

## **Higher and Further Education in London**

A review

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February 2004



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## foreword by Mayor of London, Ken Livingstone

This report is the second in a series of annual reviews of further and higher education in London.

It provides a snapshot of the situation in universities and colleges at a time when major changes are being proposed in both sectors.

London has more than a million further and higher education students, and this does not include adult education. The two sectors make a major contribution to London's economic and social life. Research on higher education shows that for every £1m of output by the sector in the UK, a further £1.56m is generated in other sectors of the economy by knock-on effects. The multiplier in higher education is higher than for most sectors. The impact of London's higher education is being quantified in a separate study by GLAEconomics.

This year's review contains much new material to inform the debate on student financing and widening participation. For instance -

- The number of domestic entrants to London's universities is declining
- According to a recent survey, 61 per cent of new London graduates have bank overdrafts, averaging £2,421
- Two new research studies give some insight into the reasons why many potential students from working-class backgrounds are deterred from entering higher education, even when they are well qualified.
- Comparisons with Census and Labour Force Survey figures indicate that disabled students are under-represented in both sectors

There is an expanded section on further education this time. The welcome increase in real-term funding is linked to a package of reforms, as set out in 'Success for all', which includes an extension of qualifications across the sector. However, colleges are concerned at the possible development of a two-tier system.

London's further education could play a very important role in helping to meet London's skills bottlenecks. There is a weak base of vocational qualifications in the capital, which probably contributes to its shortage of key workers.

Colleges and unions are also concerned that the government emphasis on employer links should not lead to neglect of more general further education. FE staff teach a huge range of courses, for people of all backgrounds and ages after 16. There is hope that a new pay structure will finally bring about much needed improvements for staff.

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Although I have no direct powers over further and higher education, the Mayor can have an important indirect effect. For example, Transport for London's student photocard scheme gives a 30 per cent travel discount to full-time FE and HE students, and to part-time students on hardship grants or fee waiver. It has recently been extended to National Rail Services in London. I will also use my powers to support improved provision of affordable accommodation for students.



**Ken Livingstone**  
Mayor of London

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## executive summary

### Higher Education

#### *Student numbers and profile; participation*

There are about 350,000 higher education students in London, of whom nearly two thirds are full-time.

The number of applications to London institutions is falling. In 2002 there was a 1 per cent drop in the number of admissions for UK-domiciled students.

In London in 2001, 42 per cent of UK-domiciled students were men.

London's students are considerably older than average; nearly half the capital's students are over 25.

40.2 per cent of London's UK-domiciled students come from ethnic minorities, compared with 30.6 per cent of London's residents aged 18-29. However, Caribbean men and Bangladeshis are under-represented.

3.8 per cent of London's students identify themselves as disabled, compared with 7.7 per cent of residents aged 18-34 who report a work-limiting disability. 44 per cent of disabled students are dyslexic.

Lower academic attainment at age 18 accounts for most of the lower participation in higher education by 18 year-olds from manual backgrounds (National Audit Office). However, people from these backgrounds are less likely to apply, even with the same level of qualifications.

Potential working class entrants face greater risks in entering higher education. For example, their student debts are higher and their subsequent salaries are lower than average.

#### *Finances of sector and economic contribution*

The government plans to 'reverse years of under-investment' with an overall increase of spending of more than 6 per cent in real terms between 2002/03 and 2005/06. During this period, there will also be an increase in spending per FTE student of 7 per cent.

According to HEFCE, the overall financial strength of the sector is satisfactory, but most institutions are operating on very tight margins.

In 2001/02, 17 out of 41 London institutions had a deficit of income over expenditure. London as whole had a deficit of 0.04 per cent, compared to a UK surplus of 0.4 per cent.

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Employers in London find it harder to fill high-skilled jobs in London than elsewhere, but easier to fill low-skilled posts.

For every £1 million of output by the HE sector, a further £1.56 million is generated in other sectors of the economy by knock-on effects. The multiplier for HE is higher than for most sectors.

### *Finances of students*

Government proposals to introduce top-up fees have received qualified support from Universities UK, but opposition from the NUS and teaching trade unions.

61 per cent of recent London graduates have bank overdrafts, averaging £2,421 (Barclays survey).

In London, every ethnic group has a higher than average proportion of UK-domiciled students living in the parental home, but especially the three south Asian groups, at more than fifty per cent each.

Only 5-6 per cent of black and Bangladeshi UK-domiciled students in London live in institutionally provided accommodation, less than half the average.

Studies by Newcastle and Northumbria Universities found that students in term-time jobs were awarded lower marks. Although the difference was generally small, about 3-4 per cent, it could lead to one third of students receiving a lower degree classification.

An improved package for part-time students is being introduced. According to the government, they will have guaranteed means-tested support, doubling the number of students who qualify to have their tuition fees paid.

### *Student track record*

Some of the large, multi-faculty new universities in London have non-completion rates more than twice the national average.

There is evidence that mature students, and those with non-traditional entry qualifications, are less likely to complete the course (HEFCE 2003).

According to surveys taken about 6 months after graduation, unemployment among London graduates rose sharply in 2000/01 and is now almost 11 per cent.

### *Staff*

The ratio of teachers to students has changed little since 1997 and is behind that of Brazil, Malaysia and Russia.

International comparisons suggest that academic salaries in the UK are 18-37 per cent lower than in the Republic of Ireland.

There is a gender pay-gap of 16-20 per cent, which has changed little over the past decade.

Joint negotiating machinery (the JNCHES) now covers all staff in the sector, academic and non-academic, and is drawing up a single pay scale.

The inner London weighting for academic and related staff in the old universities is £2,134, where it has remained frozen since 1992.

There is widespread use of renewable fixed-term contracts. In response to a European Directive, the government brought in legislation to regulate the use of these contracts in 2002. A four-year period, or four renewals, are permitted before the fixed-term contract becomes permanent by operation of law, but the union AUT would like this to be reduced.

A survey by UCEA (the Universities and Colleges Employers Association), found that in the last four years, the proportion of hard-to-fill vacancies in London grew from 20 to 40 per cent.

## **Further education**

### *Student numbers and profile*

There are about 700,000 further education students in London of whom 61 per cent are women.

42 per cent of London students come from ethnic minorities.

12 per cent of London students are over 60, compared to 9 per cent in England.

8.2 per cent of students identify themselves as disabled, compared with 14 per cent of residents of working age who report a work-limiting disability.

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### *Participation*

Finance is not the critical factor for entry into further education for most people. However, cost is important for some groups, like young workers, people with young families, and young single parents. Support aimed at these groups could be particularly effective, if they could be identified in a consistent way.

### *Finances of sector and economic contribution*

Core funding per student was 12 per cent lower in 2000/01 than in 1993/94. However, in higher education, the drop in unit funding has been much steeper.

Between 2002/03 and 2005/06, there will be a real-term increase in core funding for FE of 19 per cent, over £1 billion; the government projects that this will bring about an increase in real-term funding per FTE student of 2 per cent per annum. The increase will be linked to a package of reforms.

In London in 2003, the colleges are generally in good financial health. However, there is concern that the new standard measures of deprivation (IMD 2000) do not reflect the extent of deprivation in London. This will affect the income of colleges, who receive a premium for taking in students from poorer areas.

London colleges in some areas are concerned that their local Learning and Skills Councils are increasingly tying funds to work-based skills and employer-linked courses, to the detriment of general adult and community education provision.

Although the number of mid-level occupations has declined overall, there is also a serious lack of supply in the capital. London has a weak base of vocational qualifications, at NVQ levels 2 and 3. It is arguable that further education has a crucial role to play in overcoming London's economic bottlenecks.

### *Finances of students*

Student support, though modest by higher education standards, has grown rapidly since 1998.

Educational Maintenance Allowances for 16-18 year-olds from low-income families have been piloted successfully. They will be applied nationally in September 2004. However, a recent review considers that the Learner Support Funding stream will still be needed, for such costs as childcare and residential study.

Nearly one fifth of further education students at London institutions live outside the capital.

The Greater London Authority student photocard scheme has recently been extended to National Rail Services in London.

### *Track record of students*

London North has the highest achievement rates for adults in the capital, higher than for teenagers, but London South shows the highest achievement rates for the 16-18 age-group.

According to a recent review, Students on Learner Support perform better in terms of course completion and, in some cases, achievement.

### *Staff*

In 2000/01, there was one teacher to 14.9 students, compared to 17.1 students in higher education (national figures). However, in both sectors, the use of casual and fixed term staff contribute to teaching ratios.

Since 1993, there has been a diversity of pay and employment policies, which affect both academic and non-academic staff. The National Review of Staffing and Pay in 2001 found that for each category of staff, only a minority of colleges used the nationally recommended scale.

For thirty years, pay of further education lecturers has failed to keep pace with the economy or with that of comparable professions, such as schoolteaching.

The recommended inner London allowance in 2002 was £2,412, well below the average for London workers.

National Executive of NATFHE is recommending the acceptance of a two-year national pay offer for academic staff, the main element of which will be a new pay structure from August 2004. The new arrangements will allow faster progression up the scale, and it is thought that they will bring parity with schoolteachers. However, individual colleges are not bound to any agreement.

The National Review of Pay and Conditions in 2001 found that salaries of support staff in London averaged about £16,500-£17,000

There is widespread use of hourly and agency staff for teaching. The former Further Education Council commented adversely on the over-use of part-time and agency staff, and its effect on college ratings.

Staff have been lost to schools recently. The staff vacancy rate in FE colleges is now double that of schools and rose steeply in 2002 (Association of Colleges).

The government proposes a major programme of staff development, to include an extension of teaching qualifications throughout the sector.



## introduction and scope

One Londoner in seven is a student in further or higher education. London's further education institutions attract 126,000 people from outside the capital, and its university students are mostly Londoners. Its further education colleges are widely used for training in the construction industry and the utility services, yet they are sometimes criticised for being irrelevant. Its new universities are likely to lose research funds, yet one of them has produced an interesting nationwide study of higher education and social class (Archer et al, 2003). These sectors of the capital have an element of the unexpected.

### Scope

This report covers publicly funded education and not private institutions. The themes of finance and widening participation are continued from last year, with emphasis on two new developments - the government's White Paper on the 'The future of higher education' (January 2003) and its plans for further education, set out in 'Success for all' (November 2002). Significant real-term growth in both sectors will be linked to controversial measures, like the use of top-up fees for university students and more performance-related funding in further education.

The government aims to raise higher education student numbers so that by the year 2010, half of all adults will benefit from higher education by the age of thirty. This is linked to a policy of broader intake, to include more students from poorer and non-traditional backgrounds. The review considers recent research on the factors that impede and assist a broader student intake, both in higher and in further education; it also contains more detailed analysis than before of the statistics on disabled students.

Extra space is given this year to the economic contributions of further and higher education, especially in developing skills that are needed in the capital. This complements the more detailed work, funded by the London Development Agency and being undertaken by GLAEconomics, on the economic impact of London's higher education sector.

New pay structures are likely to be introduced in higher and further education. This will have a significant bearing on the future of both sectors.

The report is not meant to be comprehensive. Some important themes are touched on but not covered in detail; they include research, attainment levels, the quality of teaching, and the management of institutions. These annual reviews are subject to consultation, which will influence the subject matter in future years.

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## A: Higher education

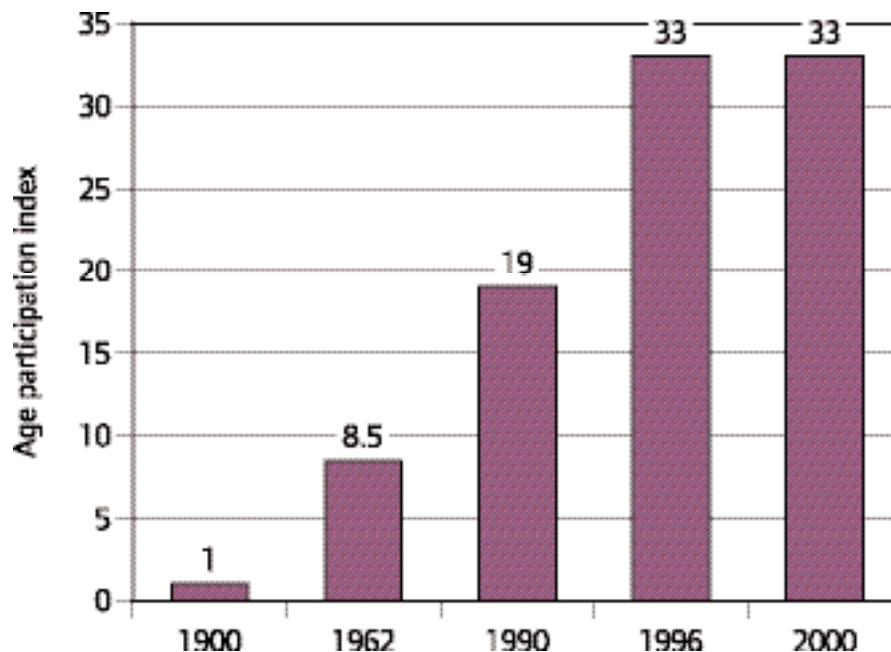
### 1 The student population

#### *National trends*

In 1900, only 25,000 students were enrolled in full-time higher education. In 1960, there were 200,000. Now, there are over one and a quarter million, much of the growth having occurred during the last 15 years. However, the 2002 figures suggest that the growth in admissions is slowing down, especially in London (Table 5, p.12). If expansion is to continue, more students will have to come from non-traditional backgrounds. (Archer et al, 2003; DfES).

The Age Participation Index measures the proportion of young people who go on to participate in full-time higher education before they reach the age of 21 (definition in glossary). It is, therefore, based on a sub-group from the student population. The estimated API was 1 per cent in 1900 and 8.5 per cent in 1962; this rose to 19 per cent in 1990 and 33 per cent in 1996, but there has been little change since then (Fig. 1). (Archer, 2003; HESA figures for Great Britain)

**Figure 1 Participation trends in higher education: Great Britain 1900-2000**



*sources* Archer et al; HESA

*notes* 1. The API measures the proportion of young people who go on to participate in full-time higher education before they reach the age of 21. Excludes part-time and overseas students. Full definition in glossary.  
2. The figures are estimates only, and the nature of the data has changed over time.

The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development has compared entry rates to higher education for member countries.

According to this comparison, the UK came nearly half-way down the list in 2001 (OECD, 2003).

We turn now to a more detailed analysis of London's student population.

### *London's student population*

*(main source: Higher Education Statistics Agency - HESA)*

There are about 350,000 higher education students in London, of whom nearly two thirds are full-time. About one in six of these students comes from overseas, compared with one in eight in the UK as a whole. London also has a higher proportion of postgraduates (28 per cent, compared to 23 per cent nationwide, in 2001).

- a Higher education involves study at a standard above A Level, the Advanced Higher Grade and Higher Grade of the Scottish Certificate of Education (SCE Advanced Highers/Highers), or the BTEC or SCOTVEC National Certificate/Diploma (ONC/OND). Definition of Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA).
- b The figure of 350,000 is an estimate, based on a figure of 335,000 in higher education institutions for 2001/2002; to this must be added about 15,000 higher education students that were based at further education colleges.

### *Student numbers and gender (Table 1)*

London contains about 12 per cent of the UK population but 16 per cent of higher education students.

From 2000 onwards, the figures have been collected in a new way, which adds about 4.6 per cent to the higher education figures in the UK, although the change varies according to the type of student. This means that the real growth between 1999 and 2000 was much lower than it appears from Table 1. When these changes are taken into consideration, the 'real' increase between 1995 and 2001 was 16 per cent in the UK and 20 per cent in London (this assumes that the new method affected London in the same way as the UK). Growth in the capital was particularly strong in 2000 (even allowing for changes in collection methods) but in 2001, it was below the UK average; in fact, several institutions, like Middlesex University, South Bank University, London Guildhall University, Goldsmith's College and Imperial College, experienced a drop in numbers (HEFCE 2002/33).

Women students outnumber men, in London and the UK as a whole; this tendency has increased since 1995 and is more pronounced in London

(Table 1). Gender imbalance is more marked among UK-domiciled students and undergraduates (in London in 2001, 42 per cent of each group were male).

**Table 1 Number and gender of higher education students**

	1995/96	1998/99	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02
<b>London</b>	<b>No. &amp; %</b>	<b>No. &amp; %</b>	<b>No. &amp; %</b>	<b>No. &amp; %</b>	<b>No. &amp; %</b>
Female	140,865 53	156,510 55	163,980 56	183,355 56	189,925 57
Male	125,915 47	127,090 45	130,315 44	142,265 44	144,750 43
Total	266,780 100	283,600 100	294,290 100	325,620 100	334,675 100
<b>UK</b>	<b>No. &amp; %</b>	<b>No. &amp; %</b>	<b>No. &amp; %</b>	<b>No. &amp; %</b>	<b>No. &amp; %</b>
Female	878,795 51	994,050 54	1,012,820 55	1,109,995 56	1,171,965 56
Male	841,300 49	851,705 46	843,515 45	880,625 44	914,115 44
Total	1,720,095 100	1,845,755 100	1,856,335 100	1,990,625 100	2,086,075 100

source HESA

notes

1. Percentages in large case
2. Figures include part-time, postgraduate and overseas students
3. From 2000 onwards, figures were collected in a new way, which adds about 4.6 per cent to the total
4. HESA rounding policy rounds raw numbers up or down to the nearest 5, to preserve confidentiality. This means that numbers may not sum exactly, but the differences are minimal.
5. Some percentages do not sum to 100, because of rounding errors.

### Age

During the late nineties, the student population became younger (Table 2, which includes postgraduates). However, in 2000 and 2001, this trend was reversed; most of the increase in numbers came from older students. This pattern is evident both for London and the UK.

**Table 2 Age of higher education students**

	1995/96	1998/99	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02
<b>London</b>	%	%	%	%	%
Under 21	24	26	28	26	26
21-24	27	25	25	25	26
25 and over	49	49	47	48	48
TOTAL	100	100	100	100	100
<b>UK</b>	%	%	%	%	%
Under 21	32	33	34	33	32
21-24	24	22	22	22	22
25 and over	45	45	44	46	46
TOTAL	100	100	100	100	100

source HESA

notes 1. Figures include part-time, postgraduate and overseas students  
2. Some percentages do not sum to 100, because of rounding errors

London's students are considerably older than average; in 2001, 26 per cent were under 21, compared to 32 per cent in the UK. Nearly half the capital's students are over 25, and even the undergraduates in this age-group outnumber those aged 20 or under. (Table 2)

Most students over 25 are part-time and vice versa.

### *Ethnic group*

(N.B. a) Figures are for UK-domiciled students only. b) For the purposes of this report, 'ethnic minority' means a group other than white. There are significant white minorities, which are not monitored here.)

*The Race Relations (Amendment) Act 2000 now places a duty on higher education institutions to promote racial equality in their employment practices and the services they provide.*

The proportion of white UK-domiciled students in London fell from 66 per cent to 61 per cent between 1995 and 2000. Although ethnic minority representation rose, that of Black Caribbeans fell slightly.

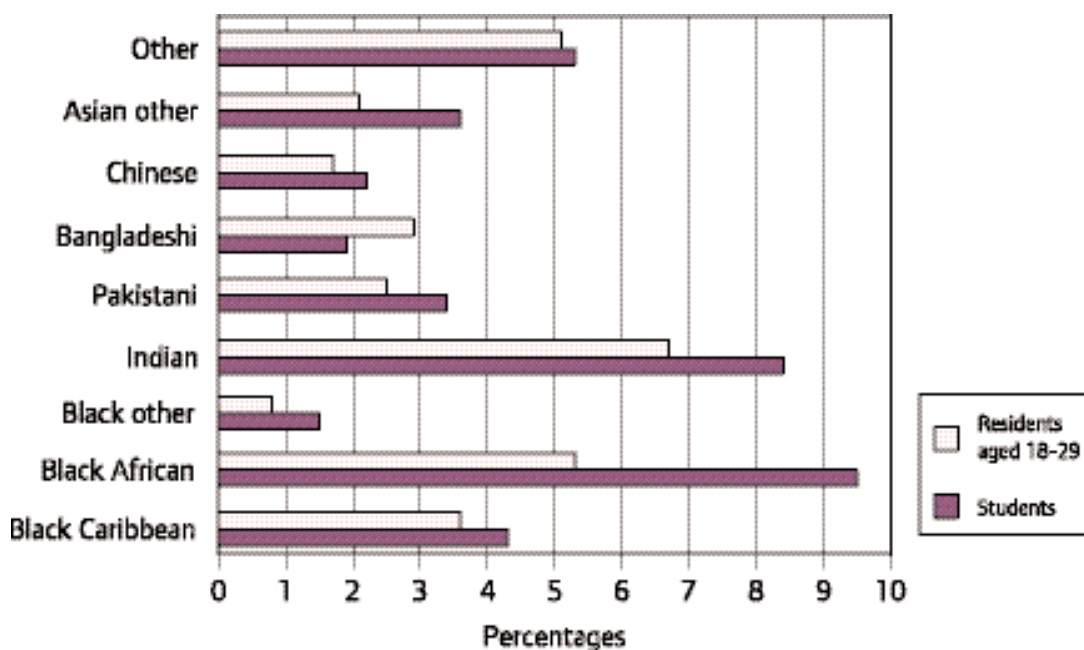
In 2001, the student ethnic categories changed to be in line with those of the Census, held that year. Although these 'boxes' appear the same as before, the figures were collected in a new way and are not comparable with those of the past. (For example, 'other' includes people of mixed race). 40.2 per cent of higher education students in London come from

ethnic minorities (non-white), compared to 13.8 per cent in the UK; this reflects the concentration of ethnic minorities in the capital. (Fig. 2. Further details and a comparison with the UK are in Appendix Table A1).

The upper bars in Figure 2 show the ethnic mix of London’s young population, and are for rough comparison only. The figures for young ethnic minority residents are too high to be used as a benchmark for students, because 41 per cent of London’s UK-domiciled students come from other parts of the country (UCAS figures), where the population is much less ethnically diverse. Within these limitations, one can make some comments:

Most ethnic minorities exceed their proportion in London’s young population and are therefore well represented, notably Africans, Black Other and Asian Other groups. Only among Bangladeshis does the percentage of London students fall below that of the young resident population; this group might be somewhat under-represented. (Figures for all ages in Great Britain in 2000/01 suggest that Bangladeshis had higher participation rates than white people; however, these figures are based on the 1991 Census. Source: HESA Management Statistics).

**Figure 2 Ethnic minorities in London, 2001/02: Higher education students compared with young residents (UK domicile only)**



**Ethnic minorities (non-white) as percentage of London total**  
 Higher education students 40.2%      Residents aged 18-29 30.6%

*sources* HESA; 2001 Census.  
*note* 'Other' includes mixed

Some other points of interest for London are not shown in the chart:

- UK-based ethnic minorities are slightly under-represented among postgraduates, in contrast to undergraduates.
- Asian groups, especially Indians, Bangladeshis and Pakistanis, are much less likely than others to study part-time.

In the UK as a whole, accurate comparisons between students and the population are not available at the time of writing; however, figures for England suggest that, in general, ethnic minorities are well represented.

Although ethnic minorities are well represented in HE, they tend to go for non-degree courses, like HND, and to new universities. Research suggests that they are less likely to gain admission to the 'old' (pre-92) universities, even when factors such as age, social class and entry qualifications are controlled (Pathak, 2000). A full analysis would take into account, not just overall numbers, but the choice, range and quality of education available to different groups.

The figures for ethnicity in this section exclude unknowns, who comprise 10-11 per cent of students; this reduces the value of the results.

### *Disability*

Disability monitoring has improved in recent years. The number of unknowns in London has decreased from nearly a third to less than two per cent. It is possible that recent legislation has contributed to this. Nevertheless, there are still some problems with the figures:

Students are not obliged to report a disability, which can lead them to be classed as 'no known disability'. The extent of this under-reporting is unknown. Applicants may fail to mention their disability, because they feel that this would reduce their chances of admission; according to UCAS, this practice is not uncommon (UCAS personal communication). The figures below must be interpreted in this light. The fact that people are reluctant to identify themselves as disabled is itself significant.

In 2001, London had at least 12,495 disabled students (Table 3). They comprised 3.8 per cent of the student population, compared with 3.3 per cent in 1999.



**Table 3 Number of disabled students in London, 2001/02**

<b>Disability</b>	<b>No.</b>	<b>%</b>
No known disability	316,665	96.20
Dyslexia	5,445	1.65
Blind/Partially sighted	435	0.13
Deaf/Hearing impairment	690	0.21
Wheelchair user/Mobility difficulties	470	0.14
Personal care support	55	0.02
Mental health difficulties	460	0.14
An unseen disability, e.g. diabetes, epilepsy, asthma	2,920	0.89
Multiple disabilities	405	0.12
A disability not listed above	1,615	0.49
<b>Total</b>	<b>329,160</b>	<b>100.00</b>
Total with disability	12,495	3.80

source HESA

- notes
1. Excludes unclassified students. Includes part-time, postgraduate and overseas students.
  2. HESA rounding policy rounds raw numbers up or down to the nearest 5, to preserve confidentiality. This means that numbers may not sum exactly, but the differences are minimal.
  3. Some percentages do not sum to 100, because of rounding errors.

Comparisons with the resident population of equivalent age are difficult, because of the varying definitions of disability. However, comparison with official figures suggests that disabled people are under-represented among students (Table 4)\*. The most realistic benchmark for students is probably the Labour Force Survey percentage for young people with work-limiting disability; the student level of 3.8 per cent is only half the LFS figure of 7.7 per cent. The resident statistics include people with general learning difficulties, but they make up 2 per cent of the disabled population of working age and therefore, have only a small effect on the comparison between residents and students.

*\*The disability surveys carried out by the former OPCS (Office of Population Censuses and Surveys) gave national figures of about 3 per cent for people of student-equivalent age. This is a much lower proportion than that found in other official statistics. The reason for this, suggested by the OPCS itself, might be that the questions were about specific conditions or impairments. In contrast, the official sources quoted in Table 5 are all based on general questions about limiting long-term disability &/or illness. A related point is that Table 5 is largely based on self-identified disability (although in the Census it is probable that one person often filled in the disability question on behalf of others in the household). In the OPCS surveys, on the other hand, disability was mainly identified through a list of impairments provided by the researcher.*

Disabled students also seem to be under-represented in the country as a whole. There is a higher proportion of disabled students but also of disabled residents, as compared to London (Table 4). In all these comparisons, allowance must be made for some under-reporting of disability by students. (For definitions of disability and impairment, see glossary).

**Table 4 Proportion of disabled people in 2001 - HE students compared with young resident population: London and national figures**

Area	Disabled students %	Residents aged 18-29	Residents aged 16-34	
		Census 2001 <sup>1</sup> %	Labour force survey Work limiting <sup>2</sup> %	All kinds of disability <sup>3</sup> %
London	3.8	5.2 <sup>4</sup>	7.7	9.3
UK/England and Wales	4.8 <sup>5</sup>	6.4 <sup>6</sup>	Not available	11.5 <sup>7</sup>

*sources* Census 2001; GLA analysis of Annual local area Labour Force Survey 2001/02; Labour Market Trends, Aug. 2002

- notes*
1. "Do you have any long-term illness, health problem or disability which limits your daily activities or the work you can do?"
  2. Work-limiting disability, which may or may not limit daily activities
  3. Limiting work and/or daily activities (the latter being covered by the Disability Discrimination Act 1995)
  4. 18-29 for households; 18-34 for communal establishments
  5. UK figure
  6. England and Wales figure
  7. UK figure

By far the largest category of impairment is dyslexia. In London in 2001, 44 per cent of disabled students were dyslexic (Table 3 on p.9) and the size of this group grew by 82 per cent between 1999 and 2001. In contrast, the second largest group, 'unseen disability', fell in numbers by 7 per cent during this period. The national pattern is similar. The low numbers of students in other categories, like sensory or mobility impairment, raises questions of under-representation (Table 3). However, more detailed analysis would be needed to establish the extent of this.

The under-representation of disabled students is now officially acknowledged. The Higher Education Funding Council has introduced a new performance indicator for institutions - the percentage of undergraduates in receipt of the government's DSA (Disabled Students' Allowance, to meet the additional costs of study related to the student's disability. The study must be half-time or more). It is thought that there is a small degree of under-recording. There are also some institutions that

have not collected the data. Not all disabled students are eligible for, or apply for DSA.

The Higher Education Funding Council considers DSA figures to be more robust than the proportions who say they are disabled. The indicators apply to UK-domiciled students only:

- In the UK in 2000/2001, 1.4 per cent of full-time undergraduates in the UK were in receipt of DSA, but institutional values ranged from 0 to nearly 10 per cent.
- The figure for part-time undergraduates was 0.4 per cent. This excludes the Open University, where the proportion was 4.6 per cent.

These figures raise questions about the wide divergence between institutions, but the small numbers contribute to this, through random variation.

The Special Educational Needs and Disability Act 2001 introduced, among other things, new duties for further and higher education institutions not to discriminate against disabled students and to make reasonable adjustments to ensure that they are not put at a substantial disadvantage. This part of the act is in process of implementation and will be fully in force by September 2005.

The National Audit Office in 2001 found that

- the proportion of disabled 18-year olds with level 3 qualifications was about half that of their non-disabled counterparts. This was the main cause of lower participation of disabled 18 year-olds in higher education. The figures would be more useful if learning difficulties were separated in the official statistics; however, it is clear that even if they were, lower attainment would still be a major factor.
- there was no overall difference in the success-rates of disabled and non-disabled applicants. Their success-rates and representation in medicine, dentistry and veterinary science were low. On the other hand, they had relatively high representation in creative arts, design, engineering, technology and agricultural subjects; several of these have a large practical component.

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## 2 Admissions to higher education courses *(main source: UCAS)*

### *Number*

Student population figures change more slowly than applications and acceptances, which are therefore more sensitive to trends. The Universities and Colleges Admissions Service (UCAS) processes applications to higher education courses in the UK and has kept detailed figures since 1996.

UCAS figures include higher education students based at further education colleges, whereas the HESA statistics deal with HE institutions only. HESA also includes postgraduate and part-time students, unlike UCAS. Although both agencies cover higher education, their data cannot be precisely compared.

Table 5 shows recent trends for institutions in London and the UK. In the UK, the number of applicants rose steeply in 1997. (This followed the government's announcement that it intended to abolish maintenance grants and introduce tuition fees for new entrants the following year). There was then a fall from 1997 to 2000, after which the number of applicants picked up, to reach an all-time high in 2002.

Acceptances in the UK have risen faster and more steadily than the number of applicants, reaching a peak in 2002 (Table 5). There has also been a steady rise in the success-rate of applicants. For example, in the UK, the proportion of applicants accepted rose from 71 per cent in 1996 to 80 per cent in 2002. Thus, government pressure to increase numbers may have had more effect on the success rate than on the number of applicants. This is especially true of London (below).

**Table 5 UCAS applicants and acceptances, 1996-2002**

Year	UK Applicants	UK Acceptances	London Acceptances
1996	418,400	295,807	44,497
1997	458,781	336,338	52,888
1998	446,457	329,788	51,866
1999	442,931	334,594	53,524
2000	442,028	339,747	54,227
2001	453,833	358,041	56,582
2002	461,365	368,115	56,716

source UCAS

note Figures include overseas applicants

Applicant figures do not make sense for a region, since each person can make up to 6 applications to institutions all over the country, including London. However, London and the UK can be compared for the number of applications and acceptances: Comparison of applications shows that demand for London places has been falling behind the rest of the UK, especially in recent years -

- In London, the number of applications fell each year from 1998 (the peak year) to 2002. In the UK, applications fell from 1997 (the peak year) to 2000, but then rose again.
- Whereas applications in the UK rose by 2% from 2000 to 2002, in London they fell by 3% during the same period.
- In the UK, applications in 2002 were 3 per cent down on 1998, but in London, they were 10% down.

*(Reductions in the maximum number of applications per person from 6 to 4 in Medicine (2000) and Veterinary Science (2001) will have affected the figures, but not greatly.)*

The picture is similar if UK-domiciled applicants only are considered. However, in London, the number of accepted UK-based students fell by 1 per cent in 2002. It was only the overseas entrants that raised the total on the previous year. The differences between London and the UK may perhaps reflect the costs of studying in London, which are not entirely covered by the student loan (Callender and Kemp 2002).

UCAS trends must be interpreted in the light of changes in membership. These may artificially inflate student intake, giving the impression that targets are being met. For example, the introduction into UCAS of further education colleges offering HE courses led to a rapid growth in membership between 2000 and 2001. However, in London this seems to have made little contribution to the increased intake of students. An earlier change in 1997 brought ADAR (Arts and Design Admissions Registry) courses within the UCAS umbrella. This could have contributed to the rise in acceptances in that year, although it may be more significant that this was the last year before removal of student grants.

### *Gender*

Well over half the UK-domiciled applicants and accepted students are female, a pattern which has become more marked since 1996 (Table 6 - national figures).

**Table 6 Applicants and acceptances to institutions in the UK in 2002/03, by gender\***

	<b>Applicants</b>	<b>Accepts</b>
	%	%
Male	46	47
Female	54	53
Total UK	100	100

source UCAS

note \*UK-domiciled applicants only

In London the pattern is similar. In 2002, 54 per cent of applications and accepted students were female (UK-domicile only), an imbalance which has grown in recent years. (Note: Figures for applicants to London are not meaningful).

### Age

Mature student entry is generally regarded as an indication of the openness of HE institutions.

UK figures show a falling age-profile for applicants and acceptances between 1996 and 2002. However, this masks a rising age-profile for persons accepted to HND as opposed to degree courses. Persons accepted for HND make up about 6 per cent of accepted students domiciled in the UK, and 7 per cent of all acceptances. (UCAS statistics do not cover postgraduate or part-time studies).

London shows a much less sharp decline in the proportion of mature students. Since 1996, the percentage of accepted students aged 25+ has fallen, but the percentage aged 21-24 has actually grown, and there has been little change for the 20 and under group (Table 7). Between 2001 and 2002, the number of accepted students aged 21+ rose by 3 per cent, whereas the number of those aged 20 or under fell slightly; in fact, it was only the older students that enabled London institutions to expand their intake.

**Table 7 UCAS accepted applicants in London, by age**

Age	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
20 and under	66	65	67	69	70	68	67
21 - 24	16	17	16	16	16	17	18
25 - 39	16	16	15	13	13	13	13
40 and over	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

source UCAS

notes a) Figures include overseas applicants

b) Some percentages do not sum to 100 because of rounding errors

In London, the success rate per application is higher for students aged 21+ and has grown faster than that of the youngest group. This accounts for the fact that the age profile has only fallen slightly since 1996. The youngest group made 74 per cent of applications to London in 2002, compared to 70 per cent in 1996.

London has a higher proportion of accepted students in the 21-plus age-bracket than does the UK (33 per cent and 20 per cent respectively in the year 2002).

*Ethnic group* (Note: Figures are for UK-domiciled persons only)

In the UK and in London between 1996 and 2000, there was a fall in the proportion of entrants (i.e. accepted students) who were white, while the Asian proportion rose, and that of black students stayed about the same; the same point applies to applicants (UK) and to applications (London).

From 2001 onwards, UCAS ethnic classifications changed to be in line with the new Census. This alters even the broad categories used here, like 'Asian', which makes comparison with earlier years problematic.

- Between 2001 and 2002, figures for the UK show that the number of Asian applicants dropped by 5 per cent, and Asian entrants fell by 3 per cent (for details, see Table A2 in Appendix).
- Further breakdowns show that in the UK, the number of female Caribbean applicants and accepted students is nearly twice as high as that of their male counterparts. This pattern has existed for a number of years.

Table 8 shows the new classifications for London in 2001 and 2002. The most notable change in 2002 was the drop in the number of Asians - 4

per cent for applications and 5 per cent for acceptances. In this respect, London resembles the UK.

The proportion of Asian applications and entrants is double that of black people; this contrasts with the HESA figures for the student population, which show a much smaller difference (Table A2 in Appendix). The main reason for the difference from HESA is that Asian students are more likely to be full-time, and UCAS figures are for full-time students only.

Some other points of interest emerge from the table:

- Applications and acceptances fell for most groups, unlike in the UK
- Acceptance rates for different groups are very similar

**Table 8 Applications and acceptances to London institutions, by ethnic group**

Ethnic group	Applications		Acceptances	
	2001	2002	2001	2002
White	128,971	123,251	20,839	20,287
	52%	51%	50%	51%
Black	34,290	35,219	5,972	5,770
	14%	15%	14%	14%
Asian	70,725	67,703	11,959	11,310
	28%	28%	29%	28%
Mixed	8,556	9,033	1,585	1,652
	3%	4%	4%	4%
Other	6,563	6,053	1,141	1,047
	3%	3%	3%	3%
Total	249,105	241,259	41,496	40,066
	100%	100%	100%	100%

source UCAS

notes

1. Percentages in large case.
2. UK-domiciled applicants only.
3. Since each person can make up to 6 applications to different regions, figures are for applications to London, not applicants.
4. Persons of unknown ethnic group are excluded from the table; if they were included, they would make up 7-14 per cent of the totals.
5. Some percentages do not sum to 100 because of rounding errors



UCAS figures also show a marked difference between white and other groups in their regions of origin:

- Of the entrants who are Londoners, nearly three quarters come from ethnic minorities. Conversely, the great majority of entrants from other parts of the UK are white, although minority groups are well represented in relation to their population elsewhere in the UK.
- 69 per cent of London's white entrants come from other parts of the UK, but only 19 percent of entrants from ethnic minorities come from outside.

(These points refer to UK-domiciled students only).

The number of UCAS unknowns, especially in London, detracts from the value of the figures.

### *Social class and Socio-economic Classification*

*(for full definitions, see glossary)*

*Up to and including 2001, UCAS used the government classification of social classes based on occupational skill. In 2002, it adopted the new National Statistics Socio-economic classification (NS-SEC), based not on skill levels but on employment relations and conditions. In the same year, UCAS adopted the new Standard Occupational Classification (SOC 2000), which has altered the distribution of occupations into classes/socio-economic groups. These changes mean that no quick comparisons can be made with pre-2002 figures (although in principle, the figures can be transposed into each other).*

*Social class and Socio-economic Classification are based on parental occupation of applicants under 21 and, for applicants aged 21 or over, on the occupation of the person contributing the highest income to the household.*

The social class figures for 1996–2001 showed that the working classes were greatly under-represented, but that London was closer to the norm than the UK as a whole. During this period, there was only minor evidence of widening class participation, in the capital and the UK; for example, the percentage of students with a skilled manual or non-manual background rose from 32 to 35 per cent in London, but participation of the less skilled classes remained unchanged.

The new Socio-economic Classification is shown in Table 9, which compares accepted students in 2002 with the population as a whole. The population columns show that London is more professional and less

‘working class’ than England and Wales. This is consistent with social class figures from earlier years. Since 41 per cent of London UK-based students originate from elsewhere in the UK (UCAS figures), a rough benchmark for London students would lie somewhere between the national and the London socio-economic distribution.

**Table 9 Socio-economic Classification: Student admissions in 2002 compared to population**

Socio-economic classification	Population of England and Wales	UK Student admissions	Population of London	London student admissions
	%	%	%	%
Higher managerial and professional	12	23	17	20
Lower managerial and professional	26	31	31	30
Intermediate	13	16	14	17
Small employers and own account workers	10	7	9	8
Lower supervisory and technical	10	5	7	4
Semi-routine	16	13	13	16
Routine	13	6	8	6
Total	100	100	100	100

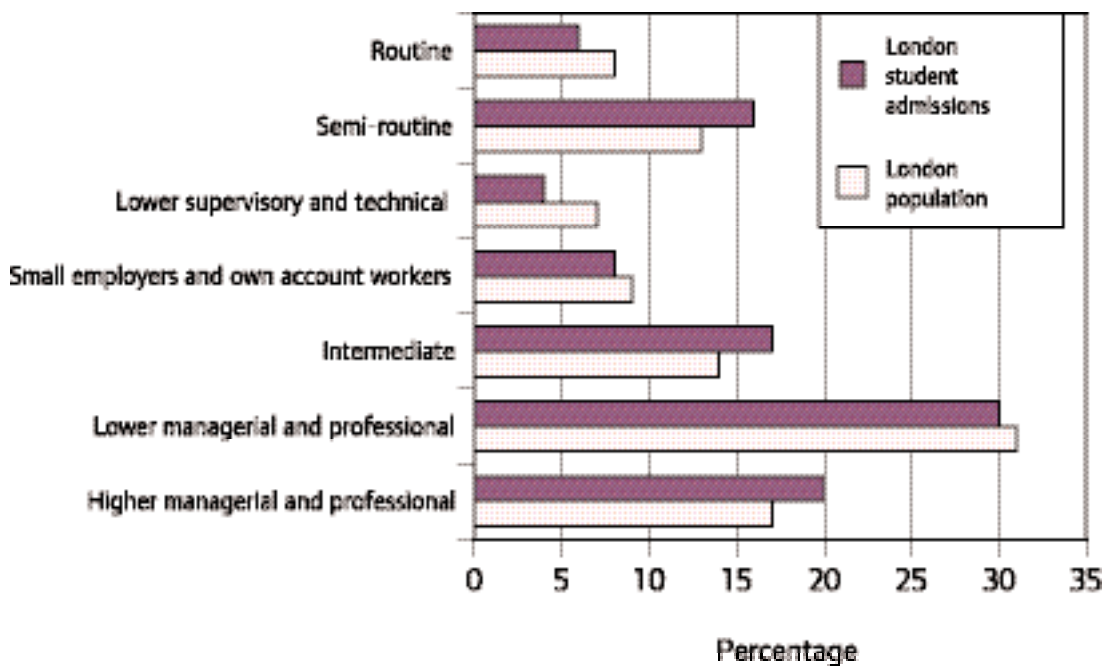
*sources* UCAS; Census 2001

- notes*
1. UK-domiciled applicants only.
  2. The following are not included in the figures: Never worked and long-term unemployed; unclassified.
  3. The Socio-economic Classification for the whole of the UK is not currently available.
  4. Some percentages do not sum to 100 because of rounding errors.
  5. ‘Admissions’ and ‘acceptances’ are used interchangeably in this report.

Comparison between the student and the population columns shows that, in general, the managerial, professional and intermediate groups are over-represented, and other groups under-represented, both nationally and in the capital. The gap in London is not great: For groups other than professional and intermediate, the student percentage is 34, compared to a population percentage of 37. However, when potential entrants from outside the capital are considered, the gap is greater. (Table 9 and Fig. 3.

The gap between London admissions and population can be seen more clearly in Fig. 3).

**Figure 3 Socio-economic Classification: London student admissions compared with London population, 2002**



*sources* UCAS; Census 2001

- notes*
1. UK-domiciled applicants only.
  2. The following are not included in the figures: Never worked and long-term unemployed; unclassified.
  3. 'Admissions' and 'acceptances' are used interchangeably in this report.

London student admissions in 2002 are slightly less professional and more 'working class' than those in England and Wales. They are also more representative of the population as a whole; this is especially evident if they are compared with the London population. There is even a student over-representation of the semi-routine occupational group in the capital, in contrast to England and Wales. (However, the routine and lower supervisory/technical groups are under-represented, in London as elsewhere). The overall figures for London conceal wide differences between institutions; for instance, HEFCE figures show that several of London's old, prestigious institutions are far from socially representative in their student intake.

The NS-SEC is no longer based on traditional categories, which may influence the results. The figures raise some questions, like the 'over-representation' of the semi-routine group in London.

(Figures for applicants and applications in 2002 are not shown here but are very similar to those for acceptances.)

The number of unknowns severely limits the value of the UCAS figures. For example, in 2001, 23 per cent of London acceptances were unknown. In 2002, with the new system, this rose to 28 per cent.

### 3 Participation

#### *Groups at a disadvantage*

These figures on the student population and admissions have a bearing on the government's plans to widen participation. There are some trends that apply both in London and in the UK:

- A continuing decline in the proportion of male students
- Until 2000, a decline in the proportion of mature students. Since then, the trend has to some extent been reversed.
- Ethnic minorities are well represented, with the exception of Black Caribbean men and perhaps Bangladeshis.
- Social class participation has broadened but little in the last few years. Indeed, it is debatable whether there has been progress since 1960, when the gap in percentage points between classes was less than it is now (DfES WP 2003). Since then, all classes have participated more, but professional groups have gained faster. (However, there has been a proportional gain for the working classes: Whereas in 1960, the non-manual participation rate was nearly 7 times as high as the manual, in 2000 it was 2-3 times as high).

The Higher Education Funding Council for England monitors official indicators of participation for UK-domiciled students (HEFCE, June 2003):

- State school entrants: Over 90 per cent of 17 year olds in full-time education in the UK attended state schools or colleges in 2000/2001; the proportion of young entrants to full-time first degree courses from such schools was 86 per cent.
- Entrants to full-time undergraduate courses from social classes skilled manual, semi-skilled and unskilled: In the UK, the proportion was one quarter in 2000, but these classes made up over 40 per cent of the population. Another way of looking at it is by participation: Just 18 per cent of young people from the manual classes were benefiting from HE, compared with 48 per cent from the non-manual classes (DfES 'Widening Participation', 2003)
- Percentage from neighbourhoods with low participation in HE: These neighbourhoods are estimated to make up 30 per cent of the population. In 2000, 12 per cent of young entrants and 14 per cent of

mature entrants to full-time first-degree courses came from such neighbourhoods. For part-time undergraduate courses, the figures were 16 per cent for young students and only 7 per cent for mature students.

Overall, London's HE sector is more representative than that of the UK. At the same time, London has more extremes. Whereas the London Metropolitan University, South Bank and Westminster have a high recruitment from low-participation neighbourhoods, some of London's high prestige institutions are well below the national average in this respect. (Focus Central London, 2001).

The government's White Paper (January 2003) proposes to allow universities to raise their tuition fees by up to £2,000 p.a., to be repaid by students after graduation. There is widespread concern that this will deter entrants from low-income families and ethnic minorities, many of whom are debt-averse. (For more on White Paper, see Student Support, pp.33-34).

In 2002, there was a significant fall in the intake of Asians, both in London and the UK. The reasons for this are not known, but debt may be a factor.

The White Paper also contains proposals to expand the use of two-year, work-focused foundation degrees; these degrees will aid the expansion of student numbers, and meet the growth in demand for jobs at associate professional and higher technical level. However, this proposal has been questioned by the staff union NATFHE, Universities UK and the London Higher Education Consortium (LHEC). First, there are doubts about employer and student demand. Second, there is concern that this will encourage a two-tier system, in which poorer students will take the cheaper foundation degrees; this is more likely to happen if top-up fees are implemented. NATFHE favours the expansion of these degrees, provided that working-class students have equal access to all kinds of higher education.

The National Audit Office (Jan. 2002) found the following:

- 1 Lower academic attainment at age 18 accounted for most of the lower participation in higher education by 18 year-olds from manual backgrounds. By age 18, 19 per cent of people from manual backgrounds have 2 or more A levels, compared with 43 per cent of those with a non-manual background (DfES 'Widening Participation', 2003).
- 2 The second largest contribution was the smaller proportion of working class people who applied, even when they had the qualifications. The government regards this as a sign of lack of aspiration: For instance,

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even when young people from manual backgrounds have the qualifications for the Russell group (long-established universities with high research ratings, which are regarded as an elite), they are less likely to apply than their non-manual counterparts with the same level of qualification; the difference is significant (DfES 'Widening Participation', 2003). However, there are different ways of interpreting these findings: Lack of aspiration, a sense of cultural difference, and financial deterrent have all been put forward (see below).

- 3 The third factor was the lower success rate of working class applicants, but the reasons for this are not known; they have especially low success and representation in medicine, dentistry and veterinary science - in this respect they resemble disabled students.
- 4 The nature of level 3 qualifications varies between classes, but the effects of this have not been quantified.

There are wide variations between institutions. In some cases, this is due to lower success rates, in others to failure to attract working class applicants.

A recent national survey for Universities UK investigated attitudes to debt and other factors influencing young people's decisions to enter higher education (Callender, 2003). The sample consisted of 2000 school leavers and final-year further education students working towards a higher education qualification; the response rate was 55 per cent. Three quarters of the respondents had decided to enter HE, but 15 per cent were against and 12 per cent were undecided. White and working class respondents were much more likely to decide against higher education. Those against entry were mainly interested in finding a job and earning money. Another factor was lack of confidence, especially among working-class respondents.

There was also a small but significant overall relationship between debt-tolerance and decision to enter. The most debt-averse groups were Muslims and Sikhs, ethnic minorities, working class people, mature students and those with family responsibilities. However, some of these groups, like Muslims, were strongly in favour of entry.

Undecided respondents tended to be white, working class or mature. This group was affected, not so much by debt aversion but by the amount of money available for student support. The author argued that if financial barriers were removed, they might decide to enter. Research in the USA suggests that financial support increases enrolment, and that grants are more effective than loans for low-income entrants (Callender, 2003).

This study showed that educational attainment is by no means the only barrier to widening participation. One quarter of respondents had not

decided to enter higher education, even though they were likely to qualify. The author rejected the theory that poverty of aspirations barred working class entry. These respondents may have rejected a learner identity but they had an alternative identity, based around paid work.

The story does not end with admission. Research in the UK shows that students from groups at a disadvantage tend to enrol in lower level, shorter or more vocational courses, and closer to home. (Callender, 2003 and 2002; M Farr 'Home or Away'? 2001 quoted in Callender, 2003)

A multi-faceted study of class and higher education was undertaken by the London Metropolitan University (Archer et al, 2003). It reports on a nationwide survey and focus groups (with London contributing the majority of members), all based on young working class participants and non-participants. While concentrating on cultural factors, the report emphasises multiple working-class identities (for black women, Asian men etc). The scepticism of non-participants was not necessarily irrational: Participation is more risky for working-class students, there are more constraints on choice, and fewer rewards. Themes to emerge from discussions were employability, retention and the two-tier system. All of these have some basis in fact. Thus, working class (and ethnic minority) students tend to be concentrated in new universities and are less likely to have A-Levels; yet employers still take account of a graduate's A-Levels and university. Working class graduates on the whole go into less well-paid jobs than their middle class counterparts (although they still have a graduate 'premium'). There is some indirect evidence that students from under-privileged groups are more likely to drop out. Decisions are also more complex for potential working-class entrants: There is a bewildering variety of non-A level entry routes, and of discretionary awards for poorer students; the government's White Paper acknowledges the need to simplify awards. These practical problems may help to explain why more than half the non-participants with positive attitudes to higher education (including many who were qualified) still had no plans to enter.

Another type of barrier was cultural. There was a spectrum of working-class attitudes to higher education; on the whole, women and ethnic minorities were more likely to see it as a means to better themselves. Negative images were also common; for example, students were seen as inadequate men, lacking in common sense, who enjoyed studying and not doing. Masculine identity was linked not to study but to work, as a source of income and status. Non-participants saw little intrinsic merit in higher education - it was only a means to an end. Asian and black men were more likely to reject manual identities than their white counterparts; however, some saw study as immature or irresponsible. The authors

conclude that the model of integration into middle-class institutions may not be the answer; perhaps some kind of de-centred learning in working-class communities would allow the students more space to develop without changing their identity.

### *The Open University*

The Open University admitted its first students in 1971. It is now the country's largest university and expanding rapidly. Nearly all its students are part-time, and it represents 20 per cent of all part-time HE students in the UK. It offers a route to a degree for people who may lack the conventional entry requirements, and one of its main objectives is to widen participation.

The university is open to all adults and undergraduate level courses do not require any entry qualifications. Nevertheless, the OU receives good ratings for teaching and research.

One potential disadvantage is that, in the higher education sector, less financial support is available to part-time students. However, in the OU, a limited number of free places are available to people receiving benefits or on low income and, on the 'Openings' courses, to people who are lone parents, disabled or from ethnic minorities.

In the UK in 2001 -

- 59 per cent of students were women.
- Two thirds of students were aged between 25 and 45.
- 5.5 per cent of students were non-white (HESA). Non-white groups are therefore under-represented, as compared with their proportion in the UK population and in UK higher education as a whole (13.8 per cent). The value of the figures is limited, because the ethnicity of more than one quarter of students is not known. It would be interesting to know why ethnic minorities make relatively little use of the OU.
- 5.2 per cent of students were disabled. This is significantly below the proportion of disabled adults of similar age in the population. However, there is a high proportion of people with mobility problems in the OU, compared to higher education generally. This is one of the advantages of distance learning.
- Somewhat over 10 per cent of students came from unwaged or low income families.

In London in 2001, there were nearly 21,000 students in the OU. 20.1 per cent came from ethnic minorities and 4.8 per cent were disabled. These groups were therefore under-represented in relation to London's population.



The figures suggest that the OU is popular and meets a major need, but has not yet reached its potential for widening participation. One reason for this is that the average degree costs £4,100 and takes 6 years to complete. A change in financial support arrangements for part-time students would be probably be needed, to encourage more entrants from ethnic minorities and low-income families.

The situation for disabled students is somewhat different; a wide range of services is available free for those of them who do not receive the Disabled Students' Allowance. The distance learning facilities are recognised as being of high quality. However, the advantages of the OU may continue to be under-utilised unless better financial support is provided for part-time study.

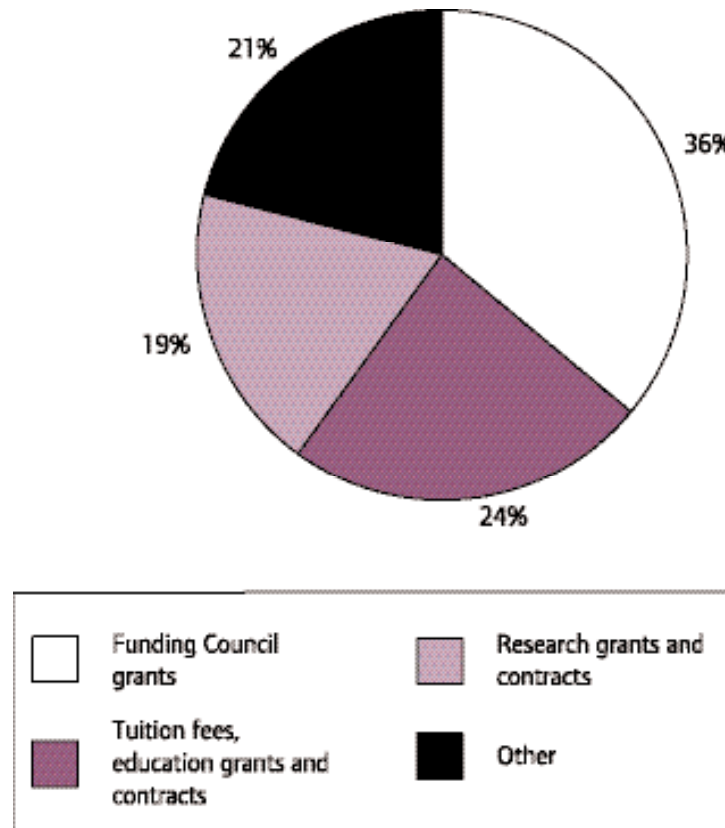
The government plans to expand support for part-time students from 2004/05 (below, p.34). This should encourage more entry to the OU from groups at a disadvantage.

#### **4 Finances of the higher education sector**

##### *Funding of higher education institutions*

The higher education system is mainly controlled by government-sponsored agencies, like the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE); although publicly funded, they retain general autonomy in their operations.

In 2001, London higher education institutions received 36 per cent of their income from Funding Council grants (Fig. 4). Another 24 per cent came from tuition fees and education grants and contracts; this includes income from the government-funded Student Loans Company, from Local Education Authorities (giving fee support) and from employers as well as from the students themselves. A further 19 per cent of London income came from research grants and contracts; the larger part of this comes from Research Councils and other public bodies like the European Union. There are also substantial contributions to research from charities, especially in London, where they make up more than one third of the research income. The remainder of the income comes from residences and catering and various other private sources - payments for services rendered to outside bodies, copyright, endowments, interest etc.

**Figure 4 Sources of income for London education institutions, 2001/02**

source HESA

Overall funding was 12 per cent higher in 2001 than in 1999 (13 per cent in the UK). The biggest growth area was research, followed by tuition fees, education grants and contracts.

London's HE income in 2001 was £3.07 billion, 21 per cent of the UK total (compared to 16 per cent of students and 12 per cent of the population in the UK). This reflects its importance as a research and teaching centre, as well as the high cost of living.

London receives relatively more from research grants and contracts and less from Funding Councils, than the UK as a whole (Table 10). Another major source of income for the capital is fees from overseas students; nearly a third of all overseas fees go to London (Universities UK, Patterns of higher education, 2001).

**Table 10 Sources of income for higher education institutions, 2001/02: London and UK compared**

Income source	London		UK	
	£ m	%	£ m	%
Funding Council grants	1100	36	5692	39
Tuition fees, education grants and contracts	746	24	3338	23
Research grants and contracts	594	19	2433	17
Other	633	21	3027	21
Total	3073	100	14491	100

source HESA

note UK £m column does not sum exactly, because of rounding errors

In 1992, the former polytechnics became universities. There is a difference between 'old' (pre-92) and 'new' (post-92) universities in their sources of income, both in London and in the UK. In general, the old London universities receive a substantial portion of their income from research and 'other' sources, like residences and endowments. For example, University College, Imperial College and King's College (the three largest HE institutions in London) receive more than half their income from these sources. In contrast, many newer universities in London and elsewhere rely almost entirely on income from Funding Councils and tuition fees. The difference is particularly marked for research: The bulk of research grants and contracts go to well-known centres among the old universities. For University College and Imperial College, it is the largest single source of income. The new universities generally receive a small fraction of their income from research, or none at all. The Funding Councils provide grants for both teaching and research, but the ratio of teaching to research grant is generally much higher for the new universities.

The government White Paper proposes a concentration of Funding Council research grants in fewer institutions, to maintain standards. This proposal is strongly resisted by Universities UK and the London Higher Education Consortium, as well as unions and the new universities. A group of 11 Learned Societies stated that "pre-eminent departments need to be strongly supported to allow them to compete internationally, but not at the expense of other departments and institutions. Concentration of research funding in a few institutions will cause ossification across the sector, closing down the important bedrock research". LHEC argues that cutbacks will cause significant problems in some areas of higher education

and the industry sectors related to them. For example, 22 out of 26 medical schools could be affected, including some 'stars of the future'. (LHEC, 2003)

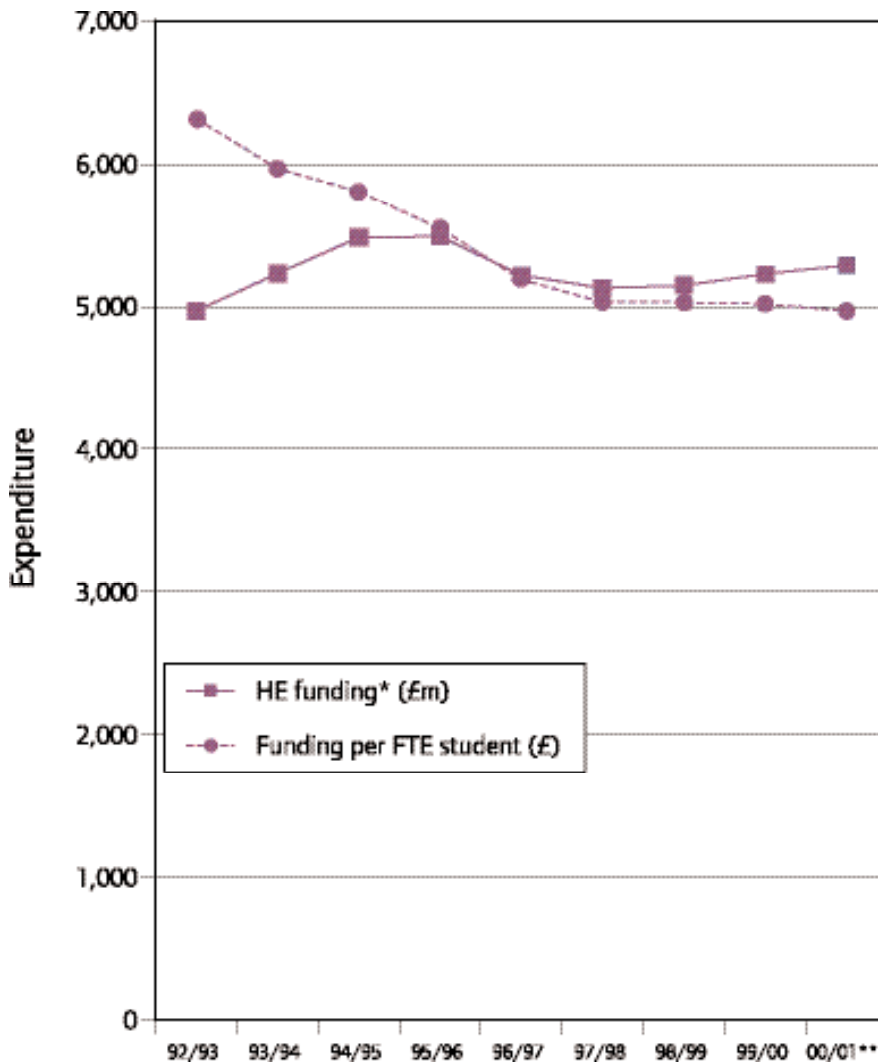
An increasing proportion of university and college income is coming from private sources, both in London and in the UK. HEFCE estimate that in 2001/2002, London's HE institutions received an income that was 58 per cent public; the figure for England was 61 per cent. The old London universities were 54 per cent publicly funded and the new universities, 66 per cent (estimates), a gap which has grown since 1999/2000.

#### *Government spending trends and plans*

Between 1992/93 and 2000/01, government spending per full-time equivalent student in higher education in England fell in real terms by 21 per cent (Fig. 5. Further details in Appendix Table A3); during this time, student FTE numbers grew by 38 per cent. In real terms, total expenditure on higher education was lower in 2000/01 than in 1994/95. However, the expenditure figures have stabilised since 1997.

The government plans to 'reverse years of under-investment' with an overall increase of spending of more than 6 per cent in real terms between 2002/03 and 2005/06. During this period, there will also be an increase in spending per FTE student of 7 per cent. (DfES, May 2003).

These rises are intended to assist a major expansion in the number of students, so as to achieve the year 2010 target of enabling half of all adults to benefit from HE by the age of 30. However, much of this expansion will be funded by students themselves, through the use of top-up fees and loans, to be repaid by tax after graduation, and by the colleges through an increased use of endowment funds. A cornerstone of the expansion will be the new, two-year, work-focused foundation degrees. These will be self-standing but students will be able to progress to a full honours degree or a professional qualification.

**Figure 5 Funding trends in real terms in higher education: England**

source DfES, Education and Training Expenditure since 1992/93  
 notes \*Cash figures adjusted to 2001/02 levels \*\* Provisional figures

The expenditure plans assume that student numbers will increase in line with government targets; if they do not, the Funding Council can withhold grants.

The government proposes to introduce some new packages, including

- Knowledge Exchanges: Institutions or consortia from the less research-intensive institutions will demonstrate good practice in knowledge transfer and skill development, in their links with employers and businesses.

- A simplification of support grants aimed at students from poorer backgrounds; they will be reduced from 14 to 5.
- A new and expanded package for part-time students.

OECD figures show that in 2000, the United Kingdom came fourteenth in a list of twenty-eight member countries, for expenditure per FTE student; this compared with tenth in 1998. The UK was ahead of France, Italy and Finland but behind Ireland, Germany and Australia. (OECD, 2003)

The OECD figures cover both private and public expenditure, but they exclude public subsidies for living expenses, because these are not comparable between countries. For some countries, private expenditure is excluded because the data are not available.

#### *Financial state of higher education institutions*

The London Higher Education Consortium has 41 members, about one quarter of the institutions in the UK. They include many specialist institutions, such as the Central School of Speech and Drama.

In 2001/02, there was a 0.4 per cent surplus of income over expenditure for institutions in the UK, but a deficit in London of 0.04 per cent or £1.3m. Seventeen out of forty one London institutions were in deficit. These included not only new universities, like Middlesex (-3.8%) and Greenwich (-4%) but also traditional institutions, like St George's Hospital Medical School (-4.1%), University College London (-0.3%) and the Royal College of Art (-6.3%). This indicates that financial pressures in London are particularly acute. (HESA; GLAEconomics)

The national context is set by the financial forecast for the sector, based on information provided by institutions in July 2002 (HEFCE 2003/02). Operating surpluses have fallen each year from 1997/98, and are not forecast to rise until 2003/04. The underlying operating position in the UK (after removal of exceptional items like campus disposal) will continue to be weak throughout the forecast period (2001 to 2005), with the sector operating at well under 1 per cent - little better than break-even. 45 per cent of institutions are forecasting operating deficits for 2002/03, a year in which the financial pressures increased.

HEFCE has modified its position that institutions generally need an operating surplus of 3 per cent to provide cash-flow for investment and redevelopment; it suggests that with adequate capital funding, universities and colleges should be able to operate on tighter margins. Additional capital grants for research (not included in these forecasts) were announced following the 2002 spending review. HEFCE points out

that without the continuance of equivalent funding streams for teaching, the sector will be under significant pressure to sustain the necessary investment level.

One of the commonest measures used to maintain financial viability is staff reduction, mentioned by 40 per cent of institutions. Overall, there is a further planned reduction of the staff/student ratio for the sector. Up till 2005/06, the projected growth rate in student numbers will be four times as high as that of staff.

The main risk area for the sector, mentioned by 70 per cent of institutions, is student recruitment and retention. The other large risks are staff pay above inflation, and failure to manage capital programmes.

The overall financial strength of the sector is satisfactory, according to HEFCE. However, this strength is concentrated in a small number of mainly old universities, while a few institutions are facing severe constraints. Most colleges and universities are financially sound, but operate on very tight margins; adverse changes of as little as 1 per cent would have significant consequences for many of them. (HEFCE 2003/02)

One factor which affects funding is the ability of institutions to fill their places. If they fail to do this, HEFCE can withhold funds for the following year.

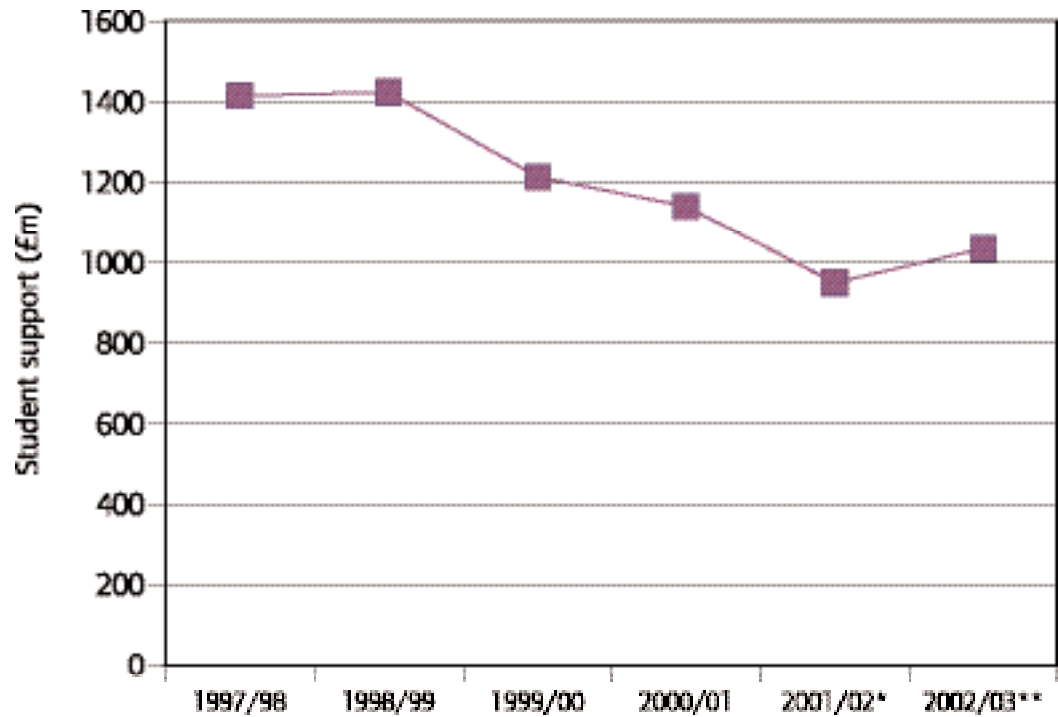
## 5 Student support and finances

### *Support*

When Margaret Thatcher came to power in 1979, students in London were entitled to a non-repayable maintenance grant of £1,485, which would be worth £4,000-5,000 in today's money. Since then, student support has fallen under both conservative and labour governments. The estimated student support in 2002/03 was 27 per cent lower in real terms than in 1998/99 (Fig. 6, which takes account of the move from grants to loans in 1998. Further details can be found in Appendix Table A4).

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**Figure 6 Student support in higher education in England: Central and local government expenditure in real terms (£ million)**



source DfES Departmental Report, May 2003

notes All figures have been converted to 2001/02 price levels. Figures reflect the move from the old grants-based to the new loan-based student support system in 1998; no account is taken of repayment of loans. The figures also changed from cash-based in 1997 to resource-based from 1998 onwards.

\*Provisional \*\* Estimated

The 1998 Education Act brought in new support arrangements for students in higher education. It abolished maintenance grants for new entrants and introduced means-tested tuition fees for students. The system may be summarised as follows:

#### *Full-time students: Tuition fees*

- UK-based full-time undergraduates or their parents now pay tuition fees up to a maximum of £1,125, depending on their family income. The threshold for payment for single students under 25, without dependants, is £20,970. The government estimates that about half the students and their families pay nothing towards fees.
- The full cost of tuition is around 4 times that of the £1,125 fee for undergraduates. This is paid by HEFCE, the National Health Service and other organizations.



- Postgraduates and overseas students are liable to pay the full rates, which would normally be much higher than £1,125 (NUS, 2003/04 press pack; HEFCE)

#### *Loans and other support for full-time students*

- The maximum loan for a full-year student living away from home in London is £4,930 (£4,000 elsewhere). One quarter of the loan is means-tested. Repayment begins when a graduate's income exceeds a threshold of £10,000. There are no set years of repayment. The loan is meant to cover 39 weeks of the year. During vacation, benefits are available for a minority, such as disabled students and single parents.
- Further government support is available for those most in need, including enhanced hardship funds. About one in ten students in London received money from these funds in 1998/99 and each obtained on average £563 (Callender and Kemp, 2002).

#### *Part-time students*

Tuition fees for part-time students vary with the institution and the course. They do not receive support for living expenses, but some support is available for other costs.

- Low income students are eligible for a tuition fee waiver through their institution's hardship funds.
- Means tested loans are available for study costs.
- Disabled Students' Allowances meet additional costs of study relating to the student's disability. They are available to full- and part-time undergraduates and postgraduates.

#### *Government plans and White Paper*

In January 2003, the government published a White Paper on the future of higher education. This proposed, among other things, new arrangements for student support:

- From 2006, universities will be allowed to raise top-up fees of £1,875 per annum, in addition to the current tuition fees of £1,125 (2003/04 level).
- Compulsory payment of tuition fees will be deferred until after graduation, although there will be an option to pay up-front, probably with a discount. Payments after graduation will be through the tax system, linked to ability to pay.
- Students from low income families will continue to receive support for the first £1,125 but will be liable for any excess.
- In 2005, the threshold for repayment of student fee contributions and maintenance loans is likely to be raised from £10,000 to £15,000.



- From 2004, a maintenance grant of £1,000 will be available in full to students whose joint parental income is under £10,000, and on a sliding scale for incomes up to £20,000.
- An Access Regulator will have the task of ensuring that institutions widen student participation.
- One of the main planks of student expansion will be the use of two-year foundation degrees.

These proposals attempt to balance the funding needs of the sector with student expansion and widening participation. Universities UK has given qualified support for the White Paper, but suggests a consideration of more generous grants for poorer students. Both Universities UK and the London Higher Education Consortium see the Access Regulator as a needless piece of bureaucracy, and unions regard it as a token gesture in the face of fee increases.

Opposition to the White Paper student support proposals comes from many Labour MPs, the NUS and staff unions, and the Mayor of London. On some estimates, the average graduate debt will rise to over £20,000. There is concern that fear of debt will deter students from under-privileged backgrounds.

Examination of the economics of top-up fees suggests that most institutions will charge them. The GLA estimates that a low-fee zone is unlikely to emerge in London (GLAEconomics, 2003). This could affect London's new universities especially. They are likely to lose research income under the White Paper proposals to concentrate research funding; this, combined with a trebling of fees, could make them less attractive to working class entrants, who dislike the idea of a two-tier system.

Less controversial than top-up fees is the government's proposed new package for part-time students. They will have guaranteed means-tested support, doubling the number of students who qualify to have their tuition fees paid. A new grant towards childcare and other costs will replace the loan. A simplified 'Access to Learning Fund' will replace hardship loans and grants; this will finance institutions granting fee waivers and other support for students who currently do not qualify. (DFES, May 2003)

### *Student debt*

Loans are administered by the Student Loans Company, which is funded by the government. In 2001/02, some 809,000 UK students received student loans, being 81 per cent of those eligible. The average amount of income-contingent loan taken out was £3,120 (DfES, May 2003).

Barclays Bank student survey in 2002 found an average debt of £6,228 for England and Wales and £4,827 in London. Almost all today's students owe money, compared to one third in 1992; the current proportion of debtors is 95 per cent in the UK and 78 per cent in London.

A possible reason for the lower level of London debt is that in the capital, more full-time students stay in the parental home, especially if they come from ethnic minorities. When students did have to live independently, the additional costs of living in London were not fully covered by the allowances in the grant/loan (Callender and Kemp 2002; the study was based on the 1998/9 academic year, when the new system of loans and tuition fees had only recently been introduced).

By no means all debts are owed to the Student Loans Company (Table 11):

- More than half the students in England and Wales owe money to their banks. In London, the figure is 47 per cent, with an average overdraft of £653.
- In 1992, 6 per cent of students in England and Wales were borrowing on credit cards, compared to 31 per cent now, with an average debt of around £200.

**Table 11 Proportion of students owing debt to each source in 2002**

	<b>Student Loans company</b>	<b>Banks cards</b>	<b>Credit</b>	<b>Parents etc</b>	<b>Hardship funds</b>
	%	%	%	%	%
London	71	47	33	12	9
England & Wales	85	55	31	15	11

*source* Barclays Student Survey, 2002

*note* A student can owe debts to more than one source, so percentages do not sum to 100

The rise in private debt, and the heavy reliance on paid work, suggest that student support is not meeting costs. In London, 24 per cent of the income of full-time undergraduates aged 25 and under is derived from paid work, compared with 19 per cent elsewhere in England and Wales (Callender 2004; draft).

The increase in student debt of four per cent in 2002 was the lowest increase recorded by Barclays since their survey began in 1992. A Barclays manager commented: "We believe debt levels are slowly beginning to level out as those students who felt the impact of the tuition fees and withdrawal of grants, graduate. In addition students are being more

responsible when looking after their finances by saving more and earning more from part-time and holiday work.”

Barclays estimates that the average debt for 2002 graduates will be £12,500. The results from Barclays are taken from their published extracts only, so it is not possible to assess the data in depth.

The National Union of Students (NUS) estimates that when average student expenditure is deducted from income (the student loan) there will be a shortfall of £4,942 in London in 2003/04. If one calculates this on the basis that the loan is only meant to cover 39 weeks, this shortfall is reduced to £3,706. Either way, students will have to fund the deficit through borrowing, paid employment or parental help. The Student Hardship Survey found a considerable level of debt among postgraduates as well as undergraduates.

The NUS and the National Audit Office quote research which shows that debt levels are higher among students with a manual background (NAO, 2002; NUS 2002). The NUS emphasises that average figures are not enough, and estimates that over 4 years of study, student debt can range from £0 to £25,000.

#### *Graduate debt*

Barclays graduate survey 2002 found average debts of £10,997 in England and Wales (the figure applies only to those in debt), with 88 per cent of graduates owing money. In London, the figures were £11,380 and 84 per cent respectively. Barclays Bank see signs of debt-levels settling down, but it is too early to be confident of this.

There is a significant level of graduate commercial debt. In 2002 -

- 61 per cent of London graduates had bank overdrafts, averaging £2,421.
- 27 per cent of London graduates were in credit card debt, averaging £828.
- Graduate debts to parents/guardians exceed £2000 and are rising fast.

The high levels of debt outside the student loan raise questions about its adequacy.

#### *Accommodation*

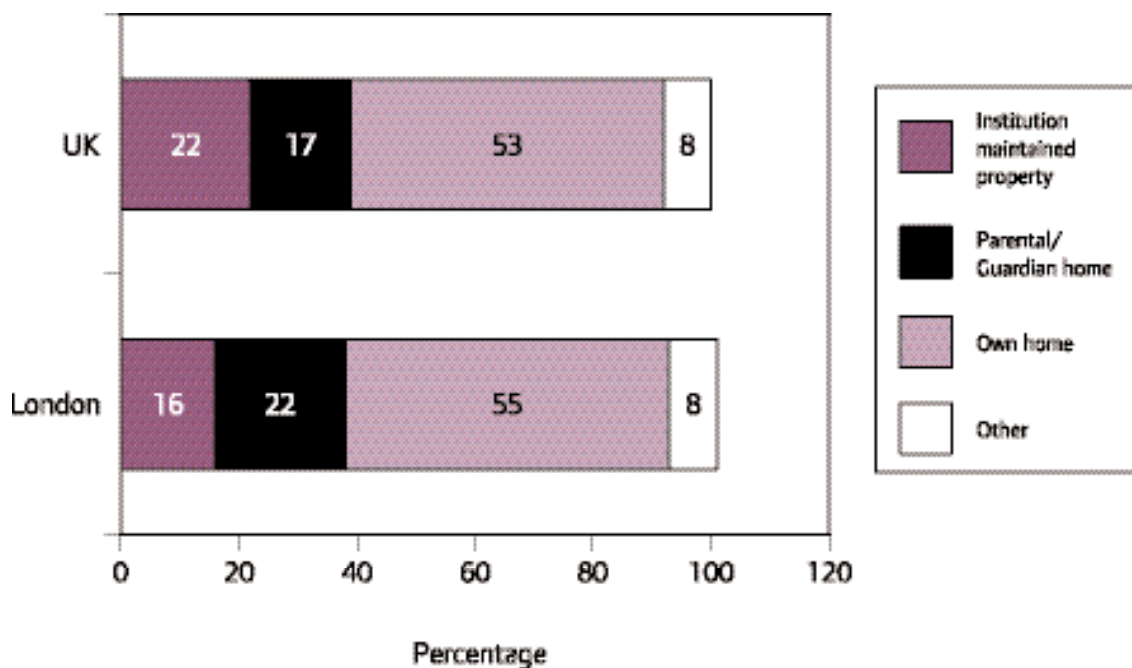
There is no comprehensive source on the numbers of London students in different types of accommodation. However, HESA provides outline statistics

for about three quarters of higher education students (Fig. 7). Reliable breakdowns of the 'own home' category do not seem to be available.

London students are less likely to live in institutional accommodation than their counterparts elsewhere in the UK. A higher percentage live with their parents or in their 'own' home, which includes privately rented accommodation.

Between 1999/2000 and 2001/02, the proportion of London students living in institutions fell from 18 to 16 per cent, and the proportion living with parents rose from 19 to 22 per cent. There is a large amount of missing data, but the figures suggest that institutional inflation and living expenses are persuading students to stay at home (see below). The UK shows the same pattern, though to a lesser extent.

**Figure 7 Higher education students: Accommodation in 2001/02**



source HESA

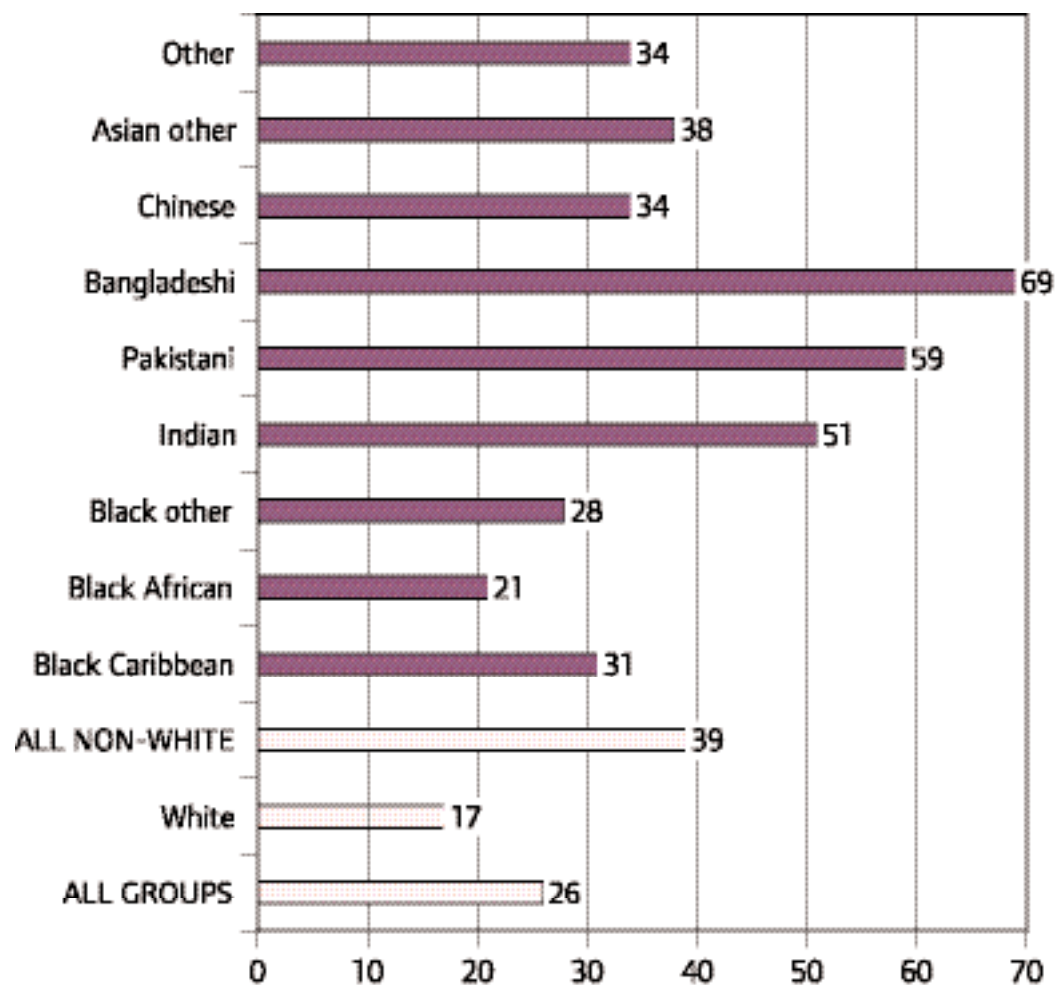
- notes
1. Total students whose accommodation type is known - London 266,650; UK 1,486,235. Unknowns are excluded from the percentages. In London, data are missing for one fifth of students and in the UK, for over a quarter.
  2. Overseas students are included

Analysis of the student income and expenditure survey 1998/99 suggested that ethnic minority students (full-time) were more likely to stay with their parents, especially in London (Callender and Kemp, 2002). The sample was small, but the results are confirmed by the HESA statistics. An ethnic breakdown of the figures for 2001/02 shows the

following points for London; the percentages are for UK-domiciled students only (Fig. 8):

- 17 per cent of white students live at home compared to 39 per cent of ethnic minority students
- every ethnic minority group has a higher than average proportion of students living at home.
- the three most home-staying groups by far are Bangladeshi (69 per cent), Pakistani (59 per cent) and Indian (51 per cent)
- of the ethnic minorities, the three black groups are the least likely to stay in the parental home, ranging from 21 per cent (Africans) to 31 per cent (Caribbeans)
- Only 5-6 per cent of black and Bangladeshi student groups live in institutions, less than half the average (not shown in Fig. 8).

**Figure 8 Percentage of London students (UK-domiciled) living in parental/guardian home in 2001/02: By ethnic group**



source HESA

note UK-domiciled students only

Research by South Bank University suggests that London students pay a third more on accommodation than their counterparts elsewhere, excluding the minority who live at home rent-free (Callender and Kemp, 2002). Annual information is provided by the NUS surveys (Table 12). These give an idea of institutional costs but information on the private sector is more patchy and has to be estimated by accommodation officers. Recent surveys show the high cost of institutional accommodation in the capital, especially inner London, which is 41 per cent more costly than the rest of the UK. Institutional costs have been rising well above inflation and the level of student loan, although in the latest year (2001/02) there was only a slight rise. The great majority of places are self-catering, especially in London.

**Table 12 Students' average weekly rent, 2001/02**

	Inner London	Outer London	London	Outside London
Average rent for institutions	£79	£63	£73	£56
Shared houses	#	#	£71*	£48
Lodgings	#	#	£64	£56

source NUS 2002

notes 1. The averages are approximate estimates based on responses from accommodation officers.

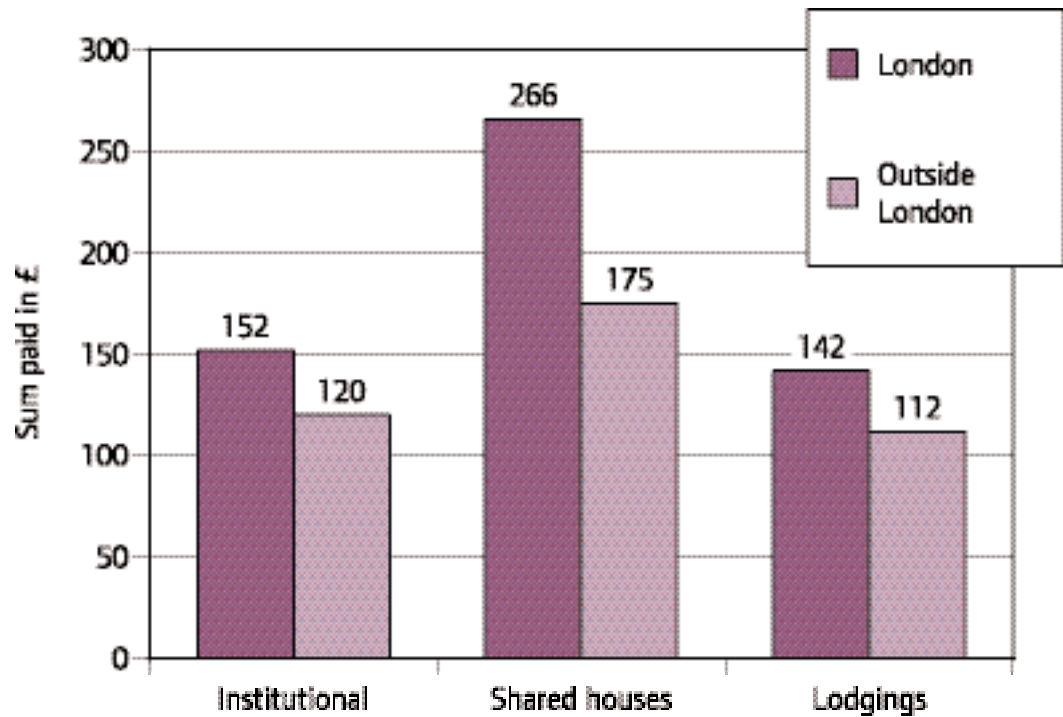
2. Many more students live in shared housing than in lodgings.

\* A small survey by University of London Accommodation Office suggests a figure of £86.

# Figures not available

Figures for private accommodation are less reliable. Lodgings appear to have risen steeply in price from the previous year; shared housing is more common, and rose only slightly.

Students in London have to pay very large deposits (Fig. 9), a factor which could deter potential students from poorer families. Shared house deposits are 52 per cent higher than in the rest of the country. However, average London deposits in 2001/02 were somewhat below those of the previous year, in the NUS surveys.

**Figure 9 Deposits paid by students, 2001/02**

source NUS Accommodation Costs Survey 2002.

note The averages are approximate estimates based on responses from accommodation officers.

There are different ways of calculating the proportion of the student loan taken up by rent, depending on whether one takes the loan to cover the full year or term-time only. Even on the most conservative estimate, term-time rent in London takes up well over half the student loan, a very high proportion. If, however, one uses the strict definition of the loan as covering term-time only, this implies that the students have to rely on other sources of income during the vacation.

#### *Student jobs*

- In the mid 1970s, less than 10 per cent of teenage students also worked or sought work. Since then, the proportion has risen several-fold.
- In London, 29 per cent persons aged 16-24 in full-time education are also in employment. In the UK as a whole, with a larger and more reliable sample, the figure is 38 per cent (Labour Force Survey local area database 2001/2002).
- Whereas full-time education is overwhelmingly for young people, part-time study occurs throughout adult life. 73 per cent of 16-59 year-old Londoners in part-time education are also in employment. (Labour Force Survey local area database 2001/2002).



The figures above include schoolchildren and students in further as well as higher education.

There have been a number of surveys of higher education students in work. These were reviewed in a recent publication by the London Metropolitan University (Archer et al, 2003):

- Most research suggests that 40 per cent of students or more take jobs in term-time. The MORI Unite Student Living Survey reported a steep rise from 30 per cent in 2000 to 43 per cent in 2001. However, Barclays reported no change in 2002 from the previous year (39 per cent).
- Hours average 11-12 per week but some students work much longer hours. A repeated finding is that students from poorer backgrounds are the most likely to be in term-time employment.
- The main reason for working is to meet living costs. There is also a link between work and debt aversion.
- Studies by Newcastle and Northumbria Universities found that students in term-time jobs were awarded lower marks. Although the difference was generally small, about 3-4 per cent, it could lead to one third of students receiving a lower degree classification. (M Barke et al, 'Students in the Labour Market', DfEE, 2000; R Humphrey, 'Working is a class issue', Times Higher Education Supplement, 19/1/2003. Quoted in Archer, 2003)

There is variation between universities and there may be more pressures in London. A survey of around 300 students on a business studies module at the University of North London found that almost 60 per cent had term-time jobs and they worked for an average of 17 hours a week. A report by the Institute of Economic and Social Research, which compared contrasting universities, suggests that term-time working reinforces disadvantage (quoted in Independent on Sunday, 5/10/2003).

The national student income and expenditure survey 1998/99 found that nearly half of full-time students were employed in term-time but in London the figure was 56 per cent. In London, paid work may have been especially necessary for students working at home. Many did not take up student loans and received no support from their parents either. Often these students came from ethnic minorities (Callender and Kemp, 2000, 2002).

The NUS recommends a limit of 10 hours a week employment for full-time students, subject to varying course patterns and family commitments. Longer hours have a detrimental effect on their studies (NUS, quoting research carried out at Paisley University). The Select Committee Report on Student Retention (House of Commons, 2001)

recommended that institutions provide guidance to students that they should not work for more than 12 hours a week in paid employment. However, the Committee acknowledged that this may not work without an improvement in financial support.

Germany and Sweden have recently introduced regulations ensure that students do not take on excessive hours of employment. However, in both countries students receive maintenance grants and do not contribute to tuition fees.

## 6 Retention of students

Student retention is a performance indicator which attracts funds. The figures therefore need to be closely inspected for any evidence of 'massaging' (Archer et al 2003).

About one student in six fails to complete the course. The national figures rose from 13 per cent in 1982/83 to 17 per cent in 1991/92 and have stayed at about the same level since. The latest figure was 17 per cent for the UK in 1999/2000. (House of Commons Sixth Report, March 2001; HEFCE 2002/52, summary Table 6, sector projected outcomes). The rise since 1982 has sometimes been attributed to the intake of more students of borderline standard as institutions tried to widen participation. However, this rise occurred in the 1980s, and apparently stopped in the 1990s, despite the continued expansion in student numbers. Changes in the statistical basis of the figures also make interpretation difficult.

Although non-completion has increased, the United Kingdom has one of the highest retention rates in the OECD, coming fourth out of 21 countries in 2000. (OECD 2003)

Studies of non-completion point to many factors; subject choice, study programmes, workload and financial problems are commonly cited reasons. Working class students are more likely to cite financial reasons for non-completion. (Archer et al, 2003).

Although it is often assumed that working-class students are less likely to complete their courses, the evidence on this is unclear and only indirect. Institutions with many working class students tend to have higher non-completion rates but the figures relate to institutions, not to individuals (Archer et al, 2003). In contrast, there is direct evidence that mature students, and those with non-traditional entry qualifications, are more likely to drop out (HEFCE 2002/52).

London's higher education institutions show very wide variation in their non-completion rates. The high retention institutions are often small and specialist, like the Royal Academy of Music. Some of the large, multi-faculty new universities have non-completion rates more than twice the national average. (HEFCE 2002/52, Excel Table 5).

Universities UK have published a report on good practice in student retention, based on research into the effectiveness of student services, such as study skills, funding arrangements, social integration and personal support. It makes a number of recommendations, such as additional resources more effectively allocated; strategic planning for student support services; one-stop shop services; more emphasis on first-year support; and extra support, tactfully applied, for students with low entry qualifications or a lengthy period away from study. (Universities UK and SCOP, 2002).

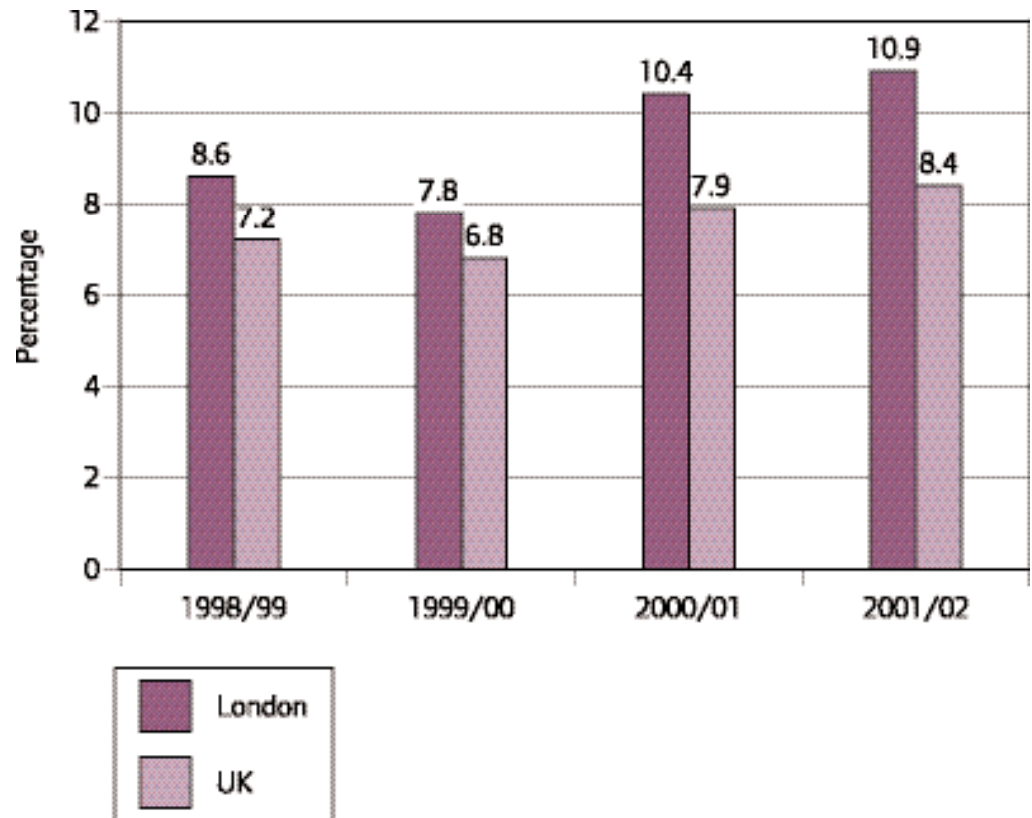
## 7 Destination of students

### *Unemployment*

Figure 10 suggests that graduate unemployment rose sharply in 2000/01, especially in London, and is still rising. However, non-response and the small numbers in London (2,250 unemployed in 2001/02) must be taken into account. The unemployment rates are above those of the population, because six months after final exams, many graduates have not yet settled down. More surprising is that graduate unemployment seemed to rise while that of the population was still falling. In the UK and London, the unemployment rate in the general population has fallen each year since 1993, and did not rise until 2002.

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**Figure 10 Unemployment rates of recent graduates**

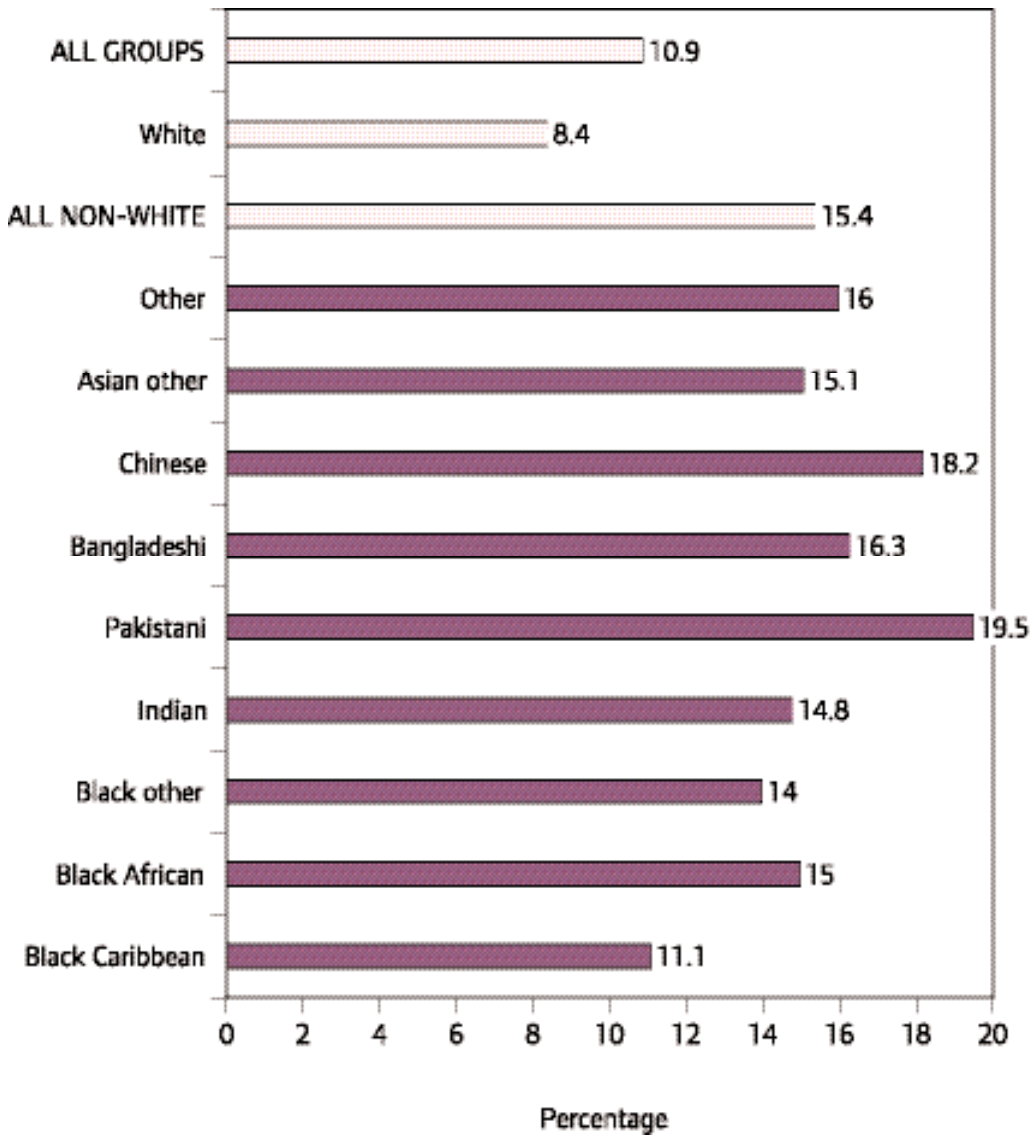
source HESA

notes Table includes students from UK only. The average time lapse since graduation was approx. 6 months

Male graduates have higher unemployment rates, but female graduates in employment are more likely to work part-time. This situation mirrors that in the population as a whole. (Sources: HESA; Labour Force Survey)

As in the previous year, unemployment was far higher for all ethnic minorities than for white graduates (Fig. 11 below). Small numbers mean that the order of groups may fluctuate from year to year. In the general population, the unemployment rates for Indian and Chinese groups are much closer to the average than in these figures for recent graduates.

**Figure 11 Unemployment rates of London graduates, by ethnic group, 2001/02**



source HESA

note The average time lapse since graduation was approx. 6 months

Students from ethnic minorities tend to go to new universities and for more career-oriented, less academic courses. Such factors may contribute to the different unemployment rates. However, even with good results, some groups have above average unemployment. (Pathak, 2000; London Skills Forecasting Unit, 1999).

More investigation is needed into the reasons for the high unemployment rate of ethnic minority graduates.

### Disability

(Figures are for the UK, because numbers in London are too small for meaningful analysis by type of impairment)

Disabled people face a double barrier, first in entering higher education and second, in finding employment afterwards.

Overall, the unemployment rate of disabled graduates is higher than average, but the difference is moderate (Table 13). By far the largest groups are dyslexic graduates and those with unseen disabilities (diabetes, asthma etc); if the figures for these groups are removed, the unemployment rate of disabled graduates would be 16.2 per cent, nearly twice the average. The highest unemployment rates are found among blind/partially sighted graduates, those with mobility difficulties/wheelchair users, mental health difficulties and multiple disabilities.

**Table 13 Graduate unemployment by disability in the UK, 2001/02**

	No. of unemployed	%
Dyslexia	475	11.5
Blind/Partially sighted	45	21.8
Deaf/Hearing impairment	35	11.1
Wheelchair user/Mobility difficulties	45	21.6
Personal care support	(0)	15.4
Mental health difficulties	20	20.4
An unseen disability, e.g. diabetes, epilepsy, asthma	265	8.9
Multiple disabilities	45	21.3
A disability not listed above	110	13.6
All disabled	1,040	11.6
No known disability	12,545	8.3
Total	13,590	8.5

source HESA

- notes
1. The average time lapse since graduation was approx. 6 months
  2. HESA rounding policy rounds raw numbers up or down to the nearest 5, to preserve confidentiality. This means that numbers may not sum exactly, but the differences are minimal.
  3. Some percentages do not sum to 100, because of rounding errors

Higher education of itself does not ensure equality. The Labour Force Survey shows that unemployment rates are significantly above average for disabled people at each qualification level. Unemployment rates in the

population vary greatly with the impairment, but are highest for people with mental health issues and learning difficulties. This suggests that employers need to be more flexible in adjusting to different types of impairment.

### *Graduate jobs in London*

Barclays graduate survey 2002 found that, of those London graduates in work, 42 per cent were in their chosen careers, compared with 55 per cent the previous year; there was a big increase in the proportion in short-term employment.

### *Earnings*

In the year 2002, the average starting salary for graduates 6 months after final exams was £14,000 in England and Wales and £17,000 in London. This represented no increase over the previous year in London and a 7 per cent fall nationally. The harder economic climate led to a decline in the number of graduate jobs available. (Barclays graduate survey 2002).

In comparison with other OECD countries, the UK has the highest earnings premium for women and is close to average for men. When personal costs are compared with benefits, the UK comes into 'a class of its own', with a net premium of 17.3 per cent for men and 15.2 per cent for women in 1999/00. The cost-benefit analysis takes account of tuition fees, student support, length of studies, unemployment risk, repayment, taxes and earnings. Two factors which contribute to this are the relative shortness of university courses in the UK and the high retention rate; tuition fees, on the other hand, are relatively high. (OECD, 2003)

It might be argued that with expansion in numbers, there is a law of diminishing returns for graduate earnings. There is also the issue of variation in salaries and risk, of which the OECD averages do not take account. Respondents in the research on working-class participation were concerned about saturation of the graduate market (Archer et al, 2003). There is some evidence of higher risk and reduced returns for non-traditional entrants. An analysis of old university graduates in 1993 found substantial differences in likely earnings by university, subject and class of degree, social class and school (with middle classes and independent schools having an advantage). Students from poorer backgrounds were 15 per cent less likely to obtain a good degree, their results were more variable and they were more likely to be unemployed after graduation (Naylor et al 2002). Three years after graduating, people from social class V earned 7 per cent less than people from social class I, even allowing for the effects of subject, degree class etc (NAO, 2002). More recent data suggest that these or similar trends have continued: For example, graduates with non-traditional entry qualifications are less likely to be

employed. (Archer et al, 2003). These studies suggest that non-traditional entrants require extra support at college, at least initially; however, there is probably also an element of social discrimination by some employers.

The analysis of 1993 graduates from old universities found that female earnings were 76 per cent of male earnings. (Naylor et al, 2002)

## 8 Staff

### *Numbers and teaching ratios*

The Bett Report 1999 still provides the most comprehensive estimate of staff numbers. In March 1998, there were slightly over 300,000 higher education staff in the UK (of whom about 42,000 were in London). Only 45 per cent of these were academic staff. Information on the non-academic staff is not collated on a regular basis; the largest group are the manual workers, but there are also technical, computer, clerical, academic-related, administrative and professional staff.

Just over half of all staff but only one quarter of senior staff were women. They made up the majority of clerical grades and 62 per cent of all manual workers.

More detailed information is gathered on academic staff by HESA, but the figures exclude large numbers of part-timers who do less than one quarter of a full-time job. The characteristics of staff are therefore of more interest than the total numbers. In 2001/02 -

- in London, 47 per cent of academic staff were on fixed term contracts, and 6 per cent were casual/hourly paid. The figures for the UK were 42 per cent and 3 per cent respectively.
- in London, 16 per cent of professors were women, compared with 41 per cent of all staff. The figures in 1999/2000 were 17 per cent and 39 per cent.
- the proportion of ethnic minorities (non-white) in London is 29 per cent. In 2001/01, they made up 15 per cent of London's academic staff and 6 per cent of its professors. The figures in 1999/2000 were 13 per cent and 5 per cent.
- 1.3 per cent of London professors were disabled, and 0.9 per cent of all staff. Age could account for the higher percentage among professors.

Staff are not obliged to report a disability and HESA advises that the data on this subject may not be representative. The Labour Force Survey shows that in spring 2001, 10.7 per cent of the workforce (academic and non-academic) had a disability limiting work &/or daily activities; this



was slightly under the national figure of 11.5 per cent. (Maginn and Williams, 2002)

Between 1995 and 2001, the number of academic staff rose but did not keep pace with the rise in the number of students. There are more students per member of staff now than there were in 1995. (Table 14)

**Table 14 Higher education staff numbers and student:staff ratios, full-time equivalent**

	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02 provisional
Academic							
staff <sup>1</sup>	59.7	60.4	59.1	60.6	61.7	63.0	64.0
Student:							
Staff ratios <sup>2</sup>	16.6	16.9	17.6	17.5	17.2	17.1	17.4

*source* DfES Departmental Report, March 2003

*notes* 1. Academic staff numbers (first row) in thousands.  
2. The no. of FTE students for each FTE teacher.

The UK has one of the lowest ratios of staff to students in the OECD, coming 20th out of 25 member countries in 2001, and behind a number of non-OECD countries, like Brazil, Malaysia and Russia. However, there are difficulties in calculating and comparing full-time equivalent staff and students in different educational systems. (OECD, 2003)

### *Pay structures*

Until 2002, higher education had separate sets of pay structures for the 'old' (pre-92) universities and for the 'new' (post-92) universities and the higher education colleges. This division has now been replaced by the Joint Negotiating Committee for Higher Education Staff (JNCHES), which covers all staff in the sector, academic and non-academic, and is drawing up a single pay scale.

Strategic negotiations are still under way. A framework is already in place, with agreed guidance on casual and part-time employment. Outstanding issues include pay levels, equal pay and modernisation of contracts.

### *Academic pay*

- Between 1981 and 2001, pay for academic staff in England and Wales rose by 5-7 per cent in real terms, compared to 44 per cent for all full-time employees (AUT). During this period, salaries of comparable

professions (schoolteachers, clinical academics and senior registrars) rose by 27-28 per cent.

- The 2003 AUT pay claim uses a different set of data based entirely on the New Earnings Survey: Between 1993 and 2002, average academic pay in real terms rose by 4 per cent, while the non-manual average rose by 18 per cent, and that of secondary school teachers rose by 12 per cent.
- In 2002, the average pay per week for full-time teaching staff was £684 in cash terms. Salaries in higher education lag behind those of comparable professions. For example, in 2002 the top senior and principal lecturer posts, and the professorial minimum were around £40,000, whereas the maximum for a schoolteacher (advanced skills) was £46,131.
- Starting salaries are low, especially for researchers. In 2002, a Researcher A in the post-1992 sector started on £11,932, well below the graduate average.
- International comparisons suggest that academic salaries in the UK are 18-37 per cent lower than in the Republic of Ireland.
- There is a gender gap of 16-20 per cent, which has changed little over the past decade

### *Non-academic pay*

For non-academic staff, there is a lack of reliable information on trends for most groups. However, between 1981 and 1998, the average pay of technicians in the old universities rose by 21 per cent less than for all non-manual employees and by 8 per cent less than for those in the public sector. More reliable information is available for the year 1998: In that year, all types of non-academic post, with the exception of 'academic-related' (a small group in the old universities), received significantly lower rates of pay than their equivalents outside the sector. The gap was particularly large for manual workers, ranging from 23 to 36 per cent, depending on grade and sector (old/new universities). For most grades of non-manual worker, the difference ranged between 10 and 20 per cent; when the comparison was limited to the public sector, pay elsewhere was significantly higher. (Bett Report).

The new joint negotiating machinery covers non-academic staff and it could bring about significant changes in their future.

### *Pay in London*

Although the joint agreements should eventually affect all staff in the sector, London allowances still reflect historical divisions:

- The inner London weighting for academic and related staff in the old universities is £2,134, where it has remained frozen since 1992. As yet, it has not been affected by the new structure, and the AUT recently voted in favour of industrial action.
- In the new universities, the inner London weighting for most academic staff in 2002 was £2,525, below average for public sector workers. For example, inner London teachers received £3,417 to £5,943.

The London allowance is only part of the issue for staff working in the capital: "...in London the extent to which higher education salaries are, in general, below prevailing market rates is greater than .... for the UK as a whole." (Bett Report, para 165). The London Higher Education Consortium has found that the ratio of house prices to academic salaries in the capital is three times that of the Northern Region. This is likely to have a significant effect on recruitment and retention.

#### *Conditions: Academic staff*

Part-time work, fixed-term contract and hourly work are all common among academics in higher education:

- One third of all academics are part-time and in the new universities, the figure approaches half.
- There are large numbers of part-time workers who do less than one quarter of a full-time job, but they are not included in the official statistics (HESA).
- Approaching half of all academic staff are on fixed term contracts; the groups most affected are researchers and lecturers. The proportion increased by 3-4 per cent between 1994 and 1999. In 2000, the trend halted, but it is too early to say whether this represents a significant change.
- Fixed term contracts are 30 per cent more common among women.
- Non-standard employment is more common in London than nationally.

The AUT argues that renewed fixed-term contracts are used to employ staff for long periods in conditions of insecurity. 70 per cent of fixed-term contract workers are aged over 30. Of the contract research staff, 45 per cent have been employed in that way for 3-10 years. In response to a European Directive, the government brought in legislation to regulate the use of these contracts in 2002. A four-year period, or four renewals, are permitted before the fixed term contract becomes permanent by operation of law, but the AUT would like this to be reduced.

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Another development is the JNCHES guidance on fixed-term and casual employment, which proposes new terms and conditions for hourly workers. The AUT believes that this will substantially reduce the number of staff paid on hourly contracts.

#### *Recruitment and retention of academics*

Poorer conditions of employment may be making an academic career less attractive than it used to be. Fewer young people are entering academic teaching posts and the staff profile is ageing.

- A survey by the Universities and Colleges Employers Association, found that in the last four years, the proportion of hard-to-fill vacancies in London grew from 20 to 40 per cent.
- A report in 2002 found that higher education faced major problems in the recruitment and retention of scientists and engineers, because of low pay levels and over-reliance on fixed-term contracts. (Quoted by AUT) (Sources on academic staff: AUT, Bett Report, HESA, NATFHE, UCEA)

#### *Conditions of non-academic staff*

The Bett report 1999 is still the most comprehensive source of information on these staff:

- For most non-academic staff, terms and conditions differ little from those found in other sectors. There is an exception for some senior grades, which would have more generous bonuses elsewhere.
- One third of all non-academic staff work part-time, the same as for academics.
- Higher education as a whole has proportionately more fixed-term and casual workers than most other sectors. Many clerical and technical staff in the old universities are on fixed term contracts.

### **9. Economic and social contribution of higher education**

*(see also pp 81-84 for the role of HE and FE in meeting London's skills needs)*

London's HE sector combines three distinct roles:

1. It is a world centre for research and teaching. 29 per cent of its postgraduates come from overseas. In the Research Assessment Exercise 2001, 4 of the top 10 institutions were based in London.
2. It is home to a wide range of specialist institutes, for example, in music, dance, nursing and architecture.
3. It provides skilled labour for London's workforce. Most of the capital's UK-domiciled students are Londoners. The role of both higher and further education in meeting London's skills needs will be discussed in

more detail on pages 81-84  
(GLAEconomics 2003)

The London Higher Education Consortium was set up to address issues of common concern and to enhance links with the wider society and economy. LHEC works at a London-wide level with a range of partners, including the London Development Agency (LDA), Learning and Skills Councils and business groups.

The turnover of London's higher education sector has been estimated at over £2.6 billion, and its contribution to London's gross domestic product is more than 4 per cent (Universities UK, The regional Mission...London, 2001), but the figures need updating. The London Development Agency and GLAEconomics have commissioned research by the University of Strathclyde on the economic impact of London's higher education; this will be published shortly.

National figures provide background information on the economic significance of higher education (Universities UK, May 2002, based on University of Strathclyde research):

- For every £1 million of output by the HE sector, a further £1.56 million is generated in other sectors of the economy by knock-on effects. The multiplier for HE is higher than for most sectors.
- Higher education in 1999 generated £35 billion through direct and indirect output. This equated to 2.7 per cent of the UK workforce, although the sector employed only 1.4 per cent.
- For every 100 jobs in universities and colleges, a further 80 jobs were generated in other sectors.
- University research in the UK is very productive. Every £1 spent is worth £1.80 to the economy, compared to £1.42 in the USA. (CIHE 2002).

The OECD has compared the costs and benefits for society of higher education in member countries. The measure takes into account the costs of economic inactivity, the full cost of education, and increased productivity. Labour cost differentials are taken as a proxy for productivity (this seems to be an over-simplification, but it facilitates comparison). The social rate of return compares the effects of higher with upper secondary education. (OECD, 2003)

The UK has the highest social rate of return in the OECD, at 15.2 per cent for males and 13.6 per cent for females in 1999/00. Two factors which contribute to this are the relative shortness of university courses in the UK and the low drop-out rate. The return is well above the risk-free

interest rate. According to this measure, higher education is therefore a good national investment. As with all international comparisons of education, these results should be treated cautiously.

### 10 Higher education: Conclusions

The broad conclusions of last year's review still apply (GLA, April 2002). The expansion in student numbers in the last 20 years has not been matched by a rise in government expenditure. The staff:student ratio is still one of the lowest in the OECD and is projected to decline further until at least 2005/06. Support per student continues to fall and large bank overdrafts are now the norm. The relatively low pay and casual conditions of staff, as compared to equivalent jobs in other sectors, are affecting recruitment and perhaps also the quality of education. Nevertheless, the reputation of higher education in the UK and London is still extremely high; retention levels compare favourably with those of other countries, and overseas students are drawn to the capital's research institutions. The question is, how to maintain this quality while increasing participation.

A number of new themes have emerged in this review, from political developments, further analysis and recent publications:

The government plans a 6 per cent growth in real-term spending up to 2005/06, to include increased spending per student. However, the use of top-up fees and foundation degrees to promote student expansion, combined with a concentration of research funding, could accentuate the development of a two-tier system. Even if fears of a working-class deterrent prove unfounded, poorer students may not in future receive the same level of education as their more affluent peers. Term-time working is likely to reinforce this division.

Ethnic minorities will also be affected by these developments. Although they are well represented in universities, they are concentrated in certain universities and courses and one needs to ask, whether they are getting an adequate level of experience. Government plans need to facilitate permeation of the system, rather than make it more difficult.

In planning for wider participation, government and universities need to take account of cultural and practical factors, as shown in recent research. For example -

- potential working class students face real risks in entering HE. This is not just a matter of low aspirations.
- student debt does not appeal to some ethnic groups.

- some working-class males perceive the university life as 'not for them'; this may put-off people who are well-qualified academically.

(Archer et al, 2003; Callender, 2003)

There is also a need to focus on particular groups and courses. For instance,

- disabled people are under-represented, but this varies very much by the type of impairment.
- Caribbean males and Bangladeshis are relatively under-represented.
- there is narrow participation in medicine, dentistry and veterinary science.

For staff, the introduction of a unified pay structure has the potential to improve the pay, conditions and attractiveness of the sector. At the same time, colleges may not be able to finance these improvements without outside help. This may be a particular issue for some London institutions, with their deficit of income over expenditure.

Recent analysis suggests that higher education in the UK is a very productive sector (Universities UK, May 2002). Public recognition that higher education is a good investment may help to ease some of the difficulties faced by the sector today.

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## B: Further education

### 1 What is further education?

Further education covers a very wide range of courses for students aged 16 or over, from Basic Skills to A Level. There is no official definition, but the Learning and Skills Act 2000, Sections 96-97, specifies a range of approved qualifications which might be termed 'further education'. Many other post-16 courses are more leisure oriented and might be described as 'adult and community education'.

Further education institutions include further education and tertiary colleges (covering the great majority of students), sixth form colleges, specialist designated institutions and land-based colleges. Most, though not all of their courses are in further education, but there are others; for example, about 2 per cent of students in London institutions are taking higher education courses.

Further education students are commonly divided into '16-19' (i.e. up to 19th birthday, preparation for higher education or employment) and 'lifelong learning' (19 plus). A minority of students (less than one in 7) are based at a 'former external institution', usually an adult education college, and funded by the Learning and Skills Council for an approved FE qualification. Most students at adult education colleges are not Council-funded.

The student statistics in this report include all at FE institutions, plus Council-funded students at former external institutions\*.

Since 2001, the funding body for all further education, adult education and sixth forms has been the Learning and Skills Council. It also deals with work-based training, workforce development and education-business links, and provides advice to adults.

### 2 The student population

*(N.B. The figures include specialist designated institutions and Council-funded students at former external institutions. These were not included in the 2002 review of HE & FE, so the figures cannot be directly compared)*

#### *Numbers, age, gender*

The government is aiming to raise educational participation after school leaving age, but between 1997/98 and 2001/02 (provisional), the percentage of 16-year-olds in government supported education and training rose only slightly, to 77.6 per cent. The slow change in post-16

*\*London also has about 16,000 FE students based at higher education institutions, but they are not included in the Tables below; the same point applies to FE students at work-based learning. The statistics for further education do not include sixth formers in schools and city technology colleges.*

educational participation contrasts with the steep rise in higher education student numbers during the same period.

There are about 700,000 further education students in London of whom 61 per cent are women. (Table 15 below. This includes some 15,000 HE students based at FE colleges, but excludes about 16,000 FE students based at HE institutions).

- London has 12 per cent of the UK population, 15 per cent of its FE students and 16 per cent of its HE students.
- London has more than a million HE and FE students, about one person in seven. This does not include adult education.

**Table 15 2001/02: Students in further education institutions; by gender**

AREA	Female		Male		All	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
London	427,476	61	269,780	39	697,256	100
England	2,752,205	59	1,926,431	41	4,678,636	100

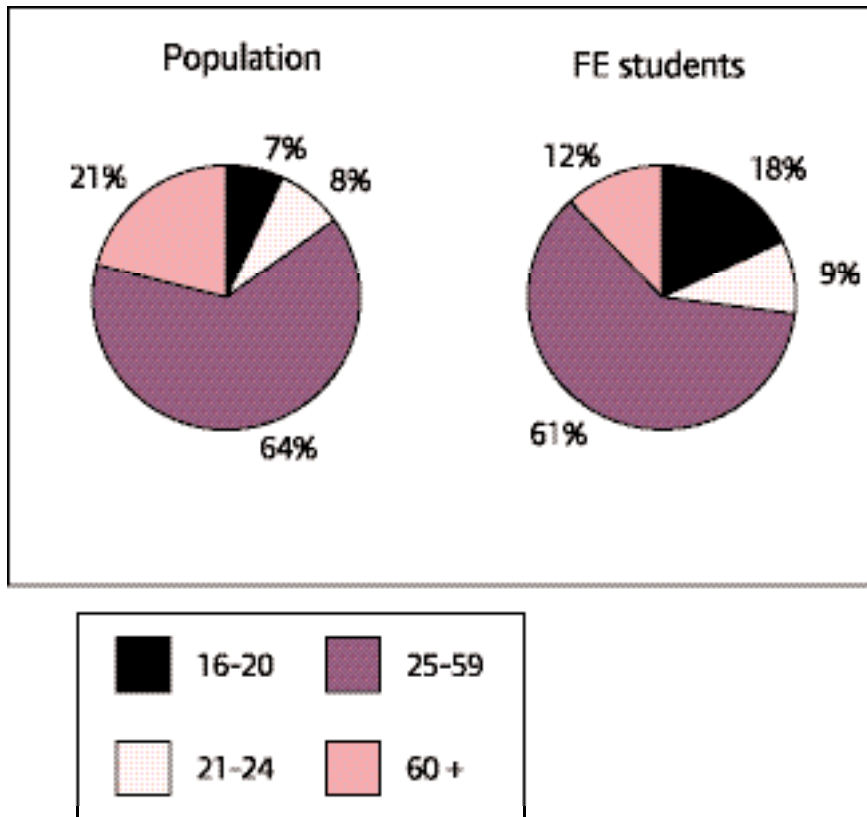
*source* LSC figures provided by London Central LSC

*note* The figures include all students in FE institutions in England (FE and tertiary colleges, sixth form colleges, specialist designated institutions and a few others); they also include LSC-funded students at former external institutions - mostly adult education colleges. 2-3 per cent of the students in this Table are on HE courses; a similar number of students, not included in the Table, are on FE courses but based in HE institutions.

The number of further education students rose by 10 per cent between 2000/01 and 2001/02, in London and England, but there was only a slight increase in the number of full-time full-year students (LSC statistics, as per Table 15). The figures are reasonably accurate but not yet complete; it takes a long time for all returns to come in and problems to be resolved. The government statistics for full-time equivalent students in England show a slight decline between 1997/98 and 2000/01, but provisional results suggest signs of growth in 2001/02 (DfES, May 2003). Between 2001/02 and 2004/05, the government plans a 3 per cent annual increase in the number of LSC-funded FTE students (DfES, May 2003).

The age distribution of FE students in London and England, shown in Figure 12 below, is much closer to that of the general population aged 16 and over, than is that of higher education students. The proportion of students in the 16-20 age-group is above that of the general population, and over 60s are under-represented (but much less so than in the HE sector). (Further details are in Appendix Table A5).

**Figure 12 Further education students in London 2001/02: Age distribution compared to that of London residents aged over 16**



*source* LSC figures provided by London Central LSC  
*notes* 1. Excludes students with age unrecorded and about 7,000 students under 16  
 2. Percentages are based on population aged 16+

Nearly three quarters of further education students are aged over 25. Most of these are in further education and tertiary colleges, which account for the bulk of the sector. Only in sixth form colleges do teenagers form a majority but even in these, a substantial proportion are over 19; these colleges are aiming to broaden their scope beyond preparation for higher education.

In London, 12 per cent of students are over 60, compared to 9 per cent in England. The proportion of FE students who are teenagers is below the national average, although London is a young city.

There is a substantial majority of women in all age-groups, except teenagers. One reason for this is that most further education students are over 25 and women are less likely to be in the labour market.

In London, 77 per cent of students are part-time, 16 per cent are full-time, and 7 per cent are full-time part-year. The proportions in England are similar. In sixth form colleges, a much higher proportion of students (around half) are full-time full-year. Women are more likely to study part-time than men; a higher proportion of men go on full-time, especially sandwich, courses.

### *Ethnic group*

*The Race Relations (Amendment) Act 2000 now places a duty on further education institutions to promote racial equality in their employment practices and the services they provide.*

Ethnic minorities are well represented in further education, above their proportion in the population:

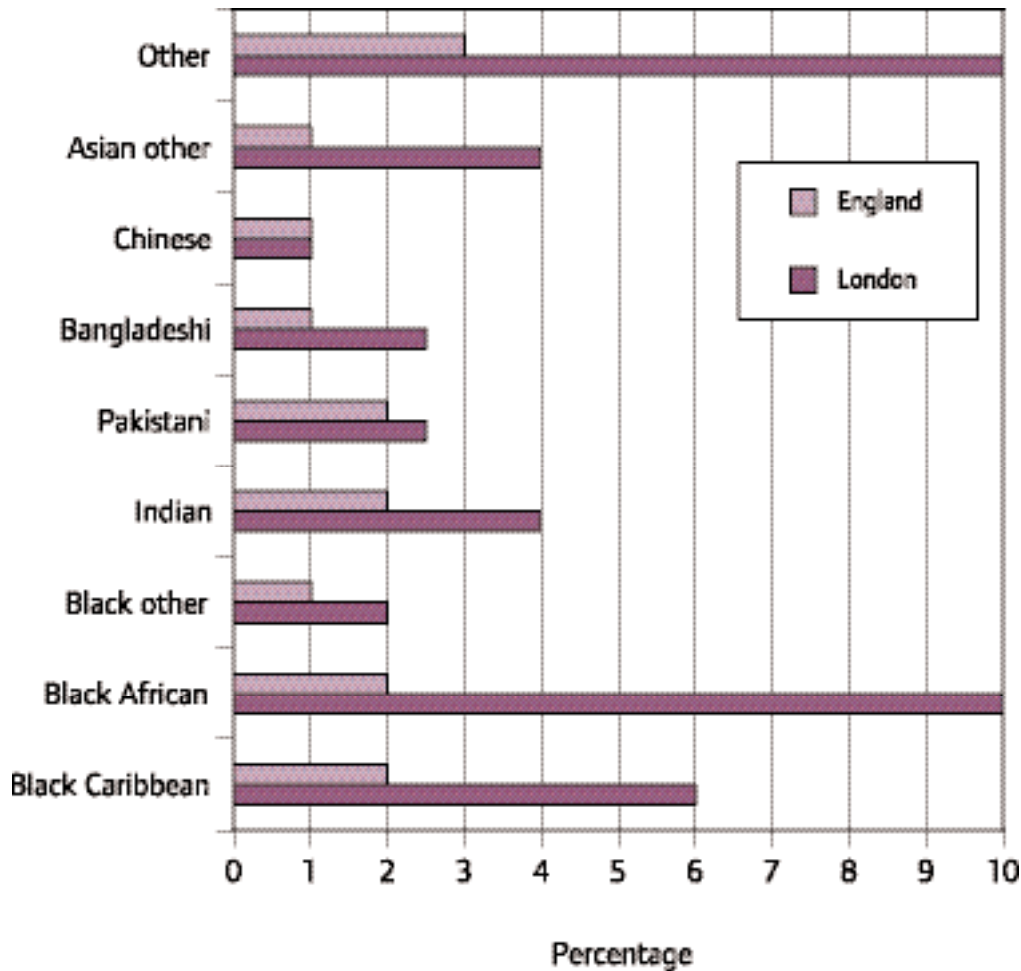
- 42 per cent of London FE students are non-white, compared to 40 per cent of HE students.
- 29 per cent of all London residents and 31 per cent of residents aged 18-29 come from non-white groups. (Census 2001)

Figure 13 compares the proportion of ethnic minority students (non-white) in London and the UK (further details are in Appendix Table A6):

- As in higher education, there is a strong representation of Africans; thus, about 5 per cent of London is Black African, compared with 10 per cent of FE students.
- 'Other' groups (which includes Mixed) are highly represented in London, more so than in HE. One reason for this might be the large numbers of recent migrants, e.g. from Afghanistan, learning basic skills
- Black Caribbeans are well represented in London, whereas in higher education, their proportion is more similar to that of the population.
- Chinese and Indian students are under-represented in London FE, but the reverse is true in HE.
- Figures for England reflect the higher percentage of white people outside the capital

Comparisons with the population of London are more valid in further than in higher education, because a higher proportion of FE students come from London (81 per cent, compared with 59 per cent of UK-domiciled students in HE; LSC and UCAS figures).

**Figure 13 Ethnic minority students (non-white) in further education, 2001/02: London and England compared**



#### White students

London 58%

England 85%

*source* LSC figures provided by London Central LSC

*note* This combines the old and the new (Census 2001) classifications.

'White' includes White other and White Irish and 'Other' includes Mixed.

An analysis of the London area (Focus Central London, 2001) shows that students from ethnic minorities are younger than average. They are also more likely than white students to be studying full-time, but their age does not entirely account for this. Another reason is the greater likelihood of white adults being in full-time employment.

National and London studies show that of all the ethnic groups, white people are the least likely to stay on in full-time education, after reaching compulsory school-leaving age. The finding has positive and negative

implications. Ethnic minorities are willing to study; on the other hand, they may have more difficulty in finding employment. (Focus Central London, 2001; Owen and Green, 2000).

### *Disability*

There seems to be a need for better monitoring of disability in further education. The Special Educational Needs and Disability Act 2001 affects both higher and further education and will be fully in force by September 2005.

In 2001, London had at least 44,789 disabled FE students. They comprised 8.2 per cent of the student population; the figure for England was 8.9 per cent. These proportions are much higher than for HE, where the age profile of students is much younger.

Unknowns are excluded from these percentages, but they make up nearly one quarter of the student population, which limits the value of the data. Some tentative comparisons can be made with the working age population. (Table 16)

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**Table 16 Proportion of disabled people in 2001 - FE students compared with residents of working age: London and national figures**

Area	Disabled students %	Residents of working age Census 2001 <sup>1</sup> %	Residents of working age Labour force survey	
			Work limiting <sup>2</sup> %	All kinds of disability <sup>3</sup> %
London	8.2	11.9	14.0	16.7
UK/England/ England & Wales	8.9 <sup>4</sup>	13.6 <sup>5</sup>	Not available	19.3 <sup>6</sup>

*sources* Census 2001; GLA analysis of Annual local area Labour Force Survey 2001/02; Labour Market Trends, Aug. 2002

1. "Do you have any long-term illness, health problem or disability which limits your daily activities or the work you can do?"

2. Work-limiting disability, which may or may not limit daily activities

3. Limiting work and/or daily activities (the latter being covered by the Disability Discrimination Act 1995)

4. England figure

5. England and Wales figure

6. UK figure

7. The disability surveys carried out by the former OPCS (Office of Population Censuses and Surveys) gave lower proportions than those found in other official statistics, but the difference decreased with age and at 75+, OPCS figures were higher. Use of OPCS as a benchmark would show a small under-representation among FE students. For OPCS and higher education, see p.9 above.

Disabled people are under-represented in further education, whichever definition of disability is used (see glossary for definitions). Work-limiting disability in the Labour Force Survey may be the most suitable benchmark for a comparison with students; at 14 per cent in London, this is nearly twice as high as the proportion of disabled FE students. Although the age distribution of students is somewhat younger than that of the working population, adjustment for this would not close the gap. It is also arguable that the student age distribution is influenced by the facilities available for disabled students; more facilities might encourage more applications from older people. FE is open to people of all ages, so a working-age benchmark might be criticised: An alternative benchmark might be the 17.9 per cent of Londoners aged 16+ with a limiting long-term illness or disability, as defined by the Census 2001.

Disabled students are also under-represented in the country as a whole. There is a higher proportion of disabled students but also of disabled residents, as compared to London. (Table 16)

Figures for different types of impairment are not available. There are FE students with learning difficulties, which differentiates this sector from higher education. However, people with learning difficulties comprise only a small percentage of all disabled people.

Figures for FE can be placed in the context of educational participation generally. The national Youth Cohort Study (which included a sample of 742 disabled people) found that in 2002

- 80 per cent of disabled 16-year-olds were in education and training, compared to 84 per cent of those not disabled.
- 13 per cent of disabled 16-year-olds were not in education, training or employment, compared to 7 per cent of their non-disabled counterparts.

(DfES 04/2003)

#### *Level of study*

According to a Focus Central London report, FE students in London study at relatively low levels. Basic skills like communication and literacy, English for speakers of other languages, word-processing, IT and numeracy are popular subjects. At age 16, girls have higher qualification aims than boys. Young Asian students are most likely to be taking A Levels (31 per cent at age 16), and young black students least likely (16 per cent); the figure for white students is 21 per cent. (Focus Central London, 2001. Figures do not include sixth formers).

Analysis of the 2001 figures shows that there is little difference between London and England, if Levels 1-3 alone are considered. However, 39 per cent of London students are aiming for a highest qualification in the 'other' category, compared with 25 per cent in England. In London East and London Central LSC areas, about half of all students come into this category; it would be interesting to have a more detailed breakdown of the courses involved.

### **3 Participation**

The seminal work for widening participation is the Kennedy Report 1997. Besides making the case, it identified elements of good practice and concluded that funding was the most important lever for change. This led the funding council to include widening participation in its methodology.

Broadly, there are two types of WP funding in the further education sector - a WP uplift for colleges, and the Learner Support Fund, which goes to students but is administered by colleges. Half the Learner Support



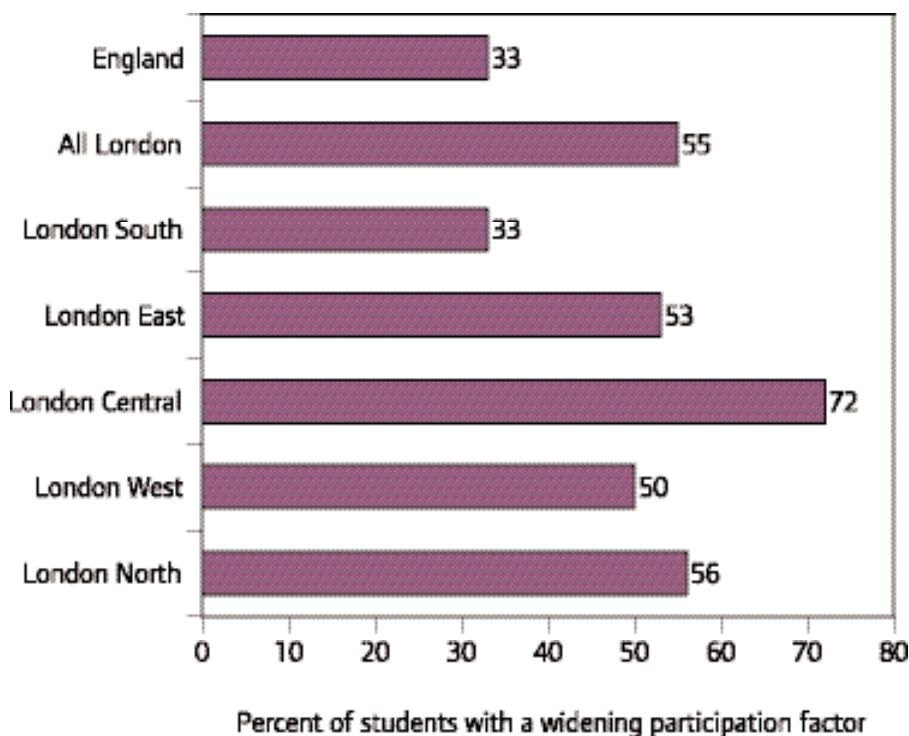
Fund is distributed on the basis of FTE student numbers and the other half on the basis of institutions' relative widening participation factors.

*a) Widening participation factor for colleges*

The government funds for widening participation are channelled to colleges through local Learning and Skills Councils. Colleges are encouraged to raise intake from deprived areas through the use of a student postcode premium, also known as 'uplift'. The scheme can only be applied to LSC-funded students, who comprise 86-87 per cent of all FE students. Critics of the scheme argue that it would be better to pay the additional costs involved in teaching these students, so that uplift is more directly related to costs.

In London, 55 per cent of students attracted a widening participation factor in 2001/02, compared to 33 per cent in England (Fig. 14). The London percentage remained unchanged from 2000/01, whereas the England figure rose slightly. Most of these students attract the postcode premium but funding is provided for other categories, like homeless people, travellers, lone parents, refugees and asylum seekers.

**Figure 14 Per cent of London FE students attracting a widening participation factor in 2001/02**



source LSC figures provided by London Central LSC

- notes
1. Areas are for local Learning and Skills Councils
  2. 12 per cent of the London students in this chart came from eligible postcode districts, but were not pursuing a funded aim.

Comparison by LSC area shows a wide range, from London South at 33 per cent of students (the England average) to London Central at 72 per cent. London Central covers a large section of inner London and contains some of the most deprived wards in the country; in 2001/02, nearly three quarters of the wards in this area attracted a widening participation uplift.

Uplift schemes do not affect the ethnic minorities directly, but indirectly through the areas in which they live. For all ethnic minorities, especially Black Africans and Bangladeshis, the proportion of students attracting the postcode premium is above average. This may have encouraged the high participation rate by ethnic minorities in London, although some groups, like Africans, are more represented than others (e.g. Bangladeshis). (Details provided by London Central LSC, based on figures for 1997-1999).

#### *b) Learner Support Fund for students*

Learner Support includes general access funds for students in need, childcare support and residential support. Those who receive support from the Fund perform better than other students in terms of course completion and, in some cases, achievement. There is less information about the effects on encouraging people into education in the first place, and a need for more research. (Kirk & Fletcher, 2002)

A recent review (still in draft) has examined the link between financial circumstances and student access in the Learning and Skills sector (of which further education is a large part). It concluded that:

- overall, little is known about how financial factors affect learners.
  - for young people (16-19) there is no secure direct evidence on the links between educational participation and income. There is evidence of correlation between socio-economic group and educational engagement, but SEG is not the same as income.
  - the direct costs of learning are said to be a barrier to about a fifth of the adult population (19+).
  - at the current levels of cost and aspiration, finance is not the critical factor for most people.
  - cost is important for some groups, like young workers, people with young families, and young single parents. Support aimed at these groups could be particularly effective, if they could be identified in a consistent way.
  - since most FE fees are less than £150, relatively modest support might be effective.
  - Educational Maintenance Allowances for 16-19 year olds have a significant though modest effect on participation.
- (draft report; Lockhart & Fletcher for LSDA, working with EPPI, 2002)

The best evidence in the review comes from the pilot Educational Maintenance Allowances, paid on income criteria to young people in full-time learning in schools and colleges (see also Student Support, pp. 73-74). Research on the first two years of the scheme suggests that the scheme has raised the participation of eligible young people in year 12 by about 5.9 per cent; this would lead to a 3.7 per cent increase for all young people in that year. Only the full award had a statistically significant effect; part-awards did not. The effect was greater for boys than girls.

The scheme is linked to conditions, such as behaviour and achievement; therefore removal of or change in conditions might lead to different results.

The review authors conclude that a scheme similar to EMAs might have a comparable effect on 19 and 20 year olds, and possibly on those up to age 25. Older adults would benefit less, because of their greater financial independence and responsibilities. Current recipients live mostly at home; for an older adult, it is generally less worthwhile to give up a job to study than for a teenager.

These points are based on a draft, and not a peer-reviewed final report (Lockhart & Fletcher for LSDA, working with EPPI, 2002).

EMAs for the 16-19 age-group will be extended nationwide in 2004.

#### 4 Finances of the further education sector

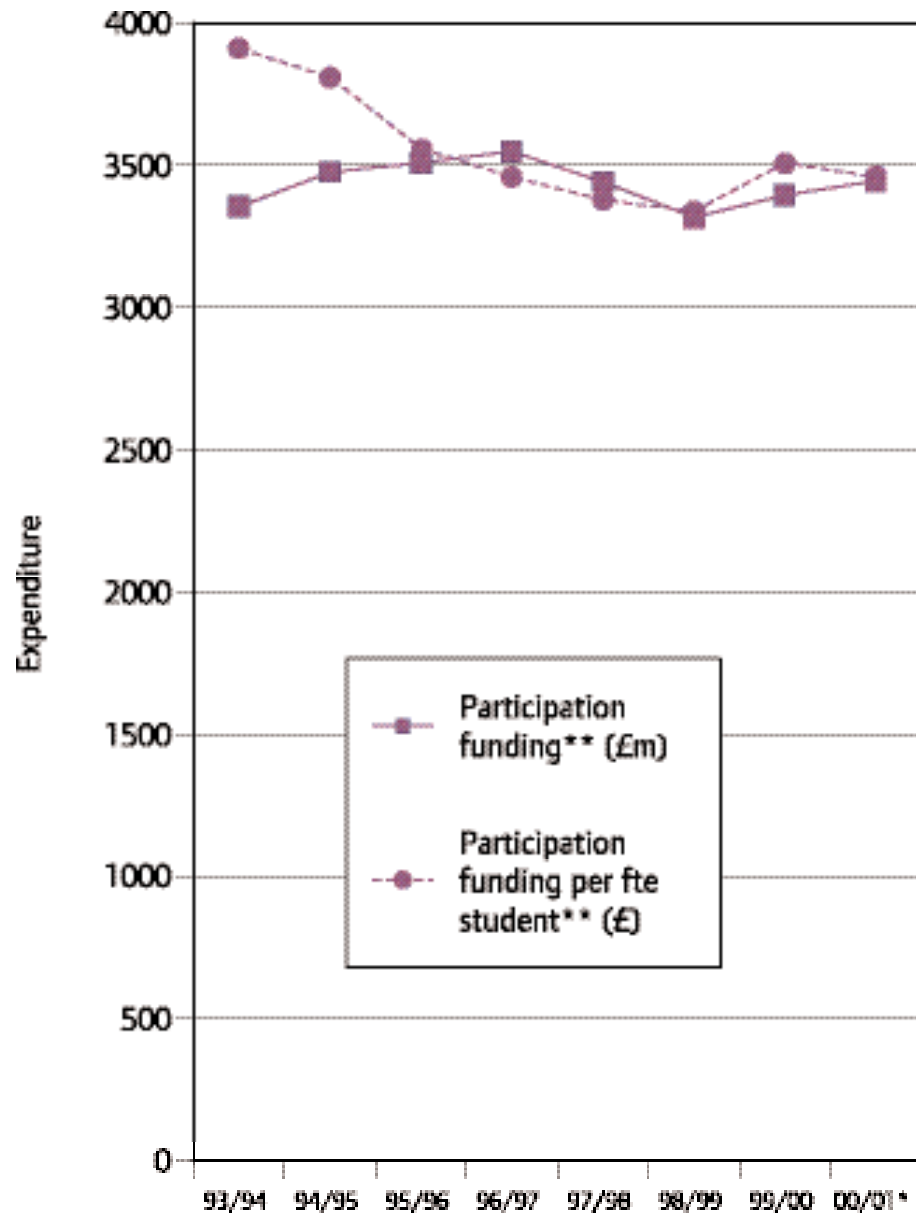
##### *Further education funding*

*(Note: This review uses figures for core participation funding, because they are reasonably comparable over time. Total funding is slightly higher (£3,611 provisional in 2000/01) but may be less comparable over time, because of changes in the basis for the figures in 1999/00.)*

Provisional results for core participation funding show a real-term rise in the last two years, but the latest available figures are much the same as they were in 1994/95 (Fig. 15. Further details are in Appendix Table A7). Core funding per FTE student fell every year from 1993/94 to 1998/99, then rose and fell again; the net result is that in 2001/02 (provisional), core funding per student was 12 per cent lower than in 1993/94. However, in higher education, the drop in unit funding has been much steeper.

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**Figure 15 Funding trends in real terms in further education: England<sup>1</sup>**



source DfES, Education and Training Expenditure since 1992/93

notes 1. Cash figures adjusted to 2001/02 levels

\* Provisional figures

\*\*Core participation funding, provided by the Further Education Council. In 1999/2000, the basis for the figures changed slightly, to include all core participation monies (an addition). There was also a subtraction, of 18,500 HNC and HND students, whose funding was transferred to HEFCE.

In November 2002, the government published 'Success for all', which proposes reforms in further education and training, together with a substantial increase in funding.

Between 2002/03 and 2005/06, there will be a real-term increase in core funding for FE of 19 per cent, over £1 billion; the government projects that this will bring about an increase in real-term funding per FTE student of 2 per cent per annum. In 2003/04, the increase will be linked to three-year plans agreed between colleges and their local Learning and Skills Councils, and consistent with strategic area reviews. Subsequent funding will be linked to performance. The DfES expects that the performance of no more than 10 per cent of colleges will be considered unsatisfactory. The targets will include student numbers, employer engagement, student success and teacher qualifications.

The aim is to facilitate longer term planning linked to area reviews, and to improve standards while allowing a degree of local independence. Part of the reform is based on the assumption that standards of teaching in FE colleges are often inadequate or not relevant to employers, an assumption that is disputed by unions and colleges. They point to under-funding, the need for employers to engage as well as colleges, and the huge variety of courses provided for diverse students. Unions also argue that deregulation of colleges since 1993 has not helped.

The Association of Colleges (AoC) points out that the overall impact of these changes will be to restore funding per student to much the same level as existed in 1993. The AoC gives guarded support to the government's proposals, but is concerned about performance-related funding, which will lead to divergent resource levels for colleges.

The union NATFHE gives a qualified welcome to the government's proposals; it supports strategic area reviews and improved employer links. However, it is concerned at the over-use of targets, some of which may conflict. For instance, a widening of participation entails taking on students with a negative experience of learning; extra support needs to be given to colleges that teach these students, so that they can maintain their retention levels.

Two further government programmes will have a significant effect on the further education sector:

- 1 The use of foundation degrees as a major plank in the expansion of higher education student numbers. The main providers, initially at least, are likely to be the further education institutions. (See participation in higher education, above - p.21.)
- 2 '14-19: Opportunity and excellence' 2003 sets out plans for a flexible, joined up approach to the education of this age-group. One example is the programme of 'Increased flexibility for 14 to 16 year olds': Most

young people in the programme will spend one or two days a week in further education colleges, studying for vocational and work-related qualifications, including vocational GCSEs. The aim is that three quarters should progress into further education or training. It is thought that some pupils who do not fit into the school environment could benefit from an alternative form of learning. So far, 271 partnerships have been formed between schools, further education colleges, training providers and other agencies.

#### *The financial state of further education institutions*

The London region of the Association of Colleges has 53 members (2003; in recent years, there have been some mergers). There are also many students on FE courses based at former 'external institutions', like adult education colleges.

There has been no overall report on the financial state of the further education sector in England or London since last year's Review of Higher and Further Education (GLA 2002), although more recent accounts for individual colleges are available at [www.lsc.gov.uk](http://www.lsc.gov.uk). The Committee of Public Accounts 2000/01 session, found that in England in 2000, the sector was in surplus, but that 17 per cent of colleges were in poor financial health (House of Commons, Committee of Public Accounts, Ninth Report 2000/01 Session, 21 March 2001).

Since 2000/01, there have been major changes, including transfer of funding to the Learning and Skills Council, and increased funding to all colleges, but also high targets; in London, this means that there is very little new money to raise the average funding per student. The Association of Colleges and NATFHE also argue that not enough of the planned financial growth will go towards closing the gap between schools and colleges. This funding gap is acknowledged by the government and thought by the AoC to be about 15 per cent per capita (PMQ 28/11/02 [feonline.net](http://feonline.net); keynote speech nov. 02 [feonline.net](http://feonline.net)).

A recent report confirms these worries in one respect - the costs of widening participation: It argues for a raising of the average level of the disadvantage premium to around 15 per cent for student progression, and for a sum equivalent to around 5 per cent of base level funding to be allocated to attracting new entrants (Critical Thinking, 2002).

In London in 2003, the colleges are generally in good financial health, and two of them have acquired trusted status. There have been problems in the management of some colleges recently but not in London. Nevertheless, college financial directors are concerned that government

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funding will not be enough to cover future cost rises and future targets.

There are also a number of more specific issues affecting London:

- Colleges in some areas are concerned that their local LSCs are increasingly tying funds to work-based skills and employer-linked courses, to the detriment of general adult and community education provision and life-long learning.
- London college pay costs in 2002 were 25 per cent higher than national averages (LSC research); this led to a decision to raise the London weighting factor: The allowance is now 12 per cent for outer London and 20 per cent for inner London. The London Association of Colleges argues that these new weightings still do not reflect costs.
- Problems have also arisen for two colleges, which were 'downgraded' into outer London as a result of a change from a three-level to a two-level weighting system. One of them, Greenwich Community College, has recently won its appeal but the College of North West London says it stands to lose £1.4 million per annum as a result of the change. However, some other institutions have benefited.
- The widening participation factor will be updated from a 1992 index of deprivation to IMD 2000 (Index of Multiple Deprivation); in 2004, further changes will be based on the 2001 Census data. A national review of Learner Support Funding has indicated that these changes are likely to benefit cities in the North but will show London as less deprived. This point has not been lost on London colleges: In West, North and South London, a significant number of colleges will receive reduced allocations in the coming two years. 272 wards in the capital have been given a lower ranking than before. Colleges believe that new measures should be applied in a way that reflects the local situation, for example, the transient nature of London's population.

Recent changes in funding methodology and the new requirements stemming from the government's reform package will further affect the financial environment, but the impact if these changes will become clearer in 2004.

(Information on London Colleges 2003: Personal communication from Regional Director, London AoC, after consultation with college financial directors)

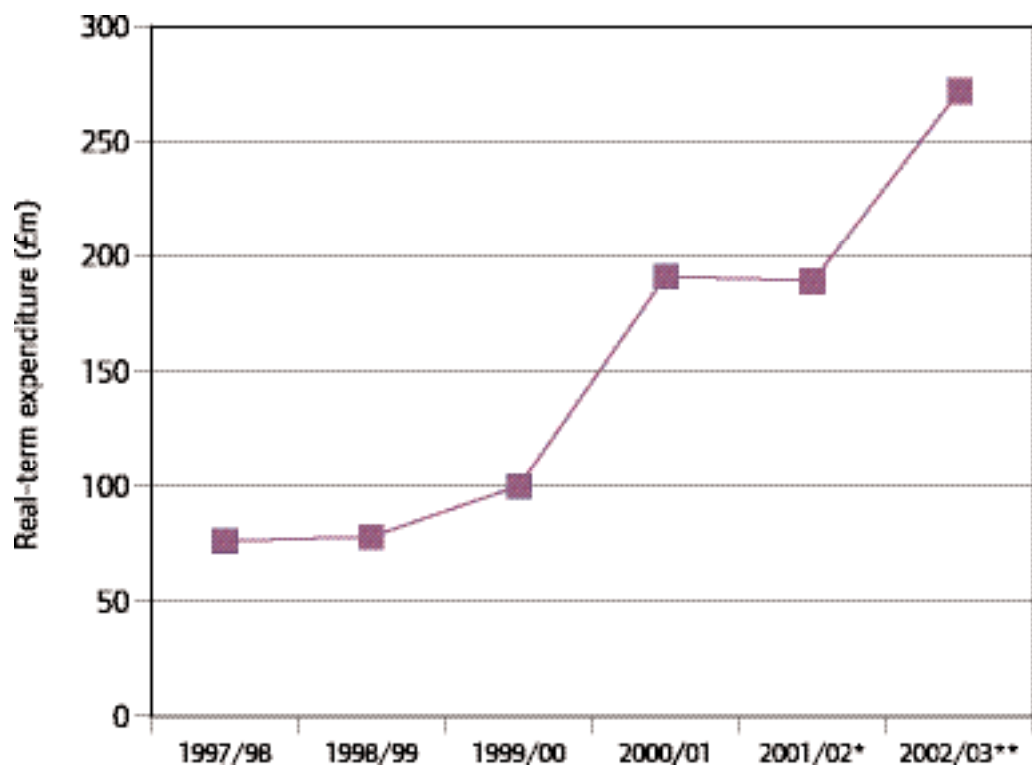
## 5 Student support and finances

### *Support*

Public expenditure on FE student support reached a low in 1997/98, since when it has increased rapidly (Fig.16. Further details are in Appendix Table A8); this contrasts with HE, but the outlay on FE student

support is modest in comparison. The figures are affected by changes in funding arrangements in 2001/02, when the Learning and Skills Council took over from the Further Education Funding Council. Support for school sixth forms is included. Nearly half the funds now consist of the pilot Education Maintenance Allowances (for sixth formers and FE students), which reached an estimated £120 million in 2002/03. There has been a rapid growth, both in EMA and in Learner Support funding.

**Figure 16 Student support in further education in England: Central and local government expenditure in real terms (£ million)**



source DfES Departmental Report, May 2003

notes

1. All figures have been converted to 2001/02 price levels
2. Includes Education Maintenance Allowances and other support for students and further education and school sixth forms.
3. The figures changed from cash-based in 1997 to resource-based from 1998 onwards. Changes in funding arrangements were made in 2001/02.

\* Provisional out-turn

\*\* Estimated out-turn

Support for further education students, known as 'Learner Support Funding', is much less widespread than in HE, and is aimed at people in need. The support has three main elements:



- 1 General Access funds delivered by colleges to students and by Local Education Authorities for school pupils aged 16 plus. Disabled students can receive funds through Additional Learner Support.
- 2 Childcare support.
- 3 Residential bursaries.

The Learning and Skills Council provides the funds, which are then administered and delivered by colleges. In 2000/01, some 273,000 people in England benefited from the Learner Support Fund. A recent review of the fund concluded that overall, the distribution and allocation mechanisms were satisfactory, but that it should be easier for colleges to distribute funds to part-time learners. (Kirk & Fletcher, 2002)

In 2000/01, an estimated 10,000 people received childcare support. Most of them were women aged 19-39, and the Review recommends that the allocation system should be altered to reflect this.

Residential bursaries are distributed to full-time full-year students who have to live away from home to obtain specialist education. The funds are administered by a small number of institutions that deliver courses in, for example, agriculture or art and design (London has one land-based college). The Review found that rents ranged between £69 and £91 but were most frequently around £82. These rents are similar to the national average for 'full-board single', in the NUS accommodation survey of higher education. On the basis of its findings, the Review recommended an increase in the maximum bursary of £250, to £3,750. (Kirk & Fletcher, 2002)

From September 2004, there will be a major change to the system of support for further education students and sixth formers. This will be the introduction throughout England of Educational Maintenance Allowances, which have already been piloted successfully across one third of the country.

Educational Maintenance Allowances (EMAs) will be paid to young people (16-19) from low-income families, who stay on in full-time education in the two years following the end of compulsory education; they may be in schools or colleges. Students in the pilot schemes were given up to £30 a week (£40 in two areas but not in London), with time-keeping and attendance conditions attached, and bonuses for completion and achievement. The England maximum was paid to those whose family income was below £13,000, and the upper limit was £30,000, for a minimum payment of £5. (The figures are for recent pilot schemes, but

will probably need to be revised for 2004. The government will assess the different trials before deciding on the best variant for 2004).

The roll-out of EMAs will reduce but not remove the need for Learner Support Funding from September 2004. LSF will still be necessary for extraordinary costs such as childcare, residential support or high travel costs in rural areas. The impact of EMAs on the demand for other financial support will need to be monitored. (Kirk & Fletcher, 2002)

### *Student finances*

Any assessment of student finances would need to take account of the wide age range of further education students. A broad distinction is sometimes made between the 16-19 group, many of whom are living at home and study full-time, and adult learners, most of whom are working and study part-time. Students in their early 20s are an intermediate group, and it has been suggested that Education Maintenance Allowances might be extended to them (draft report, Lockhart & Fletcher for LSDA, working with EPPI, 2002).

The section on participation describes a recent review of the link between financial circumstances and student access in the Learning and Skills sector (above, pp.66-67). One conclusion is that the cost factor is critical for some groups, like young workers. (Lockhart & Fletcher draft report, 2002)

An issue for the younger students is child labour. The absence of a minimum wage for persons under 18 has led to a growth in demand for young workers. The union GMB is campaigning for better protection of children in the labour market, arguing that the law is incoherent and enforcement weak.

Travel costs and time are a significant factor for London students. Further education is not just a local facility - many people travel long distances to study. Nearly one fifth of further education students at London institutions live outside the capital, at least 126,000 people (Table 17, unknowns excluded). This is more than double the number of London residents that travel to study outside the capital - still a large number at 60,000 plus.

**Table 17 Travel to study of further education students in 2001/02**

Study	Residence			All
	London	Outside	Unknown	
Studies in London	552,120	126,409	18,727	697,256
Studies out of London	60,401	3,797,055	123,924	3,981,380
Totals	612,521	3,923,464	142,651	4,678,636

source London Central LSC

An analysis of travel patterns in London Central area shows that 60 per cent of FE students at central London colleges travel from outside the borough. Basic skills courses have particularly high proportions of local residents, whereas students in sciences and humanities travel greater distances. (Central London LSC, July 2001)

The Greater London Authority's student photocard scheme gives a 30 per cent travel discount to full-time FE and HE students, and to part-time students on hardship grants or fee waiver. It has recently been extended to National Rail Services in London.

## 6. Student retention

*Note: There are alternative ways of defining retention and achievement. The definitions for this review vary in several ways from those of 2002. For example, they are based on two-year courses only. The figures, therefore, cannot be compared with those of last year's review. The notes to Table 20 give essentials of the definition, which is used for benchmarking purposes by London LSCs.*

Table 18 shows the distinction between retention and achievement rates. In the 16-18 age-group, nearly all completers also gain the full qualification.

**Table 18 Retention and achievement rates of London further education students**

	1999/00	2000/01
	%	%
<b>16-18</b>		
Retention	74	75
Achievement	70	73
<b>19+</b>		
Retention	79	82
Achievement	64	70

*source* London Central LSC, using figures from benchmarking data for London LSCs.  
*notes* 1. General FE colleges and sixth form colleges only; data for other types of FE do not appear to be complete.  
 2. Retention and achievement are measured from start to finish of a two-year course, and they relate primarily to Council-funded students (although a few unfunded students may be included in mixed cohorts). Achievement excludes partial achievements.  
 3. In London Central, figures are unavailable for one college; the situation may be similar in other LSC areas.

Table 18 shows that adults have higher retention rates but lower achievement rates than their younger counterparts. However, statistics using other definitions sometimes show higher achievement rates for adults. A proper interpretation would require a much more detailed analysis than is possible here.

Achievement rates vary between London LSC areas. London North has the highest achievement rates for adults, higher than for teenagers. London South shows the highest achievement rates for the 16-18 age-group. (Source: London Central LSC).

Earlier datasets, using a different range of definitions, show the following:

- London achievement and retention rates are above the national average for some LSC areas and below for others
- Retention rates are a few per cent below average for institutions with a high number of students from deprived areas. This does not necessarily mean that students from these areas are more likely to drop out; the figures relate to institutions not individuals.
- London retention rates are lowest in the 21-24 age group

(Source: FEFC figures in late 1990s, provided by London Central LSC)

New national benchmarking data are being made available on [www.lsc.gov.uk](http://www.lsc.gov.uk) at the time of writing.

## 7 Staff

### *Numbers and ratios*

In England in 2000/2001, there were 228,000 staff in further education institutions, of whom 134,000 were in teaching posts. (FEFC. The figures exclude specialist designated institutions and FE teachers at external institutions)

The Labour Force Survey uses a different definition of the sector, with a lower workforce total, but is consistent with other sources in showing a majority of women, and an age-profile above the national average. The proportion of disabled workers, at 14.4 per cent in spring 2001, was above the UK average of 11.5 per cent. (Maginn and Williams, 2002. The figures for disability include work-limiting &/or limiting daily activities).

A survey of England and Wales (which covered most of the sector apart from sixth form colleges) found that 61 per cent of all staff were women; they formed the majority in all categories except management. However, it was especially in part-time jobs that they outnumbered men and in full-time jobs, there was little difference. Men made up the majority of full-time teachers (54 per cent). (DfEE, ORC, 2001).

The number of academic full-time equivalent staff rose by 4 per cent between 1999/00 and 2000/01, and is now almost the same as in higher education. The teaching ratio improved during the same period and at 1:14.9, is considerably better than in higher education (see Table 19 below and Table 14, p. 49 above). In both sectors, teaching ratios are boosted by the use of casual staff and those on fixed-term contracts.

**Table 19 Further education staff numbers and student:staff ratios in England (full-time equivalent)**

	1997/98	1998/99	1999/00	2000/01
Academic staff	62.1	62.9	61.8	64.2
Student:Staff ratios	16.2	16.1	15.9	14.9

*source* DfES Departmental Report, March 2003

- notes*
1. Excludes specialist designated institutions and external institutions (e.g. adult education colleges). Includes FE and tertiary and sixth form colleges.
  2. Academic staff numbers (first row) in thousands.
  3. Second row: The number of FTE students for each FTE teacher.

### *Pay*

In 1993, national pay-scales for further education ceased and colleges became independent corporations. This led to a diversity of pay and employment policies, which affect both academic and non-academic staff.

Agreements between the unions and the employers' body, the Association of Colleges (AoC), provide guidelines only and cannot be enforced. The National Review of Staffing and Pay in the sector found that for each category of staff, only a minority of colleges used the nationally recommended scale (DfEE, ORC, 2001).

The largest teaching union in the sector, NATFHE (National Association of Teachers of Further and Higher Education), conducts surveys on the implementation of pay awards recommended by the AoC. In the July 2003 survey of the most recent award, 57 per cent of respondent colleges had paid in full (a few others were undecided). Of the London colleges which had replied, 8 out of 31 had not paid in full; of these 8, one made no award, and the others made partial &/or conditional awards.

The government is aware that further education teachers are on relatively low pay, and is funding a teachers' pay initiative, which has been extended to include non-teaching staff. In September 2002, it introduced two staff recruitment and retention schemes, 'Golden Hellos' and the Repayment of Teachers' Loans.

The package of reforms and increased expenditure set out in 'Success for all' (November 2002) does not include a major new initiative for teachers' pay, although it provides for a rise in funding per FTE student. NATFHE would like the extra spending to include a specific component for staff salaries.

### *Academic pay*

For thirty years, pay of further education lecturers has failed to keep pace with the economy or with that of comparable professions. The result is that today, levels of pay are low. The following examples apply as from August 2003:

- The lowest recommended salary (for an unqualified lecturer) is £15,276, but colleges do not have to follow this
- The maximum pay for a qualified lecturer is less than £30,000
- The maximum pay for a senior lecturer is £35,301

Since many colleges do not follow the recommended levels, it is hard to know the true distribution but the National Review found an average

(mean) salary of £22,769 for full-time teaching staff in 2000. According to NATFHE, this put FE lecturers significantly below secondary school teachers; the main problem was the slow salary progression of lecturers, as compared to teachers.

Recently, there have been some signs of progress for staff in the sector. The NATFHE National Executive is recommending the acceptance of a two-year national pay offer from the AoC, the main element of which will be a new pay structure from August 2004. The new arrangements will allow faster progression up the scale, and it is thought that they will bring parity with schoolteachers. If agreed by members and implemented by colleges, the scheme will bring increases of 6-12+ per cent across the sector over a two-year period.

In London, the National Review found that the average salary of full-time FE teachers in 2000 was £25,367, nearly 23 per cent above the national average. However, the recommended inner London allowance in 2002 was £2,412, well below the average for London workers. NATFHE and the higher education union AUT are campaigning jointly for a London weighting of £4000.

#### *Non-academic pay*

Unfortunately, the National Review (DfEE, ORC 2001) is still the main source of London and nationwide data on non-academic staff:

- Support staff in 2000 received an average (mean) of £13-14,000 (DfEE, ORC, 2001)
- In London, salaries of support staff in 2000 were around 25 per cent above the national average (£16.5-17,000).

#### *Conditions, recruitment and retention - academic and support staff*

Labour in FE has become casualised. The Further Education Funding Council noted that “such changes.....are not always in the best interests of students” (1995/6 Annual Report, quoted by NATFHE).

- In 1994/5, some 44% of FE staff worked on non-permanent contracts, compared to 9 per cent of all workers.
- The number of part-time staff has grown since incorporation. Contracts for term-time only or with no fixed hours are not uncommon. Hourly-paid lecturers deliver about one quarter of all teaching hours.
- In 2000/01, only 46 per cent of academic staff in further education were on permanent contracts (FEFC. The figure excludes specialist designated institutions and FE teachers at external institutions).

Between 1993 and 1999, the sector lost over 20,000 full-time lecturers. In 2001, the National Review found that retention was not a major problem but that recruitment posed difficulties. Staff were hard to recruit for information technology, engineering, sciences, construction and accounts; one of the main reasons for this seems to be competition with other sectors, where salaries are thought to be higher (DfEE, ORC 2001; Maginn and Williams, 2002). More recently, staff have been lost to schools and NATFHE refers to a staffing crisis. The staff vacancy rate in FE colleges is now double that of schools and rose dramatically in 2002 (AoC website).

In London, the great majority of colleges in the National Review thought that the high cost of living was a significant factor impeding recruitment. This applied to managers, teachers and support staff. (DfES, ORC, 2001). A recent survey of London colleges shows that they are having recruitment and retention problems in key teaching areas and essential business support roles. The main problems are housing costs and travel, which are putting off potential recruits from outside London and even from other areas of the capital (AoC website).

The sector lacks a well-developed career structure, although the recent AoC offer for 2004 could improve matters, if implemented (see section on pay). In 'Success for all', the government advocates clearer career structures and performance linked pay, but no return to a national pay scale. There will also be a major programme of staff development, to include an extension of qualifications among teaching staff. For example, by 2010, only new entrants to further education teaching would not be qualified.

NATFHE has welcomed the government programme of staff development and would like it to be integrated into the existing workload. It believes the programme should be applied across the sector, and include support staff.

Professionalisation of staff will help to reduce the use of agency workers. The former Further Education Council commented on the over-use of part-time and agency staff, and its effect on college ratings.

(Sources for FE staff: NATFHE; UNISON; LSC & former FEFC; DfEE; DfES; DfEE & ORC, 2001; LSC)



## 8 Economic and social contribution of further education.

(Note: Includes a discussion of the roles of both HE and FE in meeting London's skills needs)

### *Roles of FE*

Further education has a number of important roles, both social and economic.

It provides mainstream post-16 education and qualifications for people of all ages and backgrounds. It prepares people for higher education and the labour market and helps to develop the workforce. More generally, it enables people to develop their interests and contacts.

Further education is also a vehicle for 'social inclusion'. It can help people at a disadvantage into the labour market or into HE, young people to catch up with what they missed at school, or adults in later life to re-skill.

Four fifths of London students reside in the capital, and the sector provides them with a range of skills from basic to A level. FE institutions will also contribute to the expansion of higher education through foundation degrees.

Although the annual turnover of London's FE sector, about £500 million, is about one fifth of that in the HE sector (Universities UK, The Regional Mission...London, 2001), it has a potentially pivotal role in London's economic development. This will be argued in the next section.

### *Meeting London's skills needs: The roles of HE and FE*

In its Economic Development Strategy, the London Development Agency identified three key skills challenges for London (LDA 2001):

- 1 Ensuring basic skills for all
- 2 Developing information and communication technology (ICT) skills.
- 3 Responding to skills deficiencies.

Each of these will be considered in turn:

- 1 **Basic skills.** An important role of further education, especially in London, is the teaching of basic skills, such as literacy and numeracy. In 2001, 3 per cent of London employers reported a shortage in this area (London Skills Forecasting Unit 2003), but this does not indicate its full significance. Many without these skills will be unemployed, and others, though working, will be unable to participate fully in society.

These skills are relevant for deprived areas and potentially excluded groups, like refugees.

- 2 **ICT skills.** Both HE and FE teach ICT skills, but the LDA is especially concerned with computer literacy. Even in London, a significant proportion of the population, including young people, still has no computer skills.
- 3 **Skills shortages.** The London Employers' Survey provides background information on London's needs:

In 2001, 8 per cent of London employers reported hard-to-fill vacancies, and half of these were due to skills shortages. The other factors could include expenses, low salaries and turnover. Hard-to fill vacancies form a higher percentage of total employment among small than among large companies. (London Skills Forecasting Unit, 2003)

Six per cent of employers in 2001 reported internal skills gaps (where employees lacked the required skills); this affected 9 per cent of all jobs in London. Only 2-3 per cent of employers reported shortcomings in basic skills (reading, writing, speaking English or numeracy) among their staff. Relatively few reported that their staff lacked generic skills: An IT gap was mentioned by 6 per cent, customer service by 3 per cent and working with others by 2 per cent. However, internal skills shortages appear to be those that are central to the job's requirements; for instance, a lack of customer service skills was reported among sales and customer service occupations, above all else. (London Skills Forecasting Unit, 2003)

Skills gaps and shortages vary with the sector and occupation. Generic shortages are greatest in secretarial, administrative, sales and customer service, associate professional and technical jobs. Internal gaps are also common in hotels and catering; however, factors like low wages can contribute to a shortage of skilled staff. (London Skills Commission, 2002; London Skills Forecasting Unit, 2003)

Although the total percentages appear small, shortages can be severe in some sectors and this in turn can cause bottlenecks for the economy. It is important to identify the main areas of need for the purpose of economic and educational planning. The gap between London's skills and its business needs is widely acknowledged, but there is room for argument about which skills are most needed. Although London has a knowledge-based service economy and a need for high-level skills, there also appears to be a shortage of mid-level skills, which further education could help to supply:

In London, the proportion of professional and managerial jobs is well above the national average. The London Analytical Report shows that the

demand for high-skilled jobs has risen from 41 per cent of employment in 1992 to 50 per cent in 2003; conversely, demand for mid and low skills has declined; this trend is forecast to continue. (Cabinet Office Strategy Unit, 2003).

London cannot meet its needs for higher skilled workers, many of whom commute from outside the capital. Employers in London find it harder to fill high-skilled jobs in London than elsewhere, but easier to fill low-skilled posts. Although London has the most qualified workforce in the country, there is a significant population with no, or very low levels of qualification. (Cabinet Office 2003; London Skills Commission, 2002).

Clearly, London's higher education sector will play a crucial role in providing local high-level skills which are in short supply.

The situation with mid-skilled jobs, like laboratory technicians and public relations officers, is interesting but less clear. According to the Cabinet Office Strategy Unit (2003), the number of these jobs will continue to decline. Graduates are increasingly filling these posts, closing them off to those less qualified. The report argues that national targets focused on Levels 2 (GCSE) and 3 (A Level) are becoming inappropriate for London's high-level demands. This argument fits well with the government's plans to expand higher education, but it does not tell the whole story: There can be severe shortage in a sector of declining demand, if the supply is lower still. A study by the London South Learning and Skills Council, using different categories and methods, shows that London has a weak base of vocational qualifications - at NVQ level 2 and 3; this is not unrelated to its shortage of key workers, many of whom are in mid-level occupations, like police and firemen. The issue is not just one of expense for key migrants coming to live in the capital; it is the lack of local supply, in these and other mid-level occupations. For example, at knowledge level 3 (the industrial sector which comes third out of four, in terms of proportion of graduates), London's proportion of jobs is well above the national average, and there is a particularly high level of sales occupations; this is also a type of occupation where employers identify skills shortages (LSC London South, 2003). These figures compare London with the national average, but do not directly relate supply to demand. However, they point to a useful line of investigation.

It is therefore arguable that there is a major need for more mid-level skills in London. This would imply a critical role for further education. Although the government is focused on the expansion of higher education, there is a case for shifting the balance of emphasis. There is a need for more detailed research in this area.

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London's Framework for Regional Employment and Skills Action (FRESA) was published in 2002. It acknowledges the crucial role of further and higher education in London's development. (London Skills Commission, 2002)

*FE Links with the wider society.*

In 'Success for all' 2002, which set out its plans for the Learning and Skills sector, the government laid out the need for more engagement with employers. A cornerstone in the development of relevant skills will be the Centres of Vocational Excellence (COVEs). The union NATFHE believes that COVEs can play a vital role in relation to level 3 skills and above, but it is concerned about the 50 per cent of FE colleges which do not receive COVE status. NATFHE and the London AoC are also concerned that the emphasis on relevant skills and workforce training may lead to a decline in more general types of provision, like adult and community education.

In workforce training, the further education sector competes with other providers. The London Employers' Survey 2002 found that the biggest external providers of workforce training are private trainers, used by 35 per cent of employers; 16 per cent use FE colleges, 6 per cent HE institutions and 3 per cent the voluntary sector. FE usage is similar across the LSC areas, at 15-16 per cent, except in London North, where it is 21 per cent. Larger employers are more likely to use an FE college. Public services make relatively high use of FE colleges, especially education, health and social work; colleges are also used for utilities, agriculture and construction (e.g. plumbing and carpentry). FE use is low in wholesale and retail, hotels and restaurants. The most common reason for not using an FE college is that there are no relevant courses; this is followed by 'prefer training to be on the job'. The subjects most frequently taught by FE colleges are Health and Social Work (especially Health & Safety and First Aid), Business administration and Computing.

The further education sector teaches by far the widest range of sub-HE courses, and can link with the community in a variety of ways. Some examples for London have been provided by the London Association of Colleges:

- The Employability project funds initiatives which are designed to get local people into employment. As a result of 2001/02 funding for 12 training organisations, six jobs have been created in local organisations, and 150 residents have found employment, two thirds of them from black and ethnic minorities.
- Bromley is not a poor borough but it has some pockets of severe deprivation. Bromley College's Hawthorn Centre is located near these

areas, and offers vocational training to local unemployed people and others, without them having to travel to the main college. It also acts as a community centre. Courses include Childcare, Business Skills and IT (various levels). Local support for the centre has been strong, and the college plans to continue its operation after Single Regeneration Budget (SRB) funding ceases.

- Newham Sixth Form College provides low cost or free advice, support and access to resources for small and medium sized enterprises and freelance workers in the creative industries. The college has links with the local university and Cultural Quarter and has set up work placements in the arts industry and media services.
- Delta Plus Project works with companies whose staff are facing the threat of redundancy and need to be re-trained. As part of the project, Enfield College, Southgate College and the College of North East London deliver tailored training to enhance the workers' employability. The package includes CV writing, jobsearch skills, continuing guidance etc.

## 9 Further education: Conclusions

In further education in the last decade, there has been a slight fall in the number of FTE students, and a significant drop in funding per student, but the staff:student ratio is good and has improved recently. In comparison, higher education saw a huge increase in student numbers and a much steeper decline in funding per student, with a low and declining ratio of staff to students. In both sectors, teaching ratios are boosted by the use of casual or fixed-term staff.

The government has responded with plans for significant real-term growth in both sectors, including increases in funding per FTE student. Support for FE students will continue to grow, with a nationwide extension of Educational Maintenance Allowances in 2004. A draft review suggests that a similar scheme might usefully be extended to students in their early twenties. The Learner Support Fund has aided student retention and achievement. Modest extra support might increase participation from certain groups, like young workers. The lesson seems to be that well-researched, carefully applied support can bring results.

The salient issue in further education, this year as last, is the pay and conditions of staff. Recently, the retention crisis has grown, as many staff have left for schools, and it is difficult to attract staff to London. If a new pay structure is agreed and implemented next year, as seems likely, this could bring about an improvement in staff pay and conditions. However, improvements depend on the cooperation of individual colleges.

NATFHE and the former FEFC have argued that the casualisation of staff has affected the quality of provision. The government plans for extending qualifications across the sector should improve quality, if applied in the right way.

A theme to emerge from this review is the building of links between further education, schools, higher education and employers. FE has a central role, in increasing educational participation and providing skills. Recent research suggests that it could play an important part in filling a London shortage of mid-level skills, and skills on the border between FE and HE. Further analysis is needed in this area.

At the same time, the AoC and NATFHE are concerned that the government and Learning Skills Council may emphasise work-based learning and employer-linked courses to the detriment of more general provision. Further education provides courses for people of all ages and backgrounds, within the local community and outside. Its contribution is social as well as economic, and a skills approach must be set within this broader context.

There are dangers that performance-linked funding will lead to a two-tier system in further education, and that general FE will become a Cinderella within the Learning and Skills sector. The 'Success for all' package promises growth linked to reform but the nature of this reform requires scrutiny. Its success will depend on recognition of the demanding nature of FE teaching and the diverse roles played by the sector.

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## appendix

### Background Tables referred to in text

**Table A1 Ethnic group of higher education students in London and the UK, 2001/02 (UK-domicile only)**

Ethnic group	UK students	London students	London residents aged 18-29
	%	%	%
White	86.2	59.8	69.4
Black Caribbean	1.2	4.3	3.6
Black African	2.2	9.5	5.3
Black other	0.5	1.5	0.8
Indian	3.4	8.4	6.7
Pakistani	1.8	3.4	2.5
Bangladeshi	0.5	1.9	2.9
Chinese	0.9	2.2	1.7
Asian other	1.2	3.6	2.1
Other & mixed	1.9	5.3	5.1
Grand Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

*sources* HESA; 2001 Census.

- notes*
1. Population figures for ethnic groups in the UK are not available, (though figures are available for England and Wales)
  2. Some percentages do not sum to 100, because of rounding errors

**Table A2 UK applicants and acceptances, by ethnic group**

Ethnic group	Applicants		Acceptances	
	2001	2002	2001	2002
White	302,636 83%	304,366 83%	249,422 83%	252,663 83%
Black	14,441 4%	14,728 4%	10,273 3%	10,699 4%
Asian	39,785 11%	37,883 10%	32,074 11%	31,140 10%
Mixed	6,841 2%	7,523 2%	5,506 2%	6,155 2%
Other	2,888 1%	2,636 1%	2,209 1%	2,060 1%
Total	366,591 100%	367,136 100%	299,484 100%	302,717 100%

source UCAS

- notes
1. UK-domiciled applicants only.
  2. Persons of unknown ethnic group are excluded from the table; if they were included, they would make up 8-9 per cent of the totals.
  3. Some percentages do not sum to 100 because of rounding errors

**Table A3 Funding trends in real terms in higher education: England**

	92/93	93/94	94/95	95/96	96/97	97/98	98/99	99/00	00/01
HE funding*									<b>provisional</b>
(£m)	4,967	5,231	5,485	5,493	5,221	5,130	5,149	5,229	5,289
Funding per									
FTE student									
(£)	6,320	5,970	5,810	5,550	5,190	5,030	5,030	5,020	4,970

source DfES, Education and Training Expenditure since 1992/93

note \*Cash figures adjusted to 2001/02 levels



**Table A4 Student support in higher education in England: Central and local government expenditure in real\* terms (£ million)**

	1997/8	1998/9	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03
	out-turn	out-turn	out-turn	out-turn	provisional out-turn	estimated out-turn
Student support, Higher Education**	1,415	1,424	1,213	1,141	949	1,034

*source* DfES Departmental Report, May 2003

*notes* \*All figures have been converted to 2001/02 price levels

\*\*Figures reflect the move from the old grants-based to the new loan-based student support system in 1998; no account is taken of repayment of loans. The figures also changed from cash-based in 1997 to resource-based from 1998 onwards

**Table A5 Further education students in London 2001/02: Age distribution compared to that of London residents aged over 16**

Age	Population %	FE students %	FE students No.
16-20	7	18	123,868
21-24	8	9	59,935
25-59	64	61	415,438
60 +	21	12	78,500
Total	100	100	677,741

*source* LSC figures provided by London Central LSC

*notes* 1. Excludes students with age unrecorded and about 7,000 students under 16  
2. Percentages are based on population aged 16+

**Table A6 Further education students by ethnic group, 2001/02**

<b>Ethnic group</b>	<b>London %</b>	<b>England %</b>
White	58	85
Black Caribbean	6	2
Black African	10	2
Black Other	2	1
Indian	4	2
Pakistani	2.5	2
Bangladeshi	2.5	1
Chinese	1	1
Other Asian	4	1
Other	10	3
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

*source* LSC figures provided by London Central LSC

*notes* This combines the old and the new (Census 2001) classifications.  
'White' includes White other and White Irish and 'Other' includes Mixed.

**Table A7 Funding trends in real terms in further education: England\***

	<b>93/94</b>	<b>94/95</b>	<b>95/96</b>	<b>96/97</b>	<b>97/98</b>	<b>98/99</b>	<b>99/00</b>	<b>00/01 provisional</b>
Participation								
funding** (£m)	3,356	3,478	3,510	3,550	3,444	3,320	3,398	3,447
Participation								
funding per fte								
student** (£)	3,910	3,810	3,560	3,460	3,380	3,340	3,510	3,460

*source* DfES, Education and Training Expenditure since 1992/93

*notes* \*Cash figures adjusted to 2001/02 levels

\*\*Core participation funding, provided by the Further Education Council. In 1999/2000, the basis for the figures changed slightly, to include all core participation monies (an addition). There was also a subtraction, of 18,500 HNC and HND students, whose funding was transferred to HEFCE.

**Table A8 Student support in further education in England: Central and local government expenditure in real\* terms (£ million)**

	1997/8	1998/9	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03
	out-turn	out-turn	out-turn	out-turn	provisional out-turn	estimated out-turn
Student support, further education**	76	78	100	191	189	272

*source* DfES Departmental Report, May 2003

*notes* \*All figures have been converted to 2001/02 price levels

\*\*Includes Education Maintenance Allowances and other support for students and further education and school sixth forms. The figures also changed from cash-based in 1997 to resource-based from 1998 onwards.

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**Useful websites (see list of abbreviations if necessary):**

[www.aut.org.uk](http://www.aut.org.uk)

[www.dfes.gov.uk](http://www.dfes.gov.uk)

General source for education publication and statistics

[www.feonline.net](http://www.feonline.net)

Website of Association of Colleges

[www.hefce.ac.uk](http://www.hefce.ac.uk)

Higher education funding

[www.hesa.ac.uk](http://www.hesa.ac.uk)

Major source for higher education publications and statistics

[www.lsc.gov.uk](http://www.lsc.gov.uk)

Further education news and statistics

[www.natfhe.org.uk](http://www.natfhe.org.uk)

[www.oecd.org](http://www.oecd.org)

[www.open.ac.uk](http://www.open.ac.uk)

[www.parliament.uk](http://www.parliament.uk)

[www.statistics.gov.uk](http://www.statistics.gov.uk)

For Census and other official statistics

[www.ucas.com](http://www.ucas.com)

Major source of statistics on admissions

[www.ucea.ac.uk](http://www.ucea.ac.uk)

[www.universitiesuk.ac.uk](http://www.universitiesuk.ac.uk)

## list of abbreviations

API	Age participation index
AUT	Association of University Teachers
DDA	Disability Discrimination Act
DfEE	(Former) Department for Education and Employment (education was absorbed into the new DfES in 2001)
DfES	Department for Education and Skills (replaced DfEE for education in 2001)
DSA	Disabled Students' Allowance
EMA	Educational Maintenance Allowance
FE	Further Education
FEFC	Further Education Funding Council (now replaced by the Learning and Skills Council)
FRESA	Framework for Regional Employment and Skills Action
FTE	Full-time Equivalent
GLA	Greater London Authority
GMB	The letters are now the official name of the union (formerly stood for General, Municipal and Boilermakers' Union)
HE	Higher education
HEFCE	Higher Education Funding Council for England
HESA	Higher Education Statistics Agency
HNC	Higher National Certificate
HND	Higher National Diploma
ILD	Index of Local Deprivation
IMD	Index of Multiple Deprivation
JNCHES	Joint Negotiating Committee for Higher Education Staff
LDA	London Development Agency
LFS	Labour Force Survey
LHEC	London Higher Education Consortium
LSC	Learning and Skills Council
LSDA	Learning and Skills Development Agency
LSF	Learner Support Fund
NATFHE	National Association of Teachers of Further and Higher Education
NUS	National Union of Students
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OPCS	(Former) Office of Population Censuses and Surveys
OU	Open University
TUC	Trades Union Congress
UCAS	Universities and Colleges Admissions Service
UCEA	Universities and Colleges Employers' Association
UK	United Kingdom
WP	Widening participation

## glossary

**Age participation index (API)** - The API measures the proportion of young people who go on to participate in full-time higher education (HE) before they reach the age of 21. The API for Great Britain (GB) as a whole is defined as the number of GB domiciled initial entrants to full-time and sandwich undergraduate HE who are aged under 21, expressed as a percentage of the average number of 18 and 19 year olds in the population. (Definition of Higher Education Statistics Agency)

**Disability** (see also 'Impairment', in glossary) -

1. Higher education students: Disability is self-assessed. Students are asked about disability, but not obliged to report it. The types of impairment reported are also based on self-assessment, although the categories are provided by HESA and UCAS.
2. Further education students: Disability is self-assessed, and can include learning difficulties. Students are asked about disability, but not obliged to report it.
3. Census 2001: *'Do you have any long-term illness, health problem or disability which limits your daily activities or the work you can do? Include problems which are due to old age'*. In theory, this is self-assessed, though in practice, one person can reply on behalf of others in the household.
4. Disability Discrimination Act (DDA) 1995: *'Anyone with a physical or mental impairment which has a substantial and long term adverse effect upon his or her ability to carry out normal day-to-day activities'*.
5. The Labour Force Survey covers disability limiting work &/or daily activities (the latter being covered by the DDA 1995). The present report uses two categories of disability, derived from the LFS:
  - 'Work-limiting disability' (which may or may not limit daily activities).
  - 'All kinds of disability', i.e. limiting work &/or daily activities.

{The LFS also has categories for work-limiting only, and for limiting daily activities only. These are not used in the present report}.

The LFS asks 'Do you have any health problems or disabilities that you expect will last for more than a year?' If they answer 'yes' to this question, they are also asked to say what kind(s) of health problem or disability (ies) they have, based on a list read to them by the interviewer. If they then answer 'yes' to the following question: 'Does this (do these) health problem(s) or disability (ies) (when taken singly or together)

substantially limit your ability to carry out normal day-to-day activities?’ OR they said that they had the following health problems: ‘progressive illnesses not included elsewhere (eg cancer, multiple sclerosis, symptomatic HIV, Parkinson’s disease, muscular dystrophy)’ then they are defined as having a ‘current disability’ covered by the DDA .

People whose health problem(s) or disability(ies) are expected to last more than a year are also asked the following questions: ‘Does this health problem affect the KIND of work that you might do.....or the AMOUNT of paid work that you might do?’ If the respondent fulfils either of these criteria they are defined as having a ‘work-limiting disability’.

The LFS definitions are largely based on self-assessment. However, some progressive illnesses are automatically counted as ‘limiting normal day-to-day activities’.

6. Greater London Authority {Disabled people} ‘Those who are prevented by barriers put up by society from taking part in aspects of everyday life on equal terms with non-disabled people’.

*Note: The GLA definition is based on the social model of disability and locates the problem in society, rather than in the impairment itself. (The medical model is based on impairments).*

**Ethnic minority** - For the purposes of this report, any ethnic group other than ‘white’.

**Higher Education** (definition of Higher Education Statistics Agency) - Higher education involves study at a standard above A Level, the Higher Grade of the Scottish Certificate of Education (SCE Highers), or the BTEC or SCOTVEC National Certificate/Diploma (ONC/OND).

**Impairment** - A physical, mental or sensory functional limitation within the individual.

**Social class** - Social class is commonly defined in terms of occupation. Until recently, government statistics used a five-fold hierarchical classification, based on occupational skill:

- I Professional occupations, e.g. accountants, doctors, engineers
- II Managerial and technical occupations, e.g. marketing and sales managers, teachers
- IIIN Skilled occupations - non-manual, e.g. clerks, cashiers
- IIIM Skilled occupations - manual, e.g. carpenters, joiners, manual foremen

- IV Partly skilled occupations, e.g. security guards, warehousemen
- V Unskilled occupations, e.g. labourers, cleaners

Each occupation was allocated to one of these groups.

In 2001, the government replaced Social Classes with the new National Statistics Socio-economic Classification (NS-SEC). This takes account of social changes, and is based not on skill levels but on employment relations and conditions. The new NS-SEC classification is shown below:

- 1 Higher managerial and professional occupations
- 2 Lower managerial and professional occupations
- 3 Intermediate occupations
- 4 Small employers and own account workers
- 5 Lower supervisory and technical occupations
- 6 Semi-routine occupations
- 7 Routine occupations
- 8 Never worked and long-term unemployed.

“Intermediate” includes, for example, mid-level administrative, sales and technical occupations.

Again, each occupation is allocated to one of these groups. There is broad continuity with the old classifications, which will facilitate comparison with the past.

To aid readability, ‘class’ or ‘working class’ are sometimes used in the current report for the new classifications, as well as the old.



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### Chinese

中文

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### Vietnamese

Tiếng Việt

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

### Greek

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

### Turkish

Bu broşürü Türkçe olarak edinmek  
için lütfen aşağıdaki numaraya  
telefon edin ya da adrese başvurun.

### Punjabi

ਜੇ ਤੁਹਾਨੂੰ ਇਸ ਦਸਤਾਵੇਜ਼ ਦੀ ਕਾਪੀ ਜ਼ਰੂਰੀ ਅਧਾਰੀ ਭਾਸ਼ਾ  
ਜਿਵੇਂ ਬੰਗਾਲੀ ਹੈ, ਤਾਂ ਹੇਠ ਲਿਖੇ ਨੰਬਰ 'ਤੇ ਫੋਨ ਕਰੋ ਜਾਂ ਹੇਠ  
ਲਿਖੇ ਪਤੇ 'ਤੇ ਸੰਪਰਕ ਕਰੋ:

### Hindi

यदि आप इस दस्तावेज़ की प्रति अपनी भाषा में चाहते हैं,  
तो कृपया निम्नलिखित नम्बर पर फोन करें अथवा लिखे  
पते पर संपर्क करें।

### Bengali

আমনি যদি আপনার ভাষায় এই মালিয়ার প্রতিচ্ছবি  
(কপি) চান, তা হলে নীচের ফোন নম্বরে  
বা ঠিকানার অনুগ্রহ করে যোগাযোগ করুন।

### Urdu

اگر آپ اس دستاویز کی نقل اپنی زبان میں چاہتے  
ہیں، تو براہ کرم تجزیے دہانے والے نمبر پر فون کریں  
یا ذیل پتے پر بطور ایلیم قائم کریں۔

### Arabic

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### Gujarati

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

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