LONDON
SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT
COMMISSION

# London Sustainable Development Commission

## 2004 report on London's Quality of Life indicators

April 2004

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responsibility
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# 1 introduction

The London Sustainable Development Commission was set up in 2002 by the Mayor of London Ken Livingstone. Its challenge was to shape policy and activity in the capital to help make London an exemplary sustainable world city.

The Mayor launched the Commission's 'Sustainable Development Framework for London' in June 2003. For the first time, the capital now has an agenda which all of us can use to plot a more sustainable course for the future. But how do we measure progress? The indicators in this report have been selected to help us gauge whether our actions are making London a better city to live in, now and for future generations. In addition, they also assist in telling us whether we are having a beneficial impact on the wider world outside of London's boundaries.

## How the indicators were chosen

The Commission undertook a 12-week consultation with Londoners during Spring 2003. Over 100 existing and potential indicators were identified which could be used to contribute to a holistic view of London as a sustainable city. The results of the consultation were analysed by Professor Yvonne Rydin at the London School of Economics, a renowned expert in the field of urban sustainability indicators.

As a result, the Commission has identified a menu of **55 Quality of Life Indicators** for use in London. These are coded for use by 'business', 'public sector', 'voluntary sector' and 'households and individuals'. From this wider menu, the Commission has identified **20 headline Quality of Life Indicators** which will be used to monitor London's progress towards becoming an exemplary sustainable world city.

## How the indicators will be used

Indicators are tools that measure, simplify and communicate important issues and trends. They are valuable in providing a benchmark against which future progress can be measured. Indicators can help people understand the breadth of sustainable development issues and the relationships between them. They also play an important role in alerting policy makers to unsustainable trends.

The Commission will report annually on the headline indicators. This is the first such report. The wider menu of indicators is available for all Londoners to use - from businesses through to individuals to help to measure how well we are doing in becoming a more sustainable city.

## Further information

The Commission has also produced *Making your plans sustainable: a London Guide* to help implement its London Framework. Further information on the work of the Commission can be found on: www.london.gov.uk/londonissues/sustainability.jsp

Alternatively, contact the LSDC Secretariat at: Post Point 18, 4th Floor, City Hall, London SE1 2AA.

# 2 are we heading in the right direction?

This is the first report on London's Quality of Life Indicators. As such, it provides a baseline against which the Commission will measure London's progress towards becoming an exemplary sustainable world city. Although some of the indicators are new, others are already in routine use and show trend data over a number of years. Some of the key issues arising from this initial baseline assessment are outlined below.

## Key issues from 2004 baseline

*Taking responsibility*

- Electoral turnout in the capital is poor, particularly in Inner London[1]. There is a need to get more Londoners engaged in the decision-making process.
- Pre-school childcare is lagging behind the rest of the country.
- Primary school improvement is better than average.
- GCSE attainment is improving, but concern remains regarding poor performance levels for Inner London pupils, boys and most Black and Minority Ethnic[2] (BME) groups.
- Household waste recycling rates are still poor and not growing as fast as the national average.

*Developing respect*

- BME groups are more than twice as likely to be unemployed as White groups.
- Consistently high levels of child poverty remain a feature of London.
- Street crime is decreasing in line with most crime measures.
- London performs better than the national average in terms of children using sustainable modes of travel to get to school (walking or catching a bus, rather than travelling by car). Although primary schools in London are usually more local than in the rest of England, the average trip to secondary schools in London is 3.2 miles, further than the national average of 2.9 miles and much further than the averages for other metropolitan areas (2.1 miles) and large urban areas (2.4 miles).

*Managing resources*

- London's impact on the rest of the world (measured through its ecological footprint) is high. Waste production is increasing, albeit more slowly than the national average. Although overall $CO_2$ emissions have declined, this masks increases from both transport and the household sector, offsetting declines in industry and commerce. As London's population is set to rise, overall $CO_2$ emissions may increase, particularly as total household consumption outstrips technological advances.
- In terms of other resources, the picture is better. Bird populations are stable, or doing slightly better than the rest of the UK, the amount of $PM_{10}$ air pollution emitted is decreasing and the carbon efficiency of the economy is improving.
- Road traffic continues to grow, but at a slower rate than the national average.

*Getting results*

- Fewer Londoners are active in the labour force than nationally, with Inner London having particularly low rates of activity. Declining labour force activity rates for London women show a marked contrast to the national picture, where the opposite trend is evident.
- Business survival rates are lower in London than nationally, and the gap is widening.
- Life expectancy is slowly rising as in the rest of the UK, but Inner and East London suffer from lower levels.
- London has lower levels of decent housing than the rest of UK.

**Inner London** is shown to exhibit particular concerns when compared to the rest of London:

- Lower level of GCSE attainment
- Higher levels of child poverty
- Lower life expectancy
- Higher levels of unemployment amongst BME groups
- Lower household waste recycling rates
- Lower levels of labour force participation

For some of these indicators, it is the Inner East boroughs which are particularly at risk. This east-west disparity could be referred to as 'the District Line effect': Londoners resident in Tower Hamlets and Newham have a statistically worse quality of life than those living in Richmond or Kensington.

## BME groups

Latest data from the 2001 census shows that nearly 30% of Londoners belong to an ethnic minority group other than White British. However, this figure rises to 40% for children under 15 years old. In general, BME groups fare worse on the indicators for which data is disaggregated and available: unemployment, GCSE attainment, child poverty and labour force participation and the evidence indicates that such ethnic inequalities are very persistent. For example, BME groups are more than twice as likely as White people to be unemployed. Bangladeshis are most at risk, while Indians are only slightly more at risk than White people. GCSE attainment is below average for most non-white minorities, especially Black Caribbeans.

## Priorities

The following indicators are considered priorities for action. They either show that the London situation is not only worse than the UK, but is also worsening or figures portray a consistently poor performance:

- Electoral turnout
- Business survival
- Ecological footprint, particularly waste
- Labour force participation, particularly women
- Child poverty

# 3 The indicators in detail

Although the Commission have sought to identify and report on 20 headline indicators, to constitute a popular 'barometer' for London's quality of life, it is clear that single figure measures can mask a much more complex situation.

Therefore, where possible, the indicators have been disaggregated in terms of geography (Inner and Outer London), ethnicity (using Census categories) or gender.

Although comparisons are made with the national situation, it may be more appropriate to compare London with other UK or world cities. The Commission will investigate such comparisons for future reports.

## Taking responsibility

### 1 Electoral turnout

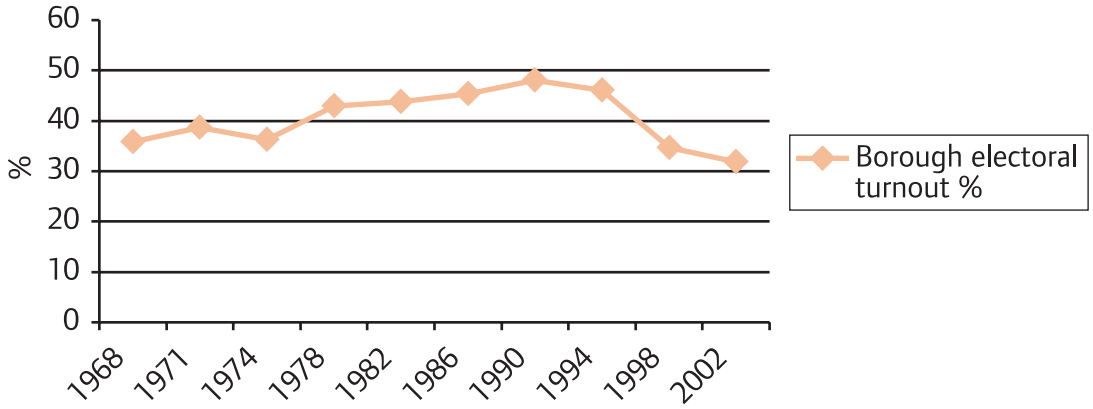
Only 32% of Londoners voted in the 2002 Borough Elections, down from 35% in 1998. The London turnout for the 2001 General Election was 55%: again a reduction from the 68% of Londoners who voted in the previous 1997 election.

The UK turnout dropped an identical 13% from 72% turnout in the 1997 General Election, to 59% in 2001.

Only 28% of Inner Londoners turned out to vote in the 2002 Borough elections, compared to 34% for Outer London.

*source:* GLA

**Figure 1 Borough Electoral turnout**




*source:* GLA

While this is only a proxy for citizen involvement in public matters, it is a matter of concern that turnout for democratic elections is low.

There is concern over falling voter participation in elections generally but more specifically in the case of local elections. The table above shows that only around a third of people eligible to vote at the elections in 2000 and 2002 actually voted, and even in the 2001 Parliamentary elections little more than half of Londoners eligible to vote did so.

The graph above for London borough elections shows a gradual and fairly consistent improvement in turn out until 1990, after which levels fell steeply. In 1998 the percentage turnout was the lowest at any time for such an election and yet it fell again in 2002.

The Economic & Social Research Council recently analysed local election turnout.[3] Wards where residents were highly engaged in the local community and who saw clear benefits to participation had high turnouts at election time, whereas areas where many residents were ambivalent as to the significance of who controlled the Council had low turnouts.

**2 Participation in volunteering**

39% Londoner's participated in formal volunteering (at least once in the last 12 months) identical to the England average.

*source:* 2001 Home Office Citizenship Survey 'People, families and communities: active participation in communities'. Home Office Research Study 270.

This indicator is intended to supplement the electoral turnout figures to give a fuller account of Londoners' involvement in their community.

People participate in communities in different ways, from relatively low key activities, such as writing to a local councillor or belonging to a local yoga club, to being very active, such as running after-school activities or a Neighbourhood Watch group. High levels of participation in these activities are considered by policy-makers to be good indicators of healthy and well-functioning communities.

Formal volunteering is defined as giving unpaid help through groups, clubs or organisations to benefit other people or the environment. Londoners' participation is the same as the national average. At a national level, people involved in formal volunteering were most likely to engage in the fields of sports and exercise (34%); children's education and schools (30%); hobbies, recreation, arts and social clubs (25%); and religion (23%).

The 2001 Home Office Study found various differences in volunteering between the sexes, ethnic groups and age groups. It also found that people who lived in the least deprived areas were more likely than those that lived in the most deprived areas to be involved in all types of voluntary and community activity. In terms of formal volunteering, 49% of people who lived in the areas with the lowest deprivation scores (band 1) were involved, compared with 29% of those who lived in areas with the highest levels of deprivation.

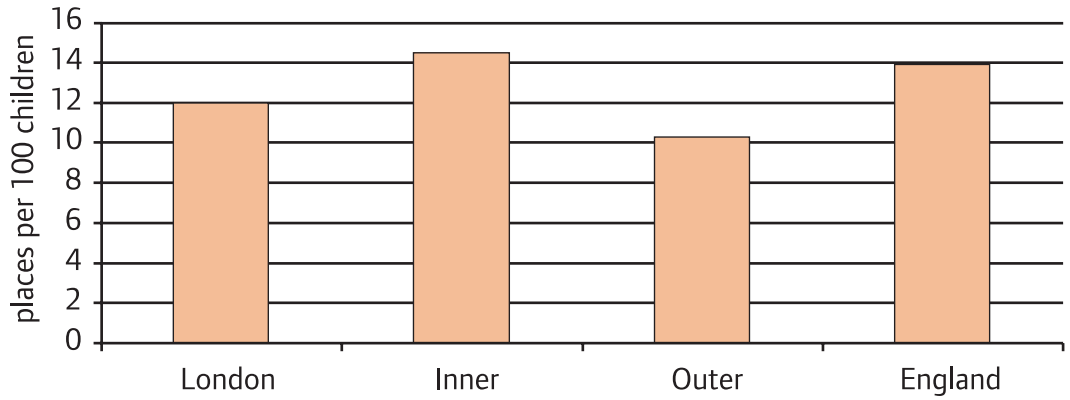
### 3 Childcare: nursery places

In 2003 there were 56,600 registered day nursery places for under 5s in London, or 12 places per 100 children, compared to an England average of nearly 14 places per 100 children. This represents a 26% increase on the 45,000 places available in 2001 (last available data).

Inner London had 27,400 places, ie 14.5 per 100 children, whereas Outer London had 29,300 or 10.3 places per 100 children.

*source:* Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted), Registered childcare providers and places in England, 30 June 2003, published 30 September 2003 and GLA estimates based on ONS mid-year population estimates for 2002. The number of places per 100 children refers to the resident population in the authority in which the provision is based, but it may be used by children from other areas. The Inner London figure is bolstered by the exceptionally high rate for the Corporation of London.

**Figure 2 Registered day nursery places, 2003**




This indicator reflects both on the respect for the homecare responsibilities of parents and also the provision pre-school care for young children.

The Government announced its National Childcare Strategy in 1997. This was designed to increase the number of places available in day care by targeting funding at provision, particularly in more disadvantaged areas. The government also assists families with costs through the Working Families Tax Credit (replaced by the Working Tax Credit from April 2003).

The London provision of 12 places per 100 children is lower than the England figure of nearly 14 places per 100 children. The 2003 figures show London to be lagging behind in comparison with the rest of the country.

## 4 Education

*4i) Quality of Primary School Education*

For 2003, London's average Key Stage 2 improvement measure ('value added' (VA)) is 100.3 - higher than the English average of 99.9. In London, 82% of Local Education Authority's (LEAs) recorded a VA measure greater than 100, compared to 37% of English LEAs.

Inner London's average of 100.4 is slightly higher than Outer London's 100.3.

*source:* DfES: 2003 Primary School (Key Stage 2) Performance Tables

Educational qualifications help to provide people with the skills to make a contribution to the economy and society. Learning also has a wider contribution to make in promoting active citizenship and combating social exclusion. Education remains a high profile issue in London and is strongly connected to issues of deprivation. This indicator uses the Key Stage 1 (KS1) to Key Stage 2 (KS2) value added measure which shows how much value each school has added, based on the progress made by individual pupils from KS1 to KS2.

Each pupil's value added score is based on comparing their KS2 performance with the median - or middle - performance of other pupils with the same or similar results at KS1. The individual scores are averaged for the school to give a score that is represented as a number based around 100. This indicates the value the school has added on average for their pupils. Levels greater than 100 indicate greater added improvement. London Local Education Authority (LEA) scores vary from 99.5 in Southwark, 99.8 in Bexley and Merton, up to 100.9 in Westminster, 101.1 in Kensington and Chelsea and 101.6 in the City of London (one candidate school only).

The GLA Report on income inequality and poverty, London Divided[4], refers to evidence which suggests that the inequalities of attainment for black pupils become progressively greater as they move through the school system and that such differences become more pronounced between the end of primary education and the end of secondary education[5]. For example, LEA evidence suggests that the relative performance of Black Caribbean pupils begins high, starts to decline in Key Stage 2, tails off badly in Key Stage 3 and is below that of most other ethnic groups at Key Stage 4[6]. London Divided states 'the transition from Key Stage 2 to Key Stage 3 is the point at which serious signs of disengagement become apparent'.

**4ii) Quality of Secondary School Education**

For 2003, 50.2% of London pupils aged 15 (or over) achieved five or more A*-C grade GCSEs or equivalent. This has increased from the 2002 figure of 48.5%, and is just below the England average of 50.9%. Generally, rates are increasing. The 2003 figures show that the gap between London and England rates is closing, down to 0.7% in 2003 from 1% in 2002.

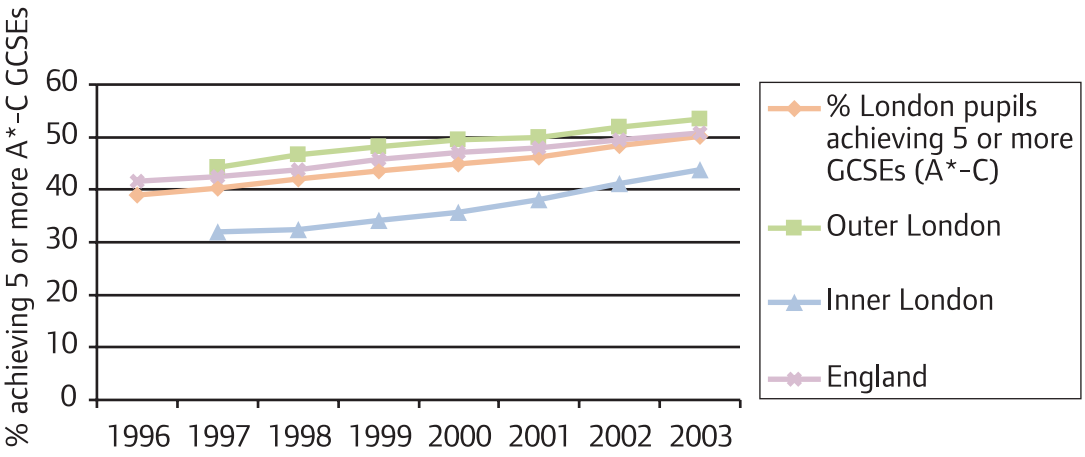
The overall London figure masks significant variation in gender, ethnicity and between Inner and Outer London Local Educational Authorities (LEAs). For example:

- London girls (56% five or more A*-C grades) are higher achievers than London boys (45%)
- Inner London achievement rates (44%) are much lower than Outer London rates (54%)
- Inner London boys score very poorly (38%)
- Kingston upon Thames (67%) averaged the highest, with Greenwich (36%) the lowest
- Black Caribbean pupils averaged (32%) compared to White pupils (51%), whilst Chinese pupils averaged (78%).

*source:* DfES provisional figures for 2003. Maintained schools only

The figures show a steady rise in performance in London over the last decade. The gap between London and England rates which has fluctuated since 1996, appears to be closing. The 2003 gap of 0.7% was the lowest in the last 8 years.

**Figure 3 GCSE attainment trends**

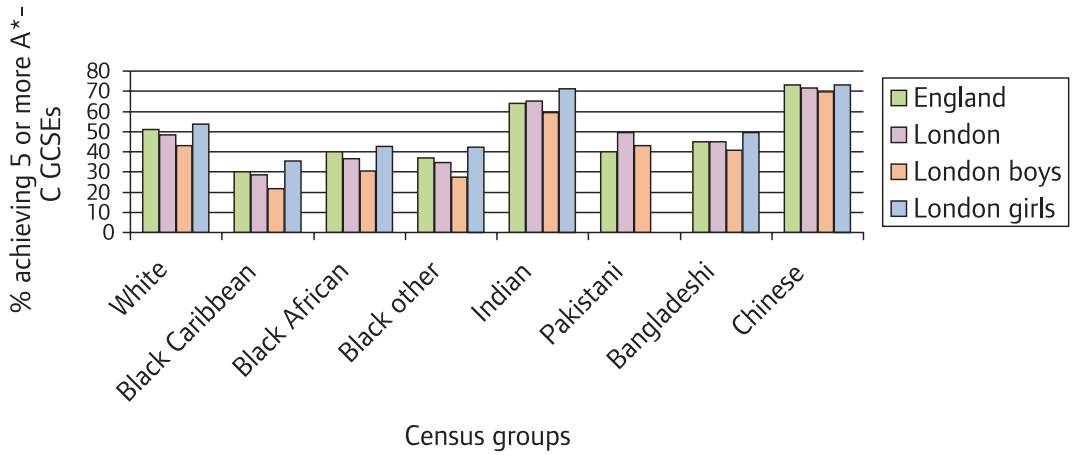



There are marked differences between Inner and Outer London. In 2003, the highest performing LEA, Kingston, had almost twice the achievement rate of the lowest, Greenwich. Although Outer London performs better in general, there are a number of low performing outer boroughs. There is a swathe of mostly Inner East

boroughs with average scores below 40%: Islington, Haringey, Hackney, Southwark, Lewisham and Greenwich.

Some 45% of London's school population[7] and 58% of Inner London secondary school pupils[8] come from BME groups. Figure 4 below, depicts the ethnic analysis for London and England for 2002.

**Figure 4 GCSE attainment: ethnicity**




London data provided by DfES to GLA.

Whilst Chinese and Indian pupils perform well above average, most BME groups, especially Black Caribbeans, are below average in their GCSE achievement. London Pakistani pupils perform much better than nationwide Pakistani averages. Studies show that, in general, differences between groups have widened in the last decade. However, Bangladeshi pupils have markedly reduced the gap with the national population over the last ten years.

In general, the differences in achievement between BME group and White children are wider at the end of schooling than at the beginning.

Findings for England show that native English speakers do better at each stage in school. The majority of Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi, Black African and Chinese pupils are registered as speaking English as an additional language.

A review of research[9] found that factors affecting pupil performance include: culture; social class; neighbourhood, peer and teacher influence; and school effectiveness. Other factors that may be particularly important for BME groups include: language; pupil mobility; country of birth; recency of migration; and relationships with the wider society.

**5 Sign up to Mayor's Green Procurement Code**
By March 2004, the Mayor's Green Procurement Code had 316 signatories.

*source:* London Remade

In terms of making the best use of natural resources, it is important that we try and 'do more with less'. One way of doing this is to use more products made from recycled materials. This indicator aims to measure the degree to which London organisations are taking responsibility by making a commitment to using more recycled products.

The Mayor of London has joined with London Remade to develop an initiative to stimulate market demand for products made from recycled materials. The Mayor's Green Procurement Code, administered by London Remade, is aimed at closing the recycling loop, i.e. ensuring that the material we recycle is made into useful new products. There are four levels to the Mayor's code, allowing each organisation to make a commitment appropriate to its current environmental policy.

Part A (levels A1 and A2) is about engaging with London Remade. Organisations which have attended appropriate London Remade meetings or replied to appropriate surveys, would met the criteria for level A1. To stay at this level, an organisation needs to stay in touch with Remade, who provide feedback from time to time. Level A2 asks organisations to meet with Remade on a one-to-one basis to discuss the purchasing requirements and environmental policy of their organisation in more detail.

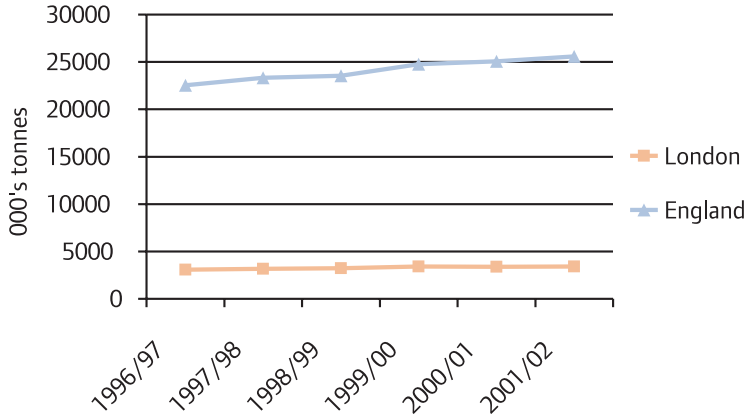
Of the 316 organisations that have so far signed up to the Code by March 2004, 149 had progressed to signing Part B (levels B1 and B2) which is about making a commitment to be an environmentally progressive organisation moving towards measurable change. By signing up to level B1, an organisation will provide data on what they are already purchasing, and provide details on specifications for major areas of procurement so that Remade can help suppliers to develop products that meet those specifications. Level B2 is about setting realistic targets and measuring progress towards those targets (within the general principle that products should be competitive with existing non-recycled materials on price and quality). A total of 52 organisations had reached this level by March 2004.

**6 Household recycling rates**

In 2001/02, households in London recycled 9.3% of their waste, an increase of 0.3% over the previous year. The average rate for England as a whole had risen 1.2% over the same period reaching 12.4% in 2001/02. The Inner London rate was only 6.1%, whilst Outer London managed 11.1%.

*source:* GLA/capitalwastefacts

**Figure 5 Household recycling rates**




Tackling the growing waste problem poses a significant challenge for a sustainable London. Household recycling rates give an indication of people's commitment towards more sustainable lifestyles. London needs to increase its recycling rate whilst reducing the amount of waste being generated (see indicator 12 (ii)). Waste is also a potential resource and increased levels of reuse and recycling will contribute to sustainable development.

Recycling rates in London are increasing slowly, in line with national rates. In the late 1990s, London rates were 1-2% below national rates. However, since 1999-00, London rates have been increasingly at a slower rate than nationally leading to a 3% difference in 2001-02.

The London Recycling Fund has allocated over £44 million of funding since 2002 to help improve recycling in London. Many more London households will soon be benefitting from improved recycling and composting services, thus reducing the amount of waste going into landfill. The Fund is a partnership between the Mayor of London, the Association of London Government and London Waste Action.

There is a wide discrepancy in recycling performance between Inner and Outer London and between the boroughs. The Mayor's waste strategy, 'Rethinking Rubbish in London[10]', states that *'a number of the highest performers are suburban Outer London boroughs. In 2001-02 Bexley recycled 20%, Kingston-upon-Thames and Richmond-upon-Thames 18% and others 15 or 16%. However, some suburban areas such as Barking and Dagenham only achieved 2%. Although Camden had a high recycling rate (15%), other Inner London boroughs tended to be low performers, including Hackney, which recycled just 1% of its household waste'*.

## Developing respect

**7 Unemployment variation by ethnic group:**
In 2001/02, the unemployment rate for Black and Minority Ethnic (BME) groups was 11.7%, compared to 5.1% for White groups, a ratio of 2.3. This means that BME groups are more than twice as likely to be unemployed in London that White groups.

The gap had been widening during the late 1990s, but the 2001/02 figures show a welcome improvement on the previous year.

There is a greater disparity for Inner London where the BME group unemployment rate rises to 15.5% (compared to 6.2% for White groups - a ratio of 2.5). For Outer London the BME group rate is 8.9% (compared to 4.4% for White groups - a ratio of 2).

There is a higher rate for BME group men (13.1%, a ratio of 2.4) than women (9.8%, ratio of 2.2).

The national comparison closely mirrors the London situation.

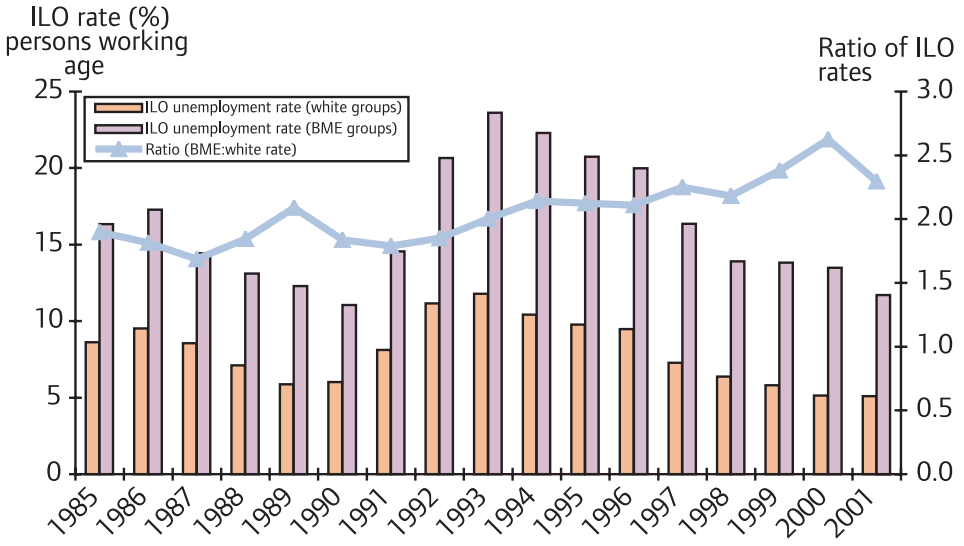
*source:* Office for National Statistics, Labour Force Survey
*notes:* The LFS is a sample survey so data are estimates not precise counts.

Unemployment is a key measure of labour market disadvantage and is closely associated with poverty, poor educational attainment and even poor health. This indicator uses unemployment data to explore the labour market experience of London's BME groups.

The figures show that people from BME groups are more than twice as likely than White groups to be unemployed. The gap in rates has persisted over time despite falls in the general level of unemployment. It is difficult to be conclusive about changes between individual years as the data are estimates, but the general trend up to 2001 indicated a widening gap.

The Inner London unemployment rate exceeded the Outer London rate for each ethnic group, including White groups, although the geographic gap was wider for BME groups. Neighbourhood is therefore an important factor for unemployment.

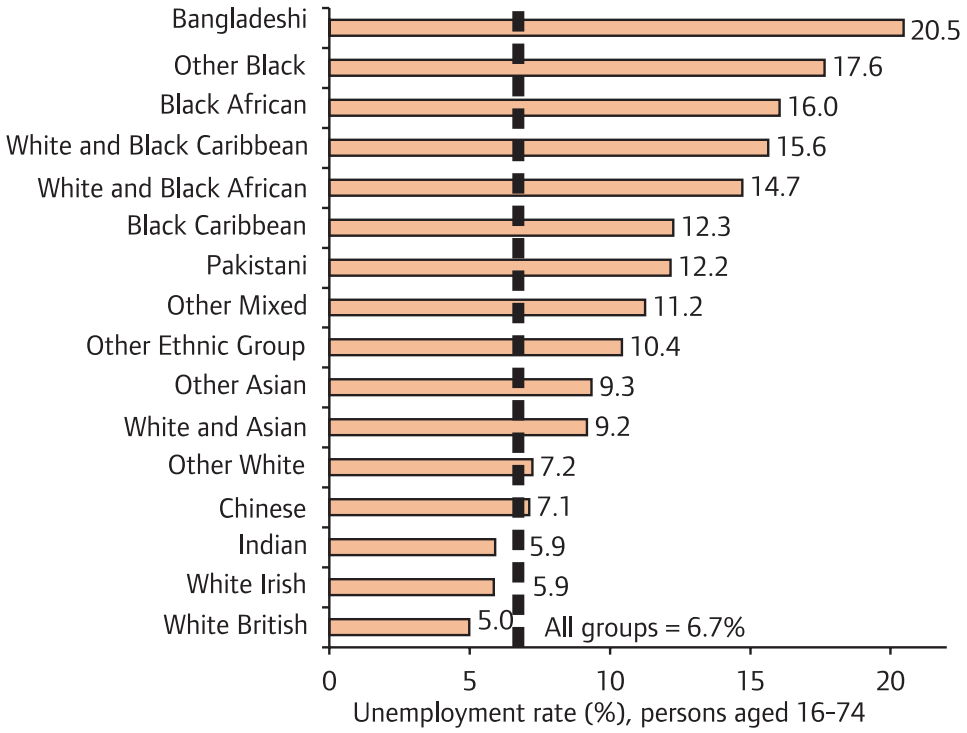
**Figure 6 ILO unemployment rates by ethnicity 1985-2001, Greater London**




*source:* Office for National Statistics, Labour Force Survey

Within the BME group population, there is huge variation in unemployment rates across different ethnic groups. 2001 Census data shows that rates ranged from 5.9 per cent for Indian Londoners up to 20.5 per cent among Bangladeshi Londoners. Rates were also high for Black Londoners (12.3-17.6 per cent). The enormous polarity in rates is illustrated below:

**Figure 7 Unemployment rates by ethnic group, Greater London 2001**




*source:* 2001 Census Standard Table ST108

In most ethnic groups, the unemployment rate is higher for men than for women. In London, the gap is widest for Other Black people and Black Caribbeans. Other Black men have the highest unemployment rate (22.7%, 2001 Census). However, 'Asian' groups are an exception to this general trend, with Pakistani women having a higher unemployment rate than their male counterparts: Indians, Bangladeshis and Other Asians have similar rates for men and women. The highest female unemployment rate is that of Bangladeshi women at 20% (2001 Census).

The 'London Divided' report[4] suggests that BME groups are more at risk during a recession, as in 1993. Over the last decade, London's economic growth has been concentrated in higher paid occupations requiring a degree or equivalent qualification. Manufacturing and lower paid skilled jobs have continued to decline in number and there have been few new opportunities for lower paid workers, with the exception of part-time jobs. These trends have not in general benefited London's BME groups, partly because in the early 1990s large numbers of BME groups in London were employed in industries which experienced weak growth or decline.

**8 Child poverty: Workless households* with children**

In 2003, workless households with dependent children comprised 20% of all London's households. This rate has remained constant since 1999. The rate rises to 27% in Inner London and drops to 15% in Outer London. The national average is 13%.

41% of children from BME groups live in workless households, rising to 50% in Inner London[4].

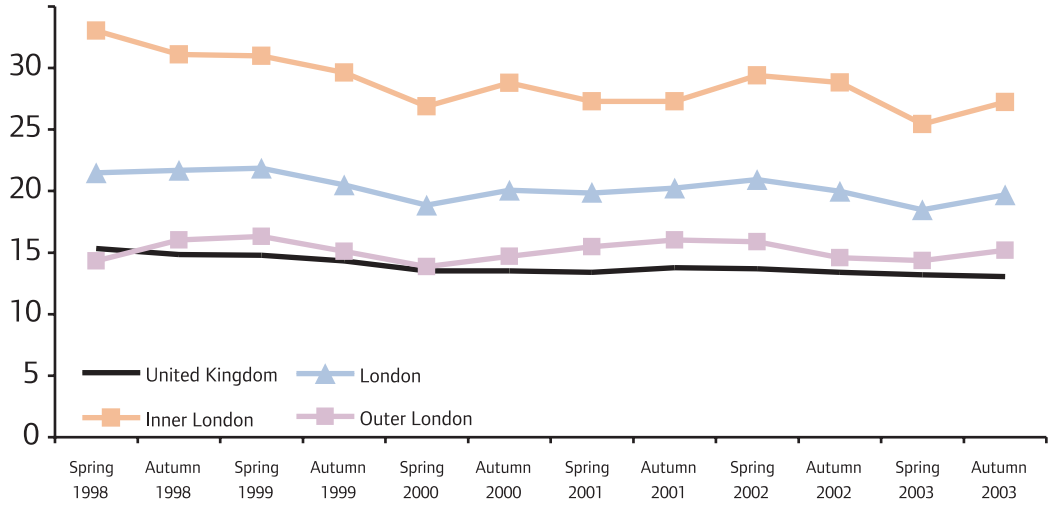
*source:* Labour Force Survey: Household datasets Spring 1998-Autumn 2003. Workless households with dependent children as % of all households with dependent children (working age households)

*Workless households refers to households where there is no adult in paid employment and is widely used in relation to child poverty. The Commission values all forms of work, paid or otherwise.

High levels of worklessness among households with children are central to explaining the exceptionally high rate of child poverty in London. Rates of worklessness partly reflect the generally low level of employment in the capital, which has the second lowest employment rate in Great Britain.

In 2003, one in five (20 per cent) of London households with children were workless households - much higher than the rate nationally (13 per cent). London's relative position is mainly driven by the very high rates of worklessness across Inner London (27 per cent).

**Figure 8 Workless households with children as % of all working age households with children 1998-2003**




*source:* ONS, Labour Force Survey Household datasets, 1999-2003

In line with national trends, in London rates of worklessness among households with children have fallen slightly in the last six years, but London's relative position remains poor.

At the national level the percentage of households with children which were workless fell from 15 per cent to 13 per cent between Autumn 1998 and Autumn 2003. London showed a similar reduction - 22 per cent to 20 per cent - but from a higher baseline.

While the *rate* of worklessness in London is lower now than in 1998, the change in the *number* of workless households with children in London is not significant. There is no evidence that there were fewer workless households with children in London in the autumn of 2003 than there were in the autumn of 1998. This reflects population change in London: the estimated growth in the number of households with children in London was some 60,000. Strong growth in the number of households with children would seem to have offset the relatively modest fall in the rate of worklessness.

London's child population is set to continue to grow while the national child population is expected to fall. In the light of demographic projections, further falls in the rate of worklessness in London would be necessary just to keep numbers at their current level.

Low employment for individuals in London also seems to be more likely than elsewhere to translate into high numbers of households with children where nobody is employed. For example, while the employment rate across Greater London area is slightly higher than in the North East of England, the percentage of households

with children with no adult in employment is higher in London. Households with children are more likely to be workless than households without children in London and than households with children in England and Wales as a whole.

The recent 'London Divided' report[4] showed that the ethnic dimension of child poverty is much more marked in London than in the rest of England. 41% of children from BME groups live in workless households, rising to 50% in Inner London[11].

Although this indicator uses workless households, it needs to be stressed that there are many London households with someone in work that are still very poor.

**9 Street Crime**

In 2002/03, there were 58,929 street crime offences in London, compared to 69,987 offences in 2001/02, showing a drop of nearly 16%.

Inner London offences dropped from 45,196 in 2001/02 down to 36,687 in 2002/03 (a drop of 19%), whilst Outer London offences dropped from 24,759 to 22,221 (a 10% drop).

*source:* MPS monthly figures supplied to GLA.

Everyone has the right to live in a safe community. A key indicator of an urban society in which there is respect for other people is the level of crime. Crime imposes economic costs, reinforces social exclusion and can contribute towards environmental degradation. It can make people reluctant to walk, use public transport, or go out after dark.

The Metropolitan Police Service (MPS) street crime data is based categories of 'theft of personal property' and 'snatch'. The total number of such street crime incidents in 2002/03 was 58,929 - 15.8% lower than for 2001/02.

This reduction is largely attributed to the apparent success of Operation Safer Streets. All but four London boroughs have experienced a drop in street crime since April 2002. By April 2004, London had over 30,000 police, more than ever before. A record 4,500 officers have been recruited since 2000, reversing the trend of falling numbers in the 1990s. There are also more Police Community Support Officers who provide a uniformed presence on the streets across 32 boroughs (the City of London has its own force).

Generally, crime levels have been decreasing both nationally and in London since the mid-1990s. In addition to street crime, other categories such as burglary and car crime are also decreasing. Only violent crime, a composite category which includes categories of crimes that have been subject to initiatives to increase reporting, is increasing. Police and government initiatives that encourage the

reporting of crime can obviously result in an increase in crime figures. Such initiatives will have contributed to an increased reporting of homophobic attacks, racial attacks, rape and domestic violence.

In general, research concludes that whilst BME groups are at greater risk of crime, this broadly reflects socio-economic and demographic factors, rather than ethnicity itself being a major factor.

It is worth noting that these figures derive from MPS data which broadly relates to reported crime and police activity. The British Crime Survey is, however, often seen as a more accurate reflection of the true scale of crime.

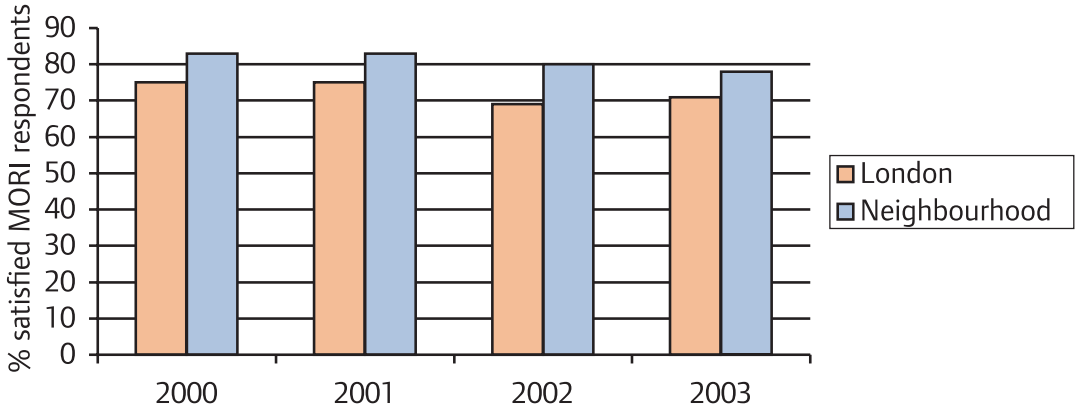
Comparing London and national data is also problematic, given the urban nature of the capital and its particular socio-economic, geographical and demographic factors. For example, the most comparable forces are likely to be Yorkshire and the West Midlands.

**10 Neighbourhood satisfaction**

In 2003, 71% of Londoners were very or fairly satisfied with London as a place to live, with 78% very or fairly satisfied with their neighbourhood. The figures for 2002 were 69% and 80% respectively.

*source*: GLA MORI poll 2003

**Figure 9 London and neighbourhood satisfaction**




Neighbourhood well-being is an important feature of sustainable communities. This survey-based indicator remains a simple and effective way to measure Londoners' view of their neighbourhood and city.

The GLA conducts an annual MORI poll on aspects of London life. Whilst neighbourhood satisfaction has shown a slight decline since 2000, satisfaction with London improved in 2003, with survey answers indicating that this could possibly be due to the introduction of congestion charging.

When asked about the best things about living in London, the following all showed improved ratings in 2003: range of museums and art galleries; transport; and the range of parks and open spaces. Schools and health services both showed a decline in ratings.

Similarly, when asked about the worst things of living in London, the cost of living replaced traffic congestion (down 8%) at the top of the list.

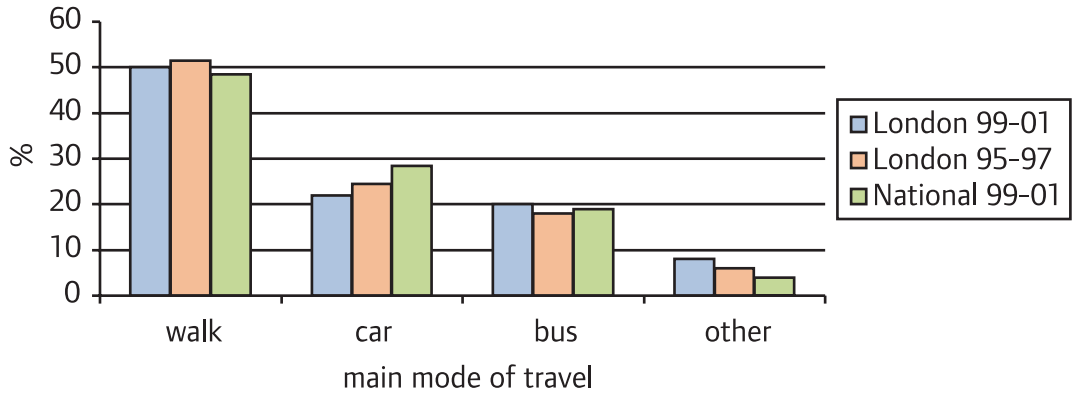
**11 Travel to school**

In 2001, 50% of London children walked to school, 22% travelled by car and 20% caught the bus. Nationally, fewer children walk to school (48.5%) and more are driven to school by car (28.5%).

Comparing 2001 to previous figures for 1995-97, walking had decreased very slightly (due to a decrease in walking among 11-16 year olds: it had increased for 5-10 year olds), car travel had decreased by 4.5% and bus travel had increased by 2%.

*source:* National Travel Survey, DfT Personal Travel Factsheets

**Figure 10 Travel to school**




*source:* National Travel Survey, DfT Personal Travel Factsheets

How children get to school is important for a variety of reasons. The more children that travel by car, the more pollution and congestion is created. Walking or cycling to school is healthy, provides regular exercise and as such can assist in countering obesity. Such exercise can also aid school attainment rates, with children being more alert and ready to learn. Driving children to school can give them the wrong signals about environmental issues. However, there is considerable concern amongst parents relating to the safety of children travelling to school unaccompanied.

Primary schools in London are usually local: the average length of the home to school trip for primary schools in London is 1.1 miles compared to the national average of 1.4 miles. Average trip length to secondary schools in London is 3.2 miles, longer than the national average of 2.9 miles (National Travel Survey, NTS) and much longer than the averages for other metropolitan areas (2.1 miles) and large urban areas (2.4 miles).

From the NTS, in London, approximately half of all secondary school children use public transport to get to and from school, 38% walk, 13% are taken in cars and 1% cycle. In primary schools, 62% walk, 31% are taken in cars, 5% use buses and 3% use rail/underground or cycle.

NTS figures for urban areas indicate that about one in ten cars on the road were taking children to school in 1999/2001, and at 0850 a.m, the peak time for school travel, 17% of cars were taking children to school. However, many parents undertake school runs as part of longer car trips. Research for the AA found that the drop in congestion experienced during school holidays could not be used as a direct measure of the effect of the school run, since many parents took holidays from work at the same time.

## Managing resources

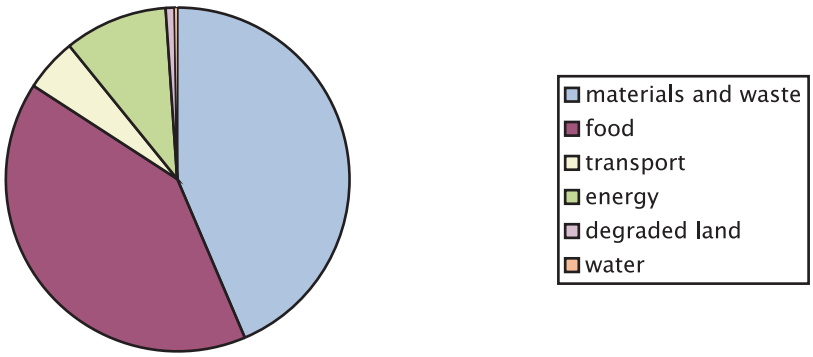
### 12 (i) Ecological footprint

The ecological footprint of Londoners was 49 million global hectares in 2000, equivalent to 6.63 global hectares (gha) per Londoner.
London's footprint at 49 million gha is 42 times its biocapacity and 293 times its geographical area, an area twice the size of the UK and roughly the same size as Spain, but spread right across the planet.

The global average earthshare is 2.18 gha, whilst the UK average footprint was 6.3 gha.

*source:* Best Foot Forward 'City Limits' study, 2000

**Figure 11 2000 ecological footprint of London**




Ecological footprinting is a tool that helps us to estimate and understand our impact on the planet. A city's ecological footprint can be defined as the land area required to supply it with resources, such as food or timber products, and to absorb its output of waste products. To become more sustainable, a city needs to reduce its dependence on external land areas and thus its ecological footprint.

Global ecological supply is derived by assuming that the global population is entitled to an equal share of the Earth's bioproductive resources: this is termed 'average earthshare'.

Key findings from the Best Foot Forward study showed that, in the year 2000, Londoners:

- Consumed 49 million tonnes of materials (or 6.1 tonnes each)
- Consumed 154,407 gigawatt hours of energy, and produced 41 million tonnes of $CO_2$. Less than one per cent of London's energy came from renewable sources
- Consumed 6.9 million tonnes of food, of which 81 per cent came from outside the UK
- Consumed 866 billion litres of water of which 28 per cent was leakage

- Travelled 64 billion passenger kilometres of which 69 per cent was by car
- Produced over 26 million tones of waste of which 71 per cent was landfilled and only nine per cent recycled.

Some of the biggest contributors to the footprint are materials, waste and food. Paper and plastics are the biggest contributors in the material and waste footprint, with Londoners using 2.9 million tonnes of paper and 691,000 tonnes of plastic in 2000. We consume 94 million litres of mineral water every year which alone gives rise to 2,260 tonnes of plastic. Because it is derived from fossil hydrocarbon material, and very little is currently recycled/reused, plastic is one of the main contributors to the ecological footprint. The largest contribution to the materials and waste component was miscellaneous manufactures, which included paper and plastic and which accounted for 12,208,000 gha.

Food is a major contributor, accounting for 41 per cent of the overall footprint (2.8 global hectares). The average Londoner consumes around ten times their own body weight in food each year. In total, London consumes 6.9 million tonnes of food, more than three-quarters of which is imported and 560,000 tonnes discarded as waste.

The 2000 study highlights the environmental debt that Londoners are accruing. As London also has a rising population and economic growth ambitions, this debt will need to be tackled in the coming years, especially if London is to become an exemplary, sustainable world city.

For the purposes of annual reporting on sustainability indicators, we have selected two significant components of London's Footprint, **waste** and **$CO_2$** emissions to look at in more detail.

**12 (ii) Waste**

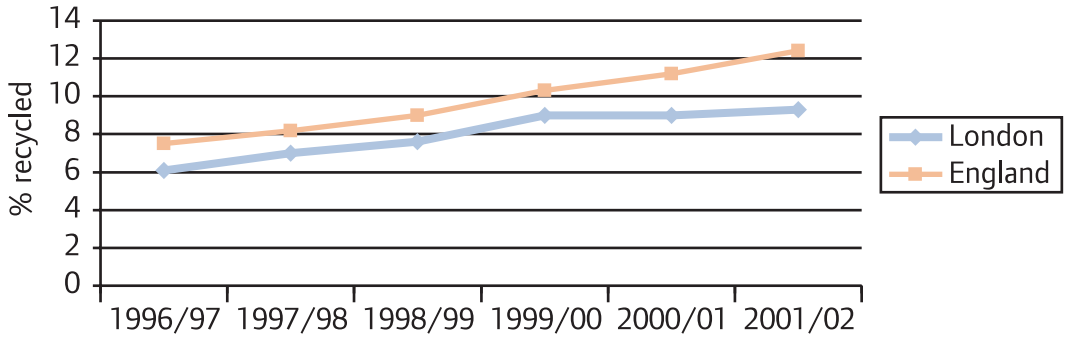
In 2001/02, London's households produced 3,417,000 tonnes of waste, an increase of 27,000 tonnes from the previous year. This 0.8% increase for London, compares with a 2.1% increase nationally over the same period.

Inner London produced 1,243,000 tonnes of household waste and Outer London 2,173,000 tonnes.

In terms of business waste, London produced 4.4 million tonnes of municipal waste (2001/02), 6.4 million tonnes of commercial/industrial waste, 6.1 million tonnes of construction/demolition waste and 0.4 million tonnes of special waste (all 2000/01).

*source:* GLA capitalwastefacts, and Environment Agency

**Figure 12 Total household waste**

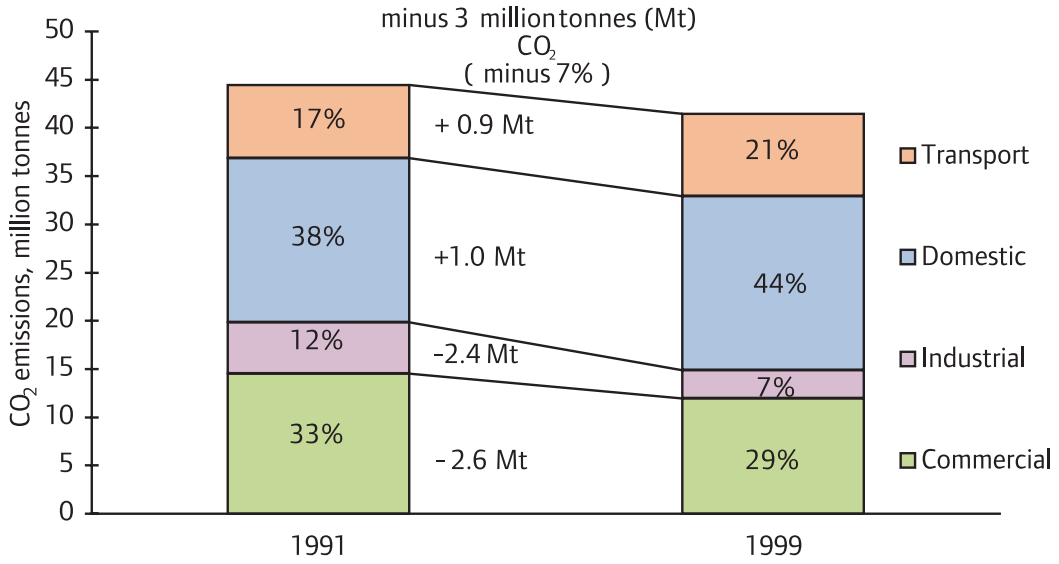


**12 (iii) Carbon dioxide $CO_2$ emissions**

London produced 40.3 million tonnes of $CO_2$ in 1999/00.

*source*: GLA Environment

**Figure 13 London $CO_2$ emissions by sector**



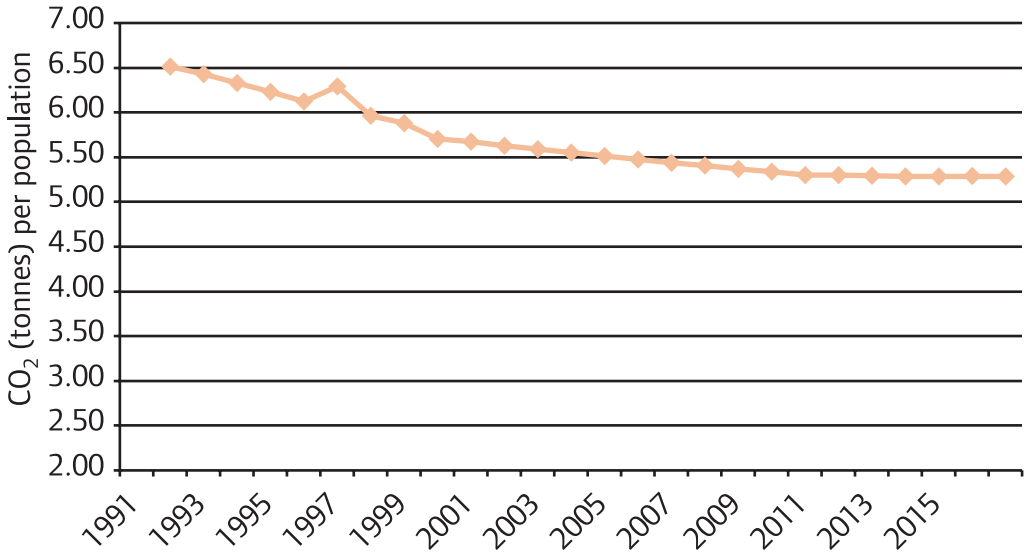

Since 1990, the average carbon intensity of supplied energy in the UK has fallen because of the switch from coal to gas for electricity generation. At the same time, energy consumption has been increasing throughout a long period of economic growth. In the UK generally, this has resulted in an overall growth in energy consumption of over 10 per cent during the period 1990-2005.

The figure above shows how sectoral contributions to London's overall $CO_2$ emissions changed between 1991 and 1999. Emissions from transport increased, while those from commerce and industry fell - dramatically in the case of industry, as a result of both decreased activity and the reduced carbon intensity of electricity. Domestic emissions increased despite the changes to the fuel mix for electricity generation, because overall energy consumption in this sector increased significantly.

London's population has been growing since 1983 and is now outstripping the national rate of population growth. Projections in the London Plan[12] indicate a population increase of approximately 810,000 people by 2016. In the absence of concerted action to reduce the carbon intensity of energy services, population growth combined with probable future trends in the national energy supply industry will mean that $CO_2$ emissions from London are likely to decline only until 2005, when they will stabilise, and then could start rising again.

In per capita terms, London's energy demand is lower than the UK average. Per capita $CO_2$ emissions have been falling since 1991 and are projected to fall by 19% (from 1991 levels) to 5.3 tonnes in 2016.

**Figure 14 Per Capita $CO_2$ emissions**




*source:* EBS, GLA Economics, GLA DMAG, GLA Environment

*note:* $CO_2$ emissions are actual historic figures till 2000 and are projected thereafter. Population figures are actual till 2001 and projected thereafter.

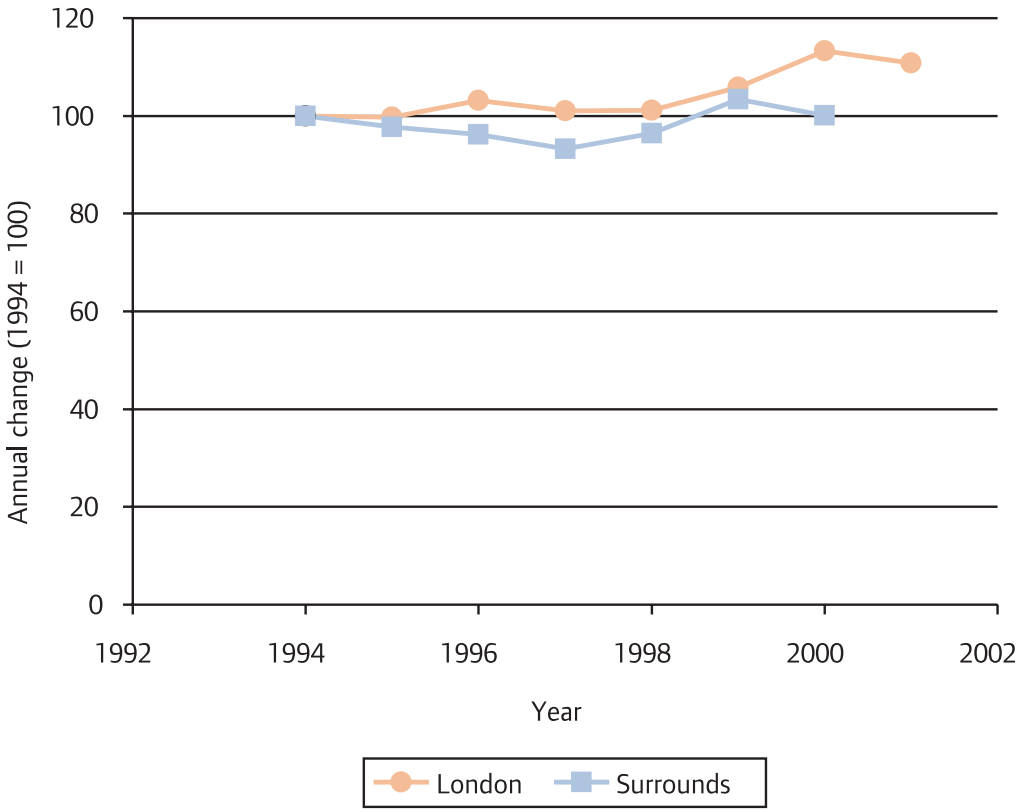
In 2002 the Commission undertook work to recommend a $CO_2$ emission reduction target for the Mayor's draft Energy Strategy. It recommended the adoption of a target for the reduction of $CO_2$ emissions of 20% from 1990 levels by 2010. The Mayor's Energy Strategy[13] regards this target "as the crucial first step on a long-term path to a 60% reduction from the 2000 level by 2050".

## 13 Bird populations

The London bird species index stood at 111 in 2001, a slight decline on 113 for 2000. This is based on 1994 as a baseline (index of 100). Prior to 2001, there had been a steady rise in the London index since 1994. The corresponding index for outside London showed a slight dip between 1994 and 1998, with the index generally fluctuating around the 100 mark.

*source:* Breeding Bird Survey, a national scheme run by the British Trust for Ornithology, Royal Society for the Protection of Birds and Joint Nature Conservation Committee

**Figure 15 London bird species population trend**




Wild bird populations have proved a popular and high-profile indicator of care for nature and effective nature conservation. However, an indicator of urban bird populations is more a surveillance indicator, rather than monitoring with any target in mind. Birds are sensitive indicators of change for three reasons:

- Because they are high in the food chain they reflect changes to the plants and animals that are their food.
- As birds are highly mobile they sum up changes over large areas.
- Their short life spans mean that their populations quickly reflect environmental changes.

The above graph is based upon the data for bird population changes from the London and surrounding Government Regions. All 21 species with sufficient data to calculate an annual index for London were given equal weight in the index. The species used were: blackbird, blue tit, carrion crow, chaffinch, collared dove, dunnock, feral pigeon, goldfinch, great tit, greenfinch, house sparrow, jay, magpie, mallard, mistle thrush, robin, song thrush, starling, swift, wood pigeon and wren. There is no data point for 2001 in the surrounding regions because of foot and mouth disease.

The index might suggest that the population of London's birds remained unchanged from 1994 to 1998, after which it rose by about 10%. This contrasts with the population in the surrounding regions, where the population fell about 5% before rising back to 1994 levels. However, there is no single species that shows precisely this pattern of change (the nearest is the wren, which is known to be susceptible to cold winters and showed a similar, but more pronounced, decline and increase in the two areas). Examination of the individual species shows seven particular patterns:

1 Four (mallard, feral pigeon, swift and dunnock) showed no convincing trends in either area.
2 Three (jay, song thrush and starling) declined more or less equally in both areas.
3 Four (collared dove, blue tit, robin and greenfinch) increased more or less equally in both areas.
4 Three (magpie, carrion crow and chaffinch) increased more in London than in its surrounds).
5 Three (mistle thrush, house sparrow and goldfinch) decreased more in London than in its surrounds.
6 Two (woodpigeon and great tit) increased in London and apparently not in its surrounds.
7 One (blackbird) decreased in London and apparently not in its surrounds.

Although it is possible that some of these apparent patterns are due to sampling error, some appear to be clear-cut (house sparrow, blackbird, mistle thrush, magpie, chaffinch, great tit, starling, collared dove and robin), and these are scattered across the different patterns. Given the wide range of ecological requirements of these species, this disparity in trend is not surprising.

## 14 Air quality: particulate matter or $PM_{10}$ emissions

3,517 tonnes of $PM_{10}$ were emitted in London in 2001. This shows a decrease of 182 tonnes on 1999 levels. Outer London[14] levels fell by 102 tonnes, Inner London by 58 tonnes and Central London (corresponding to the Congestion Charging Zone) by around 20 tonnes*.

*source:* GLA/TfL London Atmospheric Emissions Inventory, 2001
* The Inner/Outer/Central London definition for this indicator is different from that used elsewhere - see footnote 14.

Air quality is a key aspect of urban quality of life, due to its impacts on amenity and health as well as biodiversity. It particularly affects the most vulnerable in society: the very young, older people and those with existing heart and lung conditions.

Particles in the atmosphere differ widely in size. $PM_{10}$ particles are very small in size and are the generally accepted measure for particulate matter in the atmosphere in the UK and Europe. They correspond to those particles likely to penetrate the lungs, as epidemiological evidence also shows a good correlation between $PM_{10}$ concentrations and mortality rates.

Broad London trends during the last decade show a marked overall decrease in $PM_{10}$ levels, particularly until 1999, with a levelling off in 2000 and 2001. Various measures will help to reduce $PM_{10}$ concentrations, including:

- Less traffic and a shift away from cars in favour of public transport, cycling and walking as the main mode of travel;
- The use of particulate traps and other technological advances for vehicles;
- Reduced traffic congestion (more $PM_{10}$ is emitted at low stop-start speeds);
- Improved mitigation measures for construction activity.

$PM_{10}$ poses measurement challenges as particles vary in chemical composition which varies with location and time of year. Notable $PM_{10}$ events in 2000, for instance, included a Saharan dust episode in March and the impact of Bonfire Night. For London, road transport accounts for about 50% of $PM_{10}$ emissions, industry contributes around 22%, with the remainder coming from other sources. $PM_{10}$ emissions from construction activity are also recognised as significant local sources of pollution.

Old people and young children are the most vulnerable to the effects of air pollution. In general, evidence shows that the wealthier residents of London tend to live in the less polluted areas. However, there are many exceptions to this tendency. For example, wealthy as well as poor people live along major roads, and Outer London, which is relatively affluent, receives more ozone. Some BME groups are more concentrated in Central and Inner London, which receive high levels of $NO_2$ and $PM_{10}$.

A government report in 1997[15] found a clear relationship between $NO_2$ and $PM_{10}$ levels and deprivation indices by ward. This study concluded that policies focused on areas of high pollution could marginally reduce the apparent disadvantage of deprived communities in terms of air quality.

The more deprived residents are more likely to die of respiratory diseases, which are linked to air pollution[16]. However, there is as yet no direct evidence that the more deprived residents suffer poorer health or higher mortality despite being exposed to higher concentrations. This is an area that requires further research.

**15 Carbon efficiency of economic activity**

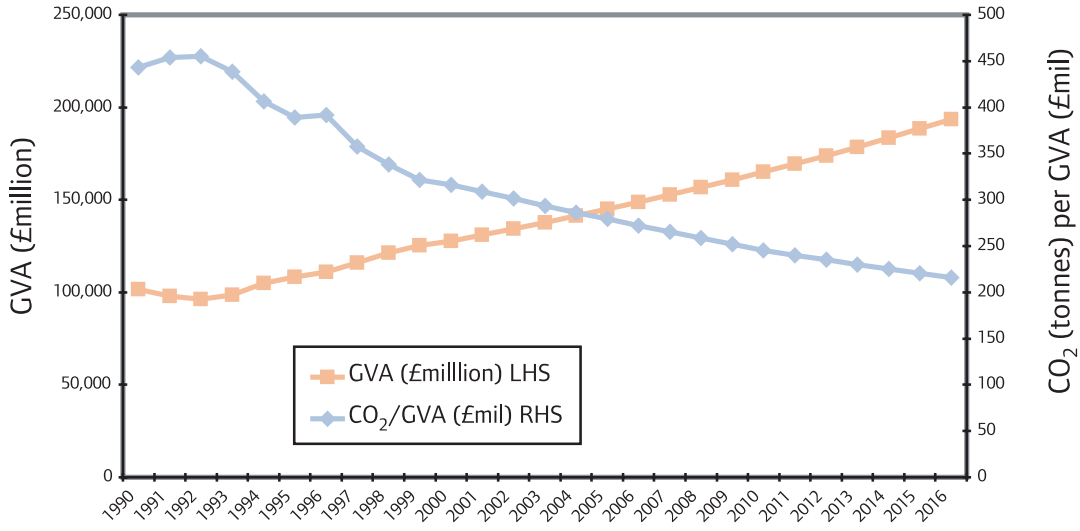
$CO_2$ emissions per Gross Value Added (£million) is projected to fall by 51 per cent in 2016 from 1990 levels. The projected trend in this ratio is because the production of goods and services are expected to be less carbon intensive.

For the year 2000, London emitted 628 tonnes of $CO_2$ per GVA (£/million), with Inner London emitting 209 tonnes and Outer London 419 tonnes.

*source:* EBS, ONS, GLA Economics, GLA Environment

Gross Value Added (GVA) is a measure of economic output. It is measured as the sum of incomes earned from the production of goods and services in London. $CO_2$ emissions per GVA (£million) is projected to fall by 51 per cent in 2016 from 1990 levels. The projected trend in this ratio shows that production of goods and services will be less carbon intensive.

**Figure 16 Gross Value Added and $CO_2$ emissions per GVA**




*source:* EBS, GLA Economics, GLA Environment
*note:* GVA figures are actual until 1999 and projected thereafter.

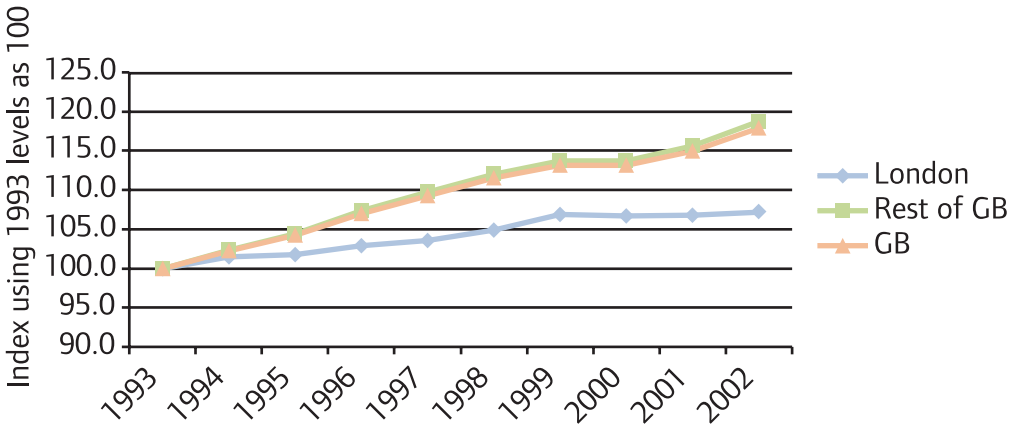
The economic structure of Inner London is less carbon intensive than Outer London. This is mainly due to the fact that the GVA calculations are workplace based and a high proportion of residents in and around London commute to Inner London for work.

**16. Road traffic volumes**

London traffic volumes rose to 32.8 billion vehicle km[17] in 2002, from 32.7 million vehicle km in 2001: an increase of 100 million or 0.3%. For Great Britain as a whole, road traffic volume increased by 12 billion vehicle km over the same period - a rise of 2.5%.

*data source:*: DfT Traffic Volumes

**Figure 17 Traffic volumes**

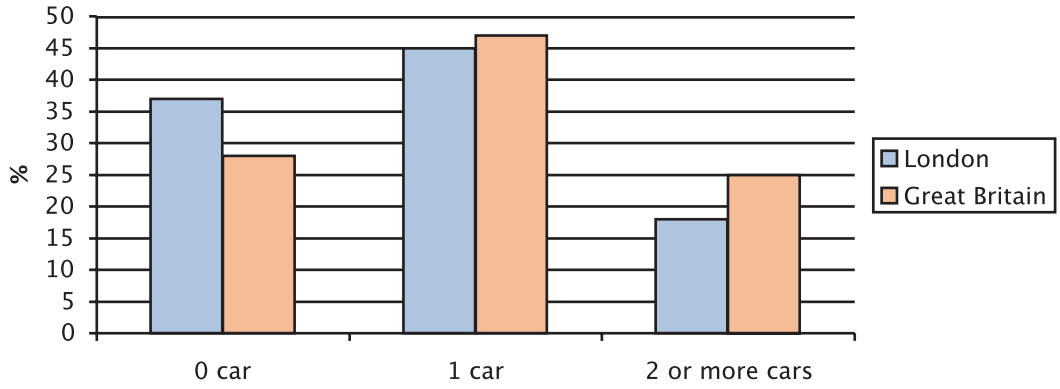



Index using 1993 levels as 100.

Transport is closely linked to economic growth, social inclusion (access to local transport is a key factor) and environmental quality. As such, it is a key quality of life indicator. Whilst it is important that everyone has fair and easy access to a variety of services in London, the distance people travel to access these services should be reduced for transport to be more sustainable. This measure provides an indication of movement within London. Sustainable transport should result in fewer journeys being made by car, with the emphasis on reducing the need to travel and improving sustainable travel options.

Traffic volumes in London rose from 1993 until 1999, but at a lower rate than national levels. Following a national and London levelling-off in 2000, London levels have remained static, or have risen only slightly, whereas national levels reverted to pre-1999 growth levels.

**Figure 18 Car ownership**




London car ownership 1999/01: National Travel Survey, DfT.

Car ownership levels in London are lower than national levels. For the period 1999/01, around 37% of London households didn't own a car. Car ownership is higher in Outer London.

## Getting results

### 17 Labour force participation

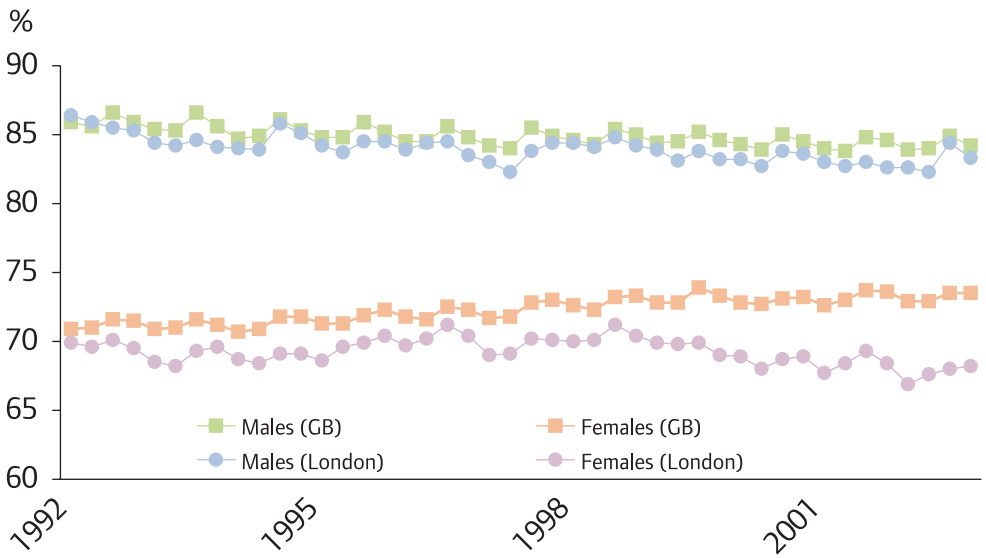
In 2003, around three quarters (76 per cent) of working age Londoners were active in the labour force, compared to 79% nationally. London's relative position is driven by low activity rates across Inner London boroughs where rates average 71 per cent. Rates are lowest in the boroughs of Newham and Tower Hamlets where less than two thirds of the working age population are active in the labour force (61 and 62% respectively). Economic activity rates in London have reduced slightly over the last decade.

Rates for men are higher (83%) than women (68%), but whilst London male participation rates mirror the national trend quite closely (slight reduction over the years), London's female participation rates show a marked difference to the national picture. Nationally, rates for women have been steadily increasing over the past decade which is not the case in London.

*source:* (i) Quarterly Labour Force Survey, September-November 2003 (headline London rates, latest) (ii) Annual Labour Force Survey 2001/02 - all other rates quoted here

Whether people are part of the labour market, or remain outside it has an important bearing on their economic and social circumstances. This indicator measures labour market participation by monitoring the economic activity rates of Londoners. People who are economically active are those who are part of the labour force (those in employment and those who are unemployed but actively seeking work).

**Figure 19 Economic activity rates by gender, persons working age, London compared with GB, 1992-2003**

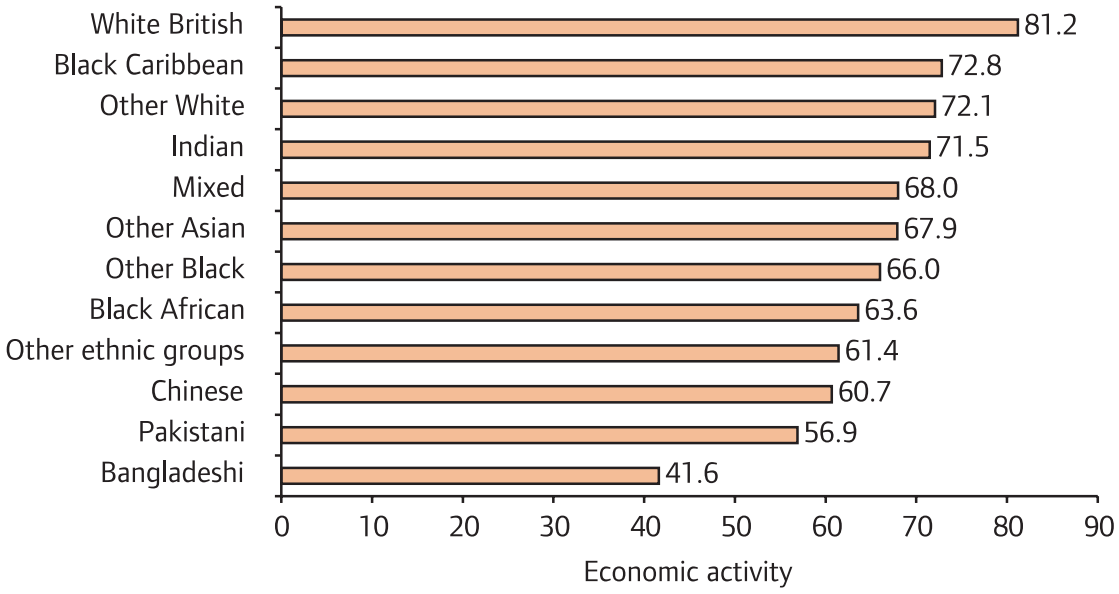


London's women have low economic activity rates relative to women nationally. GLA research has shown that this is mainly due to the fact women with children in London are less likely to be in work compared with women with children outside London. During 2001/02 employment rates[18] for women with children averaged 54% in London compared with 65% of women nationally (UK).

Economic activity rates for men and women have reduced slightly over time, partly reflecting increased rates of educational participation. The decrease has been slightly more marked in London than at national level, mainly because activity rates for London's women have shown no consistent increase.

Other people in the labour market who face particular difficulties in accessing the labour market include disabled people and BME groups. The chart below shows economic activity rates by ethnic group and clearly illustrates the differential rates of participation. Even if students are excluded from the analysis - the overall pattern remains the same.

**Figure 20 Economic activity rates by ethnic group, persons working age, Greater London, 2001/02**




*source:* Annual local area Labour Force Survey 2001/02

Disabled Londoners also have low labour market participation rates reflecting the wide range of barriers they face in trying to access labour market. During 2001/02, economic activity rates for disabled Londoners averaged only 50 per cent compared with 81 per cent for non-disabled Londoners (working age).

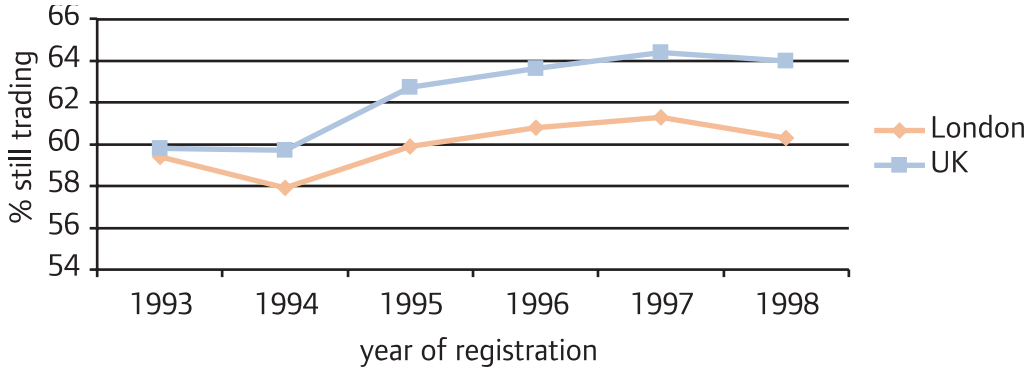
## 18 Business survival

62.8% of London businesses registering in 1999 were still trading three years later, compared to a UK figure of 66.5%. This gap gradually widened during the 1990s.

source: Small Business Service Jan 2004: Survival rates of VAT registered businesses by Region and Business Link, Training and Enterprise Council and Local Enterprise Company Area 1999-2001

A strong and diverse business base is desirable so that all Londoners can utilise their skills and benefit from economic growth. Local businesses are particularly important for sustainable communities as they create employment opportunities and tend to invest in local neighbourhoods.

**Figure 21 Three year survival rates of VAT registered businesses (% still trading)**




*source:* Small Business Service Jan 2004

The gap between London three year survival rates and comparable UK rates has gradually widened. However, since 1999, the equivalent gap for one year survival rates has narrowed.

**19 Life expectancy at birth**

For the period 1998-2002, life expectancy in London for women was 80.3 years and for men 75.4 years. These are very close to national averages.

For Inner London*, life expectancy for women was 79.8 and men 74. For Outer London, rates rose to 80.8 for women and 76.2 for men.

Life expectancy has continued to rise slowly over the past decade in London and the UK.

source: London Health Observatory using 4 years and the 2001 Census population. Using a 4 year estimate helps to smooth any anomalies arising from the Census.
* excluding the City of London

Life expectancy is generally increasing in London as a whole and nationally. London has similar life expectancy to England.

For the period 1998-2002, Kensington and Chelsea had the longest life expectancy in London for both males and females. Newham had the lowest life expectancy in London for males, and along with Islington, Newham also has the lowest life expectancy in London among females.

At borough level, average life expectancy is closely related to the level of deprivation, with a stronger association between life expectancy and deprivation for males than for females.

Registrations of deaths in the UK are currently not recorded by ethnicity.

## 20 Decent housing

In 2001, 64% of all London households were living in 'decent housing' (government definition). This is lower than the England figure of 67%*.

Over the period 1996 to 2001, the condition of London's housing stock improved substantially, along with the rest of the country.

source: 2001 English Housing Conditions Survey
*estimates derived from modelled data

Housing is a key component of decent quality of life as poor housing quality causes harm to health and is often associated with other social problems.

The UK Government standard defines a decent home as one that meets all of the following criteria:

- Is above the current statutory minimum standard for housing
- Is in a reasonable state of repair
- Provides a reasonable degree of thermal comfort
- Has reasonably modern facilities and services

Breaking down the London figures shows that 65% of private sector housing and 59% of social housing are defined as decent, compared to 68% and 62% for comparable England-wide sectors respectively.

London's housing stock is much older than average, with more flats and less average floor space.

The English House Condition Survey (EHCS) 1996 showed that non-white households in England were twice as likely to live in unfit dwellings as white households[19].

# 4 The wider indicator menu

This wider menu of 55 indicators includes the 20 headline measures. The purpose of the wider set is to provide the main sectors in London (business, public, voluntary, households and individuals) with indicators recommended for use by the Commission in order to measure sustainability. Some of these may be new measures for which methodology and data sources will need to be developed.

**Table 2 The wider indicator menu**

| Taking Responsibility | Developing Respect | Managing Resources | Getting Results |
|---|---|---|---|
| % turnout at London elections (**H**) | Unemployment variation by ethnic group (**B, P, V**) | Ecological footprint (**P**)<br>Total quantity of household business waste (**H, B**), Carbon dioxide emissions (**H, P, V, B**) | Labour Force Participation (**B, P**) |
| % participation in formal volunteering (at least once in last 12 months) (**V**) | Child poverty, workless households with children (**P, V**) | Index of London bird species (**P, V**) | Business survival: number of new businesses still trading after 3 years (**B**) |
| Child care: day nursery place per 100 children (**P, V**) | Street crime. (**P**) | Air quality: total emissions of particulates $PM_{10}$ (tonnes per year). (**P**) | Life expectancy at birth (years) (**P**) |
| Education<br>i) Primary school value added measure<br>ii) Secondary school attainment (**P,V**) | % respondents very or fairly satisfied with London/their neighbourhood (**H**) | Carbon efficiency of economic activity (**B**) | % households living in decent housing (**P**) |
| Sign up to Mayor's Green Procurement Code (**B**) | Travel to school: trips to and from school by main mode (**H**) | Volume of road traffic (**B, P**) | % of new housing output that is affordable (**P, V**) |
| Household recycling rates % (**H**) | Gender pay gap (**B, V**) | Changes to sites of importance for nature conservation (**B, P, V**) | Infant mortality rate (**P**) |
| % market share of Fair Trade products (**B, P, V**) | % London-based business undertaking Corporate Social Responsibility activities at local level (**B**) | River/canal water quality (**P**) | Number of confirmed TB cases per 1000 population (**P**) |
| % market share of organic food (**B, P, V**) | Economic activity rate for disabled persons (**B**) | Public transport and walking as % of all travel in London (**B, P, H**) | % of young people (18-24 yrs) in FT education or employment (**P**) |
| Share of renewables in energy market (**B**) | Noise pollution using WHO standards (**P**) | Emissions of greenhouse gases per capita (**P**) | Number of fuel-poor households (**P, V**) |
| % turnover in new products introduced in last 1/3/5 years (**B**) | Areas of deficiency in accessible wildlife areas (**P, V**) | Number of new Building Research Establishment eco-homes and new buildings with BREEAM rating as % all new build (**B**) | % children with easy access to formal and informal playspace (**P, V**) |
| Measure of income inequality (**P**) | Light pollution (**P**) | Total waste generated in London per unit of GVA (**B**) | Satisfaction with public transport (**B, P**) |
| % adults surveyed who feel they can influence decisions affecting their local areas (**H**) | Perception of community safety (**H**) | Energy consumption per unit GVA (**B**) | Accessibility to public transport (**P**) |
| % London population with access to internet (**H**) | Accidents for all street and road users per 1000 daytime population (**P**) | Total quantity of construction waste per unit GVA (**B**) | % children eating 5+ fruit and vegetables per day (**H, V**) |
| Water consumption per household (**H**) | | Alternatively fuelled vehicles (**P**) | |
| Number of companies with Green Travel Plans (**B**) | | | |

Key Audience: **B**: Business sector; **P**: Public sector; **V**: Voluntary sector; **H**: Households and individuals

# 5 footnotes

1 *Inner London:* The Boroughs of: City of London, Camden, Hackney, Hammersmith & Fulham, Haringey, Islington, Kensington & Chelsea, Lambeth, Lewisham, Newham, Southwark, Tower Hamlets, Wandsworth, City of Westminster.
*Outer London:* The Boroughs of: Barking & Dagenham, Barnet, Bexley, Brent, Bromley, Croydon, Ealing, Enfield, Greenwich, Harrow, Havering, Hillingdon, Hounslow, Kingston Upon Thames, Merton, Redbridge, Richmond upon Thames, Sutton, Waltham Forest.

2 This report uses the term 'BME groups' to refer to 2001 Census categories. Ethnic group census definitions are increasingly used as a common ground to define people's ethnicity and race.

3 Economic and Social Research Council: local electoral participation: the importance of context. 2003.

4 GLA *London divided. Income inequality and poverty in the capital*. 2002.

5 Shalini Pathak *Race Research for the Future: ethnicity in education, training and the labour market* DfEE, March 2000

6 OFSTED *Achievement of Black Caribbean Pupils: Good Practice in Secondary Schools* April 2001.

7 GLA *Unpublished analysis of Pupil level Annual Schools Census (PLASC) data 2002, provided by DfES*. 2003.

8 ALG *Class acts: Diversity and opportunity in London schools*. 2003.

9 Shalini Pathak *Race Research for the Future: ethnicity in education, training and the labour market* DfEE, March 2000

10 GLA September 2003.

11 Health in London: *2004 review of the London Health Strategy high-level indicators*, London Health Commission 2004.

12 GLA *The London Plan. Spatial Development Strategy for Greater London.* 2004

13 GLA *Green light to clean power: the Mayor's Energy Strategy.* 2004

14 *Inner London:* Camden, City of London, Greenwich, Hackney, Hammersmith & Fulham, Haringey, Islington, Kensington & Chelsea, Lambeth, Lewisham, Newham, Southwark, Tower Hamlets, Wandsworth and Westminster.
*Central London:* corresponds to the boundary of the Central London Congestion Charging Zone.
*Outer London:* Barking & Dagenham, Barnet, Bexley, Brent, Bromley, Croydon, Ealing, Harrow, Havering, Hillingdon, Hounslow, Kingston-upon Thames, Merton, Richmond-upon Thames, Redbridge, Sutton and Waltham Forest.

15 DEFRA, National Assembly for Wales and Department of the Environment (NI) Further analysis of $NO_2$ and $PM_{10}$ Air Pollution and Social Deprivation 2001.

16 Environmental Health News 1999

17 Number of km travelled by all vehicles in London over a year period.

18 Employment rates express the number in employment as a percentage of the population (women of working age in this case)

19 DEFRA 2002, unpublished information from the English Housing Conditions Survey

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### Chinese

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### Hindi

यदि आप इस दस्तावेज़ की प्रति अपनी भाषा में चाहते हैं, तो कृपया निम्नलिखित नम्बर पर फोन करें अथवा दिये गये पता पर सम्पर्क करें।

### Vietnamese

Tiếng Việt
Nếu bạn muốn bản sao của tài liệu này bằng ngôn ngữ của bạn, hãy gọi điện theo số hoặc liên lạc với địa chỉ dưới đây.

### Bengali

আপনি যদি আপনার ভাষায় এই দলিলের প্রতিলিপি (কপি) চান, তা হলে নীচের ফোন্ নম্বরে বা ঠিকানায় অনুগ্রহ করে যোগাযোগ করুন।

### Greek

Αν θα θέλατε ένα αντίγραφο του παρόντος εγγράφου στη γλώσσα σας, παρακαλώ να τηλεφωνήσετε στον αριθμό ή να επικοινωνήσετε στην παρακάτω διεύθυνση.

### Urdu

اگر آپ اِس دستاویز کی نقل اپنی زبان میں چاہتے ہیں، تو براہِ کرم نیچے دیئے گئے نمبر پر فون کریں یا دیئے گئے پتہ پر رابطہ قائم کریں۔

### Turkish

Bize telefon ederek ya da yukarıdaki adrese başvurarak bu belgenin Türkçe'sini isteyebilirsiniz.

### Arabic

إذا أردت نسخة من هذه الوثيقة بلغتك، الرجاء الاتصال برقم الهاتف او الكتابة الى العنوان

### Punjabi

ਜੇ ਤੁਹਾਨੂੰ ਇਸ ਦਸਤਾਵੇਜ਼ ਦੀ ਕਾਪੀ ਤੁਹਾਡੀ ਆਪਣੀ ਭਾਸ਼ਾ ਵਿਚ ਚਾਹੀਦੀ ਹੈ, ਤਾਂ ਹੇਠ ਲਿਖੇ ਨੰਬਰ 'ਤੇ ਫ਼ੋਨ ਕਰੋ ਜਾਂ ਹੇਠ ਲਿਖੇ ਪਤੇ 'ਤੇ ਰਾਬਤਾ ਕਰੋ:

### Gujarati

જો તમને આ દસ્તાવેજની નકલ તમારી ભાષામાં જોઇતી હોય તો, કૃપા કરી આપેલ નંબર ઉપર ફોન કરો અથવા નીચેના સરનામે સંપર્ક સાધો.


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