Cohesive Communities in Leicestershire

Produced by the Research and Information Team, Chief Executive’s Department, Leicestershire County Council
Acknowledgements

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Important Note

Whilst every care has been taken to represent the data and analysis fairly and accurately, the authors would be grateful for any corrections, amendments or additions to this report (as per the contact details below).

Jon Adamson
July 2007
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Executive Summary

Community cohesion is a key issue for local authorities, particularly since the disturbances in a few towns in northern England in 2001 and in light of recent national and international events.

Community cohesion is a very broad agenda and means different things to different people, with different priorities in communities. However, it is those things we share, our priorities and vision for the future which is most important. In a general sense, community cohesion is about perceptions of the local neighbourhood, participation in the local community and the contextual issues which can enhance or act as barriers to cohesion.

Cohesion is not about uniformity, conformity, normalisation or value consensus. It is not about suppressing conflicts and clashes: it should be about how to deal with them. We do not necessarily need to ‘like’ each other but we need to learn to get on and respect each other. Cohesion should not hamper civil expression of discontent, disagreement or opposition. (Boeck, 2007)

This report looks at some of the existing evidence of community cohesion in Leicestershire and at some of the key contextual information about Leicestershire which is very relevant to enhancing community cohesion.

The evidence of community cohesion in Leicestershire shows that locally, as is the case nationally, the picture is a positive one where overall perceptions of cohesion are good. The majority of people think their area is a place where people from different backgrounds get on and feel that their neighbourhood is a good or very good place to live. Participation was much higher for informal volunteering (unpaid help to friends, neighbours, etc) than for formal volunteering (unpaid help to organisations and clubs) and there was a more positive picture of community cohesion in some areas of the County than others.

Contextual information about Leicestershire highlights the importance of the interaction between a number of issues—migration, unemployment, fear of crime, vulnerable locations, etc.—which can impact on how cohesive an area is. None of these factors alone determines how cohesive a community is. There is a complex interaction of socio-economic factors and local circumstances which determines how cohesive a community is. Correspondingly, to enhance the cohesiveness of an area action needs to be taken on a number of different factors which impact on a community and the circumstances and perceptions of people living there.

On the whole, evidence in Leicestershire suggests that deprivation, ‘vulnerability’ and high levels of crime seem to have a negative impact on community cohesion. However, this is not the case in all areas and in some neighbourhoods local action counteracts such factors and communities are more cohesive—residents have better perceptions of the area and participate more—than other areas which score better on such measures.

Thus it is important that communities have a say in what the priorities are for cohesion, and for other issues, and are involved in the decision making process of what is done in their neighbourhoods. It is equally important that organisations consider how they can deliver services which help to enhance cohesion in their local communities. Improving individuals’ personal circumstances and changing perceptions for the better is key to this.

Five key areas for future action emerge from this report:
1. Challenging stereotypes and myths
2. Devolving power and neighbourhood management
3. Increasing volunteering
4. Responding to emerging new communities
5. Improving personal circumstances and perceptions
1. Introduction

1.1 Background to this report

A political and public concern

Community cohesion has become a key issue for local authorities over recent years, particularly since the disturbances in a few towns in northern England in 2001. Other national and international events since then—the war in Iraq, the terrorist attacks in London on 7th July 2005—have also heightened concerns about community cohesion.

Our Shared Futures, the report produced by the Commission on Integration and Cohesion stresses the importance of diversity and uses four key principles to tackle the challenges of integration and cohesion. These four key principles are:

- ‘shared futures’ - emphasis on what we have in common, rather than differences; prioritising a shared future over a divided legacy
- responsibilities and rights for individuals and groups
- civility and mutual respect
- a commitment to equality; prioritising transparency and fairness.

Aims of this report

The Research and Information Team were tasked with producing a report on community cohesion in Leicestershire. This report will contribute towards the evidence base for a Sustainable Community Strategy for Leicestershire and the next Local Area Agreement (LAA) which delivers that strategy (starting in April 2008). This report, along with other work carried out locally, will contribute to the future work programme of the Stronger Communities block of the Leicestershire LAA.

This report is not a compendium of everything known about community cohesion in Leicestershire. There are other reports looking at specific issues around the county, such as student housing in Loughborough, which are highly relevant to community cohesion and are referenced here but not included in their entirety. This report is not attempting to compile everything known locally about communities in Leicestershire, nor would it be possible to do so.

This report pulls together several areas of research, some undertaken for the first time, considered to be highly relevant to community cohesion and to maintaining and supporting stronger communities in Leicestershire. The report draws on previous research carried out on social capital for the Stronger Communities block of the LAA and has engaged the work of several academics in related areas.

Dr. Ludi Simpson of the Cathie Marsh Centre for Census and Survey Research was engaged to carry out some work on population and migration (see section 3.1, page 22). Some of the work produced by Dr. Simpson and his colleagues is included in this report and a number of further applications for this work are currently being considered.

The Vulnerable Localities Index developed by the Jill Dando Institute of Crime Science to highlight possible priority areas for community cohesion has been applied locally for Leicestershire and its application is critically discussed here (see section 3.4, page 46).

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1 ‘Our Shared Future’ Commission on Integration and Cohesion, © Crown Copyright 2007. pg 42.
Thilo Boeck of the Centre for Social Action, De Montfort University, was engaged to co-author this report and has contributed heavily, particularly to this chapter and the section on understanding community cohesion (section 1.4, page 4). Thilo Boeck also contributed substantially to the analysis and interpretation of the other sections.

The acknowledgements on page i highlight that the whole Research Team at Leicestershire County Council contributed to the production of this report. Community cohesion is an area of research for which there is not an extensive legacy of previous work carried out in Leicestershire. As such this report has involved members of the Research Team having to develop their understanding of issues such as ‘community cohesion’, ‘social capital’, ‘stronger communities’ and of how more traditional areas of research—crime, unemployment, population—relate to them. This indicates the change in focus of local government research in the light of Local Area Agreements, the Local government White Paper and the report of the Commission for Integration and Cohesion.

Building on established academic research and involving the whole Research Team in the work has been an innovative approach to this report and presents a useful way forward for producing good quality research for Leicestershire.

Some of the key stakeholders for this report were consulted on the research being undertaken before the report was finalised. This was done via a presentation and workshop at the LAA Leads Plus meeting and subsequent meetings with the Leicestershire Stronger Communities Board and the Islamic Foundation².

In summary, the five main aims of this report are:
1. to describe the current picture of community cohesion in Leicestershire as we understand it, analysing and interpreting the information available locally;
2. to promote an informed debate about community cohesion in Leicestershire;
3. to highlight possible priorities for Leicestershire;
4. to identify gaps in knowledge and information and suggest further research;
5. to provide evidence to inform the development of a Sustainable Community Strategy for Leicestershire.

Structure of the report

The introduction chapter outlines the background to this report and the main aims of the research. It also discusses how community cohesion is defined and provides an overview of understanding community cohesion. The second chapter examines the evidence of community cohesion in Leicestershire and draws heavily on local consultation, in particular the social capital survey carried out in 2006. The third chapter then focuses on the context of community cohesion in Leicestershire and considers the relationship between issues such as migration, the fear of crime, deprivation and cohesion. Finally there is a chapter drawing together the main conclusions of this research and suggesting some of the next steps.

² The LAA Leads Plus meeting involves all of the block leads for the Leicestershire Local Area Agreement, plus other relevant stakeholders. The LAA Leads Plus meeting referred to here took place on 8th June 2007. The Stronger Communities Board meeting took place on 13th June 2007 and an initial discussion about this report and future working relationships took place between members of the Research Team and the Islamic Foundation on 22nd June 2007.
1.2 Defining community cohesion

The Commission on Integration and Cohesion believe that the following definition\(^1\) should be adopted:

An integrated and cohesive community is one where:

- There is a clearly defined and widely shared sense of the contribution of different individuals and different communities to a future vision for a neighbourhood, city, region or country
- There is a strong sense of an individual’s rights and responsibilities when living in a particular place – people know what everyone expects of them, and what they can expect in turn
- Those from different backgrounds have similar life opportunities, access to services and treatment
- There is a strong sense of trust in institutions locally to act fairly in arbitrating between different interests and for their role and justifications to be subject to public scrutiny
- There is a strong recognition of the contribution of both those who have newly arrived and those who already have deep attachments to a particular place, with a focus on what they have in common
- There are strong and positive relationships between people from different backgrounds in the workplace, in schools and other institutions within neighbourhoods.

This gives a broad framework, but it is important to understand the causes of some people leading separate lives in communities, fearing or condemning diversity, or having unequal life opportunities.

The Commission also encourages local areas to develop their own version of this definition of community cohesion to best reflect particular local circumstances and the current challenges which they present.

In Leicestershire this definition of community cohesion should be understood in the context of those issues raised in this report and those important to local communities. For Leicestershire the movement of people into those areas of the County which lack experience of diversity is very important. Also important is those areas where diversity is linked to deprivation.

In Leicestershire these issues could refer to past migrants and minorities moving from the City to the County and to the settlement of new migrant workers in the County. Further, it is not just about ethnicity, nationality or faith. The impact of the student population in Loughborough and at the edges of the City, the housing of young and older people together or where adjacent communities perceive themselves to be receiving an unfair share of resources compared to their neighbours, are all important issues for Leicestershire.

The landscape has shifted from a multi-cultural focus to one of breaking down barriers to produce cohesive communities. In this complex environment, a ‘one size fits all’ approach is inappropriate. The recent White Paper’s focus is about empowering communities to become more cohesive and this depends on interconnectivity, interdependence, and taking collective responsibility to achieve sustainability (GB. Parliament. HoC, 2006).

Following the White Paper’s recommendations we suggest that the proposed overview for community cohesion in Leicestershire
builds on a commitment to the wellbeing of communities. It is based on the overarching theme of Community and Personal Wellbeing, and encompasses ‘Social Justice’, ‘Human Rights’, and ‘Equality and Diversity’. We integrate community cohesion into the components of quality of life and wellbeing and distinguish three essential dimensions inherent in the concept.

The Resource/Inclusion dimension which incorporates the goals of reducing disparities, promoting rights, equal opportunities and combating social exclusion. The Citizenship dimension which refers to proactivity and participation (voting and formal/informal volunteering). The Social Capital dimension refers to all aspects aiming at strengthening social relations, interactions and ties.

In order to enhance community cohesion, the following three criteria should be met simultaneously:

1. People can trust, help and cooperate with other members of the community
2. They share a common identity or a sense of belonging to their community
3. The subjective feelings in (1) and (2) are manifested in objective behaviour through participation and having a sense of say in community affairs.

However in order to form a complete picture it is also important to consider the context and causes of cohesion. This will enable a better understanding of the dynamics and relationships in the process of developing cohesion. This holistic approach will be of special relevance when considering interventions and also in policy development and service delivery. The following sections will explore how, in Leicestershire, these elements interact and the socio-economic and cultural context in which they are happening.

We will look at criteria 1 and 2 (above) in terms of neighbourliness and diversity, and criteria 3 in terms of proactivity and a sense of having a say and influence in how things are done in the local community.

### 1.4 Understanding community cohesion: an overview

The terms ‘community cohesion’ and ‘social cohesion’ have gained considerable currency in policy circles following the urban disturbances in the early years of the 21st Century. Chan (2006) asserts that both the Council of Europe and the European Union (EU) have called for more attention to the issue of cohesion in setting public policy with the EU Cohesion Fund being one of the major items featured in the Union annual budget (Jeannotte, 2000). The idea of social cohesion is also coined by international organisations like the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and the World Bank, both of which have recently come to realize the importance of socio-cultural factors in economic development and growth (Ritzen et al., 2000 in Chan 2006).

It is generally seen as covering similar issues as ‘race and community relations’, but does recognise that other social tensions and cleavages, such as those based on faith, age and travelling communities, as well as migrant workers and asylum seekers (or refugees) which have begun to occupy a higher profile in public debate.

Further, other aspects of social exclusion and disadvantage are involved, and there may be a complex relationship between the
demographic makeup of an area and political or social unrest or expression.

According to the Citizenship Survey, there is no relationship between the proportion of ethnic minority households in an area and views on community cohesiveness (Kitchen et al 2006:18). However, it also has to be accepted that one of the determinants of community solidarity does appear to be the composition and turnover of the local community which is often linked to housing policies of different Local Authorities and Housing Associations (Johnston 2006).

There is some disagreement among experts and politicians about the desirable levels of diversity and mixing. Some would argue that the formation of ‘ghettoised’ areas of (near)-single ethnic homogeneity is undesirable, and even where the sole group consists of mainly ‘White British’ population, concerns have been raised. The current housing and planning policy and practice (ODPM, 2004; ODPM, 2005b) places considerable emphasis on building sustainable and cohesive communities which is based on the premise of not creating single class or single cultural neighbourhoods.

As a result, housing is being dispersed amongst mixed tenure housing developments and in some areas traditional concentrations of social housing have been diluted through ‘right to buy’ schemes. Within this there is an overarching emphasis on developing sustainable communities with local community participation and active engagement of local people (ODPM, 2005a, ODPM Safer and Stronger Communities Fund). The enhancement of community cohesion is increasingly seen as a crucial factor to achieve this goal.

However, recent urban policy in the Netherlands has considered the value of engineering social mixing, but encountered problems in bringing together “the so-called native Dutch, immigrants and ‘newcomers’, who face problems in living together and sharing public spaces” (Smets 2006:293). It is important to recognise how community cohesion is influenced by power imbalances, opportunities (or lack of them), the stereotypes of an area and assumptions made about its residents, reflected in their portrayal by government policy, the media, local policy, power structures and community services (Boeck et al., 2001).

For many people it is the attachment and sense of belonging to a certain place which gives them a sense of security and safety. However, the range of networks people have can vary from very restricted to very diverse which might have direct implications on the ability of people to perceive and negotiate social and place mobility. The need for diverse and wider ranging networks, a sense of belonging to a wider locale, and a focused and active outlook in life is well recognised. This is not just about the ‘size and density’ of the network, it is also about the resources that the network brings (Halpern, 2005).

Academic and policy research has so far failed to establish if there is an optimum level of diversity or a reliable indicator of this which could be linked to predictions of community cohesion. A report from the Office of the Deputy Prime Minister suggests that the level of physical ‘mixing’ of population groups remains the easiest way to provide an estimate of the level of social integration and community cohesion, stating that “There has been an improvement in social cohesion across the country. The vast majority of cities have become more integrated during the past decade…” (ODPM 2005). That said, the Home Office/Communities & Local
Government Citizenship Survey (Kitchen et al 2006:9) shows clearly that while ‘people who lived in areas with the highest concentration of minority ethnic population were less likely to have positive views of their neighbourhood on some measures’, four out of five in such mixed areas said that ‘people from different backgrounds got on well together’ (italics added).

Another aspect which has to be considered is that in principle, strong ties within a community can be accompanied by the tendency to discriminate and exclude those people who do not belong to that community (Narayan, 1999 p. 8). The issue of a strong social cohesion within a community which itself is exclusive has lead to the question “Can social cohesion be a threat to social cohesion?” (Jenson, 1998: p. 4) and to the conclusion “that inclusion could also mean exclusion” (Bernard, 1999: p. 18). In Leicestershire this may be particularly relevant to those homogenous or single cultural communities in the rural County facing an increase in diversity (for whatever reason) for the first time. This is why Berger-Schmitt highlights the importance of considering both dimensions – the inequality dimension and the social capital dimension – in order to get a comprehensive picture of the social cohesion within a society.

The existence and maintenance of community cohesion is clearly dependent on the state of inter-group relationships as much as it is on the social capital of specific groups making up a community or population and of social inclusion.

The concept of community cohesion should be related to social inclusion and social capital but also involves aspects such as: the extent and nature of segregation, equal opportunities, educational attainment, community safety, population dynamics. Some of these concepts can be measured using regularly collected variables; others require special-purpose surveys. Such variables could be collated on a regular basis to monitor these aspects of community cohesion forming part of an overall strategy for enhancing community cohesion in Leicestershire. Understanding this local context of community cohesion is key and this will be discussed in more detail in chapter three.

1.3 Researching community cohesion in Leicestershire

In the summer of 2006, a Social Capital Survey3 was carried out in twenty communities across Leicestershire. Each district based Local Strategic Partnership (LSP) identified three Lower Super Output Areas (LSOAs) in which to carry out the surveys. Each district chose a deprived area, an ‘average’ area and a rural area (with the exception of Oadby & Wigston Borough which did not have a rural area). The district LSPs chose how to define ‘deprived’, ‘rural’ and ‘average’.

This survey collected the views of people across a number of different issues, including some of those particularly relevant to community cohesion. This information provides the source of most of the evidence on community cohesion in Leicestershire (Chapter 2) and helps highlight the relevance to community cohesion of those contextual issues for Leicestershire (Chapter 3).

The final report from the Commission on Integration and Cohesion published on 14th June 2007—Our Shared Future—sets out a number of recommendations. One recommendation is that,

*All Local Authorities should spend time mapping their local areas*

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3 Social Capital and Stronger Communities in Leicestershire (available at: [http://www.ccp.org.uk/socialcapitalreport.html](http://www.ccp.org.uk/socialcapitalreport.html))
and local population, understanding who lives in each ward, the make up of local schools and the different groups worshiping in their area.

This report on Community Cohesion in Leicestershire includes a section specifically looking at the characteristics of the local population (section 3.1). Another section (3.2) includes analysis of the make-up of local schools using the Pupil Level Annual Schools Census (PLASC). The third area which the Commission recommends local authorities research is where different groups worship in their local area. This latter area requires some further work by Leicestershire County Council and its partners. At the moment the authority owns a database—'Point X'—which includes data on services across the County. Whilst not 100% complete this data source contains a vast amount of data on Christian places of worship but little on other faiths. This is something which needs to be addressed.

In his speech at the launch of the report by the Commission on Integration & Cohesion, the Chair Darra Singh highlighted that;
“...our analysis shows that in each area, when it comes to cohesion, the people matter. Who they are, how old they are, what education they have.

And it also shows that the characteristics of that place matter. Whether there are community facilities. Green spaces. Affluent areas.”

This report on Community Cohesion in Leicestershire addresses both of these areas. It looks at the people and their interactions—the evidence of community cohesion—and it looks at place and structures—the context of community cohesion. However, it does

neither of these things in a completely comprehensive manner. It is worth reiterating that this is not compendium of everything we know about population, about unemployment or about community cohesion. This report is an attempt to pull together some of what we do know about community cohesion in Leicestershire. It is an attempt to outline some of what we know, some of what we do not know and to suggest a way forward.
2. Evidence of community cohesion in Leicestershire

2.1 Neighbourliness

It is important how people view their communities and how they perceive others view them. Perceptions of communities are strongly linked to stereotypes of communities and their effect on everyday life. In order to build social capital, communities may need to challenge their history and consider what community means to them and what contribution everyone can make to it. The concern within a neighbourhood with low neighbourhood connections is that if the need arises, people do not feel they can rely on their neighbours (and vice-versa). For some people the neighbours are vital and they are groups or networks which support each other. If these do not exist people might feel very vulnerable or isolated. In some of the more affluent rural areas people may be very happy living in their neighbourhood but may not contribute anything to it. This may be partly because their networks are with other people than their neighbours. This may be fine for them as they have the means to make use of those wider networks. In some of the more deprived areas the networks with neighbours are more important as people may be less able to make use of and develop wider networks.

Overall 74% of people in the Leicestershire social capital survey felt that their neighbourhood was a ‘very good’ or ‘good’ place to live. Whilst more people in the ‘average areas’ and the ‘rural areas’ perceive their neighbourhood as a tight-knit community the survey suggests that fewer people in the ‘deprived areas’ share this perception. Overall, people of the ‘rural areas’ feel more positive about their neighbourhood and people from the ‘deprived areas’ feel less positive about it also identifying conflicts and clashes between different groups. Important to highlight here is that this does not reflect people’s willingness to be part of the neighbourhood or how neighbourly individuals are.

2.2 Diversity

We have to ask ourselves how different communities and places in Leicestershire are getting along, and what more might be done to bring people together – respecting differences, but developing a shared sense of belonging and purpose (Commission for Cohesion and Integration).

The starting point is to recognise the many positive aspects of having communities that include a wide mix of people, and that diversity brings much benefit to the UK. This aspect of cohesion is about how much people embrace the diversity within their neighbourhoods. It refers to gender, race, culture, religion, sexuality, ability and age amongst others and includes different lifestyles and preferences. The enhancement of community cohesion requires groups and communities to be outward looking and engage in the wider society.

However whilst this might be an important principle, the social capital survey in Leicestershire highlighted that not everybody feels that their neighbourhood is a place where people from different backgrounds get on well together. This does not necessarily mean that the residents do not want to mix with a diverse community! The results might highlight some of the perceived clashes and conflicts existing in the neighbourhood.

Overall, the percentage of respondents who felt that their

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4 The research evidence is based on the report Social Capital and Stronger Communities in Leicestershire (available at: [http://www.ccp.org.uk/socialcapitalreport.html](http://www.ccp.org.uk/socialcapitalreport.html))
neighbourhood ‘is a place where people from different backgrounds get on well together’ was slightly lower than elsewhere in the country. The overall response to this Leicestershire survey showed that 75% of respondents agreed with this (based on respondents who answered ‘definitely agree’ or ‘tend to agree’, excluding those respondents who answered ‘don’t know’, ‘too few people in local area’ or ‘all same backgrounds’.) This figure compares to a figure of around 78% for the East Midlands and 80% for all England and Wales. This highlights that in those rural areas which had a more positive response to this question than other areas in Leicestershire they are not necessarily as positive as those results achieved regionally and nationally.

Looking at the two most ethnically mixed areas included in the social capital survey, diversity seems to be correlated with a positive effect on the perception of diversity in one area, but less positive in the other area. This supports the point discussed elsewhere in this report that where diversity exists alongside a lack of choice and access to resources it may have a negative impact on community cohesion in some areas but this may be counteracted by local circumstances and local action.

People understand different things by the term ‘diversity’. In the Leicestershire social capital survey some people referred to diversity in terms of ethnicity, some to sexuality, class, income or age. It reflected more what people considered was causing problems within the neighbourhood and highlighted that some of the clashes were higher in areas of more diversity. Rural areas were perceived as quite homogenous and whilst people were happy seeing themselves as liking diversity they were not confronted by it in everyday life.

As such these questions are not necessarily a reflection on the individuals and not necessarily about intolerance of diversity but might be a reflection of what is going on and the conflicts and the problems in that community. In focus groups following the social capital survey one person commented that,

“Sometimes I think with deprived areas they don’t have a choice. Most of our deprived areas…it was council estates and they don’t always have a choice who is going to be living in that area. And a couple of these estates had a high turnover, especially people with lots of problems and they don’t have a choice.”

2.3 Having a say and voting

The local government White Paper, Strong and Prosperous Communities (2006), seeks to give communities and service users a much greater say in how local services are delivered.

In Leicestershire the social capital research explored if people thought that they could influence decisions in their neighbourhood by either working on their own or working with others in the neighbourhood.

This is a crucial aspect of cohesion and it relates to how people feel about having control over their life chances. It explores peoples’ own experience of their power. If people feel that they have personal and collective power they will have experienced that there are possibilities for development and change. Citizen power, means people being able to have their voices heard, and play a part in decisions that affect them. This also involves engaging in new forms of relationships, working with others with the recognition
that people always have some degree of control over their own life situations and that of their community. Only 16% of people from the Leicestershire social capital survey tended to agree or definitively agreed that by working on their own they could influence decisions that affected their area. A much higher number—almost two-thirds (62%)—felt that they could influence decisions that affected their area by working together.

In the follow-up focus groups people felt quite strongly about this subject. Much of the discussion centred around whether people feel that they have personal or collective power and whether they have the resources to do, to influence or to change things that affect their lives and their communities.

One community group highlighted that they campaigned against a road being built through the neighbourhood but without any positive outcome:

“….the perception from a lot of people is, ‘Oh so what, even if we get together nobody listens to us’.”

The CVS workers involved in this survey highlighted that the results reflected their own experience of how well (or not) in some areas people work with organisations and if bodies with power listen to the community.

Voting

The following refers to how people replied to the social capital survey, not the actual turnout in the elections. The figures from the survey are higher than the actual turn out.

More people voted in a General Election (69%), followed by County Council Elections (57%), District Council Elections (52%) and Parish Council Elections (36%). This pattern was evident across all areas. There was little difference between rural, deprived and average areas and levels of voting. Slightly fewer people from deprived areas voted in the last General Election but other than that, the areas did not differ significantly from the mean in terms of voting.

Voting and the BNP: Leicestershire Election Results

A key recommendation of the Black & Minority Ethnic Group (BME) Jury held at Leicestershire County Council (November 2005) was for the Authority to monitor the activity of far right groups such as the BNP. One aspect of this relates to patterns in voting.

In the 2003 Local Council Elections, the British National Party fielded three candidates in two Leicestershire districts, polling 937 votes in total and winning no seats. In the three wards where they did stand, their share of the vote ranged from 7% to 15%.

During the 2005 County Council elections the BNP fielded 11 candidates in 4 districts collecting 4,067 votes but winning no seats. This represented 1.2% of the total votes cast across the county. Their share of the vote ranged from 4% (in Loughborough North and Quorn and Barrow) to 11% (in Syston Fosse and Whitwick).

In the recent 2007 Local Elections, the BNP fielded 30 candidates in 29 wards across Leicestershire, polling 12,506 votes and returning three councillors in East Goscote, Hugglescote and Whitwick wards. In the City and County combined, the BNP fielded 35 candidates in 34 wards, polling 15,675 votes.

1 District Council websites June 2007
While the BNP did not field any candidates in Harborough District or Oadby and Wigston Borough, in those districts where they did field candidates, the share of the votes is shown in Table 1 (above).

Table 1 shows that in Leicester and Leicestershire, the BNP polled approximately 3% of the total number of votes cast, and won only 1% of the available seats; however this is a higher proportion than for the country as a whole.

In the County, where they fielded candidates the BNP polled on average 13.1% of the votes, ranging from a combined total of 26% in Loughborough Shelthorpe Ward (where they fielded two candidates) to Quorn and Mountsorrel Castle Ward where they polled only 5% of the vote.

In the UK as a whole, the BNP stood a record 878 candidates but only won ten seats, a gain of one from the 2003 local elections. This represents 0.1% of the available seats in the 2007 elections.\(^6\) Alarming, BNP councillors in Leicestershire account for almost a third of BNP councillors nationally.

The increase in votes between the 2003 and 2007 local elections presents a number of issues for those involved in community cohesion. Between 2003 and 2007, the number of wards in which the BNP fielded candidates increased dramatically, and returned three councillors. As would be expected, certain areas of the County are targeted by the BNP for fielding candidates.

Whilst other factors will undoubtedly be taken into account, one thing which is apparent is that the BNP were more likely to field candidates where the vote was split—i.e. in areas where there was a contest between either Labour and Conservatives (45%) or all three main parties (34%).

It has been noted in a report by the Human Rights Centre, University of Essex, that “Those who wish to promote community cohesion ... need to address the types of people who support the BNP.”

In addition, it has been suggested by a number of sources that up to 25% of the voting population may be tempted to vote for far-right parties in the future.\(^7\) In their report, Essex University identified a number of characteristics which they argue promotes an increase in electoral success for far-right parties, especially the BNP. In particular, they found that:

- Support for the far-right does not come from places occupied by the poorest in society, or from places with high levels of deprivation.
- It seems that the BNP draws its support from areas with skilled or semi-skilled workers
- The BNP finds support where there are more people with few educational qualifications
- The BNP do well largely in wards where white people live

\(^6\) BBC website (www.bbc.co.uk)
\(^7\) “The BNP; the roots of its appeal” (John, 2006) Democratic Audit, Human Rights Centre, University of Essex
rather than where there are people from ethnic minorities

- It would suggest that the BNP gets its support from areas that have experienced change nearby rather than in their own immediate neighbourhoods and where people fear that their area ... is 'being taken over'
- The BNP has frequently prospered on the back of myths in ways which seriously damage community relations and local authorities are under a duty to promote good community relations

Looking at the three wards in Leicestershire where the BNP won seats in the 2007 elections (East Goscote, Hugglescote and Whitwick), no obvious pattern emerges as a possible explanation for the BNP’s success, although there are certain characteristics which set the three areas apart from the county average. Data from the 2001 Census, although dated, shows that none of the three wards exhibit large ethnic populations; in all cases, the ethnic population is below or significantly below the county average.

In terms of qualifications, although the population of Whitwick has a significantly higher percentage with 'no qualifications' (37.2% compared with 28.2% in Leicestershire), elsewhere, the picture is largely in line with district and county rates, except the percentage of the population educated to degree level and above (Level 4/5). In East Goscote, Hugglescote and Whitwick, the percentage is noticeably lower than the figure for the county (11.0%, 12.5% and 11.7% respectively, compared to 18.2% for Leicestershire).

In terms of employment, levels of economic inactivity are noticeably lower in Hugglescote (26.4%) and East Goscote (20.2%) compared to the county figure (29.2%). The population of all three wards have a higher percentage of the workforce employed in manufacturing, construction and distribution, hospitality and retail than the county figure. In addition, all three wards have higher percentages of the working age population employed in 'skilled trades' and 'plant operative' occupational groups.

There are a number of reasons why Leicestershire may have experienced a relative increase in support for the BNP. In the first instance, it may be due to disillusionment with mainstream politics and the nature of local elections. During a general election, not only is there a greater turnout, but also the electorate may vote in a different pattern to a local election. The popularity of niche and minority parties, as well as independent candidates and the number of votes they poll suggest in many cases that local elections offer the electorate the opportunity to register a protest vote.

In addition, during local elections, voters may be more inclined to vote along local lines and react to local issues. It has been suggested that the BNP have become adept at playing down the often extreme nature of their national policies in order to gain electoral support at the local level. This is often backed up with focused canvassing in areas where they perceive that they may be able to gather more support. A report by Vision 21 suggest that “the BNP’s ‘grassroots face-to-face campaigning’ all year round was popular with residents and contributed to the party’s success.”

“The British National Party... articulates, albeit in a perverted and exploitative manner genuine economic and social concerns within the communities where they establish bridge-heads... Its initiatives are developed within general themes of a ‘common sense’ populism that feeds off the deep disillusionment with mainstream politics.”

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8 Leicestershire County Council Census 2001 Area Profiles
9 “Voter’s Views; a voting behaviour study in three northern towns” (Vision 21, 2004) Joseph Rowntree Charitable Trust
Although we may not agree with the policies of the BNP, it is becoming apparent that their methods of community engagement are having significant effects.

**Conclusions**

Whilst it is important to highlight the growth in support for far-right parties at the recent local elections, this may not be an accurate reflection of the political picture across Leicester and Leicestershire, the implications of this should not be underestimated with regards to work on community cohesion. It is a fact that the presence of far-right councillors within the political process can hamper progress as their policies are at odds with the legal requirement of councils to promote good race relations and community cohesion.

It is also important to point out that the relationship between far-right groups and notions of community cohesion is not simply along lines of ethnicity. Far-right policies also discriminate along lines of sexuality, religion and country of origin. To that extent, their view of a homogenised community is very much at odds with all aspects of community cohesion.

At the same time, there are interesting parallels between the electoral behaviour of the BNP and key ideas in implementing community cohesion. For example in the same way that national pride is used by the BNP in order to attract votes, the Commission for Integration and Cohesion suggests that national and local pride is important in developing community cohesion, as a sense of place is key in highlighting commonalities which can be used to draw people together.

Whilst the growth in support for far-right parties in Leicestershire is a worrying phenomenon, it may be a useful gauge for targeting community cohesion work, as the areas targeted by the far-right may be possible priorities for action to help enhance community cohesion.

Whilst notions of identity, specifically ‘Britishness’ are key to far-right ideology, it is important to stress that by developing more cohesive communities we do not lose notions of identity which are integral to our own understanding of ourselves. A more cohesive community is likely where there is a focus on what all people have in common, their shared priorities for the future and a community in which all people feel they have a say. This is discussed in more detail in section 2.5 ‘A Shared Future for Leicestershire’.

The BNP focus on local issues highlights an important role for local authorities in terms of how it analyses and makes use of local information. In the report ‘Community Cohesion - an action guide’ the Local Government Association suggest that those involved in community cohesion work should focus on working pro-actively with the media, to effectively:

- Dispel rumours, stereotypes and myths
- Ensure that extremist views do not dominate reporting
- Portray a positive view of diversity

Section 3.7 ‘Media reporting of cohesion: the Leicester Mercury’ (page 63) looks in more detail at some of the issues around community cohesion and the role of the media.

It is also important to make the distinction between the local level policies which far-right groups are quick to emphasise and the

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10 “The BNP; the roots of its appeal” (John, 2006) Democratic Audit, Human Rights Centre, University of Essex
11 Interim Statement - Commission on Integration and Cohesion
wider, national policies which the electorate may not be aware of, but may considerably affect their likelihood of voting for far-right groups.

One of the aims of the Stronger Communities block of the Leicestershire LAA is to address issues around power and to increase the number of people who feel as though they can make a difference in their local area. This is linked to the recent Local Government White paper which emphasises the important of devolving power to local communities. There are specific targets around increasing the number of people who vote in local elections, as well as increasing the level of participation in local communities—e.g. contacting a local elected members, getting involved in local groups etc.

2.4 Participation

The development of cohesion requires the active and willing engagement of people within a participative community. The capacity and willingness to invest is closely related to the feeling of reciprocity, trust and neighbourliness. The lack of personal investment should not be interpreted as an individual’s fault but should lead to questions about the relations within a neighbourhood – relations between people and public, private and voluntary organisations. It should also lead to questions about the context in which individuals live and how that may constrain or limit individuals and what can be done to address this and create a different environment in which community cohesion may be enhanced. (Some of the main considerations of the context of community cohesion are discussed in Chapter 3.)

Overall, around three-quarters (77%) of all respondents of the Leicestershire social capital survey had given unpaid help to friends and neighbours in the last twelve months (informal volunteering). This was higher than the level of formal volunteering with around half of all respondents saying they had never given unpaid help to any groups, clubs or organisations.

Participation can happen on different levels and in different ways, from using local facilities, deciding what to do at sessions, to active participation in local democracy. As stated in the Local Government White Paper, *Strong and Prosperous Communities* (2006), the enhancement of community cohesion stems from, and is a result of, people having the opportunities to participate in decision-making and take an active part in the shaping of their local community.

Overall the level of proactivity and participation (such as contacting an appropriate organisation to deal with a neighbourhood problem, contacting the local councillor or MP or attending local resident meetings) was fairly low (average of 15% of respondents). Important to note here that there is no difference between the deprived areas and the average areas when it comes to the engagement and participation within the locality. Those in the rural areas felt more positive about their neighbourhood and those in the deprived areas felt less positive about their neighbourhood. However, this does not reflect peoples’ willingness to be part of the neighbourhood or how neighbourly individuals are.

Whilst overall the percentage of engagement is not very high, the findings of the social capital survey showed that more people within the rural areas seem to engage with local problems. However, some of the community workers within the Council for Voluntary
Services (CVSs) across Leicestershire referred to the difficulty of engaging people in rural areas. This shows that whilst overall rural areas score higher on some of these quantitative measures, the experience of working in some of the areas is still one of a lack of engagement. This shows also that people in the deprived areas are not lower in participating or in civil engagement, even though the neighbourhood connections and their feelings of neighbourliness are lower. This suggests that feeling happier about your local area and getting on with the neighbours does not necessarily lead to a higher engagement with local issues. However, there does seem to be a relationship between levels of overall deprivation and feelings of powerlessness, which has an effect on cohesion and needs to be addressed.

It is appropriate to remember here that community cohesion is not only about how people feel and how they perceive the neighbourhood. It is also about what people do and how much people participate and invest in the community.

It was felt by all community workers taking part in focus groups that in Leicestershire people tend to get together when there is a common problem they want to solve. However, it was also felt that quite often a fairly big group gets together at the beginning but this fades out and at the end often only a few people take the issue further. One person commented that,

“...you put yourself forward and then everyone leaves you to it... and then you end up with tons of work and you give up in the end because nobody wants to help you. So if you do go forward onto the parish council or try to get on a forum where you can make a difference everyone says fine and they leave you to it, they don’t want to then help with that. I have spoken to quite a few people who feel that way, I am just about ready to give up because it is so much work and none of the other community will give me any assistance on it.”

Conclusions

Participation, having a say and voting are all important elements of community cohesion. Local organisations need to identify how they can increase participation and support local groups, encouraging people to get involved in their communities. This is a key tenet of recent legislation.

One example of this is the Community Call for Action first proposed in the Police and Justice Act 2006 and developed in the Local Government White Paper (2006). This enables local residents to raise concerns about persistent or serious problems in their local area and to be entitled to receive a response from their local authority.

In its report, Our Shared Futures, the Commission for Integration and Cohesion highlights the role of employers as community champions and stresses the importance of community participation as a driver for building integration and cohesion. One of the recommendations of the report is,

...that large employers consider allowing employees 3 days paid leave for a year for participation in defined activities, for example volunteering for a local charity, teaching adults basic skills, being a councillor or school governor, or participating in a local environmental project.12

Local Authorities should consider this as part of their role in

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12 ‘Our Shared Future’ Commission on Integration and Cohesion. © Crown Copyright 2007. pg 119
community leadership, particularly in light of the Leicestershire LAA targets around increasing volunteering and the positive effects this could have on strengthening relationships between local government and the voluntary sector.

A third important area related to community participation is ‘participatory budgeting’ which gives communities the ability to direct resources through community-led debates, neighbourhood votes and public meetings. In her first speech as Communities Secretary, on 5th July 2007, Hazel Blears announced ten pilot projects as part of the next stage of the Governments devolution agenda.

This goes beyond small grant-making. For example in Sunderland (one of the pilot areas) the council will set aside £23m of its budget over the next two years for local residents to decide how the money is spent. Communities and Local Government are funding the Participatory Budgeting Unit to work with the ten pilot areas over the coming months.

Giving communities the power to control budgets might be a very effective way of increasing participation, increasing the feeling that residents can have a say in what happens in their local neighbourhood and enhancing cohesion. Conversely it might also further exclude some people from the community. Where there is a very cohesive community, in the sense of bonding cohesion, how will they balance their right to decide what happens in their own area with their responsibility to involve all groups in the community? For example, where a group of young people are perceived by another group to be involved in anti-social behaviour, how will they direct resources in a way which includes all people in the community—i.e. those young people as well—and enhances cohesion? Who in the community is involved, who has a say and who is excluded? It will be useful to monitor the development of these ten pilot areas and any subsequent recommendations which apply to Leicestershire.
2.5 A Shared Future for Leicestershire

The definition of community cohesion14 (outlined in the introduction) states that a cohesive community is one where, among other things, there is a common vision and a sense of belonging for all communities. A community is likely to be more cohesive where there people have a shared vision for their local area.

Home Office guidance15 suggests measuring community cohesion using a number of indicators. The guidance suggests analysis of two questions used in local Best Value User Satisfaction surveys to ascertain the extent of a shared local vision.

These questions ask residents to think generally about (i) the things that are most important in making somewhere a good place to live and (ii) which things most need improving in their local area.

These questions were asked in the 2006 BVPI User Satisfaction Survey for Leicestershire, and the following section analyses the findings from these in the context of gauging residents’ aspirations and common vision for Leicestershire. The results for Leicestershire have been analysed by age, ethnicity and employment status.

What is most important in making somewhere a good place to live?

Regardless of age, ethnicity and employment status there appears to be a shared vision in Leicestershire of what is most important in making somewhere a good place to live. Three factors are mentioned most by all groups; clean streets, the level of crime, and affordable decent housing. Other factors which feature high on each list include; activities for teenagers, health, and education. There are however, some differences in priorities between groups.

Table 2 shows the different priorities of the younger age group (18-29yr olds) compared to the over 60 age group. The top few factors are the same. However, for the younger age group education, access to nature, parks and open spaces and job prospects are a higher priority. For the older age group, health services, the level of traffic congestion, public transport, community activities and road and pavement repairs are relatively more important.

Table 2—Most important in making somewhere a good place to live: by age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>18-29yrs old</th>
<th>60+yrs old</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The level of crime</td>
<td>46.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clean streets</td>
<td>44.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affordable decent housing</td>
<td>35.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education provision</td>
<td>24.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to nature</td>
<td>21.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities for teenagers</td>
<td>21.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health services</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping facilities</td>
<td>17.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The level of traffic congestion</td>
<td>17.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parks and open spaces</td>
<td>16.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job prospects</td>
<td>14.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public transport</td>
<td>13.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural facilities</td>
<td>12.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities for young children</td>
<td>11.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The level of pollution</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wage levels &amp; local cost of living</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community activities</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports &amp; leisure facilities</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Road and pavement repairs</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race relations</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None of these</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

14 Guidance on Community Cohesion (LGA, 2002)
15 Building a picture of community cohesion - A guide for Local Authorities and their partners (Home Office, 2003)
Table 3 shows the priorities analysed by ethnicity. Again there is a shared vision of what the most important things are in making somewhere a good place to live, with agreement on the top 5 factors.\textsuperscript{16} However, there are some differences in the relative importance of the lower order factors.

In particular, ‘White’ respondents rated activities for teenagers, shopping facilities and the level of traffic congestion more highly. While black and minority ethnic (BME) respondents rated public transport, cultural facilities, facilities for young children, race relations and sports and leisure facilities more highly.

By employment status (Table 4) the top priorities are roughly the same with the main difference being that education is a higher priority for respondents who are in employment, and access to nature is more important for respondents who are unemployed or permanently sick/disabled.

The difference in the priority of education by people who are employed and those who are unemployed is explored further in the chapter on economic disadvantage.

\begin{table}
\centering
\begin{tabular}{lll}
\hline
\textbf{White} & \textbf{BME} & \\
\hline
The level of crime & 39.1\% & 63.5\% \\
Clean streets & 35.3\% & 61.5\% \\
Affordable decent housing & 27.6\% & 57.7\% \\
Health services & 27.0\% & 48.1\% \\
Education provision & 23.7\% & 38.5\% \\
Activities for teenagers & 20.6\% & 36.5\% \\
Access to nature & 18.5\% & 25.0\% \\
Shopping facilities & 16.0\% & 23.1\% \\
The level of traffic congestion & 16.0\% & 23.1\% \\
Parks and open spaces & 13.0\% & 21.2\% \\
Public transport & 12.4\% & 21.2\% \\
Job prospects & 9.9\% & 21.2\% \\
Community activities & 9.4\% & 15.4\% \\
Cultural facilities & 8.7\% & 11.5\% \\
Facilities for young children & 7.6\% & 9.6\% \\
Wage levels & local cost of living & 6.8\% & 9.6\% \\
The level of pollution & 6.5\% & 7.7\% \\
Road and pavement repairs & 6.3\% & 7.7\% \\
Sports & leisure facilities & 6.3\% & 7.7\% \\
Race relations & 0.9\% & 1.9\% \\
Other & 0.7\% & 1.9\% \\
Don’t know & 0.1\% & 0.0\% \\
None of these & 0.0\% & 0.0\% \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\caption{Most important... : by ethnicity}
\end{table}

\begin{table}
\centering
\begin{tabular}{lll}
\hline
\textbf{Employed} & \textbf{Unemployed/ permanently sick} & \\
\hline
The level of crime & 55.3\% & 32.1\% \\
Clean streets & 45.5\% & 21.4\% \\
Education provision & 36.4\% & 20.5\% \\
Affordable decent housing & 33.8\% & 19.6\% \\
Health services & 33.7\% & 18.8\% \\
Activities for teenagers & 25.5\% & 15.2\% \\
Access to nature & 23.7\% & 15.2\% \\
The level of traffic congestion & 20.2\% & 13.4\% \\
Shopping facilities & 19.2\% & 13.4\% \\
Parks and open spaces & 18.3\% & 12.5\% \\
Job prospects & 14.4\% & 11.6\% \\
Public transport & 13.6\% & 10.7\% \\
Cultural facilities & 11.4\% & 9.8\% \\
Facilities for young children & 10.1\% & 9.8\% \\
Wage levels & local cost of living & 9.9\% & 8.9\% \\
Sports & leisure facilities & 9.0\% & 6.3\% \\
Community activities & 8.9\% & 3.6\% \\
The level of pollution & 8.6\% & 3.6\% \\
Road and pavement repairs & 6.3\% & 2.7\% \\
Race relations & 2.5\% & 1.8\% \\
Other & 1.3\% & 0.9\% \\
None of these & 0.1\% & - \\
Don’t know & 0.1\% & - \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\caption{Most important... : by employment status}
\end{table}

\textsuperscript{16} Care should be taken in the analysis of the relative importance (the rank) of issues by different groups and the percentage. For example, affordable decent housing is ranked the third most important issue for White people with 27.6%. For all BME groups it was the fourth most important issue but had almost twice as many people picking it, 48.1%. 

**What most needs improving in this local area**

Looking at the factors respondents thought most need improving in their local area, there was some agreement by age, ethnicity and employment status as to the priorities. Three factors in particular were mentioned in the top five by all groups. These were: activities for teenagers, the level of crime, and clean streets.

However, compared to the shared vision of what makes an area a good place to live, there was less of a shared vision about what most needs improving.

Table 5 shows the list of priorities for improvement for the youngest age group included in the survey (18-29yr olds) and the oldest age group (over 60yr olds). There are some similarities at the top of the lists with activities for teenagers, level of crime, level of traffic congestion and clean streets appearing in the top five in both age groups.

However, affordable decent housing, cultural facilities, job prospects and wage levels and cost of living are more of a priority for improvement for the younger age group. Whereas, improvements to road and pavement repairs and health services are more important to the older age group.

Also of interest is that the younger age group are more likely than the older age group to say that race relations need improving in their local area, although in both cases a low proportion of respondents selected this factor (3.4% and 1.2% respectively).

Table 6 (next page) shows the priorities for improvement by ethnicity. Again, both groups share a number of factors as top priorities for improvement, namely, clean streets, activities for teenagers and the level of crime.

However, there are a number of factors in the top five in each list that are not shared by both groups. For ‘White’ respondents the level of traffic congestion is the second highest rated issue but for BME respondents this issue features in the lower half of the list of priorities for improvement. Conversely, for BME respondents community activities and job prospects feature in the top three priorities but for ‘White’ respondents these issues are mid-table.

Other issues ‘White’ respondents rate more highly in terms of
needing improvement include road and pavement repairs and shopping facilities. BME respondents rate wage levels, health services, access to nature and race relations more highly in terms of needing improvement.

By employment status (Table 7) three of the top four factors are shared by both groups of respondents - those who are employed and those who are unemployed/permanently sick. Again these shared factors are activities for teenagers, the level of crime and clean streets.

The key differences are that employed respondents rate traffic congestion, public transport, sport and leisure facilities, facilities for young children and education provision more highly in terms of needing improvement, compared to respondents who are unemployed or permanently sick.

Respondents who are unemployed/permanently sick rate the need to improve affordable decent housing, health services, community activities, job prospects, access to nature and race relations more highly.

### Table 6—Most needs improving in this local area...: by ethnicity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>White</th>
<th>BME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Activities for teenagers</td>
<td>38.2%</td>
<td>55.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The level of traffic congestion</td>
<td>28.4%</td>
<td>44.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The level of crime</td>
<td>22.3%</td>
<td>34.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clean streets</td>
<td>20.5%</td>
<td>30.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public transport</td>
<td>16.8%</td>
<td>30.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Road and pavement repairs</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affordable decent housing</td>
<td>16.1%</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping facilities</td>
<td>11.1%</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural facilities</td>
<td>11.2%</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health services</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community activities</td>
<td>11.6%</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities for young children</td>
<td>10.7%</td>
<td>19.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports &amp; leisure facilities</td>
<td>10.6%</td>
<td>17.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job prospects</td>
<td>8.5%</td>
<td>15.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The level of pollution</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
<td>15.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wage levels &amp; local cost of living</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
<td>13.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education provision</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parks and open spaces</td>
<td>4.7%</td>
<td>11.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to nature</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
<td>9.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
<td>7.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race relations</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None of these</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 7—Most needs improving...: by employment status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Employed</th>
<th>Unemployed/ permanently sick</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Activities for teenagers</td>
<td>47.6%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The level of traffic congestion</td>
<td>36.2%</td>
<td>23.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The level of crime</td>
<td>27.7%</td>
<td>23.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clean streets</td>
<td>25.2%</td>
<td>17.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public transport</td>
<td>21.2%</td>
<td>17.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affordable decent housing</td>
<td>20.1%</td>
<td>17.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Road and pavement repairs</td>
<td>19.4%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural facilities</td>
<td>18.5%</td>
<td>13.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping facilities</td>
<td>18.4%</td>
<td>13.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports &amp; leisure facilities</td>
<td>15.9%</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health services</td>
<td>15.3%</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community activities</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities for young children</td>
<td>14.6%</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The level of traffic congestion</td>
<td>13.5%</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The level of pollution</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wage levels &amp; local cost of living</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education provision</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The level of pollution</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parks and open spaces</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to nature</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None of these</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race relations</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wage levels &amp; local cost of living</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education provision</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None of these</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race relations</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affordable decent housing</td>
<td>23.2%</td>
<td>22.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The level of crime</td>
<td>23.2%</td>
<td>22.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clean streets</td>
<td>17.0%</td>
<td>17.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health services</td>
<td>17.0%</td>
<td>17.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Road and pavement repairs</td>
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<td>17.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural facilities</td>
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<td>14.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community activities</td>
<td>13.4%</td>
<td>13.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job prospects</td>
<td>13.4%</td>
<td>13.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping facilities</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health services</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to nature</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The level of traffic congestion</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The level of pollution</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affordable decent housing</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports &amp; leisure facilities</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities for young children</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race relations</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public transport</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parks and open spaces</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education provision</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wage levels &amp; local cost of living</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Conclusions**

The analysis from the User Satisfaction Survey for Leicestershire suggests that there is a commonality to the vision of what makes an area a good place to live - regardless of age, ethnicity or employment status. Clean streets and the level of crime are the most important things in making an area a good place to live across all these groups of people.

There also appears to be some agreement as to which factors most need improving in the local area. Again, clean streets and the level of crime both feature highly for all groups in terms of what most needs improving. However, activities for teenagers was rated higher by almost all groups and affordable decent housing and the level of traffic congestion also featured prominently in what needs improving for all groups.

Overall then this provides an outline for a shared future for Leicestershire.

Despite the shared priorities, for both questions differences are evident between respondent groups, as may be expected. Race relations were relatively more important for BME people. Affordable housing was more important for the younger age group. And so on. These differences need to be considered and taken into account along with other local contextual factors and action taken at the neighbourhood level, prioritised by the local community.

In terms of priorities, what most needs improving essentially falls into three areas:

1. The local environment—crime, housing, cleanliness
2. Local activities—especially for young people
3. Personal access—to jobs, education.

Where these three elements are perceived to be inadequate there may be problems with regards to community cohesion. For example, where young people have nothing to do and congregate on the streets, where there is a lack of jobs and no access to affordable, decent housing, coupled with a high turnover of population creates environments where neighbourliness is low, there is a lack of mutual support and people feel they lack power to change things.

Community cohesion is about addressing these three elements, especially in areas with a high turnover of population, with social housing and close to areas where jobs rely on migrant workers.
3. The local context of community cohesion in Leicestershire

Understanding the local context of areas in Leicestershire is key to understanding community cohesion in those localities. How cohesive an area is will be related to how all the different issues covered in this chapter—and others not covered here—interact. It is important to bear this in mind when looking at each of these sections.

It is not helpful or accurate to consider how cohesive a community is in relation to any one factors in isolation, e.g. the level of crime or the level of unemployment. It is necessary to understand how these issues relate to community cohesion and to build a picture of how all these factors interact in the local context.

Further, it is important to acknowledge that there are issues which have not been directly addressed in this chapter which are very relevant to cohesion and where further research needs to be carried out. Issues around housing and how it relates to cohesion is an obvious example and it is omitted from this section through lack of time/knowledge of the Research Team, rather than any perceived lack of importance.

3.1 Population and Migration

Issues around population change and migration are highly pertinent to community cohesion. This section will look at the quantitative evidence currently available on population change and migration in Leicestershire. Having considered the available evidence for Leicestershire we will look at some examples of the issues around population change and community cohesion which were raised through focus groups following the social capital survey work and other available qualitative information.

Trends from Population Estimates for Leicestershire 2001-2005

Leicestershire has had an estimated total population increase of 17,600 from 2001 to 2005, as given by ONS Population estimates published in August 2006. This was an average annual rate of 0.7%, similar to the East Midlands region as a whole, and higher than the average for England of 0.5%. Change in population is due to births, deaths, population ageing, and migration. The effects of these components of change also result in changes in population composition by age, gender and ethnicity. When ageing of the population is taken into account, natural change makes up most of the changes in population over time. Migration is playing an increasing role in population change throughout the world, and can be a cause for concern, especially where people of different cultures and/or age and gender mix are perceived to be changing in a locality.

Table 8—Components of Change for Leicestershire 5 years ending mid 2005

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mid-year ending…</th>
<th>5 years ending mid</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mid</td>
<td>mid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Births</td>
<td>6,300</td>
<td>6,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deaths</td>
<td>5,500</td>
<td>5,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural change</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net migration and other changes</td>
<td>3,800</td>
<td>4,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adjustment indicated (April 07 IMPS)</td>
<td>3,800</td>
<td>3,600</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: ONS Population Estimates Unit
Note: Figures are independently rounded and may not sum
The estimated change resulting from natural change (births minus deaths) and that resulting from net migration is shown separately, by district, including Leicester City, in figure 1 (right). This shows that most of the net change (increase) in total population in all districts is a result of migration.

For Leicestershire County in the 5 years from mid 2000 to mid 2005, natural change contributed nearly 4,000 to population change, and estimated net migration and other changes nearly 20,000. Included in ‘other changes’ for 2001-2005 are an increase of 200 prisoners, and a reconciliation adjustment of 260. The annual figures for births and deaths varied a little over these 5 years, with a peak of 6,700 births in 2004, and 5,900 deaths in 2004 (see Table 8 previous page).

Migration referred to here involves people changing their area of residence for a period of 12 months or more, both from and to other areas of the UK, and from overseas. Separate estimates for in and out migration are not part of the ONS published estimates, but information suggests that in and out migration movements counted for Leicestershire are annually each of the order of ten times the net figures. The limited detail published by ONS on 2004 based projected trends in migration is examined in the following section entitled ‘migration elements of population change’.

Change in Key Age Groups for Leicestershire

From 2001 to 2005, ages 0-4 and 5-10 numbers have decreased due to falling numbers of births, whilst ages 11-17 have increased due to ageing of groups from times of higher birth numbers. After age 16, estimated migration has a much more significant effect on the population estimates. There is a large number of movements in and out of the area, especially for ages around 17-30, which are estimated with difficulty. The population aged 16-17 and 18-24 (the age groups including most students) had a large
Cohesive Communities in Leicestershire

estimated increase of 7,900 in total from 2001 to 2005. This coincides with expansion of higher education.

Since 2001 the estimated population aged 25-44 has decreased by 6,500 whereas the estimated population aged 45-64 has increased by 8,700. Age groups over 65 have generally increased by about 7% overall since 2001. The large increases are influenced by the ageing of the existing population, improved survival amongst older people, and a small element of migration. The largest increase was in the 75-84 and 85 and over age group.

**Age and Sex Structure 2005**

The age and sex structure of the estimated Leicestershire mid 2005 population is shown on the population pyramid in Figure 2 right. The variation between numbers in different age groups is partly due to the number born into each age group and partly to the effects of migration. The younger age groups have more males, partly because more males are born than females. Females begin to outnumber males after age 50 because of the effect of better survival rates for females. The estimated population age structure in Leicestershire shows high estimates (‘bulges’) at around age 20, 40 and 57. Whilst the opportunities for higher education in the area result in net inflows of younger students, the low estimate between ages 25 and 30 is attributable to high levels of movement of young workers, estimated to result in net movement from the area, often outside the region.

**Migration elements of population change**

Table 9 right shows the latest information published by ONS on 2004 based projected trends in migration. This demonstrates the relatively large internal migration in-flow and out-flows in relation to annual net migration change, shown in figure 3. International migration flows make a much smaller contribution to projected
population change here. In these projections migration from the rest of the UK outside England is included in ‘international migration’, so migration flows from outside the UK would be even less. However the actual net overseas migration is now going to be revised to a higher figure by ONS.

In comparison with Leicestershire, Leicester City has more of its population change from overseas migration. Migration flows between Leicestershire and Leicester City are significant, and it is likely that flows include many who were previous overseas migrants. The average of migration flows from mid 2000 to mid 2005 from Leicester City into Leicestershire is 6,590, and from Leicestershire into Leicester City 4,620 (source: ONS Migration Estimates Unit; data from GP registrations.). Again the volume of movement is large in relation to the net change, with implications of potential change in groups within the population. The 2001 census records a broadly similar level of flows. The ethnicity and age breakdown of migration levels indicated by the census will be considered elsewhere.

**Overseas Migration including recent data**

Overseas migration includes people of any nationality or ethnic group. People move in and out of the country for various reasons and various lengths of time. Reasons for migration include study, work, and family reasons. In most statistics an in-migrant is defined as ‘a person arriving or returning from abroad to take up residence in a country for a period of at least 12 months’ and many may leave for, or return from, another country after a few years.

Nationally, the general trend is increasingly for people to migrate to the UK on a less permanent basis. In the 2005 International passenger Survey, approximately half of all migrants (of those specifying a length of stay duration) stated their intention to stay in the UK for 1-2 years, and a third stated an intention to stay for more than 4 years\(^7\). However migrant’s intentions are often found to differ from actual length of stay. A 2005 survey about recent immigrants\(^8\) found half not stating an intention to leave the UK, and very few with definite plans to return. How long in-migrants decide to stay will determine the balance of future net flows and their origins will determine the contribution to diversity of the population. For many this may well be related to the economy and work opportunities.

Since overseas migration is very variable and information is limited, it is difficult to estimate and project, especially below national level. Census information is available for in-migrants but not for out-migrants, and is only collected every ten years.

Detailed estimates of migration in and out of the UK at local authority level are not published by National Statistics. Indications from National Statistics are that in-migration from outside the UK increased each year from 2001 to 2005, with a mid 2004-2005 figure likely to be over 4,000 for Leicestershire, and over 6,000 for Leicester City. This is consistent with the beginning of the effect of movements from the EU accession countries. The number of people estimated to leave to live abroad appears to have shown less variation recently, possibly averaging about 2,500 for Leicestershire and 2,000 for Leicester City. With the balancing effect of out-migration beyond UK borders, net overseas migration for mid 2004-05 may have contributed a population increase of 2,000 for Leicestershire and 4,000 for Leicester City. This is rather more than in the 2004 based projections shown above. When ONS publish 2006 estimates and earlier revisions it is hoped that a more comprehensive and up to date picture will be available.

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\(^7\) National Statistics: Migrants entering or leaving the United Kingdom and England and Wales, 2005. MN32).

\(^8\) JRF: East European immigration and community cohesion

\(^9\) Counting up: A study to estimate the existing and future numbers of refugees in the East Midlands region, EMCARS September 2006)
Asylum seekers and refugees

The migration figures above include asylum seekers. Along with refugees (those whose asylum applications have been accepted) these are a particularly disadvantaged group of people. Migration by asylum seekers has added an estimated few hundred people per year in Leicestershire and Leicester City through the 1990s, according to estimates from National Statistics. Estimates annually after 2000 show low estimates or net losses of asylum seekers in Leicestershire, with a peak in net increase of asylum seekers in Leicester City in 2002. Nationally, statistics show only one third the numbers of asylum seekers and refugees in 2005 as in 2002, and this group make a declining contribution to migration from overseas.

Some asylum seekers are supported by the Home Office under dispersal, and unaccompanied minors are supported by Local Authorities. In October 2006, Leicester City had 865 asylum seekers supported, and Leicestershire 48, out of 2,689 in the East Midlands. A study to estimate the existing and future numbers of refugees in the East Midlands region, estimates a total of 9,000 refugees in the East Midlands, and a further 2,500 to 6,000 arriving between 2005-2010. Although numbers are low in Leicestershire there is a presence of asylum seekers and refugees in the urban areas of the East Midlands, including Leicester and Loughborough. Charnwood Borough Council’s Black and Minority Ethnic Housing Strategy 2007-2010 makes reference to the need for tenancy support for refugees and asylum seekers (p23-4). The reporting centre for East Midlands asylum seekers is now in Loughborough, giving more day time presence of asylum seekers here.

Work related migration from overseas

Evidence of recent patterns of in-migration for work purposes comes from new National Insurance Number allocation and from Worker Registration Scheme. Out-migration of a registered worker is not notified, and many workers stay for a short time only, so registrations cannot be taken as total additions to the working population. In Leicestershire 2,800 overseas national registered for a National Insurance number in 2005/06, an increase of 1,140 (69%) on 2004/05. Overseas nationals may register for NI after working in Britain for a year or more.

Table 10—Overseas National Allocated a National Insurance Number in Leicestershire: Top Ten Countries by Year of Registration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2002/03</th>
<th>2003/04</th>
<th>2004/05</th>
<th>2005/06</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>860</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rep of Ireland</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>Rep of Lithuania</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>Czech Rep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Germany</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>1,010</td>
<td>1,310</td>
<td>All</td>
<td>1,660</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Figures are rounded to nearest ten and may not sum due to rounding.
Source: Department for Work and Pensions

20 East Midlands Consortium for Asylum Seekers and Refugees (EMCARS): Myth Busting Leaflet 2006
22 EMCARS September 2006: Fiona Aldridge and Yanina Dutton, NIACE: COUNTING UP A study to estimate the existing and future numbers of refugees in the East Midlands region.
Before EU enlargement the biggest volume of people registering for a NI number in Leicestershire came from India and China. However, as table 10 shows, post 2004 the volumes of NI Numbers allocated has increased enormously, and although India and China are ranked highly as country of origin for overseas nationals registering for a NI Number in Leicestershire, Polish people account for a disproportionate share of all allocations.

The registrations for 2002/3 to 2005/6 as a percentage of people in employment is 4.2% in Charnwood, and from 1.4% to 2.4% in other Leicestershire districts. For Leicester City it is over 20%, the highest rate in the East Midlands.

Further information on recent work migrants comes from the Workers Registration Scheme. This covers citizens from the EU accession countries, who register when they obtain a job in the UK. Local authorities need to deal with issues such as language lessons and community engagement.

From May 2004 to March 2007, out of over 56,000 registrations in the East Midlands there were about 2,500 registrations in Leicestershire, and about 4,600 in Leicester City. Of those registering in Leicestershire from January to March 2007, 145 were aged 18-24 and 140 aged 25-34, and 275 were Polish nationals. Few migrants (10 - 20% for all periods for the East Midlands in total) registering say they intend to stay longer than 3 months.

Studies have shown that work-related migration is important to the local economy, and that few registered under these schemes become dependent on state support. Ongoing analysis on future changes in the scope and impact of short term migrants is needed.

**Trends in change by ethnic group**

There is limited information on changes by ethnic group, with most of the information at local level only available from the 1991 and 2001 Census. So a report was commissioned from the Cathie Marsh Centre for Census and Survey research, experts in census and demographic research, to provide additional information on ethnic group change, migration and fertility rates.

There are many issues around ethnic identity, and statistics are dependent on using categorisation, which can vary from source to source. Ethnic group is categorised, but usually assigned by the individual themselves, either to categories defined in the last Census, or by a self-defined description which is later assigned to a category. The comparisons between 1991 and 2001 censuses used below have been made on comparable definitions between different categories on these two censuses. The ‘other’ categorisation is of limited comparability. Since the 2001 census, ONS have published Experimental Estimates of ethnic groups annually up to mid 2004 at Local Authority level.

**Fertility estimates for ethnic groups from the 1991 and 2001 census**

Changes in population by ethnic group are affected by the number of births in each ethnic group. Figure 4 reflects the general pattern of an ethnic group’s fertility rate and how it has altered between 1991 and 2001 for Leicestershire. The Total Fertility Rate may be interpreted as the number of children that a woman would have if she experienced the age-specific fertility rates of the given year throughout her childbearing years.

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23 Warwick Institute for Employment Research 2007: Migrant Workers in The East Midlands Labour Market
24 http://www.lgar.local.gov.uk/lsv/core/page.do?pageId=1 Audit Commission: Using Workers Registration Scheme data at local authority level: a short introduction
25 DWP 2006: National Insurance Number Allocations to Overseas Nationals Entering the UK
woman might have on average, given the group’s fertility rates at the time. The chart to the right reflects the general pattern of an ethnic group’s fertility rate and how it has altered between 1991 and 2001 for Leicestershire. The fertility rate in 2001 is higher in ethnic groups ‘Pakistani’, and ‘Bangladeshi’ than other groups. The fertility rate for nearly all groups has fallen considerably between 1991 and 2001. Fertility rates tend to decrease among children of immigrants. This is consistent between County, UA and England and Wales as a whole. However in the case of the ‘Pakistani’ ethnic group in Leicestershire County the fertility rate increased marginally between 1991 and 2001. The ‘Other’ group is a residual, and in 2001 includes the ‘Mixed’ group, whose mothers may not be themselves Mixed. The TFR is therefore least reliable for the ‘Other’ group, and not comparable between 1991 and 2001.

There are some exceptions for the County’s districts where fertility has increased for ‘African’ and ‘Pakistani’ in Blaby, ‘Caribbean’ in Harborough and in Hinckley and Bosworth, ‘Indian’ and ‘Chinese’ in Melton and ‘African’, ‘Pakistani’, ‘Bangladeshi’ and ‘Chinese’ in Oadby and Wigston.

**Internal Migration by Ethnic Group**

Tables 4 and 5 on the next page shows the migration flows for ethnic groups reported in the year leading up to the 2001 census. The ‘other Asian’ group is Pakistani and Bangladeshi combined. For both Leicestershire and Leicester, the ethnic group with the highest migration flows was White. The Indian group had the next highest number of flows. In
Leicestershire, internal migration was higher in relation to population in the Indian group than in Leicester City, although the absolute numbers involved in Leicester were higher. Internal migration of the Indian group resulted in net migration of 244 into Leicestershire, but 143 out of Leicester. Leicester City had 850 and Leicestershire 211 overseas in-migrants in the Indian group. The mixed group in Leicestershire had the next highest flow of

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnic Group</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Internal in-migration</th>
<th>Internal out-migration</th>
<th>Internal net-migration</th>
<th>Overseas in-migration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>577,261</td>
<td>21,140</td>
<td>19,433</td>
<td>1,707</td>
<td>1,628</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>1,940</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>18,516</td>
<td>1,007</td>
<td>763</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Asian</td>
<td>3,989</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>2,238</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>4,571</td>
<td>324</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1,029</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Groups</td>
<td>609,544</td>
<td>23,192</td>
<td>21,007</td>
<td>2,185</td>
<td>2,361</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11—Migration by ethnic group: data from 2001 census Leicestershire

Leicestershire County - Immigration from overseas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnic Group</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Internal in-migration</th>
<th>Internal out-migration</th>
<th>Internal net-migration</th>
<th>Overseas in-migration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>178,733</td>
<td>9,538</td>
<td>9,546</td>
<td>-8</td>
<td>1,014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>8,597</td>
<td>603</td>
<td>374</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>459</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>72,030</td>
<td>1,672</td>
<td>1,815</td>
<td>-143</td>
<td>850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Asian</td>
<td>11,716</td>
<td>577</td>
<td>357</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>1,431</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>6,505</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>908</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Groups</td>
<td>279,919</td>
<td>12,962</td>
<td>12,556</td>
<td>406</td>
<td>2,863</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12—Migration by ethnic group: data from 2001 census Leicester City

Immigration from overseas for Total and White has remained at less than 0.4% of population. There has been a decrease in immigration from overseas for Black and Other groups to just under 3% of the population in these groups in 2001. There has been an increase to nearly 1% of the population in these groups for South

Figure 5—Migration rates between 1991 and 2001

Source: CCSR 2007 Population, migration and fertility for ethnic groups from the 1991 and 2001 Census - Leicestershire County, Districts, and Leicester UA
Asian (Indian, Pakistani and Bangladeshi) groups.

Overall, there has been an increase of net internal migration (within the UK) in 2001 from the rates of 1991, mainly because the 2001 Census counted migrants more completely than in 1991. In 2001 the minority ethnic groups all show a larger net in-migration rate to the County than the White group, though the numbers involved are smaller.

Figure 6 gives a comparison for districts and Leicester UA of 2001 census internal migration rates (in-, out- and net-) for broad ethnic groups White, Black and South Asian. Dispersal of the Indian group from Leicester UA to Districts in the County has occurred, in particular to Oadby & Wigston and Blaby.

There is internal net in-migration of Black groups into Leicester City, Oadby & Wigston, Melton, Harborough and Blaby, with net out migration of this group for North West Leicestershire, Hinckley & Bosworth, and Charnwood. There is net in-migration of the South Asian group into all districts except Melton. Analysis of interdistrict flows shows that dispersal of the South Asian groups from Leicester UA to Districts in the County has occurred, in particular to Oadby & Wigston, Charnwood, and Blaby.

The charts below shows the contribution for each ethnic group in
the overall population change from 1991 to 2001. It shows a decrease in the White group in Leicester and Oadby & Wigston, with increases in the Indian and Other groups. Blaby district has had fairly large increases in White, Indian and Other groups. Harborough, with the largest overall percentage increase of over 13%, had the largest percentage increase in the White group, with the Indian and other groups contributing a much smaller percentage increase.

**Ward level change 1991-2001 within Leicestershire**
Comparable figures for 1991-2001 census population by ethnic group at ward level have recently been obtained (from CCSR). The figures show increases of over 150 in the Indian population in all the wards of Oadby. Oadby Woodlands has had an almost equal addition of White population and nearly 100 in the ‘Other group. Other Oadby wards have mostly had a decrease in White population.

In Blaby District the wards of Forest, Winstanley and Ravenhurst & Fosse, and in Charnwood district the wards of Syston West, Birstall and Thurmaston have had increases of over 100 in their Indian population. This has often been part of an overall increase, but in Ravenhurst & Fosse and Thurmaston there has been an overall decrease.

Oadby wards have had the largest increases in the Pakistani group, the largest being 68 in Grange. There have also been small increases in Ambien ward in Hinckley and Bosworth and Wigston Meadowcourt.

The Bangladeshi group had a small increase from 974 to 1144 mainly in Loughborough Lemyngton and Hastings wards. The Chinese group increase from 1,277 to 1,781 was widespread, and highest in Loughborough Ashby and Nanpantan wards. The ‘other group’ increase of 3,520 to 4,928 was widespread, with increases of 60-90 in each of Oadby Uplands, Woodlands and Grange wards.

Figure 8 (right) highlights the contribution the non-white population makes a wards population change from 1991. The largest contribution from the non-white population being wards in Leicester City and Oadby. There is no ward where the non-white
population contributes to more than 50 per cent of the change.

**Ethnic Group experimental estimates 2004**

Table 13 compares the proportion of non White and non White British population for 2004. Leicester City has the highest proportion in the East Midlands. Oadby and Wigston is above the regional and national average, whilst Charnwood is above the regional, but below the national average. Non White British is higher than non White because it includes significant numbers of ‘Other White’ groups, although these figures for mid-2004 do not take into account the large numbers of migrants from EU accession which occurred after this time.

Figure 9 on the next page is a tree map showing the relative size of each of the Non-White ethnic groups in Leicestershire. Treemaps are a space-filling approach to showing hierarchies in data which the rectangular screen space is divided into regions, e.g. Indian Other White, Irish etc, and then each region is divided again for each level into Leicestershire’s districts. The size of the rectangle indicates the proportion each group accounts for the overall non-white population.

The tree map shows that the largest group in Leicestershire is Indian, with the largest populations in Charnwood and Oadby & Wigston. The next group is Other White, followed by White Irish, and Chinese. Again Charnwood has the largest proportions of these ethnic groups in Leicestershire. In fact these four groups made up over two thirds of the estimated County non White British population in 2004.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>All Groups</th>
<th>non White British</th>
<th>non White (BME)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ENGLAND</td>
<td>50,093.1</td>
<td>7,384.4</td>
<td>5,259.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAST MIDLANDS</td>
<td>4,279.7</td>
<td>434.3</td>
<td>328.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leicester UA</td>
<td>285.1</td>
<td>115.5</td>
<td>105.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rutland UA</td>
<td>36.5</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leicestershire</td>
<td>623.9</td>
<td>55.3</td>
<td>41.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blaby</td>
<td>91.6</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charnwood</td>
<td>157.5</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harborough</td>
<td>79.9</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hinckley and Bosworth</td>
<td>102.2</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Melton</td>
<td>48.3</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North West Leicestershire</td>
<td>88.3</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oadby and Wigston</td>
<td>56.1</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: ONS Experimental Ethnic group statistics 2004

**Table 13—Estimated resident population by ethnic group and sex, mid-2004,**

- **Key to tree map (opposite page)**
  - B Blaby
  - C Charnwood
  - H Harborough
  - H&B Hinckley & Bosworth
  - M Melton
  - NWL North West Leicestershire
  - O&W Oadby & Wigston
Figure 9—Tree map showing the relative size of the non-white ethnic groups in Leicestershire 2004
Having considered the available evidence of population change it is important to consider some examples of why this is so important for community cohesion.

**Turnover of Population**

In some of the deprived areas where the social capital survey was conducted there was a strong sense of community breakdown because of people moving in and the fact that “...you see strangers, you often see strangers in the area”.

That fear of the stranger and people moving in and not knowing the neighbours coupled with a fear of crime are factors which contribute to the overall feeling of insecurity within the neighbourhood and a lack of belonging.

In some parts of the deprived areas there seems to be quite a high turnover and changeover of families. Whilst there are some people that have been on those estates for a long time there is a perceived influx of newcomers. One phenomenon which was salient was the influx of migrant workers and “not knowing quite how many are in some of the houses because they are private landlords”.

The following quote encapsulates some of the changes which people have to deal with especially in the more deprived areas. As with all the issues some of these barriers are only perceived barriers but nonetheless they contribute to the breakdown in community relationships and the perception of a lack of ‘neighbourliness’.

“..., one of the Polish residents used to trade from their garage and that was fine. They have now got a Polish community shop and that is causing a few problems. They don’t speak other than Polish and from what I have understood…. they have set up a barrier between their own Polish residents. It was OK while they were trading from their garage, they didn’t mind that, but now that they have set themselves up as trading from a shop that has caused a problem as well. It is trying to get through the barriers with communicating with them because they will speak Polish. There have been a couple of complaints. From what the police reported back at the last meeting, is that when people go into the shop they have been refused because they don’t speak Polish. There are those sorts of barriers that all of a sudden have started in that community that they have got to get round.”

It is important not to just conceptualise community cohesion in terms of ethnicity or religion. In some areas of Leicestershire some tension between communities has always existed. For example, this may have occurred where one estate/neighbourhood was perceived to have more or have gained more (amenities, transport etc) than another. Another example could be where there are tensions between a transient student population and the rest of the settled community,

The Charnwood Community Cohesion Pathfinder report included an action to “Recognise students as members of the Charnwood community and seek to develop better student / permanent resident relations that encourage a sense of belonging to the area and mutual respect”. A subsequent report has been produced and work in this area is being led by the Loughborough University Liaison Committee which involves a wide range of stakeholders. Charnwood Together (The Charnwood Borough LSP) monitors progress on this issue.
**The Built Environment**

It is not only the relationship with the neighbours which influences the sense of belonging and how people interact, but also the built environment. How the houses are built or the layout of the physical environment is important to consider. For example in one community where the social capital survey was carried out a sense of isolation was identified where a main road ‘divided’ a neighbourhood.

For some residents the neighbourhood is a street but for others it is “…just that little close” (cul-de-sac). As such, a sense of belonging to the neighbourhood does not always mean the whole area, estate or village and does not relate to administrative boundaries. Relationships might be quite tight and ‘bonding’ might occur within quite restricted boundaries.

It is apparent that new migrant communities are emerging in parts of Leicestershire. Although there is no clear evidence of the numbers involved the impact for numerous agencies is significant. Polish children entering schools has raised some issues such as paying for school meals, emergency contacts and in some cases a number of young people had caring responsibilities for younger siblings as well. This appears to be linked to parents working long hours.

There is some concern amongst Environmental Health Officers that Polish migrants are living in overcrowded conditions with private landlords. Related to this some representatives of local authorities have reported an apparent reluctance of new migrants to have any contact with local authorities.

Health have reported a similar increase in new migrants in some areas. People are approaching primary care and getting temporary registrations but there are difficulties with getting translations and confidentiality.

Library services have adult books in Polish and some children’s books and are investigating the possibility of dual language books if fund were available. However, the lack of up-to-date, accurate information on the number of people involved is a problem.

**Conclusions**

Accurate information on population recent changes to the local population is limited. At the County level the population of Leicestershire is increasing at a similar rate to the region, slightly higher than the rate for England.

There are falling numbers of births (fewer 0 to 10 year olds), a higher number of 11 to 17 year olds and a higher number 16 to 24 year olds in the County, coinciding with an expansion of higher education. Since 2001 the population aged 25 to 44 has fallen, whilst those aged 45 and over has increased. The largest increase was in the 75 to 84 and 85 and over age group.

Projected migration up to 2019 shows that internal migration (in-flows and out-flows) makes a much large contribution to net migration than international migration. Migration flows between Leicestershire and Leicester City are significant, and it is likely that flows include many who were previous overseas migrants.

Average in-migration to Leicestershire from outside the UK is over four thousand people, with around two thousand making the opposite journey, resulting in an increase of around two thousand people from net overseas migration.

Migration by asylum seekers has added an estimated few hundred per year in Leicestershire and Leicester City through the 1990s,
with a peak in applications in 2002. Statistics from 2000 show a declining contribution of asylum seekers and refugees to migration from overseas, with nationally only one third the numbers in 2005 as in 2002.

Information on work related migration from overseas comes from the allocation of National Insurance numbers. This shows that a big increase post-2004 following the expansion of the EU, particularly for Polish people.

Analysis of the 2005 Citizenship Survey cited in the report ‘Our Shared Futures’ found that:
...there was no relationship between the proportion of ethnic minority households in an area and perceptions of cohesion or respect for ethnic differences—suggestion that there is no simple relationship between high levels of diversity and poor cohesion.¹

It goes on to emphasise that,
...diversity can have a negative impact on cohesion, but only in particular local circumstances. ...it has an effect largely when there is a lack of experience of diversity and when diversity is linked to deprivation.²

Increased diversity in areas of the County where there is no experience of diversity is occurring due to new migrant workers moving into the County and those from second and subsequent generation black and minority ethnic groups moving from the City (and other areas) into the County.

It is important to acknowledge that diversity where people chose to move to a particular area and where everybody seems to have good access to resources is less likely to impact on cohesion or other perceptions of that area. Where people feel as though they have been ‘dumped’ in a particular neighbourhood, feel powerless and where access to resources is uneven, this combination of factors might have a negative impact on community cohesion.

Volunteers who carried out the social capital survey found that individuals perceived ‘diversity’ in very different ways. For some it referred to ethnic differences, some focused more on income and perceived social class and age and employment status were also important.

Further research

For Leicestershire this is a key message and highlights the importance of more accurate and more up-to-date data on population and migration. The timely identification of where new communities are emerging in the County where there is a lack of experience of diversity, alongside those emerging in the more deprived areas of Leicestershire is a key role for local authorities and partners.

In terms of the quantitative information available for Leicestershire further research should focus on the following areas as a priority:
• More up to date, more accurate data on migration in Leicestershire
• Patterns of migration change at a lower level of geography than Local Authority District (e.g. ward, Lower SOA?)

In addition to carrying out further research on the data we have available for Leicestershire research should also look at possible new sources of information. Where we are unable to quantify population change it is important to think creatively about the ways

²⁷ ‘Our Shared Future’ Commission on Integration and Cohesion. © Crown Copyright 2007. pg 29, 30
in which we can obtain and share information about population change. Where we can identify changes at the neighbourhood level—through local CVSs, neighbourhood teams, including Police Community Support Officers, schools, and health—we need to capture this qualitative information and share our knowledge across departments and organisations.
3.2 Ethnic segregation in schools and residential areas of Leicester City & Leicestershire

Background

One of the things highlighted by the accepted national definition of community cohesion is the importance of strong and positive relationships between people from different backgrounds and circumstances in schools (outline in Section 1.2, page 2). The final report from the Commission on Integration and Cohesion recommends that every local area spends time mapping their communities, including the make up of local schools.

This section of the report looks at the ethnic composition of schools within Leicester City & Leicestershire (referred to as Leicester Shire for the rest of this section).

This analysis is based on details of pupil/student ethnicity in Leicester Shire as recorded by school staff at the time of enrolment. The analysis uses the ethnic groups from the 2001 Census and a methodology for analysing ethnic segregation developed by Poulsen et al (2001), which has subsequently been applied by Johnston et al (2006) to schools and residential areas.

The ethnic composition of schools in Leicester Shire over the last four years

In Leicester Shire there has been a fall of 5% in the actual number of white British pupils. There has also been a fall in the proportion of all pupils in Leicestershire who are white British from 75% in 2003 to 72% in 2007.

All black and minority ethnic (BME) groups have seen an increase in the number of pupils attending schools in Leicester Shire between 2003 and 2007. However, the increase varies a great deal depending on the BME group. The largest increase over this period was for ‘black & black British’ pupils (up by around a third) and for ‘white other’ pupils and ‘Chinese or other’ pupils (both up by just over a quarter). The number of ‘mixed’ pupils increased by just under a fifth, while ‘Asian and Asian British’ pupils increased much less in numbers—up just 5%. As a result the proportion of BME pupils who are ‘Asian or Asian British’ fell from 64.7% in 2003 to 63.5% in 2007. Correspondingly, the proportion of BME pupils other than ‘Asian or Asian British’ increased over this period.

Ethnic segregation in Leicester Shire schools in the last four years

Table 14, next page, shows the classification methodology for schools according to the ethnic composition of pupils attending. These five types can basically be split into two main groups as follows;

White majority population
Type 1 : Whites predominate (whites 80% or more)
Type 2 : White majority (whites 50% to 80%)

Non-white majority population
Type 3 : Substantial white minority (whites 30% to 50%)
Type 4 : Substantial non-white majority (ethnic minority 70% or more) but no single ethnic group dominant
Type 5 : Substantial non-white majority (ethnic minority 70% or more) with one ethnic group 50% or more of the non-white total

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28 This is a summary of the report, ‘An analysis of ethnic segregation in schools and residential areas within Leicester City and Leicestershire County’ produced by the Research & Information Team, Leicestershire County Council. If you would like a copy or for further details please contact Jeff Hardy (t: 0116 30 57016 or e: jhardy@leics.gov.uk)
29 Pupil Level Annual Schools Census - a mandatory return for all schools which includes information are collected Regions, Home Office and Commission for Racial Equality. Draft Guidance on Community Cohesion. (2002)
In 2007 there is a combined total of 86 type 2 and type 3 schools, at which one quarter of the Leicestershire students attend. This is 18 more type 2 and type 3 schools compared to 2003 and an increase of 4% in the number of pupils attending these types of school. i.e. there is a greater ethnic mix in schools now than there was four years ago.

Conversely, the greater the segregation in schools the greater the proportion of the student population in Type 1 and Type 5 schools. In 2007 there were 256 type 1 schools compared to 282 in 2003. This is reflected in the percentage of the student population attending type 1 schools, 60% in 2007 compared to 65% in 2003. i.e. there is less segregation in schools than there was four years ago.

It is interesting to look at the proportion of pupils attending Type 2 and Type 3 schools. A lower proportion of pupils in the two largest ethnic groups (white British and ‘Asian & Asian British’) attend ethnically mixed schools—around a fifth (22%) and a third (30%) respectively. A greater proportion—just under a half—of pupils in the other (BME) groups attend ethnically mixed schools (45% of ‘Black or Black British’, 42% of Chinese and other, 44% of mixed, 46% of white). This suggests that pupils from these BME groups are more diversely spread at schools in Leicester Shire than pupils who are white British or ‘Asian or Asian British’.

Table 14—Classification of school types according to their ethnic composition, showing the number of schools and the percentage of the student population within each type, for 2003 and 2007.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Type</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2007</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type 1</td>
<td>white predominant school: white pupils constitute &gt; 80% of the total</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type 2</td>
<td>white majority school: white students constitute 50% to 80% of the total</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type 3</td>
<td>white minority, ethnically mixed school: white students constitute 30% to 49% of the total</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type 4</td>
<td>non-white predominant school: pupils of non-white ethnic groups constitute &gt; 70% of the total, but no single group dominant</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type 5</td>
<td>exclusively non-white school: pupils of non-white ethnic groups constitute &gt; 70% of the total, with the pupils of one of those groups in the majority</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>382</td>
<td>379</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14 (left) shows the number of schools according to the classification of their ethnic composition. The greater the ethnic mix in schools the greater the proportion of the relevant population in school types 2 and 3.
Ethnic segregation in Leicester Shire schools compared to residential areas

This analysis shows that 85% of the White-British resident population live in predominantly White-British areas and 80% of White-British pupils attend predominantly White Schools. Further, a higher proportion of White-British pupils attend more ethnically mixed schools (19%), compared to the proportion of White-British who live in ethnically mixed areas (14%). Thus, residential segregation is slightly greater than school segregation for the White-British population of Leicester Shire.

Only a very small proportion (1%) of White-British residents in Leicester Shire live in predominantly non-White areas. The figure is the same (1%) for the proportion of White-British pupils who attend predominantly non-White schools.

Conclusions

The classification and methodology (developed by Pulsen et al, 2001) adopted here provides some useful analysis but the nature of ethnic segregation in schools or residential areas is a very complex situation to understand. The analysis here purely examines the ethnic composition of each school and residential area. It does not address those factors which may influence an individuals choice on where to live or where to go to school.

This research highlights the broadening ethnic diversity of the pupil population of Leicester Shire schools over the last four years. It also shows that there is greater segregation of the White-British population of Leicester Shire in residential areas than in schools. Interestingly, Johnston et al (2006) found the opposite to be true at the national level: there was greater segregation in schools than in residential areas. Further, there is less segregation in schools in Leicester Shire in 2007 than there was in 2003.

The role of schools is key in building stronger communities. At the time of writing the DfES is undertaking consultation on what should be included in the new duty to promote community cohesion in schools. Schools also have a key role to play in terms of recording incidents of hate (see Section 3.3, next page) and in identify emerging new communities, such as new migrants, and the response this requires from those delivering services, not just around education (see Section 3.1, page 36). Local Authorities are required to carry out an annual School Attitude Survey. Further analysis of this survey within the context of this classification of schools, as well as by the ethnicity of respondents could highlight where there is a relationship between the ethnic composition of a school and pupil attitudes.
3.3 Hate Incidents in Leicestershire

Background

According to the 2001 census the BME \(^{33}\) population account for 13% of the total population of England. The corresponding figures for Leicestershire and Leicester City are 7% and 39% respectively.

Though the overall proportion of BME residents in Leicestershire is below the national average there are communities across the county where the proportion is considerably higher.

Figure 10 (below) shows the proportion of BME residents across Leicestershire, by lower super output area \(^{34}\). The map highlights those areas where the proportion of BME residents is above the national average. It also shows those areas where the proportion of BME residents is comparable or above the average figure for Leicester City.

Figure 10—% BME population across Leicestershire by lower super output area \(^{34}\)

Racist incident reporting 2005 to 2006

The Hate Incident Monitoring Project (HIMP) has a wider remit than the previous Racist Incident Common Monitoring Project (RICMP). The RICMP collated details of racist and religious incidents from the following three sources.

- incidents recorded to Leicestershire Constabulary
- incidents reported through the RICMP
- incidents reported in Leicestershire schools

Table 15 (below) shows the number of racist and religious incidents reported through the above three sources during 2005 and 2006. The number of reported racist and religious incidents was 4% lower in 2006 compared to 2005. This difference is primarily due to the lower number of incidents reported within Leicestershire schools in 2006, down by 10%. However, as not all schools have completed their racist incident return \(^{35}\) it is likely that the 2006 figure will increase as more schools complete their returns.

Table 15—Number of racist and religious incidents reported to the RICMP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Police</td>
<td>463</td>
<td>472</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>County Council (RICMP)</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>County Council (schools) (^{35})</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>264</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>total</strong></td>
<td><strong>813</strong></td>
<td><strong>783</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

35 Leicestershire schools provide a return at the end of each academic year. The figure for the academic year 2004/05 has been used in the 2005 total and the figure for the academic year 2005/06 has been used in the 2006 total, in table 2. Not all schools have provided returns; in 2004/05 43 schools did not provide a return and in 2005/06 88 schools have not yet provided a return.

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\(^{32}\) source: Hate Crime: Delivering a Quality Service, March 2005, Home Office Police Standards Unit

\(^{33}\) BME is defined as all ethnic groups other than White British as defined by the ONS census of population 2001

\(^{34}\) lower super output areas are geographical areas containing approximately 1,500 residents.
Hate Incident Reporting (2006)

Hate incidents monitored by the new project have been broadened from those included in the RICMP. Table 16 (right) shows the proportion of the different types of hate incidents reported to the police in Leicestershire during 2006. This includes incidents perceived to be motivated by race, religion, sexual orientation and, since the introduction of separate reporting categories, age, disability and gender.

Racist and religiously motivated incidents accounted for the majority (89%) of all hate incidents reported to the police in Leicestershire in 2006. Homophobic incidents accounted for a further 10% of incidents reported to the police. This highlights the importance of the HIMP, broadening the collation of reported incidents, beyond racist and religious incidents.

Location of Hate Incidents

Table 17 (right) shows the number of hate incidents reported to the Police in each district of Leicestershire during 2006, compared to 2005.

There were a total of 525 hate incidents reported to the police in Leicestershire during 2006, a slight increase (2%) on the number of incidents reported in 2005. This compares to a decrease of 7% in the number of hate incidents reported in Leicester City during the same period.

Almost 60% of all hate incidents reported within Leicestershire are within Charnwood and Hinckley and Bosworth. Both of these districts had an increase in the number of reported hate incidents during 2006.
The number of reported hate incidents in Hinckley and Bosworth increased by 68% in 2006 compared to the previous year. This increase was primarily down to an increase in racist incidents, up from 55 in 2005 to 99 in 2006.

Table 18 (right) shows the location of hate incidents reported in Leicestershire during 2006. The largest proportion of incidents are reported to have happened in a public place, usually in the street. One quarter of incidents are reported to have happened in the victims home.

The relatively low number of incidents reported to the Police from educational establishments emphasises the importance of the role of schools as reporting centres.

Figure 11 (right) shows the distribution of hate incidents reported to the police in Leicestershire during 2005 and 2006, by lower super output area1 (LSOA).

The map highlights twelve LSOAs with the highest number of hate incidents reported to the police within 2005 and 2006. The map highlights concentrations of incidents in town centre locations, including Hinckley, Loughborough, Coalville and Wigston. There are also concentrations of reported incidents around the retail centres of Fosse Park and Thurmaston. There is a lower concentration of incidents reported within more rural areas of Leicestershire.

**Conclusions and Recommendations**

The number of hate incidents currently recorded across Leicestershire is relatively low, however we know that there is a

---

1 lower super output areas are a geographical area containing approximately 1,500 residents.
The HIMP will bring agencies together to collectively record and monitor hate incidents across Leicestershire. Details of incidents will be recorded in a common format, in one secure location and agencies will have a regular, up to date and holistic profile of hate incidents across the County. Work will continue to increase the number of reporting centres. One area currently being explored is for those large employers which rely on migrant labour being established as reporting centres.

A hate incident update will be produced quarterly and will be available to all reporting centres and partner agencies. The quarterly update will provide a profile of all reported hate incidents; including the total number of hate incidents reported, emerging trends and a high level county and district level profile. These reports will be available quarterly from July 2007.

At the end of each year a detailed hate incident annual report will be produced to provide a more in depth profile of hate incidents across Leicestershire. This will include a breakdown of the different types of incident, profiles of victims and offenders, patterns and trends of reported incidents over time and the identification of geographical areas where hate incidents may be a problem. The aim of the report is to meet the monitoring needs and information requirements of the reporting centres and partner agencies.

Defining hate incidents

‘A hate incident is any incident where you or someone else has been targeted because they or you are believed to be different, or any incident you believe was motivated by: age, disability, gender identity, race, religion / belief or sexual orientation’

HIMP reporting centres and partner agencies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reporting Centre</th>
<th>Partner Agency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Charnwood Racial Equality Council</td>
<td>Mosaic: shaping disability services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leicestershire County Council</td>
<td>North West Leicestershire – Council for Voluntary Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All 7 District Council</td>
<td>South Leicestershire Council for Voluntary Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LAMP Leicestershire</td>
<td>Trade Sexual Health Project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leicester Lesbian, Gay &amp; Bisexual Centre</td>
<td>Victim Support Leicestershire &amp; Rutland (Leicestershire Branches)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leicestershire Connexions</td>
<td>Vista – Society for the Blind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leicestershire Constabulary</td>
<td>Voluntary Action Charnwood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MENCAP Leicestershire</td>
<td>Voluntary Action Oadby &amp; Wigston</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.4 Leicestershire & the Vulnerable Localities Index

As shown in chapter 1 having an agreed definition on what constitutes ‘good’ community cohesion is a necessary, if a somewhat contested, starting point. This chapter focuses on a way to identify, from the hundreds of communities within Leicestershire, those which may have a combination of barriers to enhancing community cohesion and so require more specific attention. The lack of any consistently collected or comprehensive local intelligence, and the amount of data that this would indeed require, at a County level at least, makes it difficult to understand all the factors that are shaping our communities at a neighbourhood level.

Nonetheless work from the Jill Dando Institute of Crime Science at the University College London, has led to the development of a simple and practical, yet methodologically robust, neighbourhood measure: the Vulnerable Localities Index (VLI). This index uses readily sourced and familiar data to measure and identify communities across Leicestershire (and England) that are experiencing, or could experience, problems that relate to community breakdown and fragmentation. It was originally developed to aid and support the police and crime reduction partnerships in understanding issues around communities but has been applied more widely in developing better neighbourhood intelligence. It is not meant to identify and interpret the exact issues facing communities, but to be used as a strategic scanning tool, or as the authors of the VLI interestingly phrase it, “to point the suggestive finger” at those neighbourhoods which may require extra attention to enhance cohesion in the community.

Methodology

To produce the index six variables are used that research has shown measure to some extent the common themes that are similar in all areas suffering breakdown and fragmentation. The six variables are split into three broad categories: crime, deprivation, and demographic characteristics:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Crime statistics (annual 2006 counts at Output Area level)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Burglary dwelling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criminal damage to dwelling.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Deprivation statistics (2004 IMD at Lower Super Output Area level)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Income deprivation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment deprivation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic statistics (2001 Census data at Output Area level)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>People without a qualification or only a level 1 qualification.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People aged between 15-24.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These variables are then combined together to produce an overall index at an output area level. Any score for an area above 100 is above the Leicestershire average, and if above 200 (i.e. twice the average) they are considered by the authors of the VLI as the most vulnerable areas and require more focused analysis.

Results

Using the variables in the table above, a total of 105 output areas in Leicestershire have a VLI score above 200 representing approximately 6 per cent of the County population. However only three districts in Leicestershire have a substantial number of these output areas. Charnwood has 60 out of the 105 output areas with a VLI score above 200, Hinckley and Bosworth has 18 output areas and North West Leicestershire has 17 output areas. In contrast Oadby and Wigston and Harborough only have one area between them.

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17 The police role in community cohesion: Using geographic indicators to identify vulnerable localities, Spencer Chainey, 3rd National Crime Mapping Conference
www.jdi.ucl.ac.uk/crime_mapping/vulnerable_localities/index.php
18 Output Areas are the smallest geography at which data is generally released in this country. There are approximately 300 people in an output area, and around 2,000 Output Areas in Leicestershire.
Figure 12—The Vulnerable Localities Index mapped by Leicestershire’s Districts.

Purple indicates high scores, green low scores. The districts are ordered by those with the highest number of output areas with a VLI score above 200.

VLI score
- 200 to 604
- 120 to 200
- 90 to 120
- 70 to 90
- 21 to 70

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Within the districts the geographical clustering of the VLI scores is even more pronounced as shown in the series of maps on the previous page. So within Charnwood, out of the 60 output areas with a VLI above 200, 54 of the areas are within Loughborough and the majority are in the wards of Storer, Hastings and Southfields as shown in table 2. Nine of the ten output areas in the County with the highest VLI score are in Loughborough.

Table 19—The high number of vulnerable areas in Loughborough

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ward</th>
<th>Number of OA’s in Loughborough with a VLI score above 200</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hastings</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Storer</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southfields</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shelthorpe</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lemington</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ashby</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nanpantan</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hathern and Dishley</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Garendon</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outwoods</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Within North West Leicestershire, the majority of the areas are in Greenhill, and in Hinckley and Bosworth there are high scoring VLI neighbourhoods in Hinckley, Barwell and Earl Shilton.

Are there any similarities in the neighbourhoods that these 105 areas occupy? When considered together the vast majority, over ninety per cent, are found in urban areas. By using the Office for National Statistics output area classification it is also possible to give a short hand label that sums up an output area based on the key socio-economic characteristics of the people living there. The label is not suggesting that all the people in the output areas have the same characteristics, but recognising that Leicestershire’s social geography is built on people with the same characteristics living closely together. This classification allows analysis on whether areas with similar characteristics are more likely to have a high VLI score. Table 19 below shows the results.

Table 19—The high number of vulnerable areas in Loughborough

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ONS area classification</th>
<th>OA’s with a VFI score above 200</th>
<th>% of the total number of similar areas in the County</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Blue Collar Communities</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constrained by Circumstances</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typical Traits</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multicultural</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City Living</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prospering Suburbs</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Countryside</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Blue Collar communities have the largest proportion of output areas with a VLI score that is above 200. These are areas that are characterised by a young population, with higher levels of unemployment or people working in routine level occupations. (Section 3.5, page 52, on Economic Disadvantage looks at the relationship between unemployment and community cohesion in more detail.) Accommodation is predominately in socially rented and/or terraced accommodation. However, this still only represents 14% of the total number of output areas in
Leicestershire that are labelled Blue Collar communities. In contrast areas labelled Multicultural, areas with a high black and minority ethnic background, and City Living areas, single people living in flats in the urban centre, have a lower percentage of output areas with a high VLI score, but this actually represents over 50 percent of the total for these type of areas in Leicestershire.

This highlights other findings on research\(^\text{39}\) into socio-economic characteristics (e.g. diversity, deprivation) and how they relate to community cohesion. Namely, that there is no simple relationship between the characteristics of an area and community cohesion. Other local characteristics and local action can override the influence of socio-economic characteristics/barriers.

Although Output Areas are a convenient geography to use, communities are obviously not bounded by the output areas used by the index. In fact the interaction at the borders of output areas is something that is usually missed in social research. So the deliberate use of different colours in the maps on page 42 allows us to identify areas at the opposite ends of the index that are geographically next to one another. Identifying adjacent areas that have a dark purple and dark green may highlight areas that are experiencing community tension that is not actually measured by the index.

### Discussion

Any index is only as good as the data, so an obvious criticism of the index is the particular data it uses. The 2001 Census data is becoming out of date and so not as representative of an areas socio-economic profile. Even the IMD2004 uses data, not as you would imagine from 2004, but data collected as far back as 2001. Concerns have also been raised regarding the two crime categories used. There is local evidence to suggest that reported incidents of burglary and criminal damages to dwellings can be motivated by a need to get a crime number from the police to allow repairs to be carried out on local authority housing. Therefore these crimes may be inflated due to bureaucratic demands rather than actual crime. The crime counts used for Output Areas are low and so small changes in these figures can have a disproportionate affect on the index. In addition the index has not been formally evaluated and so there is no evidence that it is measuring what it’s purporting too. There is also little evidence of any policy interventions that have been implemented because of the index.

Even with these caveats regarding the data, does the VLI index provide any additional insight into Leicestershire communities that’s not already known? One way to examine this is to compare the areas with a VLI score above 200 with the Local Area Agreement geographical priority areas agreed in 2006. Even though the LAA priority areas used a different methodology, including using anecdotal local knowledge, nearly three quarters of the VLI areas are within a LAA priority area. As both methodologies use (to some degree) the IMD 2004 index this is perhaps hardly a surprise, but it’s clear that our conception either anecdotally or scientifically of what constitutes a vulnerable community is closely tied to our understanding and measurement of poverty and deprivation. Therefore establishing ways in monitoring local changes in deprivation, instead of waiting for IMD updates, could be beneficial in increasing our understanding of community cohesion, although currently few data sets are released or collected at an output area level. At the very least a better understanding of the small area population and household changes at output area could

provide a more up to date view of change in communities. Although the index provides little additional value to available local research in identifying the areas of low community cohesion, the index could provide a framework to measure the change in community cohesion over time. Identifying potential and future problem areas through the index could be a valuable way for service providers to validate the anecdotal evidence that is being collected on the ground and provide evidence if local initiatives are working.

The VLI has been recalculated by super output area for 2002 and 2004 for Leicestershire. Lower Super Output Areas (LSOAs), approximately 1,500 residents, have to be used as this is the lowest level that household and population is reliably released, 2004 is the latest data available, and the index is sensitive to changes in population and household numbers. The crime data has also been updated for both years. Perhaps unsurprisingly the results show a high correlation between an areas VLI score in 2002 and 2004. So the same areas have a high VLI score in 2002 and in 2004.

The change in the VLI score over the two years can also be calculated and is shown in Figure 13 to the right. Some super output areas show an increase over the two years’ that perhaps would not have been expected after looking at the maps on page 42. For example, in Harborough District the LSOA Lutterworth Centre & East went up from 73 to 114—i.e. from well below the Leicestershire average to above average. In fact the change data shows some evidence that the areas that had the highest VLI scores in 2002 have seen the greater decreases by 2004. Whether this is a real change reflecting what is happening in communities would require further research, but in any case understanding how community cohesion changed three years’ ago is not really useful in identifying potential communities issues anyway, and this again highlights the need for more regularly updated information.

Finally, while there is nothing new in identifying areas that require need, there is a need to recognise that characterising areas can be difficult and contentious. At the very least mechanisms should be put into place by which local people, and others, can challenge the implications of identifying 'vulnerable' areas.

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Conclusion and Recommendations

The Vulnerable Localities Index is becoming a more widely used method because of its simple methodology, use of available data, and the small area geography that it can be calculated at. Locally the index shows output areas in Loughborough have particularly high scores and require further research.

However the index has not been formally evaluated, there are questions marks over the reliability and relevance of the data used, and it does not appear locally, in Leicestershire at least, to provide any new insights to areas that is not known from current research. Finally, it’s simple methodology means it is trying to reduce community cohesion, which results from a complex set of human interactions, to just eight statistics. Maybe it’s too simple.

Perhaps it is better suited as a strategic tool to compare large geographical areas where data availability may be limited, e.g. across a government office. It may have more utility locally for measuring change over time, in helping validate other data sources about possible problem areas, but that is hampered by the lack of small area socio-economic data. However, it was found useful when combined with other measures, particularly the findings of the social capital survey which provided a measure of different aspects of cohesion which could be compared to the VLI.

Some recommendations:

1. Produce small area population data.
2. Update this index annually, highlighting those areas of most significant change—positive and negative. Consider this change in the context of what else we know about those areas and in particular that which has taken place since the previous update.
3. Carry out further research in those areas highlighted by the VLI, starting with Loughborough.
3.5 Economic disadvantage & community cohesion

The numbers of people who are economically disadvantaged in Leicestershire is generally low, but what is the profile of those that are disadvantaged and is this disadvantage more pronounced due to the overall affluence of the County as a whole?

Those people that are either in employment or are unemployed but are looking for work are classed as economically active. Economic activity is lowest in those people in Leicestershire aged over 50 years, as might be expected due to retirement from work. The average economic activity rate for Leicestershire is fairly high (84.1\%). Whilst economic activity is lower for women (80.3\%) and those people from a non-white ethnic group (79.2\%), the economic activity rates of these groups still remain fairly high.

Unemployment

As mentioned, people classed as Economically active can be unemployed but looking for work. The broad impact of unemployment has been the subject of debate since the second world war. From the 1950s onwards it was thought that being in work is very important because it provides income and it allows people to feel that they are contributing to society. More recent studies have found that the feeling of contributing to society is less of an issue today. However, unemployment is a key feature of economic disadvantage because being out of work reduces peoples income and has a negative impact on our social happiness.

The International Labour Organisation (ILO) definition of unemployment contains those people who want to work, are available to work and are actively seeking employment even if they are not claiming any Unemployment related benefits. It is important to distinguish between those people who are out of work and are looking to work with those people who are not in work and do not want to be, as the ILO definition does. Being out of work and say retired does not have the same degree of negative social impact that wanting to work and not being able to find employment does.

ILO Unemployment in Leicestershire for all people of working age is 3.3\%, this is lower than the regional (5.0\%) and the national average (5.3\%). ILO unemployment is higher in males of working age (4.0\%) than females of working age (2.5\%). Also ILO Unemployment is highest in young people aged 16-24 years old (11.3\%) than people of an older age living in Leicestershire. Thus unemployment is not equally distributed geographically or by groups of people in Leicestershire.

Job Seekers Allowance Claimants

Another way of measuring Unemployment is to use the numbers of people actually claiming Job Seekers Allowance (JSA). This is known as the Claimant Count (CC). This measure does underestimate the numbers unemployed, compared to the ILO measure, as some people are looking for work but not claiming any benefits. However it does allow us to analyse the numbers unemployed by age, gender, ethnicity and duration of unemployment.

The CC shows that in Leicestershire there are 5,658 people claiming JSA, that is 1.5\% of the resident working age population. The proportion of people claiming JSA is higher amongst men in Leicestershire (1.9\%) than women (0.9\%). By age the existence of unemployment is spread across all age groups, however there is a concentration in the younger population, with just under a third (30\%) of all those claiming JSA in Leicestershire aged under 25 years old.

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41Annual Population Survey, ONS June 2006
42Claimant Count, NOMIS, March 2007
Cohesive Communities in Leicestershire

The CC allows the level of JSA claimants to be analysed by ethnic group. 91% of those claiming JSA in Leicestershire are classed as white, this is just over 4,800 people and the remaining 9% (500 people) are classed as non-white. However the proportion of people of working age that are claiming JSA is higher in the non-white ethnic group (2.4%) than the white group (1.7%).

We can break down further the non-white ethnic group so see which groups in Leicestershire are more likely to suffer unemployment. The highest proportions of CC unemployment are in the Bangladeshi communities (2.5%), the other ethnic group (2.2%) and the Indian ethnic group (1.4%).

As is the case nationally, unemployment in Leicestershire by ethnic group is different when analysed by gender. In Leicestershire, although the Bangladeshi community has the highest CC unemployment proportion, it is particularly pronounced in Bangladeshi males where the proportion of CC unemployment is 3.3% compared to 1.1% in Bangladeshi females. Similarly CC unemployment is high in Black Caribbean males (2.2%) when compared to the proportion of Black Caribbean females (0.6%) who are claiming JSA.

Long-term Unemployment

An interesting feature of the CC is that it allows analysis of the levels of JSA claims by the duration of claim, or the length of time people have been unemployed. This allows us to explore the level of Long Term Unemployment (LTU) in Leicestershire. LTU is defined as anyone who has been out of work and claiming JSA for more than one year. LTU has been identified by the Home Office in their report 'Building a Picture of Community Cohesion' as a key indicator of measuring Community Cohesion. The report states that “a community is more likely to be cohesive where long term unemployment is low and not concentrated in certain groups”. The indicator the Home Office propose is to measure the proportion of unemployed people claiming JSA, that have been out of work for more than a year.

As was discussed previously, being out of work and wanting work has a particularly negative impact because it reduces people’s happiness by destroying the self-respect and social relationships gained from being in employment. These negative effects do not ease over time and that is why the issue of LTU is a specific problem to achieving cohesive communities.

Within Leicestershire there are 730 people who are LTU, with 78% of these being male. When analysed by age LTU is more prominent in the older age groups, with 60% of the LTU in Leicestershire being over 40 years old, this is in contrast to the younger age profile of all JSA claimants. Using CC data averaged for the year March 06 - Feb 07 in Leicestershire the proportion of all those unemployed that are LTU is 12.9%, this compares to a proportion of 15.0% in the region and 16.1% nationally. The proportion of LTU is higher in males within Leicestershire (14.1%) than in females (10.0%).

In Leicestershire by far the vast majority of the long term unemployed are white British (91%) and there are only 3 other ethnic groups that have any people that are LTU, with very low numbers. The remaining long term unemployed are split between the Asian - Indian population (4.1%), Black Caribbean population (0.69%) and the other ethnic group (0.69%). Within the Black Caribbean community of those people claiming JSA, 25% of them
The survey shows that people who are out of work are much less likely to have taken part in any training or learning in the previous 12 months. Of those in work 55% of people had taken part in some form of training or learning, whereas only 39% of those not in work had, the proportion falls further to 29% for those people who are out of work and are looking for work. This shows how future employment disadvantage is likely for those out of work as their skill base falls further behind and it becomes increasingly difficult for them to find employment.

Respondents feelings about education on leaving school may point to peoples' future attitudes to learning, both for themselves and their children. Those people who are out of work but are seeking employment have less positive feelings about education and are much more indifferent than those people who are in work. Around three-quarters (72%) of those people in employment said that they generally had positive feelings about education, whereas only half (50%) of those people out of work said they had positive feelings about education. These attitudes may further reduce the likelihood of those who are most disadvantaged in the labour market from further enhancing their skills through education which would make them more employable. Also these negative views of education may be passed onto younger generations, which may decrease the likelihood of them gaining a good skills base.

Training, learning and attitudes

In November 2006 the Learning and Skills Council (LSC) in the East Midlands commissioned a major survey of households in the area to gather information on adult skills, economic activity and participation in training and learning. The data for Leicester Shire shows that the gap between those with good qualifications and in full time employment and those with no qualifications and/or who are out of work is widening. Therefore those people that are disadvantaged are more likely to remain this way and find it increasingly difficult to find decent employment.
Locally, a survey\(^2\) carried out in 2006 asked whether people agreed with the statement that their local area was one where people get on well together. For the whole sample the results showed that only one-in-ten people disagreed with this statement (i.e. thought that their local area was one where people did not get on well together). Interestingly for those people that are unemployed this figure rose to almost one-in-three (29\%).

**The complex relationship between employment and community cohesion: the importance of local context**

Most research on employment status and health makes a simple distinction between employment and unemployment. This simple distinction obscures the complexity of the work and health relationship. Unemployment is not always harmful and reemployment is not always restorative. Drawing on different studies Friedland and Price 2003 assert that when people lose jobs that are especially stressful, they often do not experience declines in well-being. As such the quality of work plays a critical role in determining whether work is a source of well-being or cause of ill-being.

Research carried out by Boeck (2002) in Northumberland Park (London) found areas of relatively high unemployment which did not carry with it a negative stereotype. In fact those people in the community who invested most in the local community – who participated most – where often those not in full-time work, while conversely those who were in full-time work often contributed less to the local community. As such it is important to understand the local context of communities with regards to unemployment and avoid stereotyping those who are unemployed as ‘not active or lazy’. More could be done to enhance the role of those unemployed in the local community as well as efforts to get people back into work.

It is important to relate this back to our strands of community cohesion: perceptions of the local neighbourhood and participation. Those in full-time employment may not get involved with their their local neighbourhood, even though they are very happy living there. It is important not to over-simplify the relationship between employment and community cohesion as being a positive correlation.

It is also important to view the relationship between employment and the likelihood of communities being cohesive within the context of other issues and not in isolation. In more affluent areas people may not invest into community cohesion. For some people this may not be a problem as their networks exist elsewhere and they have the means to exploit that. In more deprived areas the locality and neighbours may be more important because people rely on the support and solidarity within their neighbourhood. (However, the level of community cohesion may be similar in both areas.) How does poverty and social isolation affect the well-being of unemployed people? Gallie (2004:45) highlight that there is now very consistent evidence about the general impact of unemployment on well-being. Psychological studies have consistently shown that unemployment increases psychological distress. A very similar picture emerges also from Europe-wide studies of the impact of unemployment on life satisfaction. Comparing the life satisfaction scores of the unemployed and employed over the period 1983-94, Gallie and Russell (1998) suggest that in all countries, unemployment lowered life satisfaction for both men and women, although the effect was more marked for men.

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\(^2\) The BVPI User Satisfaction Survey 2006

\(^4\) Winkelmann and Winkelmann (1998)
Another aspect of strong community cohesion and the search for employment is explored in recent research with young people. Young men in particular who restricted their contacts to those within their own cohesive and strong neighbourhood relations or their own youth cultural scene reported that they found their networks a positive resource for finding jobs or apprenticeship posts. However a more thorough analysis of their accounts on this matter revealed the limitations of their networks: the transitions into the labour market within the reach of these networks are often restricted to precarious segments of the labour market (temporary work, petty jobs, assisting in the shops of relatives, etc) (Walter et al 2005; 230). These very rarely lasted longer than a year and more often than not were part of a rapid sequence of temporary low-paid jobs (Raffo and Reeves 2000) interspersed with lengthy periods of idle unemployment (MacDonald, 1998, p. 170).

Conclusions

The negative social effects of UE are often overlooked and the main impact of UE is mostly seen to be the financial loss. But research has shown that there is a huge psychological impact of UE on the employed person as well as the obvious loss of income. These psychological impacts such as the eroding of self respect and social relationships can have an impact on cohesion in communities. It has been argued that areas of high unemployment, crime and disorder generate the feelings of powerlessness, threat and alienation among residents, which in turn lead to the low levels of neighbourhood attachment and interactions.45

However there is also evidence of the reverse effect where strong community cohesion can hinder the pursuit of better and full time employment.

Overall unemployment in Leicestershire is lower than the regional and national average. However, there are groups of the population and areas of the county which suffer much higher levels of unemployment.

Unemployment is highest amongst young people (aged 16 to 24 years old) and is also high amongst Bangladeshi men. Long-term unemployment has been identified by the Home Office as having a particularly negative impact on whether a community is likely to be cohesive. In Leicestershire, unlike the younger profile of all JSA claimants, long-term unemployment (LTU) mainly affects men (78% of all LTU), over 40 years old (60% of all LTU) who are white British (91% of all LTU).

People who are unemployed are much less like to have taken part in any training or learning in the previous twelve months and are more likely to have negative opinions about learning. This can make it increasingly more difficult to get back into employment.

Recommendations

Reducing unemployment could have a positive impact on whether a community is likely to be cohesive. A county-wide strategy could identify possible ways in which unemployment can be addressed, particularly amongst those groups in society who suffer disproportionately higher rates of unemployment (by any measure). However, it is important to also recognise that reducing unemployment is only part of the picture and may not necessarily have a positive impact on community cohesion. This highlights the importance of understanding the local context of communities. This can be achieved through developing an appropriate strategy to enhance community cohesion by involving local people at the level of community forums and neighbourhoods.

41 Oliver and Mandelberg (2000)
Further research should be carried out at the local, neighbourhood level on the complex relationship between unemployment and other local contextual issues and the likelihood of communities being cohesive.
3.6 Fear of crime and the ‘worried well’ of Leicestershire

The recent report by the Commission on Integration and Cohesion (‘Our Shared Future’, June 2007) concluded that not enough was currently known about how crime and anti-social behaviour were key influencers of cohesion. There was a relationship with perceptions but we need to understand it more46.

The level of police recorded crime in an area is one aspect of crime and anti-social behaviour which affects a community. Key aspects of recorded crime as they relate to community cohesion have been analysed in the section on vulnerable localities in Leicestershire (section 3.4, page 46).

The fear of crime is something which has a big influence on individuals’ lives and on perceptions of their local community. For most local authorities, including Leicestershire County Council and its partners, addressing the fear of crime is a key priority. This section looks at fear of crime in more detail through some of the qualitative issues raised in local focus groups and through a more detailed, critical look at how we measure the fear of crime.

The issues raised in focus groups following the research on social capital in relation to fear of crime focused on two main areas; intergenerational differences and perceived differences between groups of young people.

Intergenerational Differences

In some areas there are clashes between ‘elderly residents’ and newcomers, especially young people. Some residents expressed concern about ‘anti-social behaviour and kids being noisy’. There might exist small pockets of people who are excluded and might become overshadowed by the overall positive response within the rural areas. This might be especially relevant to new people moving into the neighbourhood and young people. It has to be highlighted that for several areas, especially the ‘deprived areas’ there was a major concern about vandalism and anti-social behaviour. However there were examples of how young people were targeted by residents who at the same time feel intimidated by them. It is important not to underplay the feelings and fears of residents however it is also necessary to highlight how some of the clashes and fears can easily get out of hand.

“There is a hoodie walking through my village!” 47

Perceived differences between groups of young people

Whilst there is evidence of strong cohesiveness of young people in the different areas, in some of the ‘deprived areas’ there is also the perception that there are cultural clashes between different groups of young people:

“… the local young people on those estates are seeing these new young people as a threat or something and it is them that have been causing the problems… it is a sort of suspicion. You don’t tend to see the older English teenage young males going off shopping and you will see these Polish people and Latvian people and whatever, they will go down the local Co-op in groups of about 6. Once they have all finished their shift they will go off and do their shopping. So they go off and do their shopping and there is a group of about 6 young adults, young male adults, and then the other local young male adults, it is a problem because they see this as a problem.” 47
Measuring the fear of crime in Leicestershire

In order to look at the relationship between the fear of crime and community cohesion in Leicestershire it is important to consider how we actually measure the fear of crime.

Previously, measures common for the fear of crime were along the lines of...

How worried are you about…? (very worried/fairly worried/not very worried/not at all worried/don’t know/no opinion)

This type of question looked at the expressive dimension of the fear of crime: the broader more general sense of crime and society. This old question has been criticised for not providing an accurate measure of the fear of crime. At a conference in June 2007 Betsy Stanko described this type of question as a ‘sponge question’ because it ‘soaks up’ all peoples’ fears and concerns about society and their communities in a general sense, rather than providing a specific focus or measure for fear of crime or, more specifically, fear of victimisation.

An alternative question developed by Farrall et al to more accurately measure the fear of crime focuses on individuals’ experience of crime/disorder: specific episodes of fear experienced by the individual. This question is worded along the lines of the following:

During the last 12 months have you ever felt fearful about…? (yes/no) How many times have you felt like this…? (n) On the last occasion…how fearful? (very afraid/fairly afraid /not very afraid /not at all afraid /don’t know/no opinion)

Using Farrall et al’s experiential question in Leicestershire it was found that, for people in Leicestershire, regular exposure to heightened levels of fear of becoming a victim of crime are very rare. When the frequency and the intensity of fear were examined together only 3% of respondents had felt very afraid more than once or twice in the last year about the possibility of becoming a victim of crime.

The ‘worried well’

By asking both these questions in the same survey it is possible to combine both of these measures: the expressive fears people hold and also their memory of distinct episodes of fearful experiences.

The Leicestershire Town and Villages Survey was carried out in the summer of 2006 and produced over three thousand responses from interviews in seventeen settlements across Leicestershire. This survey included both types of questions described here with particular reference to fear of assault and harassment.

The expressive (old style) questions were re-coded so that ‘very’, ‘fairly’ and ‘not very worried’ are together and ‘not at all worried’ was a separate category. This was then cross tabulated with the new question. The results of this are shown in Table 21, below.

The rows show the data for the expressive question in the survey and the columns show the data for the experiential question.

Table 21—Combining the expressive and experiential measures of fear of crime

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Fearful in past year</th>
<th>Not fearful in past year</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Worried</td>
<td>127 (4.4%)</td>
<td>840 (29%)</td>
<td>967 (33.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not worried</td>
<td>59 (2%)</td>
<td>1872 (64.6%)</td>
<td>1931 (66.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>186 (6.4%)</td>
<td>2712 (93.6%)</td>
<td>2898 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Farrall et al. found that three main groups emerged and labelled them as shown in Table 22, below.

**Table 22—Categorising worry about assault and fear of victimisation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Fearful in past year</th>
<th>Not fearful in past year</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>‘worried’</td>
<td>967 (33.4%)</td>
<td>2712 (93.6%)</td>
<td>2898 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘worried well’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘unworried’</td>
<td>1931 (66.6%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>186 (6.4%)</td>
<td>2712 (93.6%)</td>
<td>2898 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus what we find here is that the ‘worried’ express general worry when asked about assault and harassment and have experienced at least one fearful episode in the last 12 months. This group accounts for less than five per cent of respondents (4.4%).

The ‘unworried’ do not express any general worry about assault and harassment and have not experienced any fearful episodes in the last twelve months. This group accounts for around two-thirds of respondents (64.6%).

The ‘worried well’ have no direct experiences of fear in the past year but express some level of concern about assault and harassment when asked the old-style questions. The term worried well was coined for this group because they express general worry about crime when asked (the old questions) but do not appear to have experienced specific fearful episodes in the past year. This group accounts for just under a third of respondents (29%).

The remaining category was not directly addressed by Farrall et al. and accounted for less than 1% in the research they had undertaken. However, in the Leicestershire survey this remaining group was larger (2%) and reflected those respondents who had experienced a specific fearful episode where they were worried about being a victim of assault or harassment, but did not worry about it in a more general sense.

**Understanding and reducing the fear of crime in Leicestershire**

There are some interesting implications of these findings for reducing the fear of crime in Leicestershire. Reducing fear of victimisation is a key priority of partner organisations in Leicestershire.

Much debate exists around what is termed by some as ‘the fear of crime paradox’ namely that while most recorded crime has generally fallen over the last decade the fear of crime has not fallen correspondingly. This is a complex area of debate and there are many different factors which may have an influence on why this is the case.

Where this debate is helpful to work on community cohesion is in understanding that there are around a third of the population of Leicestershire who worry about a specific type of crime when asked, despite not having any direct personal experience of fearing they were going to be a victim of crime. Thus their worry stems from something else, or a number of other things.

For this group of people—the worried well—their individual experience of crime is not the main cause of their worry. So, as has been experienced, reducing crime—i.e. reducing the number of people who are victims of crime—is not necessarily causing a reduction in levels of worry about crime. Whilst reducing crime and thus reducing the number of victims remains a worthy goal, something else must be done to reduce the fear of crime.
Profiling the ‘worried well’

Only a very small minority (4%) of people worry about assault/harassment and have experienced specific episodes in which they were fearful they would be a victim. The majority—around two-thirds—of the population of Leicestershire have not experienced any fearful episodes of assault or harassment in the last year and do not express any worry about it. The remaining group of people—around a third of respondents—do express worry about assault/harassment but did not experience any fearful episodes of becoming a victim in the last year.

It is useful to look at a profile of the type of people which fall into these categories. Who falls into each of these groups? What kind of people are they? Can we distinguish different groups of people in society who fall into these groups? Can we develop a different policy response to reduce the fear of victimisation in these different groups?

Gender

Table 23 (below) shows the gender breakdown for each category as described previously. This shows that proportionally there are more women than men in the ‘worried’ and ‘worried well’ categories.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>male</th>
<th>female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worried</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unworried unwell</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worried well</td>
<td>372</td>
<td>28.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unworried</td>
<td>879</td>
<td>66.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,326</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Age

Table 24 (below) shows the age breakdown for each category of fear and worry about assault and harassment as previously described. This shows that those aged 16 to 24 years old are the largest age group amongst the worried (6.4%). The largest of any age group of the ‘worried well’ are those aged 75 years and older. Over a third (36.6%) of all those 75 and over fall into the category of the worried well.

How fear and worry impacts on other perceptions

Interestingly the third of the population in the category of the ‘worried well’ were found to be more likely to hold negative views about other aspects of society when compared to the ‘unworried’.

One question in the same survey asked respondents how they would describe the town/village centre in which the interviews took place. Respondents were give a list of ten adjectives and asked whether they agreed that it was a good description of the centre. A significant difference between the worried well and the unworried was found in eight of the ten sub-questions. This showed a

| Table 24—Age breakdown of the worry about assault and harassment (%) |
|-------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|------------------|------------------|
| 16-24 | 25-34 | 35-44 | 45-54 | 55-64 | 65-74 | 75+ | Refused | Total |
| Worried | 6.4 | 4.5 | 3.1 | 5.5 | 4.0 | 4.5 | 0.6 | 0.0 | 4.4 |
| Unworried unwell | 1.7 | 1.9 | 2.7 | 2.9 | 2.0 | 1.3 | 0.6 | 1.8 | 2.0 |
| Worried well | 30.1 | 27.6 | 25.7 | 28.7 | 28.0 | 32.6 | 36.6 | 26.3 | 29.0 |
| Unworried | 61.9 | 66.0 | 68.6 | 62.9 | 66.0 | 61.7 | 62.1 | 71.9 | 64.6 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

Worried = experienced specific episodes of fear in the last year and worry generally
Unworried = no experience of any episodes of fear and not worried in a general sense
Worried well = no experience of any episodes of fear but do worry in a general sense
Unworried unwell = experienced episodes of fear in last year but generally not worried
significantly higher proportion of the unworried would describe the centre as attractive, vibrant, busy, friendly, safe, distinctive and tidy. More of the worried well would describe the centre as quiet. No significant difference was found between these two groups for whether respondents would describe the centre as crowded or exciting.

Compared to others, twice as many of those in the ‘worried well’ category thought that there was a ‘big’ or ‘very big’ problem with people not treating each other with respect and consideration. For the ‘worried well’ this accounted for almost a quarter of people (24% compared to 12%).

A higher proportion of the ‘worried well’, compared to the ‘unworried’, thought that the centre had got worse or much worse over the last twelve months.

A higher proportion of the ‘worried well’ than the ‘unworried’ thought that the police presence in the town centre was insufficient and should be increased. Similarly, more of the ‘worried well’ thought that the CCTV in the centre was insufficient and should be increased.

Conclusions

There are a small minority of people in Leicestershire who recalled fearing that they would be a victim of assault/harassment in the last twelve months. The majority—around two-thirds—of the population did not fear being a victim of assault/harassment in the last twelve months and do not worry about it in any general sense.

Around a third of the population worry about assault/harassment in a broad, expressive sense but did not recall any episodes in the last twelve months in which they feared they would be a victim. This latter group have been described as the ‘worried well’.

This research is not to say that the ‘worried well’ hold irrational or unfounded fears. It is highlighting that the general expressive worry about crime (in this case assault/harassment) is not solely a result of actual crime levels but a reflection of a broad range of other issues which people are expressing their worry about. This group of people are also more likely to hold other negative views about society/their environment.

This evidence suggest that if organisations could reduce the level of fear and worry about crime, this would have a correspondingly positive impact on peoples’ perceptions on a range of other aspects of society. Conversely if cohesion can be enhanced in communities this is likely to reduce peoples’ fear of victimisation and their worry about crime generally.

If we understand fear of crime as a measure of the fear of victimisation then the questions developed by Farrall et al are a more accurate measure of fear of victimisation and should be used in future quantitative research on fear of crime.

It would be useful to carry out further research on fear of victimisation and worry about crime in Leicestershire. In particular future research could look at:

- Fear of victimisation amongst young people
- The worried well and other categories of crime: burglary, vehicle crime and other acquisitive crime.
3.7 Media reporting of cohesion: the Leicester Mercury

Around three-quarters (74%) of those who participated in the social capital survey said that they regularly (i.e. at least weekly) read local newspapers. This was much higher than the number of those who listened to any local radio—around half (54%)—and much higher than those accessing local news on the internet on a regular basis (14%).

Positive media relations can help in enhancing community cohesion. The media can mould perceptions of local people, both positively and negatively. A good positive relationship with local media can help to dispel rumours, challenge myths and give local communities a clear message.

The main local newspaper in Leicestershire is the Leicester Mercury. The Leicester Mercury publishes two editions to cover the west and east of Leicestershire and two editions are published to cover Leicester City. The Mercury currently has a circulation of 73,634\(^{51}\). All of the articles that appear in the print version of the Leicester mercury are also available to view online on their website (www.thisisleicestershire.co.uk).

The stories relating to community cohesion that appeared in the Leicester Mercury over a one year period (April 06 to April 07) have been analysed to try and understand the type of articles featured and the level of impact that these may have on Leicestershire communities.

In total 23 articles were sourced relating to ‘community cohesion issues’ covering a range of subjects. Table 25 shows the breakdown of the articles analysed. The highest number of articles related to reports of ‘racist attacks’ and hate related crimes. Other prominent issues are articles reporting on community cohesion initiatives taking place both locally and nationally. Some example headlines are shown above.

The articles relating to ‘racist attacks’ were based on coverage from the magistrates court and reported the facts and language used from the sentencing. There was also a range of positive stories relating to Leicestershire’s communities responding to national reports on integration and community cohesion. Also there were a small number of positive articles featured on local initiatives, such as the ‘planting of peace trees’.

### Table 25—Number of articles sourced from the Leicester Mercury by keyword

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Number of articles</th>
<th>Example headlines</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cohesion</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Racist Attack</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discrimination</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hate Crime</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteers</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic Diversity</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnic Minority</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gypsy / travellers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inter-faith relations</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Islam</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Migrants</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neighbours</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Racism</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residents</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>23</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{51}\) ABC 2007
A media Influence Index has been used to give an indication as to the likely impact of coverage relating to community cohesion. The index uses the following criteria:

- The circulation of the publication
- The percentage of the page occupied by the article
- The percentage of the page occupied by the photograph
- The position of the article on the page
- The location of the page (front, back, etc)

The justification for choosing these criterion is that articles that are larger, have a photograph, have a large headline and are nearer the front of the paper will reach more people and have a higher impact. A summary of the results of the Media Influence Index are shown in Table 26.

It is interesting to note that articles relating to community cohesion tend to feature towards the end of the news section, with an average page number of 12.

Of the articles sourced relating to community cohesion there was a good variety of both positive and negative articles. Of the 23 articles 14 were deemed to be negative in tone and 9 positive. A comparative analysis shows that positive stories are likely to be slightly larger and have a larger photograph but have a smaller headline and be located nearer the middle or back of the news section of the Leicester Mercury.

Table 26 also shows a comparison between 2 keywords, ‘racist attack’ and ‘cohesion’. Articles reporting a ‘racist attack’ are more likely to have a higher impact and are likely to reach more people. This is because they are larger, on average have much bigger headlines and are nearer the front of the paper than articles reporting on community cohesion, which were often found, to be more positive in tone.

One feature of the coverage on community cohesion related articles is that some of them are full page, one-off special reports, that discuss a particular issue. The example ‘Stop picking on us!’ from March 2007 is a full page article discussing:

“if our society is becoming more tolerant, how come so many of us feel discriminated against?”

The impact of this article was likely to be further enhanced by a banner, that was added to the front page promoting the article.
The article ‘English has never been so popular!’ also from March 2007 was another full page spotlight report, investigating the positive improvement in the number of people from Leicester Shire’s ethnically diverse population, who are attending English language classes.

**Conclusion**

It is important to highlight that the role of the media is just one aspect of how people gain information about their local area. In previous research around the fear of crime, for example, the role of our networks—family, friends, neighbours—and our first hand experience were much more important in shaping our opinions than the local media.

Further, the analysis carried out here focuses just on the Leicester Mercury. National newspapers, other local publications, internet, TV and radio all contribute to an individuals perception of their local area, particularly in those areas of the County where other media is more prevalent than the Leicester Mercury.

However, this section does highlight some examples of the type of informative articles that can be used to dispel rumours, challenge myths and give a clear message to communities.

Leicester City Council have forged close links with the Leicester Mercury and their work in using a ‘First Person’ editorial column to highlight community issues has been nationally recognised. The Leicester Mercury’s relationship with the Leicester Multi-Cultural Advisory Group (LMAG) is cited in the Commission for Integration and Cohesion’s final report as “...a positive example of how media can work with local voluntary and statutory partners to promote the messages of integration and cohesion to a wider audience.”

The report also recommends Local Authorities develop myth busting strategies aimed specifically at established communities and that advisory groups, such as LMAG, take responsibility for measuring the success of these.

Local Authorities in the County and City need to build on the existing positive relationships with the media and work with neighbouring authorities the way in which they would like neighbouring communities to work together.

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4. Conclusions and next steps

4.1 Overall conclusions

This report has outlined some of the key issues affecting community cohesion in Leicestershire. There are no simple statements or conclusion to this research which, as much as anything, has highlighted the complexity of the human interactions and the important of context. This report does however pull together a number of new areas of research and makes a very valuable contribution to what we know about community cohesion in Leicestershire and suggests some possibilities for what action could be taken.

The evidence of community cohesion in Leicestershire shows that locally, as is the case nationally, the picture is a positive one where overall perceptions of cohesion are good. The majority of people think their area is a place where people from different backgrounds get on and felt that their neighbourhood was a good or very good place to live. Participation was much higher for informal volunteering than for formal volunteering and there was a more positive picture of community cohesion in some areas of the County than others.

The context of community cohesion highlighted the importance of the interaction between a number of issues (unemployment, fear of crime, vulnerable locations, etc) which impact on how cohesive an area is.

As the Leicestershire social capital survey was conducted in identified Lower Super Output Areas it is possible to compare the findings of that research with data from the Vulnerable Localities Index (VLI), the Indices of Multiple Deprivation (IMD), and other data recorded at that level.

Analysis shows that out of the twenty areas selected for the social capital survey, the seven areas identified as ‘deprived’ were also the seven which scored as the most vulnerable on the VLI out of the twenty. Overall, there was a relationship between those areas in the social capital survey which were the most vulnerable using the VLI and a less positive response to questions on cohesion.

Deprivation and high levels of crime seem to have a negative impact on community cohesion. However, there were exceptions. Two rural areas which were relatively more deprived and higher in crime had quite a strong cohesiveness. This could suggest that the nature of these rural communities and the bonding which this brings to it, and perhaps the stability, contributes positively to cohesion regardless of vulnerability or deprivation. However, these measures may positively reflect the ‘bonding’ cohesion in these areas but there may still be excluded groups in those areas and a lack of ‘bridging’ between these groups. This could be particularly apparent in those rural areas of Leicestershire with little previous experience of diversity where new groups emerge, such as migrant workers or students.

Looking at the two most ethnically mixed areas included in the social capital survey, diversity seems to be correlated with a positive effect on the perception of diversity in one area, but less positive in the other area. This suggests that where diversity exists alongside a lack of choice and a lack of access to resources it may have a negative impact on community cohesion in some areas but in other areas this may be counteracted by local circumstances and by local action.

The Commission on Integration and Cohesion carried out some analysis looking at how much various factors influenced perceptions
of cohesion. The work summarised that:

- the positive and negative influences of each factor individually tended to have a relatively small impact on perceptions of cohesion.
- no single factor determines cohesion, with a wide variety of factors relating and impacting upon it simultaneously. So most of the significant falls in perceptions of cohesion only occur in communities experiencing a series of negative factors simultaneously. (e.g. a combination of poverty, lack of and access to jobs, influx of new workers, high crime and fast pace of change)\(^{53}\).

Correspondingly, to enhance the cohesiveness of an area action needs to be taken against a number of different factors which impact on an area and the circumstances and perceptions of people living there.

Community cohesion is a very broad agenda. Different localities in Leicestershire will have different priorities and will need to, and want to, set their own agenda and identify their own priorities and the recommendations to take those forward. The importance of taking action at the neighbourhood level is vital to enhancing cohesion. As we have seen, local action and local circumstances can counteract high crime, high deprivation and other contextual issues which may have a negative impact on cohesion.

Thus it is important to understand and to acknowledge how different factors contribute to building stronger, or less strong, communities. The responsibility does not lie only with the residents. There is a responsibility of those organisations providing public services to consider how their policies impact directly on communities and also how they impact on other factors – such as poverty and crime – which can impede the development of social capital and stronger communities. Nonetheless, it is useful to suggest some recommendations based on the research carried out for this report.

4.2 Using this report

Numerous organisation should find at least some of the research included here relevant to them. The Commission on Integration and Cohesion’s endorses the recommendation of the Local Government White Paper\(^{54}\) that

\[\ldots\text{LSPs should have an explicit role in building integration and cohesion into their vision and strategies, and should have the structure to be able to put local issues on the agenda—through an integration and cohesion sub-group for example.}\]

In Leicestershire a Board has been established as a sub-group of Leicestershire Together (the County LSP) to lead on ‘Stronger Communities’ in Leicestershire and this is led by the voluntary sector.

The report on ‘Our Shared Futures’ goes on to state that:

\[\text{We also strongly support the involvement of third sector partners from the outset in defining the integration and cohesion elements of the Sustainable Community Strategies (including faith organisations where appropriate) – recognising that voluntary organisations can often access harder to reach communities, and are often the providers of both people and premises in neighbourhoods where there are challenges to integration and cohesion.}\]


\(^{54}\) Stronger and Prosperous Communities: The Local government White Paper, Communities and Local Government (2006)
Clearly the involvement of a wide range of organisations and local groups in the development of the Sustainable Community Strategies is vital and the elements focussing on integration and cohesion will be a major part of the strategy. Those elements should take into account the findings of this, and other reports, in the development of a Sustainable Community Strategy for Leicestershire. It should also inform work undertaken in local communities, in particular in those priority neighbourhoods identified in the current Local Area Agreement and through the Community Forums.

4.3 Next steps:

There are numerous areas of work which could be taken forward following the research carried out for this report. The following is by no means a comprehensive list of next steps. Other people/groups may identify other priorities but here are some:

**Challenging stereotypes and myths**
There is an important role for local government in dispelling rumours, challenging stereotypes and myths and portraying a positive view of diversity. Amongst others, there is a clear role for the County Council’s Research Team in providing information and analysis. Further and more innovative research is essential to better capture local knowledge about what is happening in communities.

A key area for this will be improving information on population and migration: understanding local socio-economic population change. Another key area for improving our knowledge of Leicestershire is supporting the Leicestershire Hate Incident Common Monitoring Project. Approaching large employers in Leicestershire, particularly those employing significant numbers of migrant labour, to become reporting centres could be a very useful way forward for this project. Thirdly, as recommended by the Commission on Integration and Cohesion, research should be carried out on where different groups worship in their local area.

More emphasis should be placed on reporting and celebrating what we all have in common than those things which make us different. A vision of a shared future for Leicestershire based on the priorities of local residents should be central to this. Local authorities should continue to work together and, with other partners, should build on existing positive relationships with the local media.

**Devolving Power & Neighbourhood Management**
Community cohesion will be enhanced by greater participation of residents in their communities. This will be encouraged by the devolution of power to local people through recent and new legislation which should increase peoples’ feelings of power and their ability to have a say in what happens in their local neighbourhoods.

People have the right to define for themselves which elements of community cohesion they want to address in their local area. A good example, of this is the work of CVSs in those communities where the work on building social capital is taking place as part of the Stronger Communities block of the LAA. In addition to this right, local residents have a responsibility to integrate all groups in the community and to ensure equal access to community resources and power. All members of a community do not have to ‘like’ each other but they do need to get on, respect each other and all have a say in decision making. This needs to be supported-strong partnership working with local authorities, the voluntary sector,
faith groups and community leaders is essential. Issues around community cohesion should be a central tenet of Neighbourhood Management and the emerging Community Forums in Leicestershire.

Increasing Volunteering
Linked to the previous point, it would be hugely beneficial for Leicestershire to increase levels of volunteering. This is already a priority in the existing Local Area Agreement for Leicestershire. As recommend by the Commission for Integration and Cohesion, large employers in Leicestershire, and in particular Local Authorities who have a role as community leaders, should consider allowing employees 3 days paid leave a year for participation in defined voluntary activities. Local Authorities should also work with those businesses who rely on migrant labour, accepting that many already do.

Responding to emerging new communities
New communities are emerging in Leicestershire including in rural areas without previous experience of diversity. All local organisations need to address how they can respond to changes in demand for services, including but not limited to, health, education, libraries and access to services. Clearly, there will be a strong link between this and improving what we actually know about all residents in all communities in Leicestershire—i.e. innovate, good quality local research and information.

Improving personal circumstances and perceptions
The picture of community cohesion in Leicestershire is too complex to make any simple statements that reducing unemployment or reducing crime will necessarily enhance community cohesion in a neighbourhood.

Nonetheless, action should be taken to improve individuals’ circumstances, change perceptions for the better and increase levels of participation. At a strategic level, reducing crime (particularly hate crime), reducing unemployment, providing affordable decent housing all remain worthy and essential goals. However, it is important to recognise the local context of such changes and allow communities to set their own priorities for addressing these and other contextual issues.

Finally, in considering the way forward for community cohesion in Leicestershire it is important to remember that,

Cohesion is not about uniformity, conformity, normalisation or value consensus. It is not about suppressing conflicts and clashes: it should be about how to deal with them. We do not necessarily need to ‘like’ each other but we need to learn to get on and respect each other. Cohesion should not hamper civil expression of discontent, disagreement or opposition. (Boeck, 2007)
5. References and consulted documents

1 ‘Our Shared Future’ Commission on Integration and Cohesion. © Crown Copyright 2007. pg 42.

2 The LAA Leads Plus meeting involves all of the block leads for the Leicestershire Local Area Agreement, plus other relevant stakeholders. The LAA Leads Plus meeting referred to here took place on 8th June 2007. The Stronger Communities Board meeting took place on 13th June 2007 and an initial discussion about this report and future working relationships took place between members of the Research Team and the Islamic Foundation on 22nd June 2007.

3 Social Capital and Stronger Communities in Leicestershire (available at: http://www.ccp.org.uk/socialcapitalreport.html)

4 The research evidence is based on the report Social Capital and Stronger Communities in Leicestershire (available at: http://www.ccp.org.uk/socialcapitalreport.html)

5 District Council websites June 2007

6 BBC website (www.bbc.co.uk)

7 “The BNP; the roots of its appeal” (John, 2006) Democratic Audit, Human Rights Centre, University of Essex

8 Leicestershire County Council Census 2001 Area Profiles

9 “Voter’s Views; a voting behaviour study in three northern towns” (Vision 21, 2004) Joseph Rowntree Charitable Trust

10 “The BNP; the roots of its appeal” (John, 2006) Democratic Audit, Human Rights Centre, University of Essex

11 Interim Statement - Commission on Integration and Cohesion

12 ‘Our Shared Future’ Commission on Integration and Cohesion. © Crown Copyright 2007. pg 119


14 Guidance on Community Cohesion (LGA, 2002)

15 Building a picture of community cohesion - A guide for Local Authorities and their partners (Home Office, 2003)

16 Care should be taken in the analysis of the relative importance (the rank) of issues by different groups and the percentage. For example, affordable decent housing is ranked the third most important issues for White people with 27.6%. For all BME groups it was the fourth most important issue but had almost twice as many people picking it, 48.1%.

17 National Statistics: Migrants entering or leaving the United Kingdom and England and Wales, 2005. MN32).

18 JRF: East European immigration and community cohesion

19 Counting up: A study to estimate the existing and future numbers of refugees in the East Midlands region, EMCARS September 2006)

20 East Midlands Consortium for Asylum Seekers and Refugees (EMCARS): Myth Busting Leaflet 2006


22 EMCARS September 2006: Fiona Aldridge and Yanina Dutton, NIACE. COUNTING UP A study to estimate the existing and future numbers of refugees in the East Midlands region.

23 Warwick Institute for Employment Research 2007: Migrant Workers in The East Midlands Labour Market

24 http://www.lgar.local.gov.uk/lgv/core/page.do?pageId=1 Audit Commission: Using Workers Registration Scheme data at local authority level: a short introduction
25 DWP 2006: National Insurance Number Allocations to Overseas Nationals Entering the UK


27 ‘Our Shared Future’ Commission on Integration and Cohesion. © Crown Copyright 2007. pg 29, 30

28 This is a summary of the report, ‘An analysis of ethnic segregation in schools and residential areas within Leicester City and Leicestershire County’ produced by the Research & Information Team, Leicestershire County Council. If you would like a copy or for further details please contact Jeff Hardy (t: 0116 30 57016 or e: jhardy@leics.gov.uk)

29 Pupil Level Annual Schools Census - a mandatory return for all schools which includes information are collected Regions, Home Office and Commission for Racial Equality. Draft Guidance on Community Cohesion. (2002)


33 BME is defined as all ethnic groups other than White British as defined by the ONS census of population 2001

34 lower super output areas are geographical areas containing approximately 1,500 residents.

35 lower super output areas are a geographical area containing approximately 1,500 residents.

36 The police role in community cohesion: Using geographic indicators to identify vulnerable localities, Spencer Chainey, 3rd National Crime Mapping Conference www.jdi.ucl.ac.uk/crime_mapping/vulnerable_localities/index.php

37 Output Areas are the smallest geography at which data is generally released in this country. There are approximately 300 people in an output area, and around 2,000 Output Areas in Leicestershire.


40 Annual Population Survey, ONS June 2006

41 Claimant Count, NOMIS, March 2007

42 The BVPI User Satisfaction Survey 2006

43 Winkelmann and Winkelmann (1998)

44 Oliver and Mandelberg (2000)


46 The Leicestershire Social Capital Survey 2006. Quotes taken from the follow-up focus group sessions.


51 ABC 2007


54 Stronger and Prosperous Communities: The Local government White Paper, Communities and Local Government (2006)