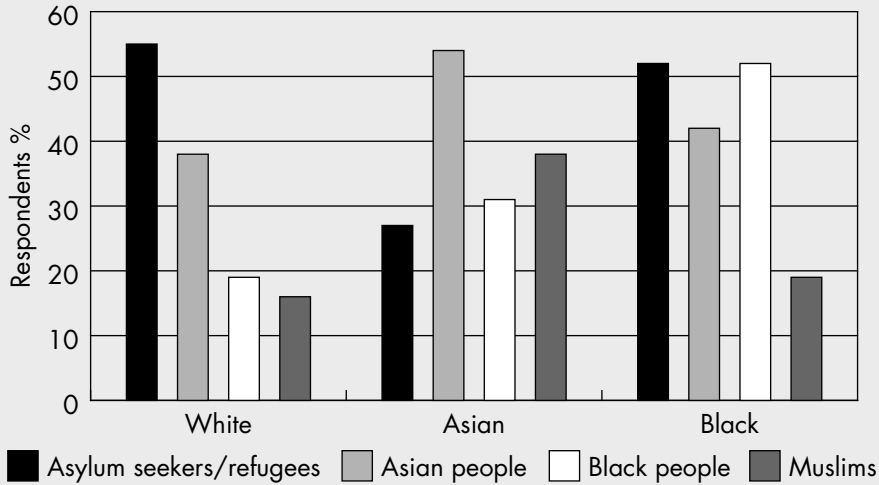
Black people who said there was more prejudice today were more likely than their White or Asian counterparts to cite prejudice against Black people (52%) and more likely than their White counterparts to mention prejudice against people of mixed race (6%). In all other respects, Black people's views were similar to those of White people. However, as with the Asian respondents, there was some variation within the Black sub-groups on the question of prejudice against asylum-seekers and refugees. Black Caribbean people were more likely than Africans to mention increased prejudice against asylum-seekers (62% versus 32%). (Figure 3.8; Table 3.15)

Table 3.15 Groups that there is more prejudice against today, by ethnic group

Percentages	England & Wales, 2003									
	White		Asian			Black		Mixed race		All
Groups that there is more prejudice against today	All	Indian	Pakistani	Bangladeshi	All	Caribbean	African	Mixed race	All	
Asylum seekers/refugees	55	34	18	28	52	62	32	46	55	
Asian people	38	51	59	62	42	37	48	38	38	
Black people	19	35	24	26	52	48	64	30	19	
New immigrants	18	14	5	13	20	23	17	17	18	
Muslims	16	38	40	52	19	15	28	21	17	
White people	7	9	8	11	7	6	10	6	7	
Chinese people	2	2	3	2	3	2	4	3	2	
Mixed race people	2	5	5	6	6	5	7	3	2	
Jews	2	3	3	2	4	2	8	1	2	
Buddhists	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	
Hindus	1	5	3	6	1	1	0	1	1	
Sikhs	1	4	2	4	0	0	0	1	1	
Other	10	10	10	1	9	11	4	10	10	
<i>All respondents who said that there was more prejudice today compared with five years ago¹</i>	4,283	779	334	102	335	207	106	119	5,648	

¹ The 'All' figures include data for groups not shown in the table. Percentages may sum to more than 100% because respondents could give more than one answer.

Figure 3.8 Main groups that there is more prejudice against today, by ethnic group



Variations by age

Among people who thought racial prejudice had increased in the last five years, younger people were more likely than older people to feel there was more prejudice against Asian people, Black people, White people and Muslims. For example, among people aged 16 to 24 who thought there was more prejudice today, 56 per cent cited prejudice against Asians, 28 per cent cited prejudice against Black people, 20 per cent cited Muslims, and 10 per cent mentioned a growth in prejudice against White people. Among people aged 75 or over who thought there was more prejudice today, the equivalent proportions were 36 per cent, 25 per cent, 13 per cent and 2 per cent respectively. (Table 3.16)

Conversely, people aged under 25 were less likely than others to cite prejudice against asylum-seekers, refugees and new immigrants. Among people aged 16 to 24 who said there was more prejudice today compared with five years ago, 37 per cent mentioned prejudice against asylum-seekers and refugees compared with 51 per cent to 60 per cent in older age groups.

Table 3.16 *Groups that there is more prejudice against today compared with 5 years ago, by age*

<i>Percentages</i>	<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>						
	16 to 24	25 to 34	35 to 49	50 to 64	65 to 74	75 and over	All
Groups that there is more prejudice against today	24	34	49	64	74	74	88
Asian people	56	41	35	34	36	36	38
Black people	28	21	12	18	20	25	19
Chinese people	3	2	1	2	2	2	2
White people	10	10	9	5	4	2	7
Mixed race people	4	3	2	1	1	2	2
Buddhists	1	2	0	0	0	0	1
Hindus	2	2	1	0	1	0	1
Jews	2	1	1	2	1	1	2
Muslims	20	22	18	15	16	13	17
Sikhs	2	2	1	1	1	0	1
Asylum seekers/refugees	37	54	58	60	55	51	55
New immigrants	14	17	16	20	18	20	18
Other	12	10	11	9	9	10	10
<i>All respondents who said that there was less prejudice today compared with five years ago¹</i>	253	656	1,141	1,226	682	522	4,480

1 The 'All' figures include data for groups not shown in the table.

Percentages may sum to more than 100% because respondents could give more than one answer.

Which groups is there less prejudice against?

In all cases, when people spoke of there being less prejudice today compared with five years ago they were referring to a perceived reduction in prejudice against Black and Asian people. As discussed previously, a relatively large proportion of Black and Asian people thought there was less prejudice today, and these people were speaking of their own experience and that of their peers. Hence, among the 30 per cent of Black people who said there was less prejudice today, 84 per cent said there was less prejudice against Black people. Similarly, among the 27 per cent of Asian people who said there was less prejudice today, 78 per cent said there was less prejudice against Asians. The proportion of White respondents saying there was less prejudice today was relatively small (16%) – nevertheless, they were also speaking of a decline in prejudice against Black and Asian people. (Table 3.17)

Table 3.17 Groups that there is less prejudice against today compared with 5 years ago, by ethnic group

Percentages	England & Wales, 2003									
	White		Asian			Black		African		All
Groups that there is less prejudice against today	All	Indian	Pakistani	Bangladeshi	All	Caribbean	African	All		
Asian people	65	80	79	78	48	51	46	65		
Black people	70	50	37	48	84	85	85	69		
Chinese people	14	18	5	12	7	10	4	14		
White people	2	10	17	8	8	11	6	3		
Mixed race people	7	13	11	16	9	9	8	8		
Buddhists	3	6	2	9	1	1	1	3		
Hindus	4	11	3	12	2	1	2	4		
Jews	3	7	2	5	3	2	3	3		
Muslims	4	5	7	13	4	3	5	4		
Sikhs	4	11	4	8	1	1	2	4		
Asylum seekers/refugees	5	4	3	2	7	5	10	5		
New immigrants	2	2	6	2	6	4	6	3		
<i>All respondents who said that there was less prejudice today compared with five years ago¹</i>	<i>1,123</i>	<i>548</i>	<i>238</i>	<i>117</i>	<i>423</i>	<i>226</i>	<i>181</i>	<i>2,259</i>		

¹ The 'All' figures include data for groups not shown in the table. Percentages may sum to more than 100% because respondents could give more than one answer.

Do people feel that they would be treated worse, the same or better than people of other races by a range of organisations?

The next section looks at how people thought they would be treated by a range of organisations compared with people of other races. Respondents were asked whether, as a member of the public, they thought they would be treated worse, better or the same as other races. They were told that it did not matter whether they had had any contact with the organisation – it was their ‘perceptions’ which were being sought. Nevertheless some people were unwilling to express an opinion about an organisation with which they had had no contact – for example, the Prison or Probation Service. A showcard was used and ‘don’t know’ was included on the showcard so that people were not forced to give an opinion if they genuinely felt unable to do so. The proportion of people who said ‘don’t know’ varied from just 3 per cent for a GP’s surgery to 30 per cent for the Probation Service.

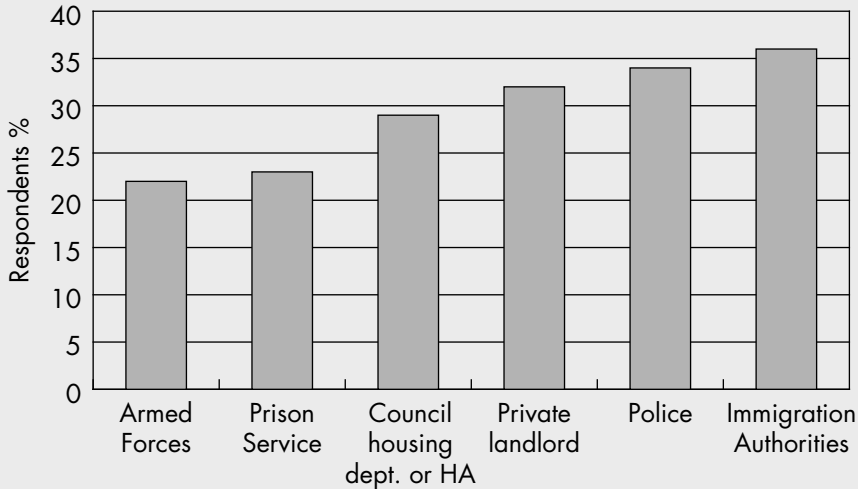
The most common answer given by people was that they would be treated the same as people of other races. However, some organisations were trusted not to discriminate far more than others. The three organisations most trusted not to discriminate were a GP practice, a local school and a bank or building society. No more than 7 per cent of people overall thought they would be treated better or worse than other races by any of these organisations.

The following analysis explores variations in the expectations of discrimination among people of different ethnic origins.

Which organisations were thought to be most discriminatory?

To obtain a measure of the extent to which an organisation is believed to discriminate in its treatment of members of the public, we need to consider both the proportions who believed they would be treated worse and the proportions who believed they would be treated better than other races. When people express either of these views they are judging an organisation to be discriminatory. The organisations considered to be most discriminatory when both these factors were taken into account were the immigration authorities, the police, private landlords, the local housing department, the Prison Service and the armed forces. (Figure 3.9)

Figure 3.9 Percentage who believed the organisation would discriminate in favour of one race or another



* The percentage shown is the sum of the percentages who believed they would be treated better or worse by the organisation.

Variations between White, Asian and Black groups

People from minority ethnic backgrounds were more likely than White people to feel they would be treated worse than others. The perception that many organisations discriminated in favour of White people was held by both White and minority ethnic people alike. Among respondents from minority ethnic groups, Black people were generally more likely than Asian people to consider that organisations would discriminate against them.

For example, with regard to the immigration authorities, 27 per cent of Black people and 16 per cent of Asians felt they would be treated worse than other races. Their view was shared by White people, 27 per cent of whom believed that as White people they would be treated better than other races.

The pattern was similar for the armed forces: 22 per cent of Black people and 16 per cent of Asians thought they would be treated worse by the armed forces and 21 per cent of White people agreed that the armed forces would discriminate in their favour. Views about the Prison Service were similar.

Likewise, with regard to the police, 35 per cent of Black people and 21 per cent of Asians thought they would be treated worse than other races. Again, their view was shared by White people, 29 per cent of whom said they would be treated better than non-White people.

The pattern was the same again with regard to a private landlord or letting agent. Black and Asian people were again more likely than White people to feel they would be treated worse than other races (17% 10% and 4% respectively). Whilst the proportions believing they would be treated unfairly are small compared with some other organisations, it is notable that the proportion of White people who believed they would receive preferential treatment was higher on this measure than for any other organisation. Thirty per cent of White people said that a private landlord or letting agent would treat them better than people of other races.

The only organisation which was believed by a substantial proportion of White people to discriminate against them was a local council housing department or housing association: 21 per cent of White people thought they would be treated worse than other races, compared with 17 per cent of Black people and 10 per cent of Asian people. Black and Asian people did not share this view– no more than two per cent believed they would receive preferential treatment. As is shown later, a substantial proportion of White people were thinking of asylum-seekers and refugees when they reported they would be treated worse than other races. (Tables 3.18 to 3.21)

Table 3.18 *Proportion who expect organisations to treat them worse or better than people of other races, by ethnic group: public sector, national level*

Percentages	England & Wales, 2003											
	White		Asian		Black		Mixed race		Chinese	Other	All	
Public sector organisations	All	Indian	Pakistani	Bangladeshi	All	Caribbean	African	Other	Chinese	Other	All	
National level	16	17	16	19	27	30	23	17	9	11	10	
Immigration Authorities	10	2	3	5	1	2	2	5	2	5	26	
treated worse than others	27	3	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	
treated better than others	2	16	17	18	22	27	14	20	13	10	3	
Armed Forces	21	1	1	2	1	2	1	0	2	3	19	
treated worse than others	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
treated better than others	8	9	8	9	11	19	17	13	4	8	9	
Home Office	12	3	2	3	1	1	2	3	0	3	11	
treated worse than others	3	2	3	5	1	1	2	3	0	3	11	
treated better than others	8,744	2,662	1,159	707	429	1,678	917	691	338	153	457	
All respondents	(Combined sample)	8,744	2,662	1,159	707	429	1,678	917	691	338	153	457
												14,032

The 'All' figures include data for groups not shown in the table.

Table 3.20 Percentages who expect organisations to treat them worse or better than people of other races, by ethnic group: criminal justice organisations

Percentages Criminal justice organisations	England & Wales, 2003											
	White			Asian			Black		Mixed race	Chinese	Other	All
	All	Indian	Pakistani	Bangladeshi	All	Caribbean	All	African	Other			
Police												
treated worse than others	5	21	20	24	30	35	40	28	25	9	14	7
treated better than others	29	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	3	4	5	27
Prison Service												
treated worse than others	2	16	16	18	20	25	30	19	20	9	8	3
treated better than others	21	1	1	0	3	0	0	1	2	0	3	20
Courts												
treated worse than others	6	10	10	12	8	22	29	14	15	4	6	7
treated better than others	15	2	2	1	5	0	0	1	2	2	3	14
Crown Prosecution Service												
treated worse than others	5	9	10	11	8	21	25	15	15	2	5	6
treated better than others	13	1	1	1	3	0	0	1	0	0	2	12
Probation Service												
treated worse than others	3	9	8	10	13	17	19	14	8	0	4	3
treated better than others	12	1	1	1	3	0	0	1	0	0	2	11
All respondents												
(Combined sample)	8,744	2,662	1,159	707	429	1,678	917	691	338	153	457	14,032

The 'All' figures include data for groups not shown in the table.

Table 3.21 Percentages who expect organisations to treat them worse or better than people of other races, by ethnic group: private sector

Percentages	England & Wales, 2003											
	White			Asian			Black		Mixed		All	
	All	Indian	Pak-istani	Bangladeshi	All	Caribbean	African	race	Chinese	Other		
Private sector organisations	4	10	11	10	13	17	19	14	15	7	10	4
treated worse than others	30	3	3	3	2	1	2	1	2	11	6	28
treated better than others												
Bank or building society	1	2	2	2	3	8	6	12	5	2	5	1
treated worse than others	6	3	3	1	5	1	1	1	2	2	2	6
treated better than others												
Insurance company	1	5	4	6	5	10	7	13	10	4	5	2
treated worse than others	11	2	2	2	3	1	1	1	2	2	2	10
treated better than others												
All respondents	8,744	2,662	1,159	707	429	1,678	917	691	338	153	457	14,032
(Combined sample)												

The 'All' figures include data for groups not shown in the table.

Other ethnic variations

Black Caribbean people expected to be treated worse than other races by most of the public sector organisations. This was especially true with regard to the proportions who felt they would be discriminated against by criminal justice organisations. For example, 40 per cent of Black Caribbean people said they would be discriminated against by the police compared with five per cent of White people. The same pattern could be observed for the other criminal justice organisations: the courts (29% and 6% respectively); the Crown Prosecution Service (25% and 5%); and the Prison Service (30% and 2%).

The proportions of minority ethnic people expecting discriminatory treatment by the police were also high – 20 per cent or more among the Asian subgroups, particularly Bangladeshi (30%), Africans (28%) and people of mixed race (25%). The pattern for the other criminal justice organisations was variable but, after Black Caribbeans, Africans and people of mixed race tended to be most likely to expect worse treatment than other races. There were few differences between the Asian subgroups but, overall, they expected to be treated worse than White people by all these organisations.

The ethnic variations in people's views about other organisations were generally smaller than for the criminal justice institutions. However, again, high proportions of Black Caribbean people expected to be treated worse than other races by the immigration authorities (30%), and the armed forces (27%). The former was also cited by a relatively high proportion of Africans (23%) and the latter by a high proportion of mixed race people (20%).

White and Chinese people tended to be least likely to expect discriminatory treatment from any organisations, the main exception being White people's views about local housing departments, as discussed above.

Although Black Caribbean people were more likely than Africans to feel they would be discriminated against by the criminal justice organisations, they were less likely to feel they would be discriminated against by financial organisations. No more than seven per cent of the former said an insurance company, a bank or a building society would treat them worse than other races. African people were twice as likely to say these organisations would discriminate against them – 13 per cent said an insurance company would discriminate against them and 12 per cent said a bank or building society would do so. (Tables 3.18 to 3.21)

What is the relationship between people's personal characteristics and their expectations of discrimination?

People with qualifications at degree level or above had heightened perceptions of the discriminatory nature of many organisations, particularly criminal justice organisations, and this was true for White, Black and Asian people. Hence, among White people, those with higher qualifications were more likely than those with no qualifications to say that, as White people, they would be treated better than other races by the organisations listed below. Asian and Black people with qualifications at degree level or above were more likely than those with no qualifications to say that they would be treated worse than other races – in essence, that White people would be treated better than them – by the following organisations:

- a private landlord or letting agent;
- the police;
- the immigration authorities;
- the Prison Service;
- the armed forces;
- the courts;
- the Home Office;
- the Probation Service; and
- the Crown Prosecution Service. (Tables 3.22 to 3.24)

Table 3.22 Percentages of White respondents who expect organisations to treat them better than people of other races, by highest qualification level

Percentages	England & Wales, 2003							
	Degree or equivalent	Higher education	GCE A level or equivalent	GCSE Grades A-C or equivalent	GCSE Grades D-E or equivalent	Foreign or other qualifications	No qualifications	All
Private landlord or letting agent	51	34	37	29	27	19	19	30
Police	47	32	35	26	28	21	21	29
Immigration Authorities	47	29	35	28	21	15	18	27
Armed Forces	35	21	26	19	19	13	13	20
Prison Service	33	24	27	22	20	13	14	21
Courts	30	13	18	13	11	10	9	15
Home Office	25	10	14	11	9	8	8	12
Crown Prosecution Service	25	12	15	12	11	8	7	13
Probation Service	20	12	15	13	10	10	7	12
Insurance company	20	11	10	9	11	8	7	11
Local Jobcentre	21	14	18	14	13	9	11	14
Council housing dept. or housing association	15	10	14	11	9	6	7	10
Local Council (other depts.)	13	7	9	7	7	6	4	7
Bank or building society	12	6	6	5	4	3	4	6
White respondents¹	1,440	1,046	949	1,363	388	301	1,651	8,737

1 The qualification figures exclude respondents aged 70 or over. These are included in the figures for all respondents.

Table 3.23 Percentages of Asian respondents who expect organisations to treat them worse than people of other races, by highest qualification level

Organisation	England & Wales, 2003							All
	Degree or equivalent	Higher education below degree	GCE A level or equivalent	GCSE Grades A-C or equivalent	GCSE Grades DE or equivalent	Foreign or other qualifications	No qualifications	
Immigration Authorities	28	21	18	13	13	7	8	16
Police	26	26	25	16	22	14	14	21
Prison Service	23	17	22	16	13	10	8	16
Armed Forces	22	21	21	10	21	7	11	16
Home Office	19	10	8	4	4	5	4	9
Crown Prosecution Service	14	14	10	6	8	5	6	9
Courts	12	17	12	6	8	5	7	10
Probation Service	12	10	11	7	8	7	5	9
Private landlord or letting agent	16	10	10	6	13	2	10	10
Local Jobcentre	13	12	10	9	8	5	8	10
Council housing dept. or housing association	14	7	11	10	8	7	8	10
Asian respondents ¹	564	194	422	326	103	204	711	2,650

1 The qualification figures exclude respondents aged 70 or over. These are included in the figures for all respondents.

Table 3.24 Percentages of Black respondents who expect organisations to treat them worse than people of other races, by highest qualification level

Organisation	England & Wales, 2003							All
	Degree or equivalent	Higher education below degree	GCE A level or equivalent	GCSE Grades A-C or equivalent	CCSE Grades D-E or equivalent	Foreign or other qualifications	No qualifications	
Immigration Authorities	39	31	24	24	36	23	20	27
Police	42	36	33	34	45	38	30	35
Prison Service	31	30	25	29	36	21	19	25
Armed Forces	30	24	16	25	40	21	15	22
Home Office	30	19	16	14	30	14	13	19
Crown Prosecution Service	25	24	21	24	27	29	11	21
Courts	25	25	26	24	40	29	13	23
Probation Service	24	19	14	17	27	13	13	17
Private landlord or letting agent	22	19	13	21	36	21	11	17
Insurance company	17	8	14	7	9	7	4	10
Bank or building society	13	11	12	4	10	7	4	9
Black respondents¹	319	270	239	196	72	92	347	1,666

1 The qualification figures exclude respondents aged 70 or over. These are included in the figures for all respondents.

Which groups did people believe would be treated better or worse than them?

The majority of Asian and Black people thought that White people would be treated better than them. Among Asian people who said they would be treated worse than other races, 85 per cent cited White people as the group who would be treated better than them¹³. Among Black people, 88 per cent cited White people and 21 per cent cited Asians. (Table 3.25)

Table 3.25 *Groups who would be treated better than respondent, by ethnic group*

<i>Percentages</i>		<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>			
<i>Races/groups treated better</i>	<i>White</i>	<i>Asian</i>	<i>Black</i>	<i>All</i>	
Asian people	48	4	21	45	
Black people	36	9	3	34	
Chinese people	6	2	7	6	
White people	..	85	88	9	
Muslims	6	1	1	5	
Asylum seekers/refugees	41	3	5	38	
<i>Respondents who said that other races would be treated better than them</i>	<i>2,794</i>	<i>1,007</i>	<i>868</i>	<i>4,669</i>	

Note: Figures for Black respondents who said that 'Black' respondents would be treated better than them may represent Afro-caribbean respondents' views regarding the position of Africans and vice-versa. Similarly, figures for Asian respondents who said that Asians would be treated better than them may represent Pakistani respondents' views about the treatment of Indians or Bangladeshis etc. Respondents could give more than one answer so percentages may sum to more than 100%.

Many White people agreed with them. Over a half had said that, as White people, they would be treated better than other races by at least one organisation. Of these, 60 per cent said Black people would be treated worse than them and 59 per cent said Asians would be treated worse than them. (Table 3.26)

Overall, about a third of White people had said that other races would be treated better than them, the majority saying so in relation to a local council housing department or housing association. When asked which groups would be treated better than them, 48 per cent cited Asians, 41 per cent cited asylum-seekers or refugees and 36 per cent thought Black people would be treated better than them. (Table 3.25)

¹³ Percentages sum to more than 100% because people could mention more than one group.

Table 3.26 Groups who would be treated worse than respondent, by ethnic group

Percentages		England & Wales, 2003		
Races/groups treated worse	White	Asian	Black	All
Asian people	59	9	31	58
Black people	60	46	6	60
Chinese people	10	4	3	10
White people	..	29	22	1
Muslims	10	11	13	10
Asylum seekers/refugees	28	18	29	28
<i>Respondents who said that other races would be treated worse than them</i>	<i>4,673</i>	<i>271</i>	<i>96</i>	<i>5,040</i>

Note: Figures for Black respondents who said that 'Black' respondents would be treated worse than them may represent African respondents' views regarding the position of Afro-Caribbeans and vice-versa. Similarly, figures for Asian respondents who said that Asians would be treated worse than them may represent Indian respondents' views about the treatment of Bangladeshis or Pakistanis etc. Respondents could give more than one answer so percentages in columns may sum to greater than 100%.

How have perceptions about organisations changed between 2001 and 2003?

People's perceptions about whether organisations would treat them worse than other races have generally remained the same since the first Citizenship Survey was conducted in 2001, but there are some exceptions.

The proportion of Black people saying the armed forces would treat them worse than other races decreased from 26 per cent in 2001 to 22 per cent in 2003. Black Caribbean people account for the majority of this decrease. Among Black Caribbeans, the proportion saying they would be treated worse than other races by the armed forces decreased from 33 per cent to 27 per cent. A similar decrease was observed with regard to Black, and in particular Black Caribbean, people's views about the Crown Prosecution Service (CPS). The proportion of people saying they would be treated worse than other races by the CPS decreased from 25 per cent to 21 per cent among Black people overall and from 32 per cent to 25 per cent among Black Caribbeans. Taken together, the decrease in the proportion of Black people saying they would be treated worse than other races by the CPS, the police and the courts may indicate that perceptions about the extent of discrimination within the criminal justice system is decreasing. (Tables 3.27, 3.28)

As previously discussed, African people were more likely than other groups to feel they would be discriminated against by financial organisations. The proportion who thought an insurance company would treat them worse than other races increased from 8 per cent in 2001 to 13 per cent in 2003. (Table 3.29)

Among Asian people, the proportion saying the Prison Service would treat them worse than other races decreased from 19 per cent in 2001 to 16 per cent in 2003. The change may be media-related – 2000 witnessed the murder of a young Asian male prisoner whilst on remand and the Prison Service received considerable criticism. (Tables 3.27 to 3.29)

The only organisation which a substantial proportion of White people thought would discriminate against them was a local council housing department or housing association and this proportion increased from 15 per cent in 2001 to 21 per cent in 2003. The change may be attributable to White people's perceptions that asylum-seekers receive preferential treatment from council housing departments. (Table 3.27)

Table 3.27 Percentages who expect public sector organisations to treat them worse than people of other races, by ethnic group: 2001 and 2003

		England & Wales, 2001 & 2003												
		White		Asian		Black Caribbean		African		Mixed Chinese		Other	All	
		All	Indian	Pakistani	Bangladeshi	All	Black Caribbean	African	African	Black	Mixed Chinese	Chinese	Other	All
Public sector - national level														
Immigration Authorities														
2001	9	16	19	14	14	28	30	25	21	23	15	9		
2003	10	16	17	16	19	27	30	23	17	9	11	10		
Armed Forces														
2001	4	16	17	18	12	26	33	17	20	*	15	5		
2003	2	16	17	18	16	22	27	14	20	13	10	3		
Home Office														
2001	5	9	9	9	8	17	18	16	15	*	13	5		
2003	8	9	8	9	11	18	19	17	13	4	8	9		
Public sector - local level														
Council housing dept. or housing association														
2001	15	12	11	11	19	17	17	18	13	*	13	15		
2003	21	10	11	10	13	17	18	17	17	5	12	20		
Local council (other depts.)														
2001	9	9	8	9	13	12	12	12	13	*	10	9		
2003	11	7	7	7	9	11	10	12	8	2	7	11		

Table 3.28 Percentages who expect criminal justice organisations to treat them worse than people of other races, by ethnic group: 2001 and 2003

	England & Wales, 2001 & 2003											
	White		Asian		Black Caribbean		Mixed race		Other		All	
Percentages saying that they would be treated worse than other races	All	Indian	Pakistani	Bangladeshi	All	African	Other	Chinese	Other	All		
Criminal Justice												
Police												
2001	6	23	21	28	27	39	46	30	28	*	20	7
2003	5	21	20	24	30	35	40	28	25	9	14	7
Prison Service												
2001	4	19	20	19	16	28	33	21	24	*	16	6
2003	2	16	16	18	20	25	30	19	20	9	8	3
Courts												
2001	5	10	11	10	8	25	32	18	17	*	11	6
2003	6	10	10	12	8	22	29	14	15	4	6	7
Crown Prosecution Service												
2001	5	9	11	8	10	25	32	17	13	*	11	5
2003	5	9	10	11	8	21	25	15	15	2	5	6
Probation Service												
2001	4	9	10	8	10	17	21	15	9	*	10	4
2003	3	9	8	10	13	17	19	14	8	0	4	3
All respondents												
(Combined samples):												
2001	8,580	2,831	1,167	828	481	1,698	932	643	358	141	417	14,033
2003	8,744	2,662	1,159	707	429	1,678	917	691	338	153	457	14,032

The 'All' figures include data for groups not shown in the table.

Table 3.29 Percentages who expect private sector organisations to treat them worse than people of other races, by ethnic group: 2001 and 2003

	Percentages saying that they would be treated worse than other races										England & Wales, 2001 & 2003			
	White		Asian		Bangladeshi		African Caribbean		Black		Mixed race		Chinese	Other
	All	Indian	Pakistani	Asian	All	Indian	Pakistani	All	Caribbean	African	Mixed	Chinese	Other	All
Private sector														
Private landlord or letting agent														
2001	6	9	10	7	10	18	19	16	15	*	15	*	12	6
2003	4	10	11	10	13	17	19	14	15	7	15	7	10	4
Bank or building society														
2001	2	3	3	*	*	9	8	11	*	*	*	*	*	2
2003	1	2	2	2	3	8	6	12	5	2	5	2	5	1
Insurance company														
2001	2	4	4	4	*	6	4	8	*	*	*	*	*	2
2003	1	5	4	6	5	10	7	13	10	4	10	4	5	2
All respondents (Combined samples):														
2001	8,580	2,831	1,167	828	481	1,698	932	643	358	141	417	141	417	14,033
2003	8,744	2,662	1,159	707	429	1,678	917	691	338	153	457	153	457	14,032

The 'All' figures include data for groups not shown in the table.

Experience of discrimination in the employment market and the work-place

Among respondents who had worked, or sought employment, in the five years before interview, 21 per cent said they had been refused or turned down for a job during that period. Among those who had worked as an employee during the previous five years, 12 per cent said they had been treated unfairly with regard to a promotion or a move to a better position in that time.

Among Asian people who had been economically active in the last five years, 31 per cent said they had been refused a job and 16 per cent of employees thought they had been treated unfairly at work with regard to promotion or a move to a better position. Black people had the highest rates of job refusal and perceived unfair treatment at work – 39 per cent had been refused a job and 21 per cent of employees thought they had been treated unfairly with regard to a promotion or a move to a better job. Black people of African origin were more likely than all other people, including Black Caribbean and Asian, to have been refused a job in the last five years (48%). (Table 3.30)

Why had people been refused a job or promotion in the last five years?

Quite high proportions were unable to give a reason for being refused a job or promotion but, when one was given, the reasons most commonly given overall were age and sex. Among respondents who had been refused a job in the last five years, 29 per cent cited age as a factor. Among respondents who had been turned down for a promotion or move to a better position in the last five years, 21 per cent cited age as a factor and 13 per cent cited their gender. (Table 3.31)

As we would expect, people at the two ends of the age spectrum were most likely to complain of age discrimination – 34 per cent of those aged 16 to 24 and 58 per cent of those aged 50 to 64 cited their age as a reason why they had been refused a job. (Table not shown)

Likewise, women were three times more likely than men to complain that they had been refused a promotion or move to a better position because of their gender – 21 per cent of women who thought they had been treated unfairly at work said it was because of their gender, compared with 7 per cent of men. (Table not shown)

Table 3.30 Percentages who been refused a job or promotion, by ethnic group

Percentages	England & Wales, 2001 & 2003											
	White	Indian	Pakistani	Asian	Bangladeshi	All Caribbean	Black African	Mixed race	Chinese	Other	All	
Whether refused a job in the last five years												
Yes	20	31	30	38	34	39	29	48	33	22	24	21
No	79	67	68	61	66	60	71	51	67	75	70	78
Don't know	0	1	2	1	0	1	0	1	0	3	6	0
Respondents who had been economically active in the last 5 years	5,606	1,712	811	368	258	1,199	643	504	253	112	290	9,172
Whether refused a promotion/move to a better position in the last five years												
Yes	12	16	16	13	16	21	19	23	18	10	16	12
No	88	81	83	83	82	74	77	72	80	80	78	87
Don't know	0	2	1	4	3	4	3	5	2	10	6	1
Respondents who had worked as an employee in the last 5 years	5,473	1,580	761	323	237	1,121	609	463	236	104	254	8,768

The 'All' figures include data for groups not shown in the table.

Table 3.31 Reasons for being refused a job or promotion

<i>Percentages</i>		England & Wales, 2003
	Reasons for being refused a job in the last five years	Reasons for being refused a promotion in the last five years
Gender	4	13
Age	29	21
Race	4	8
Religion	1	2
Area of residence	5	3
Other reason	14	12
Don't know	51	48
<i>Respondents who had been refused a job or promotion in the last five years</i>	<i>1,182</i>	<i>715</i>

Respondents could give more than one answer so percentages may sum to more than 100%.

The focus of interest in this chapter is the experience of racial discrimination. The main reasons White, Asian and Black people gave for being refused a job or promotion in the five years before interview are listed below. Race was the main factor mentioned by Asian and Black respondents, especially in relation to promotion. For both groups, about a half of the employees who had been refused a promotion or a move to a better job in the previous five years thought this was because of their race. Asians were more likely than other respondents to feel they had been discriminated against because of their religion, particularly with regard to promotion. Although there appears to be some variation within the Asian sub-groups with regard to the experience of racial or religious discrimination, the bases were small and none of the differences achieved statistical significance. Among Black respondents however, Africans were significantly more likely than Black Caribbean people to say they had been refused a job because of their race (35% and 15% respectively). (Tables 3.32, 3.33)

Table 3.32 *Reasons for being refused a job, by ethnic group*

Percentages	England & Wales, 2001 & 2003									
	White			Asian		Black		Mixed race		All
	All	Indian	Pakistani	Bangladeshi	All	Caribbean	African			
Asylum seekers/refugees	55	27	34	18	28	52	62	32	46	55
Gender	4	1	1	1	1	5	4	7	12	4
Age	31	17	22	8	18	23	21	23	18	30
Race	1	21	23	12	24	27	15	35	23	4
Religion	0	7	4	9	13	2	2	2	1	1
Area of residence	5	4	4	3	7	9	7	10	4	5
Other reason	14	13	15	10	21	19	19	20	24	14
Don't know	52	49	43	69	32	28	37	21	32	50
Respondents who had been refused a job in the last five years	1,041	487	225	120	74	408	173	213	89	2,141

Respondents could give more than one answer so percentages may sum to more than 100%.

Table 3.33 Reasons for being refused a promotion, by ethnic group

Percentages	England & Wales, 2001 & 2003									
	White			Asian		Black		Mixed race		All
	All	Indian	Pakistani	Bangladeshi	All	Caribbean	African			
Area of residence	5	4	3	7	9	7	10	4	5	
Gender	13	9	3	*	10	8	11	8	13	
Age	22	19	18	*	15	12	18	22	22	
Race	3	52	58	*	50	44	53	40	8	
Religion	0	17	12	27	6	1	7	4	1	
Area of residence	4	1	1	2	4	5	2	1	4	
Other reason	12	5	3	9	12	9	15	12	12	
Don't know	52	20	19	7	15	22	10	23	48	
<i>Employees who had been refused a promotion/move in the last five years</i>	629	262	126	55	28	124	116	43	1,242	

Respondents could give more than one answer so percentages may sum to more than 100%. Percentages for Bangladeshi respondents are not shown due to small base.

Conclusion

This chapter has shown how negative perceptions of racial prejudice in England and Wales have increased between 2001 and 2003. These negative perceptions are particularly strong among White people, whilst negative perceptions declined among Black and Asian women. It also shows that people living in multi-ethnic areas had more positive views than those living in mono-ethnic areas and that younger people were more positive than older people.

Whilst most people thought a range of public sector organisations would treat them the same as people of other races, some organisations were considered, by certain groups, to be discriminatory – the immigration authorities, police and Prison Service. This was especially so for people from minority ethnic groups, particularly Black people. This creates particular issues for Home Office delivery of these key services.

Issues relating to race are explored further in the next chapter, which discusses people's views about their neighbourhood and levels of community cohesion.

Summary

People's attitudes to their neighbourhood

- In 2003, 63 per cent of people said they definitely enjoyed living in their neighbourhood, compared with 67 per cent in 2001.
- 28 per cent felt very safe walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark in 2003, compared with 34 per cent in 2001.
- 47 per cent thought many people in the neighbourhood could be trusted, compared with 40 per cent in 2001.
- 48 per cent thought it very or quite likely that a lost wallet or purse would be returned to them intact, compared with 41 per cent in 2001.
- 71 per cent felt they belonged to their neighbourhood very or fairly strongly¹⁴.
- 65 per cent definitely or tended to agree that people in their neighbourhood pulled together to improve it¹⁵.

Variations by area characteristics

- In the most deprived areas of England, 48 per cent of people definitely enjoyed living in their neighbourhood compared with 74 per cent of those in the least deprived areas.
- People living in Wales were four times as likely as people living in London to believe it was very likely their purse or wallet would be returned to them if lost (20% compared with 5%) and twice as likely to say they felt very safe walking alone at night (35% compared with 18%).

¹⁴ Question not asked in 2001.

¹⁵ Question not asked in 2001.

Variations by age and sex

- Older people were generally more likely than their younger counterparts to hold positive views about the neighbourhood: among those aged 65 to 74, 75 per cent said they definitely enjoyed living in their neighbourhood compared with 47 per cent of people aged 16 to 24.
- The elderly and young adults were the least likely to feel safe walking alone after dark.
- Men were more than twice as likely as women to feel very safe walking alone in the neighbourhood after dark (40% compared with 17%).
- Higher proportions of women than men felt they belonged very strongly to their neighbourhood (30% compared with 26%) and that people in the neighbourhood pulled together to try and improve it (21% compared with 15%).

Variations by ethnicity

- White people were most likely to say they definitely enjoyed living in their neighbourhood (64%), compared with 60 per cent of Asians, 55 per cent of Black Caribbeans and 47 per cent of Africans. This is at least partly attributable to the type of area they live in. Among those living in the most deprived areas, the proportion of White people saying they definitely enjoyed living in their neighbourhood was the same as that for Black people (46%) and considerably lower than the proportion for Asian people (54%).
- Asian people, particularly Pakistanis, were most likely to identify with their neighbourhood and to report that there was community spirit in the area: 23 per cent of Asians felt people pulled together to improve the neighbourhood compared with 17 per cent of White and 14 per cent of Black people.
- People of mixed race were most likely to feel very safe walking alone in the neighbourhood after dark (36%) while Chinese people were the least likely to do so (13%). Between these two extremes, the proportions saying they felt very safe ranged from 23 per cent among Asian people to 26 per cent among Black people and to 29 per cent among White people.
- The variations between the main groups in how safe people felt walking alone in the dark occurred only among men. White men were most likely to say they felt very safe walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark (42%), while Asian men were the least likely to do so (30%). The proportion for Black men was 36 per cent.

Variations by income

- People in higher income groups were more likely than the less affluent to enjoy living in their neighbourhood, to feel safe walking alone after dark and to trust people in the neighbourhood. However, the less affluent were the more likely to feel they belonged to their neighbourhood.

Views about community cohesion

- 80 per cent of people definitely agreed or tended to agree that their local area was a place where people from different backgrounds got on well together.
- 79 per cent of people who said that people in their local area were from different ethnic groups to themselves, definitely agreed or tended to agree that residents respected ethnic differences between people.
- Respondents living in Wales were the most likely to agree (definitely or tend to agree) that residents respected ethnic differences between people (84%), while those living in Yorkshire and Humberside and the North East were the least likely to do so (69% and 71%). This proportion was also high among those living in London (82%).
- People in minority ethnic groups were more likely than their White counterparts to report positive views about community cohesion: 24 per cent of Asians and 20 per cent of Black people definitely agreed¹⁶ that people from different backgrounds got on well together in their area compared with 16 per cent of White people.
- Similarly, the proportions who definitely agreed that residents respected ethnic differences between people were 27 per cent for Asians, 23 per cent for Black people and 16 per cent for White people.

Community cohesion is considered by policy makers to be an essential foundation for ensuring social and racial harmony. However, it is a complex concept and, consequently, difficult to measure accurately. The approach taken in the 2003 Citizenship Survey was to ask whether people from different backgrounds in the local area got on well together and whether ethnic differences were respected. The findings from these new questions are presented in the latter part of the chapter. The 2003 data will provide a baseline for future monitoring and a national context for local area studies.

Additional information for 2003 will be provided by a local area study designed specifically to address issues in the Home Office's Community Cohesion policy area. This study consists of 500 interviews in each of 20 local areas. The findings from this study will be reported in a separate publication.

¹⁶ This is the definitely agree response, as opposed to the definitely or tend to agree responses used earlier.

Table 4.1 Views about the neighbourhood: 2001 and 2003

Percentages	England & Wales, 2001 & 2003	
	2001	2003
Whether enjoys living in neighbourhood		
Yes, definitely	67	63
Yes, to some extent	26	29
No	7	7
Number of people who can be trusted in the neighbourhood		
Many people	40	47
Some people	36	37
A few people	22	14
None	2	2
Likelihood of having purse or wallet returned intact, if lost in the neighbourhood		
Very likely	10	13
Quite likely	31	35
Not very likely	32	31
Not at all likely	27	21
Whether feels safe walking alone in the neighbourhood after dark		
Very safe	34	28
Fairly unsafe	37	39
A bit unsafe	13	18
Very unsafe	7	9
Never walks alone after dark	9	6
Whether feels they belong to the neighbourhood ¹		
Very strongly		28
Fairly strongly		43
Not very strongly		23
Not at all strongly		7
<i>Respondents</i>	9,335	9,189
Whether agrees that people in the neighbourhood pull together to improve it ¹		
Definitely agree		18
Tend to agree		47
Tend to disagree		24
Definitely disagree		10
<i>Respondents²</i>		8,753

1 Not asked in 2001

2 Excludes seven per cent of respondents who answered 'don't know'.

People's views about their neighbourhood

This section describes people's views about their neighbourhood in 2003 and examines whether there has been any change since the 2001 survey. The section also looks at the factors associated with people's views about their neighbourhood.

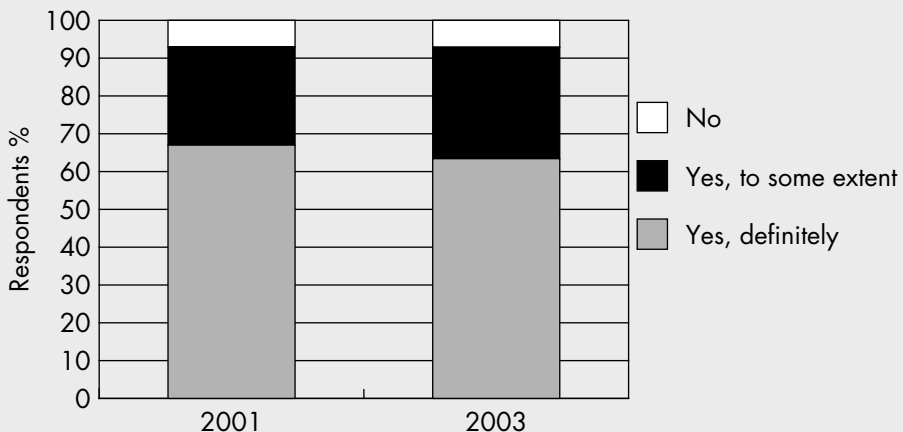
Respondents were asked the following questions about their neighbourhood:

- whether they enjoyed living there;
- how many people they felt could be trusted;
- whether, if they lost their wallet or purse in the street it would be returned to them intact;
- how safe they felt walking alone after dark;
- whether they felt they belonged to the neighbourhood; and
- whether people pulled together to try and improve it.

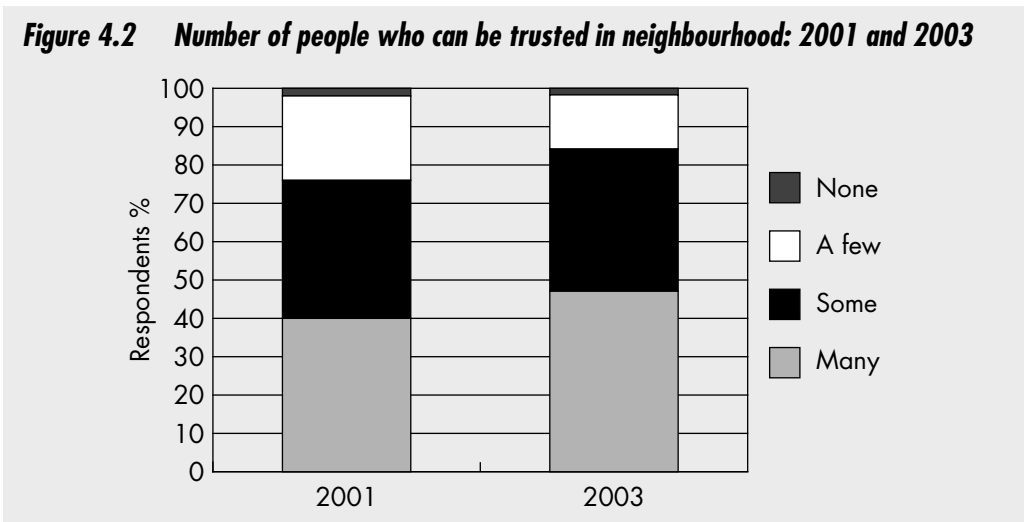
The definition of 'neighbourhood' was left to the respondent.

Ninety-three per cent of people said they definitely enjoyed living in their neighbourhood or enjoyed living there to some extent. This figure is the same as that found in 2001. However, there has been a small decline in the proportion of people who said they definitely enjoyed living in their neighbourhood, from 67 per cent in 2001 to 63 per cent in 2003. (Figure 4.1; Table 4.1)

Figure 4.1 Whether enjoys living in neighbourhood: 2001 and 2003



Despite having slightly less favourable views about living in the neighbourhood, respondents in 2003 reported higher levels of trust than those in 2001. In 2003 47 per cent of people felt many people in their neighbourhood could be trusted, compared with 40 per cent in 2001. Similarly, the proportion of people who said that it was very likely or quite likely that, if lost, their wallet or purse would be returned to them intact, increased from 41 per cent in 2001 to 48 per cent in 2003. (Figure 4.2; Table 4.1)



In 2003, 28 per cent of people said they felt very safe walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark, down from 34 per cent in 2001. (Table 4.1)

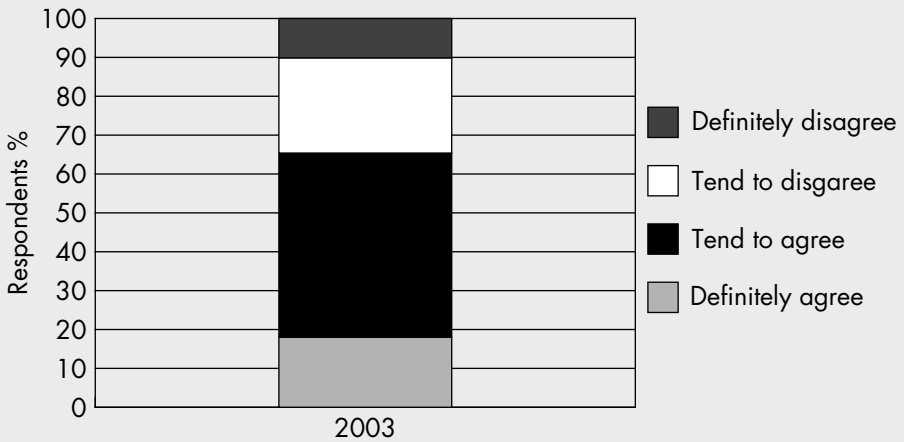
The 2003 survey included two new questions which asked respondents whether they felt they belonged to the neighbourhood and whether people in their neighbourhood pulled together to try and improve it. Seventy-one per cent of people felt they belonged to their neighbourhood very strongly or fairly strongly; 65 per cent definitely agreed or tended to agree that people in their neighbourhood pulled together to improve it¹⁷. (Figures 4.3, 4.4; Table 4.1)

¹⁷ A relatively large proportion (seven per cent) of respondents answered 'don't know' to this question and were excluded from the analysis. These respondents may not have understood the question or may not have felt able to give an opinion.

Figure 4.3 *Whether feels they belong to neighbourhood*



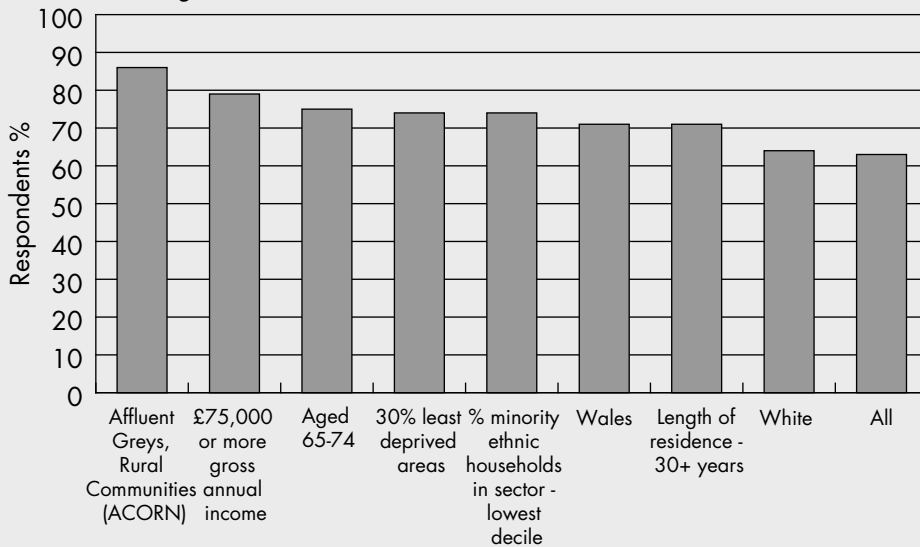
Figure 4.4 *Whether agrees that people in the neighbourhood pull together to improve it*



Overall, the people most likely to have favourable views about the neighbourhood:

- lived in an area classified as 'Affluent Greys, Rural Communities';
- lived in one of the least deprived areas;
- lived in an area with relatively few minority ethnic households;
- lived in Wales or the South West;
- were aged 65 or over;
- were of White ethnic origin;
- had a gross annual income of £50,000 or more;
- had lived in the neighbourhood for 30 years or more. (Figure 4.5)

Figure 4.5 *Groups most likely to say that they 'Definitely' enjoyed living in the neighbourhood*



How do people’s attitudes to the neighbourhood vary by area?

Type of area (ACORN) and Index of Deprivation

As is to be expected, there was a particularly strong relationship between area type and attitudes to the neighbourhood. People living in affluent areas were much more likely than those living in deprived areas to report positive views about the neighbourhood for most of the measures. Thus, among those living in an area classified as 'Affluent Greys, Rural

Communities', 86 per cent said they definitely enjoyed living in their neighbourhood. The equivalent proportion for those living in an area classified as 'Council Estate Residents, Greatest Hardship' was 37 per cent. A similar pattern was observed with the variation by Index of Multiple Deprivation: 74 per cent of people living in the least deprived areas of England definitely enjoyed living in their neighbourhood, compared with 48 per cent in the most deprived areas.

The pattern was different in relation to whether respondents felt they belonged to their neighbourhood. People living in an area classified as 'Affluent Greys, Rural Communities' were again the most likely to say that they felt they belonged very strongly to their neighbourhood (47%). However, other affluent areas had relatively low proportions of people with a sense of belonging. Some of these were in inner city, metropolitan areas where the concept of 'neighbourhood' may differ. For others, however, such as 'Affluent Executives, Family Areas' and 'Well-Off Workers, Family Areas', it is less clear why they should have low proportions with a strong sense of belonging to the neighbourhood (21% and 22%), particularly as they are classified as 'Family Areas' where one might expect children to be a common interest. There was little difference between people living in other types of area. Thus, the proportion of people living in areas classified as 'Wealthy Achievers, Suburban Areas' saying that they belonged very strongly to their neighbourhood (30%), was similar to that among those living in areas classified as 'Council Estate Residents, Greatest Hardship' (27%) and 'Multi-ethnic Low Income Areas' (29%). (Tables 4.2, 4.3)

Table 4.2 Views about the neighbourhood, by type of area (ACORN)

Percentages		England & Wales, 2003						
Type of area (ACORN)	'Definitely' enjoyed living in neighbourhood	Felt they belonged 'very strongly' to neighbourhood	Felt 'very safe' walking alone in neighbourhood after dark	Thought 'many' people in neighbourhood could be trusted	Believed it 'very likely' that wallet/purse would be returned intact	'Definitely' felt people in neighbourhood pulled together to improve it	Respondents	Respondents'
Wealthy Achievers, Suburban Areas	79	30	39	69	23	28	1,467	1,424
Affluent Greys, Rural Communities	86	47	61	75	40	35	192	184
Prosperous Pensioners, Retirement Areas	76	30	29	54	16	28	260	242
Affluent Executives, Family Areas	65	21	32	55	17	20	373	352
Well-Off Workers, Family Areas	72	22	33	56	15	16	723	685
Affluent Urbanites, Town & City Areas	66	25	26	45	13	19	193	187
Prosperous Professionals, Metropolitan Areas	66	22	23	44	4	14	174	160
Better-Off Executives, Inner City Areas	63	23	22	39	6	18	279	270

Comfortable Middle Agers, Mature Home Owning Areas	72	31	33	57	17	1,338	18	1,272
Skilled Workers, Home Owning Areas	59	27	24	43	9	1,165	13	1,090
New Home Owners, Mature Communities	58	30	25	36	10	791	13	758
White Collar Workers, Better-Off Multi-Ethnic Areas	52	23	23	30	7	376	12	352
Older People, Less Prosperous Areas	56	31	16	34	9	327	15	312
Council Estate Residents, Better-Off Homes	45	26	20	27	5	937	13	898
Council Estate Residents, High Unemployment	44	30	14	27	4	263	18	243
Council Estate Residents, Greatest Hardship	37	27	19	20	5	178	12	177
People in Multi-Ethnic, Low-Income Areas	45	29	16	18	6	145	16	139
All	63	28	28	47	13	9,189	18	8,753

1 Excludes seven per cent of respondents who answered 'don't know'.

Table 4.3 Views about the neighbourhood, by Index of Multiple Deprivation

Percentages		England & Wales, 2003					
Index of Multiple Deprivation for England ²	'Definitely' enjoyed living in neighbourhood	Felt they belonged 'very strongly' to neighbourhood	Felt 'very safe' walking alone in neighbourhood after dark	Thought 'many' people in neighbourhood could be trusted	Believed it 'very likely' that wallet/purse would be returned intact	'Definitely' felt people in neighbourhood pulled together to improve it	Respondents'
1 Least deprived	74	24	36	58	18	23	686
2	73	28	37	61	19	24	771
3	76	31	36	64	19	24	600
4	72	25	35	57	17	18	677
5	70	30	34	58	18	21	719
6	68	32	27	53	14	17	793
7	59	27	26	44	12	16	820
8	58	25	25	39	8	14	799
9	54	24	22	36	8	14	1,130
10 Most deprived	48	30	17	27	6	15	1,228
All (including Wales)	63	28	28	47	13	18	9,189

1 Excludes seven per cent of respondents who answered 'don't know'.

2 The Index is not available for Wales.

Region and country

Overall people living in London were the least likely to report positive views about their neighbourhood, while those living in Wales were the most likely. This pattern was particularly strong for the question about the likelihood of having a purse or wallet returned if lost and the question about feeling safe in the neighbourhood after dark. Thus, people living in Wales were four times as likely as people living in London to believe that it was very likely their purse or wallet would be returned to them if lost (20% compared with 5%) and twice as likely to say that they felt very safe walking alone at night (35% compared with 18%). (Figure 4.6; Table 4.4)

Figure 4.6 *Groups most likely to say that they 'Definitely' enjoyed living in the neighbourhood: London and Wales*

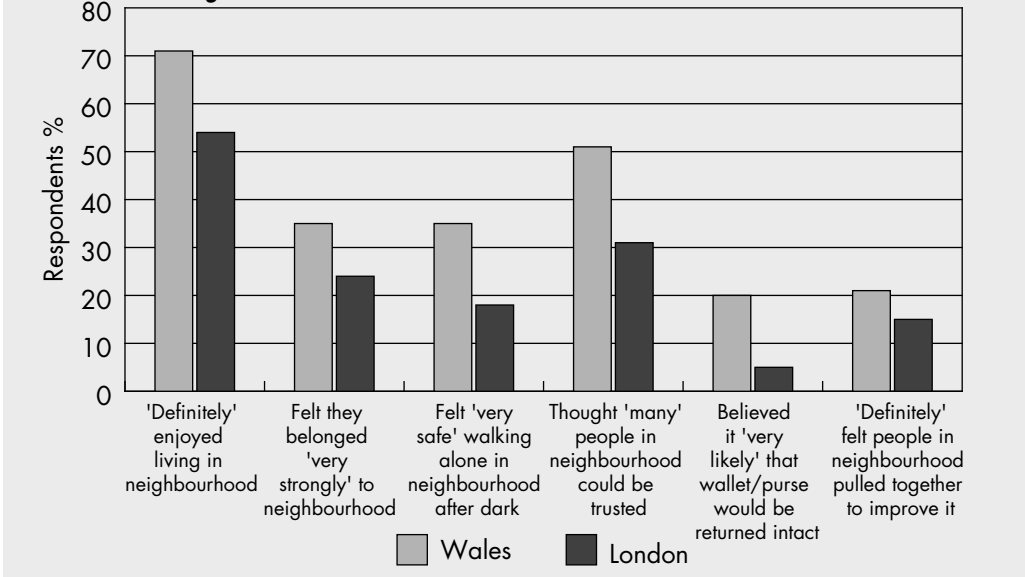


Table 4.4 Views about the neighbourhood, by Government Office Region and country

Percentages		England & Wales, 2003					
Government office Region and country	'Definitely' enjoyed living in neighbourhood	Felt they belonged 'very strongly' to neighbourhood	Felt 'very safe' walking alone in neighbourhood after dark	Thought 'many' people in neighbourhood could be trusted	Believed it 'very likely' that wallet/purse would be returned intact	'Definitely' felt people in neighbourhood pulled together to improve it	Respondents'
North East	68	35	27	51	14	19	428
North West	65	30	27	50	11	19	1,144
Yorkshire & Humberside	62	32	27	45	10	16	896
East Midlands	61	26	27	49	19	20	736
West Midlands	66	30	28	48	13	18	893
Eastern	63	24	29	46	15	19	933
London	54	24	18	31	5	15	975
South East	64	24	32	50	14	18	1,380
South West	69	28	37	58	18	18	838
All England	63	27	28	47	13	18	8,223
All Wales	71	35	35	51	20	21	530
All	63	28	28	47	13	18	8,753

1 Excludes seven per cent of respondents who answered 'don't know'.

How do people's attitudes to the neighbourhood vary by socio-demographic characteristics?

Age and sex

Older people were generally more likely to hold positive views about the neighbourhood. Among those aged 65 to 74, 75 per cent said they definitely enjoyed living in their neighbourhood compared with 47 per cent of people aged 16 to 24. This pattern was repeated for each measure, with the exception of the question about how safe respondents felt walking alone in the neighbourhood after dark. The elderly and young adults were the least likely to feel safe walking alone after dark. Only 20 per cent of those aged 65 to 74 and 14 per cent of those aged 75 or over felt very safe walking alone in the neighbourhood after dark. For those aged under 25, the proportion was 27 per cent. Although the question partly measures perceptions of the safety of the area, it also reflects the vulnerability of the respondent.

Views about the neighbourhood varied by sex for three of the measures. As we might expect, men were more likely than women to feel very safe walking alone in the neighbourhood after dark – 40 per cent said they felt very safe compared with 17 per cent of women. Higher proportions of women than men felt they belonged very strongly to their neighbourhood (30% compared with 26%) and that people in the neighbourhood pulled together to try and improve it (21% compared with 15%). These findings are consistent with those reported in the General Household Survey study of People's Perceptions of their Neighbourhood which showed that women tend to know more of their neighbours than men¹⁸. (Table 4.5)

Ethnic group

There were marked variations between ethnic groups in their attitudes to their neighbourhoods but the pattern across the different measures and between men and women was not consistent.

White people were most likely to say that they definitely enjoyed living in their neighbourhood, while Black people were the least likely. Among White respondents, 64 per cent said they definitely enjoyed living in their neighbourhood. The corresponding proportions for Asian and Black people were 60 per cent and 51 per cent respectively. This pattern was repeated in relation to the number of people respondents felt they could trust in the neighbourhood and the likelihood of the respondent's purse or wallet being returned if lost. Within the Asian and Black groups there were few differences but Black Caribbeans were much more likely than Black Africans to say that they definitely enjoyed living in their neighbourhood (55% compared with 47%).

¹⁸ Coulthard *et al.* (2002), *People's perceptions of their neighbourhood and community involvement*, (HMSO), Table 3.1.

Table 4.5 Views about the neighbourhood, by age and sex

Percentages		England & Wales, 2003					
Age and sex	'Definitely' enjoyed living in neighbourhood	Felt they belonged 'very strongly' to neighbourhood	Felt 'very safe' walking alone in neighbourhood after dark	Thought 'many' people in neighbourhood could be trusted	Believed it 'very likely' that wallet/purse would be returned intact	'Definitely' felt people in neighbourhood pulled together to improve it	Respondents'
16 to 24	47	17	27	27	8	8	652
25 to 34	57	17	32	37	9	13	1,438
35 to 49	64	25	32	48	12	18	2,421
50 to 64	69	33	30	57	16	21	2,152
65 to 74	75	43	20	58	17	26	1,135
75 or over	71	45	14	60	21	26	955
Male	63	26	40	48	13	15	3,907
Female	64	30	17	46	13	21	4,846
All	63	28	28	47	13	18	8,753

1 Excludes seven per cent of respondents who answered 'don't know'.

Asian people were most likely to identify with their neighbourhood and to report that there was community spirit in the area. Thus 31 per cent of Asians felt they belonged very strongly to their neighbourhood compared with 28 per cent of both White and Black people. The corresponding proportions for pulling together to improve the neighbourhood were 23 per cent, 17 per cent and 14 per cent respectively. This strong sense of belonging and pulling together was particularly marked among Asians of Pakistani origin. As with trust, within the Black group, Caribbean people were much more likely than Africans to have positive views about a sense of belonging (33% compared with 23%) although there was no difference in relation to whether or not people pulled together.

People of mixed race were most likely to feel very safe walking alone in the neighbourhood after dark (36%), while Chinese people were the least likely to do so (13%). Between these two extremes, the proportions saying that they felt very safe ranged from 23 per cent among Asian people to 26 per cent among Black people and to 29 per cent among White people. (Figure 4.7; Table 4.6)

Figure 4.7 *Percentage of people who felt 'very safe' walking alone in the neighbourhood after dark, by ethnic group*

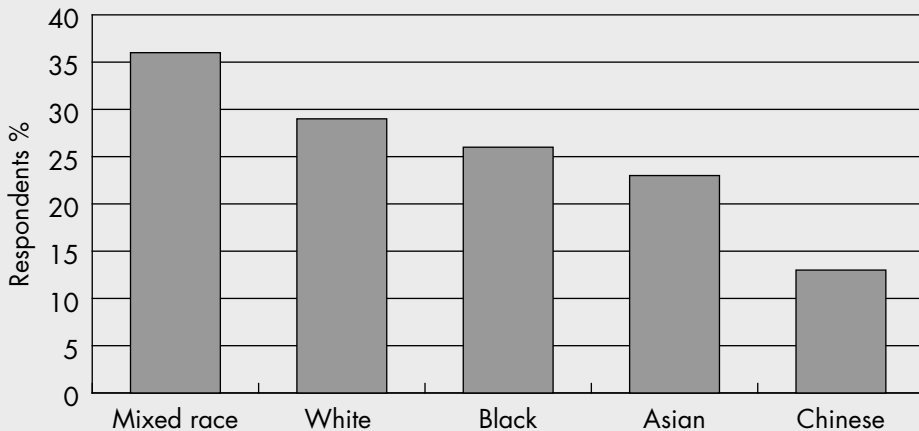


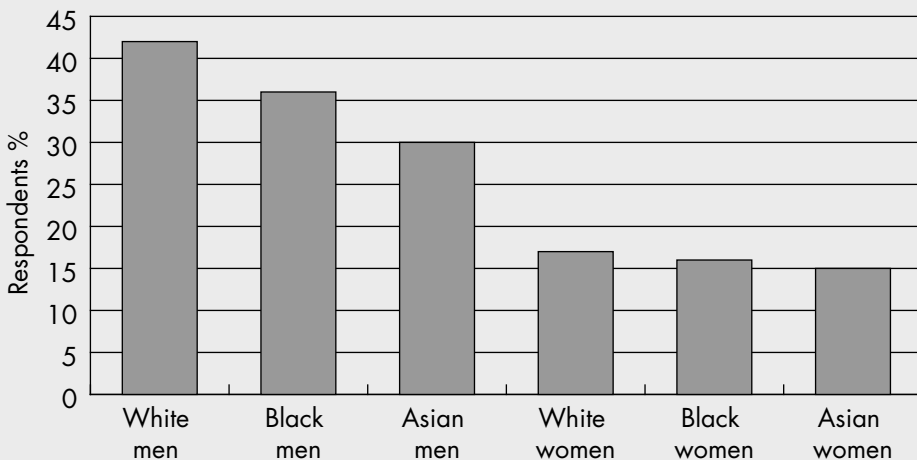
Table 4.6 Views about the neighbourhood by ethnic group

Percentages		England & Wales, 2003					
Ethnic group	'Definitely' enjoyed living in neighbourhood	Felt they belonged 'very strongly' to neighbourhood	Felt 'very safe' walking alone in neighbourhood after dark	Thought 'many' people in neighbourhood could be trusted	Believed it 'very likely' that wallet/purse would be returned intact	'Definitely' felt people in neighbourhood pulled together to improve it	Respondents'
White	64	28	29	49	13	17	8,107
Mixed race	52	21	36	19	10	15	305
All Asian	60	31	23	26	9	23	2,426
Indian	62	30	23	25	9	21	1,050
Pakistani	61	39	26	28	9	26	656
Bangladeshi	59	30	17	23	8	19	399
Other Asian	54	22	24	26	8	28	321
All Black	51	28	26	19	7	14	1,439
Caribbean	55	33	26	19	6	14	792
African	47	23	27	19	7	15	579
Other black	40	20	20	11	10	11	68
Chinese	52	19	13	22	7	14	131
Any other	58	27	25	26	10	21	378
All (Combined sample)	63	28	28	47	13	17	12,786

1 Excludes seven per cent of respondents who answered 'don't know'.

Figure 4.8 compares the views of men and women within the three main ethnic groups. The overall differences between men and women tended to be repeated within each ethnic group. The most interesting feature is that ethnic variations in how safe people felt walking alone in the dark occurred only among men. Thus, White men were most likely to say that they felt very safe walking alone in their neighbourhood after dark (42%), while Asian men were the least likely to do so (30%). The proportion for Black men was 36 per cent. Among women, the corresponding proportions were 17, 15 and 16 per cent. It may be that women's fears about walking alone at night stem mainly from their fear of attack by men and this may affect all ethnic groups equally whereas men's concerns may be related to a variety of factors including those associated with ethnicity, such as their race and the type of area they are living in. (Figure 4.8; Table 4.7)

Figure 4.8 *Percentage who felt 'very safe' walking alone in neighbourhood after dark, by sex within ethnic group*



One possible reason for minority ethnic groups being less likely than White people to enjoy living in their neighbourhood is that they are more likely to live in deprived areas. As discussed earlier, people living in deprived areas were the least likely to hold favourable views. Figure 4.10 shows, for those living in the most deprived areas, the percentage of people who enjoyed living in the neighbourhood, analysed by ethnic group. This analysis indicates that the greater likelihood of White people to enjoy living in their neighbourhood is at least partly attributable to the type of area they live in. Thus, among those living in the most deprived areas, the proportion of White people saying that they definitely enjoyed living in their neighbourhood was the same as that for Black people (46%) and considerably lower than the proportion for Asian people (54%). (Table 4.8)

Table 4.7 Views about the neighbourhood, by sex within ethnic group

Percentages		England & Wales, 2003					
Sex within ethnic group	'Definitely' enjoyed living in neighbourhood	Felt they belonged 'very strongly' to neighbourhood	Felt 'very safe' walking alone in neighbourhood after dark	Thought 'many' people in neighbourhood could be trusted	Believed it 'very likely' that wallet/purse would be returned intact	'Definitely' felt people in neighbourhood pulled together to improve it	Respondents'
White men	63	26	42	51	13	14	3,601
White women	64	29	17	47	14	20	4,506
Asian men	61	29	30	28	10	22	1,228
Asian women	59	33	15	24	8	24	1,198
Black men	52	27	36	21	6	13	561
Black women	50	28	16	17	7	17	878
All (Combined sample)	63	28	28	47	13	17	12,786

1 Excludes seven per cent of respondents who answered 'don't know'.

Table 4.8 *Percentage of respondents living in the most deprived areas who enjoyed living in the neighbourhood, by ethnic group*

<i>Percentages</i>		<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
<i>Ethnic group</i>	<i>'Definitely' enjoyed living in neighbourhood</i>	<i>Respondents</i>
White	46	1,107
Asian	54	1,346
Black	46	719
<i>Respondents living in the most deprived areas (Combined sample)</i>	47	3,571

Income

As is to be expected from the area variations, there was a positive relationship between people's income and their views about the neighbourhood for three of the measures: whether respondents enjoyed living in their neighbourhood; whether respondents felt safe after dark in the neighbourhood; and number of people respondents felt they could trust in the neighbourhood. Thus, among those with a gross annual income of £75,000 or more, 79 per cent said they definitely enjoyed living in their neighbourhood. This proportion fell to 58 per cent for those who had a gross annual income of under £5,000.

Views about whether people pulled together to improve the neighbourhood and the likelihood of a wallet or purse being returned if lost did not vary with income. However, there was a negative relationship between respondent's income and whether they felt they belonged to their neighbourhood. Thus, among those with a gross annual income of £75,000 or more, 22 per cent felt they belonged very strongly to their neighbourhood, compared with 31 per cent of people with a gross annual income of less than £10,000. This is consistent with the area type variations discussed earlier; affluent areas had relatively low proportions of people with a strong sense of belonging to the neighbourhood. (Table 4.9)

Table 4.9 Views about the neighbourhood, by gross annual income

Percentages		England & Wales, 2003						
Gross annual income	'Definitely' enjoyed living in neighbourhood	Felt they belonged 'very strongly' to neighbourhood	Felt 'very safe' walking alone in neighbourhood after dark	Thought 'many' people in neighbourhood could be trusted	Believed it 'very likely' that wallet/purse would be returned intact	'Definitely' felt people in neighbourhood pulled together to improve it	Respondents	Respondents ¹
£75,000 or more	79	22	54	66	14	24	133	131
£50,000 - £74,999	74	24	45	65	17	21	196	184
£30,000 - £49,999	68	24	46	60	15	18	819	783
£20,000 - £29,999	65	23	37	51	13	16	1,270	1,218
£15,000 - £19,999	64	24	31	45	13	16	1,086	1,040
£10,000 - £14,999	64	28	30	46	13	18	1,336	1,275
£5,000 - £9,999	61	31	18	43	12	18	2,063	1,943
Under £5,000	58	31	20	40	13	19	1,902	1,821
All	63	27	29	47	13	18	8,805	8,395

¹ Excludes seven per cent of respondents who answered 'don't know'.

Table 4.10 Views about the neighbourhood, by length of residence

Percentages		England & Wales, 2003					
Length of residence	'Definitely' enjoyed living in neighbourhood	Felt they belonged 'very strongly' to neighbourhood	Felt 'very safe' walking alone in neighbourhood after dark	Thought 'many' people in neighbourhood could be trusted	Believed it 'very likely' that wallet/purse would be returned intact	'Definitely' felt people in neighbourhood pulled together to improve it	Respondents ¹
Under 1 year	53	8	23	37	9	15	323
1-4 years	60	16	32	41	12	19	1,575
5-9 years	62	23	32	49	14	19	1,294
10-29 years	63	27	29	47	13	16	3,174
30+ years	71	46	23	53	14	19	2,387
All	63	28	28	47	13	18	8,753

¹ Excludes seven per cent of respondents who answered 'don't know'.

Length of residence

Length of residence and views about the neighbourhood were positively correlated. People who had lived in the neighbourhood for long periods of time were more likely to say that they enjoyed living there, that they felt they belonged and that they trusted people in the neighbourhood. Among people who had lived in the neighbourhood for thirty years or more, 71 per cent said they definitely enjoyed living there compared with 53 per cent of those who had lived in the area for less than a year.

The pattern for the other measures was less clear. People who had lived in the neighbourhood for thirty years or more were among the least likely to feel safe walking alone after dark. This is at least partly a reflection of the age of this group – a relatively high proportion of people who had lived in the neighbourhood for thirty years or more were aged 65 or over and, as discussed earlier, this group was least likely to feel safe walking alone at night. (Table 4.10)

People's views about community cohesion in their local area

The section looks at people's views about community cohesion in their local area and how views vary by area characteristics and ethnic group. The local area was defined as within 15 to 20 minutes walking distance. The previous section discussed people's views about their neighbourhood which was left undefined. Cognitive testing indicates that people's interpretations vary but 'neighbourhood' is generally taken to refer to a smaller area than 'local area' as defined for these questions.

First, respondents were asked whether their local area was a place where people from different backgrounds got on well together¹⁹. At this stage in the interview, ethnicity had not been raised and the definition of 'different backgrounds' was left to the respondent. So, for example, it may have been interpreted as people from different educational, social class or ethnic backgrounds. Respondents were then asked whether people in their local area were of the same ethnic group as them²⁰. Those who said that there were people from different ethnic groups, were asked whether they agreed that the local area was a place where residents respected ethnic differences between people.

Eighty per cent of people definitely agreed or tended to agree that their local area was a place where people from different backgrounds got on well together.

19 The analysis excludes eight per cent of respondents who answered 'don't know' and three per cent of respondents who said that people in their local area were 'all from the same backgrounds'.

20 The analysis excludes five per cent of respondents who answered 'don't know'.

Sixty-two per cent of respondents said that people in their local area were from different ethnic groups to themselves. Among this group, 79 per cent definitely agreed or tended to agree that residents respected ethnic differences between people. (Figures 4.9 to 4.11; Table 4.11)

Figure 4.9 *Whether agrees that local area is a place where people from different backgrounds get on well together*

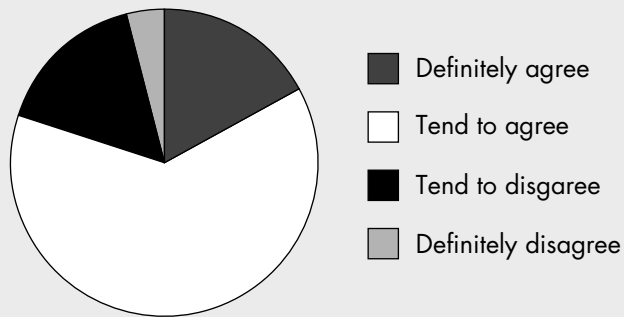


Figure 4.10 *Whether people in the local area are of the same ethnic group as the respondent*

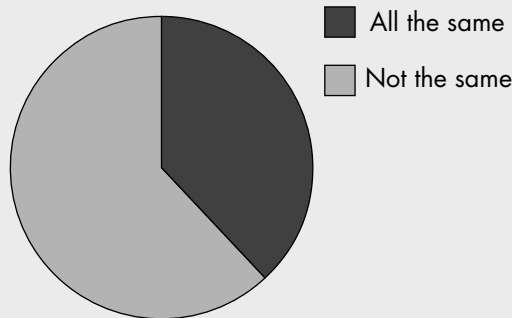


Figure 4.11 *Whether local area is a place where people from different ethnic groups get on well together*

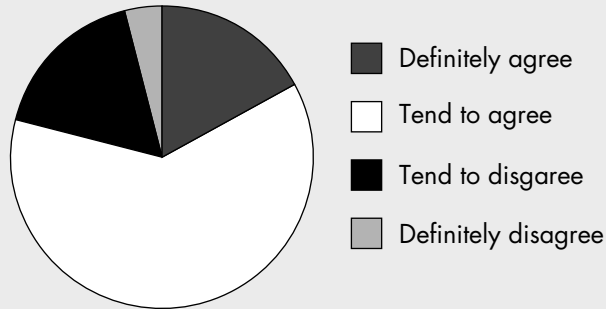


Table 4.11 *Views about the local area*

<i>Percentages</i>	<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
<i>Whether agrees that local area is a place where people from different backgrounds get on well together</i>	
Definitely agree	17
Tend to agree	63
Tend to disagree	16
Definitely disagree	4
<i>Respondents¹</i>	<i>12,417</i>
<i>Whether people in local area are of the same ethnic group as the respondent</i>	
All the same	38
Not the same	62
<i>Respondents</i>	<i>13,970</i>
<i>Whether agrees that local area is a place where residents respect ethnic differences between people</i>	
Definitely agree	17
Tend to agree	62
Tend to disagree	17
Definitely disagree	4
<i>Respondents in areas containing people from different ethnic groups²</i>	<i>9,229</i>

1 Excludes eight per cent of respondents who answered 'don't know' and three per cent who said that people in their local area were 'all from the same backgrounds'.

2 Excludes five per cent of respondents who answered 'don't know'.

How do people's views about community cohesion vary by area?

The following analyses examine how people's views about community cohesion in their local area vary according to geographic and socio-demographic factors. The tables show both the percentage who definitely agreed and the percentage who tended to agree with the general statement about relations between people from different backgrounds and the specific statement about respect for ethnic differences.

Region and country

People living in Wales and the South East were the most likely to definitely or tend to agree that people from different backgrounds got on well together (84%), while those from Yorkshire and Humberside and the West Midlands were the least likely to do so (75% and 76%).

The pattern was similar for the question about respecting ethnic differences between people. Respondents living in Wales were again the most likely to definitely or tend to agree that residents respected ethnic differences between people (84%), while those living in Yorkshire and Humberside and the North East were the least likely to do so (69% and 71%). Among those living in London, where there is a large minority ethnic population, the proportion of respondents who agreed that residents respected ethnic differences was also relatively high (82%). (Table 4.12)

Index of deprivation

Overall, people living in less deprived areas were more likely to report positive views about community cohesion, than those living in more deprived areas. Thus, among those living in the 50 per cent least deprived areas, 19 per cent to 24 per cent definitely agreed²¹ that people from different backgrounds got on well together, compared with 13 per cent to 15 per cent of people living in the 50 per cent most deprived areas. (Table 4.13)

Minority ethnic density

For the question about whether residents respected ethnic differences between people, respondents living in the 20 per cent of areas with the lowest concentration of minority ethnic households and those living in the 10 per cent of areas with the highest concentration of ethnic minority households were the most likely to report favourable views (21%). (Table 4.14)

21 This is the definitely agree response, as opposed to the definitely or tend to agree responses used earlier.

Table 4.12 Views about community cohesion in the local area, by Government Office Region and country

Percentages		England & Wales, 2003					
Government Office Region and country	Whether agreed that people from different backgrounds get on well together			Whether agreed that residents respect ethnic differences between people			
	Definitely agreed	Tended to agree	All who agreed	Definitely agreed	Tended to agree	All who agreed	
			Respondents ¹			Respondents ²	
North East	10	67	78	9	63	71	
North West	16	62	79	22	56	78	
Yorkshire & Humberside	12	62	75	12	57	69	
East Midlands	17	66	83	19	61	79	
West Midlands	17	60	76	17	57	74	
Eastern	18	62	80	19	63	83	
London	19	60	79	17	65	82	
South East	18	66	84	16	66	82	
South West	17	66	83	17	63	79	
All England	17	63	80	17	62	79	
All Wales	20	64	84	18	67	84	
All (Combined sample)	17	63	80	17	62	79	

1 Excludes eight per cent of respondents who answered 'don't know' and the three percent who said that people were 'all from the same backgrounds'.

2 Excludes five per cent of respondents who answered 'don't know'.

Table 4.13 Views about community cohesion in the local area, by Index of Multiple Deprivation

Percentages		England & Wales, 2003					
Index of Multiple Deprivation for England ³	Whether agreed that people from different backgrounds get on well together			Whether agreed that residents respect ethnic differences between people			
	Definitely agreed	Tended to agree	All who agreed	Definitely agreed	Tended to agree	All who agreed	
			Respondents ²			Respondents ³	
1 Least deprived	20	66	701	24	65	90	
2	24	63	775	20	66	86	
3	22	63	597	20	69	89	
4	19	69	688	18	67	86	
5	21	64	812	15	68	83	
6	15	67	829	14	64	77	
7	14	63	1,111	14	65	79	
8	14	65	1,235	19	59	79	
9	13	64	1,925	16	58	74	
10 Most deprived	13	54	3,217	15	53	69	
All (including Wales)	17	63	12,417	17	62	79	

1 Excludes eight per cent of respondents who answered 'don't know' and the three percent who said that people were 'all from the same backgrounds'.

2 Excludes five per cent of respondents who answered 'don't know'.

3 The Index is not available for Wales.

Table 4.14 Views about community cohesion in the local area, by percentage of minority ethnic households in the area

Percentages		England & Wales, 2003						
Percentage of ethnic minority households in the area (deciles) ¹	Whether agreed that people from different backgrounds get on well together			Whether agreed that residents respect ethnic differences between people				
	Definitely agreed	Tended to agree	All who agreed	Definitely agreed	Tended to agree	All who agreed		
			Respondents ²			Respondents ³		
1 (lowest density)	24	60	84	555	21	61	82	151
2	19	65	84	547	21	60	81	208
3	16	63	79	702	11	68	79	304
4	16	63	79	982	17	56	73	478
5	17	66	84	860	18	64	81	448
6	16	62	78	909	19	60	79	529
7	15	68	83	1,038	17	65	82	717
8	15	64	79	1,338	15	63	78	1,111
9	17	62	79	1,068	14	65	79	989
10 (Highest density)	19	58	77	4,418	21	58	79	4,294
All (Combined sample)	17	63	80	12,417	17	62	79	9,229

1 The measure is based on the percentage of households in the postal sector headed by someone from a minority ethnic group, based on the 2001 Census.

2 Excludes eight per cent of respondents who answered 'don't know' and the three percent who said that people were 'all from the same backgrounds'.

3 Excludes five per cent of respondents who answered 'don't know'.

How do people's views about community cohesion vary by ethnic group?

Minority ethnic people were more likely than their White counterparts to report positive views about community cohesion. Thus, 24 per cent of Asian people and 20 per cent of Black people definitely agreed that people from different backgrounds got on well together in their local area, compared with just 16 per cent of White people. Similarly, for the question about whether residents respected ethnic differences between people, the corresponding proportions were 27 per cent, 23 per cent and 16 per cent. (Table 4.15)

Since most White people live in areas with few non-White people, these variations may simply be reflecting the minority ethnic density of the area. The analysis was therefore repeated comparing the views of White and non-White respondents in the 20 per cent of areas with the highest concentration of minority ethnic households. Exactly the same pattern was observed: again 16 per cent of White people definitely agreed that people from different backgrounds got on well together, suggesting that there are genuine ethnic variations in people's views about community cohesion. These variations tend to accord with the more positive views that minority ethnic groups held about racial prejudice, discussed in the previous chapter. (Table 4.16)

Table 4.16 Views about community cohesion in the local area among people living in the 20 per cent of areas with the highest concentration of minority ethnic households, by ethnic group

		England & Wales, 2003					
Ethnic group	Percentages	Whether agreed that people from different backgrounds get on well together			Whether agreed that residents respect ethnic differences between people		
		Definitely agreed	Tended to agree	All who agreed	Definitely agreed	Tended to agree	All who agreed
		16	60	76	16	62	77
White		16	60	76	16	62	77
Mixed race		21	58	79	19	58	78
All Asian		23	61	84	26	60	86
Indian		19	63	82	27	58	85
Pakistani		27	58	85	25	64	89
Bangladeshi		20	67	86	26	64	89
Other Asian		29	60	89	30	52	81
All Black		20	60	80	22	61	83
Caribbean		20	63	84	19	63	81
African		21	57	77	24	59	83
Other Black		17	50	67	17	67	83
Chinese		19	67	86	19	71	90
Any other		20	65	85	18	65	84
Respondents living in 20% of areas with the highest proportion of minority ethnic households (Combined sample)		18	60	78	18	61	79
				5,486			5,283
				18			79

1 Excludes eight per cent of respondents who answered 'don't know' and the three percent who said that people were 'all from the same backgrounds'.
 2 Excludes five per cent of respondents who answered 'don't know'.

Conclusion

This chapter has explored a number of issues central to the Home Office's community cohesion agenda. It shows strong feelings of neighbourhood belonging and beliefs that people pull together to improve neighbourhoods. And perceptions of generalised trust within neighbourhoods increased between 2001 and 2003. In contrast, between 2001 and 2003 proportions of people enjoying living in their neighbourhood and feelings of neighbourhood safety declined.

In terms of diversity within communities, large proportions of people thought their local area was a place where people from different backgrounds got on well together and that residents respected ethnic differences between people. These are important findings in light of recent research associating diversity with low levels of social capital²².

Readers interested in neighbourhoods and community cohesion might also wish to see the forthcoming Home Office publication of findings from the Citizenship Survey Local Areas Boost.

The next chapter examines a related theme – networks of friends and neighbours. It continues to explore issues of social capital, but focuses particularly on the distinction between bridging and bonding.

22 Costa D.L. & Kahn M.E. (2003) Civic Engagement and Community Heterogeneity: an Economist's Perspective *Perspectives on Politics* Vol. 1 (1).

Summary

Contacts with friends and neighbours

Overall, 41 per cent of people had friends or neighbours round to their home at least once a week and a further 24 per cent had them round to their home at least once a month. Likewise, 42 per cent of respondents went out with friends and neighbours at least once a week and 25 per cent went out at least once a month.

The people most likely to have friends or neighbours round to their home at least once a week:

- lived in areas classified as 'People in Multi-Ethnic, Low-Income Areas' (54%);
- were aged 16 to 24 (63%);
- were single (56%);
- had a child aged under five (52%);
- were of Pakistani ethnic origin (58%);
- were full-time students (59%).

The people most likely to go out socially with friends or neighbours at least once a week:

- lived in areas classified as 'Prosperous Professionals, Metropolitan Areas' (61%);
- were aged 16 to 24 (72%);
- were single (68%);
- were of Bangladeshi ethnic origin (56%);
- were full-time students (69%).

Whether people have friends from different backgrounds:

- 44 per cent of people said they had friends with different educational qualifications to them.
- 36 per cent of people said they had friends from different ethnic groups to them.
- 81 per cent of people said they regularly met and talked with people of a different ethnic origin to them.

The people most likely to have friends with different educational qualifications to them:

- lived in areas classified as 'White Collar Workers, Better-Off Multi-Ethnic Areas' (60%) or 'Multi-Ethnic, Low-Income Areas' (58%);
- lived in relatively deprived areas (50% in deciles 8 and 9 of the deprivation index);
- lived in areas with the highest concentration of minority ethnic households (55% in the highest decile);
- lived in London (54%);
- were aged 35 to 49 (50%);
- were separated (52%);
- were of Black ethnic origin (64%);
- had qualifications at 'A' level or above (52%).

The people most likely to have friends from different ethnic groups to them:

- lived in areas classified as 'Prosperous Professionals, Metropolitan Areas' (72%);
- lived in areas with the highest concentration of minority ethnic households (66% in the highest decile);
- lived in London (63%);
- were aged 16 to 24 (54%);
- were single (51%);
- were of mixed race (91%);
- had qualifications at degree level or above (53%).

Strong social networks are considered to increase the 'social capital' of communities and individuals. The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development defines 'social capital' as: "*networks together with shared norms, values and understandings that facilitate co-operation within or among groups*" (Cote and Healy, 2001:41²³).

Putnam, and Cote and Healy, differentiate between 'bonding' and 'bridging' social capital. Further research and conceptual development are required around bridging and bonding. However, the former broadly refers to relations between relatively homogeneous groups such as family members and close friends²⁴. And bridging social capital refers to relations between distant friends, associates and colleagues. Such ties tended to be weaker and more diverse than those of bonding social capital. Putnam suggests that bonding social

23 Cote, S. and Healy, T. (2001) *The Well-being of Nations. The role of human and social capital*. Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. Paris.

24 Putnam, R. (2000) *Bowling alone – the collapse and revival of American community*, Simon & Schuster, New York.

capital is good for *getting by* whereas bridging social capital is good for *getting ahead*. Increasing bridging social capital is also likely to benefit the community as well as the individual. Building networks between people from different backgrounds is likely to increase people's awareness and understanding of other cultures and social groups. Hence it is particularly important for promoting good race and community relations, one of the aims of the Home Office's Community Policy.

This chapter looks at two measures of these forms of social network²⁵:

- the extent to which people have friends and neighbours round to their home and the extent to which they socialise outside the home (bonding); and
- their interactions with people from different educational and ethnic backgrounds (bridging).

Social contact with friends and neighbours

This section describes people's social contacts with their friends and neighbours inside and outside the home in 2003²⁶.

Overall, 41 per cent of people said they had friends or neighbours round to their home at least once a week and a further 24 per cent said they had them round to their home at least once a month. The pattern was very similar for the question about how often people went out socially with friends or neighbours: 42 per cent of respondents said they went out at least once a week and 25 per cent said they went out at least once a month. (Figure 5.1; Table 5.1)

Most of the characteristics associated with having friends or neighbours round to the home were related to going out socially with friends or neighbours, although the pattern tended to differ across the two measures.

25 Whilst there has been considerable methodological work on developing social capital measures, there is still some way to go with measures of bridging and bonding (see [www.statistics.gov.uk/social capital](http://www.statistics.gov.uk/social%20capital)). The Citizenship Survey uses simplistic measures, and as a result caution should be shown in over interpretation.

26 Comparisons with 2001 are not possible because different answer categories were used in 2003.

Figure 5.1 *Frequency of having friends or neighbours round to the home*

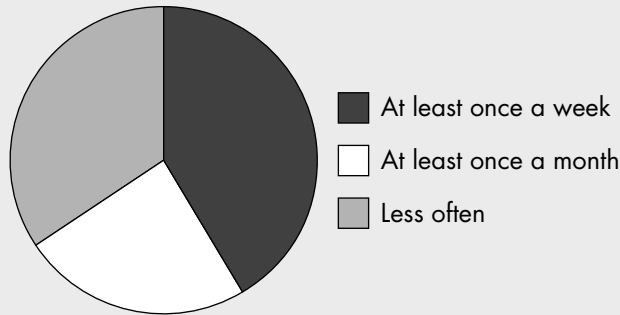


Table 5.1 *Frequency of social contact with friends or neighbours*

<i>Percentages</i>	<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>	
	Has friends or neighbours round to the home	Goes out socially with friends or neighbours
At least once a week	41	42
At least once a month	24	25
Less often	34	32
<i>Respondents</i>	9,479	9,475

Tables 5.2 to 5.11 show the percentages of people who had contact at least once a week with friends or neighbours inside and outside the home, analysed by area type and socio-demographic characteristics. These relationships are discussed in the text below. The tables also show the percentages who had either form of contact less than once a month in order to identify the most socially isolated groups. This analysis is described separately in the following section.

How does contact with friends or neighbours vary by area?

Type of area (ACORN) and Index of Deprivation

Generally, people living in deprived areas were more likely than those living in affluent areas to have friends or neighbours round to their home. Thus, at the extremes, 54 per cent of people living in an area classified as ‘Multi-Ethnic, Low-Income Areas’ had friends or neighbours round to their home at least once a week, compared with only 36 per cent of

people living in an area classified as 'Affluent Executives, Family Areas'. However, the rich-poor differential was not consistent. Contact rates were also high in affluent city areas such as 'Prosperous Professionals, Metropolitan Areas' and 'Better-Off Executives, Inner City Areas' (49% and 48%).

The variation with the Index of Deprivation showed a similar pattern: 45 per cent of people living in the most deprived areas said they had friends or neighbours round to their home at least once a week, compared with 38 per cent of those living in the least deprived areas although, again, the gradient was not consistent.

People living in 'Prosperous Professionals, Metropolitan Areas' and those in 'Better-Off Executives, Inner City Areas' also scored highly on socialising outside the home. In these two types of area, 61 per cent and 52 per cent said they went out socially with friends or neighbours at least once a week. Again, those living in 'Affluent Executives, Family Areas' were the least likely to do so (34%). (Tables 5.2, 5.3)

Table 5.2 Social contact with friends and neighbours, by type of area (ACORN)

<i>Percentages</i>				<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
Type of area (ACORN)	Had friends or neighbours round to their home at least once a week	Went out socially with friends or neighbours at least once a week	Had contact with friends or neighbours less than once a month	<i>Respondents</i>
Wealthy Achievers, Suburban Areas	39	43	18	1,503
Affluent Greys, Rural Communities	38	38	21	194
Prosperous Pensioners, Retirement Areas	45	48	20	267
Affluent Executives, Family Areas	36	34	21	384
Well-Off Workers, Family Areas	38	40	23	744
Affluent Urbanites, Town & City Areas	37	45	16	206
Prosperous Professionals, Metropolitan Areas	49	61	9	188
Better-Off Executives, Inner City Areas	48	52	17	289
Comfortable Middle Agers, Mature Home Owning Areas	38	40	19	1,370
Skilled Workers, Home Owning Areas	41	43	20	1,199
New Home Owners, Mature Communities	41	40	22	806
White Collar Workers, Better-Off Multi-Ethnic Areas	45	42	21	390
Older People, Less Prosperous Areas	41	40	26	340
Council Estate Residents, Better-Off Homes	43	42	23	970
Council Estate Residents, High Unemployment	43	39	21	276
Council Estate Residents, Greatest Hardship	46	40	25	184
People in Multi-Ethnic, Low-Income Areas	54	44	20	155
All	41	42	20	9,475

Table 5.3 Social contact with friends and neighbours, by Index of Multiple Deprivation

<i>Percentages</i>				<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
Index of Multiple Deprivation for England ¹	Had friends or neighbours round to their home at least once a week	Went out socially with friends or neighbours at least once a week	Had contact with friends or neighbours less than once a month	<i>Respondents</i>
1 Least deprived	38	41	17	730
2	41	44	18	825
3	41	44	16	637
4	39	44	18	730
5	35	39	22	775
6	41	40	20	868
7	40	37	22	887
8	44	44	21	884
9	42	44	21	1,230
10 Most deprived	45	44	22	1,346
All (including Wales)	41	42	20	9,475

¹ The Index is not available for Wales.

Region and country

The proportion of people having friends or neighbours round to their home at least once a week did not show much regional variation, although it was relatively low among those living in Yorkshire and Humberside (38%). This tends to accord with the more negative views about the neighbourhood expressed by people living in Yorkshire and Humberside: relatively low proportions said they trusted their neighbours and that people in their neighbourhood pulled together to try and improve it.

The pattern was different on the second measure. People living in the North East were the most likely to say that they went out socially with friends or neighbours at least once a week (49%), while those living in the South West were the least likely to do so (37%). (Table 5.4)

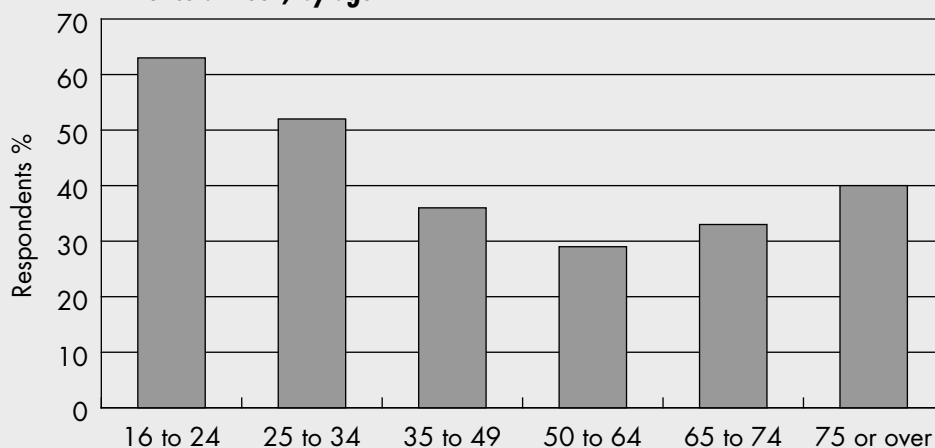
Table 5.4 Social contact with friends and neighbours, by Government Office Region and country

<i>Percentages</i>				<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
<i>Government Office Region and country</i>	<i>Had friends or neighbours round to their home at least once a week</i>	<i>Went out socially with friends or neighbours at least once a week</i>	<i>Had contact with friends or neighbours less than once a month</i>	<i>Respondents</i>
North East	40	49	20	463
North West	43	43	19	1,230
Yorkshire & Humberside	38	42	22	974
East Midlands	43	44	21	798
West Midlands	42	42	21	968
Eastern	41	40	20	1,007
London	40	44	20	1,090
South East	41	41	18	1,484
South West	41	37	22	898
All England	41	42	20	8,912
All Wales	40	43	22	563
All	41	42	20	9,475

How does contact with friends or neighbours vary by socio-demographic characteristics?***Age and sex***

The percentage who had friends or neighbours round to their home at least once a week was highest among people aged under 25 (63%) and then declined with age to a low of 29 per cent among 50 to 64 year olds. As people pass retirement age, they tend to spend more time at home and then, as they become older, some begin to need care. Hence, the proportion having friends and neighbours round to the home at least once a week starts to increase to 33 per cent among 65 to 74 year olds and then to 40 per cent among those aged 75 or over. (Figure 5.2)

Figure 5.2 *Percentage who had friends or neighbours round to their home at least once a week, by age*



Young adults were again the most likely to go out socially with friends or neighbours. Seventy two per cent of people aged 16 to 24 went out with friends or neighbours at least once a week. This proportion decreased to 51 per cent for those aged 25 to 34. Among the older age groups, there were no differences; around 35 per cent said they went out socially with friends or neighbours at least once a week.

Women were more likely than men to have friends or neighbours round to their home at least once a week (44% compared with 38%). The reverse was true for the question about going out socially with friends or neighbours: 44 per cent of men said they went out with friends or neighbours at least once a week compared with 40 per cent of women. (Table 5.5)

Marital status

People who were single were the most likely to have friends or neighbours round at least once a week (56%), while those who were married were the least likely to do so (34%). The difference was even more marked for socialising outside the home. Single people were more than twice as likely as married people to go out with friends or neighbours at least once a week (68% compared with 31%). The contact rates for cohabiting and previously married people were very similar both for socialising at home (43% to 48%) and outside the home (42% to 45%).

The variations by marital status are partly a reflection of the age of the groups. A relatively large proportion of single people are aged 16 to 24 and, as discussed earlier, this group is the most likely to have social contact with friends and neighbours. (Table 5.6)

Table 5.5 Social contact with friends and neighbours, by age and sexPercentages *England & Wales, 2003*

Age and sex	Had friends or neighbours round to their home at least once a week	Went out socially with friends or neighbours at least once a week	Had contact with friends or neighbours less than once a month	Respondents
16 to 24	63	72	6	731
25 to 34	52	51	11	1,588
35 to 49	36	34	20	2,576
50 to 64	29	34	27	2,289
65 to 74	33	35	29	1,226
75 or over	40	34	31	1,065
Male	38	44	20	4,212
Female	44	40	20	5,263
All	41	42	20	9,475

Table 5.6 Social contact with friends and neighbours, by marital statusPercentages *England & Wales, 2003*

Marital status	Had friends or neighbours round to their home at least once a week	Went out socially with friends or neighbours at least once a week	Had contact with friends or neighbours less than once a month	Respondents
Married	34	31	25	4,558
Cohabiting	43	44	14	766
Single	56	68	10	1,848
Widowed	46	42	25	1,119
Divorced	43	45	21	862
Separated	48	42	18	303
All	41	42	20	9,475

Data for same sex couples is excluded due to small number of respondents. These are included in the figures for All respondents.

Age of youngest dependent child

Parents with children under five were the most likely to have friends or neighbours round to their home at least once a week, while those with children aged 10 to 15 were the least likely to do so (52% compared with 36%). The pattern was different for the second measure. As we might expect, people with no children under 16 were more likely to go out socially than parents with dependent children. Thus, 46 per cent of people with no children under 16 said they went out socially with friends or neighbours at least once a week, compared with between 31 per cent and 35 per cent for those with dependent children. Parents of young children will usually need to organise child-care if they wish to go out which at least partly explains their tendency to socialise inside rather than outside the home. (Table 5.7)

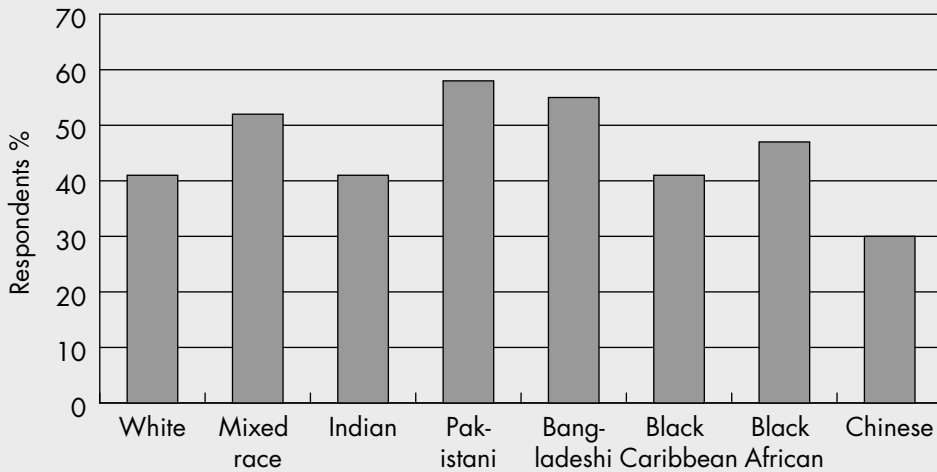
Table 5.7 Social contact with friends and neighbours, by age of youngest dependent child

<i>Percentages</i>				<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>	
<i>Age of youngest dependent child</i>	<i>Had friends or neighbours round to their home at least once a week</i>	<i>Went out socially with friends or neighbours at least once a week</i>	<i>Had contact with friends or neighbours less than once a month</i>	<i>Respondents</i>	
Under 5	52	31	15	993	
5 to 9	44	32	20	759	
10 to 15	36	35	21	673	
No children under 16	40	46	21	7,050	
All	41	42	20	9,475	

Ethnic group

Pakistani, Bangladeshi and people of mixed race were the most likely to have friends or neighbours round to their home at least once a week (58%, 55% and 52%), while Chinese people were the least likely to do so (30%). Between these two extremes, the proportions who said they had friends or neighbours round to their homes at least once a week ranged from 41 per cent among White, Indian and Black Caribbean to 48 per cent of other Asian people. (Figure 5.3)

Figure 5.3 *Percentage who had friends or neighbours round to their home at least once a week, by ethnic group*



For socialising outside the home, Bangladeshi and people of mixed race were again the most likely to say that they went out with friends and neighbours at least once a week (56% and 52%), while Black Caribbean and other Asian people were the least likely to do so (38% and 35%). The percentages for the other groups were similar, ranging from 41 per cent to 47 per cent. (Table 5.8)

Variations by ethnic group are likely to be reflecting at least in part, the different age structure of the groups. The minority ethnic population contains a larger proportion of young people than the White population.

In order to explore whether the variations discussed above are genuine ethnic variations, the analysis was repeated comparing the contact rates of people from each ethnic group, within age groups. The relatively high rates of socialising in the home among Pakistani, Bangladeshi and people of mixed race were still evident, although not in all age groups, suggesting that the ethnic differences overall are partly but not entirely age-related. The low proportions of Chinese people who had friends or neighbours round to their home persisted across all age groups and is therefore not attributable to their young age profile. (Table 5.9)

Table 5.8 Social contact with friends and neighbours, by ethnic group

<i>Percentages</i>				<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
<i>Ethnic group</i>	<i>Had friends or neighbours round to their home at least once a week</i>	<i>Went out socially with friends or neighbours at least once a week</i>	<i>Had contact with friends or neighbours less than once a month</i>	<i>Respondents</i>
White	41	43	20	8,739
Mixed race	52	52	17	338
All Asian	48	43	18	2,670
Indian	41	41	19	1,162
Pakistani	58	45	18	707
Bangladeshi	55	56	11	433
Other Asian	48	35	24	368
All Black	44	40	24	1,675
Caribbean	41	38	26	916
African	47	42	23	690
Other black	40	44	22	69
Chinese	30	47	20	153
Any other	41	31	23	458
All (Combined sample)	41	43	20	14,033

Socio-economic characteristics

People who had never worked or were long-term unemployed and those in routine occupations were more likely to have friends or neighbours round to their home at least once a week, than those in the higher professional and managerial occupations group (45% and 44% compared with 36%). Among people in the other socio-economic groups, there was little variation (between 39% and 41%). As we might expect, the proportion saying that they had friends or neighbours round to their home at least once a week was highest among full-time students (59%). This group is younger and probably has more time for socialising than those in employment.

The variation with income showed a similar pattern. The likelihood of having friends or neighbours round to the home declined with increasing income. Thus, 47 per cent of people with a gross annual income of less than £5,000 said they had friends or neighbours round to their home at least once a week, compared with 36 per cent of those with a gross annual income of £50,000 or more. This differential is probably exaggerated by the inclusion of students in the lowest income group.

Table 5.9 Social contact with friends and neighbours by ethnic group and age

Percentages	England & Wales, 2003											
	Had friends or neighbours round to their home at least once a week				Went out socially with friends or neighbours at least once a week				Respondents			
	16 to 24	25 to 49	50 or over		16 to 24	25 to 49	50 or over		16 to 24	25 to 49	50 or over	
White	63	42	33	73	42	35	624	3,713	4,402			
Mixed race	70	47	33	76	37	38	76	197	65			
All Asian	62	44	40	69	35	28	471	1,573	626			
Indian	58	38	33	75	33	27	170	649	343			
Pakistani	65	53	57	59	38	38	144	427	136			
Bangladeshi	63	47	56	79	44	38	111	250	72			
Other Asian	64	48	33	60	34	9	46	247	75			
All Black	55	42	38	67	34	33	193	1,043	439			
Caribbean	44	43	36	58	36	31	88	495	333			
African	62	42	42	71	32	33	96	495	99			
Other black	*	29	*	*	43	*	9	53	7			
Chinese	32	29	20	61	38	20	40	91	22			
Any other	59	40	32	56	28	21	61	299	98			
All												
(Combined sample)	63	42	33	73	41	34	1,465	6,916	5,652			

* Bases too small for percentages.

The pattern was different for the question about going out socially with friends or neighbours. People in the lower supervisory and technical socio-economic group were most likely to go out at least once a week (44%), while those who had never worked or were long-term unemployed were the least likely to do so (38%). The latter group has a lower gross annual income, so they are less likely than those in employment to be able to afford to go out regularly with friends and neighbours. Again, the proportion for full-time students was particularly high (69%), reflecting their age rather than their affluence.

People with a gross annual income of £5,000 to £9,999 were the least likely to go out socially with friends or neighbours at least once a week (39%). However, there was little variation between other people on this measure (42% to 44%). Again, the high rate in the lowest income group is probably attributable to the inclusion of students. (Tables 5.10, 5.11)

Table 5.10 Social contact with friends and neighbours, by socio-economic classification

<i>Percentages</i>				<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
<i>Socio-economic classification¹</i>	<i>Had friends or neighbours round to their home at least once a week</i>	<i>Went out socially with friends or neighbours at least once a week</i>	<i>Had contact with friends or neighbours less than once a month</i>	<i>Respondents</i>
Higher managerial and professional occupations	36	42	14	1,030
Lower managerial and professional occupations	41	41	17	2,198
Intermediate occupations	40	39	21	1,146
Small employers and own account workers	40	42	21	699
Lower supervisory and technical	39	44	23	920
Semi-routine occupations	40	41	24	1,639
Routine occupations	44	41	25	1,232
Never worked and long-term unemployed	45	38	23	295
Full-time students	59	69	8	134
All	41	42	20	9,475

¹ This is the National Statistics Socio-economic classification (NS-SEC). The figures for socio-economic class in this table exclude respondents who had been unemployed for less than one year. These are included in the figures for all respondents.

Table 5.11 Social contact with friends and neighbours, by gross annual income

<i>Percentages</i>				<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
Gross annual income	Had friends or neighbours round to their home at least once a week	Went out socially with friends or neighbours at least once a week	Had contact with friends or neighbours less than once a month	<i>Respondents</i>
£50,000 or more	36	43	13	342
£30,000 - £49,999	38	42	15	834
£20,000 - £29,999	36	43	16	1,311
£15,000 - £19,999	39	43	20	1,108
£10,000 - £14,999	43	43	19	1,378
£5,000 - £9,999	41	39	25	2,116
Under £5,000	47	44	22	1,985
All	41	42	20	9,074

Who are the socially isolated groups?

For this analysis, people were considered to be 'socially isolated' if they had contact with friends and neighbours less than once a month. This is a fairly inclusive definition and, as Table 5.12 shows, one in five respondents were in this position. Tables 5.2 to 5.11 show the proportion analysed by the socio-demographic and area type variables discussed above. The measure also varied by sex within ethnic group and this analysis is shown in Table 5.13. (Table 5.12)

Table 5.12 Whether has social contact with friends or neighbours less than once a month

<i>Percentages</i>		<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
Has contact with friends or neighbours less than once a month		20
Has more regular contact		80
<i>Respondents</i>		9,481

The people most likely to have had contact with friends or neighbours less than once a month were:

- aged 50 or over (29%);
- of Black ethnic origin, particularly Caribbean women (29%).

Table 5.13 Social contact with friends and neighbours, by sex within ethnic group

<i>Percentages</i>		<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
Sex within ethnic group	Had contact with friends or neighbours less than once a month	<i>Respondents</i>
White men	20	3,872
White women	20	4,871
Asian men	16	1,323
Asian women	21	1,349
Black men ¹	23	643
Black women ¹	26	1,035
Caribbean men	22	354
Caribbean women	29	564
African men	25	268
African women	22	423
All (Combined sample)	20	14,042

¹ Includes groups not shown in table

Do people have friends from different backgrounds?

This section looks at the looser ties people have with more distant friends and colleagues, sometimes referred to as 'bridging' social capital. The analyses examine:

- 1) whether people have friends with different educational and ethnic backgrounds and the factors associated with this; and
- 2) the situations in which people meet and talk with people of a different ethnic group.

Respondents were asked whether their friends had similar educational qualifications to them and if not, what proportion of their friends had similar educational qualifications to them. Equivalent questions were asked in relation to having friends from a different ethnic group. Respondents were also asked whether they regularly met and talked with people of a different ethnic group in various situations.

Forty-four per cent of people said they had friends with different educational qualifications to them. Among this group, 23 per cent (equivalent to 10 per cent of all respondents) said that more than a half of their friends had similar educational qualifications to them and 44 per cent (19% of all respondents) said that about a half had similar educational qualifications to them.

Thirty-six per cent of people said they had friends from different ethnic groups to them. Sixty-six per cent of this group (equivalent to 24% of all respondents) said that more than a half of their friends were from the same ethnic group as them and 14 per cent (5% of all respondents) said that about a half were from the same ethnic group as them. (Figures 5.4, 5.4; Tables 5.14, 5.15)

Eighty-one per cent of people said that they regularly met and talked with people of a different ethnic group to them. The four situations most commonly cited were the local shops (56%), work (50%), restaurants, pubs, cinemas and community centres (47%) and in the neighbourhood (31%). (Table 5.16)

Figure 5.4 Percentage of friends with similar qualifications

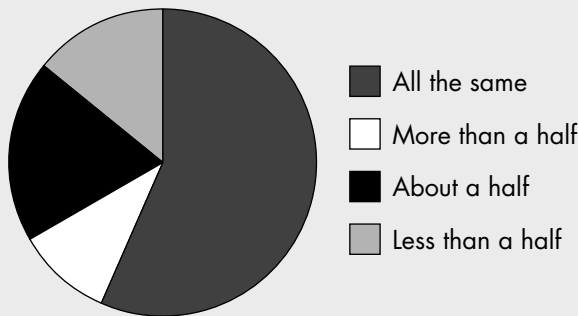


Figure 5.5 Percentage of friends from the same ethnic group

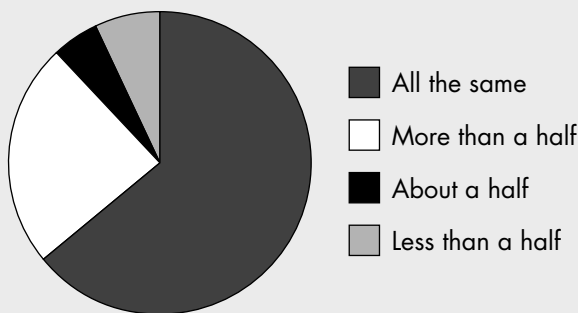


Table 5.14 *Whether friends have similar educational qualifications to them*

<i>Percentages</i>	<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
Whether friends have similar educational qualifications to them	
All the same	56
Not the same	44
<i>All respondents</i>	<i>9,027</i>
What proportion of friends have similar educational qualifications to them	
More than a half	23
About a half	44
Less than a half	33
<i>Respondents who had friends with different educational qualifications</i>	<i>3,820</i>

Table 5.15 *Whether friends are from the same ethnic group as them*

<i>Percentages</i>	<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
Whether friends are from the same ethnic group as them	
All the same	64
Not the same	36
<i>All respondents (Combined sample)</i>	<i>13,591</i>
What proportion of friends are from the same ethnic group as them	
More than a half	66
About a half	14
Less than a half	20
<i>Respondents who had friends from different ethnic groups (Combined sample)</i>	<i>6,329</i>

Table 5.16 Whether regularly meets and talks with people of different ethnic origins and types of situations

<i>Percentages¹</i>	<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
Whether regularly meet and talk with people of different ethnic origin	
Yes	81
No	19
<i>Respondents (Combined sample)</i>	<i>14,045</i>
Types of situations	
Local shops	56
Work	50
Restaurants, pubs, cinemas, community centres	47
In the neighbourhood	31
On buses or trains	23
Place of study	17
Sports or fitness activities	17
Place of worship	10
Relatives' homes	10
Youth clubs	2
Other places	16
<i>Respondents who regularly met and talked with people of a different ethnic origin (Combined sample)</i>	<i>11,801</i>

¹ Percentages sum to more than 100 because people could mention more than one situation.

How does having friends from different backgrounds vary by area?

Type of area (ACORN) and index of deprivation

People living in multi-ethnic or city areas such as 'White Collar Workers, Better-Off Multi-Ethnic Areas' and 'Multi-Ethnic, Low-Income Areas' were the most likely to have friends with different educational qualifications to them (60% and 58%). The percentage was also relatively high among those living in affluent urban areas such as 'Prosperous Professionals, Metropolitan Areas' and 'Better-Off Executives, Inner city Areas' (51% and 48%). Those living in areas classified as 'Prosperous Pensioners, Retirement Areas' were the least likely to have friends with different educational qualifications (33%).

Variations with the Index of Deprivation and minority ethnic density showed a similar pattern. People living in relatively deprived areas (deciles 8 and 9) were most likely to have friends with different educational qualifications to them (50% and 51%) as were those living in the 20 per cent of areas with the highest concentration of minority ethnic households (48% and 55%).

The relationship between area type and the likelihood of having friends from a different ethnic group was particularly strong. As we would expect, people living in ethnically mixed urban areas were much more likely than those living in predominantly White areas to have friends from different ethnic groups to them. Thus, among those living in areas classified as 'Prosperous Professionals, Metropolitan Areas' and 'Multi-Ethnic, Low-Income Areas' 72 per cent and 61 per cent of people had friends from different ethnic groups to them, compared with just 19 per cent of people living in areas classified as 'Affluent Greys, Rural Communities'. The variation by minority ethnic density showed the same pattern. People living in areas with the highest concentration of minority ethnic households were four times as likely to have friends from a different ethnic group to them as those living in areas with the lowest concentration of minority ethnic households (66% compared with 16%). (Tables 5.17 to 5.19)

Table 5.17 Whether had friends with different educational qualifications and from different ethnic group, by type of area (ACORN)

<i>Percentages</i>		<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>		
Type of area (ACORN)	Had friends with different educational qualifications to them <i>Respondents</i>		Had friends from a different ethnic group to them <i>Respondents¹</i>	
Wealthy Achievers, Suburban Areas	46	1,463	34	1,610
Affluent Greys, Rural Communities	44	190	19	195
Prosperous Pensioners, Retirement Areas	33	252	28	281
Affluent Executives, Family Areas	48	367	29	413
Well-Off Workers, Family Areas	43	717	32	768
Affluent Urbanites, Town & City Areas	45	200	50	319
Prosperous Professionals, Metropolitan Areas	51	184	72	340
Better-Off Executives, Inner City Areas	48	280	59	624
Comfortable Middle Ageds, Mature Home Owning Areas	40	1,322	29	1,473
Skilled Workers, Home Owning Areas	41	1,149	35	1,340
New Home Owners, Mature Communities	44	759	28	853
White Collar Workers, Better-Off Multi-Ethnic Areas	60	376	54	1,266
Older People, Less Prosperous Areas	39	309	29	372
Council Estate Residents, Better-Off Homes	39	884	37	1,466
Council Estate Residents, High Unemployment	45	245	48	585
Council Estate Residents, Greatest Hardship	42	175	36	256
People in Multi-Ethnic, Low-Income Areas	58	145	61	1,410
All	44	9,027	36	13,591

1 Combined sample.

Table 5.18 *Whether had friends with different educational qualifications and from different ethnic group, by Index of Multiple Deprivation*

<i>Percentages</i>	<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>			
Index of Multiple Deprivation for England ¹	Had friends with different educational qualifications to them		Had friends from a different ethnic group to them	
	<i>Respondents</i>		<i>Respondents²</i>	
Wealthy Achievers, Suburban Areas	46	1,463	34	1,610
1 Least deprived	46	709	38	778
2	42	794	33	877
3	44	621	32	686
4	39	709	36	794
5	41	728	26	906
6	41	827	28	927
7	43	841	35	1,230
8	50	844	42	1,322
9	51	1,178	41	2,089
10 Most deprived	42	1,240	45	3,393
All (including Wales)	44	9,027	36	13,591

1 The Index is not available for Wales.

2 Combined sample.

Table 5.19 Whether had friends with different educational qualifications and from different ethnic group, by percentage of minority ethnic households in area

<i>Percentages</i>		<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>		
Percentage of ethnic minority households in the area (deciles) ¹	Had friends with different educational qualifications to them		Had friends from a different ethnic group to them	
		<i>Respondents</i>		<i>Respondents</i>
1 (Lowest density)	43	635	16	652
2	41	621	23	642
3	41	772	24	785
4	44	1,095	24	1,132
5	40	954	28	972
6	37	1,033	28	1,054
7	44	1,144	36	1,163
8	40	1,415	44	1,447
9	48	1,115	53	1,129
10 (Highest density)	55	4,551	66	4,615
All (Combined sample)	43	13,335	36	13,591

¹ The measure is based on the percentage of households in the postal sector headed by someone from a minority ethnic group, based on 2001 Census.

Region and country

People living in London were the most likely to have friends with different educational qualifications to them, while those living in the North East were the least likely to do so (54% compared with 30%). There was little variation between people living in other regions (39% to 45%). (Figure 5.6; Table 5.20)

On the second measure, the regional variations partly reflected minority ethnic density. Sixty-three per cent of people living in London said they had friends from different ethnic groups to them, compared with 22 per cent and 23 per cent of people living in the North East and South West respectively. Among those living in other areas, the proportion ranged from 25 per cent to 39 per cent.

Figure 5.6 Percentage who had friends from a different ethnic group, by region and country

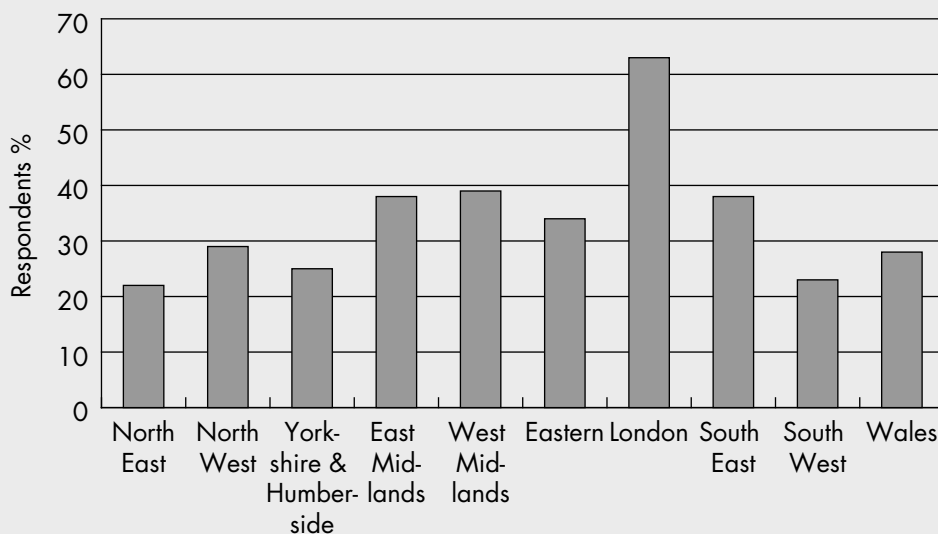


Table 5.20 Whether had friends with different educational qualifications and from different ethnic groups, by Government Office Region and country

Percentages		England & Wales, 2003	
Government Office Region and Country	Had friends with different educational qualifications to them <i>Respondents</i>	Had friends from a different ethnic group to them <i>Respondents¹</i>	
North East	30 451	22 464	
North West	39 1,159	29 1,478	
Yorkshire & Humberside	42 911	25 1,165	
East Midlands	43 763	38 1,116	
West Midlands	45 923	39 1,513	
Eastern	43 962	34 1,121	
London	54 1,046	63 3,618	
South East	45 1,412	38 1,607	
South West	44 864	23 920	
All England	44 8,491	37 13,002	
All Wales	40 536	28 589	
All	44 9,027	36 13,591	

¹ Combined sample.

How does having friends from different backgrounds vary by socio-demographic characteristics?

Age

In terms of having friends with different educational qualifications, the main variation was between people under the age of 65 and those aged 65 or over. Thus, in age-groups under 65, 43 to 50 per cent had friends with different educational qualifications to them compared with just 30 per cent of people aged 65 or over.

The pattern was slightly different for the ethnic diversity of people's friends. The likelihood of people having friends from different ethnic groups to them declined with age. Thus, 54 per cent of people aged 16 to 24 had friends from different ethnic groups to them, compared with just 13 per cent of people aged 75 or over. This could indicate that there is a trend over time for people to have a more ethnically diverse circle of friends or it could mean that people become more restrictive in their choice of friends as they get older. Data from future waves of the Citizenship Survey will allow further analysis of this issue.

Men were a little more likely than women to have friends with different educational qualifications (46% compared with 42%) and to have friends from different ethnic groups (37% compared with 35%). As discussed earlier, men were more likely than women to socialise outside the home and this may contribute to their having a more heterogeneous range of friends. (Table 5.21)

Table 5.21 *Whether had friends with different educational qualifications and from different ethnic groups, by age and sex*

<i>Percentages</i>			<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>	
<i>Age and sex</i>	<i>Had friends with different educational qualifications to them</i>		<i>Had friends from a different ethnic group to them</i>	
	<i>Respondents</i>		<i>Respondents¹</i>	
16 to 24	43	718	54	1,448
25 to 34	48	1,540	47	2,707
35 to 49	50	2,498	41	4,055
50 to 64	45	2,187	28	2,790
65 to 74	32	1,140	17	1,499
75 or over	27	944	13	1,092
Male	46	4,029	37	6,101
Female	42	4,998	35	7,490
All	44	9,027	36	13,591

¹ Combined sample.

Marital status

Single and separated people had the most diverse friendship patterns in terms of both educational and ethnic background. Forty-seven per cent of single and 52 per cent of separated people had friends with different educational qualifications and similar proportions had friends from different ethnic groups (51% and 47%). The divorced also included a relatively high proportion who had friends with different educational qualifications (48%) but they were no more likely than average to have friends from different ethnic groups (38%). These groups may be more inclusive in their choice of friends than people with partners who have perhaps less need to make new friends. Certainly, as discussed earlier, married people had lower rates of social contact than other groups. Widowed people were the least likely to have friends with different educational qualifications and from different ethnic groups (30% and 17%). This is at least partly a reflection of their age – a relatively high proportion of widowed people were aged 65 or over and elderly people were least likely to have friends from different backgrounds. (Table 5.22)

Table 5.22 *Whether had friends with different educational qualifications and from different ethnic groups, by marital status*

<i>Percentages</i>		<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>		
<i>Marital status</i>	<i>Had friends with different educational qualifications to them</i>		<i>Had friends from a different ethnic group to them</i>	
	<i>Respondents</i>		<i>Respondents¹</i>	
Married	44	4,389	31	6,579
Cohabiting	44	734	42	891
Single	47	1,787	51	3,115
Widowed	30	1,006	17	1,274
Divorced	48	814	38	1,078
Separated	52	280	47	634
All	44	9,027	36	13,591

Data for same sex couples is excluded due to small number of respondents. 'All' figures include responses from all respondents.

¹ Combined sample.

Highest educational qualification

There was a positive association between educational attainment and the likelihood of people having friends with different educational qualifications and from different ethnic groups,

although there was not a consistent relationship. People with degree or higher qualifications and those with A' level or equivalent qualifications scored highly on both measures. Thus, about a half of these groups had friends with different educational qualifications (53% and 51%) and similar proportions had friends from different ethnic groups (53% and 46%). The proportion of people who had friends with different educational qualifications was also high among those with higher education qualifications below degree level (49%). (Table 5.23)

Table 5.23 Whether had friends with different educational qualifications and from different ethnic groups by highest qualification level

<i>Percentages</i>		<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>		
Highest qualification level ¹	Had friends with different educational qualifications to them	Had friends from a different ethnic group to them		
	<i>Respondents</i>	<i>Respondents²</i>		
Degree or equivalent	53	1,618	53	2,520
Higher education below degree	49	1,101	38	1,587
GCE A level or equivalent	51	1,014	46	1,715
GCSE Grades A-C or equivalent	40	1,381	34	1,950
GCSE Grades D-E or equivalent	45	401	29	575
Foreign or other qualifications	42	326	37	651
No qualifications	40	1,695	29	2,774
All	44	9,027	36	13,591

1 The qualification figures exclude respondents aged 70 or over. These are included in the figures for all respondents.

2 Combined sample.

Ethnic group

Minority ethnic people were more likely than their White counterparts to have friends with different educational qualifications to them: 64 per cent of Black people said they had friends with different educational qualifications, compared with 42 per cent of White people. The proportions for mixed race, Asian and Chinese people were also higher than for White people (56%, 57% and 53%).

Not surprisingly, the difference between minority ethnic people and White people was even more marked in relation to the measure of the ethnic diversity of their friends. Ninety-one per cent of mixed race people said they had friends from different ethnic groups to them, compared with just 33 per cent of White people. Between these two extremes, the proportions ranged from 66 per cent of Chinese people and 68 per cent of Asian people to 84 per cent of Black people. There were no differences within either the Asian or Black sub-groups. (Table 5.24)

Table 5.24 *Whether had friends with different educational qualifications and from different ethnic groups, by ethnic group*

<i>Percentages</i>		<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>		
<i>Ethnic group</i>	<i>Had friends with different educational qualifications to them</i>		<i>Had friends from a different ethnic group to them</i>	
	<i>Respondents</i>		<i>Respondents</i>	
White	42	8,336	33	8,512
Mixed race	56	321	91	325
All Asian	57	2,546	68	2,574
Indian	58	1,106	69	1,117
Pakistani	56	667	66	678
Bangladeshi	55	414	65	416
Other Asian	53	359	73	363
All Black	64	1,567	84	1,607
Caribbean	64	849	86	880
African	64	650	82	659
Other Black	56	68	89	68
Chinese	53	147	66	148
Any other	59	414	69	421
All (Combined sample)	43	13,331	36	13,587

One obvious explanation for White people being less likely than minority ethnic people to have friends from different ethnic groups is that some live in predominantly White areas, where there are few opportunities to meet people from different ethnic groups. Table 5.25 shows, for those living in areas with the highest concentration of minority ethnic households, the proportion who had friends from different ethnic groups, analysed by ethnic group. This analysis indicates that the low proportion among White people is at least partly attributable to the type of area they live in. Thus, among those living in the most ethnically mixed areas, 63

per cent of White people had friends from different ethnic groups, which was very similar to the proportion among Asian people (65%). The proportions for mixed race, Black and Chinese people were still higher, however (89%, 80% and 85%, respectively). (Table 5.25)

Table 5.25 Percentages of people, living in the 10 per cent of areas with the highest concentration of minority ethnic households, who had friends from different ethnic groups, by ethnic group

<i>Percentages</i>		<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
<i>Ethnic group</i>	<i>Had friends from a different ethnic group to them</i>	
	<i>Respondents</i>	
White	63	532
Mixed race	89	225
All Asian	65	2,120
Indian	67	897
Pakistani	63	558
Bangladeshi	65	387
Other Asian	67	278
All Black	80	1,366
Caribbean	83	761
African	76	547
Other Black	86	58
Chinese	85	76
Any other	68	296
<i>All in the 10 per cent of areas with the highest concentration of minority ethnic households (Combined sample)</i>		66
		4,615

Figure 5.7 shows the percentage of people who had friends from different ethnic groups, analysed by age within ethnic group. It is interesting that the relationship between age and having friends from different ethnic groups is only evident in the White and Asian groups. Among Black people, whether Caribbean or African, there was little variation with age. One possible reason for the difference between Asian and Black people may be patterns of settlement in the UK. Black people have tended to live in ethnically mixed areas and the older age groups have therefore had contact with people from different ethnic groups for a number of years. In contrast, Asian people, particularly Pakistanis and Bangladeshis, have

tended to live in less mixed areas, which usually contain relatively high proportions of people from the same ethnic group as themselves. Asians in the older age groups, many of whom came to the UK as adults, would not have met other ethnic groups through school and this is reflected in the low proportions who had friends from a different ethnic group. In the youngest age group, the proportions of Indians and Bangladeshis who had friends from a different ethnic group was the same as among Black Caribbeans and Africans (83%), and the proportion for Pakistanis was only a little lower (72%). In contrast, only 50 per cent of young White adults had an ethnically diverse group of friends. (Figure 5.7; Table 5.26)

Figure 5.7 *Percentage who had friends from a different ethnic group, by age within ethnic group*

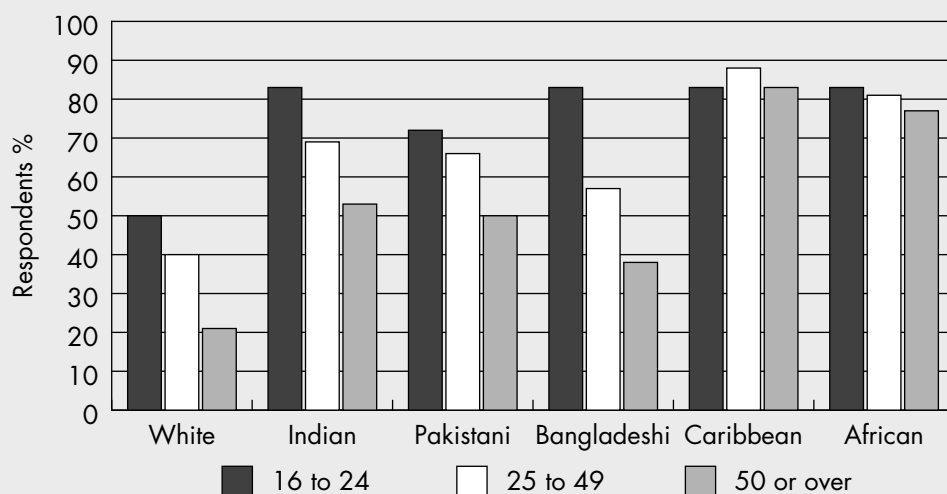


Table 5.26 Whether had friends from different ethnic groups, by age within ethnic group

<i>Percentages</i>		<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>	
<i>Age within ethnic group</i>	<i>Had friends from a different ethnic group to them</i>		
		<i>Respondents</i>	
White			
16 to 24	50	619	
25 to 49	40	3,671	
50 or over	21	4,222	
Indian			
16 to 24	83	168	
25 to 49	69	639	
50 or over	53	310	
Pakistani			
16 to 24	72	143	
25 to 49	66	409	
50 or over	50	126	
Bangladeshi			
16 to 24	83	111	
25 to 49	57	239	
50 or over	38	66	
Caribbean			
16 to 24	83	87	
25 to 49	88	482	
50 or over	83	311	
African			
16 to 24	83	92	
25 to 49	81	472	
50 or over	77	95	
All (Combined sample)	43	13,331	

Conclusion

The previous chapter explored networks within neighbourhoods, this chapter focused on bridging and bonding between friends and neighbours. Developing relationships between people from different backgrounds is central to Home Office community cohesion policy.

Young people, singles, Pakistanis and Bangladeshis, and full-time students reported particularly high interaction with friends and neighbours: going round to their homes or going out socially with them.

Overall, levels of bridging were not high. Fewer than a half of people had friends with different educational qualifications to them and only about one third had friends of a different ethnic background. However, there were marked variations by area. London and areas with the highest concentration of minority ethnic households stand out as having particularly high levels of bridging, using both measures.

Readers interested in social networks might also wish to see the forthcoming Home Office publication of findings from the Citizenship Survey Local Areas Boost.

Whilst social networks are often the least active form of community participation, the next chapter explores more active community participation.

Summary

How many people engaged in civic participation, informal volunteering and formal volunteering in 2003 and how does this compare with 2001?

- In 2003, 38 per cent of people had undertaken one of the specified civic activities in the twelve months prior to interview, but only 3 per cent had done so at least once a month. These proportions have shown no change since 2001. They represent, respectively, about 16.2 and 1.3 million people in England and Wales.
- In 2003, 62 per cent of people had volunteered informally (as individuals) at least once in the twelve months before interview. The proportion who had provided help at least once a month was considerably smaller (37%). In numerical terms, these proportions are equivalent to 26.4 and 15.6 million people in England and Wales.
- Participation in informal volunteering at least once a month rose from 34 per cent in 2001 to 37 per cent in 2003. However, participation at least once in the twelve months before interview fell – from 67 per cent in 2001 to 62 per cent in 2003.
- In 2003, 42 per cent of people had volunteered formally (through groups, clubs or organisations) in the twelve months before interview and 28 per cent had been involved at least once a month, on average. These proportions represent 17.9 and 11.7 million people in England and Wales.
- The proportion who had undertaken formal volunteering in the previous twelve months increased from 39 per cent in 2001 to 42 per cent in 2003 but there was no change in the proportion providing help once a month or more often.
- At the time of interview, 18 per cent of employees worked for employers with schemes for volunteering. Among these employees, 37 per cent had volunteered as part of the scheme in the previous twelve months and 15 per cent had done so at least once a month, on average. In terms of the total population, these figures represent 4 per cent and 1 per cent of all adults (1.5 and 0.6 million people in England and Wales).

Hours spent volunteering and approximate monetary value

- The 26.4 million people who volunteered informally in the twelve months before interview contributed approximately 1.9 billion hours (the equivalent of around 1 million full-time workers) and, at the national average wage, their contribution was worth around £22.6 billion.

- The 17.9 million people who volunteered formally in the twelve months before interview contributed approximately 1.9 billion hours (the equivalent of around 1 million full-time workers) and, at the national average wage, their contribution was worth around £22.5 billion.
- The 1.5 million people who volunteered through an employer-supported scheme in the twelve months before interview contributed approximately 66 million hours (the equivalent of around 36,000 full-time workers), and, at the national average wage their contribution was worth around £0.8 billion.

Who participates?

- As in 2001, there were strong socio-economic and educational differentials in participation in the three types of activities.
- Breaking some of the common misconceptions about active community participation:
 - participation in informal volunteering was higher among people aged under 25 than those aged 35 to 49;
 - young Asians had one of the highest rates of formal volunteering of any group;
 - active community participation is not the preserve of White people – Black Africans were as likely as White people to have volunteered informally and formally, and mixed race people had the highest rate of civic participation;
 - among people born in the UK, Black and Asian people had similar rates of active community participation to White people;
 - people with apparently the least time available tend to be the most active in the community (people with school-age children and those with caring responsibilities), whilst the elderly and unemployed are least active;
 - whilst the high participation rates in prosperous areas like the South East are not unexpected, the lower level of participation in the North East and Yorkshire and Humberside (where levels of community spirit are perceived to be high) are surprising; and
 - Londoners did not report the lowest levels of active community participation, despite the low levels of community spirit discussed in Chapter 4.

This chapter looks at the extent to which people engage with local and national government policies and processes ('Civic participation') and whether they undertake unpaid activities on an informal or formal basis.

Has there been any progress towards meeting the Home Office's Public Service Agreement (PSA) target?

The Government has set the following target for active communities (PSA8) in England²⁷:

'Increase voluntary and community sector activity, including increasing community participation, by 5 per cent by 2006.'

Increasing community participation means increasing the number of people who engaged at least once a month in any of the three constituent activities: civic participation, informal volunteering and formal volunteering. The five per cent target would require an increase of 0.9 million people on the 2001 baseline figure of 18.8 million by 2006.

Table 6.1 shows that this target has been achieved midway through the monitoring period. Between 2001 and 2003, the percentage of people in England who had participated at least once a month in one or more of the three core activities increased from 48 per cent to 51 per cent. In numerical terms, this represents an increase of more than 1.5 million, well in excess of the 0.9 million target for 2006²⁸. The increase was achieved mainly by an increase in the number of informal volunteers, from 13.5 million in 2001 to 14.9 million in 2003.

27 Most of the figures presented in this chapter relate to England and Wales. The PSA target data refer to England only.

28 Grossed figures were based on the most accurate estimates available at the time the report was produced. The 2001 figures were derived from Census-based mid-year estimates of the 2001 population taken from the Office for National Statistics website (www.statistics.gov.uk/census2001/profiles/64.asp#population). These estimates were not available at the time the 2001 Citizenship Report was published, hence the figures for 2001 in Tables 6.1 and 6.2 differ slightly from those presented in the 2001 Report. The 2003 figures were derived from ONS 2002-based projections for 2003 from the Government Actuary's Department (GAD). The figures for 2003 will be revised in 2005 when the more accurate ONS mid-year estimates for 2003 will be available.

Table 6.1 Participation in community and voluntary activities at least once a month in 12 months before interview: 2001 and 2003

<i>England, 2001 & 2003</i>					
Type of activity	2001	2003	2001	2003	Change 2001 to 2003
	<i>Percentages who had participated at least once a month</i>		<i>Equivalent number of people (000s)</i>		<i>Percentage change</i>
Civic participation	3	3	1,343	1,195	-11
Informal volunteering	34	37	13,507	14,855	10
Formal volunteering	27	28	10,545	11,124	5
All activities	48	51	18,759	20,366	9
<i>All respondents</i>	<i>9,430</i>	<i>8,904</i>			
<i>Population base¹</i>	<i>39,493</i>	<i>39,493</i>	<i>39,984</i>		

Note that the figures in Table 6.1 refer to England; those in Table 6.6 refer to England and Wales.

¹ The 2001 population base was taken from mid-year population estimates for 2001 from the Office for National Statistics (ONS). The 2003 population base was taken from 2002-based projections for 2003 from the Government Actuary Department (GAD).

How many people engaged in civic participation, informal volunteering and formal volunteering in 2003 and how does this compare with 2001?

This section describes overall levels of civic participation, informal and formal volunteering in England and Wales in 2003 and examines whether there have been any changes since the 2001 survey.

Civic participation

'Civic participation' is defined as engaging in one of the following activities:

- contacting a local councillor;
- contacting a Member of Parliament;
- contacting a public official working for a local council;
- contacting a public official working for part of central government;
- contacting a public official working for the Greater London Assembly or National Assembly for Wales;
- contacting a member of the Greater London Assembly or National Assembly for Wales;

- attending a public meeting or rally;
- taking part in a public demonstration or protest; and
- signing a petition.

In 2003, 38 per cent of people had undertaken one of the specified activities in the twelve months prior to interview but only 3 per cent had done so at least once a month²⁹. These proportions have shown no change since 2001. They represent, respectively, about 16.2 and 1.3 million people in England and Wales. (Figure 6.1; Table 6.2)

Sixty-eight per cent of people who had engaged in one or more of the specified activities in the previous twelve months had signed a petition. This is the activity which involves the least effort and might be considered as a minimal level of civic participation. A half of this group had only signed a petition while the others reported other activities as well. If those who had only signed a petition are excluded, the proportion who had engaged in civic activities in the previous twelve months is 24 per cent.

Twenty-seven per cent of participants had contacted a local councillor and a similar proportion (26%) had contacted a public official working for the council³⁰. Twenty per cent had attended a public meeting or rally and 10 per cent had taken part in a demonstration or protest. This last proportion more than doubled between 2001 and 2003, rising from 4 per cent to 10 per cent over the period. Likewise, the percentage who had signed a petition rose from 58 per cent to 68 per cent over the same period. Much of this increase is likely to be attributable to the public protests against the war with Iraq. (Table 6.3)

Informal volunteering

'Informal volunteering' is defined as giving unpaid help as an individual to people who are not relatives³¹. In 2003, 62 per cent of people had volunteered informally at least once in the twelve months before interview. The proportion who had provided help at least once a month was considerably smaller at 37 per cent. In numerical terms, these proportions are equivalent to 26.4 and 15.6 million people in England and Wales. Participation rates overall have fallen since 2001 when 67 per cent of people had engaged in informal

²⁹ Respondents were asked to give an average frequency over the last 12 months.

³⁰ In 2003 respondents were specifically asked to exclude contacts relating to personal issues such as council house repairs. In 2001, the interviewers were told to exclude such contacts if respondents mentioned them but this would not have identified all such cases. Hence the proportion reporting contacts with council officials in 2001 was considerably higher than in 2003 (38 and 26%).

³¹ The Institute for Volunteering Research defined volunteering as 'any activity which involves spending time unpaid, doing something which aims to benefit someone (individuals or groups) other than or in addition to close relatives, or to benefit the environment'. Davies Smith, J., (1998) *The 1997 Survey of Volunteering*, (National Centre for Volunteering, London, pp13-14).

volunteering in the previous twelve months. However, monthly participation showed the opposite trend, rising from 34 per cent in 2001 to 37 per cent in 2003. The reason for these different patterns is unclear. It may be simply that levels of participation in informal volunteering tend to be volatile. Data for future years will be needed to determine whether this is the case or whether there is a long-term trend towards more frequent activity among those involved. (Figure 6.1; Table 6.2)

Volunteers make a considerable input to the economy. People who had volunteered informally at least once in the previous twelve months had spent, on average, 5.4 hours on such activity in the previous four weeks. Assuming an even contribution throughout the year, this figure would represent about 71 hours per volunteer per year (the equivalent of two working weeks of 35 hours). In total, then, the 26.4 million people who volunteered informally in the twelve months before interview contributed approximately 1.9 billion hours (the equivalent of around 1 million full-time workers) and, at the national average wage, their contribution was worth around £22.6 billion³². The average time spent in 2003, 5.4 hours, was greater than that in 2001, 4.8 hours, reflecting the increase in informal volunteers helping on a monthly basis.

The most common forms of help provided by people who had volunteered informally were:

- giving advice (44%); and
- looking after a property or pet whilst someone was away (38%).

Other activities, mentioned by more than a fifth of people, included:

- providing transport or accompanying someone, for example, to hospital (31%);
- babysitting or caring for children (28%);
- keeping in touch with someone who had difficulty getting about (24%);
- doing shopping, collecting pensions or paying bills (22%); and
- writing letters or filling in forms (22%).

These were also the most commonly cited activities in 2001. (Table 6.4)

Formal volunteering

'Formal volunteering' is defined as giving unpaid help through groups, clubs or organisations to benefit other people or the environment (for example, the protection of wildlife or the

³² The calculation of full-time weeks assumes 52 weeks at 35 hours per week; the calculation of the monetary equivalent assumes national average hourly earnings of £12.10. This applies to all such calculations.

improvement of public open spaces). In 2003, 42 per cent of people had given such help on one or more occasion in the twelve months before interview. As is to be expected, among those who participate, formal volunteering tends to be undertaken on a more regular basis than informal activity. Thus, 66 per cent of all those who had undertaken formal volunteering in the previous twelve months (28% of all respondents) had been involved at least once a month, on average. These proportions represent 17.9 and 11.7 million people in England and Wales.

Similarly, in terms of hours spent, formal volunteering tended to involve a greater commitment than informal volunteering. People who had volunteered formally at least once in the previous twelve months had spent, on average, 8.0 hours on such activity in the previous four weeks. Assuming an even contribution throughout the year, this figure would represent about 104 hours per volunteer per year (the equivalent of around three working weeks of 35 hours). The 17.9 million people who volunteered formally in the twelve months before interview contributed approximately 1.9 billion hours (the equivalent of around 1 million full-time workers) and, at the national average wage, their contribution was worth around £22.5 billion.

The total time spent by all formal volunteers (1.9 billion hours in a year) was the same as the time spent by informal volunteers. Although the latter tended to spend fewer hours per volunteer, more people were involved.

The proportion who had undertaken formal volunteering in the previous twelve months increased from 39 per cent in 2001 to 42 per cent in 2003 but there was no change in the proportion providing help once a month or more often, or in the average time spent by all participants. (Figure 6.1; Table 6.2)

Figure 6.1 Participation in community and voluntary activities in 12 months before interview: 2001 and 2003

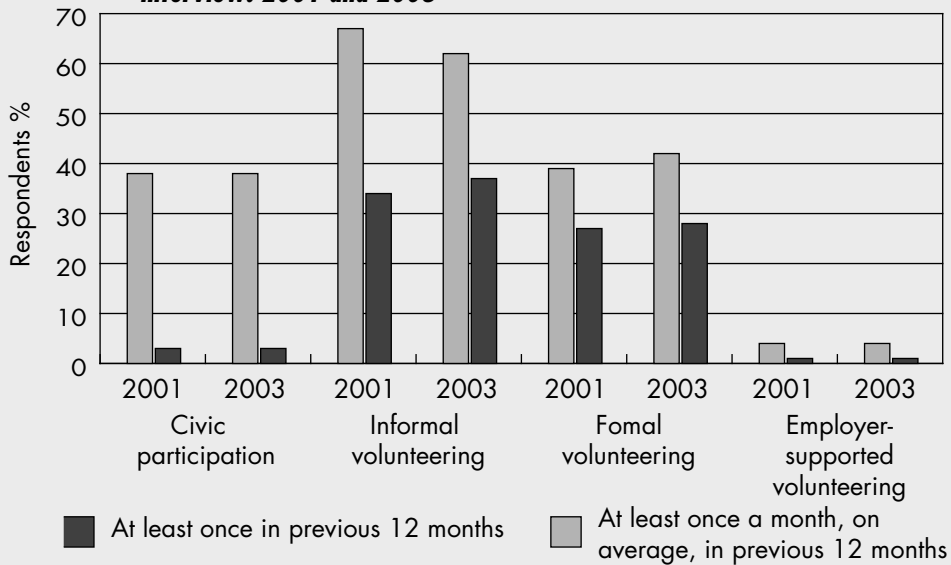


Table 6.5 shows the types of help that formal volunteers had provided in the previous twelve months. The most common activities in 2003, as in 2001, were:

- raising or handling money or taking part in sponsored events (53%); and
- organising or helping to run an activity or event (49%).

Other commonly reported activities included:

- leading a group or being a member of a committee (29%);
- providing transport or driving (23%);
- giving advice or information or counselling (23%); and
- visiting people (20%). (Table 6.5)

Employer-supported volunteering and giving

Some employers support schemes to enable their employees to help with community projects or to assist voluntary and community organisations. The schemes may involve employees providing practical help to these groups ('volunteering') or donating money ('giving'). Employer-supported volunteering is a type of formal volunteering.

At the time of interview, 18 per cent of employees worked for employers who had schemes for volunteering. Among these employees, 37 per cent had volunteered as part of the scheme in the previous twelve months and 15 per cent had done so at least once a month, on average. In terms of the total population, these figures represent 4 per cent and 1 per cent of all adults (1.5 and 0.6 million people in England and Wales).

People who had volunteered through an employer-supported scheme at least once in the previous twelve months had spent, on average, 3.4 hours on such activity in the previous four weeks. Assuming an even contribution throughout the year, this figure would represent about 44.1 hours per volunteer per year (the equivalent of 1.3 working weeks of 35 hours). The 1.5 million people who volunteered through an employer-supported scheme in the twelve months before interview contributed approximately 66 million hours (the equivalent of around 36,000 full-time workers) and, at the national average wage, their contribution was worth around £0.8 billion.

Employer-supported schemes for giving money were more common than volunteering schemes – 27 per cent of employees worked for employers with such schemes in 2003 and 46 per cent of these had contributed in the previous twelve months. This is equivalent to about 2.7 million people in England and Wales, a similar figure to 2001. (Tables 6.2, 6.6)

Table 6.2 Participation in community and voluntary activities in 12 months before interview: 2001 and 2003*England & Wales, 2001 & 2003*

Type of activity	At least once in previous 12 months		At least once a month, on average, in previous 12 months	
	2001	2003	2001	2003
	<i>Percentages who had engaged in activity</i>			
Civic participation	38	38	3	3
Informal volunteering	67	62	34	37
Formal volunteering	39	42	27	28
Employer-supported volunteering	4	4	1	1
<i>All respondents</i>	10,003	9,483	10,003	9,458
	<i>Equivalent number of people (000s)</i>			
Civic participation	15,889	16,184	1,254	1,251
Informal volunteering	28,016	26,399	14,217	15,605
Formal volunteering	16,308	17,897	11,290	11,705
Employer-supported volunteering	1,673	1,502	418	584
<i>Population base¹</i>	41,815	42,333	41,815	42,333
	<i>Average hours spent on activity in last 4 weeks²</i>			
Informal volunteering	4.8	5.4	7.3	7.8
Formal volunteering	8.1	8.0	11.0	11.3
Employer-supported volunteering	5.2	3.4	10.6	5.7
<i>Informal volunteers</i>	6,491	5,906	3,352	3,563
<i>Formal volunteers</i>	3,793	3,985	2,619	2,645
<i>Employer-supported volunteers</i>	331	299	129	109

1 The 2001 population base was taken from mid-year population estimates for 2001 from the Office for National Statistics (ONS). The 2003 population base was taken from 2002-based projections for 2003 from the Government Acutary Department (GAD).

2 Includes volunteers spending no hours in last 4 weeks.

Table 6.3 *Types of civic activities undertaken in 12 months before interview**England & Wales, 2003*

	<i>Percentages¹</i>
Signing a petition	68
Contacting a local councillor	27
Contacting a public official working for a local council	26
Attending a public meeting or rally	20
Contacting an MP	14
Taking part in a public demonstration or protest	10
Contacting a government official	7
<i>Respondents who had taken part in any civic activity in the previous 12 months</i>	<i>3,742</i>

¹ Percentages sum to more than 100 because respondents could report more than one activity.

Table 6.4 *Types of informal voluntary activities undertaken in the 12 months before interview**England & Wales, 2003*

	<i>Percentages¹</i>
Giving advice	44
Looking after a property or pet whilst someone was away	38
Transporting or escorting someone	31
Babysitting or caring for children	28
Keeping in touch with someone who has difficulty getting out	24
Doing shopping, collecting pensions or paying bills	22
Writing letters or filling in forms	22
Cooking, cleaning, laundry, gardening or other routine household jobs	18
Decorating, or doing any kind of home or car repairs	16
Representing someone	6
Sitting with or providing personal care	5
Any other activities	7
<i>Respondents who had taken part in any informal voluntary activity in the previous 12 months</i>	<i>5,945</i>

¹ Percentages sum to more than 100 because respondents could report more than one activity.

Table 6.5 *Types of formal voluntary activities undertaken in the 12 months before interview*

England & Wales, 2003

	Percentages ¹
Raising or handling money/taking part in sponsored events	53
Organising or helping to run an activity or event	49
Leading a group/being a member of a committee	29
Providing transport/driving	23
Giving advice/information/counselling	23
Visiting people	20
Secretarial, administrative or clerical work	18
Befriending or mentoring people	14
Representing	12
Campaigning	8
Other practical help	28
Any other help	9
<i>Respondents who had taken part in any formal voluntary activity in the previous 12 months</i>	<i>3,994</i>

¹ Percentages sum to more than 100 because respondents could report more than one activity.

Table 6.6 *Participation in employer-supported schemes for volunteering and giving in the 12 months before interview*

Percentages

England & Wales, 2001 & 2003

	2001	2003
Whether employer had a scheme for:		
volunteering ¹	18	18
giving ¹	25	27
neither	52	57
Don't know	6	13
<i>Employees</i>	<i>5,386</i>	<i>4,535</i>
		128
Whether took part in scheme in 12 months before interview:		
Volunteering	39	37
<i>Employees with schemes for volunteering</i>	<i>855</i>	<i>795</i>
Giving	52	46
<i>Employees with schemes for giving</i>	<i>1,198</i>	<i>1,207</i>

¹ Includes respondents who had schemes for both volunteering and giving.

Civic participation

As discussed above, 38 per cent of people had undertaken one of the specified civic activities in the twelve months prior to interview. This section looks at the characteristics associated with participation.

Which groups are most likely to engage in civic participation?

Characteristics associated with people most likely to have participated in civic activities in the twelve months before interview included:

- living in areas classified as 'Affluent Greys, Rural Communities';
- living in the South East (outside London) or South West;
- aged 35 to 64;
- youngest child aged five to fifteen;
- looked after a sick, disabled or elderly person;
- were of White, mixed or Bangladeshi ethnic origin;
- were born in the UK;
- actively practised a religion;
- were in a managerial or professional socio-economic group;
- had qualifications at degree level or above;
- had favourable views about their neighbourhood.

How does people's civic participation vary by the area in which they live?

Type of Area (ACORN)

The highest rates of civic participation were found in areas classified as 'Affluent Greys, Rural Communities.' Fifty-one per cent of the residents of such areas had undertaken one or more of the specified activities in the twelve months before interview. Participation rates were also high among people living in 'Better-Off Executives, Inner City Areas' and 'Wealthy Achievers, Suburban Areas,' (45% for both). In the poorest areas, 'Multi-Ethnic Low-Income Areas' and 'Older People, Less Prosperous Areas,' only 28 per cent to 29 per cent of residents had engaged in civic activities in the previous twelve months. (Table 6.7)

Minority ethnic density³³ and index of deprivation

The pattern of variation with the minority ethnic density of the area was not consistent. However, the civic participation rate was particularly low (32%) among those living in areas with the highest concentration, 10 per cent or more, of minority ethnic households. Associated with this, the participation rate was lowest in the 10 per cent most deprived areas of England (also 32%). (Tables 6.8, 6.9)

Region and country

In terms of geographical variation, there tended to be a north-south divide. Among people living in the South West and the South East (outside London) over 40 per cent had engaged in civic activities in the previous twelve months compared with 32 per cent of those in the North East and Yorkshire and Humberside. The latter areas also recorded low rates of civic activity in 2001 while the South East again had one of the highest rates, suggesting that these are not random fluctuations. (Table 6.10)

How does people's civic participation vary by their socio-demographic characteristics?

Age and sex

Participation in civic activities was highest in the middle age groups (aged 35 to 64) of whom 43 per cent had undertaken one or more activity in the previous twelve months. In the youngest and oldest age groups (16 to 24 and 75 or over) participation fell to 30 per cent. There were no differences in civic participation between men and women. (Table 6.11)

Caring responsibilities

Domestic commitments do not appear to prevent people from engaging in civic activities – the reverse seems to be the case. Those with children aged 5 to 15 were more likely than people with no children to have participated in the previous twelve months (43% compared with 37%). Although this variation is partly reflecting the age differences discussed above, both the respondent's age and the age of the youngest child were independently associated with civic participation. Likewise, people who were looking after a sick, disabled or elderly person were more likely than those without such responsibilities to have engaged in civic participation (43% compared with 37%). (Table 6.12)

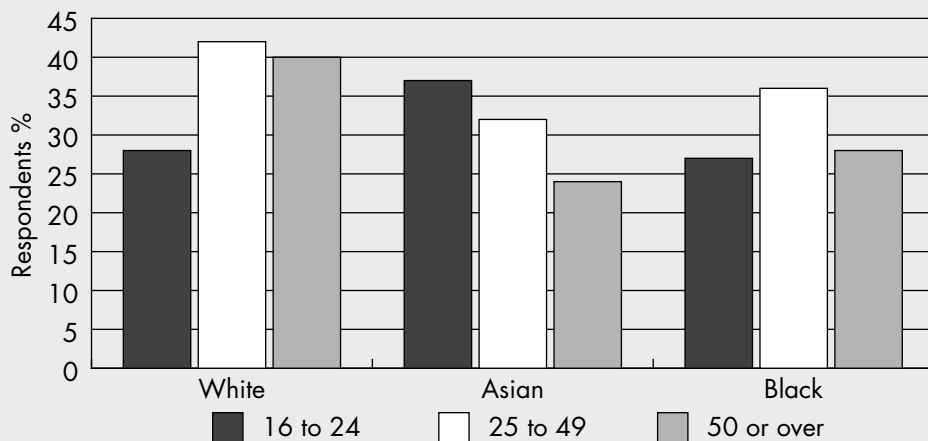
33 This measure is based on the percentage of households in the postal sector headed by someone from a minority ethnic group, based on the 2001 Census.

Ethnic group

There were marked variations in civic participation between different ethnic groups. The highest rates were reported by those of mixed race (42%), followed by White and Bangladeshi groups (39% for both). In the other main Asian and Black groups, participation rates ranged from 29 per cent to 34 per cent. People of Chinese origin had the lowest rate (24%). The civic participation rate of Bangladeshi people in 2001 was also higher than in other Asian groups and Asian people as a whole were the only ethnic group to record a statistically significant increase in activity over the period (28% in 2001 compared with 32% in 2003). (Table 6.13)

One possible reason for the relatively low civic participation rates among Indian and Pakistani people is that they are younger, on average, than the White group and, as discussed earlier, young people were least likely to have been involved in such activities. Figure 6.2 shows the proportions who had engaged in one or more of the specified activities in the previous twelve months analysed by both age and ethnic group. As would be expected, among White people, participation rates followed the age pattern for the population as a whole with 16 to 24 year olds having the lowest rate (28%). Among Asians, however, those aged 16 to 24 had the highest rate (37% overall) and this was true for each of the three main Asian subgroups (Table not shown). Hence, low overall participation among those of Indian and Pakistani origin is not attributable to their younger age profile. The high participation rate of young Asians was particularly marked among those of Bangladeshi origin: 46 per cent of 16 to 24 year olds and 48 per cent of 25 to 34 year olds had engaged in civic activities in the previous twelve months. This, together with their young age profile, accounts for the relatively high level of civic activity among Bangladeshis as a whole. (Figure 6.2; Table 6.14)

Figure 6.2 Civic participation in 12 months before interview, by age within ethnic group

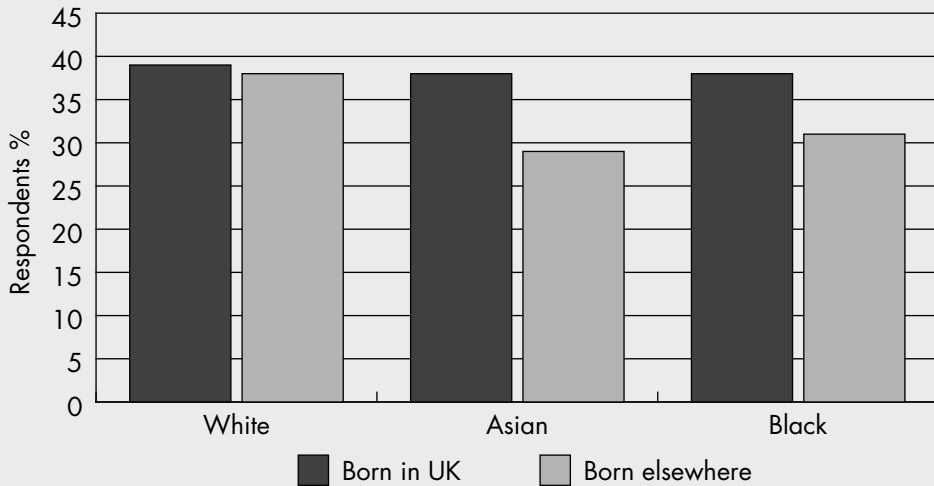


While, overall, there were no differences in the civic participation rates of men and women, there were variations within the Asian ethnic group. Asian women had a very low rate of involvement (26% compared with 37% among Asian men). The same pattern was observed in 2001. (Table 6.15)

Country of birth

Among both Asian and Black ethnic groups, people born outside the UK were less likely to have been involved in civic participation than their UK-born counterparts. However, among those born in the UK, participation rates were similar to those of White UK-born people. (Figure 6.3; Table 6.16)

Figure 6.3 Civic participation in 12 months before interview, by whether born in UK within ethnic group



Religious practice

White people who currently practised a religion were much more likely than other White people to have engaged in the specified activities in the previous twelve months (49% compared with 36%). However, there was no such variation within the Asian and Black groups. (Table 6.17)

Socio-economic classification and educational attainment

It was noted earlier that involvement in civic participation was associated with living in an affluent area. Further indications of this relationship are observed in the socio-economic

variations. Thus the proportion who had participated in the previous twelve months declined from around 47 per cent among those in professional and managerial groups to 30 per cent among those in routine occupations and to 21 per cent among those who had never worked or were long-term unemployed. (Tables 6.18, 6.19)

Variations in civic participation according to highest qualification level showed the same pattern as the socio-economic variations. The proportions who had engaged in one or more of the specified activities in the previous twelve months fell from 49 per cent among those with a degree to 29 per cent among those with no qualifications. Among those with qualifications below degree level, the proportions ranged from 35 per cent to 42 per cent. (Table 6.20)

How does people's civic participation vary by their attitudes to their neighbourhood?

Chapter 4 discussed people's views about their area and the extent to which they identified with their neighbourhood. We would expect people living in areas with strong community spirit to be positively disposed towards engaging with issues of public concern and the 2001 Citizenship Survey showed this to be case. This section examines the relationship in 2003.

As anticipated, people who held favourable views about their neighbourhood were more likely than those with negative views to have engaged in civic participation in the twelve months before interview. For example, the proportion who had participated in one or more activity in the previous twelve months decreased from 43 per cent among those saying that they definitely agreed that people pulled together to improve the neighbourhood to 37 per cent among those saying that they definitely disagreed. Likewise, among those feeling that many people in the neighbourhood could be trusted, 42 per cent had participated in civic activities in the previous twelve months compared with 27 per cent among those considering that none could be trusted. It is interesting to note that while civic participation had a strong positive association with people's sense of belonging to their neighbourhood, it was not related to their sense of belonging to the nation (table not shown). (Tables 6.21 to 6.25)

Informal volunteering

Sixty-two per cent of people had volunteered informally at least once in the twelve months before interview, that is, they had provided unpaid help, on an individual basis, to someone who was not a relative. This section examines the characteristics associated with informal volunteering.

Which groups are most likely to undertake informal volunteering?

Characteristics of people most likely to have participated in informal volunteering in the twelve months before interview included:

- living in areas classified as 'Affluent Urbanites in Town and City Areas';
- living in the South West;
- aged under 50;
- youngest child aged under 10;
- White or Black African ethnic origin;
- born in the UK;
- actively practised a religion;
- in a managerial or professional socio-economic group;
- had qualifications at degree level or above;
- had favourable views about their neighbourhood.

How does people's participation in informal volunteering vary by the area in which they live?

Type of area (ACORN)

The prevalence of informal volunteering, like civic participation, varied according to the type of area and region in which people lived. Among people in areas classified as 'Affluent Urbanites in Town and City Centres', 70 per cent had volunteered informally in the previous twelve months. In contrast, only 45 per cent of those in 'Multi-Ethnic Low Income' areas and 50 per cent to 57 per cent of those living in the various types of 'Council Estate' areas had provided such help. (Table 6.7)

Index of deprivation

The proportion who had volunteered informally in the twelve months before interview tended to fall as the level of deprivation in the area increased. Thus, in the 10 per cent least deprived areas of England, the proportion who had volunteered informally was 72 per cent. In the 10 per cent most deprived areas, it was 54 per cent. (Table 6.9)

Region and country

There was also a marked regional variation: only 54 per cent of people in Wales had engaged in informal volunteering in the previous twelve months compared with 71 per cent

of those in the South West. There is some fluctuation in the regional trend data but Yorkshire and Humberside recorded relatively low proportions of informal volunteers in both 2001 and 2003 while the South East (outside London) recorded relatively high proportions. (Table 6.10)

How does people's participation in informal volunteering vary by their socio-demographic characteristics?

Age and sex

Rates of informal volunteering in age groups under 50 were similar: 66 per cent to 69 per cent of people had volunteered informally in the twelve months before interview. Participation then declined with age to 59 per cent among those aged 50 to 74 and to 44 per cent among those aged 75 or over. As with civic participation, there were no differences between men and women. The same age and sex variations were recorded in 2001. (Table 6.11)

Caring responsibilities

Also following the pattern for civic participation, the proportions who had volunteered were higher among those with young children and carers than among those without such responsibilities. (Table 6.12)

Ethnic group

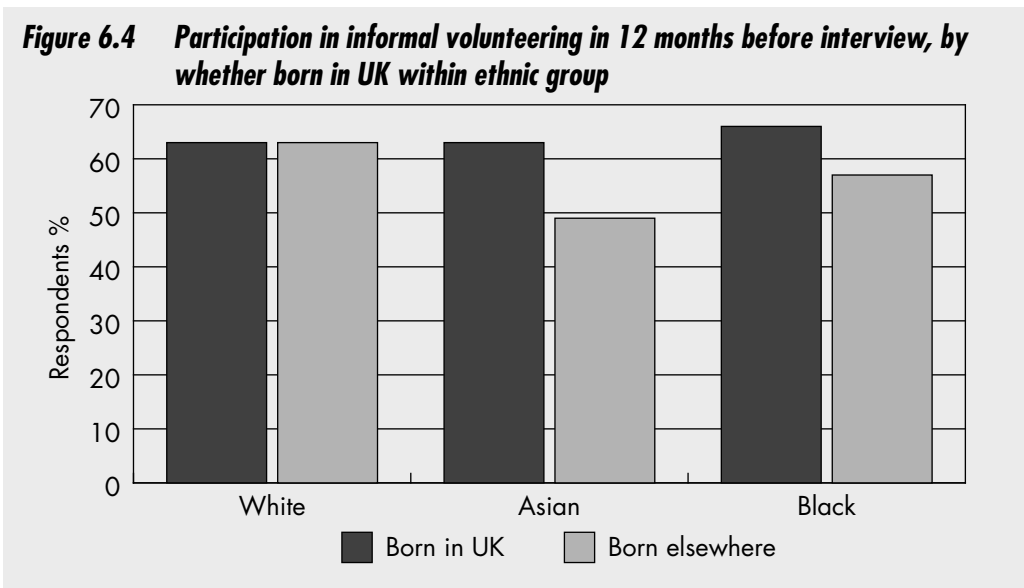
White and Black African people were more likely than Asian people to have volunteered informally in the twelve months before interview (63% and 62% compared with 54%). However, there was considerable variation within the Asian group: about 48 per cent of Pakistanis and Bangladeshis had volunteered compared with 57 per cent of Indians. This is a different pattern to ethnic variations in civic participation where Bangladeshi people reported relatively high rates of involvement. The Chinese, on the other hand, had low rates for both – only 47 per cent had engaged in informal volunteering in the previous twelve months.

It was noted earlier that participation in informal volunteering at least once in the twelve months prior to interview in England and Wales had fallen from 67 per cent in 2001 to 62 per cent in 2003. Within ethnic groups there were steeper decreases over this period among Pakistani (56% down to 47%), Black Caribbean (65% to 57%) and Black African people (70% to 62%). These decreases do not, however, account for the overall decline. (Table 6.13)

Age and sex variations within ethnic group generally followed the overall pattern with one exception: Asian men were more likely than Asian women to have volunteered informally (57% compared with 50%). The same was also true for civic participation. These variations reflect the traditional family roles of many Muslim women. (Tables 6.14, 6.15)

Country of birth

Among both Asian and Black groups, people born in the UK were much more likely than those born elsewhere to have volunteered informally in the previous twelve months. Indeed, the participation rates for UK-born Asian and Black people were not significantly different from those of White people. (Figure 6.4; Table 6.16)



Religious practice

Overall, people who actively practised a religion were more likely than others to have participated in informal volunteering in the previous twelve months (68% compared with 61%). This was true for White and, particularly, Black people but not for Asians where there was no significant difference. (Table 6.17)

Socio-economic classification and educational attainment

Informal volunteering showed consistent patterns of variation with socio-economic group and educational attainment. Thus, the proportion who had volunteered in the twelve months before interview was around 70 per cent of those in the managerial and professional groups, 52 per cent among those in routine occupations and 42 per cent among people who had never worked or were long-term unemployed. Likewise, with qualification level, 73 per cent of those with qualifications at degree level or above had volunteered in the twelve months before interview, compared with 49 per cent among those with no qualifications. (Tables 6.18 to 6.20)

How does people's participation in informal volunteering vary by their attitudes to the neighbourhood?

As with civic participation, people who held favourable views about their neighbourhood were more inclined to provide unpaid help to others. For example, among those who enjoyed living in their neighbourhood, 63 per cent had undertaken informal volunteering in the previous twelve months compared with 58 per cent among those who did not enjoy living there. This pattern was replicated for other measures such as whether respondents thought people pulled together to improve the neighbourhood, whether they trusted neighbours and whether people felt safe walking alone after dark. (Tables 6.21 to 6.25)

Formal volunteering

As noted earlier, 42 per cent of people had been involved in formal volunteering at least once in the twelve months before interview, that is, they had provided unpaid help as part of groups, clubs or organisations. This section examines the characteristics associated with formal volunteering.

Which groups are most likely to undertake formal volunteering?

Characteristics associated with people most likely to have participated in formal volunteering in the twelve months before interview included:

- living in areas classified as 'Affluent Greys, Rural Communities';
- living in the South East (outside London) or South West;
- aged 35 to 49;
- had a youngest child aged five to nine;

- looking after a sick, disabled or elderly person;
- White or Black African ethnic origin;
- born in the UK;
- actively practised a religion;
- in a managerial or professional socio-economic group;
- had qualifications at degree level or above;
- had favourable views about their neighbourhood.

How does people's participation in formal volunteering vary by the area in which they live?

Type of area (ACORN)

Formal volunteering showed the same pattern of variation with area type as civic participation but the gap between the area with the most participants and that with the least was even greater. Thus, in areas classified as 'Affluent Greys, Rural Communities,' 62 per cent of people had provided unpaid help as part of a group in the previous twelve months. This was more than twice the proportions in areas classified as 'Multi-Ethnic Low-Income Areas' (28%) and 'Council Estates, High Unemployment' (27%). (Table 6.7)

Minority ethnic density and index of deprivation

There was a similar variation with the minority ethnic density of the area: in the areas with the lowest 10 per cent of minority ethnic households, 50 per cent of people had volunteered formally in the previous twelve months; in the areas with the highest 10 per cent, the proportion was 34 per cent. Likewise, in the 10 per cent least deprived areas of England, 52 per cent of people had volunteered formally in the previous twelve months compared with 31 per cent in the 10 per cent most deprived areas. (Tables 6.8, 6.9)

Region and country

Regional variations in formal volunteering were quite marked. As with civic participation and informal volunteering, the highest participation rates were found in the South East (49%) and South West (51%) and the lowest in the North East (33%) and Yorkshire and Humberside (36%). The same pattern occurred in 2001. (Table 6.10)

How does people's participation in formal volunteering vary by their socio-demographic characteristics?

Age and sex

Participation in formal volunteering increased with age from 41 per cent of 16 to 24 year olds to a peak of 49 per cent among 25 to 34 year olds. The proportion then declined steeply to a low of 27 per cent among people aged 75 or over. As with civic participation and informal volunteering there were no statistically significant differences in formal volunteering between men and women. (Table 6.11)

Caring responsibilities

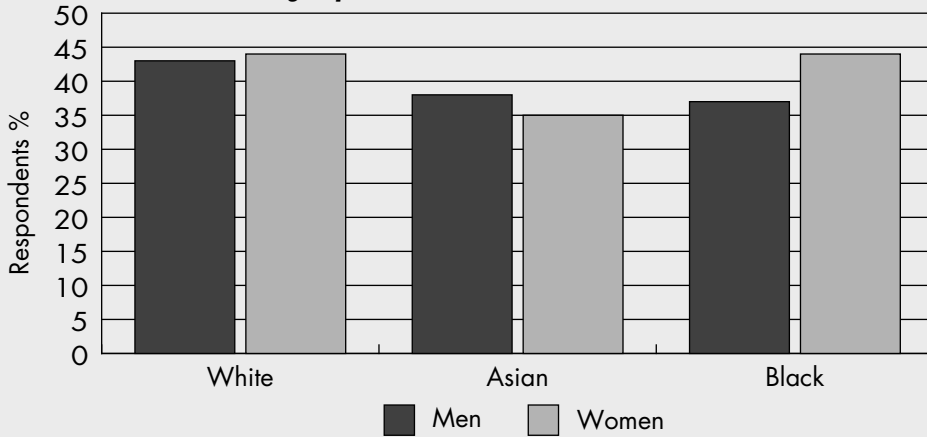
Again, the highest proportions of volunteers were found among people with caring responsibilities: 58 per cent of those with a child aged five to nine had volunteered formally in the twelve months before interview compared with 39 per cent of those with no children. Likewise, among carers, the proportion who had volunteered was 46 per cent compared with 41 per cent among other people. (Table 6.12)

Ethnic group

Ethnic variations in formal volunteering showed exactly the same pattern as those for informal volunteering. Rates were higher among White and Black African people (43% for both) than among Asians (37%) and, within the Asian group, rates were lower among Pakistanis and Bangladeshis (31% and 30%) than among Indians (41%). Again, Chinese people recorded a particularly low rate of formal volunteering (27%). (Table 6.13)

Among Asian and Black ethnic groups, the age and sex variations in formal volunteering showed a different pattern to that of White people. Among Asians, participation declined with age – the same as for informal volunteering and civic participation. As with White people, however, there were no statistically significant differences between the participation rates of Asian men and women. For Black people there was no age variation but women were more likely to have undertaken formal volunteering than men (44% compared with 37%). The relatively high rate of formal volunteering among Black women was evident in both the 2001 and 2003 surveys. In 2003 Black women had the same participation rate as White women while, in 2001, they had the highest rate of all. (Figure 6.5; Tables 6.14, 6.15)

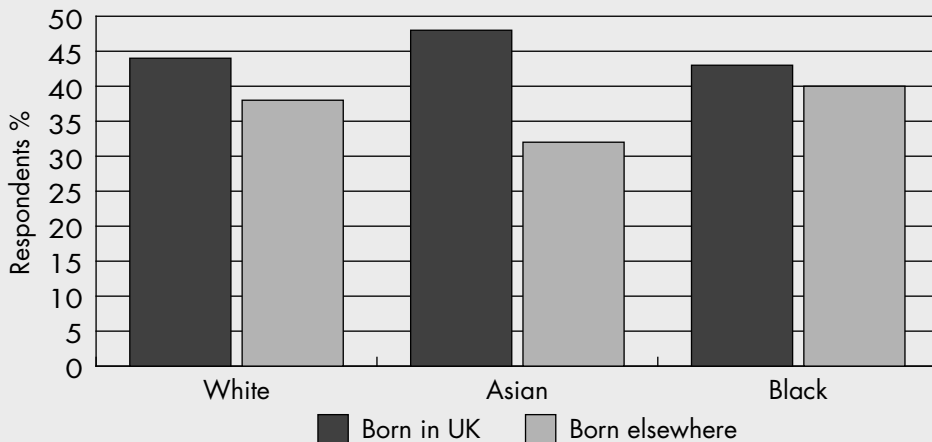
Figure 6.5 *Participation in formal volunteering in 12 months before interview, by sex within ethnic group*



Country of birth

Asian people born in the UK were much more likely to have volunteered formally than their non-UK-born counterparts. The proportion who had volunteered in the previous twelve months (48%) was the highest of any group although the difference between them and White people born in the UK (44%) was not quite statistically significant. Among Black people, there was no difference in the participation rates of those born in the UK and those born outside. (Figure 6.6; Table 6.16)

Figure 6.6 *Participation in formal volunteering in 12 months before interview, by whether born in UK within ethnic group*



Religious practice

Formal volunteering includes the provision of unpaid help as part of a religious group. Hence there was a close relationship between formally volunteering and religious practice. Overall, 57 per cent of those who actively practised a religion had undertaken formal volunteering in the twelve months before interview compared with 38 per cent of others. This strong association was observed among both White people (61% compared with 38%) and Black people (48% compared with 29%) while, among Asian people, the difference followed the same pattern but was not statistically significant. Further investigation showed that, within the Asian group, it was only those of Pakistani origin for whom there was no association between formal volunteering and religious practice; all the other Asian subgroups showed the overall pattern of positive association, as did both African and Caribbean people within the Black group (table not shown). (Table 6.17)

Socio-economic classification and educational attainment

Variations in formal volunteering by socio-economic group and educational attainment showed the same pattern as those for civic participation and informal volunteering. Among those in the higher managerial and professional group, 58 per cent had volunteered formally in the previous twelve months compared with 24 per cent of those in routine occupations and 26 per cent of those who had never worked or were long-term unemployed. The variation with highest qualification level showed a parallel decline, the proportion who had volunteered falling from 60 per cent of those with a degree or equivalent to 24 per cent among those with no qualifications. (Tables 6.18 to 6.20)

How does people's participation in formal volunteering vary by their attitudes to the neighbourhood?

Involvement in formal volunteering showed a stronger relationship with people's views about their neighbourhood than did civic participation and informal volunteering. Among people saying that they definitely enjoyed living in the neighbourhood, 45 per cent had volunteered formally in the previous twelve months compared with only 30 per cent of those who did not enjoy living there. Likewise, among those who felt that many people in the neighbourhood could be trusted, 49 per cent had volunteered formally compared with 27 per cent of those who believed that none could be trusted. This pattern was repeated with all the attitude measures – sense of belonging, safety and community spirit. (Tables 6.21 to 6.25)

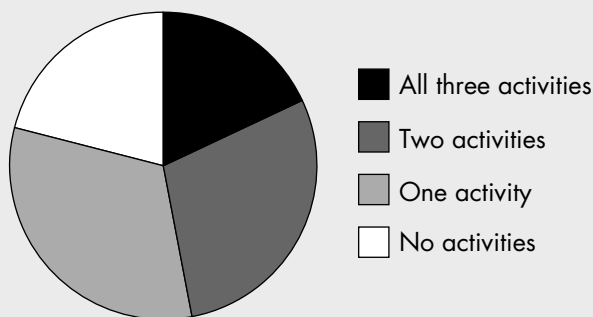
How do people find out about opportunities for formal volunteering?

By far the most common route into formal volunteering was through personal contact with people who were already members of the group, club or organisation. Among those who had undertaken such activity in the twelve months before interview, 48 per cent had found out about volunteering in this way. Thirty-seven per cent had been told about the opportunities by friends or neighbours and 20 per cent had previously used the services of the group. Educational institutions and places of worship were also commonly mentioned sources (21% and 18%). Only six per cent had been recruited through specific promotional events or volunteer fairs. (Table 6.26)

Are there ‘superactivists’: do the same people engage in civic participation, informal and formal volunteering?

The similarities between the characteristics of civic participants, informal and formal volunteers raise the question as to whether it is the same public-spirited individuals who take part in each type of activity. Figure 6.7 shows that, while there is some overlap, participation was actually spread across the majority of the population. Thus, in 2003, 18 per cent of people had actually taken part in all three types of activity in the twelve months before interview but 79 per cent had been involved in at least one. Even if the people whose only civic activity was to sign a petition are excluded, the proportion who had taken part in at least one activity is only slightly lower (75%). (Table not shown) (Figure 6.7; Table 6.27)

Figure 6.7 Participation in civic activities, informal and formal volunteering in 12 months before interview



What are the common themes in community and voluntary activity – and what are the unexpected findings?

There is a common perception that community activists and volunteers tend to be middle-aged, middle class and White. But, as the analyses presented in this chapter show, this is not universally true. Certainly, there were strong socio-economic and educational differentials in participation in each of the three types of activity. But participation in informal volunteering was higher among people aged under 25 than those aged 35 to 49 and young Asians had one of the highest rates of formal volunteering of any group. Likewise, volunteering and civic activities were not the preserves of White people. Black Africans were as likely as White people to have volunteered formally or informally and those of mixed race had the highest rate of civic participation. Moreover, among people born in the UK, Black and Asian people had similar rates of participation in the three activities to those of White people.

As other studies have found, people with apparently the least time available tend to be the most active in the community³⁴. Thus relatively high proportions of people with school-age children and of those with caring responsibilities had been involved in civic participation or volunteering but relatively few unemployed and elderly people had done so.

The high prevalence of volunteering and civic participation in prosperous areas is not unexpected and the consistently high rates of participation in the South East of England (outside London) are associated with this. Perhaps more surprising is the low level of participation in all three activities in the North East and Yorkshire and Humberside. Although these areas are not the most affluent, they tend to be perceived as friendly areas with good community spirit. More objectively, the 2000 General Household Survey reported that people in these two regions were much more likely to know and talk to their neighbours than those in England as a whole and, on a composite indicator of reciprocity, people in Yorkshire and Humberside had a score similar to the average for England while those in the North East had a higher than average score³⁵. However, the 2001 and 2003 Citizenship Surveys and the 1997 Survey of Volunteering³⁶ found that relatively low proportions of people in these regions had been involved in civic participation and volunteering suggesting that this is a persistent pattern for which there is, as yet, no explanation. Londoners tend to score lowest on measures related to community spirit and, as discussed in Chapter 4, they had the most unfavourable views about their neighbourhood. It is therefore worth noting that Londoners did not report the lowest levels of civic participation, informal or formal volunteering.

34 See, for example, Davies Smith, J. (1998), *The 1997 Survey of Volunteering*, (National Centre for Volunteering, London), p33.

35 Coulthard *et al.* (2002), *People's perceptions of their neighbourhood and community involvement*, (HMSO), Table 3.14. The reciprocity index was based on the following questions: whether neighbours looked out for each other, whether respondents had given a favour to, or received one from, a neighbour.

36 Davis Smith, J. (1998), *The 1997 Survey of Volunteering*, (National Centre for Volunteering, London), p31.

Table 6.7 Participation in community and voluntary activities in 12 months before interview, by type of area (ACORN classification)

<i>Percentages who had participated in previous 12 months</i>				<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
Type of area (ACORN)	Civic participation	Informal volunteering	Formal volunteering	Respondents
Wealthy Achievers, Suburban Areas	45	68	53	1,505
Affluent Greys, Rural Communities	51	66	62	194
Prosperous Pensioners, Retirement Areas	38	64	43	268
Affluent Executives, Family Areas	38	68	47	384
Well-Off Workers, Family Areas	39	65	48	744
Affluent Urbanites, Town and City Areas	41	70	38	206
Prosperous Professionals, Metropolitan Areas	43	64	46	188
Better-Off Executives, Inner City Areas	45	66	41	290
Comfortable Middle Agers, Mature Home Owning Areas	39	65	46	1,373
Skilled Workers, Home Owning Areas	35	61	38	1,199
New Home Owners, Mature Communities	36	56	36	805
White Collar Workers, Better-Off Multi-Ethnic Areas	40	64	41	390
Older People, Less Prosperous Areas	29	58	31	341
Council Estate Residents, Better-Off Homes	34	57	34	972
Council Estate Residents, High Unemployment	32	50	27	275
Council Estate Residents, Greatest Hardship	30	55	33	184
People in Multi-Ethnic Low-Income Areas	28	45	28	155
All	38	62	42	9,483

Table 6.8 *Participation in community and voluntary activities in 12 months before interview by percentage of minority ethnic households in the area*

<i>Percentages who had participated in previous 12 months</i>				<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
<i>Percentage of minority ethnic households in the area (deciles)¹</i>	<i>Civic participation</i>	<i>Informal volunteering</i>	<i>Formal volunteering</i>	<i>Respondents</i>
1 (Lowest density)	39	65	50	654
2	41	67	47	635
3	40	63	44	785
4	36	65	43	1,130
5	44	62	45	967
6	40	60	40	1,040
7	38	67	42	1,136
8	38	62	43	1,313
9	38	60	41	902
10 (Highest density)	32	56	34	921
All	38	62	42	9,483

¹ The measure is based on the percentage of households in the postal sector headed by someone from a minority ethnic group, based on the 2001 Census.

Table 6.9 *Participation in community and voluntary activities in 12 months before interview, by Index of Multiple Deprivation*

<i>Percentages who had participated in previous 12 months</i>				<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
<i>Index of Multiple Deprivation for England¹</i>	<i>Civic participation</i>	<i>Informal volunteering</i>	<i>Formal volunteering</i>	<i>Respondents</i>
1 Least deprived	42	72	52	730
2	43	65	49	826
3	44	70	49	639
4	43	68	45	731
5	40	67	45	775
6	38	64	47	870
7	39	61	43	887
8	37	64	41	884
9	33	57	37	1,231
10 Most deprived	32	54	31	1,346
All (including Wales)	38	62	42	9,483

¹ The Index is not available for Wales.

Table 6.10 Participation in community and voluntary activities in 12 months before interview by Government Office Region and country: 2001 and 2003*Percentage who had participated in previous 12 months* *England & Wales 2001,2003*

Government Office Region and country	Civic		Informal		Formal		Respondents	
	participation		volunteering		volunteering		2001	2003
	2001	2003	2001	2003	2001	2003	2001	2003
North East	34	32	62	58	28	33	498	465
North West	38	37	65	64	38	39	1,244	1,230
Yorkshire & Humberside	36	32	62	57	34	36	1,036	972
East Midlands	37	38	70	65	39	44	789	800
West Midlands	41	38	66	57	41	39	1,018	968
Eastern	36	40	69	64	38	48	1,032	1,009
London	40	35	69	60	39	37	1,112	1,091
South East	41	42	72	66	42	49	1,670	1,486
South West	39	46	66	71	44	51	1,015	898
All England	38	38	67	63	39	42	9,415	8,919
All Wales	38	40	64	54	41	40	585	564
All	38	38	67	62	39	42	10,000	9,483

Table 6.11 Participation in community and voluntary activities in 12 months before interview, by age and sex*Percentages who had participated in previous 12 months* *England & Wales, 2003*

Age and sex	Civic		Informal		Formal		Respondents	
	participation		volunteering		volunteering		2001	2003
							2001	2003
Age								
16 to 19	30		67		41		731	
20 to 24	36		69		43		1,587	
25 to 34	43		66		49		2,579	
35 to 49	43		59		43		2,292	
50 to 64	39		59		37		1,227	
65 to 74	30		44		27		1,067	
75 or over								
Sex								
Men	38		62		41		4,215	
Women	38		63		43		5,268	
All	38		62		42		9,483	

Table 6.12 Participation in community and voluntary activities in 12 months before interview, by age of youngest child and whether a carer

<i>Percentages who had participated in previous 12 months</i>				<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>	
Age of youngest child and whether a carer	Civic participation	Informal volunteering	Formal volunteering	<i>Respondents</i>	
<i>Age of youngest child</i>					
Under 5	40	69	46	993	
5 to 9	43	70	58	761	
10 to 15	43	66	52	673	
16-18	39	63	44	198	
No dependent children	37	60	39	6,858	
<i>Whether looks after a sick, disabled or elderly person</i>					
Yes	43	65	46	1,683	
No	37	62	41	7,800	
All	38	62	42	9,483	

Table 6.13 Participation in community and voluntary activities in 12 months before interview, by ethnic group: 2001 and 2003

<i>Percentages</i>								<i>England & Wales, 2001 & 2003</i>	
Ethnic group	Civic participation		Informal volunteering		Formal volunteering		<i>Respondents</i>		
	2001	2003	2001	2003	2001	2003	2001	2003	
White	39	39	68	63	39	43	9,343	8,747	
Mixed race	37	42	63	60	41	37	379	338	
Asian or Asian British	28	32	58	54	35	37	3,247	2,669	
Indian	27	31	58	57	39	41	1,328	1,162	
Pakistani	28	32	56	47	31	31	944	705	
Bangladeshi	36	39	53	48	31	30	578	433	
Other Asian	25	29	61	60	33	39	396	369	
Black or Black British	31	33	68	60	42	41	1,845	1,680	
Caribbean	30	32	65	57	39	38	1,003	919	
African	32	34	70	62	44	43	702	692	
Other Black	29	22	71	70	43	67	139	69	
Chinese	26	24	67	47	37	27	148	153	
Any other	26	25	56	49	34	29	466	457	
All (Combined sample)	39	39	67	63	39	43	15,430	14,044	

Table 6.14 Participation in community and voluntary activities in 12 months before interview, by age within ethnic group

Percentages who had participated in previous 12 months *England & Wales, 2003*

Age within ethnic group	Civic participation	Informal volunteering	Formal volunteering	Respondents
White				
16 to 24	28	70	42	624
25 to 49	42	69	48	3,716
50 or over	40	56	39	4,407
Asian				
16 to 24	37	60	46	471
25 to 49	32	55	35	1,573
50 or over	24	41	28	625
Black				
16 to 24	27	59	39	194
25 to 49	36	65	41	1,044
50 or over	28	46	42	442

Table 6.15 Participation in community and voluntary activities in 12 months before interview, by sex within ethnic group

Percentages who had participated in previous 12 months *England & Wales, 2003*

Sex within ethnic group	Civic participation	Informal volunteering	Formal volunteering	Respondents
White				
Men	39	63	43	3,873
Women	40	64	44	4,874
Asian				
Men	37	57	38	1,321
Women	26	50	35	1,348
Black				
Men	34	59	37	644
Women	32	61	44	1,036

Table 6.16 *Participation in community and voluntary activities in 12 months before interview, by country of birth within ethnic group*

<i>Percentages who had participated in previous 12 months</i>				<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
<i>Country of birth within ethnic group</i>	<i>Civic participation</i>	<i>Informal volunteering</i>	<i>Formal volunteering</i>	<i>Respondents</i>
<i>White</i>				
Born in UK	39	63	44	8,305
Born elsewhere	38	63	38	441
<i>Asian</i>				
Born in UK	38	63	48	634
Born elsewhere	29	49	32	2,035
<i>Black</i>				
Born in UK	38	66	43	510
Born elsewhere	31	57	40	1,170
<i>All (Combined sample)</i>				
Born in UK	39	63	44	9,718
Born elsewhere	34	57	35	4,331

Table 6.17 *Participation in community and voluntary activities in 12 months before interview, by whether currently practises a religion within ethnic group*

<i>Percentages who had participated in previous 12 months</i>				<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
<i>Whether currently practises a religion within ethnic group</i>	<i>Civic participation</i>	<i>Informal volunteering</i>	<i>Formal volunteering</i>	<i>Respondents</i>
<i>White</i>				
Practises a religion	49	70	61	2,121
Others	36	61	38	6,603
<i>Asian</i>				
Practises a religion	32	53	38	2,119
Others	29	57	33	525
<i>Black</i>				
Practises a religion	33	64	48	1,072
Others	31	47	29	598
<i>All (Combined sample)</i>				
Practises a religion	46	68	57	5,757
Others	36	61	38	8,226

Table 6.18 Participation in community and voluntary activities in 12 months before interview, by socio-economic classification

<i>Percentages who had participated in previous 12 months</i>				<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
<i>Socio-economic classification of participant¹</i>	<i>Civic participation</i>	<i>Informal volunteering</i>	<i>Formal volunteering</i>	<i>Respondents</i>
Higher managerial and professional occupations	46	69	58	1,030
Lower managerial and professional occupations	47	72	54	2,201
Intermediate occupations	39	67	45	1,146
Small employers and own account workers	41	62	41	699
Lower supervisory and technical	34	63	37	923
Semi-routine occupations	32	54	35	1,640
Routine occupations	30	52	24	1,234
Never worked and long-term unemployed	21	42	26	294
Full-time students	37	56	45	134
All	38	62	42	9,483

¹ This is the National Statistics Socio-economic Classification (NS-SEC).

The table excludes respondents who had been unemployed for less than one year. These are included in the figures for All respondents.

Table 6.19 Participation in community and voluntary activities in 12 months before interview, by economic activity status

<i>Percentages who had participated in previous 12 months</i>				<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
<i>Economic activity status</i>	<i>Civic participation</i>	<i>Informal volunteering</i>	<i>Formal volunteering</i>	<i>Respondents</i>
Employed	39	67	47	5,239
Unemployed	38	63	42	237
Economically inactive	36	55	35	4,001
All	38	62	42	9,483

Table 6.20 Participation in community and voluntary activities in 12 months before interview, by highest qualification level

<i>Percentages who had participated in previous 12 months</i>			<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>	
Highest qualification level ¹	Civic participation	Informal volunteering	Formal volunteering	Respondents
Degree or equivalent Higher education	49	73	60	1,635
below degree	42	71	49	1,123
GCE A level or equivalent	40	69	48	1,034
GCSE Grades A-C or equivalent	38	66	46	1,435
GSCE Grades D-E or equivalent	35	65	38	417
Foreign or other qualifications	38	56	31	352
No qualifications	29	49	24	1,831
All ¹	38	62	42	9,483

1 The qualification figures exclude respondents aged 70 or over. These are included in the figures for all respondents.

Table 6.21 Participation in community and voluntary activities in 12 months before interview, by whether enjoys living in neighbourhood

<i>Percentages who had participated in previous 12 months</i>			<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>	
Whether enjoys living in the neighbourhood	Civic participation	Informal volunteering	Formal volunteering	Respondents
Yes, definitely	39	63	45	6,102
Yes, to some extent	37	62	41	2,690
No	34	58	30	686
All	38	62	42	9,483

Table 6.22 Participation in community and voluntary activities in 12 months before interview, by whether agrees that people in the neighbourhood pull together to improve it

<i>Percentages who had participated in previous 12 months</i>				<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
<i>Whether agrees that people in the neighbourhood pull together to improve it</i>	<i>Civic participation</i>	<i>Informal volunteering</i>	<i>Formal volunteering</i>	<i>Respondents</i>
Definitely agrees	43	64	47	1,666
Tends to agree	40	66	46	4,122
Tends to disagree	38	61	39	2,091
Definitely disagrees	37	60	34	873
All ¹	38	62	42	9,483

¹ The table excludes 7% of respondents who did not express an opinion.

Table 6.23 Participation in community and voluntary activities in 12 months before interview, by number of people who can be trusted in neighbourhood

<i>Percentages who had participated in previous 12 months</i>				<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
<i>Number of people that can be trusted in the neighbourhood</i>	<i>Civic participation</i>	<i>Informal volunteering</i>	<i>Formal volunteering</i>	<i>Respondents</i>
Many people can be trusted	42	65	49	4463
Some people can be trusted	36	63	40	3,290
A few can be trusted	34	58	33	1,273
None can be trusted	27	58	27	162
All	38	62	42	9,483

Table 6.24 *Participation in community and voluntary activities in 12 months before interview, by whether feels safe walking alone in the neighbourhood after dark*

Percentages who had participated in previous 12 months England & Wales, 2003

Whether feels safe walking alone in the neighbourhood after dark	Civic participation	Informal volunteering	Formal volunteering	Respondents
Very safe	40	67	48	2560
Fairly safe	39	63	44	3,599
A bit unsafe	38	64	42	1,739
Very unsafe	35	57	32	933
Never walks alone after dark	25	38	19	646
All	38	62	42	9,483

Table 6.25 *Participation in community and voluntary activities in 12 months before interview, by whether feels that they belong to the neighbourhood*

Percentages who had participated in previous 12 months England & Wales, 2003

Feels that they belong in the neighbourhood	Civic participation	Informal volunteering	Formal volunteering	Respondents
Very strongly	42	62	45	2,768
Fairly strongly	39	64	44	3,950
Not very strongly	35	61	39	2,027
Not at all strongly	34	57	32	649
All	38	62	42	9,483

Table 6.26 How people found out about opportunities for formal volunteering

<i>Percentages¹</i>	<i>England and Wales, 2003</i>
<i>How people found out about opportunities for formal volunteering</i>	
From someone else already involved with the group	48
Friends or neighbours	37
School or college	21
Through previously using the services provided by the group	20
Place of worship	18
Local events	10
Local newspapers	8
Promotional events, volunteer fairs	6
Employer's volunteering scheme	5
<i>Respondents who had taken part in any formal voluntary activity in the previous 12 months</i>	<i>3,993</i>

¹ Percentages sum to more than 100 because respondents could report more than one activity.

Table 6.27 Participation in community and voluntary activities in last twelve months by type of activity

<i>Percentages</i>	<i>England and Wales, 2003</i>
Civic, informal and formal voluntary activities	18
Civic and formal voluntary activities	4
Civic and informal voluntary activities	10
Informal and formal voluntary activities	15
Civic activities only	6
Informal voluntary activities only	20
Formal voluntary activities only	6
No activities	21
<i>Respondents</i>	<i>9481</i>

Conclusion

This chapter shows that levels of active community participation in England and Wales are reasonably high. It shows how changes in active community participation are not as straightforward as other research suggests³⁷. For example, using the least intense measure of active community participation (participation at least once in the twelve months prior to interview) civic participation remained stable between 2001 and 2003, whilst informal volunteering decreased and formal volunteering increased. In contrast, using the more intense measure of community participation (once a month in the twelve months prior to interview), civic participation and formal volunteering remain static between 2001 and 2003, whilst informal volunteering increased. The report identifies those least likely to become actively involved in their communities, enabling the Home Office's Active Community Unit to target initiatives.

So far, in focussing on communities and neighbourhoods, the report has not addressed within family networks. Family networks, and particularly their role in supporting parenting, are the subject of the final chapter.

37 Putnam, R. (2000) *Bowling alone – the collapse and revival of American community*, Simon & Schuster, New York.

Summary***Household and family composition***

- The average household size was 2.44 persons.
- The proportions of households containing one person living alone and a lone parent family were 26% and 8% respectively. Those consisting of a married or cohabiting couple were 62 per cent.
- Households with an Asian reference person (household reference person - HRP) contained the largest number of people (3.88 persons on average compared with 2.39 among households with a White HRP). Households with an HRP of Bangladeshi origin had the largest households of all (4.62 persons on average).
- Only 7 per cent of households with Asian HRPs consisted of one person living alone, compared with 24 per cent of households with Black HRPs and 27 per cent of those with White HRPs.

Contacts with relatives

- About 90 per cent of Asian and Black respondents lived with a relative compared with 74 per cent of White respondents.
- At least three-quarters of White, Asian and Black Caribbean people were in regular contact with a relative living within thirty minutes travel time. For African and Chinese respondents, the proportions were lower (58% and 31%).
- Twenty per cent of all respondents had received practical help or advice from their mother in the twelve months before interview.
- Four per cent of respondents reported having a child who did not live with them. Eighty-two per cent of these parents had regular contact with at least one of their children.

Support for parents

- Thirty per cent of parents with children under 16 had asked a relative outside the household for advice about child rearing in the twelve months before interview.
- In the same period, 55 per cent of parents had received advice on child rearing from a formal source. Health professionals were the most commonly used advisers.
- Eighty-four per cent of parents preferred to receive advice about child rearing by speaking to someone face-to-face. No more than 5 per cent opted for books, the internet or telephone help-lines.

Families are an important source of social capital for both their individual members and for the wider community. The Citizenship Survey allows us to examine two important family-related aspects of social capital:

- *Family networks*: Networks both within and outside the household may provide support for family members. The survey provides a broad picture of the networks individuals have available to them and the extent to which they participate in these networks. This is discussed in the first part of the chapter.
- *Advice to parents*: Supporting parents can produce positive outcomes for children, their parents and the wider community³⁸. Ensuring that parents have access to the advice and support they require is an important element of this. The Citizenship Survey allows us to examine patterns of access to both informal and formal sources of advice across different groups of parents. This is discussed in the final part of the chapter.

Family networks

Households and families

This section describes the types of household and family structures found in England and Wales in 2003, distinguishing those which are likely to have the means of providing support to the family and those, such as one-person households, which are not. The analysis is descriptive since the Citizenship Survey did not attempt to measure the quality of support available from other household members. However, it is one of the few surveys that include sufficient numbers of non-White people to permit analysis by ethnic group.

38 Little and Mount, (1999), *Prevention and Early Intervention with Children in Need*, (Aldershot: Aldgate).

The analysis looks at two groups: households and families. A 'household' is defined as a group of people who live together and share a living room or one meal per day. A 'family' consists of a married or cohabiting couple, or a lone parent, with no children or with never-married children who have no children of their own. A more detailed explanation of the definitions is given in Appendix A.

How does household composition vary by ethnic group?

The proportions of households containing one person living alone and a lone parent family were 26% and 8% respectively. Those consisting of a married or cohabiting couple were 62 per cent. The average household size was 2.44 persons. As households with White household reference persons³⁹ (HRPs) were by far the largest group, the distribution of household type for these households was almost identical to the overall distribution.

Among households whose HRP was Asian, the proportion consisting of married couples was higher than among those with a White HRP (70% compared with 52%) and there were very few cohabiting couples (1%). Conversely, the proportion of households with an Asian HRP who were living alone was much lower than for those with a White HRP (7% compared with 27%).

A relatively high proportion of households with an Asian HRP contained more than one family (10%). The household compositions of the Asian subgroups were very similar to the overall pattern. The only notable variation was that those with an HRP of 'Other Asian' origin included a relatively large number of non-family multi-person households, for example, flat sharers (10% compared with no more than 5% in other Asian subgroups and 3% among households with a White HRP). The average size of households with an Asian HRP was larger than for those with a White HRP (3.88 compared with 2.39 persons). Households with an HRP of Bangladeshi origin had the largest households of all (4.62 persons on average).

Households with a Black HRP were less likely than those with White or Asian HRPs to consist of a married couple (38% compared with 52% and 70%). Furthermore, households with Black HRPs were more likely than those with White or Asian HRPs to contain a lone parent (24% compared with 8% and 7%). The proportion consisting of one person living alone was similar to that among households with a White HRP (24% and 27%) while the proportion containing a cohabiting couple was a little lower (6% compared with 9%). The average size of households with a Black HRP was between that of households with White HRPs and those with Asian HRPs (2.73 compared with 2.39 and 3.88). Within the Black group, those with HRPs of African origin had the largest households (2.99 persons on average).

³⁹ See Appendix A for detailed descriptions of household and family reference persons. Basically, this is the person used to classify the household or family and is based on a combination of income and age. For one-family households the HRP is also the FRP. But for multi-family households this is not necessarily the case.

Households with HRP who were of mixed race were similar in many respects to those with Black HRPs and the average household size was almost identical. This group included a relatively high proportion of households containing a cohabiting couple (12%).

Households with a Chinese HRP were similar to those with a White HRP in terms of the proportion containing a married couple (53%) or a lone parent (6%). However, they contained a much higher proportion of multi-person non-family households than any other group (19%). This reflects the high proportion of students in these households – a quarter of Chinese respondents were full-time students. (Figure 7.1; Table 7.1)

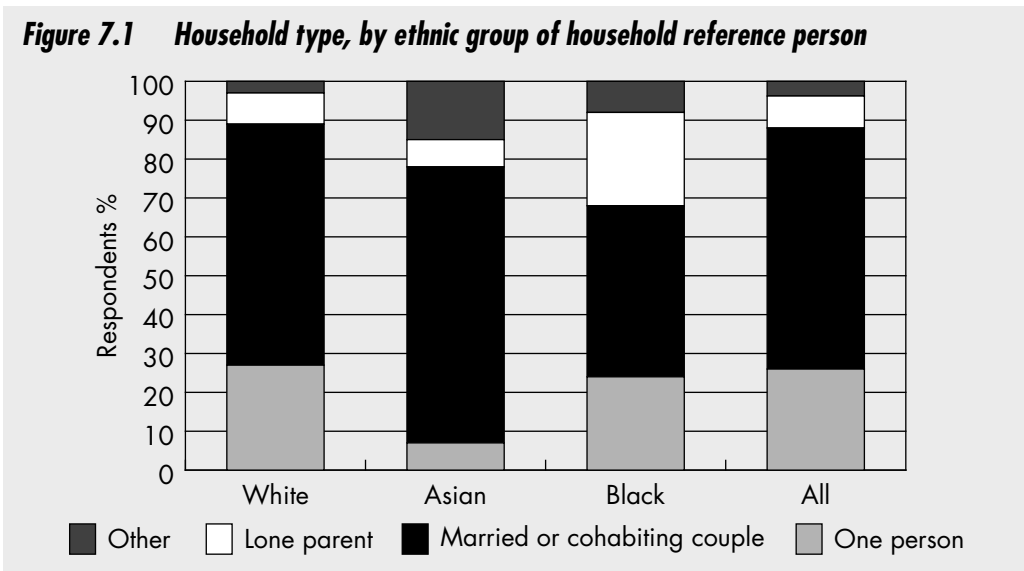


Table 7.1 Household type by ethnic group of household reference person

Percentages	England & Wales, 2003												
	Household type	White			Asian			Black			Mixed race		All
		All	Indian	Pakistani	Bangladeshi	Other Asian	All	Caribbean	African	Other Black	Mixed	Chinese	
Non-family households													
One person	27	7	8	6	5	8	24	25	22	22	16	18	26
More than one person	3	5	5	3	3	10	6	5	9	0	5	19	3
One-family household ²													
Married couple	52	70	71	71	68	69	38	36	40	40	53	61	53
Cohabiting couple	9	1	1	1	0	2	6	8	4	10	12	3	9
Lone parent	8	7	5	8	8	7	24	25	23	30	19	6	8
Two or more family households													
Other ¹	1	10	10	11	16	3	1	1	1	0	2	3	1
Numbers													
Average number of persons per household	2.39	3.88	3.65	4.21	4.62	3.53	2.73	2.50	2.99	2.64	2.76	3.04	2.44
Average number of family units per household	1.08	1.35	1.31	1.34	1.42	1.42	1.22	1.14	1.33	1.12	1.18	1.76	1.09
Households													
(Combined sample)	8,748	2,673	1,164	707	433	369	1,682	919	693	70	338	153	458

1 Includes households containing same sex couples.

2 May also include non-family members.

Table 7.2 Family type by ethnic group of family reference person

Family type	England & Wales, 2003													
	White			Asian			Black			Mixed race	Other	All		
	All	Indian	Pakistani	Bangladeshi	Other Asian	All	Caribbean	African	Other Black	Mixed	Chinese	Other	All	
One-person	33	26	25	24	20	39	42	38	48	25	45	63	45	34
Married or cohabiting couple & child(All)	28	50	50	54	54	41	24	24	24	38	20	18	31	29
Married couple & child	24	50	50	54	54	39	21	20	23	25	18	18	30	25
Cohabiting couple & child	4	1	0	0	0	1	3	4	2	13	2	0	1	4
Married or cohabiting couple, no child(All)	30	17	19	15	16	14	11	15	8	0	16	16	18	30
Married couple, no child	25	16	18	15	16	13	9	11	6	0	12	14	16	24
Cohabiting couple, no child	6	0	0	0	0	1	2	3	2	0	4	2	2	5
Lone mother	7	6	5	6	10	5	20	22	18	38	16	4	4	7
Lone father	1	1	1	1	0	0	2	2	2	0	2	0	1	1
Other ¹	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Numbers														
Average number of persons per family	2.22	2.92	2.81	3.17	3.41	2.5	2.24	2.19	2.27	2.53	2.11	1.73	2.19	2.24
Families (Combined sample)	9,605	3,363	1,418	920	552	473	1,930	1,009	850	71	303	210	556	15,967

¹ Includes same sex couples.

How does family composition vary by ethnic group?

As most households contain only one family, the distribution of family type tends to mirror that of household type. Table 7.2 does, however, show more detail on married and cohabiting couple families. Among families with a White family reference person (FRP), couples were evenly divided between those with children and those with no children (28% and 30%). Among families with Asian FRPs, couples with children predominated (50% and 17%) and this was also the case for those with Black FRPs (24% and 11%). Within the Asian group, the family composition of households with Indian, Pakistani and Bangladeshi FRPs were similar. The main variation within the Black group was that families with FRPs of Caribbean origin were more likely than those with FRPs of African origin to consist of couples with no children (15% and 8%) and less likely to be one-person units (38% and 48%). (Table 7.2)

Table 7.3 shows family type for families with dependent children and includes a breakdown of the marital status of lone parents. Lone parents are of particular interest to the Home Office because they may require more support than two-parent families – for example, they tend to carry a greater burden of childcare and have lower incomes. Data from the Expenditure and Food Survey show that households containing one adult and children had disposable incomes that were less than half those of couples with children⁴⁰.

Families with dependent children whose reference person was Black Caribbean, Black African or mixed race contained the highest proportions of lone mothers (48%, 38% and 38% compared with 18% among such families with a White FRP and 8% of those with an Asian FRP). In most ethnic groups, lone mothers were more likely to be widowed, divorced or separated than single but Black Caribbean lone mothers were more likely to be single (30% compared with 18%).

The average number of dependent children per family showed a slightly different pattern to average household size. Families with children who had a Black Caribbean FRP had the smallest number of children (1.69 on average) followed by those with White and Indian FRPs (1.79 and 1.77). However, as with household size, families with Bangladeshi FRPs had the largest number of dependent children (2.35 on average). (Table 7.3)

Table 7.4 shows the ethnic composition of families with two or more persons analysed by the ethnic group of the FRP. In all ethnic groups, the most common combination was that in which all family members were from the same ethnic group but there was considerable variation

⁴⁰ Botting, B. (2003), *Family Spending: A report on the 2001-2 Expenditure and Food Survey*, (HMSO, London), Table 8.1.

Table 7.3 Family type for families with dependent children, by ethnic group of family reference person

Family type	England & Wales, 2003													
	White			Asian			Black		Mixed race		Other	All		
	All	Indian	Pak-istani	Bangla-deshi	Other Asian	All	Carib-bean	African	Other black	Chinese	Other	All		
One-person Married/	33	26	25	24	20	39	42	38	48	25	45	63	45	34
Cohabiting couple	79	90	92	90	87	90	55	50	60	40	56	80	86	79
Lone mother (All)	18	8	7	8	13	10	43	48	38	60	38	20	11	18
Never married	7	0	1	0	0	0	22	30	13	40	19	10	3	7
Previously married	11	8	5	8	13	10	22	18	25	20	19	10	9	11
Lone father	3	1	1	1	0	0	2	2	2	0	6	0	3	3
Numbers														
Average number of dependent children per family	1.79	2.01	1.77	2.22	2.35	1.92	1.89	1.69	2.09	1.71	1.97	1.71	1.93	1.80
Families with dependent children (Combined sample)	2,721	1,666	621	513	346	186	758	359	359	40	109	42	208	5,504

between them. Among families with a White FRP, 95 per cent had all members from the same White ethnic group (British, Irish or other) and almost all the others were from different White groups (4%). Among families with an Asian FRP, 90 per cent were all from the same Asian group (Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi or other), 4 per cent were from different Asian groups and 4 per cent contained White and Asian members. Families headed by a Black FRP were the most ethnically mixed: 76 per cent contained all people from the same Black group (Caribbean, African or other), 5 per cent contained members from different Black groups while 14 per cent contained White and Black members. (Figure 7.2; Table 7.4)

Table 7.4 Ethnic group of family members by ethnic group of family reference person

Percentages	England & Wales, 2003			
	White	Asian	Black	All ¹
Ethnic group of family members				
Same White: all British/all Irish/all other White	95	89
Multiple White	4	4
White & Asian	0	4	..	0
White & Black	0	..	14	1
White & other	0	0	0	1
Same Asian: all Indian/all Pakistani/ All Bangladeshi/all other Asian	0	90	0	3
Multiple Asian	..	4	0	0
Same Black: all Caribbean/all African/ all other Black	0	0	76	1
Multiple Black	0	0	5	0
Other	0	2	4	1
<i>Families containing 2 or more persons</i> <i>(Combined sample)</i>	6,289	2,503	1,082	10,430

¹ Includes people of mixed race, Chinese and other ethnic origins.

Figure 7.2 Ethnic group of families with a White, Asian and Black family reference person

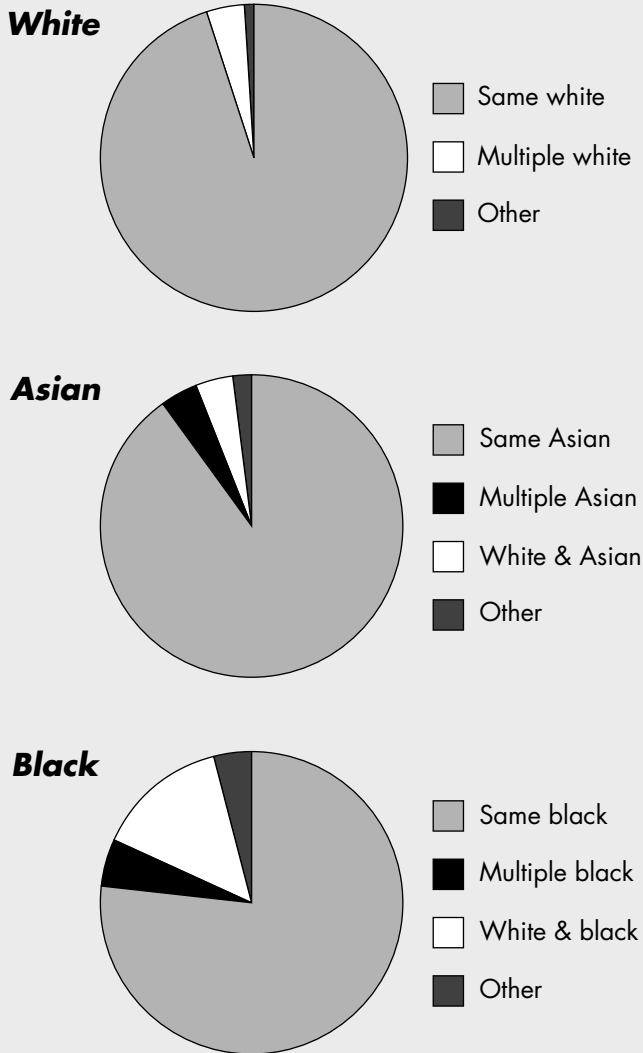


Table 7.5 shows a similar analysis, this time looking at the country of birth of the family members in couple and lone parent families. In 91 per cent of families with a White FRP, all members were born in the UK. For those with a Black FRP, the proportion was 22 per cent. While for families with Asian FRPs it was just 7 per cent.

In 69 per cent of families with an Asian FRP, both partners were born outside the UK. A further 17 per cent consisted of couples in which one partner was born outside the UK while 8 per cent were lone parents born outside the UK. However, very few families had a child who was born outside the UK (15%).

Among families with a Black FRP, 35 per cent contained couples in which both partners were born outside the UK. A further 16 per cent of families were couples in which one partner was born in the UK and one partner was born elsewhere – a similar proportion among those with Asian FRPs. However, a larger proportion (26%) were families containing a lone parent born outside the UK. The proportion of families with a child born outside the UK was also higher than among families with Asian FRPs (20%). (Table 7.5)

Table 7.5 Country of birth of family members, by ethnic group of family reference person

<i>Percentages</i>	<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>			
Country of birth of family members	White	Asian	Black	
All ¹				
FRP and partner both born UK (All):	80	6	10	76
no children	41	1	2	39
all children born in UK	39	4	8	37
1 or more child born outside UK	0	0	0	0
FRP born UK & partner born outside UK or vice versa (All):	6	17	16	7
no children	3	5	5	3
all children born in UK	2	11	11	3
1 or more child born outside UK	0	0	1	0
FRP and partner both born outside UK (All):	2	69	35	5
no children	1	16	13	2
all children born in UK	1	40	14	2
1 or more child born outside UK	0	13	9	1
FRP born UK, no partner (All):	12	1	12	11
all children born in UK	11	1	12	11
1 or more child born outside UK	0	0	1	0
FRP born outside UK, no partner (All):	0	8	26	1
all children born in UK	0	6	16	1
1 or more child born outside UK	0	2	10	0
<i>Families containing 2 or more persons (Combined sample)</i>	<i>6,282</i>	<i>2,498</i>	<i>1,080</i>	<i>10,416</i>

¹ Includes people of mixed race, Chinese and other ethnic origins.

What networks of relatives do people have?

The previous section discussed the composition of households and families. The analyses in this section focus on the respondents' relatives looking first at the types of relatives they were living with and then at their contacts with relatives outside the household.

Which relatives did respondents live with?

Table 7.6 shows the relatives with whom the respondent was living at the time of interview analysed by the ethnic group of the respondent. Overall, 75 per cent of respondents were living with a relative, either a blood relation or a relative by marriage. Sixty-three per cent were living with a spouse or partner and 38 per cent with a child. There were marked variations between ethnic groups reflecting their different age profiles and family structures: about 90 per cent of Asian and Black respondents lived with a relative compared with 74 per cent of White respondents. As discussed earlier, Asian and Black people have more children, on average, than White people. Thus, 53 per cent of Asian and 47 per cent of Black respondents had a child living with them compared with 37 per cent of White respondents. Many Asian people live with their extended families, hence the relatively high proportions who were living with a parent (32% compared with 14% among Black and 12% among White respondents) or sibling (30% compared with 15% and 8%). The relatively high proportion of Black people who were lone parents is reflected in the low proportions living with a spouse (42% compared with 64% of White and 62% of Asian respondents). (Table 7.6)

Table 7.6 Respondent's relatives in the household, by ethnic group of respondent

<i>Percentages</i>	<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>			
<i>Relationship to respondent²</i>	<i>White</i>	<i>Asian</i>	<i>Black</i>	<i>All¹</i>
Spouse	64	62	42	63
Parent	12	32	14	13
Son/daughter	37	53	47	38
Brother/sister	8	30	15	9
Other relative	1	10	7	2
Any relative	74	91	90	75
<i>Respondents (Combined sample)</i>	<i>8,748</i>	<i>2,673</i>	<i>1,682</i>	<i>1,4052</i>

1 Includes people of mixed race, Chinese and other ethnic origins.

2 The categories include the relevant natural, step and foster relatives, and in-laws

Percentages sum to more than 100 because respondents could live with more than one relative.

With which relatives outside the household did respondents have regular contact?

The next analyses look at respondents' relatives outside the household. Shown first are the relatives with whom the respondent had had regular contact in the twelve months before interview. 'Regular contact' was defined as contact at least once a month in person or by telephone, letter, email or text message. The analysis distinguishes between relatives living within thirty minutes travelling time (by the usual form of transport) and those living further away. The former are of interest in that they represent a *potential* source of accessible help – although, as with relatives inside the household, we cannot assume that the presence of a relative will necessarily represent a support to the respondent. The survey did, however, include questions about help given to, and received from, relatives outside the household so that we can explore the extent of these support systems within different ethnic groups. It should be noted that the questions on contact related only to relatives living within the UK. The questions about help and advice covered all relatives in the UK and elsewhere.

While White people were least likely to be living with a relative, they were most likely to have had regular contact with a relative living within thirty minutes travelling time (80% compared with 75% of Asian and 68% of Black respondents). There was, however, considerable variation within the Asian group. The percentages who had regular contact with a relative living within this range varied from 84 per cent among those of Bangladeshi origin, down to 55 per cent among other Asian groups. Likewise, there was considerable variation within the Black group: 78 per cent of those of Caribbean origin had had regular contact with a relative living within 30 minutes travelling time, compared with 58 per cent of Africans. Chinese people, many of whom were students, had the lowest rates of contact (31%). These variations reflect whether or not people had relatives in the UK as well as their propensity to be in contact with them.

The higher contact rates among White people are mainly attributable to their being about twice as likely as Asian and Black respondents to have had contact with a parent, parent-in-law or child living within the thirty-minute radius. There was little ethnic variation in the proportions in regular contact with siblings living within this range while Asian people were most likely to have contact with a cousin, uncle or aunt living nearby.

Looking at contacts with relatives living further afield (but still in the UK), there was no difference between the main ethnic groups in the proportions having regular contact with at least one relative living outside the thirty-minute range (63% overall). Again, however, there were variations within these groups. Among Asian subgroups, Bangladeshi and Indian people had the highest contact rates (68% and 70%) while, in the Black group, those of

Caribbean origin had higher contact rates than those of African origin (66% and 56%). Contact rates were, again, lowest among Chinese people although higher proportions had regular contact with relatives living further afield than had contact with relatives living nearby (42% and 31%).

There were also variations in the types of relatives with whom people had contact and these showed the same general pattern as those for relatives living within closer proximity. (Tables 7.7, 7.8)

Table 7.7 Percentages who had regular contact with relatives outside the household, by ethnic group

<i>Percentages</i>		<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>	
<i>Ethnic group</i>	<i>Relatives living within 30 minutes travel time</i>	<i>Relatives living further away (in UK)</i>	<i>All respondents</i>
White	80	63	8,747
Mixed race	68	54	338
All Asian	75	63	2,671
Indian	77	70	1,162
Pakistani	80	57	707
Bangladeshi	84	68	433
Other Asian	55	52	369
All Black	68	61	919
Caribbean	78	66	1,681
African	58	56	692
Other Black	67	67	70
Chinese	31	42	153
Any other	45	41	458
All (Combined sample)	79	63	14,048

'Regular contact' was defined as contact at least once a month in person or by telephone, letter, email or text message.

Table 7.8 Respondent's relatives outside the household with whom respondent had regular contact, by ethnic group of respondent

Percentages		England & Wales, 2003							
Relation to respondent ²	Relatives living within 30 minutes travel time				Relatives living further away (in UK)				
	White	Asian	Black	All ¹	White	Asian	Black	All ¹	
Mother	30	15	17	29	14	7	8	14	
Father	22	11	11	21	11	6	5	11	
Step-mother	2	0	1	2	1	0	0	1	
Step-father	3	0	0	2	1	0	1	1	
Mother-in-law/ partner's mother	20	11	5	19	8	5	4	7	
Father-in-law/ partner's father	14	8	3	13	6	4	3	6	
Son ²	17	6	8	16	10	4	4	10	
Daughter ²	20	7	9	19	10	4	4	9	
Step-son/daughter ²	3	0	1	2	2	0	0	1	
Son/daughter-in-law	10	4	3	9	4	2	1	4	
Brother ³	25	26	21	25	16	13	15	16	
Sister ³	28	25	23	28	19	17	19	19	
Brother/sister-in-law	23	22	10	23	16	14	8	16	
Grandchild	15	4	5	14	6	2	2	6	
Grandparent	12	8	4	11	6	4	3	5	
Cousin	14	28	22	14	10	24	20	11	
Uncle/aunt	17	28	16	17	12	24	15	13	
Niece/nephew	20	21	14	20	11	13	10	11	
Ex-husband/wife/ partner ⁴	3	1	2	3	1	0	2	1	
Other relative	3	7	4	3	1	6	3	2	
Any relative	80	75	68	79	63	63	61	63	
Respondents (Combined sample)	8,748	2,672	1,682	14,051	8,747	2,671	1,681	14,048	

1 Includes people of mixed race, Chinese and other ethnic origins.

2 Includes only those aged 16 or over. Son/daughter also includes adopted children.

3 Includes step and half brothers/sisters.

4 Includes separated spouse/partners.

'Regular contact' was defined as contact at least once a month in person or by telephone, letter, email or text message.

Percentages sum to more than 100 because respondents could have contact with more than one relative.

How many people have non-resident children and how much contact do they have with them?

Family breakdown can have a major impact on children; this has become an issue of increasing concern as divorce and separation rates have risen. Figures from the General Household Survey show that, in 1971, 92 per cent of dependent children lived in families consisting of a couple and children⁴¹. By 2001, this proportion had fallen to 77 per cent. Research has shown that children are better able to cope with the loss of a parent if regular contact is maintained⁴². The analyses presented below describe the numbers of respondents who had children not normally living with them and the extent to which they had contact with them. The 2001 Citizenship Survey included more detailed questioning on this topic and the report provides a more extensive analysis than is given here.

'Non-resident children' were defined as natural, step or adopted children aged under 16 who did not normally live with the respondent, that is, they spent at least four nights per week at another address.

In 2003, 4 per cent of respondents reported having a child who did not live with them. In 2001 the figure was similar (6%). Of the 4 per cent in 2003, 54 per cent had one non-resident child, 28 per cent had two, while 18 per cent had three or more. Eighty-two per cent of parents had regular contact with at least one of their children, that is they saw them in person, spoke on the phone or had contact by letter, text message or email, at least once a month. Among the 18 per cent who did not have regular contact, a quarter had had some form of contact in the previous year (data not shown). (Table 7.9)

Separated people were most likely to have a child who was not living with them (13%) followed by those who were divorced, cohabiting or remarried (7% to 8%). Men were more than twice as likely as women to have a non-resident child (5% compared with 2%). However, this was only applicable to White people. Among Asians, women were the more likely to have non-resident children while there was no difference between Black men and women. This differs from the pattern in 2001, where 18 per cent of Black men had non-resident children compared with only 8 per cent of Black women. (Tables 7.10, 7.11)

41 Walker, A. *et al.* (2002), *Living in Britain* (HMSO, London).

42 Wade, A. & Smart, C., (2002) *Facing Family Change: Children's circumstances strategies and resources*, Joseph Rowntree Foundation paper (York, York publishing services).

Table 7.9 Non-resident children*England & Wales, 2003*

Whether has non-resident children	
Yes	4
No	96
<i>All respondents</i>	<i>9,486</i>
Number of resident children	
1	54
2	28
3 or more	18
Whether has regular contact with child	
Regular contact with all	78
Regular contact with some	4
No regular contact	18
<i>Respondents with non-resident children</i>	<i>372</i>

'Resident children' were children aged under 16 who did not normally live with the respondent.

'Regular contact' was contact in person or by phone, letter, email or text message at least once a month.

Table 7.10 Percentages with non-resident children, by marital status and sex of absent parent*England & Wales, 2003*

Marital status and sex of absent parent	Percentage with non-resident children	Respondents
Marital status ¹		
Married (first marriage)	2	4,048
Married (subsequent marriage)	8	517
Cohabiting	7	768
Single	3	1,848
Widowed	2	1,120
Divorced	8	863
Separated	13	303
Sex		
Male	5	4,217
Female	2	5,269
All	4	9,488

¹ Data for same sex couples is excluded because of the small number of cases. 'All' figures include responses for all respondents.

Table 7.11 Percentages with non-resident children, by sex within ethnic group of parent*England & Wales, 2003*

Sex within ethnic group of absent parent	Percentage with non-resident children	Respondents
White		
Men	5	3,874
Women	2	4,874
Asian		
Men	2	1,323
Women	4	1,350
Black		
Men	6	645
Women	6	1,037

There was considerable variation across ethnic groups in the proportions who reported having a non-resident child. Chinese people were the most likely to do so (15%) followed by Africans (8%). Of course, these parents may not have been living apart from their children as a result of family breakdown. Some African families, for example, choose to educate their children abroad. (Table 7.12)

Table 7.12 Percentages with non-resident children, by ethnic group of absent parent*England & Wales, 2003*

Ethnic group of absent parent	Percentage with non-resident children	Respondents
White	4	8,748
Mixed race	5	338
All Asian	3	2,673
Indian	-	1,164
Pakistani	7	707
Bangladeshi	-	433
Other Asian	6	369
All Black	6	1,682
Caribbean	5	919
African	8	693
Other Black	-	70
Chinese	15	153
Any other	6	458
All (Combined sample)	4	14,052

Which relatives do people help and who helps them?

Table 7.13 shows, for the twelve months before interview, the types of relatives outside the household:

- to whom respondents had given practical help or support; and
- from whom respondents had received practical help or support.

The provision and receipt of financial help were excluded from the analysis.

With regard to giving help and support to relatives, respondents were most likely to have helped their mother (23%). A lower proportion had helped their father (14%). The difference will be at least partly due to the older age profile of women. Between 9 per cent and 13 per cent of respondents had given help or support to their mother-in-law, son, daughter, brother or sister.

Predictably, mothers were the main source of help and advice. Twenty per cent of all respondents had received practical help or support from their mother. The corresponding

proportion for fathers was 16 per cent. Sisters were the next most common source of general help and support – 13 per cent of respondents had received help from a sister.

The table shows that respondents were more likely to have helped female relatives, whether it be mothers versus fathers, daughters versus sons or sisters versus brothers. A similar, but less marked, pattern was observed in relation to which relatives had provided help and support to the respondent. (Table 7.13)

Table 7.13 Help given to, and received from, relatives outside the household in 12 months before interview

England & Wales, 2003

Relationship to respondent	Gave help/support to	Received help/support from
Mother	23	20
Father	14	16
Mother-in-law/partner's mother	11	9
Father-in-law/partner's father	7	7
Son ¹	9	9
Daughter ¹	12	10
Son/daughter-in-law	3	4
Stepson/daughter	1	1
Brother ²	10	10
Sister ²	13	13
Brother/sister-in-law	8	8
Grandchild	4	2
Grandparent	6	3
Cousin	4	3
Uncle/aunt	6	5
Niece/nephew	5	2
Ex-husband/ wife/partner ³	1	1
Other relative	1	0
Any relative	59	52
<i>All respondents</i>	<i>9,486</i>	<i>9,486</i>

1 Includes only those aged 16 or over. Son/daughter also includes adopted children.

2 Includes step and half brothers/sisters.

3 Includes separated spouse/partners.

Percentages sum to more than 100 because respondents could mention more than one relative.

How does this vary by people's socio-demographic characteristics?

This section examines the factors that are associated with people's propensity to give and receive advice.

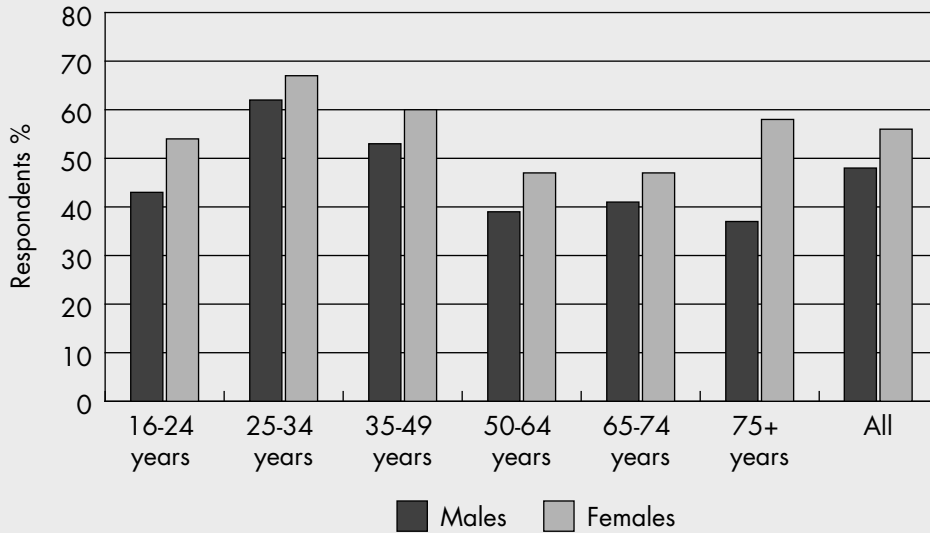
Age, sex and marital status

The proportions of people who had given practical help or support to relatives outside the household in the twelve months before interview rose from 51 per cent among 16 to 24 year olds to a peak of 67 per cent among those aged 35 to 64 and then fell to 28 per cent among people aged 75 or over. The receipt of such help reached a peak among 25 to 34 year olds (64%), the age at which many people have young children. The percentage then tended to decline with age before rising again in the oldest age group when people start to need support as a result of infirmity.

Overall, men and women were equally likely to have given help to relatives outside the household although this was not true for all age groups. In the middle age groups, 35 to 64, women were the more likely to have given help whereas, in younger and older age groups there was no significant difference.

In terms of receiving help, women were the main recipients (56% compared with 48% of men). The difference was particularly marked in the oldest age group, aged 75 or over, where 58 per cent of women but only 37 per cent of men had received help from a relative outside the household in the previous twelve months. This may be partly reflecting the inclusion of more very elderly women than men in the age group. However, this is not the sole explanation. In each age group, the proportion of women who had received help was higher than the corresponding proportion of men. (Figure 7.3)

Figure 7.3 *Percentage who had received help from relatives outside the household in 12 months before interview, by age within sex*



Variations by marital status tend to reflect age variations. Married, cohabiting and divorced people were most likely to have helped relatives outside the household (64% to 67%) while cohabiting, divorced and widowed people were most likely to have received help (61% to 63%). (Table 7.14)

Table 7.14 Help given to, and received from, relatives outside the household, by age, sex and marital status

<i>Percentages who gave/received help in last 12 months</i>			<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
<i>Age, sex and marital status</i>	<i>Gave help/ support</i>	<i>Received help/ support</i>	<i>All respondents</i>
Male			
16 to 24	52	43	311
25 to 34	64	62	682
35 to 49	63	53	1,207
50 to 64	64	39	1,050
65 to 74	55	41	562
75 or over	31	37	405
All males	59	48	4,217
Female			
16 to 24	50	54	420
25 to 34	63	67	907
35 to 49	71	60	1,372
50 to 64	69	47	1,243
65 to 74	55	47	665
75 or over	26	58	662
All females	60	56	5,269
All			
16 to 24	51	48	731
25 to 34	64	64	1,589
35 to 49	67	56	2,579
50 to 64	67	43	2,293
65 to 74	55	44	1,227
75 or over	28	50	1,067
Marital status¹			
Married	65	50	4,565
Cohabiting	67	63	768
Single	50	46	1,848
Widowed	37	60	1,120
Divorced	64	61	863
Separated	55	55	303
All	59	52	9,486

* Bases too small for percentages to be shown.

1 Data for same sex couples is excluded because of the small number of cases. 'All' figures include responses for all respondents.

Ethnic group

There were marked variations between ethnic groups in the provision and receipt of help. White people were most likely to have helped relatives outside the household in the twelve months before interview (62% compared with 46% among Asian and 48% among Black people). Chinese people were the least likely to have helped relatives (31%). The pattern for the receipt of help was similar. This accords with the analysis shown earlier that White people were more likely than Black or Asian people to have regular contact with a relative living nearby while Chinese people had the lowest rates of regular contact. It was noted that these differences partly reflect whether or not people have relatives in the UK. (Table 7.15)

Table 7.15 Help and advice given to, and received from, relatives outside the household, by ethnic group

Percentages who gave/received help in last 12 months *England & Wales, 2003*

Ethnic group	Gave help/ support	Received help/ support	<i>All respondents</i>
White	62	53	8,748
Mixed race	50	43	338
All Asian	46	44	2,670
Indian	49	46	1,163
Pakistani	46	45	707
Bangladeshi	45	41	432
Other Asian	38	41	368
All Black	48	46	1,679
Caribbean	53	49	918
African	42	42	691
Other Black	56	56	70
Chinese	31	31	153
Any other	34	31	458
All (Combined sample)	60	53	14,046

Support for parents

As discussed earlier, it has been suggested that the provision of advice and support to parents may help reduce social problems such as antisocial or criminal behaviour and could therefore benefit not only the immediate family but also the wider community. This section looks first at the informal sources of advice parents used and then at their use of more formal provision.

Which parents seek informal advice on child rearing?

Thirty per cent of parents with children under 16 had sought advice or information about child rearing from a relative outside the household in the twelve months before interview, compared with 42 per cent of parents in 2001. As might be expected, mothers were the most common source: 23 per cent of parents had asked advice from their mother, more than twice the proportion who had approached their father (9%) a similar pattern was observed in 2001. There was a similar difference by sex in the proportions consulting mothers- and fathers-in-law (9% and 5%) and brothers and sisters (8% and 2%). (Table 7.16)

Table 7.16 Advice about child rearing sought from relatives outside the household

<i>Percentages</i>	<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
Relationship to respondent	Sought advice about child rearing in 12 months before interview
Mother	23
Father	9
Mother-in-law/partner's mother	9
Father-in-law/partner's father	5
Son ¹	0
Daughter ¹	0
Son/daughter-in-law	0
Stepson/daughter	0
Brother ²	2
Sister ²	8
Brother/sister-in-law	4
Grandchild	0
Grandparent	2
Cousin	1
Uncle/aunt	2
Niece/nephew	0
Ex-husband/wife/partner ³	1
Other relative	0
Any relative	30
<i>Respondents with children under 16</i>	<i>2,890</i>

1 Includes only those aged 16 or over. Son/daughter also includes adopted children.

2 Includes step and half brothers/sisters.

3 Includes separated spouse/partners.

Percentages sum to more than 100 because respondents could seek advice from more than one relative.

As in 2001, a female bias was evident in the characteristics of those seeking advice: 38 per cent of mothers compared with 22 per cent of fathers had sought advice about child rearing in the previous twelve months. For both sexes, the propensity to seek such advice was highest among younger people. Among parents aged under 35, over a half of women and over a third of men had asked for advice from relatives. The 2001 survey revealed similar patterns. In 2003, about two-fifths of single and cohabiting parents had sought advice. (Table 7.17)

Although White people were more likely than Asian or Black people to have helped, or been helped by, relatives, there was no such difference in the proportions who had sought advice about child rearing. (Table 7.18)

Table 7.17 Advice about child rearing sought from relatives outside the household, by age, sex and marital status

<i>Percentages</i>		<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
<i>Age, sex and marital status</i>	<i>Sought advice about child rearing in 12 months before interview</i>	<i>Respondents with children under 16</i>
Male		
16 to 24	*	27
25 to 34	37	267
35 to 49	19	747
50 to 64	6	151
65 to 74	*	16
75 or over	*	8
All males	22	1,216
Female		
16 to 24	62	121
25 to 34	56	512
35 to 49	30	929
50 to 64	10	95
65 to 74	*	8
75 or over	*	9
All females	38	1,674
All		
16 to 24	60	148
25 to 34	47	779
35 to 49	25	1,676
50 to 64	8	246
65 to 74	*	24
75 or over	*	17
Marital status¹		
Married	28	1,773
Cohabiting	38	313
Single	41	323
Widowed	18	51
Divorced	35	264
Separated	26	165
All	30	2,890

* Bases too small for percentages to be shown.

¹ Data for same sex couples is excluded because of the small number of cases. 'All' figures include responses for all respondents.

Table 7.18 Advice about child rearing sought from relatives outside the household, by ethnic group

<i>Percentages</i>		<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
<i>Ethnic group</i>	<i>Sought advice about child rearing in 12 months before interview</i>	<i>Respondents with children under 16</i>
White	31	2,538
Mixed race	35	135
All Asian	28	1,353
Indian	27	517
Pakistani	31	392
Bangladeshi	25	252
Other Asian	29	192
All Black	29	777
Caribbean	27	381
African	30	356
Other Black	25	40
Chinese	17	40
Any other	24	217
All (Combined sample)	30	5,060

Do parents use formal sources of advice on child rearing?

Fifty-five per cent of parents with children under 16 had received advice on child rearing from a formal source in the twelve months before interview (43% of parents in 2001). As in 2001, the most commonly used advisers were health professionals – doctors (used by 30% of parents), health visitors or nurses (27%) and midwives (11%). Teachers were also popular sources: 25 per cent of parents had received advice from a teacher. Other sources were used by less than 10 per cent of parents.

As with informal sources, the proportion of parents who had received advice on child rearing from a formal source in the previous twelve months was highest among young parents (85% among 16 to 24 year olds and 66 % among 25 to 34 year olds). The 2001 survey shows a similar pattern.

The 2003 survey suggests that the type of source used can vary with the age of the child. Parents aged under 35 are often more likely to have younger children. The survey found relatively high proportions of parents aged under 35 had received advice from health

professionals and at parenting classes or groups. Conversely, a higher proportion of parents aged 35 to 49 (who are more likely to have older children) received advice from teachers. (Table 7.19)

Table 7.19 Use of formal sources of advice about child rearing, by age of respondent

<i>Percentages</i>		<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>				
Source of advice	16 to 24	25 to 34	35 to 49	50 or over	All	
Doctor	51	39	25	11	30	
Health visitor/nurse	68	45	17	2	27	
Midwife	37	19	6	0	11	
Social worker	3	3	3	2	3	
Religious leader or organisation	0	4	5	3	4	
Teacher	6	21	29	24	25	
Parenting group or class	19	16	6	2	9	
Parentline Plus telephone line	0	0	0	1	0	
Other telephone helplines	3	3	2	0	2	
Voluntary or Community organisations	1	2	2	2	2	
Child and Adolescent Mental Health Services	3	2	2	2	2	
Any of the above	85	66	49	31	55	
<i>Respondents with children under 16</i>	<i>139</i>	<i>719</i>	<i>1,419</i>	<i>149</i>	<i>2,426</i>	

Percentages sum to more than 100 because respondents could seek advice from more than one source.

Following the pattern for informal sources, there were no differences by ethnic group in the proportions who had received advice on child rearing from a formal source.

Nor were there many differences in the types of advisers used. Asian parents were more likely than White parents to have received advice from doctors whereas White parents were more likely than Asian and Black parents to have received advice from teachers. However, some of these variations may reflect the age of the parent. (Table 7.20)

Table 7.20 Use of formal sources of advice about child rearing, by ethnic group

<i>Percentages</i>		<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>			
<i>Source of advice</i>	<i>White</i>	<i>Asian</i>	<i>Black</i>	<i>All¹</i>	
Doctor	29	36	32	29	
Health visitor/nurse	26	30	28	27	
Midwife	10	12	12	11	
Social worker	3	3	7	3	
Religious leader or organisation	4	7	10	4	
Teacher	26	19	20	25	
Parenting group or class	10	6	7	9	
Parentline Plus telephone line	0	0	1	0	
Other telephone helplines	2	1	2	2	
Voluntary or Community organisations	2	2	2	2	
Child and Adolescent Mental Health Services	2	1	1	2	
Any of the above	55	56	55	55	
<i>Respondents with children under 16</i>					
<i>(Combined sample)</i>	<i>2,130</i>	<i>1,195</i>	<i>631</i>	<i>4,286</i>	

¹ Includes cases not shown in the table.

Percentages sum to more than 100 because respondents could seek advice from more than one source.

When asked about their preferred source of advice and information about child rearing, parents overwhelmingly opted for speaking to someone face-to-face (84%). Much smaller proportions chose books (5%), the internet (4%) or telephone help-lines (3%). (Table 7.21)

Table 7.21 Preferred source of advice about child rearing

<i>Percentages</i>	<i>England & Wales, 2003</i>
Preferred source of advice	
Speaking to someone face-to-face	84
Books	5
Internet or website	4
Telephone helpline	3
TV or radio	1
Leaflets	1
Newspapers or magazines	1
Other source	0
Respondents with children under 16	2,352

Conclusion

This chapter examined the complexities of family and household structures and networks, particularly what these mean for parenting support. Whilst responsibility for parenting support has moved from the Home Office to the Department for Education and Skills, the Home Office maintains a strong interest in the role of family networks within communities. Furthermore, the implications of these findings are relevant to many government departments and service providers.

Households with Asian and Black reference people tended to be the largest and they also had the largest family networks living close by. In contrast, Chinese and African people have smaller family networks. This has important implications for service delivery.

Whilst a larger proportion of parents use formal than informal sources of advice on rearing children, they tend to use well established institutions such as health professionals, as opposed to newer initiatives such as help-lines and the internet. This also has important service delivery implications.

Readers interested in families and parenting might also wish to see the forthcoming DfES publication of findings from the Citizenship Survey Children and Young People Boosts.

ACORN classification

The Acorn classification is a means of classifying areas according to various Census characteristics, devised by CACI limited. An ACORN code is assigned to each Census Enumeration District (ED) which is then copied to all postcodes within the ED. The classification consists of 55 area types. These can be collapsed into 17 higher-level groups and six top-level categories as shown below. Analyses in this report use the 17 group classification.

A Affluent suburban and rural areas

1. Wealthy achievers, suburban areas
2. Affluent greys, rural communities
3. Prosperous pensioners, retirement areas

B: Affluent family areas

4. Affluent executives, family areas
5. Well-off workers, family areas

C: Affluent urban areas

6. Affluent Urbanities, Town & City Areas
7. Prosperous professionals, metropolitan areas
8. Better-off executives, inner city areas

D: Mature home-owning areas

9. Comfortable Middle Ageds, Mature Home Owning Areas
10. Skilled Workers, Home Owning Areas

E: New home-owning areas

11. New home owners, mature communities
12. White collar workers, better-off multi-ethnic areas

- F: Council estates and low income areas*
13. Older people, less prosperous areas
 14. Council estate residents, better-off homes
 15. Council estate residents, high unemployment

 16. Council estate residents, greatest hardship
 17. People in multi-ethnic, low-income areas

Dependent children

Dependent children are persons aged under 16.

Economic activity status

Working

This category includes persons aged 16 and over who were employees or self-employed in the week preceding the week of interview. It also includes people on government training schemes.

Unemployed

The survey uses the International Labour Organisation (ILO) definition of unemployment. This classifies anyone as unemployed if he or she was out of work and had looked for work in the four weeks before interview, or would have but for temporary sickness or injury, and was available to start work in the two weeks after interview.

Economically inactive

All other people who were not working in the reference week are classed as economically inactive. This category includes people who were permanently unable to work, retired or looking after the family or home.

Full-time students were classified according to their activity in the reference week.

Family

A family is defined as:

a married or opposite sex cohabiting couple on their own; or

a married or opposite sex cohabiting couple/lone parent and their never-married children, provided these children have no children of their own.

Persons who cannot be allocated to a family as defined above are said to be persons not in the family.

In general, families cannot span more than two generations, i.e. grandparents and grandchildren cannot belong to the same family. The exception to this is where it is established that the grandparents are responsible for looking after the grandchildren (e.g. while the parents are abroad).

Adopted and step-children belong to the same family as their adoptive/step-parents. Foster-children, however, are not part of their foster-parents' family (since they are not related to their foster-parents) and are counted as separate family units.

Family Reference Person (FRP)

The family reference person is defined as follows:

In families with a sole member that person is the family reference person.

In families with joint members, the person with the highest income is taken as the family reference person.

If two members have exactly the same income, the older is taken as the family reference person.

Household

A household is defined as:

a single person or a group of people who have the address as their only or main residence and who either share one meal a day or share the living accommodation.

A person is in general regarded as living at the address if he or she (or the informant) considers the address to be his or her main residence. There are, however, certain rules which take priority over this criterion.

Children aged 16 or over who live away from home for purposes of either work or study and come home only for holidays are not included at the parental address under any circumstances.

Children of any age away from home in a temporary job and children under 16 at boarding school are always included in the parental household.

Anyone who has been away from the address continuously for six months or longer is excluded. Anyone who has been living continuously at the address for six months or longer is included even if he or she has his or her main residence elsewhere.

Addresses used only as second homes are never counted as a main residence.

Householder

The householder is the member of the household in whose name the accommodation is owned or rented, or who is otherwise responsible for the accommodation.

Household Reference Person (HRP)

The household reference person is defined as follows:

In households with a sole householder that person is the household reference person.

In households with joint householders the person with the highest income is taken as the household reference person.

If both householders have exactly the same income, the older is taken as the household reference person.

Household type

The main classification of household type uses the following categories:

Non-family households containing*:

1 person only

2 or more persons

One family households† containing:

Married couple

Cohabiting couple

Lone parent

Households containing two or more families

* Individuals may be related without constituting a family. A household consisting of a brother and sister, for example, is a non-family household of two or more non-family adults.

† Other individuals who were not family members may also have been present.

Index of Multiple Deprivation

Respondents in England were allocated to one of ten decile groups according to the ODPM index of Multiple Deprivation score for the ward in which they lived. The Index combines a number of indicators which cover a range of domains (Income, Employment, Health Deprivation and Disability, Education, Skills and Training, Housing and Geographical Access to Services) into a single deprivation score for each area. The index cannot be equated to the deprivation index for Wales and so respondents living in Wales have been excluded from the analyses of this variable. Further details about the index can be obtained from the ODPM website: www.odpm.gov.uk/research/summaries/03100/index.htm.

Lone-parent family

A lone-parent family consists of one parent, irrespective of sex, living with his or her never-married dependent children, provided these children have no children of their own.

Minority ethnic density

The measure is based on the percentage of households in the postal sector headed by someone from a minority ethnic group, based on the 2001 Census.

Non-resident children

Non-resident children are natural, step or adopted children aged under 16 who did not normally live with the respondent, that is, they spent at least four nights per week at another address.

Qualification levels

Degree or equivalent

Higher degrees

First degrees

University diplomas and certificates, qualifications from colleges of technology etc. and from professional institutions, of degree standard

Higher education below degree level

Non-graduate teaching qualifications

HNC/HND; City and Guilds Full Technological Certificate; BEC/TEC/BTEC Higher/SCOTTECH Higher University diplomas and certificates, qualifications from colleges of technology etc. and from professional institutions, below degree but above GCE 'A' level standard
Nursing qualifications

GCE 'A' level or equivalent

One or more subjects at GCE 'A' level/AS level/Scottish Certificate of Education (SCE) Higher; Scottish Universities Preliminary Examination (SUPE) Higher; and/or Higher School Certificate; Scottish Leaving Certificate (SLC) Higher; Certificate of Sixth Year Studies City and Guilds Advanced/ Final level; ONC/OND; BEC/TEC/BTEC/National/General certificate or diploma

GCSE Grades A-C or equivalent

One or more subjects at GCE 'O' level (Grades A-C)/GCSE (grades A-C)/CSE Grade 1/SCE Ordinary (Bands A-C); SUPE Lower or Ordinary; and/or School Certificates; SLC Lower City and Guilds Craft/Ordinary level/SCOTVEC

GCSE Grades D-E or equivalent

GCSE (grades D-E)/CSE Grades 2-5/GCE 'O' level (Grades D and E)/SCE Ordinary (Bands D and E);

Clerical and commercial qualifications

Apprenticeship

Foreign and other qualifications

Foreign qualifications (outside UK)

Other qualifications

National Statistics Socio-economic classification (NS-SEC)

From April 2001 the National Statistics Socio-economic Classification (NS-SEC) was introduced for all official statistics and surveys. It has replaced Social Class based on occupation and Socio-economic Groups (SEG). More information can be obtained from the Office for National Statistics website: www.statistics.gov.uk.

Descriptive definition

Large employers and higher managerial occupations

Higher professional occupations

Lower managerial and professional occupations

Intermediate occupations

Small employers and own account workers

Lower supervisory and technical occupations

Semi-routine occupations

Routine occupations

Never worked and long-term unemployed

NS-SEC categories

L1, L2

L3

L4, L5, L6

L7

L8, L9

L10, L11

L12

L13

L14

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