



Office of the
Deputy Prime Minister

Creating sustainable communities

State of the Cities:
A Progress Report
to the Delivering
Sustainable
Communities
Summit

urban



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Deputy Prime Minister

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*State of the Cities:
A Progress Report to the Delivering
Sustainable Communities Summit*

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FOREWORD



In recent years, there have been exciting improvements in our major towns and cities. After decades of industrial change and economic restructuring, many of our larger urban areas have begun to show substantial progress – underpinned by the long period of economic stability, low unemployment and low inflation resulting from our policies. There's great new architecture, expressing a new confidence, and people and businesses are coming back to the city centres.

We cannot underestimate the scale of the challenge. Even now there are still clusters of deprivation in urban areas where people tend to have shorter lives, lower expectations and poorer prospects in jobs, skills, housing and education. Turning these problems around requires the long term political commitment and long term investment which we are delivering.

Five years ago, in the Urban White Paper, the Government committed itself to an urban renaissance and we've made some excellent progress. We've developed on the ideas in the Urban White Paper and now have a wider programme – the £38 billion Sustainable Communities Plan – which is investing, not just in housing and physical regeneration, but in jobs, schools, skills and transport. We are developing local leadership, empowering neighbourhoods, and creating a better quality of life.

But in order to improve our cities, we need to understand them as fully as possible. That's why the Government commissioned a team of leading academics and policy experts to conduct a major project to study the state of English cities and investigate the performance of urban areas.

I am pleased to welcome the first progress report of the State of the Cities project. This report is based on a preliminary analysis of the latest data, the first case studies and an initial review of the literature on the impact of policy on urban areas. We have produced this for the *Delivering Sustainable Communities Summit* (31st January – 2nd February 2005), with a view to publishing the comprehensive final report at the end of 2005. Already the study is offering valuable insights and ideas, and I am confident that the State of the Cities project will help us to create more sustainable communities across the country.

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads "John Prescott".

John Prescott
Deputy Prime Minister

SUMMARY

1. What is the State of the Cities Report (SOCR)?

- 1.1 The SOCR is a major review of English cities. It is intended to provide a comprehensive assessment of urban conditions and drivers of urban change. It is evaluating the impact of policies and exploring how they contribute to local, regional and national success defined in the Sustainable Communities Plan. There are four main themes to the work: social cohesion; economic competitiveness and performance of cities; liveability and the impacts of policy on urban governance and performance. The report is being underpinned by a substantial and user-friendly data set of indicators of urban performance – the State of the Cities Database. The work involves: a literature review, local case studies, interviews with national and regional policy makers, a review of international experience, analysis of public attitudes to cities and secondary data on economic, social and environmental performance using a range of indicators for 56 large urban areas at different time points and spatial levels.
- 1.2 This document reports progress on our early work. We are at the beginning of the process and do not here present conclusions or recommendations. But we outline some demographic trends in urban areas, key features of social cohesion and economic competitiveness, public attitudes in cities and key trends in policymaking.

2. Demographic and employment trends in cities

- 2.1 Demographic trends in the past decade have underlined that the regional location and size of cities matters enormously. Regionally the south and east have performed better than the north and west. London is different and has performed most impressively of all areas. But outside London, smaller and medium sized cities have performed better than larger cities – whether they are in the south and east or north and west. However, during the past six years, the growth of London and the south and east has slowed down. As a result, the north and west have improved recently and in particular the growth rates of the 6 metropolitan centres in the north and west (Mets) have moved closer to London's.
- 2.2 Growth in part-time employment has been faster than in full-time in all areas. Growth in self-employment has been the most important trend in London. Manufacturing has been the most significant loser in 90% of cities, with the greatest losses in London and cities in the north and west. There were little significant regional differences in terms of public service employment – although London lost and the 6 Mets gained slightly. In terms of financial services the north and west grew more slowly than the south and east. But again they have improved in recent years and the size of the gap is closing. In terms of London and the six Mets, London and Leeds were the fastest growing in total employment between 1991 and 2001. Manchester was a distant third. The other four grew only modestly. Leeds and Newcastle did best in surviving the shrinkage of manufacturing jobs. Newcastle scored worst on growth in financial services. But Liverpool scored the fastest growth rate in financial services.

- 2.3 The overall distribution of ethnic minority groups changed relatively little during the past decade. The large cities have a higher percentage of ethnic minority groups than smaller cities, with numbers greater in the south and east than in the north and west. The distribution of different ethnic groups varies from one city to another. However, the vast majority of the non-white population is concentrated in a small number of cities. The cities experienced a major increase in ethnic minority population (46%) while their white population fell by 4.8%. In particular, London has over 48% of the country's non-white population. This constitutes now just over 25% of its total population – up from 18% a decade earlier. With the exception of the 6 Mets, the percentage of non-white population in all other places is between 5-10% – and smaller in north and west large towns.

3. Social cohesion in cities

- 3.1 These differences by region and size of city are also found in trends in measures of social cohesion. For example, the report demonstrates a clear north and west to south and east gradient in terms of life expectancy. There is a similar gradient for university qualifications. 10 of the 11 cities with least qualified residents are in the north and west. London experienced the greatest gains during the past decade so that each year it contains an ever-growing proportion of the ever-growing numbers of graduates. A similar regional pattern is replicated with income support and job seekers allowance, although cities with the highest percentages improved most during the past five years. With the exception of some northern hotspots, average household net incomes show similar regional differentiation as do house prices, which saw increased regional polarisation throughout the decade. In terms of affluence and poverty, cities in the north and west have a disproportionate share of poor neighbourhoods, especially the conurbations and large cities. By contrast cities in the south and east have a slightly higher share of the least deprived neighbourhoods. The overall picture is that regional location and size are highly significant in determining prosperity levels. London is the obvious exception to the rule that the larger places are the least prosperous.

4. The economic competitiveness and performance of cities

- 4.1 The social differences between regions and sizes of cities are mirrored by the early analysis of economic performance. For example, the highest GVA per head is produced in London and the urban economies of the south and east. Beyond that region few cities performed better than the national average. Indeed, most of the cities in the west and north of England performed below the national average. Early analysis suggests the quality of the workforce and the proportion of workforce employed in knowledge intensive business services, are crucial to the differential economic performance of the cities. Employment in ICT also plays a (less significant) part. The same performance across regions and different size of cities is repeated for export performance, with innovation in technological products being a strong potential factor in explaining the success of London and the south and east.
- 4.2 However some evidence suggests some changes are occurring in these regional and size differences when looking at the largest cities in England. For example, in terms of human capital and educational performance some recent improvements in some of the larger cities – although not all – have closed the gap with the national average. Similarly improved employment rates means that many of the larger cities, although still lagging, have closed the gap with the national average. The position across different cities is clearly not homogeneous. The report has outlined important variations both between the largest cities and within them across different spatial levels, which we will explore further.

5. Public attitudes to and in cities

- 5.1 There are some significant differences in public attitudes to cities. London and the south and east clearly have a more mobile population than the rest of the country. People living in those regions have changed homes more often, are less well connected to their families and less attached to their region than those in the north and west. Similarly they are better connected to the Internet and use it more than residents in the north and west. Londoners – where the non-white population is actually the greatest – are different in their attitudes towards racial prejudice. They see themselves as less racially prejudiced, detect smaller increases in racial prejudice in recent years and expect prejudice to grow less in the future than others do. By contrast, for example, far more residents in cities in the north and west describe themselves as racially prejudiced, observe increased racial prejudice in their areas and expect higher levels of prejudice in their areas in future. Londoners and the south and east are more likely to be interested in politics and feel more able to influence decision-making than those in the rest of the country.

6. Policies, principles, processes and progress

- 6.1 Some interesting messages have emerged in our policy discussions, which we shall explore further in our work. At present they represent the views of a limited number of players in a limited number of places which will need further testing before we can endorse, qualify or reject them. The UK evaluation literature identified a series of limitations to previous policy eras including departmentalism, lack of integration, short termism, a lack of concern with places, too many policy initiatives and too little mainstream concern with urban areas. Some in the policy community argued that many of them remain a challenge today. For example, there are continuing concerns about the differential commitment of government departments to the urban agenda, the short-term nature of many programmes, the extent of national controls and targets, the proliferation of initiatives and delivery agencies, the regional imbalance in support for research and innovation and most especially the constraints placed upon urban competitiveness and cohesion by transport policy.
- 6.2 Nevertheless, there was support for the thrust of current policies in the Sustainable Communities Plan, which are perceived as addressing many of those concerns. These include: a greater recognition by national government of the economic potential of urban areas; a growing interest in the impact of mainstream programmes; an increased awareness of the spatial impact of policies upon individual places. There is support for a general package of policies affecting the governance of urban areas including the rationalisation of area based initiatives, Housing Market Renewal Pathfinders, government commitment to the linked priorities of Core Cities, city-regions and the Northern Way. In our case study cities, there was a clear recognition of the value and the long-term impact of earlier initiatives like City Challenge and City Pride as well as support for the current policies of Urban Regeneration Companies and New Deal for Communities. There is some belief that relations between national and local government have improved. There is support for the impact of increased educational expenditure, the concern with improved physical environment and the contribution of CABA as well as the thrust of planning policy. Hence some progress in policy making has been observed.

7. Endgame

- 7.1 Very early messages from this work have emphasised the long-term nature of the structural forces shaping urban England. It has underlined the importance of both regional location and size of cities in shaping the economic and social performance of cities as well as the scale of the challenge in closing the economic and social gap especially between large cities in the north and west and the south and east of the country, especially London. Nevertheless it has identified some ways in which cities in the north and west have been improving their performance recently. Limited work has also revealed some powerful views in the policy community that much more needs to be done to improve the delivery of policy and the overall performance of English cities. However, it has also shown that the direction and main thrust of recent policy initiatives is regarded as moving in the right direction. There remains much to do. Nevertheless there is a view that much has been – and is being – done. We shall next test those views further in our work.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Why have a State of the Cities Report?

1.2 Cities and city regions are very high on the political and policy agenda both internationally and in the UK. During recent years there is evidence that many cities have been through the worst of their economic restructuring and are beginning to find new economic niches. Public and political perceptions of cities are also changing. In policy terms, although cities still face many social and environmental challenges, they are increasingly seen as potential economic assets that can help to improve regional and hence national economic performance. This shift in policy thrust can be seen in the emergence of the Core Cities Agenda and of the Northern Way with its emphasis upon urban-regional and inter-regional connectivity.

1.3 In many countries, governments have made efforts to chart the developments and undertaken assessments of their state of the cities, examining the underlying processes, trends and policy implications. In the United States, the State of the Cities work has been followed by the Brookings Living Cities work. New Zealand, South Africa and France have recently completed reports. The European Commission has recently completed its second Urban Audit, which has data on over 200 cities and urban areas. These studies vary in their approach, their range and their reliability. But all have increased our knowledge and understanding of the underlying drivers of change and their impact upon cities. The UK government has embarked upon an ambitious attempt to carry out a wide-ranging State of the Cities report for England. This is larger than anything it has undertaken systematically in the UK in the past. It significantly moves beyond the State of English Cities, which was published as the evidence base for the Urban White Paper in 2000. It is large scale, with coverage wider than many of the reports identified above. It is intended that the Report and its associated database will be the beginning of a long-term project to monitor, assess and improve the economic, social and environmental performance of English cities. This in turn is intended to help understand and increase the contribution that successful cities can make to the wider goals of the government's Sustainable Communities Plan.

1.4 The purpose of this progress report

1.5 The State of the Cities Report and Database was commissioned by the ODPM in 2004. It will be completed by the end of 2005. This progress report provides answers to the following questions:

- What is the State of the Cities Report and Database?
- Who is doing it?
- What do its stakeholders want it to be?
- What will the Database contain?
- What will the Report focus upon?

- How is the work being done?
- What progress has been made?
- What early messages have emerged?

1.6 What is the State of the Cities Report (SOCR)?

1.7 This SOCR is a major review of English cities. It is intended to provide a comprehensive assessment of urban conditions and drivers of urban change. It is evaluating the impact of urban policies, exploring how they contribute to local, regional and national success and identifying key policy messages. There are four main themes to the work: social cohesion; economic competitiveness and performance of cities; liveability and the impacts of policy on urban governance and performance. The report is being underpinned by a substantial and user-friendly data set of indicators of urban performance – the State of the Cities Database (SOCD).

1.8 Who is responsible for it?

1.9 The SOCR is funded by the Office of the Deputy Prime Minister. The project is being undertaken by a consortium of researchers, led by the European Institute of Urban Affairs, Liverpool John Moores University. Other members include the Universities of Sheffield, Newcastle, Glasgow, Cambridge, Oxford Brookes, University College London, the National Centre for Social Research, the Brookings Institution in Washington DC and Llewelyn-Davies.

1.10 How is the work being undertaken?

1.11 The work involves: a literature review, local case studies, interviews with national and regional policy makers, a review of international experience, analysis of public attitudes to cities and secondary data on economic, social and environmental performance using a range of indicators for 56 large urban areas at different time points and spatial levels.

1.12 What do stakeholders want from the project?

1.13 We have explored the views of a wide range of stakeholders about the SOCR and SOCD. There is widespread support for the project from stakeholders – in and out of government. It is accepted that it should focus upon the urban impact of policy rather than the impact of urban policy. The database should be for users not producers. It should add value not reinvent wheels. It should contribute to an understanding of the impact of a range of departmental policies. It should be simple, accessible, comparative but flexible. It should be able to accommodate change – in data, policies, and geographies.

1.14 The State of the Cities Database

1.15 The State of the Cities Database (SOCD) is designed to provide the quantitative database for the SOCR and be a key tool for monitoring and evaluating urban change. It will be sustained after the State of the Cities Report is prepared in 2005. It is a collection of indicators selected to identify socio-economic change in urban areas and to provide a baseline against which to measure future change in urban areas.

1.16 Creating such a database is not straightforward. There are different views about the meaning and characteristics of urban success. There are equally divergent views about the value of particular indicators, spatial levels, time series, data sets, and methods of analysis. We have adopted measures that are analytically robust, practical and deliverable and reflect current policy ambitions.

1.17 Indicators in the SOCD

1.18 The SOCD is not meant to replace existing data sets. That is neither desirable nor possible. It is intended to pull together the key data to allow understanding and interrogation of key conditions and trends and policy impact. We have selected a set of key indicators which, in addition to policy relevance, have a clear analytical purpose and justification. We are using the broad analytical framework and drivers of urban success developed in our earlier work, '*Competitive European Cities: Where Do the Core Cities Stand?*' These are: economic diversity, skilled workforce, connectivity, innovation in firms and organisations, quality of life and strategic capacity to deliver long term development strategies. The indicators of these drivers are grouped under four broad headings – social cohesion, economic competitiveness, liveability and governance – which reflect both our analytic framework and a range of policy concerns across different government departments.

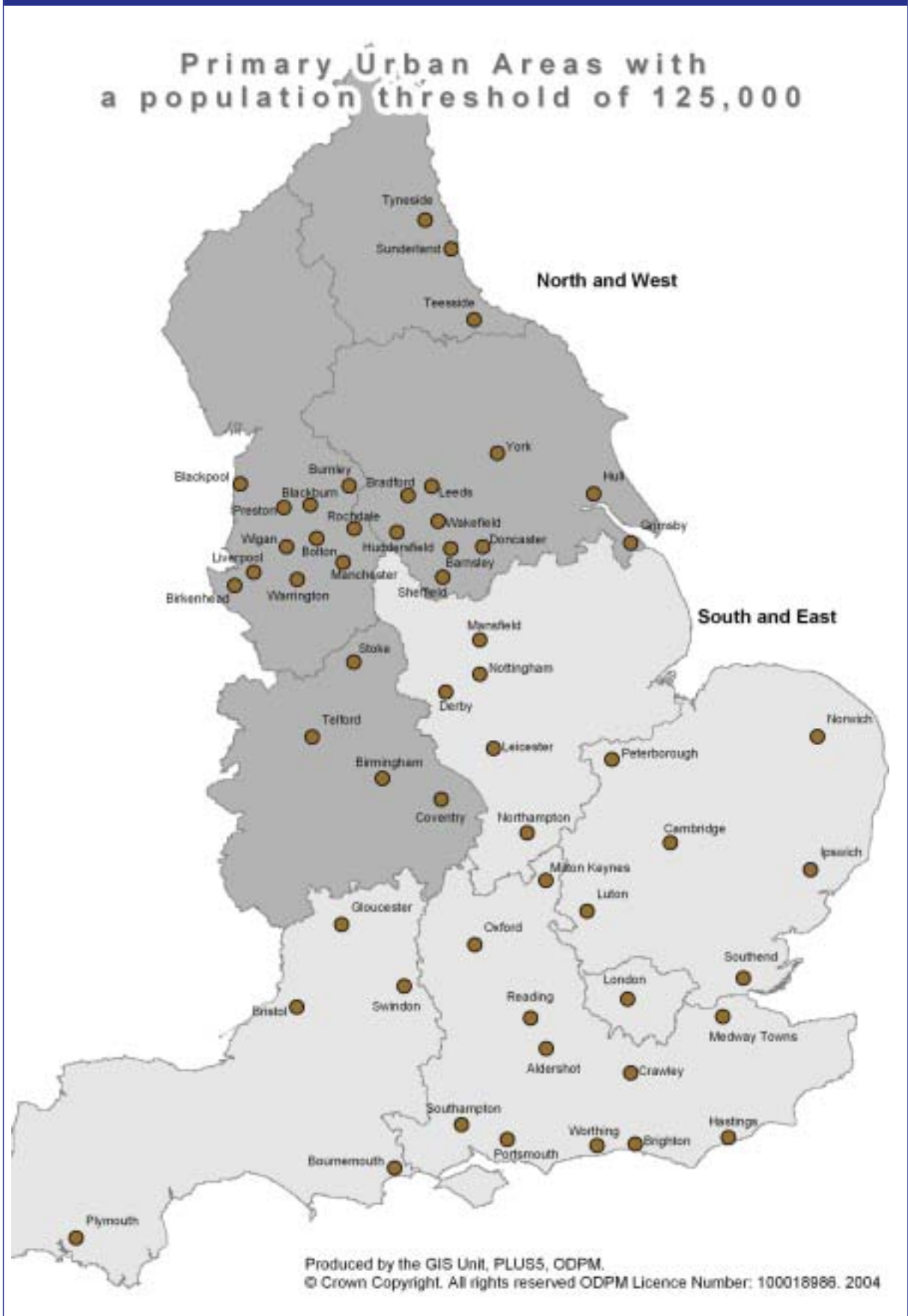
1.19 The indicators allow us to describe the current socio-economic conditions of each urban area, to identify the direction of change and to make comparisons within and between urban areas at different spatial levels. The SOCD is collecting where available data for the following time points: the most recent available period – e.g. 2001, 2002, 2003; the position in 1997 and the beginning of the 1990's. Where data is readily available for other periods, for example the Census, the database will include trends over a longer time period.

1.20 The indicators are available from reliable, published data sources. They are compatible with a range of official agency targets and indicators. They are relevant to the key drivers of urban success. They are relevant to the client's policy concerns. The data is robust. The data is available for the majority of 7 spatial levels and the 3 time periods we are employing. We are currently collecting over 60 indicators.

1.21 For which areas are indicators being collected?

1.22 We start from the official set of Urban Areas definitions based on 2001 built-up areas. So we identify major cities in terms of their physical extent and *not* in terms of local authority areas. We have created a set of Primary Urban Areas which have a minimum size cut-off to limit implausible comparisons and which split any UA, which includes more than one substantially separate town or city. The database will contain indicators for the PUAs, which are over 125,000 in terms of their 2001 population. This definition produces the list of 56 cities (PUAs) shown in Map 1. We divide them on a regional basis. There is no perfect way of dividing the country in this way. We use the boundaries of Government Offices in the Regions to define the regions. All areas falling in the boundaries of the Government Offices for the North West, North and West Midlands we categorise in our typology as in the north and west. All other areas in the remaining GORs we place in the south and east.

Map 1



1.23 For which other areas is the SOCD producing data?

1.24 The project is concerned with differences within as well as between urban areas. So we are placing the Primary Urban Areas in their national, regional and city-regional context. For the regional level we are using the GOR boundaries. For the city-regions we are working with Travel to Work Area boundaries. For differences within the PUAs we are providing data for local authorities, wards and other neighbourhood tracts.

1.25 When completed, data for seven different spatial levels will be presented in spreadsheet form, with separate sheets for different sets of data output for:

1. the 56 Primary Urban Areas
2. the 56 wider Travel to Work Areas
3. individual Local Authorities
4. each Government Office for the Region
5. all of England
6. all wards
7. a set of neighbourhood 'tracts' averaging 35,000 residents.

1.26 Typology

1.27 The SOCD contains substantial amount of data about individual places at a variety of spatial levels. This individual level of data will be accessible from the database. However in our report we are comparing types of urban areas, to explore how trends affect different kinds of places. There are a wide variety of classifications currently in use. Ours focuses upon two critical criteria – regional location and city size. As already indicated, we define the north and west and the south and east in terms of GOR boundaries. We define large cities as those having a population above 275,000 in 2001. We are analysing data for the following types of places:

- London
- 6 metropolitan centres in the north and west (Birmingham, Leeds, Liverpool, Manchester, Newcastle, Sheffield)
- Large cities in the north and west
- Small cities in the north and west
- Large cities in the south and east
- Small cities in the south and east
- Large towns in the north and east
- Large towns in the south and east

- Small towns and rural areas in the north and west
- Small towns and rural areas in the south and east

1.28 Policy Analysis and methodology

1.29 The SOCR is analysing changes in urban conditions and assessing the contribution of different policies to those changes. It is drawing upon a mix of literature review, quantitative analyses of the indicators and national and local case studies. It is focussing upon four broad themes: economic competitiveness and performance, social cohesion, liveability and governance.

Economic Competitiveness and Performance of Cities

1.30 This section is exploring urban competitiveness as the ability of cities to continually upgrade their business environment, skill base, and physical, social and cultural infrastructures, so as to attract and retain high-growth, innovative and profitable firms, and an educated, creative and entrepreneurial workforce, to thereby enable it to achieve a high rate of productivity, high employment rate, high wages, high GVA per capita, and low levels of income inequality and social exclusion.

Social Cohesion in Cities

1.31 This is focussing upon two basic dimensions: social relationships and equality. It is assessing the current state of social cohesion in our cities, comparing the position of different cities and types of city, and seeking to identify whether policy has made a difference to social conditions. It is doing this using city-level and sub-city-level data from the SOCD, original analyses of a variety of survey-based data on the 'softer' and less tangible aspects of cohesion and case studies.

Liveability in Cities

1.32 This section is exploring whether our cities and towns are beginning to look, feel and work better in what ways and why. It is focusing upon: environmental quality, place quality in physical terms, place quality in functional terms and safety and security of place. It is combining statistical data on the state of some of the components of the built environment, using national Best Value Performance Indicators data and local Quality of Life surveys and qualitative data from case study cities.

Governance and the Urban Impact of Policy

1.33 This section is assessing the nature and role of government policies and their impact upon urban areas, in particular focussing upon governance arrangements and issues. It is examining how policies interact at different spatial levels – neighbourhoods, local authority, city region and region. It is drawing upon the wide range of evaluations of policies, interviews with policy makers and recipients at national and regional level and detailed local case studies. It is attempting to identify what has worked best in encouraging competitiveness, social cohesion and liveability and identify key messages about what to build upon and what to avoid in future.

Public Attitudes in and towards Cities

- 1.34 This section is exploring public attitudes to urban life and conditions, primarily exploiting the British Social Attitudes Survey. It is contrasting attitudes of urban and non-urban residents and exploring the attitudes of city-dwellers to the following themes explored in the BSA: the characteristics of the local area, social and political participation, identity and local governance.

International experience

- 1.35 This is reviewing existing literature to give a comparative perspective to the English SOCR. One part is reviewing European experience of urban challenges and policy responses as well as other international State of the Cities reports. The review of the North American experience is focusing on trends in demographic change, immigration and diversity, market restructuring, employment decentralisation and the geography of poverty.

1.36 Case studies – why, how, where and what?

- 1.37 The case studies are intended to service a variety of purposes: fill gaps in the evaluation literature, provide qualitative material to complement the quantitative Database analysis, explore different types of urban area, explore differences within urban areas, explore crosscutting policy effects and their vertical and sectoral integration, and identify emerging trends and future challenges. They will explore the contribution that individual cities can make to regional and national policy and building Sustainable Communities. They will involve quantitative data collection, review of key documents and interviews with key actors in the public, private and community sectors. They will explore the following range of questions:

The State of the City/City Region

- Has the city-region improved or not in the past decade in terms of its competitiveness, levels of social exclusion, governance, and liveability?
- Which people and places have been the winners and losers in the process of change?
- What are the main challenges facing the city-region?

The Impact of Government Policy

- What has been the relative importance of central government policy in change?
- Does the impact of government policy upon different parts of the area vary?
- What is the relative importance of mainstream and area-based policies?
- How well integrated is policy horizontally, vertically and sectorally?
- Has governance influenced the recent trajectory of the city?
- What will be the effects of new national policy agendas on the city/city-region?

Policy lessons

- Which government policies have been most successful in improving the city region's performance?
- What principles characterise the more successful government policies?
- What policy pitfalls should be avoided in future?

Where?

We are conducting 12 case studies designed to exemplify the diversity of urban experiences in terms of size, geographical location, economic performance, social challenges and range of policy interventions. We selected them from the following categories:

- The capital
- The Core Cities with a range of economic and social performance
- Smaller places facing significant economic and social challenges in the north and west
- Smaller, more economically successful places in the north and west
- Smaller, more economically successful places in the south and east
- Smaller places facing significant challenges in the south and east

The exact choice is:

- London
- Manchester
- Birmingham
- Bristol
- Cambridge
- Derby
- Burnley
- Leicester
- Leeds
- Sunderland
- Sheffield
- Medway Towns

1.38 Where are we up to?

1.39 This project is collecting a large amount of data about a large number of issues in a large number of places with a large partnership. It will report at the end of 2005. At the point of preparation of this report, only about 20% of the project time has elapsed. Inevitably, at this point this progress report cannot do justice to the many empirical, analytical and policy issues involved. Data collection is underway but progress varies across different elements. And where data has already been collected there has been little time to interrogate and interpret it. This report conveys more on trends than it does on policy processes. But health warnings must be attached. It provides early indications of key themes, issues, questions and emerging messages from the following project strands:

- Demographic trends
- Social cohesion
- Economic competitiveness and performance
- Public attitudes
- Literature review
- Case studies

CHAPTER 2

DEMOGRAPHIC TRENDS IN CITIES

2.1 This part of the work focuses on three components:

- Population change
- Trends in employment
- Ethnicity

2.2 This analysis draws upon the ONS's latest revised population estimates for LADs 1981-2003, employment data from the Annual Business Inquiry and its predecessors for 1991-2001 and data on self-employment and ethnicity from the 1991 and 2001 Censuses. Most of the results reported in this section use the typology shown in 1.27.

Population Change

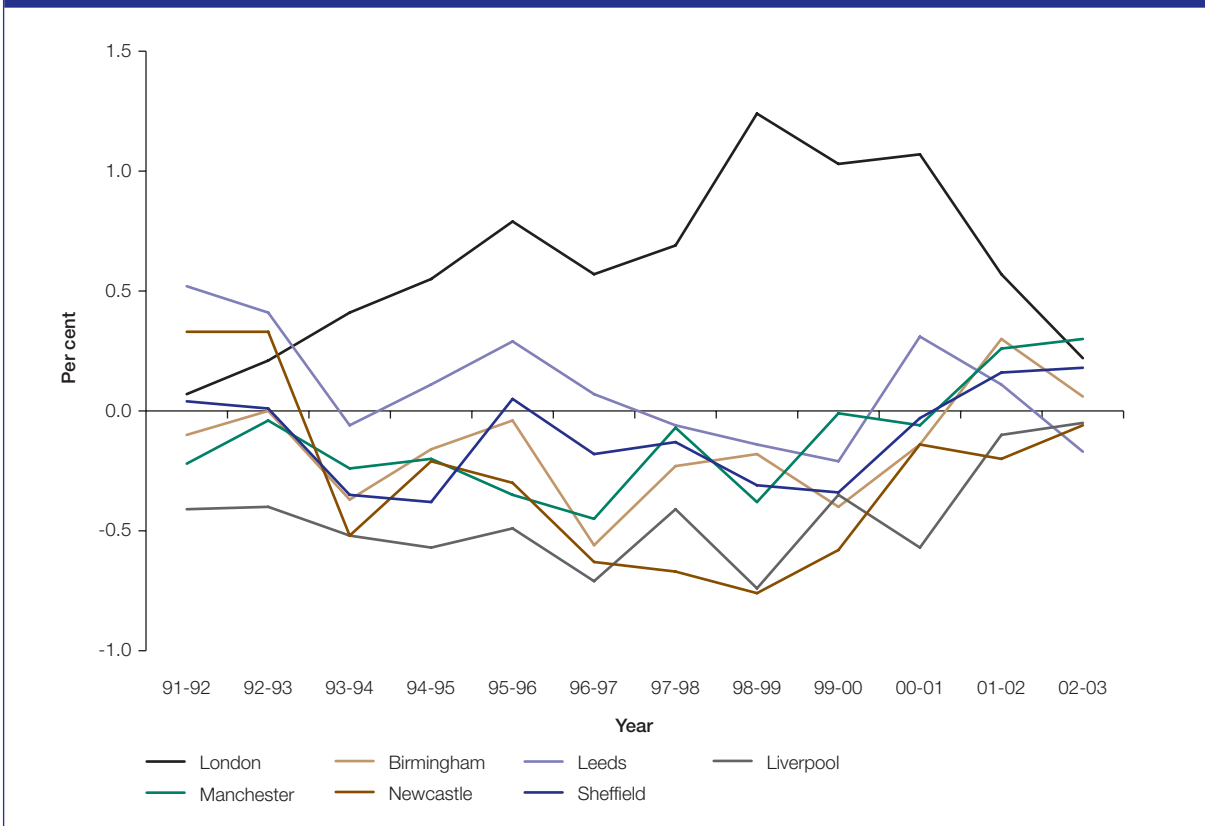
2.3 It is important to start with the overall contrast between the south and east and the north and west. The population of England was 49,856,000 in mid-2003, an increase of 3,035,000 since 1981. All this increase was concentrated in south and east England which was home to 30.2 million people in 2003, roughly 60% of England's total. The north and west's population was almost the same in 2003 as in 1981.

2.4 The experience of English cities must also be viewed in the light of major changes in regional demographic performance. The differences between south and east and north and west England narrowed in the late 1980s/early 1990s. They widened substantially during the 1990s. But they have narrowed again quite sharply since 1999.

2.5 London's upward growth trajectory is the single most impressive feature of population growth for English cities between 1981-2003 and especially since the early 1990s. However, its growth rate peaked in 1998/99 and then dropped after 2000/01. Across the remainder of England outside London, there remains a clear urban-rural gradient in population growth, with towns and rural areas growing fastest, followed by small cities. The Mets and large cities group are the least dynamic. However, they grew steadily between 1999 and 2003, after nearly a decade of reducing rates. This largely paralleled their temporary recovery in the latter half of the 1980s as economic recovery spread out from London.

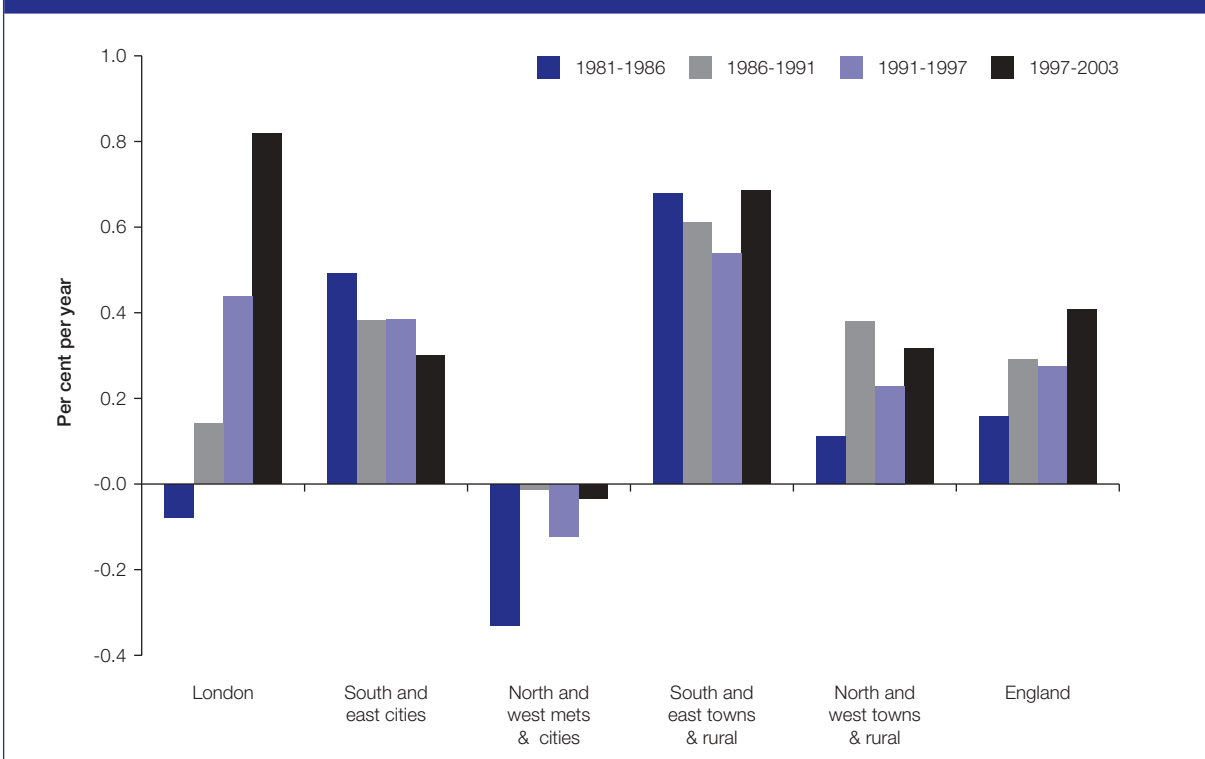
2.6 By 2002/03 a relatively narrow range separated the fastest and slowest growing of England's 24 largest cities. This followed the sudden collapse in London's growth after 2000/01, the subsiding of the growth of the south and east's large cities since the mid 1990s, and the pretty consistent recovery of the Mets and large cities in the north and west, see figure 1. This clustering is even closer than at a similar stage of the previous economic cycle at the beginning of the 1990s.

Figure 1: Annual population change rate (%), 1991-92 to 2002-03 London and Mets

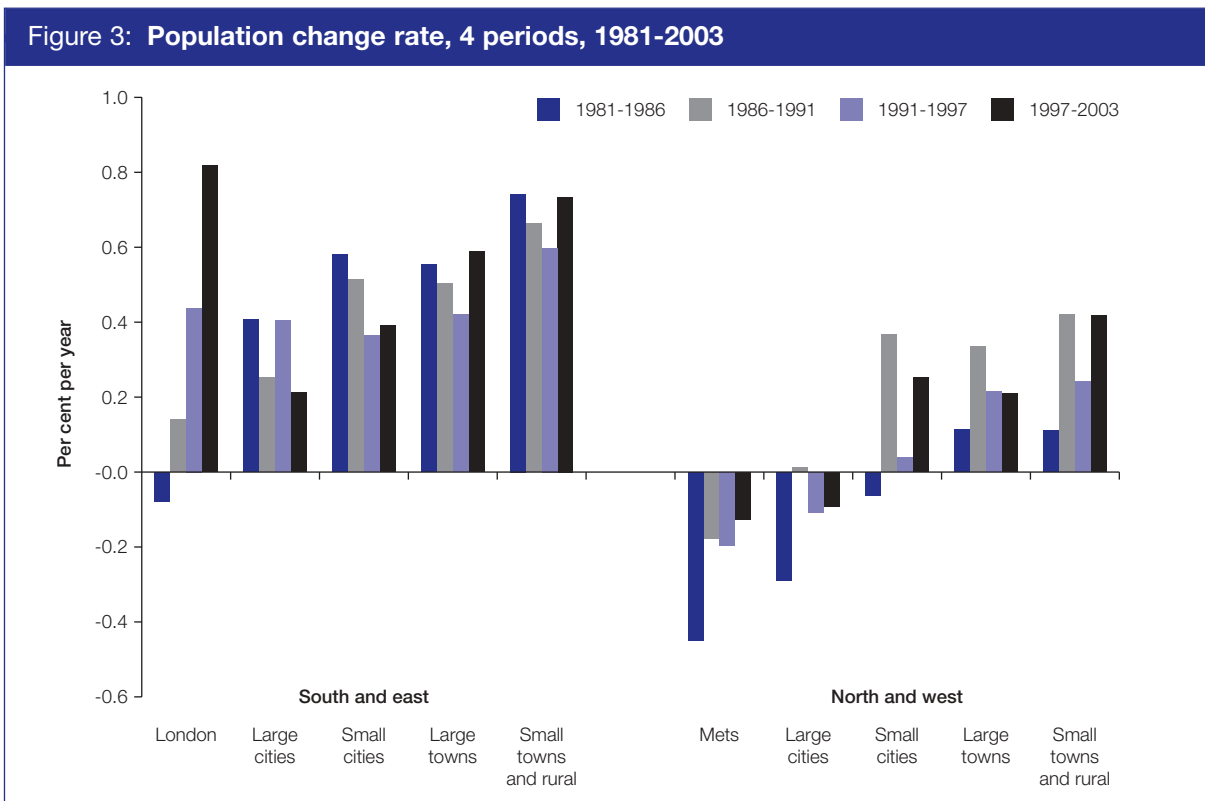


2.7 The following figures and tables illustrate these trends. Figure 2 places most emphasis on the broad regional dimension, collapsing all cities apart from London into a single group for each of the two regions.

Figure 2: Population change rate, 4 periods, 1981-2003



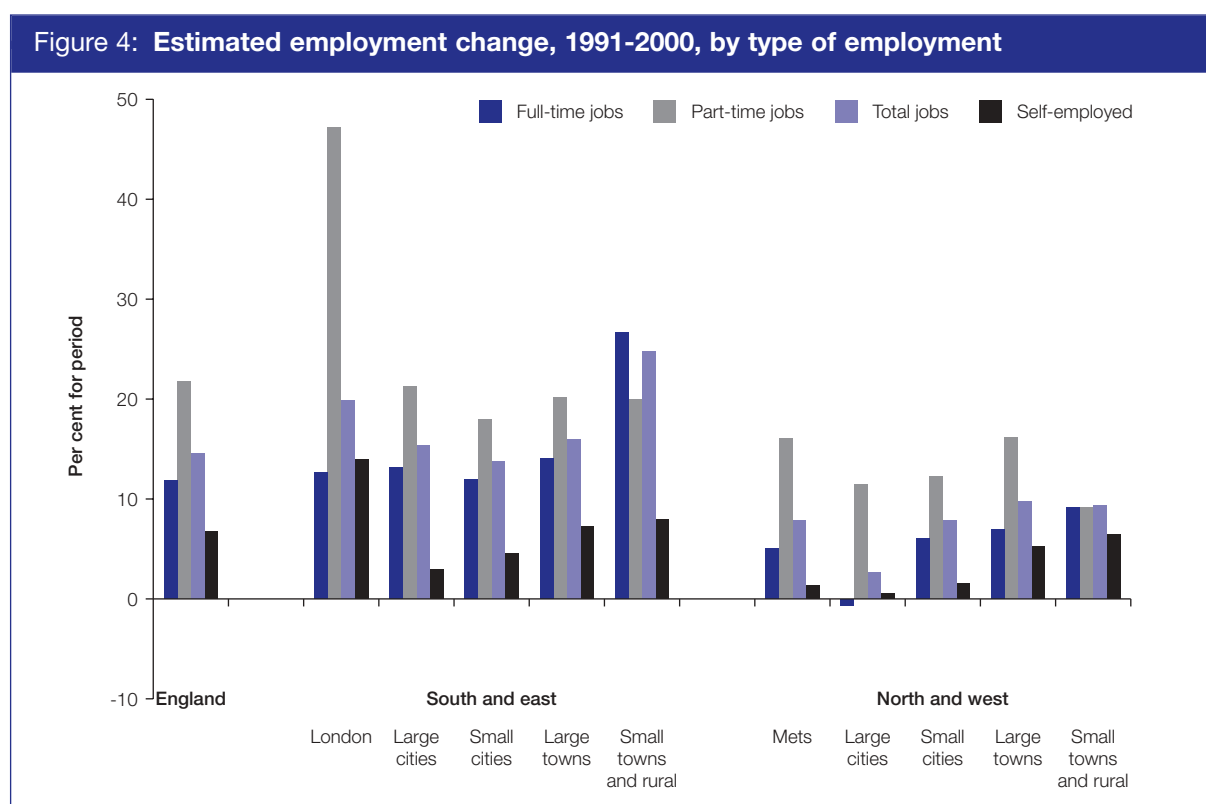
- 2.8 London’s remarkable upward trajectory is very clear. The split of the rest of England’s cities by broad region reveals two opposite trends leading to a degree of convergence. Their strong growth rate in south and east England reduced between periods, while the rate of decline in the cities of the north and west has been much lower since 1981-86. Similarly, over time the gap between the two regions’ towns and rural categories has narrowed. In both types, however, a gap in annual change rate of just over 0.3 % points between the two halves of England remained in 1997-2003.
- 2.9 Looking at the 10 types of places shown in Figure 3, the most notable feature of the south and east outside London is the reduction in growth rate after 1981-86. For all but the large cities there, this continued until 1991-97 and was then followed by an upturn that was broadly in line with the national trend (Figure 2, right-hand columns). For the large cities, there was an earlier upturn in 1991-97 before a marked reduction in growth rate against the national trend.
- 2.10 In north and west England (Figure 3, right-hand panel), all five types registered an upward shift in population growth rate between the early and later 1980s that was greater than the uplift nationally. This was, however, followed by a downward shift in 1991-97 that was most marked for its small cities and least evident for the six Mets. In 1997-2003 there was a substantial resurgence for small cities and the small towns and rural type in line with the national trend, while the six Mets in aggregate recorded a modest upward movement that consolidated their previous progress.



Trends In Employment

- 2.11 This section presents change in employment including self-employment, but excluding agriculture, between 1991-2001. Nationally, it captures the major part of the longest economic upturn experienced for some decades, after the recession of the late 1980s. The recovery began in London in the early 1990s. It took off in a substantial way in the northern half of the country only in the latter half of the decade.

- 2.12 London's 19% growth in employment (including self-employment) in these ten years was remarkable not just in itself but also for a city of its size, given the negative correlation between employment growth rate and urban size across the rest of England. However, since 1998 its performance has been less impressive. In the north and west, the six Mets emulated the faster growth of London, suggesting similar drivers have been at work.
- 2.13 Figure 4 breaks down these overall trends by types of employment. The number of self-employed residents grew much faster in London than in any of the other types. Elsewhere in the south and east, self-employment growth appears to be leading the employment deconcentration process, with the rate of growth rising progressively from large cities to small towns and rural. A similar pattern is evident for the north and west.
- 2.14 All types of place, except the small towns and rural, saw stronger percentage growth in part-time jobs than in full-time ones. Particularly spectacular is London's estimated 47% increase in part-time jobs between 1991 and 2001.
- 2.15 In terms of full-time jobs, regional differences are especially apparent in this decade. In particular, none of the five north and west types reaches the level of even the lowest-growing type in the south and east.

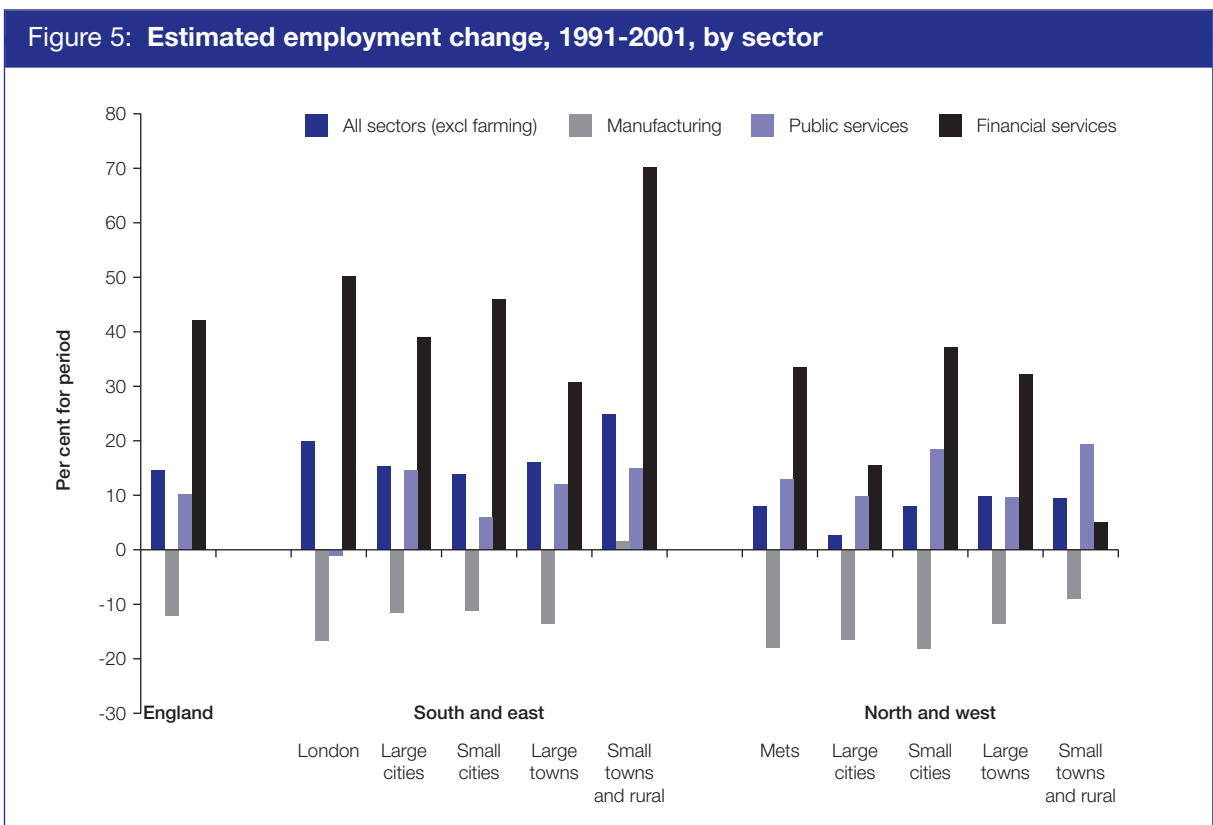


- 2.16 Between 1991-98 and 1998-2001 there was some closing of the broad regional differential, though the north and west was still one full % point behind the south and east. London was the clear leader in growth rate in 1998-2001. The Mets saw a big leap in jobs growth rate after 1998, but the other two City types in the north and west lost ground. The four non-city types all recorded decelerating growth after 1998, with the north and west's small towns and rural losing out most markedly and the south and east's large towns least.

2.17 Among the 56 PUAs, the star performers for employment change between 1991 and 2001 were Milton Keynes (up by 50%), Reading, Warrington, Brighton, Crawley and Northampton, York, Cambridge and Worthing. They all grew by around one-fifth or more. Stoke lost almost 1 in 11 jobs between 1991 and 2001. 8 others also registered a loss, of which two were from the south and east (Leicester and Norwich). 48 out of the 56 cities saw their manufacturing jobs decline, with 3 losing over a third of their jobs in this sector and another 7 over a quarter.

2.18 In terms of London and the six Mets, London and Leeds were the fastest growing in total employment between 1991 and 2001. Manchester was a distant third. The other four grew only modestly. Leeds and Newcastle did best in surviving the shrinkage of manufacturing jobs. Newcastle scored worst on growth in financial services. But Liverpool scored the fastest growth rate in financial services.

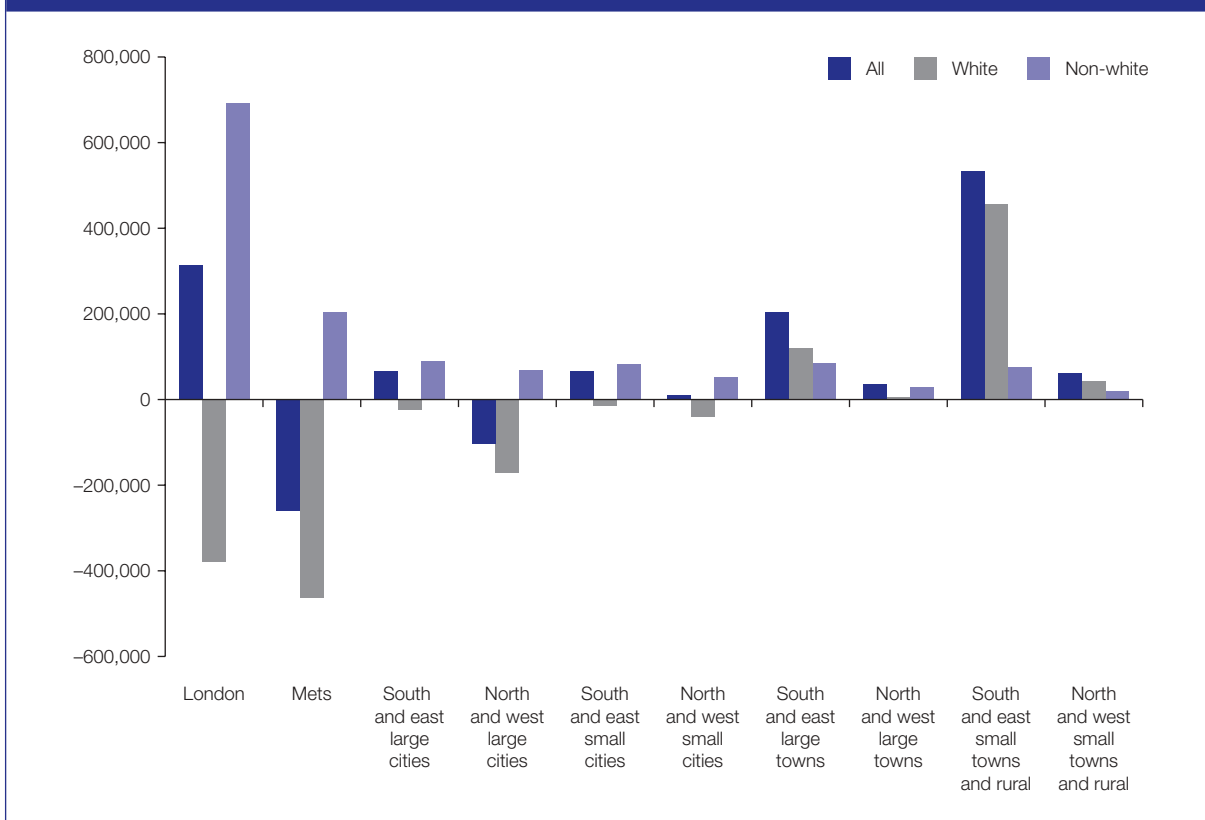
2.19 Figure 5 show the patterns of employment change (full-time and part-time) for three major sectors for all the 10 types. For *manufacturing*, the national picture for 1991-2001 is estimated to be a 1 in 8 job loss, which has been born relatively evenly across the 10 types. The highest losses were incurred by London and the three city types in the north and west. For *public services*, there is no discernable pattern, apart from relatively strong growth in the small towns and rural types of both regions. London registered a marginal contraction of jobs. By contrast in the north and west, the Mets recorded above-national growth. For *financial services*, while the growth rates for the north and west are generally lower than for the south and east, there is some similarity in pattern between the two regions. The rates for the largest cities and the small cities are higher than those for large cities and large towns in both regions. By contrast, as regards the small towns and rural, the south and east and north and west are poles apart, with the highest and lowest growth respectively.



Ethnicity

- 2.20 It is not easy to provide an accurate picture of ethnic change, mainly because of differences between Censuses in underenumeration, treatment of students and ethnic-group classification. This study uses the 1991 data that is most comparable to the 2001 Census, namely the adjusted Linking Censuses through Time (LCT) dataset. According to the 2001 Census there were 4.46 million people living in England who were members of ethnic groups other than white – 1.4 million or 46% more than in the LCT estimates for 1991. The white population fell by 470,000.
- 2.21 Over the decade the 56 PUAs saw their non-white population grow by 1.17 million, an increase of 43%, while their white population declined by 1.13 million, a reduction of 4.8%. Figure 6 shows that all areas contributed to the growth of England's non-white population. But the volume of increase ranged from London's 693,000 – 49.4% of England's total gain – to just over 11,000 for the north and west's small towns and rural category.

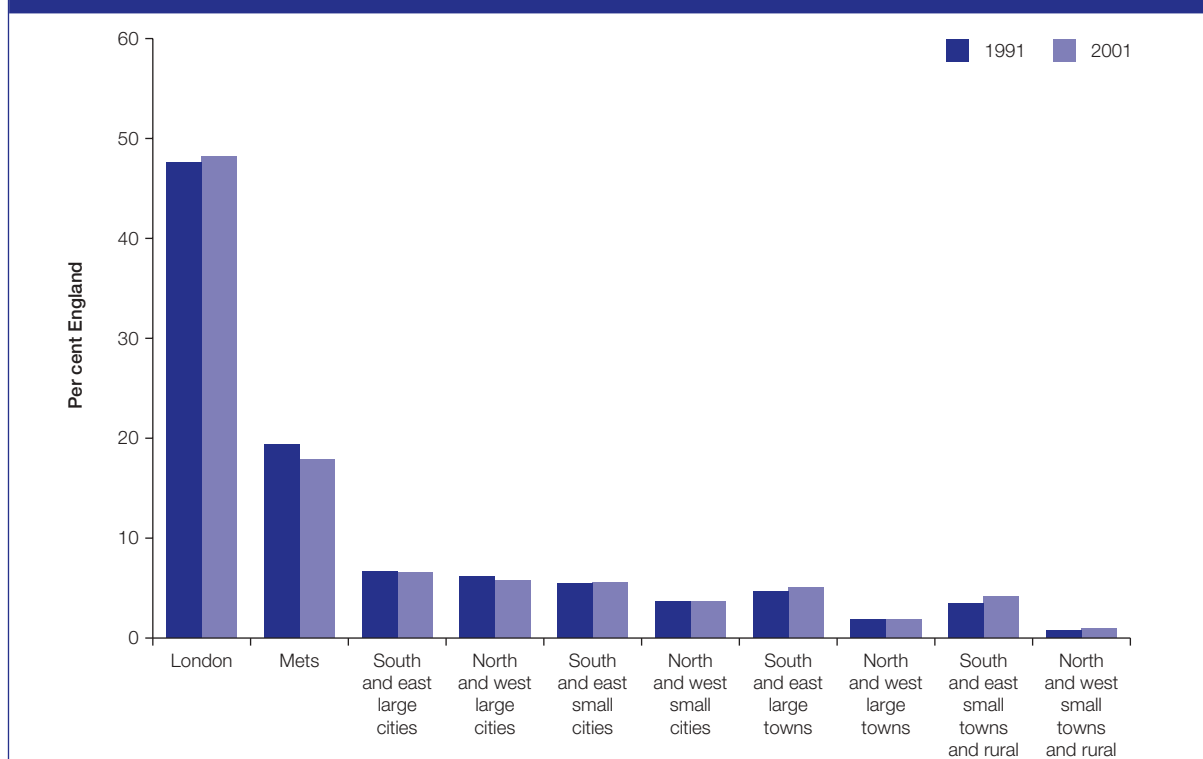
Figure 6: 1991-2001 change in numbers of all, white and non-white residents



- 2.22 These 1991-2001 changes produced very little alteration in the distribution of the non-white population. In broad terms, the further down the urban hierarchy, the lower the proportion of non-whites, with the absolute difference in percentages becoming wider over time. For each city size group, the proportion continues to be higher in the south and east than the north and west, with least difference for the large cities type as Figure 7 shows. The biggest change is the cutback in the Mets' share. Meanwhile, London and the south and east's two non-city categories are the main gainers.

- 2.23 London’s dominance of England’s non-white population varies between ethnic group, accounting for 4 out of 5 of England’s Black Africans but only 1 in 5 of Pakistanis. London’s share of England’s Black Caribbeans has risen substantially, primarily at the expense of the six Mets but also of the large cities in both halves of the country. London also gained in its shares of Black Africans, Indians, Pakistanis and Bangladeshis.
- 2.24 In terms of absolute numbers of non-white residents recorded by the 2001 census, Birmingham comes second to London, with just over a fifth as many. Manchester, Leicester and Bradford are the others with over 100,000. These same five also led the table of absolute growth over the previous decade, all with increases of over 20,000.
- 2.25 The vast majority of the 56 cities’ non-whites are concentrated in a small number of the cities as Figure 7 shows, although the degree of concentration varies between ethnic groups. A few of the 56 cities have particularly high representations of certain ethnic group members – Leicester and Blackburn with Indians making up over 10% of their residents, Bradford, Burnley and Rochdale with Pakistanis making up over 10% of residents. Luton has the highest proportion of Bangladeshis in its population, Cambridge and Oxford the highest proportion of Chinese.
- 2.26 Some of the 15 cities with the highest proportion of non-white residents in 2001 appear to have that proportion made up very largely of just one of the six minority groups identified here. This includes notably Bradford, Burnley and Rochdale in terms of Pakistanis, and Leicester, Coventry, Bolton and Preston in terms of Indians. Some of the cities have two large non-white groups, notably the Indians and Pakistanis in Blackburn, Birmingham, Huddersfield, and Derby. Other places are more mixed in their non-white composition, including London, Luton and especially Oxford. To an even greater extent, it is commonly a single group that dominates the non-white population growth of individual cities. Virtually all of Bradford’s increased non-white presence was due to the growth in the Pakistani proportion, as it was too for Burnley and Rochdale. Indians dominated the non-white growth of Preston and Leicester. London’s non-white growth was dominated by Black Africans.

Figure 7: Distribution of England’s non-white population 1991 and 2001



CHAPTER 3

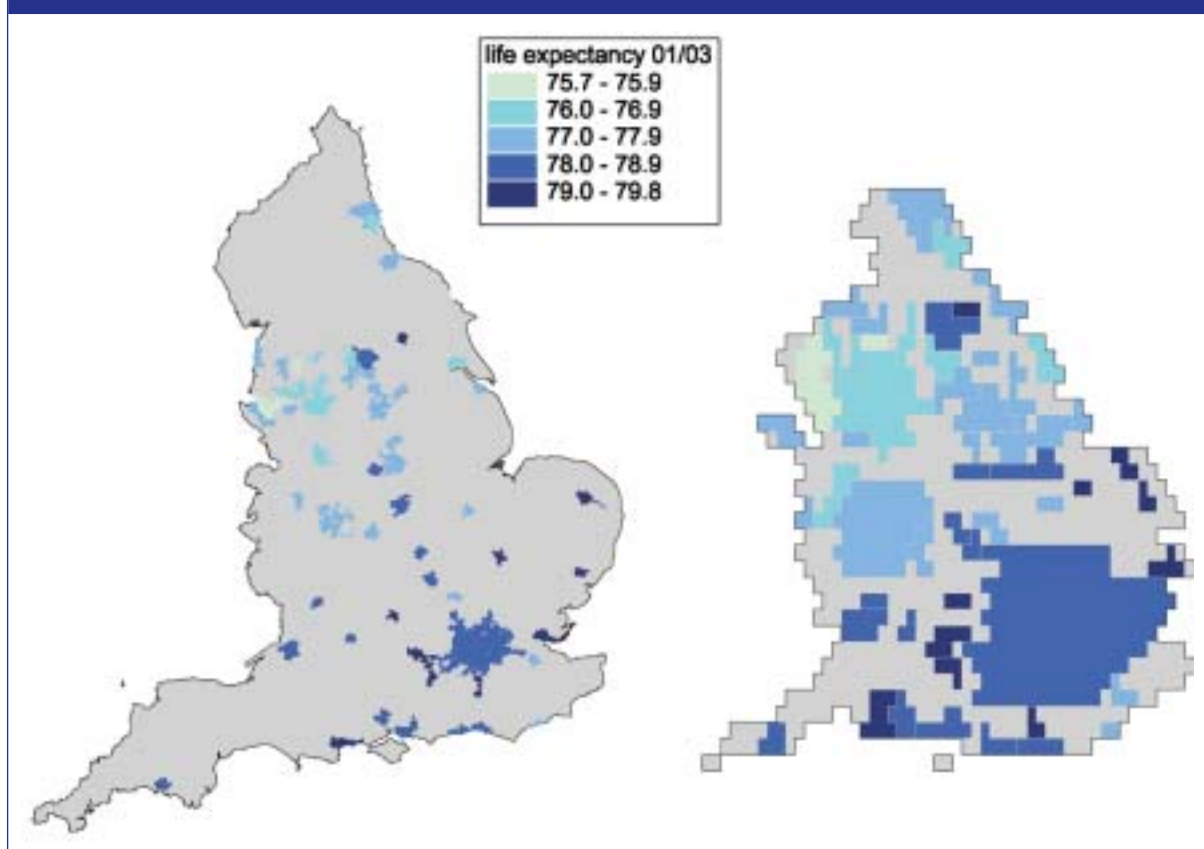
SOCIAL COHESION IN CITIES

3.1 The SOCR is currently collecting a large range of indicators for a number of spatial levels over different time periods. This section cannot do justice to what the final report will finally contain. Here we represent some headlines facts about a set of critical variables. As with the demographic analysis this focuses upon Primary Urban Areas only and makes comparisons between them rather than within them. In this section we report the position of the 56 PUAs on five key indicators:

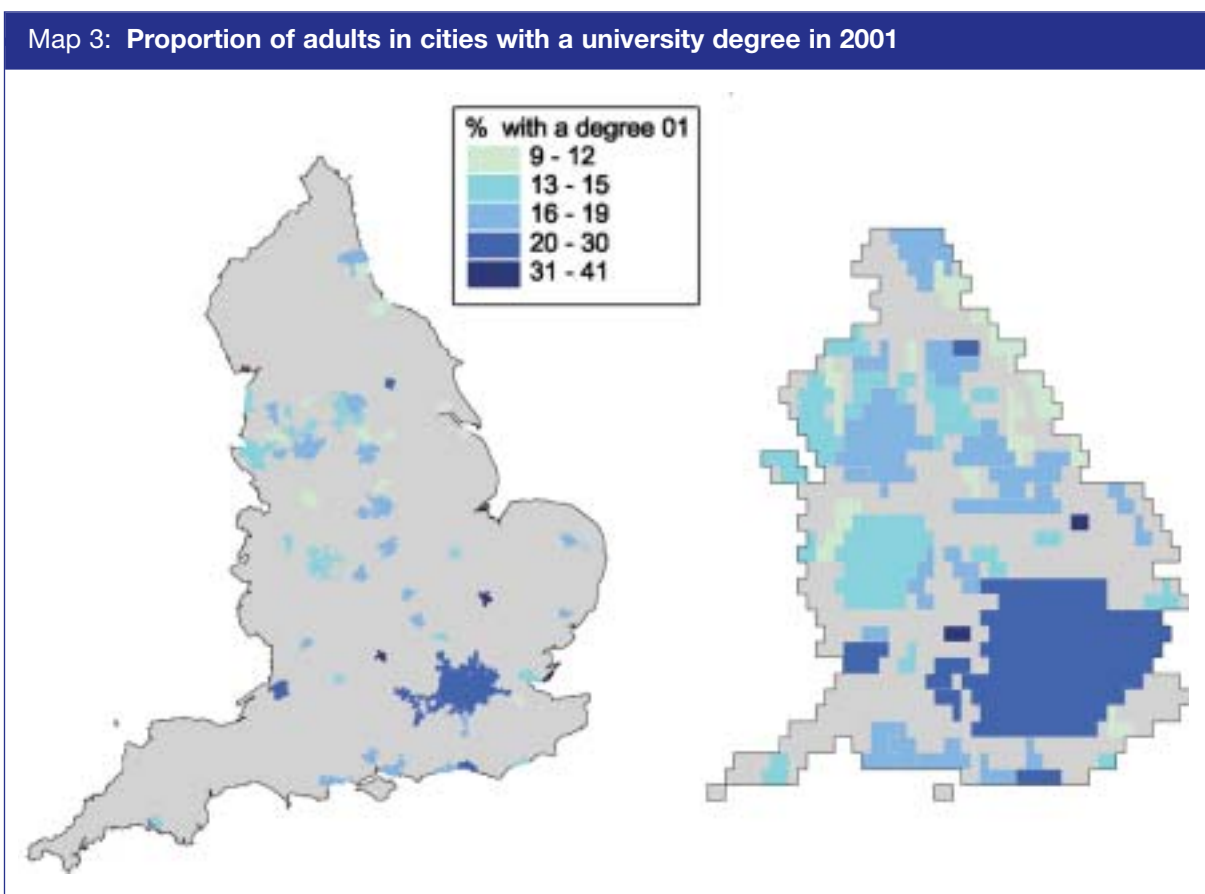
- Health – measured life expectancy and changes in life expectancy.
- Education – the proportion of adults with a degree and changes in that proportion.
- Employment – working age adults collecting benefits associated with worklessness.
- Poverty – average household income and changes.
- Housing – the average housing price and changes in that average price.

Both conventional maps and a ‘Tetris’ population cartogram of cities are presented in this section. On the conventional map the extra-urban boundary of each city is shown, but many cities appear as specks. On the ‘Tetris’ map, each city is presented as the collection of tracts which constitute it on a rough population cartogram of the country.

Map 2: Life expectancy in English cities 2001-2003

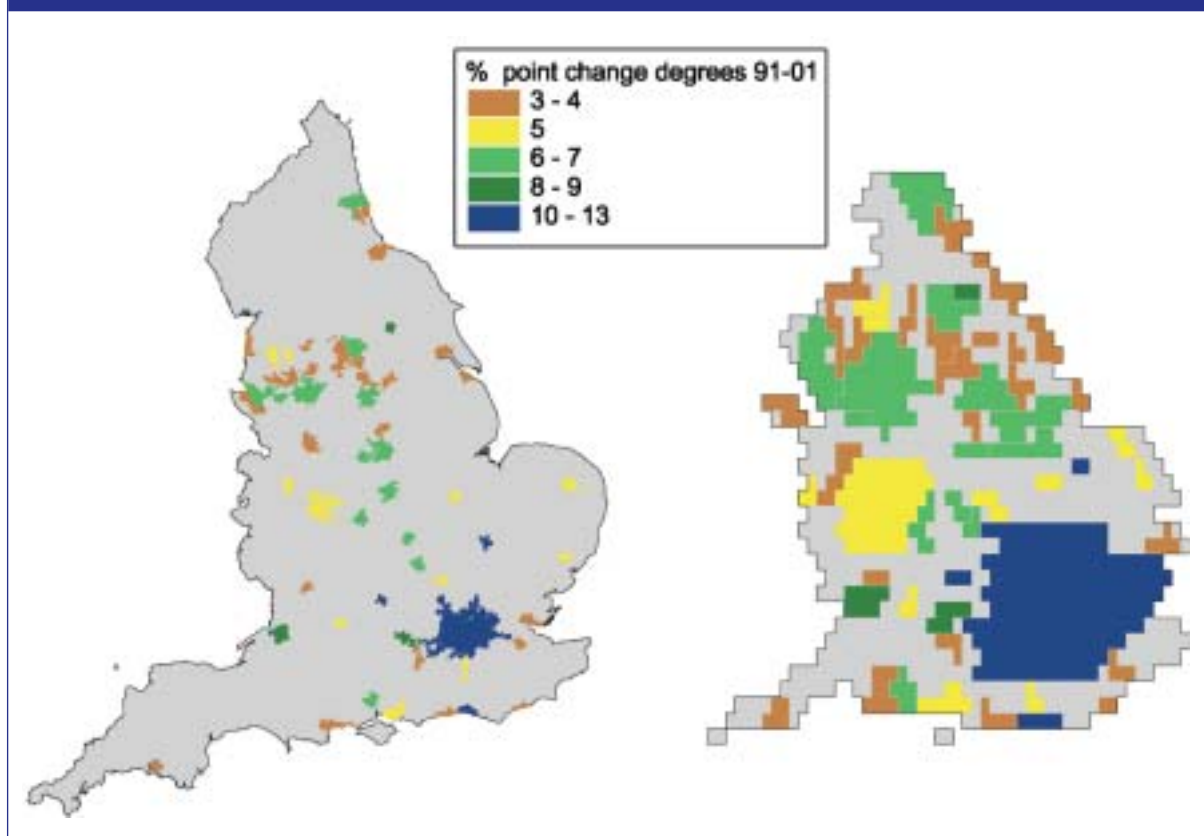


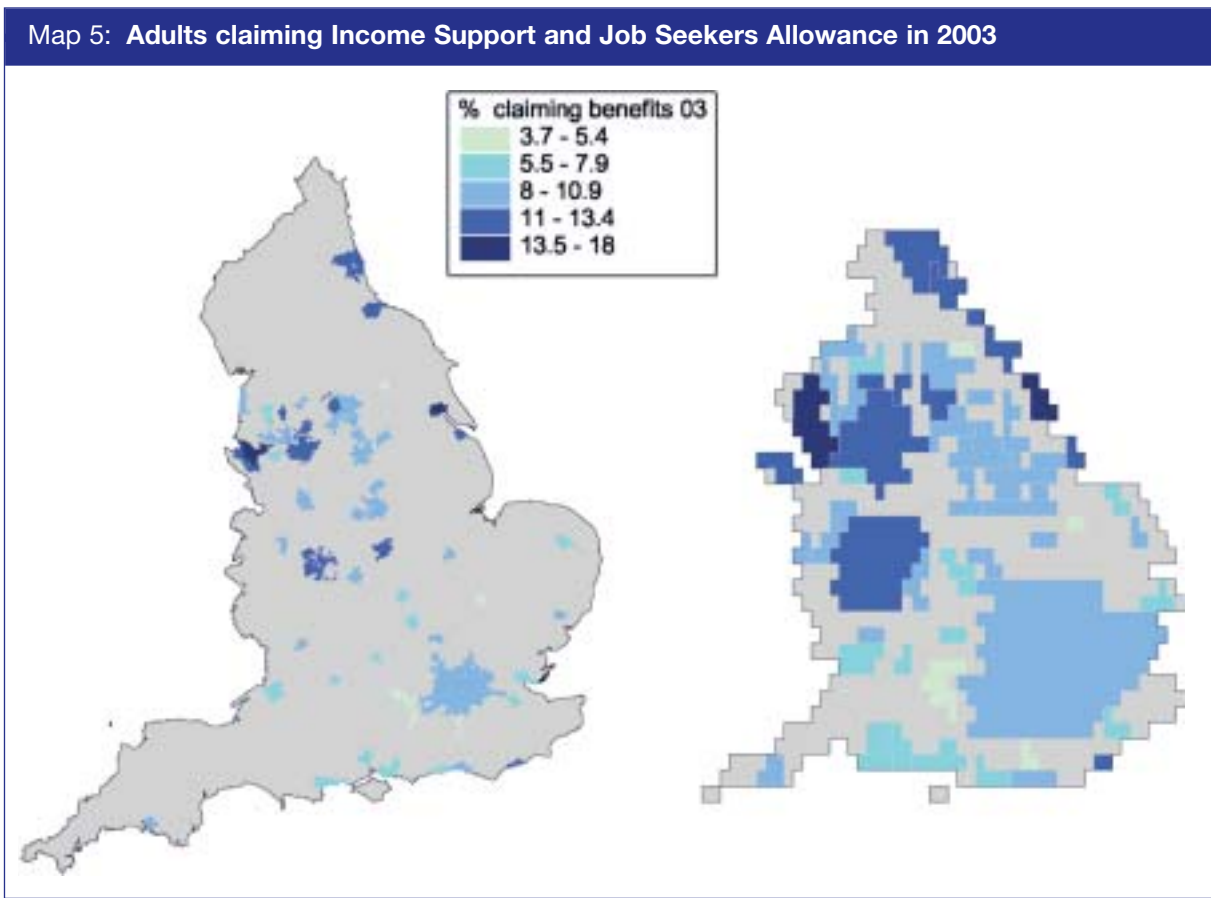
- 3.2 The figures presented on the maps above are population-weighted averages. They are estimates of how long the population dying in the years 2001-3 could have expected to live, not of how long current populations can expect to live. The map shades cities so that those with life expectancies in the same year of age are shaded the same colour. Thus those cities where residents, on average, currently live for three score years and nineteen are all shaded dark blue. What does it tell us?
- 3.3 First there is a big gap between cities. Life expectancy in England is highest in Norwich at 79.8 years and lowest in Liverpool at 75.7 years. Second there are clear regional differences with a clear north and west/south and east gradient to life expectancy in England. The only significant anomalies to this gradient in the north are York, with an average life expectancy of 79.4 and Leeds with 78.2. York sits in a vale of relative affluence in the north and so its exception is perhaps of little surprise. The figure for Leeds is partly the result of the conurbation not being as extensive as, for instance, that of Manchester in population. If its neighbour Bradford with a life expectancy of 76.9 were included the map would look quite different.
- 3.4 Most measures of educational achievement relate to schoolchildren. Measures of the qualifications of all adults are only comparable over time for those with university degrees. Map 3 shows the proportions of adults qualified to this level in 2001 using data from the census. The highest proportions are found in Cambridge (41%) and Oxford (37%). The third city in this ranking is London with 30% of its adult population educated to degree level. Brighton (29%) is fourth, Reading (26%) fifth and Bristol and York (at 23%) sixth and seventh. At the bottom of this city league table lie Burnley, Chatham, Hull, Middlesbrough, Sunderland, Wigan, Doncaster, Stoke, Barnsley, Grimsby and Mansfield. This underlying difference in educational qualifications is an important feature of the relative competitiveness of places, as we shall see later.



3.5 Map 4 looks at changes over a decade. London ranks third, after Oxford and Cambridge mainly as a result of changes which took place in the 1990s. Its rise of an extra 13 adults in every 100 holding degrees by 2001 is matched only by Brighton and exceeds the rises of Oxford and Cambridge. The next four largest increases were recorded in Bristol, York, Reading and Leeds. The ten cities recording the lowest increase in degree level qualified adults (of 4% or less) are Wigan, Doncaster, Stoke, Barnsley, Birkenhead, Southend, Chatham, Hull, Grimsby and Mansfield. Only two of these ten are found in the south. The south does contain many other cities where growth in degrees has been relatively slow, but that is partly a function of how highly qualified the population already was in 1991 and in demographic changes where older people, less likely to hold a degree, having been increasing most in number. In contrast, where there has been above average-growth in the holding of degrees in the north this is mainly in cities with universities and may be partly a product of increases in postgraduate students, or graduating students staying in these areas for a few years. The overall picture is dominated by the recent increase in the flow of graduates to London, a flow that means that London comes to contain an ever growing proportion of the ever growing numbers of graduates each year.

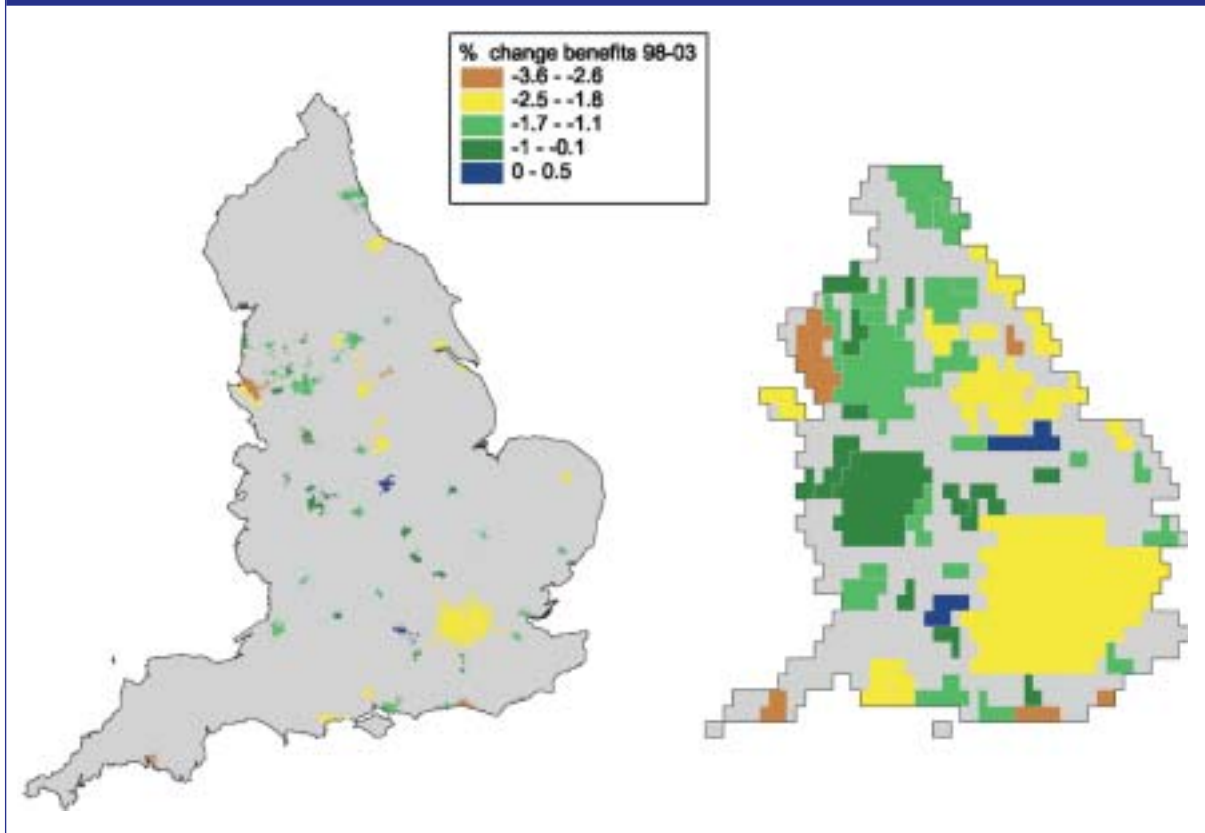
Map 4: Change in proportion of adults in cities with a university degree 1991-2001





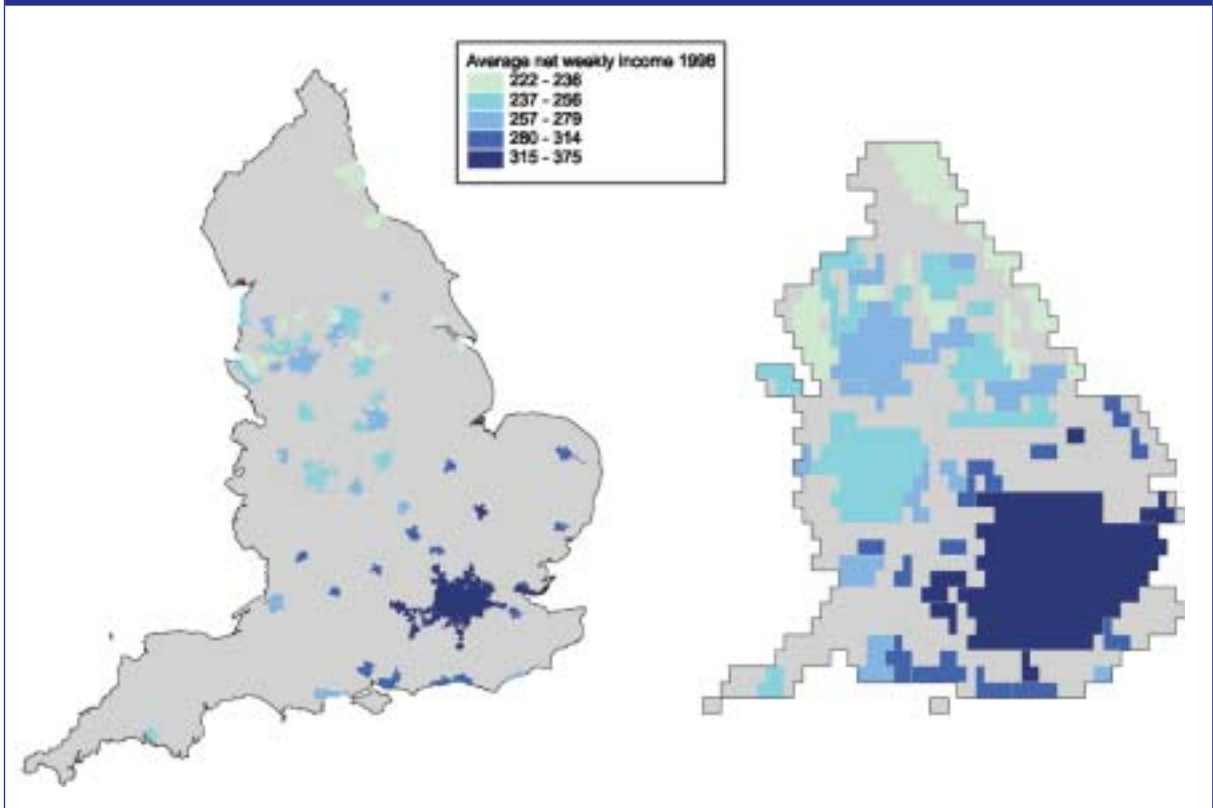
- 3.6 Map 5 shows the proportions of adults of working age claiming Income Support or Job Seekers Allowance in August 2003. The combination of these two benefits provides one of the longest reliable time series available for small areas. By the middle of 2003, 18% of the working age population of Liverpool and 17% of that population of Hull were claiming these benefits. The next four cities with the highest claimant rates, all of 13% of their adult populations, were Birmingham, Hastings, Newcastle and Middlesbrough.
- 3.7 Other cities with more than 11% their working age populations living on these benefits include: Blackburn, Sunderland, Birkenhead, Rochdale, Manchester, Bradford and Grimsby. The figure for London is 10.3%. Rates below 6.5% of this population are found only in Aldershot, Reading, Cambridge, Crawley, Oxford, Worthing and in the north, York. We have not included people on disability and other health-related benefits, which both further inflates these numbers and reinforces the patterns shown above. There have been significant falls in unemployment as formally measured in the years immediately prior to 2003. To understand how these falls have affected the populations of these cities we need to turn to falling or rising rates of workless-related benefit claims.

Map 6: Change in adults claiming Income Support and Job Seekers Allowance, 1998-2003



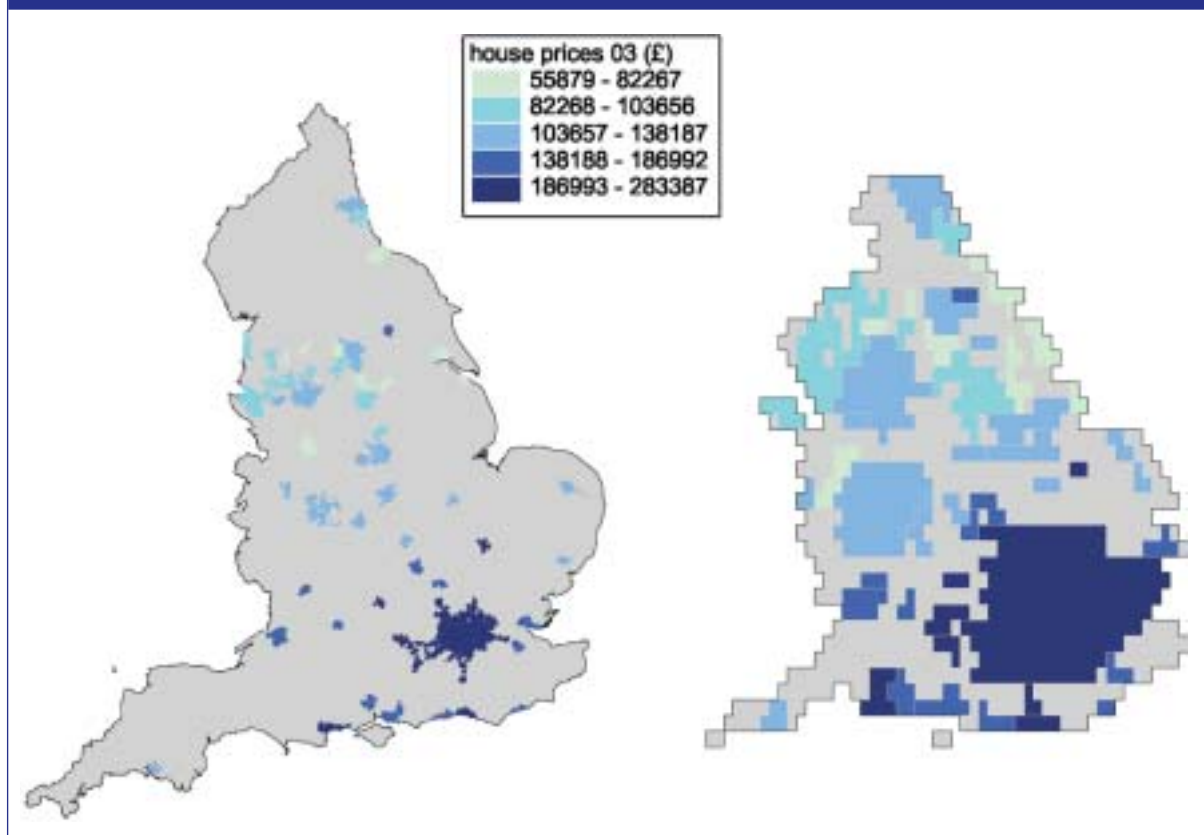
- 3.8 Map 6 shows the change in the proportion of working age adults claiming Income Support or Job Seekers Allowance between August 1998 and August 2003. In almost all places this proportion has fallen and by most where it was highest in Liverpool – by 3.6%. The other fastest falls have been along the south coast, followed generally by northern cities east of the Pennines. However, worklessness-related benefit claiming has not fallen everywhere during this period. It rose slightly in Leicester for instance. Changes in benefit claiming from 1998 are a little too complex to simply describe as a regional pattern – but there are clear regional clusterings of cities on the maps above.

Map 7: Average household net income equivalised after housing costs in 1998



3.9 Map 7 shows the distribution of average income using income after taxes, allowing also for housing costs and equivalised to take into account the differing compositions of households in different areas. The four highest average household incomes by this measure are £375 a week in Aldershot, £360 in Reading, £352 in Cambridge and £341 in London. Housing costs and the different sizes of households have been taken into account and thus the results show real disposable income differences. The lowest average weekly incomes, all below £230 a week are found in Middlesbrough, Burnley, Hull, Liverpool, Sunderland and Barnsley. York's average income at £260 is high for the north but not at levels regularly seen in the south. It is equal to Hastings' average, one of the lowest in the south but still higher than almost anywhere in the north. Average incomes in Manchester at £262 a week are relatively high with affluent enclaves largely accounting for this.

Map 8: Average equivalised housing price by city in 2003



3.10 Map 8 uses information from the 2001 census on the types of dwelling in each city and from the land registry of all market sales in the last full year of sales (2003), to produce a weighted average of housing prices for each city. The result is the average price of housing, for the equivalent of the national average dwelling, in each city. By 2003 the most expensive cities to purchase housing in were, in descending order of their average housing price: London (£283,387), Oxford (£255,181), Cambridge (£244,862), Aldershot (£238,991), Bournemouth (£214,296) Brighton (£212,361), Reading (£211,794) and Crawley (£205,506). Although London heading the list will not come as a surprise it should be noted that this is the average again for all of London.

3.11 Average housing prices by 2003 remained below £100,000 in: Huddersfield, Preston, Sheffield, Birkenhead, Mansfield, Rochdale and Sunderland; below £90,000 in Bolton, Wigan, Liverpool, Doncaster and Middlesbrough; between £70,000 and £80,000 in: Barnsley, Stoke, Grimsby, Bradford, Hull and Blackburn; but were lowest, by a wide margin: at only £55,879 in Burnley. By the end of 2003 the sale of an average property in London would purchase 5 properties in Burnley. Also, York has the highest average housing price in the north (£147,513) and Plymouth, furthest from London in the south, has the lowest average price there (£118,978).

Poverty and exclusion in urban areas

3.12 This section presents data on aspects of poverty and exclusion through a re-analysis of the Index of Deprivation 2004. The analysis has been undertaken on a fine-grained scale – the Standard Output Area (SOA), which are linked to Census wards. It focuses on the incidence of the most deprived 10% and the least deprived 10% of areas in England.

3.13 Five figures summarise the analysis. Figure 8 presents an overall summary of all the seven ‘domains’ of deprivation. Figure 9 focuses on the employment domain, which includes the proportion of people on unemployment and inactive benefits. Figure 10 concentrates on education and skills, including educational attainment, school attendance and qualifications among the adult workforce. Figure 11 is concerned with health, including mortality, emergency admissions and adults suffering stress. Figure 12 focuses on the living environment, including housing conditions, air quality and pedestrian traffic accidents.

3.14 Taken together, these figures show:

- Cities in the north and west have a disproportionate share of the most deprived neighbourhoods in England.
- In particular, conurbations and large cities in the north and west typically have more than twice their fair share of the poorest areas.
- Cities in the south and east have a slightly higher share of the least deprived neighbourhoods in England than the average. They have less than their share of the most deprived areas.
- Towns and rural areas in the south and east typically have almost twice their share of the least deprived neighbourhoods in England. They have very few of the most deprived areas.
- One of the conclusions emerging is that regional location appears to be a very important factor distinguishing the most from the least deprived places.
- City size also appears to be important, although London belies the general pattern.

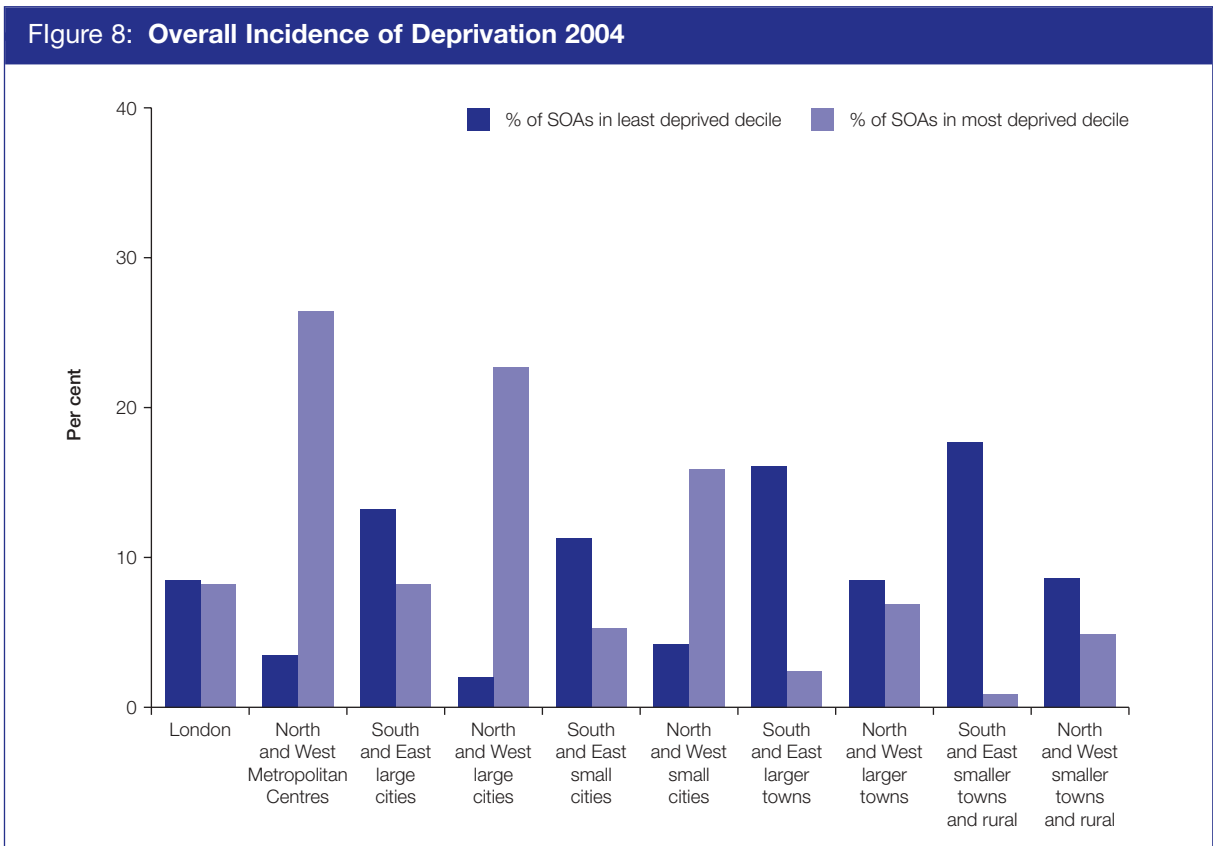


Figure 9: Incidence of Employment Deprivation 2004

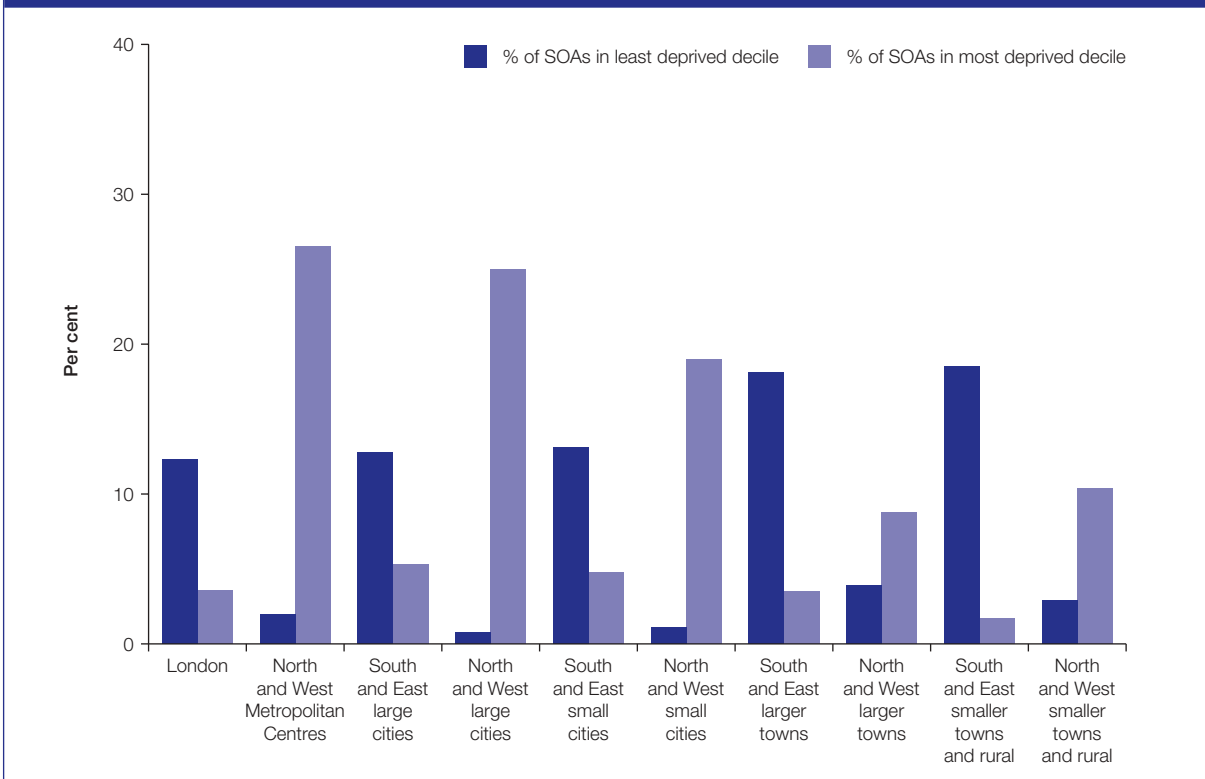
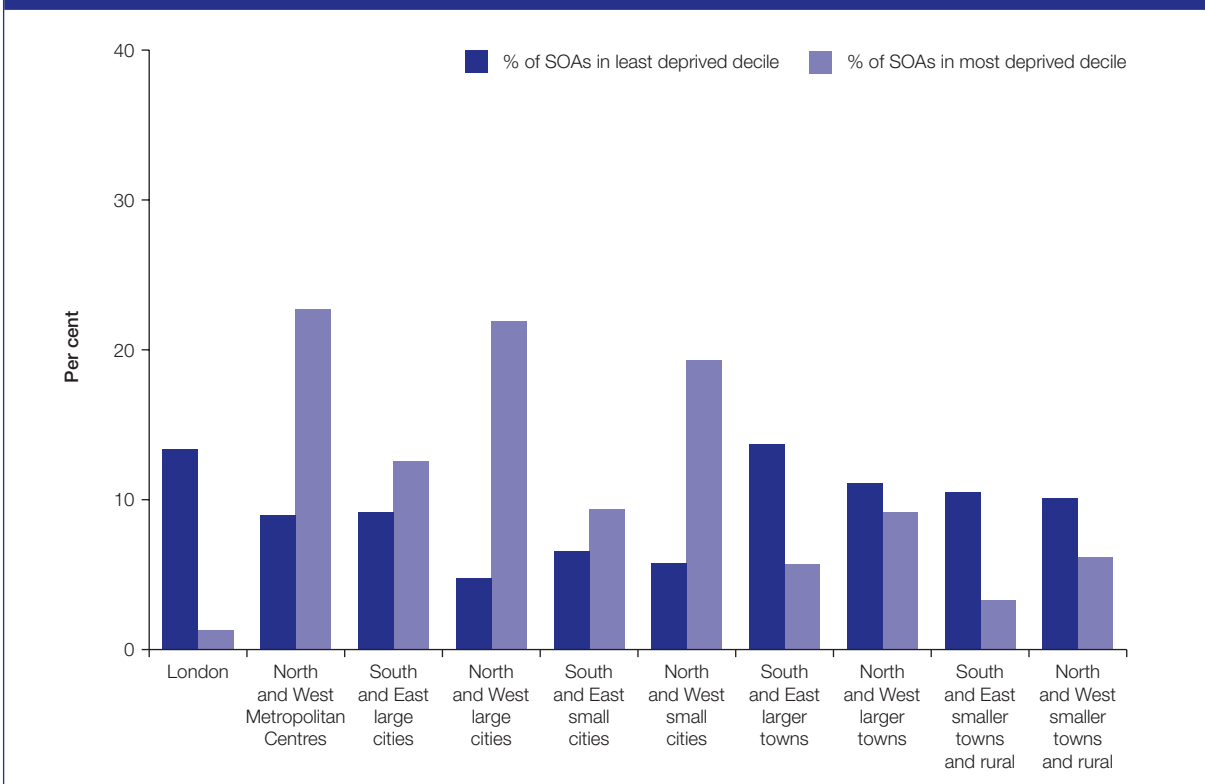
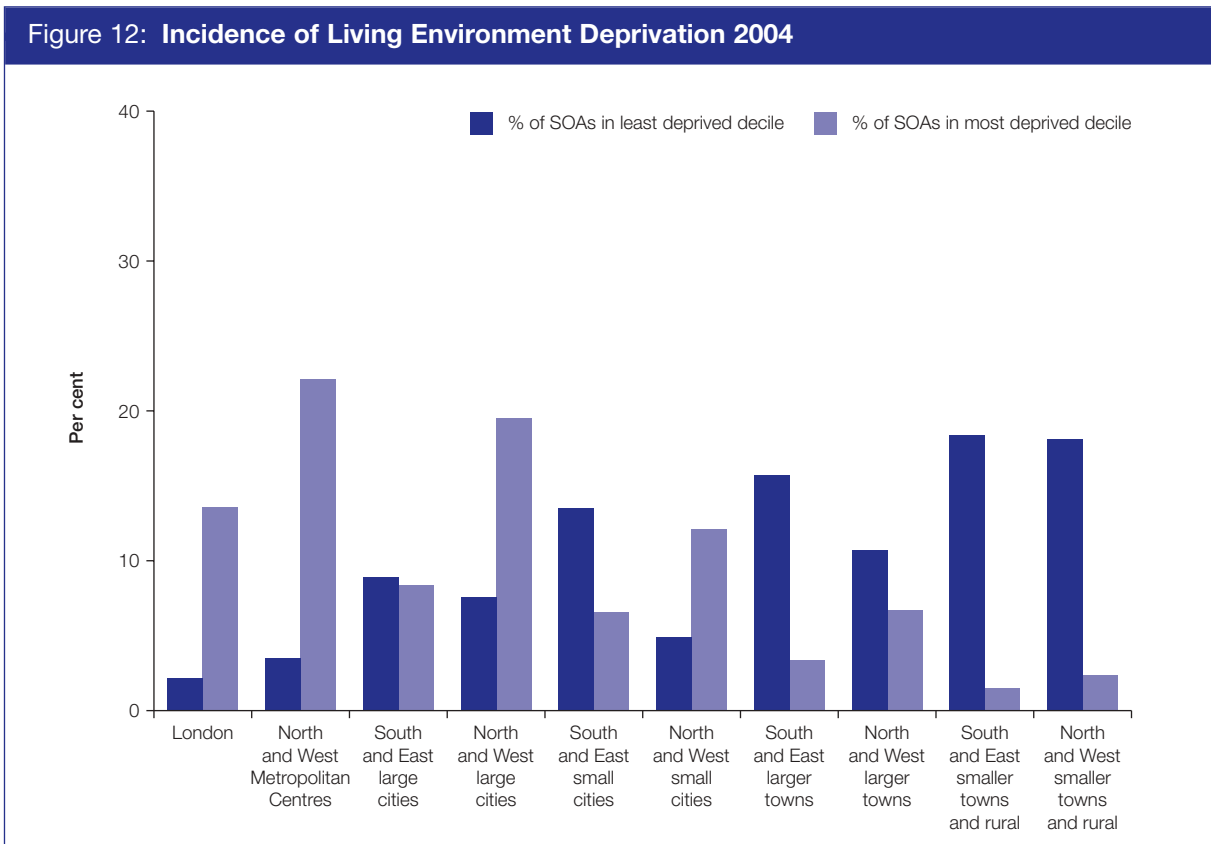
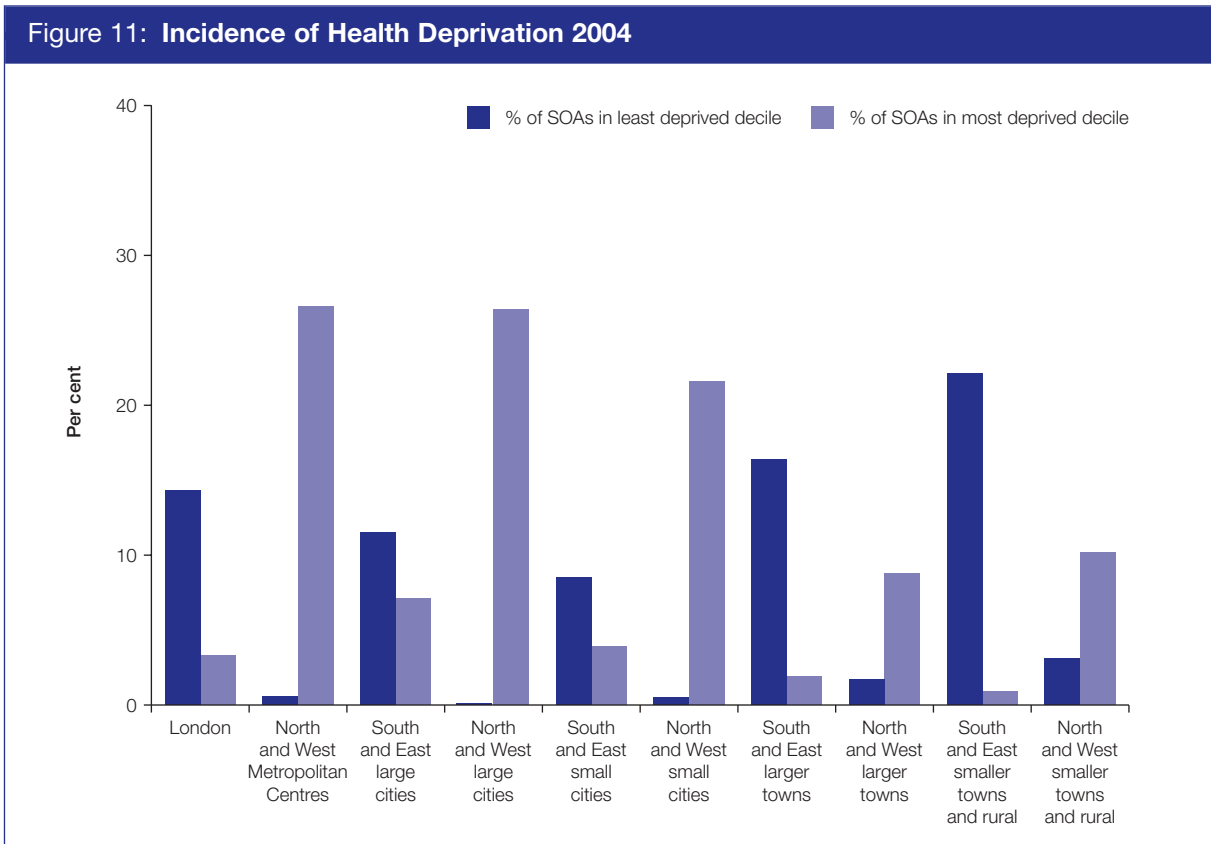


Figure 10: Incidence of Educational and Skills Deprivation 2004





Employment Rates

3.16 The employment rate is the single most important indicator of labour market conditions. This indicates the proportion of the working age population in paid work. Table 1 shows the employment rate for the six main categories of cities and the rest of England over the last decade, using the Labour Force Survey. Although cities in the south and east and non-urban England have consistently had the highest employment rates, the general trend everywhere has been one of improvement. London and the south and east achieved significant gains between 1994 and 2000. However, they fell back after 2000, where by contrast cities in the north and west continued to make progress after that date.

Table 1: Employment Rates in Different Areas, 1994-2003				
	1994	1997	2000	2003
London	68.2	71.3	72.7	71.5
6 Metropolitan centres	66.1	68.3	69.8	70.6
South and east large cities	72.0	75.1	77.5	76.6
North and west large cities	67.1	68.7	70.0	71.6
South and east small cities	73.7	74.8	78.2	77.2
North and west small cities	70.5	70.7	74.4	74.6
Rest of England	75.2	77.3	78.5	78.5

CHAPTER 4

ECONOMIC COMPETITIVENESS AND PERFORMANCE OF CITIES

4.1 This section presents some preliminary findings on the work assessing the economic competitiveness and performance of cities. Since an analysis of competitiveness is best undertaken at a wider spatial level, this is focussing upon city-regions defined upon Travel to Work Areas. It also adds an extra dimension to the standard database. The SOCD is collecting data for 56 TTWAs, in which the core PUA has a population of over 125,000. That data will be available for analysis and inspection. This part of the work is attempting to see whether cities below the standard SOCD size threshold have any economic advantages. It is therefore looking at 12 cities which are smaller than those in the SOCD. They were selected so that they:

- all had populations above 75,000;
- are the urban cores of their 1998 TTWAs;
- had GVA related directly to the TTWA not surrounding county.

This selection of 54 contains most of the SOCD's larger urban areas including: London, all of the north and west metropolitan centres and most of their large cities, all the south and east's large and most small cities, samples of the south and east and the north and west's larger towns.

4.2 Here we present evidence on two key aspects of economic performance – labour productivity measured by GVA per employee and visible exports. Figure 13 shows the English cities in our sample with labour productivity, as measured by Gross Value Added (GVA) per employee greater than the average for England as a whole. Apart from London the highest labour productivity is found in the south and east small cities and larger towns like Aldershot, High Wycombe, Oxford and Reading. There are no cities in our sample further north than Derby or further west than Swindon, which have labour productivity higher than the average for England as a whole.

4.3 Figure 14 shows the other side of the coin demonstrating that 12 of the 14 lowest performers are in the north and west.

Figure 13: Cities with greater than English Average GVA per employee 2001

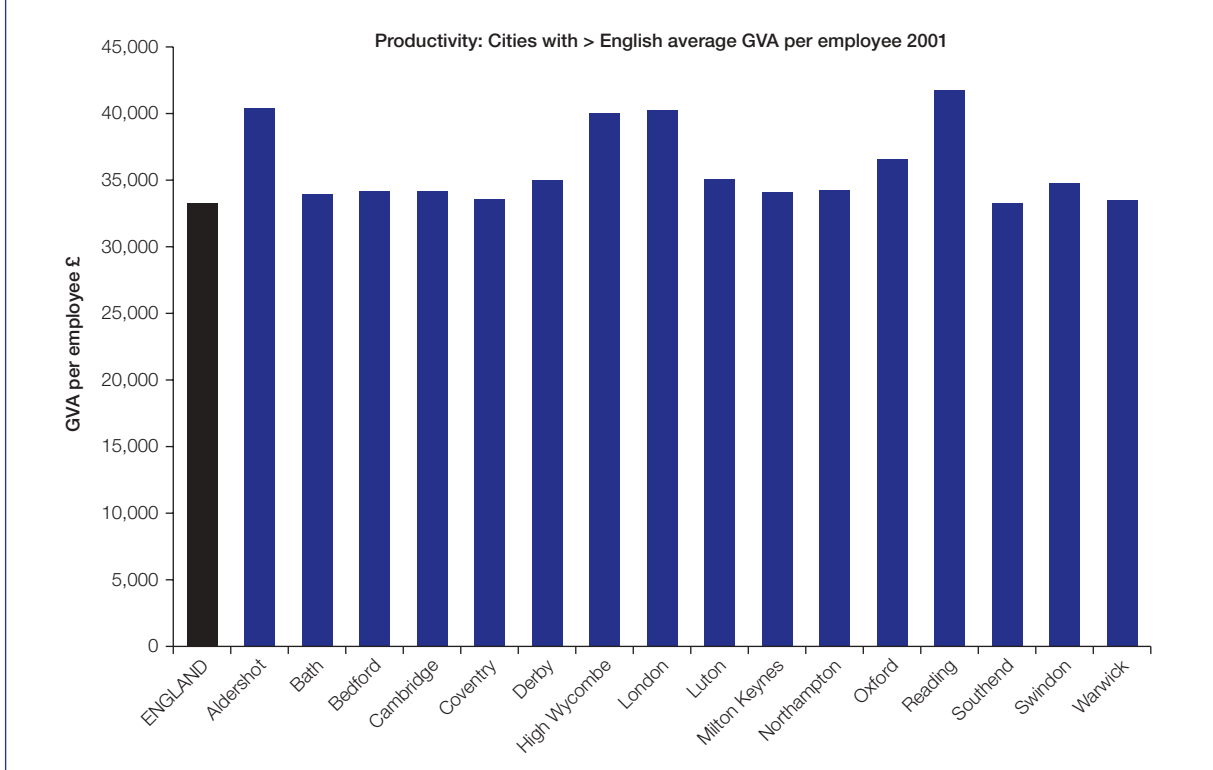
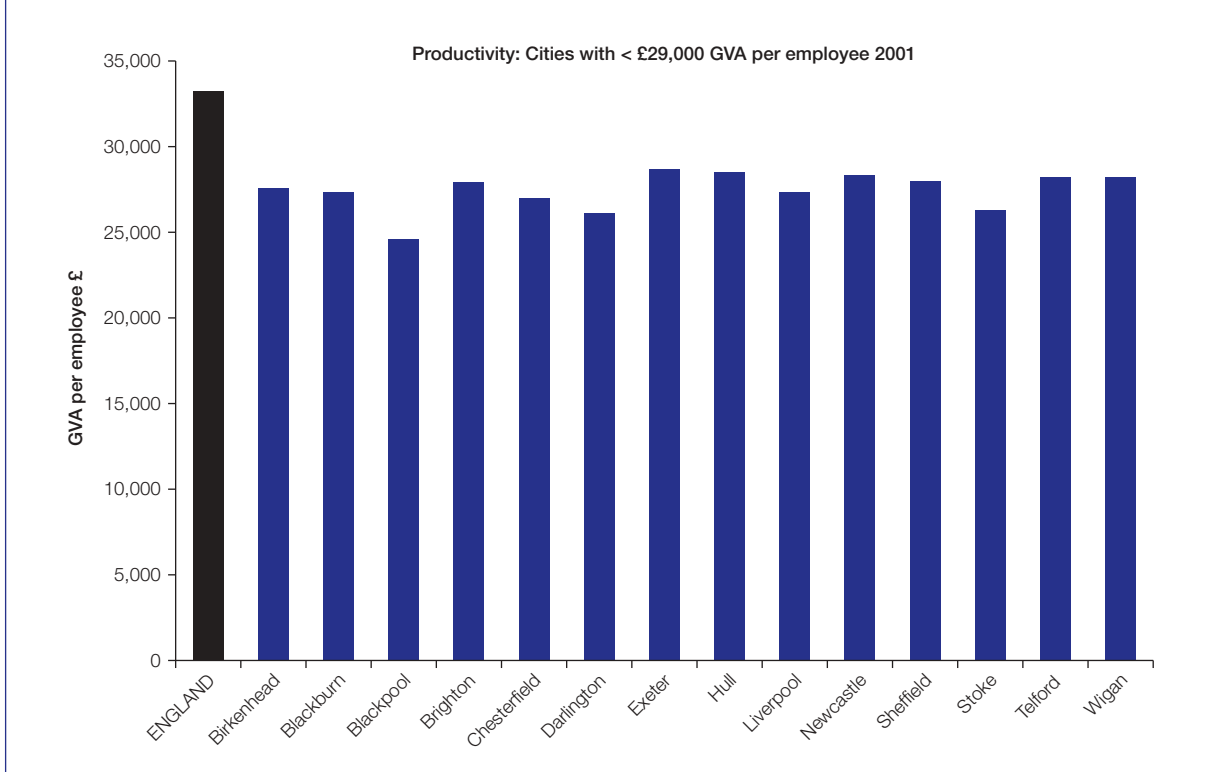
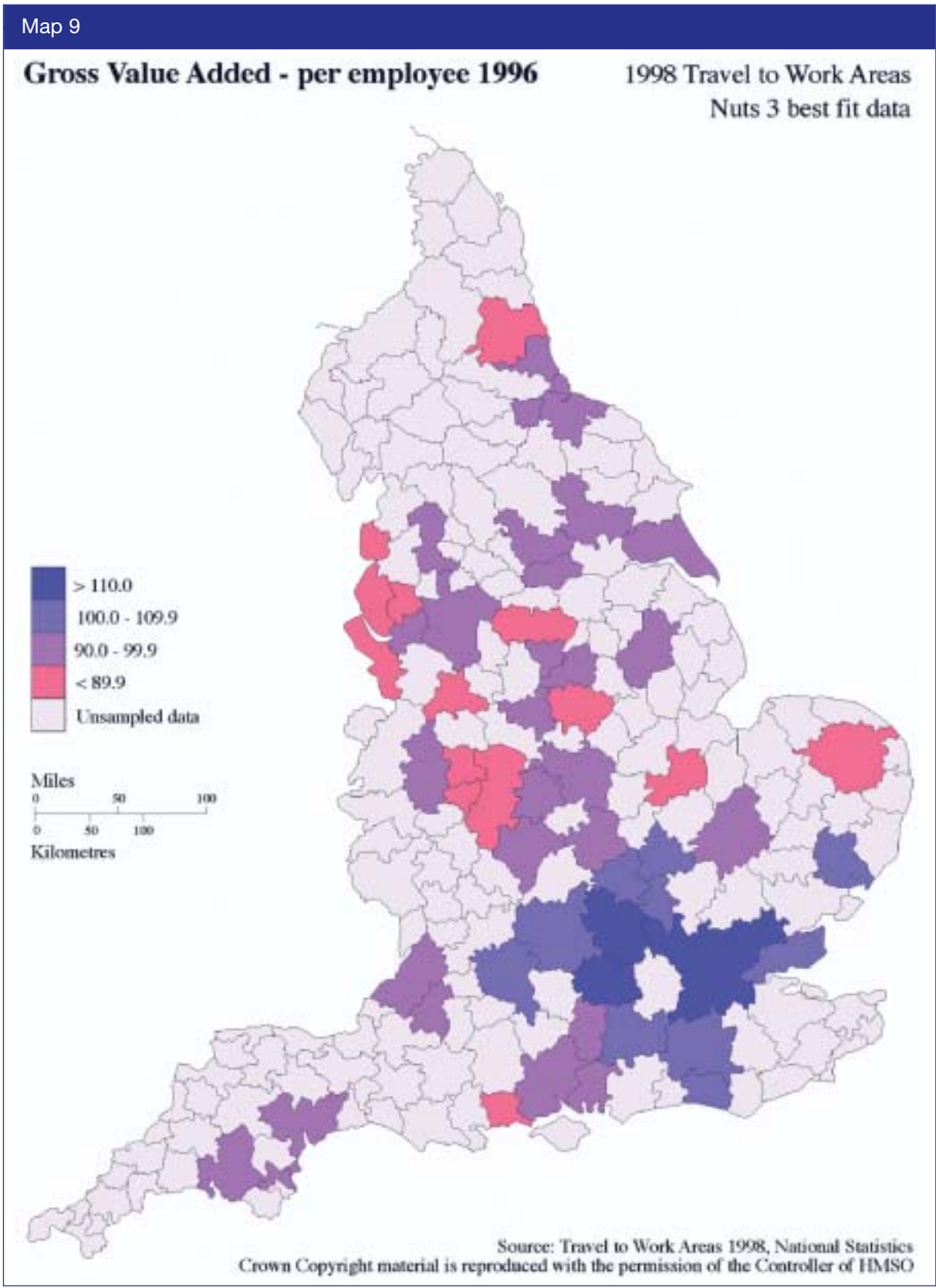


Figure 14: Cities with lowest GVA per employee 2001

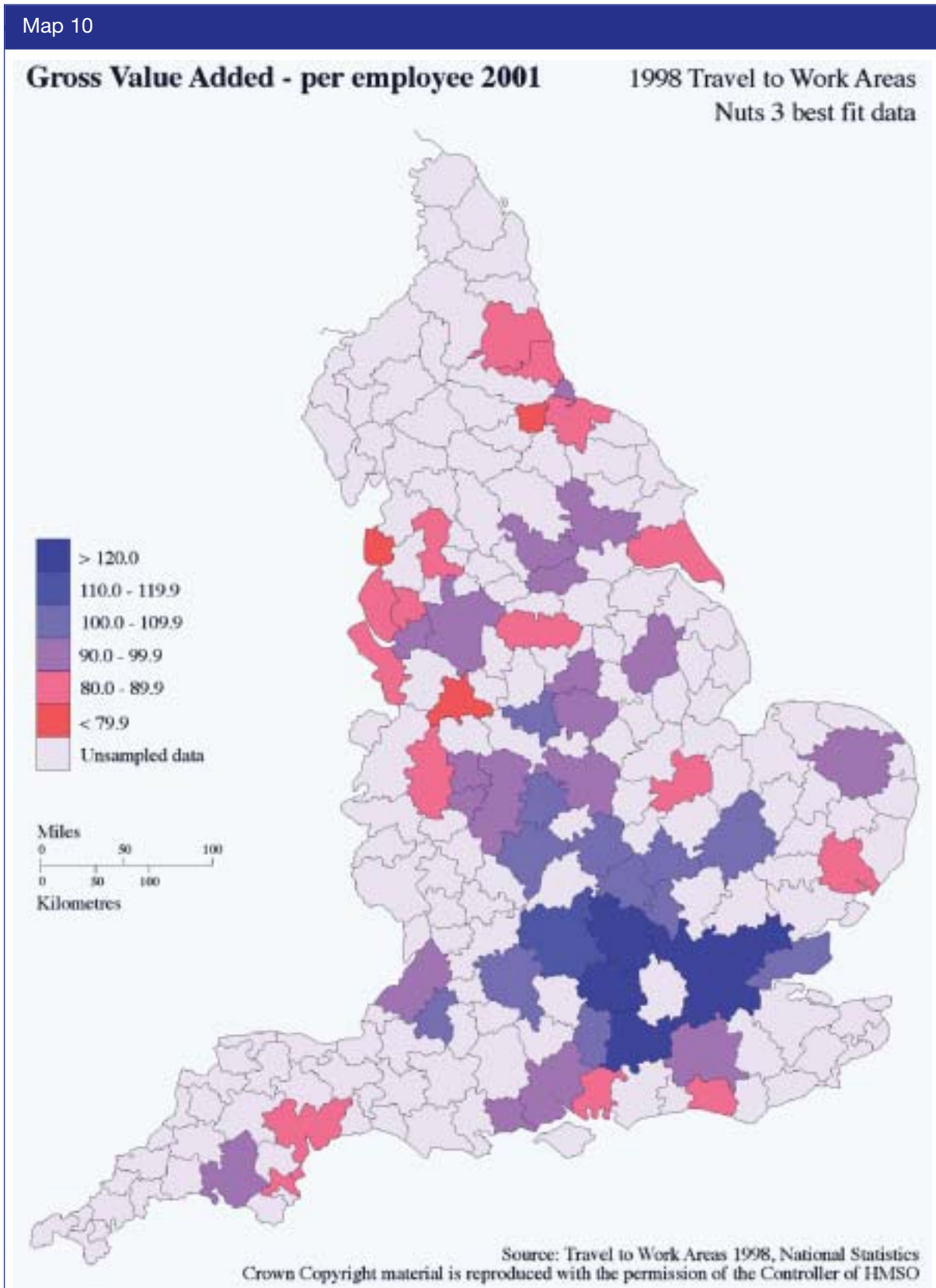


4.4 Maps 9 and 10 show the gross value added per employee for all 54 city-regions in our sample compared with the average for England as a whole for 1996 and 2001. The average for England has been calculated as 100. The different colours show the percentage of variation around this average. Blue shows above average GVA per

employee and pink and red show below average performance. The maps may be compared to indicate changes taking place during this relatively short period. In both years the highest GVA per employee was produced in and around London and the urban economies of the Home Counties. Beyond that region there were few cities that performed better than the national average. In marked contrast most of the cities in the southwest, west and north of England returned GVA per employee of less than the average for England as a whole.



Map 10



- 4.5 What factors explain this performance? We have found a significant correlation between labour productivity and quality of the workforce. Again, London, Reading, Aldershot, High Wycombe and also Bedford and Basingstoke all have both labour productivity and the proportion of graduates in their workforces above the average for England as a whole. Second, there is also a significant correlation between high labour productivity and the proportion of a city's workforce employed in a key group of producer services

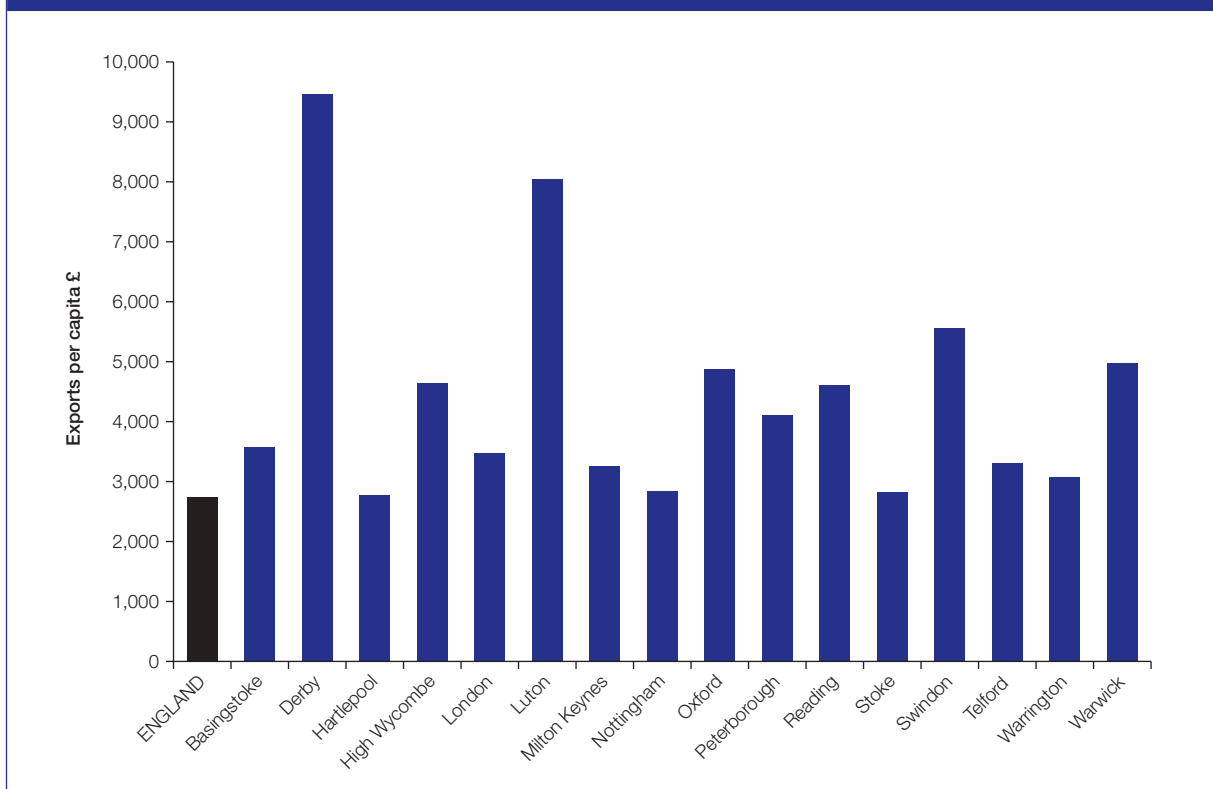
known as knowledge intensive business services (KIBS). The cities that are marked by both higher than the English average labour productivity and economic services KIBS are Reading, London, Aldershot and High Wycombe as well as Oxford, Luton, Cambridge, Northampton and Swindon. There is also a significant but weaker correlation between labour productivity and employment in the ICT sector.

- 4.6 Those cities that perform above the English average on both counts tend to be those that have strong specialisations in the manufacture of ICT equipment such as Reading, High Wycombe, Aldershot and Basingstoke or the manufacture or assembly of motor cars and their parts such as Swindon, Oxford, Warwick and Coventry. Derby also stands out for its specialisation in aero engines. Altogether only ten cities in our sample stand out as performing above the English average for both labour productivity and technological product and process innovation.

Exports

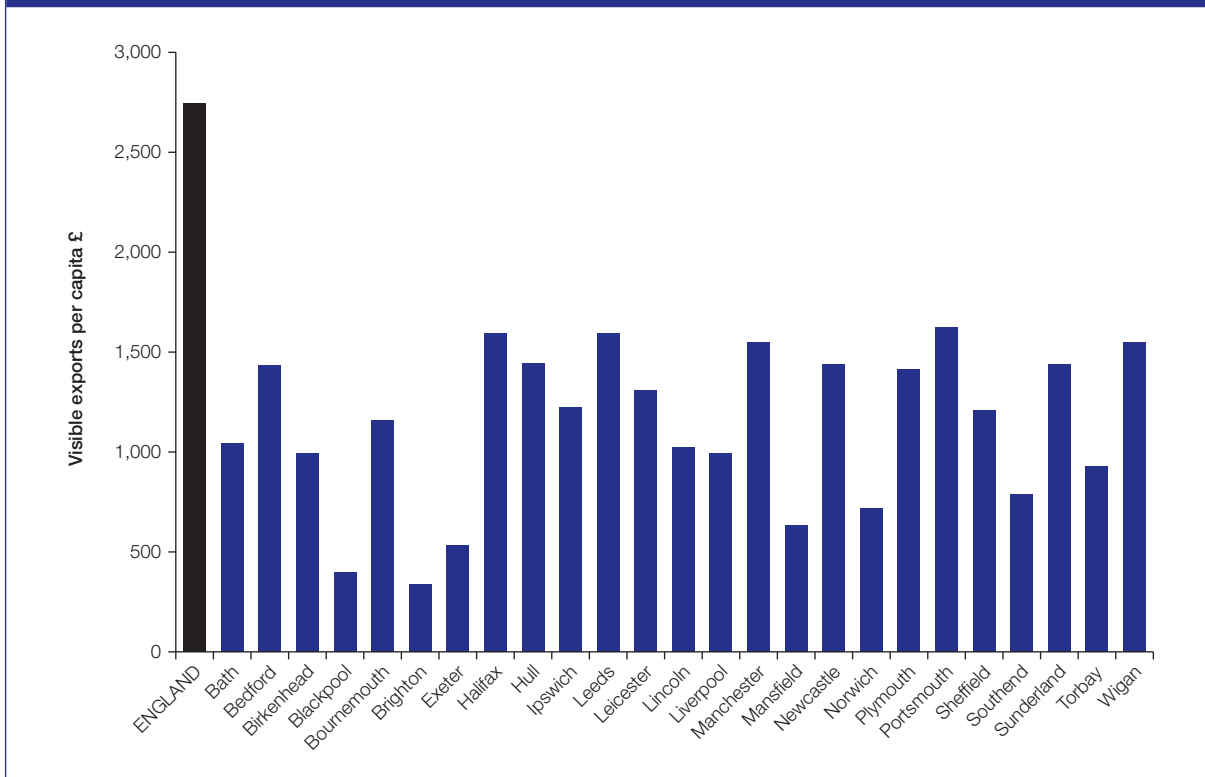
- 4.7 We use exports as our second main indicator of revealed competitive performance. Unfortunately we only have data for visible rather than invisible exports, which are probably more significant. Figure 15 shows the 16 cities in our sample that exported more visible manufactures than the English average in 2002. It emphasises the reliance in manufacturing of UK plc on aero engines from Derby, motorcars from Luton, Oxford, Swindon and Warwick, and ICT from Basingstoke and Reading. Despite its proportionately small manufacturing base London is also one of England's more successful exporters of manufactured goods.

Figure 15: Visible exports above English average to EU & non-EU countries 2002



4.8 There was, nevertheless, a strong relationship between visible exports and innovation in the economies of 11 of our city regions. These included the familiar cities of Derby, Luton, Swindon, Oxford, Warwick, Reading, High Wycombe, Peterborough, Telford, Milton Keynes and Basingstoke. Most of these cities have either been associated for some considerable time with particular manufacturing specialisations or have developed them as part of their planned development as new or expanded towns. The contribution of the new and expanded towns to innovative manufacturing exports is quite striking. Figure 16 shows the cities which are performing least well.

Figure 16: Visible exports Cities with less than 60% of English average 2002



CHAPTER 5

PUBLIC ATTITUDES IN AND TOWARDS CITIES

5.1 This section is based on preliminary analysis of the British Social Attitudes Survey of over 3,000 residents. It presents data from the 2003 Survey around four broad themes: social exclusion, connectivity, liveability and politics and governance. Since the BSA sample size is limited, it is not possible to present evidence about individual urban areas. Primarily it allows us to explore differences between cities and towns and rural areas and between different regions. Again because of sample size the evidence is presented in a slightly compressed version of our more general typology namely:

- London
- Cities in the south and east
- Cities in the north and west
- Towns and rural areas in the south and east
- Towns and rural areas in the north and west

5.2 What initial findings have emerged?

5.3 Social cohesion

Residential stability and mobility

5.4 Places vary in terms of their stability, mobility and social relationships. People in urban areas, particularly those in the south and east (including London) are the most likely to have moved into their neighbourhood comparatively recently. Nearly a third moved to their neighbourhood within the past five years, compared to 26% in non-urban parts of the south and east. There is also a clear regional pattern, with those in the north and west being the most likely to have lived in an area for a long time. 29% of people in urban parts of the north and west have lived in their neighbourhood for 28 years or more, compared with 22% of those in urban areas in the south and east.

Table 2: Length of time lived in neighbourhood

	London	N&W urban	S&E urban	N&W non-urban	S&E non-urban	All England
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Under five years	30	23	31	20	26	26
Between five and 14 years	29	20	24	24	27	25
Between 15 and 27 years	23	28	22	24	25	25
28 years or more	18	29	22	32	23	25
Base	436	666	435	421	809	2767

Friends, family and neighbours

5.5 Those living in the north and west are more likely than people in the south and east to live near to close friends or family. There are no differences between urban and non-urban areas. Given this, it is not surprising to find that people in the north and west are the most likely to see their relatives and family at least once a week. Nearly seven in ten in north and west urban areas do this, compared with six in ten in urban areas in the south and east – and just over five in ten in London. There is no notable geographic difference between north and west and south and east in the extent to which people would feel comfortable asking a neighbour for help. However, people in urban areas are less likely to feel comfortable than those in towns or rural areas. In urban areas in the south and east, for instance, 72% say they would feel comfortable asking a neighbour to pick up a prescription if they were too ill to do so themselves, as would 78% of those in non-urban areas in the south and east. Londoners tend to be the least comfortable about asking neighbours for help; only two thirds say they would feel able to ask a neighbour to collect a prescription.

Attachment to different areas

5.6 People in the north and west – whether in urban or non-urban areas – are marginally more likely than those in the south and east to feel a sense of regional attachment. This applies to eight in ten of those living in cities in the north and west, but only seven in ten in cities in the south and east. However, when considering attachment to the “local area”, people living in towns and rural areas are more likely than those in cities to feel closely attached. The lowest levels of attachment to the local area are found in London. There is little clear pattern in the degree to which people feel close either to England as a whole, or to Britain. But Londoners are the most likely to say that they feel closely attached to Europe.

Table 3: Attachment to different areas

	London	N&W urban	S&E urban	N&W non-urban	S&E non-urban	All England
% feel closely attached to	%	%	%	%	%	%
... local area	77	84	83	89	89	85
... region (defined as government office region)	77	80	71	78	70	75
... England as a whole	79	82	86	87	86	84
... Britain as a whole	80	80	83	83	81	81
... Europe as a whole	45	30	36	38	32	35
<i>Base (local area/GOR/England)</i>	576	893	581	544	1115	3709
<i>Base (Britain/Europe)</i>	297	453	308	278	581	1917

Racial prejudice

5.7 The most commonly expressed view in the BSA is that racial prejudice has increased over the last five years, and that it will continue to increase in the future. The most striking finding is about urban areas in the north and west. Over half of those living there think racial prejudice has increased over the last five years, considerably more than take this view elsewhere. This group are also more likely to think that prejudice *will* increase over the next five years, 57% doing so. Inhabitants of urban areas in the south and east (including London) are significantly less likely than their counterparts in the north and west to think that prejudice has increased, or that it will do so in the future. They are also less likely than non-urban areas in the south and east to take this view.

Table 4: Perceptions as to whether there is more racial prejudice now than was the case five years ago

	London	N&W urban	S&E urban	N&W non-urban	S&E non-urban	All England
	%	%	%	%	%	%
More now	35	53	41	44	44	44
Less now	23	18	20	21	21	21
About the same	39	26	36	32	31	32
Base	576	893	581	544	1115	3709

5.8 Cities in the north and west contain the highest proportion of people who describe themselves as being “very” or “a little” prejudiced against people of other races. This applies to just over a third. By contrast, those in non-urban areas in the north and west are the *least* likely to describe themselves as prejudiced in this way.

Table 5: Self-reported racial prejudice

	London	N&W urban	S&E urban	N&W non-urban	S&E non-urban	All England
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Very or a little prejudiced	29	34	31	27	32	31
Not prejudiced	70	65	68	72	66	67
Base	576	893	581	544	1115	3709

5.9 Connectivity

Transport

5.10 In all areas, the most common form of transport used on a daily basis is the car. The most distinctive finding in Table 6 is the high proportion of people in non-urban areas of the south and east who drive a car each day, or nearly every day. Six in ten people do so, compared with under five in ten people in every other area of interest. Far smaller proportions travel daily as a car passenger, although this applies to nearly one in five of those living in non-urban areas of the north and west.

5.11 The most distinctive pattern to emerge in relation to other modes of transport relates to London. Londoners are significantly more likely than any other group to walk for at least 15 minutes, four in ten doing so every day, or nearly every day. They are also markedly more likely to travel by bus on a daily basis, or by train. This is likely largely to reflect the availability of such forms of transport. For example, 51% of Londoners report having a train station within half a mile of their home, compared with 23% in north and west urban areas and 17% in south and east non-urban areas.

Table 6: Daily use of different modes of transport

	London	N&W urban	S&E urban	N&W non-urban	S&E non-urban	All England
% reporting travel every day or nearly every day	%	%	%	%	%	%
By car, as driver	36	42	44	45	60	47
By foot, 15 minutes walk	40	34	31	23	28	31
By car, as passenger	8	11	11	18	13	12
By bus	19	9	5	4	2	7
By train	11	1	4	1	1	3
By bicycle	4	5	7	3	5	5
<i>Base (all)</i>	<i>157</i>	<i>226</i>	<i>162</i>	<i>155</i>	<i>275</i>	<i>975</i>

5.12 Londoners were the most likely to have travelled by air in the previous year, nearly two thirds having done so (63%). This compares with 54% of people in north and west urban areas and 57% of those in urban areas in the south and east. There were no significant differences between different geographical areas or between urban and non-urban ones.

5.13 We also explored public attitudes to car use, taxes on motorists and willingness to build motorways. As with travel behaviour, Londoners have particularly distinctive attitudes. They are the least likely to agree with the view that driving is “too convenient” to give up, with just over a third agreeing, compared with around a half in other urban areas in England. They are also the most likely to agree with the minority view that car users should pay higher taxes to compensate for the damage caused by car use, 27% doing so. The least enthusiastic about higher taxation for car drivers are those in the north and west, irrespective of whether or not they live in an urban area.

Table 7: Daily use of different modes of transport

	London	N&W urban	S&E urban	N&W non-urban	S&E non-urban	All England
% agree	%	%	%	%	%	%
Driving just too convenient to give up	35	52	50	35	49	45
Car users should pay higher taxes	27	9	21	7	11	14
<i>Base</i>	<i>132</i>	<i>188</i>	<i>132</i>	<i>128</i>	<i>231</i>	<i>811</i>

Internet use

- 5.14 Just over a half of respondents make personal use of the internet, whether at home, at work or somewhere else. There are marked geographical and urban/non-urban variations. People in urban areas, particularly in the south and east, are the most likely to use the technology. For instance, six in ten in urban areas of the south and east (including London) make personal use of the internet, compared with only just over four in ten in urban areas of the north and west. These differences partly reflect differences in home access, which is more common in the south and east than in the north and west. They also reflect the different educational profiles of the areas, as internet use is significantly higher than average among graduates.
- 5.15 There are also regional and urban/non-urban variations in the extent to which people use the internet at work. The most likely group of workers to do this are in London (57%), followed by those in cities in the south and east (46%). The least likely are workers in urban areas of the north and west (39%).

Table 8: Internet access						
	London	N&W urban	S&E urban	N&W non-urban	S&E non-urban	All England
	%	%	%	%	%	%
% make personal use of internet	60	42	60	46	51	51
% with internet access in household	57	44	55	47	57	52
% ever uses internet for work*	57	39	46	40	44	45
<i>Base</i>	576	893	581	544	1115	3709
<i>*Base (all in work)</i>	237	315	264	219	438	1473

- 5.16 Home and work are the most common places where people access the internet, and this varies little across England, beyond the geographical variations in internet use at work already noted in the previous table. The exception to this is the internet café, which appears to be very much a south and east phenomenon; 14% in London use these to go on-line, compared with only 4% in cities in the north and west.

5.17 Politics and governance

- 5.18 Levels of interest in politics differ between the south and east and north and west. As Table 9 shows, while 38% of Londoners, and 33% of those in urban areas of the south/west have a great deal or quite a lot of interest in politics, this applies to only around a quarter of people in the north and west, irrespective of whether they live in urban or non-urban areas.

Table 9: Political interest

	London	N&W urban	S&E urban	N&W non-urban	S&E non-urban	All England
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Great deal/quite a lot	38	27	33	25	32	31
Some	28	31	35	34	36	33
Not very much/none	35	42	32	41	32	36
Base	576	893	581	544	1115	3709

5.19 It is also important to consider people's sense of their own political competence; that is, the extent to which they understand the political process and feel that, if they wished, they could try to influence government. We measure this by way of the three statements shown in Table 10. This confirms that levels of efficacy are higher in London than elsewhere. And, it also hints at an interesting regional divide, whereby those in the north and west have particularly low levels of faith in their own ability to understand and influence politics and government. For instance, nearly two thirds of people in urban areas of the north and west (63%) think that politics can be too complicated to understand, compared with 55% in London and 57% in south and east urban centres.

Table 10: Political efficacy

	London	N&W urban	S&E urban	N&W non-urban	S&E non-urban	All England
% agree	%	%	%	%	%	%
People like me have no say in what the government does	59	67	62	66	65	64
Voting is the only way that people like me can have any say about how the government runs things	58	65	64	63	66	64
Sometimes politics and government seem so complicated that a person like me cannot really understand what is going on	55	63	57	64	61	60
Base	576	893	581	544	1115	3709

Quality of life

5.20 People in urban areas are more likely than elsewhere to take a pessimistic view of their local primary and secondary schools, irrespective of geography. As Table 11 shows, 44% of Londoners think local secondary schools have got worse over the last few years, as do a third of people in other urban areas. In London, a quarter think secondary schools have improved, as do a third of those in other cities. By contrast, only a quarter of people in non-urban areas feel their local secondary schools have got worse over the last few years. The same pattern is evident in relation to primary schools, although far fewer overall (16%) feel that they have got worse than was the case with regard to secondary schools (rising to 26% in London)

Table 11: Views about local secondary schools						
	London	N&W urban	S&E urban	N&W non-urban	S&E non-urban	All England
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Got better	24	33	34	38	38	34
Got worse	44	34	34	26	26	32
Stayed about the same	31	33	33	35	36	34
<i>Base (all with opinion)</i>	<i>305</i>	<i>506</i>	<i>291</i>	<i>324</i>	<i>586</i>	<i>2012</i>

CHAPTER 6

POLICY ANALYSIS – EMERGING MESSAGES

- 6.1 So far the project has concentrated primarily upon the collection and analysis of quantitative data. However, the SOCR is also exploring the role of government policies in urban performance. It is not an evaluation of a particular set of policy instruments. Rather it is an attempt to identify what works and what does not in the perceptions of policy makers and recipients and to identify principles of successful policy intervention and implications for the future. It is doing so through a literature review, interviews with national and regional policy makers and in a series of case studies focusing upon cities with different economic and social challenges in different regions of England with different experiences of government policies.
- 6.2 This policy work is in its very early days. The literature review is continuing. Discussions with policy elites are being held. We have carried out fieldwork in 3 of our 12 cities – Manchester, Sheffield and Leicester. It is not possible to do justice to this material at this point let alone report conclusions. However we do provide some indications of the themes we are exploring and some early messages that have emerged.

6.3 The existing evaluation literature

- 6.4 This literature differs in origin, ambitions and achievements. It has some strengths. For example, there are an increasing number of government policy evaluation reports, including, very recently, more cross-cutting research. However there are some limitations. For example, the evidence is scattered, disparate, using different methodologies reflecting different perspectives. Many evaluations commissioned by government departments are narrow in scope. They tend to look at inputs and outputs from particular policy or Area Based Initiatives (ABIs) rather than crosscutting effects, interactions, and synergy. Although ABIs may superficially seem similar, often they have fundamentally different purposes, for example, experimentation, targeting, piloting. Therefore their degree of interest in spatial impact varies. Some evaluations are mainly about process not impact. The volume of evidence varies according to the spatial unit of analysis. Generally most data are available at a district or regional level but less so at neighbourhood or ABI level.
- 6.5 A review of the literature shows that during the last three decades, there have been many changes in government policy priorities and methods, which have flowed from differing ‘takes’ on five policy choices:
- The policy target: is it people or areas or both?
 - The policy mix: what is the right balance between economic, social and environmental interventions?
 - The funding criteria: should social need or economic opportunity determine priorities and money and what should be the balance between incentives and entitlements?
 - The players: what are the right roles and relationships for different tiers of government and public, private, voluntary and community organisations?

- The means: what is the right balance between competition and partnership and the best way of achieving an integrated approach to multi-faceted urban problems?
- 6.6 What kind of answers does the formal evaluation literature of government policies provide? The literature has strengths and weaknesses. In terms of strengths, there is a growing body of evidence about the impact of individual explicit urban policy interventions. The shift in government policy towards crosscutting strategies, which tackle mainstream policymaking as well as time-limited, area based measures, is improving the evidence base. However, only provisional findings from some current crosscutting research, for example the evaluation of Local Strategic Partnerships, are yet available.
- 6.7 However, there are also some limitations to the existing evaluation literature. The last major evaluation of urban policy overall was published a decade ago in 1994. That report did not attempt to look at the urban impact of mainstream policy. In many ways, the building blocks for a comprehensive evaluation are not fully in place. For example, there have not been studies specifically on the impact of government policy on urban competitiveness, urban cohesion, urban sustainability and urban liveability. The spatial effects of, and interactions between, mainstream programmes and initiatives cannot always be properly assessed because of the lack of good evidence. Few evaluations look at the long-term effects of policy because they were commissioned during or immediately after policies came to an end.
- 6.8 Our review so far underlines several features of previous government policies:
- *Its incidental quality*: governments have traditionally seen urban policy as a set of additional special measures by individual departments rather than an integral part of mainstream government policy.
 - *The sustainability challenge*: there have been few financial mechanisms for mainstreaming successful but time-limited policy initiatives, with the loss of good practice, expertise and learning.
 - *The 'spinning plates' syndrome*: there has been undue focus on one dimension of regeneration at the expense of other dimensions, so that the next generation of initiatives has had to compensate for the shortcomings of its predecessors.
 - *The 'baby with the bathwater' syndrome*: earlier policy models have been rejected out of hand rather than improved and built upon.
 - *The governance challenge*: complex urban problems do not sit easily with the functional departmental nature of national government, providing challenges of horizontal integration. Also the complexity of national, regional, sub-regional, district and neighbourhood dimensions to urban policymaking pose challenges of vertical co-ordination.

6.9 How is current policy changing? – some views in the policy community

6.10 We have undertaken some initial fieldwork with a range of partners primarily – although not exclusively – in 3 of our case study cities. We report their views in this section. However, we attach a health warning. We have not yet fully explored or tested these views. So we will not be able to endorse, qualify or reject them until later in the study. We outline them here as a guide to the policy issues that are at the top of some agendas in the policy community. In fact, our conversations have revealed a series of concerns. Many of them are not new and reflect those identified above about earlier periods of policy. But they are no less important because of that. However, we have also received endorsements of some of the direction and thrust of current policy. We next identify the perceived improvements and remaining challenges. The challenges include:

Departmental Fragmentation

- There are concerns that not all government departments are as committed to the Sustainable Communities agenda as is the ODPM, with concerns about their lack of integration, limited flexibility, lack of spatial awareness, too centralised control. Whereas the Treasury and ODPM are seen as highly committed to the urban and city-regional agenda there are reservations about some other departments. The Audit Commission's concern that local partners still have to put the 'national Humpty Dumpty' together again at the local level is a recurring theme in our conversations.

Too many special initiatives

- Despite the welcome expressed for a number of ABIs and support for restricting their growth, there is consistent concerns about their conflicting or overlapping priorities, boundaries, resources flows and targets. As an RDA Chief Executive put it, 'There may have been a bonfire of the Quangos. But there is a need for a bonfire of the go-betweens, which clutter up the playing field rather than deliver policy.'

Short termism

- There are concerns amongst public and private partners about the time scale of policies. It is consistently suggested that government needs to develop more long-term policies to send a message of commitment and stability to the private sector. For example, a major developer argued that government policies on affordable housing are short term and do not recognise the 10-20 year timespan needed for sustainable investment.

Targets

- There is concern that there are too many targets and ways of assessing local government performance which should be – but are not – equally applied to all of the public sector including national government departments.

Transport

- The most persistent concern expressed by all partners is the failure of transport policies to contribute sufficiently to urban renaissance and sustainable communities. The concerns are myriad, ranging from the separation of Transport from Environment, through the unwillingness to recognise the significance of transport to urban economic competitiveness, to the failure of government departments to speak with the same voice, as in the Manchester Metro case. There are concerns that the failure to invest in and support transport projects significantly restricts urban, regional and hence national economic performance.

Innovation

- There are powerful views in our case study cities that support for the south as opposed to the north in terms of infrastructure and research institutes, has militated against developing innovation in cities. Those concerns have been reinforced by the alleged 'quasi-privatisation' of universities that can deter collaboration between them.

Resource constraints

- There are concerns in some of our case study cities about the scale of financial support from government given the scale of the challenges they face, especially in absorbing and meeting the special needs of new communities. It has also been alleged that resource constraints inhibit fair treatment to all deprived neighbourhoods, causing resentment and suspicions of bias and prejudice, thus threatening the overall goal of social cohesion.

Improved policy-making

6.11 However, despite such concerns, many in the policy community detect significant improvements in the thrust of current national policy. They have welcomed a number of current policy priorities, approaches and initiatives. These include:

Urban Competitiveness

- There is a welcome for an increased government concern with the economic competitiveness and potential economic contribution of urban areas and the recognition of the linkages between the policies of different government departments in this field.

Support for greater mainstreaming

- There is support for current policies which focus more upon the role of mainstream policies in urban areas as opposed to special urban policy initiatives. The greater awareness of the urban impact of transport, training, education and health policies is welcomed.

Increased national spatial awareness.

- Many in the policy community are concerned that in the past national government has not consistently adopted a spatial approach to policies and has had insufficient interest in the impact of national policies upon particular places. There is support for a greater awareness of the spatial impact of current policy. There is also a welcome for increased national concern with the connections between different policy sectors and different spatial levels.

Urban Governance

- There is support for efforts to improve governance by improving networking and partnerships between players at different levels within urban areas as opposed to than institutional and boundary changes. There is a welcome for the greater significance attached by national government to the importance of local leadership

National-local government relations

- There is a belief that there is a more mature relationship developing with local partners in some parts of central government. There is welcome for some government departments' willingness to relax central controls and allow greater local freedoms and flexibilities. This is strongly felt about the ODPM, Treasury and to a lesser extent DTI. However, partners still want more government departments to operate such a more relaxed control regime.

Core Cities

- There is support for the increased government attention to the role of the Core Cities and their potential contribution to improved regional and national economic performance.

The Northern Way

- The concept of the Northern Way with its focus upon inter- and intra- regional connectivity and the role of city-regions has been welcomed. However, there are concerns about the relative modesty of the new resources involved in comparison with those allocated to growth areas in the south and east of England.

City regions

- There is support for the current moves towards greater scale and the focus upon city regions. There is a wish to understand the economic dynamics and institutional linkages between as well as within city-regions. However, the policy thrust does present challenges related to multiple strategies, overlapping boundaries and a shortage of local political delivery systems which needs to be addressed.

Regional Development Agencies

- There is support for increased decision-making at regional level and in principle for the RDAs. There is support for greater flexibility for RDAs, their single funding regime, and their increased powers in relation to training and housing. There is a welcome for their effort in focusing upon competitiveness and training issues. The recent addition of Business Links to their portfolio was valued for strengthening their role as a key strategic decision-maker, and enhancing their links with the private sector.

Housing Market Renewal Programme

- There is support for the HMR Pathfinders and their focus upon the restructuring and diversification of housing markets in relation to the economic opportunities and needs of wider urban areas.

Educational expenditure

- City case studies have welcomed the thrust of education policy. For example, there has been substantial investment in special education and health provision, including translation, language and information services encouraged by the government's Education and Health Action Zones which has aided community integration. Similarly recent improvement in basic educational school performance has been attributed to the increased resources invested by central government.

CABE

- From the private sector there has been a welcome with increased concern for liveability and in particular a recognition of the contribution that CABE is making to this policy goal.

Area Based Initiatives

- Much of urban policy has been delivered through area-based interventions. In policy-makers eyes they have strengths and weaknesses. They can be effective in tackling concentrations of problems and harnessing neighbourhood effects. However, they are less effective in dealing with problems which cross boundaries, are scattered or related to individual circumstances. ABIs can also appear inequitable to and provoke resentment in deprived individuals and groups which do not benefit from designation. They may also displace problems elsewhere and can lead to substitution of special for mainstream resources.

ABIs – what makes them successful?

- The factors which make ABIs successful include: an accurate diagnosis of causes of problems; active community engagement in designing solutions; adequate lead-in time for data analysis, delivery planning and relationship building; strong leadership and committed and enterprising staff; responsiveness to stakeholder needs; a balanced approach to regeneration – economic, social and environmental; effective partnership; good horizontal vertical integration with other programmes and initiatives; support and advice from central and local government bodies; willingness to evaluate review progress and adapt; good forward planning and mainstreaming arrangements to ensure sustainability.

ABIs – what is happening?

- Government measures to improve urban governance have been welcomed including; rationalisation of the number of ABIs; encouraging more joined-up service delivery and mainstreaming of service improvements, with for example Local Strategic Partnerships; ensuring the most deprived areas receive a better deal in its National Strategy for Neighbourhood Renewal; closer monitoring of service standards – Best Value Performance Indicators, NSNR floortargets; service targets, Comprehensive Performance Assessments; devolving more decision-making to a local level.

Achievements – City Challenge, City Pride, Urban Regeneration Companies, NDCs

- There is support for current intentions to limit or reduce the numbers of area-based interventions. But in all our case study cities there is nevertheless support for specific ABIs which have made significant contributions to the circumstances of the targeted area and to the process of policy-making more generally. In Manchester, for example, City Challenge is widely regarded as the initiative in which the City Council and partners learned key messages about urban regeneration in terms of community engagement, scale of ambition, private sector engagement which was the foundation for later substantial regeneration. Equally the City Pride initiative between four local authorities laid the foundations for increased collaboration in the greater Manchester sub-region and the URCs were attributed with significant achievements in very different areas of the cities in Manchester and Sheffield. In Leicester URC has been welcomed as providing a clear focus upon economic regeneration in the city.

Endgame

- 6.12 Very early messages from our project have underlined the long-term nature of the structural forces shaping urban England. This progress report has underlined the importance of both regional location and size of cities in shaping the economic and social performance of cities and underlined the scale of the challenge in closing the economic and social gap between large cities in the north and west and the south and east of the country, especially London. Nevertheless it has identified some ways in which cities in the north and west have been improving their performance recently. The report has revealed some powerful views in the policy community that much needs to be done to improve the delivery of policy and the overall performance of English cities. However, it has also shown that the direction and main thrust of some recent policy initiatives is regarded as movement in the right direction. There remains much to do. But there is a view that much has been – and is being – done. We shall next test those views further in our work.

APPENDIX

STATE OF THE CITIES DATABASE CURRENT INDICATORS

1. Residents by social classification (i.e. National Statistics Socio-Economic Classification)
2. Percentage of population under 16
3. Percentage of population over pensionable age
4. Ethnicity
 - Percentage of residents in Black African ethnic group
 - Percentage of residents in Bangladeshi ethnic group
 - Percentage of residents in Caribbean ethnic group
 - Percentage of residents in Chinese ethnic group
 - Percentage of residents in Indian ethnic group
 - Percentage of residents in Pakistani ethnic group
 - Percentage of residents in White ethnic group
 - Percentage of residents in other ethnic group
5. Lone parents households as a percentage of all households
6. Lone pensioner households as a percentage of all households
7. Average Household income
8. Percentage of adult population in receipt of income support
9. Mean gross weekly full time earnings (residence based)
10. Unemployment – Percentage of economically active population who classify themselves as unemployed (ILO unemployment rate)
11. Employment Rate of Disabled residents – working age population in employment or self employed
12. Percentage of working age residents with no qualifications
13. Percentage of pupils completing compulsory education with no GCSEs/no graded results
14. Percentage of residents by tenure type
15. Percentage of housing classed as council tax band A
16. % Housing stock classified as 'unfit'
17. Life expectancy at birth (male)
18. Life expectancy at birth (female)
19. Infant mortality rates – % of under ones dying before their first birthday.

20. Percentage of residents with Limiting Long Term Illness
21. Index of Multiple Deprivation and it's predecessors – overall measure of deprivation
22. IMD Percentage of sub areas in worst 10% of sub areas nationally
23. No. recorded crimes per 10,000 residents
24. No. of burglaries (dwelling) per 10,000 dwellings
25. Percentage of local electorate voting in local elections
26. Percentage of local electorate voting in general election
27. Total Population
28. Total number of households
29. Total GVA
30. GVA per Employee (FTE)
31. Total Number of Employees (FTE)
32. Percentage of employees working full-time
33. Percentage share of regional employment (FTE)
34. % share of national (English) employment (FTE)
35. Employees by broad sector (all FTE)
 - % Employees working in Agriculture, Energy, Water, Mining Quarrying
 - % Employees working in Manufacturing
 - % Employees working in Construction
 - % Employees working in Distribution, hotels and restaurants
 - % Employees working in Transport and communications)
 - % Employees working in Banking, finance and insurance etc
 - % Employees working in Public administration, education & health
 - % Employees working in Other Services
36. Employees in key sectors
 - % working in high-tech industries (SIC92 div 30, 32 33 class 244 and 353)
 - % Working in R&D (SIC92 div 73)
 - % working in HE (SIC92 class 803)
 - % working in knowledge industries (to be defined)
 - % working in medium-high- tech industries (SIC92 div 24 29,31, 34 and class 352, 354, 355 excluding 24.4.)
37. Percentage of working age residents educated to degree level or above
38. Percentage of 16 and 17 year olds in Full time education and training

39. Percentage of year 11 pupils achieving 5+ GCSEs
40. HE/FE students as percentage of residential population
41. % of working age population in employment or self employed
42. % of working age population in employment or self employed Males
43. % of working age population in employment or self employed Females
44. Mean Full time earnings (workplace based)
45. Company survival rates – the % of VAT registered companies still registered after three years
46. VAT registrations per 10,000 adults (aged 20 and over)
47. Commercial Floor space
 - Amount and % Floor space (sq m) Retail
 - Amount and % Floor space (sq m) Office
 - Amount and % Floor space (sq m) factories
 - Amount and % Floor space (sq m) Industrial
48. Commercial rateable value
 - RV sqm offices
 - RV sqm retail
 - RV sqm factories
 - RV sqm Industrial
49. Percentage of employees and self employed who travel 10km or more to work (residence based)
50. Percentage of employees and self employed who travel 10km or more to work (workplace based)
51. Percentage of employees and self employed who travel to work by car
52. Journey time to London by train – fastest timetable journey on a weekday
53. Average price all property sold
54. Average price semi-detached house
55. Average house price lowest quartile
56. Previously developed land that is derelict or vacant – Amount and % of total area
57. Amount of green space
58. Percentage of household waste recycled
59. Comprehensive Performance Assessment – overall service score

60. Comprehensive Performance Assessment – council ability to improve score
61. Percentage of major planning applications determined in 13 weeks and minor and other applications determined in 8 weeks
62. Percentage of council tax collected
63. Percentage of business rates collected
64. Percentage of renewal claims (housing benefit/council tax) processed on time

This progress report presents research findings on the economic, social and environmental performance of English urban areas. It is based on a preliminary analysis of the latest data, the first case studies and an initial review of the literature on the impact of policy on urban areas.

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