Home Office Research Study 270

2001 Home Office Citizenship Survey: people, families and communities

Chris Attwood, Gurchand Singh, Duncan Prime, Rebecca Creasey and others

The views expressed in this report are those of the authors, not necessarily those of the Home Office (nor do they reflect Government policy).

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The Research, Development and Statistics Directorate

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Summary

This report sets out the key findings from the 2001 Home Office Citizenship Survey. It also provides a summary of the methodology. The report is a launch pad for more detailed analysis of the survey dataset and publications in 2003.

The report addresses five key themes related to citizenship:

- what it means to be a good citizen;
- perceptions of racial prejudice and discrimination;
- people's involvement in their neighbourhoods;
- active participation in communities; and
- family networks and parenting support.

The Citizenship Survey comprises a nationally representative sample of 10,015 people in England and Wales and an additional sample of 5,460 people from minority ethnic groups.

What it means to be a good citizen

Rights and responsibilities:

- Ninety-seven per cent of respondents agreed (definitely agreed/tended to agree) with the statement that if people treated others as they would want to be treated themselves, our society would be a better place.
- Ninety-six per cent agreed that you can't demand rights as someone living in the UK without also accepting the responsibilities.
- Ninety-three per cent agreed that some people take advantage of public services and benefits without putting anything back into the community.
- Eighty-five per cent agreed that people are entitled to basic human rights, regardless of whether they are a good person or not.
- But 34 per cent agreed that if people would mind their own business, our society would be a better place.

Influencing political decisions:

- Forty-three per cent of respondents agreed (definitely agreed/tended to agree) that they could influence decisions affecting their local areas. But only 24 per cent agreed they could influence decisions affecting Britain. Thirty-one per cent of adults living in London agreed that they could influence decisions affecting London and 26 per cent of adults living in Wales felt they could influence decisions affecting Wales.

Trusting public institutions:

- People expressed more trust in legal than in political institutions. People expressed the greatest amount of trust (trusted a lot/a fair amount) in the police (80%) and the courts (73%).
- People trusted political institutions less than the police and the courts, and they trusted national less than local political institutions. Fifty-one per cent of people trusted their local authorities, but only 36 per cent trusted Parliament and only 24 per cent trusted politicians.

Perceptions of racial prejudice and discrimination

Perceptions of racial prejudice:

- Two in every five (43%) respondents felt that there was more racial prejudice in Britain today than five years ago; one in six (17%) felt there was less, and one in three people (33%) thought there was about the same amount.
- White people were the most likely to say there was more prejudice, followed by Pakistanis, people of mixed race, Indians, Caribbeans, Africans and Chinese.
- Within most ethnic groups, a greater proportion said prejudice had increased in the last five years than said it had fallen. There are some variations by other social and demographic factors. Younger people were less likely than older people to say prejudice had risen over the last five years. Overall, women were more likely than men to say there was more prejudice today than five years ago. Individuals in higher socio-economic groups were less likely than those in lower socio-economic groups to say that there was more racial prejudice than five years ago. Finally, individuals with higher educational qualifications were less likely than those with lower or no qualifications to say there was more racial prejudice than five years ago.
- There was a significant rise in pessimism about trends in racial prejudice between those interviewed before and after June 7th 2001 – the date of the General Election. The general election campaigns featured heavy reporting of immigration

issues. This date also lay in the middle of a period of race-related civil disturbances in northern towns.

- When asked to predict the change in racial prejudice over the next five years, answers were very similar to those given to the question about the last five years. In fact, most people (59%) gave the same answer to both questions.

Perceptions of organisational discrimination:

- As a member of the public using the services of a range of organisations, the majority of people expected to be treated the same as people of other races by both public and private sector organisations under consideration.
- However, results varied considerably between ethnic groups. With few exceptions, all minority ethnic groups were at least as likely as, and usually more likely than, white people to expect worse treatment than people from other ethnic groups.
- For black and Asian people, higher expectations of worse treatment by the larger public sector organisations were seen among younger people, those with higher qualifications, from higher socio-economic groups, and from areas of lower deprivation.
- Expectations of discrimination were higher among people from minority ethnic groups who had had direct contact with the organisations.
- When asked to think of themselves as an employee of each organisation rather than as a member of the public, the results were broadly the same: on the whole, people from minority ethnic groups expected worst treatment from the organisations as an employee than those from other ethnic groups.

People's involvement in their neighbourhoods

People's attitudes to their neighbourhoods

- Sixty-seven per cent of people said that they 'definitely' enjoyed living in their neighbourhoods.
- Thirty-four per cent said that they felt 'very safe' walking alone in their neighbourhoods after dark.
- Thirty per cent said that they knew 'many' people in their neighbourhoods.
- Forty per cent thought that 'many' people in their neighbourhoods could be trusted.
- Forty-three per cent thought that people 'definitely' looked out for each other in their neighbourhoods.

Variations in attitudes to neighbourhoods by sex and age:

- Men were much more likely than women to say that they felt 'very safe' walking alone in their neighbourhoods after dark. People aged under 50 were more likely than those aged 50 and over to say this.
- Women were more likely than men to say that they knew 'many' people in their neighbourhoods.
- People aged between 65 and 74 were the most likely and those aged under 35 were the least likely to say that 'many' people in their neighbourhoods could be trusted.

Variations in attitudes to neighbourhoods by ethnic group:

- White people were more likely than Asian people and black people to say that they 'definitely' enjoyed living in their neighbourhoods.
- White people were more likely than Asian people to say that they felt 'very safe' when walking alone in their neighbourhoods after dark.
- Asian people and white people were much more likely than black people to say that they knew 'many' people in their neighbourhoods.
- White people were very much more likely than Asian people and black people to say that 'many' people in their neighbourhoods could be trusted.
- White people and Asian people were much more likely than black people to say that they thought people 'definitely' looked out for each other in their neighbourhoods.

Variations in attitudes to neighbourhoods by socio-economic group and household income:

- People in higher socio-economic groups were more likely than those in lower socio-economic groups to say that 'many' people in their neighbourhoods could be trusted.
- People who had household incomes of £75,000 and over were the most likely and those with household incomes of less than £5,000 were the least likely to say that 'many' people in their neighbourhoods could be trusted.

Variations in attitudes to neighbourhoods by length of residence:

- Fifty-seven per cent of people who had lived in their neighbourhoods for less than one year said that they 'definitely' enjoyed living there, while 65 per cent of those who had lived there between one and four years and 71 per cent of those who had lived there for 30 years or more said this.
- Six per cent of people who had lived in their neighbourhoods for less than a year said that they knew 'many' people in their neighbourhoods, while 46 per cent of those who had lived there for 30 years or more said this.

Variations in attitudes to neighbourhoods by relative deprivation of the areas in which people live:

- People who lived in the most deprived areas were much less likely than those who lived in the least deprived areas to say that they 'definitely' enjoyed living in their neighbourhoods.
- People who lived in the most deprived areas were much less likely than those who lived in the least deprived areas to say that they felt 'very safe' when walking alone in their neighbourhoods after dark.
- People who lived in the most deprived areas were much less likely than those who lived in the least deprived areas to say that 'many' people in their neighbourhoods could be trusted.
- People who lived in the most deprived areas were much less likely than those who lived in the least deprived areas to say that they thought people 'definitely' looked out for each other in their neighbourhoods.

People's involvement in social networks

- Fifty per cent of people had friends or neighbours round to their houses, 46 per cent went round to friends' or neighbours' houses, and 37 per cent went out socially with friends or neighbours at least once a week.

Variations in informal socialising by ethnic group:

- Asian people were more likely than white people and black people to have friends or neighbours round to their houses or to go round to friends' or neighbours' houses at least several times a week. White people were more likely than Asian people and black people to go out with friends or neighbours at least several times a week.

Variations in informal socialising by relative deprivation of the areas in which people live:

- People living in the most deprived areas were twice as likely as those living in the least deprived areas to say that they 'never' had friends or neighbours round to their houses, 'never' went round to friends' or neighbours' houses and 'never' went out socially with friends or neighbours.

Active participation in communities

People's participation in different types of activities

- Thirty-eight per cent of people were involved in civic participation at least once in the last twelve months. This is equivalent to approximately 15.9 million people in England and Wales.

- Sixty-five per cent of people were involved socially in groups, clubs or organisations (being a member, attending meetings or events, playing in a team) at least once in the last twelve months. This is equivalent to approximately 27.0 million people in England and Wales.
- Sixty-seven per cent of people volunteered informally (as individuals) at least once in the last twelve months. This is equivalent to approximately 27.8 million people in England and Wales.
- Thirty-nine per cent of people volunteered formally (through groups, clubs or organisations) at least once in the last twelve months. This is equivalent to approximately 16.2 million people in England and Wales.
- Four per cent of people participated in schemes for volunteering supported by their employers in the last twelve months. This is equivalent to approximately 1.5 million people in England and Wales.

Hours spent volunteering and approximate monetary value of volunteering

- The 27.8 million people who volunteered informally at least once in the last twelve months contributed approximately 1.8 billion hours and, at the national average wage (£10.42 per hour in 2001), their contribution was worth around £18.2 billion.
- The 16.2 million people who volunteered formally at least once in the last twelve months contributed approximately 1.7 billion hours and, at the national average wage, their contribution was worth around £17.9 billion.
- The 1.5 million people who volunteered formally through employer-supported schemes at least once in the last twelve months contributed approximately 0.1 billion hours and, at the national average wage, their contribution was worth around £1.1 billion.

Variations in participation by socio-demographic factors

- White people were more likely than black people and Asian people to be involved in civic participation. Black people and white people were more likely than Asian people to be involved in informal volunteering and formal volunteering.
- People who had the highest levels of education, were from the highest socio-economic group, had the highest household income and were in employment, were in each case more likely than others to be involved in all types of voluntary and community activities.

Variations in participation by attitudes to neighbourhoods

- People who said that they 'definitely' enjoyed living in their neighbourhoods were more likely than people who said that they enjoyed living there 'to some extent' or not at all to be involved in social participation and formal volunteering.
- People who said that 'many' of their neighbours could be trusted were more likely than those who said that they trusted others less or not at all to be involved in social participation, informal volunteering and formal volunteering.
- People who said that they felt 'very' or 'fairly' safe in their neighbourhoods were more likely than those who said that they felt 'a bit' or 'very' unsafe and those who said that they never went out after dark to be involved in social participation, informal volunteering and formal volunteering.

Variations in participation by relative deprivation of the areas in which people live

- People who lived in the least deprived areas were more likely than those who lived in the most deprived areas to be involved in all types of voluntary and community activities.

Variations in participation by involvement in social networks

- People who said that they knew 'many' or 'some' people in their neighbourhoods were more likely than those who said that they knew fewer or no people to be involved in all types of voluntary and community activities.

Potential for growth in informal volunteering

- Experience of informal volunteering, whether past or present but irregular, predisposes people to involvement / greater involvement in the future.
- The main barriers to becoming active / more active were time commitments (31%); personal circumstances, primarily parenting, caring and family responsibilities (18%); and working or educational commitments (14%).
- The main incentives to becoming active / more active were knowing someone in need of help (59%) and being asked directly to get involved (52%).

Potential for growth in formal volunteering

- Experience of formal volunteering, whether past or present but irregular, predisposes people to involvement / greater involvement in the future.
- The main barriers to being involved / more involved were time commitments (34%); personal circumstances (26%); and working or educational commitments (25%).

- The main incentives to becoming active/more active were being asked directly to get involved (44%), getting involved with friends or family (40%), knowing that someone who was already involved would help them get started (32%), getting involved from home (28%), and having an opportunity to improve skills or get qualifications (25%).

Family networks and parenting support

Family networks

- With an average family size of 2.91, Asian respondents had the largest family networks within the household and white respondents had the smallest (2.13).
- Lone parenthood is most prevalent amongst families with a black Household Reference Person (HRP)[a] and, correspondingly, the incidence of non-resident children is also higher; 18 per cent of black men reported having a non-resident child compared with only seven per cent of white and three per cent of Asian men.
- Frequent contact, and exchange of help, with relatives outside the household is most common between natural parents and their children. Asian and black people are far more likely than white people to be in monthly contact with more distant relatives, such as aunts, uncles and cousins.

Parenting support

- Forty-two per cent of parents had asked friends or relatives for advice on bringing up children in the last twelve months. Asking for advice was more common for mothers rather than fathers, for younger parents and for parents from higher socio-economic groups.
- Over half of parents (53%) had received regular practical help with bringing up children from friends or relatives in the last twelve months. Overall, the maternal family network was more important than the paternal side in providing help.
- Eighty-eight per cent of parents were aware of formal sources of advice outside of family and friends, in particular health care sources, schools/colleges and social care sources.
- Eight out of ten parents who had received advice on bringing up children from a formal source had found it useful and parents' preferred services broadly match those that they use; these tend to be the universal services such as GPs, health visitors and schools.

a. The ethnic group of the household was defined as the ethnic group of the HRP but this does not mean that everyone in the household shared the same ethnic group. HRP is either the sole person in a single-person household or, if more than one adult (16 or over) in the household, the person in whose name the household accommodation is owned or rented. If jointly owned or rented, the HRP is the person with the highest income. If equal incomes, the HRP is the oldest person.

- Forty per cent of parents mentioned at least one aspect of bringing up children that they would like more information about.
- Eighty-nine per cent of those parents who replied were either very or fairly satisfied with the amount and quality of advice and information on bringing up children available to them.

1. Introduction

Chris Attwood (Research Development and Statistics, Home Office)
Patten Smith and Jenny Turtle (BMRB)

The aims of the Citizenship Survey

The Home Office Citizenship Survey is a new biennial survey designed to deliver information for the Home Office's Aim Seven Community Policy evidence base. The principal aim of Home Office Community Policy is:

> *To support strong and active communities in which people of all races and backgrounds are valued and participate on equal terms by developing social policy to build a fair, prosperous and cohesive society in which everyone has a stake. To work with other departments and local government agencies and community groups to regenerate neighbourhoods, to support families; to develop the potential of every individual; to build the confidence and capacity of the whole community to be part of the solution; and to promote good race and community relations, combating prejudice and xenophobia. To promote equal opportunities both within the Home Office and more widely and to ensure that active citizenship contributes to the enhancement of democracy and the development of civil society.*

Specifically, the Citizenship Survey aims:

- to be a major policy tool, informing both policy development and implementation; and
- to provide information for the measurement of Home Office Public Service Agreements[1].

In so doing, the Citizenship Survey delivers information to underpin policies on:

- active citizenship;
- racial prejudice and discrimination;
- people and their neighbourhoods;
- active community participation; and
- family networks and parenting.

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

Methodology

Sample design

The Citizenship Survey sample was made up of two distinct parts:

- The Core sample – 10,015 interviews with a nationally representative sample of adults (aged 16 and over) living in England and Wales.
- The Minority Ethnic Boost sample – 5,460 additional interviews with adults (aged 16 and over) in England and Wales who identified themselves as black, Asian, Chinese or from any other non-white ethnic group.

The additional boost interviews were achieved in two ways:

- Focused enumeration sample – achieved by screening three addresses either side of the core sample addresses. In this way 2,119 interviews were achieved.
- High concentration area boost sample – achieved by screening a separate sample of addresses in areas with an estimated non-white household population of 18 per cent or higher (using 1991 census data). Using this method, 3,341 interviews were achieved.

The Small User Postcode Address File (PAF) was used as a sampling frame for the core sample and for the high concentration area boost sample. A sample of postcode sectors was selected and within each a sample of addresses was then selected. Six addresses neighbouring each core sample address were identified by interviewers in the field, using a strict set of rules, for inclusion in the focused enumeration sample.

At each eligible sampled address an individual aged 16 or over was randomly selected for interview.

A more detailed description of the sample is available in the Citizenship Survey Technical Report – available by e-mailing citizenship.survey@homeoffice.gsi.gov.uk.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed jointly by BMRB, IPSOS-RSL and the Home Office. It was developed and tested in the latter part of 2000 and in January 2001 through two extensive pilot exercises. A 'dress rehearsal' of all the survey procedures was conducted in February 2001.

The questionnaire covered four main topics: family and parenting; people and their neighbourhoods; active community participation; and racial prejudice and discrimination. In addition, a wide range of demographic information was collected from the respondent, and several area classification variables were added to the data file for use in analysis.

The questionnaire and other field documents are appended to the 2001 Citizenship Survey Technical Report.

Fieldwork for the survey

Interviews were conducted by trained interviewers using Computer Assisted Personal Interviewing (CAPI). Fieldwork was conducted by both BMRB and IPSOS-RSL interviewers. Fieldwork started on 19th March and finished on 6th October 2001. Interviewing took place in daytime and evenings, and on weekdays and weekends in order to maximise response.

In total, 15,475 interviews were included in the final dataset. Of these, 10,015 were core sample interviews (against a target of 10,000) and 5,460 were boost interviews (against a target of 5,000). The response rate for the core sample was 68 per cent. A detailed analysis of response can be found in the 2001 Citizenship Survey Technical Report.

Weighting and sampling error

Weighting has been applied to the core sample data to correct for unequal selection probabilities and to compensate for differential non-response among some population sub-groups. Weighting has also been applied to the combined sample to correct for the over-representation of minority ethnic groups. Further details of the weighting procedures are included in the 2001 Citizenship Survey Technical Report.

All results presented in this report are estimates based upon a sample survey and are therefore subject to statistical sampling error. Other things being equal, this error will be small for estimates based upon the whole sample and on large sub-samples. However, results based on small sub-samples should be treated with some caution.

Sampling error can be quantified by calculating confidence intervals. These calculations are complex and have been undertaken for a sub-set of variables only. These are detailed in the 2001 Citizenship Survey Technical Report.

Report structure

The remainder of this report sets out findings from the 2001 Citizenship Survey. There are five chapters covering the key Home Office policy areas in the survey. Each chapter, written by Home Office and BMRB researchers, addresses a number of research questions:

What it means to be a good citizen:

- What do people think are their rights and responsibilities?
- How do people balance their rights and responsibilities?
- Do people feel they can influence political decisions?
- How much do people trust public institutions?
- How willing are people to be active citizens?

Racial prejudice and discrimination:

- How do perceptions of racial prejudice now compare with five years ago?
- How do expectations of racial prejudice in five years time compare with now?
- Do people from different ethnic groups feel they would be treated worse, the same or better than people of other races by public and private sector organisations?

People's involvement in their neighbourhoods:

- How do people feel about their neighbourhoods?
- To what extent are people prepared to intervene for the common good?
- To what extent are people involved in social networks?

Active participation in communities:

- How does people's participation vary by the type of activity?
- How does people's participation vary by socio-demographic factors?
- How does people's participation vary by their attitudes to their neighbourhoods and the social networks to which they belong?
- How does people's participation vary geographically?
- How does people's participation vary by the relative deprivation of the areas in which they live?
- What sorts of things do people do and how do their activities vary by socio-demographic factors?

- What is the potential for growth in informal volunteering?
- What is the potential for growth in formal volunteering?

Family networks and parenting:

Family networks:

- Who do people live with in their household?
- Who do people live with in their family?
- What networks of relatives do people have outside the household?
- What level of contact is there within the family network?
- Do people give help to, and receive help from, their relatives outside of the household?
- Who has non-resident children and how much contact do they have with their non-resident child?

Supporting parents:

- Which parents seek informal advice on bringing up children and which friends and relatives do they approach for it?
- Which parents get regular practical help in bringing up children, and from which family and friends do they receive it?
- Are parents aware of other sources of advice and information on bringing up children?
- Do parents actually use the sources of advice that they are aware of?
- Which formal sources of advice did parents find most useful?
- What are parents' preferred sources of advice and information on bringing up children?
- Which aspects of bringing up children would parents like more information on?
- Are parents satisfied by the amount and quality of information available on bringing up children?

This report is a launch pad for more detailed analysis in 2003. Many of the chapters in this report mention social capital, for instance, and more detailed analysis is proposed on the social capital data later in 2003. Social capital is a multi-faceted concept, defined by Cote and Healey (2001, p41)[2] as 'networks together with shared norms, values and understandings that facilitate co-operation within or among groups'. These networks, shared norms, values and understandings pull together many of the concepts addressed in this report from the 2001 Citizenship Survey. For example, Putnam (2000)[3] regards social

2. Cote, S and Healey, T. (2001): The Well-Being of Nations: The Role of Human and Social Capital, (Paris, OECD).

participation and voluntary activity (chapter 5) as key components of social capital. Others, for example Cote and Healey (2001), regard neighbourliness as a key facet (chapter 4). And others highlight the importance of family networks (chapter 6) to people's and community's levels of social capital (Stone and Hughes, 2001)[4]. Race equality and prejudice (chapter 3) can be seen as both an outcome from social capital (low and high levels) and a perceived barrier to building social capital.

The Home Office is still testing the utility of the concept of social capital and hopes the data from the 2001 Citizenship Survey will be a start and will provide useful information to government. Social capital will be unpicked in more focused reports from the Citizenship Survey in 2003.

Analytical note

The reader should be aware of the following in interpreting data used in this report:

Core and boost samples: All estimates calculated for the sample as a whole and for sub-groups not wholly or partly defined in terms of ethnic group, are based upon the core sample only (10,015 respondents). Tables comparing sub-groups defined (in whole or in part) in terms of ethnic group are based upon core and boost samples combined (15,475 respondents). Similarly, tables comparing sub-groups closely related to ethnic group are also based upon core and boost samples combined. Hence, in some tables two 'all' columns are included: one for the core sample and the other for the combined sample.

Non-response, not stated, missing values: Unless otherwise stated, all estimates exclude 'don't know' values (unless they were given to respondents as a specific option), 'not stated' and other missing values.

NS-SEC: The report uses the following shortened version of the National Statistics Socio-Economic Classification (NS-SEC):

1: Higher management – Higher managerial and professional occupations
2: Lower professional – Lower managerial and professional occupations
3: Intermediate occupations – Intermediate occupations

3. Putnam, R. (2000): Bowling Alone: The Collapse and Revival of American Community, (New York, Simon and Schuster).
4. Stone, W and Hughes, J., (2001): The Nature and Distribution of Social Capital: Initial Findings of the Families, Social Capital and Citizenship Survey', Australian Institute of Family Studies.

4: Small employers – Small employers and own account workers
5: Lower supervisory – Lower supervisory and technical occupations
6: Semi-routine – Semi-routine occupations
7: Routine – Routine occupations
8: Never worked – Long-term unemployed and those who have never worked
9: Full-time students

For more information about NS-SEC and its construction, readers are referred to the Office for National Statistics website: www.statistics.gov.uk

ODPM index of multiple deprivation: Respondents in England were allocated to one of ten decile groups according to the ODPM index of Multiple Deprivation score for the ward in which they lived. Decile cut-offs were based upon the ranking of wards and not upon the ranking of survey respondents. For analysis, the ten groups have been merged into five. Thus, any respondent in the most deprived group lived in one of the 20 per cent most deprived wards in England. The scores used in the Index for England cannot be equated to those in the similar deprivation index constructed for Wales. Hence, respondents from Wales are excluded from all analysis involving deprivation.

For more information about the Index of Multiple Deprivation and its construction, readers are referred to the ODPM website:
www.urban.odpm.gov.uk/research/summaries/03100/index.htm

Questionnaire: Where practical, the titles of tables and figures summarise the questions asked. Table notes provide question numbers. The reader should refer back to the questionnaire to check exact wording of questions. Copies of the questionnaire are available from citizenship.survey@homeoffice.gsi.gov.uk

Tables: All tables provide weighted percentages and unweighted bases. Unless stated, analysis is based on all respondents answering the question.

Where totals are given in tables they may not equal 100 per cent due to rounding.
* denotes an unweighted cell size less than 30 or an unweighted base of less than 100.
- denotes estimates of zero.

Significance Tests: All differences referred to in the text are significant at the five per cent level, unless otherwise stated.

2. What it means to be a good citizen in England and Wales

Chris Attwood (Research, Development and Statistics, Home Office)
Todd Landeman and Oliver Heath (University of Essex)

What it means to be a good citizen has been the subject of public and political debate for many years[5]. The 1990 Commission for Citizenship report (Weatherill, 1990[6]) is perhaps the beginning of the current political debate on what it means to be a good citizen and what can be done to promote it. And Blunkett (2001)[7] discusses the role of the state in empowering people to become good citizens. The debate on building good citizens has covered issues such as the inclusion of citizenship as a subject in the National Curriculum, innovative ways of encouraging people to vote, integration of immigrants into British society and implementation of the Human Rights Act. Definitions of what it means to be a good citizen have moved on during this period. Crick (2001)[8] talks about being a good citizen in terms of a citizen culture where people are 'concerned with and actively involved in public affairs …'. He doesn't just focus on relationships between inhabitants, the state and government, but also relations with the public institutions mediating between inhabitants and the state.

This chapter explores five questions which are key to defining the good citizen:

- What do people think are their rights and responsibilities?
- How do people balance their rights and responsibilities?
- Do people feel they can influence political decisions?
- How much do people trust public institutions?
- How willing are people to be active citizens?

These five questions are examined by the sex, age, socio-economic group[9] and ethnic group of respondents. These demographics are important to our understanding of what it means to be a good citizen. Tables are provided for each of these variables where differences are significant. The simple analysis in this chapter is a stepping stone for more detailed analysis and interpretation of data from the Citizenship Survey.

5. See, for example, Crick, B. (2000): Essays on Citizenship, (London, Continuum); Giddens, A (ed.) (2000): The Global Third Way Debate, (Cambridge, Polity Press).
6. Weatherill, B. (1990): Speaker's Commission: Encouraging Citizenship, (London, HMSO).
7. Blunkett, D. (2001): Politics and Progress: Renewing Democracy and Civil Society, (London, Politicos).
8. Crick, B. (ed.), (2001): Citizens: Towards a Citizenship Culture, (Oxford, Blackwell).
9. Using the National Statistics Socio-Economic Classification (NS-SEC)

What do people think are their rights and responsibilities?

There is a long tradition of both a struggle for rights in England and Wales and the increased legal protection of rights. The struggle for greater participation and protection among the working classes in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, and women demanding equal participation are notable examples. The struggles for rights were articulated in a demand to the state for more protection through laws guaranteeing expanded citizen rights, including civil rights, political rights and social rights. The extension of citizens rights in the UK was complemented by the development of human rights at the international level – starting with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948. At the European level, the Council of Europe promulgated the European Convention on Human Rights in 1951. And the Human Rights Act was introduced for the UK in 1998.

The formalisation of rights in the UK has been complemented with the idea that rights are accompanied by duties and responsibilities. Together, rights and responsibilities form the core elements of what it means to be a good citizen.

When people were asked, without prompting[10], what they thought were their rights living in the UK, the most frequently mentioned rights, in descending order of frequency, were:

- right to freedom of expression – 35 per cent;
- right to fair, equal and respectful treatment – 13 per cent;
- right to protection from crime, attack and threat – 13 per cent;
- right to health care – 12 per cent;
- right to education – 8 per cent;
- right to free elections – 8 per cent;
- right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion – 6 per cent; and
- right to state provision of services – 6 per cent.

10,014 respondents in England and Wales.
Question H1

The right to freedom of expression; education; free elections; and freedom of thought, conscience and religion match up to articles in the Human Rights Act – Article 10, Article 2 of Protocol 1, Article 3 and Article 9, respectively. Some of the other popular responses are

10. Question H1. Responses to this open question were recorded verbatim during the interview and coded post interview to a list of 33 codes. This codeframe was developed from responses during the piloting stage and following the first few weeks of interviewing, in addition to incorporating all Articles of the Human Rights Act. A cut off point of six per cent has been used to list the most frequently mentioned rights.
Note that 24 per cent of respondents mentioned 'right to freedom, to be left alone, to do what I want', but as this response is rather nebulous it has been excluded from this analysis.

on the margins of the Articles in the Act (e.g., right to fair, equal and respectful treatment). However, other responses appear to cover different spheres of activity not included in the Human Rights Act (e.g., right to be protected from crime).

Generally, perceptions of rights did not vary by sex and age. Table 2.1 shows the most frequently mentioned rights by socio-economic group. Rights to protection from crime, attack or threat were more likely to be mentioned by those in higher socio-economic groups than those in lower groups. The right to fair treatment was also less important among those from lower than from higher socio-economic groups.

A considerably larger proportion of people from minority ethnic than white groups mentioned right to fair, equal and respectful treatment (Table 2.2). And white people were more likely than those from all minority ethnic groups to mention freedom of expression and right to be protected from crime, attack and threat.

Table 2.1: Most frequently mentioned rights, by socio-economic group

	All	Higher & lower management	Intermediate; small employers; lower supervisory	Semi routine; routine	Never worked; students
Right to freedom of expression	35%	41%	36%	29%	28%
Right to be protected from crime, attack & threat	13%	18%	12%	10%	10%
Right to fair treatment	13%	14%	13%	11%	18%
Right to healthcare	12%	16%	11%	10%	10%
Right to education	8%	11%	7%	5%	13%
Right to free elections	8%	11%	8%	5%	7%
Right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion	6%	9%	6%	4%	7%
Right to state provision of services	6%	7%	6%	7%	3%
Respondents in England & Wales	*9,931*	*3,054*	*3,085*	*3,077*	*715*

Eight most frequently mentioned rights using a six per cent cut off point.
NS-SEC bands merged:
Higher & lower management & professional: NS-SEC bands 1 and 2
Intermediate; small employers/own account workers; lower supervisory & technical: NS-SEC bands 3 to 5
Semi-routine & routine occupations: NS-SEC bands 6 and 7
Never worked, long-term unemployed and students: NS-SEC bands 8 and 9
Question H1

Table 2.2: Most frequently mentioned rights, by ethnic group

	All	White	Asian	Black	Chinese/Other
Right to freedom of expression	35%	36%	16%	22%	23%
Right to be protected from crime, attack & threat	13%	13%	6%	9%	8%
Right to fair treatment	13%	12%	32%	33%	29%
Right to healthcare	12%	12%	6%	8%	8%
Right to education	8%	8%	8%	10%	14%
Right to free elections	8%	8%	5%	6%	7%
Right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion	6%	6%	8%	7%	7%
Right to state provision of services	6%	7%	3%	5%	4%
Right to work	5%	5%	6%	9%	10%
Right to prohibition of discrimination	2%	2%	7%	8%	3%
Respondents in England & Wales	*15,467*	*9,358*	*3,263*	*1,852*	*614*

Eight rights most frequently mentioned by all respondents, using a six per cent cut off point. Two extra rights have been added to this table (in light text) as they were above the six per cent threshold for minority ethnic respondents. The mixed ethnic group has been excluded from this table as the number of respondents is very small. This means the number of respondents do not total the 'all' column.
Question H1

When, again without prompting[11], people were asked about their responsibilities living in the UK, the most frequently mentioned responsibilities, in descending order, were:

- obeying and respecting the law – 36 per cent;
- being good, or following moral/ethical codes – 12 per cent;
- looking after and protecting the family – 12 per cent;
- helping others/being a good neighbour – 11 per cent;
- treating others fairly and with respect – 10 per cent;
- civic duties – 8 per cent;
- behaving responsibly – 7 per cent; and
- duty to work – 6 per cent.

10,014 respondents.

As with rights, perceptions of responsibilities did not vary much by sex and age. Generally, greater proportions of those in higher socio-economic groups mentioned obeying and respecting the law and being good or following moral, ethical or religious codes as responsibilities compared with those in lower socio-economic groups (Table 2.3).

11. Question H2. Responses to this open question were recorded verbatim during the interview and coded post interview to a list of 24 codes. This codeframe was developed from responses during the piloting stage and following the first few weeks of interviewing. A cut off point of six per cent has been used to list the most frequently mentioned responsibilities.

Table 2.3: Most frequently mentioned responsibilities, by socio-economic group

	All	Higher & lower management	Intermediate; small employers; lower supervisory	Semi routine; routine	Never worked; students
Obeying & respecting the law	36%	43%	38%	29%	27%
Being good, or following moral/ ethical/religious code	12%	15%	12%	11%	9%
Looking after & protecting family	12%	12%	12%	15%	7%
Helping others/being good neighbour	11%	13%	11%	10%	12%
Treating others fairly & with respect	10%	12%	9%	7%	11%
Civic duties	8%	12%	8%	4%	7%
Behaving responsibly	7%	8%	8%	7%	6%
Duty to work	6%	7%	7%	5%	7%
Respondents in England & Wales	*9,931*	*3,054*	*3,085*	*3,077*	*715*

Eight most frequently mentioned responsibilities using a six per cent cut off point.
NS-SEC bands merged:
Higher & lower management & professional: NS-SEC bands 1 and 2
Intermediate; small employers/own account workers; lower supervisory & technical: NS-SEC bands 3 to 5
Semi-routine & routine occupations: NS-SEC bands 6 and 7
Never worked, long-term unemployed and students: NS-SEC bands 8 and 9
Question H2

In most cases, perceptions of responsibilities did not vary considerably by ethnic group. But, when asked to list responsibilities without prompting, Pakistani and Bangladeshi people were less likely than those of other ethnic groups to mention obeying and respecting the law (26% of Pakistani and Bangladeshi respondents, compared with 36% of white and 37% of black respondents). Also, Chinese/other respondents were more likely than those from the other ethnic groups to mention civic duties (e.g. Chinese/other 9%, Asian 5%), but less likely to mention looking after and protecting the family (e.g. Chinese/other 8%, black 13%) (Table 2.4).

Table 2.4: Most frequently mentioned responsibilities, by ethnic group

	All	White	Asian	Black	Chinese/Other
Obeying & respecting the law	36%	36%	29%	37%	32%
Being good, or following moral/ ethical/religious code	12%	12%	12%	14%	11%
Looking after & protecting family	12%	12%	10%	13%	8%
Helping others/being good neighbour	11%	11%	10%	10%	9%
Treating others fairly & with respect	10%	10%	7%	8%	6%
Civic duties	8%	8%	5%	7%	9%
Behaving responsibly	7%	7%	7%	8%	5%
Duty to work	6%	6%	6%	8%	7%
Respondents in England & Wales	*15,467*	*9,358*	*3,263*	*1,852*	*614*

Eight most frequently mentioned responsibilities using a six per cent cut off point.
The mixed ethnic group has been excluded from this table as the number of respondents is very small. This means the number of respondents do not total the 'all' column.
Question H2

How do people balance their rights and responsibilities?

When people were asked whether they agreed or disagreed with five statements about their rights and responsibilities, they responded as follows (Tables 2.5 to 2.8):

- Ninety-seven per cent agreed (definitely agreed/tended to agree) with the statement that *if people treated others as they would want to be treated themselves, our society would be a better place.*
  Views did not vary significantly by sex, socio-economic group or ethnic group. But a marginally higher proportion of those aged 30 and over agreed with the statement compared with younger respondents.

- Ninety-six per cent agreed that *you can't demand rights as someone living in the UK without also accepting the responsibilities*.
  Views did not vary significantly by sex, age and socio-economic group. But a marginally larger proportion of white people agreed with this statement, compared with people from minority ethnic groups (96% of white people, 92% of black people, 93% of Asian people and 92% of Chinese/other people).

- Ninety-three per cent agreed that *some people take advantage of public services and benefits without putting anything back into the community*.
  Views did not vary significantly by sex or age. Significantly higher proportions of white (93%) and black (87%) people agreed with the statement, compared with

Asian (83%) and Chinese / other (81%) people. Within the Asian group, agreement with the statement was higher among Indian and Pakistani respondents (85% and 84%), compared with Bangladeshi respondents (78%).
Generally, responses did not vary by socio-economic group, but a larger proportion of respondents who had never worked disagreed with the statement (12%), compared with between six and eight per cent for respondents from all other socio-economic groups. This figure was 23 per cent for Asian respondents who were in the never worked / long-term unemployed socio-economic group, compared with eight per cent for white respondents in the same socio-economic group.

- Eighty-five per cent agreed that *people are entitled to basic human rights, regardless of whether they are a good person or not*.
  Views did not vary significantly by sex. But a smaller proportion of those aged over 64 compared with younger people agreed with the statement (82% compared with 88% of those aged 16 to 19). A larger proportion of people from the highest and lowest socio-economic groups agreed with the statement compared with the middle groups. And greater proportions of Asian, black and Chinese / other (90%, 88% and 89%, respectively) people agreed with the statement compared with white people (84%).

- Thirty-four per cent agreed that *if people would mind their own business, our society would be a better place*.
  Responses did not vary by sex. But the proportion of people agreeing with the statement increased after age 49, and decreased with socio-economic group. Agreement with this statement was lowest for people from the higher socio-economic groups and highest among people from lower socio-economic groups – 19 per cent for those in the higher managerial group, compared with 61 per cent for those who had never worked.
  An above average proportion of Asian people agreed with the statement (46%), compared with the other ethnic groups (34% for white, 30% for black and 36% for Chinese / other respondents).

Table 2.5: Statements on rights and responsibilities

	Definitely agree	Tend to agree	Tend to disagree	Definitely disagree	Respondents in England and Wales
If people treated others as they would want to be treated themselves, our society would be a better place	83%	14%	2%	1%	9,899
You can't demand rights as someone living in the UK without also accepting the responsibilities	66%	29%	3%	1%	9,663
Some people take advantage of public services and benefits without putting anything back into the community	68%	24%	4%	3%	9,787
People are entitled to basic human rights, regardless of whether they are a good person or not	52%	33%	11%	4%	9,798
If people would mind their own business, our society would be a better place	16%	18%	38%	28%	9,730

Data do not total 100% due to rounding.
Question H3

Table 2.6: Agreement with statements on rights and responsibilities, by age

		All	16 to 19	20 to 29	30 to 39	40 to 49	50 to 64	Over 64
If people treated others as they would want to be treated themselves, our society would be a better place	%	97%	96%	95%	97%	97%	99%	99%
	Respondents	*9,908*	*345*	*1,296*	*2,065*	*1,527*	*2,233*	*2,442*
You can't demand rights as someone living in the UK without also accepting the responsibilities	%	96%	95%	94%	95%	95%	97%	97%
	Respondents	*9,650*	*335*	*1,272*	*2,037*	*1,500*	*2,203*	*2,303*
Some people take advantage of public services and benefits without putting anything back into the community	%	93%	90%	93%	93%	92%	93%	93%
	Respondents	*9,788*	*335*	*1,283*	*2,048*	*1,513*	*2,215*	*2,394*
People are entitled to basic human rights, regardless of whether they are a good person or not	%	85%	88%	84%	85%	85%	86%	82%
	Respondents	*9,775*	*342*	*1,282*	*2,052*	*1,507*	*2,220*	*2,372*
If people would mind their own business, our society would be a better place	%	34%	31%	26%	26%	27%	36%	54%
	Respondents	*9,727*	*339*	*1,274*	*2,039*	*1,497*	*2,199*	*2,379*

Agreement is defined as 'definitely agree' and 'tend to agree'
Question H3.

Table 2.7: Agreement with statements on rights and responsibilities, by socio-economic group

		All	Higher management	Lower management	Intermediate occupations	Small employers	Lower supervisory	Semi-routine	Routine	Never worked	Full-time students
If people treated others as they would want to be treated themselves, our society would be a better place	%	97%	98%	98%	98%	98%	98%	98%	98%	97%	94%
	Respondents	*9,845*	*927*	*2,114*	*1,385*	*719*	*964*	*1,617*	*1,424*	*279*	*416*
You can't demand rights as someone living in the UK without also accepting the responsibilities	%	96%	95%	96%	96%	96%	95%	95%	96%	95%	95%
	Respondents	*9,591*	*925*	*2,095*	*1,357*	*706*	*942*	*1,560*	*1,350*	*252*	*404*
Some people take advantage of public services and benefits without putting anything back into the community	%	93%	92%	94%	94%	93%	93%	93%	91%	85%	91%
	Respondents	*9,726*	*921*	*2,095*	*1,370*	*714*	*957*	*1,604*	*1,404*	*251*	*410*
People are entitled to basic human rights, regardless of whether they are a good person or not	%	85%	87%	87%	84%	80%	81%	83%	85%	87%	88%
	Respondents	*9,712*	*921*	*2,106*	*1,373*	*713*	*949*	*1,585*	*1,382*	*269*	*414*
If people would mind their own business, our society would be a better place	%	34%	19%	24%	27%	37%	37%	43%	53%	61%	26%
	Respondents	*9,664*	*909*	*2,074*	*1,359*	*704*	*954*	*1,592*	*1,389*	*270*	*413*

Agreement is defined as 'definitely agree' and 'tend to agree'
Question H3.

Table 2.8: Agreement with statements on rights and responsibilities, by ethnic group

		All	White	Mixed	Asian	Black	Chinese/ Other
If people treated others as they would want to be	%	98%	98%	98%	97%	96%	97%
treated themselves, our society would be a better place	*Respondents*	*15,140*	*9,282*	*370*	*3,107*	*1,808*	*573*
You can't demand rights as someone living in the UK	%	96%	96%	93%	93%	92%	92%
without also accepting the responsibilities	*Respondents*	*14,563*	*9,040*	*357*	*2,890*	*1,741*	*535*
Some people take advantage of public services and	%	93%	93%	85%	83%	87%	81%
benefits without putting anything back into the community	*Respondents*	*14,708*	*9,185*	*361*	*2,890*	*1,730*	*542*
People are entitled to basic human rights, regardless	%	85%	84%	81%	90%	88%	89%
of whether they are a good person or not	*Respondents*	*14,939*	*9,150*	*362*	*3,070*	*1,785*	*572*
If people would mind their own business, our society	%	34%	34%	31%	46%	30%	36%
would be a better place	*Respondents*	*14,781*	*9,111*	*368*	*2,983*	*1,766*	*553*

Agreement is defined as 'definitely agree' and 'tend to agree'
Question H3.

Do people feel they can influence political decisions?

People were asked whether they felt they could influence political decisions affecting Britain, Wales (for those living in Wales), London (for those living in London), and their local area. These questions were asked to ascertain feelings of political empowerment, or political efficacy as it is also known. A low sense of political empowerment can indicate disenchantment with the workings of the political process.

Overall, 43 per cent of adults agreed (definitely agreed/tended to agree) that they could influence decisions affecting their local areas (Figure 2.1). But only 24 per cent agreed they could influence decisions affecting Britain. Thirty-one per cent of adults living in London agreed that they could influence decisions affecting London and 26 per cent of adults living in Wales felt they could influence decisions affecting Wales[12].

There were no significant differences between the proportions of men and women agreeing that they could influence decisions affecting Britain and their local area. But there were generally higher levels of agreement among those aged 30 to 49. Levels of agreement were particularly low among those aged over 64 (Table 2.9).

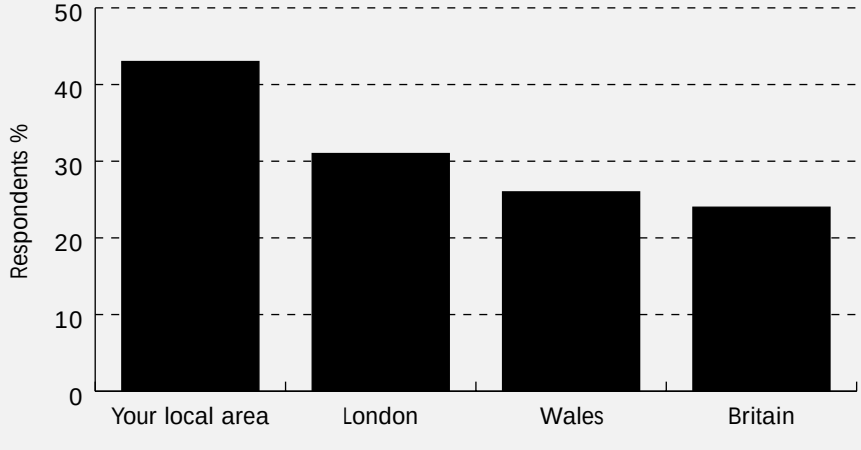
Larger proportions of respondents from the higher socio-economic groups agreed that they could influence political decisions than did those from lower socio-economic groups (Table

12. The small number of respondents to the Wales and London questions mean it is not possible to break this data down any further.

2.10). These differences between the socio-economic groups were greater for perceptions of influence over political decision making in the local area compared with Britain.

More people from all of the minority ethnic groups compared with white people agreed that they could influence decisions affecting Britain as a whole (35% for black, 34% for mixed ethnicity, 32% for Asian, and 32% for Chinese / other people, versus 24% for white people – Figure 2.2). Similarly, more black people than Asian and white people agreed that they could influence decisions affecting their local area (52%, versus 46% and 43%). The relatively high feelings of political influence expressed by people from minority ethnic groups compared with white people are a particularly interesting finding in the light of evidence elsewhere in the survey that minority ethnic people believe they are more likely than white people to experience discrimination in the provision of public services (see pages 43 to 49).

Figure 2.1: People agreeing that they can influence political decisions made in Britain, Wales, London and their local area



The London and Wales questions were only asked of people living there. The small sample sizes means they are excluded from subsequent analysis.
Respondents in England and Wales: 9,607 for local area; 9,659 for Britain; 1,302 for London; 537 for Wales.
Question V2.4

Table 2.9: People agreeing that they can influence political decisions made in Britain and their local area, by age

		Your local area	Britain
All	%	43%	25%
	Respondents	*9,601*	*9,645*
16 to 19	%	40%	17%
	Respondents	*322*	*331*
20 to 29	%	44%	26%
	Respondents	*1,246*	*1,253*
30 to 39	%	48%	25%
	Respondents	*2,019*	*2,028*
40 to 49	%	49%	27%
	Respondents	*1,491*	*1,485*
50 to 64	%	43%	25%
	Respondents	*2,186*	*2,193*
over 64	%	35%	22%
	Respondents	*2,337*	*2,355*

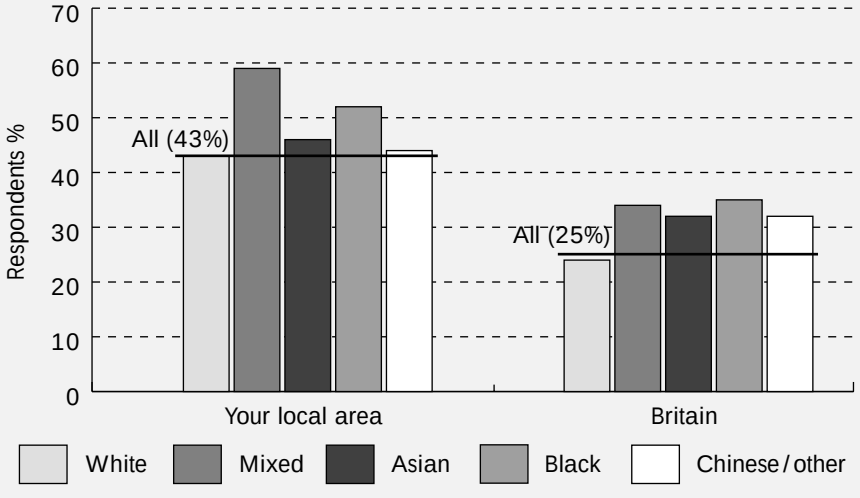
Agreement is defined as 'definitely agree' and 'tend to agree'
Question V2.4

Table 2.10: People agreeing that they can influence political decisions made in Britain and their local area, by socio-economic group

		Your local area	Britain
All	%	43%	25%
	Respondents	*9,526*	*9,572*
Higher management	%	51%	28%
	Respondents	*912*	*914*
Lower management	%	53%	29%
	Respondents	*2,080*	*2,077*
Intermediate occupations	%	43%	22%
	Respondents	*1,338*	*1,352*
Small employers	%	42%	24%
	Respondents	*706*	*704*
Lower supervisory	%	35%	19%
	Respondents	*938*	*930*
Semi-routine	%	34%	21%
	Respondents	*1,544*	*1,557*
Routine	%	33%	20%
	Respondents	*1,351*	*1,364*
Never worked	%	26%	18%
	Respondents	*258*	*267*
Students	%	45%	24%
	Respondents	*399*	*407*

Agreement is defined as 'definitely agree' and 'tend to agree'
Question V2.4

Figure 2.2: People agreeing that they can influence political decisions made in Britain and the local area, by ethnic group



Agreement is defined as 'definitely agree' and 'tend to agree'
Respondents in England and Wales: 9,003 white; 358 mixed; 2,866 Asian; 1,680 black; 518 Chinese / other
Question V2.4

How much do people trust public institutions?

To assess feelings of political and institutional trust, people were asked how much they trusted a number of public institutions. Political-institutional trust provides a measure of how people feel about those in authority. The presence of trust is often taken to mean that individuals feel their own interests would be looked after even if those in authority were exposed to little supervision or scrutiny. If a particular group of people are found to have particularly low levels of political-institutional trust this could signify political alienation and dissatisfaction with the treatment they receive from those in positions of power.

Generally, people expressed more trust in legal than in political institutions. People expressed the greatest amount of trust (trusted a lot / a fair amount) in the police (80%) and the courts (72%) (Figure 2.3). A greater proportion of women trusted the police than men (Table 2.11). Trust in the police increased marginally with age, whilst trust in the courts decreased with age (Table 2.12). Generally, levels of trust in the police decreased by socio-economic group. For example, between 83 and 85 per cent of those in the top three socio-economic groups trusted the police a lot or a fair amount. This compared with between 75 and 76 per cent of those in the small employers / own account, lower supervisory and

technical, and routine socio-economic groups (Table 2.13). Trust in the courts also declined by socio-economic group. Those who had never worked and students break this decline in trust in the police and courts. For example, 83 per cent of students said they trusted the courts a lot or a fair amount, compared with 75 to 80 per cent of those from the top three socio-economic groups.

White and Asian people trusted the police the most (80% and 78%); and black people, the least (59%) (Table 2.14). Asian and Chinese/other people trusted the courts the most (79% and 77%); and black people, the least (62%). Within the black group there were differences in levels of trust between Caribbeans and Africans. Fifty-five per cent of Caribbeans said they trusted the police a lot or a little, compared with 66 per cent of Africans. The contrast was even larger for trust in the courts: 53 per cent, compared with 72 per cent.

Minority ethnic people's feelings of trust in legal institutions, particularly black people's feelings of trust, were consistent with their expectations of experiencing racial prejudice at the hands of the police and courts (see pages 43 and 44).

People trusted political institutions less than the police and the courts, and they trusted national less than local political institutions[13]. Fifty-one per cent of people said they trusted their local council a lot or a fair amount. In contrast, only 36 per cent trusted Parliament a lot or a fair amount, and 64 per cent said they trusted Parliament not very much or not at all. People trusted politicians least of all – only 24 per cent trusted them a lot or a fair amount, and 76 per cent either trusted them not very much or not at all.

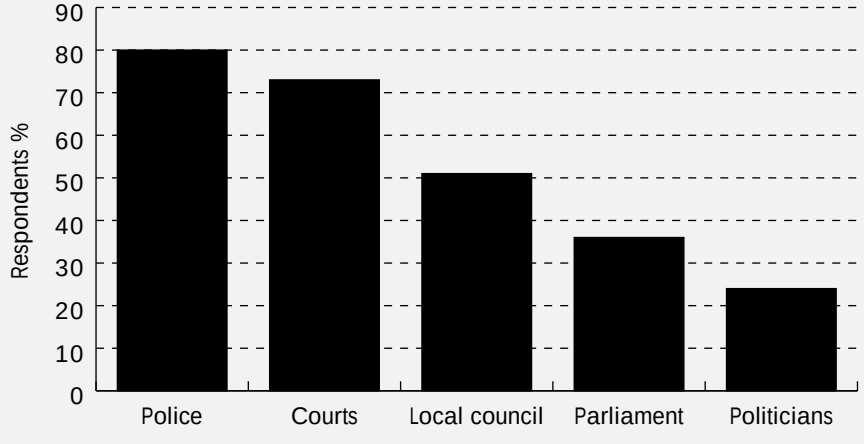
Generally, a larger proportion of women than men said that they trusted their local councils a lot or a fair amount (53% compared with 50%). This was reversed for feelings of trust in Parliament (34% compared with 38%). There were higher levels of trust in politicians, Parliament and local councils among the youngest and oldest respondents. In contrast, middle-aged respondents were least likely to trust these political institutions.

There were lower levels of trust in local authorities among those from small employers and own account and lower supervisory and technical socio-economic groups, compared with those from the higher management and professional groups. Levels of trust in politicians were greatest among people from the highest and lowest socio-economic groups.

13. The UK Citizen's Audit also showed greater levels of trust in local compared with national government (Pattie, C., Seyd, P. and Whiteley, P. (2002): Does Good Citizenship Make a Difference?, Paper presented to the EPOP Annual Conference, University of Salford.). Additionally, the 2002 Eurobarometer survey (www.europa.eu.int) shows that people in the UK have the lowest levels of trust across Europe in European Union institutions.

People from minority ethnic groups had higher levels of trust in both national and local level political institutions than white people. For example, at the national level 56 per cent of Asian and 44 per cent of black people said they trusted Parliament a lot or a fair amount, compared with 35 per cent of white people. And at the local level higher proportions of Asian (63%) and Chinese / other (63%) people reported trust in the local council, compared with white (50%), mixed (52%) and black (53%) people. These perceptions of higher levels of trust in national and local level political organisations, among people from minority ethnic groups compared with white people, are consistent with the earlier findings that greater proportions of people from minority ethnic groups than white people felt they could influence decisions affecting Britain and their local area.

Figure 2.3: People trusting local and national level public institutions a lot or a fair amount



Includes the trust a lot or a fair amount options.
Respondents: 9,849 police; 8,949 courts; 9,265 local council; 9,679 politicians; 9,561 Parliament.
Question V2.5

Table 2.11: People trusting public institutions a lot or a fair amount, by sex

		Police	Courts	Local council	Politicians	Parliament
All	%	80%	73%	51%	24%	36%
	Respondents	*9,849*	*8,949*	*9,265*	*9,679*	*9,561*
Men	%	78%	72%	50%	24%	38%
	Respondents	*4,304*	*4,012*	*4,054*	*4,247*	*4,226*
Women	%	82%	73%	53%	23%	34%
	Respondents	*5,545*	*4,937*	*5,211*	*5,432*	*5,335*

Includes the trust a lot or a fair amount options.
Question V2.5

Table 2.12: People trusting public institutions a lot or a fair amount, by age

		Police	Courts	Local council	Politicians	Parliament
All	%	80%	73%	51%	24%	36%
	Respondents	*9,847*	*8,948*	*9,263*	*9,677*	*9,559*
16 to 19	%	77%	83%	63%	32%	41%
	Respondents	*349*	*316*	*306*	*312*	*315*
20 to 29	%	76%	76%	55%	24%	37%
	Respondents	*1,290*	*1,192*	*1,159*	*1,237*	*1,222*
30 to 39	%	81%	75%	48%	22%	34%
	Respondents	*2,063*	*1,944*	*1,936*	*2,021*	*2,000*
40 to 49	%	82%	73%	47%	22%	37%
	Respondents	*1,518*	*1,422*	*1,444*	*1,506*	*1,491*
50 to 64	%	80%	68%	48%	21%	34%
	Respondents	*2,224*	*2,038*	*2,123*	*2,217*	*2,189*
over 64	%	82%	68%	57%	26%	38%
	Respondents	*2,403*	*2,036*	*2,295*	*2,384*	*2,342*

Includes the trust a lot or a fair amount options.
Question V2.5

Table 2.13: People trusting public institutions a lot or a fair amount, by socio-economic group

		Police	Courts	Local council	Politicians	Parliament
All	%	80%	73%	51%	24%	36%
	Respondents	*9,768*	*8,881*	*9,191*	*9,603*	*9,487*
Higher management	%	83%	80%	56%	25%	45%
	Respondents	*922*	*882*	*863*	*912*	*910*
Lower professional	%	83%	75%	51%	23%	39%
	Respondents	*2,104*	*1,972*	*1,998*	*2,088*	*2,072*
Intermediate occupations	%	85%	77%	52%	23%	36%
	Respondents	*1,370*	*1,246*	*1,283*	*1,354*	*1,334*
Small employers	%	75%	67%	44%	21%	34%
	Respondents	*719*	*657*	*677*	*712*	*704*
Lower supervisory	%	76%	68%	47%	21%	33%
	Respondents	*953*	*869*	*917*	*952*	*946*
Semi-routine	%	80%	67%	50%	21%	28%
	Respondents	*1,590*	*1,421*	*1,509*	*1,568*	*1,532*
Routine	%	75%	65%	50%	23%	32%
	Respondents	*1,406*	*1,216*	*1,317*	*1,363*	*1,339*
Never worked	%	78%	70%	55%	26%	39%
	Respondents	*286*	*233*	*261*	*256*	*250*
Full-time students	%	80%	83%	63%	32%	45%
	Respondents	*418*	*385*	*366*	*398*	*400*

Includes the trust a lot or a fair amount options.
Question V2.5

Table 2.14: People trusting public institutions a lot or a fair amount, by ethnic group

		Police	Courts	Local council	Politicians	Parliament
All	%	80%	73%	51%	24%	36%
	Respondents	*15,044*	*13,355*	*14,107*	*14,499*	*14,274*
White	%	80%	72%	50%	22%	35%
	Respondents	*9,210*	*8,400*	*8,674*	*9,069*	*8,961*
Mixed	%	71%	74%	52%	30%	46%
	Respondents	*370*	*318*	*341*	*356*	*350*
Asian	%	78%	79%	63%	33%	56%
	Respondents	*3,108*	*2,609*	*2,945*	*2845*	*2,795*
Black	%	59%	62%	53%	29%	44%
	Respondents	*1,771*	*1,539*	*1,656*	*1,698*	*1,661*
Chinese/other	%	76%	77%	63%	30%	54%
	Respondents	*585*	*489*	*491*	*522*	*507*

Includes the trust a lot or a fair amount options.
Question V2.5

How willing are people to be active citizens?

People mentioned a wide range of rights and responsibilities and they placed a great deal of importance on balancing rights and responsibilities. And levels of trust in legal institutions were high, compared with lower levels of trust in local, then national, political institutions. But how prepared were they to do something about these views? How prepared were they to be active citizens?

Civic participation is one of the core themes in chapter five. It is briefly introduced here because of the logical links between perceived influence on political decisions, trust in public institutions and actually participating in civic activities.

When people were asked whether they had undertaken a number of representative civic activities – which included signing a petition, contacting public officials or elected representatives, and attending public meetings – 38 per cent said that they had done one or more of these at least once in the last twelve months. And levels of civic participation were highest among men compared with women; among white people compared with those from minority ethnic groups; among those aged 35 to 64; and those in the higher socio-economic groups.

More detailed analysis on civic participation is provided in chapter five.

3. Perceptions of racial prejudice and discrimination in England and Wales

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The 2001 Home Office Citizenship Survey shows that people regard equality, fairness and respect as key aspects of citizenship (see chapter 2). However some groups in society, such as minority ethnic groups, feel they are excluded from fully participating as citizens because of racial prejudice and discrimination. The Citizenship Survey was designed to capture people's perceptions of racial equality in Britain today.

We did this in two ways. Firstly, we asked people about their perceptions of changes in racial prejudice from five years ago and in five years' time. Perceptions of racial prejudice are often shaped by people's own experiences and through their interactions with others (such as through their family and peers). They are also shaped by a variety of sources, organisations and institutions (such as the mass media). Asking people about their perceptions provides one measure of race relations. In this survey, respondents were asked whether *'in Britain today there (was) less racial prejudice than there was five years ago, more than there was five years ago or about the same amount'* and whether they thought that in five years' time there would be *'less racial prejudice in Britain than there is now, more than there is now, or about the same amount'*.

People were also asked for their perceptions of racial discrimination in a range of public and private sector organisations. As the Home Office's *Race Equality in Public Services* report[14] notes: 'Poor perceptions of a particular service can cloud how that member of the public interacts with the service, to the detriment of both. The importance takes on an extra dimension when a differential develops, for whatever reason, between the perceptions of the majority community and the minority ethnic community'. We set out to measure whether respondents felt that a range of public and private organisations would treat them *'worse than people of other races, better than people of other races, or the same as people of other races'* as a member of the public using that organisation and as an employee of the organisation.

14. Home Office (2002): Race Equality in the Public Services, (London, Home Office).

The first section of this chapter examines people's broad perceptions of changes in racial prejudice. The second section examines people's perceptions of how they feel they would be treated by organisations compared with people of other races. In this chapter perceptions of racial prejudice and discrimination are broken down by ethnic group, sex, age, educational attainment, socio-economic group, region and area deprivation. As a guide to the reader, key results are presented at the start of each section in this chapter.

Perceptions of racial prejudice

Perceptions of racial prejudice today compared with five years ago

The key results on perceptions of racial prejudice today compared with five years ago, are:

- Two in every five respondents in England and Wales thought there was more racial prejudice in Britain today than five years ago. One in three thought levels had remained the same and one in six thought there was less racial prejudice than five years ago.
- Perceptions of more racial prejudice now than five years ago were higher among the following groups:
  - white respondents (44%) compared with black (35%), Asian (33%), and mixed race (32%) respondents;
  - older respondents (50 years and older) compared with 16 to 24 and 25 to 49-year-olds;
  - women compared with men – this pattern was consistent across all ethnic groups;
  - people living in the North West region of the country;
  - people occupying lower socio-economic groups (from lower supervisory/technical positions to those who have never worked/long-term unemployed); and
  - people with no qualifications.

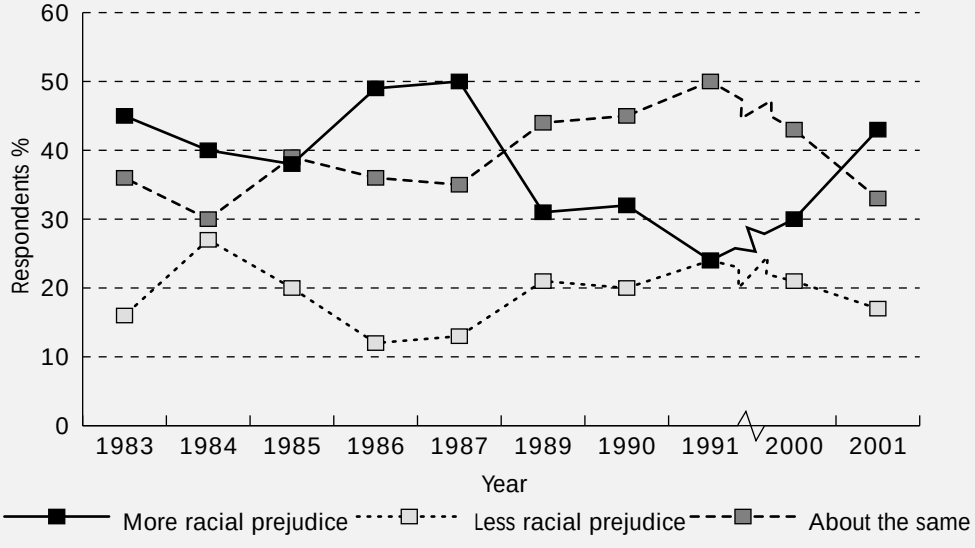
Has racial prejudice increased or decreased compared with five years ago?

The largest proportion of adults in England and Wales (43%) thought there was more racial prejudice in Britain today compared with five years ago; one in every six adults (17%) thought there was less and one in three (33%) thought there was about the same amount (Table 3.1).

Similar questions have been asked in other surveys since at least 1983 – in the British Social Attitudes Survey (BSAS) and British Crime Survey (BCS). Ideally, this should allow us to chart how people's perceptions have changed over the last two decades. However, caution is needed. Firstly, this is not strictly a time-series; answers given to this question are not exactly comparable because of the different survey methodologies used and contexts in which the question was asked. Secondly, there have been periods where this question has not been asked. This means that there are large gaps in the data.

Nonetheless, bearing these caveats in mind, charting this data could provide a crude measure of changing perceptions of racial prejudice. Annual British Social Attitudes Surveys are available from 1983 through to 1991[15], British Crime Survey in 2000 and the Citizenship Survey 2001 (see figure 3.1). The figures are taken from the Home Office Race Equality in the Public Services (2002) report and the Citizenship Survey. The figure indicates from 1983-1985 a decrease in the proportion of people saying that racial prejudice had increased compared with five years ago. An increase in the proportion of people giving this response between 1985-1986 and a steep decrease between 1987 and 1989 followed. From its low point in 1991, the trend since 1987 is reversed, as the percentage of people saying that there is more racial prejudice increased (although one should remember that yearly fluctuations are missed here because this question was not asked between 1992 and 1999).

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



Question R1. ⋀⋁ = broken time series.
Source: Home Office (2001), Race Equality in the Public Services; 2001 Citizenship Survey: 10,015 respondents in England and Wales.

15. There is no published data available for this question in 1998 and between 1992 and 1999.

Are there any differences in perceptions of racial prejudice between ethnic groups?

For the 2001 Citizenship Survey answers varied between different ethnic groups. White people were significantly more likely than people from all other ethnic groups to say there was more racial prejudice in Britain today than five years ago (Table 3.1). Two in every five white people (44%) thought that there was more racial prejudice today than five years ago compared with one in three Asians (33%), almost one in three people of mixed race (32%), one in four black people (25%), and almost one in five Chinese (19%).

Within the Asian group 38 per cent of Pakistanis, 35 per cent of Bangladeshis and 31 per cent of Indians thought there was more racial prejudice than five years ago[16] (Table 3.1). Within the black group, 28 per cent of Caribbeans and 21 per cent of Africans thought that there was more racial prejudice than five years ago.

Within most ethnic groups a greater proportion of people said racial prejudice had increased in the last five years than said it had fallen. The only exceptions were Africans and Chinese, who were more likely to say there was less prejudice than five years ago, and Bangladeshis who were as likely to say prejudice had fallen as that it had risen over this time.

Do perceptions of racial prejudice vary by age and sex?

Younger people were less likely than older people to say there was more racial prejudice in Britain now than five years ago (32% of 16 to 24-year-olds, 39% of 25 to 49-year-olds and 52% of 50+ year-olds). The reader should bear in mind that those respondents aged under 20 at the time of this survey would have been aged 11-15, five years previously. Analysis by ethnic group showed that the relationship between age and perceptions of prejudice was significant for white people. This age-based relationship was absent for Asian and black people (Figure 3.2).

16. These differences were not significant at the 95 per cent level.

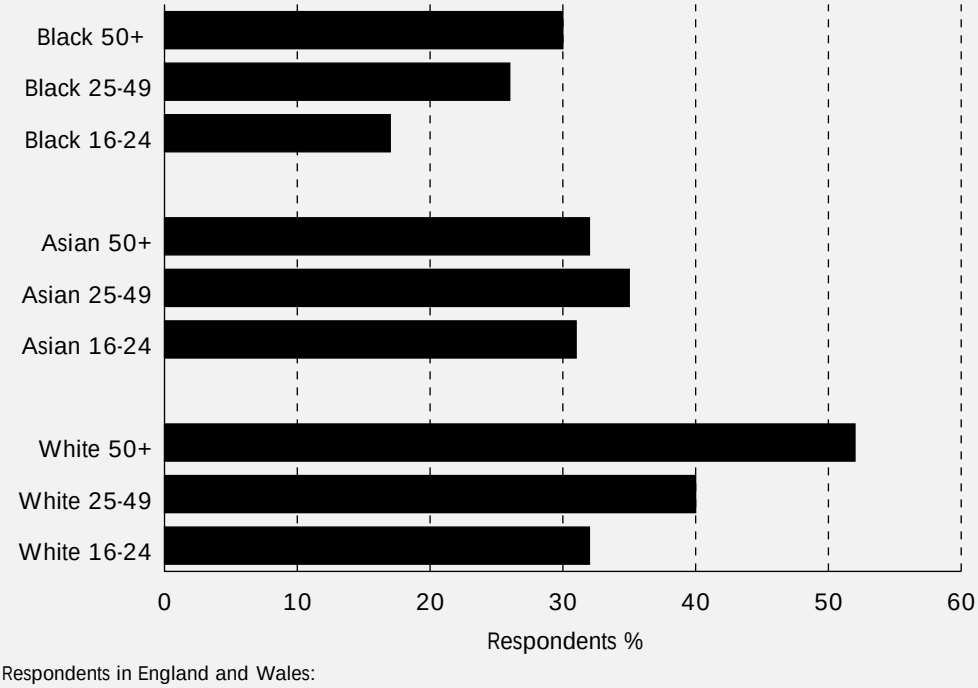
Table 3.1: Perceptions of racial prejudice in Britain compared with five years ago

	White	Asian				Black			Mixed Race	Chinese	Other	All
		All	Indian	Pakistani	Bangladeshi	All	Caribbean	African				
Less racial prejudice	17%	23%	22%	22%	31%	26%	23%	32%	24%	26%	17%	17%
More racial prejudice	44%	33%	31%	38%	35%	25%	28%	21%	32%	19%	33%	44%
About the same	33%	33%	37%	32%	26%	36%	40%	31%	34%	41%	29%	33%
Don't know	6%	10%	10%	7%	9%	12%	8%	16%	10%	15%	21%	6%
Respondents in England & Wales:	*9,358*	*3,263*	*1,334*	*946*	*585*	*1,852*	*1,008*	*705*	*380*	*148*	*466*	*15,475*

Question R1

Columns with less than 100 respondents have been excluded, so respondents for individual minority ethnic groups do not sum to the totals for all Asian and black respondents.

Figure 3.2: Perceptions of increasing racial prejudice, by age and ethnic group



Respondents in England and Wales:
white: 9,356
Asian: 3,262
black : 1,847
Question R1

Women were significantly more likely than men to say there was more racial prejudice in Britain now than five years ago (45% of women compared with 42% of men). Within ethnic groups, this was the case for white people (46% of women compared with 42% of men), Asians (38% of women compared with 29% of men) and people of mixed race (40% of women compared with 24% of men). Although 28 per cent of black women said that racial prejudice had increased compared with 23 per cent of men, the difference was not statistically significant.

Are there regional differences in perceptions of racial prejudice?

In general, responses to this question differed only slightly by region. Across the country, 43 per cent reported more racial prejudice in the last five years, with responses ranging from 34 per cent through to 51 per cent. Respondents in the North West were more likely than people from other regions to say there was more racial prejudice in Britain than five years ago (51% vs. a national average of 43%). Respondents from London (34%) were the least likely to say that racial prejudice has increased in the last five years.

Do perceptions of racial prejudice vary by level of social deprivation?

Although white and Asian respondents living in areas with the highest deprivation considered there was more racial prejudice now than five years ago, the differences were not statistically significant.

Do perceptions of racial prejudice vary by socio-economic group (NS-SEC) and qualifications?

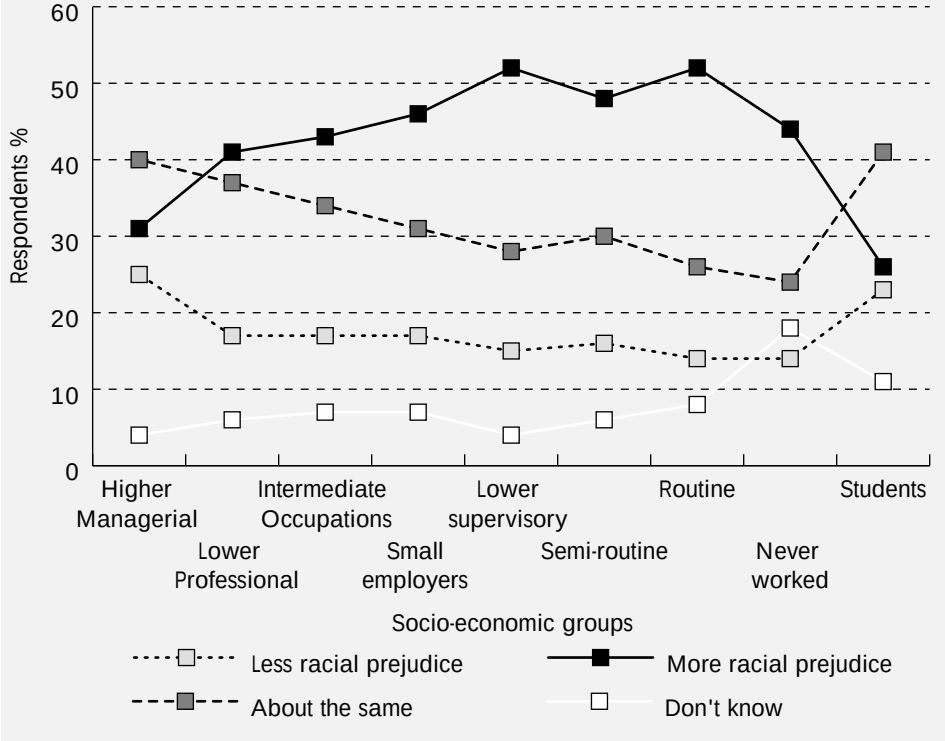
Individuals in higher socio-economic groups were less likely than those in lower groups to say that there was more racial prejudice today than five years ago (see figure 3.3). Over one in three people (34%) in the higher managerial group said that there was more racial prejudice today compared with five years ago. The proportion of respondents with this perception increases through the socio-economic groups, through to those who have never worked or are long-term unemployed. From higher management through to those who have never worked there was also a gradual decline in people saying that there was less racial prejudice or that it was about the same. This pattern was present among white and black respondents, although no such pattern was seen among Asian people.

Degree holders, particularly those holding higher degrees, were less likely than those with lower qualifications to believe that there was more racial prejudice in Britain than five years ago (30% of first degree holders, 28% of those with higher degrees). Those with vocational qualifications or no qualifications were most likely to say that racial prejudice had increased over the last five years (54% of each group). However, this relationship was absent for black and Asian people.

Did the general election and civil disturbances have any effect on perceptions of racial prejudice?

During the fieldwork for the survey a series of civil disturbances took place in a number of northern towns. It is possible that the high-profile media reporting of these may have influenced respondents' answers to the questions on racial prejudice. This may have been exacerbated further by the General Election and its attendant campaigning, particularly on immigration issues, which lay within the fieldwork period. To investigate the possibility that these events impacted on perceptions of racial prejudice, interviews conducted before and after 7th June 2001 were compared. This was the date of the General Election, and soon after the start of the period of civil disturbances. The disturbances occurred in Oldham between 26th and 29th May, in Burnley between 23rd and 25th June, and in Bradford between 7th and 9th July.

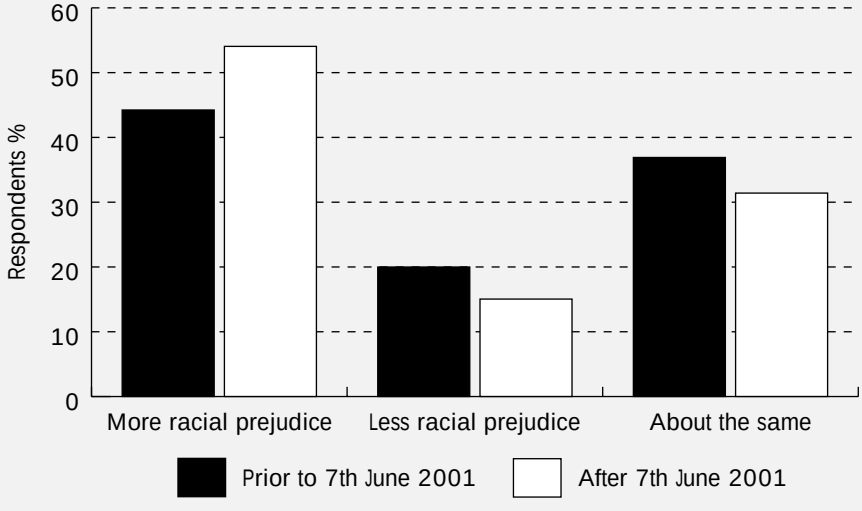
Figure 3.3: Perceptions of racial prejudice today compared with five years ago, by socio-economic group



Respondents in England and Wales: 10,015
Question R1

Of respondents interviewed on or prior to 7th June, two in every five (44%) thought there was more racial prejudice in Britain than five years ago, one in five thought there was less and almost two in five (37%) about the same amount. In comparison, amongst respondents interviewed after 7th June, one in two (54%) said that there was more, one in seven (15%) less and almost one in three (31%) about the same amount of racial prejudice as five years ago (Figure 3.4).

Figure 3.4: Perceptions of racial prejudice compared with five years ago before and after 7th June 2001



Number of respondents interviewed before the 7th of June: 7,043
Number of respondents interviewed after the 7th of June:3,282
Question R1

Predictions about racial prejudice in five years' time compared with today

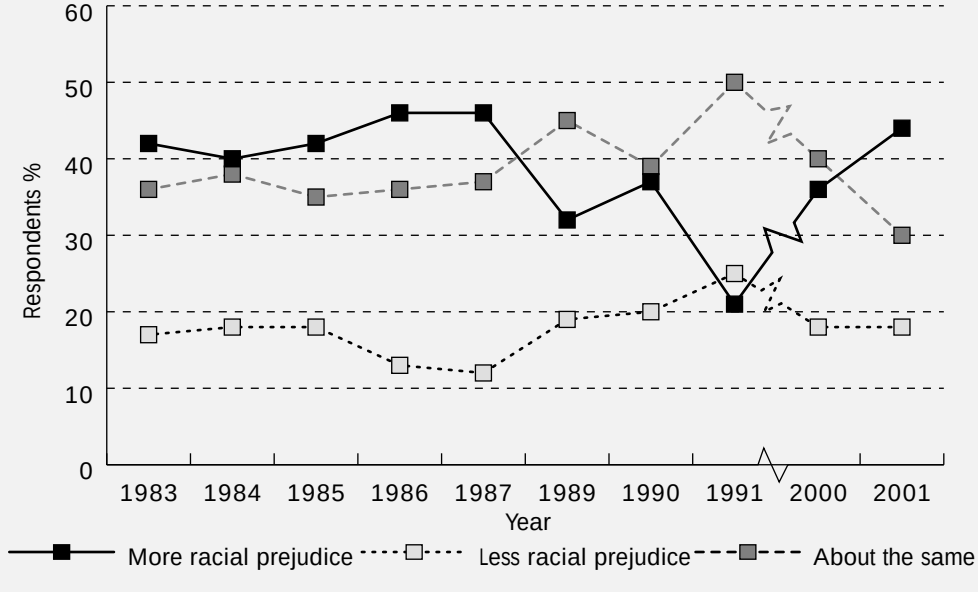
The key results on predictions of racial prejudice in five years' time compared with today are:

- Two in every five adults in England and Wales thought there would be more racial prejudice in Britain in five years' time than today. One in three thought levels had remained the same and one in every six thought there was less racial prejudice than five years ago. People who thought that levels of racial prejudice had increased from five years ago were also more likely to report that there would be further increases in five years' time.
- Predictions that there would be more racial prejudice in five years' time compared with the present were higher amongst the following groups:
  - white people (44%) compared with Asian (32%), black (27%), mixed race (26%) people;
  - older people (50 years and older) compared with those aged 16-24 and 25-49 years old;
  - people living in the North West and North East regions of the country;
  - people in lower socio-economic groups; and
  - people with no qualifications.

Do people feel that racial prejudice will increase or decrease in five years' time compared with today?

When asked to predict changes in racial prejudice in Britain over the next five years, two in every five (43%) people thought there would be more than now. Almost one in every five people (19%) thought there would be less and almost one in three (30%) thought there would be about the same amount of racial prejudice in Britain (Table 3.2). These results were similar to perceptions about levels of racial prejudice compared with five years ago. Results from other surveys that have asked the question on racial prejudice in five years' time compared with today have been compiled in the Home Office's Race Equality in the Public Services report. Figure 3.5 charts these results. Overall, we see that between 1983 and 1987 the largest proportion of respondents felt that there would be more racial prejudice in five years' time. This prediction declined to a low point in 1991, when more people felt there would be about the same or less racial prejudice. There was a gap in the data collection between 1991 and 2000. The data from 2000 onwards indicates an increase in the proportion of respondents who thought that racial prejudice would be worse in five years' time.

Figure 3.5: Predictions about racial prejudice in five years' time compared with today



Respondents in England and Wales 10,015

Question R2. ∿ = broken time series.

There is consistency between respondents' perceptions of racial prejudice now and their predictions for levels in the future. The majority of respondents who thought that there was less

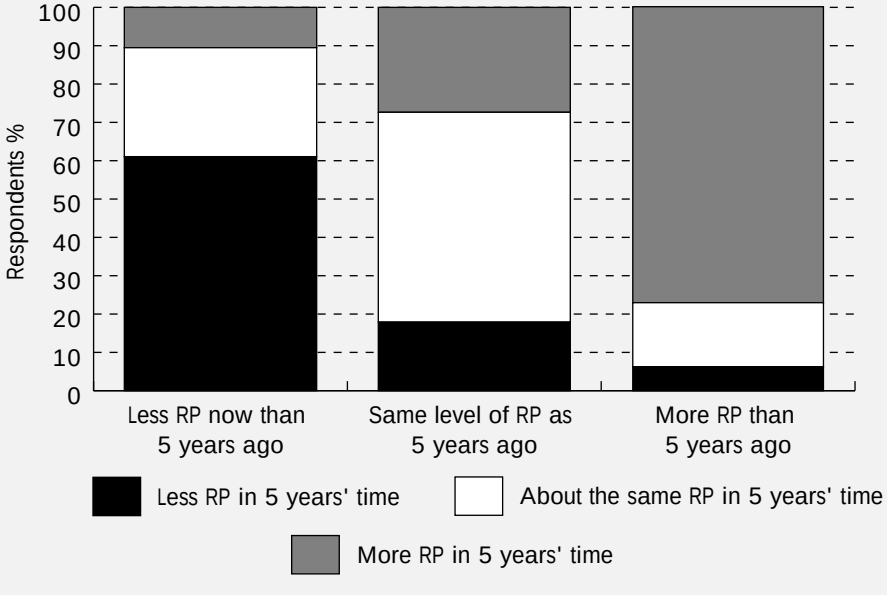
Table 3.2: Predictions about racial prejudice in Britain in five years' time compared with today

	White	Asian				Black			Mixed Race	Chinese	Other	All
		All	Indian	Pakistani	Bangladeshi	All	Caribbean	African				
Less racial prejudice	18%	24%	22%	24%	25%	29%	23%	37%	30%	30%	20%	18%
More racial prejudice	44%	32%	32%	36%	27%	27%	30%	21%	26%	19%	36%	44%
About the same	30%	27%	31%	24%	25%	28%	33%	24%	32%	33%	24%	30%
Don't know	8%	17%	15%	16%	20%	16%	14%	18%	12%	19%	20%	8%
Respondents:	*9,358*	*3,263*	*1,334*	*946*	*585*	*1,852*	*1,008*	*705*	*380*	*148*	*466*	*15,475*

Question R2

(58%) or about the same (52%) levels of racial prejudice now as there was five years ago were as likely to say there would be less or about the same amounts of racial prejudice in five years' time. Likewise, those respondents who thought there was more racial prejudice now were more likely to predict that there would be more racial prejudice in five years' time (74% Figure 3.6).

Figure 3.6: Predictions about racial prejudice in five years' time compared with respondents' views of racial prejudice now



Respondents in England and Wales: column 1 = 1,611.
column 2 = 4,462.
column 3 = 3,250.

Questions R1 and R2

Are there any differences in predictions of racial prejudice between ethnic groups?

White respondents were most likely to predict that there would be more racial prejudice in five years' time (44%), followed by Asians (32%), black people (27%), people of mixed race (26%) and Chinese people (19%). Within the Asian sample, 36 per cent of Pakistanis, 32 per cent of Indians and 27 per cent of Bangladeshis felt that there would be more racial prejudice in five years' time than now. Of the black group, 30 per cent of Caribbeans and 21 per cent of Africans felt that there would be more racial prejudice. Overall, only African, Chinese and respondents of mixed race anticipated less rather than more racial prejudice in five years' time compared with today (Table 3.2).

Are there any differences in predictions of racial prejudice by age and sex?

Younger respondents were less likely than older respondents to feel there would be more racial prejudice in Britain in five years' time (29% of 16 to 24-year-olds, 39% of 25 to 49-year-olds and 52% of those aged 50 or over). As with the previous question, these differences were apparent for both black and white respondents, but no clear relationship was seen for Asians.

Similar proportions of men (44%) and women (42%) thought there would be more racial prejudice in five years' time compared with today. There were no significant differences between men and women within each ethnic group.

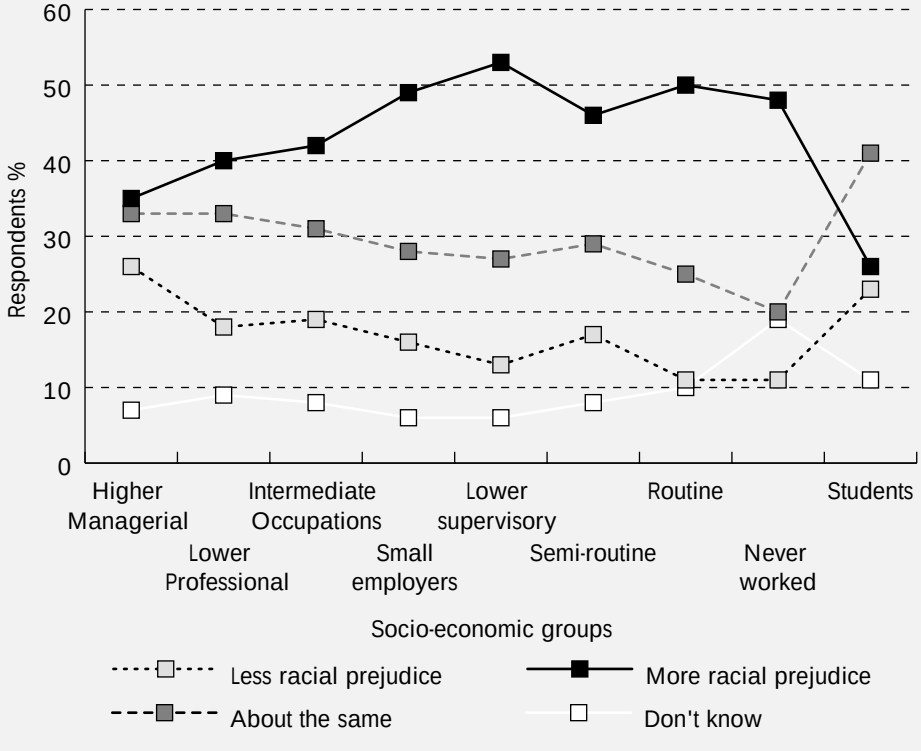
Are there any regional variations in predictions of racial prejudice?

There were only slight regional variations from the national average of 44 per cent of people who thought there would be more racial prejudice in five years' time than now. The only statistically significant differences were for people living in London, the North West and the North East. People living in London were less likely than the national average to say there would be more racial prejudice in five years' time (35% vs. 44%). People living in the North East (48%) and North West (48%) regions were more likely than average to say this.

Do predictions of racial prejudice vary by socio-economic group?

Responses to this question varied by socio-economic group (Figure 3.7). From those in the higher management group through to those who had never worked/long-term unemployed there was a general increase in the percentage of respondents who thought that racial prejudice would increase over the next five years. This was accompanied by a general decrease in the percentage of respondents who felt that racial prejudice would decline or remain about the same. This relationship was seen for white and Asian people although there was no clear relationship for black people.

Figure 3.7: Predictions about racial prejudice in five years' time compared with today, by socio-economic group



Respondents in England and Wales:10,015
Question R2

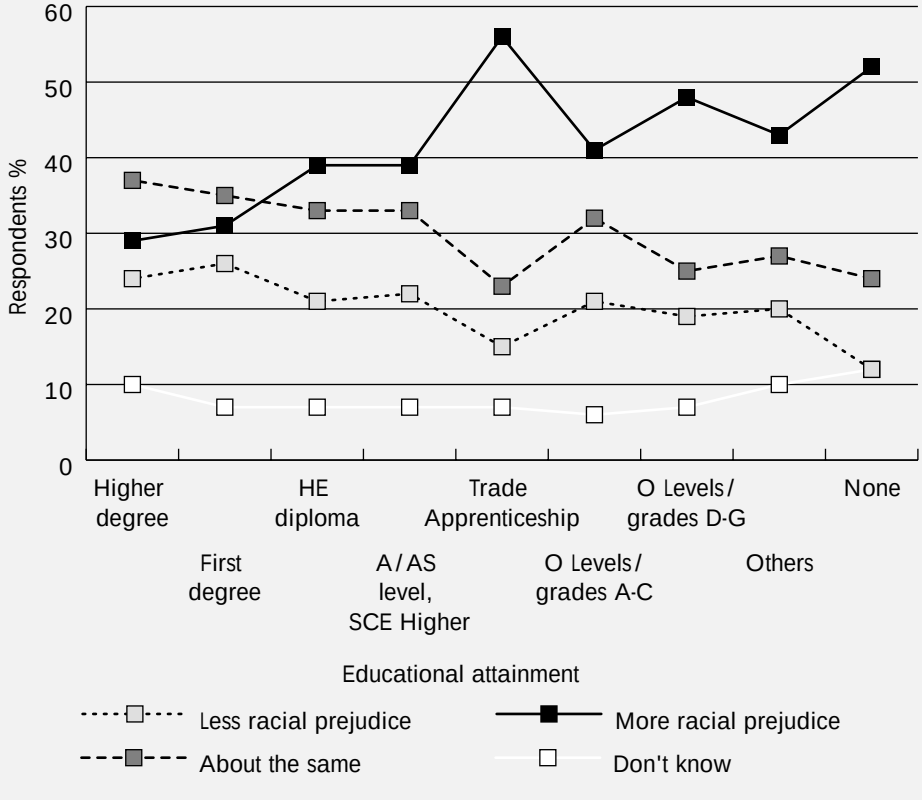
Do predictions of racial prejudice vary by levels of local deprivation?

Level of local deprivation was not significantly associated with particular predictions about changes in racial prejudice over the next five years for the population as a whole, or for different ethnic groups. This is an interesting result considering the link that some academic writers make between high levels of deprivation and high levels of racial prejudice. Our finding may be a result of several processes at work. While white people were more likely to think that racial prejudice would increase in five years' time, we also saw that people from minority ethnic groups were less likely to report this. A higher than average proportion of people from minority ethnic groups live in areas of high deprivation. As such, here we might be observing two results 'cancelling' each other out. This requires further investigation.

Are there any differences in predictions of racial prejudice by qualifications?

The most extreme differences in responses were associated with level of qualifications. Respondents with first or postgraduate degrees were the least likely to say there would be more racial prejudice (31% and 30%) while those with trade apprenticeships or no qualifications were the most likely (56% and 52%).

Figure 3.8: Predictions about racial prejudice in five years' time compared with today, by educational attainment



Respondents in England and Wales: 10,015
Question R2

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

We examined how people felt a range of 19 public and private sector organisations would treat them. Two specific questions were asked. Firstly, respondents were asked to imagine themselves *as a member of the public using the services provided* by the organisations, then to say whether they felt the organisations would treat them *'worse than people of other races, better than people of other races, or the same as people of other races'*. Secondly, they were asked to imagine themselves *working for the 19 organisations* and to say whether they thought the organisations would *'treat them worse than people of other races, better than people of other races, or the same as people of other races'* as an employee.

The key results on whether people think a range of public and private sector organisations would treat them the same, better or worse than people of other races as a member of the public using the organisations, are:

- Overall, most respondents expected to be treated the same as people from other ethnic groups by all the listed public and private organisations. The organisations that were expected by the largest proportion of respondents to treat them worse than people of other races included: council housing departments, housing associations, local councils and the immigration authorities.
- Respondents from minority ethnic groups were more likely than white respondents to say they would be treated worse than people of other races, particularly when engaging with the following organisations: police, Prison Service, armed forces and the immigration authorities.
- Younger black and Asian (16 to 49-year-olds) respondents were more likely than older (50+) black and Asian respondents to feel that they would be treated worse by a range of public organisations.
- Members of minority ethnic groups who had previous experience of police, courts and the Crown Prosecution Service (CPS) were more likely than those without experience to say they would be treated worse than people of other races.

Do people feel discriminated against when using public and private sector organisations as a member of the public?

The majority of all respondents across ethnic groups expected to be treated the same as members of other races when using these services. The following organisations were identified most frequently as organisations from whom respondents could expect to be

treated worse than people of other races (Table 3.3): council housing departments and housing associations (15%), local councils (9%) and the immigration authorities (9%).

Are there any differences in perceptions of discrimination by ethnic group?

People from minority ethnic groups were more likely to say that they would be discriminated against than white respondents. Black people, in particular, were more likely than any other ethnic group to feel they would be treated worse than other races by almost all the listed organisations, followed by people of mixed race, Asians and Chinese.

Particularly high variation by ethnic group was seen for the following organisations:

- *Police* – 46 per cent of Caribbean people and 30 per cent of Africans thought they would be treated worse than people of other races by the police, followed by 28 per cent of Pakistanis and Bangladeshis, 28 per cent of mixed race respondents, 21 per cent of Indians, and six per cent of white people.
- *Prison Service* – 33 per cent of Caribbean respondents felt that they would be treated worse by the Prison Service, compared with 24 per cent of mixed race respondents, 21 per cent of Africans, 20 per cent of Indians, 19 per cent of Pakistanis, 16 per cent of Bangladeshis, and only four per cent of white people.
- *Armed forces* – as with the police, opinions of the armed forces varied considerably even within the more general categories of black and Asian. Thirty-three per cent of Caribbeans thought they would be treated worse by the armed forces, compared with 17 per cent of Africans. Among the Asian population, 18 per cent of Pakistanis and 17 per cent of Indians thought the armed forces would treat them worse, compared with 12 per cent of Bangladeshis. This was also the case for 20 per cent of mixed race respondents and only four per cent of white respondents.
- *Immigration authorities* – 30 per cent of Caribbean respondents thought they would be treated worse by the immigration authorities, followed by 25 per cent of Africans, 23 per cent of Chinese, 21 per cent of mixed race respondents, 19 per cent of Indians, 14 per cent of Bangladeshis, 14 per cent of Pakistanis, and nine per cent of white respondents.

With few exceptions, all minority ethnic groups were at least as likely as, and usually more likely than, white people to expect worse treatment than other races. Conversely, white respondents were more likely than other ethnic groups to believe that most organisations would treat them *better*. Exceptions to this in the public sector were local councils and housing associations, local hospitals and GP practices, and the fire service; in these cases, people of all ethnic groups had similar expectations of worse treatment because of their race.

Table 3.3: Proportion who expect organisations to treat them worse than people of other races, as a member of the public using their services

	White	Asian				Black			Mixed Race	Chinese	Other	All
		All	Indian	Pakistani	Bangladeshi	All	Caribbean	African				
Public Sector												
National Level												
Armed Forces	4%	16%	17%	18%	12%	26%	33%	17%	20%	*	15%	5%
Immigration Authorities	9%	16%	19%	14%	14%	28%	30%	25%	21%	23%	15%	9%
Home Office	5%	9%	9%	9%	8%	17%	18%	16%	15%	*	13%	5%
Local Level												
Council housing dept. or housing association	15%	12%	11%	11%	19%	17%	17%	18%	13%	*	13%	15%
Local council (other depts.)	9%	9%	8%	9%	13%	12%	12%	12%	13%	*	10%	9%
Local school	3%	6%	7%	6%	*	9%	13%	5%	*	*	10%	3%
Local hospital	3%	5%	5%	7%	8%	6%	4%	5%	*	*	*	3%
Local GP practice	2%	4%	*	4%	6%	4%	5%	*	*	*	*	2%
Fire Service	1%	2%	*	*	*	3%	3%	*	*	*	*	1%
Criminal Justice System												
Police	6%	23%	21%	28%	27%	39%	46%	30%	28%	*	20%	7%
Prison Service	4%	19%	20%	19%	16%	28%	33%	21%	24%	*	16%	6%
Courts	5%	10%	11%	10%	8%	25%	32%	18%	17%	*	11%	6%
CPS	5%	9%	11%	8%	10%	25%	32%	17%	13%	*	11%	5%
Probation Service	4%	9%	10%	8%	10%	17%	21%	15%	9%	*	10%	4%
Private Sector												
Private landlord or letting agent	6%	9%	10%	7%	10%	18%	19%	16%	15%	*	12%	6%
Bank or building society	2%	3%	3%	*	*	9%	8%	11%	*	*	*	2%
Insurance company	2%	4%	4%	4%	*	6%	4%	8%	*	*	*	2%
Supermarket chain	1%	2%	*	*	*	4%	4%	*	*	*	*	2%
Petrol station	1%	*	*	*	*	4%	3%	*	*	*	*	2%
Respondents:	*8,580*	*2,831*	*1,167*	*828*	*481*	*1,698*	*932*	*643*	*358*	*141*	*417*	*14,033*

Question R4 (9% of respondents did not answer this question)

In the private sector black people were more likely than other ethnic groups to believe they would be treated worse than other races by private landlords and letting agents, and by banks and building societies. Asians, mixed race respondents and those from other minority ethnic groups were also more likely than white people to expect worse treatment from private landlords and letting agents.

Are there any differences in perceptions of racial discrimination by age?

For the sample as a whole there was no strong association between age and perception of prejudicial treatment as a member of the public by any of these organisations. There were however variations by age within ethnic groups. For white people there was little difference in perceptions across the age groups. Among black people, those under the age of 50 were more likely than their older counterparts to say that they would be treated worse than people of other races as a member of the public (this was evident in 9 out of the 14 public sector organisations). Similarly, Asians aged under 50 in several cases were more likely than older Asians to perceive that an organisation would treat them in a discriminatory manner as a member of the public. The difference was significant in the case of the police, Prison Service, immigration authorities and the armed forces. Table 3.4 shows the organisations for which there are significant age differences[18].

Table 3.4: Proportion who expect organisations to treat them worse than people of other races, as a member of the public using their services, by age within ethnic group

	Black 16-24	Black 25-49	Black 50+	Asian 16-24	Asian 25-49	Asian 50+
Police	46%	41%	29%	28%	22%	18%
Prison Service	35%	29%	18%	23%	18%	10%
CPS	32%	27%	15%			
Immigration Authorities	31%	31%	16%	20%	16%	12%
Armed forces	28%	29%	18%	21%	16%	
Courts	29%	27%	18%			
Probation Service	21%	19%	10%			
Home Office	17%	20%				
Council housing dept. or housing association	17%	19%	12%			
Respondents:	*202*	*1,060*	*434*	*614*	*1,671*	*545*

For those organisations where no significant difference was found, cells have been left blank, and where the cells had a percentage of less than 10 per cent.
Question R4

18. There is generally no significant difference between the 16-24 and 25-49 age groups for both black and Asian respondents.

Are there any differences in perceptions of racial discrimination by sex?

For respondents as a whole there were no significant differences by sex. However, there were minor differences within some ethnic groups:

- Asian men were more likely than Asian women to think they would be treated worse than people of other races by the police (28% vs. 18%) and the armed forces (18% vs. 13%); and
- black women were more likely than black men to believe that council housing departments would treat them worse (21% vs. 14%).

Do perceptions of racial discrimination vary by region, level of local deprivation, socio-economic group and qualifications?

The overall proportion expecting to be treated worse than people of other races did not vary significantly by the level of local deprivation, region, NS-SEC, or educational attainment.

However, there were again differences within ethnic groups. Among the Asian population, those with higher qualifications were more likely than less qualified Asians to think they would be treated worse by public sector organisations such as the armed forces, courts, Home Office, the immigration authorities, the Prison Service, and the Probation Service. In particular, the differences between those with first or higher degrees and those without qualifications are significant for these organisations.

Expectations of discriminatory treatment were higher among Asians who lived in less deprived than more deprived areas. In particular, Asians in the least deprived areas (in the lowest two deciles) were significantly more likely than those from the most deprived areas (highest two deciles) to expect worse treatment from the immigration authorities (32% vs. 14%) and the Home Office (20% vs. 8%). A similar pattern was also apparent in the responses from black people, although the differences were less marked than was the case for Asians.

Does contact with the organisation influence perceptions?

We also asked whether people had previously had any contact (either as a member of the public, as an employee, through work for another organisation, or in any other way) with the 19 organisations in the past five years – this allowed us to analyse results by those with some experience of each organisation and those without.

For the sample as a whole there were no substantial differences between those who had had contact with an organisation and those who had not. There were however variations by ethnic group. Among white people, an expectation of treatment by the organisations was in most cases unrelated to their contact with the organisations. The exception was council housing departments and housing associations: people of all ethnic groups (including white people) with experience of housing departments or housing associations in the last five years were more likely to expect worse treatment on the basis of their race than those who had not, with the exception of Africans.

Among minority ethnic groups, those who had had contact with a range of public sector organisations (especially the police, courts, CPS, Prison Service and Probation Service) were more likely to feel that they would be discriminated against than those who had not had any contact. Exceptions to this general trend were schools, hospitals, GP practices, the fire service and, perhaps more surprisingly in light of the results above, the immigration authorities and armed forces (considering the higher perceptions of racial discrimination reported above). Table 3.5 breaks down perceptions of racial prejudice by ethnic groups on the basis of whether they have had contact or not with the organisation.

Asians who had contact within the last five years with the relevant organisation were more likely than those who had not had any contact to say that they would be treated worse than people of other races. This difference was significant in the case of: council housing departments or housing associations (16% vs. 10%), police (32% vs. 19%), courts (18% vs. 9%), CPS (20% vs. 9%), and the Home Office (14% vs. 8%). It is worth stressing that in many of these cases Asian people who had had recent contact with an organisation were at least *twice more likely to expect worse treatment on the basis of race* than those who had not had contact. In all these cases where base sizes allowed for comparison, expectations of worse treatment were higher among Indians, Pakistanis and Bangladeshis who had had contact with that organisation.

Similarly, among black respondents, those who had had contact were significantly more likely than those without contact to say that they would be treated worse than people of other races by the police (45% vs. 35%), courts (33% vs. 23%), Prison Service (46% vs. 26%), and CPS (50% vs. 24%). Again, where comparisons were possible this pattern was consistent for both Caribbean and African people.

Although there was some variation in results for mixed race respondents (particularly with regard to local councils, excluding housing departments, and to the Home Office) the low base sizes involved meant that none of the observed differences were statistically significant.

Table 3.5: Contact/non-contact and expectations of racial discrimination as a member of the public using the organisation.

	White	Asian				Black			All
		All	Indian	Pakistani	Bangladeshi	All	Caribbean	African	
National Level									
Immigration Authorities									
- contact	*	15%	*	*	*	31%	38%	27%	11%
- no contact	9%	17%	19%	14%	14%	27%	30%	22%	9%
Home Office									
- contact	5%	14%	*	*	*	21%	*	17%	7%
- no contact	5%	8%	8%	7%	*	16%	17%	15%	5%
Local Level									
Council housing dept. or housing association									
- contact	18%	16%	14%	15%	*	19%	22%	16%	18%
- no contact	14%	10%	11%	*	14%	16%	13%	21%	14%
Local council (other depts)									
- contact	10%	12%	*	*	*	13%	13%	*	10%
- no contact	9%	8%	7%	10%	9%	12%	12%	13%	9%
Criminal Justice System									
Police									
- contact	6%	32%	31%	34%	44%	44%	53%	37%	7%
- no contact	6%	19%	16%	24%	20%	35%	42%	27%	7%
Prison Service									
- contact	*	*	*	*	*	46%	50%	*	8%
- no contact	4%	18%	19%	19%	15%	26%	30%	21%	5%
CPS									
- contact	7%	21%	*	*	*	50%	*	*	8%
- no contact	4%	9%	10%	7%	9%	24%	30%	16%	5%
Courts									
-contact	6%	19%	*	*	*	32%	40%	21%	6%
- no contact	5%	9%	9%	9%	*	23%	30%	16%	6%

Respondents for England and Wales:
Immigration Authority – Contact 1,062; No contact 12,963
Home Office – Contact 1,449; No contact 12,576
Council Housing Dept – Contact 3,934; No contact 10,091
Local Council – Contact 3,517; No contact 10,508
Police – Contact 5,989; No contact 8,063
Prison Service – Contact 518; No contact 13,507
CPS – Contact 570; No contact 13,455
Courts – Contact 2,507; No contact 11,518

Question R4

Do people feel they would be discriminated against by organisations as an employee?

The key results on whether people think a range of public and private sector organisations would treat them the same, better or worse than people of other races if they were an employee of the organisations, are:

- Overall, most respondents expected to be treated the same as people from other races by all the listed public and private organisations if they were an employee. The organisations which respondents most expected to treat them worse as an employee than people of other races included: the police, the council and council housing departments, the armed forces and the immigration authorities.
- People from minority ethnic groups were more likely than white people to say they would be treated worse as an employee than people of other races, particularly by the following organisations: the police, prison service, courts and armed forces.
- There was little variation in perceived treatment among respondents who were employed and not employed by the named organisations.

The second measure of discrimination sought to examine whether respondents felt that the 19 organisations would treat them equally as an employee. Respondents were asked to imagine themselves working for each of the 19 organisations in turn[19]. They were then asked to indicate whether they thought that the organisation would *'treat them worse than people of other races, better than people of other races, or the same as people of other races'*, in this case as an employee.

Table 3.6 shows in each case the proportion of those answering the question who thought that, if they worked for that organisation, it would treat them worse than people of other races working for the same organisation. The overall pattern of results was broadly similar to that of the last question, with most people expecting to be treated the same as employees of other races by each of the organisations. The organisations with the highest proportions expecting worse treatment than other races were the police (10%), council housing departments and housing associations (9%), other local council departments (8%), the armed forces (8%) and the immigration authorities (8%).

19. Fewer people were able to imagine themselves as an employee of these organisations than as a member of the public using their services, and the proportion of people not answering this question at all was 15 per cent. The results for this question are therefore based on the 13,198 people who did answer.

Are there any variations by ethnic group in perceptions of discrimination by employers?

Again, there were variations by ethnic group. In the majority of cases white people were less likely than other ethnic groups to expect discriminatory treatment by employers. Black people were in general either at least as likely, or more likely, than all other ethnic groups to anticipate worse treatment than employees of other races. Other minority ethnic groups varied between the levels recorded by black and white people. Examining the black group, we see that for about half of the organisations Caribbeans were more likely than Africans to say that public organisations would discriminate against them as an employee. They were significantly more likely than African respondents to say this about the police, armed forces, Prison Service, and courts (four of the five organisations for which Caribbeans were also more likely than Africans to expect worse treatment as a member of the public) and also the Probation Service and fire service. For the other organisations, responses were similar for Africans and Caribbeans.

In the case of Asians, Indians generally expected worse treatment compared with people of other races, than did Pakistani and Bangladeshi respondents. However, the only organisations where there were significant differences between Asian ethnic groups were the courts and Home Office; in each case, Indians were significantly more likely than Bangladeshis (and in the case of the Home Office, Pakistanis also) to expect worse treatment as an employee.

Overall, the organisations with the greatest differences in response by ethnic group were:

- *Police* – 49 per cent of Caribbeans expected worse treatment than other races by the police, with Africans being second most likely (35%) to say this. This fell to around three in ten of all other minority ethnic groups and eight per cent of white people.
- *Armed forces* – 43 per cent of Caribbeans thought they would be treated worse than people of other races as an employee by the armed forces. The next highest result was for the Chinese (33%), then Africans, Indians and Pakistanis (just under three in ten of each group), Bangladeshis and people of mixed race (just over two in ten), and white respondents (7%).
- *Courts* – There was considerable variation between different ethnic groups with regard to the courts. A quarter (26%) of Caribbeans thought they would be treated worse than people of other races as an employee. The next highest levels were among Africans (17%), Indians (16%), people of mixed race (14%), Pakistanis (12%), Bangladeshis (7%) and white people (5%).

Table 3.6: Proportion who expected organisations to treat them worse than people of other races, as an employee

	White	Asian				Black			Mixed Race	Chinese	Other	All
		All	Indian	Pakistani	Bangladeshi	All	Caribbean	African				
Public Sector												
National level												
Armed Forces	7%	27%	29%	28%	21%	37%	43%	27%	23%	33%	25%	8%
Immigration Authorities	7%	14%	16%	11%	11%	22%	24%	18%	16%	25%	13%	8%
Home Office	5%	11%	14%	8%	7%	18%	19%	16%	9%	*	13%	6%
Local Level												
Fire Service	4%	12%	14%	10%	11%	15%	19%	11%	12%	*	11%	5%
Council housing dept. or housing association	8%	10%	11%	8%	12%	14%	14%	14%	11%	*	9%	9%
Local council (other depts.)	7%	11%	12%	8%	14%	14%	15%	13%	14%	*	11%	8%
Local school	5%	8%	10%	6%	7%	12%	13%	11%	*	*	9%	5%
Local hospital	5%	9%	9%	7%	7%	11%	13%	10%	*	*	*	5%
Local GP practice	4%	6%	7%	5%	*	8%	8%	7%	*	*	*	4%
Criminal Justice System												
Police	8%	30%	31%	31%	30%	44%	49%	35%	30%	29%	26%	10%
Prison Service	6%	23%	25%	22%	21%	29%	34%	23%	21%	25%	18%	7%
Courts	5%	13%	16%	12%	7%	22%	26%	17%	14%	*	13%	6%
CPS	5%	13%	14%	11%	9%	22%	24%	20%	12%	*	13%	6%
Probation Service	5%	13%	15%	11%	9%	16%	19%	12%	10%	*	13%	6%
Private Sector												
Private landlord or letting agent	6%	9%	9%	6%	7%	14%	14%	13%	*	*	*	6%
Bank or building society	4%	7%	8%	5%	*	12%	13%	11%	*	*	*	4%
Insurance company	4%	7%	7%	7%	*	9%	9%	10%	*	*	*	4%
Supermarket chain	4%	8%	10%	6%	*	10%	9%	10%	9%	*	*	4%
Petrol station	4%	6%	7%	5%	*	7%	7%	7%	*	*	*	4%
Respondents:	*8,148*	*2,631*	*1,102*	*771*	*432*	*1,557*	*859*	*600*	*324*	*130*	*370*	*13,198*

Question R5

Are there any differences by age and sex in perceptions of discrimination by employers?

There were few real variations in the responses given by age and sex. In the case of white respondents, significant differences were observed by age with regard to council housing departments and housing associations – although these were small. Worse treatment than other races as an employee of such organisations was expected by five per cent of 16 to 24-year-olds, eight per cent of 25 to 49-year-olds and ten per cent of the 50+ age groups, both for the sample as a whole and for white people.

For Asian people the only differences regarding public sector organisations were for the armed forces and (to a lesser extent) local hospitals. A third (33%) of Asians in the 16-24 age group expected they would be treated worse than people of other races if employed in the armed forces, falling to 26 per cent of 25 to 49-year-olds and 19 per cent of those aged 50 and over. For local hospitals, the figures for these age groups were five per cent, ten per cent and twelve per cent respectively.

Among black people, 25 to 49-year-olds were generally more likely than younger or older black people to think they would be treated worse than people of other races by the listed organisations. Table 3.7 shows the public sector organisations for which there is a difference in opinion between this age group and either older or younger black people, or both.

Table 3.7: Proportion who expect organisations to treat them worse than people of other races, as an employee, by age within ethnic group

	Black 16-24	Black 25-49	Black 50+
Police	43%	48%	33%
Armed Forces	31%	41%	28%
Prison Service	25%	32%	22%
CPS	18%	26%	16%
Home Office	*	21%	14%
Local council (exc. housing depts.)	*	16%	14%
Respondents:	*191*	*995*	*389*

Question R5

Men and women were about as likely as each other to think that the range of public/private organisations would treat them worse than people of other races as an employee. This was true in all cases for both white and black people, and in almost all cases for Asians. The exceptions were that Asian men were significantly more likely than Asian women to expect worse treatment as an employee from the police (34% vs. 26%) and the armed forces (31% vs. 23%).

Are there variations by socio-economic group, qualification and level of local deprivation in perceptions of discrimination by employers?

There was no interpretable variation by socio-economic group or educational attainment in response to this question.

Those living in the most deprived areas, however, were more likely than others to say that, for many of the organisations listed, they would be treated worse than people of other races as an employee. The differences in opinion between areas of greatest and least deprivation (top and bottom two deciles) were significant for the courts, CPS, and local hospitals (and also for supermarkets). This last result was only the case for the white population. Results for black and Asian people showed no clear relationship between responses to the question and deprivation levels.

Does contact with the organisation influence perceptions?

Few respondents had worked for any of the organisations listed within the last five years. Those who did have experience of an organisation as an employee were, in general, neither more nor less likely than those without such experience to say they thought they would be treated worse as an employee than people of other races. Base sizes for those with experience of employment with the organisations were too small to allow for reliable interpretation of data among subgroups.

4. People's involvement in their neighbourhoods

Duncan Prime, Meta Zimmeck and Andrew Zurawan
(Research, Development and Statistics, Home Office)[20]

People live in neighbourhoods – places with different characteristics and different characters. Their views about these places and about the other people who live in them in part determine their understanding of society and how it works. This chapter explores the following:

- people's attitudes to their neighbourhoods;
- people's willingness to intervene for the common good; and
- people's involvement in social networks.

In particular, it explores how people's attitudes and behaviour varied according to demographic factors such as sex, age and ethnic group and according to the location and level of deprivation of their neighbourhoods.

People's feelings of attachment to their neighbourhoods, their willingness to make an active commitment to their neighbourhoods and their involvement in social networks, both within and beyond their neighbourhoods, are considered by policy-makers to be mutually reinforcing and as such to be key components of social capital and social cohesion. On the one hand, they are linked to people's family structures and relationships (see Chapter 6) and, on the other hand, to people's sense of efficacy with regard to, and trust in, political institutions (see Chapter 2) and to their active involvement in communities (civic participation, social participation, informal volunteering and formal volunteering; see Chapter 5).

This chapter contains primarily high-level descriptive information. Future reports will provide more detailed and more analytical information.

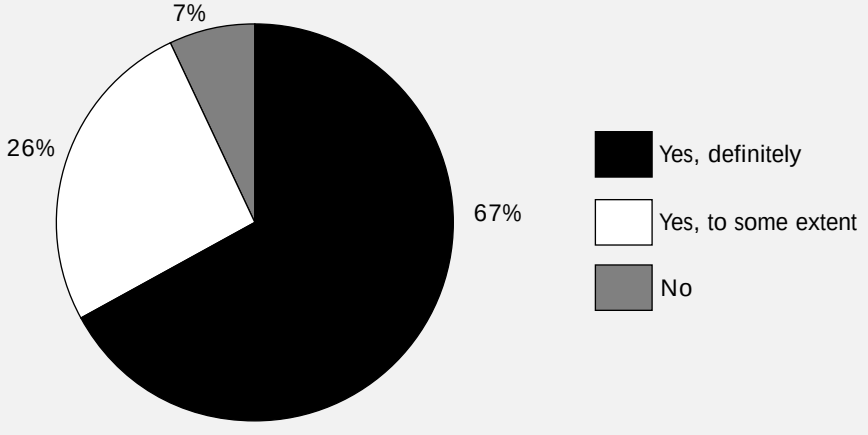
What are people's attitudes to their neighbourhoods?

This section looks at people's attitudes to their neighbourhoods: whether they enjoyed living in their neighbourhoods; how safe they felt walking alone after dark; how many people they knew; and how many people they thought could be trusted (Figures 4.1 to 4.4). It also examines their views on reciprocity – their perceptions of whether they thought people

20. The authors would like to thank Oliver Heath, University of Essex, for his contribution to this chapter.

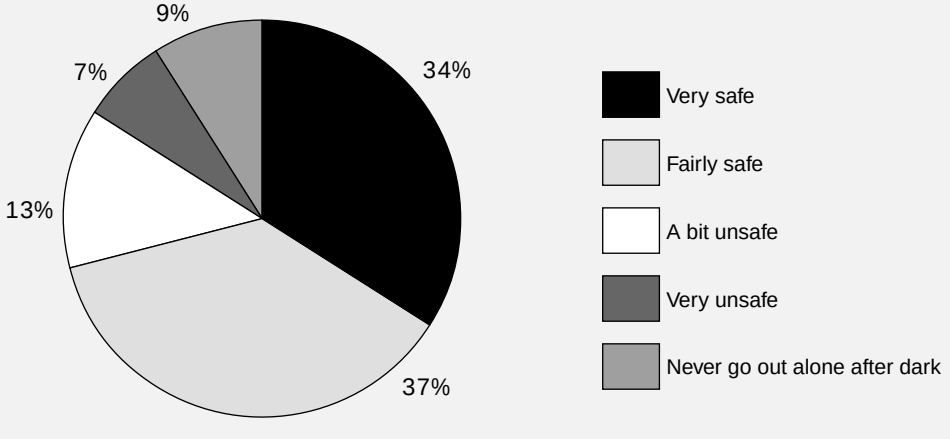
looked out for each other in their neighbourhoods and whether, if they lost a wallet or purse in the street, they thought it would be returned to them intact (Figures 4.5 and 4.6).

Figure 4.1: Would you say that this is a neighbourhood in which you enjoy living?



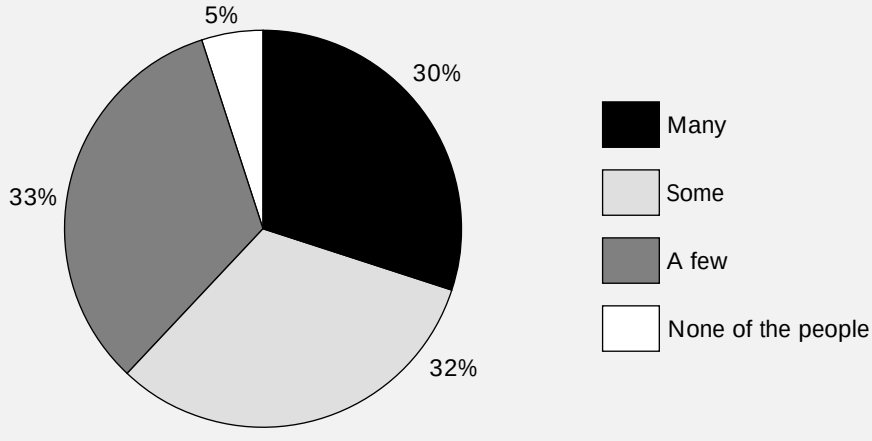
Respondents in England and Wales: 9,997
Question V1.2

Figure 4.2: How safe do you feel walking alone in your neighbourhood after dark?



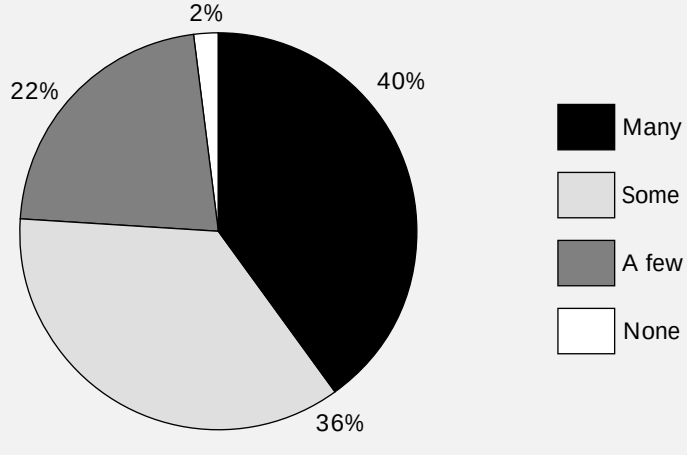
Respondents in England and Wales: 10,000
Question V1.3

Figure 4.3: How many people in your neighbourhood do you know?



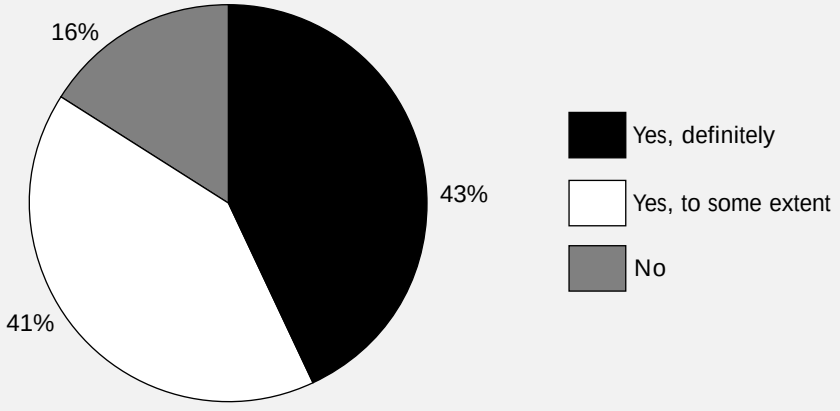
Respondents in England and Wales: 10,008
Question V1.4

Figure 4.4: How many people in your neighbourhood can be trusted?



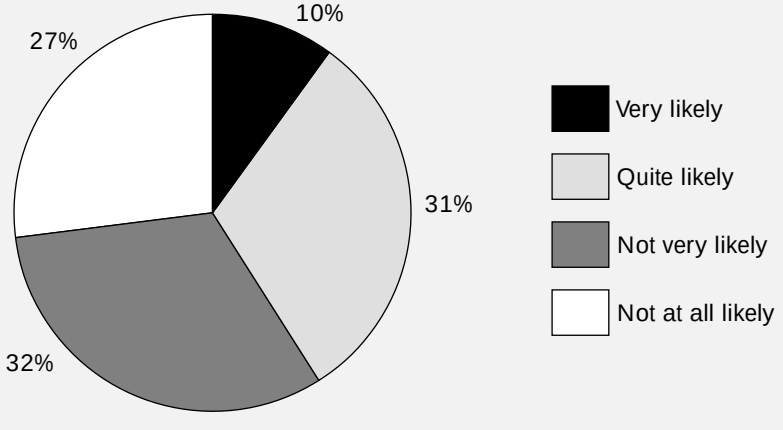
Respondents in England and Wales: 9,441
Question V1.5

Figure 4.5: Would you say that this is a place where neighbours look out for each other?



Respondents in England and Wales: 9,713
Question V1.6

Figure 4.6: How likely is it that your wallet or purse would be returned intact if you lost it in your neighbourhood?



Respondents in England and Wales: 9,335
Question V1.7

People's attitudes varied considerably according to their socio-demographic characteristics and the types of areas in which they lived.

How do people's attitudes to their neighbourhoods vary by sex and age?

Men and women were equally likely to say that they 'definitely' enjoyed living in their neighbourhoods (Table 4.1). People aged 35 and over were significantly more likely to say this than those aged between 25 and 34, who were in turn significantly more likely to say this than those aged between 16 and 24 (Figure 4.7).

Men were more than twice as likely as women to say that they felt 'very safe' walking alone in their neighbourhoods after dark. Men aged between 25 and 49 were the most likely to say this. For both men and women feelings of being 'very safe' after dark declined after the age of 50. Forty per cent of those aged between 25 and 34 and 42 per cent of those aged between 35 and 49 said that they felt 'very safe', compared with only 24 per cent of those aged between 65 and 74 and 14 per cent of those aged 75 and over.

Women were more likely than men to say that they knew 'many' people in their neighbourhoods, although among those people aged between 16 and 24 men were more likely than women to say this. Men aged between 65 and 74 and women aged 50 and over were the most likely and those aged between 25 and 34 were the least likely to say this.

Men and women were equally likely to say that 'many' people in their neighbourhoods could be trusted. People aged between 65 and 74 were the most likely and those aged under 35 were the least likely to say this.

Women were more likely than men to say that they thought people 'definitely' looked out for each other in their neighbourhoods, and the difference was greatest among those aged between 25 and 49. People aged 35 and over were more likely than those aged under 35 to say this.

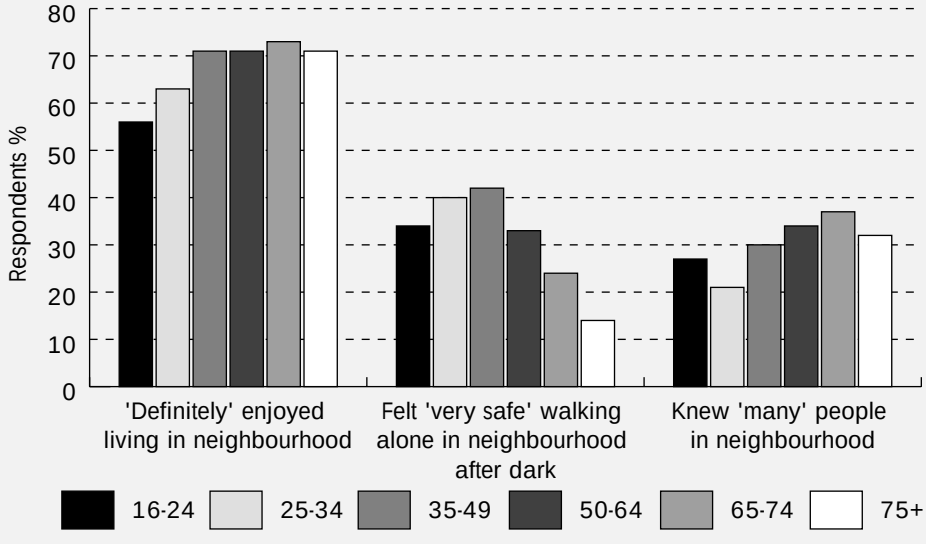
There were no significant differences between men and women and among people in different age groups in their belief in the likelihood that, if lost, their wallets or purses would be returned to them intact.

Table 4.1: People's attitudes to their neighbourhoods, by sex and age

		All	Men 16-24	Men 25-34	Men 35-49	Men 50-64	Men 65-74	Men 75+	All Men	All Women	Women 16-24	Women 25-34	Women 35-49	Women 50-64	Women 65-74	Women 75+
'Definitely' enjoyed living in neighbourhood	%	67%	58%	62%	71%	70%	76%	73%	68%	67%	53%	64%	70%	71%	70%	70%
	Respondents	*9,988*	*377*	*749*	*1,144*	*1,062*	*578*	*428*	*4,338*	*5,650*	*497*	*1,046*	*1,445*	*1,194*	*728*	*740*
Felt 'very safe' walking alone in neighbourhood after dark	%	34%	47%	58%	57%	45%	37%	24%	49%	20%	21%	22%	27%	21%	13%	8%
	Respondents	*9,991*	*379*	*750*	*1,146*	*1,060*	*577*	*428*	*4,340*	*5,651*	*498*	*1,049*	*1,445*	*1,193*	*726*	*740*
Knew 'many' people in neighbourhood	%	30%	29%	19%	27%	32%	37%	33%	28%	31%	25%	24%	33%	37%	36%	32%
	Respondents	*9,999*	*379*	*752*	*1,148*	*1,062*	*578*	*428*	*4,356*	*5,652*	*499*	*1,045*	*1,446*	*1,193*	*728*	*741*
Thought 'many' people in neighbourhood could be trusted	%	40%	24%	29%	41%	49%	55%	51%	40%	39%	25%	27%	39%	46%	49%	48%
	Respondents	*9,433*	*349*	*695*	*1,088*	*1,009*	*557*	*400*	*4,098*	*5,335*	*459*	*978*	*1,383*	*1,132*	*688*	*695*
Thought neighbours 'definitely' looked out for each other	%	43%	36%	35%	42%	44%	48%	46%	41%	45%	36%	41%	49%	48%	45%	45%
	Respondents	*9,704*	*346*	*714*	*1,117*	*1,045*	*567*	*416*	*4,205*	*5,499*	*467*	*1,007*	*1,418*	*1,167*	*715*	*725*
Believed it 'very likely' that wallet/purse would be returned intact	%	10%	7%	7%	10%	11%	10%	10%	9%	11%	8%	10%	11%	13%	15%	13%
	Respondents	*9,326*	*362*	*723*	*1,106*	*1,005*	*532*	*377*	*4,105*	*5,221*	*483*	*1,006*	*1,368*	*1,102*	*644*	*618*

Questions V1.2-V1.7

Figure 4.7: People's attitudes to their neighbourhoods, by age



Respondents in England and Wales:
'Definitely' enjoyed living in neighbourhood – 9,988;
Felt 'very safe' walking alone in neighbourhood after dark – 9,991;
Knew 'many' people in neighbourhood – 9,999;
Questions V1.2-V1.7

How do people's attitudes to their neighbourhoods vary by ethnic group?

People's attitudes to their neighbourhoods varied by ethnic group and sub-group. White people, Indian people and Pakistani people had much more positive views about their neighbourhoods than Bangladeshi people, Caribbean people and African people (Table 4.2).

White people were more likely than Asian people and black people[21] to say that they 'definitely' enjoyed living in their neighbourhoods. Within the Asian group there was considerable diversity among sub-groups: 67 per cent of Indian people said this, while only 55 per cent of Bangladeshi people did so.

White people were more likely than Asian people to say that they felt 'very safe' when walking alone in their neighbourhoods after dark.

21. It should be noted that generally black African people live in more deprived areas than white people.

Asian people and white people were much more likely than black people to say that they knew 'many' people in their neighbourhoods. Pakistani people were the most likely and African people were the least likely to say this.

White people were very much more likely than Asian people and black people to say that 'many' people in their neighbourhoods could be trusted. Bangladeshi people, Caribbean people and African people were the least likely to say this. It is interesting to note that, while 40 per cent of Pakistani people said that they knew 'many' people in their neighbourhoods, only 26 per cent said that 'many' people could be trusted. This pattern was reversed for white people. While 30 per cent said that they knew 'many' people, 41 per cent said that 'many' people could be trusted.

White people and Asian people were much more likely than black people to say that they thought people 'definitely' looked out for each other in their neighbourhoods. Within the Asian group Bangladeshi people were the least likely to say this.

White people were more likely than Asian people and black people to say that, if lost, their wallets or purses would be returned to them intact.

Within the Asian ethnic group there were large differences among sub-groups, especially between Indian people and Pakistani people on the one hand and Bangladeshi people on the other. Of the three sub-groups, Bangladeshi people were the least likely to say that they 'definitely' enjoyed living in their neighbourhoods, thought that 'many' people in their neighbourhoods could be trusted and thought that neighbours 'definitely' looked out for each other in their neighbourhoods.

Within the black ethnic group there was only one notable difference, that Caribbean people were more likely than African people to say that they knew 'many' people in their neighbourhoods.

How do people's attitudes to their neighbourhoods vary by socio-economic group and household income?

People's trust in their neighbours was positively associated with their socio-economic group and household income. People in higher socio-economic groups were more likely than those in lower socio-economic groups to say that 'many' people in their neighbourhoods could be trusted (Figure 4.8). High earners were much more likely than low earners to think in this way: 49 per cent of those with household incomes of £75,000 or more said this, while only 28 per cent of those with household incomes of less than £5,000 did so (Figure 4.9).

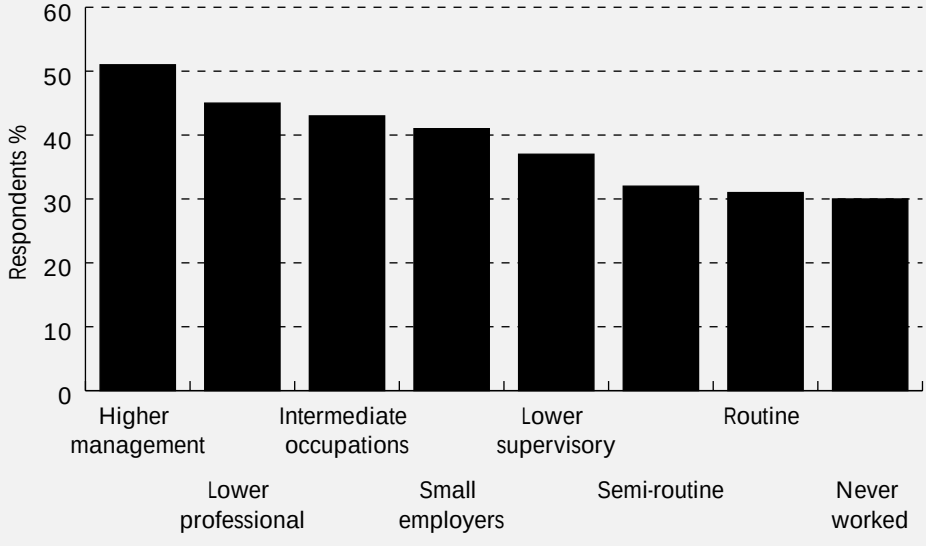
Table 4.2: People's attitudes to their neighbourhoods, by ethnic group

		All	White	Asian				Black		
				All	Indian	Pakistani	Bangladeshi	All	Caribbean	African
'Definitely' enjoyed living in neighbourhood	%	68%	68%	64%	67%	62%	55%	52%	53%	51%
	Respondents	*15,406*	*9,341*	*3,247*	*1,328*	*940*	*584*	*1,832*	*1,004*	*691*
Felt 'very safe' walking alone in neighbourhood after dark	%	34%	35%	28%	29%	27%	24%	32%	31%	32%
	Respondents	*15,408*	*9,346*	*3,247*	*1,329*	*940*	*582*	*1,830*	*999*	*694*
Knew 'many' people in neighbourhood	%	30%	30%	31%	28%	40%	33%	19%	22%	14%
	Respondents	*15,447*	*9,354*	*3,252*	*1,331*	*944*	*582*	*1,847*	*1,006*	*703*
Thought 'many' people in neighbourhood could be trusted	%	40%	41%	27%	29%	26%	15%	16%	15%	15%
	Respondents	*14,295*	*8,844*	*3,017*	*1,246*	*880*	*541*	*1,582*	*882*	*577*
Thought neighbours 'definitely' looked out for each other	%	43%	43%	41%	45%	43%	30%	27%	28%	24%
	Respondents	*14,747*	*9,102*	*3,094*	*1,278*	*900*	*554*	*1,654*	*920*	*606*
Believed it 'very likely' that wallet/purse would be returned intact	%	10%	11%	8%	9%	8%	*	5%	5%	7%
	Respondents	*14,184*	*8,744*	*2,900*	*1,197*	*833*	*521*	*1,633*	*892*	*615*

Questions V1.2-1.7

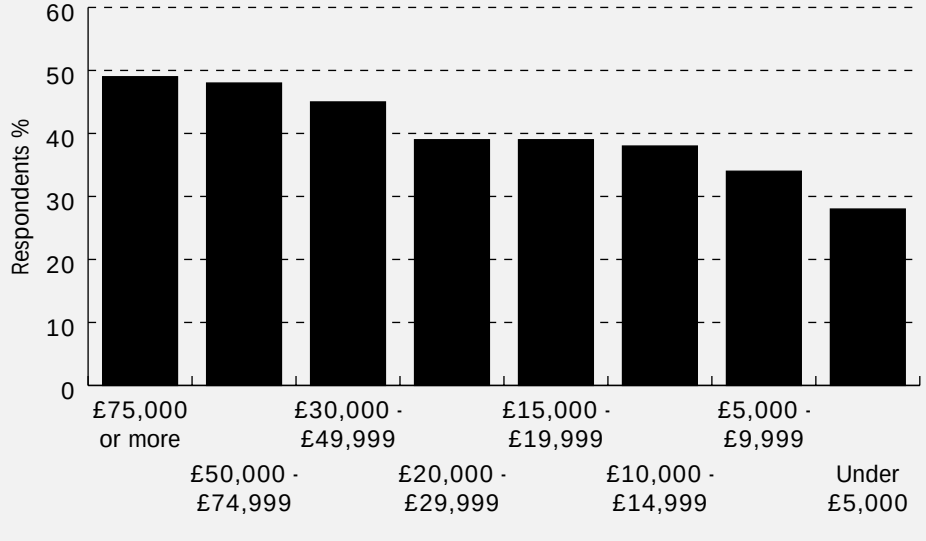
22. Analysis by ethnic group in this and subsequent tables uses both the core sample and the minority ethnic booster sample. This and subsequent tables present information for the largest ethnic groups (white, black and Asian) and some but not all sub-groups for which the number of responses was small. Hence, totals do not necessarily sum to the totals for each ethnic group.

Figure 4.8: Proportion of people who thought that 'many' people in their neighbourhoods could be trusted, by socio-economic group



Respondents in England and Wales (excluding full-time students): 9,088 respondents
Question V1.5

Figure 4.9: Proportion of people who thought that 'many' people in their neighbourhoods could be trusted, by household income



'Under £5,000' includes those who spontaneously said that they had no income
Respondents in England and Wales: 6,855
Question V1.5

How do people's attitudes to their neighbourhoods vary by length of residence?

The longer people lived in their neighbourhoods, the more likely they were to say that they enjoyed living there (Table 4.3). Fifty-seven per cent of those who had lived there for less than one year said that they 'definitely' enjoyed their experiences, while 65 per cent of those who had lived there between one and four years and 71 per cent of those who had lived there for 30 years or more said this. This may reflect people's genuine engagement with their neighbourhoods or it may result from a process of self-selection as those who did not enjoy their neighbourhoods moved away at a greater rate than those who did.

The longer people lived in their neighbourhoods, the more embedded they were in social networks. Six per cent of those who had lived there for less than one year said that they knew 'many' people, while 46 per cent of those who had lived there for 30 years or more said this. Thirty-one per cent of those who had lived there for less than one year said that they thought 'many' people could be trusted, while 48 per cent of those who had lived there for 30 years or more said this.[23] Thirty-six per cent of those who had lived there for less than a year said that they thought people 'definitely' looked out for each other in their neighbourhoods, while 45 per cent of those who had lived there for 30 years or more said this.

Table 4.3: People's attitudes to their neighbourhoods, by length of residence in neighbourhood

		All	Under 1 year	1-4 years	5-9 years	10-29 years	30+ years
'Definitely' enjoyed living in neighbourhood	%	67%	57%	65%	67%	68%	71%
	Respondents	*9,993*	*516*	*1,996*	*1,430*	*3,729*	*2,322*
Felt 'very safe' walking alone in neighbourhood after dark	%	34%	35%	38%	38%	35%	25%
	Respondents	*9,996*	*519*	*1,997*	*1,428*	*3,729*	*2,323*
Knew 'many' people in neighbourhood	%	30%	6%	13%	25%	35%	46%
	Respondents	*10,004*	*525*	*1,998*	*1,427*	*3,730*	*2,324*
Thought 'many' people in neighbourhood could be trusted	%	40%	31%	31%	37%	41%	48%
	Respondents	*9,439*	*399*	*1,823*	*1,364*	*3,605*	*2,248*
Thought neighbours 'definitely' looked out for each other	%	43%	36%	40%	43%	44%	45%
	Respondents	*9,710*	*416*	*1,911*	*1,404*	*3,682*	*2,297*
Believed it 'very likely' that wallet/ purse would be returned intact	%	10%	9%	9%	11%	11%	11%
	Respondents	*9,332*	*460*	*1,879*	*1,357*	*3,505*	*2,131*

Questions V1.2-V1.7

23. Of those responding to this question a much higher proportion of those resident for less than a year than of those resident for 30 or more years answered "don't know" to this question (22% compared with 3%).

How do people's attitudes to their neighbourhoods vary geographically?

While there were regional variations in people's attitudes to their neighbourhoods, these were for the most part not significant (Table 4.4).

People living in London had the most negative perceptions of their neighbourhoods. They were the least likely – and significantly less likely than those living in the nearby South East – to say that they 'definitely' enjoyed living in their neighbourhoods, knew 'many' people in their neighbourhoods, thought 'many' people in their neighbourhoods could be trusted, thought people 'definitely' looked out for each other in their neighbourhoods and believed that, if lost, their wallets or purses would be returned to them intact.

People living in Wales were significantly more likely than those living in England to say that they knew 'many' people in their neighbourhoods.

How do people's attitudes to their neighbourhoods vary by the relative deprivation of the areas in which they live?

Sixty-seven per cent of people said that they 'definitely' enjoyed living in their neighbourhoods (Table 4.5). People living in the most deprived areas[24] were much less likely to say this than those living in the least deprived areas. Those living in areas with the highest deprivation scores (9-10) were significantly less likely to say this than those living in areas in the next band (7-8).

Thirty-four per cent of people said that they felt 'very safe' walking alone in their neighbourhoods after dark. People living in the most deprived areas were much less likely to say this than those living in the least deprived areas. Those living in areas with the highest deprivation scores (9-10) were significantly less likely to say this than those living in areas in the next band (7-8).

Thirty per cent of people said that they knew 'many' others in their neighbourhoods, and there were no significant differences among people according to the levels of deprivation of the neighbourhoods in which they lived.

24. Respondents were given a score according to the Office of the Deputy Prime Minister's Index of Multiple Deprivation for the ward in which they lived. These scores were compared with the scores for all wards in England divided into deciles and ranked from least to most deprived. The divisions used in the analysis are taken from the highest and lowest scores for wards in each decile. Because the scores used in the Index for England cannot be equated to those in the similar deprivation index constructed for Wales, the whole of Wales is shown as one group. For more information about the Index of Multiple Deprivation and its construction, see www.urban.odpm.gov.uk/research/summaries/03100/index.htm.

Table 4.4: People's attitudes to their neighbourhoods, by English government office region and by country

	All	Eastern	East Midlands	London	North East	North West	South East	South West	West Midlands	Yorkshire/ Humber	All England	All Wales	*Respondents*
'Definitely' enjoyed living in neighbourhood	67%	68%	69%	62%	66%	65%	71%	70%	66%	69%	67%	70%	*9,997*
Felt 'very safe' walking alone in neighbourhood after dark	34%	39%	39%	27%	34%	29%	37%	41%	31%	33%	34%	37%	*10,000*
Knew 'many' people in their neighbourhood	30%	28%	29%	20%	35%	32%	27%	31%	30%	37%	29%	43%	*10,008*
Thought that 'many' people in their neighbourhood could be trusted	40%	39%	40%	32%	36%	45%	44%	45%	35%	38%	40%	41%	*9,441*
Thought that neighbours 'definitely' looked out for each other	43%	41%	46%	35%	43%	46%	43%	42%	43%	49%	43%	46%	*9,713*
Believed that it was 'very likely' that their purse or wallet would be returned intact	10%	9%	12%	4%	10%	9%	13%	15%	11%	10%	10%	13%	*9,335*

Questions V1.2-V1.7

Forty per cent of people said that 'many' of their neighbours could be trusted. People living in the most deprived areas were much less likely to say this than those living in the least deprived areas, and the differences among those living in each of the five bands were significant.

Forty-three per cent of people said that they thought people 'definitely' looked out for each other in their neighbourhoods. People living in the most deprived areas were much less likely to say this than people living in the least deprived areas. Those living in areas with the highest deprivation scores (9-10) were significantly less likely to say this than those living in areas in the next band (7-8).

A small but optimistic minority of people (10%) said that they believed it was 'very likely' that, if lost, their wallets or purses would be returned to them intact. People living in the most deprived areas were much less likely than those living in the least deprived areas to say this. Those living in areas with the highest deprivation scores (9-10) were significantly less likely to say this than those living in areas in the next band (7-8).

Table 4.5: People's attitudes to their neighbourhoods, by relative deprivation (deciles) of areas (England)

		All England	Least deprived 1-2	3-4	5-6	7-8	Most deprived 9-10
'Definitely' enjoyed living in neighbourhood	%	67%	81%	75%	73%	67%	52%
	Respondents	*9,417*	*1,532*	*1,348*	*1,757*	*2,210*	*2,520*
Felt 'very safe' walking alone in neighbourhood after dark	%	34%	44%	40%	37%	34%	24%
	Respondents	*9,421*	*1,532*	*1,400*	*1,759*	*2,207*	*2,523*
Knew 'many' people in neighbourhood	%	29%	31%	30%	30%	28%	28%
	Respondents	*9,429*	*1,533*	*1,400*	*1,760*	*2,210*	*2,526*
Thought 'many' people in neighbourhood could be trusted	%	40%	52%	49%	46%	36%	25%
	Respondents	*8,889*	*1,455*	*1,340*	*1,659*	*2,062*	*2,373*
Thought neighbours 'definitely' looked out for each other	%	43%	50%	48%	47%	44%	32%
	Respondents	*9,149*	*1,500*	*1,373*	*1,719*	*2,135*	*2,422*
Believed it 'very' likely that wallet/purse would be returned intact	%	10%	15%	15%	11%	10%	5%
	Respondents	*8,799*	*1,426*	*1,293*	*1,636*	*2,070*	*2,374*

Questions V1.2-V1.7

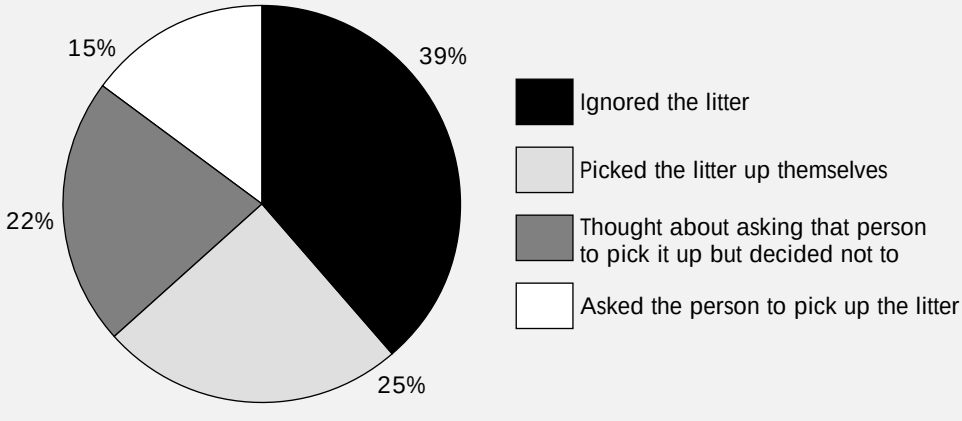
Are people willing to intervene for the common good?

This section explores people's willingness to intervene for the common good, what they said that they did the last time they saw someone drop litter in the street (Figure 4.10). Fifteen per cent of people said they had intervened and asked the person to pick up the litter and 25 per cent said that they had picked the litter up themselves.

Women were more likely than men to say that they had picked the litter up themselves (28% compared with 22%), and men were more likely than women to say that they had ignored the litter (44% compared with 35%). Older people were more likely than younger people to say that they had picked up the litter: 27 per cent of those aged between 50 and 64 said that they had done so, while only 13 per cent of those aged between 16 and 24 said this.

People who had lived in their neighbourhoods for less than one year were more likely than those who had lived there longer to say that they had ignored the litter (49% compared with 39%, respectively). People who had the lowest household incomes were more likely than those with the highest incomes to say this: 49 per cent of those with household incomes of less than £5,000 said this, while only 35 per cent of those with household incomes of £75,000 or more did so. People who lived in the most deprived areas were more likely than those who lived in the least deprived areas to say this (48% compared with 32%).

Figure 4.10: What people did the last time they saw someone drop litter in the street



Due to rounding figures add up to more than 100%
Respondents in England and Wales: 8,806
Question V1.8

To what extent are people involved in social networks?

This section explores people's informal socialising[25], the extent to which they were embedded in social networks – whether they had friends or neighbours round to their houses, went round to friends' or neighbours' houses and went out socially with friends or neighbours.

How often do people socialise informally?

Fifty per cent of people had friends or neighbours round to their houses, 46 per cent went round to friends' or neighbours' houses, and 37 per cent went out socially with friends or neighbours at least once a week (Table 4.6).

Many people had an even more active social life and saw their friends and neighbours very frequently. Overall 26 per cent of people had friends or neighbours round to their houses, 21 per cent went round to friends' or neighbours' houses and 16 per cent went out with their friends or neighbours at least several times a week.

Table 4.6: People's informal social contacts, by frequency

	Had friends or neighbours round to their houses	Went round to friends' or neighbours' houses	Went out socially with friends or neighbours
At least several times a week	26%	21%	16%
Once a week	24%	24%	22%
At least once a month but less than once a week	25%	25%	25%
Less than once a month	16%	16%	20%
Never	10%	13%	18%
Respondents	*10,002*	*10,003*	*10,007*

Question V1.9-V1.11

How does people's informal socialising vary by sex and age?

Men were more likely than women to go out with friends or neighbours at least several times a week (Table 4.7). However, they were as likely as women to have friends round to their houses or go round to friends' or neighbours' houses at least several times a week.

People aged between 16 and 24 were the most likely to have friends or neighbours round to their houses, go round to their friends' or neighbours' houses and go out socially with friends and neighbours at least several times a week. However, people aged between 25

25. 'Informal socialising' is distinct from 'social participation', which is explored in Chapter 5. 'Social participation' is being involved in groups, clubs or organisations.

Table 4.7: People's informal social contacts, by sex and by age

		All	Men	Women	16-24	25-34	35-49	50-64	65-74	75+
Had friends or neighbours round to their houses at least several times a week	%	26%	25%	26%	51%	29%	21%	15%	18%	28%
	Respondents	*10,002*	*4,346*	*5,656*	*878*	*1,799*	*2,594*	*2,252*	*1,304*	*1,166*
Went round to friends' or neighbours' houses at least several times a week	%	21%	20%	22%	51%	26%	15%	12%	14%	17%
	Respondents	*10,003*	*4,344*	*5,659*	*878*	*1,799*	*2,592*	*2,251*	*1,306*	*1,168*
Went out socially with friends or neighbours at least several times a week	%	15%	19%	12%	39%	17%	10%	10%	14%	11%
	Respondents	*10,007*	*4,345*	*5,662*	*877*	*1,800*	*2,593*	*2,255*	*1,305*	*1,168*

Questions V1.9-V1.11

Table 4.8: People's informal social contacts, by ethnic group

		All	White	Asian				Black		
			All	All	Indian	Pakistani	Bangladeshi	All	Caribbean	African
Had friends or neighbours round to their houses at least several times a week	%	26%	25%	30%	27%	36%	37%	24%	23%	25%
	Respondents	*15,434*	*9,346*	*3,248*	*1,327*	*940*	*583*	*1,848*	*1,004*	*705*
Went round to friends' or neighbours' houses at least several times a week	%	21%	21%	24%	22%	30%	26%	19%	17%	18%
	Respondents	*15,441*	*9,348*	*3,253*	*1,332*	*940*	*583*	*1,848*	*1,005*	*705*
Went out socially with friends or neighbours at least several times a week	%	16%	16%	13%	13%	13%	17%	9%	10%	9%
	Respondents	*15,433*	*9,351*	*3,244*	*1,322*	*942*	*583*	*1,848*	*1,005*	*704*

Questions V1.9-V1.11

and 34 – in the next age band – were significantly less likely than younger people to do any of these things at least several times a week. People aged 35 to 49 were more than twice as likely to have friends round to their houses as they were to go out with friends at least several times a week. People aged 75 and over had a similarly home-based pattern of social activity. They were more likely to visit or be visited by friends and neighbours than those in the middle age groups.

How does people's informal socialising vary by ethnic group?

People from different ethnic groups displayed different propensities to socialise informally (Table 4.8). Asian people were more likely than white people and black people to have friends or neighbours round to their houses at least several times a week.

Within the Asian group Pakistani people and Bangladeshi people were equally likely to have friends or neighbours round to their houses at least several times a week, and they were more likely than Indian people to do so. Asian people were also more likely than white people and black people to go round to friends' or neighbours' houses at least several times a week. White people were more likely than Asian people and black people to go out with friends or neighbours at least several times a week.

How does people's informal socialising vary by household income and relative deprivation of the areas in which they live?

The lower people's household incomes, the more likely they were to say that they 'never' socialised informally (Table 4.9). In particular, people with household incomes of less than £10,000 were much more likely than people with higher incomes to say that they 'never' had friends or neighbours round to their houses and 'never' went round to friends' or neighbours' houses. People with household incomes of less than £15,000 were much more likely than people with higher incomes to say that they 'never' went out socially with friends or neighbours.

The more deprived the areas in which people lived, the more likely they were to say that they 'never' socialised informally (Table 4.10). People living in the most deprived areas were twice as likely as those living in the least deprived areas to say that they 'never' had friends or neighbours round to their houses, 'never' went round to friends' or neighbours' houses and 'never' went out socially with friends or neighbours. Those living in areas with the highest deprivation scores (9-10) were significantly more likely than those living in areas in the next band (7-8) to say that they 'never' went round to friends or neighbours and 'never' went out socially with friends or neighbours.

Table 4.9: People who do not have informal social contacts, by household income

	'Never' had friends or neighbours round to their houses		'Never' went round to friends' or neighbours' houses		'Never' went out socially with friends or neighbours	
	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*
All with no informal social contacts	9%	*6,833*	12%	*6,833*	17%	*6,838*
£75,000+	3%	*284*	3%	*284*	3%	*284*
£50,000-£74,999	3%	*419*	3%	*419*	4%	*419*
£30,000-£49,000	4%	*1,295*	4%	*1,295*	6%	*1,295*
£20,000-£29,999	7%	*1,228*	8%	*1,229*	12%	*1,230*
£15,000-£19,999	11%	*785*	14%	*785*	19%	*785*
£10,000-£14,999	12%	*903*	13%	*903*	26%	*902*
£5,000-£9,999	17%	*1,116*	25%	*1,116*	34%	*1,117*
Under £5,000	17%	*803*	25%	*802*	30%	*803*

'Under £5,000' includes those who spontaneously said that they had no income
Questions V1.9-V1.11

Table 4.10: People who do not have informal social contacts, by relative deprivation (deciles) of areas (England)

	'Never' had friends or neighbours round to their houses		'Never' went round to friends' or neighbours' houses		'Never' went out socially with friends or neighbours	
	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*
All England	10%	*9,422*	13%	*9,424*	18%	*9,427*
1-2 (least deprived)	6%	*1,532*	8%	*1,535*	12%	*1,532*
3-4	7%	*1,398*	9%	*1,398*	14%	*1,398*
5-6	9%	*1,755*	13%	*1,756*	17%	*1,758*
7-8	11%	*2,212*	14%	*2,212*	19%	*2,213*
9-10 (most deprived)	13%	*2,525*	18%	*2,525*	23%	*2,526*

Questions V1.9-V1.11

5. Active participation in communities

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

The Home Office aims to build strong and active communities, and its specific target over the years 2001 to 2006 is to increase people's participation in England in key activities by five per cent or by nearly a million people. The Citizenship Surveys will measure progress against this target.

Active communities: the Home Office's Public Service Agreement (PSA) 8 and the Citizenship Survey

The Government has set the following target, for active communities in England:

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

'Increasing community participation' means increasing the number of people who participated at least once a month in the last twelve months in any of three core activities – civic participation, informal volunteering and formal volunteering.

In 2001 47.5 per cent of people aged 16 and over in England participated at least once a month in any of the three core activities. This amounted to 18,638,000 people. An increase of five per cent currently implies an additional 932,000 people by 2005/06.[26] The target increase of five per cent will be a statistically significant increase.

26. This estimate is based on data from the Census 2001, which can be accessed from National Statistics' website at www.statistics.gov.uk/census2001/profiles/64.asp#population.

This chapter provides information about people's participation in voluntary and community activities under the following headings:

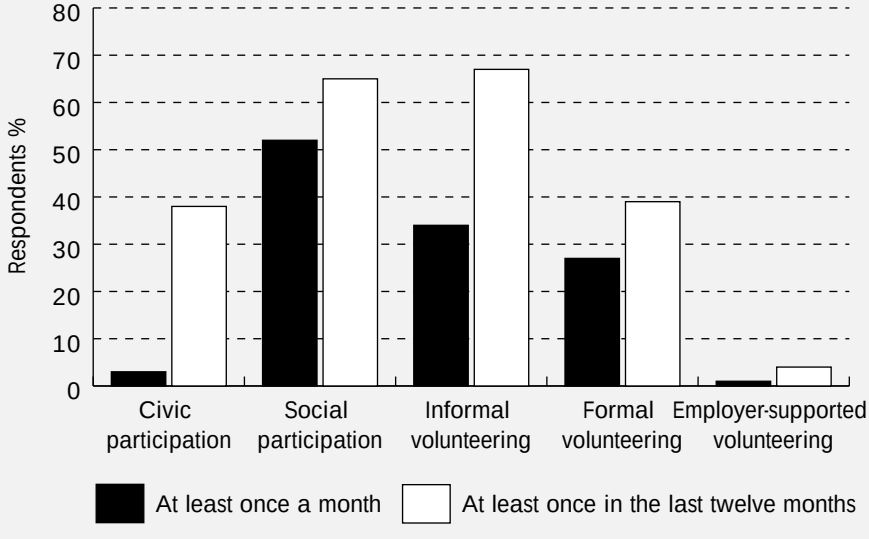
- How does people's participation vary by the type of activity?
- How does people's participation vary by socio-demographic factors?
- How does people's participation vary by their attitudes to their neighbourhoods and the social networks to which they belong?
- How does people's participation vary geographically?
- How does people's participation vary by the relative deprivation of the areas in which they live?
- What sorts of things do people do and how do their activities vary by socio-demographic factors?
- What is the potential for growth in informal volunteering?
- What is the potential for growth in formal volunteering?

This chapter contains primarily high-level descriptive information. Future reports will provide more detailed and more analytical information.

How does people's participation vary by the type of activity?

This section describes how people's participation at least once in the last twelve months varied across the different types of voluntary and community activities – civic participation, social participation, informal volunteering, formal volunteering and employer-supported volunteering. Figure 5.1 summarises the headline levels of participation.

Figure 5.1: Participation in voluntary and community activities at least once a month and at least once in the last twelve months, by type of activity



Respondents in England and Wales: 10,014 for civic participation; 10,003 for social participation; 10,009 for informal volunteering; 10,011 for formal volunteering; 10,007 for employer-supported volunteering.
Questions V2.1, V3.1, V6.1, V3.2, V4.1

Civic participation

Civic participation is defined as engaging in at least one of a range of nine activities.[27] These are: signing a petition; contacting a public official working for a local council; contacting a public official working for the Greater London Assembly or the National Assembly for Wales (where appropriate); contacting a public official working for part of central government; contacting a local councillor; contacting a member of the Greater London Assembly or the National Assembly for Wales (where appropriate); contacting a Member of Parliament; attending a public meeting or rally; and taking part in a public demonstration or protest.

In the last twelve months 38 per cent of people were involved in civic participation at least once. This is equivalent to approximately 15.9 million people in England and Wales.[28] In

27. It was not possible to ask questions about people's voting behaviour since the fieldwork for the Citizenship Survey straddled the general election in May 2001.
28. This estimate and subsequent estimates are based on data for the Census 2001, which can be accessed from National Statistics' website at www.statistics.gov.uk/census2001/profiles/727.asp#population. Some figures differ from those in Duncan Prime, Meta Zimmeck, and Andrew Zurawan, (2002), *Active Communities: Initial Findings from the 2001 Home Office Citizenship Survey* (London: Home Office), which were based on earlier ONS population estimates.

the last twelve months around three per cent of people were involved in civic participation at least once a month. This is equivalent to approximately 1.5 million people in England and Wales.

However, the greater the number of activities in which people were involved in the last twelve months, the greater the frequency of their involvement. Five per cent of people who were involved in only one type of activity were active at least once a month. This proportion rose to nine per cent of those who were involved in two different types of activity; to 17 per cent in three different types of activity; and to 36 per cent in four or more different types of activity. Thus, while around two-fifths of people were involved in civic participation on an irregular basis, a minority were more deeply engaged across a range of activities.

Social participation

Social participation is defined as being involved in groups, clubs or organisations – for example, being a member, attending meetings or events, playing in a team.[29] In the last twelve months 65 per cent of people were involved socially in groups, clubs or organisations at least once. This is equivalent to approximately 27.0 million people in England and Wales. In the last twelve months 52 per cent of people were involved socially in groups, clubs or organisations at least once a month. This is equivalent to approximately 21.6 million people in England and Wales.

Informal volunteering[30]

Informal volunteering is defined as giving unpaid help as an individual to others who are not members of the family. In the last twelve months 67 per cent of people volunteered informally at least once. This is equivalent to approximately 27.8 million people in England and Wales. In the last twelve months 34 per cent of people volunteered informally at least once a month. This is equivalent to approximately 14.2 million people in England and Wales.

29. This definition of social participation is distinct and should not be confused with informal socialising with friends and neighbours, which is covered both in the previous chapter and this chapter (p.91).
30. The Institute for Volunteering Research defined volunteering as 'any activity which involves spending time, unpaid, doing something which aims to benefit someone (individuals or groups) other than or in addition to close relatives, or to benefit the environment'. Informal volunteering is undertaken by people as individuals. Formal volunteering is undertaken by people through groups, clubs or organisations. Employer-supported volunteering is a type of formal volunteering. Justin Davis Smith, (1998), *The 1997 National Survey of Volunteering,* (National Centre for Volunteering, London), pp 13-14.

In the last twelve months people who volunteered informally at least once contributed on average 62.9 hours[31] each (the equivalent of around nine working days of seven hours). In total, then, the 27.8 million people who volunteered informally at least once in the last twelve months contributed approximately 1.8 billion hours (the equivalent of around 962,000 full-time workers[32]), and, at the national average wage (£10.42 per hour in 2001), their contribution was worth around £18.2 billion.

Formal volunteering

Formal volunteering is defined as giving unpaid help through groups, clubs or organisations to benefit other people or the environment (e.g., the protection of wildlife or the improvement of public open spaces). It has roots in social participation but involves a greater commitment. In the last twelve months 39 per cent of people volunteered formally at least once. This is equivalent to approximately 16.2 million people in England and Wales. In the last twelve months 27 per cent of people volunteered formally at least once a month. This is equivalent to 11.1 million people in England and Wales.

In the last twelve months people who volunteered formally at least once contributed on average 105.8 hours[33] each (the equivalent of around three working weeks of 35 hours). In total, then, the 16.2 million people who volunteered formally at least once in the last twelve months contributed approximately 1.7 billion hours (the equivalent of around 942,000 full-time workers[34]), and, at the national average wage, their contribution was worth around £17.9 billion.

Employer-supported volunteering and giving

Some employers support schemes to enable their employees to help with community projects, assist voluntary and community organisations or donate money to good causes.

31. Of those people who reported that they had volunteered informally at least once in the last twelve months two per cent were unable to say how many hours they had contributed in the last four weeks and were excluded from this calculation. A few people who reported that they had given very large numbers of hours were also excluded. Those people who reported that they had not contributed any hours in the last four weeks were included. This calculation was as follows: the average number of hours reported in the past four weeks (4.84) was divided by four and then multiplied by 52. It thus assumes that people's contributions were even over the course of the year and not subject to seasonal variations.
32. This calculation assumes 52 weeks at 35 hours per week.
33. Of those people who reported that they had volunteered formally at least once in the last twelve months one per cent were unable to say how many hours they had contributed in the last four weeks and were excluded from this calculation. A few people who reported that they had given very large numbers of hours were also excluded. Those people who reported that they had not contributed any hours in the last four weeks were included. This calculation was as follows: the average number of hours reported in the past four weeks (8.14) was divided by four and then multiplied by 52. It thus assumes that people's contributions were even over the course of the year and not subject to seasonal variations.
34. This calculation assumes 52 weeks at 35 hours per week.

In the last twelve months 18 per cent of employees (excluding self-employed people) worked for employers which supported schemes for volunteering, and seven per cent of employees (4% of people overall) volunteered at least once through these schemes, a take-up rate of 39 per cent. This is equivalent to approximately 1.5 million people in England and Wales. In the last twelve months three per cent of employees (1% of people overall) volunteered at least once a month. This is equivalent to approximately 559,000 people in England and Wales.

In the last twelve months 25 per cent of employees worked for employers which supported schemes for giving, and 13 per cent of employees (7% of people overall) gave money at least once through these schemes, a take-up rate of 52 per cent. This is equivalent to approximately 2.8 million people in England and Wales.

In the last twelve months people who volunteered formally through employer-supported schemes at least once contributed on average 68.0 hours[35] each (the equivalent of around two working weeks of 35 hours). In total, then, the 1.5 million people who volunteered formally through employer-supported schemes at least once in the last twelve months contributed approximately 0.1 billion hours (the equivalent of approximately 55,000 full-time workers[36]), and, at the national average wage, their contribution was worth £1.1 billion.[37]

How does people's participation vary by socio-demographic factors?

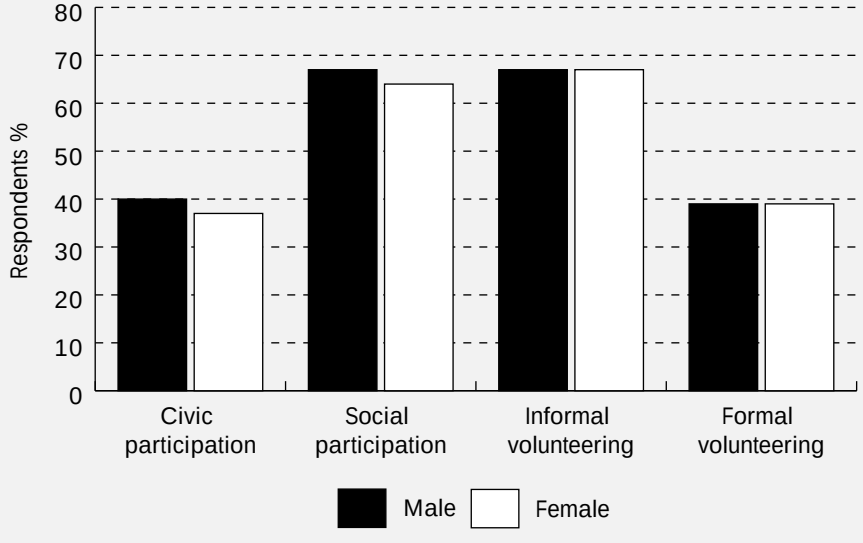
This section describes how people's participation at least once in the last twelve months varied across the different types of voluntary and community activities according to key socio-demographic characteristics – sex, age, ethnic group, educational attainment, socio-economic group, household income and economic status. It provides information on these characteristics selectively, when their impact is significant or of particular importance to the Home Office's policies.

Sex

Men were slightly more likely than women to be involved in civic participation and social participation, but men and women were equally likely to be involved in informal volunteering and formal volunteering (Figure 5.2).

35. Of those people who reported that they had volunteered formally through employer-supported schemes at least once in the last twelve months one per cent were unable to say how many hours they had contributed in the last four weeks and were excluded from this calculation. Those people who reported that they had not contributed any hours in the last four weeks were included. This calculation was as follows: the average number of hours reported in the past four weeks (5.23) was divided by four and then multiplied by 52. It thus assumes that people's contributions were even over the course of the year and not subject to seasonal variations.
36. This calculation assumes 52 weeks at 35 hours per week.
37. A future report will explore employer-supported volunteering in greater detail.

Figure 5.2: Participation in voluntary and community activities at least once in the last twelve months, by sex



Respondents in England and Wales: 10,014 for civic participation; 10,000 for social participation; 10,009 for informal volunteering; 10,011 for formal volunteering
Questions V2.1, V3.1, V6.1, V3.2

Age

People aged between 16 and 24 and those aged 75 and over were less likely than those in other age groups to be involved in civic participation (Table 5.1).

People aged 75 and over were less likely than those aged between 16 and 74 to be involved in social participation, informal volunteering and formal volunteering.

Ethnic group[38]

White people were more likely than black people and Asian people to be involved in civic participation (Table 5.2). Black people and white people were more likely than Asian people to be involved in social participation, informal volunteering and formal volunteering.

Asian people were less likely than black people and white people to be involved in social participation, informal volunteering and formal volunteering. Within this ethnic group Bangladeshi people were the most likely to be involved in civic participation.

38. While Table 5.2 sets out information for all ethnic groups, this and subsequent sections analyse findings only for the largest ethnic groups (white, black and Asian) but not for other ethnic groups for which the number of responses was small.

Table 5.1: Participation in voluntary and community activities at least once in the last twelve months, by age

	Civic participation		Social participation		Informal volunteering		Formal volunteering	
	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*
All	38%	*10,014*	65%	*10,000*	67%	*10,009*	39%	*10,011*
16-24 years	28%	*878*	70%	*878*	73%	*878*	40%	*878*
25-34 years	37%	*1,801*	66%	*1,800*	72%	*1,801*	37%	*1,801*
35-49 years	44%	*2,595*	68%	*2,592*	72%	*2,594*	44%	*2,595*
50-64 years	43%	*2,256*	65%	*2,255*	64%	*2,256*	40%	*2,256*
65-74 years	40%	*1,306*	62%	*1,305*	61%	*1,306*	37%	*1,306*
75+ years	27%	1,169	50%	*1,161*	46%	*1,165*	26%	*1,166*

Questions V2.1, V3.1, V6.1, V3.2

Table 5.2: Participation in voluntary and community activities at least once in the last twelve months, by ethnic group [39]

	Civic participation		Social participation		Informal volunteering		Formal volunteering	
	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*
All	38%	*10,014*	65%	*10,000*	67%	*10,009*	39%	*10,011*
White	39%	*9,357*	65%	*9,343*	68%	*9,351*	39%	*9,353*
White British	39%	*8,831*	65%	*8,818*	68%	*8,826*	39%	*8,828*
White Irish	38%	*147*	63%	*146*	61%	*146*	33%	*146*
Other white	38%	*379*	66%	*379*	69%	*379*	37%	*379*
Mixed race	37%	*380*	67%	*379*	63%	*380*	41%	*380*
Asian or Asian British	28%	*3,258*	61%	*3,249*	58%	*3,247*	35%	*3,254*
Indian	27%	*1,332*	66%	*1,331*	58%	*1,328*	39%	*1,332*
Pakistani	28%	*945*	58%	*944*	56%	*942*	31%	*945*
Bangladeshi	36%	*583*	53%	*578*	53%	*580*	31%	*580*
Other Asian	25%	*398*	61%	*396*	61%	*397*	33%	*397*
Black or black British	31%	*1,850*	66%	*1,845*	68%	*1,844*	42%	*1,846*
Caribbean	30%	*1,007*	63%	*1,003*	65%	*1,003*	39%	*1,004*
African	32%	*704*	68%	*703*	70%	*702*	44%	*703*
Other black	29%	*139*	64%	*139*	71%	*139*	43%	*139*
Chinese	26%	*148*	67%	*148*	67%	*148*	37%	*148*
Other	26%	*466*	54%	*466*	56%	*464*	34%	*466*
Combined sample	39%	*15,459*	65%	*15,430*	67%	*15,434*	39%	*15,447*

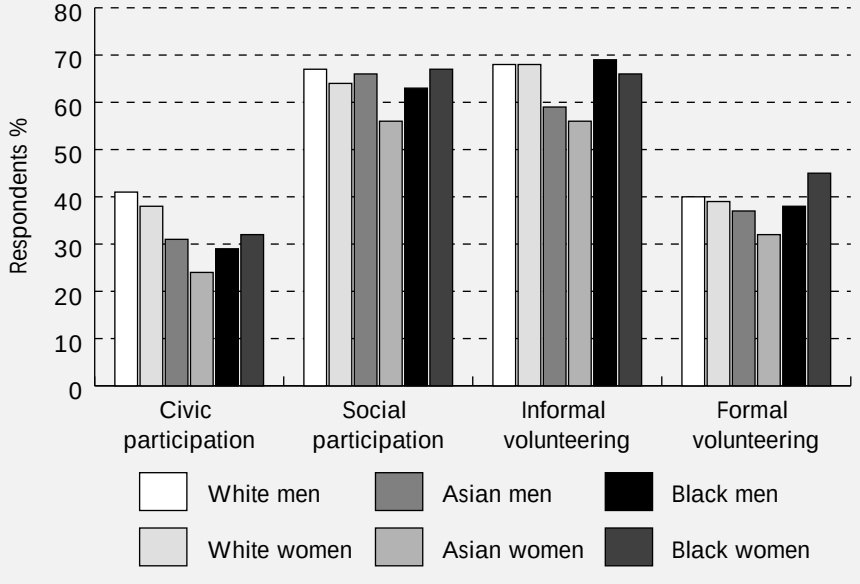
Questions V2.1, V3.1, V6.1, V3.2

39. Analysis by ethnic group in this and subsequent tables in this chapter uses both the core sample and the minority ethnic booster sample. The 'All' row has been included for reference and sets out total participation rates for the core England and Wales nationally representative sample. The 'Combined sample' row sets out total participation rates for the combined core sample and minority ethnic booster sample. The rates in these rows differ slightly.

Sex and ethnic group

White men were more likely than members of other sex and ethnic groups to be involved in civic participation (Figure 5.3). Black women were more likely than members of other sex and ethnic groups to be involved in formal volunteering. Asian women were less likely than members of other sex and ethnic groups to be involved in civic participation, social participation and formal volunteering.

Figure 5.3: Participation in voluntary and community activities at least once in the last twelve months, by sex and ethnic group



Respondents in England and Wales: 14,465 for civic participation; 14,437 for social participation; 14,442 for informal volunteering; 14,453 for formal volunteering
Questions V2.1, V3.1, V6.1, V3.2

Educational attainment, socio-economic group, household income and economic status

People who had the highest levels of education, were from higher socio-economic groups, had the highest levels of household income and were in employment, were in each case more likely than others to be involved in all types of voluntary and community activities (Tables 5.3 to 5.6). For example, in the case of formal volunteering, 57 per cent of people who had a higher degree or postgraduate qualification were involved, compared with 43 per cent of those with an 'A' level or equivalent and 23 per cent of those who had no qualifications.

Table 5.3: Participation in voluntary and community activities at least once in the last twelve months, by highest qualifications

	Civic participation		Social participation		Informal volunteering		Formal volunteering	
	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*
All	38%	*10,014*	65%	*10,000*	67%	*10,009*	39%	*10,011*
Higher degree/postgraduate qualification	53%	*557*	81%	*556*	79%	*557*	57%	*557*
First degree	53%	*996*	82%	*996*	79%	*996*	57%	*996*
Other higher education	49%	*999*	77%	*998*	75%	*999*	52%	*999*
A level or equivalent	42%	*1,246*	73%	*1,246*	74%	*1,246*	43%	*1,246*
GCSE A-C	37%	*1,688*	68%	*1,687*	73%	*1,688*	41%	*1,688*
GCSE D-G	32%	*646*	60%	*645*	66%	*646*	35%	*646*
Trade apprenticeship	38%	*578*	59%	*576*	58%	*578*	31%	*578*
Other qualification	29%	*189*	62%	*188*	66%	*189*	30%	*189*
None	28%	*3,029*	48%	*3,026*	52%	*3,029*	23%	*3,029*

Questions V2.1, V3.1, V6.1, V3.2

Table 5.4: Participation in voluntary and community activities at least once in the last twelve months, by socio-economic group

	Civic participation		Social participation		Informal volunteering		Formal volunteering	
	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*
All	38%	*10,014*	65%	*10,000*	67%	*10,009*	39%	*10,011*
Higher management occupations	47%	*1,297*	78%	*1,297*	76%	*1,297*	51%	*1,297*
Lower professional occupations	46%	*2,186*	74%	*2,184*	74%	*2,186*	48%	*2,186*
Intermediate occupations	38%	*1,060*	69%	*1,059*	68%	*1,060*	42%	*1,060*
Small employers and own account workers	38%	*899*	61%	*898*	66%	*899*	37%	*899*
Lower supervisory and technical occupations	34%	*1,155*	60%	*1,155*	65%	*1,155*	34%	*1,155*
Semi-routine occupations	32%	*1,364*	57%	*1,361*	59%	*1,364*	29%	*1,364*
Routine occupations	30%	*1,411*	51%	*1,407*	58%	*1,411*	27%	*1,411*
Never worked and long-term unemployed	24%	*255*	38%	*255*	42%	*255*	18%	*255*
Students	35%	*204*	73%	*204*	75%	*204*	49%	*204*

Questions V2.1, V3.1, V6.1, V3.2

Table 5.5: Participation in voluntary and community activities at least once in the last twelve months, by household income

	Civic participation		Social participation		Informal volunteering		Formal volunteering	
	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*
All	38%	*10,014*	65%	*10,000*	67%	*10,009*	39%	*10,011*
£75,000 or more	53%	*292*	83%	*292*	73%	*292*	57%	*292*
£50,000 - £74,999	50%	*435*	86%	*435*	80%	*435*	55%	*435*
£30,000 - £49,999	45%	*1,347*	77%	*1,346*	76%	*1,347*	50%	*1,347*
£20,000 - £29,999	42%	*1,293*	69%	*1,293*	74%	*1,293*	44%	*1,293*
£15,000 - £19,999	37%	*834*	66%	*834*	69%	*834*	40%	*834*
£10,000 - £14,999	38%	*967*	60%	*965*	63%	*967*	33%	*967*
£5,000 - £9,999	35%	*1,218*	55%	*1,218*	58%	*1,218*	29%	*1,218*
Under £5,000	32%	*848*	55%	*847*	57%	*848*	30%	*848*

'Under £5,000' includes those who spontaneously said that they had no income
Questions V2.1, V3.1, V6.1, V3.2

Table 5.6: Participation in voluntary and community activities at least once in the last twelve months, by economic status

	Civic participation		Social participation		Informal volunteering		Formal volunteering	
	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*
All	38%	*10,014*	65%	*10,000*	67%	*10,009*	39%	*10,011*
Employed	40%	*5,386*	70%	*5,386*	72%	*5,386*	42%	*5,386*
Unemployed	29%	*226*	58%	*226*	64%	*226*	30%	*226*
Economically inactive	36%	*4,331*	59%	*4,331*	59%	*4,331*	35%	*4,331*

Questions V2.1, V3.1, V6.1, V3.2

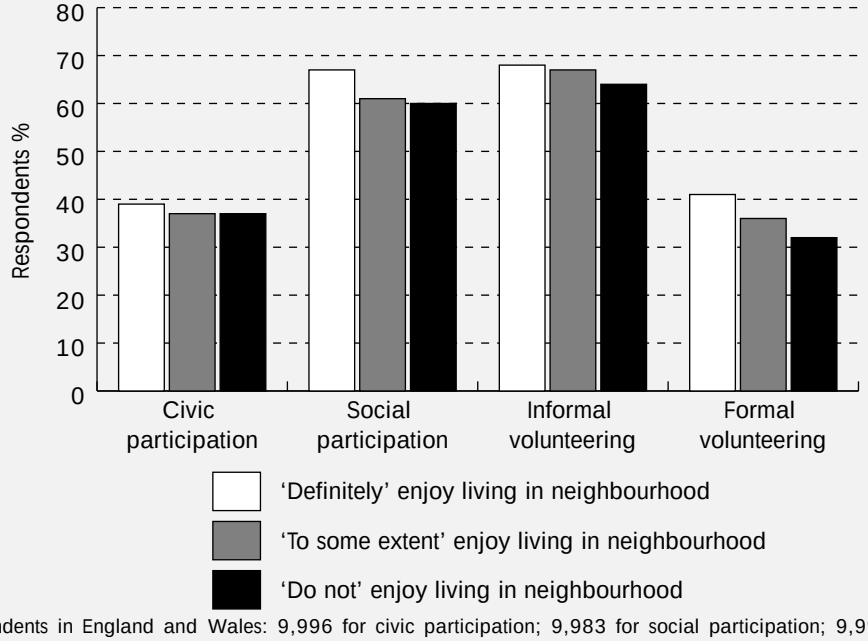
How does people's participation vary by their attitudes to their neighbourhoods and the social networks to which they belong?

People's views about their neighbourhoods and about the other people who live in them are considered by policy-makers to be key components of social capital and social cohesion. This section describes how people's participation at least once in the last twelve months varied across the different types of voluntary and community activities according to their attitudes (feelings of enjoyment, trust and safety) to and their embeddedness (length of residence and involvement in social networks) in their neighbourhoods.

Feelings of enjoyment

People who said that they 'definitely' enjoyed living in their neighbourhoods were more likely than people who said that they enjoyed living there 'to some extent' or not at all to be involved in social participation and formal volunteering (Figure 5.4). For example, in the case of formal volunteering, 41 per cent of people who said that they 'definitely' enjoyed living in their neighbourhoods were involved, compared with 36 per cent of those who said that they 'enjoyed living there to some extent' and only 32 per cent of those who said that they did not enjoy living there.

Figure 5.4: Participation in voluntary and community activities at least once in the last twelve months, by feelings of enjoyment of neighbourhood



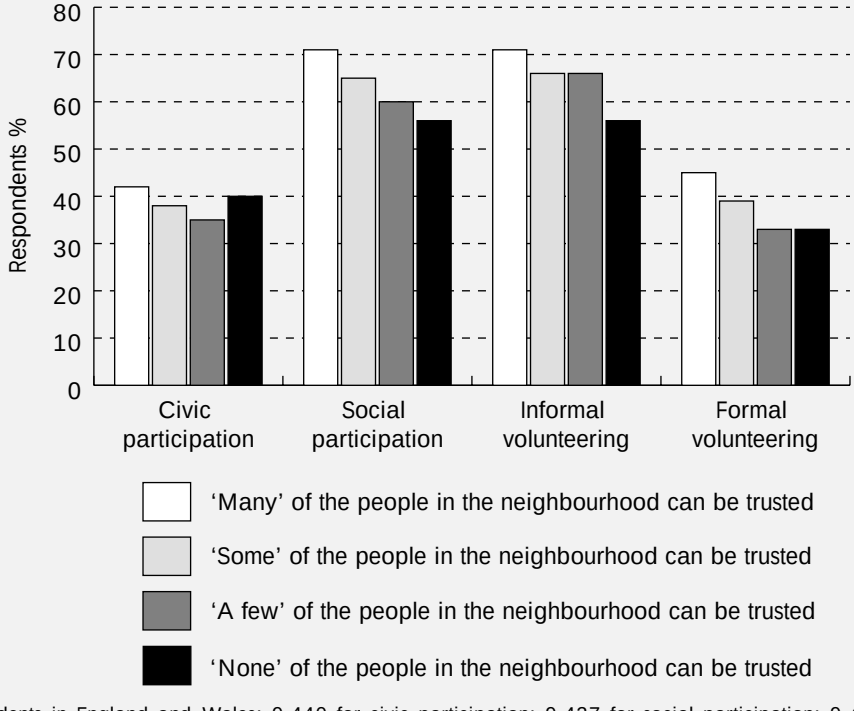
Respondents in England and Wales: 9,996 for civic participation; 9,983 for social participation; 9,991 for informal volunteering; 9,993 for formal volunteering
Question V1.2

Feelings of trust

People who said that 'many' of their neighbours could be trusted were more likely than those who said that they trusted others less or not at all to be involved in social participation, informal volunteering and formal volunteering (Figure 5.5). For example, in the case of formal volunteering, 45 per cent of people who said that 'many' of their neighbours could be trusted were involved, compared with only 33 per cent of those who said that 'a few' or none of their neighbours could be trusted.

However, people's trust of their neighbours was not associated with their involvement in civic participation.

Figure 5.5: Participation in voluntary and community activities at least once in the last twelve months, by feelings of trust of others living in neighbourhood

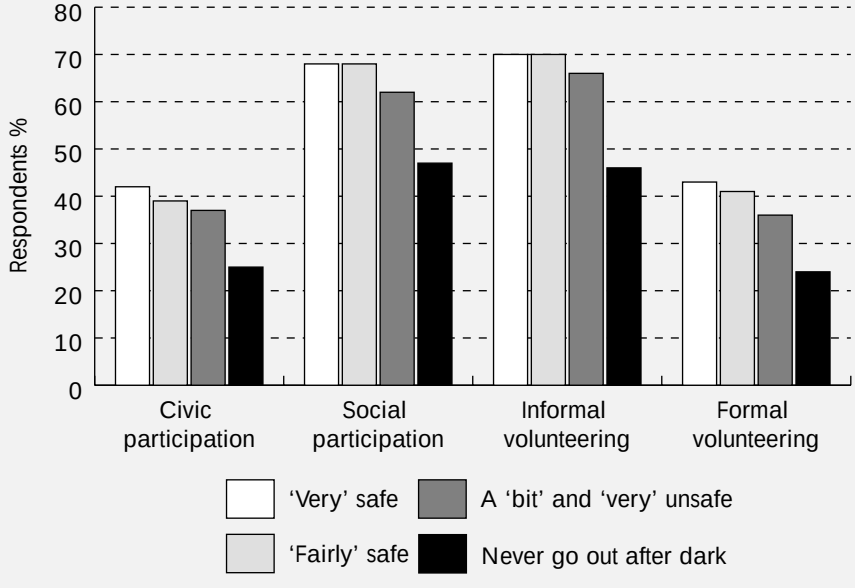


Respondents in England and Wales: 9,440 for civic participation; 9,427 for social participation; 9,435 for informal volunteering; 9,437 for formal volunteering.
Question V1.5

Feelings of safety

People who said that they felt 'very' or 'fairly' safe in their neighbourhoods were more likely than those who said that they felt 'a bit' or 'very' unsafe and those who said that they never went out after dark to be involved in social participation, informal volunteering and formal volunteering (Figure 5.6). For example, in the case of formal volunteering 43 per cent of people who said that they felt 'very' safe, and 41 per cent of people who said that they felt 'fairly' safe were involved, compared with 36 per cent of people who said that they felt 'a bit' or 'very' unsafe and only 24 per cent of those who said that they never went out after dark.

Figure 5.6: Participation in voluntary and community activities at least once in the last twelve months, by feelings of safety in neighbourhood



Respondents in England and Wales: 9,999 for civic participation; 9,985 for social participation; 9,994 for informal volunteering; 9,996 for formal volunteering.
Question V1.3

Length of residence

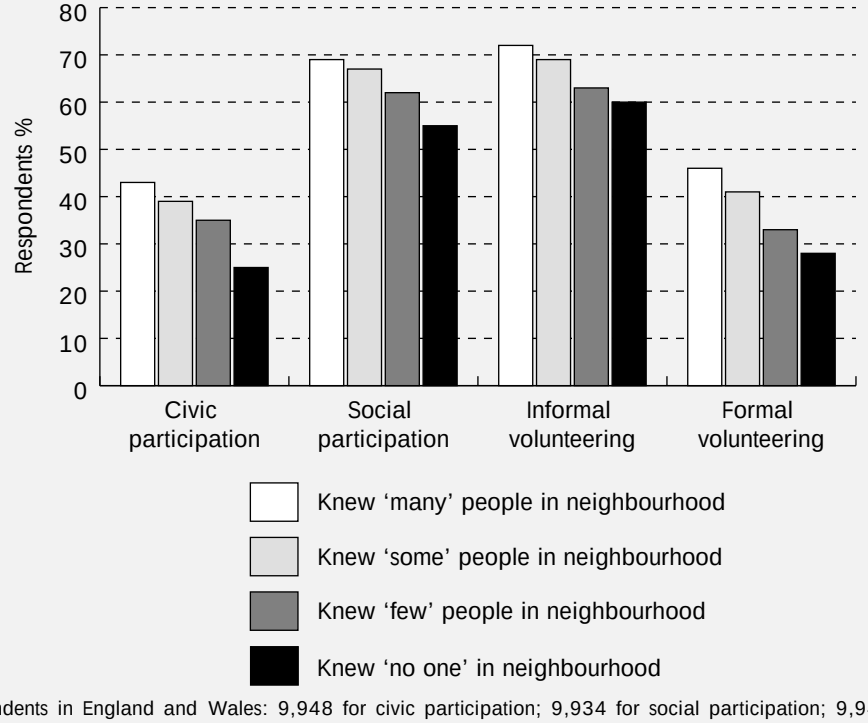
Newcomers to neighbourhoods, who had lived there for less than a year, were less likely than longer-established residents to be involved in civic participation. Newcomers and people who had lived in their neighbourhoods for 30 or more years were equally likely to be involved in social participation and formal volunteering, but they were less likely than those who had lived there for between one and 29 years to be involved. For example, in

the case of formal volunteering, 32 per cent of people who had lived in their neighbourhoods for less than a year and 34 per cent of those who had lived there for 30 or more years were involved, compared with 38 per cent of those who had lived there between one and four years, 44 per cent of those who had lived there between five and nine years and 42 per cent of those who had lived there between ten and 29 years. People who had lived in their neighbourhoods for 30 or more years were less likely than those who had lived there for a shorter time to be involved in informal volunteering.

Social networks

People who said that they knew 'many' or 'some' people in their neighbourhoods were more likely than those who said that they knew fewer or no people to be involved in all types of voluntary and community activities (Figure 5.7). For example, in the case of formal volunteering 46 per cent of people who said that they knew 'many' people and 41 per cent of those who said that they knew 'some' people were involved, compared with 33 per cent of those who said that they knew 'few' people and 28 per cent of those who said that they knew no people.

Figure 5.7: Participation in voluntary and community activities at least once in the last twelve months, by number of people known in neighbourhood



Respondents in England and Wales: 9,948 for civic participation; 9,934 for social participation; 9,943 for informal volunteering; 9,945 for formal volunteering.
Question V1.4

Table 5.7: Participation in voluntary and community activities at least once in the last twelve months, by length of residence in neighbourhood

	Civic participation		Social participation		Informal volunteering		Formal volunteering	
	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*
All	38%	*10,014*	65%	*10,000*	67%	*10,009*	39%	*10,011*
Under 1 year	31%	*527*	60%	*527*	69%	*527*	32%	*527*
1-4 years	37%	*1,999*	68%	*1,997*	69%	*1,999*	38%	*1,999*
5-9 years	42%	*1,430*	68%	*1,428*	70%	*1,428*	44%	*1,428*
10-29 years	40%	*3,731*	67%	*3,725*	69%	*3,729*	42%	*3,730*
30 and over years	37%	*2,323*	58%	*2,319*	59%	*2,322*	34%	*2,323*

Questions V1.1, V2.1, V3.1, V6.1, V3.2

Table 5.8: Participation in voluntary and community activities at least once in the last twelve months, by frequency of social contacts

		Civic participation		Social participation		Informal volunteering		Formal volunteering	
		%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*
All		38%	*10,014*	65%	*10,000*	67%	*10,009*	39%	*10,011*
Had friends or neighbours round to their houses	At least once a month	40%	*7,359*	69%	*7,350*	72%	*7,356*	43%	*7,357*
	Less than once a month or not at all	34%	*2,643*	53%	*2,638*	52%	*2,641*	28%	*2,642*
Went round to friends' or neighbours' houses	At least once a month	40%	*7,006*	71%	*6,998*	73%	*7,002*	44%	*7,004*
	Less than once a month or not at all	34%	*2,997*	52%	*2,991*	51%	*2,996*	27%	*2,996*
Went out socially with friends or neighbours	At least once a month	39%	*6,037*	72%	*6,032*	72%	*6,035*	44%	*6,036*
	Less than once a month or not at all	37%	*3,970*	53%	*3,961*	58%	*3,967*	31%	*3,968*

Questions V1.9, V1.10, V1.11, V2.1, V3.1, V6.1, V3.2

People who socialised at least once a month with friends or neighbours – had friends or neighbours round, went round to friends or neighbours or went out with friends or neighbours – were, with one exception, more likely than those who socialised less frequently or not at all to be involved in all types of voluntary and community activities (Table 5.8). For example, in the case of formal volunteering, 43 per cent of people who had friends or neighbours round to their houses at least once a month were involved, compared with 28 per cent of those who had them round less frequently or not at all. However, people who went out with friends or neighbours at least once a month and those who did so less frequently or not at all were equally likely to be involved in civic participation.

How does people's participation vary geographically?

There were few significant differences in people's participation at least once in the last twelve months across the different types of voluntary and community activities according to the English government region and country (England and Wales) in which they lived[40] (Table 5.9). People living in the South East were more likely than those living in the North East and in Yorkshire / Humber to participate in all types of voluntary and community activities.

How does people's participation vary by the relative deprivation of the areas in which they live?

This section describes how people's participation at least once in the last twelve months varied across the different types of voluntary and community activities according to the relative deprivation of the areas in which they lived.[41]

People who lived in the least deprived areas were more likely than those who lived in the most deprived areas to be involved in all types of voluntary and community activities (Table 5.10).

Differences in the involvement of people who lived in the least deprived areas and those who lived in the most deprived areas were particularly large for social participation and

40. These figures should be interpreted with care, since differences between regions could be the product of socio-demographic factors.

41. Respondents were given a score according to the Office of the Deputy Prime Minister's Index of Multiple Deprivation for the ward in which they lived. These scores were compared with the scores for all wards in England divided into deciles and ranked from least to most deprived. The divisions used in the analysis are taken from the highest and lowest scores for wards in each decile. Because the scores used in the index for England cannot be equated to those in the similar deprivation index constructed for Wales, the whole of Wales is shown as one group. For more information about the Index of Multiple Deprivation and its construction, see www.urban.odpm.gov.uk / research / summaries / 03100 / index.htm.

Table 5.9: Participation in voluntary and community activities at least once in the last twelve months, by English government office region and country

	Civic participation		Social participation		Informal volunteering		Formal volunteering	
	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*
All	38%	*10,014*	65%	*10,000*	67%	*10,011*	39%	*10,009*
Eastern	36%	*1,032*	62%	*1,032*	69%	*1,032*	38%	*1,032*
East Midlands	37%	*793*	63%	*789*	70%	*791*	39%	*791*
London	40%	*1,114*	68%	*1,112*	69%	*1,114*	39%	*1,114*
North East	34%	*499*	54%	*498*	62%	*499*	28%	*499*
North West	38%	*1,244*	62%	*1,244*	65%	*1,244*	38%	*1,244*
South East	41%	*1,670*	70%	*1,670*	72%	*1,670*	42%	*1,670*
South West	39%	*1,016*	68%	*1,016*	66%	*1,015*	44%	*1,016*
West Midlands	41%	*1,023*	69%	*1,018*	66%	*1,022*	41%	*1,022*
Yorkshire/Humber	36%	*1,038*	60%	*1,036*	62%	*1,037*	34%	*1,038*
All England	38%	*9,429*	65%	*9,415*	67%	*9,424*	39%	*9,426*
All Wales	38%	*585*	67%	*585*	64%	*585*	41%	*585*

Questions V2.1, V3.1, V6.1, V3.2

Table 5.10: Participation in voluntary and community activities at least once in the last twelve months, by relative deprivation of areas (Index of Multiple Deprivation)

	Civic participation		Social participation		Informal volunteering		Formal volunteering	
	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*	%	*Respondents*
All England	38%	*9,434*	65%	*9,420*	67%	*9,431*	39%	*9,429*
1 – least deprived	44%	*930*	76%	*929*	74%	*929*	49%	*929*
2	44%	*604*	71%	*604*	69%	*604*	44%	*604*
3	40%	*712*	70%	*711*	68%	*711*	44%	*712*
4	36%	*688*	65%	*685*	72%	*687*	41%	*687*
5	40%	*761*	71%	*760*	70%	*760*	40%	*760*
6	38%	*998*	63%	*996*	66%	*998*	40%	*998*
7	36%	*951*	66%	*948*	68%	*950*	38%	*951*
8	38%	*1,262*	60%	*1,260*	65%	*1,262*	38%	*1,262*
9	37%	*1,256*	62%	*1,256*	67%	*1,256*	35%	*1,256*
10 – most deprived	35%	*1,272*	57%	*1,271*	60%	*1,272*	29%	*1,272*
All Wales	38%	*580*	67%	*580*	64%	*580*	41%	*580*

Questions V2.1, V3.1, V6.1, V3.2

formal volunteering and somewhat smaller for civic participation and informal volunteering. For example, in the case of formal volunteering, 49 per cent of people who lived in the areas with the lowest deprivation scores (band 1) were involved, compared with 29 per cent of those who lived in areas with the highest deprivation scores (band 10).[42]

What sorts of things do people do and how do their activities vary by socio-demographic factors?

This section takes a more detailed look at what people were actually doing and at how their participation at least once in the last twelve months varied across the different types of voluntary and community activities according to their sex, age and ethnic group.

Civic participation

People involved in civic participation were most likely to engage in the activities of signing a petition (58%), contacting a public official working for a local council (38%), contacting a local councillor (24%), attending a public meeting or rally (18%), and contacting a Member of Parliament (13%) (Table 5.11).

Women were more likely than men to sign a petition and to contact a public official working for a local council, but they were less likely than men to attend a public meeting or rally and to contact an elected representative (local councillor or Member of Parliament) or a public official working for a part of central government.

People aged between 16 and 24 were more likely than people aged 25 and over to sign a petition. Men aged 50 and over were more likely than men aged between 25 and 49 to contact a local councillor.

White people were more likely than Asian people and black people to sign a petition. Asian people and white people were more likely than black people to contact a local councillor. Asian people were more likely than white people to contact a Member of Parliament.

42. These figures should be interpreted with care, since differences between areas could be the product of socio-demographic factors (e.g., the greater prevalence of people with lower educational attainment and lower household incomes in the most deprived areas).

Table 5.11: Involvement in civic participation at least once in the last twelve months, by activity and by age, sex and ethnic group of people involved[43]

Activity	ALL	Men							Women							Ethnic group			
		16-24	25-34	35-49	50-64	65-74	75+	ALL	16-24	25-34	35-49	50-64	65-74	75+	ALL	Combined sample	White	Asian	Black
Signing a petition	58%	71%	61%	58%	46%	41%	36%	53%	76%	65%	67%	58%	54%	44%	62%	58%	59%	48%	40%
Contacting a public official working for a local council	38%	*	41%	46%	50%	47%	50%	31%	*	25%	34%	38%	34%	37%	44%	38%	38%	34%	37%
Contacting a local councillor	24%	*	18%	22%	36%	36%	35%	26%	*	18%	20%	25%	30%	33%	21%	24%	24%	25%	17%
Attending a public meeting or rally	18%	*	14%	21%	24%	25%	*	20%	*	9%	17%	19%	18%	*	15%	18%	18%	15%	18%
Contacting an MP	13%	*	*	15%	19%	19%	*	15%	*	9%	11%	15%	12%	*	12%	14%	13%	17%	17%
Contacting a public official working for part of central government	7%	*	*	12%	12%	*	*	9%	*	*	6%	6%	*	*	5%	7%	7%	5%	*
Taking part in a public demonstration or protest	4%	*	*	*	*	*	*	5%	*	*	*	*	*	*	4%	4%	4%	5%	*
Respondents in England and Wales (civic participants)	*3,846*	*100*	*267*	*491*	*471*	*241*	*138*	*1,710*	*158*	*397*	*647*	*488*	*271*	*173*	*2,136*	*5,439*	*3,648*	*876*	*605*

*=unweighted number of respondents <30

Data for contacting members and representatives for the National Assembly for Wales and the Greater London Authority are excluded due to the small number of respondents.

Qs V1.2a, V1.2b, V1.2c

43. This and subsequent tables present information for the largest ethnic groups (white, black and Asian) but not for other ethnic groups for which the number of responses was small. 'Combined sample' includes responses from all ethnic groups.

Social participation

People involved in social participation were most likely to engage in the fields of sports and exercise (51%); hobbies, recreation, arts and social clubs (37%); religion (27%); and children's education and schools (24%) (Table 5.12).

Women were more likely than men to engage in the fields of children's education and schools; religion; and health, disability and social welfare, but they were less likely than men to engage in the 'leisure' fields of sports and exercise; and hobbies, recreation, arts and social clubs.

People aged between 16 and 49 were more likely than people aged 50 and over to engage in the field of sports and exercise.

White people were more likely than Asian people and black people to engage in the fields of sports and exercise; and hobbies, recreation, arts and social clubs. Asian people and black people were more than twice as likely as white people to engage in the field of religion. Black people were more likely than white people and Asian people to engage in the field of justice and human rights.

Informal volunteering

People involved in informal volunteering were most likely to engage in the activities of giving advice to someone (46%) and looking after a property or a pet for someone who is away (41%) (Table 5.13).

Women were twice as likely as men to babysit or care for children. They were also more likely than men to shop, collect pensions or pay bills for someone; to keep in touch with someone who has difficulty getting out and about (e.g., visit in person, telephone or e-mail); and to sit with or provide personal care for someone who is sick or frail. Men were four times as likely as women to decorate or do any kind of home or car repairs.

People aged between 16 and 49 were more likely than people aged between 50 and 64 to babysit or care for children.

White people were twice as likely as Asian people and black people to look after a property or a pet for someone who is away. They were also more likely than Asian people and black people to transport or escort someone (e.g., to a hospital, on an outing or on a school run). Black people were more likely than Asian people and white people to give

Table 5.12: Involvement in social participation at least once in the last twelve months, by field of interest and by age, sex and ethnic group of people involved

Field of Interest	ALL	Men							Women							Ethnic group			
		16-24	25-34	35-49	50-64	65-74	75+	ALL	16-24	25-34	35-49	50-64	65-74	75+	ALL	Combined sample	White	Asian	Black
Signing a petition	58%	71%	61%	58%	46%	41%	36%	53%	76%	65%	67%	58%	54%	44%	62%	58%	59%	48%	40%
Sports/exercise	51%	75%	70%	63%	49%	45%	28%	59%	59%	57%	51%	37%	25%	10%	44%	52%	53%	36%	33%
Hobbies/recreation/arts/ Social clubs	37%	45%	39%	35%	44%	47%	41%	41%	35%	25%	32%	36%	44%	27%	33%	37%	38%	19%	18%
Religion	27%	15%	21%	20%	25%	29%	36%	22%	29%	25%	29%	36%	42%	46%	32%	26%	25%	67%	64%
Children's education/schools	24%	13%	19%	30%	15%	*	*	18%	25%	42%	45%	21%	13%	*	30%	25%	25%	25%	25%
Education for adults	18%	19%	19%	16%	13%	16%	*	16%	25%	23%	24%	19%	15%	*	20%	18%	18%	16%	21%
Local community or neighbourhood groups	18%	*	9%	17%	23%	29%	28%	17%	7%	8%	18%	27%	26%	30%	19%	18%	18%	13%	15%
Youth/children's activities (outside school)	16%	26%	13%	22%	9%	*	*	16%	20%	19%	25%	9%	*	*	16%	16%	16%	18%	16%
Health/disability/social welfare	15%	8%	11%	11%	14%	12%	*	11%	13%	20%	22%	22%	16%	15%	19%	15%	16%	10%	15%
The environment/animals	14%	8%	12%	14%	17%	14%	18%	13%	8%	12%	18%	19%	19%	10%	15%	15%	15%	3%	*
The elderly	10%	*	*	7%	8%	15%	20%	7%	*	*	9%	16%	22%	28%	12%	9%	10%	8%	9%
Trade union activity	10%	*	13%	19%	17%	*	*	13%	*	8%	11%	8%	*	*	7%	10%	11%	5%	8%
Safety/first aid	8%	8%	7%	8%	7%	*	*	7%	10%	9%	8%	10%	*	*	8%	8%	8%	7%	7%
Citizens' groups	5%	*	*	5%	8%	12%	*	6%	*	*	*	8%	12%	11%	5%	6%	6%	2%	*
Justice/human rights	4%	*	*	5%	*	*	*	4%	*	6%	6%	*	*	*	4%	4%	4%	4%	7%
Politics	4%	*	*	4%	6%	*	*	4%	*	*	*	4%	*	*	3%	4%	4%	3%	3%
Respondents in England and Wales (civic participants)	*6,362*	*262*	*487*	*799*	*701*	*345*	*222*	*2,818*	*321*	*685*	*970*	*751*	*445*	*366*	*3,544*	*9,594*	*5,946*	*1,877*	*1,167*

*=unweighted number of respondents <30

QV3.1

Table 5.13: Participation in informal volunteering at least once in the last twelve months, by activity and by age, sex and ethnic group of people involved

Activity	ALL	Men							Women							Ethnic group			
		16-24	25-34	35-49	50-64	65-74	75+	ALL	16-24	25-34	35-49	50-64	65-74	75+	ALL	Combined sample	White	Asian	Black
Giving advice to someone	46%	53%	56%	48%	49%	32%	27%	48%	59%	51%	49%	37%	25%	25%	44%	46%	45%	52%	57%
Looking after a property or a pet for someone who is away	41%	27%	35%	44%	44%	44%	32%	39%	32%	41%	47%	48%	46%	36%	43%	42%	43%	23%	17%
Transporting or escorting someone	31%	26%	33%	33%	29%	36%	35%	32%	18%	33%	38%	33%	22%	16%	30%	31%	31%	26%	22%
Babysitting or caring for children	29%	28%	26%	23%	10%	*	*	19%	56%	59%	48%	20%	14%	*	39%	29%	29%	26%	35%
Keeping in touch with someone who has difficulty getting out and about	28%	18%	16%	22%	32%	37%	40%	25%	19%	20%	28%	44%	46%	46%	32%	28%	28%	25%	30%
Doing shopping, collecting pensions or paying bills for someone	26%	24%	12%	18%	21%	29%	35%	20%	21%	26%	30%	37%	39%	40%	31%	26%	26%	22%	21%
Writing letters or filling in forms for someone	23%	19%	20%	25%	26%	15%	16%	22%	25%	32%	28%	21%	12%	14%	24%	23%	22%	33%	26%
Cooking, cleaning, laundry, gardening or other routine household jobs for someone	17%	20%	15%	14%	20%	21%	22%	17%	19%	17%	18%	18%	13%	9%	17%	17%	17%	16%	18%
Decorating or doing any kind of home or car repairs for someone	16%	33%	32%	26%	22%	17%	*	25%	9%	10%	6%	5%	*	*	6%	16%	16%	15%	14%
Representing someone	6%	*	*	8%	12%	*	*	7%	*	5%	6%	6%	*	*	5%	6%	6%	9%	11%
Sitting with or providing personal care for someone who is sick or frail	5%	*	*	*	*	*	*	3%	*	4%	7%	9%	9%	*	7%	5%	5%	4%	6%
Any other activities	2%	*	*	*	*	*	*	2%	*	*	*	*	*	*	2%	2%	2%	3%	4%
Respondents in England and Wales (informal vols.)	*6,623*	*267*	*529*	*786*	*668*	*364*	*216*	*2,832*	*365*	*777*	*1096*	*796*	*440*	*311*	*3,791*	*9,808*	*6,231*	*1,792*	*1,174*

*=unweighted number of respondents <30

Q6.1

advice to someone and to babysit or care for children. Asian people were more likely than black people and white people to write letters or fill in forms for someone. People from all three ethnic groups were equally likely to cook, clean, garden, do laundry and other routine household jobs for someone; to decorate or do any kind of home or car repairs for someone; and to sit or provide personal care for someone who is sick or frail.

Formal volunteering

People involved in formal volunteering were most likely to engage in the activities of raising or handling money (56%) and organising or helping to run an activity or event (54%) (Table 5.14).

Women were more likely than men to give other practical help (such as shop, provide food or refreshments, make or mend and deliver); to raise or handle money; and to visit or befriend, but they were less likely than men to provide transport or drive and to represent people.

Women's involvement in leading a group or being a member of a committee did not vary greatly with age, but among men those aged 50 and over were more likely than those aged between 16 and 49 to be involved.

White people and Asian people were more likely than black people to raise or handle money. White people were more likely than Asian people and black people to lead a group or be a member of a committee; to organise or help to run an activity or event; and to provide transport or drive. Black people were more likely than white people to visit or befriend and to give advice, information or counselling.

People involved in formal volunteering were most likely to engage in the fields of sports and exercise (34%); children's education and schools (30%); hobbies, recreation, arts and social clubs (25%); and religion (23%) (Table 5.15).

Women were more likely than men to engage in the fields of children's education and schools; religion; health, disability and social welfare; the elderly; and education for adults. Men were more likely than women to engage in the 'leisure' fields of sports and exercise and hobbies, recreation, arts and social clubs and in the 'public' field of trade union activities.

People aged between 16 and 49 were more likely than people aged 50 and over to engage in the field of sports and exercise. Men aged between 35 and 49 were more likely than men in other age groups to engage in the field of children's education and schools.

Table 5.14: Participation in formal volunteering at least once in the last twelve months, by activity and by age, sex and ethnic group of people involved

Field of Interest	ALL	Men							Women							Ethnic group			
		16-24	25-34	35-49	50-64	65-74	75+	ALL	16-24	25-34	35-49	50-64	65-74	75+	ALL	Combined sample	White	Asian	Black
Raising or handling money	56%	45%	51%	55%	51%	56%	57%	52%	54%	54%	64%	63%	59%	54%	59%	56%	56%	52%	40%
Organising or helping to run an activity or event	54%	55%	55%	58%	52%	49%	48%	54%	56%	49%	60%	51%	52%	46%	54%	55%	55%	44%	47%
Giving other practical help (direct services)	35%	31%	31%	34%	28%	31%	31%	31%	33%	34%	42%	42%	40%	34%	39%	35%	35%	32%	33%
Leading a group/being a member of a committee	34%	22%	31%	36%	43%	41%	42%	36%	32%	25%	36%	33%	36%	31%	33%	34%	35%	23%	28%
Giving advice/information/ counselling	29%	28%	28%	33%	32%	34%	29%	31%	32%	26%	30%	27%	19%	18%	27%	28%	28%	31%	41%
Providing transport/driving	26%	27%	34%	35%	24%	27%	25%	30%	*	21%	30%	22%	19%	*	22%	26%	27%	19%	16%
Visiting/befriending people	22%	21%	14%	16%	18%	25%	31%	18%	25%	18%	23%	30%	34%	30%	26%	22%	21%	31%	36%
Secretarial, admin or clerical work	18%	*	11%	21%	21%	20%	*	17%	*	16%	22%	23%	16%	*	19%	18%	18%	12%	14%
Representing	16%	*	18%	22%	18%	22%	*	19%	*	10%	15%	16%	*	*	13%	16%	16%	15%	16%
Campaigning	12%	*	13%	14%	15%	*	*	13%	*	12%	14%	13%	*	*	12%	12%	13%	11%	10%
Any other help	7%	*	*	9%	*	*	*	7%	*	*	7%	8%	*	*	7%	7%	7%	8%	11%
Respondents in England and Wales (formal vols.)	*3,828*	*147*	*276*	*479*	*428*	*195*	*119*	*1,645*	*187*	*395*	*662*	*471*	*281*	*182*	*2,183*	*5,737*	*3,575*	*1,063*	*721*

*=unweighted number of respondents <30

QV3.2b

Black people and Asian people were nearly three times as likely as white people to engage in the field of religion. For black and Asian people religion was the highest-ranked field overall, and they were twice as likely to engage in this field as in their second most popular field, children's education/schools. White people were more likely than Asian people and black people to engage in the fields of sports and exercise; and hobbies, recreation, arts and social clubs. White people were more likely than Asian people to engage in the field of the environment and animals. Black people were more likely than white people and Asian people to engage in the field of justice and human rights. People from all three ethnic groups were equally likely to engage in the fields of children's education and schools; the elderly; and safety and first aid.

What is the potential for growth in informal volunteering?

This section explores the potential for growth in informal volunteering by examining the views of three groups of people: those who had never been involved, those who had been involved more than twelve months previously and those who were currently involved but less frequently than once a month. It looks at these people's interest in being involved/more involved and their perceptions of the barriers and incentives to their involvement/greater involvement in the future.

Potential interest

When people were asked about whether they would like to spend time/more time in informal volunteering, 30 per cent of those who had never been involved (equivalent to around 3.0 million people in England and Wales), 48 per cent of those who had been involved more than twelve months previously (equivalent to around 1.5 million people), and 42 per cent of those who were currently involved but less frequently than once a month (equivalent to around 5.3 million people) said that they would like to spend time/more time (Table 5.16). Thus people who had experience of informal volunteering, whether past or present but irregular, were more likely than those who had no experience to express an interest in getting involved/more involved in the future.

Among people who had never been involved, men and women were equally likely to express an interest in getting involved. Among people who had been involved more than twelve months previously, men were more likely than women to express an interest in getting involved. Among people who were currently involved but less frequently than once a month, women were more likely than men to express an interest in getting more involved.

Table 5.15: Participation in formal volunteering at least once in the last twelve months, by field of interest and by age, sex and ethnic group of people involved

Field of interest	All	Men							Women							Ethnic group			
		16-24	25-34	35-49	50-64	65-74	75+	ALL	16-24	25-34	35-49	50-64	65-74	75+	ALL	Combined sample	White	Asian	Black
Sports/exercise	34%	60%	55%	45%	36%	34%	*	44%	34%	29%	28%	18%	14%	*	24%	34%	35%	26%	20%
Children's education/schools	30%	*	21%	37%	19%	*	*	22%	35%	51%	54%	26%	16%	*	38%	31%	31%	29%	28%
Hobbies /recreation/arts / social clubs	25%	33%	32%	25%	33%	28%	31%	30%	24%	17%	20%	21%	26%	*	21%	25%	26%	13%	15%
Religion	23%	*	16%	16%	20%	28%	32%	18%	21%	17%	25%	31%	37%	40%	27%	22%	20%	59%	63%
Youth/children's activities (outside school)	18%	24%	14%	28%	12%	*	*	18%	26%	22%	28%	10%	*	*	19%	19%	19%	22%	16%
Health/disability/social welfare	16%	*	11%	13%	14%	*	*	12%	*	18%	21%	23%	18%	*	19%	16%	16%	11%	16%
Local community or neighbourhood groups	15%	*	*	16%	19%	28%	26%	15%	*	*	15%	23%	20%	28%	16%	16%	16%	14%	14%
The environment/animals	12%	*	*	11%	12%	*	*	11%	*	12%	16%	13%	15%	*	13%	12%	13%	*	*
Education for adults	11%	*	*	9%	8%	*	*	10%	*	15%	13%	10%	11%	*	12%	10%	10%	12%	15%
The elderly	11%	*	*	8%	10%	18%	25%	9%	*	*	10%	19%	22%	26%	14%	11%	11%	10%	10%
Safety/first aid	6%	*	*	*	*	*	*	5%	*	*	7%	8%	*	*	7%	6%	6%	7%	5%
Trade union activity	5%	*	*	9%	9%	*	*	6%	*	*	*	*	*	*	3%	5%	5%	3%	*
Citizens' groups	5%	*	*	*	9%	*	*	5%	*	*	*	13%	9%	*	5%	5%	6%	*	*
Justice/human rights	4%	*	*	*	*	*	*	4%	*	*	5%	*	*	*	4%	4%	4%	4%	8%
Politics	4%	*	*	*	*	*	*	5%	*	*	*	*	*	*	3%	4%	4%	4%	*
Respondents in England and Wales (formal vols.)	*3,828*	*147*	*276*	*479*	*428*	*195*	*119*	*1,645*	*187*	*395*	*662*	*471*	*281*	*182*	*2,183*	*5,737*	*3,575*	*1,063*	*721*

*=unweighted number of respondents <30

QV3.1

People aged between 16 and 34 were more likely than people aged 35 and over to express an interest in getting involved / more involved.

Asian people and black people were more likely than white people to express an interest in getting involved / more involved.

Barriers

People who had never been involved, who had been involved more than twelve months previously or who were currently involved but less frequently than once a month and who said that they would like to spend time / more time[45] in informal volunteering, indicated that the main barriers to getting involved / more involved were time commitments (31%); personal circumstances, primarily parenting, caring and family responsibilities (18%); and working or educational commitments (14%) (Table 5.17). Such barriers are embedded in the fabric of people's lives and are thus relatively difficult to overcome. However, people also cited as a barrier lack of awareness of need for their help and of opportunities to help (27%). Such a barrier may be overcome through better communications – by raising the profile of informal volunteering generally and by supporting activities which strengthen social bonds among those resident in the same neighbourhoods or involved in the same communities of interest.

Women were more likely than men to mention personal circumstances as a barrier to getting involved / more involved.

People aged between 25 and 49 were more likely than those in other age groups to mention time commitments as a barrier to getting involved / more involved. People aged 65 and over were more likely than those aged between 16 and 64 to mention personal circumstances as a barrier.

Incentives

People who had never been involved, who had been involved more than twelve months previously or who were currently involved but less frequently than once a month and who said that they would like to spend time / more time in informal volunteering indicated that the main incentives to getting involved / more involved were knowing someone in need of help (59%) and being asked directly to get involved (52%) (Table 5.18). People indicated that they would be more willing to offer help if they believed that they had the right skills, knowledge or experience to help (25%) and if they believed that their offer of help would not cause offence (22%).

45. In the analysis of barriers and incentives to informal and formal volunteering, respondents include those who did not know whether they would like to spend time / more time.

Table 5.16: Interest in involvement / greater involvement in informal volunteering, by sex, age and ethnic group

		All	Men	Women	16-24	25-34	35-49	50-64	65-74	75+	Combined sample	White	Asian	Black
Never been involved	%	30%	30%	31%	46%	41%	30%	30%	19%	17%	30%	29%	46%	44%
	Respondents	*2,387*	*1,071*	*1,316*	*181*	*357*	*512*	*545*	*343*	*449*	*4,183*	*2,193*	*1,196*	*500*
Been involved but longer than 12 months ago	%	48%	52%	45%	66%	62%	55%	57%	30%	22%	48%	47%	64%	67%
	Respondents	*806*	*352*	*454*	*43*	*101*	*164*	*189*	*138*	*171*	*1,095*	*758*	*160*	*121*
Involved less frequently than once a month	%	42%	40%	44%	53%	52%	42%	38%	24%	23%	42%	41%	56%	53%
	Respondents	*2,920*	*1,382*	*1,538*	*251*	*586*	*892*	*687*	*308*	*193*	*4,189*	*2,759*	*760*	*431*

Question V6.6

Table 5.17: Barriers to involvement / greater involvement in informal volunteering, by sex, age and ethnic group[46]

	All	Men	Women	16-24	25-34	35-49	50-64	65-74	75+	Combined sample	White	Asian	Black
Time commitments	31%	32%	31%	30%	40%	37%	29%	*	*	31%	31%	32%	28%
Lack of awareness of need for help and of opportunities to help	27%	28%	27%	28%	28%	25%	29%	34%	17%	28%	28%	25%	25%
Personal circumstances	18%	14%	22%	9%	13%	16%	18%	37%	58%	18%	18%	16%	15%
Working or educational commitments	14%	15%	13%	20%	14%	16%	14%	*	*	14%	14%	12%	17%
Community integration issues	6%	7%	6%	*	6%	6%	7%	*	*	6%	6%	6%	9%
Personality issues	2%	*	2%	*	*	*	*	*	*	2%	2%	6%	2%
Cultural issues	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	-	*	*	*
Respondents	*2,605*	*1,183*	*1,422*	*273*	*581*	*725*	*612*	*226*	*184*	*4,561*	*2,370*	*1,221*	*596*

*=number of respondents <30
Question V6.7 (multiple answer)

46. This question was open-ended and responses were collapsed into seven themes. 'Time commitments' covers lack of time / too busy and other specific competing activities. 'Personal circumstances' covers parenting / caring / family responsibilities; reasons to do with physical or mental health / disability; domestic / household activities; life stage; being away from home a lot; bereavement; pregnancy; and family pressures. 'Working or educational commitments' covers work commitments; studying commitments; lack of money / resources; worries about benefits; and looking for work. 'Lack of awareness of need for help and of opportunities to help' covers lack of awareness of need for help and of opportunities to help; not being asked to help; and not perceiving a need locally. 'Community integration issues' covers being new to the area and not being involved with the community. 'Personality issues' covers lack of motivation; lack of drive / energy; and shyness / timidity / fear. 'Cultural issues' covers language barriers and other cultural reasons for non-involvement.

Men were more likely than women to indicate that they would be willing to get involved / more involved if they were asked directly.

White people were more likely than black people and Asian people to indicate that they would be willing to get involved / more involved if they knew someone in need of help and if they were asked directly. Black people were more likely than Asian people and white people to indicate that they would be willing to get involved / more involved if people looked out more for one another and if they knew more people in their local community.

What is the potential for growth in formal volunteering?

This section explores the potential for growth in formal volunteering by examining the views of three groups of people: those who had never been involved, those who had been involved more than twelve months previously and those who were currently involved but less frequently than once a month. It looks at these people's interest in being involved / more involved and their perceptions of the barriers and incentives to their involvement / greater involvement in the future. It also describes the most important methods of recruitment.

Potential interest

When people were asked about whether they would like to spend time / more time in formal volunteering, 27 per cent of those who had never been involved (equivalent to around 4.4 million people in England and Wales), 43 per cent of those who had been involved more than twelve months previously (equivalent to around 3.4 million people), and 44 per cent of those who were currently involved but less frequently than once a month (equivalent to around 2.2 million people) said that they would like to spend time / more time (Table 5.19). Thus people who had experience of formal volunteering, whether past or present but irregular, were more likely than those who had no experience to express an interest in getting involved / more involved in the future.

Among people who had never been involved and those who were currently involved but less frequently than once a month, men and women were equally likely to express an interest in getting involved / more involved.

People aged between 16 and 49 were more likely than those aged 50 and over to express an interest in getting involved / more involved.

Black people and Asian people were much more likely than white people to express an interest in getting involved / more involved.

Table 5.18: Incentives to involvement / greater involvement in informal volunteering, by sex and ethnic group

	All	Men	Women	Combined sample	White	Asian	Black
If I knew someone needing help	59%	59%	59%	60%	60%	51%	52%
If someone asked me directly to get involved	52%	55%	48%	53%	53%	44%	45%
If I had the right skills, knowledge or experience to help	25%	27%	23%	26%	26%	25%	25%
If I knew it wouldn't cause offence to offer help	22%	21%	23%	22%	23%	15%	25%
If my friends or family got involved with me	20%	20%	19%	20%	20%	22%	14%
If I could do it from home	15%	14%	16%	15%	15%	20%	15%
If I felt safe helping	16%	14%	17%	16%	16%	18%	19%
If I met people or made friends through it	16%	16%	17%	16%	16%	14%	17%
If people looked out for each other more in this community	14%	16%	12%	14%	14%	14%	23%
If I knew more people in my local Community	15%	15%	15%	14%	14%	17%	23%
If it gave me a position in the community	2%	3%	*	2%	2%	6%	6%
Respondents	*2,605*	*1,183*	*1,422*	*4,561*	*2,370*	*1,221*	*596*

* = unweighted number of respondents < 30
Question V6.8 (multiple answer)

Table 5.19: Interest in involvement / greater involvement in formal volunteering, by sex, age and ethnic group

		All	Men	Women	16-24	25-34	35-49	50-64	65-74	75+	Combined sample	White	Asian	Black
Never been involved	%	27%	27%	27%	42%	36%	33%	24%	11%	7%	26%	25%	39%	41%
	Respondents	*4,038*	*1,783*	*2,255*	*351*	*727*	*885*	*855*	*597*	*622*	*6,769*	*3,738*	*1,732*	*842*
Been involved but longer than 12 months ago	%	43%	41%	45%	58%	58%	51%	35%	22%	17%	43%	42%	67%	71%
	Respondents	*1,909*	*817*	*1,092*	*156*	*353*	*500*	*445*	*223*	*230*	*2,489*	*1,827*	*316*	*223*
Involved less frequently than once a month	%	44%	45%	44%	51%	57%	46%	39%	23%	*	43%	42%	54%	64%
	Respondents	*1,174*	*512*	*662*	*119*	*230*	*361*	*266*	*118*	*78*	*1,733*	*1,091*	*345*	*175*

*=number of respondents <30
Questions V3.5, V5.1, V5.2.

Barriers

People who had never been involved, who had been involved more than twelve months previously or who were currently involved but less frequently than once a month and who said that they would like to spend time/more time in formal volunteering, indicated that the main barriers to getting involved/more involved were time commitments (34%), personal circumstances (26%) and working or educational commitments (25%) (Table 5.20).

Women were more likely than men to mention personal circumstances as a barrier to getting involved/more involved, but men were more likely than women to mention working or educational commitments as a barrier.

People aged between 16 and 24 were more likely than those aged 25 and over to mention working or educational commitments and lack of awareness of need for their help and of opportunities to help as barriers to getting involved/more involved. People aged between 35 and 49 were more likely than those in other age groups to mention time commitments as a barrier. People aged 75 and over were more likely than those aged between 16 and 74 to mention personal circumstances, primarily physical or mental health/disability, as a barrier.

While people from all ethnic groups were equally likely to mention time commitments as a barrier to getting involved/more involved, white people were more likely than black people to mention personal circumstances as a barrier. Black people were more likely than Asian people and white people to mention lack of awareness of the need for their help and of opportunities to help as a barrier.

Incentives

People who had never been involved, who had been involved more than twelve months previously or who were currently involved but less frequently than once a month and who said that they would like to spend time/more time in formal volunteering, indicated that the main incentives to getting involved/more involved were being asked directly to get involved (44%); getting involved with friends or family (40%); knowing that someone who was already involved would help them get started (32%); getting involved from home (28%); and having an opportunity to improve skills or get qualifications (25%) (Table 5.21). People thus highlighted 'social' and 'comfort' factors to a greater degree than 'instrumental' factors.

Women were more likely than men to indicate that they would be willing to get involved/more involved if they knew that someone who was already involved would help get them started; if they could do so from home; and if they were offered transport.

Table 5.20: Barriers to involvement / greater involvement in formal volunteering, by sex, age and ethnic group

	All	Men	Women	16-24	25-34	35-49	50-64	65-74	75+	Combined sample	White	Asian	Black
Time commitments	34%	34%	35%	34%	36%	41%	32%	*	*	34%	35%	31%	32%
Personal circumstances	26%	20%	32%	10%	26%	28%	27%	45%	77%	27%	27%	24%	20%
Working or educational commitments	25%	28%	23%	32%	28%	26%	23%	*	*	25%	25%	26%	20%
Lack of awareness of need for help and of opportunities to help	8%	10%	7%	13%	8%	7%	7%	*	*	9%	8%	10%	15%
Personality issues	5%	6%	4%	*	*	4%	6%	*	*	5%	6%	*	7%
Community integration issues	2%	*	2%	*	*	*	*	*	*	2%	2%	4%	*
Cultural issues	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	-	*	3%	*
Respondents	*2,560*	*1,064*	*1,496*	*338*	*644*	*782*	*533*	*157*	*104*	*4,614*	*2,306*	*1,197*	*716*

*=number of respondents <30
Question V5.3

Table 5.21: Incentives to involvement / greater involvement in formal volunteering, by sex and ethnic group

	All	Men	Women	Combined sample	White	Asian	Black
If someone asked me directly to get involved	44%	45%	43%	46%	47%	34%	41%
If my friends or family got involved with me	40%	41%	39%	40%	41%	38%	32%
If someone who was already involved was there to help get me started	32%	28%	35%	33%	33%	26%	27%
If I could do it from home	28%	25%	32%	28%	28%	29%	25%
If more information about the things I could do was available	28%	27%	28%	28%	28%	24%	33%
If I knew it would help me improve my skills or get qualifications	25%	25%	25%	25%	24%	29%	33%
If I knew it would benefit me in my career or improve my job prospects	20%	21%	19%	20%	19%	25%	29%
If someone could provide transport when I needed it	13%	10%	15%	13%	13%	11%	15%
If I knew I could get my expenses paid	9%	8%	10%	10%	9%	14%	17%
Respondents	*2,560*	*1,064*	*1,496*	*4,614*	*2,306*	*1,197*	*716*

Question V5.4

White people were more likely than black people and Asian people to indicate that they would be willing to get involved / more involved if they were asked directly; and if they knew that someone who was already involved would help get them started. White people were more likely than black people to indicate that they would be willing to get involved / more involved if they could do so with friends or family. Black people and Asian people were more likely than white people to indicate that they would be willing to get involved / more involved if they thought it would benefit their careers or improve their job prospects and if they thought it would provide an opportunity to improve their skills or get qualifications.

Methods of recruitment

When people who volunteered formally at least once in the last twelve months were asked about the way in which they were recruited, they indicated that the most important methods of recruitment were personal, local and low-tech (Table 5.22).

People indicated that two of the most important methods of recruitment were direct – through people who were already involved and through previous use of services provided by the group, club or organisation. They also indicated that they learned about opportunities to volunteer through their contacts with important institutions (schools, colleges and universities; places of worship; and places of work) and through local events and meeting places such as community centres and libraries.

Women were more likely than men to refer to schools, colleges and universities and to places of worship as methods of recruitment, but men were more likely than women to refer to being service users.

White people were more likely than black people and Asian people to refer to recruitment by others already involved. Black people and Asian people were around three times as likely as white people to refer to recruitment via places of worship.

Table 5.22: Recruitment of people involved in formal volunteering at least once in the last twelve months, by sex and ethnic group[47]

	All	Men	Women	Combined sample	White	Asian	Black
From someone else already involved with the group	44%	44%	43%	44%	45%	31%	35%
School, college or university	20%	16%	24%	20%	20%	23%	19%
Through previously using services provided by the group myself	18%	20%	16%	19%	19%	17%	16%
Place of worship (church, chapel, mosque, synagogue or temple)	13%	11%	15%	12%	12%	31%	36%
Local events	6%	7%	5%	6%	6%	7%	5%
Local newspapers	6%	5%	6%	6%	6%	4%	7%
Promotional events /volunteer fair	4%	5%	4%	4%	4%	*	6%
Employer's volunteer scheme	4%	4%	3%	3%	3%	4%	5%
Community centre	3%	2%	3%	2%	2%	8%	6%
Library	3%	2%	3%	2%	2%	*	*
Respondents	*3,828*	*1,645*	*2,183*	*5,737*	*3,575*	*1,063*	*721*

* = number of respondents <30
Question V3.

47. Other methods of recruitment mentioned less frequently (and the percentage of respondents mentioning the method) were: volunteer bureau, council for voluntary service or other volunteer-placing agency (2%); local TV/radio (2%) national newspapers (2%); internet/organisational website (2%); hospital (2%); citizens' advice bureau (1%); careers centre/careers fair (1%); national TV/radio (1%); GP's surgery (1%); word of mouth (1%); friends, family, neighbours (1%); and other (1%). TimeBank, Millennium Volunteers, Teletext/Ceefax, leaflets, magazines, police station and yellow pages/telephone directory were all 0% after rounding.

6. Family networks and parenting support in England and Wales

Rebecca Creasey and Sara Trikha (Research, Development and Statistics, Home Office)
Jenny Turtle and Sarah Wands (BMRB)

The Home Office has responsibility for supporting families and recognises their importance in building the social capital of individuals and communities. The Home Office Citizenship Survey provides an opportunity to explore the two main aspects of families that are directly related to social capital:

- family networks both within and outside the household; and
- support and advice available to parents for bringing up children.

This chapter begins by looking at family networks both within and outside the household. The family side of social capital can be defined as the size and quality of the family network available. The Citizenship Survey allows us to investigate this across a diverse population base. This chapter presents an overview of the types of networks and sources of support available to different groups of parents. The analysis has been broken down by the age, sex, ethnic group and marital status of parents in recognition of the increasing diversity in family structures.

Changes in family structure, such as fewer marriages and increased numbers of lone parent families, are well documented[48] and the Government acknowledges that 'a modern family policy needs to recognise these new realities'.[49] Improved understanding of family networks is necessary for the development of effective policy to support families; where networks are weak the Government aims to provide alternative support and, thus, to improve outcomes for individuals.

The second aspect of family life central to the social capital debate, is the support available to parents in bringing up children. The importance of supporting parents in order to improve outcomes for children is now well understood; poor parenting can contribute to the risk factors faced by children whilst positive parenting can protect children from such risks. Outcomes may be behavioural, health or educational, and they may contribute to the child's social capital and the degree to which they are connected to their community both in the

48. McRae, S. (1999) *Changing Britain: Families and Households in the 1990's,* (Oxford, OUP).
49. Home Office (1998) *Supporting Families: A Consultation Document,* (London, HMSO).

short and long term. The Citizenship Survey results allow us to investigate the informal support that parents have when bringing up children as well as their awareness, use and satisfaction with more formal sources of advice and information.

This chapter presents basic descriptive information regarding the types of networks and sources of support available to different groups of parents; it is intended to inform subsequent more detailed analysis of the quality of sources of family-based social capital and parenting support available to different social groups.

Family networks

In order to inform family policy, the Government needs to understand the 'resources' that individuals have available to them through their network of relatives. Previous research in this area has been limited, but the recent policy interest has prompted much new work (such as the ESRC 'Families and Social Capital' Project at South Bank University). Analysis of Citizenship Survey data on family networks, and the interactions within them, will contribute greatly to this knowledge base.

Our most immediate source of social capital is the people with whom we share our home. Therefore, this section looks firstly at who people live with within their household[50]. The household includes any people who usually live together and share either living space or one meal a day.

Within the household we can separately identify the respondent's family[51] which is made up of their spouse/partner and/or any children who do not yet have a family of their own. Recent work in Australia[52] has found that levels of trust and mutual help and support in the within-household family are higher than for any other form of social network. In many cases the family that a respondent lives with is exactly the same as their household, but there are exceptions to this – for instance, a man living with his parents forms a separate family from theirs when his spouse/partner and child also move in. Therefore, analysis of the family unit within the household is considered separately from the household analysis.

50. Household defined as 'One person or a group of people who have the accommodation as their only or main residence AND (for a group) either share at least one meal a day or share the living accommodation, that is, a living room or sitting room.'
51. A family is defined as (a) a married or opposite sex cohabiting couple on their own or (b) a married or opposite sex cohabiting couple/lone parent and their never-married children (providing these children have no family of their own).
52. Stone, W. & Hughes, J. (2001) *The nature and distribution of social capital: Initial findings of the 'Families, Social Capital and Citizenship Survey'*, (Australia, Australian Institute of Family Studies).

The section then goes on to look at the family network outside of the household, as well as the levels of contact and exchange of help with relatives who do not live with the respondents. The final analysis in this section is of parents who have children that do not live with them. The levels of contact with these non-resident children are also considered.

Who do people live with in their household?

The data from the Citizenship Survey does not allow us to draw conclusions about the quality of the within-household network but the following analysis of the number and types of relatives in the household and in the family unit is a useful starting point.

Table 6.1 shows how average household size varies according to ethnic group. Households with an Asian Household Reference Person (HRP) are the largest (3.87 people) whilst households headed by a white person are the smallest (2.30 people).

Table 6.1: Households by type and ethnic group of household reference person

	All	White	Asian	Black
Single-person household	28%	29%	8%	29%
Married or cohabiting couple (All)	56%	56%	60%	34%
Married couple (All)	48%	49%	59%	28%
Cohabiting couple (All)	8%	8%	1%	6%
Lone parent (All)	9%	8%	8%	21%
Two or more family unit households[a]	5%	5%	17%	12%
Other[b]	2%	1%	6%	4%
Mean household size (people)	2.35	2.30	3.87	2.61
HRP	15,475	9,572	3,198	1,791

a Households of this type contained more than one family unit. Single persons living in group households were also classified as belonging to individual family units, e.g. a household containing two single people was classified as containing two separate family units.

b Contains households for which household type was unknown

Data do not total 100% due to rounding.

Questions F4, F5, F6, F10.

Numbers of one-person households have been increasing in recent years, particularly for the older age groups. In the survey, almost three out of ten households (28%) contained one person only, with around half of these (15% of total households) containing one adult aged 60

53. The ethnic group of the household was defined as the ethnic group of the HRP but this does not mean that everyone in the household shared the same ethnic origin. HRP is either the sole person in a single-person household or, if more than one adult (16 or over) in the household, the person in whose name the household accommodation is owned or rented. If jointly owned or rented, the HRP is the person with the highest income. If incomes are equal, the HRP is the oldest person.

years or over. One person households were less common among Asian households. Less than one in ten (8%) of Asian households were single-person households compared with nearly one in three (29%) white or black households. The complete absence of a within-household family network could have implications for an individual's social and physical well-being.

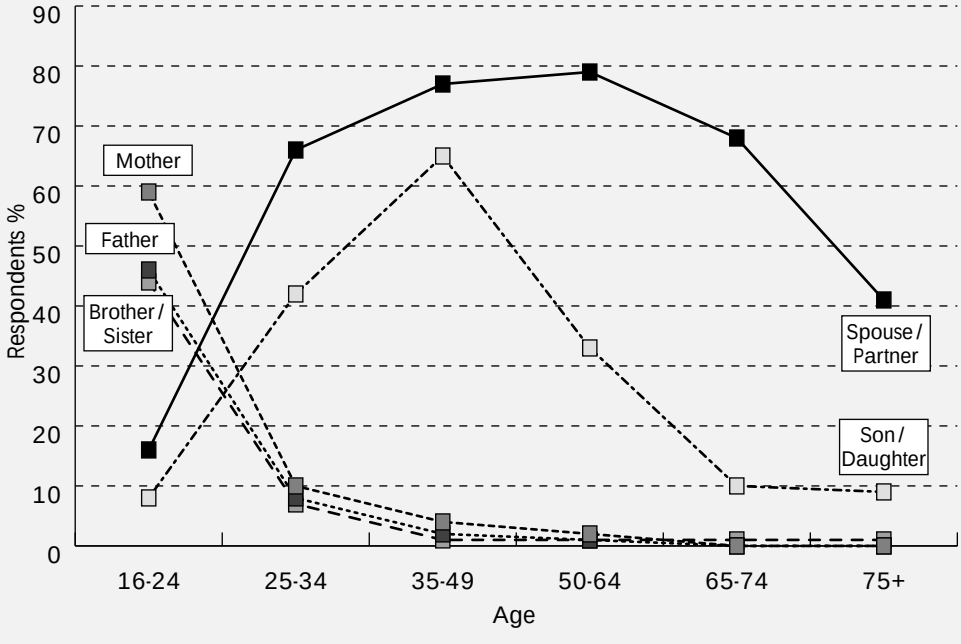
Lone parent[54] households made up a higher proportion of households headed by a black HRP (21%) than by other ethnic groups. Six out of ten households (60%) headed by an Asian HRP were married or cohabiting couples compared with only a third (34%) of households headed by a black HRP.

Households containing two or more family units were particularly prevalent among households with an Asian (17%) or black (12%) HRP, compared with just five per cent of households with a white HRP.

As would be expected, the type of relatives living within the household is greatly dependent on the age of the respondent (Figure 6.1). Only eight per cent of 16 to 24-year-olds live with their son/daughter and 16 per cent live with a spouse/partner, however, 59 per cent live with their mother, 46 per cent with their father and 44 per cent with a sibling. By contrast, 41 per cent of persons 75 and over live with a spouse/partner and living with a son/daughter is most common for 35 to 49-year-olds (65%).

54. Lone parents were defined as parents living with a child (dependent or non-dependent) but without a partner.

Figure 6.1: Relatives within the household, by age



Respondents in England and Wales: 10,015
Questions (HRP) F3, F10

Types of relatives within the household also varies by ethnic group with only 43 per cent of black respondents living with a spouse/partner compared with over 60 per cent of persons from white and Asian ethnic groups. White people were less likely to live with a relative from their extended family; only eight per cent lived with a relative other than spouse/partner, parent, child or sibling compared with 19 per cent of Asian and 14 per cent of black people.

Who do people live with in their families?

In addition to the household-based analysis of respondents presented above, separate family units were identified and analysed individually. The vast majority of households contain only a single family unit, so the results for this section are similar to the previous section.

Overall, the average family size was 2.15 people, with some variation depending on the ethnic group of the family reference person (FRP)[55]. As with households, Asian families were larger (with an average family size of 2.91 people) compared with 2.16 people for black and 2.13 people for white.

55. If the family contained the HRP, this person was also the family reference person (FRP) *unless* the HRP was a child in a parent-child family (an adult child living with parents). In this case, the oldest person in the family would be the FRP. If the family did not contain the HRP, the FRP was the oldest person. The FRP was always an adult aged 16+.

Within families with dependent children[56], the average number of such children was 1.81. This was also higher for Asian families, an average of 2.13 dependent children, compared with 1.89 among black and 1.78 among white families.

Overall, three-quarters (74%) of families with dependent children were married or cohabiting couple families. For families with a black FRP this proportion was lower at 47 per cent compared with 74 per cent for white and 84 per cent for Asian families (Table 6.2).

In its role in supporting families, the Home Office recognises that lone parent families may have particular needs; lone parents lack a spouse/partner with whom to share the responsibility for bringing up children and theirs are also likely to be lower income families. Therefore, the information on the characteristics of lone parents, and their support networks, provided by the survey will be of use in future policy development in this area. The proportion of families with dependent children headed by a lone parent is three times higher than in 1971[57]; the increase during the 1980s was due to divorce but in more recent years it has been due to a rise in single lone mothers. Table 6.2 shows that lone parenthood is particularly high among black families, accounting for over a half (52%) of families with dependent children. Nearly a third (30%) of black families with dependent children and with a black FRP are lone mothers who have never been married.

Table 6.2: Families with dependent children, by ethnic group of FRP

	All	Ethnic group of FRP		
		White	Asian	Black
Married/Cohabiting couple	74%	74%	84%	47%
All lone parents	26%	26%	15%	52%
Lone mother	24%	24%	13%	48%
Single, and never married	10%	10%	2%	30%
Single, but either married or have been married in the past.	14%	14%	12%	18%
Lone father	2%	2%	2%	4%
All families with children aged under 18	*5,952*	*2,670*	*2,077*	*798*

Questions (HRP): F4, F5, F6, F17a

Some families contained members from different ethnic backgrounds. Among families with a white FRP, 94 per cent consisted only of members from the same white background, for example white British. Similarly, 89 per cent of families with an Asian FRP contained only

56. Dependent children are those aged 18 or under who live in the household
57. Office for National Statistics (2002): Social Trends no. 32, (London, HMSO).

members from the same Asian background, whereas 69 per cent of families with a black FRP contained only members from the same black background. Nearly a quarter of families (23%) with two or more members with a black FRP contained both white and black members, whereas only seven per cent of Asian families contained both Asian and white members. Within the black families, this mixed ethnicity was more prevalent amongst those with a Caribbean FRP (32%) than for those with an African FRP (7%).

Nine in ten families with a white FRP (91%) were comprised entirely of people born in the UK, compared with 28 per cent of black and only ten per cent of Asian families. Families with a Caribbean FRP were much more likely than those with an African FRP to have all family members born in the UK (43% vs. 6%).

What networks of relatives do people have outside the household?

The vast majority (96%) of adults had at least one relative living elsewhere in the UK but not normally with them. Obviously the types of relatives that people had depended greatly on their age; for instance, 81 per cent of 25 to 34-year-olds had a parent living elsewhere in the UK compared with only six per cent of 65 to 74-year-olds. Only 52 per cent of 16 to 24-year-olds had a parent living outside the household but we know from Figure 6.1 that a high proportion of this age group actually still live in the same household as their parents. A decline in mortality rates has resulted in longer periods of co-survival of adult children and their parents.

The question in the survey related only to types of relatives that the respondent had elsewhere in the UK and did not include those living overseas. This may explain some of the variation by ethnic group; almost all (98%) of white respondents had relatives living outside the household but within the UK compared with 86 per cent of Asian, 81 per cent of black and 66 per cent of Chinese/other respondents. Having a family member born overseas has already been seen to be more common amongst minority ethnic families and, therefore, it is likely that these families have relatives living outside the UK.

This variation by ethnic group remained evident even after taking age into consideration. Six in ten white adults aged 16-24 (63%) had a sibling *outside* their household, compared with 35 per cent of Asian and 44 per cent of black adults in the same age group. However, Asian respondents in this age group were the most likely to have siblings *within* their household (72%), compared with black and white adults of the same age (53% and 43% respectively). Table 6.3 compares relatives within and outside the household to provide an indication of the extent of the network that contributes to family social capital.

Table 6.3: People by whether they have relatives within and outside the household, by ethnic group of HRP

Ethnic group of Respondent	Within household			Outside household but within UK		
	White	Asian	Black	White	Asian	Black
Any parent[a]	11%	31%	13%	53%	26%	26%
Any parent-in-law	-	5%	-	32%	16%	9%
Any son/daughter[b]	35%	53%	46%	39%	13%	17%
Any sibling[c]	7%	27%	13%	74%	51%	52%
Any grandchild	1%	3%	2%	27%	7%	10%
Any grandparent	-	2%	-	21%	11%	8%
Any relative	80%	94%	77%	98%	86%	81%
Respondents:	*9,358*	*3,263*	*1,852*	*9,358*	*3,263*	*1,852*

a Includes natural, step and foster parents
b Includes natural, adopted, step and foster children
c Includes natural, step and foster siblings
Questions F4, F17a, F17b

Asian respondents are most likely to have relatives living within their household and white respondents are most likely to have them living somewhere else in the UK. Black respondents, however, are generally the least likely to have their relatives within the UK (whether in their household or outside). Although such findings suggest a smaller network for family support for black people, we cannot make assumptions from this data about the support networks provided by any family overseas. Indeed, other research into the trans-national character of family and kinship in Caribbean communities has found it to be a significant support structure.[58]

What level of contact is there within the family network?

Levels of family social capital are dependent not only on the size or extent of the family network but also on the 'quality' of that network; an extensive network of relatives will not contribute to social capital unless there is contact between the individual members. In the Citizenship Survey respondents were asked which relatives living in the UK, but outside their household, they had contact with once a month[59]. Increasing mobility in recent years has led to families becoming more geographically dispersed and, with mounting pressures on time, could affect the amount of contact people have with relatives.

The first column of Table 6.4 shows the proportion of respondents who had monthly contact for each type of relative living outside the household but within the UK. It should be noted

58. Goulbourne, H. (1999) *The transnational character of Caribbean kinship in Britain*. In 'Changing Britain: Families and Households in the 1990s'. Edited by McRae, S., (Oxford, OUP).
59. Contact was explained as either face-to-face contact or contact by telephone, letter or email.

that respondents could have had a number of relatives in the same category (e.g. siblings, cousins) and could have had varying levels of contact with each one.

As might be expected, the highest levels of contact were between natural parents and their children. For older parents, ties with adult children can represent a major part of their social network and the main source of extra-household support[60]. Monthly contact was much less likely between step-relations or distant blood relations such as cousins.

Table 6.4: Respondents by contact, help and support involving relatives living outside the household

Type of relative	Contact with (at least once a month)	Given help/ support to (in last 12 months)	Received help/ support from (in last 12 months)	*Respondents, with each type of relative in the UK but outside the household*
Mother	92%	65%	61%	*4,452*
Son/daughter[a]	91%	61%	53%	*4,019*
Father	86%	52%	57%	*3,484*
Grandchild	80%	37%	14%	*2,891*
Mother-in-law/partner's mother	78%	43%	39%	*2,604*
Son/daughter-in-law	77%	33%	35%	*2,224*
Brother/sister	77%	37%	35%	*7,088*
Father-in-law/partner's father	73%	36%	39%	*1,936*
Step-father	70%	27%	34%	*454*
Step-son/daughter [a]	66%	35%	24%	*385*
Grandparent	66%	36%	31%	*1,679*
Brother/sister-in-law	61%	21%	21%	*4,414*
Step-grandchild	59%	18%	*	*287*
Step-mother	57%	20%	22%	*399*
Half-brother/sister	49%	21%	15%	*458*
Nephew/niece	44%	16%	8%	*6,503*
Step-brother/sister	38%	12%	14%	*528*
Step-grandparent	35%	12%	15%	*154*
Uncle/aunt	35%	12%	12%	*5,731*
Cousin	29%	8%	8%	*7,053*
Ex-husband/wife/partner[b]	28%	12%	8%	*1,399*

a Included only those aged 16 or over. Son/daughter also included adopted children aged 16 or over.
b Included separated spouse/partners
Questions 17b, F19, F20, F20a.

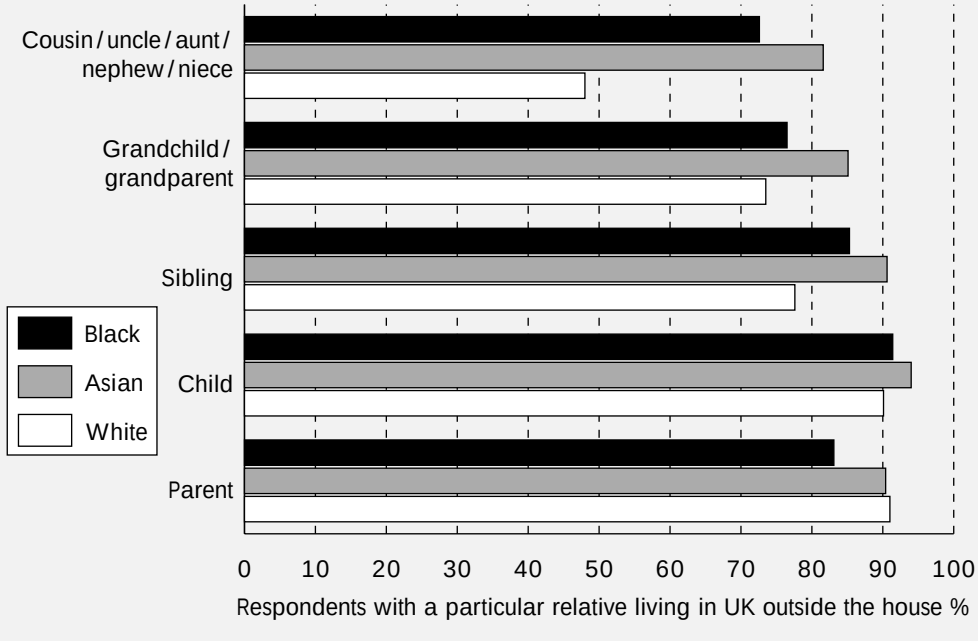
60. Grundy, E. & Shelton, N. (2001) *Contact between adult children and their parents in Great Britain 1986-99.* Environment and Planning A 2001, vol 33, pages 685-697.

Overall 91 per cent of people who have a parent in the UK were in contact with them, but this propensity to be in contact with a parent varies according to education level. Only 84 per cent of those with no educational qualifications had monthly contact compared with 93 per cent of those with a degree or higher degree.

It might be expected that working long hours would mean less time for staying in touch with family outside the household. However, 94 per cent of respondents working over 50 hours a week were in monthly contact with a parent compared with 89 per cent of those working 0-29 hours.

The propensity to keep in contact with relatives does vary by ethnic group (Figure 6.2). Black respondents were less likely to keep in contact with a parent living in the UK (83%) compared with white and Asian respondents (91% and 90% respectively). Less than half of white respondents who had a cousin, uncle, aunt, nephew or niece kept in regular contact with them compared with 73 per cent of black and 82 per cent of Asian respondents.

Figure 6.2: Respondents with a particular relative type who keep in contact with that relative type, by ethnic group



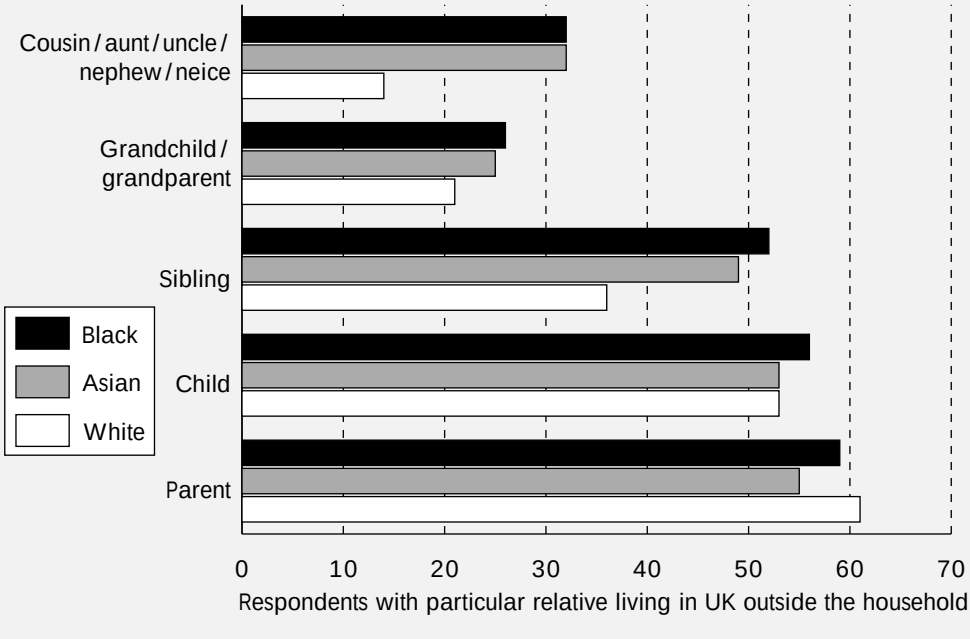
All respondents with particular relative type living in UK but outside their household.
Questions F4, F17b, F19.

Do people give help to, and receive help from, their relatives outside of the household?

As a more direct measure of family social capital, respondents were asked about the help given and received. Patterns of providing help to, or receiving help from, relatives are similar to those of contact, with greater evidence of help being given to, or received from close family members such as natural parents and children (see columns 2 and 3 of Table 6.4). Two-thirds (65%) of people whose mother lived outside their household had given help to her in the last twelve months and half (52%) had helped their father.

As with contact, the support given to, or received from, close relatives was similar across all ethnic groups but more distant relatives had a greater propensity to give or receive help in minority ethnic groups than among white people. For example, only seven per cent of white people who had cousins outside their household reported giving them any support, compared with 27 per cent of both Asian and black people with non-resident cousins. Figure 6.3 shows that white respondents were the least likely to have received help from siblings, grandparents / grandchildren or from more distant relatives.

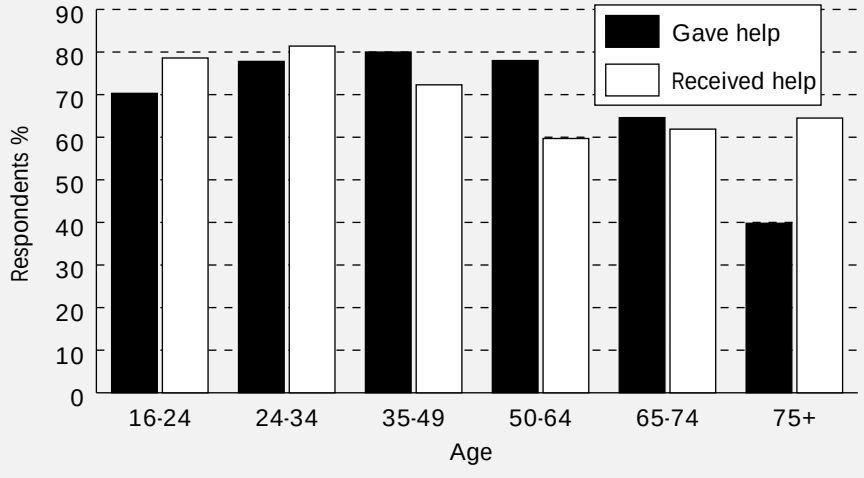
Figure 6.3: Respondents with a particular type of relative who have received help from that relative type, by ethnic group



All respondents with particular relative type living in UK but outside their household.
Questions F4, F17b, F20a.

Figure 6.4 shows how the proportion of people giving help to or receiving help from relatives outside the household varies by age. Persons aged 75 years and over are far more likely to have received help than given it, whereas more people in their middle ages have given help to relatives outside the household than have received it.

Figure 6.4: Respondents with at least one relative in UK, outside the household, who had given help to or received help from any relative, by age



9,674 respondents in England and Wales
Questions F3, F17b, F20, F20a.

More people felt that they had given help to their sons and daughters (including step-children), their grandchildren, and their nephews and nieces, than felt they had received help from these younger relatives. Interestingly, younger people reporting on the help that they had given to and received from their parents, grandparents, uncles and aunts, perceived a more equal balance between giving and receiving.

There are differences in the propensity to help relatives according to the deprivation level of the area. In areas classified as the 20 per cent least deprived[61], 72 per cent of respondents who had a parent living elsewhere in the UK, but outside their household, had given help to a parent. This compares with areas classified as the 20 per cent most deprived where only 62 per cent had given help to a parent. The differences by deprivation level in propensity to receive help from a parent are far less pronounced.

61. Using the ODPM Multiple Index of Deprivation.

Level of education was also associated with giving help. Of people educated to degree level or above, half who had a sibling living outside the household, but within the UK, had given help to a sibling, compared with 26 per cent of those with no qualifications.

Who has non-resident children[62] and how much contact do they have with their non-resident child?

The Citizenship Survey provides information on another aspect of family networks – parents who have a child (aged 16 or under) who does not normally live with them. Recent research[63] shows that if a routine of regular parent-child contact is established following family breakdown then the child is better able to cope with the change. A child's family social capital is greatly influenced by the level of contact with a non-resident parent and this will impact on outcomes in later life and, therefore, potentially on society as a whole.

Overall, six per cent of respondents reported having a non-resident child (Table 6.5); the proportion was slightly higher for men (7%) than for women (5%). Black respondents were more likely than other ethnic groups to report having a non-resident child; particularly black men (18%) compared with seven per cent of white men and three per cent of Asian men.

Table 6.5: Incidence of non-resident children, by sex within ethnic group

	Respondents with non-resident children	Respondents
All	6%	15,475
Black men	18%	766
White men	7%	4,038
Asian men	3%	1,605
Black women	8%	1,086
White women	5%	5,320
Asian women	2%	1,658

Questions F2, F4, F11.

The incidence of non-resident children was lowest for single people living without a spouse/partner (3%) and those married once only and living with their husband or wife (2%), and highest for those who were separated (18%) or divorced (12%) and not living with a spouse/partner. The incidence was slightly lower among those from higher managerial, lower professional or intermediate socio-economic groups.

62. Non-resident children were defined as children aged under 16 who did not normally live with the parent who was the respondent (for four or more nights per week).
63. Wade, A. & Smart, C. (2002) *Facing Family Change: Children's circumstances, strategies and resources.* Joseph Rowntree Foundation paper (York, York Publishing Services).

Only three per cent of respondents who were married or living with a spouse/partner reported that their spouse/partner had a non-resident child. This is lower than the reported number of non-resident children for the married or cohabiting respondents. This disparity is likely to be due to the fact that the information was not collected directly from the spouse/partner and in some cases the respondent may have been unaware of the existence of a non-resident child or unwilling to report it.

Overall, 42 per cent of non-resident children visited their absent parent's home once a week or more, 12 per cent visited about once every two weeks, nine per cent about once a month, 23 per cent less than once a month and 13 per cent never visited their absent parent's home at all. The children of a re-married parent were less likely to visit their absent parent's home, with 26 per cent in this group never visiting. A mother's non-resident children were more likely to visit her home than were the non-resident children of absent fathers; 18 per cent never visited their absent father's home, whereas only eight per cent never visited their absent mother's home. Of those who visited their parent's home, four in ten children (42%) normally stayed overnight.

Parents of non-resident children were also asked how often they saw their children away from their home. Seven out of ten non-resident children (69%) saw their absent parent at both the parent's home and away from the parent's home. However, nine per cent of the non-resident children had no face-to-face contact with their absent parent at all (Table 6.6). The non-resident children of absent parents who had remarried were the least likely to have face-to-face contact with them.

Table 6.6: Non-resident children who have no face-to-face contact with their absent parent, by marital status of absent parent

	Children who have no face-to-face contact with absent parent	*Respondents, with non-resident children*
All non-resident children	9%	*1,305*
Marital status of absent parent:		
Remarried	18%	*123*
Single and not living as couple	12%	*111*
Not married but living as couple	*	*99*
Separated/widowed/divorced	9%	*576*
Married and living with first spouse	*	*396*

Questions F5, F11, F13b, F13d

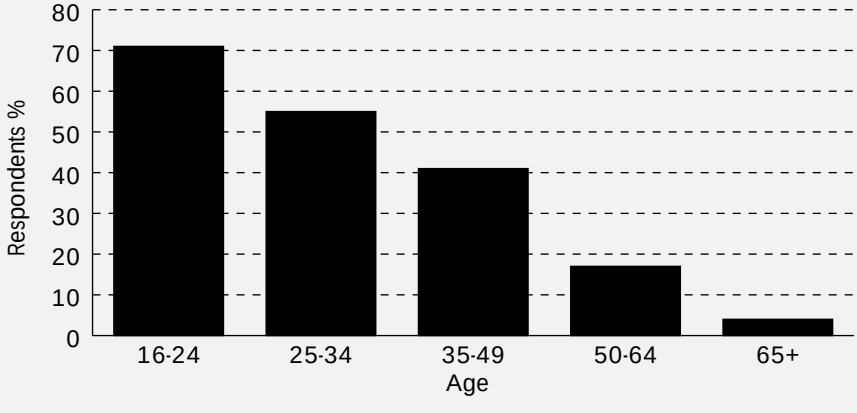
Supporting parents

Bringing up children is not always easy and many parents find there are times when they need help and support. Traditionally parents have turned to their own parents for help and advice but with increasing mobility, changing family structures and more grandparents still in employment, support mechanisms may have changed. In order to successfully support parents the Home Office needs to understand these informal networks of support and also parents' awareness, use and views of formal sources of advice.

This section looks at which parents[64] seek informal advice and help with bringing up children and the relatives that they approach for it. It then explores awareness of formal sources and asks which parents actually use the sources that they are aware of. The analysis moves on to look at whether parents found the sources of advice useful and which are their preferred sources. In order to understand whether parents feel adequately supported, parents' satisfaction with the amount and quality of advice available is investigated as well as whether there are any aspects of bringing up children about which they would like to know more.

Which parents seek informal advice on bringing up children, and which friends and relatives do they approach for it?

Figure 6.5: Parents seeking advice on bringing up children from friends and family, by age of parent



All parents of children aged 16 or below.
3,013 respondents in England and Wales.
Questions F3, F21a.

64. Parents were defined as those with children aged under 16. They included parents with resident children, step-children and foster children and parents with non-resident children and step children.

Over the past twelve months 42 per cent of parents had asked friends or relatives for advice or information on bringing up children. As might be expected, mothers were more likely to have sought such informal advice than fathers (52% vs. 32%) and greater proportions of younger parents had sought advice than older parents (Figure 6.5).

Over half of lone parents (54%) and roughly half of cohabiting parents (51%) had sought advice from family and friends compared with over two-fifths (42%) of married parents. Parents with resident children were twice as likely to have sought advice than parents with non-resident children only (46% vs. 23%).

Propensity to seek informal advice also varied by socio-economic group with 46 per cent of those in higher managerial or lower professional occupations having sought it compared with only 33 per cent in routine occupations or long-term unemployed. There were also variations by ethnic group; with 44 per cent of white parents having sought informal advice compared with 37 per cent of Asian and 34 per cent of black parents.

Looking at who people turn to for advice, Table 6.7 shows that their own mothers were the most popular source of informal advice on bringing up children (28% of parents had received advice from them in the past twelve months). White and Asian parents were more likely to have sought advice from their mother than from the next most popular source (friends and neighbours). However, for black parents there was no significant difference in the proportions who had approached their mother and those who had approached friends or neighbours (this does not take into account whether respondents had a mother in the UK or not). Although similar proportions of parents from each ethnic group contacted their brother or sister for advice, the relative importance of siblings is greater for the Asian and black parents. Black parents are noticeably less likely than parents from other ethnic groups to have sought advice from their father or their spouse/partner's parents.

Table 6.7: Types of friends and relatives approached for advice on bringing up children by respondents with dependent children, by parent and ethnic group

	All	Parent			Ethnic group of parent		
		Father	Mother	Combined sample	White	Asian	Black
Mother	28%	19%	35%	28%	30%	17%	13%
Friends/neighbours	18%	13%	24%	19%	19%	11%	15%
Mother-in-law/partner's mother	13%	14%	13%	14%	14%	14%	6%
Brother/sister	12%	8%	15%	12%	12%	12%	10%
Father	11%	10%	11%	11%	11%	8%	5%
Father-in-law/partner's father	6%	7%	5%	6%	6%	6%	*
Brother-in-law/sister-in-law	4%	3%	5%	4%	4%	7%	*
Uncle/aunt	3%	*	3%	3%	3%	4%	*
Grandparent	2%	*	3%	2%	2%	*	*
Ex-husband/wife/partner[a]	2%	*	3%	2%	2%	-	*
Any friend/relative	42%	32%	52%	43%	44%	37%	34%
None	57%	68%	48%	57%	56%	62%	65%
Respondents, parents of children aged 16 or below	*3,016*	*1,196*	*1,820*	*5,655*	*2,726*	*1,602*	*899*

a Includes separated spouse/partner

Note that the 'All' column should be used for England and Wales nationally representative estimates. The combined sample column is included for completeness.

Questions F2, F4, F21a

Which parents get regular practical help in bringing up children, and from which family and friends do they receive it?

As with the family network analysis, asking parents which friends and relatives gave practical help with bringing up children is a way of measuring the quality of the parenting support network.

In the past twelve months half of parents (53%) had received regular practical help with bringing up children (such as childcare or helping with transport) from their family or friends.

Patterns of receiving help with bringing up children were similar to those for asking for advice or information, with a greater proportion of mothers (58%) reporting receipt of help than fathers (48%). As with seeking advice, the likelihood of receiving help decreased with increasing age of the parent (e.g. 78% for 16 to 24-year-olds vs. 18% for 50 to 64-year-olds); this is unsurprising as older parents are likely to have older children who are at school, and so need less childcare.

Over half of white parents (55%) had received regular practical help with bringing up their children compared with 46 per cent of Asian and 39 per cent of black parents.

The friends and relatives most frequently providing practical help were generally the same as those providing advice. Fathers (17%) were the third most common source of practical help after mother-in-laws (21%) and mothers (33%). Parents used fathers more often for practical help than as a source of advice (17% vs. 11%). By contrast friends and neighbours more commonly provided parents with advice (18%) than with practical help (13%).

In terms of receiving regular practical help in bringing up children the maternal family network seems to be more important than the paternal side. A quarter of all fathers (26%) reported that their mother-in-law / partner's mother had provided help and 15 per cent said that their father-in-law / partner's father had done so. This compares with 17 per cent of mothers reporting that their spouse / partner's mother had helped and eight per cent that their spouse / partner's father had helped.

Are parents aware of other sources of advice and information on bringing up children?

Respondents were asked about their awareness of sources of advice other than family and friends. These include GPs, schools, health visitors and religious organisations, which can provide more specialist advice or more general support when necessary.

Overall, 88 per cent of parents were aware of at least one source of advice or information on bringing up children apart from family and friends. Some groups of parents were more likely to be aware of these formal sources of advice; for instance, mothers more than fathers (95% vs. 85%), younger parents (92% of 16 to 24-year-olds) more than older parents (53% of those aged 65 and over) and white parents compared with other ethnic groups (87% of white parents, 78% of Asian and 80% of black parents) (Table 6.8).

Table 6.8: Awareness of formal sources of advice and information, by age and ethnic group

Source	All	Age of parent					Ethnic group of parent			
		16–24	25-34	35–49	50-64	65+	Combined sample	White	Asian	Black
Healthcare	82%	86%	88%	83%	72%	50%	81%	82%	71%	68%
Social Care	41%	37%	39%	45%	42%	*	41%	43%	22%	34%
Religious leader/organisation	25%	10%	19%	30%	29%	*	25%	25%	21%	35%
School/college	55%	32%	48%	64%	55%	24%	56%	57%	36%	39%
Parenting Organisations	45%	53%	47%	48%	35%	*	45%	47%	22%	33%
Voluntary/community organisations	25%	19%	25%	28%	22%	*	25%	26%	10%	16%
None of these	12%	*	8%	10%	23%	47%	12%	11%	19%	18%
Any of these	88%	92%	92%	90%	77%	53%	87%	87%	78%	80%
Respondents, parents of children under 16	*2,953*	*143*	*935*	*1,455*	*277*	*143*	*5653*	*2,726*	*1,602*	*899*

Questions F3, F4, F22

Parents were most likely to be aware of healthcare sources (82%) followed by schools/colleges (55%). Within the broader categories reported in table 6.8, overall awareness of individual sources of advice on bringing up children were as follows:

- 68 per cent of parents were aware of GPs as a source of advice on bringing up children;
- 67 per cent of parents were aware of health visitors/nurses as a source of advice on bringing up children;
- 40 per cent of parents were aware of social workers as a source of advice on bringing up children; and
- 39 per cent of parents were aware of parenting groups and midwives as a source of advice on bringing up children.

Awareness of health visitors/nurses had the biggest difference by sex of any formal source, with 75 per cent of mothers being aware compared with only 61 per cent of fathers.

Some services are clearly aimed at particular stages in a child's development so it is unsurprising that parents of younger children were more likely to be aware of health visitors and pre-school groups, whilst parents of older children were more aware of educational sources of advice and information.

Lone parents were just as likely to be aware of GPs and health visitors as married or cohabiting parents but they were less likely to be aware of midwives and parenting groups

or pre-school groups. Lone parents' lower awareness of some 'community' types of support may contribute to feelings of isolation and lack of contact with other parents as has been found in other research.[65]

White parents were more likely to be aware of each individual source of advice and information than parents from minority ethnic groups, except for religious leaders/organisations. Black parents were significantly more aware of religious sources of advice (35%) than either white (25%) or Asian (21%) parents.

Do parents actually use the sources of advice that they are aware of?

Half of the 88 per cent of parents in the core sample who were aware of a source of parenting advice had actually used at least one source (43% of total parents).

Table 6.9: Use of formal sources of advice and information, by age and ethnic group of parents with dependent children

Source	All	Age of parent					Ethnic group of parent			
		16–24	25-34	35– 49	50-64	65+	Combined sample	White	Asian	Black
Healthcare	33%	*	47%	28%	13%	*	38%	37%	48%	39%
Social Care	2%	*	*	*	*	-	3%	2%	3%	6%
Religious leader/organisation	3%	*	*	3%	*	-	3%	3%	7%	13%
School/college	17%	*	14%	22%	11%	*	20%	20%	16%	14%
Parenting Organisations	7%	*	10%	7%	*	-	8%	8%	6%	7%
Voluntary/community organisations	3%	*	5%	*	-	-	3%	3%	*	3%
None of these	43%	28%	37%	46%	56%	47%	49%	50%	42%	47%
Any of these	43%	64%	56%	43%	21%	*	51%	50%	58%	54%
Respondents, parents of children under 16	*2,953*	*143*	*935*	*1,455*	*277*	*143*	*5,655*	*2,726*	*1,602*	*899*

Questions F3, F4, F23

Table 6.9 shows that the propensity of parents who were aware of any formal sources to actually use a source, varied – 58 per cent of Asian parents who were aware of any formal sources of advice had actually used at least one in the last twelve months, compared with only 50 per cent of white parents. This suggests that need, relative to awareness, could be higher for Asian parents or that different strategies may need to be employed to increase use of services by different ethnic groups. Though Asian parents were more likely to use

65. Moorman, M. & Ball, M. (2001) *Understanding Parents Needs: A Review of Parents' Surveys,* (London, National Family and Parenting Institute).

sources of advice than white parents (58% vs. 50%), they are less likely to be aware of what is available. Only 78 per cent of Asian parents were aware of a formal source of advice compared with 87 per cent of white parents. Therefore, increasing Asian parents' awareness of the services available is crucial to ensure their needs are being met.

The sources most commonly used by parents were roughly similar to the sources they were more likely to be aware of (GPs and health visitors first, followed by schools/colleges, midwives and parenting organisations). However, although 40 per cent of parents were aware of social workers as a source of advice only two per cent had actually received any advice from them; this probably reflects the fact that social workers deal with referred cases only rather then being a universal service. More interesting is that 25 per cent of parents were aware of voluntary or community sources of advice yet only three per cent had used these. The relatively high awareness and use of schools/colleges as a source of parenting advice may be misleading – for instance, parents who have attended a parenting support group run by a voluntary organisation, but held in school buildings, may have mistakenly reported school/college as the source of the advice.

Which formal sources of advice did parents find useful?

Around eight in ten parents who had received advice from a particular source went on to report that they had found this source useful. These levels were highest among parents who had received advice from schools or colleges or from health visitors/nurses (Table 6.10).

Table 6.10: Which advice and information sources found useful

	Sources found useful	*Respondents*
School/college attended by parent/child	84%	*520*
Health visitor/nurse	81%	*671*
Parenting /parent and toddler/playgroup/pre-school groups	79%	*206*
GP	77%	*658*
Midwife	77%	*201*

All parents of children aged under 16 who had received advice from each source.
Questions F23, F24

What are parents preferred sources of advice and information on bringing up children?

In order to support families effectively, the government needs to understand the best methods for reaching parents from all sections of society. The survey asked parents about their preferred methods of delivery of advice and information in order to inform strategies on providing easy and acceptable access to such support for all parents.

Parents were asked to state their preferred sources (up to three), of advice and information on bringing up children. The list shown included the sources mentioned previously and also additional media sources such as TV/radio, leaflets, magazines/newspapers, internet and books. The full list is shown in Table 6.11, ranked in order of preference. The proportion that had actually received information from each source is shown alongside for comparison, where this information was recorded.

Table 6.11: Advice and information sources preferred and used by parents

Sources of advice or information:	Sources preferred	Sources used
GP	54%	22%
Health visitor/nurse	39%	21%
School/college attended by parent/child	36%	17%
Books	15%	n/a[a]
Internet/websites	9%	n/a[a]
Social worker	8%	2%
Religious leader or organisation	7%	3%
Midwife	6%	7%
Magazines/newspapers	6%	n/a[a]
Telephone helplines	5%	2%
National Family and Parenting Institute	4%	*
Leaflets	4%	n/a[a]
Voluntary/community organisations	3%	*
TV/radio/video	3%	n/a[a]
None of these	11%	43%
Any of these	89%	43%
Respondents, parents of children aged under 16.	*2,967*	*2,953*

a Respondents were not asked if they had used these sources.
Questions F22, F23

The preferred sources mainly follow the same rank order as sources that parents had used. However, it is unlikely that people will mention a source of which they have no knowledge or experience.

GPs, health visitors and schools/colleges were the most preferred sources. These are services that already exist in the community and are universally available. It is interesting that these were preferable to the more specialist parenting services such as helplines, NFPI, leaflets and voluntary or community organisations. There may be a perceived stigma attached to using a specialist service for help in bringing up children and so the universal services may be more acceptable – more research into this is required.

As with awareness and usage, healthcare sources – especially health visitors – were more frequently preferred by mothers, by younger parents and those with children under five. Parenting and pre-school groups, and media sources, were also more popular with younger parents and those with young children. Educational sources such as schools and colleges, and religious sources, were more often preferred by older parents, and those with children aged 11 to 15 years.

Preferences for different advice and information sources also varied by ethnic group. Over half of white parents and Asian parents (both 54%) said they preferred to receive advice from a GP, compared with 40 per cent of black parents. Black parents were also less likely to prefer advice from health visitors (28%) than were white and Asian parents (40% and 37% respectively). A higher proportion of black parents, on the other hand, cited social workers as a preferred source (13%, compared with 8% of white and 7% of Asian parents). Black parents were also the most likely to prefer a religious source, with 24 per cent of black, 15 per cent of Asian and five per cent of white parents giving this answer. Schools or colleges were a preferred source for 37 per cent of white parents, compared with 27 per cent of Asian and 22 per cent of black parents.

Overall, levels of preference for advice from any media source were similar across all ethnic groups. However, advice from books held most appeal for white parents (16%, compared with 10% of black and 6% of Asian parents). Internet sources were also of greater interest to the white population (9% of white vs. 4% of Asian and 3% of black parents).

Which aspects of bringing up children would parents like more information on?

Overall, 40 per cent of parents mentioned at least one aspect of bringing up children that they would like more information about. Parenting issues such as child development, behaviour patterns, moral issues, discipline and bullying were most frequently mentioned (15% of all parents), particularly by parents of children aged five and over. Health issues were mentioned almost as frequently (14% of parents) and these were most likely to be mentioned by parents of children aged four years or less (Table 6.12).

Asian parents were the least likely to mention an aspect of parenting that they wanted more information on (34%, compared with 45% of black parents and 40% of white parents). However, parents from minority ethnic groups were more likely to express a need for more information on educational topics (16% of black and 13% of Asian parents mentioned this compared with 10% of white parents).

Table 6.12: Aspects of bringing up children parents would like more information about, by age of youngest resident child

	Age of youngest resident child			
	All	0-4	5-10	11-15
Parenting Issues	15%	13%	18%	17%
Health	14%	20%	12%	13%
Education	10%	13%	12%	6%
Facilities and practical help for parents	4%	4%	4%	*
Advice and information sources and services	2%	2%	*	*
Any aspect	40%	47%	41%	37%
None/no information needed	47%	40%	48%	52%
Respondents, parents of children aged under 16	*3,016*	*1,078*	*870*	*525*

Questions F3, F27

Overall, lone parents were no more likely to mention a need for advice than married or cohabiting parents were. But 22 per cent of lone parents expressed an interest in more information specifically on parenting issues, compared with only 14 per cent of married or cohabiting parents.

Are parents satisfied with the amount and quality of information on bringing up children?

When asked if they were satisfied with the amount and quality of parenting advice available, 15 per cent of parents replied 'don't know'. It is impossible to know whether these parents simply did not understand the question, whether they thought that it did not apply to them, or they did not know about the amount and quality of the advice available. The proportion of people answering 'don't know' was higher in the older age groups (45% of 60+ year-olds) and for men (20%) compared with women (10%). Lone parents were the least likely to reply 'don't know', perhaps suggesting that they considered the question to be of more direct relevance to them.

Table 6.13 shows that of those parents who did give an answer, 89 per cent were very or fairly satisfied with the advice on bringing up children available to them. Although fewer older parents felt able to answer the question, those that did were equally as satisfied as the younger parents. However, black parents (18%) were significantly more likely to report dissatisfaction with the advice available than white (11%), Asian (10%) or Chinese/other parents (6%).

Table 6.13: Parents' satisfaction with the amount and quality of advice and information on bringing up children

	Very satisfied	Fairly satisfied	Fairly dissatisfied	Very dissatisfied	Satisfied	Dissatisfied	*Respondents parents of children under 16*
All	27%	62%	8%	3%	89%	11%	*2,583*
Mothers	29%	61%	8%	*	90%	11%	*945*
Fathers	25%	63%	9%	3%	88%	12%	*1,638*
Age							
16-24	35%	57%	*	*	92%	*	*134*
25-34	28%	62%	7%	*	90%	10%	*856*
35-49	24	63%	10%	3%	88%	12%	*1,296*
50-64	28	60%	*	*	89%	*	*211*
65+	*	*	*	*	*	*	*83*
Family type							
Lone parent	30%	56%	11%	*	86%	14%	*570*
Married couple	27%	63%	8%	2%	90%	10%	*1,559*
Cohabiting couple	25%	60%	*	*	85%	15%	*252*
Ethnic group							
All ethnic	27%	61%	8%	3%	88%	11%	*4,770*
White	27%	62%	8%	3%	89%	11%	*2,332*
Mixed	*	64%	*	*	85%	*	*135*
Asian	35%	55%	8%	*	90%	10%	*1,359*
Black	26%	56%	14%	*	82%	18%	*731*
Chinese/other	34%	59%	*	*	93%	6%	*213*

Questions F2, F3, F4, F26

Parents' levels of satisfaction had an influence on whether they mentioned additional aspects of bringing up children that they would like more information on. Nearly half (48%) of those parents who were very or fairly satisfied with the available information said that they knew enough already and no more advice was needed. However, 75 per cent of parents who expressed dissatisfaction reported at least one aspect of parenting that they would like more information on.

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