7 Socio-economic issues

Key Findings

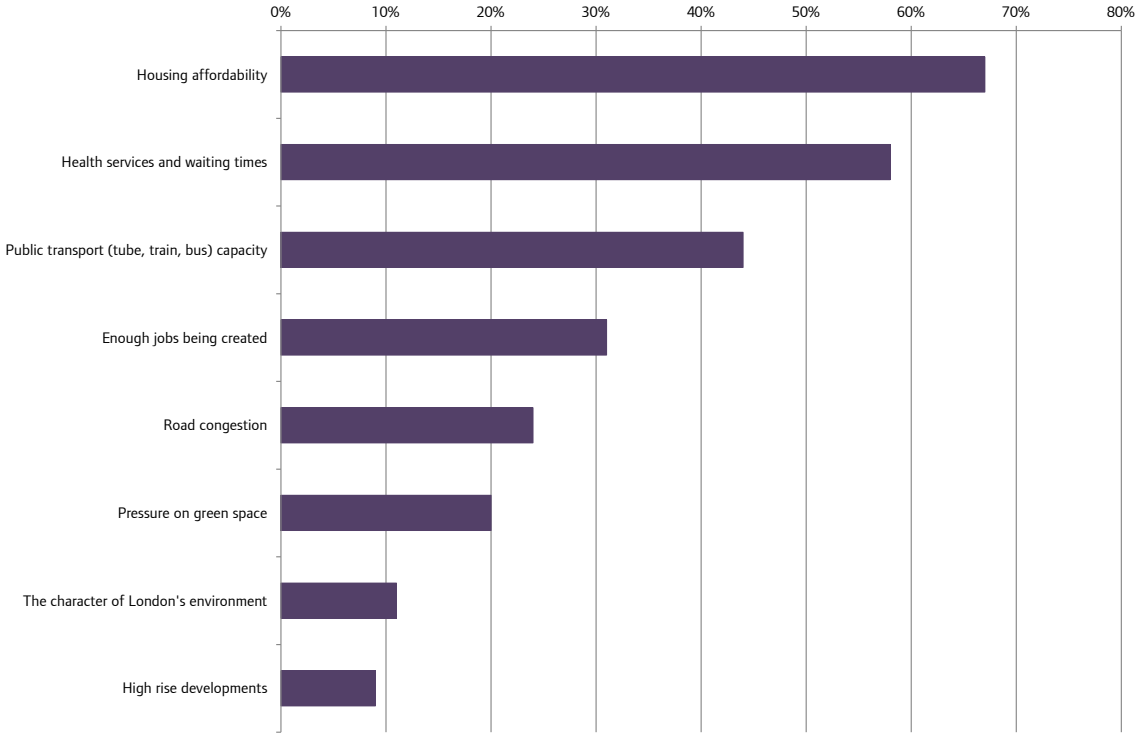
- Earnings made up 78 per cent of all London's household income in 2011/12-2013/14. State support made up just 11 per cent of the total, while investments and occupational pensions each accounted for 4 per cent.
- Nationally, 10 per cent of households have gross incomes below £215 per week, while the figure is only slightly higher in London at £231. At the other end of the scale, 90 per cent of households in the UK have income below £1454 per week (and therefore 10 per cent of households get more than this amount). In London, the top of the distribution is more than a third higher, with 10 per cent of households having income over £1945 per week.
- Median property in England and Wales is sold for more than six times the median gross annual household income; whereas in London, property was sold for more than ten times median gross annual income in 2014 after having risen sharply over the 2000s.
- London was the sixth most expensive city to live in according to a 2015 survey of 71 global cities by UBS.
- Poverty levels among the population after taking account of housing costs are much higher in London than the UK as a whole. Up to a third of all Inner London residents are in poverty by this measure and nearly a quarter of Outer London residents, which is also higher than for any other region.
- Around 300,000 children in Inner London are living in after housing cost poverty, with a further 400,000 in Outer London. The Inner London child poverty rate remains particularly high, at 46 per cent, while the Outer London child poverty rate is lower, at 33 per cent, it is still higher than for any other region.
- Areas of Barking & Dagenham, Brent, Croydon, Ealing, Enfield, Hackney, Haringey, Islington, Kensington & Chelsea, Croydon, Lambeth, Lewisham, Newham, Tower Hamlets, Waltham Forest and Westminster fall within the 5 per cent most deprived areas of England. The City of London and Richmond are the only local authority areas within London with no areas in the most deprived 20 per cent of England.
- London faces health issues that are unique in England as a whole. Around two fifths of all people living with diagnosed HIV in the UK live in London. Further, London has a higher incidence of TB than England as a whole.
- Total recorded crime per 1,000 of population in London was higher than in England in the year to June 2015. However, this did not hold for all offending in London, with for instance sexual offences and possession of weapons offences being at similar rates.
- Education attainment in London is generally high and better than in England as a whole or other English regions as measured by the percentage of pupils achieving 5 or more A*-C grades including English and Maths at GCSE. However, the educational outcome of London's pupils also varies by borough, ethnicity and disadvantage status.

7.1 Introduction

London's economy is internationally competitive and successful in many ways. However, despite the economic success London still has many socio-economic issues. This chapter looks at these issues in more detail.

Londoners' unease about a number of issues has recently been raised in GLA polling as shown in Figure 7.1, and although a number of these are dealt with elsewhere in the report, some of these are socio-economic and have yet to be examined. This chapter provides a brief overview of some of London's socio-economic characteristics that were not covered elsewhere in this report, with the main focus being on those factors that impact directly on individual Londoners, their families or groups of Londoners, beyond the aggregate impact these issues may have on the London economy as a whole.

Figure 7.1: Londoners' top areas of concerns



Source: GLA Intelligence Unit polling[1]

7.2 The affordability of London

This section will look at issues of the affordability of living and working in London. Concerns about the affordability of living and working in London often revolve around worries about London's economic competitiveness which is then linked to a number of policy priorities. Many of these policies resolve into an underlying objective of achieving sustained economic growth, both in absolute terms and per capita. The other major basis for policy is derived from equity concerns and the potential for ever increasing income and/or wealth inequality being perceived as a source of reputational risk to London. Equally important is the impact on the individual or families directly affected.

7.2.1 Affordability and Household Income

Affordability is, for most purposes, dependent on the resources available (usually measured in terms of income) and the costs of the good or service. It is often contingent on a complex balance of resources and needs, although affordability is most often discussed in terms of housing. However, it applies equally to other items and this part of the chapter will look beyond just housing affordability. Affordability can also be considered from different aspects – business, the overall economic viewpoint or from the household perspective. This section of the chapter looks at the last of these, with the other aspects being covered elsewhere in the report.

Household income is itself a difficult concept. Generally it includes income for all individuals within the household from all sources: earnings (including from self-employment); pensions and investments; benefits and other sources such as maintenance payments; educational grants; and ad hoc income, for example, royalties, income from odd jobs, babysitting etc; and the total may also include the value of certain payments in kind, such as free school meals, free TV licence for over 75s etc. This is further complicated by whether this is calculated before certain deductions such as taxes, pension contributions, maintenance payments etc. For this analysis, different definitions are thus used:

- gross income is all income from all sources, including the value of state-funded payments in kind (but not including the "subsidised" element of social rent).

- net income before housing costs (BHC) is the gross income above, less direct taxes, including Council Tax, and pension contributions and also deducts transfer payments made, such as maintenance for children or support for students living elsewhere.

- net income after housing costs (AHC) is the net income BHC less certain housing costs including rent, mortgage interest payments (but not capital repayment), water charges, service charges and structural insurance premiums.

The last of these points nods towards both living standards and the question of affordability, with households occupying different types of accommodation depending on their resources. For the most part, people with higher incomes live in better quality accommodation, with more space, in areas considered more desirable, all of which tends to make housing more expensive while those on lower incomes have much reduced options in terms of housing.

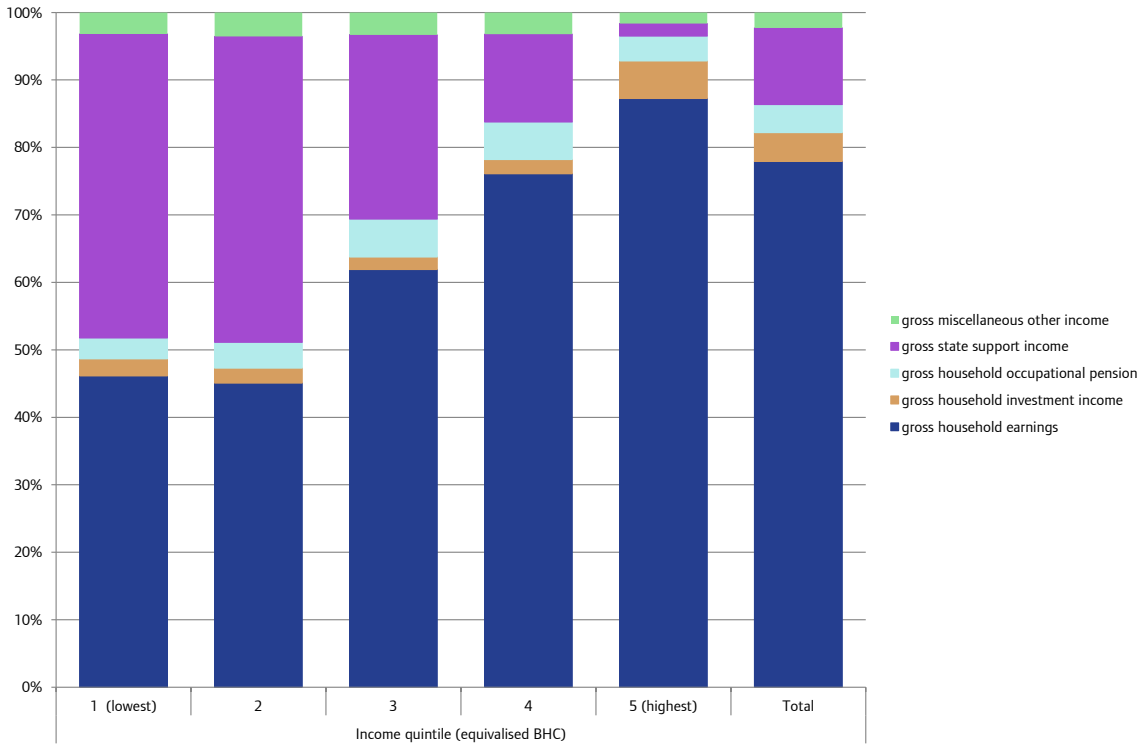
Overall, households across the UK receive 70 per cent of their gross income from earnings, making this by far the largest source of income. A further 15 per cent comes from state support in the form of state pension, child benefit, disability benefits, means-tested support for those who are out of work or on low incomes and other benefits. Income from occupational pensions and other investments makes up a further 12 per cent of the total, with just 2 per cent from other sources. Earnings make up an even greater proportion of total household income in London – 78 per cent of all household income 2011/12-2013/14. State support made up just 11 per cent of the total, while investments and occupational pensions each accounted for 4 per cent (see Figure 7.2).

This distribution varies widely by household type and by income level. Nationally, income for households with children comes overwhelmingly from earnings (over 80 per cent), with less than 15 per cent from state support. For households in the lowest fifth of the income distribution, around 45 per cent of income was from earnings and 50 per cent from state support. Households with pensioners but no children have a much higher proportion of income from state support, occupational pensions and investments; though around 20 per cent of income of all households with pensioners was from earnings, with a quarter of income deriving from occupational pensions and over 10 per cent from other investments. Among pensioner households in the lowest fifth of the income distribution, close to 80 per cent of income was from state support, whereas in the highest income category, this made up less than 20 per cent of their total income. Among households made up of only working age adults, a higher proportion of income was from earnings, and state support was much lower, with a higher proportion also from miscellaneous other sources.

Figure 7.2 shows that London's households in the two lowest national income quintiles (using the BHC equivalised income) are remarkably similar in the profile of their income sources, with roughly equal amounts coming from earnings and from benefits. Each of these quintiles accounts for 16 per cent of all London's households. Earnings clearly make an increasing contribution to the total, balanced by a reduction in the proportion deriving from state support as total income increases, as would be expected. The combined total of the other three groups as a percentage of overall total income varies little across the quintiles. It is particularly worth noting that the overall percentage of total household income that is from earnings is higher than for all except the highest income quintile. This reflects both the relatively high proportion of

London's households in this highest quintile nationally (29 per cent) and the very high earnings of some households at the highest part of the income distribution.

Figure 7.2: Sources of gross income by income quintiles in London, 2011/12 – 2013/14



Source: Family Resources Survey 2011/12-2013/14, DWP

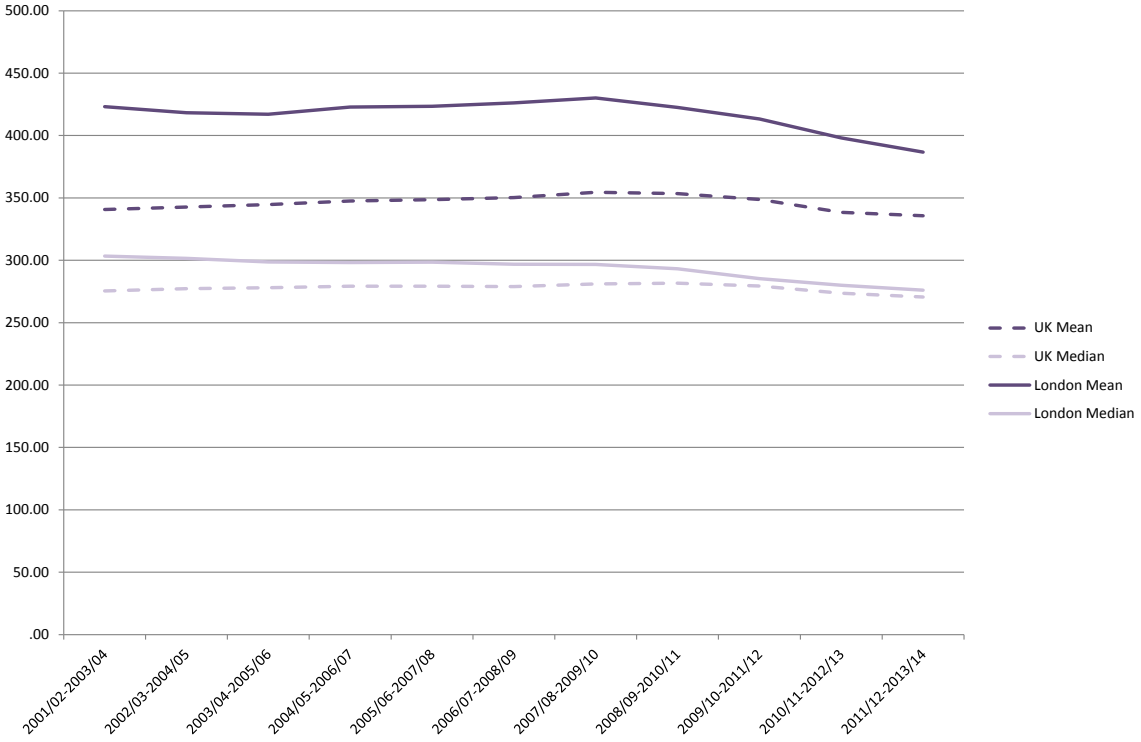
Table 7.1 shows the average figures (mean and median) for gross household income in both London and the UK, along with distributional figures in the form of the deciles. Nationally, 10 per cent of households have gross incomes below £215 per week, while the figure is only slightly higher in London at £231. At the other end of the scale, 90 per cent of households in the UK have income below £1454 (and therefore 10 per cent of households get more than this amount), in London, the top of the distribution is more than a third higher, with 10 per cent of households having income over £1945 per week. This disparity is reflected in the median and mean figures. While the median for London is higher than the UK figure, the mean is much higher because there are more high earners in London. Figure 7.3 shows the evolution of London and the UK's median and mean AHC incomes overtime and highlights the convergence that has occurred with median incomes.

Table 7.1: Mean, median & deciles, gross, gross equivalised, equivalised BHC & AHC, weekly income London & UK, All households, 2011/12-2013/14

	UK				London			
	Gross household income	Equivalised gross household income	Equivalised net household income BHC	Equivalised net household income AHC	Gross household income	Equivalised gross household income	Equivalised net household income BHC	Equivalised net household income AHC
Mean	787	726	549	484	1035	942	677	557
Median	568	543	447	390	679	620	508	398
Percentiles								
10	215	259	227	154	231	270	230	113
20	294	328	289	226	334	350	304	193
30	372	390	339	277	428	427	367	250
40	461	459	390	330	548	522	433	316
50	568	543	447	390	679	620	508	398
60	694	641	513	457	850	778	600	491
70	850	770	595	537	1071	972	718	602
80	1067	950	707	646	1358	1216	878	759
90	1454	1264	910	846	1945	1690	1163	1049

Source: Family Resources Survey, 2011/12-2013/14, three year averages

Figure 7.3: Mean and median equivalised household weekly income AHC, All households, London and UK



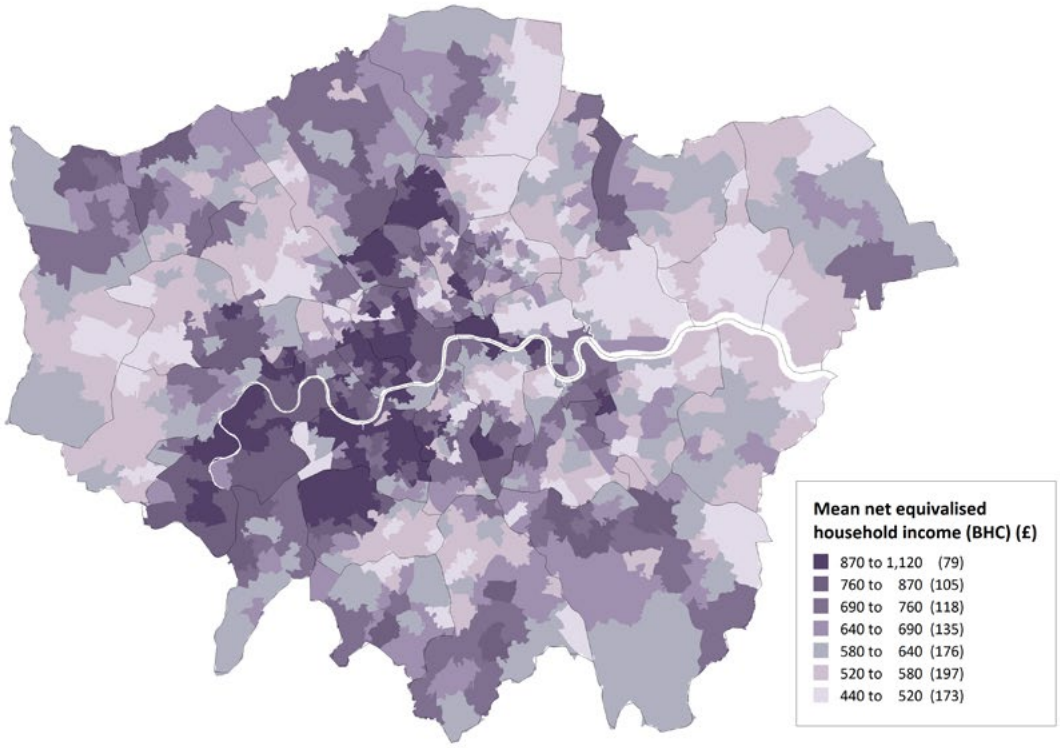
Source: Family Resources Survey 2001/02-20013/14, 3-year averages, adjusted using RPI All Prices Index (ONS)

In addition to variation around sources of income, household characteristics make a big contribution to affordability issues, as the necessary costs vary. To measure the potential living standard of a household, the number and age of the individuals within that household are incorporated with the income information through a process called equivalisation so it becomes possible to compare incomes of individuals living alone with larger households. This is an important step in determining affordability.

After equivalisation, the disparities in the gross household incomes between the UK and London figures are smaller, reflecting the fact that London households generally have more people. Once taxes etc are taken into account, differences at the lower end of the distribution in the net BHC income have all but disappeared, and after taking into account the higher costs of housing in London, the medians for the UK and London are close, so nearly half of London households have less disposable income after paying the essential costs for their housing than do their equivalent households in the rest of the UK. The disposable income at the bottom decile within London is less than three quarters of the figure for the whole of the UK. Ten per cent of households have less than the equivalent of £113 per week to support a couple with no children. At the same time, higher income households in London still tend to be better off than those elsewhere, though at the 90th percentile of the distribution, the disparity has fallen to less than a quarter. The mean for London remains considerably higher than the national mean due to this much wider range and households at the top end having very high incomes.

Map 7.1 shows how the mean of the equivalised net income varies across London. While it is clear that the richer (on average) areas are generally in the west of London, the pattern is very dispersed. Several boroughs, such as Wandsworth, Kensington & Chelsea, Lambeth and Southwark, each include small areas with average net income of over £1,000 per household per week, as well as other areas where the average net income is less than £500 per household per week. In contrast, there are few areas is east London with high average incomes. No areas in Barking & Dagenham have an average net equivalised income above £600, with only five of the 22 areas exceeding £525.

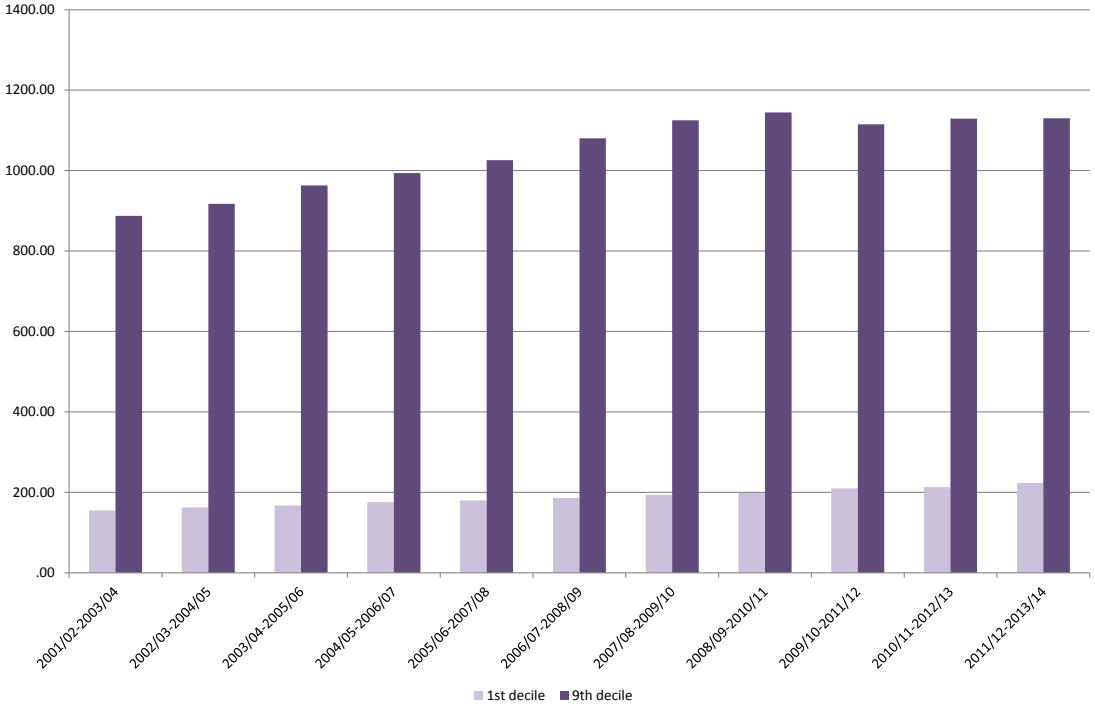
Map 7.1: Mean equivalised household income (BHC) in London (MSOAs)



Source: ONS Small Area Income Estimates 2011/12

The inequality of income across London is further illustrated looking at the change over time. This shows the gap between incomes for the top and bottom 10 per cent of London's BHC income distribution increasing from 2001/02 to 2009/10, whereas the gap has since fallen back as the lowest incomes have continued to increase while the highest incomes have fallen.

Figure 7.4: Highest and lowest deciles of equivalised nominal BHC household weekly income over time in London



Source: Family Resources Survey 2001/02-2013/14, DWP 3 year averages

Affordability affects different groups of people in different ways – different factors and different things are important. A key component, apart from income, is expenditure, which can be split into essential and non-essential spending. The essentials cover things like housing, food and clothing, transport, fuel and for some, childcare, costs of disability/care. For most (even essential) expenditure there is a balance between cost and quality in some way, which may also factor in time spent. For housing, for example, there is for many people a compromise between what they can afford, where they want to be, and the attributes of the actual property.

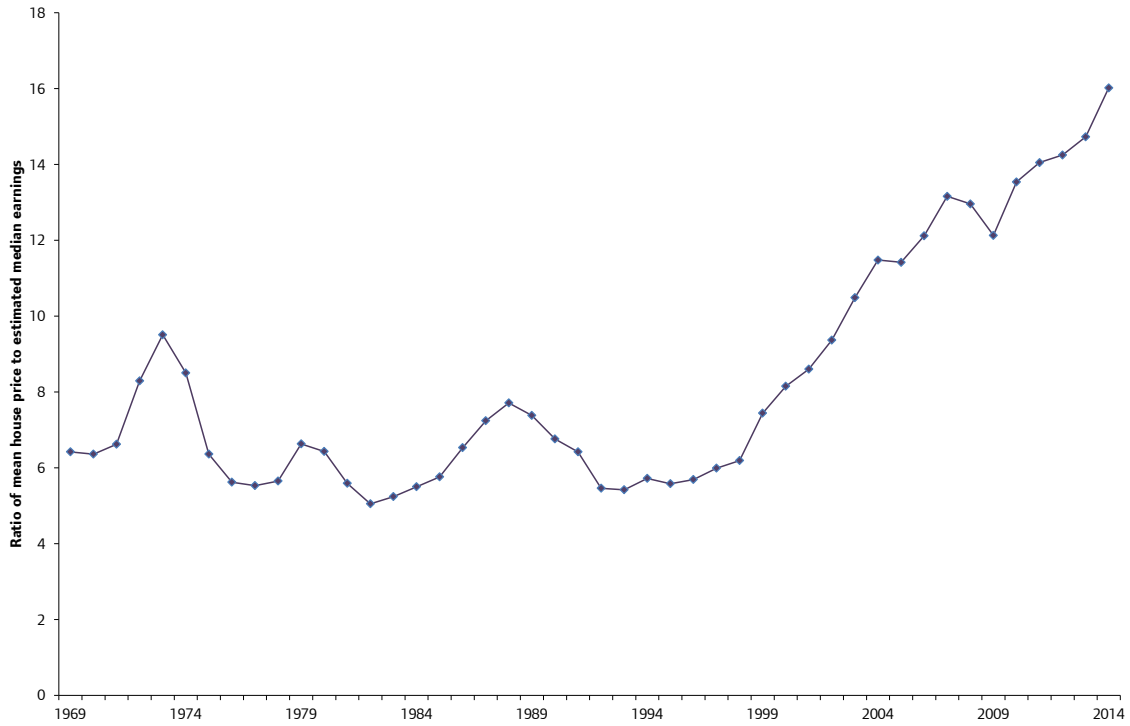
Costs of some items vary little across the country, though access to those prices may not be equally available - utilities and basic food costs fall into this group. However, Londoners tend to spend more eating out than average, possibly meaning that the average food expenditure (which excludes eating out) may be reduced. For other items, there are clear differences – overall costs of transport in London are generally cheaper than in many other parts of the country: fewer people have cars, distances travelled may be shorter[2], so walking or cycling may be more feasible options. Actual expenditure on a particular good or service is therefore not always a good indication of costs.

There are particular services, such as childcare, which may be essential to allow parents to work, where the costs are higher than elsewhere. Childcare costs are, on average, around £40 more per week in London than the national average for pre-school-age part-time care, £70 more for full-time or £25 more for after-school care[3]. Working London parents therefore need to earn relatively more than those elsewhere to pay for this.

7.2.2 Affordability: The cost of housing

As already highlighted in Chapter 2, house prices in London have been rising. This means rising costs for households given that the biggest variation in costs for them is, of course, housing. The median house price for property sold in London in 2014 was £365,000, compared with £195,000 nationally[4]. The London figure is more than three times that for the North East and nearly 50 per cent higher than the median for the South East[5]. These figures mean that the median property in England and Wales is sold for more than six times the median gross annual household income, whereas in London, the same ratio was more than ten, having risen sharply over the 2000s (see Figure 7.5). This is a very crude indicator of housing affordability, since gross household income includes elements that would not be relevant for house purchase, such as Housing Benefit, but nevertheless it shows how much more difficult it may be to access owner occupation in London than in the rest of the country.

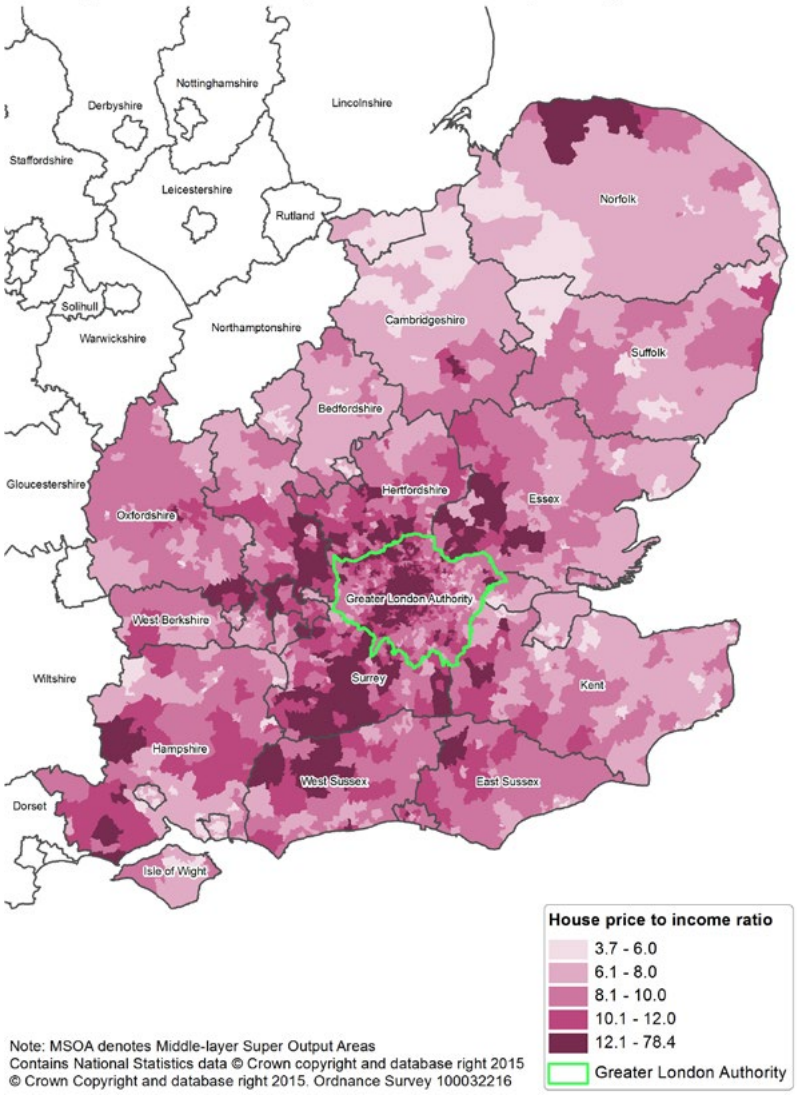
Figure 7.5: House price to earnings ratio in London, 1969 - 2014



Sources: New Earnings Survey (NES) prior to 1997 and ASHE workplace-based earnings from 1997 to 2014. ONS simple average house prices, 1969-2014. Notes: for consistency with ASHE data, median annual earnings from 1969-1997 are based on weighted estimates of work-based weekly earnings from NES data.

Research by the Institute for Fiscal Studies (IFS) examined London's house prices in relation to the UK as a whole and found that "real house prices [have] increased more than threefold (by 247 per cent) in London from their trough in 1994–95 to their peak in 2007–08. They have also recovered more strongly than in the rest of the UK since the financial crisis"[6]. Again, this research highlights that Londoners are required to spend more as a multiple of their income on housing than elsewhere, with the IFS finding that the ratio of house prices to average earnings in London stood at an all-time high of over ten in 2014 compared to just under seven for the UK as a whole. Map 7.2 below illustrates a similar issue for the Greater South East as a whole, although as can be observed the problem is particularly acute in London and its surrounding geography.

Map 7.2: Housing affordability in the Greater South East, 2014

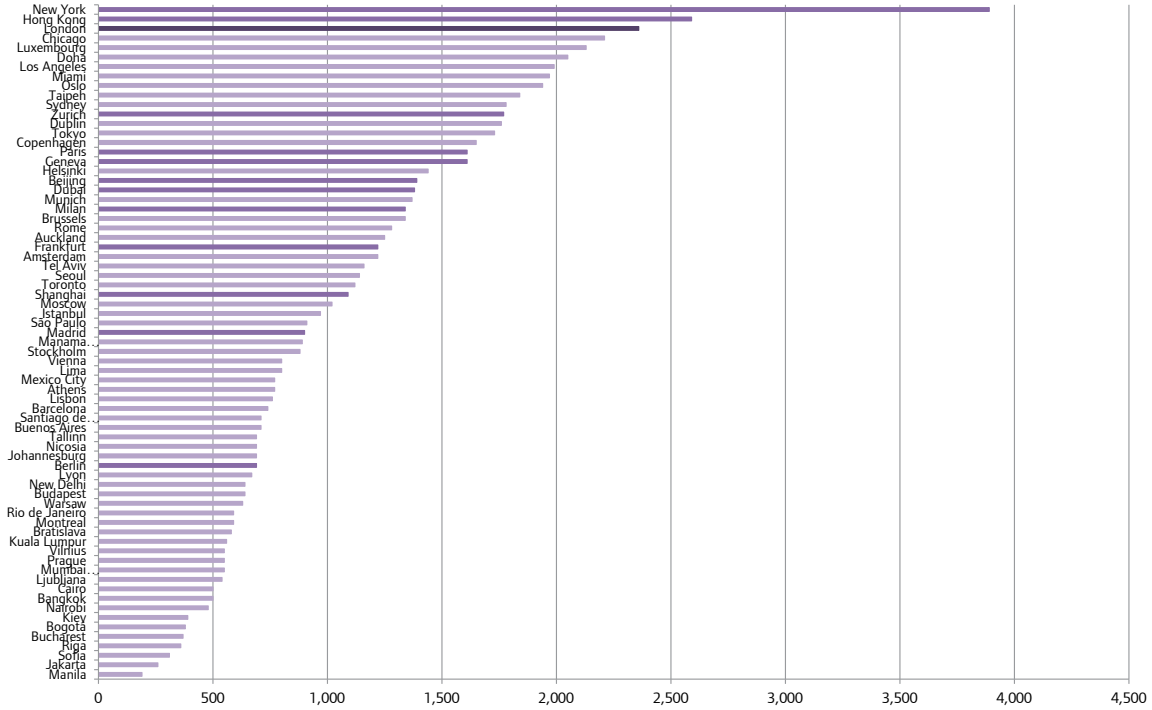


Source: GLA Intelligence Unit mapping of ONS and Land Registry data

Affordability of private rents is also an issue for Londoners. Comparing the median private rent[7] to the gross income of a household around the middle of the income distribution shows that private rents account for around half of all income (including Housing Benefit) in London, whereas nationally median private rent would account for close to a quarter of median gross income.

London's private rental housing is also costly compared to other world cities. This can be observed from Figure 7.6 which shows that the medium normal local rent in London is high, with renting only costing more in New York, and Hong Kong.

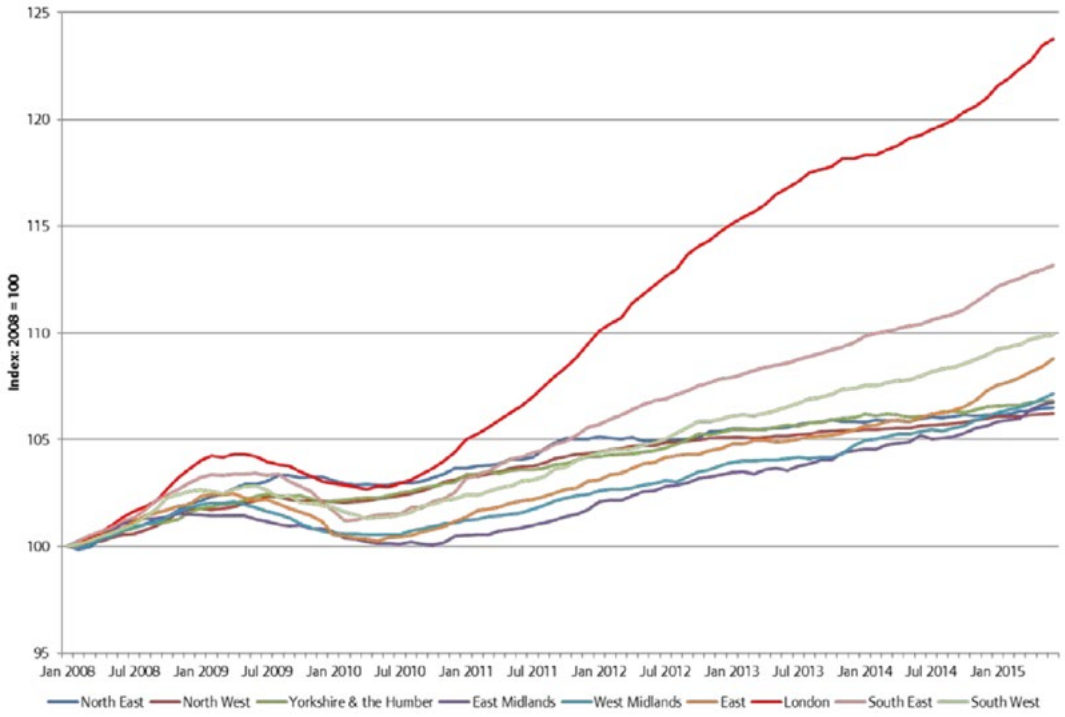
Figure 7.6: Normal local rent[8] costs in selected world cities (US$[9])[10]



Source: UBS[11]

Within the UK, the relative costs of private renting have risen sharply in London compared to other English regions. Figure 7.7 provides experimental data from the ONS providing a quarterly index of housing rental prices.

Figure 7.7: Private housing rental price index, London and other English regions, 2008 – 2014



Source: ONS

7.2.3 Affordability: The cost of living

London is also a costly city to live in. Table 7.2 shows the relative cost of living in various cities as determined by their price levels. London ranks at number 6 according to this survey by UBS. Knight Frank,

in examining the affordability of a number of global cities for graduates - an important demographic for the future success of the city - ranked London 13th out of 20 cities behind Frankfurt, Berlin, Paris and New York, but ahead of Tokyo, Singapore, Shanghai and Hong Kong[12]. While Mercer ranked London as 12th most expensive out of 207 cities in their 2015 cost of living rankings behind Luanda, Hong Kong, Zurich, Singapore, Geneva, Shanghai, Beijing, Bern, N'Djamena and Tokyo, but ahead of New York, Dubai and Paris amongst others[13].

Table 7.2: Price levels in selected world cities[14] (Index New York = 100)[15]

Rank	City	Excl. rent	Incl. Rent	Rank	City	Excl. rent	Incl. Rent	Rank	City	Excl. rent	Incl. Rent
1	Zurich	108.7	92.6	25	Dublin	70.3	63.1	49	Tallinn	54.4	44
2	Geneva	106.1	91.8	26	Taipeh	67.3	62.7	50	Ljubljana	54	44
3	New York	100	100	27	Brussels	67.2	57.3	51	Bogotá	53.6	43.7
4	Oslo	92.9	79.9	28	Rome	67.1	57.1	52	Jakarta	53.3	41.6
5	Copenhagen	88	74.3	29	Manama (Bahrain)	66.6	55.4	53	Bratislava	53.3	42.6
6	London	84.7	79.5	30	Frankfurt	65.8	55.1	54	Santiago de Chile	52.8	44
7	Chicago	83.5	76.7	31	Munich	65.5	56.1	55	Lima	52.2	42.8
8	Tokyo	83.1	70.6	32	Vienna	65.4	53.4	56	Kuala Lumpur	52	41.2
9	Auckland	82.8	67.6	33	Amsterdam	65.3	55.5	57	Moscow	51.9	45.2
10	Sydney	80.5	72.5	34	Shanghai	64.9	54.3	58	Manila	51.3	41.1
11	Seoul	79.2	64.2	35	Istanbul	64.8	53	59	Vilnius	50.9	40.9
12	Toronto	78.1	63.7	36	Doha	64.8	61.4	60	Nairobi	50.3	40.5
13	Milan	77.9	64.5	37	Lyon	64.8	51.2	61	Warsaw	48.8	39.6
14	Stockholm	76.9	62.8	38	Berlin	63.3	51.3	62	Cairo	48.1	38.7
15	Montreal	76.2	58.9	39	Barcelona	63.2	50.5	63	Budapest	47.6	38.6
16	Miami	76.1	67.7	40	Beijing	61.4	53.2	64	Johannesburg	46.6	40.5
17	Los Angeles	76	67.4	41	Madrid	60.6	50.4	65	Riga	45.8	37.1
18	Helsinki	74.3	63.2	42	Nicosia	60.3	48.4	66	Prague	45.6	36.4
19	Hong Kong	72.9	76.8	43	São Paulo	59.4	49.5	67	New Delhi	45.5	36.9
20	Paris	72.6	63.8	44	Athens	58.9	47.5	68	Mumbai	44.9	37.2
21	Luxembourg	72.3	66.1	45	Rio de Janeiro	57.9	49.2	69	Bucharest	43.8	34.5
22	Tel Aviv	72	61.4	46	Bangkok	57.5	46.4	70	Sofia	39	30
23	Dubai	71.1	66.1	47	Lisbon	55.5	45.3	71	Kiev	38.1	30.3
24	Buenos Aires	70.4	56.1	48	Mexico City	54.7	46.2				

Source: UBS[16]

7.2.3.1 The basic living cost of a basket of goods to Londoners

In the calculation of the London Living Wage[17] it is accepted that a certain level of income is necessary to cover the costs of essential items to households, these costs are called basic living costs and are divided into the following sub-categories:

- Housing
- Council tax
- Transport
- Childcare
- All other costs (a 'regular shopping basket').

The London Living Wage undertook estimates of basic living costs for four family types:

- a two adult household with two children aged ten and four
- a one adult household with two children aged ten and four
- a couple without children
- a single person without children.

Tables 7.3 and 7.4 below show the calculations of basic living costs in London for these families given different employment patterns.

Table 7.3: Basic Living Costs for typical families living in London (£ per week), households with children

	Couple with children					Lone parent	
	2 full time workers	1 full time, 1 part time	2 part time	1 full time	1 part time	Full time	Part time
Shopping basket costs	216.40	216.40	216.40	216.40	216.40	164.10	164.10
Housing	122.40	122.40	122.40	122.40	122.40	122.40	122.40
Council Tax	25.00	25.00	25.00	25.00	25.00	18.70	18.70
Total Transport Costs	66.80	66.80	66.80	33.40	33.40	33.40	33.40
Childcare costs	308.00	149.60	149.60	0.00	0.00	308.00	149.60
Total costs	738.70	580.30	580.30	397.20	397.20	646.70	488.30

Source: GLA Economics calculations[18]

Table 7.4: Basic Living Costs for typical families living in London (£ per week), households without children

	Couple with no children					Single no children	
	2 full time workers	1 full time, 1 part time	2 part time	1 full time	1 part time	Full time	Part time
Shopping basket costs	129.80	129.80	129.80	129.80	129.80	101.90	101.90
Housing	209.00	209.00	209.00	209.00	209.00	134.10	134.10
Council Tax	25.00	25.00	25.00	25.00	25.00	18.70	18.70
Total Transport Costs	66.80	66.80	66.80	33.40	33.40	33.40	33.40
Childcare costs	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Total costs	430.60	430.60	430.60	397.20	397.20	288.20	288.20

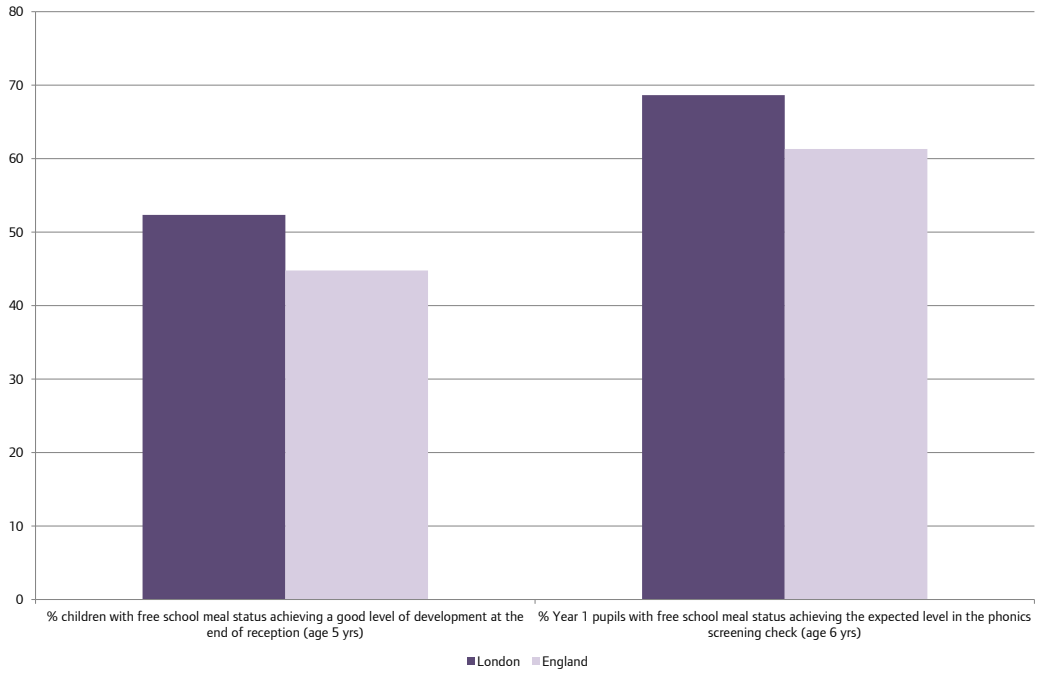
Source: GLA Economics calculations[19]

Thus, it can be observed that different types of households require different levels of weekly income to cover their basic costs. Further, other costs may be a significant strain on households with research by GLA Economics in 2011 finding that "the incidence of fuel poverty in London [stood at between] 13.3 per cent to 18.6 per cent. Furthermore, the actual numbers of households involved are very substantial, although the 12.9 per cent share of national households in fuel poverty is slightly less than London's share of English households. When severe fuel poverty is examined, there are more than 126,400 households in London falling within the definition. However, in the case of both fuel poverty and severe fuel poverty, there are significant numbers in the capital just beneath the threshold level (ie between 7.6 per cent and 10.0 per cent of basic income)"[20].

7.2.3.2 Affordability: Child care

Child care affordability is a cause of concern for a number of reasons such as the inequality of opportunity associated with poor care in early years. Specifically, in inequality terms, there is a widespread concern to improve the chances of children in their early years. This is particularly important for those who would otherwise be disadvantaged. For instance, Ofsted found that "only a little more than a third of children from low income backgrounds reached a good level of development"[21] before entering primary school. There was also a variety of outcomes across London with Ofsted further noting that when looking at "the proportion of children from low income families achieving a good level of development in each local authority…it is clear that these children are being failed in some very different areas. Gateshead, Leicester and Richmond upon Thames serve very different communities and yet all have similar poor performance. Twelve of the top 20 local authorities on this measure are found in the capital: [however] as we have reported elsewhere, educational performance in London is some of the highest in the country. But not all London boroughs do so well, with two boroughs in the bottom 20 in the country"[22]. The deprivation aspect of this is highlighted in Figure 7.8 below which shows that although London children receiving free school meals perform better than the English average at the start of their formal school career, there are still many who do not.

Figure 7.8: Percentage of children receiving free school meals achieving a good level of development at the end of reception and achieving the expected level in the phonics screening check in year 1, in London and England in 2013/14



Source: Public Health England[23]

Looking at data from the Childcare Costs Survey 2015[24], it can be seen that the cost of childcare is higher in London than in any other region. This finding is not a surprise given the previous analysis on regional prices, however the analysis shows that the variation between London and the UK is considerably larger than for prices in general. Table 7.5 shows the variation in weekly costs of childcare between London and Great Britain as a whole.

Table 7.5: Weekly costs of childcare, London and Great Britain, 2015

	Nursery 25 hours (Under 2 years)	Nursery 25 hours (Over 2 years)	Childminder 25 hours (Under 2 years)	Childminder 25 hours (Over 2 years)	After School Club 15 hours	Childminder After School Pick-up
London	£152.06	£140.64	£146.31	£144.27	£53.65	£89.94
Great Britain	£115.45	£109.83	£104.06	£103.04	£48.18	£64.65
Difference	31.7%	28.1%	40.6%	40.0%	11.4%	39.1%

Source: Family and Childcare Trust

The survey also found that between 2010 and 2015, the increase in the weekly cost of a nursery place for children under the age of two was 38.0 per cent in London, compared to 32.8 per cent for Great Britain as a whole. This was however not the largest percentage increase for any one region, it was estimated that in the West Midlands, these costs increased by 51.9 per cent over the same period. Despite this, it is clear that increases in childcare costs have outstripped inflation in the past five years. It is also clear that childcare can represent a significant proportion of household income, with the survey estimating that the annual cost of a nursery place for a child under the age of two would be £7,907 in 2015.

7.2.4 Conclusions to the affordability of London

Conclusions on London's affordability are far from easy to describe in brief. On the basis of many competing indices, illustrated elsewhere in this Evidence Base, London is consistently highly placed as a good place to live. However, for many aspects of household affordability, London appears to be an expensive city in which to live.

7.3 Living standards, poverty and inequality; diversity and inclusion

Issues relating to living standards and poverty impact on equity, but can also impact on the perception of the capital as a place to live and work. This section analyses data on poverty, household expenditure and provides analysis on the numbers of Londoners dependant on benefits. In addition this section looks at spatial data on the relative deprivation of areas within London.

7.3.1 Fairness and equity in London

In many ways London's economy has recovered well from the 2008/09 recession, with levels of employment not seen since records began in 1992. However, as noted in other chapters, productivity has lagged behind and although the city offers opportunities that draw people from across the world, issues around the cost of housing and concentrated levels of deprivation (amongst other factors) have led some to question whether these opportunities are available to all. Recent research by the London Fairness Commission has begun to examine this issue in some detail[25]. Their research found that a slim majority of survey respondents agreed with the statement "London is a fair city" with 51 per cent of women and 56 per cent of men agreeing. However, there were variations based on age with 51 per cent of 18-54 year olds agreeing while 60 per cent of over 55's agreed. Further, a minority of those who rented their housing agreed standing at 48 per cent, compared to 61 per cent of owner occupiers. There were also variations based on household income levels with 52 per cent of households with incomes less than £50k agreeing, this rose to 60 per cent for households with incomes between £50k and £70k, before dropping to 55 per cent for households with incomes over £70k.

The Commission also found that "Londoners are divided about how their personal financial situation may change over the next year. 44 per cent felt that it would stay the same, 22 per cent thought that it would get better, and 24 per cent felt that it would get worse. 9 per cent did not know how their personal financial situation would change". Further, "the majority of Londoners (69 per cent) do not believe there is sufficient affordable housing available across all areas of London. A further 15 per cent think that there is not enough affordable housing in some areas of London". And "just over half of Londoners (52 per cent) believe that Local Authorities should encourage mixed developments for households from all incomes to be developed. A substantial minority (31 per cent) believe that new developments should be low cost housing for poorest residents"[26].

7.3.2 Living standards, poverty and inequality

There is a large degree of overlap between the issues of affordability discussed in the sections above, and the concerns around living standards, poverty and inequality. Both rely on estimates of income and need to adjust for the number and characteristics of individuals in the household which vary substantially. Housing costs, particularly in areas of high housing costs such as the vast majority of London, are inevitably instrumental in determining living standards and need to be taken into account when considering poverty. Data on Family Spending shows that Londoners tend to spend more on housing than people elsewhere, but less on transport (see Table 7.6)[27]. They also spend more on "luxury" items; restaurants, hotels etc. This is likely to be a reflection, at least in part, of the number of high income households.

Table 7.6: Household expenditure by UK countries and regions, 2011-2013

	North East	North West	Yorkshire & the Humber	East Midlands	West Midlands	East	London	South East	South West	England	Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland	United Kingdom
Average weighted number of households (thousands)	1,130	2,970	2,310	1,950	2,330	2,500	3,190	3,540	2,200	22,130	1,250	2,330	740	26,450
Total number of households in sample (over 3 years)	800	1,860	1,500	1,300	1,570	1,600	1,510	2,230	1,430	13,790	760	1,400	480	16,430
Total number of persons in sample (over 3 years)	1,820	4,340	3,490	3,000	3,770	3,820	3,770	5,300	3,330	32,640	1,800	3,100	1,200	38,740
Total number of adults in sample (over 3 years)	1,430	3,320	2,690	2,360	2,910	2,940	2,770	4,070	2,610	25,090	1,410	2,460	920	29,880
Weighted average number of persons per household	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.3	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.2	2.4	2.4
Commodity or service	Average weekly household expenditure (£)													
Food & non-alcoholic drinks	48.60	53.00	49.80	55.40	53.90	60.10	60.30	63.20	59.80	56.90	55.30	54.80	62.60	56.80
Alcoholic drinks, tobacco & narcotics	12.00	12.50	12.30	12.00	11.90	11.60	10.60	12.60	11.30	11.90	10.60	14.90	15.30	12.20
Clothing & footwear	22.40	21.70	19.80	19.70	19.70	20.40	25.30	24.60	23.20	22.10	22.20	23.00	35.00	22.60
Housing(net)[28], fuel & power	58.70	63.30	61.30	60.80	61.20	69.00	103.20	74.80	65.30	70.80	56.70	56.90	56.50	68.50
Household goods & services	28.80	30.80	26.00	28.20	27.50	30.50	31.00	35.50	32.00	30.50	23.40	26.50	25.20	29.60
Health	3.30	4.20	5.30	6.60	5.30	6.90	6.50	10.70	8.20	6.70	4.80	4.80	6.30	6.40
Transport	52.20	58.00	57.90	66.10	63.60	75.20	62.50	84.50	73.10	67.30	60.70	65.80	65.40	66.80
Communication	12.20	12.70	12.50	13.80	13.30	14.50	16.20	14.80	14.00	14.00	13.30	12.60	14.40	13.80
Recreation & culture	57.70	60.10	56.40	63.20	59.60	70.70	60.50	75.60	67.80	64.30	61.50	54.30	57.70	63.10
Education	5.30	5.60	4.80	9.30	7.70	5.10	13.10	7.80	10.30	7.90	11.70	3.50	2.90	7.50
Restaurants & hotels	35.30	37.10	36.80	34.00	36.90	39.80	50.10	46.10	41.60	40.70	32.70	36.80	47.10	40.20
Miscellaneous goods & services	31.00	37.80	34.80	38.40	35.80	42.30	41.40	47.90	38.80	39.70	31.80	32.50	40.70	38.70
All expenditure groups	367.60	396.80	377.60	407.40	396.20	446.20	480.60	498.00	445.50	432.80	384.60	386.50	429.10	426.30
Total expenditure	424.60	458.70	431.10	466.70	455.50	523.40	579.60	585.40	518.20	505.40	438.80	449.00	484.70	496.70
Average weekly expenditure per person (£)														
Total expenditure	190.5	197.1	189.00	204.40	192.30	224.50	231.00	244.20	218.40	214.10	182.80	202.10	200.70	211.20

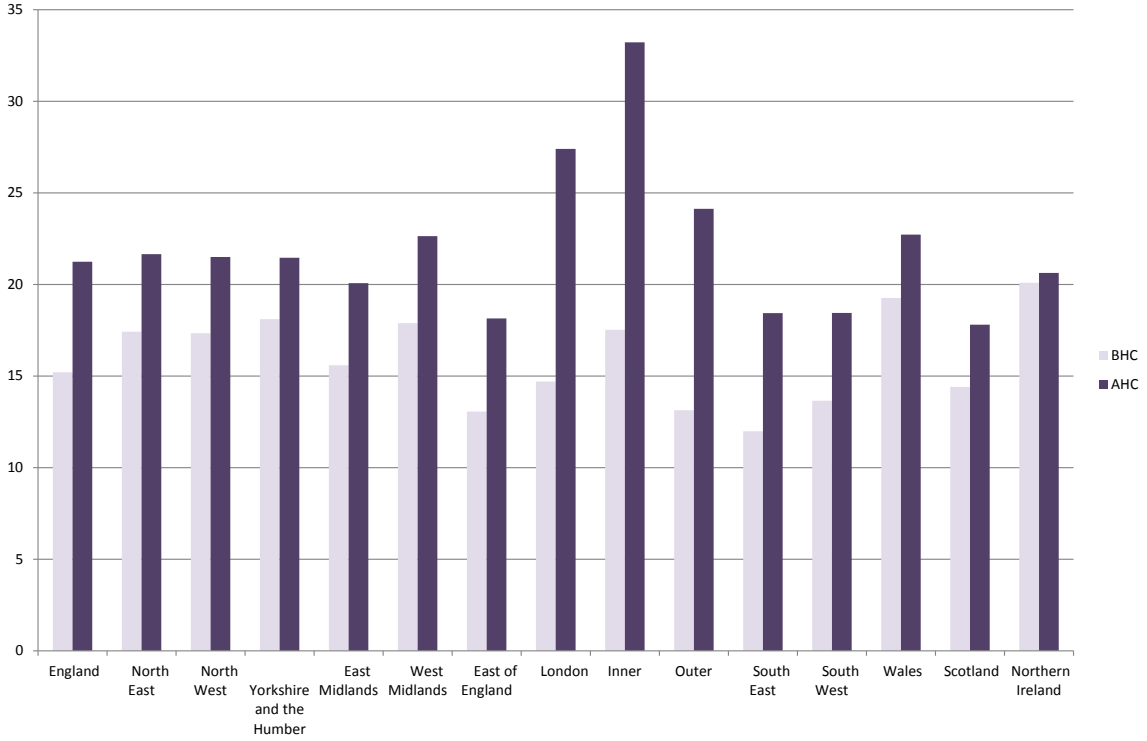
Source: ONS, Family Spending 2013

Note: 1) The commodity and service categories are not comparable to those in publications before 2001-02. 2) This table is based on a three year average.

This wide variation in spending patterns, living standards and inequality is revealed in the levels of poverty in London. As previously with affordability, there are again different measures available. The primary measures used by Government and others are defined in terms of income and are relative (rather than to some externally determined level). Poverty is measured as those in households whose (equivalised) household income is below 60 per cent of the median for the population as a whole. It can be measured using either the before or after housing costs definitions described previously. Comparisons are with national medians, so there are particular difficulties with regards to London with using the before housing costs measure around the inclusion of Housing Benefit in total income, as for most people in London it is higher than in other parts of the country due to the higher housing costs. Of course, this is particularly relevant for those in the lowest income groups who are most likely to be entitled to Housing Benefit.

On the Before Housing Costs measure of poverty, the proportion of Londoners in poverty is close to the national average. However, it is higher in Inner London with levels close to the North of England, but lower in Outer London and more in line with neighbouring regions. In contrast, poverty levels among London's population after taking account of housing costs in the capital are clearly much higher in London than the UK as a whole. Up to a third of all Inner London residents are in poverty by this measure, and nearly a quarter of Outer London residents, which is still higher than for any other region.

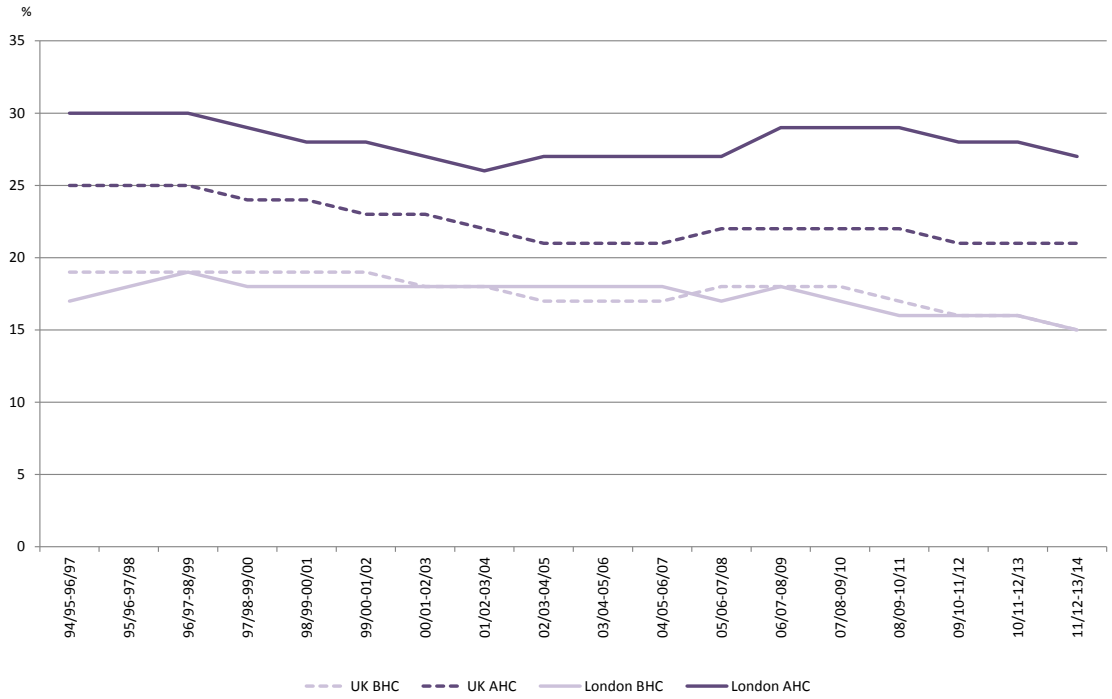
Figure 7.9: Percentage of individuals in households with income below 60% median by region



Source: FRS 2011/12-2013/14, DWP

The time series for all individuals in poverty in London and the UK, both before and after housing costs, are illustrated in Figure 7.10. The latest figures of 15 per cent BHC and 27 per cent AHC (2011/12-2013/14) in London show a slight decrease on the previous figures (2010/11-2012/13); the levels of BHC poverty measured for London have followed those of the UK very closely over the last 15 years. However, it is clear that London has higher levels of poverty taking housing costs into account than the UK, particularly with higher and more divergent levels during the years of the recession.

Figure 7.10: Percentage of individuals living in households with less than 60 per cent of contemporary median household income, for London and UK 1994/95 –2013/14



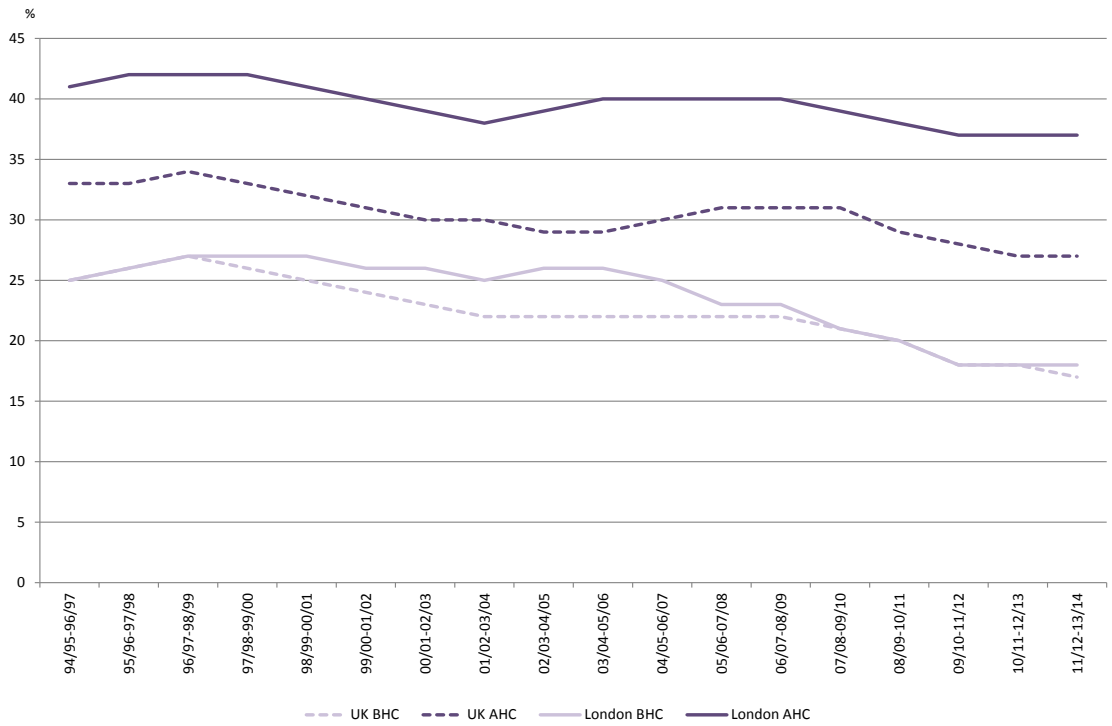
Source: FRS 1994/95-2013/14, DWP

It should be noted that the 60 per cent median income level of poverty is fairly arbitrary and other measures can be used to examine low pay. Thus in a recent piece of research GLA Economics looked at low pay as defined by being "hourly pay excluding overtime below the 20th percentile point in the pay distribution for all London employees"[29]. This research found that "part time employees are much more likely to be low-paid than full-time employees – [with] the median hourly rate of pay for part-time workers [having] been persistently below the 'low pay' level. Moreover over 50 per cent of part-time male workers earn less per hour than the London Living Wage"[30].

The research also looked at pay in four sectors of London's economy that are thought of as generally having 'low pay': the cleaning sector; the retail sector; the social care sector; and the hospitality and catering sector. It found that "since 1997 the proportion of employees in the social care sector in low pay has been 40-50 per cent. For the retail sector, the proportion has been even higher at 50-60 per cent. For the hospitality and catering sector the proportion in low pay has been higher still at 60-70 per cent and for the cleaning sector, 75-85 per cent of employees have been in low pay. Moreover in three of the four 'low pay' sectors, the proportion of 'low paid' employees was at a peak in 2012 (or equal to a previous peak in the case of hospitality and catering). This suggests that the difference between these sectors and the non-'low pay' sectors may be increasing and indeed the differences in median pay have increased"[31].

Looking at the 60 per cent of contemporary median income measure, the poverty rate in London also varies by household characteristics; some groups of the population have higher poverty rates than others. For example, households with children are more likely to be in poverty than households with only working age adults. Still, as Figure 7.11 shows, by both measures poverty rates for children for both London and for the UK as a whole have fallen over the long-term. However, the rates of poverty, particularly AHC, remain well above those of the population as a whole, with 37 per cent of London's children living below the poverty line.

Figure 7.11: Percentage of children living in households with less than 60 per cent of contemporary median household income, for London and UK 1994/95 –2013/14



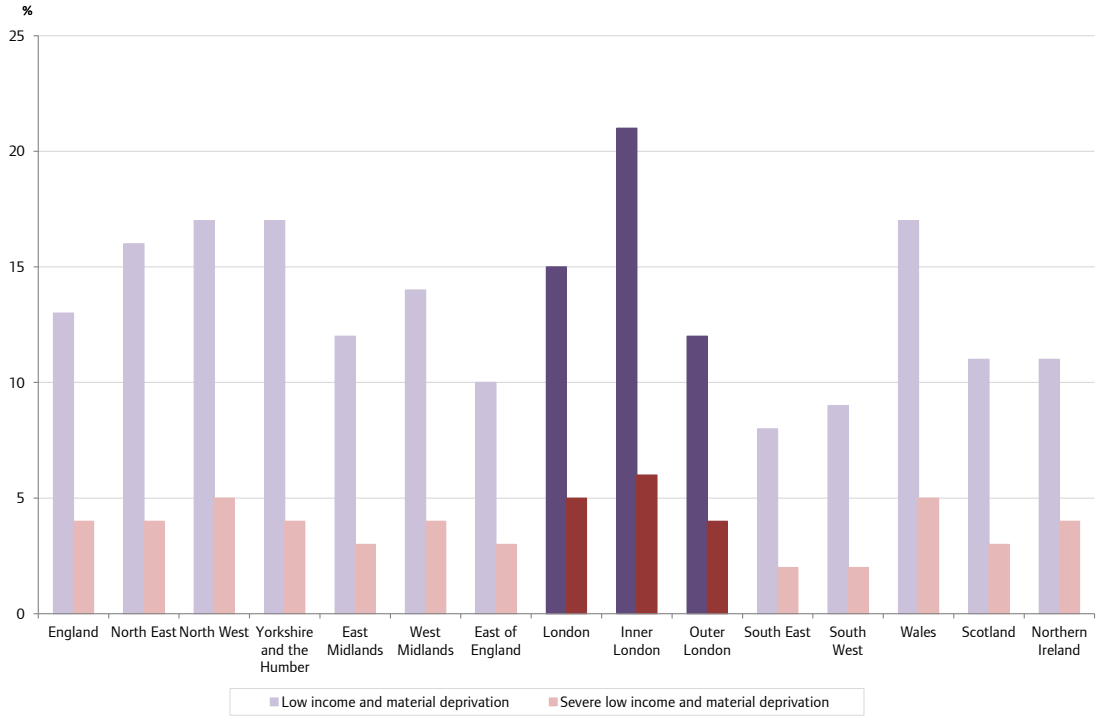
Source: FRS 1994/95 - 2013/14, DWP

There is a variation in poverty levels within London, as well as between London and other regions. Around 300,000 children in Inner London are living in AHC poverty, with a further 400,000 in Outer London. The Inner London child poverty rate remains particularly high, at 46 per cent; while the Outer London child poverty rate is lower, at 33 per cent, it is still higher than for any other region. Other characteristics associated with increased risk of poverty include worklessness (particularly for households claiming unemployment benefits), living in both social and private rented housing, particular ethnic groups and disabled household members.

However, as noted above the 60 per cent median level is an arbitrary measure, and other income levels can be used alongside to give a wider picture. A quarter of London's children live in households earning less than half of the national median income, and nearly half are in households with less than 70 per cent of the median. Another way of measuring poor living standards is used in the Family Resources Survey and looks at material deprivation. This method asks a series of questions about whether the family can or cannot afford a range of goods, services, or activities, that are widely viewed as essentials. These would include items such as being able to afford birthday and other celebrations for children, a warm winter coat, managing to pay bills/debt repayments, having household contents insurance, and having a week-long holiday each year; for pensioners, this may include items such as having a damp-free home, access to a telephone when needed, and having their hair done or cut regularly.

Figure 7.12 illustrates the regional differences in the levels of material deprivation, combined with low income, for children. While fewer children in Outer London were living without the essentials, over a fifth of children in Inner London could not afford such necessities.

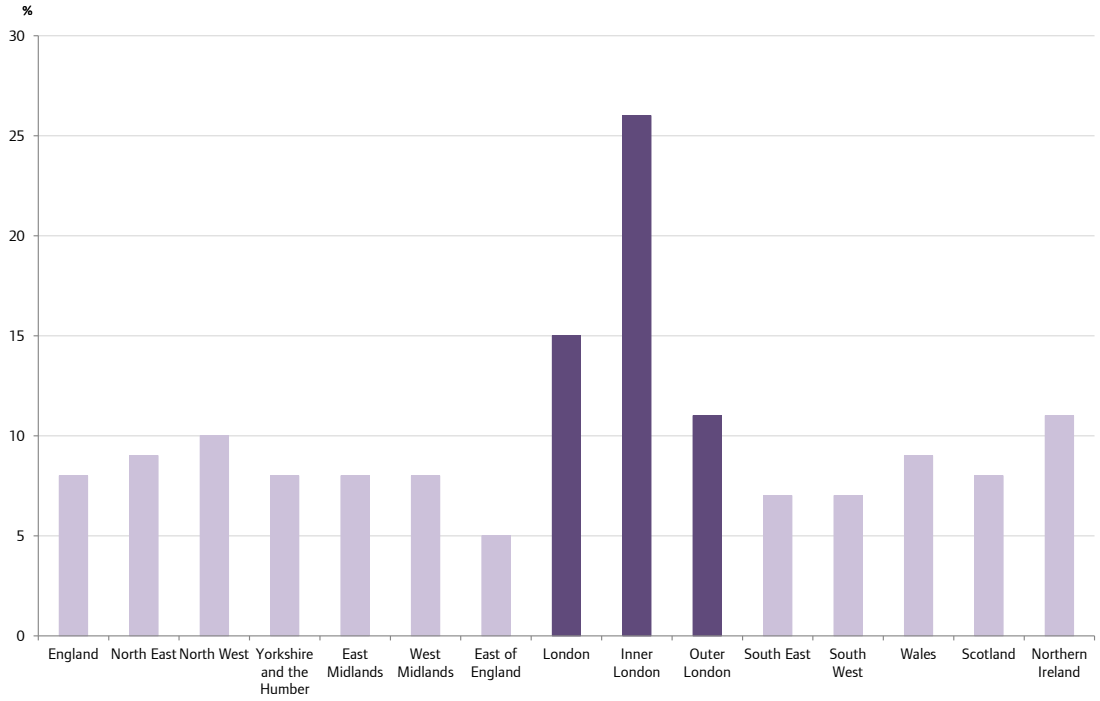
Figure 7.12: Low income and material deprivation levels among children by region: (three year average) 2011/12 to 2013/14



Source: FRS 2011/12 - 2013/14, DWP

As shown in Figure 7.13, material deprivation among pensioners in London is much higher than elsewhere. In Inner London, material deprivation affects more than a quarter of all pensioners – more than twice the proportion in any other part of the UK – even in Outer London, the level is higher than anywhere else in Great Britain. Income poverty among pensioners is less clear cut, with more pensioners in poverty by the BHC measure than the AHC measure in most areas, though in Inner London, this is not the case. One particular characteristic of pensioners associated with poverty includes living in rented accommodation, particularly social housing. However, the biggest differential is whether or not any income is derived from an occupational or private pension.

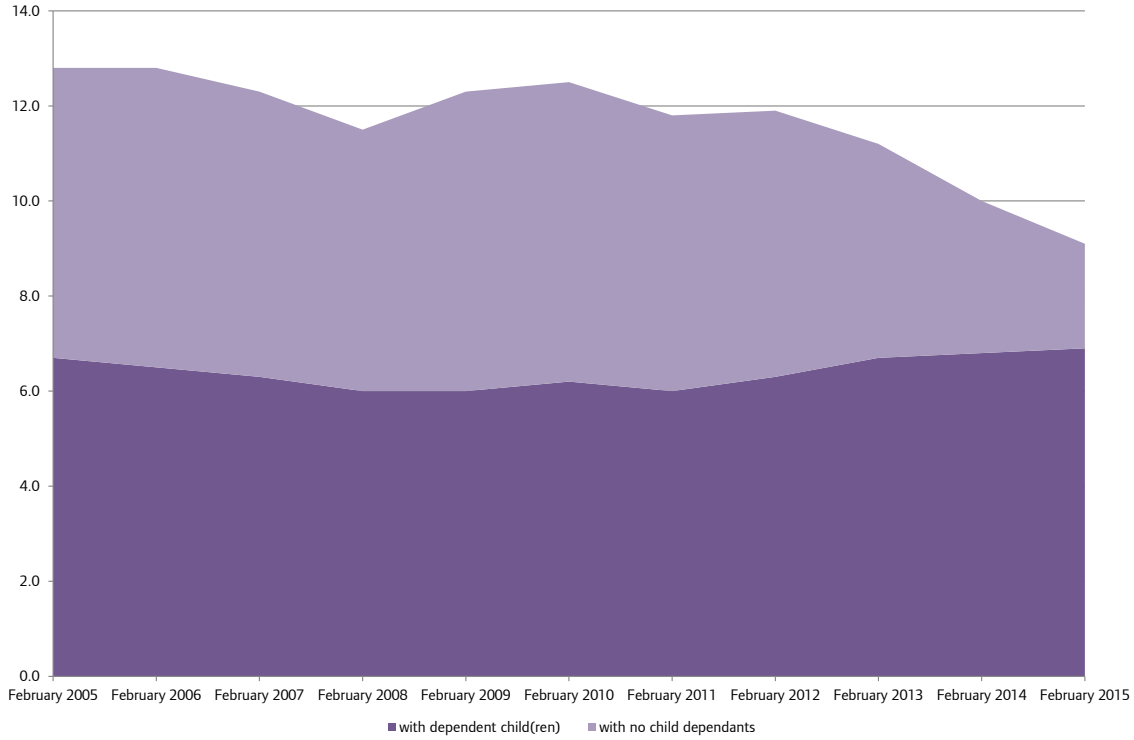
Figure 7.13: Material deprivation levels among people of pensionable age by region: (three year average) 2011/12 to 2013/14



Source: FRS 2011/12 - 2013/14, DWP

Another indicator of living standards, only indirectly related to low income, is the number of Londoners dependent on various benefits. Some, but not all benefits are means-tested and each benefit has different qualifying criteria, such as job seeking requirements, or certain circumstances that do not require the recipient to be looking for work due to caring responsibilities or disability. Some welfare benefits are available for people who are either out of work or in work in low paid jobs and some are available for people in households where others may be in well-paid work. Interpretation of benefit statistics is therefore not straightforward. Still, recipients of certain benefits in London as a percentage of London's working age population are shown in Figure 7.14[32] .

Figure 7.14: Percentage of London's Working Age population dependent on certain benefits*

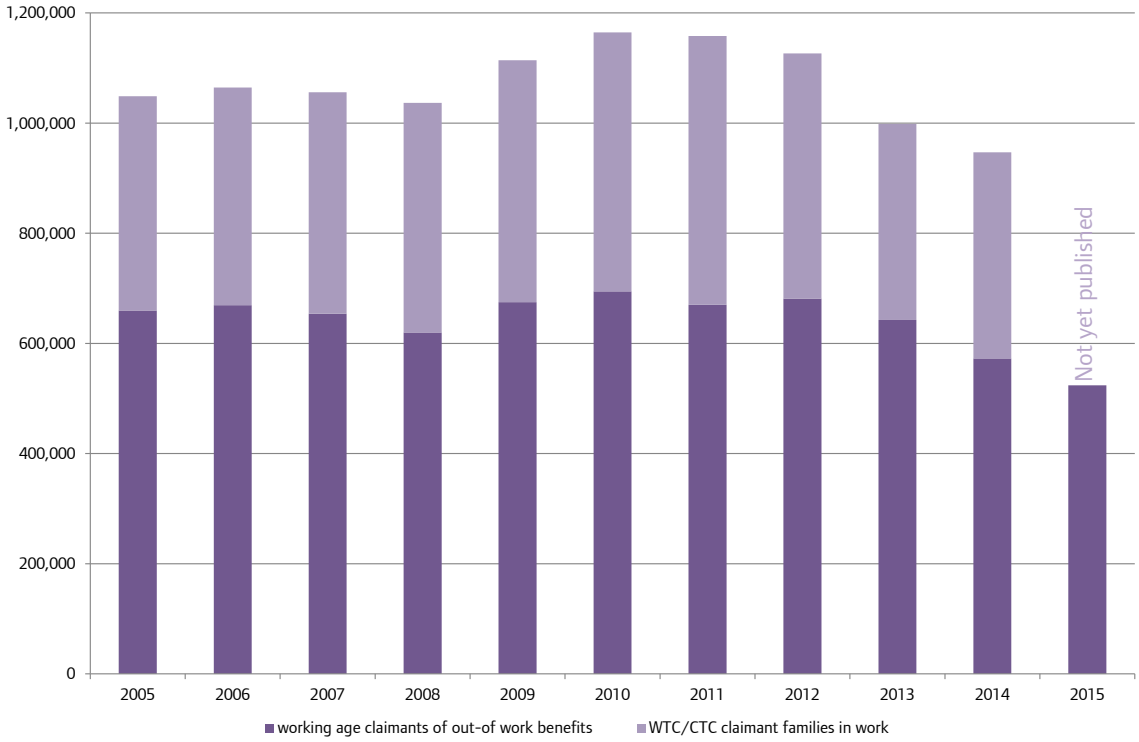


Source: Department for Work and Pensions (DWP) Longitudinal Study (aggregate statistics published via NOMIS)
*Note: * The benefits are primarily for those not in employment, though some people working limited hours are included. Individuals may be receiving more than one benefit. Some people in work claiming disability benefits are included.*

The percentage of London's working age residents claiming out-of-work benefits is slightly higher than for neighbouring regions, but lower than for the Midlands, the northern regions or other countries of Great Britain. Recent changes in London's economy, such as job creation along with changes in the welfare system have combined to result in a reduction in the overall number of working age adults claiming out-of-work benefits. The overall decrease in the number of working age residents in families receiving these mainly out-of-work benefits is a product of a small increase in the proportion with dependent children receiving them and a clear reduction in the number with no dependent children over the last few years. This overall picture masks decreases in the numbers of those receiving benefits because of job seeking and because of being a lone parent; the overall numbers receiving a benefit because of a health issue or disability have remained fairly stable.

These data provide only a partial picture of the working age population receiving welfare assistance from the state. Figure 7.15 shows, alongside those receiving the main out-of-work benefits (in dark purple), families in low paid work receiving tax credits (in light purple). This provides a crude approximation of the number of benefit claimants in the working age group (aged 16-pensionable age) based on the available data.

Figure 7.15: Working age benefit claimants in London

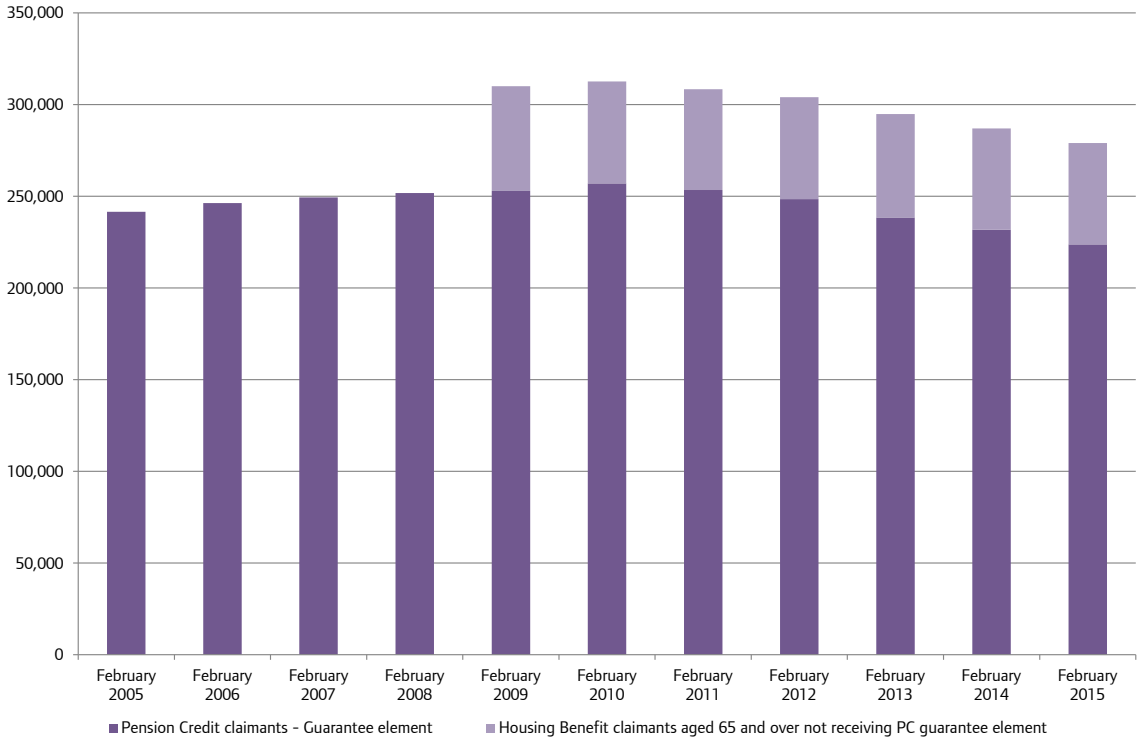


Sources: DWP Longitudinal Study (aggregate statistics published via NOMIS); HRMC Personal Tax Credit Statistics. Notes: WTC refers to Working Tax Credit; CTC refers to Child Tax Credit.

The reduction in the number of in-work families claiming tax credits between 2011 and 2012, and the even sharper decrease the following year, are at least in part due to changes in the benefit entitlement rules, rather than a significant improvement in the levels of earnings. The reduction in the numbers claiming out of work benefits is also at least partially due to changes in the eligibility criteria, particularly around disability benefits and lone parent support. Some of these claimants became in-work claimants of tax credits[33].

Figure 7.16 shows pension age benefit claimants. However, caution is required in interpreting the statistics in Figure 7.16, since there are "minimum figures" of pension age residents in means tested benefit households. These are figures for claimants, not for all pensioners living in those households, so couples are counted as one. Around 18 per cent of Pension Credit claimants have a partner[34].

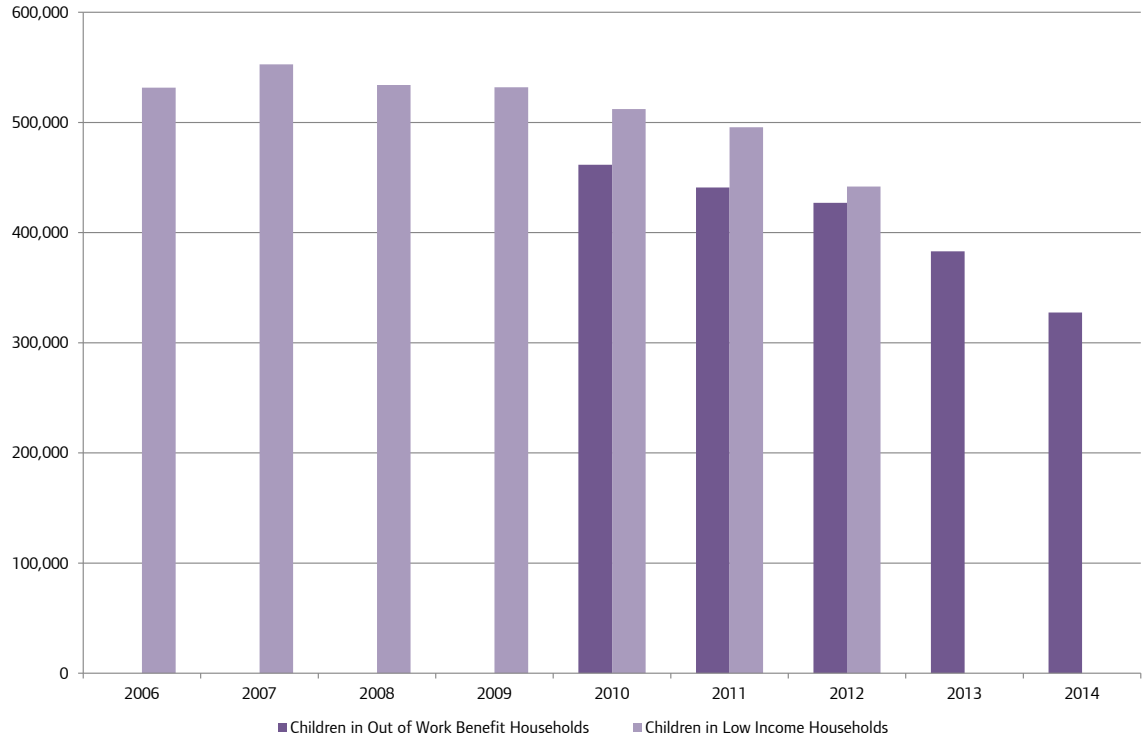
Figure 7.16: Pension age benefit claimants: Claimants of Pension Credit and Housing Benefit



Sources: DWP Longitudinal Study (aggregate statistics published via NOMIS); DWP Housing Benefit Statistics (available through Stat-Xplore)

Figure 7.17 shows the number of children in London in families receiving benefits. The difference between the two data series are mainly around the inclusion of children in households receiving Child Tax Credit (with or without Working Tax Credit) where the household income falls below a threshold calculated to represent a 60 per cent median figure nationally, defined to match the specific information in the benefit system, excluding both Housing Benefit income and housing costs, rather than the usual published 60 per cent median statistics[35]. However, some children in families not receiving Child Tax Credit may have incomes below this threshold and be excluded, and some children in households receiving out of work benefits may have incomes above this threshold. Changes in the benefit system are not properly reflected in these figures as Universal Credit had yet to impact on families with children by 2014 and the benefit cap affects only Housing Benefit which is excluded from these statistics[36].

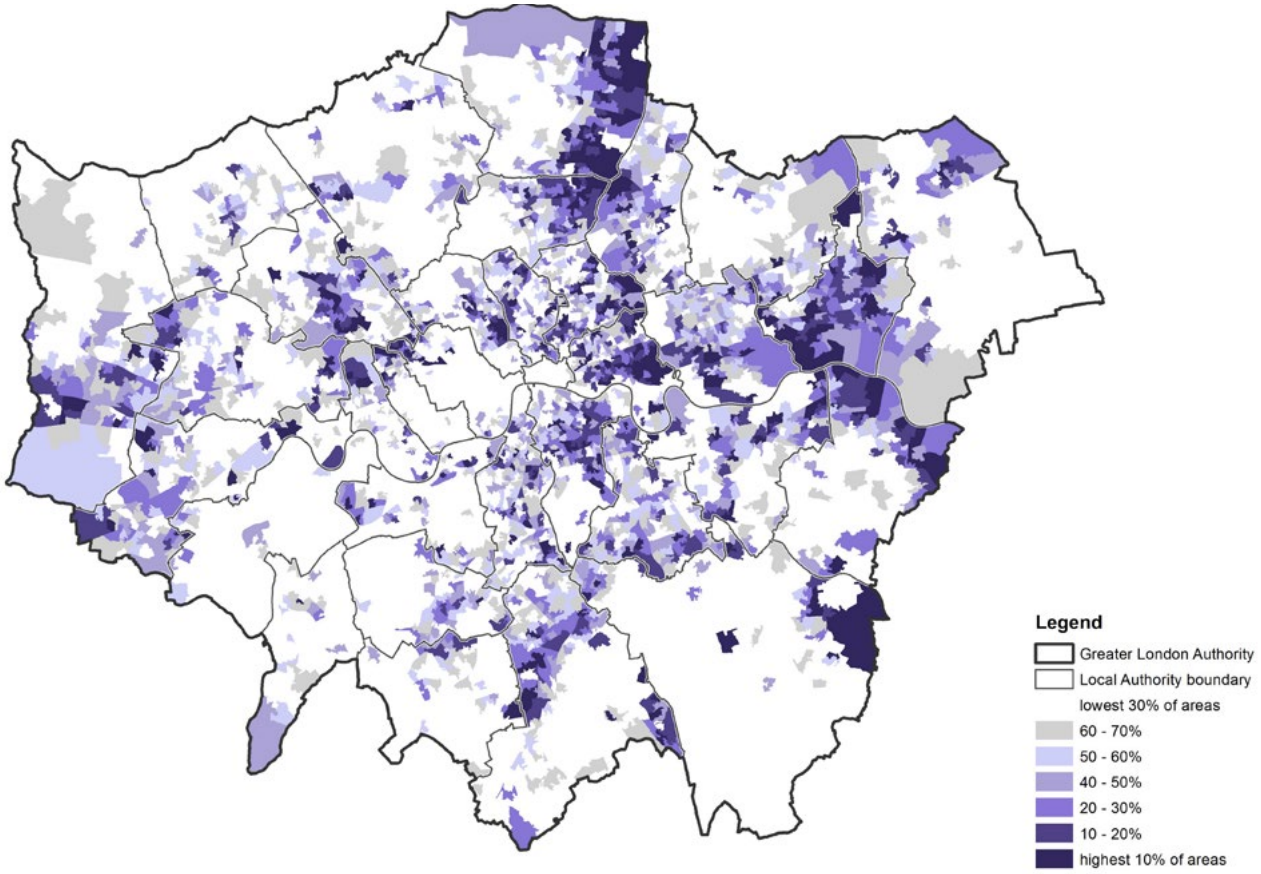
Figure 7.17: Children in families receiving benefits



Sources: DWP Longitudinal Study and HMRC Child Benefit Statistics, published as data series: Children in Out of Work Benefit Households, DWP; DWP Longitudinal Study and Family Resources Survey, published as data series: Child Poverty Statistics (formerly known as National Indicator 116), DWP

While, Map 7.3 shows the distribution of the latest figures (2014) for households with children claiming out of work benefit[37].

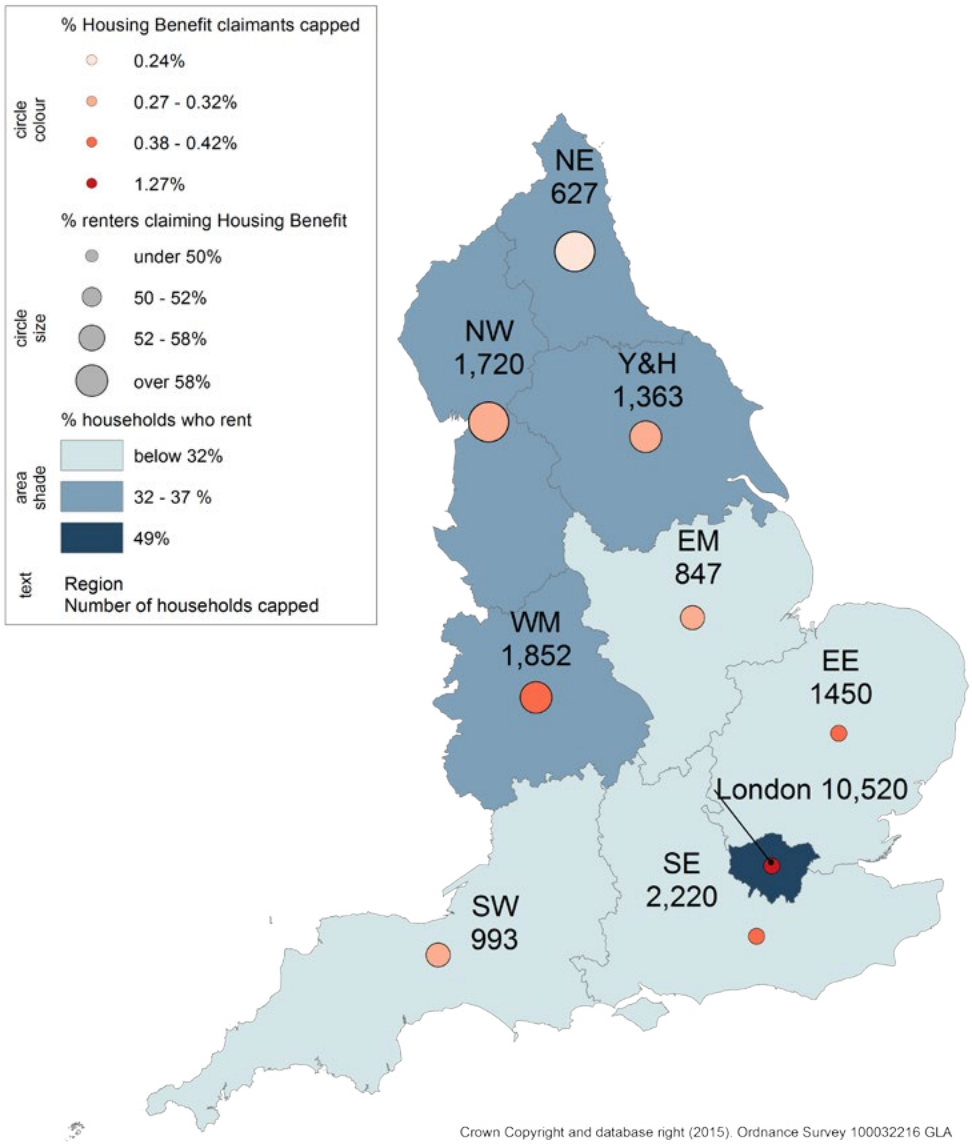
Map 7.3: Children in out of work benefit households



Source: Children in out-of-work benefit households data series, May 2014, DWP

Almost half of London's households rent their homes, whereas in most parts of the country it is below a third, up to 37 per cent in the North East region[38]. However, less than half of London renters claim Housing Benefit, among the lowest proportions for any region. This compares with over 60 per cent in the North East. The amount of Housing Benefit payable relates directly to the costs of housing in the area, so is generally higher in London. The introduction of the Benefit Cap, which aimed to limit the amount that could be claimed in benefits by households who were not in work to the earnings level of the average household in the UK, has therefore impacted more on households in London where housing costs, and therefore the amount payable in Housing Benefit, are higher. Nearly half of all households affected by the Benefit Cap are in London, and more of those households have had their payments cut by a greater amount than households elsewhere. The number of households subject to the cap in London has decreased much more than in other regions as households moved into work or increased hours so that they were no longer subject to the benefit cap[39].

Map 7.4: Households renting in England, claiming benefit and with capped benefit payments by region, February 2015

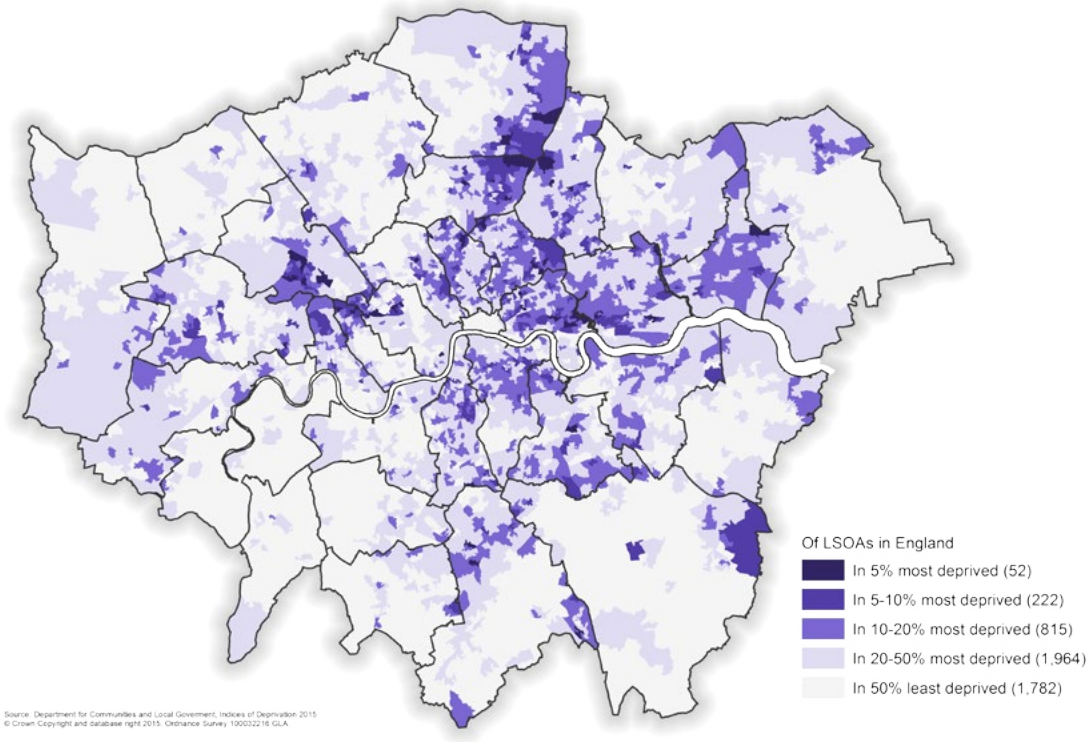


Sources: GLA calculations using 2011 Census and DCLG 2012 based Household projections; Housing Benefit Statistics, DWP; Benefit Cap Statistics for February 2015, DWP. Note that comparable figures are not available for Wales and Scotland for some elements, so only data for England are shown.

7.3.3 Deprivation

The English Indices of Deprivation 2015 measure relative deprivation in small areas of England[40]. Deprivation in London is widespread, but not as dense as it was. Map 7.5 below shows how the new Index of Multiple Deprivation (IMD) ranks the areas within London, with the darker shades representing the most deprived areas.

Map 7.5: Index of Multiple Deprivation, 2015

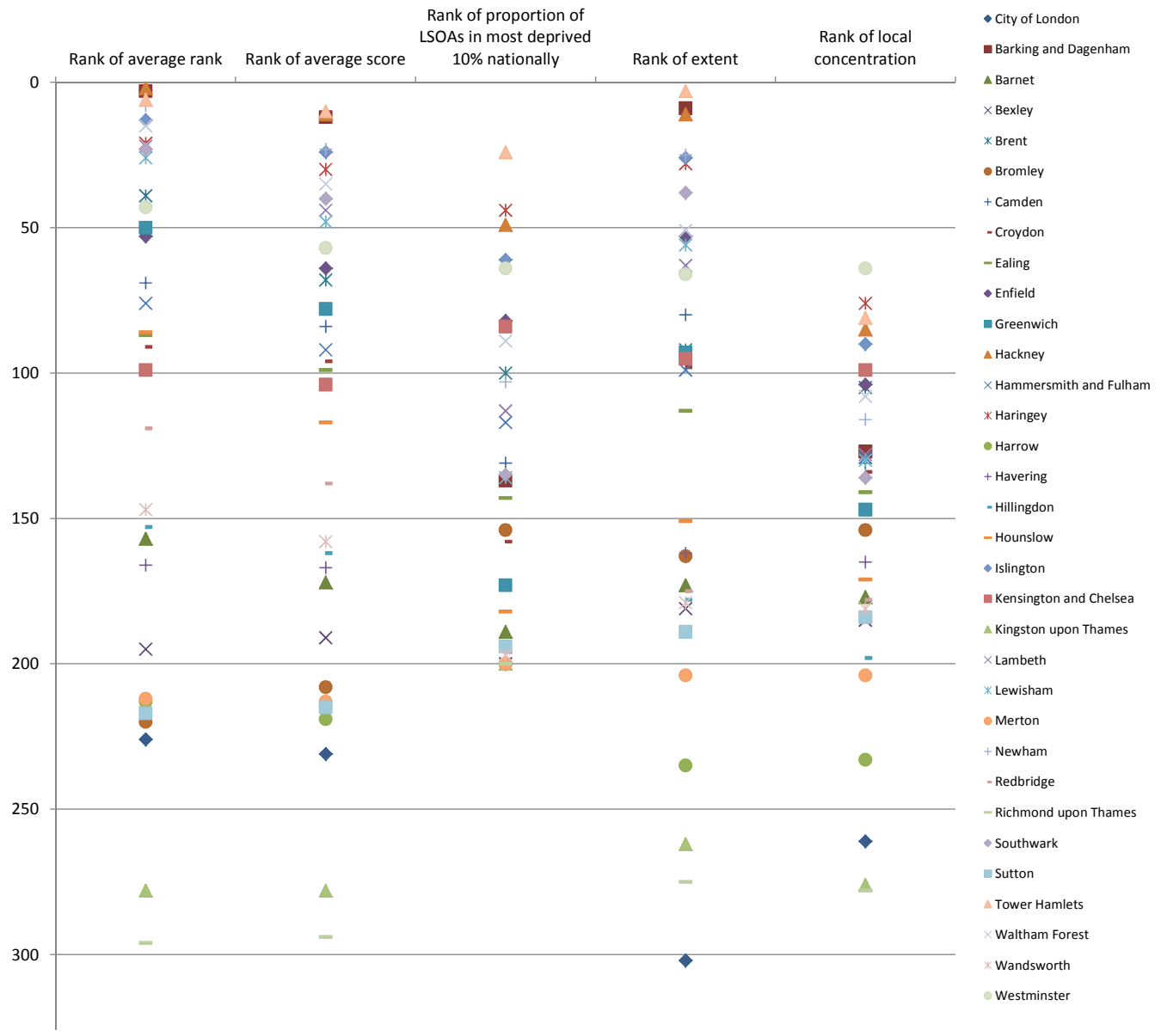


Source: Indices of Deprivation 2015, DCLG

Deprivation is measured across seven different areas or domains: such as income; employment; health; education; living environment; crime and barriers to services, using a wide range of indicators. The methods used show how each area compares with other areas across England using a combination of all these indicators. None of the very worst areas (the most deprived one per cent of nearly 33,000 areas in England) are within London, and only three are in the next percentile – one in each of Hackney, Islington, and Westminster. Falling within the most deprived five per cent of areas are also parts of Haringey, Tower Hamlets, Croydon, Brent, Newham, Kensington & Chelsea, Barking & Dagenham, Enfield, Lewisham, Waltham Forest, Lambeth, and Ealing. The City of London and Richmond are the only local authority areas within London with no areas in the most deprived 20 per cent of England.

Summary measures for local authorities look at different aspects, such as how the borough performs on average, the extent to which people are most affected by deprivation, and how bad the deprivation is in the worst parts. Figure 7.18 shows how the London boroughs fare out of the 326 local authority areas in England in each of the five measures. As each of these measures is important, there is no borough that stands out as being "the most deprived". Barking & Dagenham, Hackney, and Tower Hamlets are each ranked in the 20 most deprived local authorities on three of five measures. Islington, Newham and Waltham Forest also rank in the top 20 most deprived on one of the five measures.

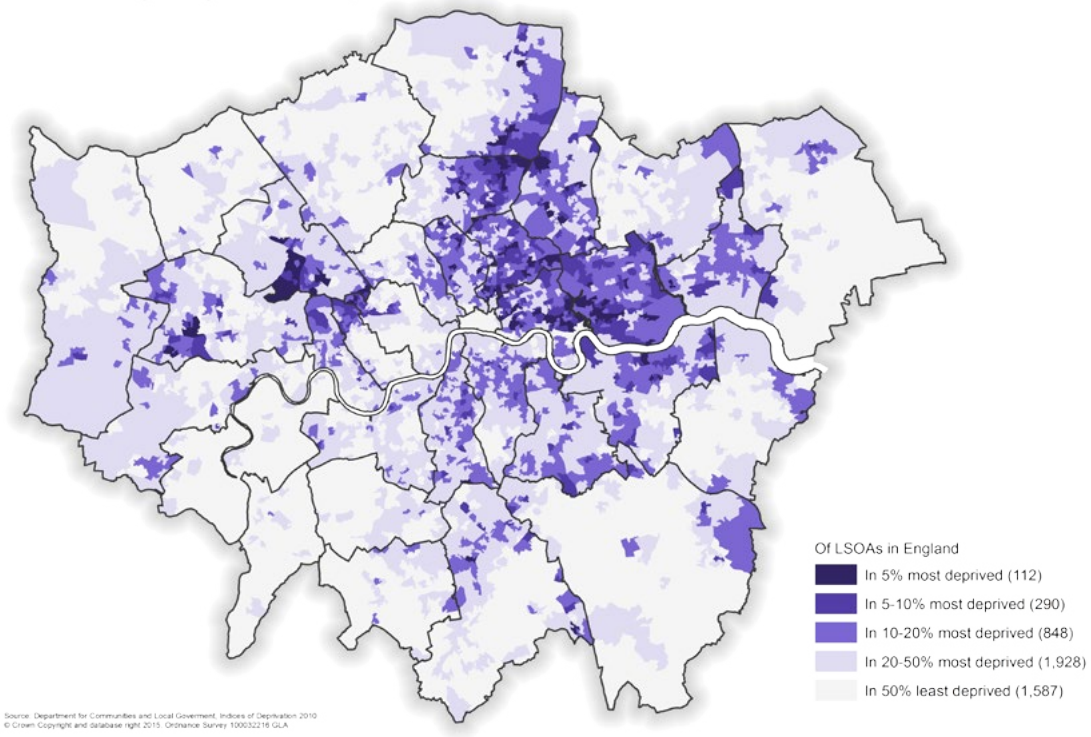
Figure 7.18: Borough level summary measures of the Index of Multiple Deprivation 2015



Source: Indices of Deprivation 2015, DCLG.
Note: A rank of 200 on the proportion of LSOAs in the most deprived ten per cent nationally means there are no LSOAs in the highest ten per cent.

Comparison over time is difficult as changes to indicators and the areas used mean that strict comparability is not possible, but broadly speaking Newham appears far less deprived than it did under the previous IMD2010 (Map 7.6) – this is at least partly due to an improved population estimate, where a previous under-estimate in the number of residents probably overstated the degree of deprivation. Conversely, an over-count of Westminster's population previously tended to understate its deprivation levels. The map below shows the previous IMD for London, and it is clear that the general pattern of deprivation is similar, with a broad crescent from Enfield down through Haringey, Islington, and Hackney, to Tower Hamlets, Newham, and Barking & Dagenham still apparent, though slightly less marked than previously. This is almost mirrored south of the river from Greenwich to Lambeth and down into Croydon, although it is dispersed a little more sparsely. Other notable pockets of deprivation remain evident, such as around Stonebridge/ Harlesden through to Paddington and in the River Brent area.

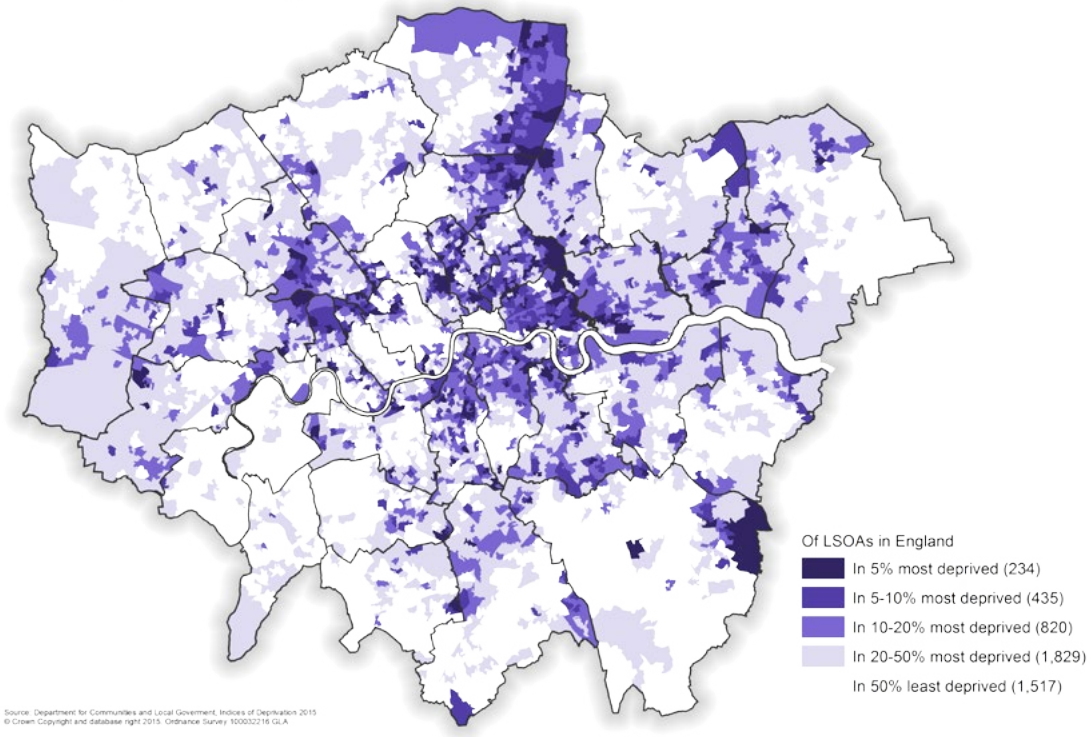
Map 7.6: Index of Multiple Deprivation 2010



Source: Indices of Deprivation 2010, DCLG

The supplementary indices, measuring the extent of income deprivation among children and among older people, show that Tower Hamlets has the highest levels of children living in income deprivation in England (Maps 7.7 & 7.8).

Map 7.7: Income Deprivation Affecting Children Index

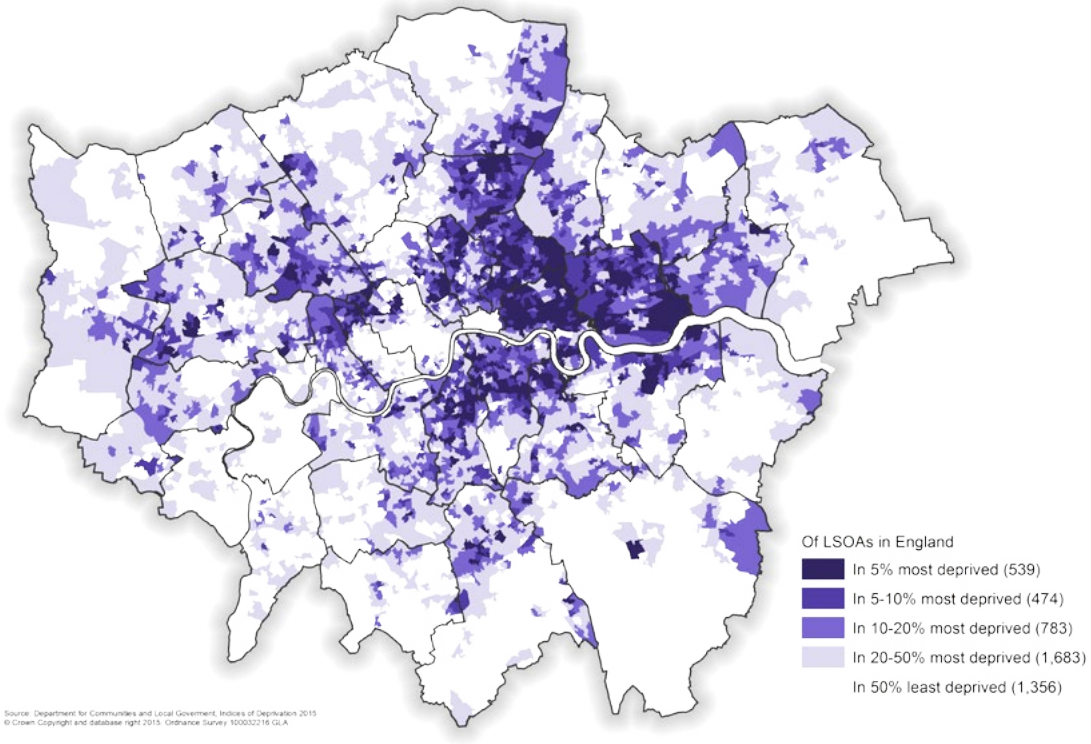


Source: Indices of Deprivation 2015, DCLG

The proportion of relatively deprived areas is lower than five years earlier, despite the fact that this measure relates to data from around the end of the recession, whereas the previous version relied on data from the start of the recession. Islington, Barking & Dagenham, Hackney, Newham, Lambeth, Southwark and

Lewisham are also among the top ten local authorities on this measure. Nottingham and Manchester, ranked 4th and 5th are the only areas outside London included on the list. Tower Hamlets is also highest for income deprivation among older people, followed by Hackney, Newham, and Islington. Lambeth, Southwark, and Haringey are also in the top ten (as are Manchester-5th, Knowsley-8th and Liverpool-10th).

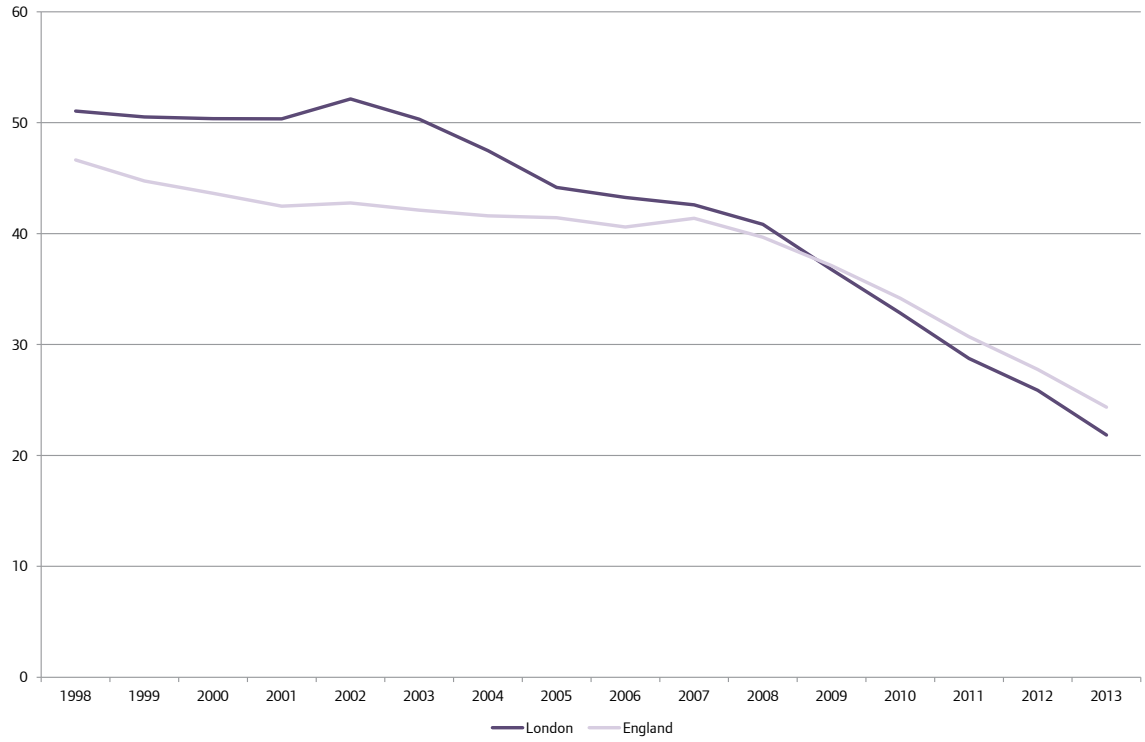
Map 7.8: Income deprivation affecting older people



Source: Indices of Deprivation 2015, DCLG

Finally, a further issue that may impact on living standard is giving birth at a young age. However, as can be observed from Figure 7.19, the number of under 18 year olds per 1,000 giving birth in London has been generally declining over recent years with it recently dropping below the level seen in England as a whole.

Figure 7.19: Under 18 conceptions per 1,000, London and England



Source: Public Health England

7.3.4 Workless households

The proportion of working age households with all adults in work in Outer London was the lowest for any region of Great Britain (Table 7.7), but it had the highest proportion of households with both working and non-working adults, so the proportion of workless households was also amongst the lowest. The pattern is similar for households in Inner London, with a higher proportion of mixed employment households than for other regions, but with an overall pattern that is less extreme than for Outer London.

One of the key drivers of the higher rate of workless households in London is the proportion of students, although unemployment, that is people actively looking for work, is also higher than for most other regions. Being sick, disabled or taking early retirement are much less likely as reasons for worklessness in London than elsewhere.

Table 7.7: Households by region and combined economic activity status of household members April-June 2015 (per cent of total)

	Combined economic activity status of household[1]		
Region	**Working households**	**Mixed households[2]**	**Workless households**
United Kingdom	55.9	28.3	15.8
Great Britain	56.1	28.3	15.6
England	56.0	28.7	15.3
North East	52.0	25.1	22.9
North West	53.8	27.4	18.8
Yorkshire and The Humber	57.0	25.2	17.9
East Midlands	56.9	28.7	14.5
West Midlands	51.9	30.6	17.5
East of England	60.5	27.6	11.9
London	**52.2**	**34.1**	**13.7**
Inner London	**53.6**	**30.7**	**15.7**
Outer London	**51.1**	**36.7**	**12.3**
South East	58.7	29.0	12.3
South West	60.2	26.6	13.2
Wales	54.8	28.1	17.2
Scotland	57.7	24.5	17.9
Northern Ireland	48.8	28.5	22.7

Source: Labour Force Survey household datasets
Notes: 1) Households including at least one person aged 16 to 64. 2) Mixed households contain both working and workless members

The pattern of fewer households with all adults in work and more in mixed households with both working and non-working adults appears even starker when considering the proportion of children in such households (see Table 7.8). London, in particular Inner London, has a much lower proportion of children in households with all adults in work. It should be noted that the thrust of policy and of evidence are that work is a key driver of poverty avoidance.

Table 7.8: Children in households by region and combined economic activity status of household members April-June 2015 (per cent of total)

	Combined economic activity status of household		
Region	Working households	Mixed households[3]	Workless households
United Kingdom	55.4	32.8	11.8
Great Britain	55.4	33.0	11.7
England	54.6	33.6	11.8
North East	54.9	23.8	21.4
North West	55.8	30.1	14.2
Yorkshire and The Humber	56.4	28.2	15.4
East Midlands	54.5	33.8	11.7
West Midlands	50.5	37.5	12.0
East of England	59.8	32.1	8.1
London	**42.8**	**44.7**	**12.5**
Inner London	**40.6**	**43.7**	**15.7**
Outer London	**44.1**	**45.4**	**10.6**
South East	60.5	32.2	7.3
South West	61.8	28.0	10.2
Wales	57.5	31.3	11.2
Scotland	62.5	26.6	10.9
Northern Ireland	56.0	28.3	15.7

Source: Labour Force Survey household datasets

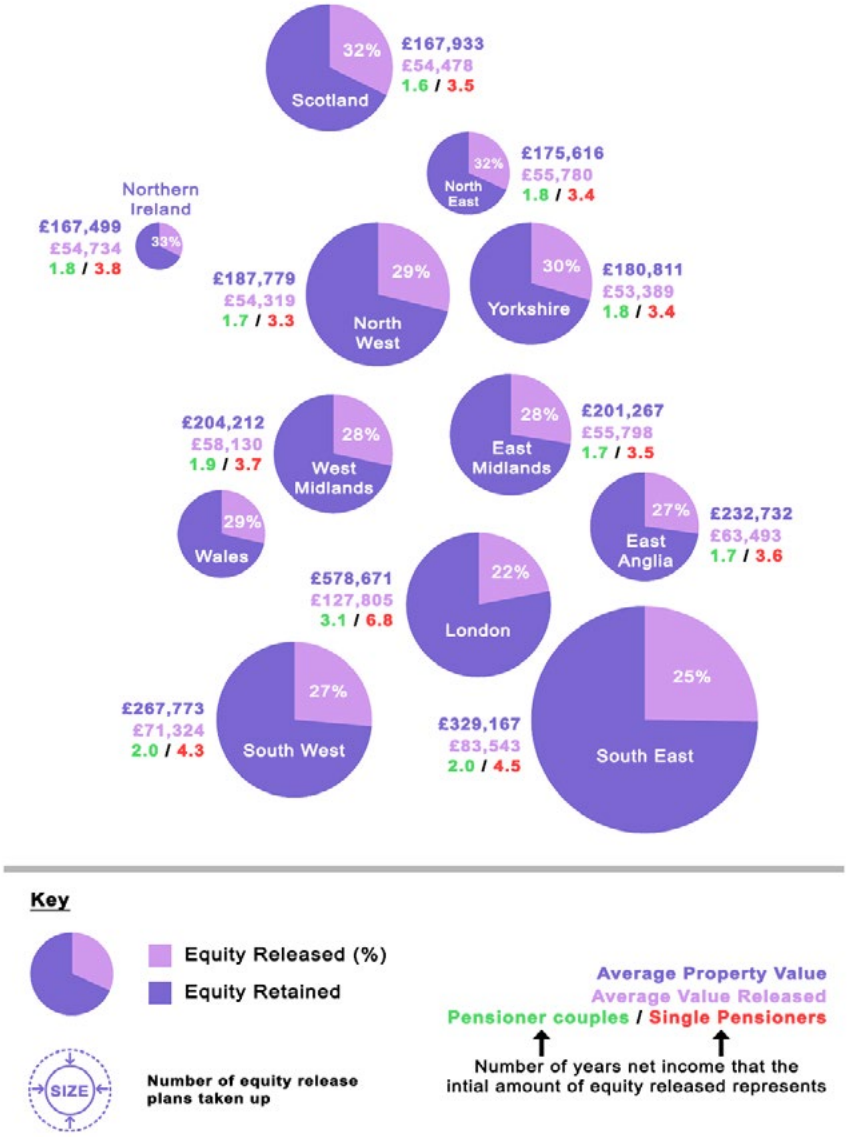
7.3.5 Wealth

The total wealth of households[41] in Great Britain varies to an even greater degree than income. The richest 10 per cent of households own nearly half (45 per cent) of the entire household wealth, while the poorest half of the distribution own about ten per cent of the entire household wealth. London has a higher proportion of households in the richest category (12.5 per cent in the top 10 per cent nationally). The largest component of their wealth is pension wealth, making up around half of their total assets. For the bottom half of the distribution, property wealth (net of mortgage debt) is their biggest asset, even though a large proportion of this group do not own any property.

Homeowners with a high percentage of their property mortgaged are more likely to view it as a burden, and Londoners have much higher mortgage debt than elsewhere – more than half of those with a mortgage in London owed more than £130,000. More than a quarter of Londoners with financial debt, which might be household bills, credit cards or loans etc, found it a heavy burden[42].

Still, there is some evidence that some of the property debt may be in the form of equity release rather than a mortgage to purchase a property. Figure 7.20 shows that some older people are releasing substantial sums from their properties. In 2015, nearly 24,000 equity release plans were taken up, of which 2,412 were in London. Although the portion of the property value released in London was the lowest in the country, the amount households released was substantially larger in London than elsewhere, averaging nearly £130,000, a much higher multiple of pensioners' average incomes than elsewhere too. The reasons for the equity release include home improvements, paying off outstanding mortgage amounts or other loans, provision for long-term care, cash to cover essential spending costs or maintaining a lifestyle (including going on holiday), or helping family or friends, which might include assisting a younger generation fund a deposit for their own home. It may be in combination with any of these or separately that it is also used to avoid Inheritance Tax. This is potentially an issue of increasing importance in London.

Figure 7.20: Equity release by region, 2015



Source: UK Equity Release Market Monitor 2015, Key Retirement; Pensioners Incomes Series, 2013/14, DWP

7.3.6 Minimum wage and living wage

Voluntary and statutory measures have been attempted to support those on low wages in London. These measures include the statutory National Minimum Wage, the upcoming statutory National Living Wage and the voluntary London Living Wage. It is however important to differentiate between these schemes.

In the Summer Budget of 2015, the Chancellor of the Exchequer announced the National Living Wage. This will be set at £7.20 from April 2016 for over 25 year olds, rising from the current National Minimum Wage of £6.70. It will increase to 60 per cent of median UK earnings, around £9, by 2020. In comparison the London Living Wage is currently set at £9.40 per hour. It should also be noted that the National Living Wage has some other significant differences from the London Living Wage (see Table 7.9), and its counterpart the out-of-London Living Wage[43].

Table 7.9: Comparing the London Living Wage to the National Living Wage

London Living Wage	National living wage
Participation by employers is voluntary	Participation by employers is compulsory
Payable to employees 18 and over	Payable to employees 25 and over
Calculation based on household living standards	Calculation based on individual earnings

7.4 Homelessness and related matters

Homelessness is a concern for a number of reasons. In part, this may be caused by a significant imbalance between the demand for and supply of housing, particularly affordable housing. This issue is dealt with in some detail in Chapter 2 and earlier in this chapter. There might also be a failure of the planning system to make sufficient land available for (affordable) housing and a failure to ensure the supply of sufficient and sufficiently skilled labour for the construction sector. In this sense, significant levels of homelessness might be seen as symptomatic of an, arguably, ineffective approach to infrastructure planning and delivery for housing and associated services. An additional concern is the extent to which some London residents occupy sub-standard housing.

Both homelessness and sub-standard housing are key drivers of ill-health, which is discussed later in this chapter. In addition concern for homelessness and sub-standard housing may derive substantially from considerations of equity. These may also impinge on the overall reputation of London as a leading world city, as discussed in Chapter 4.

Accurate data on rough sleeping as a proxy for homelessness is understandably difficult to collect. This is highlighted by a survey by Crisis[44], which reported that 44 per cent of rough sleepers had had no contact with a rough sleepers' team in the last six months. Still, in London, any individual in contact with outreach teams or other services working with rough sleepers has their details entered onto the Combined Homelessness and Information Network (CHAIN) database. Some of CHAIN's findings are reproduced in the Table 7.10 below.

Table 7.10: Characteristics of Rough Sleepers in London 2014-15

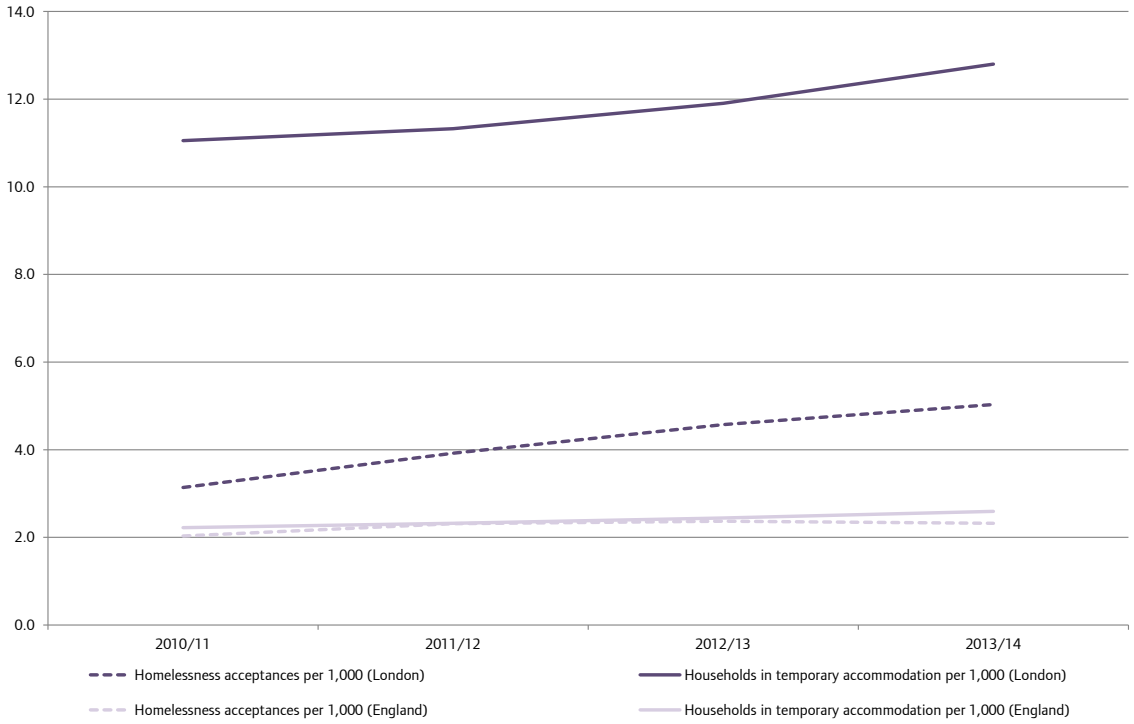
History	New	For 2+ years	Return after 1+ years	Total
	5,107	1,595	879	7,581
Age	**< 25**	**26-45**	**46-55**	**55+**
	12%	57%	21%	10%
Support needs*	**Alcohol**	**Drugs**	**Mental health**	**None**
	41%	31%	45%	28%

Source: CHAIN Annual Bulletin Greater London, 2014-15

** Note: An individual rough sleeper may exhibit more than one of these.*

Homelessness is a particular problem in London and has been so for some time as highlighted by Figure 7.21 which shows that the number of homeless acceptances per 1,000 households is higher than in England as a whole. This figure has been rising, while the figure for England has been relatively stationary in comparison. This is also the case with those households in temporary accommodation, which has seen a recent rise in London. Further, household overcrowding, although low, is not unheard of in London with household data from the English Housing Survey for 2012/13 showing that 30,000 people live in households with more than three persons per bedroom.

Figure 7.21: Homelessness acceptances per 1,000 households and households in temporary accommodation per 1,000 in London and England

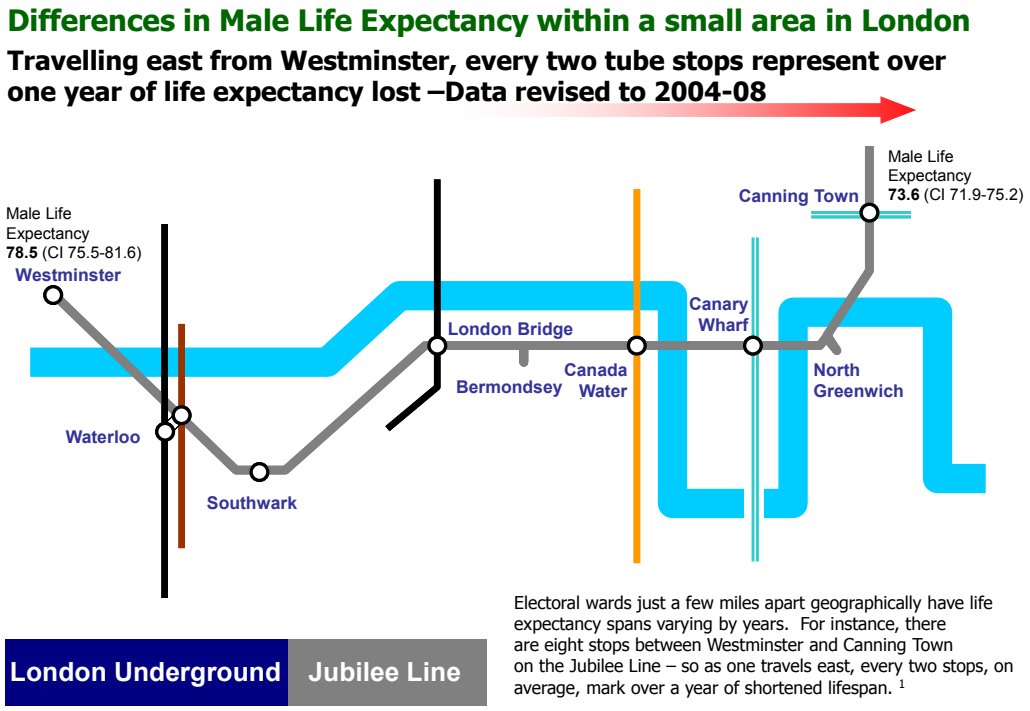


Source: Public Health England

7.5 Health and Wellbeing

Health and wellbeing are areas of concern for a number of reasons; partially as individuals may be unaware of the impact of diet, exercise and other features of lifestyle on their own health status or that of members of their family. In addition they may be aware of evidence on these matters but misperceive the risk of harmful effects. Moreover the science of the links between behaviour or ambient environment and (ill-) health are still not fully understood in all cases. Similar impacts can derive from the (profit-maximising) decisions of businesses. Businesses may also more specifically misperceive the worth of having, and acting on, a concern for their employees' health[45]. There are also equity concerns; specifically, there appear to be links between socio-economic status and health status. This becomes apparent with the decline in average life expectancy as you move east along the Jubilee Line from Westminster to Canning Town as highlighted by Map 7.9.

Map 7.9: Differences in male life expectancy along a section of the Jubilee Line (2004-08)



[1] Source: Analysis by London Health Observatory of ONS and GLA data for 2004-08. Diagram produced by Department of Health

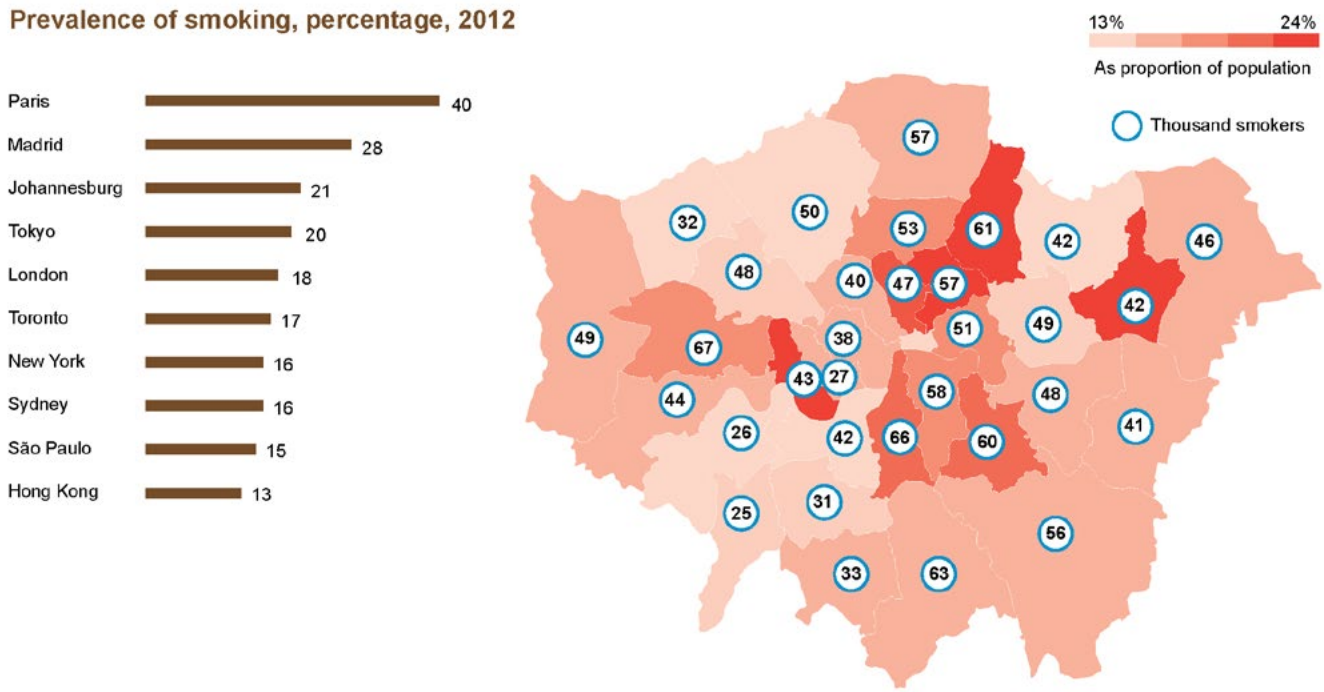
Source: London Health Observatory[46]

7.5.1 Lifestyle and health

Lifestyle factors are among the key drivers of (ill-) health, with a major lifestyle factor impacting on the probability of ill-health being smoking. In fact "smoking is the biggest preventable cause of death in England, resulting in nearly 80,000 premature deaths each year, and is a direct cause of several diseases often co-existing together – co-morbidities"[47]. There is also a socio-economic element to smoking, with there being "a strong relationship between smoking and occupation, with smoking rates much higher among people in routine and manual occupations compared to those in managerial and professional occupations"[48].

Still, London compares well to some other areas of England on smoking prevalence with around 17 per cent of adult Londoners smoking in 2014 compared to around 18 per cent of people in England as a whole. However some London boroughs have significantly higher smoking rates, as shown in Map 7.10. Other major cities such as New York have demonstrated the potential for focused programmes to help reduce smoking; and in 2012, had a lower prevalence of smoking than London.

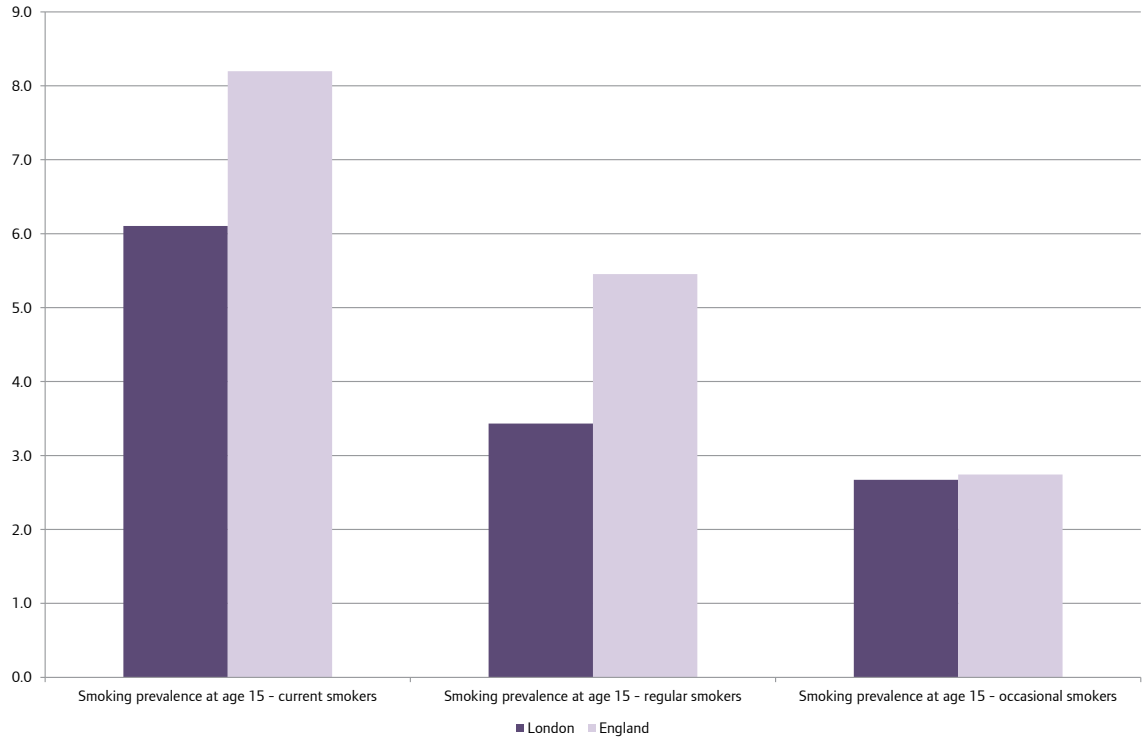
Map 7.10: Prevalence of smoking in London



Source: Better Health for London, London Health Commission, October 2014

Smoking prevalence at the age of 15 is also generally lower in London than England as a whole as shown in Figure 7.22, which looks at smoking prevalence.

Figure 7.22: Smoking prevalence in 15 year olds as percentage of all 15 year olds, London and England in 2014/15

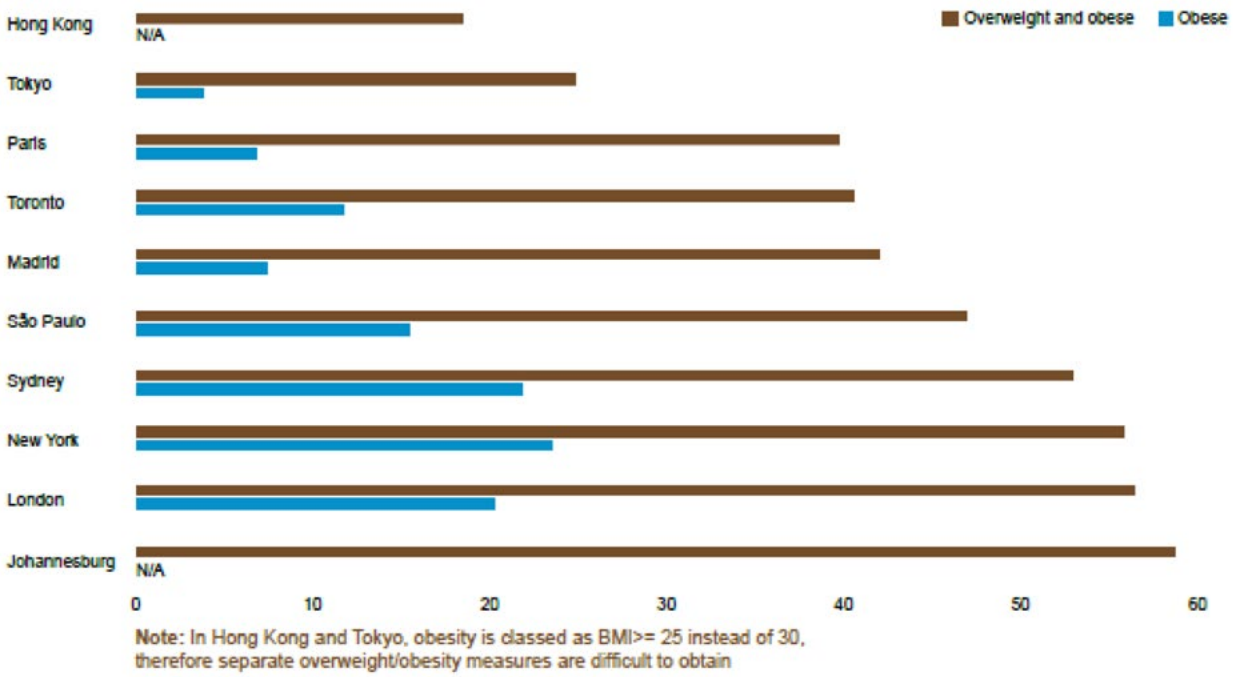


Source: Public Health England

A further, but very important, lifestyle factor is the incidence of overweight and obese people in the population and specifically children, with this being linked to incidence of diabetes and other medical issues. When comparing London's proportion of overweight and obese adults to ten world cities it is exceeded only

by Johannesburg. London's performance in terms of obesity alone is a little better and is shown in Figure 7.23.

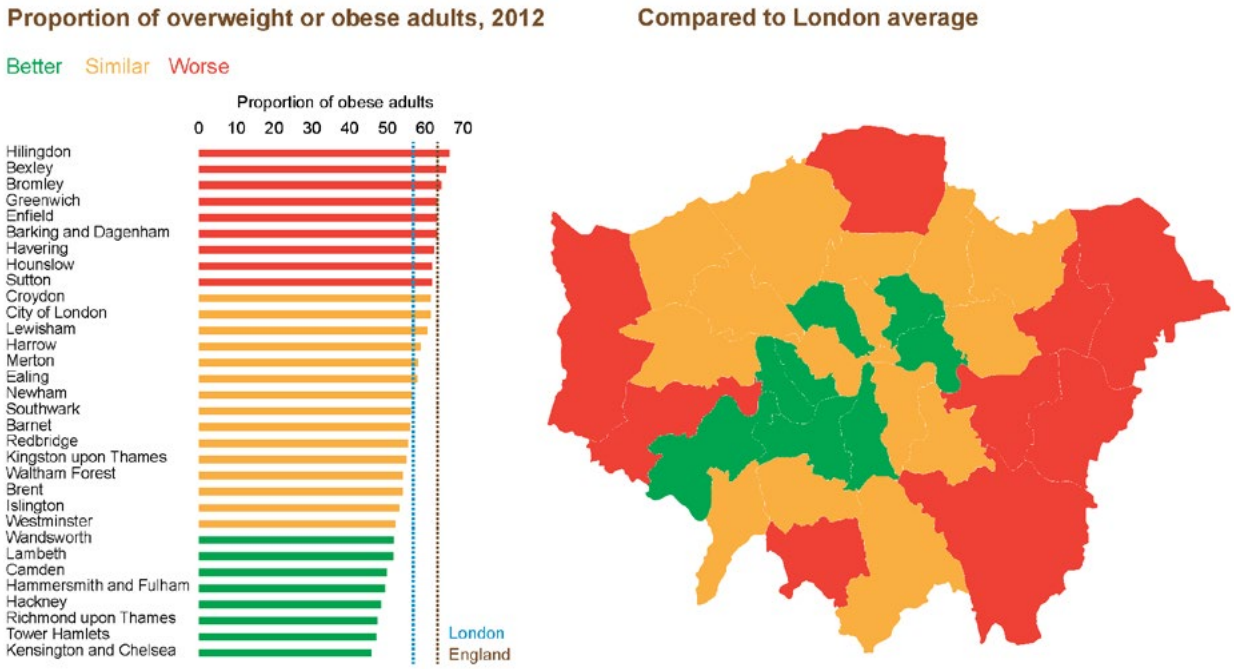
Figure 7.23: Proportion of overweight and obese adults in ten world cities, 2012



Source: Better Health for London, and Global Cities Analysis; London Health Commission, October 2014

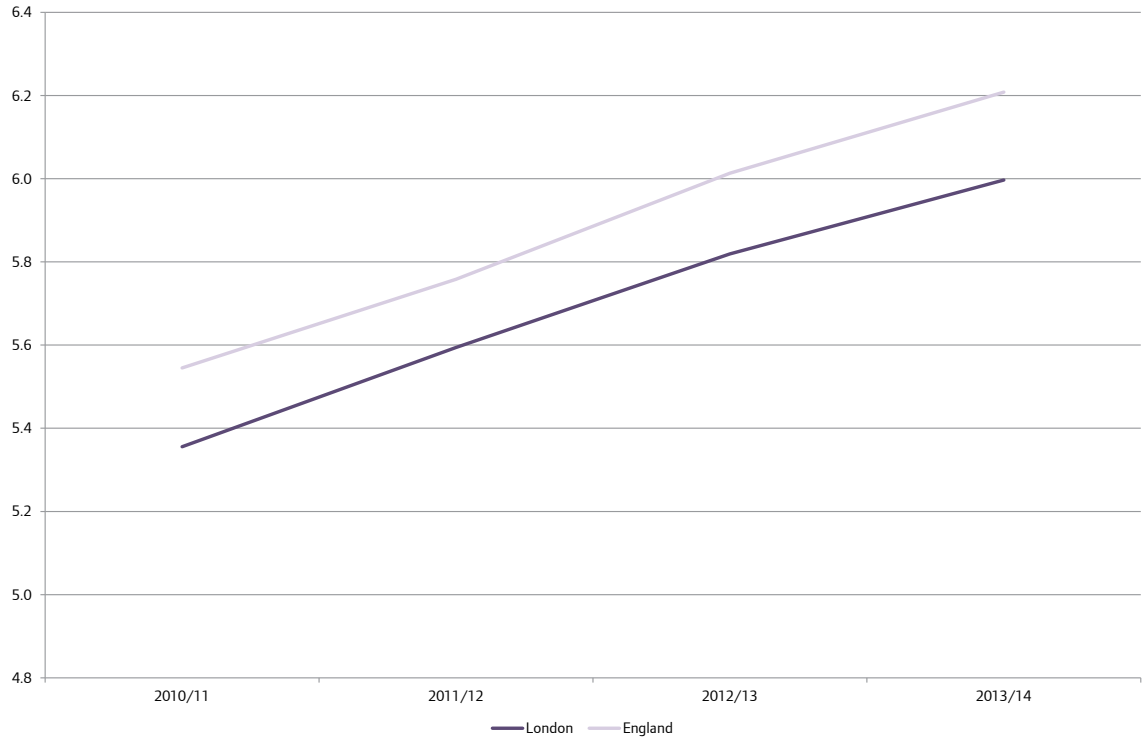
Nevertheless, Map 7.11 shows that the prevalence of being overweight or obese in London is lower compared to other English regions. Thus, on the whole, the proportion of the adult population of Londoners who has excess weight is 58.4 per cent, compared to 64.6 per cent in England as a whole. However, proportions vary significantly between London's boroughs, with several having rates that exceed 70 per cent, while others are below 50 per cent. The lower prevalence of obesity in London may help explain why diabetes is lower in London than England as a whole, as shown in Figure 7.24, with "being overweight or obese [being] the main modifiable risk factor for type 2 diabetes"[49]. However, as can also be seen, recorded diabetes has been rising over time in both London and England as a whole.

Map 7.11: Proportion of overweight or obese adults in London



Source: Better Health for London, London Health Commission, October 2014

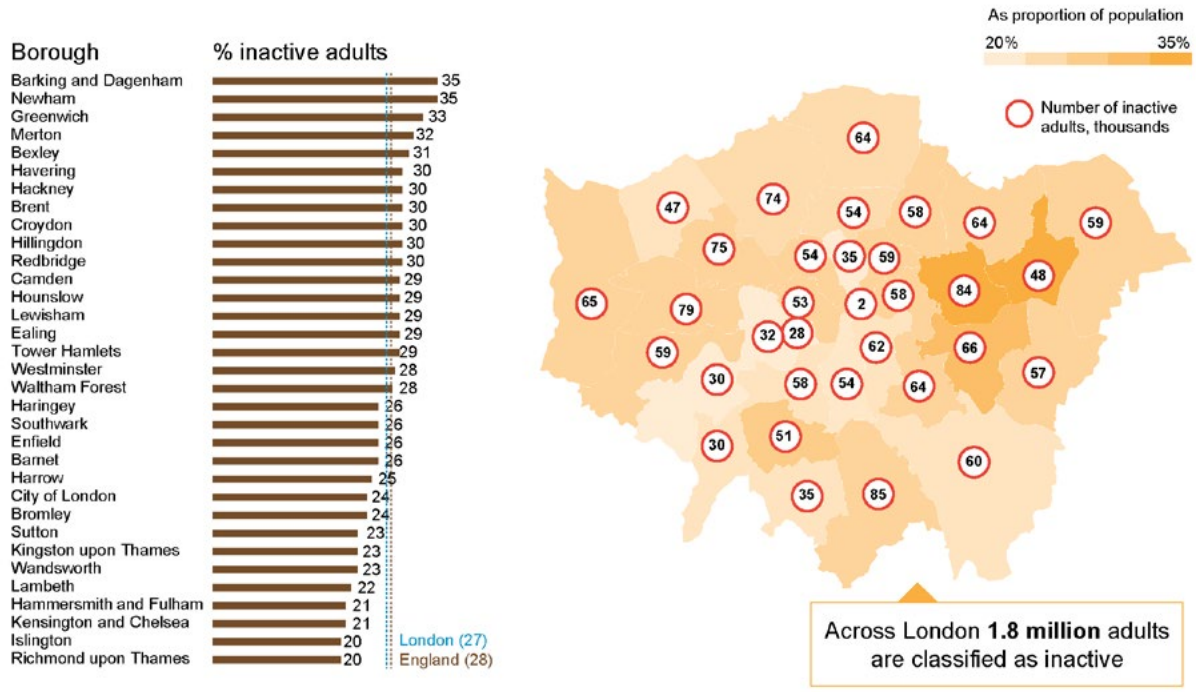
Figure 7.24: Recorded diabetes prevalence as percentage of the population, aged 17 or above London and England



Source: Public Health England

Map 7.12, looks at one of the possible drivers of obesity, which is inadequate physical activity. It shows a substantial variation in levels of inactivity across boroughs.

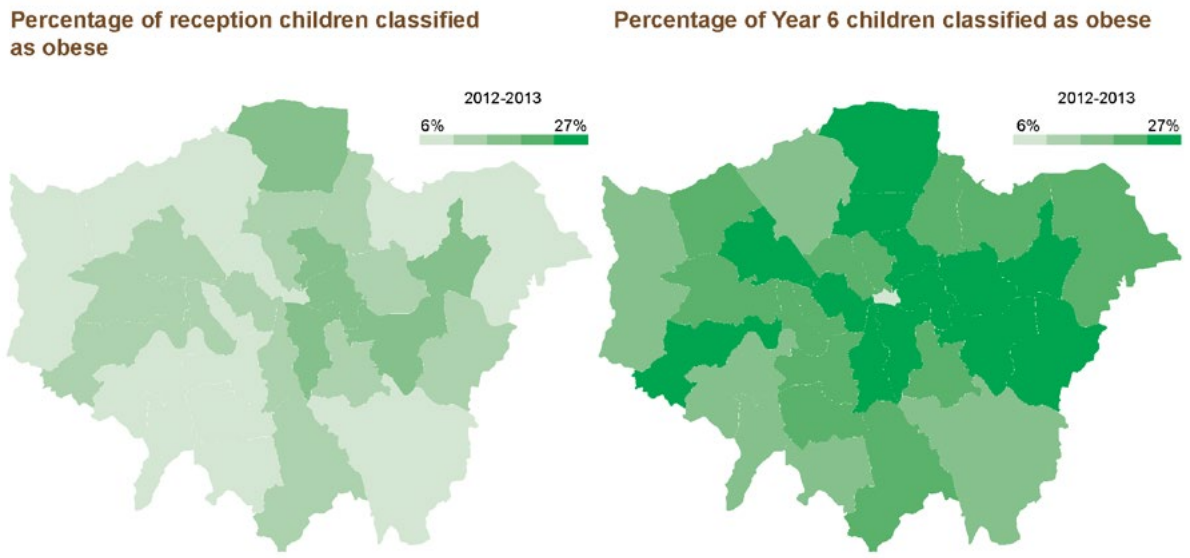
Map 7.12: Inactivity in London



Source: Better Health for London, London Health Commission, October 2014

Obesity amongst children is also a particularly acute issue. The London Health Commission reports that "London has the highest rate of childhood obesity [amongst] peer global [cities]. In all the regions of England [it has] the highest proportion of obese children"[50]. The increase in the proportion over primary school years is striking. Map 7.13 provides a picture of obesity by borough for two age groups, while Figure 7.25 examines how this has varied over time in London and England as a whole.

Map 7.13: Obesity in two child age groups



Source: Better Health for London, London Health Commission, October 2014

Figure 7.25: Percentage of 4-5 year olds and 10-11 year olds who have excess weight in London and England

Source: Public Health England

7.5.2 The impact of ill-health

This sub section looks at ill-health in London by first examining its impact; before examining some relevant health and wellbeing statistics for London in comparison with England and the rest of the world.

As noted ill-health has a socioeconomic element with those individuals in the lowest household income quintile (ie, income in the bottom 20 per cent of incomes) more likely to self-report that they suffer from bad or very bad health[51]. While examining health in London in more detail, a report by GLA Economics[52] found that Londoners are slightly more likely to suffer from bad or very bad health, and slightly less likely to be in very good health[53]. Also discovered was a geographic dispersion of ill health across London, which overlapped with areas of income deprivation in the capital.

Ill-health also impacts on individuals in terms of their employment prospects with GLA Economics finding:

- "Low employment of people with health problems – 43 per cent of male Londoners with a health problem are workless compared with 36 per cent nationally (the figures are 54 per cent versus 49 per cent for women);

- "Employment of people with disabilities – London has the lowest rate of people with disabilities in employment in England, 45 per cent compared to 50 per cent nationally;

- "Failure to return to work following ill-health – London has the highest proportion of individuals on incapacity benefit for greater than six months in England and the greatest proportion of individuals falling out of work within six months following a return; and

- "Prevalence of preventable illness – The majority of Londoners on incapacity benefit have preventable and / or treatable conditions, ie,: 47 per cent mental health; 15 per cent musculoskeletal; 6 per cent circulatory or respiratory; 5 per cent nervous system; 4 per cent injury, poison, etc.; and 26 per cent other"[54].

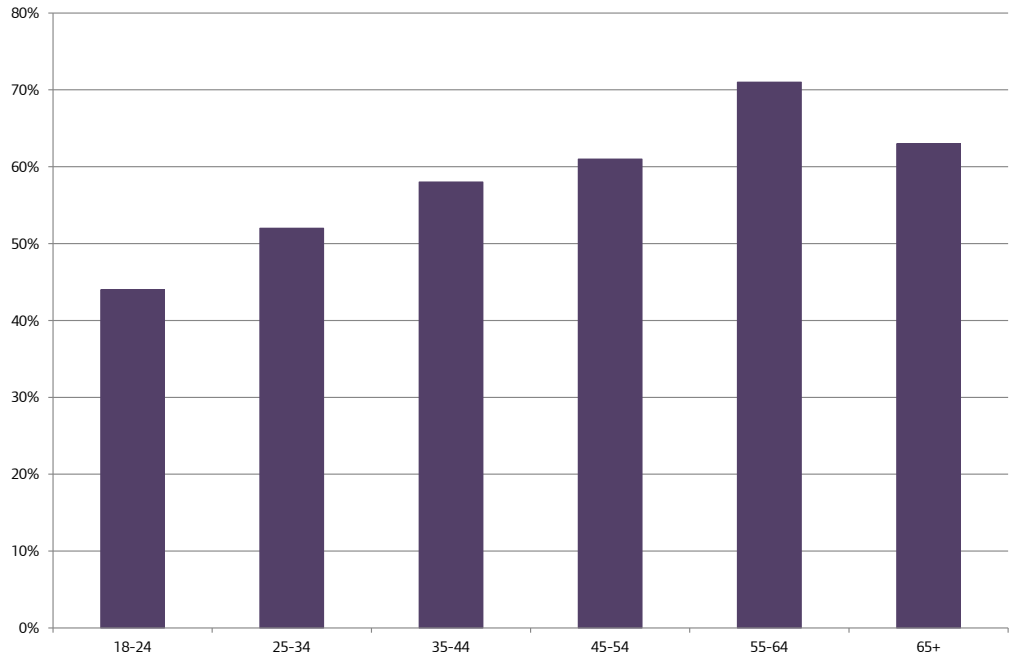
Mental ill-health has wide impacts on Londoners with a recent report by the GLA noting that "in any given year, an estimated 1 in 4 individuals will experience a diagnosable mental health condition. A third of these will experience two or more conditions at once. Mental ill-health is the single largest source of disease burden, more than cancer and cardiovascular disease, and the costs extend well beyond health and social care"[55]. It also impacts on other areas of health with "mental health issues also prevent[ing] physical health conditions from being addressed properly. Roughly £1 in every £8 spent on long-term health conditions can be linked to poor mental health, which translates to an additional £2.6 billion in treatment costs each year in London"[56]. Further it impacts on other socio-economic issues with "individuals with mental ill-health [being] more likely to be the victims of crime than the perpetrators, but the costs to the criminal justice system are significant. The London criminal justice system spends approximately £220 million per year on services related to mental ill-health, and other losses such as property damage, loss of stolen goods and the lost output of victims cost London another £870 million each year"[57].

Finally, ill-health is costly to the economy, with GLA Economics estimating that in 2012, an average London firm of 250 employees lost around £4,800 per week (or around £250,000 a year) due to sickness absence[58]. While in terms of mental ill-health the GLA estimates that its wider impacts led to around £26 billion in total economic and social cost to London each year[59].

7.5.2.1 Health care provision in London

Health care provision is an important factor affecting a city's liveability and a concern for individuals of all ages that generally increases with age as shown by Figure 7.26.

Figure 7.26: Health as a concern of Londoners, by age



Source: GLA Intelligence Unit polling60

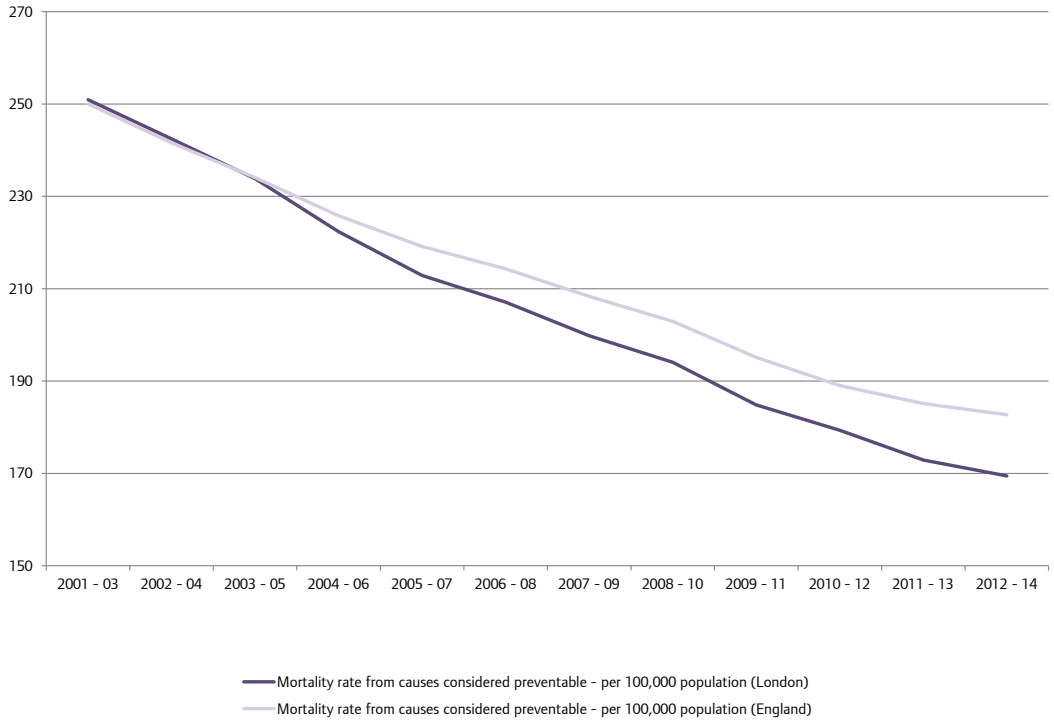
London's health performance with respect to the rest of England is mixed. Table 7.11 shows that female life expectancy in London is the highest of any region, while male life expectancy is one of the highest. However, healthy life expectancy was higher in some other English regions. As shown by Figure 7.27, London's mortality rate from preventable causes has been falling in recent years and has overtaken that for England as a whole. This improvement in performance is also seen for cardiovascular diseases and cancer (Figure 7.28).

Table 7.11: Life expectancy (LE) and healthy life expectancy (HLE) for males and females at birth by English region, 2011 to 2013

	Males		Females	
	Life Expectancy	Healthy Life Expectancy	Life Expectancy	Healthy Life Expectancy
South East	80.4	65.6	83.9	66.7
South West	80.1	65.3	83.8	65.5
East	80.3	64.6	83.8	65.4
London	**80.0**	**63.4**	**84.1**	**63.8**
East Midlands	79.3	62.7	83.0	63.5
West Midlands	78.8	62.4	82.8	62.8
North West	78.0	61.2	81.8	61.9
Yorkshire and The Humber	78.5	61.1	82.2	61.8
North East	78.0	59.3	81.7	60.1
England	79.4	63.3	83.1	63.9

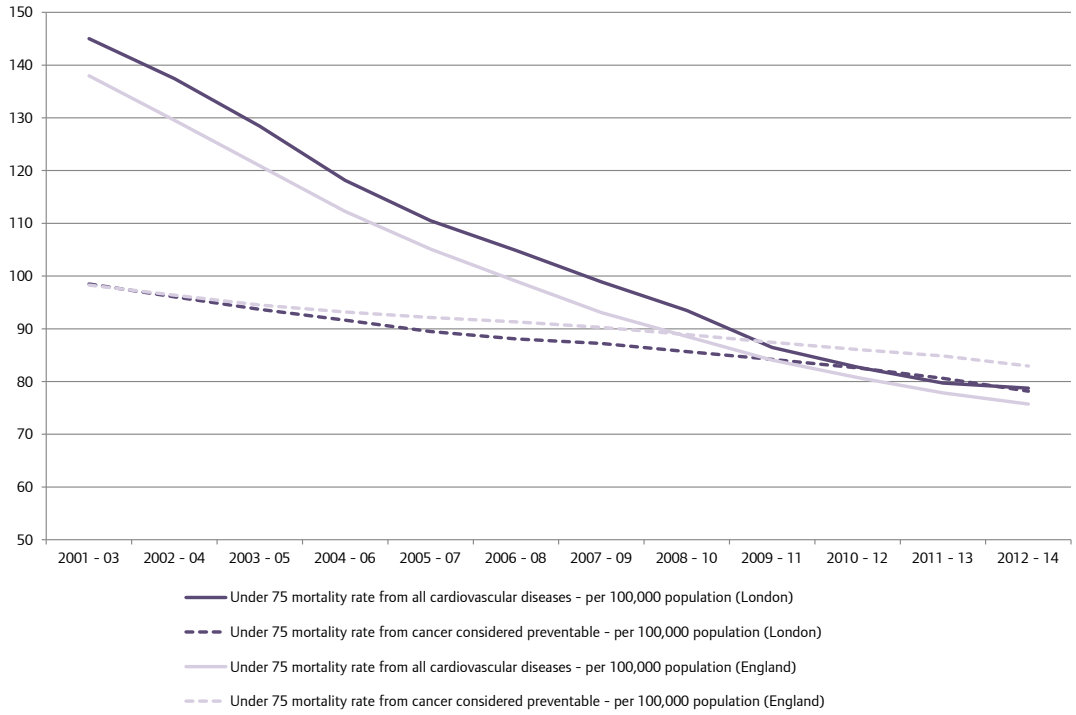
Source: ONS[61]

Figure 7.27: Mortality rate from causes considered preventable - per 100,000 population, London and England



Source: Public Health England

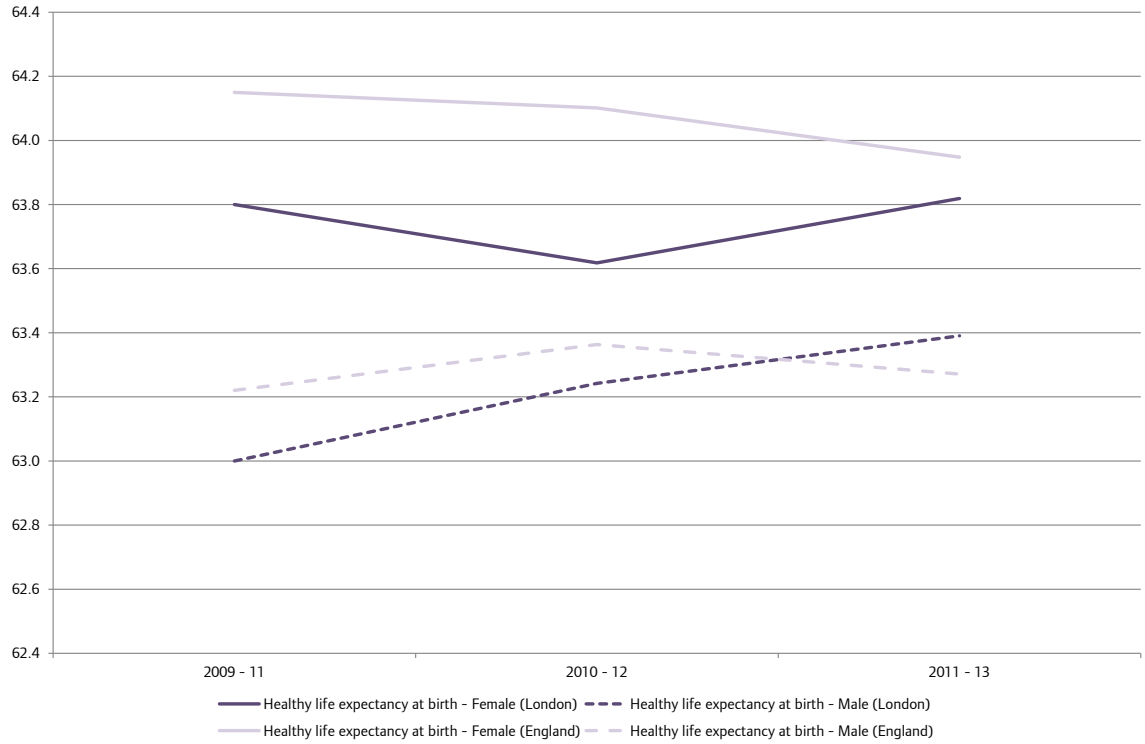
Figure 7.28: Under 75 mortality rate from all cardiovascular diseases and from cancer considered preventable - per 100,000 population, London and England



Source: Public Health England

London's men have generally longer healthy life expectancies at birth than for people in England as a whole but the reverse is true for London's women, as shown in Figure 7.29. However, the ONS has noted that healthy life expectancies in London can vary depending on where people live even within boroughs, highlighting the impact of inequality on health, stating that "men who live in the least deprived parts of Kensington & Chelsea can expect almost a quarter of a century more of good health than their male counterparts in the most deprived part of the borough. For males at birth, the number of years an individual could expect to live in good health based on current rates – known as healthy life expectancy – differed by an average of 24.6 years between the most and least deprived parts of the borough. For females at birth, inequality during the same period was 21.2 years. Overall healthy life expectancy in the borough was 67.6 years for males and 69.1 years for females". The ONS further observe that "the London borough of Newham had the lowest level of health inequality within it for men, at 3.8 years, as well as one of the lowest levels of healthy life expectancy overall at 57.9 years. For females, Newham had the second lowest level of inequality (3.1 years) and also a low number of years lived in good health (56.8 years). Inequality in health between areas within Newham is less noteworthy than elsewhere, largely because most of the areas within the borough have a similarly low healthy life expectancy. For example, among males, out of 21 small areas within Kensington and Chelsea only three had a lower healthy life expectancy than the Newham average of 57.9 years"[62].

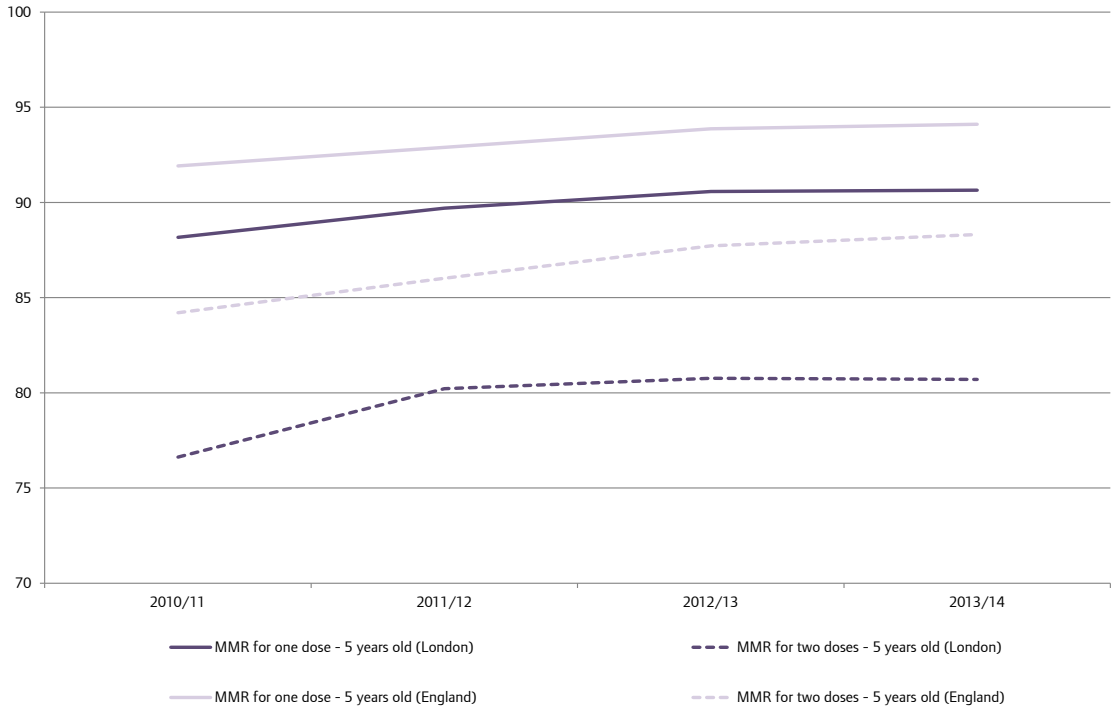
Figure 7.29: Healthy life expectancy at birth, London and England



Source: Public Health England

For other indicators London performs worse than the English average, with tooth decay in children aged five averaging 1.19 decayed teeth compared to 0.94 in England in 2011/12. MMR vaccination rates have also been lower in London than in England as a whole as shown in Figure 7.30.

Figure 7.30: Percentage of 5 years olds receiving MMR vaccination rates (1 and 2 doses), London and England

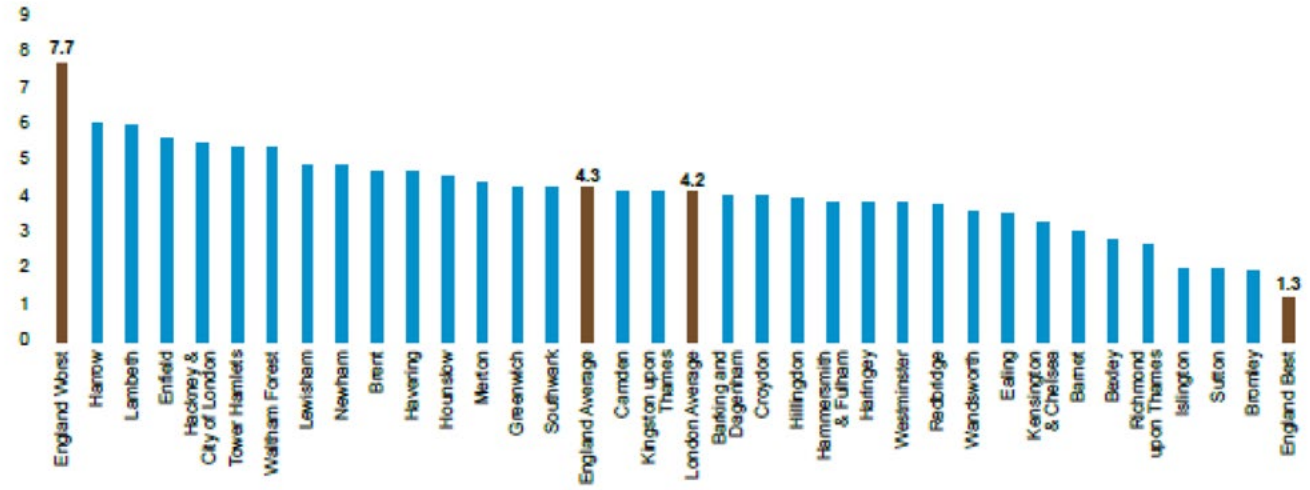


Source: Public Health England

Although the death rate per thousand live births for London's children under one years old differs little from that for England on average (Figure 7.31), it is significantly worse than England as a whole in terms of the

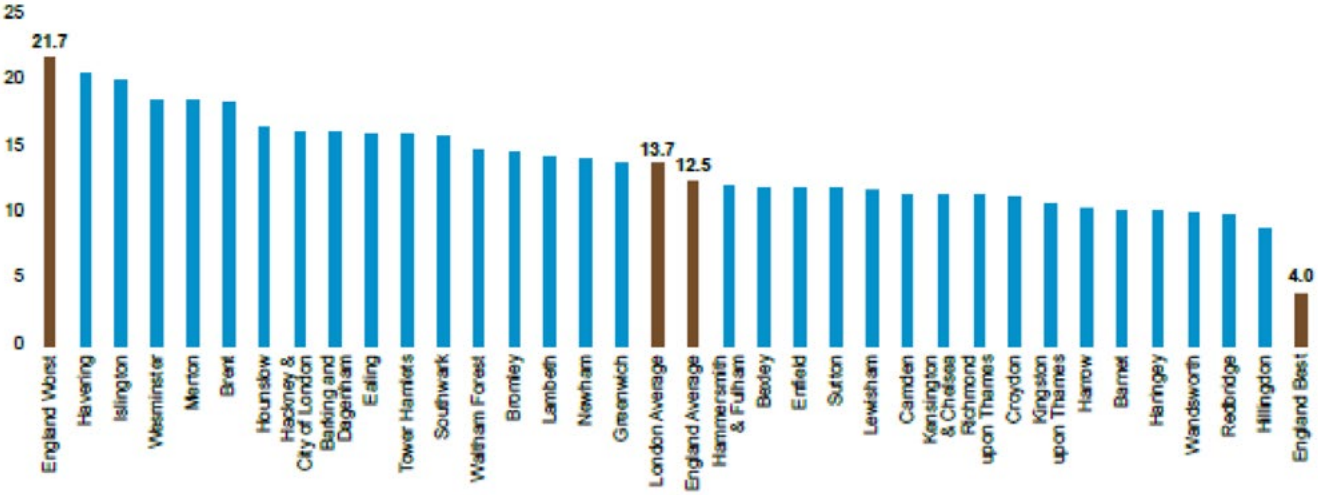
standardised death rate per 100,000 for children aged 1-17 years (Figure 7.32). Further, in terms of both phenomena, the variation across boroughs is substantial.

Figure 7.31: Under 1 death rate per 1,000 live births



Source: Better Health for London, London Health Commission, October 2014

Figure 7.32: 1 – 17 age death rate per 100,000

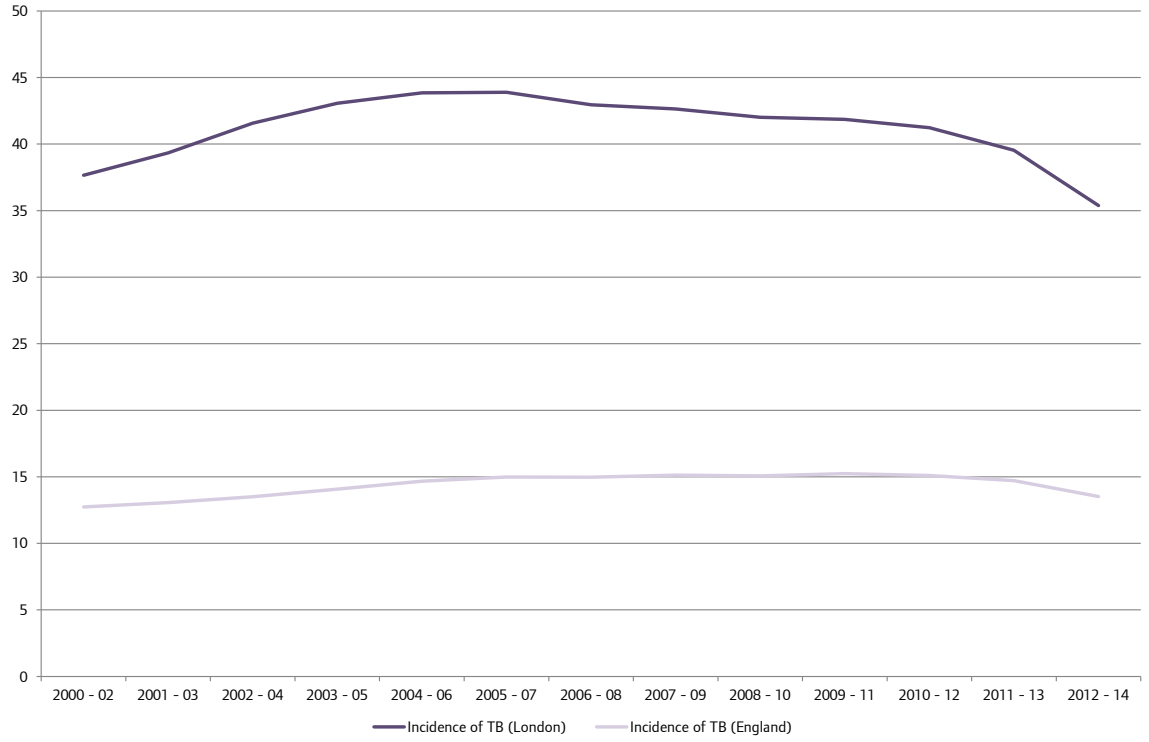


Source: Better Health for London, London Health Commission, October 2014

London also faces health issues that are unique to itself within England as a whole. While there are an "estimated 103,700 people in 2014" living with HIV in the UK, "around two fifths (43 per cent) of all those living with diagnosed HIV in the UK live in London". Although, "in the last 10 years, the biggest increases in people living with diagnosed HIV have been in the East of England, the West Midlands and the North East".

It should also be noted that of those living with HIV, "around one in six (17 per cent) were undiagnosed and unaware of their infection"[63]. Figure 7.33 highlights another issue for London, that London has a higher incidence of TB than England as a whole.

Figure 7.33: The three-year average number of reported new cases per year of TB (based on case notification) per 100,000 population in London and England



Source: Public Health England

7.5.2.2 International Comparisons of health outcomes

Looking internationally, surveys have ranked London highly in regard to its health situation, with it being tied at 5th with Chicago and Singapore "for health, safety and security" in PwC's "Cities of Opportunity 6" survey[64]. A recent survey comparing London to a number of world cities by the London Health Commission did not rank London the 'healthiest' but also rarely ranked it as the 'unhealthiest' city on any of the health rankings examined as shown by Table 7.12. For example, London has slightly better life expectancy than New York, but slightly worse than Paris.

Table 7.12: Comparing London's health outcomes to a number of other global cities

	Hong Kong	Johan-nesburg	London	Madrid	New York	Paris	Sao Paulo	Sydney	Tokyo	Toronto
Income inequality (Gini coefficient)	0.5	0.63	**0.44**	0.44	0.51	0.38	0.61	0.39	0.38	0.4
Male life expectancy (years)	81	54	**80**	79	78	79	71	79	80	80
Female life expectancy (years)	86	57	**84**	85	83	85	79	84	86	85
Infant mortality (deaths/ 1,000 births)	1.3	48	**4.3**	3.9	4.7	3.7	12	5.5	2.7	6.1
One way commute journey time (minutes)	36	36	**37**	40	34.6	33.7	42.8	33	34.5	33
% of obese adults	..	..	**20**	8	24	7	16	12	4	12
% of obese/ overweight adults	19	59	**57**	42	56	40	47	38	25	41
% of obese Children	7	..	**22**	2	21	5	7	10	..	12
% of obese/ overweight children	27	..	**37**	15	39	16	25	29	10	32
% reaching recommended physical activity level	40	21	**57**	23	56	38	62	56	32	47
% of population who smoke	13	..	**18**	28	16	40	15	16	20	17
% of population consuming 5+ drinks in one occasion	6	..	**14**	14	20	15	..	24	..	13
Suicides per 100,000 pop.	11.8	..	**7.5**	2.7	6	8.1	5.4	8.6	21.3	6.9

Source: London Health Commission[65]

Looking at the UK as a whole, it can be seen that although "74 per cent of people in the UK reported being in good or better health in 2013, higher than the OECD average of 68 per cent"[66]; the situation in terms of health care resources in the UK compared to other countries is mixed. If we examine London in relation to UK and EU regions in relation to these indicators and others, the picture becomes more mixed as demonstrated by Table 7.13, which shows that for some health indicators, London performs well compared to the UK and EU, with it ranking relatively well for instance on mortality from circulatory disease, whilst in other indicators, such as AIDS incidence it ranks less well.

Table 7.13: Health summary for London against UK and EU rankings

		Rank of London in	
Domain	**Indicator**	**UK[67]**	**EU[68]**
Mortality	Life expectancy at birth: Female	4/12	90/189
	Life expectancy at birth: Male	4/12	51/189
	Infant mortality	7/12	78/248
	Perinatal death rate	2/12	40/227
	Mortality all causes: Female	9/12	172/265
	Mortality all causes: Male	4/12	214/265
	Premature mortality <65: Female	9/12	126/265
	Premature mortality <65: Male	7/12	189/265
	Mortality circulatory diseases: Female	9/12	191/244
	Mortality circulatory diseases: Male	9/12	177/244
	Mortality cancers: Female	10/12	82/235
	Mortality cancers: Male	9/12	184/235
	Mortality external causes: Female	10/12	212/244
	Mortality external causes: Male	12/12	240/244
Morbidity	AIDS incidence	1/11	19/168
	Low weight births	5/12	27/169
	Road injuries and deaths	9/12	206/212
Risk Factors	Obese adults	11/12	13/113
	Overweight and Obesity	11/12	16/92
	Adult smokers	8/12	108/158
Health Professionals and Health Care Services	Physicians	2/12	156/262
	Midwives	3/12	29/160
	Nurses (including midwives)	3/12	47/232
	Hospital beds	6/12	212/265
	Acute care beds	9/12	245/262
	Psychiatric beds	3/12	100/246
	Acute care discharge from hospital	7/12	22/216

Source: I2sare project[69]

7.6 Crime

Another aspect that affects the liveability of London and which can impact on different demographics divergently is crime. This section examines crime in London in the light of national and international comparisons. Crime is also an issue of concern as the perception of low crime prevalence is important for competitiveness. This enters the international assessment of London as a world city addressed elsewhere in the Economic Evidence Base.

7.6.1 Crime in London

Crime, although generally declining in recent years, still risks making London a less-appealing place to live, with the OECD finding that London was the least safe of any UK region (although still performing better than the OECD average)[70]. Further, as shown by Table 7.14, total recorded crime in London was higher than the level in England as a whole in the year to June 2015. However, this did not hold for all offending in London, with for instance sexual offences and possession of weapons offences being at similar rates. It should also be noted that the GLA will soon be publishing detailed analysis on the crime landscape of London.

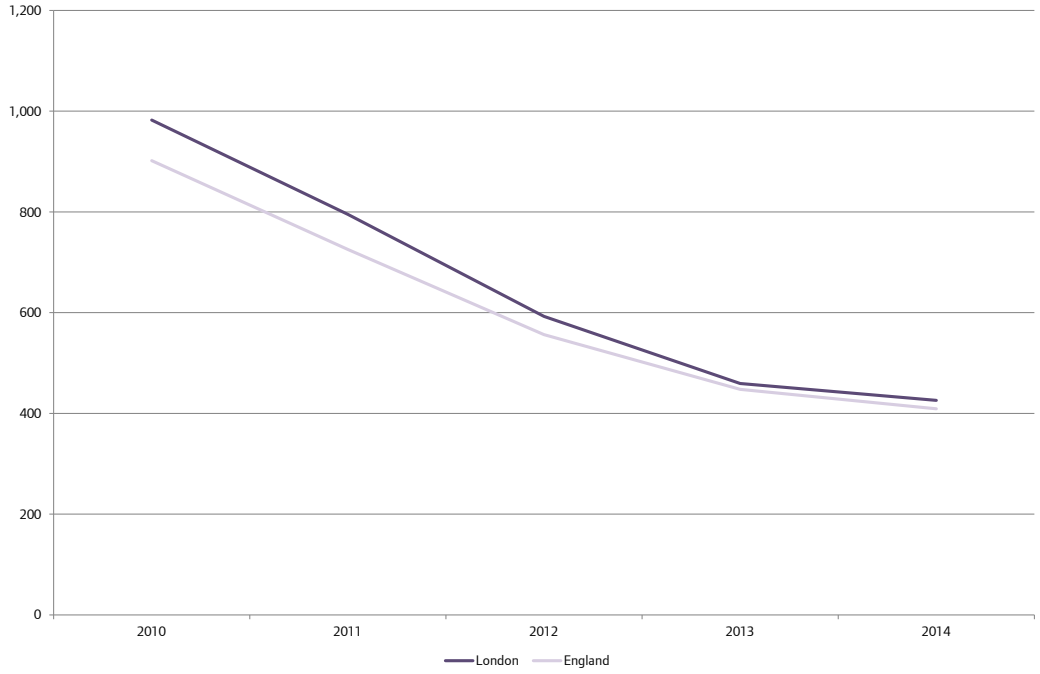
Table 7.14: Police recorded crime by offence group, Metropolitan Police, London Region and England, rate per 1,000 population, year ending June 2015

	Metropolitan Police	London Region[71]	ENGLAND
Total recorded crime - excluding fraud	84.0	84.6	63.2
Violence against the person	19.7	19.8	14.3
Homicide	0.0	0.0	0.0
Violence with injury	8.3	8.4	6.8
Violence without injury	11.4	11.4	7.6
Sexual offences	1.8	1.8	1.7
Robbery	2.6	2.6	0.9
Theft offences	42.0	42.3	30.6
Burglary	8.5	8.5	7.2
Domestic burglary[72]	5.5	5.5	3.5
Domestic burglary (households)	14.1	14.1	8.5
Non-domestic burglary	3.1	3.1	3.7
Vehicle offences	9.6	9.6	6.2
Theft from the person	3.9	4.0	1.3
Bicycle theft	2.1	2.1	1.6
Shoplifting	4.9	5.0	5.7
All other theft offences	12.9	13.1	8.5
Criminal damage and arson	7.1	7.1	8.8
Drug offences	4.7	4.7	2.7
Possession of weapons offences	0.5	0.5	0.4
Public order offences	4.7	4.7	2.9
Miscellaneous crimes against society	1.1	1.1	0.9

Source: ONS via GLA Datastore

Figure 7.34 shows that London has more 10 to 17 year olds entering the youth justice system every year than England as a whole, although, there has been some recent convergence in these numbers. These figures help to partially illustrate the issues London faces in terms of youth crime.

Figure 7.34: First time entrants to the youth justice system, London and England (per 100,000)

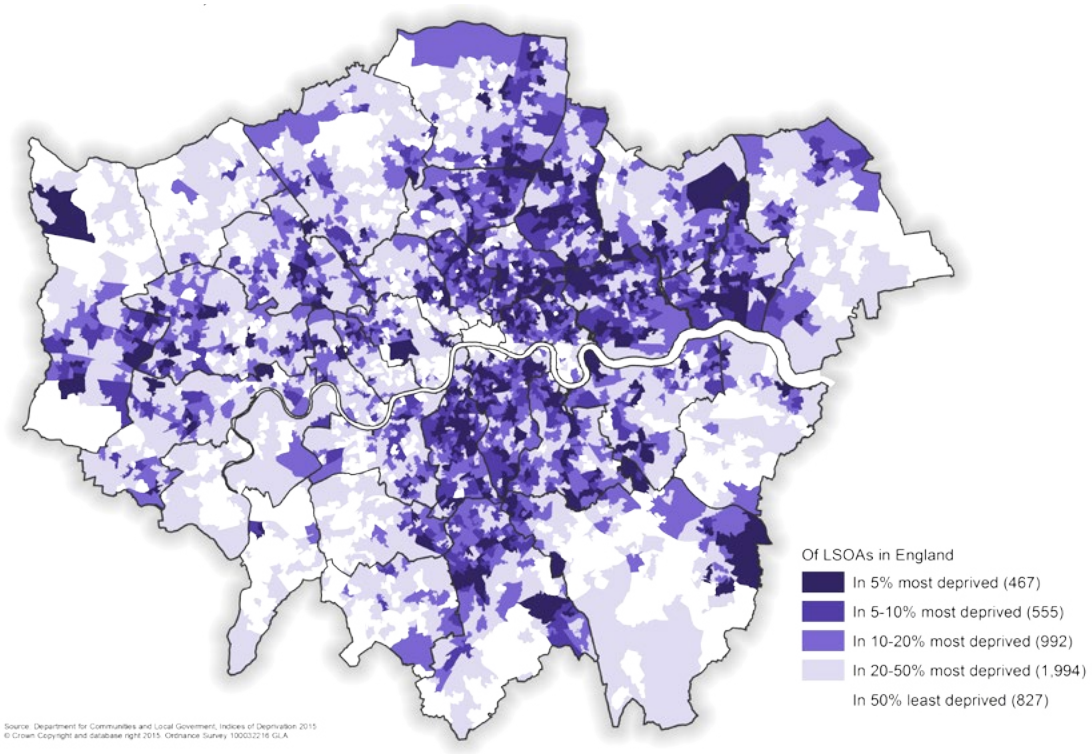


Source: Public Health England

It can also be observed from Map 7.14 that crime is not evenly spread across London with the incidence generally more substantial in the north east and central southern parts of London.

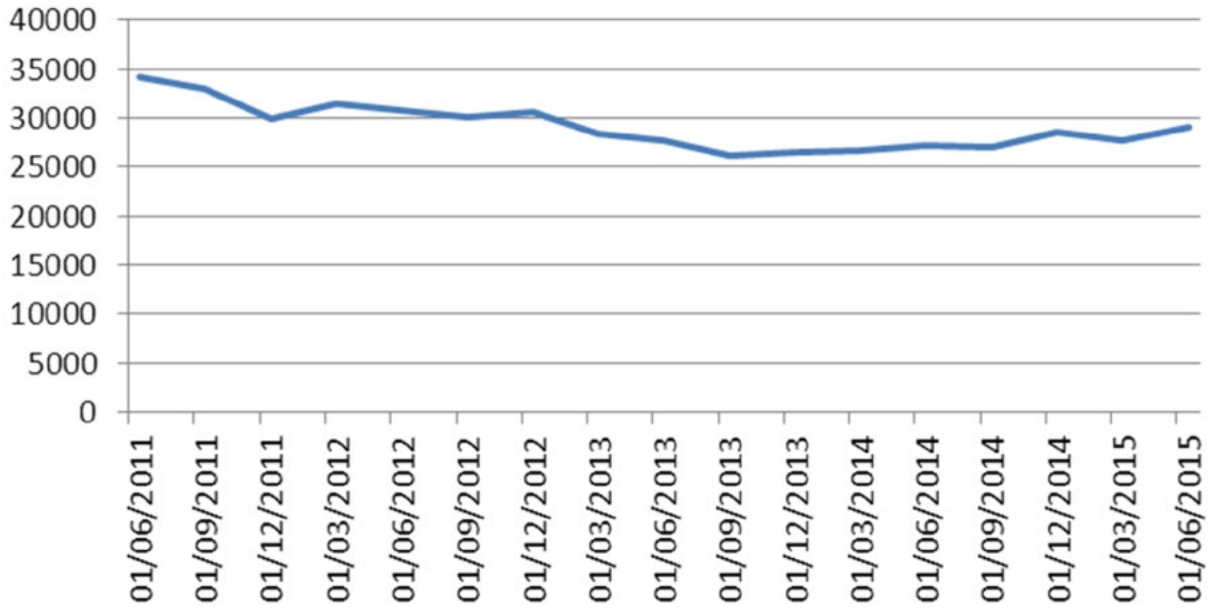
Business crime is also a risk to London's economy and although the Mayor's Office for Policing and Crime (MOPAC) data would indicate that onsite crime has been falling over the long term, as shown by Figure 7.35 there has been a recent up-tick since 2013. Map 7.15 shows that the rates of business crime vary across the capital, with Newham having the highest rate of business crime over the year to June 2015. London's businesses and individuals also face an evolving criminal environment with online crime becoming increasingly important. In fact, "around 70 per cent of frauds are now 'cyber-enabled', and the internet provides an opportunity for fraudsters to expand their activities on a huge scale"[73].

Map 7.14: Crime domain in London in 2015



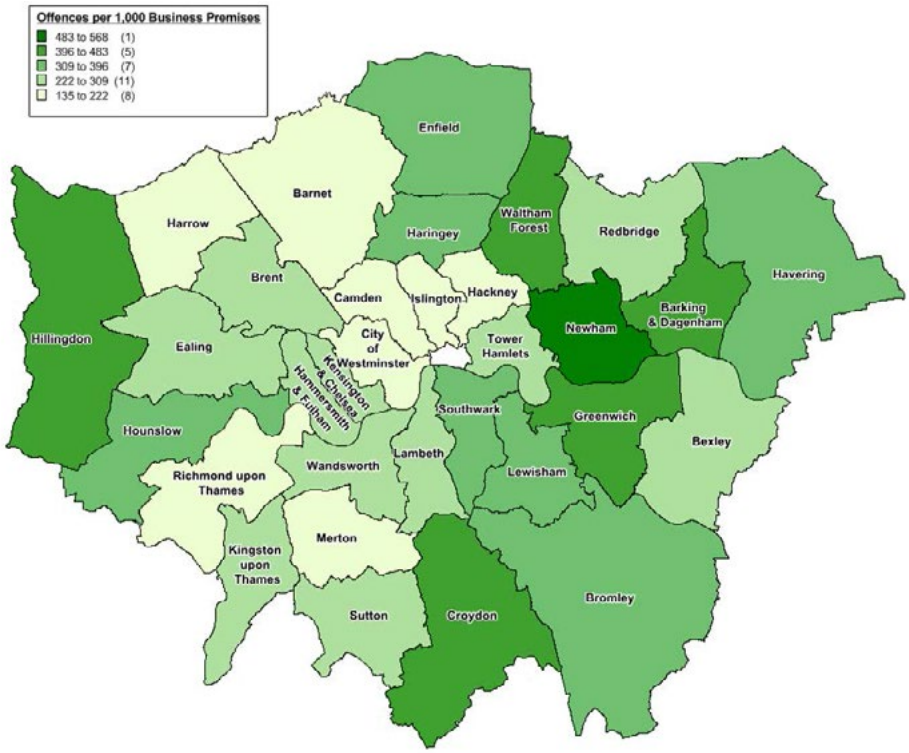
Source: DCLG & GLA Intelligence Unit analysis

Figure 7.35: Metropolitan Police Service all business crime 4-year trend



Source: MOPAC

Map 7.15: Offences per 1,000 business premises July 2014 to June 2015



Source: MOPAC

7.6.2 International comparisons on crime

Looking abroad, international comparisons of crime (although limited) seem to indicate that London is a relatively safe city. This is supported by national level data (Table 7.15), which shows that the UK ranks low compared to other countries on the murder rate. However, on other measures of crime and also on police personnel per 100,000 of population, England and Wales rank less well internationally as is shown in Table 7.16.

Table 7.15: Homicides in selected countries, rates per 100,000 population, 2004-2013 (ranked on 2013)

Country/ Territory	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Honduras	53.8	46.6	44.3	50.0	60.8	70.7	81.8	91.8	91.0	84.3
Jamaica	55.2	62.4	49.7	58.5	59.5	61.6	52.6	40.9	39.1	42.9
El Salvador	45.8	62.2	64.4	57.1	51.7	70.9	64.1	70.2	41.5	39.8
South Africa	39.5	38.4	39.3	37.3	36.1	33.1	31.0	29.9	30.7	31.9
Colombia	44.8	39.6	36.8	34.7	33.0	33.7	32.3	33.5	30.7	31.8
Trinidad and Tobago	20.1	29.8	28.5	29.8	41.6	38.3	35.6	26.4	28.3	30.2
Brazil	..	..	..	23.5	23.9	23.0	22.2	23.3	26.5	26.5
Mexico	8.5	9.0	9.3	7.8	12.2	17.0	21.8	22.8	21.5	18.9
Panama	9.3	10.8	10.8	12.7	18.4	22.6	20.6	20.3	17.2	17.2
Philippines	7.5	7.5	7.1	6.5	6.4	6.9	9.5	9.1	8.8	9.3
Russian Federation	..	..	..	..	11.6	11.1	10.1	9.7	9.2	9.0
Lithuania	10.3	11.3	8.9	8.7	9.5	8.1	7.1	7.0	6.8	6.8
Kenya	4.0	3.5	3.5	3.4	3.6	5.6	5.5	6.3	6.5	6.6
Estonia	6.8	8.5	6.9	7.1	6.4	5.4	5.4	5.0	4.9	4.1
United States of America	5.5	5.6	5.8	5.6	5.4	5.0	4.7	4.7	4.7	3.8
Latvia	8.0	5.7	5.8	4.3	4.6	5.1	3.3	3.4	4.8	3.5
India	3.8	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.5	3.5	3.6	3.5	3.3
Hungary	2.1	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.8	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.4	2.7
Belgium	2.6	2.1	2.1	2.0	1.9	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.7	1.8
Finland	2.8	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.2	2.2	2.0	1.6	1.7
Malta	1.7	1.0	0.0	1.0	1.4	0.9	0.9	0.7	2.8	1.6
Bulgaria	3.2	2.6	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.0	2.0	1.7	1.9	1.5
Romania	2.3	2.1	2.0	1.9	2.1	1.8	1.8	1.5	1.7	1.5
Serbia	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.4	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.5
Canada	1.7	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.4
Macao	2.2	1.5	2.3	2.2	1.6	1.9	0.7	1.3	1.3	1.4
Slovakia	2.3	2.0	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.4	1.4
Greece	1.0	1.2	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.4
Algeria	1.3	0.6	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.8	1.4	1.3
Portugal	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.8	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.3
France	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2
Ireland	0.7	1.3	1.5	1.8	1.1	1.3	1.2	0.9	1.2	1.1
Croatia	1.9	1.5	1.6	1.4	1.5	1.1	1.4	1.1	1.2	1.1
Australia	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1
Cyprus	1.6	1.9	1.4	1.2	0.8	1.7	0.7	0.8	2.0	1.0
United Kingdom	**1.6**	**1.5**	**1.4**	**1.4**	**1.2**	**1.2**	**1.2**	**1.0**	**1.0**	**1.0**
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	2.3	2.1	2.2	2.0	1.7	1.7	2.0	1.4	1.4	1.0
New Zealand	1.1	1.5	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.5	1.0	0.9	0.9	1.0
Hong Kong	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.5	0.2	0.4	0.9
Czech Republic	1.3	1.1	1.3	1.2	1.1	0.9	1.0	0.8	1.0	0.9
Norway	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.6	2.3	0.5	0.9
Sweden	1.2	0.9	1.0	1.2	0.8	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.7	0.9
Poland	1.7	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.3	1.1	1.2	1.0	0.8
Italy	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8
Denmark	0.8	1.0	0.5	0.7	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7
Austria	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.0	0.7

Germany	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7
Netherlands	1.2	1.1	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.7
Switzerland	1.1	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.7
United Arab Emirates	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.8	0.6	0.8	0.6
Slovenia	1.4	1.0	0.6	1.2	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.6
Spain	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.1	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.6
Japan	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3
Singapore	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3
Iceland	1.0	1.0	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.3	0.6	0.9	0.3	0.3
Luxembourg	0.4	0.9	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.0	2.0	0.8	..	0.2

Source: United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC)[74]

Table 7.16: Crime and police personnel per 100,000 population in selected countries in 2013 (ranked on police personnel per 100,000 population)

Country/ Territory	Assault	Kidnapping	Robbery	Burglary breaking and entering	Domestic Burglary/ Housebreaking	Motor Vehicle Theft	Total Sexual Violence	Rape	Total Sexual Offences against Children	Total Police Personnel
Macao	300.2	0.2	26.5	22.1	62.0	64.3	9.4	4.2	19.1	1,087.1
Spain	35.6	0.3	183.3	356.6	284.9	104.1	19.0	2.8	9.8	525.3
Russian Federation	24.4	0.3	64.5	172.3	70.4	36.2	9.2	3.0	32.0	522.0
Algeria	138.9	0.6	45.3	35.0	8.4	10.8	14.3	1.7	18.5	491.4
Croatia	19.2	0.0	35.5	430.9	108.6	25.1	17.3	6.3	47.3	483.6
Greece	50.4	0.9	44.2	607.9	230.0	258.8	7.7	1.3	2.4	480.2
Italy	108.7	0.5	104.6		412.2	300.8	7.4	..	10.4	453.4
Malta	50.8	0.0	48.3	335.2	181.1	75.8	21.9	3.5	38.1	452.7
Hong Kong	91.9	0.0	6.9	49.6	37.6	8.2	24.7	1.5	54.3	446.0
The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia	10.3	0.9	22.2	717.0	125.2	24.1	7.2	1.8	11.5	440.2
Cyprus	11.6	1.7	13.1	234.5	156.4	131.8	4.1	1.6	..	439.8
Portugal	242.2	4.1	156.4	361.9	209.3	139.5	21.1	3.3	45.4	432.1
Slovakia	37.0	0.1	15.3	204.9	31.3	44.6	2.9	1.7	51.0	411.1
Northern Ireland	**59.7**	**3.2**	**53.0**	**498.7**	**317.2**	**115.9**	**104.3**	**27.2**	**291.0**	**400.7**
Latvia	22.3	0.9	44.7	46.6	34.3	65.7	22.0	3.6	34.2	399.9
Bulgaria	34.2	1.2	41.2	237.6	88.6	49.6	8.7	2.3	21.5	370.7
Czech Republic	174.6	0.1	28.5	582.9	103.9	100.3	19.7	5.5	43.6	362.1
Serbia	13.5	0.1	40.3	260.0	83.4	23.5	3.3	0.7	8.7	356.3
Slovenia	89.2	0.2	18.2	741.8	184.1	30.0	13.0	2.6	47.5	348.1
Belgium	621.0	10.2	1,616.0	946.1	725.5	141.6	59.7	27.7	165.0	342.1
Estonia	7.7	0.1	37.0	..	165.6	42.5	29.6	10.5		327.8
Austria	44.0	0.0	44.0	1,044.2	194.8	60.5	36.1	10.8	114.2	327.0
Scotland	**1,188.3**	**4.7**	**28.1**	**418.0**	**306.6**	**112.2**	**161.5**	**31.7**	**..**	**323.9**
Lithuania	7.0	1.5	61.9	..	108.2	49.9	14.7	4.4	48.6	312.1
Netherlands	311.1	3.1	78.1	1,720.2	659.7	124.3	51.3	7.9	27.8	307.9
Germany	612.4	2.1	57.1	528.9	180.7	79.4	56.6	9.0	93.6	296.2
Brazil	330.1	0.2	505.3	128.0	11.8	114.3	28.1	24.9	..	267.5

Australia	..	2.6	40.5	871.5	620.9	227.0	85.3	..	..	262.6
Poland	1.2	1.2	32.4	310.2	59.9	40.8	8.4	3.6	20.9	255.8
Romania	81.0		13.5	69.5	69.5	13.3	7.2	4.5	22.2	247.1
Liechten-stein	278.3	0.0	2.7	337.8	337.8	13.5	16.2	8.1	474.3	229.7
England and Wales	**564.3**	**3.0**	**101.5**	**778.2**	**372.3**	**132.3**	**99.3**	**36.4**	**199.0**	**224.6**
Switzerland	7.0	4.0	67.1	850.8	412.6	83.5	89.6	7.1	91.2	220.6
Sweden	839.8	..	87.4	892.8	424.8	289.7	190.0	58.9	420.4	208.0
Iceland	27.9	..	14.9	331.4	112.6	63.1	137.2		258.3	207.3
Japan	46.7	0.1	2.6	84.4	45.5	57.4	7.1	1.1	22.4	202.2
Canada	138.9	9.2	66.0	443.3	277.7	206.9	75.6	..	60.3	196.9
USA	226.3	..	107.8	602.5	445.5	218.6	..	24.9	..	195.9
Denmark	164.8	..	56.8	1,404.1	746.0	169.0	..	6.2	..	191.3
France	299.6	3.5	193.9	593.3	382.9	269.4	43.2	17.4	118.0	172.4
Norway	50.9	..	33.1	312.1	108.2	131.6	49.6	22.5	100.4	163.6
Singapore	8.8	..	4.7	9.4	..	7.5	26.7	2.2	37.4	162.2
Finland	654.3	0.0	28.1	316.4	105.9	146.7	61.0	18.0	176.9	141.5
India	26.7	5.2	2.9	8.3	..	13.2	9.3	2.7	2.8	138.3
Hungary	134.3	0.1	23.1	382.5	156.1	57.2	59.6	2.5	307.5	84.2
United Arab Emirates	3.3	..	..	..	..	..	..	0.8	2.8	..
Ireland	272.5	2.6	60.6	500.4	..	159.1	43.7	9.8	..	..

Source: UNODC

7.7 Education

Although early years education has been covered above, children's education does not end when they leave nursery and as demonstrated in previous chapters a highly educated workforce has been one of the key factors driving London's success. This is likely to become even more important in the future. A key concern for individuals and families is the educational outcomes of their children throughout their school career, and high educational attainment is seen as one way in which individuals can become more socially mobile.

Although often of high importance to families, some children or parents can still misperceive the importance of formal educational attainment and less formal skills for life chances. The failure of young people to realise their potential may occasion may make them more prone to develop into NEETs[75] and hence be more inclined to participate in antisocial behaviour and crime. There is also evidence that there is a similar increased propensity to ill-health among those with lower educational attainment. These all may further impact on London's competitiveness, as discussed elsewhere in the Economic Evidence Base.

A further issue is around equity. There is evidence of a vicious circle, particularly amongst London's white, less well-off families. LSE research for the Trust for London has recently found that "general educational inequalities between those from different backgrounds declined for those born after 1980. However, when focussing on the highest levels of attainment, gaps have persisted"[76]. And that, "there is clear evidence that initially high-attaining poorer children fall behind richer but lower-attaining children between 11 and 16. Much of this is attributable to differences between the types of secondary schools attended by richer and poorer children, and some of it to differences in educational values, aspirations and expectations of pupils"[77]. Further, "children with lower attainment at age 5 but coming from more privileged backgrounds suggests that there is a 'glass floor', protecting them from the downward social mobility that might have been predicted. Protective factors include higher parental education, higher maths attainment by age 10, enrolment in private or grammar secondary schools, and reaching university"[78]. This has resonances to earlier sections of this chapter.

Education attainment in London at GCSE level is generally high and better than in England as a whole or other English regions as shown by Table 7.17. However, as can also be seen, the educational outcome of London's pupils varies by ethnicity.

Table 7.17: Percentage of pupils achieving 5 or more A*-C grades including English and Maths at GCSE (all and by ethnicity), in England and the English regions in 2013/14

	All Pupils	White	Mixed	Asian	Black	Chinese
England	56.8	56.3	57.9	61.5	53.7	76.3
London	**61.5**	**60.4**	**62.3**	**69.1**	**55.5**	**79.2**
North East	54.6	54.5	60.1	57.8	48	74.6
North West	55.8	55.9	55.5	57.3	49	73.5
Yorkshire and the Humber	53.9	54.9	50.9	47.2	45.5	70.8
East Midlands	54	53.6	52.5	60.3	47.3	73.8
West Midlands	54.9	54.7	51.3	59.8	47.7	73.9
East	57.2	56.9	60.2	59.9	58.5	76.5
South East	59	58.5	60.6	65.3	56.7	79.3
South West	56.7	56.7	58.5	59.8	46.1	74.5

Source: Department for Education[79]

Table 7.18 shows that there are variation in GCSE outcomes by London borough with Kensington and Chelsea having over 70 per cent of pupils achieving 5 or more A*-C grades including English and Maths at GCSE, while Lewisham had a rate of just over 50 per cent in 2013/14. It can also be seen from Table 7.19 that deprivation also impacts on educational performance with disadvantaged children performing less well at GCSE than those that aren't disadvantaged. Interestingly, those children for which English is not their first language slightly outperform those children for which English is their first language at the London level.

Table 7.18: Percentage of pupils achieving 5 or more A*-C grades including English and Maths at GCSE (all and by ethnicity) by London borough and in England in 2013/14

	All Pupils	White	Mixed	Asian	Black	Chinese
Camden	60.5	63.5	63.9	60.4	52.7	..
City of London	..	..	..	..	..	..
Hackney	58.8	62.6	60.7	65.2	52.9	64.3
Hammersmith and Fulham	65.6	71.4	58.8	71.8	55.8	..
Haringey	59.1	62.2	64.9	64.9	50.7	30
Islington	59.9	57.5	64.9	69.7	54.7	100
Kensington and Chelsea	73.8	76.2	67.6	76.7	66.2	..
Lambeth	57	58.2	52.4	70.3	55.4	81.3
Lewisham	51.3	54.4	55.4	45.5	47.5	71.1
Newham	55.4	43.1	57.7	62.1	52.6	66.7
Southwark	62.4	61.3	60.7	69	61.9	74.1
Tower Hamlets	59.7	46.8	49.5	63.5	58.2	70.6
Wandsworth	59.1	63.6	59.1	66.1	49	..
Westminster	68.1	69.5	73.2	70.7	61.3	88
Barking and Dagenham	58.2	50.7	56	70.6	66.1	..
Barnet	67.5	67.4	63.5	81.6	56	89.1
Bexley	60.3	56.4	65.9	76.9	68.3	78.9
Brent	60	51.8	65.8	68	50.2	..
Bromley	65.6	64.9	67.5	81.3	64.5	72.7
Croydon	56.8	59.1	55.9	65.1	50.9	66.7
Ealing	59.8	63.2	65.8	64.5	47.7	57.1
Enfield	59.7	57.4	61.2	76.2	58.8	..
Greenwich	59.6	54.4	60.4	66.7	64.2	62.5
Harrow	62.3	57.2	53.8	72.3	51.4	..
Havering	60.2	58.2	65.8	70.1	66.9	100
Hillingdon	58.6	54.8	65.9	69.5	46.2	..
Hounslow	66.1	66.4	69.9	69.5	57.2	60
Kingston upon Thames	70	65.6	72.2	84.4	59.7	87
Merton	64.2	64.9	63.2	72.8	55.7	60
Redbridge	68.1	63.8	65.4	74.4	56.3	75
Richmond upon Thames	63.5	64	61	69.4	42.2	..
Sutton	72.1	67.7	75.4	89.4	66.8	100
Waltham Forest	56.7	55.3	58.3	62.1	51.9	60
Inner London	59.5	60.2	60.4	63.8	54.4	74.7
Outer London	62.4	60.4	63.4	71.8	56.5	81.8
London	61.5	60.4	62.3	69.1	55.5	79.2
England	56.8	56.3	57.9	61.5	53.7	76.3

Source: Department for Education

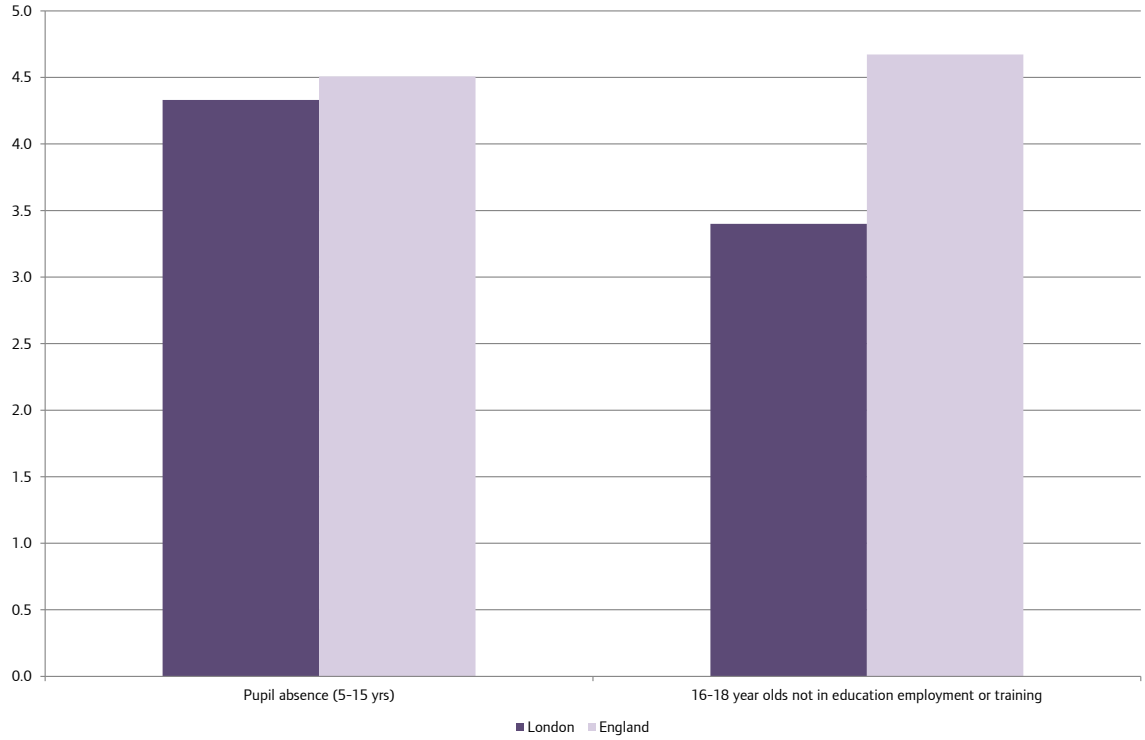
Table 7.19: Percentage of pupils achieving 5 or more A*-C grades including English and Maths at GCSE (by different characteristics) by London borough and in England in 2013/14

	Pupils whose first language is English	Pupils whose first language is other than English	Pupils known to be eligible for free school meals	All other Pupils (not eligible for FSM)	Disadvantaged pupils	All other Pupils (not disadvantaged)
Camden	59.5	61.6	50.7	65.4	52.1	71.7
City of London	..	..	..	..	..	..
Hackney	59.7	57.3	50.6	63	51.8	66.9
Hammersmith and Fulham	67.2	63	46.1	72.2	50	78.2
Haringey	64.3	54.2	47.2	64.6	49.4	70
Islington	53.4	65.8	54.6	64.1	56.1	68
Kensington and Chelsea	68.9	78.7	62	76.6	63.8	82.4
Lambeth	55.9	58.8	49	61	50.5	65
Lewisham	50.4	53.6	37.1	55.5	39.8	61.4
Newham	51.7	57.1	47	60.5	49.1	65.1
Southwark	59.5	66.7	52.4	66.2	54.8	70.5
Tower Hamlets	49.8	63.4	55.2	65.1	56.8	68.6
Wandsworth	58.9	59.3	40.9	63.8	45.1	69.8
Westminster	65.4	69.4	62.6	71.1	62.2	75.7
Barking and Dagenham	55.6	63.8	45.8	62.3	46.1	67.1
Barnet	69	65.3	46.5	71.8	48.6	76.1
Bexley	59.6	66.7	31	63.4	36.3	66.6
Brent	63.7	57.2	45.5	63.6	48.4	67.5
Bromley	65.6	67.8	36.7	68	42	71.5
Croydon	57.3	55.1	43.4	59.7	46.2	62.8
Ealing	64	56.2	44.2	64.3	47.3	68
Enfield	62.6	55.5	41.5	64	47	67.8
Greenwich	56.3	65.9	42.7	64.3	50.3	69.2
Harrow	63	61.6	40.3	66.4	46.5	68.8
Havering	60.2	60.4	38.9	62.7	40.7	65.3
Hillingdon	56.6	62.5	37.3	62.5	37.9	66.7
Hounslow	65.4	66.8	49.7	69.5	51.5	73.8
Kingston upon Thames	68.9	72.9	41.9	73	42	76.1
Merton	61.6	69.8	41.7	69.1	46	72.6
Redbridge	67.3	68.4	49.3	72.5	50.9	74.5
Richmond upon Thames	62.7	66.5	38.1	67.4	41.5	71.1
Sutton	70.5	80.8	37.7	75.8	44.7	78.1
Waltham Forest	58.1	54.6	41.5	60.9	46.1	64.4
Inner London	57.7	61.2	50.4	64.1	52	69
Outer London	62.4	62.4	42.8	66.2	46	69.8
London	61.2	61.9	46.5	65.6	48.7	69.6
England	56.9	56.5	33.7	60.7	36.7	64.2

Source: Department for Education

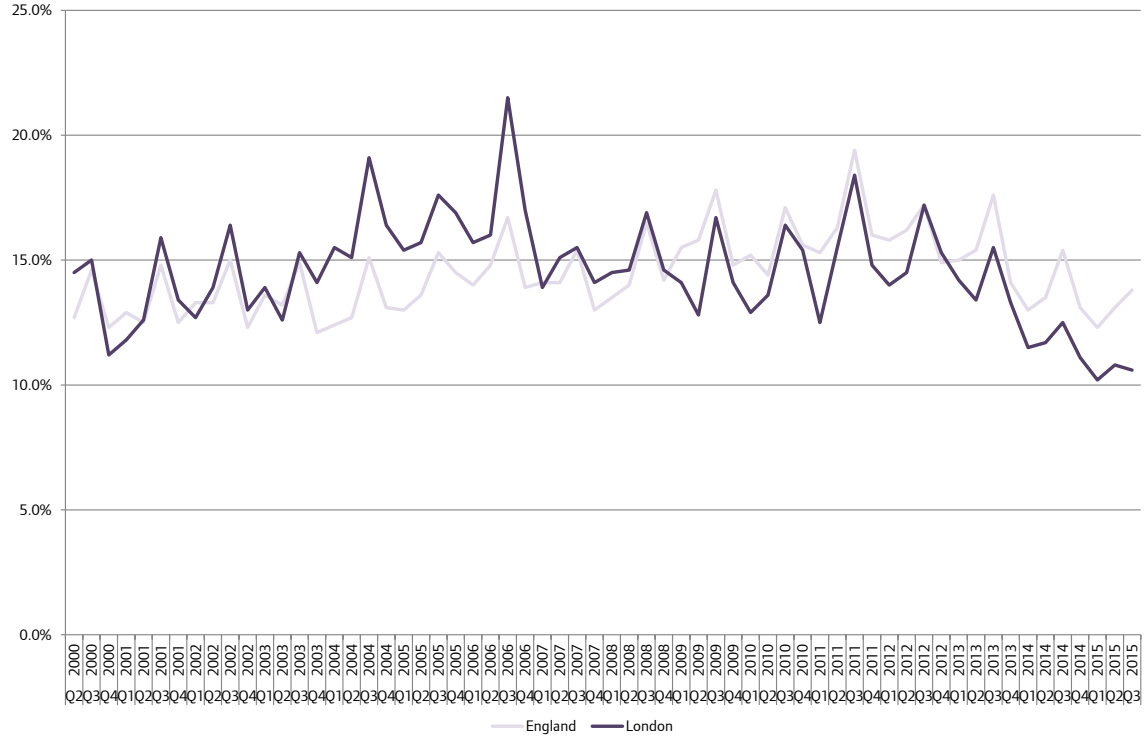
As can be seen from Figure 7.36, London also performed slightly better on pupil absence from school compared to England as a whole in 2013/14, and had less 16-18 year old NEETs in 2014. This picture for NEETs is replicated at the 16-24 year old age range as shown in Figure 7.37, with London having overtaken England as a whole in the mid-2000s on this performance measure.

Figure 7.36: Percentage of half days missed by pupils (2013/14) and percentage of 16-18 year olds NEET's (2014) in London and England



Source: Public Health England

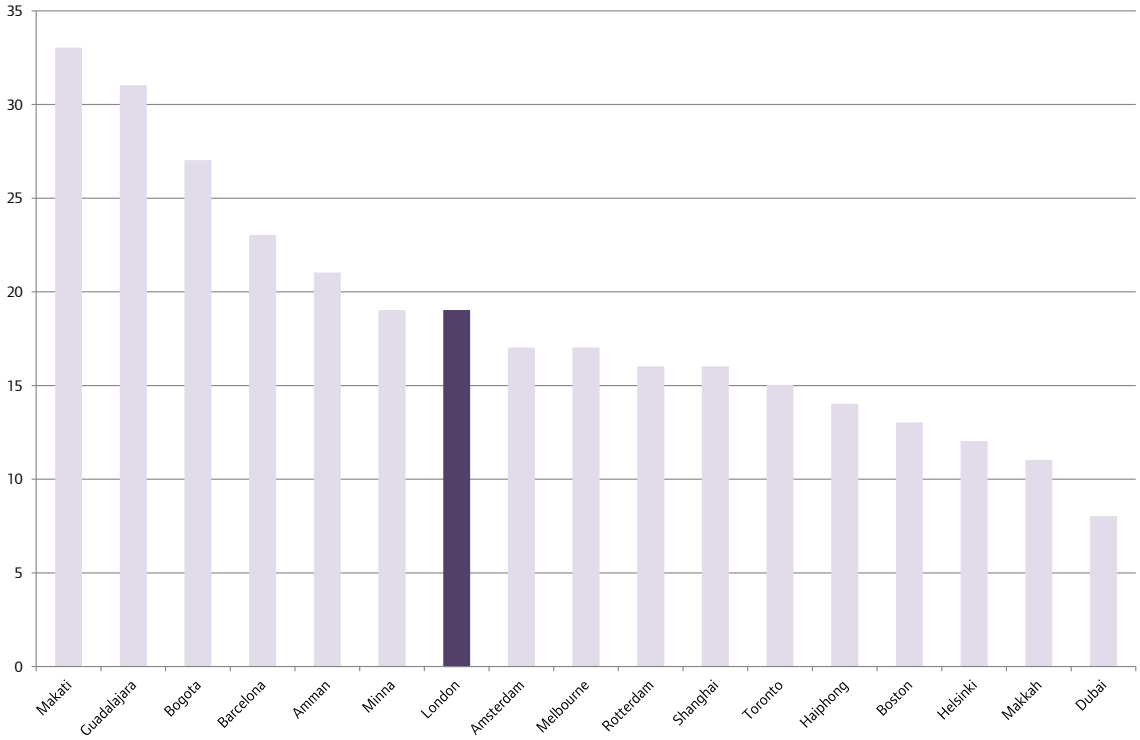
Figure 7.37: Percentage of 16-24 year olds NEET in London and England



Source: Labour Force Survey[80]

Examining London in an international context, Figure 7.38 gives an indication of the type of resources available to a child in London by examining the student/teacher ratio in London and other global cities. However, as can be observed from this chart, London's situation is relatively poor when compared to other more affluent cities.

Figure 7.38: Primary education student/teacher ratio in selected world cities



Source: World Council on City Data: WCCD Open City Data Portal

Finally, the UK as a whole ranks relatively well on expenditure per primary education student as shown in Table 7.20, but less well on other measures such as spending on tertiary education per student.

Table 7.20: Expenditure per student at different education levels US$ (tens), 2011 ranked on primary education spending (annual, equivalent US$ using PPPs)

	Expenditure per student, pre-primary education	Expenditure per student, primary education	Expenditure per student, secondary education	Expenditure per student, tertiary education including R&D activities
Luxembourg	25,074	23,871	16,182	..
Switzerland	5,267	12,907	15,891	22,882
Norway	6,730	12,459	13,939	18,840
United States	10,010	10,958	12,731	26,021
Austria	8,933	10,600	13,607	14,895
Iceland	9,138	10,339	8,470	8,612
Sweden	6,915	10,295	10,938	20,818
United Kingdom	**9,692**	**9,857**	**9,649**	**14,223**
Denmark	14,148	9,434	10,937	21,254
Belgium	6,333	9,281	11,732	15,420
Slovenia	8,136	9,260	8,568	10,413
Canada	..	9,232	..	23,226
Australia	10,734	8,671	10,354	16,267
Ireland	..	8,520	11,502	16,095
Italy	7,868	8,448	8,585	9,990
OECD - Average	7,428	8,296	9,280	13,958
Japan	5,591	8,280	9,886	16,446
Finland	5,700	8,159	9,792	18,002
New Zealand	11,088	8,084	9,312	10,582
Netherlands	8,020	8,036	12,100	17,549
Germany	8,351	7,579	10,275	16,723
Spain	6,725	7,288	9,615	13,173
Korea	6,861	6,976	8,199	9,927
France	6,615	6,917	11,109	15,375
Israel	4,058	6,823	5,712	11,554
Poland	6,409	6,233	5,870	9,659
Portugal	5,674	5,865	8,676	9,640
Slovak Republic	4,653	5,517	4,938	8,177
Estonia	2,618	5,328	6,389	7,868
Latvia	4,359	4,982	4,998	7,552
Czech Republic	4,302	4,587	7,270	9,392
Hungary	4,564	4,566	4,574	9,210
Chile	5,083	4,551	4,495	8,333
Brazil	2,349	2,673	2,662	10,902
Mexico	2,568	2,622	2,943	7,889
Turkey	2,412	2,218	2,736	8,193
Argentina	1,979	2,167	3,034	..
Colombia	3,491	2,041	2,207	6,882
Indonesia	205	587	522	1,173

Source: OECD[81]

Chapter 7 endnotes

1 This poll was carried out in 2015.
2 The 2011 Census shows that London residents travel 11.2km to work on average, whereas across the whole of England and Wales, the average distance is 15.0km.
3 Family and Childcare Trust, 'Childcare Costs Survey 2015'.
4 Based on Land Registry for 2014, excluding properties sold below market value, or below £1,000 or above £20 million.
5 For more information on this see: Marsden, J., November 2015, 'Working Paper 72: House prices in London – an economic analysis of London's housing market'. GLA Economics.
6 Belfield, C., Chandler, D., & Joyce, R., February 2015, 'Housing: Trends in Prices, Costs and Tenure'. Election 2015: Briefing Note 4 – Institute for Fiscal Studies.
7 Using Q3 2014, VOA private rent data.
8 UBS notes: "to estimate the worldwide costs of housing, we considered the prices for three different types of apartments. For two of these types, we standardized requirements to Western preferences, with a furnished two-room apartment and an unfurnished three-room apartment. We only looked at newly built apartments which with a bathroom and a kitchen. Prices included utilities (energy and water taxes), but not the use of a garage. To capture local standards, our survey asked for the price of an apartment of typical size, location, and amenities for the respective city. All three housing options were weighted equally.".
9 Weighted on a selected basket of goods.
10 This survey was published in 2015.
11 UBS, September 2015. 'Prices and earnings – Edition 2015: Do I earn enough for the life I want?'.
12 Knight Frank, 2015, 'Global Cities Index 2015'.
13 Mercer, 17 June 2015, '2015 Cost of Living Rankings'.
14 This survey was published in 2015.
15 UBS notes: "the composition of our reference basket of goods and services represents the spending habits of a three-person European family. The prices of the 122 goods and services are weighted by monthly consumption. For example, we assume that a family in Europe consumes almost 15 kilos (33 pounds) of vegetables every month, but only buys a new personal computer every 2.5 years. Price level calculations are based on the cost of a basket of 122 goods and services including rent. For our index, these reference basket prices are shown as relative to our reference city, New York City. Rent values were calculated by weighting the prices of our three types of housing equally".
16 UBS, September 2015. 'Prices and earnings – Edition 2015: Do I earn enough for the life I want?'.
17 GLA Economics, 2 November 2015, 'A Fairer London: The 2015 Living Wage in London'.
18 Ibid.
19 Ibid.
20 Kyte, S., November 2011, 'Current Issues Note 34: A summary assessment of fuel poverty in London in 2009 and scenarios to 2013'. GLA Economics.
21 Ofsted, April 2014, 'Early years: 2012/13'.
22 Ibid.
23 All references to Public Health England data unless stated otherwise can be found at: Public Health England: Public Health Outcomes Framework.
24 Produced by the Family and Childcare Trust.
25 London Fairness Commission, September 2015, 'Is London a Fair City: Interim Report 2015'.
26 London Fairness Commission, September 2015, 'Is London a Fair City: Executive Summary 2015'.
27 Note that new data for 2014 was published on 8 December 2015 after this version of the Economic Evidence Base was finalised.
28 Excluding mortgage interest payments, Council Tax and Northern Ireland rates.
29 Hoffman, J., February 2014, 'Working Paper 59: Low pay in London'. GLA Economics.
30 Ibid.
31 Ibid.
32 The welfare system is complicated and administered by different branches of government, including local authorities as well as two Government departments, therefore it is not possible to simply combine data from the different sources. Strictly, some of the figures included here should not be added, as some may be individual benefits, while others may be for entire families. Nor are these comprehensive counts, since some benefits are not included, including some disability-related benefits and some housing-related benefits. The published statistics do not allow comprehensive counts to be derived.
33 It should also be noted that these figures may include people of pensionable age where one partner is below pensionable age or in the case of Child Tax Credit, the adult(s) claiming may be of pensionable age.
34 Pension Credit has two forms, the Guarantee Credit, which is for people on very low incomes and a Savings Credit, which is an additional amount payable to those with low incomes and a certain level of savings. This may be paid with or without the Guarantee Credit. Some of those receiving only the Savings Credit element are not included in these figures if they do not also receive Housing Benefit. It is not possible from the published statistics to derive figures for those above pensionable age receiving Housing Benefit on a consistent basis. Some pensioners aged under 65 are therefore not counted in the above figures. The Housing Benefit data is not produced on a comparable basis for previous years.
35 Figures for 2013 onwards are not yet available.

36 It should also be noted that in earlier years, rates were produced for using the total number of children receiving child benefit as the denominator. In most areas, with a few notable exceptions in Central London, this was a good proxy for the total number of children in families receiving benefits. However, with the changes to the Child Benefit system, this is no longer possible.
37 Note they are absolute numbers, as producing rates is problematic for the reasons outlined earlier.
38 Based on 2011 Census data.
39 Further details of this analysis are available in: GLA Intelligence Update, July 2015, 'Benefit Cap in London'.
40 By lower-layer super output areas.
41 The total wealth of households is made up of a combination of elements, such as financial wealth (savings, stocks, shares etc), physical wealth (household assets etc), property wealth (housing and land, including overseas) and pension wealth (the value of any pension funds), less any debts, including mortgage.
42 ONS, Wealth and Assets Survey 2008/10 and 2010/12.
43 For more information on the London Living Wage see: GLA Economics, 2 November 2015, 'A Fairer London: The 2015 Living Wage in London'.
44 Crisis: About Homelessness – Rough Sleeping. Accessed 1 December 2015.
45 GLA Economics, May 2012, 'London's business case for employee health and well-being'.
46 Available from: Public Health England, 'Jubilee line of health inequality 2004-2008'.
47 Department for Health, April 2014, 'Living Well for Longer: National Support for Local Action to Reduce Premature Avoidable Mortality'.
48 Ibid.
49 Public Health England, July 2014, 'Adult obesity and type 2 diabetes'.
50 See page 32 of: London Health Commission, 2014, 'Better Health for London'.
51 For further details please see various Health Survey's for England.
52 GLA Economics, May 2012, 'London's business case for employee health and well-being'.
53 Although as noted later a number of indicators, although by no means all, have been improving more quickly in the capital than in England as a whole recently and this situation may well have improved since the publication of this report in 2012
54 GLA Economics, May 2012, 'London's business case for employee health and well-being'.
55 GLA, January 2014, 'London Mental Health: The invisible costs of mental ill health'.
56 Ibid.
57 Ibid.
58 GLA Economics, May 2012, 'London's business case for employee health and well-being'.
59 GLA, January 2014, 'London Mental Health: The invisible costs of mental ill health'.
60 This poll was carried out in 2015.
61 Office for National Statistics, 26 March 2015, 'Healthy Life Expectancy at Birth for Upper Tier Local Authorities: England, 2011 to 2013'.
62 ONS, 20 November 2015, 'How long will you live in good health?'
63 Terrance Higgins Trust: HIV in the UK.
64 Pricewaterhousecooper, 2014, 'Cities of Opportunity 6'.
65 London Health Commission, 2014, 'Global City Comparisons: Overview'.
66 Beardsmore, R. & Randall, C., 1 July 2015, 'Measuring National Well-being: International Comparisons, 2015'. Office for National Statistics.
67 Ranking out of 12 UK regions.
68 Ranking out of EU regions for which data is available.
69 I2sare, November 2010, 'Regional Health Profiles in the European Union: United Kingdom – London'.
70 OECD, 2014, 'How's Life in Your Region: Measuring Regional and Local Well-Being for Policy Making'.
71 Includes data from the City of London Police and Metropolitan Police.
72 The ONS notes that: "Domestic burglary rates are shown both by rate per 1,000 population and rate per 1,000 households. Household population figures are from the mid-2012 estimates".
73 London Assembly: Police and Crime Committee, March 2015, 'Tightening the net: The Metropolitan Police Service's response to online theft and fraud'.
74 See: https://data.unodc.org/#state:0
75 Not in Education, Employment or Training.
76 LSE, July 2015, 'New research evidence on social mobility and educational attainment'. Trust for London.
77 Ibid.
78 Ibid.
79 Via the London Datatstore at: GCSE Results by Gender and Location of Educational Institution, Borough
80 Department for Education, 19 November 2015, 'NEET statistics quarterly brief: July to September 2015'.
81 See: http://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/education/data/education-at-a-glance/financial-and-human-resources-investment-in-education_data-00750-en?isPartOf=/content/datacollection/edu-db-data-en