



Llywodraeth Cynulliad Cymru
Welsh Assembly Government

Welsh Assembly Government

Profile of the housing and socio-economic circumstances of Black and Minority Ethnic people in Wales in 2001

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Dadansoddi ar gyfer Polisi

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Contents

Executive Summary	1
1 Introduction	5
2 The Black and Minority Ethnic population of Wales in 2001	11
3 The social and economic characteristics of BME people in Wales	33
4 The housing circumstances of BME people in Wales	49
5 The refugee and asylum seeker population of Wales	81
6 BME Elders	99
7 How the BME population in Wales is changing	111
8 Conclusion	127
Bibliography	131
Appendix 1: Definitions	137
Appendix 2: Detailed tables and maps of the distribution of BME groups within Wales	143
Appendix 3: Housing tenure variations and housing deprivation	162
Appendix 4: Regression results	172

Executive Summary

This research project was commissioned in order to help inform the National Assembly for Wales' Black and Minority Ethnic Housing Strategy and wider Assembly activities to promote race equality. The aim is to provide up-to-date information on the characteristics of the BME population, trends in the BME population and likely patterns of change in the future.

The BME population of Wales is small relative to other parts of the UK (Chapter 2). It is also longer established than that in many other parts of the UK, having its origins in the settlement of sailors in the major seaports of south Wales. Post-war New Commonwealth migration and more recent immigration related to education and work have increased the BME population substantially. The BME population is diverse and the long history of inter-ethnic unions has resulted in a unusually large share of the population being of mixed parentage or classified as of "other" ethnicity by the Census. The largest religious minority consists of Muslim people, but this group is highly diverse in terms of ethnic and national origins.

The BME population is largely concentrated into south-east Wales, with Cardiff having both the largest BME population and the greatest ethnic diversity. However, BME people live in most towns of Wales, in small numbers. The Chinese community is the most geographically widespread in its distribution, while the Pakistani and Black ethnic groups are the most geographically concentrated into south-east Wales. BME groups tend to be geographically segregated from white people, and are less likely to live in rural areas or traditional industrial areas.

The provision of housing services for BME people should not just recognise the needs of large established communities with their own community groups and methods of representation, but should also recognise the difficulties inherent in serving scattered and isolated populations living in rural and isolated areas with very limited stocks of social housing and with more limited opportunities for articulating their needs.

Students form a large component of the BME population, especially for the Chinese and Other ethnic groups, and in less populous areas containing higher education establishments, but nearly half live in Cardiff. Student households cannot be identified in the Census data on housing need by ethnic group, which should therefore be interpreted with caution in localities with large student populations.

Turning to the social and economic disadvantage experienced by people from ethnic and religious groups living in Wales as a whole (Chapter 3), the picture presented is not a simple one of white advantage and BME disadvantage. There is great diversity between BME groups, and some now experience unemployment rates similar to or below those of white people. However, some ethnic groups, notably people from Black and Black British ethnic groups, emerge as being disadvantaged on a number of dimensions.

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some now experience unemployment rates similar to or below those of white people. However, some ethnic groups, notably people from Black and Black British ethnic groups, emerge as being disadvantaged on a number of dimensions.

While a section of the BME population is certainly advantaged and employed in professional occupations or running their own businesses, others experience a high degree of social exclusion. This is manifested in the concentration of employment in a limited range of industrial sectors, low economic activity rates, high unemployment rates, high percentages of children in households with no earners or where the household head is in a low status occupation, and low rates of car ownership.

The pattern of housing need by BME group presented in Chapter 4 is quite complex. BME households experience a higher rate of housing deprivation than white households, irrespective of the social class of the household. Overall, households from BME groups are less likely than white households to live in owner-occupied accommodation and more likely to live in social and private rented accommodation. Within the religious minorities, Hindu people experience the best housing conditions, while Muslim and Sikh people experience the poorest housing conditions. BME households are also more likely than white households to be overcrowded, but are more likely to live in housing with a full range of amenities. To generalise, the most economically advantaged BME groups experience the best housing conditions and the least advantaged the poorest.

Chapter 5 describes the key demographic characteristics of asylum seekers (dispersed to Wales since the 1999 Immigration and Asylum Act and those who moved to Wales voluntarily on a subsistence-only basis) and

refugees. Their characteristics are deduced from unpublished Home Office data and limited secondary information. The asylum seeker and refugee population of Wales is very different to that of the rest of the UK. Wales has really only attracted Somali refugees, largely because of prior labour migration to Wales from that country. Asylum seekers are more concentrated into a limited number of cities and towns, the great majority were dispersed to Wales by the National Asylum Support Service, they are more likely to be single applicants than their English counterparts, and they are drawn from a more limited range of nationalities and linguistic groups. It is difficult to judge how permanent an addition to the population of Wales these population groups will be, and hence there is a need for a programme of research to create much better data on these populations and their dynamics.

The Welsh population as a whole is ageing and this phenomenon is also affecting the earliest established BME groups. There were just over 9 thousand BME people aged 50 and over in 2001, and 3.3 thousand aged 65 and over (Chapter 6). Asian people are the largest component, but there is great diversity in the older BME population. Most older BME people live in the major cities of Wales, but they can be found in all parts of Wales; the cities tend to have more youthful populations and coastal, rural and resort areas tend to have BME populations which are older on average.

Older Indian and Chinese people tend to experience better than average health. Pakistani and Bangladeshi people (and Muslim people in general) experience poorer health than average. South Asian women tend to experience poorer health than men. Older people from BME ethnic groups tend to stay in the labour market

longer than white people. Older Indian, Other-Asian, “Other” and Chinese people tend to be most successful in the labour market.

Chapter 7 reviews the evolution of the BME population and its likely future trajectory. Wales had one of the earliest established BME populations in the UK, which has remained largely concentrated in the south-east and has not increased as a percentage of the population to the same extent as BME populations in larger English cities. The BME population of Wales has grown very rapidly in the last two decades, but the numbers of people involved have been relatively small. In 2011, the BME population is likely to be about 50% larger than it was in 2001. Over the period 2001 to 2011, the elderly BME population will increase by around a third and the Asian population will experience faster ageing than the Black ethnic groups.

To conclude, the picture of BME housing needs revealed by analysis of 2001 Census data is one of considerable diversity. While averages for BME people reveal continuing disadvantage, some ethnic groups have achieved much greater economic success than others and have relatively advantaged positions in the labour and housing markets. However, the Black (especially Caribbean), mixed parentage, Pakistani and Bangladeshi ethnic groups and the Sikh and Muslim religious groups are revealed to be disadvantaged in economic terms and in housing circumstances. These ethnic groups tend to be concentrated into less advantaged areas and with high population growth, these ethnic groups are the most at need of support from the social rented sector.

1. Introduction

The National Assembly for Wales launched a 'Black, Minority Ethnic (BME) Housing Action Plan for Wales' in September 2002. The aim of the plan is:

“To ensure that clear directives and targets are set for social landlords and other providers of housing, to ensure that discrimination and disadvantage is eliminated across Black, Minority Ethnic communities living in Wales.”

All local authorities and Registered Social Landlords (RSLs) were required to have either devised their own BME Housing Strategy, or to be a partner to a regional and/or multi-agency BME Housing Strategy by April 2004. RSLs were also expected to have Race Equality Plans in place by this date.

The purpose of this report is to provide an up-to-date statistical profile of the housing and socio-economic circumstances of BME people in Wales. The report is largely based upon data from the 2001 Census of Population, but it also examines trends in the minority population of Wales since 1981, examines likely future trends in the minority population and draws upon other sources to identify the emergence of new ethnic groups. Other reports have recently been published containing 2001 Census data for Wales, notably 'A Statistical Focus on Ethnicity' (National Assembly for Wales, 2004) and 'Focus on Wales: Its People' (Office For National Statistics, 2004), which contain statistical tables derived from the report and provide brief commentaries on the data. This report examines the available information in greater detail, and also considers past and future trends in the BME population and the emergence of new BME

groups through the migration of asylum seekers and refugees to Wales.

1.1 The requirement to identify BME housing needs

The BME Housing Action Plan for Wales was created as part of the National Assembly's mission to promote equality of opportunity and achieve social inclusion for all people in Wales. It states that *“[local authorities] and [Registered Social Landlords] should work together, and with other stakeholders such as community organisations, to establish the profile and meet the needs of BME communities at the local level”*. The needs of BME individuals and families should be recognised and addressed in the development and adaptation of accommodation. Social landlords are required to take account of BME needs in planning new housing. These requirements are irrespective of the magnitude of the local BME population, though provision should reflect the local situation and be flexible enough to respond to the changing housing needs of BME communities.

Though the 1998 Welsh House Condition Survey contains information on the characteristics of the housing stock of Wales, the only comprehensive source of information on the housing circumstances of people from minority ethnic groups is the Census of Population. Other survey data sets cannot provide detailed local data on the characteristics of the housing stock or population, because of limitations on sample size. The information yielded by sample surveys of small population sub-groups is limited because: first, the chance of an individual or household from a numerically small sub-group of the population being covered by the survey

is small; secondly the degree of statistical uncertainty associated with an estimate of a population generated from a small sample is extremely large.

1.2 Identifying BME Housing Needs

There have been a proliferation of local studies in England and a smaller number in Scotland which seek to identify the distinctive needs for housing provision for people from BME groups as a whole and individual minority ethnic groups. Few local BME housing need studies have been undertaken in Wales, but De Montfort University has recently completed a study identifying the housing needs of BME groups and their attitudes towards social housing across the country as a whole, with a number of local case studies involving focus groups (Tomlins, 2003).

The great majority of people from BME groups live in England and therefore most of the knowledge of their housing circumstances is based on studies conducted in England. To place the findings reported later in this report in context, the conclusions of some recent research in England will be briefly reviewed.

These reveal that BME households in general, but particularly those from the Black African, Bangladeshi and Pakistani communities, experience greater levels of economic disadvantage and deprivation than the majority white population, and tend to be concentrated in rundown inner-city areas. However, there is great diversity of need between (and within) individual BME groups and it is therefore not appropriate to deal with their needs in the aggregate.

Turning first to the demographic and family characteristics of BME communities, a number of recent local housing need studies conducted for the Housing Corporation (reviewed by Mathias,

2001) found that the BME population was increasing in all areas, leading to the formation of significant number of new households over the medium term. While the most common household type is a conventional nuclear family, numbers of children per household, and hence family sizes, are larger than average for BME (especially South Asian) ethnic groups. Joint and extended family forms are more common than for the white majority, particularly amongst the Pakistani and Bangladeshi communities. These were often very large, and even where they occupied relatively large properties were subject to overcrowding. However, family structures are changing, with relatively fewer extended families; the weakening of extended families is occurring fastest in Indian communities. A large percentage of older people from the Chinese ethnic group live with their families, but this is falling over time. BME communities are more youthful on average than the white majority, but the migrant generation is now approaching or reaching retirement age, and hence the number of pensioner households is increasing rapidly.

The housing tenures of BME groups differ greatly from the white majority, and are strongly influenced by their patterns of migration and settlement (Bacon, et al., 1998). Black Caribbean, Black African and Bangladeshi households are more likely to live in social housing, while Indian and Pakistani households are more likely than those from any other ethnic group to own their own homes. However, it is important to recognise that for these groups home-ownership is not necessarily an indicator of prosperity, since they often purchased cheap inner city properties in a poor condition (one factor in this being the difficulty they faced in obtaining social housing) and many are unable to properly

maintain their property due to their low incomes. Chinese households are less likely than average to live in social rented housing and more likely to live in private rented housing. This is often a consequence of low levels of ability in English (and low levels of literacy, particularly among older people) and hence lack of awareness, together with a reluctance to complain or ask for help. These factors also result in low rates of take-up of social services and welfare benefits. Homelessness is an increasing problem for people from BME groups.

Severe housing deprivation continues to affect a significant number of BME households. Overcrowding is most severe for the Bangladeshi, Pakistani, Indian, Black-African and Chinese ethnic groups. Overcrowding has a particularly severe affect on young people, encouraging them to want to live independently in their own accommodation. The poor state of repair of some properties exacerbates overcrowding, as some rooms become uninhabitable. Chinese people disproportionately live in poorer quality, private rented, often tied accommodation (Jones, 1998).

The research studies commissioned by the Housing Corporation in England conclude that to address the needs of households from BME groups, providers of social housing (housing associations and local authorities) should aim to make a range of housing available to BME households, including both large dwellings capable of accommodating extended families and families with larger than average numbers of dependent children and smaller dwellings for younger people who wish to form independent households. They suggest that extended families may be better served by more flexible approaches, such as re-housing younger families into

smaller dwellings near each other and older relatives, rather than providing large shared dwellings. Other authors argue that there is a need to balance the desire for BME communities to concentrate geographically to provide mutual community support and avoid the racism encountered by isolated households living in predominantly white areas with the need to provide appropriate housing in a wider range of localities in order to avoid limiting their choice of location to areas of BME concentration (e.g. Ratcliffe, 2001). The design of housing should take into account the cultural needs and religious practices of BME groups, such as a place for the location of a shrine or provision for ritual washing, and should also seek to promote security (Penoyre & Prasad Architects et al., 1998)

1.3 BME Housing needs in Wales

There are relatively few studies of BME housing need in Wales. The National Assembly for Wales published a recent report which analysed the social and economic needs of BME communities in Wales and presented quantitative evidence on their housing circumstances, (largely) based on data from the 1991 Census of Population (National Assembly for Wales, 2003). This study highlighted the residential concentration of BME groups in the most deprived areas, with low incomes and poor quality housing. It confirmed the findings of other studies in terms of the high rates of home ownership among South Asian ethnic groups, and the greater representation of Black ethnic groups in social housing. It confirmed the importance of overcrowding as a problem for Bangladeshis and the poor quality of some owner-occupied accommodation. Much recent work has concentrated on the question of the way in which social

housing providers address the needs of BME people, and the cultural barriers to accessing services faced by BME people. For example, Nyoni (2000) demonstrated the value that a BME-led housing organisation in Wales would have, because of a perceived failure of existing social housing providers to meet the specific housing needs of some BME communities. This review highlighted the high degree of detachment of BME communities from mainstream housing services and their lack of knowledge of the services available.

Tomlins (2003) reports the findings of a qualitative research project which investigated the housing needs of BME communities across Wales. The study covered a wide range of communities, including refugee and traveller groups, collecting opinions in 35 focus groups held in Cardiff, Swansea, Newport and Wrexham. It highlighted the diversity of housing needs and views about housing, and found that community identity (identified in ethnic terms) was very important for BME groups. Extended families were important, but there was a perception that these were breaking down, and younger people were less likely than older people to want to continue to live in the same dwelling with members of an extended family. There was a common view that it was difficult to access suitable housing, with limited choice and inappropriate size and design of dwellings, with housing also being offered in unsuitable areas. Their preference was often for housing in inner city areas, which offered proximity to friends and relatives, language support and access to places of worship, shops and other amenities.

In terms of the size and design of housing, demands were expressed for larger kitchens, extra toilets (with 'self-hygiene' units), larger bathrooms (with bath and

shower), a hose to assist with ablutions related to worship, two separate downstairs rooms, adequate parking and a large private back garden. People born in Wales and young people had the best awareness of housing options. There was greater awareness of local authority than housing association accommodation and African Caribbean people were most familiar with application procedures. There was general agreement that there was not enough advice available to BME communities, and lack of language ability exacerbated difficulties in accessing services.

Turning to housing conditions, the consensus was that housing association property was of higher quality than local authority accommodation, which tended to be poorly maintained. A further complaint was lack of choice in social housing, especially with regard to location. African Caribbean people and Bangladeshi and Pakistani men thought that the quality of housing is generally good. Private rented accommodation was perceived to be expensive and difficult to access except for single people in work.

Some local authorities and groups of local authorities in Wales are now producing studies of BME housing need and plans for addressing these needs (e.g. North Wales Local Authorities, 2004; Rhondda, Cynon, Taf, 2004). Such local studies highlight the diversity of BME experience within Wales, for example the finding that BME people in Bangor are geographically concentrated, but in relatively prosperous parts of the town.

1.4 Structure of this report

In the chapters which follow, the ethnic composition of the population of Wales and its geographical distribution will first be discussed, to provide a context for the chapters which review the social and

economic circumstances of BME people living in Wales. The housing circumstances of BME people are then analysed, followed by a review of the situation of asylum seekers and refugees. The final chapter analyses trends in the BME population of Wales and presents projections of the BME population forward.

Throughout this report, the term *Black and Minority Ethnic* (abbreviated to BME) is used, because this is the name favoured by the Commission for Racial Equality to describe minority groups recognised as falling under the Race Relations Act 1976.

2. The Black and Minority Ethnic population of Wales in 2001

The BME population of Wales is relatively small, but in common with the rest of the UK, it is growing rapidly. The BME population is longer established in Wales than in some other parts of the UK and is highly diverse, comprising both ethnic groups which are long established and recent immigrants. This chapter provides the context for the remainder of the report, by describing the ethnic composition of the population of Wales and the geographical distribution of BME people in some detail. The source of the information is the 2001 Census of Population. Chapter 7 reviews the evolution of the BME population.

2.1 The Census ethnic group question

The 1991 Census of Population was the first to ask the British population about their ethnic origins. The ethnicity question used a classification which was pragmatic rather than being based on a definitive classification of ethnic groups (Sillitoe, 1992) and tended to mix groups based on skin colour, language and ultimate geographical origin. The pre-Census testing process found that the question worked well, but in practice some ethnic groups were poorly captured by the question; in particular Irish people, people who regarded themselves as “Black British” and people of mixed parentage (with parents from different ethnic groups).

The classification of ethnic groups adopted by the 2001 Census addressed these criticisms by using a two-stage question, which invited the person answering the question to first classify themselves as “white”, “Asian” “Black” “Chinese or

other” or of “mixed parentage”. Within the white question, an option for “Irish” was added. The wording of the “Asian” and “Black” questions included Black British and Asian British. Each question allowed the respondent to write in full details of their ethnicity. A coding scheme was developed by the Office for National Statistics which enabled these “write-in” answers to be coded back to the main categories used by the Census. However, this detail was not discarded and has been made available via a ‘commissioned table’ for government office regions in England and for Wales and England as a whole (see Table A2.1). The 2001 Census ethnic group classification has been used as the basis for official ethnic data collection exercises, though the Neighbourhood Statistics initiative also enables the collection of more detailed information where this is relevant (e.g. in areas of locally significant BME populations).

The Census question was slightly different in Scotland and Northern Ireland to that used in England and Wales. The General Register Office for Scotland introduced a “Scottish” category to the “white” category (and added “Scottish” to the description of minority ethnic groups). This led to a campaign for the addition of a “Welsh” option to the “white” question for Wales. The Office for National Statistics refused to change the Census form, but agreed to process answers in which “Welsh” was written in. The ethnic group tables for Wales therefore include an additional column presenting the characteristics of people who wrote in “Welsh”, but this

question greatly underestimates the number of people who regard themselves as Welsh. The 2001 Census included for the first time a (voluntary) question on religion. Most of the categories in this question are Asian and middle eastern religions. The majority of the cross-tabulations in the Census output produced on the basis of ethnic group are repeated for religion. An important aim of the religion question was to break down the Indian population into religious groups, since this is a more significant determinant of their culture and identity. One table from the Census (Standard Table 104) cross-classifies people by ethnic group and religion, enabling a more sophisticated enumeration of ethnic and cultural groups resident in Wales.

2.2 The ethnic and religious composition of Wales compared with the UK

The population of Wales in 2001 was 2.9 million, representing just under 5% of the population of the UK (Table 2.1). Wales contained only 1.3% of the Black and Minority Ethnic (BME) population of the UK. BME groups formed 2.2% of the population of Wales, compared with 7.9% of the population of the UK as a whole.

In numerical terms, Asian people account for the largest share of the BME population, representing more than 25 thousand people, followed by people of mixed parentage, people from the Chinese and Other grouping and then Black people

Table 2.1: The ethnic composition of Wales in 2001

	Wales			UK	
	Persons	Percent of Wales population	Percent of UK population	Persons	Percent of UK
White	2,841,507	97.9	5.2	53,153,898	92.1
<i>Mixed percentage</i>	17,661	0.6	2.6	677,117	1.2
White/Black-Caribbean	5,996	0.2	-	-	-
White/Black-African	2,414	0.1	-	-	-
White/Asian	4,999	0.2	-	-	-
White/Other	4,251	0.1	-	-	-
<i>Asian or Asian British</i>	25,448	0.9	1.1	2,331,423	4.0
Indian	8,259	0.3	0.8	1,053,411	1.8
Pakistani	8,287	0.3	1.1	747,285	1.3
Bangladeshi	5,434	0.2	1.9	283,063	0.5
Other Asian	3,464	0.1	1.4	247,664	0.4
<i>Black or Black British</i>	7,069	0.2	0.6	1,148,738	2.0
Black Caribbean	2,597	0.1	0.5	565,876	1.0
Black African	3,727	0.1	0.8	485,277	0.8
Black Other	746	0.0	0.8	97,585	0.2
<i>Chinese or Other ethnic group</i>	11,402	0.4	2.4	478,018	0.8
Chinese	6,266	0.2	2.5	247,403	0.4
Other	5,135	0.2	2.2	230,615	0.4
<i>Black and Minority Ethnic (BME)</i>	61,576	2.1	1.3	4,635,296	7.9
All ethnic groups	2,903,083	100.0	4.9	5,878,919	100.0

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Key Statistics Table 6)

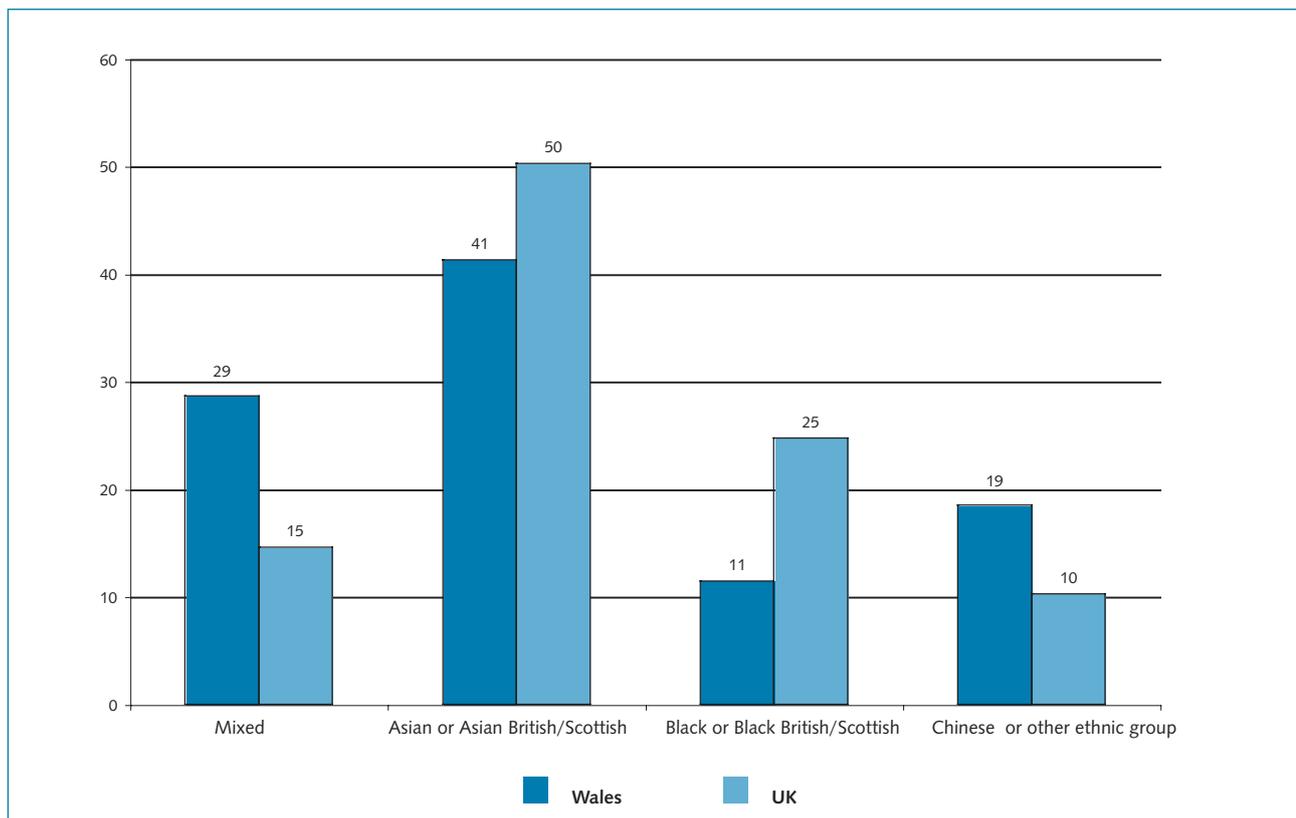
(just over 7 thousand people). In terms of individual minority groups, the Indian and Pakistani ethnic groups were largest, each comprising 8.3 thousand people, but many individual BME groups have populations of similar size, of between 5 to 7 thousand people. The BME population is therefore culturally diverse, with no dominant minority group.

The composition of the BME population in Wales differs greatly from that of the rest of the United Kingdom (see Figure 2.1). Asian and Asian British people accounted for only 41% of the BME population of Wales in 2001, but half the UK BME population, while Black and Black British people formed only 11% of the Welsh BME population, compared with 25% of the UK BME population. On the other hand, people of mixed parentage and from Chinese and Other ethnic groups formed a much larger percentage of the BME population in Wales than in the UK as a whole. The

share of the BME population accounted for by those with parents from different ethnic groups was nearly twice as high in Wales (29% compared to 15% for the UK), and the Chinese and Other share was also nearly double the corresponding percentage for the UK.

The large percentage of the population of mixed parentage reflects the relatively long history of the BME population of Wales, with the longest-established communities being those located in the port cities of South Wales. The BME population has its origins in the late 19th and early 20th century migration of people of African, Arab and Somali origin, and has been magnified through intermarriage with people from the white and other BME groups. The Chinese ethnic group also has a larger share of the BME population in Wales than the UK as a whole, with 2.5% of all Chinese people living in Wales.

Figure 2.1: Breakdown of BME population in Wales compared with the UK



Source: 2001 Census of Population (Key Statistics Table 6)

Table 2.2 compares the religious breakdown of the Welsh population with that of Great Britain as a whole. In Wales, slightly higher percentages than average either professed to have no religion or did not answer the religion question. However, of those who reported a religion, the

percentage who were Christian was somewhat higher than in Great Britain as a whole. The largest religious minority in Wales is the Muslim community, numbering 21.7 thousand and representing 0.7% of the population.

Table 2.2: The religious composition of Wales and Great Britain compared

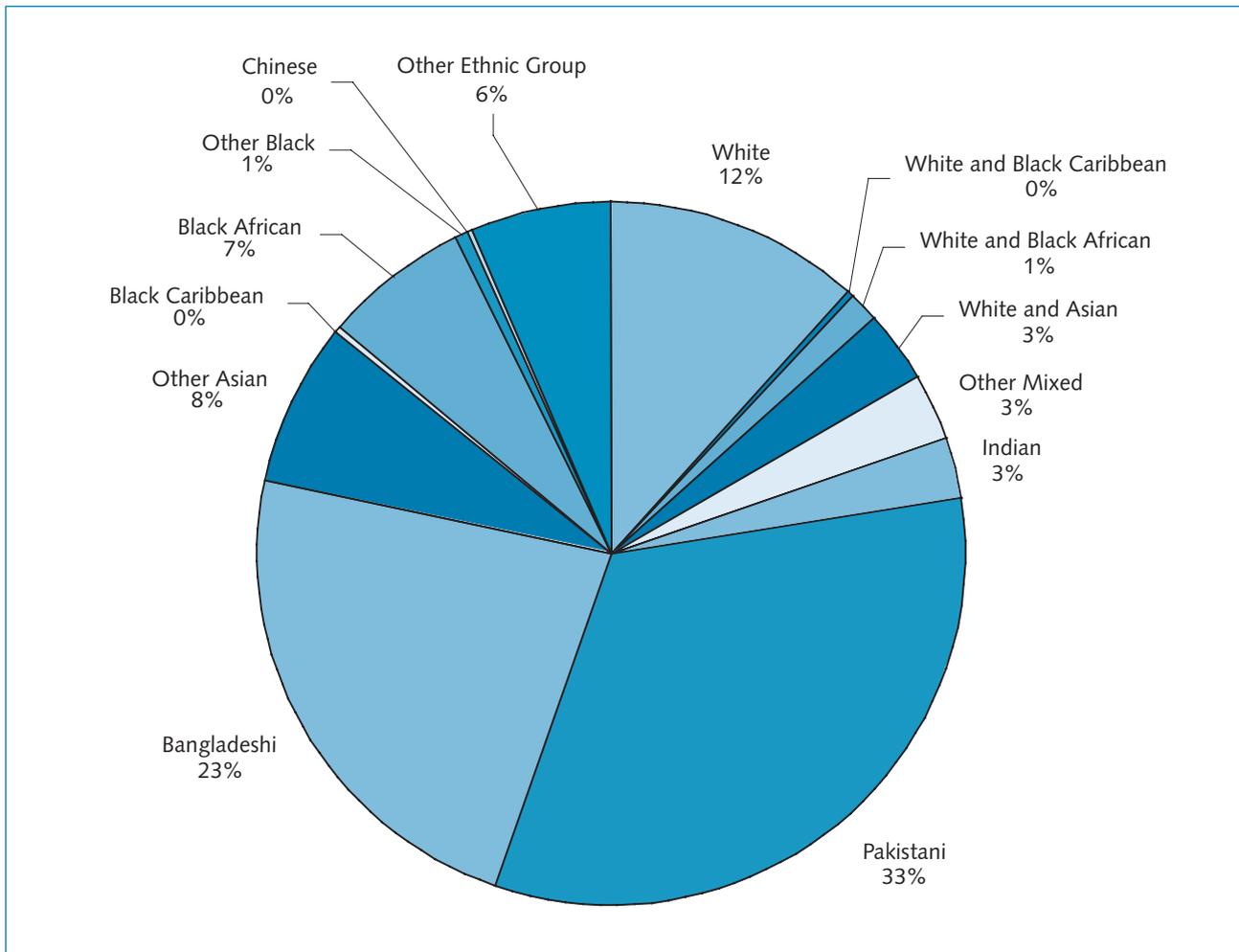
	Wales			Great Britain		
	Persons	Percent of population	Percent with religion	Persons	Percent of population	Percent with religion
Population	2,903,083	100.0		57,103,927	100.0	
Christian	2,087,242	71.9	97.9	40,633,031	71.2	93.0
Buddhist	5,407	0.2	0.3	151,283	0.3	0.3
Hindu	5,439	0.2	0.3	557,985	1.0	1.3
Jewish	2,255	0.1	0.1	266,375	0.5	0.6
Muslim	21,739	0.7	1.0	1,589,183	2.8	3.6
Sikh	2,012	0.1	0.1	335,930	0.6	0.8
Any other religion	6,911	0.2	0.3	177,694	0.3	0.4
<i>All stating a religion</i>	<i>2,131,005</i>	<i>73.4</i>	<i>100.0</i>	<i>43,711,481</i>	<i>76.5</i>	<i>100.0</i>
No religion	537,935	18.5		9,103,727	15.9	
Religion not stated	234,143	8.1		4,288,719	7.5	

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Key Statistics Table 7)

About a third of the BME population was therefore Muslim (though some people in white ethnic groups are Muslim). The brief review of the housing needs literature presented in Chapter 1 highlighted the fact that Muslim people have distinct needs derived from their religious practices which

social housing providers are being pressed to meet. Islam is not specific to a particular region of the world or broad ethnic grouping, and hence Muslim people will be included within the ethnic group averages presented.

Figure 2.2: Ethnic composition of the Muuslim religious group



Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Table 104)

Figure 2.2 demonstrates the ethnic diversity of people whose religion is Muslim. The largest component of the Muslim population was people of Pakistani ethnic origin, who formed a third of the total, but together with Bangladeshis, they only formed just over half the total. Other-Asians (probably mainly Malaysians and

Indonesians) accounted for 8%, (Black-Africans (mainly Somalis) 7% and “other” ethnic groups (probably including Arab people) 6% of the total. Nearly a fifth were from the white and mixed parentage ethnic groups, demonstrating the adoption of this religion through inter-marriage.

Table 2.3: Religious breakdown of each ethnic group (percentage of answers to religion question)

	Population	Christian	Buddhist	Hindu	Jewish	Muslim	Sikh	Any other religion	No religion
ALL PEOPLE	2,903,083	78.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.8	0.1	0.3	20.2
<i>White</i>	<i>2,841,504</i>	<i>79.2</i>	<i>0.1</i>	<i>0.0</i>	<i>0.1</i>	<i>0.1</i>	<i>0.0</i>	<i>0.3</i>	<i>20.2</i>
British	2,786,605	79.2	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.2	20.3
Irish	17,688	90.0	0.3	-	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.4	9.1
Other White	37,211	74.8	0.4	0.1	0.6	2.9	0.1	0.7	20.3
Black and Minority Ethnic	61,579	31.1	3.6	9.2	0.2	34.2	3.1	0.7	17.9
<i>Mixed parentage</i>	<i>17,661</i>	<i>57.2</i>	<i>0.7</i>	<i>0.5</i>	<i>0.4</i>	<i>11.3</i>	<i>0.3</i>	<i>0.8</i>	<i>28.7</i>
White and Black Caribbean	5,996	67.1	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.9	0.1	0.5	31.0
White and Black African	2,413	60.6	0.3	-	0.1	14.6	0.1	0.2	24.1
White and Asian	5,001	49.3	0.9	1.3	0.1	16.4	0.6	0.8	30.5
Other Mixed	4,251	50.9	1.4	0.4	1.5	18.1	0.1	1.6	26.0
<i>Asian or Asian British</i>	<i>25,450</i>	<i>7.2</i>	<i>1.0</i>	<i>21.1</i>	<i>0.1</i>	<i>60.2</i>	<i>7.1</i>	<i>0.6</i>	<i>2.8</i>
Indian	8,262	9.9	0.1	57.5	0.0	7.2	20.2	1.3	3.7
Pakistani	8,287	4.8	0.1	0.1	0.1	92.8	0.0	0.1	2.0
Bangladeshi	5,437	1.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	97.3	-	0.1	1.1
Other Asian	3,464	15.7	6.6	16.1	0.2	51.6	3.5	1.2	5.1
<i>Black or Black British</i>	<i>7,067</i>	<i>61.2</i>	<i>0.2</i>	<i>0.4</i>	<i>0.2</i>	<i>26.0</i>	<i>-</i>	<i>0.8</i>	<i>11.1</i>
Black Caribbean	2,597	79.1	0.2	0.6	0.2	1.4	-	1.0	17.6
Black African	3,724	49.6	0.1	0.4	-	43.9	-	0.6	5.5
Other Black	746	58.5	0.5	0.5	0.9	20.3	-	1.4	17.9
<i>Chinese or Other Ethnic Group</i>	<i>11,401</i>	<i>28.5</i>	<i>16.2</i>	<i>0.1</i>	<i>0.1</i>	<i>13.7</i>	<i>0.1</i>	<i>0.5</i>	<i>40.8</i>
Chinese	6,266	21.8	16.2	0.1	-	0.3	0.1	0.5	61.0
Other Ethnic Group	5,135	36.4	16.1	0.2	0.2	29.7	0.1	0.5	16.8

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Table 104)

Table 2.3 details the religious breakdown of each ethnic group, presenting the percentage of persons who answered the religion question for each ethnic group. A fifth of white people, and a slightly smaller percentage of BME people had no religion. The largest religious minority for

both white and BME people are Muslims, who just outnumber Christians among the BME population. Nearly all Pakistani and Bangladeshi people were Muslim, who form three-fifths of all South Asians. Muslims were also particularly prominent among people of mixed parentage (with

the exception of those with one Black-Caribbean parent), Other Asians, Black-Africans (nearly half of whom are Muslim) and people from Other ethnic groups. More than half of all Indians in Wales are Hindus, and a fifth Sikh.

The religion question appears to have been poor at representing the religious beliefs of Chinese people, three-fifths of whom reported their religion as “other” and only 16.2% of whom were Buddhists. The cross-tabulation of ethnicity against religion highlights the diversity of the Other-Asian and Other ethnic groups.

2.3 Ethnicity and country of origin

The BME population of Wales is small in comparison with the rest of the UK, but is growing rapidly, being around half as large again in 2001 than at the time of the 1991 Census (see Chapter 7). While birth rates are relatively high in the youthful BME population, most of this growth has resulted from migration to Wales. During the 1990s, international migration to the UK reached levels not seen before, and this will have contributed to the growth of the BME population in Wales. Overall, only 3.2% of the population of Wales and 2.2% of white people had been born outside the UK in 2001 (Table 2.4).

Table 2.4: Percentage of persons from broad ethnic groups and of Muslim religion born in regions of the world, 2001

	All ethnic group	White	BME	Mixed	Asian	Black	Chinese & other	Muslim
Population	2,903,083	2,841,514	61569.0	17,670	25,447	7,055	11,397	21,743
UK	96.8	97.8	53.2	86.2	44.9	46.1	25.1	46.8
Ireland	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other Europe	1.0	1.0	0.7	1.6	0.3	0.5	0.4	2.3
North Africa	0.1	0.0	1.3	1.3	0.1	3.5	2.5	3.7
Africa south of Sahara	0.3	0.2	6.3	2.1	5.0	31.1	0.4	5.6
Middle East	0.2	0.1	3.6	2.0	4.7	0.9	5.3	9.2
Far East	0.3	0.1	12.8	2.4	1.1	0.1	62.9	2.1
South Asia	0.4	0.1	18.1	1.1	42.8	0.1	0.7	29.1
Oceania	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.8	0.0
The Americas & elsewhere	0.2	0.2	1.4	1.7	0.9	2.1	1.8	0.8
Caribbean	0.1	0.0	2.1	0.9	0.1	15.4	0.1	0.1

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Tables 102 and 150)

However, just over half the BME population was born in Wales, with the main overseas regions of origin being South Asia and the Far East. Only 13.8% of people with mixed parentage were born outside the UK, the main countries of origin being the Far East, Africa south of the Sahara and Middle

East. The percentages of Asian people born in the UK and South Asia are nearly equal, with 5% born in Africa (mainly east Africa). Nearly half the Black population was UK-born, but Africa accounts for most of the remainder, with only 15.4% born in the Caribbean. Only a quarter of Chinese

and Other people were born in the UK, with nearly two-thirds having been born in the Far East. Nearly half of the Muslim population of Wales was born in the UK, but nearly a third were born in South Asia (more or less equally distributed between Pakistan and Bangladesh). The Middle East and Africa south of the Sahara (Somalia) are the other major regions of origin.

Though Wales has a relatively small BME population, it is highly diverse and this is demonstrated by examining the “write-in” answers given to the 2001 Census. Table 2.5 presents the number of people who wrote in a given answer, classified by broad BME group. In the mixed parentage group, a large number of people simply gave a general answer of “mixed”. The mixed parentage categories did not enable people of mixed Chinese parentage to tick a box, and 410 people identified themselves as

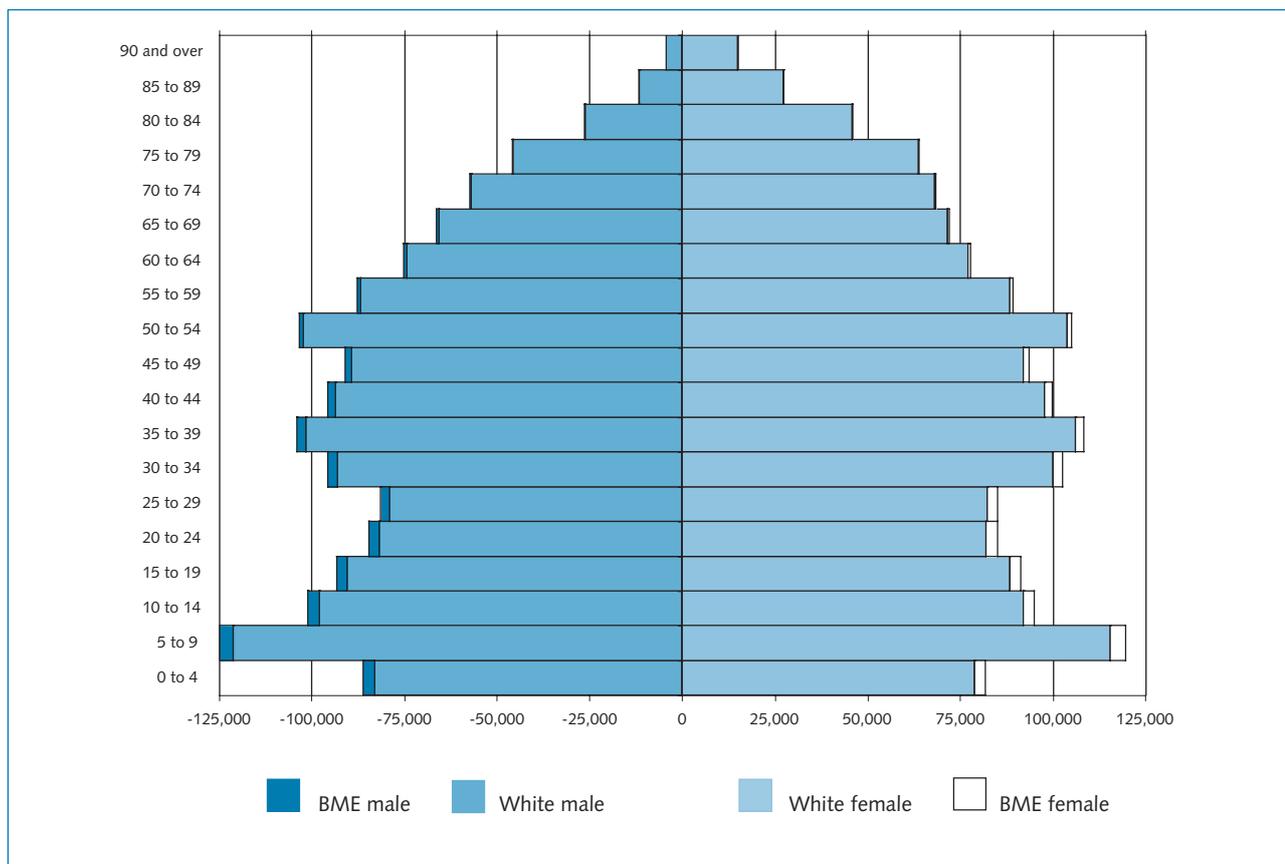
mixed Chinese and white. In the Asian category, there were 534 Sri Lankan people. Turning to the Black category, only a small fraction of the Somali community (141, compared with 825 born in Somalia) wrote in their ethnic origin, and the write-in answers do not identify the membership of the “Other Black” category more precisely. The Chinese and Other category is revealed as quite diverse, with a number of ethnic groups having numbers of members significant in the Welsh context. There were just under 2000 Arabs, and a further 1000 people of other Middle Eastern origin. The Far Eastern population included 926 Japanese, 821 Filipino and 513 Malaysian people. Many of these people will have migrated to Wales as students, workers in the health service or in Far Eastern companies investing in Wales and will have very different housing needs from more disadvantaged BME groups.

Table 2.5: BME persons who gave "write-in" answers to the ethnic group question.

Mixed Percentage		Asian or Asian British		Black or Black British		Chinese or other ethnic groups	
Written in	No:	Written in	No:	Written in	No:	Written in	No:
Black and Asian	37	Punjabi	18	Somali	141	Vietnamese	184
Black and Chinese	18	Kashmiri	19	Nigerian	11	Japanese	926
Black and White	240	East African	69	Black British	282	Filipino	821
Chinese and White	410	Asian	534	Mixed Black	91	Malaysian	513
Asian and Chinese	37	Sri Lankan	534	Other Black;	222	Arab	1,946
Other Mixed;	2,614	Tamil	38	Black		North African	423
Mixed		Sinhalese	19	Unspecified		Middle Eastern	974
Unspecified		Caribbean	33			(excluding Israeli; Iranian and 'Arab')	
		Asian				Israeli	45
		British Asian	262			Iranian	479
		Mixed Asian	54			Kurdish	115
		Other	816			Moroccan	51
		Asian; Asian				Latin American	181
		Unspecified				South and Central American	389
						Multi-ethnic Islands	297
						Any Other Group	

Source: 2001 Census of Population Commissioned Table M221

Figure 2.3: Age and sex structure of the white and BME population of Wales compared, 2001



Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Table 101)

2.4 Demographic structure of the BME population

Figure 2.3 presents a population pyramid for the total population of Wales in 2001, with the white and BME population distinguished for each age group (population pyramids for each BME group are presented in Appendix 2.1; Figures A2.1 to A2.16). The population structure of Wales was fairly typical of a mature European population, which is fairly

stable. The sizes of each 5-year age group are fairly equal for people aged under 55, with the numbers of older people declining with increasing age. The diagram reveals that numbers of births were unusually high in the early 1990s (because of the large number of 5 to 9 year olds), but had fallen in the second half of the 1990s. The share of the population from BME ethnic groups declines with increasing age.

Table 2.6: Mean age in years and sex ratio for ethnic and religious groups, Wales 2001

	Persons	Male	Female	Males per 1000 females
All ethnic groups	39.5	38.1	40.8	936
<i>White</i>	39.8	38.4	41.1	935
White: British	39.7	38.3	41.0	935
White: Irish	49.7	48.9	50.4	921
White Other: White	39.7	39.5	40.0	918
BME	28.1	28.2	27.9	1,018
<i>Mixed parentage</i>	23.0	22.6	23.3	979
White and Black Caribbean	22.2	21.8	22.5	927
White and Black African	24.1	24.5	23.8	953
White and Asian	21.5	21.0	22.0	1,026
Other Mixed	25.2	24.7	25.6	1,015
<i>Asian or Asian British</i>	28.7	29.1	28.1	1,078
Indian	31.6	32.3	30.9	1,048
Pakistani	27.7	27.7	27.8	1,035
Bangladeshi	23.4	24.0	22.8	1,049
Other Asian	32.1	32.8	31.2	1,332
<i>Black or Black British</i>	34.6	35.0	34.0	1,129
Black Caribbean	40.9	41.8	39.8	1,220
Black African	30.8	30.8	30.6	1,096
Other Black	31.6	30.9	32.2	1,000
<i>Chinese or Other Ethnic Group</i>	30.7	30.3	31.1	894
Chinese	31.1	30.7	31.5	991
Other Ethnic Group	30.2	29.9	30.5	788
Religion				
Christian	42.6	40.9	44.1	861
Buddhist	39.4	39.4	39.4	1,069
Hindu	32.5	33.3	31.6	1,120
Jewish	47.6	46.5	48.6	1,014
Muslim	26.1	27.0	25.1	1,129
Sikh	29.0	29.6	28.4	1,026
Any other religion	40.6	40.2	41.0	795
No religion	29.8	31.2	28.1	1,241

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Tables 101 and 149)

Table 2.6 reveals that the average person from a BME group was more than 10 years younger than the corresponding white person in 2001. The average age of females

was higher than that of males in the white ethnic groups, as a result of longer female life expectancy. However, there was greater equality in average ages between BME

ethnic groups. Overall, people of mixed parentage were the most youthful, with Black and Black British people the oldest on average. The oldest white group was the Irish, while the oldest BME group was the Black-Caribbeans, followed by Other

Asian, Indian and Chinese people. Jewish people are oldest on average, followed by Christians and Buddhists. The youngest religious groups were the Muslim and Sikh (the only religious groups with average ages under 30).

Table 2.7: Age structure of each ethnic and religious group (percentages)

	Population	Age 0-4	Aged 5-15	Aged 16-24	Aged 25-44	Aged 45-59/64	Aged 60/65-74	Aged 75+
Total population	2,903,083	5.8	14.4	10.9	26.6	22.2	11.8	8.3
<i>White</i>	2,841,505	5.7	14.3	10.8	26.5	22.4	11.9	8.4
White: British	2,786,605	5.7	14.4	10.7	26.5	22.4	11.9	8.4
White: Irish	17,689	1.6	4.4	9.2	23.1	29.5	20.4	11.8
White Other: White	37,211	4.4	9.7	14.8	31.5	20.5	11.4	7.7
BME	61,578	10.1	21.7	17.1	31.0	13.6	4.6	1.9
<i>Mixed parentage</i>	17,660	15.0	31.5	16.4	22.5	9.2	3.3	2.0
White & Black Caribbean	5,996	14.9	34.6	15.8	21.7	7.3	3.5	2.3
White and Black African	2,414	15.9	26.9	15.1	25.6	11.4	3.7	1.3
White and Asian	4,999	16.2	32.7	17.2	22.1	7.7	2.7	1.6
Other Mixed	4,251	13.4	28.5	17.3	22.3	12.4	3.6	2.4
<i>Asian or Asian British</i>	25,447	9.6	19.5	17.7	32.0	15.1	4.6	1.5
Indian	8,261	6.4	14.5	18.7	35.3	18.8	5.0	1.2
Pakistani	8,287	11.0	21.6	17.6	29.3	13.1	5.5	1.8
Bangladeshi	5,436	13.5	25.8	19.0	29.6	8.9	2.4	0.9
Other Asian	3,463	7.7	16.4	13.5	34.5	21.0	5.0	1.9
<i>Black or Black British</i>	7,070	6.5	14.8	14.4	35.5	15.9	8.8	4.3
Black Caribbean	2,597	2.7	8.9	9.1	40.6	20.7	13.4	4.5
Black African	3,727	8.9	18.1	17.6	32.2	12.8	6.5	3.9
Other Black	746	7.5	18.4	16.8	34.2	14.3	3.9	5.0
<i>Chinese or Other Ethnic Group</i>	11,401	5.8	15.6	18.4	39.3	15.8	3.8	1.3
Chinese	6,266	5.7	15.4	21.4	34.2	17.1	4.8	1.5
Other Ethnic Group	5,135	5.9	15.9	14.7	45.5	14.2	2.6	1.2
Religion								
Christian	2,087,242	4.3	13.4	9.4	24.4	24.5	14.1	10.0
Buddhist	5,407	2.2	7.1	11.9	38.9	31.1	6.2	2.6
Hindu	5,433	6.2	13.0	17.6	36.0	21.3	4.7	1.2
Jewish	2,256	3.5	8.1	8.8	21.7	28.3	15.2	14.4
Muslim	21,739	11.6	23.0	17.4	31.2	12.2	3.6	1.0
Sikh	2,014	7.1	21.8	18.9	30.7	15.5	3.7	2.3
Any other religion	6,909	2.0	5.8	12.5	38.2	28.8	9.0	3.7
No religion	537,935	9.1	16.7	16.5	36.3	15.6	3.9	2.0

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Tables 101 and 149)

In contrast to the white population, males just outnumbered females in the BME ethnic groups, but females formed the majority of the mixed parentage and Chinese and Other ethnic groups. In the Other Asian ethnic group, there were about 30% more males than females. In the remaining ethnic groups, the excess of males over females was greatest in the Black-Caribbean and Black-African ethnic groups. Females formed a substantial majority of Christians, but there were 10% more males than females in the Hindu, Muslim and Sikh religious groups.

The percentage of the population in key age groups is presented in Table 2.7. The youthful nature of the BME population is emphasised by the comparison with white people, more than a fifth of whom were of pensionable age, compared with 6.5% of BME people. The percentage in each age group was higher in the BME population than the white population up to the age of 45, when the pattern is reversed.

A tenth of BME people were of pre-school age in 2001, with this percentage highest for those of mixed parentage.

More than a sixth of Bangladeshi and 11.6% of Muslim people were aged under 5 in 2001. A further fifth of BME people were of compulsory school age and over a sixth were young adults. Nearly a third of those of mixed parentage, a quarter of Bangladeshi, a fifth of Pakistani people and over a fifth of Muslim and Sikh people were aged 5 to 15. Nearly a third of BME people were of prime economically active (25 to 44 years) age, with more than two-fifths of Black-Caribbean people and people from "other" ethnic groups falling within this age range.

At the older end of the age range, while the overall percentage of BME people aged from 45 to retirement age was lower than for white people, this percentage was similar to the white average for Pakistani, Other Asian and Black Caribbean people. Nearly a fifth of Black-Caribbean people were of retirement age, with 4.5% aged 75 or over. The White-Irish ethnic group and Jewish religious group are also notable for having relatively high percentages of people of pensionable age and of those aged 75 and over.

Table 2.8: Geographical distribution of the BME population of Wales

Unitary authority	Share of entire population	Share of BME population	Cumulative share of BME population	Percent of resident population from BME groups	Diversity index
WALES	100.0	100.0		2.1	0.04
Cardiff	10.5	41.8	41.8	8.4	0.16
Newport	4.7	10.8	52.5	4.8	0.09
Swansea	7.7	7.8	60.3	2.1	0.04
Rhondda; Cynon; Taf	8.0	4.4	64.7	1.2	0.02
The Vale of Glamorgan	4.1	4.2	68.9	2.2	0.04
Bridgend	4.4	2.9	71.8	1.4	0.03
Carmarthenshire	6.0	2.6	74.4	0.9	0.02
Caerphilly	5.8	2.5	76.8	0.9	0.02
Neath Port Talbot	4.6	2.3	79.1	1.1	0.02
Wrexham	4.4	2.3	81.4	1.1	0.02
Gwynedd	4.0	2.2	83.6	1.2	0.02
Conwy	3.8	1.9	85.6	1.1	0.02
Flintshire	5.1	1.9	87.5	0.8	0.02
Pembrokeshire	3.9	1.8	89.3	1.0	0.02
Powys	4.4	1.7	91.0	0.8	0.02
Ceredigion	2.6	1.7	92.7	1.4	0.03
Denbighshire	3.2	1.7	94.4	1.1	0.02
Monmouthshire	2.9	1.6	96.0	1.2	0.02
Torfaen	3.1	1.4	97.4	1.0	0.02
Blaenau Gwent	2.4	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.02
Merthyr Tydfil	1.9	0.9	1.8	0.9	0.02
Isle of Anglesey	2.3	0.8	2.5	0.7	0.01

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Table 101)

2.5 Geographical distribution

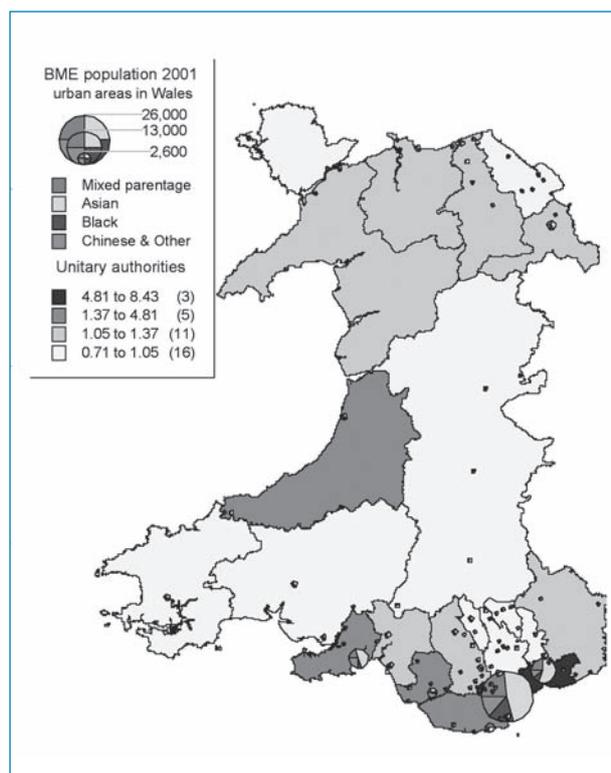
The BME population of Wales is highly concentrated in geographical terms (Table 2.8). Cardiff alone contained two-fifths of the BME population of Wales in 2001, and five unitary authorities together contained 68.9% of the BME population. The BME population was fairly evenly distributed over the remaining 17. Cardiff is the largest city in Wales,

but only contains just over a tenth of the Welsh population, which highlights the geographical concentration of people from BME groups into the highly urbanised south coast and neighbouring valleys.

The percentage of the resident population from BME groups was much higher in Cardiff than elsewhere, and only in Newport, the Vale of Glamorgan and Swansea did the percentage of the

population from BME groups exceed the average for Wales (2.1%). Elsewhere, the BME share of the population nowhere exceeded 1.4%, and in much of north, west and mid-Wales the BME share of the population was 1% or less.

Figure 2.4: Geographical distribution of BME groups in Wales



Source: 2001 Census of Population (Key Statistics Table 6)

The final column of Table 2.8 presents an index of ethnic diversity for the local authority districts of Wales (see Appendix 1 for an explanation of this measure). This is calculated using the 16 categories of the 2001 Census ethnic group question, and varies between 0 (entire population from one ethnic group) to 1 (complete diversity). Cardiff and Newport are shown to have populations which are also much more ethnically diverse than other areas of Wales. Most of Wales is shown to have an almost entirely white-British population.

Figure 2.4 further emphasises the geographical concentration of the BME population, by mapping the BME population of urban areas (Office for National Statistics/Office for the Deputy Prime Minister definitions of physical urban areas, first defined following the 1981 Census) in Wales against the BME share of the unitary authority population. Most BME people live within larger cities and towns within these unitary authorities, and across large geographical areas the BME population will consist of a handful of households. Outside South Wales, the main BME populations can be identified as being located in north Wales coastal resorts, Wrexham, Carmarthen, Merthyr Tydfil and University towns such as Bangor and Aberystwyth. Table 2.9 demonstrates the contrast between Cardiff, with a BME population of nearly 26 thousand, the majority of unitary authorities, in which the BME population was 1 to 1.5 thousand and the Isle of Anglesey, with a BME population of under 500. Cardiff, Newport and Swansea are also distinguished from other unitary authorities by the magnitude of the Asian or Asian British ethnic category relative to other minority ethnic groups. Across much of the country, the Mixed and “Chinese and Other” ethnic groups form the largest component of the BME population. People from the Black and Black British ethnic group mainly live in Cardiff and Newport. Another notable feature is the much larger share of people from the mixed parentage and Chinese and Other groupings in areas of small BME population. The implication is that the size of the BME population may be a poor indicator of need in such areas, since a higher percentage of the population may be from less disadvantaged BME groups.

Table 2.9: BME populations by unitary authority

Unitary authority	Population	BME	Percent BME	Mixed	Asian or Asian British	Black or Black British	Chinese & Other
Cardiff	305,353	25,729	8.4	6,084	12,080	3,898	3,667
Newport	137,011	6,603	4.8	1,635	3,577	734	657
Swansea	223,301	4,806	2.2	1,106	2,215	290	1,195
Rhondda; Cynon; Taf	231,946	2,673	1.2	812	928	207	726
The Vale of Glamorgan	119,292	2,576	2.2	1,133	704	273	466
Bridgend	128,645	1,767	1.4	501	546	104	616
Carmarthenshire	172,842	1,623	0.9	527	550	138	408
Caerphilly	169,519	1,548	0.9	620	453	122	353
Neath Port Talbot	134,468	1,448	1.1	528	539	143	238
Wrexham	128,476	1,403	1.1	452	457	131	363
Gwynedd	116,843	1,389	1.2	482	434	120	353
Flintshire	148,594	1,194	0.8	526	271	97	300
Conwy	109,596	1,157	1.1	427	329	92	309
Powys	126,354	1,086	0.9	429	363	100	194
Denbighshire	93,065	1,073	1.2	431	300	108	234
Ceredigion	74,941	1,037	1.4	397	272	115	253
Pembrokeshire	114,131	1,026	0.9	366	302	88	270
Monmouthshire	84,885	964	1.1	356	305	77	226
Torfaen	90,949	852	0.9	343	238	84	187
Blaenau Gwent	70,064	581	0.8	184	222	59	116
Merthyr Tydfil	55,981	564	1.0	135	269	41	119
Isle of Anglesey	66,829	481	0.7	187	94	48	152

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Key Statistics Table 6)

Figures A2.17 to A2.21 map the geographical distribution of individual BME groups across all electoral divisions in Wales. These demonstrate that while the main concentrations of the BME population were located in the cities of south Wales,

small numbers of BME people were present in very many towns. There are marked differences between individual ethnic groups in their geographical distributions. The majority of people of mixed parentage lived in south-east Wales, but it also had a

more even geographical distribution than other ethnic groups, with small numbers distributed a large number of settlements, and local concentrations located in resort areas. Indian people had a fairly widespread distribution across south Wales and are found in the larger towns of north Wales, but their main concentration was in Cardiff and they tended not to live in resort areas. Their widespread geographical distribution reflects their higher than average employment in health-related occupations (see Chapter 3). The Pakistani ethnic group was highly concentrated into Cardiff and Newport, while the largest concentrations of the Bangladeshi ethnic group were in Cardiff, Newport and Swansea. Other Asian people mainly lived in south-east Wales, but there was also a large concentration in Brecon. Black-African people were predominantly located in Cardiff, while Black-Caribbean people are mainly located in south-east Wales, in Newport and Barry as well as Cardiff. The Chinese and Other ethnic group had a geographically widespread distribution, with the largest numbers in the cities of South Wales. People from the Other ethnic groups display a tendency to live in University towns, but also manufacturing areas such as Bridgend (where the Asian and Black populations are small).

For the Bangladeshi and Chinese ethnic groups, these patterns may reflect the geographical distribution of Chinese and Indian restaurants, as this industrial sector still employs a relatively high percentage of people from these ethnic groups. The resorts of north and west Wales therefore contained people from these ethnic groups, but in small numbers. Two important issues for provision of housing services arise from this. First, people from

these ethnic groups face problems of isolation, both from other members of their community and from the population as a whole, and experience difficulties in articulating their needs to service providers due to the small size of their communities. Secondly, many BME people live in isolated and rural areas in which the social housing stock is very limited, and the scope for social landlords to meet their specific needs may therefore be limited.

2.6 Geographical segregation

Table 2.10 summarises the type of area in which people from different BME groups live by using the “group” level of the latest ONS classification of wards and local authority districts based on 2001 Census data. There was a clear tendency for BME people to live in ‘student communities’ (areas of younger, mixed populations in urban areas where housing tends to be older and rented accommodation is more common), and not to live in the countryside or traditional industrial areas, in which white people were much more likely to live. South Asian ethnic groups tended to be concentrated into more urban areas, but there were clear differences between the geographical distribution of Indian people, a higher percentage of whom lived in ‘industrial areas’, and Pakistani and Bangladeshi people. Chinese people and people of mixed parentage displayed geographical distributions more similar to the white population than other BME groups, with a much higher percentage living in rural areas. Caribbean people and those of mixed parentage were more likely than people from other ethnic groups to live in ‘out of town housing’ (which may include local authority estates). African people were more likely than other BME groups to live in ‘student communities’.

**Table 2.10: Geographical distribution of BME groups by type of electoral division
(percentage of population)**

	White	Black & Minority Ethnic	Mixed Parentage	Indian	Paki-stani	Bangladeshi	Chinese	Caribbean	African
Industrial Areas	38.8	21.1	24.9	24.8	15.0	11.9	28.0	21.7	17.4
Out of Town Housing	7.3	10.7	15.7	6.3	7.7	9.4	8.2	22.5	10.8
Built-up Manufacturing	3.3	5.3	7.0	2.2	5.9	7.3	2.0	9.8	5.7
Transitional Economies	4.2	11.9	8.1	10.9	23.8	19.1	5.5	10.7	13.3
Built-up Areas	2.2	2.7	2.2	2.1	1.0	7.3	3.5	1.3	1.7
Student Communities	4.6	24.7	14.7	27.1	33.3	37.6	20.5	15.1	31.1
Suburbs	5.9	3.8	3.9	4.6	1.7	0.7	6.5	3.2	3.1
Prospering Suburbs	0.7	1.2	1.0	1.1	0.4	0.3	2.3	0.8	1.0
Commuter Suburbs	1.8	4.1	3.4	5.8	4.3	1.2	3.5	2.7	3.0
Countryside	16.8	6.4	9.2	5.2	3.2	1.8	8.3	5.7	6.9
Senior Communities	4.9	3.2	3.2	3.7	1.5	1.9	5.0	1.6	2.5
Out of Town Manufacturing	6.1	2.7	4.0	3.0	1.3	1.0	4.2	3.0	2.2
Accessible Countryside	3.3	2.2	2.7	3.0	1.0	0.3	2.4	2.0	1.3
Population	2,829,436	61,407	17,666	8,218	8,290	5,443	6,232	8,560	6,158

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Key Statistics Table 6)

Table 2.11: Index of Dissimilarity for broad ethnic groups, Wales 2001

Ethnic groups compared	White	Mixed	Asian or Asian British	Black or Black British	Chinese and others
Mixed parentage	35.3				
Asian or Asian British	55.9	39.3			
Black or Black British	56.5	32.8	34.6		
Chinese and others	41.7	34.6	38.3	45.0	
BME groups	44.3	22.5	19.5	26.5	27.3

Table 2.12: Segregation (Index of Dissimilarity) of Asian and Asian British ethnic groups against white, mixed parentage, Black and Chinese and Other ethnic groups, Wales 2001

	White	BME groups	Mixed parentage	Black-Caribbean	Black-African	Chinese
Indian	50.9	29.6	41.4	48.8	41.9	40.1
Pakistani	64.8	36.5	51.0	48.0	41.6	54.2
Bangladeshi	72.2	43.3	55.7	52.3	51.2	62.6
Other Asian	57.7	32.2	43.3	45.5	45.1	44.4

Table 2.11 summarises the pattern of ethnic segregation across Wales, using the Index of Dissimilarity (using data for the Electoral Division level). This calculates the percentage of people from an ethnic group which would have to move, for the geographical distribution of two ethnic groups to be equal. Overall, 44.3% of people from BME groups would have to move for these ethnic groups to have the same geographical distribution as white people. Black and Asian ethnic groups were more geographically segregated than people of mixed parentage or from the Chinese and Other ethnic groups. Bangladeshi and Pakistani people were more geographically segregated from white and Chinese people than Indian people (Table 2.12). Bangladeshi people were less likely than people from the other three Asian ethnic groups to live in the same areas as people from Black ethnic groups.

2.7 BME students

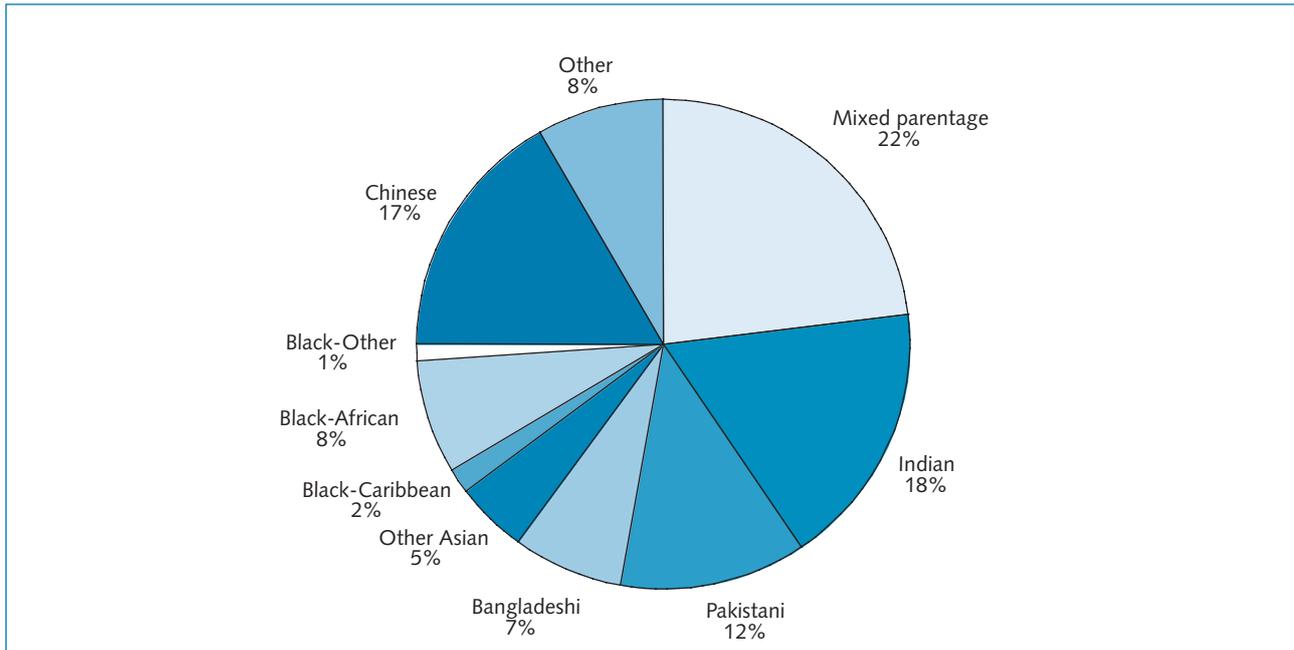
Much of the BME population and much of the recent increase in this population represents students, both UK-born and overseas. At the time of the 2001 Census, a total of 134969 people aged 16-24 living in Wales were students (including those who were economically active). Of these

6737 were from BME groups (the overseas-born student population was 8106 or 6% of the total). Figure 2.5 presents the ethnic breakdown of the BME student population. Nearly a quarter were of mixed parentage, with the Chinese and Indian ethnic groups accounting for the next largest percentage of the student population, followed by Pakistani, Black-African and Bangladeshi people. Many of these students would be in sixth forms and further rather than higher education, while the ethnic composition of the student population reflects the relative youth of people of mixed parentage.

While 4.6% of the population of Wales were students aged 16-24, they represented over a tenth (10.9%) of the BME population of Wales and 14.8% of all Chinese and Other people.

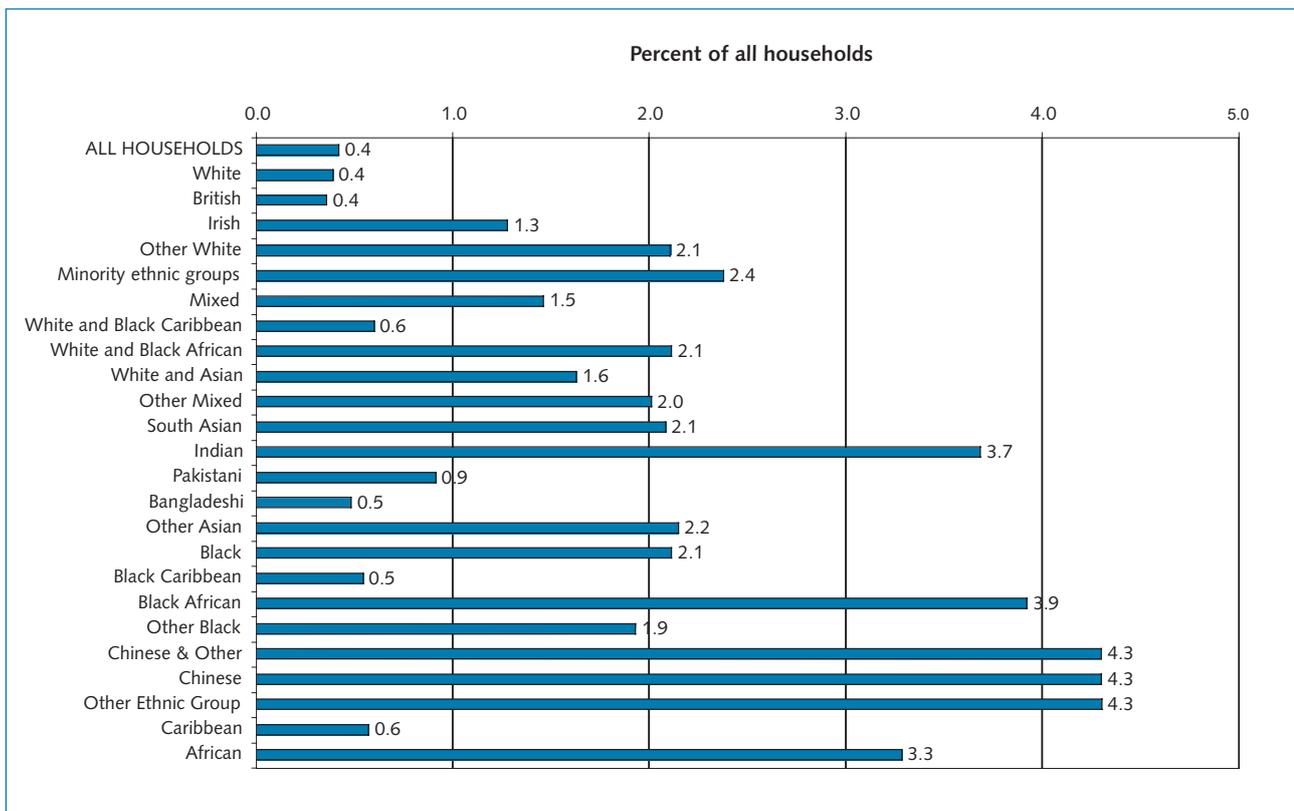
The significance of the student population for a study of BME housing needs in Wales derives from the fact that while wholly student households account for only 0.4% of all households, they form 2.4% of BME households (Figure 2.6). This percentage is much higher for individual minority groups, with 4.3% of households from the Chinese and "other", 3.9% of Black-African and 3.7% of Indian households comprising only students.

Figure 2.5: Ethnic composition of BME students aged 16-24 in Wales, 2001



Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Table 108)

Figure 2.6: Student households as a percentage of all households by ethnic group, Wales 2001



Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Table 106)

Table 2.13: The BME student population within Wales

	Population	BME	BME students		
			Number	Percent of BME people	Percentage of Wales total
WALES	2,903,085	61,580	6,737	10.9	100.0
Blaenau Gwent	70,064	581	43	7.4	0.6
Bridgend	128,645	1,767	135	7.6	2.0
Caerphilly	169,519	1,548	101	6.5	1.5
Cardiff	305,353	25,729	3,233	12.6	48.0
Carmarthenshire	172,842	1,623	112	6.9	1.7
Ceredigion	74,941	1,037	239	23.0	3.5
Conwy	109,596	1,157	118	10.2	1.8
Denbighshire	93,065	1,073	97	9.0	1.4
Flintshire	148,594	1,194	69	5.8	1.0
Gwynedd	116,843	1,389	162	11.7	2.4
Isle of Anglesey	66,829	481	29	6.0	0.4
Merthyr Tydfil	55,981	564	29	5.1	0.4
Monmouthshire	84,885	964	66	6.8	1.0
Neath Port Talbot	134,468	1,448	105	7.3	1.6
Newport	137,011	6,603	542	8.2	8.0
Pembrokeshire	114,131	1,026	105	10.2	1.6
Powys	126,354	1,086	74	6.8	1.1
Rhondda; Cynon; Taf	231,946	2,673	381	14.3	5.7
Swansea	223,301	4,806	626	13.0	9.3
Torfaen	90,949	852	63	7.4	0.9
The Vale of Glamorgan	119,292	2,576	265	10.3	3.9
Wrexham	128,476	1,403	114	8.1	1.7

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Tables 101 and 108)

Average BME housing characteristics will be influenced by their presence, and this distortion will vary geographically, due to the geographically uneven distribution of students. Table 2.13 demonstrates this by presenting students as a percentage of the BME population in each unitary authority area within Wales. Nearly half of the BME student population lived in Cardiff, with the other main concentrations being Swansea and Newport. Smaller concentrations were found in unitary authorities containing

Colleges of the University of Wales (e.g. Aberystwyth and Lampeter in Ceredigion and Bangor in Gwynedd) and in Rhondda Cynon Taf (University of Glamorgan). In Ceredigion, students formed nearly a quarter of the BME population.

Clearly, it is important to be aware of the potential effect of students on the characteristics of the BME population and households. However, the Census data does not permit student households to

be separately identified by ethnic group for local areas and therefore they cannot be removed from housing deprivation indicators.

2.8 Problems of ethnic classification

As already mentioned, the 1991 and 2001 Censuses of Population used slightly different ethnic group questions. The 2001 question provided a more detailed breakdown of the white ethnic group and information on people of mixed parentage. One of the problems encountered with the 1991 ethnic group question was the difficulty of accurately measuring the Caribbean population, since the children of Black-Caribbean parents were often classified to the Black-Other ethnic group, having been described as "Black British" or "mixed" where one parent was white.

In 2001, the change of the wording of the question to "Black or Black British" has reduced the size of the Black-Other category by removing the necessity for "Black British" people to tick the Black-Other box and write in a description of their ethnic origin. However, where one parent is white, children of marriages or partnerships in which one parent is white and the other Black-Caribbean now appear in the "Mixed: White/Black-Caribbean" category. The same applies for the Black-African ethnic group with respect to the "Mixed: White/Black-African" category. People of mixed parentage may identify with either the white parent or the minority parent, or may identify themselves as being "Black British" or of "mixed" origin.

Given the small populations of BME groups in Wales, it is necessary to aggregate groups together when presenting detailed breakdowns and data for geographical areas within Wales. The 2001 Census classification provides a convenient set

of 5 broad ethnic groups, which are used in this report. However, in order to more accurately measure the size and characteristics of households headed by Black-African or Black-Caribbean persons, two additional groups are created by adding the mixed parentage categories to the corresponding unmixed "Black" ethnic group in order to create new "Caribbean" and "African" ethnic groups.

2.9 Summary

- This chapter has demonstrated that while the BME population of Wales is relatively small, it is highly diverse;
- The BME population is much younger on average than the white population;
- The Black-Caribbean population is older than the average for BME people, while people of mixed parentage are youngest on average;
- People of mixed parentage and from the "other" ethnic groups are particularly prominent in the BME population of Wales;
- The bulk of the BME population is concentrated into the south-east corner of the country and the major cities;
- However, BME communities are present across Wales;
- The geographical distribution of BME groups is very different from that of white people, and they are more likely to live in inner city areas and outer estates than rural or traditional industrial areas;
- Assessment of BME housing needs for some localities should take into account the large percentage of the BME population who are students.

3. The social and economic characteristics of BME people in Wales

In this chapter, the social and economic characteristics of BME groups in Wales are presented, to provide the context for the discussion of housing deprivation presented

in Chapter 4. This chapter demonstrates the diversity of experience of BME groups, as well as the high levels of deprivation experienced by some minority groups.

Table 3.1: Male economic activity by ethnic group and religion in Wales, 2001

	Aged 16-74	Economic activity rate	Employment rate	Un-employment rate	Percent in work self-employed	Self-employed with employees as % of econ. Active pop.
MALES	1,014,610	67.7	62.7	7.4	18.2	6.4
<i>White</i>	994,209	67.8	62.8	7.3	18.1	6.3
British	973,413	67.9	63.0	7.3	18.1	6.3
Irish	7,134	56.4	51.4	8.9	22.4	8.7
Other White	13,662	62.3	56.8	8.9	21.2	8.4
Black and Minority Ethnic	20,401	65.5	58.2	11.1	24.5	13.6
<i>Mixed</i>	4,399	63.5	53.1	16.3	14.0	5.3
White and Black Caribbean	1,351	63.3	50.9	19.6	11.4	2.8
White and Black African	662	66.6	57.6	13.6	13.6	5.0
White and Asian	1,225	65.3	56.7	13.3	14.6	6.4
Other Mixed	1,161	60.0	49.6	17.4	16.8	7.3
<i>Asian or Asian British</i>	9,173	69.1	63.2	8.5	29.4	17.2
Indian	3,283	70.7	66.7	5.7	27.5	18.2
Pakistani	2,751	65.7	57.5	12.5	37.3	16.6
Bangladeshi	1,657	70.5	65.0	7.8	26.4	18.5
Other Asian	1,482	70.4	64.2	8.8	24.2	14.3
<i>Black or Black British</i>	2,778	58.2	47.6	18.1	14.9	4.3
Black Caribbean	1,188	63.4	53.1	16.2	16.0	4.0
Black African	1,334	53.1	42.4	20.1	14.7	4.4
Other Black	256	60.5	49.2	18.7	10.3	5.2
<i>Chinese and Other ethnic groups</i>	4,051	64.5	59.8	7.3	28.1	19.4
Chinese	2,407	63.4	59.4	6.3	39.0	28.7
Other Ethnic Group	1,644	66.1	60.3	8.7	12.3	6.5
Caribbean	2,539	63.3	51.9	18.0	13.6	3.4
African	1,996	57.6	47.4	17.6	14.3	4.6
Religion						
Christian	703,917	64.3	60.4	6.0	19.4	7.1
Buddhist	2,466	63.2	57.2	9.6	25.4	9.6
Hindu	2,302	70.2	67.8	3.4	27.9	18.3
Muslim	7,438	60.8	54.1	10.9	31.1	16.9
Sikh	702	64.8	60.4	6.8	39.2	24.0
Jewish	889	61.1	57.0	6.6	35.3	15.1
Other	2,698	61.3	51.3	16.4	25.8	5.9
No Religion	219,158	71.2	64.5	9.4	16.0	5.0

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Commissioned Tables M247 and M301)

3.1 Labour market participation

Table 3.1 and 3.2 summarise the economic participation of men and women aged 16 to 74 across all ethnic and religious

groups identified by the Census for Wales in 2001 (note that economically active students are included in these tables).

Table 3.2: Female economic activity by ethnic group and religion in Wales, 2001

	Aged 16-74	Economic activity rate	Employment rate	Un-employment rate	Percent in work self-employed	Self-employed with employees as % of econ. Active pop.
FEMALES	1,060,743	54.5	51.8	4.9	8.0	3.2
<i>White</i>	1,040,293	54.7	52.0	4.8	8.0	3.1
British	1,017,476	54.7	52.1	4.8	7.9	3.1
Irish	7,410	48.3	45.5	5.8	11.8	4.8
Other White	15,407	52.1	48.4	7.1	12.1	4.1
Black and Minority Ethnic	20,450	46.9	42.0	10.4	13.5	7.5
<i>Mixed</i>	4,691	54.7	48.6	11.2	6.8	2.8
White and Black Caribbean	1,543	56.4	49.3	12.5	6.4	2.4
White and Black African	687	55.5	48.3	12.9	5.1	1.8
White and Asian	1,254	53.3	48.4	9.3	8.4	3.9
Other Mixed	1,207	53.5	47.9	10.5	6.7	2.6
<i>Asian or Asian British</i>	8,509	39.1	34.4	12.0	17.5	10.0
Indian	3,150	53.7	49.2	8.5	19.0	10.6
Pakistani	2,682	29.9	25.4	15.3	20.3	11.8
Bangladeshi	1,596	23.0	17.5	24.0	9.7	5.4
Other Asian	1,081	43.0	38.9	9.7	12.1	8.2
<i>Black or Black British</i>	2,489	49.5	43.4	12.4	4.6	1.6
Black Caribbean	991	59.0	54.2	8.2	4.3	1.5
Black African	1,237	40.0	33.0	17.6	4.4	1.6
Other Black	261	58.2	51.3	11.8	6.7	2.0
<i>Chinese and Other ethnic groups</i>	4,761	51.7	48.4	6.5	19.3	12.0
Chinese	2,449	55.7	52.5	5.6	26.4	18.3
Other Ethnic Group	2,312	47.5	44.0	7.5	10.3	4.2
Caribbean	2,534	57.4	51.2	10.8	5.5	2.1
African	1,924	45.5	38.5	15.5	4.7	1.7
Religion						
Christian	806,531	51.6	49.7	3.8	8.4	3.5
Buddhist	2,295	50.0	46.1	7.8	21.4	7.1
Hindu	2,020	51.0	47.7	6.6	18.7	10.5
Muslim	6,561	25.6	21.5	15.9	16.9	9.5
Sikh	681	44.6	41.1	7.9	28.6	15.8
Jewish	787	48.4	45.6	5.8	21.7	6.8
Other	3,423	46.7	42.3	9.4	17.1	3.0
No Religion	169,377	55.8	51.7	7.3	7.1	2.4

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Commissioned Tables M247 and M301)

About two-thirds of men aged 16 to 74 were economically active in 2001, with the percentage of men from BME groups economically active slightly lower than the corresponding percentage for white men (Irish men were less likely to be in the workforce than white-British men, reflecting their high average age – see Chapter 2). Indian and Bangladeshi men were more likely than white men to be economically active, while men of mixed parentage, Pakistani, Chinese and Black men were less likely to be economically active (and African men displayed the lowest economic activity rate). The economic activity rate was highest for men with no religion and Hindu men, and lowest for Muslim and Buddhist men.

Just over half of all women aged 16-74 were economically active (Table 3.2), a rate about an eighth below that for men. The differential in economic activity between white women and BME women was much greater than that for men, mainly because of the low economic participation rates of Asian and Asian British women. Nearly half of women of mixed parentage and women from Black and Chinese and Other ethnic groups were economically active, with Caribbean and Chinese women more likely than white women to be in the labour force. Economic activity rates for African, Pakistani and Bangladeshi women were lower than average, with less than a quarter of Bangladeshi women aged 16-74 in the labour force. Only a quarter of Muslim women were economically active, only half the average for women.

More than three-fifths of white men were in work, a higher percentage than BME men. Indian, Bangladeshi and Other-Asian men were most likely to be in work, and Black-African men least likely to be in work.

Employment rates were highest for Hindu men and lowest for Muslim men and men with “other” religious faiths. Two-fifths of BME women aged 16 to 74 were in work, compared to just under half of white women. Black-Caribbean, Chinese and Indian women were most likely to be in work, and Bangladeshi, Pakistani and Black-African women least likely to be employed. Only 21.5% of Muslim women were working.

The male unemployment rate was about half as high again as that for women. Amongst men, the BME unemployment rate was about 1.5 times the white unemployment rate, but the unemployment rate for BME women was more than twice that for white women. The lowest unemployment rates were experienced by Indian and Chinese men, but the highest unemployment rates were experienced by Caribbean and African men. The male Bangladeshi unemployment rate was just above the white rate, and the Pakistani unemployment rate was under twice that for white men. The unemployment rate for Hindu men was extremely low, but around 1 in 10 Buddhist and Muslim men were unemployed. Men with “other” religions experienced the highest unemployment rates.

Amongst women, unemployment rates were highest for the Bangladeshi (24%), African (15.5%) and Pakistani (15.3%) ethnic groups. Unemployment rates for all BME ethnic groups were higher than for white women, with the lowest rates experienced by the Chinese, Other, Black-Caribbean and Indian ethnic groups. The unemployment rate for women of mixed parentage was above the BME average and well over double that for white women.

The final two columns of Tables 3.1 and 3.2 are concerned with self-employment. Overall, nearly a fifth of men and 8% of women were self-employed in 2001. A quarter of men from BME groups and an eighth of women were self-employed. The percentage self-employed was highest in the Chinese (39%), Pakistani (37.3%), Indian (27.5%) and Bangladeshi (26.4%) ethnic groups. The percentage of men from Black and mixed parentage ethnic groups self-employed was lower than that for white men. The percentage self-employed was highest for Sikh men at 39.2%, followed by Jewish men (35.3%) and Muslim men (31.1%). Those with no religion were least likely to be self-employed. There are similar differentials among women, with Chinese and Pakistani

women most likely to be self-employed, together with Sikh (28.6%) and Buddhist (21.4%) women. Women of mixed parentage and Black women were much less likely than average to be self-employed.

The final column in each table presents an “entrepreneurship rate” - the percentage of economically active people who are self-employed with employees. Overall, 6.4% of economically active men and 3.2% of economically active women ran their own businesses employing others in 2001. Women were less likely than men from each corresponding ethnic group to be entrepreneurs. Over a quarter of Chinese men ran businesses which employed others, and the entrepreneurship rate was well above average for all Asian and Asian British men. Men from the Black and mixed

Table 3.3: Geographical distribution of white and BME unemployment in Wales

Unitary Authority	White unemployment		BME unemployment		Ratio of BME to white unemployment rate	BME share of total unemployment
	Number	Rate	Number	Rate		
Isle of Anglesey	2,231	7.9	21	10.1	1.3	0.9
Gwynedd	3,423	6.8	33	6.1	0.9	1.0
Conwy	2,785	6.0	39	8.4	1.4	1.4
Denbighshire	2,199	5.5	40	10.2	1.9	1.8
Flintshire	3,214	4.4	27	5.2	1.2	0.8
Wrexham	3,010	5.0	44	7.0	1.4	1.4
Powys	2,358	4.0	33	6.6	1.7	1.4
Ceredigion	1,576	5.1	15	4.1	0.8	0.9
Pembrokeshire	3,097	6.5	33	9.2	1.4	1.1
Carmarthenshire	4,090	5.7	44	6.5	1.1	1.1
Swansea	5,671	6.1	143	8.3	1.4	2.5
Neath Port Talbot	3,712	6.9	58	10.1	1.5	1.5
Bridgend	3,151	5.7	52	7.0	1.2	1.6
The Vale of Glamorgan	2,693	5.0	80	7.6	1.5	2.9
Rhondda, Cynon, Taf	5,859	6.2	72	6.5	1.0	1.2
Merthyr Tydfil	1,587	7.4	36	12.0	1.6	2.2
Caerphilly	4,297	6.0	65	9.2	1.5	1.5
Blaenau Gwent	2,301	8.4	18	8.0	1.0	0.8
Torfaen	2,185	5.6	21	6.5	1.2	1.0
Monmouthshire	1,577	4.0	22	5.6	1.4	1.4
Newport	3,513	6.0	265	12.2	2.0	7.0
Cardiff	5,972	4.6	841	9.4	2.0	12.3

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Table 108)

parentage ethnic groups were least likely to be entrepreneurs. Sikh men were most likely to run businesses employing others. The pattern for women was very similar, with nearly a fifth of Chinese and a tenth of Asian and Asian British women being self-employed with employees.

The BME unemployment rate was usually 1.2 to 1.5 times higher than the white unemployment rate (Table 3.3). However, the BME unemployment rate was lower in Gwynedd and Ceredigion, areas containing resorts and colleges of the University of Wales. The BME unemployment rate was higher in the industrial areas of south Wales, together with Denbighshire and Anglesey in north Wales. The highest BME unemployment rates occurred in Newport

and Merthyr Tydfil. In Newport and Cardiff, the BME unemployment rate was double that experienced by white people.

Table 3.4 summarises the industries in which people from BME groups living in Wales worked. The most important source of employment for the population as a whole was the public sector (health, education, social services and administration), employing 27.9% of all in work. Manufacturing industry and wholesale and retail distribution were the next largest employers, but less than a fifth of the workforce worked in manufacturing, and mining and quarrying employed only 0.3% of all in work. BME people were less likely than white people to work in manufacturing industry, but were

Table 3.4: Industrial structure of employment by ethnic group, Wales 2001 (percentages of total)

	All ethnic groups	White	BME	Mixed	Asian	Black	Chinese and Other	Muslim
All employed				4,612	8,723	2,400	4,721	5,905
Agriculture; hunting and forestry	2.5	2.5	0.5	0.7	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.5
Fishing	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	-
Mining and quarrying	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1
Manufacturing	17.3	17.5	10.5	12.1	8.5	12.1	11.7	9.1
Electricity; gas and water supply	1.0	1.0	1.3	1.6	1.1	2.1	0.7	1.2
Construction	7.1	7.2	3.0	4.4	2.3	5.1	1.7	3.0
Wholesale and retail trade; repairs	16.3	16.3	16.8	17.0	21.0	13.0	10.8	20.8
Hotels and restaurants	5.4	5.2	16.9	9.3	14.1	5.3	35.6	22.2
Transport; storage and communications	5.5	5.5	5.4	5.6	7.1	5.8	1.7	7.7
Financial intermediation	2.6	2.6	2.6	3.0	2.8	3.6	1.3	2.8
Real estate; renting and business activities	8.5	8.5	8.3	10.2	7.5	11.0	6.5	7.4
Public administration and defence; social security	6.8	6.8	4.6	6.2	4.7	5.7	2.2	3.1
Education	8.1	8.2	5.7	6.4	4.6	7.5	6.1	5.0
Health and social work	13.0	12.9	20.4	15.7	23.5	23.1	17.9	14.6
Other	4.8	4.9	3.6	6.3	2.3	5.1	2.7	2.5

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Tables 110 and 155)

much more likely to work in hotels and restaurants and in the health and social services. Public sector services employed 30.7% of BME people and 35.7% of Black people. For Asian people, wholesaling and retailing and restaurants and hotels were the major sources of employment. More than a third of Chinese and Other people worked in hotels and restaurants. These two sectors each employed more than a fifth of Muslim people in work.

The distribution of workers across major groups of the Standard Occupational Classification by ethnic group and religion in 2001 is presented in Table 3.5. Selected sub-major groups which are particularly important for particular BME groups are highlighted.

A higher percentage of BME than white people worked as managers and senior officials. This percentage was high for people from the Asian and Chinese and Other ethnic groups, but lower than the BME average for people of mixed parentage and from Black ethnic groups. The overall percentage of BME people in professional occupations was nearly double that for

white people, with over a quarter of Asians in work being from this SOC major group. Doctors accounted for a large percentage of these workers, with 17.9% of Asian and 9% of Muslim people employed as “health professionals”, and people from all BME groups more likely than white people to be in this sub-major group. Black, mixed parentage and Chinese and Other people were more likely than average to be in associate professional and technical jobs, such as “health and welfare associate professionals” (which includes nurses). Only Chinese and Other people (working in “textiles, printing and other skilled trades”) were more likely than white people to work in skilled trades. Black people and people of mixed parentage were more likely than people from other ethnic groups to work in personal service occupations, while sales occupations were most important for Asian groups and Muslim people. White people were more likely than people from BME groups to be process, plant and machinery operatives, but a higher percentage of people of mixed parentage, Black people and Muslim people worked in elementary occupations.

Table 3.5: Occupational breakdown of employment by ethnic group and for Muslim people, 2001 (percentages of employees)

SOC 2000 major and selected sub-major groups	All ethnic groups	White	BME	Mixed	Asian	Black	Chinese & Other	Muslim
All Occupations	1,186,263	1,165,792	20,471	4,605	8,734	2,405	4,727	5,907
1. Managers and Senior Officials	12.2	12.2	14.6	12.0	16.6	8.9	16.1	16.5
2. Professional Occupations	10.4	10.3	19.6	11.8	27.0	17.1	14.6	17.7
22. Health	0.9	0.8	9.8	2.7	17.2	6.2	4.7	9.0
3. Associate Professional and Technical Occupations	12.8	12.8	12.8	14.7	9.0	17.9	15.3	7.5
32. Health and Social Welfare Associate Professionals	4.0	4.0	5.8	4.4	3.3	8.6	10.2	2.6
4. Administrative and Secretarial Occupations	12.2	12.2	8.0	11.1	7.1	9.8	5.6	6.1
5. Skilled Trades Occupations	13.4	13.5	11.5	9.0	9.3	8.7	19.5	13.3
54. Textiles; Printing and Other Skilled Trades	2.2	2.1	7.8	2.6	6.8	1.8	17.5	10.7
6. Personal Service Occupations	7.4	7.5	4.6	8.0	2.7	8.6	3.0	3.4
7. Sales and Customer Service Occupations	8.0	8.0	9.4	10.6	9.9	6.8	8.6	10.8
71. Sales Occupations	6.8	6.8	8.2	8.8	8.8	5.7	7.9	9.8
8. Process; Plant and Machine Operatives	10.2	10.3	7.1	7.3	8.2	8.5	4.1	10.4
9. Elementary Occupations	13.3	13.3	12.5	15.5	10.2	13.7	13.2	14.2

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Tables 109 and 154)

3.2 Educational attainment

Overall, two-fifths of people in Wales aged 16 to 74 had no educational qualifications (or qualifications which are unknown) in 2001 (Table 3.6). While only a third of BME people overall had no qualifications, there was considerable variation between individual ethnic groups. Only a fifth of Indian and a quarter of Other Asian people had no qualifications, but around two-

fifths of Black-Caribbean and over half of Bangladeshi people had no qualifications. Two-fifths of Muslim people also had no educational qualifications.

White people were more likely than BME people to have a lower level qualification as their highest educational qualification. However, on average, BME people were far more likely than white people to have

higher level educational qualifications (A-levels and above). Around half of Indian people and people from the Other Asian and Other ethnic groups were highly qualified. Amongst people from Black and Black British ethnic groups, African people were much more likely than white

people to have higher level qualifications, while Caribbean people were less likely than white people to be highly qualified. People with one Black-Caribbean parent were least likely (12.7%) to have higher level qualifications, but this might reflect their relative youth.

Table 3.6: Level of highest educational qualification (percentage of 16-74 year olds)

	Aged 16-74	No qualifications or level unknown	Lower level qualifications	Higher level qualifications
Total population	2,075,347	40.2	42.4	17.4
<i>White</i>	2,034,501	40.4	42.5	17.1
White: British	1,990,889	40.5	42.7	16.8
White: Irish	14,543	45.1	29.2	25.8
White Other: White	29,069	32.2	34.5	33.3
BME	40,846	33.5	35.6	30.9
<i>Mixed parentage</i>	9,087	32.1	46.5	21.3
White and Black Caribbean	2,891	38.6	48.8	12.7
White and Black African	1,349	35.4	43.4	21.2
White and Asian	2,480	25.0	47.9	27.0
Other Mixed	2,367	29.9	44.1	26.0
<i>Asian or Asian British</i>	17,682	34.2	32.8	33.0
Indian	6,434	19.4	31.0	49.7
Pakistani	5,433	42.4	36.7	20.9
Bangladeshi	3,253	56.0	32.4	11.6
Other Asian	2,562	26.7	29.4	44.0
<i>Black or Black British</i>	5,268	33.9	37.0	29.2
Black Caribbean	2,177	38.4	39.3	22.4
Black African	2,575	29.9	34.1	36.0
Other Black	516	34.9	41.5	23.6
<i>Chinese or Other Ethnic Group</i>	8,809	33.1	29.1	37.8
Chinese	4,855	38.8	33.5	27.7
Other Ethnic Group	3,954	26.2	23.6	50.2
Caribbean	5,068	38.5	44.7	16.8
African	3,924	31.8	37.3	30.9
Religion				
Christian	1,510,448	42.1	41.2	16.7
Buddhist	4,763	28.0	35.1	36.8
Hindu	4,323	18.7	28.3	52.9
Jewish	1,670	25.5	42.3	32.2
Muslim	13,999	40.3	33.8	25.9
Sikh	1,385	34.2	42.2	23.7
Any other religion	6,121	23.6	46.3	30.0
No religion	388,535	33.4	47.6	19.0

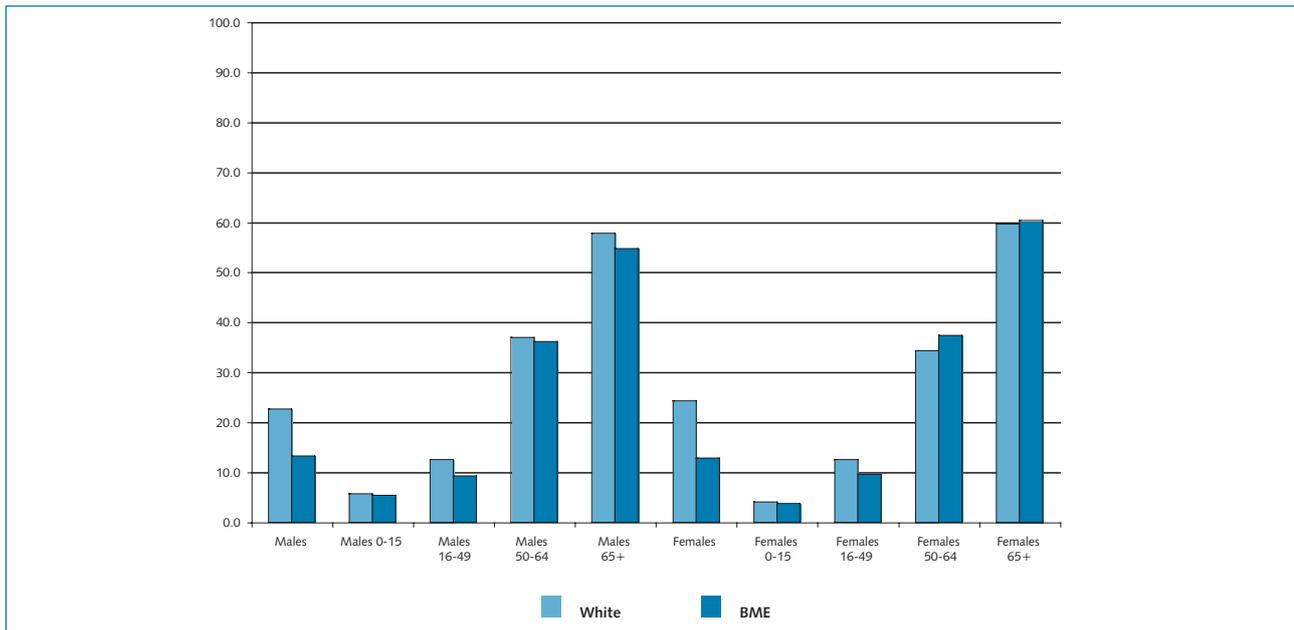
Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Tables 117 and 158)

3.3 Health

The 2001 Census of Population includes two indicators of health – general health and whether a person suffers from a long-term (persisting for a year or more) limiting illness. Figure 3.1 demonstrates how the percentage of the population experiencing long-term limiting illnesses increases with increasing age. Amongst people of retirement age, nearly 60%

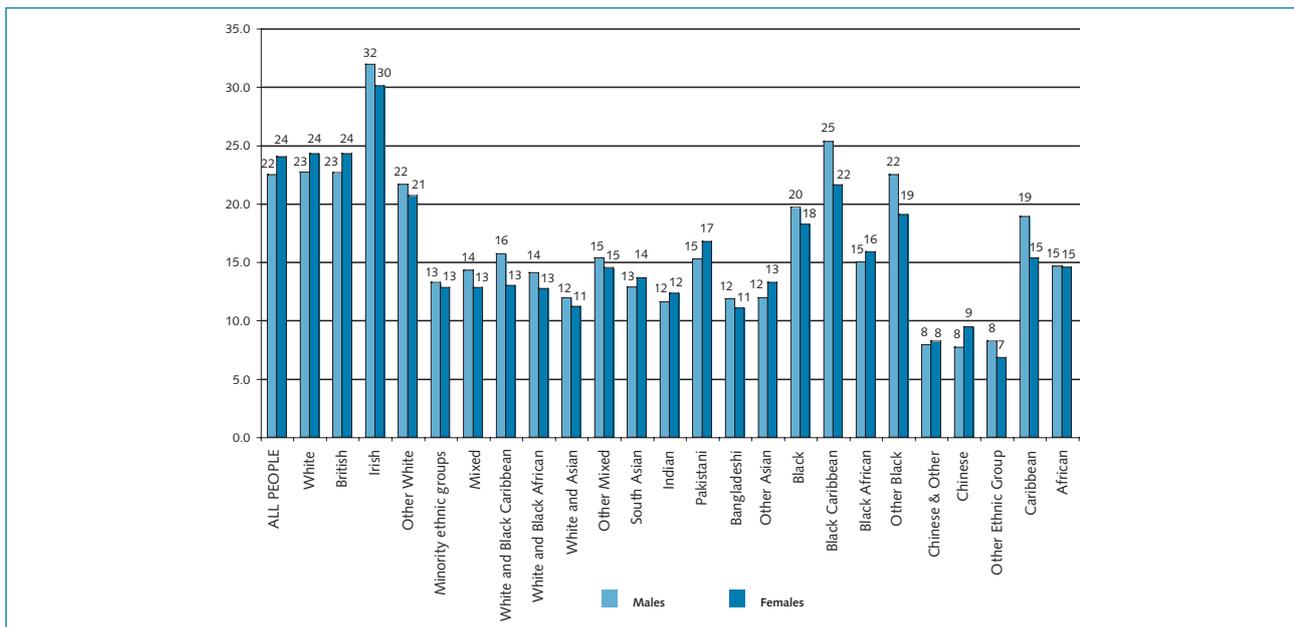
of men and a slightly higher percentage of women suffered from a limiting long-term illness. Long-term illness rates were higher for white than BME men across all age groups, while in the oldest age group, the percentage of BME women with long-term limiting illnesses was slightly higher than the corresponding percentage for white women.

Figure 3.1: Percentage of males and females with limiting long-term illness, by age



Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Table 107)

Figure 3.2: Percentage of males and females with limiting long-term illness, by ethnic group



Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Tables 107 and 152)

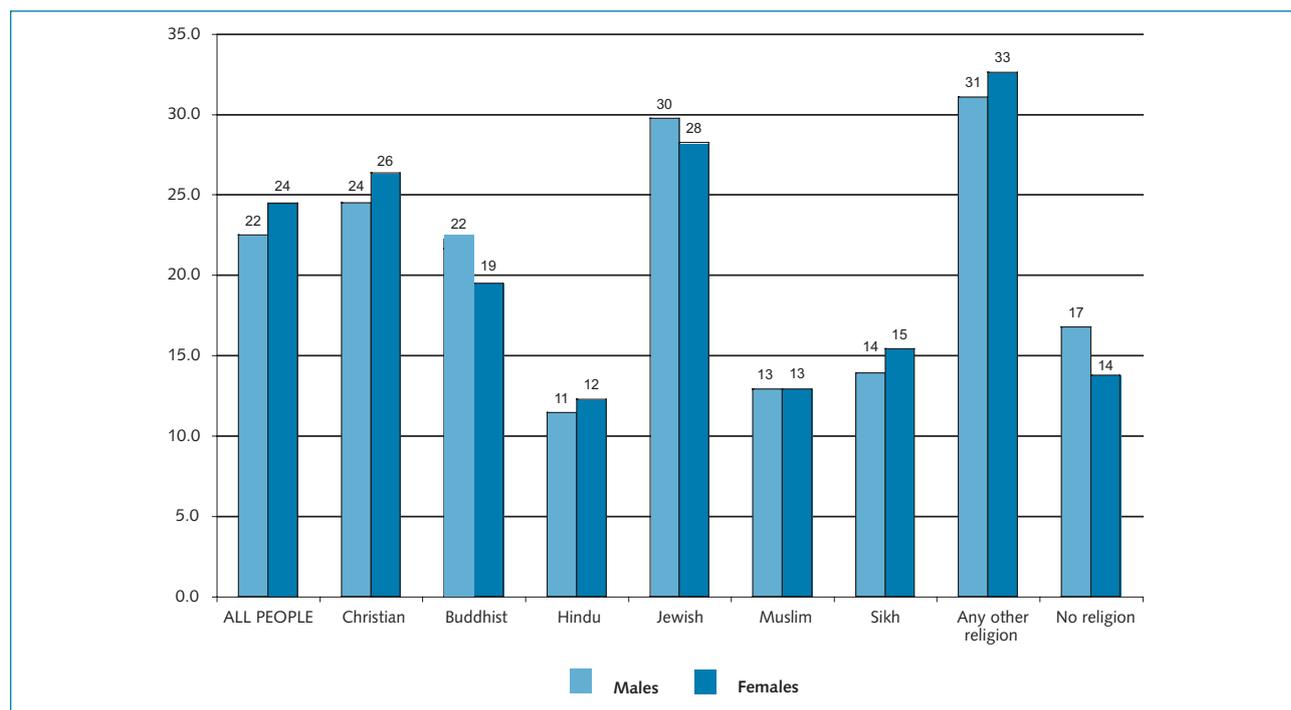
Figure 3.2 presents contrasts in the percentage with limiting long-term illness by ethnic group and gender. In most ethnic groups, illness rates were higher among males than females. The highest rate of limiting long-term illness (32% for males and 30% for females) was experienced by white-Irish people, the oldest ethnic group on average (see Chapter 2), about 25% higher than the corresponding illness rates for all white people.

Around a quarter of white people experienced a limiting long-term illness, but illness rates for BME people were just about half as great on average. Among BME people, illness rates were highest for

Black and Black British people (20% for males and 18% for females). Illness rates were much higher for Black-Caribbean people than Black-African people, reflecting the older average age of the former ethnic group.

Among Asian and Asian British people, illness rates were highest for Pakistani people. Indian people experienced lower illness rates, despite their higher average age. Chinese people were the healthiest ethnic group on average, with around 9% experiencing limiting long-term illness. Unlike most other ethnic groups, women from Chinese and Other ethnic groups experienced poorer health than men.

Figure 3.3: Percentage of males and females with limiting long-term illness, by religion



Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Table 152)

Turning to religion (Figure 3.3), people from the Jewish faith (which has a high average age) and those with "other" religions experienced the highest rates of limiting long-term illness. People with no religion

had better health than Christian people, probably reflecting their lower average age (and possibly their higher socio-economic status).

Long-term limiting illness rates were lowest for Hindu and Muslim people, and slightly higher for Sikh people. For people from these three religions, illness rates for females were slightly higher than those for

males. Buddhists experienced higher illness rates than people with the other important minority religions, slightly lower than the illness rate for Christian people.

3.4 Childhood poverty

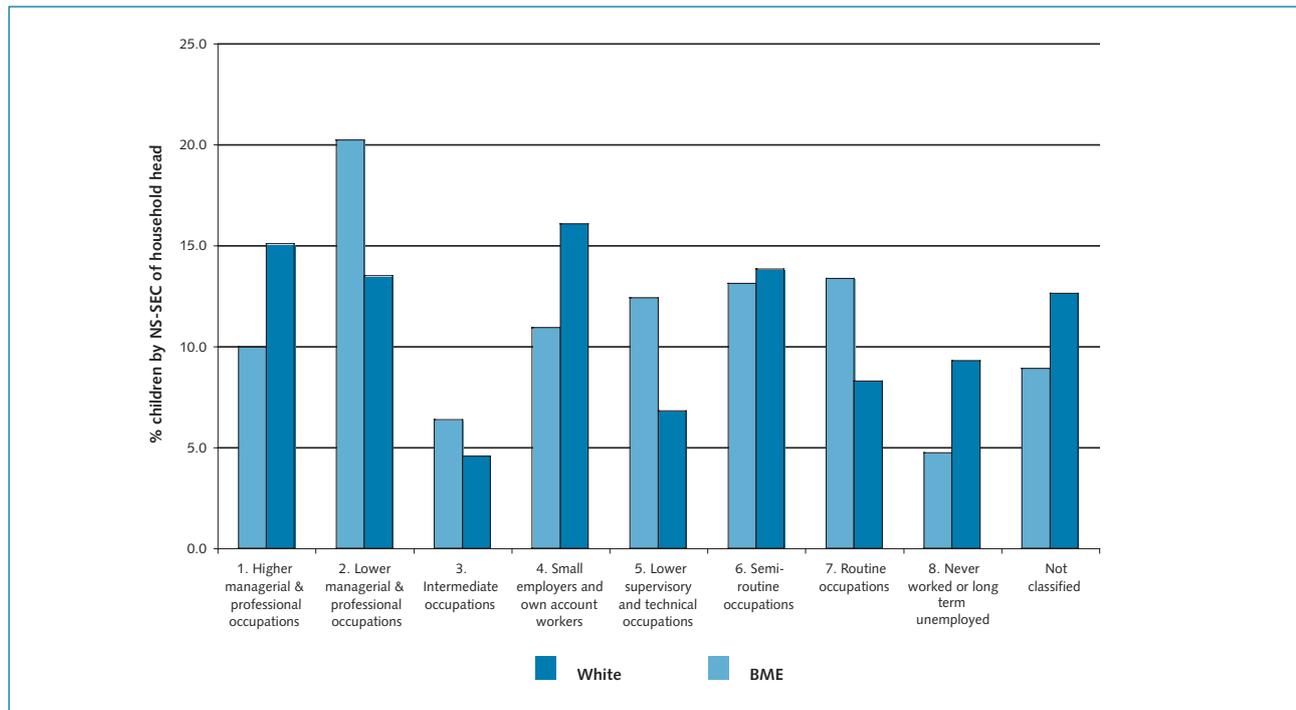


Figure 3.4: Percentage of white and BME dependent children by NS-SEC or household head
 Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Table 12)

Another indication of economic need is the number of children in poverty. An indication of this can be provided by examining the occupational status of households in which children live. Figure 3.4 presents the percentage of dependent children (aged 0 to 15) living in households headed by persons from each NS-SEC (National Statistics Socio-Economic Classification) group, comparing white and BME children. This pattern tends to reflect the occupational distribution of the two groups, with a slightly larger percentage of BME children in households headed by a person with a higher managerial or professional job, small employers and own account workers and semi-routine occupations. White children were more likely to live in households whose head worked in lower

management, intermediate occupations or lower supervisory and technical occupations, or routine occupations. However, a much larger percentage of BME than white children lived in households in which the head had either never worked, was long term unemployed or could not be classified to a NS-SEC group, and therefore economically inactive. Average income levels in these social groups are well below average.

Table 3.7 provides a breakdown of these contrasts by individual ethnic group in 2001. Over a fifth (21.9%) of BME children, compared with 13.6% of white children lived in households in which the head not worked for some time, or had never worked. More than a quarter

of Caribbean children and a third of African children lived in such households. About two-fifths of all dependent children had household heads from the lowest occupational groups (semi-routine and routine occupations) or who are out of

the workforce, exceeding half of African, Caribbean and Pakistani children and reaching nearly three-fifths for Bangladeshi and Black-Other children. In contrast, only a quarter of dependent Indian and Chinese children lived in such households.

Table 3.7: Percentage of dependent children in households by occupation of household reference person

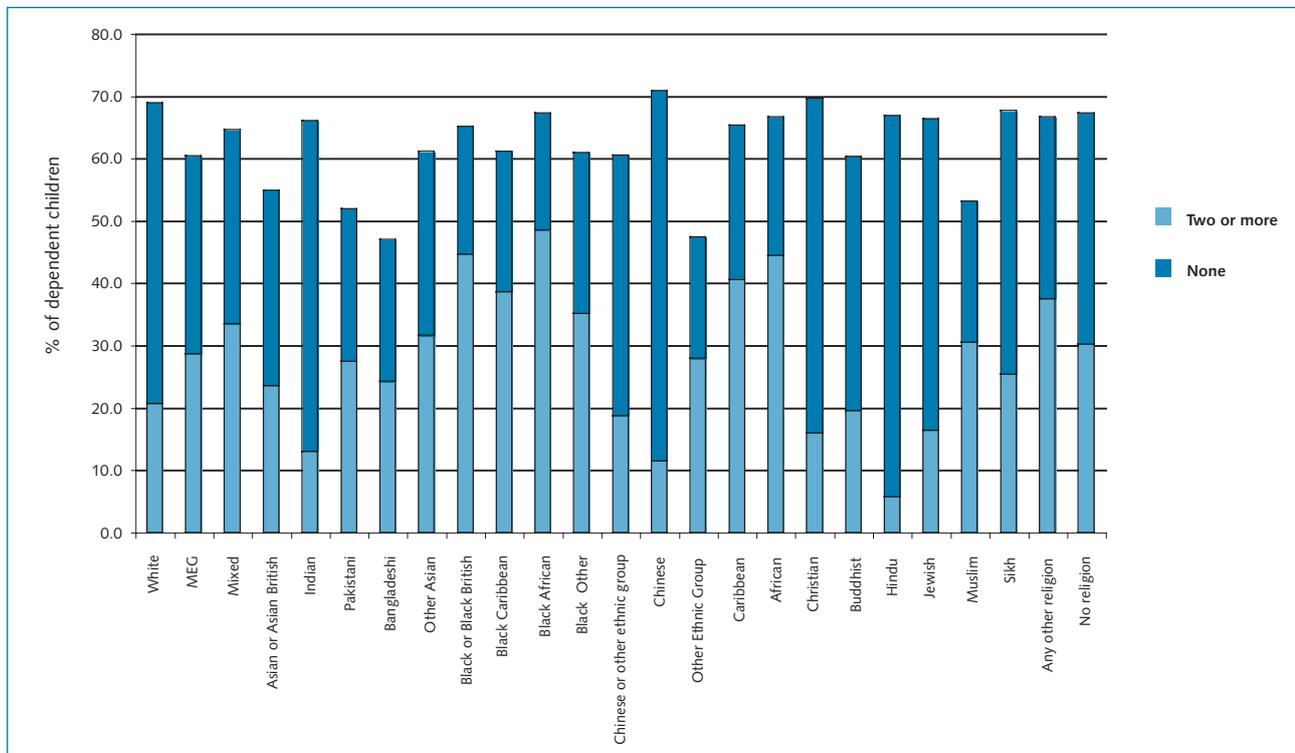
	All dependent children	Managerial & professional	Intermediate occupations	Small employers & own account workers	Lower supervisory & own technical occupation	Semi-routine and routine	Never worked/Ltu/not classified
Entire population	658,564	30.1	6.3	11.1	12.2	26.3	13.9
<i>White</i>	636,748	30.2	6.4	10.9	12.4	26.5	13.6
British	629,728	30.1	6.4	10.9	12.5	26.6	13.6
Irish	1,191	34.7	3.6	10.1	7.6	21.7	22.3
Other White	5,829	39.4	5.6	10.1	8.0	19.2	17.6
Black and Minority Ethnic	21,816	28.6	4.6	16.1	6.8	22.1	21.9
<i>Mixed parentage</i>	8,984	32.5	6.8	9.0	7.5	21.8	22.3
White and Black Caribbean	3,210	20.9	7.9	6.6	8.7	28.0	27.9
White and Black African	1,120	29.7	6.7	8.0	8.7	22.6	24.3
White and Asian	2,693	42.0	5.6	11.8	6.6	16.4	17.6
Other Mixed	1,961	40.0	6.8	9.8	6.1	18.7	18.7
<i>Asian or Asian British</i>	8,421	23.9	3.0	21.9	6.6	24.1	20.5
Indian	2,005	45.0	4.3	22.0	4.7	14.8	9.1
Pakistani	3,088	17.7	2.7	27.7	5.4	22.7	23.9
Bangladeshi	2,388	8.5	1.6	19.2	11.3	37.2	22.2
Other Asian	940	38.5	4.6	10.1	2.9	15.0	28.9
<i>Black or Black British</i>	1,695	29.2	4.7	4.2	3.8	19.7	38.3
Black Caribbean	350	30.0	10.6	3.7	4.3	25.4	26.0
Black African	1,120	30.4	3.2	3.6	2.9	15.0	45.0
Other Black	225	22.2	2.7	8.4	8.0	34.2	24.4
<i>Chinese and Other ethnic groups</i>	2,716	29.5	2.0	28.5	6.8	18.3	14.9
Chinese	1,518	19.4	1.6	47.0	6.9	17.6	7.6
Other Ethnic Group	1,198	42.4	2.4	5.1	6.8	19.2	24.1
Caribbean	3,560	21.8	8.2	6.3	8.3	27.7	27.7
African	2,240	30.0	5.0	5.8	5.8	18.8	34.6
Religion							
Christian	418,711	33.7	6.7	11.9	12.8	24.3	10.7
Buddhist	595	34.8	4.4	22.0	6.2	19.0	13.6
Hindu	1,230	53.1	4.3	23.8	2.8	10.7	5.3
Jewish	306	46.7	5.2	16.7	3.6	16.0	11.8
Muslim	8,459	21.6	2.5	18.7	6.4	23.8	26.9
Sikh	658	20.1	5.2	25.8	8.5	25.1	15.3
Any other religion	659	34.1	5.5	9.9	6.2	17.3	27.0
No Religion	153,449	23.9	5.6	8.7	11.7	30.7	19.5

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Commissioned Tables 12 and 52)

Indian children were most likely and Bangladeshi children least likely to live in households headed by a managerial or professional person. Chinese children were most likely to live in households headed by a person who was a small employer or in business on their own account, and South Asian children were also most likely to have household heads from this NS-SEC. Bangladeshi and white children were

most likely to live in households headed by a person working in a lower supervisory or technical occupation. Half of Hindu and nearly half of Jewish children lived in managerial or professional households, but more than half of Muslim children lived in households where the head had a semi-routine or routine occupation or was out of the labour market.

Figure 3.5: Percentage of dependent children living in households with no or two or more economically active adults



Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Theme Tables 12 and 52)

Figure 3.5 provides a different perspective on contrasts in child poverty by presenting the percentage of children aged 0-15 from each ethnic and religious group living in households in which there were either no economically adults present or 2 or more such adults. Indian, Chinese and

Hindu children were most likely to live in households with two or more economically active adults, the most prosperous type of households. In contrast, African and Caribbean children were most likely to live in the poorest households, those in which there were no economically active adults.

3.5 Language ability and disadvantage

Table 3.8: Percentage able to speak Welsh, 2001

	All ages	Aged 3 to 4	Aged 5 to 15	Aged 16 to 19	Aged 20 to 44	Aged 45 to 64	Aged 65 to 74	Aged 75 +
All ethnic groups	20.8	18.8	40.8	27.6	15.5	15.6	18.1	21.1
White	21.0	19.2	41.3	28.1	15.9	15.8	18.2	21.2
Black and Minority Ethnic	9.6	7.4	26.9	13.1	2.8	2.8	4.5	9.2
Mixed parentage	18.1	12.5	34.8	19.4	6.7	6.4	6.7	11.1
Asian or Asian British	6.9	3.2	22.2	10.2	1.7	1.7	3.6	9.4
Black or Black British	6.5	4.3	20.6	11.0	2.4	3.5	5.3	8.9
Chinese or Other Ethnic Group	4.8	4.0	18.7	9.3	1.3	1.3	3.0	4.6

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Theme Table 15)

Ability to speak Welsh could be interpreted as an indicator of disadvantage in access to services. In parts of north Wales (notably Gwynedd), Welsh is the first language and BME people may be hampered by lack of ability in both English and Welsh. Overall, just over a fifth of the Welsh population could speak Welsh in 2001, with this percentage highest in the compulsory school ages (aged 5 to 15) in which two-fifths could speak Welsh (Table 3.8). This is because the Welsh language forms part of the school curriculum. The percentage able to speak Welsh declines with age until retirement age, after which it increases.

In 2001, less than 1 in 10 people from BME groups could speak Welsh, under half the average for white people. Most BME people able to speak Welsh were of an age

in which they would either be in school or in further and higher education. The lower percentages of young BME people able to speak Welsh results from their concentration in areas where the Welsh language is weakest, the geographical segregation of BME communities and the greater likelihood of having been educated outside Wales (either overseas or in England). People of mixed parentage were most likely to be able to speak Welsh, perhaps indicating their greater integration with the majority white community. BME people aged 75 and over were more likely than other BME adults to be able to speak the language. This might reflect their migration to Wales at a time when Welsh was more widely spoken, or their migration to areas of Wales in which the language was stronger.

Table 3.9: Car Ownership in Wales, 2001

	Households	None	One	Two or more
All ethnic groups	1,209,021	26.0	45.5	28.5
<i>White</i>	<i>1,190,400</i>	<i>25.9</i>	<i>45.6</i>	<i>28.5</i>
British	1,164,985	25.8	45.6	28.6
Irish	9,437	32.3	44.0	23.7
Other White	15,978	27.2	45.8	27.0
Black and Minority Ethnic	18,621	29.6	43.9	26.5
<i>Mixed parentage</i>	<i>4,426</i>	<i>37.6</i>	<i>41.6</i>	<i>20.8</i>
White and Black Caribbean	1,493	44.3	38.8	16.9
White and Black African	710	37.0	43.0	20.0
White and Asian	1,042	28.2	45.2	26.6
Other mixed	1,181	37.7	41.2	21.1
<i>Asian or Asian British:</i>	<i>7,466</i>	<i>23.1</i>	<i>45.4</i>	<i>31.5</i>
Indian	2,763	17.9	42.2	39.9
Pakistani	2,179	22.3	47.6	30.1
Bangladeshi	1,226	36.0	49.4	14.6
Other Asian	1,298	23.6	44.5	31.9
<i>Black or Black British</i>	<i>3,060</i>	<i>41.1</i>	<i>41.9</i>	<i>17.0</i>
Black-Caribbean	1,459	37.4	44.5	18.2
Black-African	1,294	44.2	40.0	15.8
Black other	307	46.3	37.5	16.3
<i>Chinese or other</i>	<i>3,669</i>	<i>23.7</i>	<i>45.2</i>	<i>31.1</i>
Chinese	1,998	20.2	46.8	33.0
Other ethnic group	1,671	28.0	43.2	28.8
Caribbean	2,952	40.9	41.6	17.5
African	2,004	41.7	41.0	17.3
Religion				
Christian	892,157	25	46	29
Buddhist	2,666	25	49	26
Hindu	1,859	17	42	41
Jewish	1,138	22	46	32
Muslim	5,985	28	47	25
Sikh	611	21	42	37
Any other religion	3,619	30	48	22
No religion	214,452	26	46	28

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Tables 111 and 156)

3.6 Car Ownership

The Census of Population does not include a question on income. A number of proxies have been used to estimate income from

Census data, most usually car ownership. Households with two or more cars are presumed to be relatively wealthy, though in a predominantly rural country, car

ownership is often seen as essential because of the lack of public transport. Households without a car can be seen as deprived both in income terms and in terms of access to job and other opportunities.

Table 3.9 presents the percentages of households by ethnic group and religion with no car, one car and two or more cars in 2001. It has become the norm for households to possess a car, with nearly half having a car and a further quarter having two or more. Only a quarter have no car, and these will be the poorest, most elderly and most socially excluded households.

A higher percentage of BME than white households had no car, but the percentage with two cars was only slightly less than that for white households. There was a clear contrast between BME groups. Asian people were most likely to have a car and much more likely than white households to have two or more cars. Indian households (39.9%) were most likely to own two cars, but Bangladeshi households (14.6%) were least likely to. Mixed parentage, Caribbean and African households were least likely to own a car. Chinese and Pakistani households displayed similar percentages with no car and with two or more cars. Their rate of car ownership was slightly greater than that of white households.

Hindu households were the most likely to own two cars, followed by Sikh households. The percentage with no car was highest for Muslim households.

3.7 Summary

This chapter has explored a number of measures of social and economic disadvantage by ethnic and religious group for Wales as a whole. The picture presented is not a simple one of white advantage and BME disadvantage. There was great diversity between BME groups, some of which now experience unemployment rates similar to or below those of white people. However, some ethnic groups, notably people from Black and Black British ethnic groups emerge as being disadvantaged on a number of dimensions.

While a section of the BME population is certainly advantaged and employed in professional occupations or running their own businesses, others experience a high degree of social exclusion. This is manifested in concentration of employment in a limited range of industrial sectors, low economic activity rates, high unemployment rates, high percentages of children in households with no earners or where the household head is in a low status occupation, and low rates of car ownership.

4. The housing circumstances of BME people in Wales

The first three chapters of this report have presented the context for BME housing in Wales, reviewing what is known about BME housing needs, the nature of the BME population and contrasts between ethnic groups in their levels of material need. This chapter focuses explicitly on the housing circumstances of BME households.

It begins by presenting the characteristics of households and families by ethnic group in Wales, before moving on to cover the physical characteristics and tenure of housing by ethnic group. Finally, the chapter considers the question of housing deprivation in some detail.

4.1 Household structure

Table 4.1: Household types by ethnic group and religion, Wales 2001 (% of households)

	Households	Lone adults	Lone	Pensioner couples	Childless couples	Couples with children	Lone parents	Student
Entire population	1,209,048	13.7	15.5	9.6	16.9	20.8	10.6	0.4
<i>White</i>	<i>1,190,399</i>	<i>13.6</i>	<i>15.6</i>	<i>9.7</i>	<i>17.0</i>	<i>20.7</i>	<i>10.6</i>	<i>0.4</i>
British	1,164,985	13.6	15.6	9.7	17.0	20.7	10.6	0.4
Irish	9,436	16.1	18.6	10.7	17.1	14.6	8.7	1.3
Other White	15,978	16.4	13.0	8.7	16.5	20.0	10.2	2.1
Black and Minority Ethnic	18,649	17.5	5.9	2.7	12.0	31.5	12.0	2.4
<i>Mixed parentage</i>	<i>4,430</i>	<i>23.3</i>	<i>8.1</i>	<i>3.2</i>	<i>12.8</i>	<i>21.0</i>	<i>19.0</i>	<i>1.5</i>
White and Black Caribbean	1,493	21.7	8.6	3.9	11.8	17.4	24.8	0.6
White and Black African	708	19.8	6.9	2.1	12.4	25.1	18.8	2.1
White and Asian	1,041	24.3	6.5	3.2	14.0	24.5	14.6	1.6
Other mixed	1,188	26.3	9.3	3.1	13.0	20.0	15.7	2.0
<i>Asian or Asian British:</i>	<i>7,473</i>	<i>11.3</i>	<i>3.9</i>	<i>2.2</i>	<i>12.1</i>	<i>40.0</i>	<i>8.1</i>	<i>2.1</i>
Indian	2,764	12.3	3.1	3.0	17.8	36.0	6.5	3.7
Pakistani	2,178	8.7	5.1	2.5	8.6	38.9	10.5	0.9
Bangladeshi	1,230	7.5	2.3	0.2	4.6	54.3	7.3	0.5
Other Asian	1,301	17.1	4.8	2.2	13.3	36.8	8.1	2.2
<i>Black or Black British</i>	<i>3,073</i>	<i>24.0</i>	<i>10.5</i>	<i>4.1</i>	<i>10.2</i>	<i>21.7</i>	<i>15.0</i>	<i>2.1</i>
Black-Caribbean	1,464	26.7	10.5	5.3	12.3	18.6	16.5	0.5
Black-African	1,299	20.6	10.9	3.2	8.4	25.3	12.1	3.9
Black other	310	25.2	9.4	2.3	8.1	21.3	20.3	1.9
<i>Chinese or other</i>	<i>3,673</i>	<i>18.0</i>	<i>3.6</i>	<i>1.8</i>	<i>12.5</i>	<i>35.2</i>	<i>9.0</i>	<i>4.3</i>
Chinese	2,001	16.2	4.0	2.1	12.3	32.9	9.7	4.3
Other ethnic group	1,672	20.0	3.2	1.4	12.6	38.0	8.1	4.3
Caribbean	2,957	24.2	9.5	4.6	12.0	18.0	20.7	0.6
African	2,007	20.3	9.5	2.8	9.8	25.3	14.4	3.3

(Continued)

	House-holds	Lone adults	Lone	Pensioner couples	Childless couples	Couples with children	Lone parents	Student
Religion								
Christian	892,157	11.5	18.0	11.4	17.0	19.3	9.7	0.3
Buddhist	2,666	32.5	6.7	2.4	16.1	19.2	11.3	1.6
Hindu	1,862	11.6	3.1	3.0	18.8	37.9	5.3	3.3
Jewish	1,139	17.7	20.7	11.9	19.1	13.9	6.3	0.5
Muslim	5,985	12.5	2.6	1.0	8.6	43.1	10.1	1.8
Sikh	616	13.0	4.9	1.9	13.1	33.1	13.5	2.8
Any other religion	3,620	27.8	9.8	3.7	16.7	15.1	15.7	1.1
No religion	214,452	20.5	5.0	3.0	17.3	27.9	14.3	0.9

Source 2001: Census of Population (Standard Tables 106 and 151)

Census data on household structure provides an indication of the type of accommodation needed by different ethnic groups. Table 4.1 outlines the household structure of ethnic groups in Wales in 2001. The classification used by the Census distinguishes 'families' (parents with children or couples without children) from people living alone and unrelated people living together. Overall, in 2001, only 31.4% of households represented families in which children were present; a fifth of all households were couples with children and a further tenth were lone parent households. This average mainly reflects the characteristics of white people, since 43.5% of BME households contained families (couples and lone parents) with children. Couples with children were 50% more common for BME than white households (31.5% compared with 20.8%) and lone parent households were slightly more common in BME than white households.

However, this is itself a generalisation, which conceals considerable differences between BME groups. Two-fifths of Asian and Asian British households and over a third of Chinese and other households comprised couples with children, but only 21.7% of Black and Black British and 21% of households where the household reference person was of mixed parentage were of this type. In contrast, lone parent families were less common than average among Asian and Asian British households but much more common for households where the household reference person was from a Black and Black British ethnic group or of mixed parentage. More than half of Bangladeshi households comprised families with children, while a quarter of household reference persons of "Mixed: White/Black-Caribbean" ethnic origin was a lone parent (2.5 times the average). Turning to religion, couples with children represented a fifth of Christian and Buddhist households, but 33.1% of Sikh, 37.9% of Hindu and 43.1% of Muslim households.

4.1.1 Lone parent households

Lone parent households were most common where the household reference person was from a Black or Black British ethnic group or was of mixed parentage. Nearly a quarter of households with a household reference person of mixed white and Black-Caribbean parentage and a fifth of Black-Other households was a lone parent household. Adding all household reference persons of Caribbean origin together reveals that a fifth of households of this ethnic origin were lone parent households. Lone parent households were less common for the Black-African ethnic group and less common than average for the Asian and Asian British ethnic groups (with the exception of Pakistani people). The percentage of lone parents was very low for Hindu and Jewish people, but higher than average for Sikh people and people with “any other” or “no” religion.

4.1.2 Childless couples and lone pensioners

Of the remaining two-thirds of all households, childless couples and lone pensioners were the largest categories. Overall, pensioners represented a quarter of all households. In the population as a whole (and among white ethnic groups), a tenth of all household reference persons were pensioners living on their own. A further sixth were pensioners living as part of a couple (the share of pensioners among all households was highest for white-Irish people). Only 2.7% of all BME households were pensioner households, with this percentage highest (at 5.3%) in

the Black-Caribbean ethnic group. Lone pensioner households were only about a third as common among BME households, compared with white households. However, over 10% of Black-Caribbean and Black-African Household Reference Persons, and 8.1% of those of mixed parentage were lone pensioners, compared to 3.9% of those from Asian and Asian British ethnic groups. The percentage of lone pensioners and pensioner couples was particularly high for Jewish and Christian people, and low for Muslim people.

Childless couples were most common among white households. Among BME groups, the percentage of childless couples was higher than average for Indian people, while this percentage was very low for Pakistani, African and (especially) Bangladeshi people. Other-Asian, Chinese, “other” and Black-Caribbean ethnic groups displayed relatively high percentages of childless couples. They were most common for Hindu and Jewish people and least common among Muslim people. The percentage of households represented by adults living alone was particularly high for people from Black ethnic groups, people of mixed parentage and the “other” ethnic group, and for Buddhists and people with “another” religion or “no” religion. Student households were much more common among BME groups than for white people, and were especially common in the Chinese and other ethnic groups, and for the Black-African and Indian ethnic groups.

Table 4.2: Family types and family sizes by ethnic group and religion, Wales 2001 (percentage of families)

	Lone Parent	Married or re-married	Cohabiting couple
All families	17.5	70.6	11.9
<i>White</i>	17.4	70.6	12.0
British	17.4	70.6	12.0
Irish	15.7	71.6	12.7
Other White	17.6	69.6	12.8
Black and Minority Ethnic	20.3	71.5	8.2
<i>Mixed parentage</i>	33.9	49.3	16.8
White and Black Caribbean	41.9	39.4	18.6
White and Black African	32.4	49.8	17.8
White and Asian	26.8	57.5	15.6
Other Mixed	30.2	55.2	14.6
<i>Asian and Asian British</i>	13.2	82.6	4.2
Indian	10.1	85.8	4.1
Pakistani	16.5	79.2	4.3
Bangladeshi	13.1	83.4	3.5
Other Asian	13.7	81.6	4.8
<i>Black and Black British</i>	30.9	55.9	13.2
Black Caribbean	31.3	50.8	17.8
Black African	28.2	63.3	8.5
Other Black	39.8	48.7	11.5
<i>Chinese & Other</i>	15.0	79.9	5.0
Chinese	15.9	78.1	6.1
Other Ethnic Group	14.0	82.4	3.7
Caribbean ethnic origin	37.0	44.8	18.2
African ethnic origin	29.8	58.2	12.0
Religion			
Christian	16.0	74.7	9.3
Buddhist	22.5	62.0	15.4
Hindu	7.8	88.9	3.3
Muslim	16.8	78.8	4.5
Sikh	19.6	75.0	5.4
Jewish	12.5	75.2	12.3
Other	29.9	52.9	17.2
No Religion	22.5	55.7	21.8

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Commissioned Tables M235 and M290)

Table 4.3: Mean family size by type of family, ethnic group and religion, Wales 2001

	All families	Lone Parent	Married or re-married	Cohabiting couple
All families	2.9	2.6	2.9	2.8
<i>White</i>	2.8	2.5	2.9	2.8
British	2.9	2.6	2.9	2.8
Irish	2.1	1.6	2.2	2.2
Other White	2.6	2.2	2.7	2.6
<i>Black and Minority Ethnic</i>	3.6	3.7	3.7	3.2
<i>Mixed parentage</i>	5.2	5.4	5.3	4.2
White and Black Caribbean	5.1	5.8	4.7	4.3
White and Black African	4.2	4.8	4.1	3.5
White and Asian	6.3	6.3	6.9	4.4
Other Mixed	4.8	4.5	5.2	4.2
<i>Asian and Asian British</i>	3.4	3.0	3.5	2.9
Indian	3.0	2.8	3.0	2.6
Pakistani	3.7	3.2	3.8	3.1
Bangladeshi	4.2	3.3	4.3	3.9
Other Asian	2.8	2.5	2.9	2.2
<i>Black and Black British</i>	2.6	2.6	2.8	2.1
Black Caribbean	2.0	2.0	2.2	1.8
Black African	3.2	3.2	3.3	2.6
Other Black	2.9	2.8	3.0	2.9
<i>Chinese & Other</i>	3.2	2.5	3.4	2.8
Chinese	3.2	2.5	3.4	2.3
Other Ethnic Group	3.2	2.4	3.3	3.8
Caribbean ethnic origin	3.7	4.3	3.4	3.2
African ethnic origin	3.6	3.9	3.6	3.1
Religion				
Christian	2.8	2.3	2.9	2.8
Buddhist	2.4	1.7	2.7	2.2
Hindu	2.8	2.4	2.9	2.5
Muslim	3.7	3.1	3.8	3.1
Sikh	3.4	3.0	3.5	2.7
Jewish	2.4	2.1	2.4	2.2
Other	2.3	1.7	2.6	2.4
No Religion	2.9	2.9	3.0	2.8

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Commissioned Tables M235 and M290)

4.2 Family types

In 2001, 70.6% of families in Wales consisted of married or re-married couples; a further 11.9% of all families were cohabiting couples and 17.5% were lone parent families (Table 4.2). The percentage of married or re-married families was slightly higher for BME people than for white people, but the percentage of cohabiting couples was lower.

More than 30% of all family reference persons of mixed parentage and from Black ethnic groups were lone parents, with particularly high rates for people of Caribbean origin and Black-Other people. Indeed, the largest category of families headed by a person of mixed white and Black-Caribbean parentage were lone parents, and married or re-married couples were in the minority. People who stated their religion as “other”, “none” or Buddhist were most likely to be lone parents and Hindu people were least likely to be lone parents. Cohabiting was most common among family reference persons of mixed parentage and of Black-Caribbean or Black-Other ethnic origin. People with no religion or an “other” religion and Buddhist people were most likely to cohabit. The percentage of cohabiting couples is very low in the South Asian ethnic groups.

4.2.1 Family size

On average, there were 2.9 persons living in each family, slightly fewer in lone parent families (Table 4.3). In the average BME family, there was about one more person in households consisting of lone parents and married couples, but 0.4 extra persons where a couple was cohabiting. Family sizes were largest where the family reference person was of mixed parentage, while families with Black heads were smaller on average than white families. South Asian-headed families were larger than average, with Bangladeshi families largest at 4.2

persons per family. While families with Black-Caribbean and Black-African heads were smaller than average, if all people of Caribbean or African origin are taken together (i.e. adding those of mixed parentage), average family sizes were larger than the average for all BME groups. Families with Muslim or Sikh heads were largest on average, while those where the family reference person is Buddhist or with an “other” religion were smallest. These variations by ethnic group in family size were repeated in couple families. However, there was greater variation by ethnic group in the size of lone parent families. While lone parents from the Black-Caribbean, Other Asian and Chinese and Other ethnic groups were smaller than average, and Pakistani and Bangladeshi families were not much larger than average, the average family size for parents of mixed parentage was 5.4 persons, more than double the average size. Lone parents of Caribbean origin had particularly large families, but the largest families were those in which the family reference person was of mixed White and Asian parentage (though there were only 180 households of this type in Wales in total in 2001).

4.3 Social class composition of households

Further context for the sections of this chapter which discuss housing deprivation is provided here by a discussion of the social class breakdown of Household Reference Persons (HRPs) by ethnic group and religion, using the NS-SEC classification (Table 4.4). One striking feature of this table is the much higher percentage of BME HRPs from the higher managerial and professional and “small employers” NS-SEC groups than white HRPs. However, BME HRPs were also less likely to work in lower supervisory and technical occupations or routine occupations, while the percentage “not classified” was much lower than for

white HRPs, as these are the economically inactive (mainly older people). On the other hand, the percentage of HRPs who were either long-term unemployed, or who had never worked was much higher for BME

than for white HRPs. Clearly then, BME households included both highly advantaged and highly disadvantaged households, and there was a greater representation of these extremes than in the white population.

Table 4.4: NS-SEC of Household Reference Person (percentages) by ethnic group and religion, Wales 2001 (percentage of Household Reference Persons)

	All HRPs	Higher Managerial & Professional Occupations	Lower Managerial and Professional Occupations	Intermediate Occupations	Small Employers & Own Account Workers	Lower Supervisory & Technical Occupations	Semi-Routine Occupations	Routine Occupations	Never Worked & Long-term Unemployment	Not Classified
Total	1,209,067	7.0	15.2	5.4	7.9	8.2	9.2	9.1	2.8	35.1
White	1,190,403	6.9	15.3	5.4	7.8	8.2	9.2	9.1	2.7	35.3
British	1,164,984	6.8	15.3	5.5	7.8	8.3	9.2	9.2	2.7	35.2
Irish	9,436	8.9	14.6	3.5	7.1	6.1	7.0	7.4	3.4	42.0
Other White	15,983	12.7	15.9	4.8	8.3	6.0	7.3	6.7	3.4	34.9
Black and Minority Ethnic	18,664	16.6	13.2	4.7	12.8	5.9	11.3	6.4	6.9	22.2
Mixed parentage	4,428	9.3	15.4	6.8	6.4	8.2	11.7	8.9	7.6	25.7
White & Black Caribbean	1,492	5.1	12.4	7.2	5.6	9.7	13.7	11.5	8.8	26.1
White and Black African	711	7.3	17.0	6.8	8.6	8.9	13.4	8.6	6.2	23.3
White and Asian	1,036	15.1	18.2	6.9	6.9	6.4	9.9	6.0	7.1	23.4
Other Mixed	1,189	10.7	15.7	6.2	5.8	7.4	9.8	8.3	7.4	28.7
Asian and Asian British	7,470	23.4	10.1	3.7	16.9	4.7	11.5	5.2	6.9	17.6
Indian	2,760	39.7	12.2	4.1	12.8	3.2	5.9	3.2	2.6	16.2
Pakistani	2,177	11.4	7.9	3.6	23.6	4.8	12.1	6.0	10.4	20.3
Bangladeshi	1,233	6.3	5.2	2.5	19.3	9.3	24.9	9.4	10.4	12.4
Other Asian	1,300	25.2	14.0	4.3	11.9	3.7	9.4	4.2	6.5	20.8
Black and Black British	3,083	10.0	16.0	5.5	5.0	5.9	10.8	7.8	9.1	29.9
Black Caribbean	1,465	7.2	19.2	7.1	5.3	7.4	12.2	9.8	5.8	26.0
Black African	1,308	13.3	12.6	3.4	4.5	4.1	9.2	5.0	13.2	34.6
Other Black	310	9.4	15.2	7.1	5.2	5.8	11.3	10.0	7.4	28.7
Chinese & Other	3,683	16.8	14.3	3.4	18.6	5.7	11.1	4.7	4.2	21.1
Chinese	2,002	10.7	10.2	3.3	29.1	5.8	13.1	3.9	3.2	20.6
Other Ethnic Group	1,681	24.1	19.2	3.6	6.1	5.6	8.7	5.6	5.4	21.6
Caribbean	2,957	6.1	15.8	7.1	5.4	8.6	12.9	10.7	7.3	26.1
African	2,019	11.2	14.2	4.6	5.9	5.8	10.6	6.2	10.7	30.7
Religion										
Christian	892,157	6.4	14.7	5.3	7.8	7.7	8.6	8.3	2.0	39.2
Buddhist	2,662	15.3	21.3	5.9	11.8	5.3	7.9	5.4	4.1	23.1
Hindu	1,865	43.3	12.0	3.5	13.5	2.5	5.2	2.9	1.8	15.2
Muslim	5,989	14.4	9.6	3.2	17.0	5.7	13.9	6.5	10.4	19.2
Sikh	618	13.4	12.9	4.4	21.7	6.1	8.3	7.8	7.1	18.3
Jewish	1,146	14.5	17.4	4.4	11.0	4.0	3.4	3.1	2.4	39.9
Other	3,622	9.0	21.2	5.6	8.5	5.6	9.3	5.6	5.7	29.4
No Religion	214,450	9.0	17.8	6.2	8.3	10.7	11.7	12.7	5.1	18.5

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Tables 109 and 154)

At the level of individual ethnic and religious groups, the contrasts were even more marked. Two-fifths of Indian households had a head with a higher managerial or professional occupation, and the percentage of HRPs from this social group was also well above average in the Other-Asian, "Other", Black-African and Pakistani ethnic groups. Hindu HRPs (43.3%) were far more likely than people with other religions to be higher managers or professionals. Chinese and all South Asian HRPs are much more likely than average to be small employers and own account workers. However, Black people and people of mixed parentage were much less likely to be running their own business. Sikh and Muslim people were much more likely than average to be small employers and own account workers.

Black people (especially Black-Caribbean people), people of mixed parentage and people from "other" ethnic groups were more likely than average to be working in lower managerial and professional occupations, which includes nurses and other associate professionals. People from Black and Black British ethnic groups, people of mixed parentage and Bangladeshi and Chinese people were more likely than average to work in semi-routine occupations. Black-African, Pakistani and Bangladeshi HRPs were more likely than average to be long-term unemployed or to have never worked. Muslim HRPs were more likely than others to work in semi-routine occupations or to be long-term unemployed or to have never worked.

This reveals quite a complex pattern of prosperity, with diversity of experience both between and also within ethnic groups. For example, the average for Indian people encompasses both the very high status Hindus (probably dominated by medical and higher education professionals) and

the much less prosperous Sikhs who were much more likely to be running their own business. The Pakistani and Bangladeshi ethnic groups included higher than average percentages of both people running their own businesses and those in low-status occupations, or unable to access the labour market. Both professionals and the long-term unemployed were also over-represented among Black-African HRPs.

4.4 Physical housing types

The most common form of dwelling in Wales in 2001 was a semi-detached house or bungalow (32.5% of all households), followed by terraced and detached dwellings, these three accounting for nearly 90% of all dwellings (Table 4.5). Only 10.9% of households lived in flats, the majority of which were purpose-built, rather than part of a converted house. Households from BME groups were more likely than white households to live in flats and terraced houses and less likely to live in detached and semi-detached properties.

Households headed by Black people (especially Black-African households) and people of mixed parentage, together with households of "other" ethnicity were most likely to live in flats (both purpose-built and converted). A tenth of Chinese households and 4.8% of Indian people lived in flats in commercial buildings (probably above retail premises). Over half of Bangladeshi and nearly half of Pakistani households lived in terraced housing, and Black people of both Caribbean and African ethnic origin were more likely than average to live in terraced housing.

At the other end of the housing range, households headed by people from the Indian, "Other", Other-Asian and Chinese ethnic groups were more likely than white households to live in detached houses.

Muslim households were most likely to live in terraced housing, and were less likely than households from other religious groups to live in detached or semi-detached housing. In contrast, Jewish and Hindu households were more likely than average to live in detached dwellings and less likely

than average to live in terraced dwellings. Sikh households were also more likely than average to live in terraced dwellings and flats in commercial buildings and less likely than average to live in detached or semi-detached dwellings.

Table 4.5: Dwelling types by ethnic group and religion 2001 (percentage of households)

	All housing types	Detached house or bungalow	Semi-detached house or bungalow	Terraced house or bungalow	Flat, maisonette or apartment			A caravan or other mobile
					Purpose-built	Part of a converted	In a commercial building	
Total	1,209,067	27.1	32.5	29.2	7.8	2.1	1.0	0.4
<i>White</i>	1,190,403	27.2	32.6	29.1	7.7	2.1	1.0	0.4
British	1,164,984	27.2	32.7	29.2	7.6	2.0	0.9	0.4
Irish	9,436	24.7	29.7	29.1	10.0	4.6	1.4	0.7
Other White	15,983	27.1	28.1	28.2	9.3	4.9	1.9	0.5
<i>Minority ethnic groups</i>	18,664	21.0	23.5	33.8	12.6	5.3	3.3	0.4
<i>Mixed</i>	4,428	16.8	27.5	32.5	15.2	6.3	1.3	0.4
White and Black Caribbean	1,492	13.0	29.1	34.7	16.5	5.4	1.1	0.2
White and Black African	711	11.7	28.4	35.4	17.0	5.3	1.7	0.4
White and Asian	1,036	22.5	28.0	29.2	11.8	7.5	1.1	0.0
Other Mixed	1,189	19.8	24.4	31.0	15.3	7.0	1.7	0.8
<i>Asian or Asian British</i>	7,470	23.3	22.2	37.1	9.3	4.2	3.5	0.3
Indian	2,760	31.9	21.0	24.7	12.4	5.1	4.8	0.1
Pakistani	2,177	17.3	23.3	46.3	5.1	3.5	3.7	0.8
Bangladeshi	1,233	10.4	18.2	57.7	7.1	3.8	2.2	0.5
Other Asian	1,300	27.6	26.8	28.2	11.7	4.0	1.7	0.0
<i>Black or Black British</i>	3,083	13.4	23.0	35.9	18.4	7.0	1.9	0.4
Black Caribbean	1,465	10.4	23.7	41.2	16.9	6.5	1.3	0.0
Black African	1,308	16.3	22.1	30.4	20.0	8.2	2.3	0.7
Other Black	310	15.2	23.5	34.2	18.4	4.8	2.9	1.0
<i>Chinese & Other</i>	3,683	27.8	21.9	27.0	11.6	4.9	6.3	0.4
Chinese	2,002	27.6	20.4	30.3	7.7	3.8	10.0	0.1
Other Ethnic Group	1,681	28.1	23.7	23.0	16.4	6.1	2.0	0.8
Caribbean	2,957	11.7	26.4	37.9	16.7	6.0	1.2	0.1
African	2,019	14.7	24.3	32.2	19.0	7.2	2.1	0.6
Religion								
Christian	892,157	28.9	33.1	27.7	7.4	1.7	0.8	0.3
Buddhist	2,662	28.1	24.1	27.3	11.0	6.2	2.7	0.5
Hindu	1,865	33.7	21.2	22.8	13.1	4.6	4.1	0.5
Muslim	5,989	17.5	21.9	41.8	10.4	4.9	3.2	0.2
Sikh	618	25.2	23.6	31.1	6.6	4.0	8.9	0.5
Jewish	1,146	36.5	24.1	18.3	14.1	4.6	1.8	0.5
Other	3,622	23.7	25.7	31.8	9.8	6.7	1.4	1.0
No Religion	214,450	20.7	31.0	34.8	8.2	3.5	1.5	0.4

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Commissioned Tables M263 and M317)

4.5 Household size

Variations between ethnic groups in size of household living in different types of dwelling can provide an indication of housing need, for example if it reveals that large households from a particular group are living in dwelling types which typically

have less space. Average household sizes were largest for households whose head was of mixed parentage, followed by Asian or Asian British and Chinese and Other households. Black and Black British households had fewer residents than white households on average.

Table 4.6: Persons per household in dwellings of each type

	ALL HOUSEHOLDS	Household in unshared accommodation	House or bungalow	Flat, maisonette or apartment	Caravan or other mobile or temporary structure	Household in shared accommodation
Total	1,209,047	2.4	2.5	1.5	1.9	1.4
White	1,190,399	2.4	2.5	1.5	1.9	1.3
British	1,164,985	2.4	2.5	1.5	1.9	1.3
Irish	9,436	1.8	1.9	1.4	1.8	1.2
Other White	15,978	2.2	2.3	1.7	2.3	1.4
Minority ethnic groups	18,648	3.2	3.5	2.2	2.3	1.6
Mixed	4,432	3.9	4.5	2.0	2.1	1.3
White & Black Caribbean	1,493	4.0	4.6	1.9	2.8	1.7
White and Black African	709	3.3	3.8	2.0	1.7	1.0
White and Asian	1,042	4.7	5.4	2.2	1.8	1.5
Other Mixed	1,188	3.5	4.1	1.8	2.0	1.1
Asian or Asian British	7,472	3.3	3.5	2.6	2.9	2.1
Indian	2,762	2.9	2.9	2.5	3.3	1.8
Pakistani	2,178	3.8	3.9	2.9	2.4	2.2
Bangladeshi	1,231	4.4	4.6	3.2	5.3	3.4
Other Asian	1,301	2.5	2.6	2.0	2.3	2.0
Black or Black British	3,073	2.2	2.4	1.6	1.8	1.5
Black Caribbean	1,464	1.7	1.9	1.3	-	1.0
Black African	1,300	2.7	3.0	1.9	1.6	1.8
Other Black	309	2.4	2.6	1.6	-	1.3
Chinese & Other	3,671	2.9	3.0	2.3	1.8	1.2
Chinese	1,999	2.9	3.0	2.6	-	1.3
Other Ethnic Group	1,672	2.8	3.1	2.0	1.8	1.1
Caribbean	2,957	2.9	3.2	1.6	1.6	1.4
African	2,009	2.9	3.3	2.0	1.6	1.6
Religion						
Christian	891,218	2.3	2.4	1.4	1.9	1.3
Buddhist	2,656	1.9	2.0	1.5	1.6	1.1
Hindu	1,844	2.8	2.8	2.5	2.8	1.2
Jewish	1,134	1.9	2.0	1.4	1.0	1.2
Muslim	5,957	3.6	3.8	2.5	2.5	2.2
Sikh	608	3.2	3.3	2.6	-	4.1
Other	3,596	1.9	2.0	1.4	1.8	1.3
None	214,094	2.6	2.8	1.6	2.1	1.5

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Commissioned Tables M263 and M317)

Table 4.6 presents the average size of household living in each physical dwelling type. In general terms, larger households lived in larger dwellings in 2001 – the average household size was 1 person larger in houses and bungalows than in flats and maisonettes. BME households tended to be larger than white households, and the largest BME households also lived in houses and bungalows. The largest households were those where the household reference person was of mixed

parentage or Bangladeshi ethnic origin. The table reveals that within the small number of households living in temporary accommodation, South Asian (especially Bangladeshi) households tended to be larger than average. This pattern was also evident for households living in shared accommodation; the average Bangladeshi household in shared accommodation containing 3.4 persons, more than twice the average.

4.7 Housing tenure

Table 4.7: Tenure type of households from each ethnic group (percentages of all households)

	ALL HOUSEHOLDS	Owner-occupied	Rented from council	Other social rented	Private rented or living rent free
Total	1,209,047	71.3	13.7	4.2	10.8
<i>White</i>	<i>1,190,399</i>	<i>71.5</i>	<i>13.8</i>	<i>4.1</i>	<i>10.6</i>
British	1,164,985	71.7	13.8	4.1	10.4
Irish	9,436	65.2	14.4	5.5	14.9
Other White	15,978	64.7	10.6	3.9	20.8
Minority ethnic groups	18,648	58.2	11.6	7.3	23.0
<i>Mixed</i>	<i>4,432</i>	<i>50.7</i>	<i>19.1</i>	<i>10.2</i>	<i>20.0</i>
White and Black Caribbean	1,493	46.5	23.1	13.6	16.8
White and Black African	709	47.5	23.7	9.9	18.8
White and Asian	1,042	58.1	13.7	7.2	21.0
Other Mixed	1,188	51.3	16.0	8.9	23.7
<i>Asian or Asian British</i>	<i>7,472</i>	<i>67.0</i>	<i>6.4</i>	<i>4.8</i>	<i>21.8</i>
Indian	2,762	66.3	3.8	3.0	26.9
Pakistani	2,178	72.5	6.8	5.0	15.7
Bangladeshi	1,231	62.8	10.0	8.5	18.7
Other Asian	1,301	63.1	7.8	4.9	24.2
<i>Black or Black British</i>	<i>3,073</i>	<i>48.6</i>	<i>19.6</i>	<i>12.6</i>	<i>19.2</i>
Black Caribbean	1,464	58.7	18.9	10.5	11.9
Black African	1,300	38.2	19.5	14.5	27.9
Other Black	309	44.3	23.9	15.2	17.2
<i>Chinese & Other</i>	<i>3,671</i>	<i>57.3</i>	<i>6.2</i>	<i>4.2</i>	<i>32.3</i>
Chinese	1,999	71.3	4.6	1.9	22.3
Other Ethnic Group	1,672	40.6	8.1	7.1	44.1
Caribbean	2,957	52.6	21.0	12.0	14.4
African	2,009	41.5	21.0	12.8	24.7

(Continued)

	ALL HOUSE-HOLDS	Owner-occupied	Rented from council	Other social rented	Private rented or living rent free
Religion					
Christian	892,157	74.1	13.1	3.7	9.1
Buddhist	2,666	60.4	9.0	4.8	25.8
Hindu	1,861	66.1	2.8	2.7	28.4
Jewish	1,139	75.0	5.8	4.8	14.4
Muslim	5,985	58.8	10.1	8.5	22.6
Sikh	615	71.9	7.6	3.7	17.1
Other	3,620	56.7	13.5	6.5	23.3
None	86,551	66.2	16.6	4.8	12.3

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Tables 111 and 156)

Overall, well over two-thirds of households in Wales were owner-occupiers (either owning outright or purchasing their homes). Local authority and other social landlords housed 17.9% of all households and private sector landlords provided accommodation to 10.8% of all households (Table 4.7). On average, BME households were less likely than white households to own their own homes, but were also less likely to live in local authority rented accommodation. Thus, BME households were more than twice as likely as white households to live in private sector rented accommodation and were also more likely to live in accommodation provided by housing associations and other social landlords.

This overall average for BME households obscures substantial differences between ethnic groups. Two-thirds of Asian and Asian British households owned their dwellings, while only half of those with heads from Black or Black British or mixed parentage ethnic groups owned their homes. The two latter ethnic groups

were more likely than other broad ethnic groupings to live in rented accommodation, especially local authority and other social landlord rented housing. Households from Asian or Asian British ethnic groups were less likely than those from other ethnic groups to live in social rented housing, but more likely to live in private sector rented accommodation. Among BME households, those with Pakistani and Chinese heads were most likely to be owner-occupiers (a similar percentage to white households). Households headed by people from the "Other", Black-African and Other-Asian ethnic groups were most likely to live in private sector rented accommodation.

Turning to the religion of household head, Jewish and Sikh households were most likely to be owner-occupiers, while Hindu-headed households were most likely to rent from private sector landlords. Households where the household reference person is Sikh were most likely to rent from social landlords.

Table 4.8: Mean household size (persons per household) in each tenure type by ethnic group and religion, Wales 2001

	Owner-occupied	Council rented	Other social	Private rented
Total	2.4	2.2	2.2	2.2
<i>White</i>	2.4	2.2	2.2	2.1
British	2.4	2.2	2.2	2.1
Irish	1.9	1.5	1.4	1.9
Other White	2.2	2.1	1.9	2.2
<i>Minority ethnic groups</i>	3.4	3.0	3.0	2.9
<i>Mixed</i>	4.3	3.7	3.8	3.3
White/Black Caribbean	4.0	4.1	4.3	3.5
White/Black African	3.4	3.2	3.3	3.2
White/Asian	5.2	4.2	3.7	3.9
Other Mixed	4.0	3.1	3.1	2.8
<i>Asian or Asian British</i>	3.4	3.1	3.0	3.0
Indian	2.9	2.3	2.2	2.7
Pakistani	3.9	3.3	3.2	3.4
Bangladeshi	4.7	4.0	3.9	3.6
Other Asian	2.5	2.4	2.3	2.8
<i>Black or Black British</i>	2.1	2.0	2.5	2.3
Black Caribbean	1.8	1.6	1.6	1.7
Black African	2.6	2.5	3.1	2.7
Other Black	2.5	2.1	2.6	2.0
<i>Chinese & Other</i>	3.0	2.4	2.1	2.7
Chinese	3.0	2.2	2.3	2.6
Other Ethnic Group	3.0	2.6	2.0	2.8
Caribbean	2.8	3.0	3.1	2.8
African	2.9	2.8	3.2	2.8
Religion				
Christian	2.4	2.0	2.0	2.0
Buddhist	2.0	1.7	1.6	1.9
Hindu	2.8	1.9	1.9	2.7
Jewish	1.9	1.7	1.7	1.9
Muslim	3.9	3.1	3.2	3.2
Sikh	3.4	2.4	2.5	2.9
Other	2.0	1.7	1.5	1.7
None	2.5	2.7	2.4	2.3

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Tables 111 and 156 and Theme Tables 15 and 53)

4.7.1 Household size by tenure

Table 4.8 presents the mean household size in each ethnic and religious group. Household sizes were larger on average in owner-occupied accommodation than rented accommodation for both white and BME households, but Caribbean

households were largest in social rented accommodation. The largest households had household reference persons from the mixed white/Asian parentage, Bangladeshi, Pakistani and Sikh ethnic groups, and lived in owner-occupied dwellings.

Table 4.9: Dwelling type and tenure for white and BME households, 2001

	WHITE			BME		
	Owner-occupied	Social rented	Private sector rented	Owner-occupied	Social rented	Private sector rented
Detached	34.0	4.9	18.3	29.3	6.1	10.4
Semi-detached	33.9	37.1	21.2	27.1	28.3	21.5
Terraced house/bungalow	28.8	28.2	30.5	37.4	35.4	29.9
Purpose-built flats	2.0	27.2	10.9	2.2	27.3	18.8
Flat-converted or shared house (including bed sits)	0.6	2.3	12.4	0.9	2.0	10.4
Flat or maisonette in commercial building	0.4	0.2	6.1	2.2	1.0	9.0
Mobile or temporary structure	0.3	0.1	0.6	0.9	0.0	0.0

Source: 2001 Census 3% Individual Sample of Anonymised Records

4.7.2 Housing tenure and dwelling type

Among owner-occupied households, those with BME household reference persons were much more likely than white households to live in terraced dwellings (Table 4.9). In the social rented sector, BME households were less likely to live in

detached or semi-detached houses than white households, no more likely to live in flats, but again more likely to live in terraced dwellings. In the private rented sector, BME households were more likely to live in purpose-built flats and in flats or maisonettes in commercial buildings.

Table 4.10: Percentage living in each family type by tenure for white and BME households, 2001

	WHITE			BME		
	Owner-occupied	Social rented	Private sector rented	Owner-occupied	Social rented	Private sector rented
Lone parent - male	1.4	2.2	1.9	1.5	3.0	1.8
Lone parent - female	6.4	27.6	20.8	8.9	35.9	15.8
Married couple - no children	23.6	10.6	9.8	12.8	3.9	6.5
Married couple - children all belong to both partners	42.7	21.0	16.1	55.8	29.9	35.0
Married couple - children do not all belong to both partners	3.8	4.6	2.6	4.0	3.3	2.3
Cohabiting couple - no children	3.6	2.4	7.2	1.9	0.7	2.8
Cohabiting couple - children all belong to both partners	2.9	5.5	4.2	2.0	3.3	1.3
Cohabiting couple - children do not all belong to both partners	2.3	4.3	3.3	1.3	2.0	0.3
Ungrouped individual (not in a family)	13.2	21.7	34.2	11.9	18.1	34.5

Source: 2001 Census 3% Individual Sample of Anonymised Records

4.7.3 Family type and tenure

Married couples were the predominant family type living in owner-occupied housing, 70.1% of white and 72.6% of BME people living in this tenure category (Table 4.11), but BME households were more likely to contain dependent children. Cohabiting couples were slightly more common among white households and lone parents more common among BME households. In the social rented sector, the percentage of white people living in lone parent households was almost the same as the percentage living in married couple families, and the third largest category consisted of people not living in families.

In BME households, 38.9% of all people in social rented accommodation lived in lone parent families. White couples were more likely than BME couples not to be living with children. The private rented sector was an important source of accommodation for single people, with 34.2% of white and 34.5% of BME people not living in a family. One large difference between white and BME people was that 37.3% of BME people living in private sector rented accommodation lived in married couple families containing dependent children - more than twice the corresponding percentage for white people.

4.7.4 Geographical variations in BME housing tenure

Table 4.11: Tenure composition of BME households (percent of BME households)

	BME households	Owner-occupied	Council rented	Other social rented	Private sector
Monmouthshire	280	73.6	6.4	3.2	20.0
Flintshire	381	70.9	11.5	4.5	13.4
Caerphilly	555	70.8	11.5	5.6	12.1
Conwy	367	69.5	6.5	4.9	22.6
The Vale of Glamorgan	799	68.6	10.1	6.0	15.0
Neath Port Talbot	501	66.5	15.0	1.8	13.6
Rhondda, Cynon, Taf	828	65.6	6.4	6.5	21.5
Torfaen	265	63.4	22.3	4.5	12.5
Isle of Anglesey	152	63.2	7.9	2.0	26.3
Bridgend	535	62.2	8.8	2.2	26.0
Merthyr Tydfil	203	61.6	7.9	3.0	26.1
Newport	1,874	59.2	15.7	8.6	16.1
Swansea	1,353	56.5	9.7	8.1	26.2
Carmarthenshire	527	56.2	11.2	5.7	26.2
Cardiff	7,713	55.0	11.7	9.5	23.8
Pembrokeshire	337	54.6	11.6	3.0	29.7
Powys	303	54.5	8.9	4.0	32.0
Gwynedd	381	53.3	10.2	3.4	31.0
Denbighshire	335	52.2	8.7	6.3	33.4
Blaenau Gwent	188	51.1	25.0	6.4	12.8
Wrexham	483	43.9	17.6	7.5	31.5
Ceredigion	315	40.0	4.8	2.2	51.1
Wales	18,675	58.1	11.6	7.3	22.9

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Table 111)

There were large variations in the tenure of housing occupied by BME households between unitary authorities in Wales in 2001 (Table 4.11). In Monmouthshire, Flintshire, Caerphilly, Conwy and the Vale of Glamorgan, over two-thirds were owner-occupiers, but less than half were owner-occupiers in Ceredigion and Wrexham. The percentage renting from local authorities was highest in Blaenau Gwent and Torfaen, but in other parts of the valleys (e.g. Rhondda, Cynon, Taf) was almost as low as the areas where percentages renting from the local authority

were lowest (Ceredigion). The percentage renting from other social landlords was highest in the three south Wales cities (9.5% in Cardiff) and Wrexham. BME households were most dependent upon private sector landlords for housing in Ceredigion, where 51.1% lived in private sector rented accommodation, and rural areas such as Denbighshire and Powys, followed by Wrexham. The percentage renting from the private sector was lowest in the Valleys – Caerphilly, Torfaen and Blaenau Gwent.

Table 4.12: BME households as a percentage of households in each tenure category, Wales 2001

	BME households	All	Owner-occupied	Council rented	Other social rented	Private sector
Cardiff	7,713	6.2	4.9	7.1	9.0	11.2
Newport	1,874	3.3	2.8	3.1	5.7	6.8
The Vale of Glamorgan	799	1.6	1.4	1.9	2.4	2.7
Swansea	1,353	1.4	1.2	1.0	2.3	3.4
Bridgend	535	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	3.1
Ceredigion	315	1.0	0.6	0.5	0.8	2.9
Merthyr Tydfil	203	0.9	0.8	0.4	0.5	2.3
Neath Port Talbot	501	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.4	1.4
Rhondda, Cynon, Taf	828	0.9	0.8	0.5	1.3	1.9
Wrexham	483	0.9	0.6	0.7	2.5	3.5
Caerphilly	555	0.8	0.8	0.5	1.1	1.6
Conwy	367	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.9	1.2
Denbighshire	335	0.8	0.6	0.8	1.4	2.0
Gwynedd	381	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.7	1.6
Monmouthshire	280	0.8	0.8	0.5	0.7	1.7
Carmarthenshire	527	0.7	0.6	0.6	1.3	1.8
Pembrokeshire	337	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	1.6
Torfaen	265	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.9	1.6
Blaenau Gwent	188	0.6	0.5	0.7	0.9	1.0
Flintshire	381	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.9	1.1
Powys	303	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.5	1.2
Isle of Anglesey	152	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.7	0.9
Wales	18,648	1.5	1.3	1.3	2.7	3.3

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Table 111)

The share of BME households in all households was greatest by far in Cardiff, followed by Newport, the Vale of Glamorgan and Swansea, reaching a minimum of 1 in every 200 households in Anglesey (Table 4.12). The share of BME households of all households in rented accommodation was much higher than their share of owner-occupied housing in the urbanised areas of Wales. However, BME households formed less

than 1% of households in local authority accommodation in all unitary authorities except Cardiff, Newport, the Vale of Glamorgan and Swansea and less than 1.5% of households accommodated by other social landlords in all unitary authorities except these four plus Wrexham. Their share of private sector rented accommodation was higher than their share of all households in each unitary authority and above average in urban areas.

As demonstrated in Chapter 2, the major cities of Wales contained the main concentrations of people from minority ethnic groups. BME groups were also geographically concentrated within these cities, as demonstrated by Figures A4.X to A4.X, which present the geographical distribution of households classified by tenure across Cardiff, Swansea and Newport.

4.8 Housing Need

In the remainder of this chapter, data on several dimensions of housing need by ethnic group and religion of household will be presented. The literature review presented in chapter 1 demonstrates that there are a number of components of housing need, including:

- Overcrowding;
- Lack of physical amenities and secure housing;
- Culturally appropriate housing.

The first two of these are related to the physical character of available housing. The Census of Population asks questions about the physical nature of a dwelling, its ownership, whether a dwelling is self-contained or not, the number of rooms in the dwelling and the presence of amenities. The amenities covered by the Census are whether a household has exclusive use of a bathroom/WC and the presence of central heating in a dwelling. Very few households now do not have a bathroom or WC and the percentage without central heating is also declining. The Welsh House Condition Survey for 1998 revealed that 99% of all dwellings in Wales had the five basic amenities of exclusive access to a bath/shower, WC, hand basin, kitchen sink and plumbed hot and cold water and 89% had central heating. These features were least common in private sector rented dwellings, older dwellings and terraced houses.

Overcrowding is a function both of size of dwelling and household size. As demonstrated earlier in this chapter, BME households tend to be larger than white households, with those headed by people of mixed parentage, from Asian and Asian British ethnic groups and of Muslim religion having the largest households.

4.8.1 Overcrowding

The literature review presented in Chapter 1 highlighted the repeated finding of housing needs studies and analyses of Census data which have shown that BME households experience higher rates of overcrowding than white households (measured by the percentage of households or people living in overcrowded conditions). Until 2001, Censuses of Population published information on the number of households living at a density of more than 1.5 persons per room, or 1 person per room. In the 2001 Census, ONS has provided an Occupancy Rating, which provides a measure of under occupancy and over crowding. It relates the actual number of rooms to the number of rooms 'required' by the members of the household (based on a relationship between them and their ages). For example, a one-person household is assumed to require three rooms (two common rooms and a bedroom). Overcrowding occurs where a household has fewer rooms than the Occupancy Rating.

Table 4.13 presents the number and percentage of households and persons living in overcrowded conditions, using the definitions of persons per room and the Occupancy Rating. Only 1 in 200 households lived at a density of more than 1 person per room, and in only 1 in 1000 were there more than 1.5 persons per room. However, 2.3% of BME households lived at a density of more than 1 person per room, and 0.8% lived at a density of 1.5

persons per room or more. Only Caribbean households lived at a density similar to white households, with households headed by persons of mixed parentage the next least likely to live at high density. In the Black ethnic groups, Black-African people were more likely to live at a high density than all other ethnic groups except

Bangladeshi people. Amongst Asian groups, the highest densities were experienced by the Bangladeshi, Other, Chinese, Other-Asian and Pakistani ethnic groups. Muslim and Sikh households were also much more likely to live in high densities than people of other religious backgrounds.

Table 4.13: Overcrowding by ethnic group and religion, 2001

	Households with fewer rooms than required				% of households with	
	Residents	Percent of persons from ethnic group	Households	Percent of households from ethnic group	More than 1 person per room	More than 1.5 persons per room
Total	165,508	5.8	52,907	4.4	0.5	0.1
<i>White</i>	154,995	5.5	50,007	4.2	0.4	0.1
British	150,188	5.5	48,185	4.1	0.4	0.1
Irish	1,573	7.6	607	6.4	0.6	0.2
Other White	3,234	8.5	1,215	7.6	0.7	0.3
Minority ethnic groups	10,513	19.0	2,900	15.5	2.3	0.8
<i>Mixed</i>	1,299	12.0	480	10.8	1.1	0.3
White/Black Caribbean	319	8.8	118	7.9	0.8	0.1
White/Black African	274	14.9	93	13.1	1.5	0.5
White/Asian	302	11.8	115	11.0	1.1	0.4
Other Mixed	404	14.5	154	12.9	1.1	0.5
<i>Asian or Asian British</i>	5,412	20.9	1,266	16.9	2.8	1.0
Indian	1,291	15.6	388	14.0	1.9	0.7
Pakistani	1,628	19.5	341	15.6	2.5	0.8
Bangladeshi	1,742	32.3	331	26.8	4.8	1.9
Other Asian	751	19.2	206	15.9	2.6	0.8
<i>Black or Black British</i>	1,412	18.2	462	15.0	1.9	0.6
Black Caribbean	308	9.4	134	9.1	0.6	0.1
Black African	969	26.2	286	22.0	3.1	1.2
Other Black	135	17.0	42	13.5	1.1	0.0
<i>Chinese & Other</i>	2,390	22.0	692	18.9	2.7	0.9
Chinese	1,357	22.8	375	18.8	2.7	0.8
Other Ethnic Group	1,033	21.1	317	18.9	2.8	1.0
Caribbean	627	9.1	252	8.5	0.7	0.1
African	1,243	22.5	379	18.9	2.6	1.0
Religion						
Christian	98,357	4.8	32,974	3.7	0.4	0.1
Buddhist	522	10.1	238	8.9	0.8	0.4
Hindu	839	16.5	272	14.6	2.2	0.8
Jewish	96	4.5	42	3.7	0.1	0.0
Muslim	5,466	25.6	1,280	21.4	3.6	1.3
Sikh	378	19.3	92	15.0	2.7	0.9
Other	487	7.2	250	6.9	0.7	0.2
None	41,043	7.7	12,859	6.0	0.7	0.1

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Table 123, 124, 159 and 160)

A much larger percentage of people and households are defined as living in overcrowded conditions by the Occupancy Rating. Overall, 4.4% of all households and 5.8% of all people lived in dwellings where there were fewer rooms than the household required. Overcrowding was much more severe for BME groups, with 15.5% of households and 19% of people living in dwellings in which there were too few rooms.

The Chinese and Other ethnic groups experienced the greatest degree of overcrowding, with nearly a fifth of households and more than a fifth of persons living in dwellings with too few

rooms. Once again, households whose heads were of mixed parentage or Caribbean ethnic origin were least likely to be overcrowded, while overcrowding was more severe for Black-African and Asian ethnic groups. Nearly a third of Bangladeshi and a quarter of Black-African people lived in dwellings without sufficient rooms, while a fifth of Pakistani and Other-Asian people lived in overcrowded conditions. Muslim and Sikh households were most likely to live in dwellings with too few rooms for the household. While Hindu people experienced a much greater degree of overcrowding than average, they were less likely than households from other Asian religions to live in overcrowded dwellings.

Table 4.14: Households experiencing lack of amenities

	In a shared dwelling		Without central heating	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	1,518	0.1	90,786	7.5
<i>White</i>	1,405	0.1	89,735	7.5
British	1,315	0.1	87,628	7.5
Irish	33	0.3	881	9.3
Other White	57	0.4	1,226	7.7
Minority ethnic groups	113	0.6	1,051	5.6
<i>Mixed</i>	25	0.6	294	6.6
White/Black Caribbean	3	0.2	95	6.4
White/Black African	3	0.4	53	7.5
White/Asian	3	0.3	64	6.1
Other Mixed	16	1.3	82	6.9
<i>Asian or Asian British</i>	46	0.6	331	4.4
Indian	28	1.0	63	2.3
Pakistani	7	0.3	148	6.8
Bangladeshi	11	0.9	77	6.2
Other Asian		0.0	43	3.3
<i>Black or Black British</i>	22	0.7	195	6.3
Black Caribbean	9	0.6	90	6.1
Black African	10	0.8	82	6.3
Other Black	3	1.0	23	7.4

(Continued)

	In a shared dwelling		Without central heating	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
<i>Chinese & Other</i>	20	0.5	231	6.3
Chinese	6	0.3	118	5.9
Other Ethnic Group	14	0.8	113	6.8
Caribbean	12	0.4	185	6.3
African	13	0.6	135	6.7
Religion				
Christian	939	0.1	66,337	7.4
Buddhist	7	0.3	304	11.4
Hindu	15	0.8	47	2.5
Jewish		0.0	81	7.1
Muslim	31	0.5	329	5.5
Sikh	3	0.5	32	5.2
Other	24	0.7	471	13.0
None	358	0.2	15,449	7.2

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Table 123 and 159)

4.8.2 Lack of physical amenities

Tables 4.14 and 4.15 present the percentages of households and persons living in shared accommodation, and without central heating. Overall, only 1 in 1000 households occupied shared dwellings, but this rate was three times above average for white-Irish households and six times above average for BME households. However, this affects smaller households, since the percentage of BME persons in such accommodation is smaller than the percentage of households (0.4% compared with 0.6%).

Within individual ethnic groups, the number of households living in shared dwellings was very small. The largest number of households affected were from the Indian ethnic group, with 1% of households (and 0.8% of Hindu households) living in shared dwellings, followed by households from the "Other" ethnic group and Bangladeshi households.

Table 4.15: Persons experiencing lack of amenities

	In a shared dwelling		Without central heating	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	2,061	0.1	184,152	6.4
<i>White</i>	1,866	0.1	181,621	6.5
British	1,743	0.1	177,570	6.5
Irish	44	0.2	1689	8.2
Other White	79	0.2	2362	6.2
Minority ethnic groups	195	0.4	2531	4.6
<i>Mixed</i>	35	0.3	597	5.5
White/Black Caribbean	11	0.3	208	5.8
White/Black African	4	0.2	114	6.2
White/Asian	3	0.1	140	5.5
Other Mixed	17	0.6	135	4.8
<i>Asian or Asian British</i>	100	0.4	1,067	4.1
Indian	44	0.5	145	1.8
Pakistani	15	0.2	490	5.9
Bangladeshi	30	0.6	338	6.3
Other Asian	11	0.3	94	2.4
<i>Black or Black British</i>	30	0.4	314	4.0
Black Caribbean	9	0.3	141	4.3
Black African	18	0.5	134	3.6
Other Black	3	0.4	39	4.9
<i>Chinese & Other</i>	30	0.3	553	5.1
Chinese	15	0.3	325	5.5
Other Ethnic Group	15	0.3	228	4.6
Caribbean	20	0.3	349	5.1
African	22	0.4	248	4.5
Religion				
Christian	1,236	0.1	131,309	6.4
Buddhist	10	0.2	463	9.0
Hindu	18	0.4	89	1.7
Jewish	3	0.1	115	5.4
Muslim	61	0.3	1,030	4.8
Sikh	29	1.5	85	4.3
Other	31	0.5	767	11.3
None	473	0.1	33,639	6.3

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Table 124 and 160)

The 1998 Welsh House Condition Survey (WHCS) revealed that overall, 8.5% of dwellings in Wales were unfit. Unfitness was more prevalent among privately-rented dwellings (18.4% were classified as unfit) than in the owner-occupied or social rented sector. The most common reason for unfitness in privately-rented dwellings was 'disrepair'. Age of dwelling is a major factor in unfitness, with 14.9% of houses built before 1919 and 11.4% of terraced houses in Wales being classified as unfit.

The Census does not record the physical condition of a dwelling, but does record lack of amenities such as central heating, or the exclusive use of a bathroom or WC. In 2001, 7.5% of all households had no central heating, but only 6.4% of the population lived in such housing. Many people living in such housing

were pensioners, reflected in the higher percentage of white-Irish households and residents living in this type of housing. BME households were less likely than white households to live in dwellings without central heating, and only 4.6% of BME people lived in such dwellings.

Turning to individual BME groups, the percentage of households and residents living in housing without central heating was smaller than for white people. Indian households were least likely to live in such housing, but Pakistani, Bangladeshi, Black-African and Black-Caribbean households were more likely than other BME households not to have central heating in their homes. A total of only 21 BME households lived in shared accommodation without central heating.

Table 4.16: Households without exclusive use of toilet or bath by ethnic group of household reference person and city

Ethnic group of household reference person	WALES		Cardiff		Newport		Swansea	
	households	percent	households	percent	households	percent	households	percent
All ethnic groups	4,676	0.4	501	0.4	194	0.3	292	0.3
White	4,486	0.4	434	0.4	158	0.3	275	0.3
Black and Minority Ethnic groups	190	1.0	67	0.9	36	1.9	17	1.3
Mixed parentage	40	0.9	18	1.1	9	2.6	8	3.2
Asian or Asian British	69	0.9	20	0.6	8	0.9	-	-
Black or Black British	44	1.4	19	1.2	13	3.3	10	8.3
Chinese or Other	37	1.0	10	0.8	6	2.4	3	0.9

Source: Census of Population 2001, commissioned table M93

Table 4.17: Percentages of households and persons lacking amenities, by tenure

	White			BME		
	Owner-occupier	Social renter	Private renter	Owner-occupier	Social renter	Private renter
Households						
Shared use or no bathroom/WC	0.2	0.5	1.4	0.0	0.0	1.4
No central heating	6.5	7.9	15.3	5.9	2.0	9.7
At least two rooms more than required	67.4	27.2	37.1	60.7	19.2	29.9
Number of rooms is lower than those required.	2.2	8.7	10.9	10.3	18.2	24.3
No central heating and fewer rooms than required	0.3	0.6	2.5	0.6	0.0	4.9
Persons						
Shared use or no bathroom/WC	0.2	0.3	0.9	0.5	0.0	1.0
No central heating	5.4	8.4	12.5	4.8	4.9	6.0
At least two rooms more than required	62.2	22.7	34.5	53.9	17.4	30.0
Number of rooms is lower than those required.	3.4	11.9	12.0	14.0	20.7	25.3
No central heating and fewer rooms than required	0.3	1.0	2.0	0.7	0.3	2.3

Source: 2001 Census 3% Individual Sample of Anonymised Records

Lack of exclusive access to a toilet or bath is now rare, affecting only less than 5 thousand households in total in 2001, 0.4% of all households in Wales (Table 4.16). However, 1% of BME households lacked exclusive access to these amenities, with Black and Black British ethnic groups most likely not to have exclusive access to a bathroom or WC. Households from these and mixed parentage ethnic groups resident in Newport and Swansea were more likely to live in dwellings without exclusive access to a bathroom or WC. Of the 69 households from Asian or Asian British ethnic groups living in such dwellings, 20 lived in Cardiff.

The relationship between physical housing condition and housing tenure is explored in Table 4.17. White households in each

tenure category were more likely than BME households to share a bathroom or WC or be without central heating. The difference was particularly large for households in both social and private rented accommodation, but tended to affect smaller households particularly. For both white and BME households, lack of central heating was most common in private sector rented accommodation.

White households were much less likely than BME households to experience overcrowding in all tenure types. In the owner-occupied sector, two-thirds of white households had at least two rooms more than required, well above the corresponding figure for BME households (probably reflecting the greater prevalence of pensioners living alone in houses in

the white population). White households were also likely to have more spacious private rented accommodation than BME households. Overcrowding was most common in the private rented sector, where a quarter of BME households and residents lived in dwellings where there were fewer rooms than required, but a fifth of BME households living in social rented accommodation had fewer rooms than the household requires. Few households experienced both lack of central heating and overcrowded living conditions. This was more common in the private rented sector, affecting 4.9% of BME tenants of private landlords (predominantly smaller households).

4.9 Household deprivation

An Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC)-funded research project devised a series of Alternative Household Classifications which summarised household deprivation, for use with the 2001 Census. Four dimensions of household deprivation were defined, covering employment, education, health and disability and housing. Here, the measure of housing deprivation is presented by ethnic group and religion.

A household was defined as experiencing deprivation in the housing domain if its accommodation is either:

- overcrowded (occupancy indicator is - 1 or less), or;

- is in a shared dwelling or does not have sole use of bath/shower and toilet, or;
- has no central heating.

This measure is presented by ethnic group and religion in Table 4.18. Overall, BME households were much more likely to experience deprivation in the housing domain than white households (20.3% compared with 11.3%). BME households represented 2.7% of all households deprived in the housing domain, compared with 1.5% of all households (and were therefore 1.8 times more likely to be deprived than their share of the population would imply). Rates of deprivation were higher than the BME average in the “Chinese and Other” grouping, and lower than average among households with heads of mixed parentage.

This measure highlights the much greater degree of housing deprivation experienced by Bangladeshi (31.7%) and Black-African (27.6%) households. While all BME groups were more deprived in the housing domain than white households, Indian and Caribbean households were the least deprived. Turning to religion, Muslim households were 2.2 times more likely to be deprived on the housing domain than their share of the population, with Sikh households next most likely to experience housing deprivation. Even though they are relatively prosperous, Hindu households were also more likely than average to be deprived in terms of housing.

Table 4.18: Housing deprivation by ethnic group, Wales 2001

	All households		Deprived in housing dimension			
	Number	Percent	Number	percent	Percent deprived	Ratio of share of deprived to share of all households
Total	1,209,048	100.0	138,887	100.0	11.5	1.0
<i>White</i>	<i>1,190,399</i>	<i>98.5</i>	<i>135,107</i>	<i>97.3</i>	<i>11.3</i>	<i>1.0</i>
British	1,164,985	96.4	131,405	94.6	11.3	1.0
Irish	9,436	0.8	1,413	1.0	15.0	1.3
Other White	1,5978	1.3	2,289	1.6	14.3	1.2
Minority ethnic groups	18,649	1.5	3,780	2.7	20.3	1.8
<i>Mixed</i>	<i>4,431</i>	<i>0.4</i>	<i>757</i>	<i>0.5</i>	<i>17.1</i>	<i>1.5</i>
White/Black Caribbean	1,493	0.1	215	0.2	14.4	1.3
White/Black African	708	0.1	141	0.1	19.9	1.7
White/Asian	1,042	0.1	175	0.1	16.8	1.5
Other Mixed	1,188	0.1	226	0.2	19.0	1.7
<i>Asian or Asian British</i>	<i>7,472</i>	<i>0.6</i>	<i>1,550</i>	<i>1.1</i>	<i>20.7</i>	<i>1.8</i>
Indian	2,762	0.2	440	0.3	15.9	1.4
Pakistani	2,178	0.2	472	0.3	21.7	1.9
Bangladeshi	1,231	0.1	390	0.3	31.7	2.8
Other Asian	1,301	0.1	248	0.2	19.1	1.7
<i>Black or Black British</i>	<i>3,074</i>	<i>0.3</i>	<i>630</i>	<i>0.5</i>	<i>20.5</i>	<i>1.8</i>
Black Caribbean	1,463	0.1	206	0.1	14.1	1.2
Black African	1,300	0.1	359	0.3	27.6	2.4
Other Black	311	0.0	65	0.0	20.9	1.8
<i>Chinese & Other</i>	<i>3,672</i>	<i>0.3</i>	<i>843</i>	<i>0.6</i>	<i>23.0</i>	<i>2.0</i>
Chinese	2,000	0.2	452	0.3	22.6	2.0
Other Ethnic Group	1,672	0.1	391	0.3	23.4	2.0
Caribbean	2,956	0.2	421	0.3	14.2	1.2
African	2,008	0.2	500	0.4	24.9	2.2
Religion						
Christian	892,157	73.8	96,597	69.6	10.8	0.9
Buddhist	2,666	0.2	506	0.4	19.0	1.7
Hindu	1,863	0.2	311	0.2	16.7	1.5
Jewish	5,986	0.5	1,544	1.1	25.8	2.2
Muslim	616	0.1	126	0.1	20.5	1.8
Sikh	1,139	0.1	123	0.1	10.8	0.9
Other	3,620	0.3	666	0.5	18.4	1.6
None	214,452	17.7	26,865	19.3	12.5	1.1

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Commissioned Tables M267 and M321)

Table 4.19 presents the percentage of households from each broad ethnic group who were deprived on the housing domain by unitary authority. The percentage of white households deprived on the housing domain was greatest in Gwynedd (24.6%) and lowest in Caerphilly (6.6%). In each unitary authority, the percentage of BME households deprived exceeded the corresponding percentage of white households, reaching a maximum in Ceredigion (31.1%), and being lowest in Caerphilly (where the percentage of white

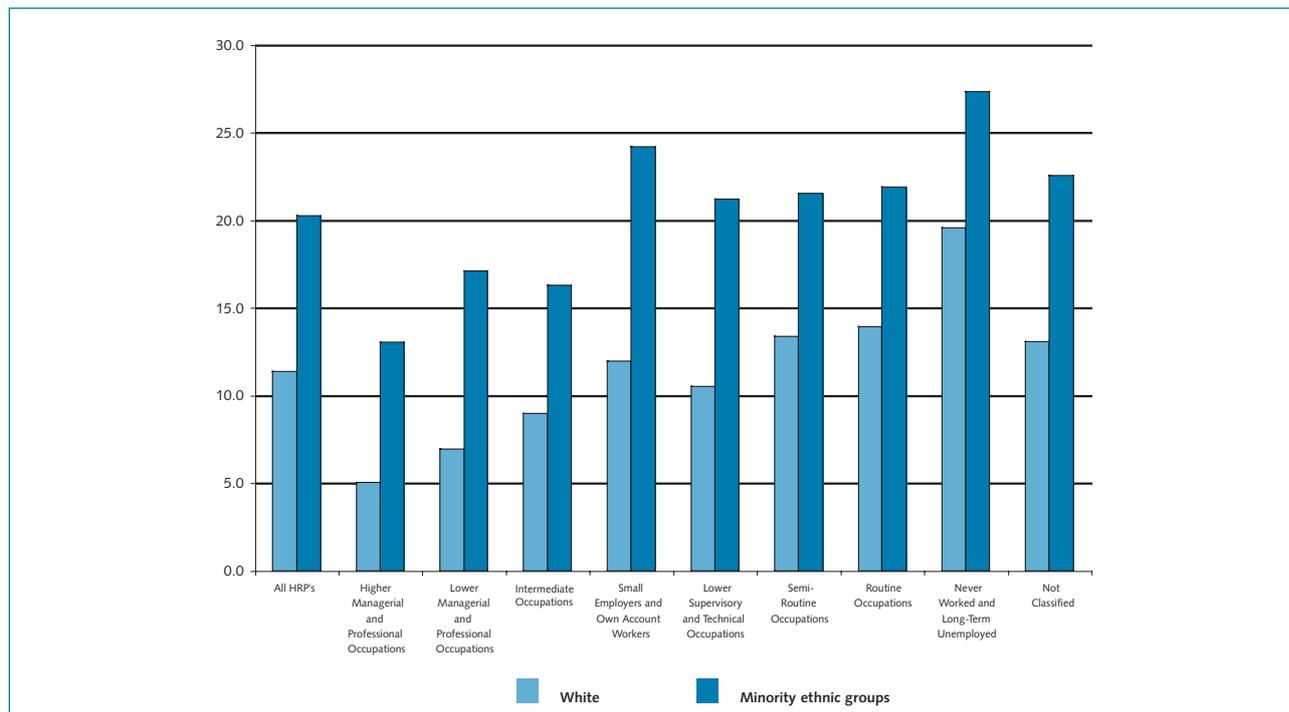
households deprived was also lowest). Very high rates of deprivation were recorded by individual ethnic groups (e.g. African and Chinese and Other people), but these percentages are based on small numbers of households. Rates of housing deprivation were high in unitary authorities with Universities (e.g. Aberystwyth and Lampeter in Ceredigion and Bangor in Gwynedd), and more rural areas. Rates of housing deprivation tended to be lower in the Valleys.

Table 4.19: Percentage of households deprived on housing domain by unitary authority, 2001

	White	Minority ethnic groups	Mixed	Asian	Black	Chinese and Other	Caribbean	African
Wales	11.3	20.3	17.1	20.7	20.5	23.0	14.2	24.9
Ceredigion	19.2	31.1	28.1	25.5	41.9	35.3	28.1	41.0
Isle of Anglesey	21.5	28.9	29.4	23.1	30.4	32.6	38.9	28.6
Gwynedd	24.6	28.8	33.0	25.0	29.8	29.6	32.3	20.4
Wrexham	16.2	26.7	18.6	25.6	25.4	33.1	19.6	24.3
Pembrokeshire	16.1	23.6	20.0	21.6	31.0	26.4	21.1	20.0
Conwy	17.7	22.6	25.2	21.5	19.6	22.6	25.5	32.4
Cardiff	12.0	21.9	18.3	21.8	23.7	24.6	15.4	29.1
Denbighshire	15.1	20.6	18.4	20.3	26.9	19.3	16.2	37.5
Swansea	8.2	20.6	15.9	22.6	21.1	20.2	7.0	28.0
Carmarthenshire	9.7	20.4	17.3	18.0	19.7	28.9	20.0	20.6
Merthyr Tydfil	9.8	20.1	7.5	19.4	26.1	31.6	0.0	17.6
Newport	8.1	19.0	16.1	22.2	15.7	16.3	13.0	19.0
Rhondda, Cynon, Taf	10.2	18.5	16.0	16.7	13.2	25.3	15.1	15.5
Bridgend	7.6	17.8	13.4	20.5	14.6	18.8	4.7	20.7
Powys	11.2	17.7	16.7	22.0	17.1	12.5	16.7	19.4
Blaenau Gwent	7.2	17.0	9.1	24.2	14.3	15.8	12.5	20.0
Flintshire	9.8	14.8	15.7	20.0	0.0	15.6	14.0	7.9
Monmouthshire	7.2	14.1	11.5	14.4	18.2	14.5	10.3	12.0
Torfaen	6.8	14.0	12.2	13.7	7.5	20.6	12.0	0.0
The Vale of Glamorgan	8.3	13.5	11.1	17.8	11.5	12.5	8.8	14.9
Neath Port Talbot	7.3	13.3	8.7	12.8	12.8	22.2	7.1	20.5
Caerphilly	6.6	11.8	10.6	8.7	10.3	19.6	14.3	7.7

Source: Census of Population 2001, Commissioned Table M90.

Figure 4.1: Percentage of white and BME households deprived in housing domain by NS-SEC



Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Table M267)

Figure 4.1 contrasts the percentage of white and BME households who were deprived on the housing domain by the NS-SEC of the household reference person. In white households, the percentage deprived increased as the social status of the household reference person decreased,

rising from 5% for those in higher managerial and professional occupations to nearly 20% for those who have never worked or who are long-term unemployed. The percentage deprived was lower for those who cannot be classified (which includes pensioners).

Table 4.20: Percentage of households deprived on the housing domain by NS-SEC of Household Reference Person

WALES/CYMRU	Higher Managerial and Professional Occupations	Lower Managerial and Professional Occupations	Intermediate Occupations	Small Employers and Own Account Workers	Lower Supervisory and Technical Occupations	Semi-Routine Occupations	Routine Occupations	Never Worked and Long-Term Unemployed	Not Classified
All HRPs	5.3	7.1	9.1	12.2	10.6	13.5	14.0	19.9	13.2
<i>White</i>	5.0	6.9	9.0	11.9	10.5	13.4	13.9	19.6	13.1
British	4.9	6.9	8.9	11.9	10.5	13.3	13.9	19.4	13.0
Irish	7.2	10.0	9.7	13.9	15.5	17.1	19.1	26.5	16.9
Other White	9.3	9.1	13.3	14.9	13.0	17.6	18.3	24.6	16.3
Minority ethnic groups	13.1	17.1	16.3	24.2	21.2	21.5	21.9	27.3	22.6
<i>Mixed</i>	12.1	14.1	16.4	17.8	14.5	19.4	19.0	20.4	18.8
White/Black Caribbean	6.5	11.4	10.2	18.1	13.0	15.2	17.3	19.4	14.9
White/Black African	17.9	16.0	19.6	21.3	15.9	26.9	17.5	15.9	22.6
White/Asian	12.2	13.8	22.2	12.5	17.9	19.6	23.4	17.3	18.4
Other Mixed	12.8	16.1	18.1	20.0	13.5	20.5	20.0	26.7	21.7
<i>Asian or Asian British</i>	13.2	18.5	16.2	24.7	26.9	22.7	25.1	29.5	21.7
Indian	12.4	15.4	11.4	25.1	14.9	15.9	19.3	32.4	15.7
Pakistani	15.6	22.0	18.2	20.9	20.0	21.8	26.5	28.0	22.2
Bangladeshi	21.5	38.1	26.7	35.9	38.3	28.3	31.0	32.8	30.3
Other Asian	11.9	14.1	17.9	19.4	37.0	19.7	18.5	25.9	25.8
<i>Black or Black British</i>	13.5	15.7	17.5	16.2	20.5	18.1	18.3	32.6	24.2
Black Caribbean	6.8	12.9	11.8	7.7	12.8	15.1	16.7	29.1	14.4
Black African	19.5	21.3	22.2	26.8	29.6	21.4	26.6	36.4	31.8
Other Black	0.0	13.0	33.3	21.4	36.4	22.9	9.4	17.4	27.3
<i>Chinese & Other</i>	13.1	20.2	14.4	27.6	23.8	24.6	26.2	25.5	27.6
Chinese	14.0	12.7	13.6	27.6	23.1	26.2	27.5	20.0	23.4
Other Ethnic Group	12.7	25.0	15.3	27.5	24.7	21.8	25.0	29.3	32.5
Caribbean	6.7	12.3	11.0	13.0	12.9	15.1	17.0	23.3	14.7
African	19.1	19.1	20.9	23.9	22.2	23.8	22.3	32.3	29.3
Religion									
Christian	4.4	6.3	8.1	11.3	9.9	12.8	13.5	19.5	12.6
Buddhist	8.4	15.7	18.2	24.1	19.9	19.9	24.5	30.3	22.8
Hindu	12.9	17.1	11.9	25.6	16.7	18.2	21.4	35.3	16.9
Jewish	6.6	4.1	5.9	7.1	21.7	33.3	21.9	26.9	12.1
Muslim	16.5	22.4	27.3	24.3	31.1	27.2	27.9	29.5	30.3
Sikh	13.3	16.7	-	29.3	17.9	15.1	27.1	36.4	16.8
Other	10.7	15.7	14.9	19.4	17.4	22.8	23.8	35.7	17.5
None	6.1	8.3	10.8	13.4	12.0	14.6	14.6	19.1	15.6

Source: 2001 Census of Population Commissioned Table M267 and M321

There was a similar pattern for BME households, but a higher percentage of BME households than white were deprived in each NS-SEC group. In the small employer and own account workers category, BME households were about twice as likely as white households to be deprived in each socio-economic category. The differential was larger among higher status than lower status HRPs (Table 4.20). Among households headed by a person in a lower managerial and professional occupation, 38.1% of Bangladeshi households and 25% of Other households were deprived, while 35.9% of Bangladeshi and 27.6% of Chinese households with HRPs from the small employer and own account worker NS-SEC were deprived on the housing domain. Caribbean and Indian households tended to experience lower rates of deprivation in each NS-SEC. Muslim households experienced the highest rates of deprivation in each NS-SEC.

In order to identify the separate effect of ethnicity from occupation, age, gender and economic activity of the household head, the probability of a household experiencing deprivation in the housing dimension was estimated, using a binary logistic regression model (detailed in Appendix 4). The model

explained 5.3 per cent of the variation (measured by the Nagelkerke R2 statistic) between individual households in the probability of being deprived.

The most important socio-economic factors were the age of the household head (those aged 16-19 being much more likely to experience housing deprivation), being unemployed, being in poor health, being a lone parent and having low educational qualifications. The probability of experiencing household deprivation increased as the socio-economic status of their employment declined.

Several ethnic groups emerged as being much more likely than white people to experience housing deprivation, having removed the effect of the social and economic characteristics of the household head. Households from the Bangladeshi, Chinese, Black-African, Indian and Pakistani ethnic groups are revealed to have a much higher probability of being deprived on the housing dimension. In contrast, people from "Other" ethnic groups were much less likely to experience housing deprivation. The housing deprivation of people of mixed parentage is revealed to be largely a result of their having social and economic characteristics associated with housing deprivation (such as their relative youth).

4.10 Homelessness

Table 4.21: Homelessness by ethnic group

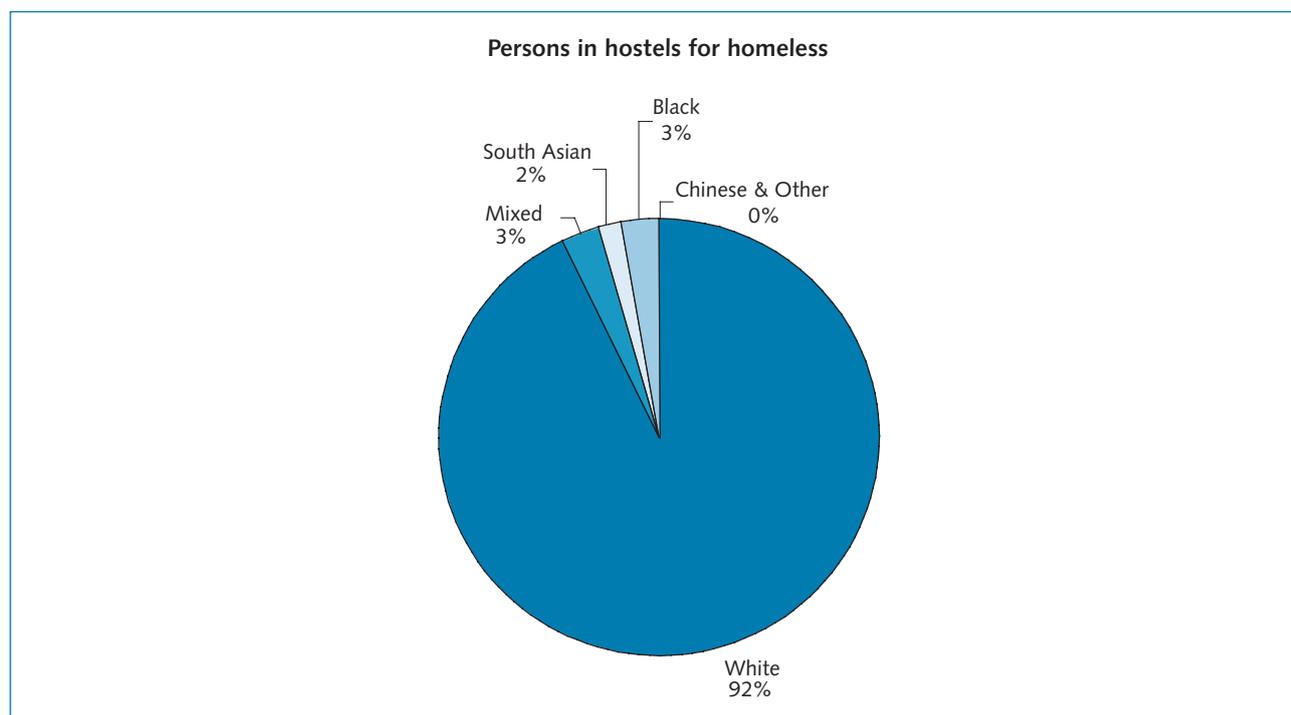
	Residents of hostels for the homeless (inc. youth hostels)	Persons sleeping rough		
		Persons	Males	Females
TOTAL PERSONS	436	111	96	15
White	405	105	93	12
Mixed	12	0	0	0
South Asian	7	6	3	3
Black	12	0	0	0
Chinese & Other	0	0	0	0
Black and Minority ethnic groups	31	6	3	3
Percent from BME groups	7.1	5.4	3.1	20.0

Source: 2001 Census of Population Commissioned Table M248

Relatively few homeless people were identified by the 2001 Census; only 436 in hostels and 111 sleeping rough (Table 4.21). With such small numbers, percentages are strongly influenced by random variations and the addition/subtraction of random numbers to preserve confidentiality of data. Nevertheless, at 7.1%, the share of BME people among the

homeless was much greater than their share of the population as a whole. BME people represented 5.4% of those sleeping rough in 2001. Most BME residents of hostels for the homeless were from the Black or mixed parentage categories. There were too few BME people sleeping rough to identify differences by ethnic group.

Figure 4.2: Ethnic composition of persons in hostels for the homeless, 2001



Source: 2001 Census of Population Commissioned Table M09

About a third (140 out of 436) of homeless people in hostels for the homeless lived in Cardiff in 2001. Of the 31 BME people in this total, 26 were in Cardiff, where they formed 18.1% of all homeless shelter residents. Between October and December 2003 BME applicants formed 3.6% of all applications for help from homeless people who were eligible (under part VII of the Housing act, 1996), unintentionally homeless and in priority need whose ethnicity was recorded (70 in total). Of these, 33 were located in Cardiff, 14 in Swansea and 5 in Wrexham.

4.11 Summary

- BME households tend to be larger on average than white households. Asian and Muslim households tend to be largest.
- Asian and Asian British ethnic groups have a higher percentage of married couples, while Black and Black British and mixed parentage households contain a higher percentage of lone parent households.

- BME family sizes are larger than those of white people and are largest for households from the Bangladeshi, Pakistani and mixed parentage ethnic groups.
- The social composition of BME households is complex. The Indian ethnic group includes both a high percentage of Hindus in high status occupations and Sikhs in lower status occupations. Pakistani, Bangladeshi and Chinese household heads are most likely to be self-employed.
- BME households are less likely than white households to be owner-occupiers, and more likely to rent from private landlords. They are more likely than white households to live in terraced housing and flats.
- BME households are more likely than white households to be overcrowded, but are more likely to live in housing with a full range of amenities.
- BME households experience a higher rate of housing deprivation than white households, irrespective of the social class of the household.
- The share of BME people among the homeless is greater than their share of the population.

5. The refugee and asylum seeker population of Wales

5.1 Introduction

This chapter is concerned with the refugee and asylum seeker populations of Wales. It differs in nature and content to the other chapters. This is because there is much less quantitative data at the local scale on refugees and asylum seekers in the UK than there is for BME groups. This chapter will therefore describe why there are such large gaps in our knowledge about these groups and will sketch in the broad characteristics and likely housing needs of these populations.

Readers who wish to understand the causes of refugee flight, why some asylum seekers opt to come to the UK rather than other countries of sanctuary, and their expectations of life here should see Robinson and Segrott (2002). Some of the practical and ethical issues of researching asylum seekers and refugees have been discussed in Robinson (2003a).

5.2 Clarifying definitions

There is much confusion in the public mind and also in the popular press about who refugees and asylum seekers are. The terms are often used interchangeably or elided, even though they are distinct and even have different legal definitions.

An **asylum seeker** is someone who leaves his or her home country because of claimed persecution and is trying to gain temporary or permanent asylum in another country. If, and when, the country in which they are trying to settle recognises their asylum claim and grants them either permanent or temporary right of residence then they become a **refugee**. 'Asylum seeker' is

therefore a temporary label attached to refugees in waiting.

There are further distinctions within the refugee population depending upon whether the individual and their dependants meet the letter of international law. Those who are able to comply with the 1951 UN Convention on Refugees become **Convention Refugees**, while those who have a compelling case to be granted asylum but cannot meet this strict definition may be given an alternative status such as Humanitarian protection (HP) or Discretionary Leave (DL). A Convention Refugee is a person who:

“Owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear or for reasons other than personal convenience, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country”

Convention Refugees and those granted HP or DL are protected by law against summary repatriation to their country of origin (the principle of 'non-refoulement'), most are able to access welfare support, they can work, and they have residence rights. For a Convention Refugee these entitlements are not time-limited, while for someone granted HP or DL they are for a specified period only, after which an individual has to seek renewal of their status or a more permanent status. Most people granted Exceptional Leave to Remain (the predecessor to HP and DL) in the UK are given permanent status after seven years residence here.

5.3 Why definitions matter

It is important to make the distinction between asylum seekers and refugees for a number of reasons.

The first is that these groups have different housing needs, which may require different policy responses. According to targets laid down in the 1999 Immigration and Asylum Act, asylum seekers should receive a decision on their asylum claim within two months of applying and then have a further four months in which to prosecute an appeal against an adverse judgment. 'Asylum seeker' is therefore a label that is technically limited to a maximum duration of six months, as are the benefits associated with that label. After six months, failed asylum seekers are either returned to their country of origin or – if all possibility of appeal has been exhausted – they cease to be asylum seekers and may instead become illegal immigrants. By definition, then, the asylum seeker population is therefore made up of people who cannot legally work, who are entirely dependent on the state for housing and whose legal right to shelter is time-limited. The asylum seeker population will also change in character quite frequently as new asylum applicants are continuously being added to it, and people whose claims have failed are continually being taken from it. In other words, there is a high population turnover within the asylum seeker population. Refugees, on the other hand, have been accepted by the state for long term settlement (even if this right might technically have to be renewed), have the right to work, have the same housing needs as any other similar long-term resident of the UK, and have the same access to housing and housing benefits as any other UK citizen. There will be much less population turnover within the refugee population, with losses being through international emigration and death,

and gains being through asylum seekers being granted refugee status.

The second is that, by their very nature, the groups have different welfare needs. The main priority for asylum seekers is to prosecute effectively their claim for asylum, and therefore secure their future. This requires residence in, or access to, a town or city with specialist legal representation and in some cases interpreters. Asylum seekers may also need urgent medical assistance, and some of this may be of a specialist nature if they have been tortured. Asylum seekers are not usually allowed to work (within six months of arrival in the UK), and many will be destitute. The needs of refugees are rather different. They have the right to residence for a minimum of five years and most probably for life, so can concentrate upon long-term integration, at both the individual and community level. Individual integration involves re-entry to the labour market, and the acquisition (if needed) of the English language skills that might facilitate this. Community integration requires both community development and the creation of refugee community organizations. Both individual integration and community development are place sensitive, so the housing needs of refugees therefore extend beyond the simple provision of secure shelter, and require that thought is given to where such accommodation is sited.

The third difference between refugees and asylum seekers is that the welfare of these two groups is the responsibility of different organizations. Refugees are no different to citizens of the UK. Their welfare needs are the responsibility of whichever arm of the welfare state would service a British-born citizen. Dependent upon their individual circumstances, they will either live in privately rented, owner-occupied,

or social housing, and their welfare needs will be serviced either by local authorities or the main departments of central government (e.g. the Department of Work and Pensions). Following the Immigration and Asylum Act of 1999, eligible asylum seekers have their main welfare needs provided by a separate and parallel support and housing system administered by the National Asylum Support Service (NASS). Further details of this are provided below.

The fourth reason why it is important to make a clear distinction between asylum seekers and refugees is that we have quite different levels of knowledge about the two groups. Asylum seekers are claiming asylum from government and therefore have to make contact with the Immigration and Nationality Directorate of the Home Office (IND). IND routinely collects data from all asylum seekers (whether destitute or economically self-sufficient), and this includes demographic information of value to the present study. IND publishes some of this information, and some is made available to bona fide researchers for secondary analysis. The organisations responsible for regional settlement also collect personal information, although less systematically. Refugees, on the other hand, have been granted rights of residence, have become akin to any other permanent resident of the UK, and simply appear in generic government data sets alongside (and undifferentiated from) other individuals and households. The census, for example, does not require people to declare whether they are, or have been, a refugee (nor does the Labour Force Survey or General Household Survey). It is thus impossible to create a sub-sample of refugees from national generic data sets and describe their characteristics. Finally, it should be noted that – for obvious reasons - there is no official data on those

failed asylum seekers who become illegal immigrants.

5.4 Refugees in Wales; recent history prior to 1999

Wales' distance from the main ports of entry to the UK has ensured that it has played a very limited part in the recent history of refugee resettlement in the UK. However it is difficult to say how limited this part has been with any degree of certainty. The absence of official data on the socio-demographics of refugees makes it almost impossible to get any accurate idea of the real distribution of this group or the number found in any particular region or locality. As one author wrote, when lamenting the paucity of official data and research: 'reliable official data on the size or distribution of refugee groups within the United Kingdom are not available in the public domain' (Robinson, 1998).

However, despite the absence of official data, a number of studies do give us snapshots of the refugee population in the early and late 1990s and help us ascertain which national groups migrated to Wales, where they lived in Wales, and their demographics.

The first of these was a piece of exploratory research commissioned by the Welsh Refugee Council to produce some estimates of the size of the refugee population of Wales (Robinson, 1997). Robinson began by trying to use Census data to produce maxima for different national groups in Wales. He then attempted to use data from Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) to consider how many '**quota**' refugees had been resettled in Wales by central government. 'Quota' refugees can be distinguished from '**spontaneous**' refugees. The latter travel individually and then make an individual application for

asylum on arrival. Quota refugees, on the other hand, are given group asylum before departure from their home country (or from camps in third countries) are transported to the UK en masse, and are then the recipients of a government welfare and resettlement programme.

In recent times, the UK government has committed itself to five refugee quotas, of 28608 Ugandan Asians in 1973, 5000 Chileans in 1975, 12000 Vietnamese over the period 1979-84, 4000 Bosnians in 1992, and 4300 Kosovars in 1999. In each case, the government delegated responsibility for reception and resettlement to NGOs, which were funded and overseen by the Home Office (Robinson, 1999). The government policies associated with the arrival of each of these groups have been evaluated by the Migration Unit at University of Wales, Swansea, and in three of the five cases the Unit also acquired data from NGOs about the geographical distribution of those refugees resettled through government schemes. These data showed that the Ugandan Asians initially, and also subsequently, concentrated themselves into areas that had sizeable pre-existing Asian communities in England (for example, Leicester and London). Wales was not a favoured destination. The Vietnamese represent a rather different case, since they were given little choice over their place of resettlement and were also deliberately dispersed throughout Britain in small groups of 4 to 10 families. Robinson and Hale's (1989) data demonstrated that the Vietnamese were widely dispersed throughout the UK, and that some 602 were resident in Wales in 1981. Their analysis also showed that the Vietnamese subsequently regrouped within major English conurbations via a process of rapid and extensive secondary migration. As a result, the number of

Vietnamese in Wales fell to 282 by 1991. More recently, the Bosnians have also experienced government attempts to manipulate their geographical distribution, with refugees being resettled in the specific targeted 'cluster areas' of Scotland, North East England, West Yorkshire, West Midlands, East Midlands and London (Robinson and Coleman, 2000). Wales was not designated a cluster area and therefore did not receive Bosnian quota refugees. Based on these various analyses of quota programmes, Robinson (1997) consequently concluded that:

'it is clear that Wales has not been a favoured destination for the resettlement of quota refugees in the 1970s, 1980s and 1990s. Government intervention in resettlement has ensured a manufactured geographical outcome in which Wales has had little part to play. Where small groups of individuals have been resettled in the Principality, they have tended not to remain, but have sought residence, instead, within larger communities of their countryfolk, usually within English cities. For example, the Vietnamese community in Swansea, which began with 14 families, had shrunk by 1989 to only eight families.'

Finally, Robinson (1997) attempted to derive his own estimates of the size and distribution of the refugee population in Wales by undertaking his own survey. This involved a questionnaire survey of organisations which might have been expected to come into contact with refugees, or which might represent them. In all, 329 questionnaires were distributed to County Council departments, District Authorities, Housing Associations, the Police, Training and Enterprise Councils, Job Centres, Red Cross branches, Refugee groups, NGOs, and institutions of Further

and Higher Education across the whole of Wales. 90 items of correspondence were received from these organisations, giving a response rate of over 27%. In ten cases where the information provided by respondents was either incomplete, or of some interest, organisations were telephoned for further details, and an additional eight organisations which came to light during the research were also telephoned rather than sent a questionnaire. The results of this survey were interesting and illuminating. Although all those statutory and non-statutory bodies that were likely to come into contact with refugees and asylum seekers were sent a questionnaire, very few had actually had any contact with such people at all. Only thirteen organisations out of the 329 approached (4.0%) claimed to have had any contact with refugees, and with two exceptions, the number of people involved was very small.

The survey revealed that the majority of known asylum seekers/refugees in 1997 were concentrated in Cardiff (67% of the total), Newport (16%), and Swansea (12%). Outside these clusters, there were only small numbers or even individuals, drawn from a variety of ethnic groups, and occasionally associated with places of learning (Lampeter, Pontypridd, Port Talbot). Seventy per cent of all refugee households were Somali, 9.3% were Vietnamese, 7% were Iranian, 6% were Sudanese, and 5.6% were Iraqis. Fifteen different nationalities were represented. Robinson concluded from this survey that the size of the refugee/asylum seeker population of Wales was circa 1016 households containing perhaps 3565 individuals. If this were correct, it would mean that Wales contained circa 3.6% of all the 100,000 refugees estimated by the UNHCR to be living in the UK at that time. Since Wales

contained around 5.3% of the entire population of the UK, refugees were therefore significantly under-represented in Wales. However Robinson did warn that there were a number of reasons why this estimate might be inaccurate. These were: that refugees might have chosen deliberately or accidentally not to represent themselves as such when they came into contact with organisations; that those providing services might then not have been able to distinguish between refugees and other members of the BME population; that refugees might have opted to resolve their own difficulties rather than seek assistance from others, and might therefore never have come to the attention of public bodies; that refugees might not have contacted service providers because they did not value the services which they were providing; or that 'refugees' might not have recognised the validity of this label or identified with it.

The second piece of research which considered the refugee population of Wales prior to the 1999 Immigration and Asylum Act was Save the Children's (1994) study of the Somali community of Cardiff. As we have noted above, the Somalis represented probably the largest single group of refugees in Wales, and were concentrated in the two settlements of Cardiff and Newport. Save the Children (1994) described how Somali settlement in Cardiff dates back to the turn of the century, when Somali seamen worked on-board ships that were exporting Welsh coal. Further male migrants arrived in the 1950s attracted by the booming economy and the availability of work. However, it was not really until the 1960s, that a 'community' was created when women started to join the men, and families were formed or reformed. This community was then further augmented in the 1980s by

continued family reunion and the flight of single refugees anxious to escape the deteriorating political conditions in Somalia. By 1994, Save the Children claimed that the Somali community in Cardiff numbered some 4000 people, of whom perhaps 2000 were recently arrived refugees, made up of 1400 people living in families and a further 500 single people. They also argued that the 1991 Census was an inaccurate indicator of the size and characteristics of the community, because many Somalis had not been enumerated. This was because they were not aware that the Census was taking place or were not literate. In addition, Somali families, and even more so Somali single men, were thought to be highly geographically mobile and therefore hard to count. Consequently, the author of the report was not able, accurately, to profile the demographics of the community, but she did provide some estimates based on anecdotal evidence, educated guesswork, or interpolation from the 'Black Other' and 'Black African' data in the 1991 Census. These were as follows:

- there were few elderly people within the community, and they might form as little as 3.7% of the total
- children might form as much as 48% of the population
- one-eighth of the community were single refugee men
- there were high levels of disability and long term limiting illness.
- unemployment rates might be as high as 90%
- the average family household size was thought to be 7 persons

The community was also described as being interconnected by extensive family networks and by the fact that most people

originated from the same part of Somalia, but it was also crosscut by clan rivalries. The report's author claimed there were four housing issues which required further attention: the degree of overcrowding; the need to adapt the internal layout and facilities of accommodation to the particular needs of Somali families; the provision of more short-lease dwellings to be used in preference to bed and breakfast accommodation; and the installation of greater protection from racist vandalism. Finally, they commented on the special needs of Somali elders, noting that 66% were illiterate in any language, and that many were house-bound and therefore isolated and disconnected from their communities. Few made use of the available formal helping systems (e.g. halal meals on wheels), and even fewer attended clubs and day centres.

The third piece of research focusing upon the refugee population in Wales was Hansen and Hempel-Jorgensen's 1999 project (funded by Cardiff County Council) looking into the needs and characteristics of the Somali community in Cardiff (Hansen and Hempel-Jorgensen, 2001; Hansen, 2002). The first output from this project was a report which aimed to describe the needs of the Somali community in Cardiff. Hansen and Jorgensen (2001) estimated this population to number 3500-4500, approximately half of whom were immigrants who had come over to Wales as seafarers prior to the 1970s, and the other half of whom were recently arrived refugees fleeing the Civil War that had begun in 1988. They also noted that there was a widespread belief amongst their research respondents that the 1991 Census had failed to accurately enumerate the community and could not therefore be used for research purposes.

Hansen and Jorgensen's key findings from the perspective of the current report were: that many Somalis lived in overcrowded housing; that those 30 Somali families who had been rehoused by the Council in St Mellons in the early 1990s were experiencing considerable hostility and isolation, and were moving back into the heart of the community in Butetown and Grangetown, even though this meant trading down to much smaller houses; and that the hostel used for homeless Somalis was located in Ely, which was distant from the community, from Mosques and from specialist food shops. They then went on to consider future housing needs. Their initial findings were that 'of the Somalis interviewed, many were happy with their current housing and did not feel that they had any major complaints' and that 'most community interviewees said they were happy with the location of their housing, particularly in Grangetown, but also in other areas such as Butetown and Splott' (Hansen and Jorgensen, 2001; 18 & 19).

There were, however, three needs that the community felt were not being adequately met. The average number of people in a household of Somali ethnicity was thought to be six, but most of the properties occupied by Somalis in Butetown and Grangetown had less than four bedrooms. Overcrowding was consequently quite common. The Council had built some four-bedroom housing, and this was available to Somalis, but was thought unattractive because of its distance from the community and its support services, and its location in areas where racial harassment was prevalent. Somali families thus had the choice of large houses in what they regarded as inappropriate locations or overcrowded houses in suitable and safe locations. The second unmet need was housing for disabled people in Grangetown

and Butetown. And the third was the unwillingness of elderly Somalis to take up sheltered accommodation. Elderly Somalis who owned their own homes were unwilling to move into sheltered accommodation because they did not wish to give up their independence, did not wish to be isolated from their own community, were not aware of opportunities, or were concerned that carers would not be able to speak Somali. As a result, some were still living in privately-owned lodging houses around Angelina Street that were in poor physical condition while others remained in their own homes but were not really able to look after themselves properly. Hansen and Jorgensen did, however, comment that - at the time they were writing their report - the Council's Housing Department and Taff Housing Association were looking into the possibility of specific provision for Somali elders. This has now been achieved.

Hansen (2002) later returned to Cardiff to develop her work further, focusing in on gender issues, but broadening the scope of the study to include Somalis, Sudanese and Bangladeshis. The Sudanese were largely a refugee and asylum seeker community, driven from Khartoum in the 1990s by political unrest and civil war. They numbered approximately 100-150 adults, plus children and a few students. Hansen argued that these three groups had very different housing experiences and needs. She claimed that Sudanese women were widely dispersed throughout Cardiff, mainly lived in 'white' middle-class areas and were less fearful of racism. They sought new houses in quiet and attractive neighbourhoods that were near mainstream facilities like shops and the city centre, and did not see it as a priority to live close to other Sudanese, although they enjoyed spending time in each other's company and valued their Sudanese identity. Most could

drive and had access to a car. Within the Somali community, the picture was rather different. Those women who could speak little English and/or had no access to a vehicle wished to live near other Somalis. This gave them a sense of identity, assisted them with child-care, gave them access to interpreting services, and gave them a sense of security and belonging: for example they said they were not being constantly stared at. These generalizations also applied to elderly Somalis. Younger Somalis, those who could speak English well, and those with access to a car had different desires. While they felt that contact with other Somalis was important, they could achieve this without living in an ethnic area. Instead, for them, the critical locational factors were closeness to shops, the city centre, good schools, and the absence of racist harassment.

The final substantive piece of work on refugees in Wales that has pertinence to this report was Ahmed's (1998) study of the socio-economic disadvantage of Somali people in Cardiff. Ahmed's initial concern was to locate Somali adults within British social structures and the labour market. He pointed out that Somali refugees in Wales were experiencing unemployment rates that exceeded 90%, that because of difficulties getting overseas qualifications recognized in the UK there was also considerable underemployment (with for example, engineering graduates driving taxis), and that many children were leaving school without formal qualifications. He also described the considerable problems Somalis had in starting their own businesses. Because of these trends, the Somali community was socially deprived and living in poverty. Ahmed noted, as have others, that the average Somali household of six people needs a property with 4-6 bedrooms, but that few of these

exist and how most people are therefore living at undesirably high densities. He also commented on how single young Somalis were living in temporary bed and breakfast accommodation

In sum, then, there is little rigorous or comprehensive information on the refugee population of Wales, and its spatial distribution. No single dataset or source will allow us to profile this group with any degree of accuracy as they are embedded within larger categories within the national census and other generic social surveys. Local studies and exploratory studies have allowed us to sketch in the broad character of the population and suggest some of the housing issues that currently face them, and will face them in the future.

5.5 The current asylum system, and Wales' role within it

The 1999 Immigration and Asylum Act marked not only a sea-change in British asylum policy, but also a turning point for Wales. The government committed itself for the first time to a policy of dispersing asylum seekers from the South East of England in general, and the main ports of entry in particular, to designated cluster areas distributed across the country (see Robinson, Andersson and Musterd, 2003). Wales became an official reception area for asylum seekers for the first time.

ales had volunteered to participate in the national network of voluntary and local dispersal policies that were in place before the 1999 Act, but these had failed to deliver the integrated national dispersal policy demanded by central government. As a result, informal mechanisms were replaced by a new policy announced in December 1999 (Robinson, 2002). The new policy imposed a centrally planned and managed national dispersal

policy run by NASS (the National Asylum Support Service). The new system works as follows. Asylum seekers apply for asylum to the Immigration and Nationality Directorate. The Directorate then decides whether asylum seekers should be granted temporary admission to the country (while their claim is heard) or detained if their claim is manifestly unfounded or if there is a strong chance that they might abscond. Those given temporary admission are then referred to a NASS-funded reception assistant who ascertains whether they have any means of support. If they do not, they are then found temporary accommodation while the reception assistant helps them prepare a claim to NASS for support. NASS then decides within seven days whether the applicant is eligible for support (Audit Commission, 2000), and if this is the case, then allocates them (on a no-choice basis) to accommodation in one of the cluster areas within the 10 designated dispersal regions outside London and the South East. Once bussed there, destitute asylum seekers are given free housing (including the cost of utilities) and benefits equivalent to 70% of income support rates for adults and 100% of income support rates for children. The Act proposed that local organisations and authorities should come together into place-based consortia which would be expected to provide the full range of services needed by asylum seekers. Each consortium would be given £100,000 per annum to organise, co-ordinate and administrate service provision, including one-stop advice centres. They also had to source 40% of all housing needed for the dispersal programme and promote positive local media images of asylum seekers (Finney, 2003). Finally, consortia are also expected to make provision for the long-term integration of those asylum seekers

who are eventually granted refugee status, Humanitarian Protection or Discretionary Leave. This includes measures to help refugees into employment, provide them with language skills and ensure appropriate educational provision.

Once and if an asylum seeker is given refugee status or Leave to Remain they then have the right to live anywhere they wish and are not restricted to the cluster area to which they had originally been allocated. Where refugees choose to move away from the region to which they had been dispersed, this is generally termed secondary migration or 'driftback'.

Wales has one consortium made up of all 21 local authorities in the country except Wrexham. Whereas some Consortia in England are contracted to provide accommodation as well as become providers of support services, this is not the case in Wales. The Wales Consortium is not a housing provider but is a co-ordinator and service provider. It provides for the needs of those asylum seekers dispersed by NASS to housing in the three cluster areas of Swansea, Cardiff, and Newport. This housing is supplied by five different accommodation-providers.

The situation may change in future, but Wrexham stands outside this all-Wales Consortium. Asylum seekers are dispersed to the Wrexham cluster area by NASS, which has contracts with two accommodation providers there, and the local authority then provides for the statutory needs of asylum seekers.

Accommodation providers supply a range of appropriate accommodation as well as the necessary support package (e.g. orientation, guidance on living skills, and activities to prevent asylum seekers becoming isolated).

Originally, Wales was due to receive its first dispersed asylum seekers in April 2000, but delicate negotiations between central and local government and the desire to establish critical masses of asylum seekers in other parts of the UK led to delays in asylum seekers being sent to Wales, with the first only arriving in May 2001.

5.6 The demographics of asylum seekers who have been dispersed to Wales

While the broad estimates presented above are adequate for most purposes, there is a need for the current project to go beyond them. As a result, the Immigration Research and Statistics Section (IRSS) of the Home Office was contacted for additional and fuller data about those asylum seekers dispersed by NASS, and those residing in Wales on what NASS terms a 'subsistence-only' basis. IRSS agreed to provide previously unpublished statistics on these asylum seekers derived from the NASS central database (ASYS). ASYS is collected by NASS, contains information on those people who are in receipt of NASS support, and is designed to allow the management of the disbursement of benefits. Those denied support, or electing not to apply for it, will not appear in this database. As a result circa 30% (Home Office estimate, personal communication) of all asylum applicants never appear in the ASYS dataset. The data contained within ASYS are collected by Resettlement Officers during the first interview that the asylum seeker has with NASS. The data are collected in written form and the Resettlement Officer follows a set sequence, or interview schedule. The Resettlement Officer then enters all the resulting data into ASYS, and there are basic quality checks during this procedure in the form of mandatory fields and drop down menus. ASYS is usually

only accessible to NASS staff. The quality of the data on ASYS has only been tested in one way, namely through the checking of whether the recorded addresses of asylum seekers are accurate. This Home Office test suggested that the data were 95% accurate. NASS has kindly supplied six separate quarters of data for analysis, beginning with the quarter ending on December 31st 2002, and concluding with the quarter ending on March 31st 2004. These data might allow the identification of significant changes in the asylum seeker population over time.

Because of the limited nature of the personal data collected by NASS we are only able to describe certain of the characteristics of the asylum seeker population currently living in Wales. These are gender, spoken language, nationality of principal applicants, plus the size of group/dependants they have arrived with, and their current town of residence within Wales.

However, within the asylum seeker population we are also able to distinguish between two distinct sub-groups. The first is people who are in receipt of support and are living in NASS accommodation. This sub-group will therefore have been dispersed to Wales by NASS on a no-choice basis. At a UK level, 'support and accommodation' cases constitute 44% of all asylum seekers, and 63% of those in receipt of support from NASS. The second sub-group is people who are receiving only subsistence from NASS. They will have made their own decision to live within Wales and will have found their own accommodation. They may have chosen to come to Wales because they have relatives already here. At a UK level, 'subsistence-only' cases form 26% of all asylum seekers, and 37% of those in receipt of

support from NASS. Interestingly, Wales contains a different balance of 'support and accommodation' and 'subsistence only' asylum seekers than the rest of the UK. The percentage of all NASS-supported asylum seekers in Wales who are 'support and accommodation' cases and have been dispersed to Wales has risen gradually

from 90% in December 2002 to 95% in March 2004. This means that only 5% have actively chosen Wales as a place to live, probably because the existing BME population in Wales is relatively small, and asylum seekers are therefore less likely to have relatives living in Wales.

5.6.1 Total Numbers

**Table 5.1: Changing number of NASS-supported asylum seekers in Wales
Dec 31st 2002-Mar 31st 2004**

	Male	Female	M:F ratio	Total	Increase
Quarter 4 2002	1,160	605	1.92:1	1,765	-
Quarter 1 2003	1,295	755	1.72:1	2,050	+285
Quarter 2 2003	1,410	885	1.60:1	2,295	+245
Quarter 3 2003	1,455	1,040	1.40:1	2,495	+200
Quarter 4 2003	1,495	1,125	1.33:1	2,625	+130
Quarter 1 2004	1,420	1,185	1.20:1	2,605	-20

Source: ASYS data supplied by NASS. All cells rounded to nearest 5, so some rows and columns may not sum correctly

Table 5.1 indicates how the number of asylum seekers in receipt of support from NASS (either accommodation and support or subsistence only) in Wales grew between Oct 1st 2002 and the end of 2003. At that time, the size of this group of asylum seekers was 2625. The largest increase in numbers had occurred at the beginning of 2003 as the dispersal programme in Wales began to ramp-up. The most recent quarter recorded a very small fall in numbers, in line with the falling number of applications for asylum nationally, and therefore the falling number of people being dispersed.

5.6.2 Gender

Table 5.1 also contains information on the gender split within the NASS-supported asylum seeker population. The data show how men outnumber women 1.20:1, and how the gender imbalance has been gradually reducing since 2002. The Home Office does not publish national figures against which the Welsh figures can be compared.

Table 5.2: Changing distribution of NASS-supported asylum seekers in Wales, Dec 31st 2002-Mar 31st 2004 by quarter

Unitary authority	4/2002	% of Wales total, Dec 2002	1/2003	2/2003	3/2003	4/2003	1/2004	% of Wales total, Mar 2004
Blaenau Gwent			1	1	1	3	1	0.0
Bridgend	6	0.3	8	7	5	5	3	0.1
Caerphilly	7	0.4	3	7	10	7	2	0.1
Cardiff	1,072	60.8	1,180	1,234	1,285	1,220	1,153	44.1
Carms.	6	0.3	7	6	5	6	7	0.3
Ceredigion	2	0.1	2	2	2	1	2	0.1
Conwy	5	0.3	4	4	5	5	7	0.3
Denbighshire	3	0.2	4	4	5	3	2	0.1
Flintshire	9	0.5	6	7	5	4	5	0.2
Gwynedd	2	0.1	2	3	5	4	4	0.2
Anglesey	1	0.1	1	1				
Merthyr							1	0.0
Monmouth	1	0.1	1	2	5	2	1	0.0
Neath/Port Talbot	5	0.3	8	9	10	4	4	0.2
Newport	140	7.9	156	218	295	405	420	16.1
Pembs.	1	0.1			1	1	2	0.1
Powys	2	0.1	2	2	2	2	1	0.0
Rhondda	7	0.4	9	8	5	8	6	0.23
Swansea	426	24.2	603	731	810	881	930	35.6
Torfaen	7	0.4	4	2	5	2	1	0.04
Vale of Glamorgan	2	0.1	3	1				
Wrexham	59	3.4	51	57	50	64	61	2.3

Source: ASYS data supplied by NASS

Table 5.2 indicates how this distribution has changed through time. The table shows how Cardiff has consistently housed the largest number of NASS-supported asylum seekers throughout, with the actual number of people living there increasing from 1072 in December 2002 to 1153 in March 2004. The city's **relative** share of the Welsh total has declined over time as other authorities have joined the programme, from 60% at the end of 2002 to 44% at the end of March 2004. Conversely, as Swansea and Newport have become **more** involved, their

relative shares and absolute numbers have risen. Wrexham is the only other settlement with a significant number of asylum seekers, but - even here - numbers are very small and not increasing over time.

There were only 133 asylum seekers in Wales in March 2004 who had moved to Wales voluntarily (those in receipt of subsistence-only support), 64% of whom lived within the same four cluster areas that house asylum seekers in receipt of support and accommodation, presumably attracted

there by the presence of friends, relatives or community facilities. Those who live outside the cluster areas were found in 16 of the 22 local authority districts in Wales, including some of the most remote

and rural. Within these rural destinations they may experience both rural racism and a lack of understanding (Robinson, 2003b; Robinson and Gardner 2004a; Robinson and Gardner 2004b; Robinson and Gardner 2005).

5.6.3 Nationality

Table 5.3: The nationality of NASS-supported asylum seekers in Wales, Dec 31st 2002 and Mar 31st 2004

Dec 31st 2002			Dec 31st 2003		
Nationality	Number	Percent	Nationality	Number	Percent
Czech Republic	305	17.3	Somali	345	13.3
Somali	245	13.9	Pakistan	265	10.2
Iraq	200	11.3	Iraq	250	9.6
Iran	100	5.7	Iran	205	7.9
Zimbabwe	90	5.1	Afghanistan	145	5.6
Pakistan	80	4.5	Turkey	125	4.8
Turkey	75	4.3	Algeria	105	4
Afghanistan	65	3.7	Congo DR	90	3.5
Palestine	45	2.6	Zimbabwe	75	2.9
Congo	45	2.6	Czech Rep	70	2.7
Congo DR	35	2	Congo	70	2.7
Sudan	35	2	Sudan	65	2.5
Poland	35	2	Angola	60	2.3
Algeria	30	1.7	Palestine	50	1.9
Others		21.3			26.1

Source: ASYS data supplied by NASS

Table 5.3 presents the top 14 national origins for asylum seekers either dispersed to Wales or who have chosen to live there on a subsistence-only basis. The top 14 nationalities accounted for 79% of the total at the end of 2002, and 74% by the end of March 2004. In total, there were 62 different nationalities of NASS-supported asylum seeker living in Wales at the end of 2002, but by the end of March 2004 this number had risen to 74. By way of comparison, the ASYS data for the

whole of the UK listed some 132 different nationalities in 2002. Therefore only half of those nationalities seeking asylum in the UK reside in Wales. Again this is likely to result from the selectivity both of dispersal policies and the voluntary immigration of subsistence support cases.

The relative importance of the nationalities changed quite considerably during 2003. Those from the Czech Republic became much less important (down from 17.3%

of the total to 2.74%), and Zimbabweans, Iraqis, and Poles became less important. In contrast, Pakistanis became much more important (up from 4.5% to 10.2%), as did Algerians (up to 4.0%). Iranians became relatively more important (up from 5.7% of the total to 7.9%), as did Afghans (up from 3.7% to 5.6%).

5.6.4 Group size

The ASYS data also allow us to consider the size of group associated with each principal asylum applicant, although the Home Office states that there is no direct relationship between group-size and household size.

Table 5.4 indicates that the most frequently recorded group-size in Wales is single people, followed by groups that contain either four or three people. Together, these three main group-sizes account for 76% of all groups, and 57% of all NASS-supported asylum seekers in Wales. There are also small numbers of large and very large groups: 32 groups contained 7 or more people, and the largest contained 12 people. The mean group-size for Wales was 2.39 people in March 2004, up from 2.11 people in December 2002. Interestingly, while 82% of applicants for asylum in the UK are single adults, only 51% of NASS-supported asylum seekers in Wales are single adults. This variance is likely to reflect the accommodation stock that NASS has been able to source locally.

Table 5.4: NASS-supported asylum cases in Wales, by group size, Dec 31st 2002- Mar 31st 2004

Group Size	March 31st 2004			December 31st 2002		
	No of cases	No of asylum seekers	% of all assylum seekers	No of cases	No of asylum seekers	% of all asylum seekers
1	555	555	21.3	480	480	30.1
2	115	230	8.8	60	120	7.5
3	145	435	16.7	60	180	11.3
4	125	500	19.2	50	200	12.5
5	70	350	13.4	55	275	17.2
6	50	300	11.5	35	210	13.1
7	25	175	6.7	10	70	4.4
8	5	40	1.5	5	40	2.5
9				1	9	0.6
11	1	11	0.4	1	11	0.7
12	1	12	0.5			
Total	1,092	2,608		757	1,595	

Source: ASYS data supplied by NASS

Table 5.5: The fifteen most common languages amongst NASS-supported asylum seekers in Wales, Mar 31st 2004

Language	Number of speakers	Percentage of total
Arabic	370	14.3
Slovak	300	11.6
Urdu	220	8.5
English	210	8.1
Farsi	185	7.1
French	165	6.4
Krio	100	3.8
Somali	85	3.3
Dari	85	3.3
Tigrinian	85	3.3
Czech	70	2.7
Kurdish	65	2.5
Polish	65	2.5
Portuguese	60	2.3
Spanish	50	1.9
Romanian	45	1.7
Turkish	40	1.5
Punjabi	30	1.2
Albanian	40	1.5
Pushtu	35	1.4
Bengali	30	1.2
Punjabi	30	1.2
Russian	25	1.0

Source: ASYS data supplied by NASS

5.6.5 Language

NASS also collects information on the first spoken language of each principal applicant, partly because policy aims to disperse asylum seekers into language clusters. This is to allow service providers to concentrate their translating and interpreting efforts on a limited number of languages. Languages may often coincide with nationalities but this is not always the case.

Table 5.5 lists the top 23 languages of the 54 spoken by asylum seekers in Wales (including English). The top ten languages account for 70% of all NASS-supported asylum seekers living in Wales, with the

most common two languages accounting for almost one-in-four of all asylum seekers. Comparison over time also showed a high degree of volatility. Krio, for example, had barely been present in December 2003, but was the seventh largest language spoken by asylum seekers in Wales by March 2004.

5.6.6 The secondary migration of asylum seekers dispersed to Wales

Having profiled NASS-supported asylum seekers living in Wales, and discussed the likelihood that they might remain within the Principality after they have received a decision on their asylum claim, it remains to consider patterns of secondary migration of asylum seekers into and out of Wales.

Asylum seekers who are only in receipt of subsistence are free to move around the UK while their claims for asylum are being considered. Those who have received accommodation from NASS are much more restricted in their options, with there being no official mechanism for arranging the transfer from one cluster to another of asylum seekers who are dissatisfied with their place of residence. Even so, asylum seekers can choose to leave NASS accommodation and receive only subsistence, at which point they become responsible for their own housing. Or they can decline any help from NASS, make their own arrangements and cease to have any contact with NASS.

The issue of secondary migration has only been researched on two occasions within the UK. The first was Robinson and Hale's (1989) national study of the secondary migration of Vietnamese refugees, which is not really pertinent to the present report. The second piece of research was commissioned by the Home Office from Robinson, and resulted in an unpublished report (Robinson, 2002). This used two main data-sets. ASYS data was used to quantitatively chart the movements of 55,000 NASS-supported asylum seekers between 2000 and 2002. In-depth interviews were used to understand the circumstances, causes and corollaries of such secondary migration. They were undertaken with a national sample of NASS-supported asylum seekers, asylum seekers without support and refugees.

It is important to note that the quantitative data can only be used to describe the movements of those who retained contact with NASS. As yet, no all-encompassing methodology has been identified to trace the movement of either asylum seekers who cease to have contact with NASS

or refugees. Robinson's 2002 in-depth interviews for the Home Office were successful in retrospectively reconstructing the movements and motivations of a) asylum seekers within the NASS system, b) asylum seekers who had their asylum applications turned down, and c) asylum seekers who had become refugees. Alternatively, 'Exit surveys' might be used to explore the plans, aspirations and expectations of asylum seekers and refugees, but it would have to be recognised that these plans might not eventually come to fruition.

The ASYS data were used to describe the main patterns of secondary migration of those NASS-supported asylum seekers who left NASS accommodation, opted for subsistence-support only and moved into private accommodation. 1 in 11 of all NASS-supported asylum seekers had changed their support arrangements in this way by January 2002. These data reveal that - at the time Robinson was writing - some 7.4% of Wales' principal asylum applicants had changed their support arrangements in this way and moved to another region, putting it on a par with the East Midlands. Wales came seventh out of a list of 13 regions ordered from high loss (maximum of 18.4% loss) to low loss (1.0% loss). Cardiff was the only Welsh city/town that was explicitly identified within the UK data, recording a loss rate of 6.4% (within a range from 21.9% to 0%). This placed Cardiff 15th in a league table of 53 cities/towns according to their propensity to retain dispersed asylum seekers. Analysis of the geography of secondary migration showed that Wales was relatively unusual. Only 6% of moves were within the region and 94% therefore involved people leaving Wales for an English region. The latter figure was a very high level of net loss. Of these

outward moves, 47% were to London, a figure somewhat lower than for most other regions. Instead, those departing Wales headed for a range of destinations, rather than simply moving to London, Birmingham or Manchester (currently the main destinations for secondary migrants).

5.7 Conclusion

This chapter has sought to describe the key demographic characteristics of two associated BME populations that are resident within Wales: firstly, asylum seekers who have either been dispersed to Wales since the 1999 Immigration and Asylum Act or have chosen to settle here on a subsistence-only basis (by its very nature this is a temporary population since asylum seekers become either refugees or illegal immigrants after their asylum claim has been heard); and secondly, the refugee population which is either permanently resident or will become so. Both of these groups are relatively recent additions to the population of Wales.

These groups cannot be identified from publicly-available data-sets like the Census, so their profiles have had to be derived from other data and sources. These include secondary information from what little literature exists and the analysis of a variety of unpublished Home Office data.

Although it is the best currently available, the resulting 'profile' of refugees and asylum seekers is undoubtedly much less accurate and much less complete than those provided by other chapters of this report. Perhaps, therefore, the key recommendation to come from this analysis is the need for a planned programme of research into the characteristics, experiences, needs and aspirations of the various groups and communities that constitute Wales' refugee and asylum

seeker populations. Until such work is completed, we will really only be able to say what we do not know. Central to any such programme of research needs to be a detailed study into whether asylum seekers remain within Wales when they receive positive or negative decisions on their asylum applications, or whether Wales is simply a transit country. This is crucial both to the planning of service provision and to community development initiatives. A combination of 'Exit surveys', in-depth interviews of the type used in Robinson's (2002) national study of secondary migration, and a Welsh longitudinal panel study might offer the best way of acquiring such information.

We are however able to say something about the uniqueness of Wales' refugee and asylum seeker populations. Because Wales has not traditionally been a preferred destination for spontaneous refugees or a designated destination for programme refugees, its refugee population differs markedly to that of the rest of the UK. Most of the key groups of refugees that entered the UK in the post-war years did not come to Wales. Instead, Wales really only attracted Somali refugees, and then only because of prior labour migration to Wales from that country. Since the 1999 Immigration and Asylum Act, Wales has hosted a temporary population of asylum seekers, but again they are distinct from the wider asylum seeker population of the UK:

- they are more concentrated into a limited number of cities and towns;
- they are less likely to have chosen to come to Wales;
- they are more likely to be single applicants than their English counterparts, and

- they are drawn from a more limited range of nationalities and linguistic groups.

All these differences reflect a combination of Wales' long migration history and how the current dispersal programme is being put into practice in Wales.

Table 5.6: Allocation of nationalities to Immigration Service 'bands'

Nationality	Band
Somali	Red
Iraq	Red
Pakistan	Yellow
Iran	Red
Afghanistan	Green
Turkey	Green
Algeria	Yellow
Czech Rep	Green
Congo DR	Yellow
Zimbabwe	Red
Congo	Yellow
Sudan	Green
Palestine	Yellow
Angola	Yellow

Source: NASS estimates supplied direct

6. BME Elders

In this chapter, the characteristics of older people from Black and Minority Ethnic (BME) groups is described. Unfortunately, the published Census tables do not break down all of the characteristics of the

population by both age and ethnic or religious group. This chapter therefore focuses on the information in the published tables: age structure, geographical distribution, household type, health and economic activity.

6.1 The Older BME population

Table 6.1: The older population of Wales by ethnic group, 2001

	All ages		Aged 50+		Aged 65+		% of ethnic group	
	Number	% share	Number	% share	Number	% share	Aged 50+	Aged 65+
ALL PEOPLE	2,903,083	100.0	1,042,882	100.0	504,770	100.0	35.9	17.4
<i>White</i>	2,841,505	97.9	1,033,803	99.1	501,441	99.3	36.4	17.6
White: British	2,786,605	96.0	1,011,803	97.0	490,186	97.1	36.3	17.6
White: Irish	17,689	0.6	9,629	0.9	4,967	1.0	54.4	28.1
White Other: White	37,211	1.3	12,371	1.2	6,288	1.2	33.2	16.9
BME	61,578	2.1	9,079	0.9	3,329	0.7	14.7	5.4
<i>Mixed</i>	17,660	0.6	1,950	0.2	811	0.2	11.0	4.6
White & Black Caribbean	5,996	0.2	628	0.1	311	0.1	10.5	5.2
White & Black African	2,414	0.1	281	0.0	100	0.0	11.6	4.1
White and Asian	4,999	0.2	433	0.0	183	0.0	8.7	3.7
Other Mixed	4,251	0.1	608	0.1	217	0.0	14.3	5.1
<i>Asian or Asian British:</i>	25,447	0.9	3,943	0.4	1,243	0.2	15.5	4.9
Indian	8,261	0.3	1,555	0.1	406	0.1	18.8	4.9
Pakistani	8,287	0.3	1,223	0.1	493	0.1	14.8	5.9
Bangladeshi	5,436	0.2	453	0.0	150	0.0	8.3	2.8
Other Asian	3,463	0.1	712	0.1	194	0.0	20.6	5.6
<i>Black or Black British</i>	7,070	0.2	1,638	0.2	790	0.2	23.2	11.2
Black Caribbean	2,597	0.1	812	0.1	398	0.1	31.3	15.3
Black African	3,727	0.1	688	0.1	331	0.1	18.5	8.9
Other Black	746	0.0	138	0.0	61	0.0	18.5	8.2
<i>Chinese or Other Ethnic Group</i>	11,401	0.4	1,548	0.1	485	0.1	13.6	4.3
Chinese	6,266	0.2	981	0.1	324	0.1	15.7	5.2
Other Ethnic Group	5,135	0.2	567	0.1	161	0.0	11.0	3.1
Religion								
Christian	2,087,242	71.9	874,299	83.8	435,238	86.2	41.9	20.9
Buddhist	5,407	0.2	1606	0.2	375	0.1	29.7	6.9
Hindu	5,433	0.2	1,087	0.1	246	0.0	20.0	4.5
Jewish	2,256	0.1	1,137	0.1	604	0.1	50.4	26.8
Muslim	21,739	0.7	2,503	0.2	788	0.2	11.5	3.6
Sikh	2,014	0.1	313	0.0	105	0.0	15.5	5.2
Any other religion	6,909	0.2	2,154	0.2	707	0.1	31.2	10.2
No religion	537,935	18.5	86,020	8.2	27,517	5.5	16.0	5.1

Source: 2001 Census of Population Standard Table 101

The Black and Minority Ethnic population of Wales is much younger on average than the white population (in 2001, their average age was 28.1 years compared with 39.5 years for white people). Nevertheless, there are a substantial number of older people from BME groups living in Wales (Table 6.1). Overall, there were 9.1 thousand BME people aged over 50 and 3.3 thousand aged over 65 resident in Wales in 2001, representing 0.9% of all those aged over 50 and 0.7% of all those aged over 65. There were contrasts in age structure between individual ethnic groups, with those whose migration was earliest having the largest percentages of older people. People aged over 50 comprised 14.7% of the BME population overall, but nearly a quarter (23.2%) of Black and Black British people, and 31.3% of Caribbean people were aged over 50 in 2001. The most elderly ethnic group is the white-Irish,

more than half of whom were aged 50 or more in 2001.

In terms of religion, people aged over 50 were more likely to be Christian than the population as a whole, while 86.2% of those aged over 65 were Christian. People stating their religion as Jewish were oldest on average, with more than half aged over 50, and a quarter aged 65 or more. The largest BME religious group among older people were Muslims, of whom 2.5 thousand were aged over 50 and 788 aged over 65, closely followed by those with "any other religion" (a category which includes many Chinese people), of which there were 2.2 thousand aged over 50 and 707 aged over 65 in 2001. However, Muslim people were also youngest on average, with people aged 50 and over forming only 11.5% of their population, compared with two-fifths of Christian people.

6.2 Geographical distribution

Table 6.2: Geographical distribution of white and BME older people within Wales

	Percent of ethnic group				Share of Wales total			
	Aged 50+		Aged 65+		Aged 50+		Aged 65+	
	White	BME	White	BME	White	BME	White	BME
WALES	36.4	14.7	17.6	5.4	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Blaenau Gwent	35.7	20.6	17.0	5.4	2.4	1.3	2.4	0.9
Bridgend	35.4	14.9	16.7	3.9	4.3	2.9	4.2	2.1
Caerphilly	33.5	20.0	15.3	6.8	5.4	3.3	5.1	3.1
Cardiff	30.8	12.9	15.5	4.7	8.3	36.4	8.6	36.7
Carmarthenshire	39.6	18.8	19.6	6.9	6.6	3.3	6.7	3.3
Ceredigion	38.8	15.5	18.7	6.0	2.8	1.8	2.8	1.9
Conwy	43.0	21.3	23.2	9.0	4.5	2.8	5.0	3.2
Denbighshire	40.0	17.9	20.4	6.7	3.6	2.1	3.7	2.1
Flintshire	34.4	17.7	15.0	5.8	4.9	2.3	4.4	2.1
Gwynedd	38.7	15.3	19.2	5.4	4.3	2.3	4.4	2.2

(Continued)

	Percent of ethnic group				Share of Wales total			
	Aged 50+		Aged 65+		Aged 50+		Aged 65+	
	White	BME	White	BME	White	BME	White	BME
Isle of Anglesey	40.0	16.1	19.0	5.5	2.6	0.9	2.5	0.8
Merthyr Tydfil	34.4	17.3	16.3	5.7	1.8	1.0	1.8	0.9
Monmouthshire	38.7	18.9	18.1	5.7	3.1	2.1	3.0	1.7
Neath Port Talbot	37.2	19.5	18.4	8.5	4.8	3.1	4.9	3.6
Newport	34.6	13.9	16.7	5.3	4.4	10.1	4.3	10.6
Pembrokeshire	40.0	19.7	19.3	8.7	4.4	2.4	4.4	2.9
Powys	40.8	16.1	20.1	6.2	4.9	1.9	5.0	2.0
Rhondda; Cynon; Taf	34.5	16.6	16.4	6.3	7.7	4.9	7.5	5.1
Swansea	37.0	12.0	18.6	3.7	7.8	6.3	8.1	5.3
Torfaen	35.2	18.3	16.9	7.0	3.1	1.8	3.0	1.8
The Vale of Glamorgan	35.9	15.4	17.0	6.4	4.1	4.4	4.0	5.0
Wrexham	34.8	15.5	16.2	5.4	4.3	2.4	4.1	2.3

Source: 2001 Census of Population Standard Table 101

The white population aged over 50 has a more geographically even spread within Wales than older BME people (Table 6.2). Cardiff has a relatively youthful population, with only 30.8% of white people aged 50 and over, and 15.5% aged 65 or more in 2001. In much of north and mid Wales, two-fifths of the white population was aged over 50 in 2001 and resort areas such as Conwy (43% aged 50 and over and 23.2% aged 65 and over) had a relatively elderly white population. More than a third of older BME people and BME people aged 65

and over lived in Cardiff. The three largest cities (Cardiff, Newport and Swansea) contained around half of the older BME population of Wales.

Both the white and BME populations of the major cities are more youthful than the Wales average. The share of the BME population aged 65 and over was highest in coastal and resort areas such as Conwy and Pembrokeshire, together with Neath Port Talbot in 2001.

Table 6.3: Percent of the population aged 65 and over from each ethnic group

Unitary authority	Aged 65 and over	White	BME	Mixed	Asian or Asian British	Black or Black British	Chinese or other ethnic group
WALES	504,770	99.3	0.7	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
Blaenau Gwent	11,829	99.7	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0
Bridgend	21,297	99.7	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0
Caerphilly	25,829	99.6	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.0
Cardiff	44,573	97.3	2.7	0.5	1.0	0.9	0.3
Carmarthenshire	33,699	99.7	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0
Ceredigion	13,875	99.5	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.1
Conwy	25,315	99.6	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.0
Denbighshire	18,816	99.6	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Flintshire	22,145	99.7	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0
Gwynedd	22,199	99.7	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1
Isle of Anglesey	12,601	99.8	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Merthyr Tydfil	9,040	99.7	0.3	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1
Monmouthshire	15,250	99.6	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Neath Port Talbot	24,641	99.5	0.5	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1
Newport	22,110	98.4	1.6	0.3	0.7	0.4	0.2
Pembrokeshire	21,922	99.6	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Powys	25,200	99.7	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0
Rhondda; Cynon; Taf	37,737	99.6	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1
Swansea	40,789	99.6	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.1
Torfaen	15,287	99.6	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
The Vale of Glamorgan	20,013	99.2	0.8	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Wrexham	20,604	99.6	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1

Source: 2001 Census of Population Standard Table 101

The ethnic composition of the population aged 65 and over in 2001 is presented in Table 6.3. Across most of Wales, BME people represented less than 1 in 200 of all people aged 65 and over. Cardiff and Newport are distinctive in having much larger shares of the elderly population from BME groups than other unitary authorities in Wales. In Cardiff, the elderly Asian population was slightly larger than the elderly Black population. A distinctive feature was the magnitude of the elderly population of mixed parentage, which

was as large as the Asian and Black ethnic groups in a number of unitary authorities (e.g. Caerphilly).

The BME elderly population in 2001 was quite small, but older BME people live in all areas of Wales and are ethnically diverse. Service providers in less populous areas thus face a challenge in ensuring that culturally sensitive provision is available for small numbers of people.

6.3 Household types

Table 6.4: Households containing pensioners, by ethnic and religious group

	All Households	Lone pensioners		Pensioner Families		Other pensioner households	
		Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
ALL PEOPLE	1,209,048	186,875	15.5	116,285	9.6	6,407	0.5
<i>White</i>	<i>1,190,399</i>	<i>185,773</i>	<i>15.6</i>	<i>115,781</i>	<i>9.7</i>	<i>6,360</i>	<i>0.5</i>
White: British	1,164,985	181,938	15.6	113,377	9.7	6,198	0.5
White: Irish	9,436	1,751	18.6	1,012	10.7	76	0.8
White Other: White	15,978	2,084	13.0	1,392	8.7	86	0.5
BME	18,649	1,102	5.9	504	2.7	47	0.3
<i>Mixed</i>	<i>4,430</i>	<i>357</i>	<i>8.1</i>	<i>143</i>	<i>3.2</i>	<i>11</i>	<i>0.2</i>
White & Black Caribbean	1,493	129	8.6	58	3.9	5	0.3
White & Black African	708	49	6.9	15	2.1	3	0.4
White and Asian	1,041	68	6.5	33	3.2	-	-
Other Mixed	1,188	111	9.3	37	3.1	3	0.3
<i>Asian or Asian British</i>	<i>7,473</i>	<i>288</i>	<i>3.9</i>	<i>168</i>	<i>2.2</i>	<i>15</i>	<i>0.2</i>
Indian	2,764	85	3.1	82	3.0	3	0.1
Pakistani	2,178	112	5.1	54	2.5	9	0.4
Bangladeshi	1,230	28	2.3	3	0.2	-	-
Other Asian	1,301	63	4.8	29	2.2	3	0.2
<i>Black or Black British</i>	<i>3,073</i>	<i>323</i>	<i>10.5</i>	<i>126</i>	<i>4.1</i>	<i>15</i>	<i>0.5</i>
Black Caribbean	1,464	153	10.5	78	5.3	3	0.2
Black African	1,299	141	10.9	41	3.2	12	0.9
Other Black	310	29	9.4	7	2.3	-	-
<i>Chinese or Other Ethnic Group</i>	<i>3,673</i>	<i>134</i>	<i>3.6</i>	<i>67</i>	<i>1.8</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>0.2</i>
Chinese	2,001	81	4.0	43	2.1	3	0.1
Other Ethnic Group	1,672	53	3.2	24	1.4	3	0.2
Religion							
Christian	892,157	160,407	18.0	101,952	11.4	5,432	0.6
Buddhist	2,666	179	6.7	65	2.4	7	0.3
Hindu	1,862	58	3.1	56	3.0	-	-
Jewish	1,139	236	20.7	136	11.9	4	0.4
Muslim	5,985	158	2.6	58	1.0	11	0.2
Sikh	616	30	4.9	12	1.9	-	-
Any other religion	3,620	354	9.8	134	3.7	7	0.2
No religion	214,452	10,701	5.0	6,536	3.0	325	0.2

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Tables 106 and 151)

Overall, households in which the “household reference person” or a partner was a pensioner accounted for over a quarter (25.6%) of all households in Wales. A sixth of households with white household reference persons are pensioners, and a further tenth were pensioner families (containing a couple of pensionable age). The white-Irish ethnic group was the most elderly, with the highest percentage of pensioner households, and the highest percentage of lone pensioners. Nearly a third of Jewish households were headed by pensioners. Pensioner households were around a third as common among BME ethnic groups, but even so there were 1,653 in total in Wales in 2001.

Pensioner households were much more common in the Black and Black British ethnic groups than for Asian ethnic groups. More than a tenth of Black-Caribbean

and Black-African households contained a pensioner living alone. Lone pensioner households were much less common for Bangladeshi, Indian, Chinese and Pakistani people than for other ethnic groups. Pensioner families were very uncommon in the younger ethnic groups and while there were 6,407 “other” pensioner households (unrelated pensioners living at an address), only 47 of these included BME people. Only 3.8% of Muslim households were headed by pensioners, though lone pensioner households were more common than pensioner couples. The elderly Sikh population was small in 2001, but 4.9% of households comprised a lone pensioner, a much higher percentage than for other South Asian religions. The small percentage of pensioner families in many BME ethnic groups indicates that in these ethnic groups, older people are more likely to live in households headed by younger relatives.

Table 6.5: Percent of men and women aged 50-64 or 65 and over with a limiting long-term illness or poor general health

	MALE				FEMALE			
	Aged 50-64		Aged 65+		Aged 50-64		Aged 65+	
	With long-term illness	In poor health						
ALL PEOPLE	37.0	22.0	57.7	27.7	34.3	20.1	59.6	30.4
<i>White</i>	37.0	22.0	57.8	27.7	34.3	20.1	59.6	30.4
White: British	37.0	21.9	57.8	27.7	34.3	20.1	59.7	30.4
White: Irish	41.0	27.2	56.4	30.4	35.3	22.9	56.0	29.6
White Other: White	34.1	20.8	58.5	28.3	31.7	17.8	57.3	31.1
BME	36.1	21.6	54.8	28.8	37.4	21.7	60.3	31.8
<i>Mixed</i>	43.4	30.5	55.0	27.5	39.2	25.0	60.4	30.2
White & Black Caribbean	44.0	33.3	57.7	28.9	40.3	30.2	59.3	32.1
White & Black African	39.6	28.7	56.9	11.8	40.0	21.3	58.3	33.3
White and Asian	41.1	29.8	50.6	22.4	36.5	19.8	66.0	25.0
Other Mixed	46.2	29.4	53.8	37.5	39.7	25.8	57.9	30.7

(Continued)

	MALE				FEMALE			
	Aged 50-64		Aged 65+		Aged 50-64		Aged 65+	
	With long-term illness	In poor health						
<i>Asian or Asian British</i>	36.3	19.7	55.1	30.6	41.8	24.4	63.0	35.1
Indian	28.3	14.6	46.1	22.0	36.9	19.9	63.5	37.1
Pakistani	50.5	26.6	59.0	35.7	55.9	34.9	65.6	34.8
Bangladeshi	58.4	31.2	70.5	47.7	46.3	24.2	51.7	28.3
Other Asian	25.6	16.4	53.8	23.6	24.7	16.5	62.6	36.3
<i>Black or Black British</i>	43.0	26.9	54.9	31.5	37.2	20.2	61.9	33.1
Black Caribbean	44.7	29.2	55.8	32.9	34.0	16.5	58.1	29.7
Black African	41.5	25.1	54.0	29.9	41.3	22.3	61.8	35.0
Other Black	40.8	22.4	52.0	28.0	31.0	31.0	76.9	38.5
<i>Chinese or Other Ethnic</i>	21.4	12.3	53.0	21.5	26.2	13.7	51.6	25.0
Chinese	23.9	13.6	50.0	19.3	28.1	13.1	48.1	21.6
Other Ethnic Group	16.9	10.1	59.3	25.9	23.3	14.6	58.5	31.7
Religion								
Christian	36.9	21.6	57.6	27.5	34.2	19.8	59.3	30.8
Buddhist	33.9	23.8	52.7	33.5	31.6	20.0	55.4	29.0
Hindu	26.8	12.9	44.9	20.4	33.3	18.8	65.0	35.9
Jewish	39.1	26.9	54.9	28.7	29.7	18.8	55.3	28.9
Muslim	40.6	22.9	61.9	36.4	48.2	28.1	69.3	39.4
Sikh	37.7	23.7	49.1	26.3	47.4	37.9	58.8	35.3
Any other religion	45.8	30.1	60.4	30.5	45.3	29.3	64.9	36.6
No religion	36.0	23.1	56.7	31.0	33.5	21.3	56.7	32.0

Source: 2001 Census of Population (Standard Tables 107 and 152)

6.4 Health variations

Table 6.5 presents two (self-reported) measures of poor health: the percentage of people suffering from a long-term illness which limits their activity; and a “poor” level of health over the last year. The health of men and women aged 50 to 64 and 65 and over is compared.

Levels of health tend to deteriorate with age, and the percentage with long-term illnesses or poor health was substantially higher for people aged 65 and over than for those aged 50 to 64. Men in the

younger age group had poorer health than women, but this pattern was reversed in the older age group, probably because women live longer on average than men. Nearly a third of people aged 50 to 64 and three-fifths of people aged 65 and over suffered from a long-term health problem, but the percentage in poor health was much smaller.

Overall, BME men experienced lower rates of long-term illness than white men, but BME women experienced higher rates. BME women and older BME men had poorer

levels of health than white people from the same age group. Both Black and Asian people tended to experience poorer health than white people, but Chinese people had much lower illness rates and better levels of general health than people from other ethnic groups.

There were large contrasts between Asian ethnic groups. Indian men displayed much better levels of health than white men in both age groups, but Indian women were more likely than white women to suffer long-term limiting illnesses, and their level of general health deteriorated faster with age than that of white women. Pakistani and Bangladeshi men aged 50 to 64 experienced much worse health than white men, and this differential was even greater for Bangladeshi men aged 65 and over. While Bangladeshi women aged 50-64 had poorer health than white women of the same age, those aged 65 and over were more healthy than white women. Among Black men, those aged 50 to 64 had poorer health relative to white men than those aged 65 and over. Levels of health of Black women were similar to that of white women.

Turning to religion, Hindu men tended to have low rates of long-term illness and poor health, but older Hindu women tended to be less healthy than the average. Buddhists displayed lower than average rates of long-term limiting illness, but average rates of poor health. Sikh women aged 50-64 had high rates of long-term limiting illness and high rates of poor health. Turning to Muslim people, both men and women experienced much higher than average rates of limiting long-term illness and poor health.

6.5 Economic characteristics

In this section, three measures of labour market activity are considered for older people; the economic activity rate, the employment rate and the unemployment rate. Men and women aged 55 to 59, 60 to 64 and 65 to 74.

Economic activity rates are presented in Table 6.6. The percentage of the population active in the labour market declined rapidly with age for people aged over 50, from 63.5% for men aged 55-59 to 9.2% for men aged 65 to 74. While under half of women aged 55 to 59 were economically active, only 5.3% of women aged 65 to 74 were economically active. Men from BME ethnic groups displayed higher activity rates than white men in all three age groups, while BME women displayed lower activity rates than white women in all but the oldest age group. Men from the Indian, Other-Asian, Other and Chinese ethnic groups were the most likely to be economically active, while men of mixed parentage, and men from the Black-African, Bangladeshi and Black-Caribbean ethnic groups had the lowest economic activity rates.

Economic activity rates were highest for white, Black-Caribbean and Indian women, with women from the latter ethnic groups tending to stay in the labour market for longer than white women. Economic activity rates were much lower for Pakistani and Bangladeshi women than for women from all other ethnic groups. For women aged 64 to 74, economic activity rates were higher than those for white women in a range of BME groups.

Table 6.6: Economic activity rates by ethnic group, age group and gender

	MALE			FEMALE		
	Aged 55-59	Aged 60-64	Aged 65-74	Aged 55-59	Aged 60-64	Aged 65-74
ALL PEOPLE	63.5	38.8	9.2	48.3	21.7	5.3
<i>White</i>	63.5	38.8	9.2	48.4	21.7	5.3
White: British	63.5	38.7	9.2	48.3	21.7	5.3
White: Irish	60.8	38.5	10.8	53.6	24.3	7.2
White Other: White	67.2	43.2	10.1	51.4	24.8	6.3
BME	67.1	41.0	12.0	38.7	19.6	10.5
<i>Mixed</i>	57.6	33.1	6.9	46.5	19.7	12.9
White and Black	54.4	31.1	5.5	41.9	21.1	15.7
White and Black African	60.5	40.0	10.8	50.0	18.2	18.8
White and Asian	59.5	37.5	14.0	45.0	20.0	7.4
Other Mixed	57.6	28.6	0.0	49.2	19.0	10.7
<i>Asian or Asian British</i>	72.6	46.3	14.5	36.9	16.4	7.8
Indian	79.8	52.8	17.7	48.9	17.9	10.3
Pakistani	59.8	39.0	15.9	22.9	12.8	8.4
Bangladeshi	58.8	38.5	4.5	17.5	10.0	0.0
Other Asian	77.1	55.9	11.4	46.7	26.7	5.6
<i>Black or Black British</i>	60.8	29.4	10.0	35.9	26.6	11.6
Black Caribbean	64.5	29.4	9.0	48.3	31.9	14.2
Black African	52.1	30.9	13.0	19.6	21.8	9.3
Other Black	68.4	23.1	0.0	46.7	0.0	0.0
<i>Chinese or Other Ethnic Group</i>	69.7	45.5	14.4	36.3	19.8	11.5
Chinese	66.3	43.8	13.5	40.7	15.2	10.9
Other Ethnic Group	75.0	50.0	16.7	27.3	30.0	13.0

Source: 2001 Census of Population Commissioned Table M248

Employment rates (the percentage of the population in employment) also decline rapidly with age for both men and women (Table 6.7), but more slowly for BME people. The percentage of BME men in employment was higher than the corresponding percentage for white men

in all three age groups. The percentage of BME women aged 55 to 59 in work was lower than that for white women, but the percentage in work beyond the official retirement age (60) was higher for BME women than white women.

Amongst men, the employment rate was highest in all three age groups for Indian men, followed by men from the Other Asian, Other and Chinese ethnic groups, all of whom were more likely than white men

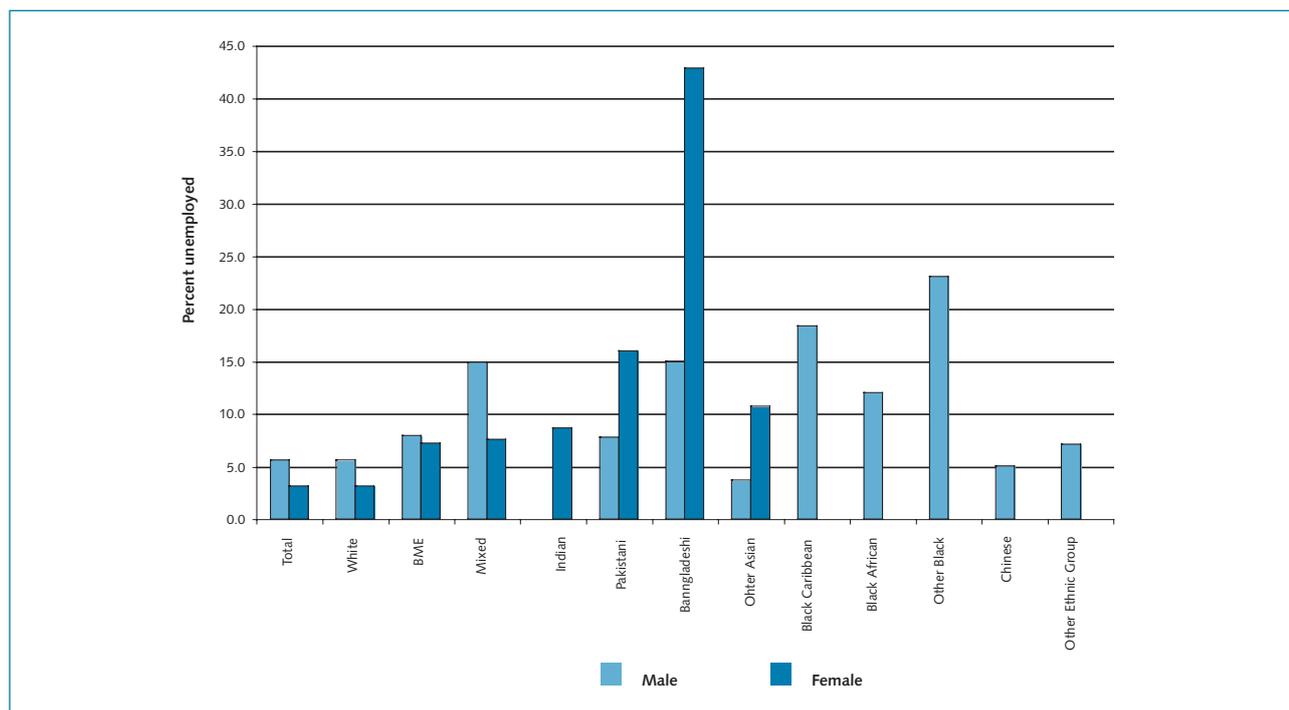
to be in work. Bangladeshi, Black-African and men of mixed parentage were least likely to be in work. Black-Caribbean men were more likely than Black-African but less likely than Pakistani men, to be in work.

Table 6.7: Employment rates by ethnic group, age group and gender

	MALE			FEMALE		
	Aged 55-59	Aged 60-64	Aged 65-74	Aged 55-59	Aged 60-64	Aged 65-74
ALL PEOPLE	60.0	36.5	8.9	46.8	21.4	5.1
<i>White</i>	59.9	36.5	8.9	46.9	21.4	5.1
White: British	59.9	36.5	8.8	46.8	21.4	5.1
White: Irish	56.1	35.2	10.2	50.8	23.6	7.2
White Other: White	62.8	39.8	9.9	48.8	24.2	6.0
BME	61.7	37.1	11.5	35.9	19.6	8.3
Mixed	49.0	27.7	6.9	42.9	19.7	6.2
White and Black Caribbean	47.4	31.1	5.5	41.9	21.1	8.4
White and Black African	50.0	40.0	10.8	39.3	18.2	0.0
White and Asian	45.9	30.0	14.0	37.5	20.0	7.4
Other Mixed	51.5	17.9	0.0	49.2	19.0	5.4
<i>Asian or Asian British</i>	<i>70.0</i>	<i>41.7</i>	<i>13.9</i>	<i>32.3</i>	<i>16.4</i>	<i>6.2</i>
Indian	79.8	50.8	17.7	44.7	17.9	7.8
Pakistani	55.1	32.8	14.3	19.3	12.8	6.5
Bangladeshi	50.0	30.8	4.5	10.0	10.0	0.0
Other Asian	74.3	51.5	11.4	41.7	26.7	5.6
Black or Black British	50.3	25.9	8.9	35.9	26.6	11.6
Black Caribbean	52.6	26.5	9.0	48.3	31.9	14.2
Black African	45.8	25.5	10.0	19.6	21.8	9.3
Other Black	52.6	23.1	0.0	46.7	0.0	0.0
<i>Chinese or Other Ethnic</i>	<i>65.5</i>	<i>45.5</i>	<i>14.4</i>	<i>36.3</i>	<i>19.8</i>	<i>11.5</i>
Chinese	62.9	43.8	13.5	40.7	15.2	10.9
Other Ethnic Group	69.6	50.0	16.7	27.3	30.0	13.0

Source: 2001 Census of Population Commissioned Table M248

Figure 6.1: Unemployment rate for 55-59 year olds



Source: 2001 Census of Population Commissioned Table M248

For older BME women, employment rates were highest for the Black-Caribbean ethnic group, followed by Indian women and women of mixed parentage and Other-Asian women. Only 10% of Bangladeshi women aged under 65 were in work, while about a fifth of Pakistani and Black-African women aged 55 to 59 were working.

The unemployment rate for 55 to 59 year old men and women (the percentage of people economically active who reported that they were unemployed during the week preceding the Census) is contrasted across ethnic groups in Figure 6.1.

The unemployment rate was nearly twice as high for men than for women in this age group, and the BME unemployment rate was about 50% higher than the white rate for men, but twice as high for women. Black men experienced the highest unemployment rates, followed by men of mixed parentage and Bangladeshi men. In many BME groups, no women were

recorded as being unemployed, but 16% of Pakistani and 42.9% of economically active Bangladeshi women were unemployed.

6.6 Summary

- There were just over 9 thousand BME people aged 50 and over in 2001, and 3.3 thousand aged 65 and over. Asian people are the largest component, but they do not form the majority. There is great diversity in the older BME population, with a high percentage of people of mixed parentage, reflecting the long-established .
- The largest concentrations of older BME people occur in the major cities of Wales, but older BME people are to be found in all parts of Wales. As is the case for the white population, the cities tend to contain the younger population and coastal, rural and resort areas are more likely to contain older BME people.

- Older South Asian BME people are less likely than white older people to live in independent households, but older Black people are more likely than other BME people to live alone.
- Older Indian and Chinese people tend to experience better than average health. Pakistani and Bangladeshi people and Muslim people in general experience poorer health. South Asian women tend to experience poorer health than men.
- Older people from BME ethnic groups tend to stay in the labour market longer than white people. Older Indian, Other-Asian, “Other” and Chinese people tend to be most successful in the labour market.

7. How the BME population in Wales is changing

Industrialisation in Wales resulted in large flows of migrants into and out of the country during the 19th and early 20th centuries, and the importance of South Wales coal ports meant that minority ethnic group populations emerged earlier here than in other areas of the UK. This chapter begins with a brief review of the history of minority settlement in Wales.

The Black and Minority Ethnic population of Wales and the UK has been measured with some precision only since the 1980s, when questions on ethnic group were introduced into the major social surveys (the Labour Force Survey and the General Household Survey) and the ethnic group question which was eventually included in the 1991 Census of Population was developed. The analysis of population trends in Wales therefore focuses on the period since 1981. This chapter also looks forward, presenting projections of the BME population from 2001 to 2011.

7.1 Background History of the Black and Ethnic Minority (BME) Population in Wales

Wales has a long history of BME settlement, largely connected to its South Wales coal ports, but also to Indian doctors who worked in the valleys and industrial urban areas. One of the earliest studies of minority ethnic settlement in a British city was Kenneth Little's (who was Professor of Anthropology at Edinburgh University) book on Cardiff's Tiger Bay (Butetown) published in 1948 and since republished twice in 1972 and 1998. Little also published an earlier survey of Loudon Square, a key minority settlement area within Butetown (Little, 1942). The approach taken in these

studies was ethnographic and qualitative, since detailed quantitative data on ethnicity was not available.

Cardiff contained the earliest substantial concentration of BME people in Wales. The city's minority population in the first half of the 20th century was largely West African, Caribbean, Yemeni, Somali and Chinese in origin. Little's account is of a male seafaring population which had either jumped ship or who had been abandoned by their employers as a result of pressure to take on white British crews. Numbers were small, perhaps 5,000 to 6,000 at most in the period between the end of the First World War and the end of the Second. However, because it was a predominantly male population, intermarriage and cohabitation produced a significant Mixed population (this mixed population produced some prominent personalities, such as the singer Shirley Bassey). However, Little's account paints an unhappy history of race riots at the end of the First World War and racist attitudes by the police and public.

A notable later contribution to the history is the book *Arabs in Exile* by Fred Halliday (1992). This is an account of the Muslim Yemeni and Somali population in Britain in the 1900-1950 period and of their imam the charismatic Sheikh al-Hakmi. Halliday calculates that there were about 1,500 Yemenis and 1,000 Somalis in Cardiff during the Second World War (Halliday, 1992, 21). Cardiff was the largest of the four British port cities in which there were Yemeni communities (Liverpool, South Shields and Hull being the other three), and there was even an Arab name for Cardiff; Bilad al-Welsh (Land of the Welsh) (Halliday, 1992, 17). The Sheikh's evangelising

activities led to the foundation of the first Mosque in Wales; the Maria Street Mosque founded in 1936. This Mosque is currently Somali, the Yemenis having broken away to form a new Mosque in Alice Street, also in Butetown, in 1984. Halliday (1992,18) refers to Butetown as a ghetto, because the minority ethnic populations were confined to this area of docklands, cut off from the rest of the city. In reality, it was not comparable with the true ghettos of black Americans in terms of scale, or degree of geographical segregation from the white majority. Most of the minority population may have been confined to Butetown, but the majority of the area's population was white. In Chicago, in 1990, on the other hand, two thirds of the African American population were living in areas which were 90% or more black, and 82% were in areas that were 50% or more black (Peach, 1996).

The large-scale, post-war immigration to Britain from the Caribbean, India, Pakistan and Bangladesh was mainly focussed on the inland industrial cities of England. The Caribbean population settled overwhelmingly in London and the Birmingham conurbation, Indians tended to settle in London and the West and East Midlands, while the Pakistanis were almost evenly spread between London, the West Midlands and the mill towns of Lancashire and the West Riding of Yorkshire. The more recent migrations of Bangladeshi and African people tended to focus upon London.

As a consequence, over the period from the 1930s to the 1960s, Wales changed from being one of the principal areas of BME settlement to one of the smallest in terms of numbers and share of the total population. In 2001, BME people formed 7.9% of the UK population, while in Wales,

the BME population was 61,576 or 2.1% of the total. Only in Northern Ireland and the North were BME people a smaller percentage of the resident population than in Wales.

It is only possible to present approximate figures for the growth of the BME population of Wales during the 20th century. The BME population was probably around 8 thousand before the Second World War, increasing to a figure nearly eight times larger (61,576) in 2001.

The way in which these estimates have been arrived at will now be elaborated further. Little estimated a BME population of 5,000 to 6,000 in Cardiff in the inter-war years. In recent Censuses, Cardiff accounted for nearly half of the Welsh BME population (42% in both 1991 and 2001), but it probably contained a much higher proportion in the first half of the century, and hence the total for Wales would be closer to that for Cardiff.

In the post-war period, the New Commonwealth birthplace figures for Wales are probably the best available approximation of the BME immigrant population for the 1966-1981 period, but do not include British born children of those immigrants. These show an increase from 10,000 in 1966 to 13,700 in 1971, 18,000 in 1981 and 23,400 in 1991. However, the 1991 census (the first to measure ethnicity as well as birthplace) reported a BME population of 41,500 suggesting that by 1991, about half of the BME population had been born in the UK. Indeed, this is the position for England and Wales in 2001 where 56% of the 4.5 million BME population was UK born.

If we double the New Commonwealth figures from 1966 onwards (to allow for children born to the immigrant population)

and assume that before 1940 Cardiff accounted for two thirds of the pre war BME population of Wales, it suggests a growth of the Welsh BME population from perhaps 8,000 in the inter-war years, to about 20,000 in the mid 1960s, 27,000 in 1971, 36,000 in 1981, 41,000 in 1991 and 61,600 in 2001. It should be stressed that the figures presented for the period before 1991 are fairly crude **estimates** and should be treated with caution.

Table 7.1 places minority population change in Wales within the context of population change at the regional and national scale within Great Britain over the period from 1971 to 2001. Wales has gained population over this period, in contrast to northern England and Scotland. The BME share of the population of Wales is smaller than that of Scotland and any standard region of England. This table indicates that the minority population of the UK has tended to concentrate at the regional scale in London, the West Midlands and the North West over this 30-year period.

Table 7.1: Minority population change by region within Great Britain, 1971-2001

Standard Region, country or former metropolitan county (MC)	Population 2001 (000s)	% change total pop 1971-2001	BME population				
			1971 %	1981 %	1981 %	2001	
						Percent	Number (000s)
South East	18,386.9	12.7	4.3	7.4	9.9	13.4	2,460.5
Greater London	7,172.1	-0.6	7.9	14.3	20.2	28.8	2,068.9
East Anglia	2,174.0	35.2	0.7	1.5	2.1	3.2	69.0
South West	4,928.4	26.4	0.8	1.5	1.3	2.3	113.1
West Midlands	5,267.3	5.3	4.1	6.4	8.2	11.3	593.0
West Midlands MC	2,555.6	-7.0	6.8	10.9	14.6	20.0	512.4
East Midlands	4,172.2	17.6	2.0	3.7	4.8	6.5	271.8
Yorkshire&Humberside	4,964.8	4.1	1.9	3.2	4.5	6.5	323.6
West Yorkshire MC	2,079.2	2.7	3.4	5.9	8.2	11.4	236.4
North West	6,242.2	-3.1	1.3	2.7	3.9	5.9	370.7
Greater Manchester	2,482.3	-7.5	2.1	3.9	5.9	8.9	221.8
North	3,003.0	-2.2	0.4	0.9	1.3	2.1	63.6
Tyne & Wear	1,075.9	-9.6	0.4	1.0	1.8	3.2	34.0
Wales	2,903.1	9.2	0.4	0.9	1.5	2.1	61.6
Scotland*	5,062.0	0.2	0.4	-	1.2	2.0	101.7
Great Britain	57,103.9	9.0	2.4	4.2	5.5	8.1	4,622.7

* no data for 1981

Source: Census Data 1971, 1981 (both based on country of birth), 1991, 2001

7.2 Change in the BME population of Wales, 1981-2001

7.2.1 Change 1981-1991

Here, estimates of the ethnic composition of the population in 1981 made by Phillips and Rees (1996) are compared with Census data for 1991. Their estimates of ethnic group populations in 1981 were created by assuming that the ethnic composition of people born in each country was broadly the same in 1981 as in 1991.

Table 7.2 presents the estimated pattern of population change by ethnic group (using ethnic group categories designed to be comparable over time, and detailed in Table A1.2). The white population is

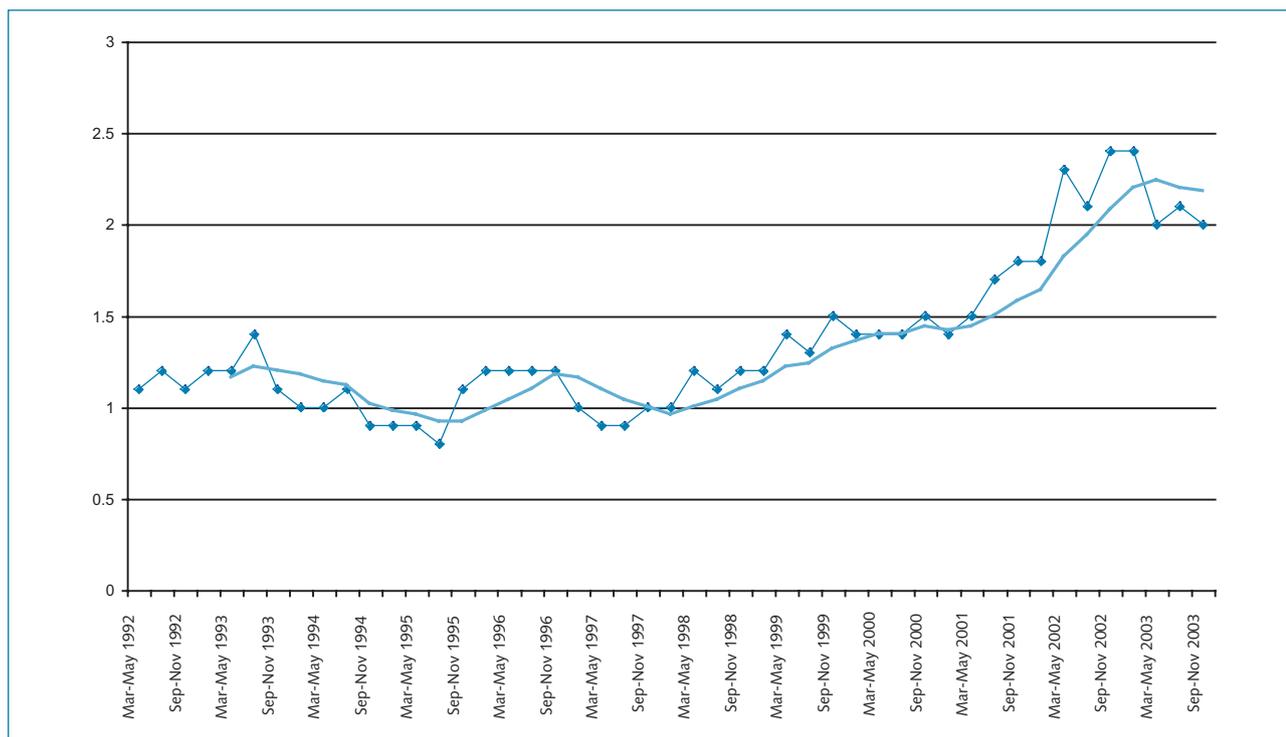
estimated to have grown slowly (by 0.8%) over this period. The estimated minority share of the population of Wales increased by 0.3% between 1981 and 1991, but the BME population increased by more than a quarter (8.7 thousand). The fastest growing ethnic groups were Asian and Asian British (which increased by 40.7% in total), with the Bangladeshi population increasing by over 70.2%. The Other-Asian population grew by 56.3% and the Pakistani population grew by 31.2%. Other rates of increase were substantial, but much smaller. The Black-Caribbean population is estimated to have grown more slowly than other BME groups (8%), and less than half as quickly as the Black-African and "Mixed and Other" population.

Table 7.2: Population change by ethnic group in Wales, 1981-1991

Ethnic group	1981	Percent	1991	Percent	Change	% change
White	2,780,395	98.8	2,793,522	98.5	13,127	0.5
Minority Ethnic groups	32,828	1.2	41,551	1.5	8,723	26.6
Black and Black British	5,335	0.2	6,019	0.2	684	12.8
Black-Caribbean	3,099	0.1	3,348	0.1	249	8.0
Black-African	2,236	0.1	2,671	0.1	435	19.5
Asian and Asian British	14,207	0.5	19,598	0.7	5,391	37.9
Indian	5,251	0.2	6,384	0.2	1,133	21.6
Pakistani	4,359	0.2	5,717	0.2	1,358	31.2
Bangladeshis	2,244	0.1	3,820	0.1	1,576	70.2
Other Asian	2,353	0.1	3,677	0.1	1,324	56.3
Chinese and Other	13,286	0.5	15,934	0.6	2,648	19.9
Chinese	3,970	0.1	4,801	0.2	831	20.9
Mixed and Other	9,316	0.3	11,133	0.4	1,817	19.5
All ethnic groups	2,813,223	100.0	2,835,073	100.0	21,850	0.8

Source: Phillips and Rees (1996) and Census of Population 1991 (LBS Table 6)

Figure 7.1: Percentage of adults from minority ethnic groups (solid line is 5 quarter running mean)



Source: Quarterly Labour Force Survey

7.2.2 Change 1991-2001

There is very little information on the changing ethnic composition of the population between Censuses. The most important source of data on ethnic groups is the quarterly Labour Force Survey. The sample size for this data source is quite small, and results for BME people in Wales are based on very small numbers of cases, but it can provide a very rough indication of trends in the ethnic composition of the population over time. Figure 7.1 presents the percentage of the population aged 16 and over, taken from successive quarters of the survey, with a five-quarter moving average added. This indicates that the adult BME population of Wales remained fairly constant in the early 1990s, but started to increase from 1997 onwards and suggests that the rate of minority population increase is set to accelerate. It also hints at the influence of economic conditions on ethnic composition; the early 1990s was a period

of economic recession, which may have deterred migrants, who may have been attracted by rapid economic growth since the mid-1990s.

With data on ethnic group collected by both the 1991 and 2001 Censuses of Population, it should be possible to fairly simply calculate change in the population of ethnic groups between the two Censuses. However, this comparison has been complicated by the change in the ethnic group question (see Table A1.1), changes in areal units, local government boundary reorganisation in 1996 and the change in the basis of the Census to a “One Number Census” in 2001. In 1991, it was estimated that the Census missed 2% (nearly a million people) of the population, with the undercount particularly severe for BME groups. Manchester University have created a set of adjusted Census data which incorporates the undercount and

corrects for ethnic-specific undercounts, which yields an estimate of the BME population in Great Britain which is about 200 thousand greater than the published Census figure of just over 3 million and an estimated BME population in Wales of

47,550. However, since this data set has been released, further analysis of the 2001 Census by ONS has cast doubt on estimates of the 1991 undercount. Consequently, the analysis of change presented here compares unadjusted data for 1991 with 2001 data.

Table 7.3: Population change by ethnic group, 1991-2001

Ethnic group	1991 population	Percent of population	2001 population	Percent of population	Change, 1991-2001	Percentage change
White	2,793,522	98.5	2,841,507	97.9	47,985	1.7
Minority Ethnic groups	41,551	1.5	61,576	2.1	20,025	48.2
<i>Black & Black British</i>	6,019	0.2	6,324	0.2	305	5.1
Black-Caribbean	3,348	0.1	2,597	0.1	-751	-22.4
Black-African	2,671	0.1	3,727	0.1	1,056	39.5
<i>Asian & Asian British</i>	19,598	0.7	25,444	0.9	5,846	29.8
Indian	6,384	0.2	8,259	0.3	1,875	29.4
Pakistani	5,717	0.2	8,287	0.3	2,570	45.0
Bangladeshis	3,820	0.1	5,434	0.2	1,614	42.3
Other Asian	3,677	0.1	3,464	0.1	-213	-5.8
<i>Chinese and Other</i>	15,934	0.6	29,808	1.0	13,874	87.1
Chinese	4,801	0.2	6,266	0.2	1,465	30.5
Mixed and Other	11,133	0.4	23,542	0.8	12,409	111.5
All ethnic groups	2,835,073	100.0	2,903,085	100.0	68,012	2.4

Source: 1991 (LBS Table 6) and 2001 (Standard Table 101) Censuses of Population (unadjusted)

Table 7.3 presents the pattern of population change by ethnic group for Wales as a whole, from published 1991 (unadjusted) and 2001 Census of Population data. The population of Wales grew moderately, by 68 thousand people or 2.4%. The BME population is revealed to have increased by nearly half (48.2%), while the white population grew by only 1.7%. Black ethnic groups gained population most slowly over this period (5.1%). The number of people from Chinese and other ethnic groups grew by 87.1%, dominating the growth of the BME population, mainly because of the more than doubling in the number

of people from “mixed and other” ethnic groups. The growth of the Asian and Asian British population was slower, but still substantial (29.8%). The Pakistani and Bangladeshi ethnic groups each increased by more than 40%, while the Indian population grew more rapidly than during the 1980s (at 29.4%).

7.2.4 Geographical patterns of BME population change in Wales, 1991-2001

Population increase within Wales has been fastest in the rural areas of west and mid-Wales, and along the eastern border over

the period 1981-2001 (Table 7.4). The largest population decreases have been in more industrialised areas, such as the South Wales valleys. Turning to the cities

and larger urban areas, Cardiff, Wrexham and Newport have gained population, but Swansea has lost population.

Table 7.4: Geographical pattern of population trends in Wales, 1981-2001

Unitary authority	1981	1991	% change, 1981-1991	2001	% change 1991-2001	% change, 1981-2001
Ceredigion	61,176	65,933	7.8	75,401	14.4	23.3
Powys	112,176	119,703	6.7	126,374	5.6	12.7
Monmouthshire	76,539	80,209	4.8	84,984	6.0	11.0
Conwy	98,966	107,951	9.1	109,765	1.7	10.9
Denbighshire	84,871	89,395	5.3	93,078	4.1	9.7
Flintshire	138,595	142,036	2.5	148,641	4.7	7.2
Cardiff	286,867	296,941	3.5	307,339	3.5	7.1
Wrexham	121,009	124,180	2.6	128,539	3.5	6.2
Torfaen	112,494	118,053	4.9	119,279	1.0	6.0
Pembrokeshire	107,359	112,446	4.7	113,063	0.5	5.3
Carmarthenshire	165,061	169,725	2.8	173,657	2.3	5.2
Gwynedd	111,860	115,007	2.8	116,807	1.6	4.4
Newport	132,434	135,479	2.3	137,744	1.7	4.0
Bridgend	126,930	129,477	2.0	128,723	-0.6	1.4
The Vale of Glamorgan	90,688	90,961	0.3	90,912	-0.1	0.2
Isle of Anglesey	68,046	69,123	1.6	67,741	-2.0	-0.4
Caerphilly	171,787	170,615	-0.7	169,546	-0.6	-1.3
Swansea	229,316	229,743	0.2	223,454	-2.7	-2.6
Rhondda; Cynon; Taf	238,388	234,917	-1.5	231,897	-1.3	-2.7
Neath Port Talbot	142,721	138,844	-2.7	134,404	-3.2	-5.8
Merthyr Tydfil	60,540	59,594	-1.6	56,244	-5.6	-7.1
Blaenau Gwent	75,672	72,666	-4.0	70,000	-3.7	-7.5
Wales	2,813,495	2,872,998	2.1	2,907,592	1.2	3.3

Source: ONS estimates of the population at June 30th each year, re-based following 2001 Census

Table 7.5: White and BME population change by unitary authority, 1991-2001

Unitary authority	Population change			Percentage change		
	All ethnic groups	White	BME people	All ethnic groups	White	BME people
Isle of Anglesey	-2,352	-2,480	128	-3.4	-3.6	36.3
Gwynedd	3,426	3,114	312	3.0	2.8	29.0
Conwy	3,258	2,870	388	3.1	2.7	50.5
Denbighshire	2,504	1,999	505	2.8	2.2	88.9
Flintshire	7,213	6,727	486	5.1	4.8	68.6
Wrexham	7,517	7,017	500	6.2	5.8	55.4
Powys	7,055	6,656	399	5.9	5.6	58.1
Ceredigion	11,898	11,664	234	18.9	18.7	29.1
Pembrokeshire	2,086	1,723	363	1.9	1.5	54.8
Carmarthenshire	4,542	3,806	736	2.7	2.3	83.0
Swansea	113	-1,222	1,335	0.1	-0.6	38.5
Neath Port Talbot	-3,723	-4,158	435	-2.7	-3.0	42.9
Bridgend	2,103	1,442	661	1.7	1.1	59.8
The Vale of Glamorgan	-291	-1,297	1,006	-0.2	-1.1	64.1
Rhondda, Cynon, Taf	-649	-1,434	785	-0.3	-0.6	41.6
Merthyr Tydfil	-3,348	-3,461	113	-5.6	-5.9	25.1
Caerphilly	-72	-449	377	0.0	-0.3	32.2
Blaenau Gwent	-2,166	-2,372	206	-3.0	-3.3	54.9
Torfaen	419	217	202	0.5	0.2	31.1
Monmouthshire	4,909	4,495	414	6.1	5.7	75.3
Newport	3,673	1,710	1,963	2.8	1.3	42.3
Cardiff	19,907	11,472	8,435	7.0	4.3	48.8
Wales	68,022	48,039	19,983	2.4	1.7	48.0

Source: 1991 and 2001 Census of Population, re-aggregated to post-1996 unitary Authorities

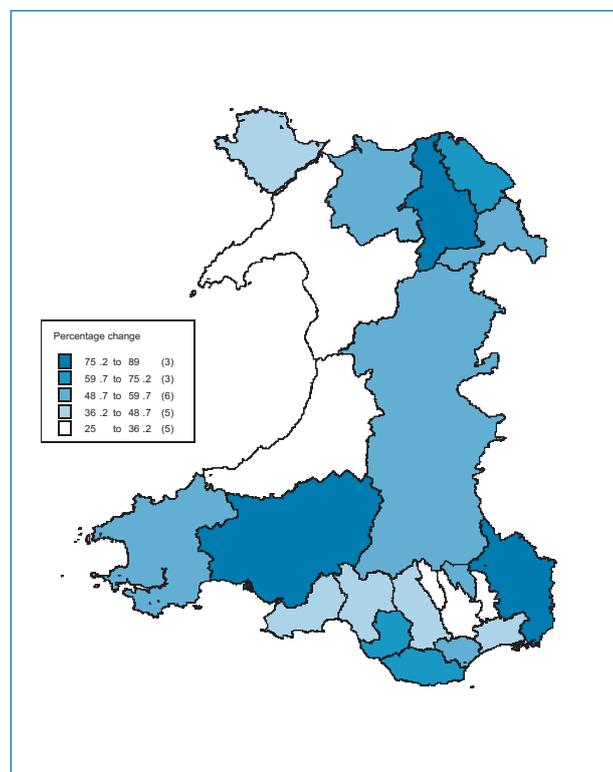
Over the period 1991 to 2001, the pattern of overall population change was one of most rapid rates of population gain in the more rural and western parts of Wales (population increase was fastest in Ceredigion) and greatest increase in population numbers in Cardiff, Ceredigion and eastern Wales (Flintshire, Wrexham and Powys) Population loss was greatest in Neath Port Talbot, Merthyr Tydfil, Blaenau Gwent and Anglesey. The population growth of the rural and more remote areas

of Wales was driven by growth in the white population, mainly due to migration.

Estimated rates of growth of the BME population were slowest in the industrial valleys of south Wales, and fastest in Denbighshire (88.9%), Carmarthenshire (83%), Monmouthshire (75.3%) and Flintshire (68.6%). The numbers of people involved in each of these was in the order of a few hundred, but the BME population increase formed a large part of total population change in the first

two unitary authorities listed. Cardiff and Newport received more than half of the total increase of the BME population of Wales between 1991 and 2001. With the exception of these two cities, the growth in the BME population compensated for a decline in the white population in the larger urban centres of south Wales.

Figure 7.2: Estimated rates of BME population change, 1991-2001



Source: Censuses of Population 1991 (LBS Table 6) and 2001 (Standard Table 101)

7.3 Scenarios for future population change by ethnic group

This section looks forward to consider the likely pattern of BME population change in the near future (from 2001 to 2011). We preface this section with a severe health warning; forecasting population change is an uncertain exercise, since it depends upon knowledge of the three components of

population change: births, deaths and net migration. We lack precise data on all of these elements for the BME population at present, but the most uncertain of the three is migration. Because of the uncertainty over the coverage of the 1991 Census referred to above, the projections presented here use unadjusted 1991 Census data.

For Wales, the uncertainties of migration relate both to internal movement within the United Kingdom as well as the flows of international migration. Migration relates to both inward and outward movement from the Principality. However, from the point of view of projections, it is the net difference between the inward and outward movements which is critical.

The evidence indicates that Wales has a net migratory loss of its Welsh-born BME population to the rest of the UK (overwhelmingly to England). This loss can be estimated by taking the 2001 number of Welsh-born BME for England and Wales as a whole and calculating the proportion still living in Wales (Table 7.6). This shows an outward flow varying with size for the different ethnicities. The net number of Welsh-born BME people living in England substantially exceeds the number of English-born BME people living in Wales. These data do not reveal when such movements occurred. However, the outward movement is clear for the Caribbean, African and Other Asian groups (only 43%, 50% and 46% respectively of those born in Wales still lived in Wales in 2001). On the other hand, the Welsh born Bangladeshis (77%) Pakistanis and Chinese (both 70%) and Indian people (53%) have remained in Wales.

Table 7.6: Wales 2001 Estimate of net loss to England of Welsh born BME groups

	Welsh born BME living in England and Wales 2001	Welsh born BME living in Wales 2001	Wales as % of England & Wales
Caribbean	2,230	959	43.0
African	1,932	965	49.9
Indian	3,297	1,735	52.6
Pakistani	5,333	3,709	69.5
Bangladeshi	2,662	2,048	76.9
Chinese	2,124	1,482	69.8
Other Asian	1,185	541	45.7

Source: Table S102 Census of England and Wales, 2001

7.6.1 Measurement of international migration to Wales.

The best, albeit crude, measure of international migration, is to compare the foreign born BME numbers living in Wales in 1991 and 2001 (Table 7.7). Changes in these numbers, however, encompass both internal movement within the UK and international movement to Wales itself (since the birthplace figures do not distinguish whether an increase in the foreign born BMEs living in Wales in 2001

come directly from overseas or whether they were living previously elsewhere in the UK). For the ethnic categories that are identical between the 1991 and 2001 censuses, it can be seen that the Caribbean overseas-born population living in Wales decreased by 10% over this period. For all of the other groups the numbers of non-UK born people increased by at least 20% between 1991 and 2001 and in the case of the African and Other Asian population, the increase exceeded 40%.

Table 7.7: Wales 1991-2001: Growth of Non UK-born population for Selected BMEs

Wales BME born outside UK	1991	2001	Difference	Percent of 1991
Caribbean	1,286	1,162	-124	-9.6
African	1,718	2,441	723	42.1
Indian	3,882	5,110	1,228	31.6
Pakistani	2,848	3,574	726	25.5
Bangladeshi	2,346	2,867	521	22.2
Chinese	3,233	4,163	930	28.8
Other Asian	3,068	4,378	1,310	42.7
Total	18,381	23,695	5,314	28.9

Source: Table S102 Census of England and Wales, 2001

OPCS (1993) Table 5 (Great Britain Census 1991, Ethnic Group and Country of Birth)

Thus as far as migration is concerned, there is a net gain of overseas-born BME people, but a loss of Welsh born BME people to England. The flow of Welsh born BME people to England is 60% greater than

English-born BME movement to Wales. The imbalance towards England is most marked for the Caribbean, African, Indian and Other Asians, but largely neutral for the Pakistanis, Bangladeshis and Chinese.

7.6.2 Relative Contribution of Natural Growth and Migration to Net Change in BME Population

Table 7.8: Wales 2001; Relative contribution of Welsh-born BME 1991-2001 to Net change in BME population

	Change in number of Welsh-born BME 1991-2001 living in Wales	Change in Overseas-born BME living in Wales, 1991-2001	Welsh-born BME change plus Overseas-born BME change	Contribution of Welsh born change to combined change
Caribbean	-630	-124	-754	84
African	191	723	914	21
Indian	217	1,228	1,445	15
Pakistani	1,506	726	2,232	67
Bangladeshi	864	521	1,385	62
Chinese	401	930	1,331	30
Other Asian	113	1,310	1,423	8

Source: Table S102 Census of England and Wales, 2001
 OPCS (1993) Table 5 (Great Britain Census 1991, Ethnic Group and Country of Birth)

The relative contribution of migration and natural increase to the growth of the Welsh BME population is calculated by adding the change (largely growth) of the Welsh-born BME population between 1991 and 2001 to the change in the non-UK born (i.e. overseas-born) BME over the same period and then measuring their relative contributions to the aggregate (Table 7.8).

The final column of Table 7.8 shows the contribution of Welsh-born growth or decline to the net change in the BME population between 1991 and 2001.

Net migration of the Welsh-born Caribbean population to England explains 84% of the loss of the Caribbean population between 1991 and 2001. In contrast, net immigration is responsible for the bulk of the growth of the Welsh population of Chinese, Black-African, Indian and Other Asian ethnic origin. Natural increase explains about two thirds of the large net growth of the Pakistani and Bangladeshi population, 30% of Chinese population growth, 21% of Black-African growth, 15% of Indian growth and 8% of Other Asian growth.

7.6.3 Future Trends in BME Population in Wales

Table 7.9 Wales: Projected Possible Growth of the BME population 2001-2011

Ethnic Group	1991	Change		Percent change 1991-2001	2011 Projected BME population by applying 1991-2001 %
		2001	1991-2001		
White	2,793,522	2,841,507	47,985	1.7	2,890,316
Minority Ethnic groups	41,551	61,576	20,025	48.2	91,252
Black-Caribbean	3,348	2,597	-751	-22.4	2,014
Black-African	2,671	3,727	1,056	39.5	5,200
Indian	6,384	8,259	1,875	29.4	10,685
Pakistani	5,717	8,287	2,570	45.0	12,012
Bangladeshis	3,820	5,434	1,614	42.3	7,730
Chinese	4,801	6,266	1,465	30.5	8,178
Other Asian	3,677	3,464	-213	-5.8	3,263
Mixed and Other	11,133	23,542	12,409	111.5	49,782

Source: Table S102 Census of England and Wales, 2001
 OPCS (1993) Table 5 (Great Britain Census 1991, Ethnic Group and Country of Birth)

One way of projecting future change in the population of the BME population of Wales is to assume that the same rates of growth of the ethnic population between 1991 and 2001 will continue between 2001 and 2011 (Table 7.9). With this assumption, the Welsh BME population would increase from 61,576 in 2001 to 91,269 by 2011. It is not possible to produce individual estimates for all of the groups and in particular, the fast growing population of mixed parentage, because comparable categories did not exist in the 1991 census. However, Table 7.9 makes direct comparisons between the 1991 and 2001 categories whose definitions remain constant, and combines the remaining categories (whose largest element is the Mixed ethnic groups) into a 'Mixed and Other'.

The BME population is projected to grow by 20 thousand, compared to 48 thousand for the white population. The highest estimated rate of growth (111%) is expected to occur in the 'Mixed and Other' population. However, significantly large increases are expected for the Pakistani and Bangladeshi populations (45 and 42% respectively) largely due to natural increase and for the Black-African population (40%). The latter results from both immigration and natural increase. African immigration to Britain increased substantially during the 1990s and future trends are very difficult to predict.

This scenario should be treated with **considerable caution**. Overall, for most groups other than the Pakistani, Bangladeshi and people of Mixed

parentage, immigration will be a somewhat greater contributor to this growth than natural increase. Rates of natural increase in the Mixed and Other group are sufficiently high to ensure that natural increase of the BME population as a whole exceeds immigration between 2001 and 2011.

7.6.4 Projections and Implications for Growth of the BME Elderly population

Calculating the likely change in the older BME age cohorts in Wales is probably less problematic than projecting the population as a whole. Here it is assumed that international and internal migration will have little effect on the populations of these groups and that mortality rates will be the main engines of change. If we assume (in the absence of age and gender specific BME death rates) that the same rates that apply to the Welsh population as a whole apply equally to the individual BME groups, the survival rate of the 2001 50-59 cohort would more than compensate for the mortality of the 2001 60+ cohort, and by 2011 the 60+ cohort would increase by a third.

In 2001 only 4,963 BME persons were aged 60 or over and only 2,054 were aged 70 or more. Applying the age-specific death rates to the 60+ cohort suggests that the 4,963 in 2001 would nearly halve to 2,742

in 2011 and that the 4,116 in the 50-59 cohort would decrease to 3,900. However by 2011, the 60+ cohort would increase to 6,642. This is because the 2,742 survivors of the original 4,963 people in the aged 60+ cohort would be joined by the 3,900 survivors of the 2001 aged 50-59 cohort. Thus, taking the BME population as a whole, the 60+ cohort is expected to rise from 4,963 to 6,642 between 2001 and 2011. In contrast, the number of white people aged 60 and over is expected to increase by just under 3,000 or less than half of 1 per cent.

The impact of the age-specific death rates from 2001 to 2011 will be heavy on the White populations. Between the two dates, the equivalent of 22% of the existing White Irish population and 15% of the White British population is projected to have died. The Black groups are the next most severely affected: 10% of the Black-Caribbean, 9% of the Black-Other and 8% of the existing Black-African population are projected to have died. For the remaining groups, the attrition rate is 5% or less: the Mixed White/Caribbean, Other Mixed, Indian, Pakistani and Other Asian ethnic groups would all would lose 5% of their 2001 populations. Rates of loss for Mixed White/Africans are 4% and for the White/Asian and Bangladeshi ethnic groups 3%.

Table 7.10: Wales: 'Expected' Absolute and Proportional Changes in the 60+ Age Cohort Between 2001 and 2011

	2001 Aged 60+	2011 Aged 60+	Absolute change	2001-2011 % change
All ethnic groups	657,694	658,028	334	0
<i>White</i>	652,731	655,626	2,895	0.4
White: British	638,326	637,094	-1,232	-0.2
White: Irish	6,442	6,161	-281	-4.4
White Other	7,963	12,371	4,408	55.4
Black and Minority Ethnic	4,963	6,858	1,895	38.2
<i>Mixed parentage</i>	1,104	1,375	271	24.5
Mixed White/Black Caribbean	391	406	15	3.8
Mixed White/Black African	148	223	75	50.5
Mixed White/Asian	250	307	57	22.8
Other Mixed	315	439	124	39.3
<i>Asian and Asian British</i>	2,059	3,134	1,075	52.2
Indian	713	1304	591	82.8
Pakistani	784	901	117	14.9
Bangladeshi	255	348	93	36.3
Other Asian	307	581	274	89.3
<i>Black and Black British</i>	1,091	1,108	17	1.6
Black Caribbean	567	583	16	2.8
Black African	446	445	-1	-0.2
Other Black	78	80	2	3.1
<i>Chinese & Other</i>	709	1,241	532	75.0
Chinese	483	791	308	63.8
Other Ethnic	226	450	224	99.3

Source: Census England and Wales 2001, Table S101 Sex and Age by Ethnic Group. Office for National Statistics Deaths, 1990-2000: age-specific death rates as a percentage of rates in 1990, England and Wales, Dataset HSQ10DF1

The effect of the projected death rates on the 60+ cohort of Wales as a whole between 2001 and 2011 is largely neutral. However, disaggregating the impact into the ethnic components (White and BME) suggests that there may be a decrease in the size of the White British component by about 1,200 but an increase of 4,400 in the White Other category (Table 7.10). Among

the BME groups, there is expected to be a sharp increase of 600 or 83% in the Indian 60+ cohort. The Other Asian cohort is expected to double to 450 and the Chinese cohort is expected to rise by 300 or so (64%). The Bangladeshi cohort is expected to rise by about 100 or 36%. The Mixed White/African cohort is expected to rise by 50% although numerically this amounts

to 75 persons. For the remaining Black and Black Mixed groups, little change is forecast.

The implications of these projected changes are not great for the White British population. The cohort size is not expected to increase. Its impact is expected to be geographically diffused. The White Other group, however, has a very large absolute and percentage change. The White Other is a heterogeneous group. Half is British-born and likely to be second or other generation. There is a significant East European component in the remainder. Unlike the White British population, parts of this population are likely to be geographically concentrated.

Among the BME groups, the Indian population is expected to have the largest increase in the 60+ cohort. This growth is also likely to be geographically concentrated in Cardiff, Swansea and Newport. Indian people in Wales are predominantly Hindu, with a high socio-economic profile and less dependent on social housing (6.8% versus the Welsh average of 11.8%) than all other ethnic groups except the Chinese (6.5%). Extended families are a significant feature of Indian, Pakistani and Bangladeshi housing profiles, and it is likely that families will be largely responsible for the care of this generation of elderly people. Demands on the social rented sector will be small, but likely to increase further into the 21st century.

The Chinese are the next largest of the BME groups in Wales in terms of the absolute growth in the 60+ cohort between 2001 and 2011. They are similar to the Indian population, in having a high rate of owner occupation and low dependence on social housing and private renting. However, their socio-economic profile, is more mixed and less professionalised than

the Indians, but nevertheless above average for Wales. Their distribution, presumably because of their presence in the catering industry, is more dispersed than the Indians. Their future demands for social retirement housing seems unlikely to be greater than the age group in Wales in general and less geographically concentrated than those of the Indians.

The 'Other Ethnic' groups, whose prospective 60+ cohort is expected to double in size to 450 by 2011, is largely first generation and likely to be a "sojourner" rather than a "settler" population (85% were born outside the UK in 2001). Nearly three quarters were born in the Far East, from a diverse range of countries including Malaysia and Japan. The group has the highest proportion of privately rented accommodation (41%) of any group in Wales. It is also one of the most highly professionalised groups with 60% of its working population in professional or administrative posts. Despite the large proportional increase in its elderly cohort, the group has a very youthful profile (Figure 7.3). In short, the profile suggests a high percentage of short-term technical administrators brought in to run companies for overseas corporations and students. Because of the diversity of this grouping, the 60+ cohort may have very different characteristics from those of the Other Ethnic BME population as a whole.

7.7 Implications of likely future population change

In absolute terms, the BME population may be expected to increase by nearly a half from 62,000 to 91,000 in 2011. Its percentage of the Welsh population is likely to rise to over 3% by 2011. Growth in the BME population will come about through both migration and

natural increase but probably more from the latter than from the former. Natural increase will predominate over migration for the Pakistani, Bangladeshi and Mixed populations. The reverse probably will be the case for other BME groups.

The BME population aged 60 and above is expected to increase by 33 percent between 2001 and 2011 (from 4,963 in 2001 to about 6,642 in 2011). The impact of the change will differ significantly between groups. The Indian, Chinese and Other Asian groups will experience the largest increase, while the Caribbean and African cohorts will be relatively little affected. The impact of the ageing of the BME population, while not numerically large will be geographically concentrated in the largest towns: Cardiff, Swansea and Newport and in the main industrialised regions.

7.8 Summary

- Wales has a longer established BME population than most other parts of Great Britain. Cardiff had one of the earliest substantial BME populations, associated with its port activity.

- Post-war growth in the BME population of Wales was slower than in England, and the relative share of the UK's BME population has declined over time. Wales now has a relatively small BME population.
- However, the BME population of Wales is growing rapidly. This is driven both by in-migration and by high birth rates in youthful populations such as people of mixed parentage. The bulk of the increase in the BME population has been in the larger cities of Wales, but there are high percentage increases in all parts of Wales. Rapid growth of the BME population is set to continue over the period 2001-2011.
- The population aged 60 and over will increase substantially over the medium term. The BME elderly population is projected to increase by two-fifths between 2001 and 2011. The BME population will contain an increasing number of elderly people, providers of social care and housing must therefore pay greater attention to identifying and catering for their evolving needs.

8. Conclusion

This report has demonstrated the diversity of the Welsh BME population and the diverse housing needs of BME groups resident in Wales. Wales was one of the earliest parts of the UK in which substantial BME communities developed, focused on the port cities of South Wales. The BME community has grown eight-fold over the last 60 years, but forms a smaller percentage of the national population than in the other three countries of the UK, about equivalent to the BME population share in the most sparsely populated regions of England. Nevertheless, the BME population of Wales is much more diverse than the UK BME population as a whole, with a larger percentage of the BME population being of mixed parentage or from the “other” ethnic groups.

BME communities remain largely concentrated into south-east Wales, where their share of the resident population is largest and ethnic diversity is greatest. However, there are now BME communities in all parts of Wales, including small towns in rural areas and in coastal resort. There are substantial differences in the composition of the BME population between areas of Wales. People of Black and Asian ethnic origin form a larger share of the population in the major cities, while people of mixed parentage and from Other ethnic groups are more prominent in smaller towns. The BME population grew by nearly a half between 1991 and 2001. While rates of BME population change are fastest in the rural areas, the bulk of BME population increase in numerical terms occurred in south-east Wales. In recent years there have been new migration streams with south-east

Asian people arriving in Wales to work and study, while ethnic groups such as the Somalis and Arabs have been boosted in numbers by refugees and asylum-seekers. These new migration flows have again been predominantly directed towards the cities of south Wales, while the University towns have also gained substantial numbers of student migrants. In such towns, students represent a substantial part of the BME population, with different housing needs to the settled BME population.

The BME population is much younger on average than the white population. The oldest minority groups are the Black-Caribbean, Chinese and Indian, while people of mixed parentage are youngest on average. Household and family sizes are largest in the South Asian, mixed parentage and African ethnic groups. Households with Muslim heads tend to be larger than those whose head is from another faith. Lone parents are most common among households from Black ethnic groups and for people of mixed parentage, while South Asian households are most likely to comprise married couples.

There is considerable diversity in the economic situation of BME communities in Wales. As in the UK as a whole, the overall pattern is one of disadvantage relative to the white majority population. The least disadvantaged are the Indian and Chinese ethnic groups, while the most disadvantaged are the Black-Caribbean, Pakistani and Bangladeshi ethnic groups, together with people of mixed white and Black-Caribbean parentage. People of Muslim and Sikh religion tend to be disadvantaged, but the Hindu ethnic group

contains many people in professional jobs and is relatively advantaged economically. The more youthful ethnic groups tend to be the most disadvantaged in economic terms.

There is also considerable diversity in housing circumstances between individual BME groups. Overall, BME households experience a higher rate of housing deprivation than white households, irrespective of the social class of the household, are less likely than white households to be owner-occupiers, and more likely to rent from private landlords. They are more likely than white households to live in terraced housing and flats. BME households are also more likely than white households to be overcrowded, but are more likely to live in housing with a full range of amenities.

This report has demonstrated that Wales had one of the earliest established BME populations in the UK, but that it has remained largely concentrated in the south-east and has not reached the scale of BME populations in cities of comparable size in England. Rates of recent population change have been high, but the numbers of people involved have been relatively small. The diversity of the population is increasing as new migration flows of asylum seekers and refugees to Wales become established. These flows are also predominantly focused on the cities of the south-east. While the data on the BME population has improved enormously in recent decades, official sources are still not adequate to provide definitive information on population change at the national scale, let alone for small areas.

The Welsh population as a whole is ageing and this phenomenon is also affecting the earliest established BME groups. The Black population already contains a significant number of older people. Over the period

2001 to 2011, the elderly BME population will increase by around a third and the Asian population will experience faster ageing than the Black ethnic groups. The increase in the number of BME older people is small relative to the substantial growth of white elderly people over this period, but the percentage increase in the BME elderly is high. Housing and social care providers will need to pay increasing attention to the needs of the BME elderly. While there will be BME elderly in all parts of Wales, their numbers will be greatest in the major cities of the south-east.

8.1 Comments and recommendations regarding data availability

This report has been primarily based on the published output from the 2001 Census of Population, in the form of Standard Tables and Theme Tables, with an ethnic group or religion dimension. However, these tables represent a limited subset of the cross-tabulations which could be generated using Census data, specified by the Census offices following a period of consultation with users of Census data. They are usually no more than three-dimensional and sometimes use simplified variable coding in order to reduce the risk of disclosure of information about individuals. This is necessary because Standard Tables are produced for Electoral Divisions, in which the BME population may be very small. The Census Area Statistics (which are produced for Output Areas) contain very little information on ethnic groups.

What this means is that the detail available in published Census data is often limited and important dimensions may not be included in Census tables. For example, there is only one Standard Table on housing tenure by ethnicity (and religion) of household. In this report, the primary focus has been on Wales as a whole, and

the gaps in the standard Census output have been filled by using data from the 3% Sample of Anonymised Records and Commissioned Tables.

The former is very flexible, in that tables can be produced which compare each question in the Census with every other question. Unfortunately, the small number of individuals in the sample for Wales (under 90 thousand) means that tables for BME households are often based on very small numbers and are hence subject to a large degree of statistical uncertainty.

The commissioned tables used in this report were produced for Wales as a whole. It is possible to specify such tables for smaller geographical areas, but they will not be released if they involve such small numbers that there is a risk that data on individuals will be disclosed. Commissioned tables could be specified by the National Assembly to fill some of the important gaps in data on the BME population for Wales as a whole. Examples of such tables would include:

- Age of household and family reference person by ethnic group/religion;
- Housing tenure by ethnic group cross-tabulated by religion;

- Housing tenure by dwelling type by ethnic group/religion of household/family reference person;
- Housing tenure by student/economically active/other status of household/family reference person by ethnic group/religion;
- Student BME households by county council.

Such tables would provide further valuable detailed information on the housing circumstances of BME people in Wales in 2001. However, Census data is becoming more and more out-of-date over time. Regularly collected surveys such as the Labour Force Survey have a sample size too small to yield reliable information on BME households even for Wales as a whole.

An alternative approach to generating regular information on the housing circumstances of BME people would be to add ethnic group and religion questions to any future Welsh House Condition Survey. The design of these questions should follow Office for National Statistics' guidelines on data collection, but should also be flexible enough to recognise the diversity of the BME population of Wales and enable information to be generated for locally significant ethnic groups (such as Somali people in Cardiff).

