Scottish Government
Equality Outcomes:
Ethnicity
Evidence Review
SCOTTISH GOVERNMENT EQUALITY OUTCOMES: ETHNICITY EVIDENCE REVIEW

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The views expressed in this report are those of the researcher and do not necessarily represent those of the Scottish Government or Scottish Ministers.
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1 INTRODUCTION

Purpose of this document

1.1 This paper is one of a series written to inform the development of equality outcomes for the Scottish Government. Guidance from the Equality and Human Rights Commission (EHRC) states that a range of relevant evidence relating to equality groups and communities should be used to help set equality outcomes that are likely to make the biggest difference in tackling inequalities.

1.2 The EHRC suggests the following criteria for selecting equality outcomes:

- Scale – how many people are affected by the issue and how does the issue impact on their life chances?
- Severity – does the issue present a risk to equality of opportunity for particular protected groups? Is it a significant barrier to opportunity or freedom?
- Concern – do equality groups and communities see it as a significant issue?
- Impact – is the problem persistent or getting worse? What is the potential for improving life chances? Is the problem sensitive to public intervention?
- Remit – are you able to address the issue given your remit?

1.3 This series of papers provides evidence for some of the questions listed above – in particular, on the scale and severity of issues facing equality groups. It is intended that this evidence will feed into a process of engagement with equality groups and communities, to help develop the most relevant equality outcomes.

1.4 These papers seek to identify, very briefly, key facts and evidence gaps for the equalities groups in policy areas including: education, employment, poverty, housing, transport, hate crime, justice, public appointments, health, social care, sport, and culture.

Key facts

1.5 The Context chapter offers an explanation of the terms used to describe ethnic groups, and the varying level of detail available in the evidence sources for individual groups and composite groups.

1.6 Education: a greater proportion of Scotland’s school pupils come from ethnic minorities than the share of minorities in the population as a whole would suggest, and this is partly explained by the younger age profile of the ethnic minority population. The proportion of ethnic minority students in Further Education is higher than their share of the population as a whole, and degrees are held by a greater proportion of the ethnic minority population than of the white population. However, ethnic minority students tend to graduate with lower-class degrees than white students.

1.7 Employment: despite the variation between ethnic groups, employment rates are generally lower for ethnic minorities than for all white groups, and self-
employment rates are higher. Negative pay gaps exist for most minority groups.

1.8 Poverty: people from ethnic minority groups are about twice as likely to be in relative poverty than white British and other white people, and nearly three times more likely to be in in-work poverty. Ethnic minority workers in low-paid employment are expected to benefit from the introduction of Universal Credit, but large families are likely to lose out from the Benefits Cap.

1.9 Housing: ethnic minorities are under-represented in the social rented sector, and are over-represented among the homeless, although rates vary between ethnic groups.

1.10 Transport: personal safety and the provision of information in a range of languages are common concerns.

1.11 Hate crime: the number of reported racist incidents has increased over time. Racial prejudice tends to be accompanied by intolerance of immigration, and a lack of personal contact with people from different racial or ethnic backgrounds.

1.12 Justice: ethnic minorities are over-represented in Scotland’s prison population, and in the legal profession they are less likely to become equity partners than their white colleagues.

1.13 Public appointments: ethnic minority candidates have been successful in securing appointments.

1.14 Health: there is wide variation between ethnic groups in health behaviours (including smoking, drinking alcohol, and consuming fruit and vegetables) and health outcomes (such as mental health, obesity and heart disease).

1.15 Social Care: data broken down by ethnicity are limited, but indicate limited access to formal social care by members of ethnic minorities.

1.16 Sport: overall participation rates for ethnic minority people are below the national average, and are even lower for ethnic minority women.

1.17 Culture: participation in culture is broadly lower for Asians than for those identifying as white Scottish.

Gaps in the data

1.18 There is no analysis of the educational achievement of school pupils that takes account of the length of time each pupil has been resident in the UK, or the pupil’s fluency in English. Data for ethnic minority employment, pay gaps, poverty and housing are limited – in terms both of data available, and in terms of reliability due to small sample sizes.

1.19 There is a lack of quantitative data on Gypsies/Travellers, which has been interpreted by many local authorities as an absence of demand for pitches.
1.20 Data for racially-aggravated crime are thought to be inconsistent.
2 CONTEXT

Legal definition in the Equality Act (2010)

2.1 The EHRC’s guidance for the Equality Act 2010 gives the following definition of the protected group for race: “Race… refers to a group of people defined by their race, colour, and nationality (including citizenship), ethnic or national origins”. The terms “race” and “ethnicity” are both used in this definition and in the evidence that has been reviewed, and will be considered to be interchangeable for the purposes of this paper.

2.2 In this paper we have used the terminology that was used in the evidence under review. We have defined terms, where definitions were provided by the authors of the evidence. Where the evidence gives detailed ethnic subgroups (e.g. white Scottish, white British, white Irish, white other), these are repeated in the text. Where the evidence makes no such distinction, the broader descriptors used (e.g. white people) are also repeated here.

2.3 Regarding the availability of data, we have provided as much detail as is available on individual ethnic groups. We have also included specific evidence relating to Gypsies/Travellers, asylum seekers and refugees in Scotland where it is available, to ensure that their specific outcomes and experiences are reflected in this review. Small sample sizes mean that robust quantitative analysis of data for different ethnic groups is not always possible, so some researchers have chosen to combine ethnic groups, or multiple years’ worth of data, or both, in order to be able to analyse the available data. Where researchers have combined ethnic groups, they have constructed groups and use specific terms to describe the populations they are analysing. These specific terms are not always defined, but examples include white (which we understand to be a composite of all the white sub-groups), white other (which is usually defined in opposition to listed white groups, and so depends on the context), non-white or visible minority (all ethnic minorities excluding all white groups), Asian (including the countries of the Indian sub-continent), and A8 (the eight European Union accession countries subject to the Worker Registration Scheme in 2004: the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia, and Slovenia).

2.4 Regarding the inclusion of Gypsies/Travellers as an ethnic group, the EHRC report *Gypsy Traveller Accommodation in Scotland* regards Scottish Gypsies/Travellers (including ethnic Gypsies and Irish Travellers) as a racial group in the context of equalities. For the purposes of this review, all three will be included in the Gypsy/Traveller group.

2.5 It should be noted that some of the data sources cited in this Evidence Review cover the whole of the UK and so are not specific to Scotland. This will be pointed out in the text.

Demography

2.6 The most robust data source we have at present is the 2001 Census; data from the 2011 Census are expected to become available later this year.
The 2001 Census reported the ethnic minority population as 2.01% of the Scottish population, or 101,746 people. Pakistanis were the largest ethnic minority group, followed by Chinese, Indians and those of mixed ethnic backgrounds. Over 70% of the total ethnic minority population were Asian: Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi, Chinese or other South Asian. Over 12% of the ethnic minority population described their ethnic group as mixed.

The size of the ethnic minority population has increased since the 1991 Census. Whilst the total population increase between 1991 and 2001 was 1.3%, the ethnic minority population increased by 62.3%. Figure 1 shows that the minority population generally has a younger age profile than the white population.

Figure 1: Ethnic and age composition of Scotland’s population in 2001, %. (Source: Census, 2001)

The ethnic minority population in Scotland is distinctive within the UK in terms of size, ethnic composition and patterns of settlement. It includes Pakistanis, Chinese, Indians and Africans, A8 migrants, Gypsies/Travellers, asylum seekers and refugees, Irish Catholics and other communities. These groups are concentrated in the four main cities of Glasgow, Edinburgh, Aberdeen and Dundee, with the highest concentration in Glasgow (5.5 %). There is also quite a high proportion of ethnic minorities in the affluent suburban districts adjacent to Glasgow (East Renfrewshire and East Dunbartonshire), suggesting an element of established or ‘middle-class’ ethnic minority groups. Neighbourhood concentrations are rare, compared with the situation in England, with Glasgow being the only exception (where one ward has 48%, and three other wards with more than 20%).

The Annual Population Survey provides up to date information about the characteristics of people living in Scotland. Table 1 shows that since 2004, the proportion of the population in Scotland who reported their ethnicity as
white has fallen from 97.7% to 96.7%, while the proportion of the population who reported their ethnicity as mixed, black or black British, or Chinese has increased over the same period. The proportion of people who reported their ethnicity as Asian or Asian British has increased from 1.2% to 1.6% since 2004, and remains the second largest ethnic grouping within Scotland.

Table 1: Population profile by ethnicity, Scotland, 2004-2009 (Source: *Annual Population Survey*)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>White Proportion</th>
<th>White Level</th>
<th>Mixed Proportion</th>
<th>Mixed Level</th>
<th>Asian or Asian British Proportion</th>
<th>Asian or Asian British Level</th>
<th>Black or Black British Proportion</th>
<th>Black or Black British Level</th>
<th>Chinese Proportion</th>
<th>Chinese Level</th>
<th>Other Proportion</th>
<th>Other Level</th>
<th>All Proportion</th>
<th>All Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>97.7%</td>
<td>4,897,700</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>20,280</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
<td>56,900</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
<td>7,800</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
<td>11,000</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
<td>16,300</td>
<td>5,014,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>97.5%</td>
<td>4,904,700</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
<td>16,100</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
<td>62,500</td>
<td>0.1%</td>
<td>7,400</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>22,500</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
<td>15,200</td>
<td>5,029,700</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>97.4%</td>
<td>4,919,200</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>22,113</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
<td>66,600</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
<td>11,900</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
<td>17,100</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
<td>15,700</td>
<td>5,054,600</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>97.2%</td>
<td>4,937,700</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>20,796</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td>73,600</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
<td>14,900</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>20,400</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
<td>11,500</td>
<td>5,080,900</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>97.1%</td>
<td>4,958,300</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>24,588</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
<td>63,900</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>19,100</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>25,200</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
<td>13,100</td>
<td>5,105,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>96.7%</td>
<td>4,954,600</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
<td>28,251</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
<td>82,500</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>18,500</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
<td>15,800</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>22,400</td>
<td>5,124,600</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.11 The *Annual Population Survey* also provides information about national identity. Respondents are asked how they would describe their national identity and can choose multiple identities. Table 2 shows the results for 2009, which show that 77.4% of the population described their national identity as Scottish, and 23.0% of the population described their national identity as British.

Table 2: Population profile by national identity, Scotland, 2009 (Source: *Annual Population Survey*)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>National Identity</th>
<th>Proportion</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scottish</td>
<td>77.4%</td>
<td>3,986,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
<td>138,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
<td>38,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Welsh</td>
<td>0.2%</td>
<td>11,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4.6%</td>
<td>237,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British</td>
<td>23.0%</td>
<td>1,176,500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.12 The *Ethnicity and National Identity in England and Wales* report from the 2011 census shows changes in the ethnic composition of England and Wales.
between 2001 and 2011 (see Figure 2). The category ‘Gypsy or Irish Traveller’ accounted for 58,000 usual residents (0.1% of the population), making it the smallest ethnic category recorded on the census in 2011. Over the last two decades England and Wales have become more ethnically diverse, although caution is needed when comparing census ethnic data over the years due to changes in how the ethnicity question was worded and in the available responses. Examination of the detailed ethnic groups shows how ethnic diversity in England and Wales has changed:

- The ‘any other white’ category had the largest increase across the ethnic groups, with an increase of 1.1 million (1.8 percentage points) between the 2001 and 2011 Censuses. This includes people with Poland as a country of birth, who were the second largest group of non-UK born residents in 2011 and increased by 0.5 million (a nine-fold increase) between 2001 and 2011.
- The Asian/Asian British ethnic group categories had some of the largest increases between the 2001 and 2011 Censuses. People identifying as Pakistani and Indian each increased by around 0.4 million (0.5 percentage points and 0.6 percentage points respectively).
- The remaining ethnic groups each showed small increases of up to 1%.
Figure 2: Ethnic Groups, 2001 – 2011, England and Wales (Source: *Ethnicity and National Identity in England and Wales*, 2012)
3 SCHOOL EDUCATION

3.1 This section addresses the composition of the school population, academic attainment, exclusion, and post-school destinations.

Composition

3.2 Data on the ethnicity of pupils in publicly-funded schools in Scotland from the Pupil Census in 2012\(^7\) (see Table 3) show that 89.5 % of pupils were recorded as being white Scottish or white other British. The largest other ethnic backgrounds include white other (3.2 %), Asian Pakistani (1.7 %) and mixed (1.0 %). It also shows that the number of Gypsy/Traveller pupils in 2012 had gone up by 17% from 737 in 2011\(^8\), although this could be due to improved recording rather than an actual increase\(^9\). The Pupil Census shows a higher proportion of ethnic minority pupils in schools than would be expected from the ethnic minority share of the population at large: this is mainly explained by the younger age profile of the ethnic minority population, and with this a higher proportion of households with dependent age children\(^9\).

Table 3: Pupil characteristics: ethnicity by gender, 2012 (Source: Pupil Census, 2012)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White - Scottish</td>
<td>284,211</td>
<td>294,925</td>
<td>579,136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White - Other British</td>
<td>10,402</td>
<td>10,761</td>
<td>21,163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White - Gypsy/Traveller</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>417</td>
<td>864</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White - Other</td>
<td>10,912</td>
<td>11,047</td>
<td>21,959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>3,461</td>
<td>3,495</td>
<td>6,956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian - Indian</td>
<td>1,865</td>
<td>2,065</td>
<td>3,930</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian - Pakistani</td>
<td>5,564</td>
<td>5,866</td>
<td>11,430</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian - Bangladeshi</td>
<td>357</td>
<td>357</td>
<td>714</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian - Chinese</td>
<td>1,379</td>
<td>1,258</td>
<td>2,637</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian - Other</td>
<td>1,618</td>
<td>1,625</td>
<td>3,244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caribbean/Black</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>371</td>
<td>708</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African</td>
<td>2,054</td>
<td>2,203</td>
<td>4,257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1,449</td>
<td>1,585</td>
<td>3,034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not known / not disclosed</td>
<td>5,375</td>
<td>5,955</td>
<td>11,330</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3 In recent years, a number of studies in Scotland have explored the experiences of ethnic minority groups in education, either as a single issue or as part of wider studies on ethnicity/ race in Scotland\(^10\)\(^11\)\(^12\). These studies suggest that there are important issues that affect the educational experiences of ethnic minority young people, including bullying and discrimination, language barriers and differences in experiences of children.

\(^{1}\) The proportional increase in the number of Gypsy/Traveller pupils is much smaller than the decrease in the number of pupils whose ethnicities were not known/ not disclosed, and the categories used to record ethnicity were changed in 2011 which may have impacted on the consistency of the data.
from different ethnic groups. However, at present the research evidence remains patchy, with localised and small scale studies dominating.

3.4 The (then) Scottish Executive’s *High Level Summary of Equality Statistics* reports that, in 2005, 4.9% of pupils in special schools were from ethnic minority groups. As only 3.8% of pupils in all publicly-funded schools in Scotland in the same year were from ethnic minority groups, this indicates a relatively high representation of ethnic minority children in special schools.

Netto et al (2001) suggest that there is a marginalisation of ethnic minority parents when children have special educational needs, with parents lacking representation in educational decision-making, while de Lima (2003) suggests that there may be a level of misdiagnosis in relation to special educational needs, as a result of language and cultural differences. At present, however, there remains an absence of robust evidence on the learning needs and experiences of ethnic minority young people in Scotland.

**Attainment**

3.5 In their study of the experiences of ethnic minority pupils in schools in Scotland, Arshad et al (2004) found that arriving at valid and reliable data on the educational achievements of ethnic minority pupils was not possible because of limitations in available data. In part, data on ethnicity remain incomplete as it is not compulsory for parents to disclose ethnicity information. It is therefore difficult accurately to compare attainment levels of pupils based on ethnicity. At present, there is also no analysis of educational achievement that takes account of the length of time each pupil has been resident in the UK or the pupil’s fluency in English.

3.6 The Scottish Government’s Pupil Census figures include pupils’ academic attainment (2012). These use average tariff scores, and show the relative performance of the ethnic minority groups within Scotland. For the year 2010/11, white UK, white other, black and other pupils did worst. Chinese pupils performed best by a wide margin, followed by Asian other, mixed, Indian and Pakistani pupils.

3.7 The Joseph Rowntree Foundation (2011) reports an argument that strong educational attainment among ethnic minority pupils may have been facilitated by active promotion of race equality in schools, and by improving teachers’ ability to respond to specific individual needs (e.g. teaching of English as a second language, and intolerance of racial bullying). A study modelling attainment in three Scottish local authorities (Edinburgh, Fife and North Lanarkshire) found that attainment at Standard Grade and at Higher Grade improved in proportion to the number of pupils from a non-white background in a school.

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ii The *High Level Summary of Equality Statistics* does not define “special schools”, but Scottish Office Education Department (1994) *Effective Provision for Special Educational Needs* contrasts them to mainstream schools for meeting special educational needs.
3.8 The Scottish Qualifications Authority’s *Attainment and School Leaver Qualifications in Scotland: 2008-09 report*\(^{20}\), showing stronger performances in S4 by children from Chinese, Bangladeshi and Indian groups than white UK children, and weaker performances by black African and black Caribbean children. For Highers, all identified groups do better than white UK, but results for black Caribbean (the lowest attaining group at S4) are not listed.

**Exclusion**

3.9 Scottish Government statistics on exclusions (2010)\(^{21}\) show that 78 of the 87 permanent exclusions (90%) related to white pupils; six were not disclosed or not available, leaving one exclusion (1%) each for Indian, mixed and other pupils.

3.10 The EHRC *Triennial Review*\(^{22}\) gives data on permanent exclusion from school in 2008/09 for the UK. White pupils comprise the majority of permanent exclusions in Scotland and Wales; in England the rates for white and non-white pupils are very similar, though there are clear differences between different ethnic minority groups.

**Post-school destinations**

3.11 The Scottish Government’s *School Leavers Destination Report 2010/11*\(^{23}\) shows that school leavers from ethnic minority backgrounds appear to have slightly higher levels of positive post school destinations than white young people (89.9% compared to 88.9%). It also shows that a larger proportion enter Higher Education than white young people (49% compared to 36.9%).

3.12 National Indicator data from the School Leaver Destination Return reported in *Scotland Performs*\(^{24}\) show that school leavers who identify as Chinese consistently have the highest proportion in positive destinations. The greatest increase between 2008/09 and 2011/12 was seen in the mixed ethnic group and the largest percentage decrease was seen in the Chinese group. However, the report warns that it is difficult to track changes over time owing to the small number of leavers in some ethnic groups.

**Experiences of Gypsy/Traveller pupils**

3.13 The EHRC report, *Inequalities Experienced by Gypsy and Traveller Communities*\(^{25}\), finds evidence of racist attitudes and non-inclusive policies in public services including education. The Commission for Racial Equality report, *Common Ground*, stated that “the services Gypsies and Travellers receive from their local authority are manifestly less favourable than those the wider public enjoy”\(^{26}\). The report says that “sometimes this takes directly discriminatory forms, as in parts of the criminal justice system. Sometimes the problems arise from assimilatory rather than discriminatory policies, practices and institutional cultures, as in education. In other services, indirect racism through a lack of acknowledgement and pathologisation of cultural issues is influential, alongside direct discrimination, in denying appropriate access to services, as in aspects of health and social services”.
3.14 The EHRC *Inequalities Experienced by Gypsy and Traveller Communities* report specifies that Gypsies/Travellers have the same rights to appropriate education under the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child as all other children. Under the 1996 Education Act, schools (in England and Wales) are required to be open for 190 days or 380 sessions, and parents are required to ensure that children of compulsory school age receive full-time education; however, Gypsy/Traveller parents whose livelihoods involve travel have a legal defence if the child has attended 200 sessions\(^27\). Rather than reducing a child’s entitlement, this is intended to protect families from unreasonable prosecution while travelling for work.

3.15 The EHRC’s *Triennial Review* reports that, in Scotland, it has been estimated that only 20% of Gypsy/Traveller children of secondary age regularly attend school (although it does not explain how “regularly” relates to the requirement that Gypsy/Traveller children attend 200 sessions as reported above), and this percentage may be even lower in more remote areas. It echoes *Inequalities Experienced by Gypsy and Traveller Communities* in pointing out that even those who attend school experience unequal access to an appropriate curriculum and cultural support.

3.16 In qualitative studies of educational inequalities\(^28\), common themes in relation to the barriers encountered by Gypsy/Traveller pupils include: enforced mobility and interrupted learning; consistent experiences of racist harassment and bullying; excessive exclusions linked to these experiences and to inadequate school responses; the lack of validation of Gypsy/Traveller culture in schools; the limited relevance of the curriculum for some pupils; cultural barriers that children have to negotiate between home and school; teachers’ low expectations; and the impact of national targets on schools’ readiness to admit Travellers.
4 FURTHER AND HIGHER EDUCATION

4.1 This section discusses the ethnic composition of the student population, subject choice, levels of attainment, and workforce composition.

4.2 Where possible, the data are broken down for further education and higher education.

Composition of the student population

4.3 According to Scottish Government data for 2009/10, students who declared their ethnicity to be white constituted 82% of all students. Students who declared their ethnicity to be Chinese were the second largest ethnic group (2% of the total) and those who declared their ethnicity to be Indian were the third largest ethnic group (1.8% of all students). The Equality Challenge Unit tracks the profile of students by ethnicity over time, and distinguishes between those who are and are not domiciled in the UK. Changes to the ethnic profile were most prominent within the non-UK domiciled group (see Figure 3), though the number of students within this group remains small. Since 2005/06, the proportion of white students in this group has fallen by 21.0%, while the proportion of Asian students has increased by 22.5%. The proportion of ethnic minority students within the non-UK domiciled group has increased from 37.7% in 2005/06 to 58.7% in 2010/11. In comparison, the ethnic profile of UK-domiciled students has remained fairly static.
4.4 The Scottish Funding Council reports that in further education the proportion of ethnic minority students in 2010/11 was 4.8%, with African and Pakistani students being the largest ethnic minority groups\textsuperscript{31} (see Figure 4).

\textbf{Figure 3: Non-UK domiciled students by ethnicity (Source: Equality in Colleges in Scotland: Statistical Report 2012)}
Subject choice

4.5 The Equality Challenge Unit reports that higher education students of certain ethnicities are more concentrated in some subjects than others. For example, 20.3% of black students and 22.5% of Asian students study engineering and technology, compared with between 10.0% and 12.8% of students of other ethnicities. More than half (53.3%) of all Asian students study business and administrative studies. 27.2% of mixed students and 18.5% of white students study creative arts and design, compared with 4.9% of black students and 4.6% of Asian students.

Attainment

4.6 The Equality Challenge Unit explores the level of study by students across all ethnic groups within further education, and finds that there are considerable variations by level in the Scottish Credit and Qualifications Framework. For example, a higher proportion of Chinese students are studying at level 3 (Foundation Standard Grade) than other ethnic groups, with 9.5% studying at this level compared with 1.0% of white students. A higher proportion of ethnic minority students study at higher education level overall (22.2%) than white students (13.4%). Most starkly, 16.0% of all Asian students study at level 8 (e.g. for a Diploma of Higher Education) compared with 5.5% of white students.

4.7 The Equality Challenge Unit reports that, at higher education level, the proportion of students completing their course is highest among black students (84.0%) and lowest among mixed students (80.4%).
education level, the proportion of students completing their course is highest among white students (88.9%) and lowest among Chinese students (82.9%).

4.8 The Scottish Government’s analysis of the *Annual Population Survey* 2010 reports that degrees are held by 32% of ethnic minority people, versus 20% of all white people.32

4.9 The EHRC *Triennial Review* reports on further education for the UK as a whole. Students from different ethnic minority groups have different outcomes when studying for their first degree, with students from some ethnic minority groups far less likely to leave university with a first or upper second class degree than others. For example, in 2008/09 white students were most likely to achieve this level, with nearly 7 in 10 (67%) white students leaving with a first or upper second class degree, compared to just under 4 in 10 black students (38%).

**Workforce composition**

4.10 A report on diversity in the further education workforce found it to be predominantly white, as shown in Table 4. This report found little evidence of ethnic minority staff in promoted posts, and overall the low numbers of ethnic minority staff was concerning staff at all levels.

**Table 4: Staff by ethnic group and type of role (Source: *Equality and Diversity in the Further Education Workforce*, undated)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnic Group</th>
<th>Teaching</th>
<th>Non-teaching (support)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scottish</td>
<td>6,256</td>
<td>5,166</td>
<td>10,422</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>465</td>
<td>307</td>
<td>772</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Welsh</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other white background</td>
<td>347</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>627</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any mixed background</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian, Asian Scottish or Asian</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistani</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladeshi</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other asian background</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black, Black Scottish or Black</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caribbean</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other black background</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other ethnic background</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any other background</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information refused / not known</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6,430</td>
<td>6,030</td>
<td>12,460</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5 EMPLOYMENT

5.1 This section considers variations in employment rates, sectoral patterns, self-employment, pay gaps, and unpaid care work.

5.2 By way of introduction, people who are socially excluded in employment terms are also disproportionately likely to experience poor physical and mental health. Accordingly, the Joseph Rowntree Foundation considers that combating social exclusion through pro-employment policies can prove an important factor in improving living conditions and opportunities for people of working age and also their children, given the tendency for poverty and social exclusion to be transmitted across generations.

Employment rates

5.3 In 2011 in Scotland, the employment rate for people from all ethnic minority groups combined was 61.7%. This compares to an overall employment rate of 70.7%.

5.4 Figure 5 gives a snapshot of employment rates for individual ethnic groups at the time of the 2001 census.

![Figure 5: Employment rate by ethnic group, 2001 (Source: Scottish Government, Analysis of Ethnicity in the 2001 Census).](image)

5.5 The Joseph Rowntree Foundation paper, Poverty and Ethnicity in Scotland (2011), reports that employment rates are high among A8 migrants and particularly low among Pakistanis and Bangladeshis, especially women. It combines the visible minority ethnic groups together into a ‘non-white’ category, to show that overall, white households tend to show more contrast than non-white ones: in white households, the adults are more likely to either all be working or to have no one in work, whereas in non-white households it was more likely that there would be a mix of working and non-working adults.
Relatively few non-white households contain no one of working age (1.5% vs 15.4% for white households), and most (85.6%) contain two or more adults of working age. However, only a third have all adults in employment, compared with 43.6% of white households. At the same time, only one-fifth of non-white households have all adults unemployed or inactive, compared with 28.5% of white households. Nearly half of non-white households (46%) have a mixture of employed and unemployed or inactive members, compared with only 27.8% of white households.

5.6 In terms of employment trends, *The Position of Scotland’s Equality Groups* reports that between 2004 and 2007 the employment rate (16-64) for ethnic minorities increased each year – see Table 5. However, subsequent reductions in the rate through 2008 and 2009 saw it fall back to a similar level to 2005. Between 2009 and 2010, the rate has risen by 0.5 percentage points to 58.3%. The drop in rates for ethnic minorities between 2007 and 2009 (65.9% to 57.8%) was greater than the drop in employment rate for all people aged 16-64 (73.8% to 71.9%): the report suggests that employment rates for ethnic minorities were more affected by the recession.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Proportion</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>55.3%</td>
<td>42,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>57.8%</td>
<td>49,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>60.0%</td>
<td>56,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>65.9%</td>
<td>66,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>61.2%</td>
<td>61,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>57.8%</td>
<td>68,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>58.3%</td>
<td>72,300</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Annual Population Survey (Jan-Dec), ONS.

5.7 The EHRC’s *Review of Research* observes that ethnic minorities’ lower economic activity and employment rates in Scotland have not been fully explained by the currently available evidence. Without data on the reasons for economic inactivity, it is difficult to draw firm conclusions about the explanations for this. One possible explanation relates to the relatively high rates of participation in education associated with the relative youth of the working-age ethnic minority population in Scotland. However, without further analysis of the broader picture on economic inactivity, notably on the range of reasons for higher levels of economic inactivity by ethnic minority groups, it is not possible to understand the potential explanations for this trend fully.

### Sectoral patterns

5.8 The *Annual Population Survey* (2007-08) data show that people from ethnic minority backgrounds are more likely to work in distribution, hotels and restaurants than those from a white background. Ethnic minorities are less likely to work in manufacturing, but the proportions working with public administration, education and health are broadly similar. For occupational
groupings, it also appears from this survey that ethnic minority people are more likely to be within the ‘Professional Occupations’, ‘Associate and Professional’ and ‘Sales and Customer Service’ occupations than their white counterparts.

**Self-employment**

5.9 The EHRC *Review of Research* finds that self-employment plays an important part in the labour market participation of ethnic minority groups, and cites a 2005 study using data from the 2001 Census show that ethnic minority business owners account for just over 3% of all self-employment in Scotland. The self-employment rate is highest for Pakistani (32%), Chinese (23%) and Indian (22%) groups. Bangladeshi and other South Asian groups also have high rates of self-employment (20% for both groups). In contrast, self-employment rates are substantially lower for white Scottish (10%), Caribbean (10%) and African (8%) people. Deakins et al conclude that, on current trends, the relative importance of ethnic minority businesses to Scotland’s economy will continue to increase due to the younger demographic profile of the ethnic minority population.

5.10 Summary figures for self-employment are given in:

- The Scottish Government’s (2012) analysis of data from the *Annual Population Survey* observed that self-employment rates tend to be higher for people from ethnic minority groups. In 2010, the self-employment rate for people from an ethnic minority group was 14.0%, compared to 10.8% for those of white ethnic origin.
- The Joseph Rowntree paper, *Poverty and Ethnicity in Scotland*, reports that self-employment was high (in 2011) among the visible ethnic minority communities and Gypsy/Travellers, but low among A8 migrants.
- The *Scottish Household Survey* (cited by Netto, 2010). Data from 2003-06 show that people from an Asian background are more likely to be self-employed: 25% of Asians, compared to 12% of white people and 11% of other groups.

5.11 The *High Level Summary of Equality Statistics* plots the ethnicity of employees against the size of firm they work for (see Figure 6). In 2001, 60% of Chinese adults and 58% of Pakistani adults worked in organisations employing 9 people or less (micro-businesses) compared with 28% of white Scottish adults. Seventy-two percent of Chinese adults, 69% of Pakistani adults and 67% of Bangladeshi adults worked in ‘small’ businesses employing 24 people or less. ‘Large’ businesses with 500 or more employees, employed 24% of African adults, and 22% of Indian adults and other South Asian adults.
Pay gaps

5.12 EHRC research from 2008\textsuperscript{46} suggests that, although educational attainment may be viewed as a route out of poverty, this may not translate into advantages in the job market. Certain ethnic groups receive lower pay than others, a finding that cannot be accounted for in terms of educational qualifications alone: data from the \textit{Labour Force Survey} (over three years from October 2004) show pay gaps that could not be attributed to factors such as qualifications and occupational class. For instance, while white British Jewish men were predicted to earn 24\% more than white British Christian men, Pakistani and Bangladeshi Muslim men respectively earned 13 and 21\% less than white British Christian men.

5.13 In \textit{Pay Gaps Across the Equality Strands}\textsuperscript{47} (2009), the EHRC reports that pay gaps in the UK vary substantially by ethnic group and gender. For men, most - but not all - of the major UK ethnic minority groups have lower average pay than white men. However, once personal characteristics (such as culture, class, education and age) have been controlled for, all major ethnic minority groups have lower pay. For women the picture is more mixed, with some ethnic minorities earning more than white women, whether or not personal characteristics are controlled for. The \textit{Pay Gaps} report observes that there are major ethnic differences in participation rates, in unemployment, in qualifications and occupation, with most of the larger ethnic minority groups substantially disadvantaged.

5.14 The EHRC research from 2008 gives 2004–07 data on unadjusted hourly pay gaps for the major UK ethnic groups shows substantial variation by ethnic

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\textsuperscript{46} Highly sensitive details removed for privacy.

\textsuperscript{47} Data shown in the report is for the year 2009.
group. Compared with white British men, Indian men have a slightly positive pay gap (meaning that they are paid more) and black Caribbean men have a slightly negative gap (being paid less), although it should be noted that neither finding is statistically significant. Gaps are much larger for black African, Bangladeshi and Pakistani men, with the latter earning almost one-quarter less than white British men.

5.15 The pay gap varies with hours worked\(^48\). Across all ethnic groups, the pay gap between part-time workers and full-time white men is much greater than the gap between full-time workers and white men. However, the pay gap between part-time workers of different ethnicities is smaller.

5.16 Ethnic pay gaps exhibit a different pattern for women (Longhi and Platt, 2008). Pay gaps between women from different ethnic groups are smaller than the gaps between men from different ethnic groups. Chinese, Indian and black Caribbean women have slightly higher average hourly pay than white British women, and Bangladeshi women have slightly lower average hourly pay. However, black African and Pakistani women suffer substantial pay gaps. The ethnic pay gap largely disappears for women employed part-time, only remaining for Bangladeshi women.

5.17 The Equal Opportunities Commission (2007) observes that differences in pension scheme membership exacerbate the ethnic pay gap\(^49\). Both white men and white women are more likely to be members of pension schemes than black Caribbeans and, particularly, Bangladeshis and Pakistanis.

**Unpaid care work**

5.18 The 2001 Census recorded unpaid care work in the UK, and a Scottish Government (2010)\(^50\) analysis of it observed that ethnic minority carers can be disadvantaged because of the inaccessibility of some mainstream services to them, and these services may also lack cultural sensitivity which may confound this further. This is thought to be important in relation to effective policy interventions and making services relevant to the needs of users, so being able to identify ethnic minority carers and understand their particular support needs emerges as a key concern of the analysis. In the 2001 Census, 89% of carers in Scotland came from a white Scottish ethnic background, with the remaining 11% of carers from other ethnic backgrounds (listed as: other white British, white Irish, other white, any mixed background, Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi, other South Asian, Caribbean, African, black Scottish or other black, Chinese, other ethnic group). The ethnic groups undertaking the most caring were Indian or Pakistani. By simplifying the data into broad ethnic groupings, the 2001 Census data enable a limited insight into the statistical prevalence of ethnic minority caring in Scotland (see Figure 7).
Experiences of Gypsies/Travellers

5.19 The EHRC report, *Inequalities Experienced by Gypsy and Traveller Communities*\(^{51}\) cites the Commission for Racial Equality’s *Gypsy and Traveller Strategy for England and Wales (2004)*\(^{52}\), noting a lack of systematic data on Gypsy/Traveller employment. However, it did report anecdotal evidence indicating that 'unemployment is high among Gypsies and Travellers and few of the general programmes set up to tackle unemployment have initiatives or schemes developed specifically for Gypsies and Travellers, who need training in practical skills as well as opportunities to obtain qualifications for skills they already have'.

5.20 The EHRC report also observes that there is limited evidence on Gypsy/Traveller employment practices and preferences. The evidence it does cite\(^{53}\) (2006), however, indicates a strong preference for male self-employment, often associated with working in family groups and undertaking employment such as gardening, scrapping metal, building and market trading. Women had traditionally been involved in harvesting work and other traditional seasonal 'female' crafts, although there has been a sharp decline in such work because of greater numbers of organised migrant field labourers from Eastern Europe undertaking such work, and limited outlets for craft work.

5.21 Anecdotal evidence\(^{54}\) supports this claim of increasing competition for work. Some Gypsies/Travellers who are working in building-related trades report increased difficulties in finding work in the past few years, with greater competition from new migrants with similar skills and who may not be subject to as much hostility and prejudice as Gypsies/Travellers. The decline in employment obtained ‘on the knock’ has also impacted significantly on some sectors of the Gypsy/Traveller community, particularly where 'no cold-calling' zones have been implemented.

5.22 The EHRC report finds that Gypsies/Travellers who are unemployed and seeking work can encounter barriers including literacy and numeracy issues,
requirements for qualifications and evidence of former addresses (sometimes
dating back over the past three years), or requirements for references from
former employers. Evidence received by the Commission for Racial Equality
in 2004 indicated that Gypsies/Travellers rarely made use of New Deal or
Jobseeker Plus and felt that services are inadequately tailored to their needs.
The report claims that employment service providers (both public and private)
show little, if any, understanding of the barriers that Gypsies/Travellers face,
or of ways of tailoring services to meet their needs.

Experiences of refugees and asylum seekers

5.23 The Scottish Refugee Policy Forum held a policy conference in 2012\(^{55}\) that
addressed many issues including employment. They recommended personal
support for job-seeking, including the recognition of equivalent qualifications
to enable professionals and tradespeople to continue in their previous work.

5.24 The Refugee Women's Strategy Group held a Women's Employment
Information Event in Glasgow on 24/2/2011\(^{56}\). It identified numerous barriers
to employment for female refugees and asylum seekers, many of which would
also apply to male refugees and asylum seekers, or even to the characteristic
of ethnicity more generally. For example:

- Lack of information about employment, and employability services – including
  services specific to refugees' needs in the job application process.
- Racism and discrimination in the labour market.
- A need for affordable childcare to make education (including English lessons)
  and employment more accessible. This is considered to apply particularly to
  women, as they are more likely to have childcare responsibilities.
- Lack of employability preparation before being granted refugee status.
- Training opportunities, and information about these.
- Readier recognition of qualifications earned overseas.
- Information on entitlement to benefits, and the implications for benefits of
  taking on part-time or temporary work.
- Erosion of skills during the asylum process, because of the prohibition on
  employment.

Summary

5.25 In summary, low pay emerges as a dominant feature for many ethnic
groups\(^{57}\), including among certain visible ethnic minority communities, A8
migrants, refugees and Slovak Roma. Other common themes are a
concentration of economic activity in certain types of sectors and occupations,
with a significant proportion of Asian people in the wholesale and retail, and
hotel and restaurant sectors and A8 migrants in semi-skilled or unskilled jobs.
Barriers to employment and career progression across and within groups,
including amongst women, are a recurrent theme, although evidence relating
to this across ethnic groups is uneven in Scotland. There is also substantial
evidence that high educational attainment is not being translated into labour
market advantage across several ethnic groups.
6 POVERTY

6.1 This section addresses relative poverty, in-work poverty, financial security, and the anticipated impacts of welfare reform.

Relative poverty

6.2 In its *Income and Poverty Analysis*, the Scottish Government reports the percentage of households in relative poverty (before housing costs) by ethnic group – see Figure 8. These figures are based on aggregated data, from 2007/8 to 2010/11 inclusive, because of small samples; as a result, trend data cannot be provided. The mixed, black/black British, Chinese and other ethnic groups all have sample sizes that are too small to reliably report on their own, so they have been combined into a single category.

Figure 8: Relative poverty by ethnic group (Source: *Income and Poverty Analysis, 2012*)

6.3 The *Income and Poverty Analysis* observes that people from ethnic minority groups are around twice as likely to be in relative poverty (before housing costs) than those from the white British group (32% and 16% respectively). 37% of people from the Asian/Asian British group are in poverty, whilst for the combined mixed, black/black British, Chinese and other group, the figure is 29%. Those in the white other group are slightly more likely than those in the white British group to be in poverty (17% poverty rate compared to 16%).

6.4 Analysis of *Scottish Household Survey* (SHS) data from 2004/05 shows that, before housing costs, 25% of all individuals living in households headed by an adult from an ethnic minority group were on a low income. This compares with 16% of those living in households headed by a white adult. After taking account of housing costs, 29% of individuals living in a household headed by an adult from an ethnic minority group were living in relative low-income households, compared with 18% of those living in a household headed by a white adult. More recently, the *Equality Statement for the Scottish Spending Review 2011 and Draft Budget 2012-13* reported that ethnic minority households “generally have lower incomes”.

27
6.5 The Scottish Government (2012)\textsuperscript{61} quotes the findings of the Wealth and Assets Survey 2006/08 at the Great Britain level:

Bangladeshi and Black African groups are positioned very low in the wealth distribution, as are the Pakistani, Black Caribbean and Chinese groups… The Indian and White British groups are ranked close to the middle of the wealth distribution indicating no significant disadvantage relative to the wider population.

**In-work poverty**

6.6 *The Position of Scotland’s Equality Groups*\textsuperscript{62} reports the percentage of households in in-work poverty by ethnic group (see Figure 9). These figures are based on aggregated data from 2006/07 to 2009/10 inclusive. The mixed, black/ black British, Chinese and other groups again all have sample sizes that are too small to reliably report on their own, and so they have been combined into a single category so that they can be reported.

![Figure 9: In-work poverty and ethnicity.](image)

6.7 Twenty-one percent of households from the Asian/Asian British group were in in-work poverty compared with 5% of households from the white British group. If the data for all of the ethnic minority groups were combined, this figure would reduce to 14%.

**Financial security**

6.8 The Scottish Government reports data from 2009/10 showing members of ethnic minorities are less likely to be coping financially and more likely to have no savings\textsuperscript{63}. Seventeen percent of those in ethnic minority groups are ‘not coping’ financially compared, with around 11% for the white groups. Fifty-four percent of ethnic minority households have no savings, and a further 21% have savings less than £1,500.
The Scottish Government quotes the *Family Resources Survey 2007/08*\(^{64}\), which found that at the Great Britain level:

Some ethnic minorities are particularly likely to lack access to standard financial products, especially Pakistani and Bangladeshi women who are three times as likely as white men and women not to have a bank account. The majority of Pakistani and Bangladeshi households do not have contents insurance. Some religious and ethnic groups may be excluded from credit by a lack of the availability of loans on terms that conform to their beliefs.

**Welfare reform**

The Department for Work and Pensions (DWP) has published an *Equalities Impact Assessment for the Universal Credit*\(^{65}\). It models the positive impact of Universal Credit on the distribution of the participation tax rate (calculated as the proportion of earnings which are lost in tax, national insurance or reduced benefit payments when a person moves into work), for people moving into ten hours of work per week at the minimum wage. Individuals from both a white and an ethnic minority background are expected to see almost equal improvements in their incentive to move into work at this level: under Universal Credit, 94% of white individuals and 96% of ethnic minority individuals will have participation tax rates below 60%, compared with 35% and 36% respectively under the current system.

The DWP estimates that Universal Credit will reduce poverty for 350,000 individuals (200,000 adults and 150,000 children) in households with at least one ethnic minority adult, which is a larger proportional reduction in poverty than that experienced by households with only white adults. Households with a member from an ethnic minority background are more likely to gain than other households, because they are proportionally more likely to be both in couples and in lower paid employment, than households without a member from an ethnic minority background.

The DWP’s impact assessment of the new Benefits Cap\(^{66}\) expects that a high proportion of those affected by the cap are likely to be large families, implying that households from cultural backgrounds with a high prevalence of large families are more likely to be affected. The DWP estimates that, of the households likely to be affected by the cap, approximately 40% will contain somebody who is from an ethnic minority. By comparison, the DWP’s statistics show that 17% of Jobseeker’s Allowance claimants, 16% of the lone parents claiming Income Support and 9% of Employment and Support Allowance are from the ethnic minorities.
7 HOUSING

7.1 This section looks at housing tenure, overcrowding, and homelessness.

Tenure

7.2 The Joseph Rowntree Foundation’s report on Poverty and Ethnicity in Scotland (2011)\textsuperscript{67} finds that non-white households are less likely to be in social rented housing, with only two-thirds the rate of white households. Non-white households are much more likely to be in private rented accommodation, with a rate of 25% compared to 5.6% for white households. This will be partly explained by their younger age profile, and in some cases more recent arrival or student occupation, but it does also raise the question of access to social housing. Ethnic minority communities remain under-represented in the social rented sector, which is of concern given high rents in the private rented sector and the high costs of home ownership. The report further suggests that, although home ownership is higher in some ethnic minority groups than in the population at large, this should not be uncritically viewed as an indicator of financial success: it is thought that some individuals may have been forced to buy their own homes because of the lack of viable alternatives in other tenures.

7.3 The EHRC Review of Research\textsuperscript{68} (2009) gives a finer breakdown of this issue, citing tenure data from the 2001 Census. It reports that 67% of white Scottish people aged 16 years and above were living in homes that they owned either outright or with a loan or mortgage, compared with over 70% of people who were Pakistani, other white British or Indian. The rate fell to less than 50% for people in the following groups: African, black Scottish or other black, and other ethnic groups\textsuperscript{69}.

7.4 The EHRC points out a lack of recent research into the housing choices of ethnic minorities in Scotland. Netto et al’s (2001) review of research on race, while now quite old, highlights issues that affect how ethnic minority people engage with housing decisions and barriers. They found that ethnic minority groups had different requirements of housing, with the Pakistani community in particular needing larger accommodation. Being close to local amenities, and being based in communities with lower risk of racial harassment, were also recognised as important factors in the housing decisions made. The central explanation offered by the authors for higher rates of owner occupation, is the inability of the social rented sector adequately to meet the specific housing needs of ethnic minority households.

7.5 Communities Scotland commissioned several research studies to explore the housing position of ethnic minority people in a local context. Two localised studies, focusing on the Forth Valley\textsuperscript{70} (2007) and on North and South Lanarkshire\textsuperscript{71} (2006), highlight similar trends to those noted above: for instance, that higher levels of owner occupation among Indian, Pakistani and Chinese communities were driven by the inability of social rented housing adequately to meet their housing needs. A study on housing needs, preferences and choices of ethnic minority people in Aberdeenshire and
Moray (in 2003) suggested that issues such as a shortage of affordable housing, lack of larger accommodation, and long waiting times for accommodation in the social rented sector, were central to the experiences of both the ethnic minority and the majority population in these areas.

Overcrowding

7.6 According to the Rowntree report on Poverty and Ethnicity in Scotland, overcrowding is a common problem for ethnic minority households, particularly Pakistanis and Bangladeshis, and among refugees. Overcrowding, as defined by the Bedroom Standard, affected 9.2% of non-white households in Scotland in 2001–5, a rate that is 3.8 times higher than that among white households. This is thought to be partly related to demographics, as there are more large households. It may also indicate hidden homelessness, and reflect both material and social deprivation.

7.7 In contrast, the EHRC Triennial Review estimates a figure of 11% for ethnic overcrowding in Scotland, not dissimilar to its figure of 10% across Britain as a whole. (The EHRC’s own caveat should be noted, that in Scotland, sample sizes permit only a limited analysis of overcrowding in terms of ethnicity.)

7.8 In terms of the quality of accommodation, the Triennial Review found that the difference between all white and all ethnic minority groups was not great: using the Scottish House Condition Survey measure, just under 4% of all white households occupied poor condition dwellings, compared to 5% for all ethnic minority households.

Homelessness

7.9 The Rowntree report, Poverty and Ethnicity in Scotland, describes homelessness as an extreme form of housing need. It is significantly higher among ethnic minorities than in the population as a whole, though over-representation varies considerably between individual ethnic groups. The report suggests that homelessness services provided for the general population are often inaccessible and inappropriate for individuals from these communities, suggesting reliance on services provided by ethnic minority organisations or informal support.

7.10 The EHRC Review of Research presents figures to illustrate the Rowntree claim of over-representation of ethnic minorities among the homeless. Although the EHRC warns that the annual reports on homelessness offer no systematic analysis of the ethnicity of people who apply for housing as homeless, it does cite a study by Netto et al (2004) using data collected by local authorities in Scotland on the ethnicity of people who reported as homeless. Of the 36,898 homeless applications fully recorded by local authorities in 2002/03, 2.4% were from people who were Indian, Pakistani/Bangladeshi, Chinese, black or other. Given that 2001 Census figures have the Indian, Pakistani/Bangladeshi, Chinese, black and other population standing at 1.4% of resident households in Scotland, ethnic minority households appeared to be over-represented among homeless applicants during this time-period.
Netto et al (2004) further found that the relative incidence of homelessness varied substantially between different ethnic minority groups. Chinese households, for example, were far less likely than the general population to apply as homeless. Those classed as black and other were more than three times as likely to be homeless as the average for all ethnic groups. The authors found, from qualitative data analysis, that a range of factors affected the risks of homelessness for different ethnic minority communities:

- Some groups lacked awareness of the services and advice available.
- The authors reported a lack of robust and locally available information on the housing experiences and standards faced by different ethnic groups, which could make it difficult for service providers to offer a full and comprehensive range of services to this diverse client group.
- Ethnic minorities wished to live near to religious or cultural centres, and in areas where they had less fear of harassment; this issue was not well understood by mainstream service providers at the time of the report.
- There was limited provision for older ethnic minority people, and for older (and younger) ethnic minority women wishing to escape domestic violence.

The report of the Scottish Refugee Policy Forum policy conference in 2012 identifies initial asylum support accommodation as a barrier to integration, but also observes that some “initiatives by local community groups and integration networks have contributed to positive relations between refugees/asylum seekers and their receiving communities”.

**Gypsies/Travellers**

The EHRC report on *Gypsy Traveller Accommodation in Scotland* (2010) reports the findings of a survey of all 32 local authorities in Scotland, exploring the steps that they had taken since 2006 in meeting the accommodation needs of Gypsies/Travellers:

- Seventeen out of the 26 local authorities responding to the survey said that they had completed an assessment of the accommodation needs of Gypsies/Travellers.
- Only five of those 17 said that it gave them a numerical assessment of present and future pitch needs.
- A total of eight local authorities were able to provide an estimate of the number of additional residential pitches required in their area over the next five years: this ranged from none to 50 pitches.
- Seven local authorities were able to provide an estimate for transit or short stay need for the next five years: this ranged from none to six pitches.
- Just one local authority making an estimate for additional pitches – either transit or residential – thought that these requirements would be met.

This report also observes that - in comparison to England, where widespread Gypsy and Traveller Accommodation Assessments have identified and quantified requirements - Scotland is potentially less advanced in preparing for additional site provision both nationally and locally. The majority of local authorities did not have approved formal planning policies on Gypsy/Traveller
site provision, either because they did not consider this to be a priority, or because they felt that there was no need for specific policy.

7.15 The EHRC *Gypsy Traveller Accommodation* survey data show that there has been a net decrease in the number of pitches available to Gypsies/Travellers since 2006 among authorities responding to the survey. The majority of local authorities responding to the survey reported that some pitches were currently vacant on their sites, and some saw vacancies as evidence of a lack of demand from Gypsies/Travellers for site places - even though they had limited quantitative data on the number of Gypsies/Travellers and their consequent accommodation needs. Local authorities noted a number of barriers to moving forward with the provision of Gypsy/Traveller accommodation, including:

- finding suitable land,
- resistance from local communities,
- lack of demand from Gypsies/Travellers for accommodation,
- finance,
- opposition from Gypsy/Traveller community members to development of existing sites,
- complexity of the issue.

7.16 The overarching conclusion from this EHRC study is that more work needs to be done at both a local and national level in order to better understand the current use of sites and to determine what need (if any) there is for further site/pitch provision.

7.17 Whereas the EHRC *Gypsy Traveller Accommodation in Scotland* report sought information from authorities, the next report explores the experiences of the Gypsies/Travellers themselves. In *Inequalities Experienced by Gypsy and Traveller Communities* in Britain (2009), the EHRC considers accommodation to be the key to understanding the barriers to service access that are experienced by Gypsies/Travellers, as access to appropriate accommodation (whether on sites or in housing) is fundamental to enabling people to avail themselves of health, education and other public services. The report observes that the estimated one in four Gypsies/Travellers living in caravans, who did not have a legal place on which to park their home, were homeless under the Housing Act (1996); the presence of Gypsies/Travellers at unauthorised locations can lead to tension with the settled community. In their review of equality, site provision and good practice (in England and Wales), the Commission for Racial Equality (2006) found that 67% of local authorities reported they had had to deal with tensions between Gypsies/Travellers and other members of the public, arising from unauthorised encampments, planning applications and enforcement, and general public hostility. Although living on sites can be associated with problems, there is also considerable evidence of poor outcomes for Gypsies/Travellers in “bricks and mortar” housing, including family breakdown (due to severance of links with the extended family that would normally be resident on the same site), domestic violence, and discrimination by settled neighbours.
8 TRANSPORT

8.1 The particular needs of ethnic minorities regarding public transport, identified in the sources below, focus on the range of languages in which information is provided and on personal safety. This section closes with a review of private transport use.

8.2 The Scottish Government’s *Equality Budget Statement* for 2011\(^8^4\) reports that government funding of local bus services is important to equality groups, including ethnic minorities, who make extensive use of them.

Language

8.3 The Scottish Government’s user consultation for the *National Transport Strategy*\(^8^5\) (2006) found that while visible ethnic minorities raised a number of important transport issues, only the concern over provision of information in a range of languages (particularly for older, first-generation immigrants) related primarily to their ethnicity.

8.4 The *Consultation on Initiatives Related to the ScotRail Franchise Extension*\(^8^6\) also reports that difficulties with language can present problems in accessing information for some ethnic minorities. As a result of the communication difficulties, some people are discouraged from using public transport.

8.5 In a detailed piece of research into the use of public transport, Transport for London\(^8^7\) found that the provision of information in a variety of languages, with an emphasis on pictures and symbols, was considered to be helpful. This applied especially to older ethnic minority women, who are much less likely to speak English as their first language than the wider London population.

Safety

8.6 The ScotRail consultation cited above also found that a perceived lack of personal safety and security was an issue for ethnic minorities.

8.7 The Transport for London study explored barriers to greater use of public transport. The concerns reported by ethnic minorities related to safety, reliability, respect, customer service and access to information.

Use of private transport

8.8 The Scottish Government (2012)\(^8^8\) reports that Indian, Pakistani and Chinese households are the ethnic groups most likely to have access to a car, whilst African households are least likely to. At the time of the 2001 census, two thirds of all households in Scotland had access to a car or van: the proportion was over 70% for Indian, Pakistani and Chinese households and lowest (50%) for African households\(^8^9\).

8.9 According to the combined results of the *Scottish Household Survey* between 2001 and 2005\(^9^0\), adults from ethnic minority groups were markedly less likely to hold a driving license than white people, at 48% compared to 66%. This is
based on a sample size of 531 for ethnic minority groups, so will be subject to a degree of sampling error.
9 HATE CRIME AND GOOD RELATIONS

9.1 Hate crime is generally understood to be a crime motivated by malice and ill-will towards a social group. Legislation on hate crime is relatively new: it was first classified as an offence on the grounds of race in the UK in the 1986 Public Order Act. Section 74 of the Criminal Justice (Scotland) Act 2003 makes provision for offences aggravated by religious prejudice, and the Criminal Justice and Licensing (Scotland) Act 2010 strengthens the statutory aggravations for racially and religiously motivated crimes.

9.2 This section addresses racially-motivated crime, domestic abuse, and attitudes to racial discrimination.

Racially-motivated crime

9.3 The EHRC Triennial Review reports that the number of crimes recorded by the police as part of racist incidents in Scotland has risen from 5,053 in 2004/05 to 6,002 in 2008/09. Figure 10 shows the number of racially motivated crimes referred to the Crown Office and Procurator Fiscal Service for the same periods, with levels rising to 2006/07 and then levelling off.

![Figure 10: Police recorded racist crime and referrals to the Crown Office Procurator Fiscal Service for population in Scotland, 2004/05-2008/09](image)

9.4 The police recorded 9.3 racist incidents per 10,000 population in Scotland in 2010-11. For the past four years, the rate of racist incidents in per capita terms recorded by the police in Scotland has been comparable to that in England and Wales, and about twice that in Northern Ireland. However, the ethnic composition of the UK population is far from uniform: according to the 2001 Census, 90.9% of the population of England and Wales was white, while this figure was 98.0% for Scotland, and 99.2% for Northern Ireland. This
means that there were proportionately more racist incidents in Scotland than in England and Wales.

9.5 The Scottish Government gives more recent data\textsuperscript{97}, covering the six year period 2006-07 to 2011-12. The figures quoted relate to the number of charges reported, rather than the number of individuals charged or the number of incidents that gave rise to such charges. In total, 4,518 charges relating to race crime were reported in 2011-12 (see Table 6), 8% more than in 2010-11. This is the highest number reported in the last six years. Court proceedings were commenced in respect of 81% of charges in 2011-12, lower than the figure for 2010-11 (84%) but similar to the level in earlier years.

Table 6: Race crime - Charges reported, 2006-07 to 2011-12 (percentages) (Source: \textit{Hate crime in Scotland, 2011-12})

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>06-07</th>
<th>07-08</th>
<th>08-09</th>
<th>09-10</th>
<th>10-11</th>
<th>11-12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total number of charges of race crimes</td>
<td>4361</td>
<td>4365</td>
<td>4334</td>
<td>4320</td>
<td>4178</td>
<td>4518</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Of which</td>
<td>Charges related to racially aggravated harassment and behaviour</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Charges related to another offence with a racial aggravation</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.6 Netto et al’s (2001) audit of research on ethnic minority issues in Scotland reported that racial harassment or abuse was a regular feature of the lives of many people from ethnic minority groups. This included experiencing damage to property and physical abuse. The audit suggests that ethnic minority people living in low-density residential areas or outside inner city areas may be at greater risk than those living in high-density areas: this is of particular relevance to the small numbers of ethnic minority people dispersed within rural areas of Scotland. This finding was confirmed by a 2005 study\textsuperscript{98} which found that the safest areas were those with a large ethnic minority population; in contrast, ethnic minorities who lived in rural areas (including in Scotland) were found to be much more vulnerable to racism. Verbal abuse was found to be the most common form of racist abuse, but incidents such as physical assaults, damage to property and acts of vandalism were also reported.

9.7 Focus groups with ethnic minority people in Scotland in 2003\textsuperscript{99} further confirmed that racially motivated crime affects many people. This study suggested that shop owners were particularly vulnerable to fraud, theft, racial harassment and vandalism. Shop owners were also found to be dissatisfied with the reaction and procedures of the police to racist incidents, and felt that racist incidents were a low priority for the police.
9.8 A study on ethnic minority young people in Edinburgh and Glasgow in 2007\textsuperscript{100} observed that many participants accepted verbal racist harassment as part of everyday life - so much so that they would not normally consider reporting it to the police. The study found differences in attitudes between young people and their elders in relation to reporting racist incidents, with younger people more willing than their elders to name racism and to speak about their experiences.

**Domestic abuse and ethnicity**

9.9 The Scottish Borders Council\textsuperscript{101} observes that domestic violence can affect women from all ethnic groups, and it has no evidence to suggest that women of any particular ethnic minorities are any more at risk than others.

9.10 Although domestic violence occurs in families of all ethnicities, socioeconomic backgrounds, levels of education, age and in same-sex relationships, international evidence\textsuperscript{102,103} indicates that it is most commonly experienced within relationships or communities where there is support for strongly hierarchical or male-dominated relationships and where male authority over women and children is culturally expected and condoned.

9.11 The Cabinet Office (2011)\textsuperscript{104} cites findings from the British Crime Survey (2009/10) that, when behavioural factors are controlled for, “there is no statistically significant difference by ethnicity in the risk of being a victim of domestic abuse or sexual assault” (p7). However, it also note difficulties that are specific to a particular group: “Women and girls from a black, minority-ethnic (BME) background may find it more difficult to leave an abusive situation due to cultural beliefs or a lack of appropriate services” (p7).

9.12 Although the EHRC report finds no evidence to suggest that domestic violence is any more prevalent in Gypsy/Traveller communities than in any other ethnic group, it cites anecdotal evidence giving examples of cultural barriers to leaving a violent partner. The reported barriers include: loss of community, fear of racism, isolation, concerns about possible accommodation alternatives, beliefs that it is impossible to escape, expectations that marriage is for life, and the belief that many men are simply violent and women should accept this.

**Attitudes to discrimination**

9.13 Findings from the 2010 *Scottish Social Attitudes Survey* provide a detailed picture of public attitudes to discrimination and positive action\textsuperscript{105}. As this is now the third time that the *Survey* has included questions on attitudes to discrimination (following previous studies in 2002 and 2006), this report also provides valuable insight into how public attitudes in this area are changing over time.

9.14 Table 7 shows responses to a question in the *Scottish Social Attitudes Survey* on attitudes towards immigration, cross-referenced against a question about tolerance of prejudice\textsuperscript{106}. The respondents who were most concerned about the impact of immigration on Scotland’s culture and identity appeared to be most likely to feel that prejudice is sometimes justifiable: among those who
disagreed strongly that people from outside Britain who come to live in Scotland make the country a better place, a majority (63%) believed that sometimes there is good reason to be prejudiced. These differences are much larger than those based on social or economic differences between respondents.

Table 7: Attitudes to prejudice by comfort with diversity, beliefs about the impact of immigration on Scotland’s identity (row %) (Source: Scottish Social Attitudes Survey, 2010)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>People from outside Britain who come to live in Scotland make the country a better place</th>
<th>Scotland should get rid of all prejudice</th>
<th>Sometimes there is good reason to be prejudiced</th>
<th>It depends</th>
<th>Sample size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree strongly</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>397</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>629</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree strongly</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.15 Table 8 shows whether respondents know any people from different ethnicities, cross-referenced against the question about tolerance of prejudice, to explore whether those who have contact with different kinds of people less accepting of prejudice in general. Those who know someone from a different racial or ethnic background were significantly less likely than those who did not, to say there was sometimes good reason for prejudice.
Table 8: Attitudes to prejudice by whether or not the respondent knows anyone from different groups (row %) (Source: *Scottish Social Attitudes Survey*, 2010)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Knows anyone with of a different racial or ethnic background?</th>
<th>Scotland should get rid of all prejudice</th>
<th>Sometimes there is good reason to be prejudiced</th>
<th>(It depends)</th>
<th>Sample size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>984</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>291</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.16 Regarding refugees and asylum seekers, the Scottish Refugee Policy Forum held a policy conference in 2012\(^{107}\) that addressed many issues including racism and integration. It reports that racist abuse is perceived to be common on public transport – including by drivers – but that the victims are often hesitant to involve the police because of their experiences of the police in their home countries. The Scottish Refugee Policy Forum suggests that this may result in many hate crimes not being reported or investigated.
10 JUSTICE

10.1 This section reviews evidence of the prison population, the composition of the legal profession, and access to justice.

Prison population

10.2 Prison statistics for Scotland suggest that the proportion of people from ethnic minority groups in prison is somewhat higher than the proportion in the overall population. Minority groups comprised almost 3.9% of the prison population in 2011-12 (see Table 9), compared to an estimate of 3.2% of the population in the 2009-10 Scottish Household Survey\textsuperscript{108}.

Table 9: Offenders in custody by ethnic origin, 30 June 2011, Scotland
(Source: Prison statistics and population projections Scotland, 2011-12)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnic background</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7,635</td>
<td>471</td>
<td>8,106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>7,334</td>
<td>456</td>
<td>7,790</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistani</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladeshi</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Asian</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10.3 The Scottish Prison Service \textit{Ethnic Minority and Foreign National Prisoners Survey}\textsuperscript{109} carried out in 2010 found that nearly 64% of respondents reported that cultural differences are recognised in prison, which is an improvement on 57% in 2008. There were fewer ethnic minority and foreign national prisoners experiencing racial discrimination by other prisoners in 2010: 31%, as opposed to 35% in 2008. The number reporting discrimination by staff also fell, from 31% in 2008 to 21% in 2010. Twenty-two percent of ethnic minority and foreign national prisoners reported being bullied in prison in the month preceding the survey (which was undertaken in July 2010), compared to 11% of other prisoners. Of those 22%, 68% stated that the type of bullying involved insults about their race, with 62% reporting insults about their nationality. One third of ethnic minority and foreign national prisoners reported that they were unable to attend education (36%), programmes (35%) and certain work activities (34%) because they did not understand English sufficiently well.
Workforce

10.4 Around 93% of both police officers and police support staff in Scotland declared their ethnicity as white in 2010-11, with around 1% of officers and support staff declaring their ethnicity as ethnic minority.\(^{110}\)

10.5 In two consecutive surveys of the legal profession conducted by the Law Society of Scotland in 2006 and 2009\(^{111}\), there was no substantial change in the representation of ethnic groups in the legal profession:

- 97% indicated their ethnic group to be white in both surveys;
- the figure representing those of Asian ethnicity remained static at 1%;
- for those of black, black Scottish or black British ethnicity the figure fell from less than 1% to zero;
- those of a mixed background rose slightly from less than 1% to 1%;
- also static at less than 1% were those of other ethnic backgrounds;
- those not disclosing remained at 1%.

10.6 A survey of legal aid solicitors in Scotland in 2010\(^{112}\) found a similar proportion (96%) of white respondents. Only 1% identified themselves as being from an ethnic minority, as the remainder of respondents did not disclose their ethnic group.

10.7 The Law Society of Scotland’s research study of the experiences of ethnic minority solicitors in Scotland (2011)\(^{113}\) suggested that ethnic minority lawyers were significantly less likely to be equity partners than their white colleagues. In choosing a legal career, some research participants reported that family and friends had tried to dissuade them from pursuing the law because of perceptions about prejudice towards ethnic minorities, women and those who had not benefitted from a public school education. Regarding recruitment, nearly 75% of respondents had suspicions that their ethnicity had influenced their recruitment and those of their colleagues, but were unable to substantiate this. Those who did not feel that ethnicity had been a factor during recruitment were, in the main, employed in the public sector. Around 33% of respondents felt that they had been treated differently in the workplace due to their ethnicity, and women of ethnic minority backgrounds felt their gender compounded this. Whilst the bullying of trainees appears not to be uncommon in the legal profession, none of the ethnic minority trainees in the study considered that they had been badly bullied during their traineeships. There were, however, problems recorded regarding networking and socialising, and many respondents recorded poor understanding of cultural diversity.
Access to justice

10.8 Regarding access to justice and legal aid, in a 2011 client satisfaction survey of the Public Defence Solicitors’ Office (offering publicly-funded criminal defence in Scotland)\textsuperscript{114}, 91% of the 135 respondents were white. Four percent described themselves as Asian, Asian Scottish or Asian British, and the remaining 5% were from other ethnic minorities.

10.9 In comparison, a survey in 2009 of 765 applicants for civil legal aid found that a larger proportion (97%) of respondents considered their ethnic background to be white, fewer (1%) considered themselves to be Asian/Asian Scottish or Asian British, and just 2% were spread across other ethnic minority backgrounds\textsuperscript{115}.

10.10 A Scottish Government synthesis of surveys on civil law in Scotland (2010)\textsuperscript{116} reports the findings of the *Assessing Need for Legal Advice in Scotland* survey, by the (then) Scottish Executive in 2004. This found that 36% of the ethnic minority respondents (to a booster sample survey of people belonging to minority ethnic groups in Glasgow West), experienced civil law problems. The authors of the synthesis observe that “The prevalence of civil law problems among this sample was significantly higher than other groups in Scotland”.

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11 PUBLIC APPOINTMENTS

11.1 A Public Appointment is an appointment to the board of any of the public bodies across Scotland - either as a member, or as the chair\textsuperscript{117}. The board's role is to provide leadership, direction and guidance, it is not involved in the day-to-day running of the public body.

11.2 The Scottish Government’s website for public appointments\textsuperscript{118} reports that in the public appointments rounds for 2011-12, 3.3\% of applicants came from an ethnic minority background, with 6.4\% being appointed. It is anticipated that data to 2013 will be published on the same website later this year.
12 HEALTH

12.1 This section addresses health outcomes, health behaviours, and experience of healthcare services.

12.2 The information on health outcomes and health behaviours is all taken from the *Scottish Health Survey* (2012).

Health outcomes

12.3 The *Scottish Health Survey* reports that those who reported their ethnic group as Pakistani were least likely to rate their health as good or very good (66%), although due to small sample sizes this was not significantly different from the national average of 76%. Chinese respondents were the most likely to rate their health as good or very good (91%), and this was significantly different from the national average.

12.4 Mental wellbeing is measured on the WEMWBS scale, where lower scores indicate less good wellbeing. White British respondents had the lowest levels of wellbeing of all ethnic groups, with a mean WEMWBS score of 49.8. This was significantly lower than that the scores of the white other (51.2), African, Caribbean or black (53.7), and Asian other (53.5) ethnic groups.

12.5 Psychological ill-health is measured by means of a GHQ12 score, where higher scores indicate ill-health. High GHQ12 scores (indicating psychological ill-health) were recorded for a large proportion of other ethnic groups (25%), Pakistani (23%) and African, Caribbean or black groups (18%), but none of these was significantly different from the Scottish average (15%). Chinese and other Asian ethnic groups had the lowest proportion of scores suggesting ill-health (both 10%) but again, these were not significantly different from the national average.

12.6 Regarding dental health, the white British and white Irish ethnic groups had the lowest proportion of adults with twenty or more natural teeth (both 71%). Indian (93%), Chinese (88%), African, Caribbean or black (87%) Pakistani (86%), mixed ethnic groups (86%), and white other (78%) all had significantly higher proportions of adults with twenty or more teeth than the national average. In terms of toothache, there were few significant differences between ethnic groups. Pakistani respondents had a significantly higher prevalence of toothache (24%) than the national average, whilst white Irish respondents had a significantly lower prevalence (8%) of toothache. The Survey reports that previous studies of dental health in Scotland had found that African and African-Caribbean people were more likely than the general population to brush their teeth twice a day and to have their own teeth.

12.7 The highest prevalence of obesity was among African, Caribbean or black respondents (35%), but this was not significantly different from the average. Previous research had found that Asians in Britain were almost four times as likely to be obese than white ethnic groups, but these findings have not been replicated in the *Scottish Health Survey* results as they show no significant difference between white British and Asian ethnic groups – and this may be
due to small sample sizes. Chinese and Asian other respondents had the lowest prevalence of being overweight (41% and 45% respectively) and obesity (4% and 9% respectively), and this was significantly lower than the national averages (of 64.3% for overweight and 27.7% for obesity).

12.8 Pakistani (18%) and Indian (14%) respondents had the highest prevalence of diabetes, although only the Pakistani figure was significantly higher than the average. The high prevalence of diabetes among south Asians living in the UK has also been noted in a report by Diabetes UK\textsuperscript{120}. Chinese, Asian other, mixed, and African, Caribbean or black ethnic groups, all had low levels of diabetes (ranging from 3% to 4%) although none of these were significantly different from the national average.

12.9 Chinese respondents were the least likely to have a doctor-diagnosed cardio-vascular disease condition (4%), significantly lower than the national average (15%). No Asian other respondents reported a cardio-vascular disease condition, although this may be due to the relatively small number of people surveyed in this category (103 over the four years). Although South Asians have previously been found to have an increased risk of coronary heart disease compared to European ethnic groups\textsuperscript{121}, the Scottish Health Survey data do not bear this out, as the prevalence of cardio-vascular disease among Indian and Pakistani respondents was not significantly different from the average. This may, again, be partly due to small sample sizes being unable to identify significant differences. African and Caribbean ethnic groups were found to have a lower than average prevalence of cardio-vascular disease (8%), although this was not statistically significant.

Health behaviours

12.10 The \textit{Scottish Health Survey} found that white ethnic groups (Scottish, Irish, other British, and other) were broadly similar to each other in terms of weekly alcohol consumption. Pakistani (3%), Chinese (4%), other Asian (4%), and African, Caribbean or black respondents (7%) were all significantly less likely to drink at hazardous or harmful levels than the national average (23%). The white other group (27%) and African, Caribbean or black respondents (19%) were significantly less likely to drink above daily limits than the national average (39%). Previous studies have found similar ethnic differences in drinking behaviour; for example, alcohol-related mortality is higher in men and women born in the UK than those born in Pakistan\textsuperscript{122}.

12.11 Respondents from Pakistani and Asian other ethnic groups were significantly less likely to smoke than the national average, with a prevalence of 13% and 9% respectively compared to the national rate of 25%. Because of the smaller sample sizes available (as analysis is restricted to current smokers only), it is not possible to provide robust estimates of the mean number of cigarettes smoked by any of the non-white ethnic groups. White British smokers smoked an average of 14.4 cigarettes a day, significantly more than those from other white ethnic groups (12.1). The only significant difference between ethnic groups in the age of starting smoking, was among the white other group where respondents started smoking at an average age of 19.3, significantly older than the national average of 17.5.
12.12 There was a significant association between fruit and vegetable consumption and ethnic group. White British respondents were the least likely to eat five or more portions per day, with a prevalence of 21% compared to the national average of 22%. Conversely, white other (40%, eating on average 4.6 portions per day), Pakistani (48%, 4.8 portions), Chinese (49%, 5.2 portions), Asian other (51%, 5.0 portions) and Other ethnic groups (46%, 5.0 portions), were all significantly higher than the national average (22%, 3.2 mean portions) in terms of their consumption of five or more portions per day.

**Access to, and experience of, health services**

12.13 The report of the 2010 *Scottish Inpatient Survey*¹²³ examines the variations in the self-reported experiences of Scottish inpatients, from different groupings including by ethnicity. The survey did not find clear differences in experience based on ethnicity: these results may have been affected by the fact that the analysis combined people from many different ethnic groups into a single non-white category, because of the small number of respondents from individual ethnic groups.

12.14 The *Scottish Inpatient Survey* addressed language in addition to ethnicity: patients were asked whether they needed an interpreter or any other help to communicate. Patients who required an interpreter or any other help to communicate were compared against patients that did not. Patients requiring an interpreter or any other help to communicate generally gave less positive responses than other patients: for 40 questions they were less likely to report a positive experience and they were never more likely to report a positive experience. Three questions particularly stand out where those requiring an interpreter or any other help to communicate were less positive:

- I understood what my medicines were for
- I was confident I could look after myself when I left hospital
- I understood what was happening to me.

12.15 The report of the 2010 *Scottish Inpatient Survey* observes that good communication has been found to be an important contributory factor in the promotion of positive patient experience: it may not be surprising, therefore, that patients with translation, interpreting and communication support needs are less likely to report a positive experience as communication requirements may not be adequately addressed in the hospital setting.

12.16 Regarding access to health services by refugees and asylum seekers, the Scottish Refugee Policy Forum policy conference in 2012¹²⁴ addressed many issues including access to health care. The reported problems include unclear procedures for registering with a GP, GP registrations that can be complicated by individual circumstances (such as receiving Section 4 support for failed asylum seekers), receiving information from GPs that is difficult to understand (including language barriers), difficulty in receiving information due to frequent changes of address, and reluctance to seek help with mental health issues.
12.17 A large-scale epidemiological study of 293 Gypsies/Travellers across five locations in England (2004)\textsuperscript{125} found a higher birth-rate among Gypsy/Traveller women than in a settled comparator group matched by age. In terms of maternal health outcomes, there were no significant differences in the number of women reporting problems with pregnancy or childbirth including morning sickness, pre-term birth, breech presentation, or post-natal depression. However, more Gypsies/Travellers experienced one or more miscarriages, Caesarean sections, or had suffered the death of a child.
13 SOCIAL CARE

13.1 The Scottish Government reports that in Scotland in the year to 31 March 2011, 99% of the people who received home care and whose ethnicity was known, were of white ethnicity\(^{126}\). In that same year, 98% of the people who received Direct Payments and whose ethnicity was known, were of white ethnicity\(^{127}\).

13.2 The Scottish Government\'s Health and Social Care Datasets\(^{128}\) show the ethnic breakdown of clients for home care and telecare - see Figure 11. Telecare is the remote or enhanced delivery of care services to people in their own homes, by means of sensors or alerts which provide continuous, automatic and remote monitoring of care needs and emergencies using information and communication technology to trigger human responses.

Figure 11: Home and telecare clients by ethnic group, 2011. (Source: Health and Social Care Datasets)

13.3 The EHRC Triennial Review\(^{129}\) (2011) offers more analysis of social care and ethnicity in England. The English Longitudinal Study of Ageing only reports differences between white and non-white respondents, but initial analysis conducted as part of the development of the Equality Measurement Framework indicated that a slightly higher proportion of white than non-white people (45% compared with 41%) reported that they received help which always or usually met their needs - although this result was found to be not statistically significant.

13.4 The Triennial Review also explores the cultural sensitivity of support services. Small-scale qualitative evidence in England\(^{130}\) indicates that not all formal support services respect, understand and accept different cultural expectations. This may be in relation to family life and obligations, use of space within the home or religious obligations including those relating to self-care and domestic tasks.
13.5 The *Triennial Review* observes that there is little research evidence directly relating to social care services for older and disabled Gypsies/Travellers, although a small number of studies explore some of the cultural issues and barriers facing this group in relation to end of life care. One report\textsuperscript{131} finds that Gypsies/Travellers with health problems may find that their cultural needs, such as for the involvement of multiple family members in their care, are not always met by formal support services. Gypsy and Traveller Accommodation Needs Assessment evidence indicates that in many cases older or disabled Gypsies and Travellers have had to wait considerable periods of time to obtain adaptations to their caravans on public sites.
14 SPORT

14.1 This section addresses levels of participation in sport, and barriers to increased participation.

Participation in sport

14.2 In the Scottish Health Survey 2012, Pakistani respondents were the least likely to achieve the recommended physical activity levels (27% did so compared to the national average of 38%) and were also the least likely to participate in sport (30% compared to 49% on average). This finding corresponds with other research (2010) that found that, in Britain, Pakistani individuals and south Asian ethnic groups generally, are less likely to be sufficiently active. An earlier study (2007) highlighted gender differences in the levels of physical activity within ethnic groups: Pakistani respondents were found to be less active overall, but also with a gender difference most prominent in the younger age groups. No other ethnic groups in the Scottish Health Survey were significantly different from the national average in relation to physical activity or sport participation.

14.3 In a summary of sports equality research in the UK covering a period of 15 years, the EHRC reports that:

- The overall participation rate for ethnic minority people in sport was 40%, compared with the national average of 46%; and
- The lowest participation rates were among Indian (31%), Pakistani (21%) and Bangladeshi (19%) women (citing the National Survey of Ethnic Minorities and Sport, 1999).

Barriers to greater participation

14.4 Research carried out for sportscotland (2001) aimed “to provide direction for increasing access to sport amongst people from ethnic minority communities in Scotland”, by gaining an understanding of the barriers faced by people from ethnic minorities, providing examples of good practice, and listing key indicators of good practice. In exploring the barriers that the research participants faced in accessing sport, clear divisions emerged: these tended not to be related to which ethnic community the individual was from, but to how strongly they identified with their ethnic culture. The strength of the individual’s relationship to his/her culture and beliefs was found to influence their potential to participate in sport. The study observed that future research should explore the participants’ attitudes and the reasons behind non-participation.

14.5 Guidelines on health and sport published by the Health Development Agency in 1999 were based on a 1995 study by Rai et al, exploring attitudes to physical activity amongst selected ethnic minority groups. Most of the major barriers to physical activity identified by African-Caribbean and South Asian people were no different from those of the general population in England, i.e. lack of time, energy, or an appropriate companion, a desire to relax in their
spare time, or a self-perception of not being sporty. However, some particular barriers were identified that differed from these, and that may still be applicable now:

- being unaware of availability, cost and opening hours;
- fears for personal safety in public open spaces;
- absence of other people from one’s own community using facilities; and
- actual or potential experiences of racism.
- further barriers identified by South Asian respondents were dress codes, lack of privacy in changing areas and lack of single gender provision.

14.6 A literature review for Sporting Equals (2009)\textsuperscript{138} concludes that in Scotland, it is fear of racial discrimination – real or perceived – that is the core issue keeping ethnic minority groups away from sport. Based on numerous UK studies from the early 2000s, the review recommends that racism be more explicitly tackled in sport, as it is frequently ignored both by players and by organisations.
15 CULTURE

15.1 This section explores levels of engagement in culture, followed by reported barriers to increased engagement.

15.2 In the evidence around culture, the word “engagement” is used to include both attendance at a cultural event or place, and participation in a cultural activity.

Levels of engagement

15.3 The Scottish Government reports that, in the 2011 Scottish Household Survey, the percentage of adults who engaged in culture in the previous 12 months varied by ethnicity of respondents, although information for individual ethnic groups are limited. In the 12 months prior to the Survey, 86% of white Scottish respondents had engaged in culture. This compares with 90% of those who were Asian Scottish or Asian British, and 92% of those who stated that they were white other and from other ethnic groups.

15.4 In the 12 months prior to the Survey, participation in a cultural activity was highest for adults who classed themselves as white other (81%) and other ethnic groups (80%), and lowest for adults who were Asian Scottish or Asian British (67%). Reading for pleasure, dancing and playing or writing music were less common for those who were Asian Scottish or Asian British (51%, 13% and 5% respectively).

15.5 Attendance at a cultural place or event in the 12 months prior to the Survey was lowest for adults who identified themselves as white Scottish (73%), and broadly similar for all other ethnic groups at between 82% and 84% of adults. Visits to libraries in the previous 12 months were most popular with adults from other ethnic groups and those who were Asian Scottish or Asian British (51% and 40% respectively). This compares with 29% of adults as a whole.

Barriers to greater engagement

15.6 A 2003 survey by the Office for National Statistics reports the extent of attendance and participation in cultural activities among all ethnic groups, and explores the barriers to wider participation. It is because of this attention to barriers that we report this research based entirely in England.

- The results of the survey showed that although there were some differences between individual ethnic groups, there were very high levels of engagement with and support for the arts and other cultural activities.
- Asian respondents were most likely to have attended a culturally specific festival, and the highest proportions of those visiting or using libraries were found amongst black African, Pakistani and Bangladeshi respondents, and the lowest among black Caribbean people and people of mixed ethnicity.
- Levels of attendance varied by age and gender, with attendance more likely to be by the younger age group of 16-44 years; for particular ethnic minorities e.g. black African, more men than women attended arts events. For Indian groups, more women than men attended arts events.
The majority of respondents to the Office for National Statistics survey in all ethnic groups said that they would be interested in attending more events. When they were asked about barriers to increased attendance, the most common reason given was ‘lack of time’. This was followed by ‘cost’, and less frequently ‘not interested’ and ‘lack of transport’. Black African, Pakistani or Bangladeshi people were the most likely to say that concerns about ‘feeling uncomfortable or out of place’ prevented them from attending.
16 CONCLUSIONS – CROSS-CUTTING SUMMARY

16.1 This review has presented evidence about the diversity of experience for the various ethnic groups across a range of topic areas. Despite the limitations of the data in a number of these topic areas, there is some evidence of differences in outcomes and experiences between ethnic groups, and this is presented below. The reader should note that the reasons for these differences are less well understood. The conclusion begins by summarising the evidence that addresses ethnic minorities as a single group (the majority of the evidence reviewed). This is usually because sample sizes are too small to report for individual ethnic groups.

16.2 The proportion of ethnic minority students in Further Education is higher than their share of the population as a whole, and degrees are held by a greater proportion of the ethnic minority population than of the white population. However, ethnic minority students tend to graduate with lower-class degrees than white students and - despite variation between ethnic groups - employment rates are generally lower for ethnic minorities than white people. Negative pay gaps exist for most minority groups, who are about twice as likely to be in relative poverty than white people, and nearly three times more likely to be in in-work poverty. Ethnic minority workers in low-paid employment are expected to benefit from the introduction of the Universal Credit, but large families are likely to lose out from the Benefits Cap. Ethnic minorities are under-represented in the social rented housing sector, and are over-represented among the homeless and in Scotland's prison population. More positively, ethnic minority candidates have been successful in gaining public appointments. The number of reported racist incidents is increasing over time, and racial prejudice tends to be accompanied by intolerance of immigration and a lack of personal contact with people from different racial or ethnic backgrounds. The small amount of data available on social care, indicate limited access to formal social care by members of ethnic minorities. Barriers to participation in sports include actual or feared incidences of racism, the absence of other people from one's own community using the facilities, dress codes, and lack of privacy in changing areas.

16.3 White school pupils account for the majority of exclusions, and white students are the biggest ethnic group in the Scottish student population. In Higher Education, 18.5% of white students study creative arts and design, compared with 4.9% of black students and 4.6% of Asian students. Self-employment rates are very low for white Scottish people. Both white men and white women are more likely to be members of pension schemes than black Caribbeans and, particularly, Bangladeshis and Pakistanis. White British people have the lowest overall well-being, the worst teeth, and eat less fruit and vegetables than the average.

16.4 Black pupils do worse than white pupils at school. In Higher Education, 20.3% of black students study engineering and technology, compared with approximately 10% of students of other ethnicities. Unemployment rates are higher for all visible ethnic minority groups in comparison to white Scottish, and for some groups (including people of African and black Scottish origin)
are twice as high. Self-employment rates are very low for Caribbean and African people, and large pay gaps exist for black Africans. Owner occupation of housing is lower than white Scottish for black people, who are more likely than the average to register as homeless. African households are the least likely ethnic group to have access to a car. Africans have better teeth, less heart disease and lower alcohol consumption than the average. Very high proportions of black Africans use libraries, and the lowest use is among black Caribbean people; barriers included concerns about feeling uncomfortable or out of place.

16.5 On average, Chinese pupils perform better than white pupils. School leavers who identify as Chinese consistently have the highest proportion in positive post-school destinations. In the Scottish student population, Chinese are one of the biggest ethnic groups after white students. Chinese workers are much more likely to work for small organisations than white people, and self-employment is high for the Chinese. Chinese people are less likely than the average to register as homeless, and Chinese households are very likely to have access to a car. The Chinese have comparatively low incidence of mental ill-health, overweight and cardio-vascular disease.

16.6 Indian school pupils tend to perform better than white pupils. In the Scottish student population, Indians are one of the biggest ethnic groups after white students. In Higher Education, more than half of all Asian students study business and administrative studies, and self-employment is high for Indian groups. Compared with white British men, Indians have a slightly positive (but not statistically significant) pay gap. Owner occupation of housing is higher for Indians than white Scottish, but Indians were also over-represented in homeless applications in Scotland. Indian households are very likely to have access to a car, but sports participation rates among Indian women are very low compared to the other ethnic groups.

16.7 Bangladeshi pupils generally perform better than white pupils, but employment rates are particularly low among Bangladeshis. Bangladeshi workers are much more likely to work for small organisations than white people, and they also experience large pay gaps and have quite high rates of self-employment. Overcrowding is common among Bangladeshi households, and they were over-represented in homeless applications in Scotland. Sports participation rates among Bangladeshi women are very low compared to the other ethnic groups. Comparatively high proportions of Bangladeshi respondents visit libraries, and barriers to cultural engagement include concerns about feeling uncomfortable or out of place.

16.8 Employment rates are particularly low among Pakistanis, with unemployment rates of 12% compared to 7% for white Scottish. Pakistani workers are much more likely to work for small organisations than white workers, and self-employment is high for Pakistanis. Large pay gaps exist for Pakistanis, who earn almost one-quarter less than white British men. Owner occupation of housing is higher than white Scottish for Pakistanis, but overcrowding is common among Pakistani households who were also over-represented in homeless applications in Scotland. Pakistani households are very likely to have access to a car. Pakistanis drink and smoke less than average, but have
a higher incidence of diabetes and rate their own health poorly. Lower than average participation rates in sport are found among Pakistani women. Comparatively high proportions of Pakistani respondents use libraries, and reported barriers to culture included concerns about feeling uncomfortable or out of place.

16.9 Employment rates are high among A8 migrants, who also commonly experience overcrowding.

16.10 Gypsy/Traveller children have low attendance rates at school, below-average academic performance, and above-average exclusion rates. Gypsies/Travellers are reported to experience high rates of unemployment and discrimination, and anecdotal evidence indicates that few unemployment programmes have been tailored to the needs of Gypsies/Travellers. The limited evidence on Gypsy/Traveller employment practices indicates a strong preference for male self-employment.

16.11 Refugee children frequently miss out on pre-school education, and consequently struggle in primary school. It is thought that refugees and asylum seekers might benefit from employability support, and greater recognition of their existing qualifications. Overcrowding is common among refugees, and surveys suggest that disabled refugees and asylum seekers rarely receive formal support from external agencies.
17 APPENDIX: METHODS

17.1 Limitations of the research: it should be noted that, due to the time constraints under which this review was prepared, the evidence search has been selective rather than systematic or exhaustive. For the Ethnicity report in particular, this has contributed to an emphasis on the Gypsy/Traveller group, caused by the selection of reports read to date rather than by their relative weight in the ethnic minority population. However, the EHRC\(^{141}\) does state that this group faces the most severe inequalities (p78).

17.2 The criteria for inclusion of evidence in this review were that it should have been produced within approximately the last ten years, be based on ideally on Scottish or else on UK data, and address the relevant policy areas. Note that both “ethnicity” and “race” (and their derivations) have been used interchangeably in the search. It should further be noted that survey data disaggregated for this group in Scotland yield very small sample sizes, from which firm conclusions cannot be drawn.

17.3 The principal sources that have been checked in detail include:

- Joseph Rowntree Foundation: *Poverty and Ethnicity in Scotland*\(^{142}\)
- EHRC: *How Fair is Britain? Equality, Human Rights and Good Relations in 2010: the First Triennial Review*\(^{143}\)
- EHRC: *Equality Issues in Scotland: a Review of Research, 2000-08*\(^{144}\)
- EHRC: *Pay Gaps Across the Equality Strands*\(^{145}\)
- Scottish Government: *Hate Crime in Scotland 2011-12*\(^{146}\)
- EHRC: *Accommodation Needs of Gypsy and Traveller Communities in Scotland*\(^{147}\)
- EHRC: *Inequalities Experienced by Gypsy and Traveller Communities*\(^{148}\).
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