

2009

European Review of Statistics on Homelessness

Bill Edgar

European Housing Research Ltd

December 2009



FEANTSA

European Federation of National Organisations Working with the Homeless



Acknowledgements

The author wishes to thank all those who have contributed unstintingly to the production of this report. This includes the members and the Editorial Group of the European Observatory on Homelessness, the national co-ordinators of the MPHASIS project and the members of the FEANTSA data collection group. In addition my thanks go to Christine Lambert for her patience and support when deadlines loomed. Any faults or mistakes in the report are entirely the responsibility of the author.

Contents

1 Purpose of this Report	5
2 Conceptual and Operational Issues in Measurement	6
2.1. Understanding the Nature and Causes of Homelessness	
2.2 Terminology Issues	
2.3. Conceptual Approach to the Definition of Homelessness and Housing Exclusion	
2.4. Defining Homeless Services and Accommodation Services	
2.5 Operational Issues	
3 Overview of Approaches to Measuring Homelessness	23
3.1. Description of Data Collection by Welfare Regime	
3.2 Overview of Data Collection Approaches	
4 Strategies to Tackle Homelessness in Europe	31
4.1. Homeless Strategies and Information Monitoring	
4.2. Overview of Homeless Strategies	
4.3. Governance Issues affecting Data Collection	
5 Homelessness and Housing Exclusion Information Strategies	40
5.1 Introduction	
5.2 Measuring Homelessness study	
5.3 Implementation Issues	
6 Developing Indicators of Housing Exclusion	48
6.1. Housing Quality	
6.2 Monitoring Indicators of Homelessness and Housing Exclusion	
7 Counting the Homeless in the Census	56
7.1. Census Information on Homelessness	
7.2 Counting the Homeless in Conventional Census Enumeration	
7.3 Counting the Homeless using Register-based Approaches	
7.4 Conclusions	
8 Review of Statistics Available in Europe	62
8.1 Introduction	
8.2 Rooflessness	
8.3 Houselessness	
8.4 Insecure and Inadequate Housing	
9 Summary and Conclusions	69
9.1 Conceptual Issues	
9.2 Operational Issues	
9.3 Measurement Issues	
REFERENCES	71

Appendices

I ETHOS – European typology on homelessness and housing exclusion (FEANTSA Typology)	73
II Data Matrices	74
III Definition of CORE Variables	81
IV Set of EU indicators adopted in the field of housing	82

Figures

Figure 2.1	Factors of vulnerability and risk of housing exclusion	6
Figure 2.2	Causes of Homelessness and Data Sources	8
Figure 2.3	Subjective Economic Pressures by Life-cycle Stage	9
Figure 2.4	Relative Importance of Housing Needs in the Life Course	10
Figure 2.5	Definition of a Private Household	11
Figure 2.6	Categories of Institutional Household	11
Figure 2.7	The Concept of the Minimal Household Unit	12
Figure 2.8	Model Family Definition	12
Figure 2.9	Definitions of Non-Conventional Dwellings	13
Figure 2.10	Types of Housing Unit and Living Situation	14
Figure 2.11	Physical Dwellings Forms	14
Figure 2.12	Comparison of Living Situations and Homeless Definition	15
Figure 2.13	The Domains of Homelessness and Housing Exclusion	16
Figure 2.14	Classification of Services for the Homeless – Italy	18
Figure 3.1	Summary of the main broad approaches adopted to collect data on homelessness and housing exclusion	28
Figure 4.1	The objectives and specific targets established by the strategy	32
Figure 4.2	Dutch Strategy – G4 Cities (2006-2012)	32
Figure 4.3	Sources of Information in Sweden on Homelessness Situations	34
Figure 4.4	Summary of Homeless Strategies in Europe	37
Figure 5.1	Level 1 Data	42
Figure 5.2	Key Stages of Implementation of a Homeless Information system	45
Figure 6.1	Types of Housing Unit and Living Situation	48
Figure 6.2	Conceptual Domains of Housing Deprivation	49
Figure 6.3	Seven Theoretical Domains of Housing Deprivation	50
Figure 6.4	UNECE/EUROSTAT recommended variables related to housing quality	51
Figure 6.5	EU-SILC Variables related to Housing Quality	51
Figure 6.6	Secondary Indicators on Overcrowding and Housing Deprivation proposed by the Indicators Sub-Group (July 2009)	52
Figure 6.7	The Homeless System	53
Figure 6.8	Summary of Homeless Strategy Aims and Indicators	54
Figure 6.9	Performance Indicators Specified in the Irish Homelessness Strategy	55
Figure 7.1	The UNECE/EUROSTAT Recommended Definition and the Measuring Homelessness Study Definition	57
Figure 7.2	Census Data Collection Approaches for 2011	57
Figure 7.3	Approaches to Counting the Homeless in the 2011 Census	58
Figure 7.4	Identifying the Operational Categories of Homeless People in Register-based Census Approaches	60
Figure 8.1	Estimated Risk of Increase in Eviction Due to Mortgage Re-possession	66
Figure 8.2	UNECE/EUROSTAT Census Recommendations	68

Tables

Table 2.1	Seven theoretical domains of homelessness	16
Table 2.2	UK classification	19
Table 2.3	Criteria for defining homeless accommodation forms	20
Table 2.4	Mapping accommodation services to classification of living situations	21
Table 3.1	Survey-Based Methods of Data Collection	29
Table 3.2	Register-based Methods of Data Collection	29
Table 8.1	Summary of Definitions of Overcrowding in Europe	67

1 Purpose of this Report

This report has two main objectives. First, it collates the development of ideas relating to the measurement of homelessness and housing exclusion in Europe that were presented in previous publications of the European Observatory on Homelessness. This should provide a single source of reference for those interested in the topic. Second, it updates information on homelessness and housing exclusion for all those member states for which information is available.

The report is presented in four main sections. **Section 1** examines the issues involved in measuring homelessness in Europe. Chapter 2 considers the conceptual and operational issues that influence the collection of information on homelessness and housing exclusion (HHE). The chapter looks at the nature of homelessness and presents different perspectives in explaining the factors that may influence the scale and nature of homelessness. Following this discussion it then clarifies some of the key terminological issues which are necessary to underpin data collection methods and to allow for comparative analysis at European level. The chapter then examines the development of the conceptual and operational definition of homelessness known as the ETHOS typology. Since information on homelessness relates to people who use homeless services, the chapter then presents an approach to defining homeless services which stresses the fact that the nature of homeless services in Europe are changing as strategies to combat homelessness move towards an agenda of prevention. Chapter 3 provides an overview of data collection in Europe, firstly by describing the situation in the member states and secondly by examining the three main approaches that can be identified to collect information.

Section 2 examines the governance of data collection. Chapter 4 considers the development of homelessness strategies in Europe and Chapter 5 discusses the recommendations made in a recent EU-funded study to develop a homeless monitoring information strategy (Edgar *et al.*, 2007).

Section 3 considers some emerging issues in relation to data collection on HHE in Europe. Chapter 6 describes the approaches being taken to develop indicators of housing deprivation which include issues of overcrowding and inadequate housing. Chapter 7 examines some of the issues involved in obtaining baseline information or regular counts from the general census of the population using either traditional enumeration-based techniques or register-based methods which are being adopted by an increasing number of countries.

Finally, **Section 4** provides an overview of the information currently available in each country in Europe in relation to the ETHOS categories (rooflessness, houselessness, insecure housing, inadequate housing). The report concludes by considering / reviewing the conceptual, operational and measurement issues involved in the collection of data on homelessness and housing exclusion.

2 Conceptual and Operational Issues in Measurement

This chapter considers the main concepts involved in understanding, and in developing a definition of, homelessness and housing exclusion. The causes of homelessness are discussed through an understanding of the pathways model and residential choice processes and access to housing. The social and political or cultural norms which underpin our ideas of acceptable housing standards and right to housing is considered in order to provide a context for developing a conceptual framework for the definition of homelessness and housing exclusion.

This chapter describes the conceptual approach to understanding homelessness and the development of the ETHOS typology of homelessness and housing exclusion. This typology is set alongside the recommended definition in a recent EU study (Edgar *et al.*, 2007) and in the Conference of European Statisticians' census recommendations (CES, 2006). The chapter concludes by discussing some operational issues involved in the measurement of homelessness and housing exclusion.

This discussion is posited in the framework of strategies to combat social exclusion. Hence our consideration of the conceptual issues involves an understanding of the factors which may exclude households from, or may make them vul-

nerable in, the housing market. For a discussion of social exclusion and housing, see Room (1995), Edgar *et al.*, (1999). For a discussion of the EU strategy to combat poverty and social exclusion, see Marlier *et al.*, (2007).

2.1. Understanding the Nature and Causes of Homelessness

This section considers different approaches to understanding the causes and nature of homelessness. Firstly, it discusses the debate surrounding structural and agency explanations. Secondly, it considers the importance of understanding the life course analysis and theories which lead to explanations based on understanding the pathways or trajectories into homelessness. Finally, it considers the social construction of homelessness associated with social and cultural norms.

2.1.1 CAUSES OF HOMELESSNESS

In previous volumes we have suggested a generic approach to understanding the causes of vulnerability that affect the risk of homelessness. This approach is intended to stress that the causes of homelessness can include structural, institutional, relationship and personal factors. These are summarised in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1 Factors of vulnerability and risk of housing exclusion

Cause	Factor of vulnerability	Comment
Structural	Economic Processes	Affect on income, stability of employment
	Immigration, Citizenship	Discrimination, access to social protection
	Housing Market Processes	Access to affordable / social housing
Institutional	Available mainstream services	Shortage of services to meet demand or care needs
	Allocation mechanisms	Inappropriate to needs (spatial concentration, delivery procedures)
	Lack of co-ordination between existing mainstream services	Affects continuum of support
	Institutional procedures	Admission, Discharge procedures
Relationship	Family Status	Single people more vulnerable
	Relationship situation	Abusive partners; step-parents
	Relationship breakdown	Death, divorce, separation
Personal	Disability / long-term illness	Includes mental health and learning disability
	Educational attainment	Low attainment
	Addiction	Alcohol, drugs, gambling
	Age / Gender	Young / old, female
	Immigrant situation	Refugee status / recent arrival



Structural factors affect the vulnerability or risk of exclusion arising mainly from the effects of poverty (affected by a person's position in the labour market) and the factors that act as barriers to access to housing, services or social protection. Vulnerability is also affected by the extent to which social protection is dependent upon a person's employment situation or citizenship status; hence, women and immigrants may be vulnerable. Despite legislation to ensure equality of access to service, discrimination can create vulnerability to exclusion from the housing market for some groups.

Institutional factors can influence vulnerability. People who require support will be vulnerable to exclusion from the housing market if support is not available or does not meet their needs. Support may not be available because services do not exist (e.g. in rural areas) or are not available for particular needs. People can also lack support if their medical or psychiatric condition is undiagnosed (for example, if they have a mild learning disability) or if they do not have contact with medical or social services (e.g. some young people). Lack of social support networks also creates an increased vulnerability for some (e.g. single people or recently arrived immigrants). Mechanisms of resource allocation and gate-keeping by service providers can also leave some people vulnerable to homelessness. Regulation of social housing allocation or housing finance is an important aspect of vulnerability for those on low income and immigrants. Experience of institutional living itself creates vulnerability in the housing market – the discharge procedures for people leaving prison or long-term health care or child care, for example.

Relationship problems or breakdown are often associated with housing exclusion or can create a vulnerability to homelessness. In particular, the increase in domestic violence is associated with episodes of homelessness or temporary housing for many women and their children. Equally, the increase in divorce and separation can create difficulties for young people who may be forced to leave home at an early age. Recent research has demonstrated an increase in homelessness among older men often associated with relationship breakdown or loss of a partner later in life.

Personal problems can, of course, be a key factor leading to homelessness. However, personal circumstances can create vulnerability in other ways. Some people may simply lack knowledge about opportunities available to them (e.g. immigrants, young people). Personal problems may often be unrecognised (for example, gambling addiction or personal debt) until a problem becomes manifest in the loss of a home. Even then the scale of such problems may go unrecognised by service providers. People develop coping strategies to hide the real nature of their situation.

The significance of this approach to the measurement of homelessness is to stress the diversity of sources of information that are required. This is illustrated in figure 2.2.



Figure 2.2 Causes of Homelessness and Data Sources

Cause	Factor	Triggers	Data sources
Structural	Poverty / Unemployment	Debt Eviction	Housing Judiciary Penal System
	Immigration Status		
	Housing		
Institutional	Institutional Living	Discharge	Social Welfare Surveys Health Services
	Foster / Child Care		
	Prison		
Relationship	Family Structure	Leaving Family Home	Service Providers
	Relationship Situation	Domestic Violence	
	Relationship Breakdown	Living Alone	
Personal	Disability / Long-term illness	Illness Episode	Service Providers
	Learning Difficulty	Support Breakdown	
	Addiction	Substance Misuse	

2.1.2 THE LIFE COURSE – TRANSITIONS AND TRAJECTORIES

The life course approach, or theory, is developed and applied across many academic disciplines and is based on a number of fundamental principles. The objective is to look at individual life events and the pattern of life trajectories in the context of social processes that generate these events or trajectories (Golledge and Stimson, 2006). The approach stresses that an individual’s developmental path is embedded in and transformed by conditions and events occurring during the historical period and geographical location in which the person lives. Second, it is assumed that periods of life, such as childhood, adolescence, and old age, influence positions, roles, and rights in society, and that these may be based on culturally shared age definitions (Hagestad and Neugarten, 1985).

Elder (1985) observes that time can also be envisioned as a sequence of transitions that are enacted over time. A *transition* is a discrete life change or event (e.g., from a single to a married state), whereas a *trajectory* is a sequence of linked states within a defined range of behaviour or experience (e.g., education and occupational career). The life course perspective emphasises the ways in which transitions, pathways, and trajectories are socially organised. Transitions typically result in a change in status, social identity, and role involvement. Trajectories, however, are long-term patterns of stability and change and can include multiple transitions.

Households relate to the places in which they live by a process of residential mobility and residential choice. The pattern of residential mobility and choice can be analysed using the life course approach. The nature of that residential mobility and choice is narrowly prescribed for some households and can be said to be more prescribed for all households at some stages in their life course. It is this situation which characterises the vulnerability in the housing market which this report is concerned to quantify.

Explanations of residential mobility and choice have employed the life course concept to structure the decisions of individual households related to their housing needs, aspirations and resources. Classical models of residential mobility (Rossi, 1953) describe a behavioural analysis of residential choice around the main stages in the life course (single person, couple without children, family with young children, family with older children, empty nest families, widowhood). The conceptual assumption, and subsequent empirical evidence, suggests that the trigger points to residential mobility arise from stresses associated with changes in housing need arising through the life course. It is argued that these transition points in the life course are also points of vulnerability depending upon economic and social circumstances and residential history (Clarke and Davies-Withers, 2007).

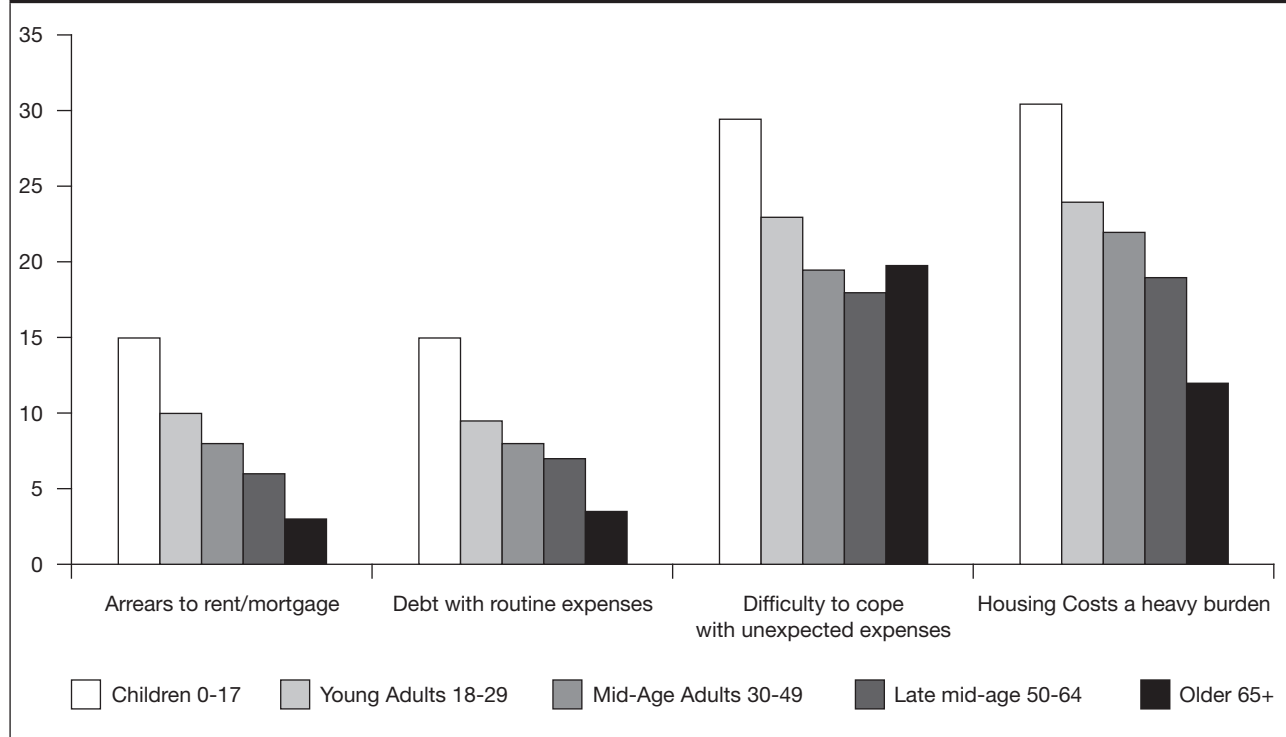
The paths of individual households through the housing stock are influenced by broader societal changes such as increasing incidence of divorce, remarriage and de facto household arrangements as well as life transitions and local housing markets. Just as transition points in the life course are employed to explain residential patterns, so the notion of trajectories has been used to specify “housing careers” (Kendig, 1984) as an organising principle to examine the interactions of housing choices and household family composition, linking housing tenure decisions and the life course.

In a similar manner, Chamberlain and MacKenzie (2003) identify distinct pathways into homelessness. The ‘youth’ career focuses on teenagers forced to leave their family home prior to securing an independent income or position in the labour market. They identify three pathways into adult homelessness. The first is the ‘housing crisis career’. This draws attention to the fact that for many adults it is poverty – and accumulating debt – that underpins the slide into homelessness. There is no ‘in and out’ stage in the housing crisis career. Once adults lose their accommodation there is a sharp break and their problems usually get worse. The second career path into the adult

population focuses on family breakdown, particularly as a result of domestic violence. The third point of entry into the adult population is the transition from youth to adult homelessness. Homeless career is also used to reflect the progression from homelessness occurring at a crisis or transition point and becoming chronic and long-term homelessness.

The life cycle perspective has been applied also to the experience of poverty (Rowntree, 1901) and related aspects of social exclusion. Whelan and Maitre (2008) use the EU-SILC data to analyse social exclusion across the life cycle. They describe a consistent pattern in relation to four indicators of deprivation with the probability of being in a household where the household reference person is experiencing subjective economic stress. Just less than one in ten of the population indicates that they have incurred arrears in relation to rent/mortgage and hire purchase arrangements. The highest level (15 per cent) is observed for households in which children are located. Absolute levels of stress are very similar in relation to finding housing costs to be a burden, but the pattern of age differentiation is sharper. Again, the highest level of 30 per cent is observed for households with children.

Figure 2.3 Subjective Economic Pressures by Life-cycle Stage



Source: Whelan C.T., and Maitre B (2008) *The Life Cycle Perspective on Social Inclusion in Ireland: An Analysis of EU-SILC*, Research Series No. 3, The Economic and Social Research Institute, Dublin

As well as this understanding of the relative economic pressures of housing across the life cycle, a review of the literature on residential choice and mobility suggests that the relative importance of housing needs also changes. We may identify that housing needs may relate to – location (proximity to work, school or relatives), internal space (number of

bedrooms), external space (space for play, relaxation), security of tenure (probability of renting or owning), willingness or ability to move (to relieve housing stress). The following figure illustrates the manner in which housing needs may change across the life course. Empirical research suggests that these factors can be expected to vary as a result of different cultural values and housing market structures.

Figure 2.4 Relative Importance of Housing Needs in the Life Course

Stage	Life Cycle	Housing Needs				
		Internal Space	External Space	Location	Security of Tenure	Willing to Move
I	Young Single	-	-	+	-	+
II	Childless Couple	-	-	+	-	+
III	Couple (Children < 11)	+	+	-	+	-
IV	Couple (Children <18)	+	+	+	+	-
V	Married Couple	-	+	±	+	+
VI	Lone Senior	-	-	-	+	-

Relative Importance to the Household: + = more important; - = less important.

2.1.3 SOCIAL AND POLITICAL NORMS AND CULTURAL VALUES

Access to appropriate and affordable housing of a decent standard is crucial to prevent homelessness and to meet the needs of homeless people. Thus, one of the common objectives of the EU strategy to combat poverty and social exclusion, defined following the Lisbon Summit in 2001, committed national governments “to implement policies which aim to provide access for all to decent and sanitary housing, as well as the basic services necessary to live normally having regard to local circumstances (electricity, water, heating, etc.)”.

This objective highlights three issues related to measurement of homelessness and housing exclusion:

1. the need for a conceptual and operational definition of housing quality and overcrowding. This is discussed in Chapter 6.
2. the need for a typology of accommodation types for homeless people – see Chapter 2.4.
3. the need to consider ways of identifying and counting non-institutional populations who are difficult to measure – e.g. undocumented persons.

First, the objective highlights the fact that the definition of housing quality is normatively determined and varies across Europe depending upon historical structures of the housing market and cultural factors. At the time of writing there is no consistent or European-level definition of housing standards to determine fitness for habitation or of basic amenities required for ‘normal living’. Equally, the determination of the level of overcrowding that makes a dwelling unsuitable for a given household is not consistently defined.

Second, one implication of the objective to ensure access to decent and affordable housing is that the occupancy of housing is sustainable for a household. For households in poverty, this requires a progressive system of housing allowances to ensure that the dwelling is affordable. For other vulnerable households, this can involve linking care planning with housing in different forms of supported accommodation (see Edgar *et al.*, 2000). There is a conceptual debate to resolve whether such housing is included in a definition of homelessness and housing exclusion. Nevertheless the availability, form and level of provision of supported housing are important in monitoring policies which aim to prevent homelessness and to ensure sustainable housing outcomes for people who become homeless.

Third, the objective specifies that access to decent and affordable housing should be the right of all people. The right to housing is seldom justiciable (see Loison-Lereuste and Quilgars, 2009) and is bound up with the concept of citizenship. Thus, immigrants and asylum seekers are often excluded from social housing or other systems of allocation, or may be provided with temporary accommodation while asylum or immigrant status is determined. The reliance on informal housing options and coping strategies for such households is well documented and this inevitably causes problems for measurement (Meert and Stuyck, 2005). Such households are often invisible in official statistics and are difficult to reach in population and housing surveys and register-based systems (Nicaise *et al.*, 2009).

2.2 Terminology Issues

This section considers the basic terminology which is necessary to allow a common understanding of the issues involved to conceptually define and operationally measure homelessness and housing exclusion.

2.2.1 A HOUSEHOLD

The definition of a household is an essential concept to establish in order to measure homelessness. Individuals can, of course, live on their own or as part of a family group or of a group of unrelated people who share accommodation, or they may live with other people in institutional structures. This section discusses three approaches to developing a household definition: the census definition, the minimal household unit concept and the model families analysis.

Census definitions across Europe make a distinction between a private household population and an institutional population and are reasonably consistent in defining a household. The UNECE/EUROSTAT report (2006) identifies two definitions of a private household – the house-keeping definition and the household-dwelling definition (see Figure 2.5).

Figure 2.5 Definition of a Private Household

A private household is either:

- a. A one-person household, that is a person who lives alone in a separate housing unit or who occupies, as a lodger, a separate room (or rooms) of a housing unit but does not join with any of the other occupants of the housing unit to form part of a multi-person household as defined below; or
- b. A multi-person household, that is a group of two or more persons who combine to occupy the whole or part of a housing unit and to provide themselves with food and possibly other essentials for living. Members of the group may pool their incomes to a greater or lesser extent.

This concept of a private household is known as the **house-keeping concept**.

Some countries may be unable to collect data on common house-keeping of household members, for example when their census is register-based. Many of these countries use a different concept of the private household, namely, the **household-dwelling concept**. The household-dwelling concept considers all persons living in a housing unit to be members of the same household, such that there is one household per occupied housing unit. In the household-dwelling concept, then, the number of occupied housing units and the number of households occupying them is equal, and the locations of the housing units and households are identical.

Source: UNECE/EUROSTAT, 2006

The UNECE/EUROSTAT report (2006) defines an institutional household as comprising persons whose need for shelter and subsistence are provided by an institution (being a defined legal body). Institutional accommodation usually has common facilities shared by occupants (baths, lounges, eating facilities). Furthermore, sleeping facilities are often in the form of dormitories or are situations where, in law, the individual can not exercise exclusive possession. The report defines seven categories of institutional household (see Figure 2.6). Although hotels, lodging houses and similar forms of accommodation are defined in the UNECE/EUROSTAT report (2006; p126) as collective living quarters, people living there are regarded as private households since they have a usually resident address for census purposes at another location.

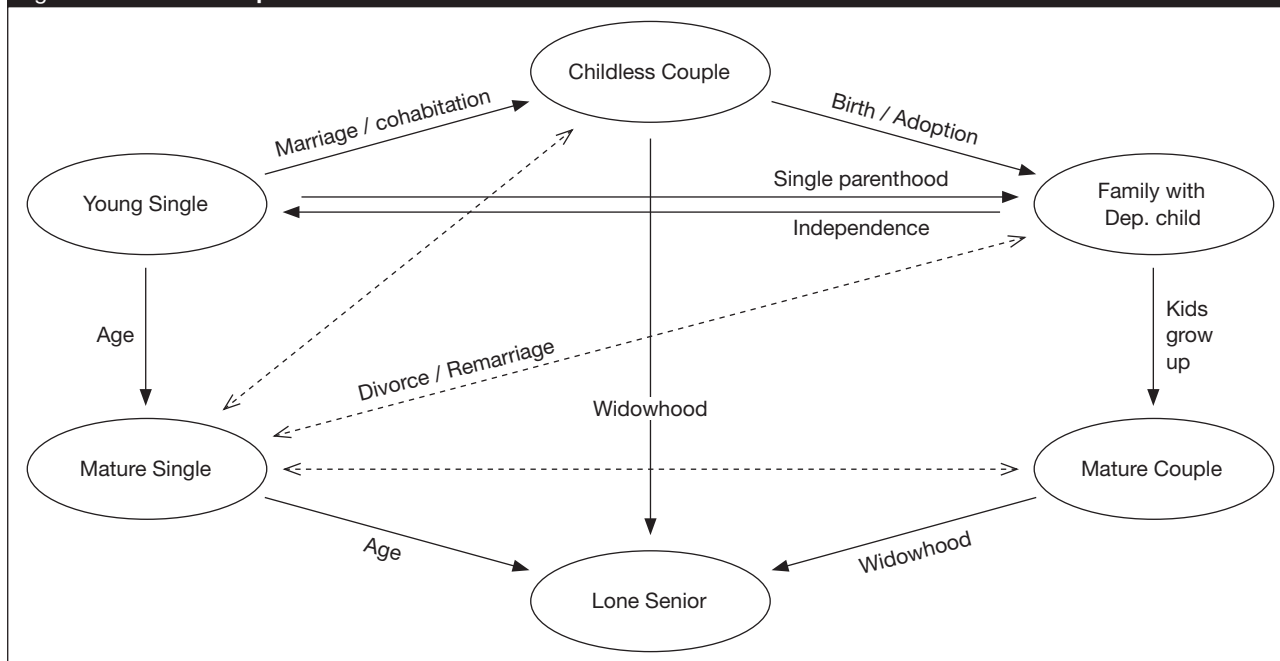
Figure 2.6 Categories of Institutional Household

1. Residences for students
2. Hospitals, convalescent homes, establishments for the disabled, psychiatric institutions, old people's homes and nursing homes
3. Assisted living facilities and welfare institutions including those for the homeless
4. Military barracks
5. Correctional and penal institutions
6. Religious institutions, and
7. Worker dormitories

Source: UNECE/Eurostat Report, 2006

This definition of a household is necessary to allow a common understanding between policymakers. However, it is not sufficient to allow an understanding of the factors that can lead to vulnerability in the housing market for different types of household. The components, or building blocks, which combine to form households have been called 'minimal household units'. The life course analysis described above gives one framework for identifying household units. An economic theory of household formation identifies economic factors (such as income) and other social and demographic characteristics of the household members that have a significant influence on the probability of its being a separate household and different life course trajectories related to household status (Ermisch and Overton, 1985). This model distinguishes six distinct types of household (see figure 2.7). Access to the labour market and to social protection is different for each of these household units in all welfare regimes (Heidenreich, and Zeitlin 2009). These economic, social and demographic characteristics of the different household units can therefore be expected to result in differential access to, and vulnerability in, the housing market. This in part arises from the fact that housing needs are different for the household types.

Figure 2.7 The Concept of the Minimal Household Unit



Source: Ermisch and Overton, 1985

Policy evaluation and comparative analysis of policies between countries requires a common base for assessment. The model families approach has been employed as a basis for comparative research on social policy for different policy domains (Bradshaw *et al.*, 1993, OECD, 2005). This also allows policymakers to choose model families that are representative, not perhaps of the population, but of groups of specific policy interest (Atkinson *et al.*, 2007). If the model families analysis is to be useful in the social inclusion process, then it requires agreement on the range of family types and the Indicators Sub-Group has made a start on this process – see figure 2.8 (Atkinson *et al.*, 2007; p130).

Figure 2.8 Model Family Definition

- Households with no dependent children:
- > Single person, under 65 years old
 - > Single person, 65 years and over
 - > Single women
 - > Single men
 - > Two adults, at least one person 65 years and over
 - > Two adults, both under 65 years
 - > Other households

- Households with dependent children:
- > Single parent, 1 or more dependent children
 - > Two adults, one dependent child
 - > Two adults, two dependent children
 - > Two adults, three or more dependent children
 - > Three or more adults with dependent children

(Note: Dependent children are individuals aged 0 – 15 years and 16 – 24 years if inactive and living with at least one parent).

While the model family definition is useful it does not relate clearly to stage in the family life cycle in the way in which the minimal household unit concept can be understood (i.e. moving between different family types across the life cycle). In defining the stage in the family life course for each individual it is possible to define a different number of stages. Whelan and Maître (2008) employ the following set of categories (for the referent household person):

- > Children aged <5 years
- > Children aged 5-17 years
- > Living with others (working age)
- > Living with partner (working age, 18-54)
- > Lone parent
- > Living with partner and children
- > Living alone (Working age)
- > Living with partner (working age, 55-64)
- > Living with partner (older people)
- > Living with others (older people)
- > Living alone (older people)

2.2.2 LIVING SITUATIONS

It has been argued that any definition of homelessness and housing exclusion should avoid the stigmatisation of the homeless or, as the CNIS study describes it (CNIS, 1996), the creation of a statistical ghetto. The UNECE/EUROSTAT report (2006) considers the relationship between households and living quarters which it defines as “those housing types which are the usual residences of one or more persons” (para. 590). The concept of living quarters is qualified by the definitions of the main categories into which living quarters are divided. The report recommends a simple three-fold definition of conventional dwellings, other housing units and collective living quarters as follows:

- (1.0) Occupied conventional dwellings
- (2.0) Other housing units
 - (2.1) Mobile units
 - (2.2) Semi-permanent units
 - (2.3) Other units designed for habitation
 - (2.4) Other units not designed for habitation
- (3.0) Collective living quarters
 - (3.1) Hotels, rooming houses and other lodging houses
 - (3.2) Institutions
 - (3.3) Camps

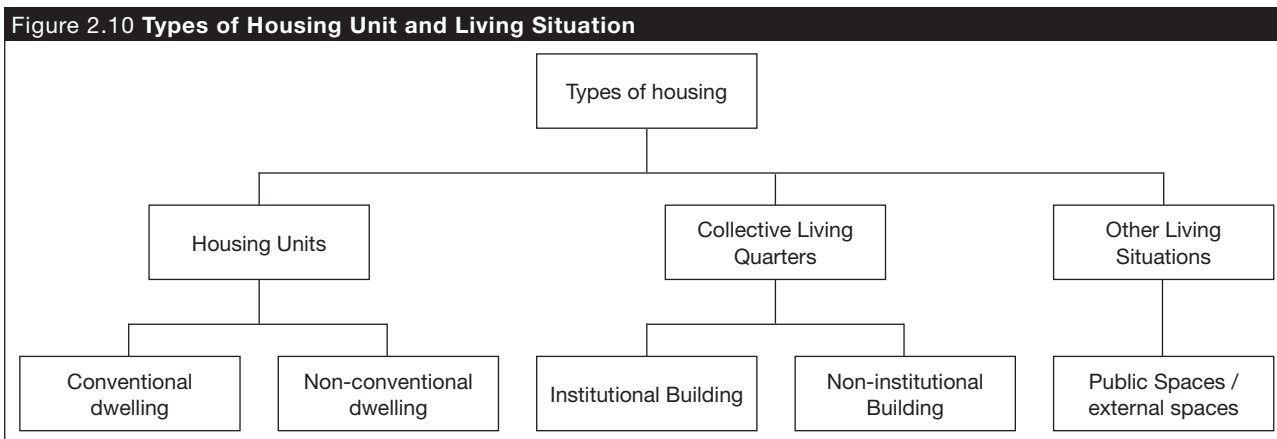
According to the UNECE/EUROSTAT Recommendations (2006; p126) conventional dwellings are structurally separate and independent premises which are designed for permanent human habitation at a fixed location and are used wholly for residential purposes. The report defines the meaning of separate and independent. However, some housing units do not come within the category of conventional dwellings either because they are mobile, semi-permanent or improvised or are not designed for human habitation but which are used as the usual residence of one or more persons (UNECE/EUROSTAT, 2006). Grouped under the category of other housing units these non-conventional dwellings include mobile dwellings (including boats), temporary structures, makeshift shelters and premises not designed or intended for habitation (see Figure 2.9). To these definitions we could also add, for the purposes of a comprehensive typology of living situations, dwellings that are defined as structurally unsound or unfit for habitation which are used as a place of usual residence.

Figure 2.9 Definitions of Non-Conventional Dwellings

- a. transported (such as a tent) or which is a moving unit (such as a ship, yacht, boat, barge or caravan) and which is designed for human habitation and is occupied at the time of the census, that is, it is somebody's usual residence. Nomad camps should be included in this category. Passenger quarters in means of transport such as passenger ships, railroad cars and aircraft should not be considered as other housing units and the persons who happen to be travelling in them at the time of the census should not be counted as living in these vehicles, ships or aircraft.
- b. A semi-permanent housing unit is an independent structure such as a hut or a cabin which has been constructed with locally available crude materials such as wooden planks, sun-dried bricks, straw or any similar vegetable materials for the purpose of habitation by one private household and which is used as the usual residence of at least one person at the time of the census. Such units may be expected to last for only a limited time, although occasionally they may last for longer periods.
- c. Other housing units designed for habitation comprise independent, makeshift shelters or structures such as shacks and shanties, which have been built of waste materials, which are used as the usual residence of at least one person at the time of the census.
- d. Other housing units not designed for habitation comprise premises in permanent or semi-permanent buildings such as stables, barns, mills, garages, warehouses, offices, etc. which have not been built, rebuilt, converted or arranged for human habitation but are, nevertheless, used by one or more private households as their usual residence at the time of the census. This category also includes natural shelters such as caves, which are used by one or more private households as their usual residence at the time of the census.

Source: UNECE/Eurostat (2005) p127

We would make a distinction also in the category of collective living situations between institutional buildings and non-institutional buildings. We make this distinction since institutions are understood to be distinct legal bodies providing services and accommodation for a defined group of persons. Although this is not strictly a physical principle it determines the nature of the physical form of institutional accommodation which can therefore be distinguished from non-institutional forms (such as hotels and hostels). We would add public spaces as a living place to capture the reality of people who live rough in such spaces. Figure 2.10, which is adapted from the UNECE/EUROSTAT report (2006; Chart 4) summarises this approach.



Source: Adapted from UNECE/EUROSTAT (2005) Chart 4, p 123

Applying this concept to a classification of living situations, it is possible to identify a range of physical situations in which people live (Edgar *et al.*, 2007; see 2.11).

Figure 2.11 Physical Dwellings Forms

Housing Type	Categories of Housing Form	Description of Housing Types	
Housing Units	Conventional dwelling	1 Permanent stationary structure (meant for habitation)	
	Non-conventional dwelling (structure not meant for habitation)	2	Moveable structures (boat, caravan)
		3	Non-standard buildings (temporary or semi-permanent units)
		4	Makeshift structures, shelters and huts
		5	Permanent standard buildings whose function is not intended for habitation (shops, offices, industrial, transport)
		6	Derelict (structurally unsound) buildings or buildings classed as unfit for habitation
Collective Living Quarters	Institutional building (meant for habitation)	7	Penal and correctional institutions
		8	Hospital and health care institutions
		9	Religious establishments
		10	Employment (army/police barracks, nursing or prison staff residences)
		11	Educational (boarding schools, university halls of residence)
	Non-institutional building	12	Hotel accommodation or guest house (including bed and breakfast)
Camps	13	Hostels	
	14	Social welfare accommodation	
Public Living Situations	Public Spaces / External Spaces	15	Workers' dormitories
		16	Refugee camps, Workers' camps, Military camps
		17	Communal areas of public buildings or spaces
		18	External public spaces

Figure 2.12 summarises this understanding linking the living situation to types of homeless situation.



Figure 2.12 Comparison of Living Situations and Homeless Definition

Living Situation			Homeless Category
Housing Units	Conventional Dwellings		Living temporarily with family and friends because of a lack of a home Living temporarily in conventional dwelling awaiting re-housing due to homelessness Living in conventional dwellings which are not fit for habitation
		Non-conventional Dwellings	
		Mobile Units	No permanent site or mooring
		Semi-permanent Units	Not fit for habitation
		Other Units Designed for Habitation	Dwellings not fit for habitation
		Other Units Not Designed for Habitation	Buildings not meant to be lived in
Collective Living Quarters	Institutional Buildings	Penal	Release within defined period with no home available
		Health	People living in hospitals or institutions because of a lack of suitable housing and/or support
	Non-institutional Buildings	Hotel	Hotels, B & B, pensions or similar paid for by public body or NGO due to homeless emergency
		Hostels	Emergency hostels (homeless, refuge for domestic violence) Temporary or longer stay hostels for the homeless
		Welfare	Temporary accommodation with support for homeless people
		Workers' Hostels	Migrant workers' hostels Immigrant reception centres
Other Situations	Public Spaces / External Spaces	Public spaces / external spaces	Living rough, outdoors or in a place not meant for habitation

2.3. Conceptual Approach to the Definition of Homelessness and Housing Exclusion

In order to define homelessness in an operational way, we identified three domains which constitute a home, the absence of which can be taken to delineate homelessness. Having a home can be understood as: having a decent dwelling (or space) adequate to meet the needs of the person and his/her family (*physical domain*); being able to maintain privacy and enjoy social relations (*social domain*) and having exclusive possession, security of occupation and legal title (*legal domain*).

Undoubtedly, homelessness is amongst the worst examples of social exclusion. Therefore, it is a valuable exercise to consider the varying “extent and depth” of different forms of homelessness, according to their relation to the three domains of homelessness. Figure 2.13 visualises seven theoretical types of homelessness and housing exclusion, varying between rough sleeping on the one side and living within a decent and legally occupied dwelling without safety (e.g. women who experience domestic abuse) on the other side (see Table 2.1). These are explained in the Third Review of Statistics on Homelessness (Edgar *et al.*, 2004) and form the basis of the ETHOS typology of homelessness.

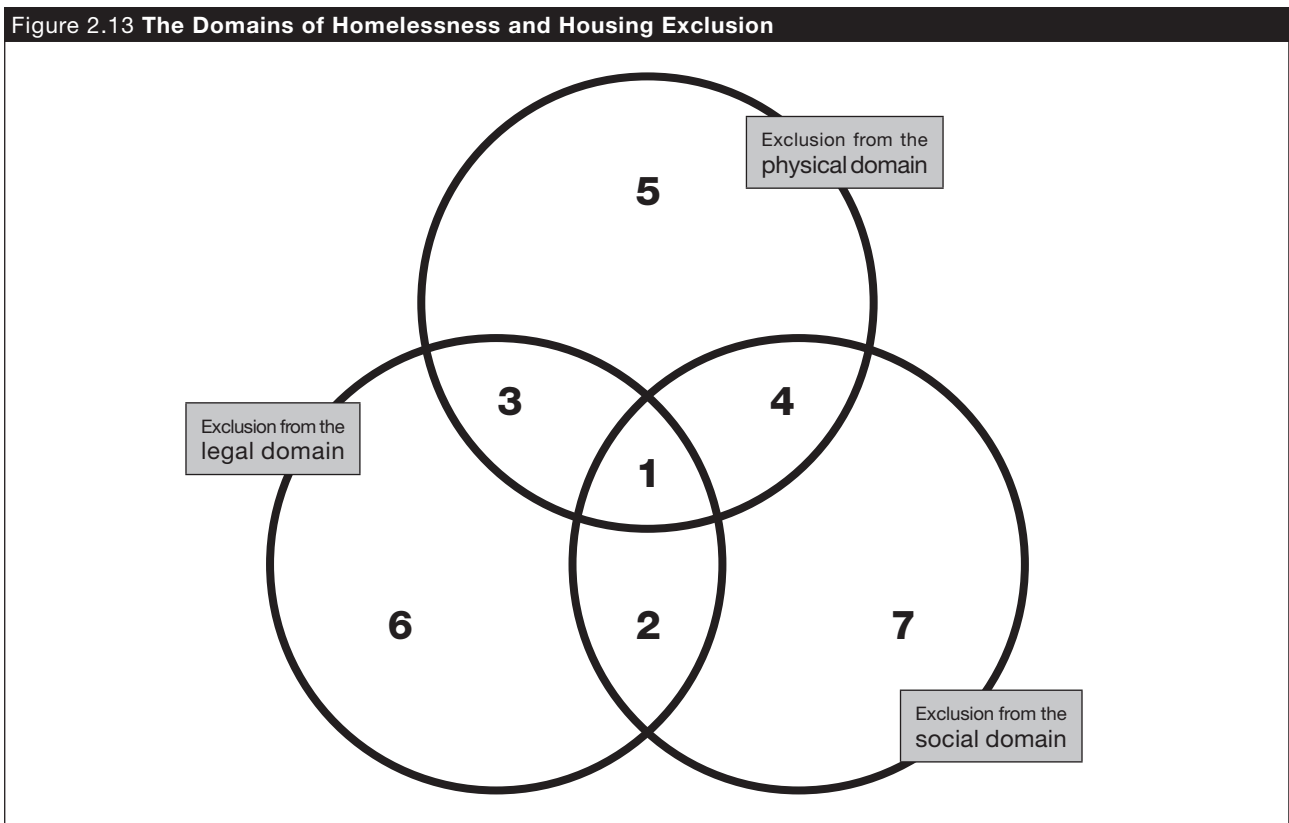


Table 2.1 Seven theoretical domains of homelessness

Conceptual Category	Operational Category	Physical Domain	Legal Domain	Social Domain
Homelessness	1 Rooflessness	No dwelling (roof)	No legal title to a space for exclusive possession	No private and safe personal space for social relations
	2 Houselessness	Has a place to live, fit for habitation	No legal title to a space for exclusive possession	No private and safe personal space for social relations
Housing exclusion	3 Insecure and Inadequate housing	Has a place to live (not secure and unfit for habitation)	No security of tenure	Has space for social relations
	4 Inadequate housing and social isolation within a legally occupied dwelling	Inadequate dwelling (unfit for habitation)	Has legal title and/or security of tenure	No private and safe personal space for social relations
	5 Inadequate housing (secure tenure)	Inadequate dwelling (dwelling unfit for habitation)	Has legal title and/or security of tenure	Has space for social relations
	6 Insecure housing (adequate housing)	Has a place to live	No security of tenure	Has space for social relations
	7 Social isolation within a secure and adequate context	Has a place to live	Has legal title and/or security of tenure	No private and safe personal space for social relations

Using this conceptual understanding of homelessness, FEANTSA adopted a conceptual definition of homelessness and housing exclusion, outlined in Table 2.1, and developed this into an operational definition including 13 categories

which is presented in Appendix 1. This conception of homelessness is still being discussed within the European Observatory on Homelessness (EOH) and the FEANTSA Data Collection Working Group.

2.4. Defining Homeless Services and Accommodation Services

At national level, social services are engaged in a modernisation process to respond to changing needs and societal challenges (for example, the ageing of the population), while at the same time facing financial constraints. This modernisation process is notably characterised by increased outsourcing of public tasks to the private sector. As a consequence, a growing proportion of these services fall into the field of application of Community rules on competition and the internal market. As a first step towards a systematic approach to clarify the framework in which social services (including homelessness services) operate in Europe, the Commission adopted in April 2006 a “Communication on social services of general interest in the European Union” (http://ec.europa.eu/services_general_interest/interest_en.htm) providing a first indication on the specific characteristics of the sector and giving some guidance on the application of Community rules. It is in this context that this section examines the typology of homeless services in order to map these services onto the definition of homelessness and living situations. It should be highlighted that the nature of services changes over time in response to changing systems of intervention, and so any typology derived at national level needs to be reviewed.

eu/services_general_interest/interest_en.htm) providing a first indication on the specific characteristics of the sector and giving some guidance on the application of Community rules. It is in this context that this section examines the typology of homeless services in order to map these services onto the definition of homelessness and living situations. It should be highlighted that the nature of services changes over time in response to changing systems of intervention, and so any typology derived at national level needs to be reviewed.

2.4.1 TYPOLOGY OF HOMELESS SERVICES

In examining the range of services provided to homeless people across the European Community, a broad typology of services emerges:

Service Type	Example
Accommodation for homeless people	<i>emergency shelters, temporary hostels, supported or transitional housing</i>
Non-residential services for homeless people	<i>outreach services, day centres, advice services</i>
Accommodation for other client groups that may be used by homeless people	<i>hotels, bed and breakfast, specialist support and residential care services for people with alcohol, drug or mental health problems</i>
Mainstream services for the general population that may be used by homeless people	<i>advice services, municipal services, health and social care services</i>
Specialist support services for other client groups that may be used by homeless people	<i>psychiatric counselling services, drug detoxification facilities</i>

These services may be provided by a wide range of service providers including the public or state sector (at a national, regional or local level), NGOs and the private sector. Funding for services may be provided by state, private or charitable sources, or a combination of these sources.

“Services for homeless people reflect, to some degree, the differences in the welfare regimes in which they are embedded. This, in itself, is not sufficient to explain the development and innovation in service provision, nor does it help to understand the convergence we can perceive in recent innovation in the approach and purpose of services to alleviate and prevent homelessness.... This development is evident in a shift from emergency services focused on street homelessness to services aimed at re-settlement and prevention and targeted on an individual basis or on groups of homeless people with specific support needs. That shift is also evident in an increasing diversity in the actors involved and in the roles they perform in service provision.”¹

Given the wide diversity of types and different levels of provision or services for homeless people between different countries, it is not possible to provide a general typology of services that can be used without difficulty in every country. Instead, we propose a methodology for identifying those services that may be classified as homeless services in order to contribute to a statistical understanding of the levels of homelessness. This procedure builds upon that outlined by FEANTSA in its Fourth Annual Review of Statistics on Homelessness in Europe (Edgar *et al.*, 2005).

Therefore, there will be a need within each national context to keep the definition of homelessness services under review, in order to reflect the changing patterns of provision in practice. An example of the need for this is illustrated by the situation in Hungary, where the range of homelessness services are laid down in the Social Act, but new types of services, often provided by NGOs have developed outside this legislative framework.

It should also be noted that homelessness services are not a static phenomenon, but subject to ongoing growth and development. This process has been characterised as a move from a ‘police’ to a ‘treatment’ to a ‘social’ model of service delivery (Edgar *et al.*, 1999).

¹ Edgar *et al.*, 2003

“Dispatcher centres” and “Crisis cars” can be mentioned as good examples here. These services play a very important role for example in the homeless care in Budapest, in the co-ordination of the care services. Without these we only could talk about distinct service providers and could not mention a co-ordinated system of care services. Their closing down would remarkably impair the effectiveness and level of subsidised services. Still, these services are unknown and not controlled by legislation and are excluded from guaranteed normative subsidisation. It will be soon clear that this does not under any circumstances constitute a disadvantage, it is only mentioned to demonstrate that there are important homeless care services existing also outside the range of legislation.

Typologies of service provision have been developed in different countries in Europe (see Edgar et al., 2007). In the UK, Resource Information Service have been publishing directories and databases of homelessness services for over 20 years. They have evolved a classification of homelessness services that they use in their Homeless UK website and their range of homelessness directories for major cities in the UK (see Table 2.2). Recent work in Italy to map the services for the homeless has developed a classification of service provision (see Figure 2.14).

Figure 2.14 Classification of Services for the Homeless – Italy

SUPPORT SERVICES FOR PRIMARY NEEDS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Distribution of food - Distribution of clothing - Distribution of medicines - Showers and personal hygiene - Canteens - Road units - One-off economic support
RESIDENTIAL SERVICES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Emergency dormitories - Dormitories - Semi-residential communities - Residential communities - Protected accommodations - Self-managed accommodations
NON RESIDENTIAL SERVICES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Non residential centres - Residential communities - Recreational centres - Laboratories
SOCIAL SECRETARIAT SERVICE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Information and guidance services - Fictitious place of residence - Domiciliation - Implementation of formalities - Assistance through territorial services
ASSISTANCE SERVICES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Tailored projects - Psychological counselling - Educational counselling - Educational support - Psychological support - Structured economic support - Reintegration in the labour market - Nursing/doctor’s surgeries - Custody and administration of therapies

Source: Fiopds, 2009

Table 2.2 UK classification		
Type of service	Main sub-type	Detailed sub-type
Accommodation	Emergency	Direct Access
		Nightstop
		Rolling shelter
		Winter shelter
	Second stage	Low support
		Medium support
		High support
		Foyer
		Housing scheme
	Specialist	Alcohol and drugs
		Ex-offenders
		Leaving care
		Mental health
		Single parents
	Working people	
Non-residential	Advice and information	
	Counselling	
	Day centre	
	Employment and training	
	Floating support	
	Health care	
	Helpline	
	Homeless advice	
	Housing advice	
	Housing Department	
	Practical help	
	Second tier and campaigning	
Social Services/Social Work Department		

This classification has been developed primarily for purposes of access and referral, and again, not all services classified under this classification are exclusively used by homeless people. It also excludes some specialist provision for particular client groups such as homeless families accepted as homeless by local authorities which are outside the scope of their directories.

2.4.2 MAPPING TO CLASSIFICATION OF LIVING SITUATIONS AND HOMELESSNESS

In the FEANTSA Annual Review of Statistics on Homelessness in Europe², the authors elaborate a conceptual method of mapping a nomenclature of homeless accommodation services onto the ETHOS typology with considerations of the situation in each member state for each category of homelessness. This section takes this approach as a starting point and then builds on this method, to outline some operational guidelines for dealing with some of the problematic issues raised, and applying it to the classification developed in the last chapter.

² Edgar et al., 2005

The main problematic issues encountered in classifying accommodation services according to who they house is summarised in the following quotes from the FEANTSA report:

“in a number of countries, it is difficult to distinguish between overnight hostels and accommodation with more transitional functions. Often the same accommodation is used for emergency night shelter and for generalist homeless accommodation (categories 2 and 3 in the ETHOS typology).”³

“Finally, there are difficulties in identifying supported accommodation provided for homeless people from that provided for other vulnerable groups either because the funding and management arrangements do not separately distinguish the homeless from other vulnerable families or because the data is not collected in relation to client groups.”⁴

The criteria that are of most use for determining whether a service or type of service falls into one or another of the above three broad categories include access criteria (direct

³ Edgar et al., 2005

⁴ Edgar et al., 2005

access by homeless people, or referral from an agency), length of stay (overnight, short stay or long stay) and the purpose of the accommodation. These can be summarised in the following table:

Access criteria	Direct Referral	In person From agency or statutory body
Period of stay	Overnight Short (not defined) Short (defined) Longer-term	Normally not 24 hour stay While awaiting assessment/rehousing Period linked to training, support or move-on Linked to resettlement support, rehabilitation
Purpose / Intention	Emergency Interim Transitional Specialist	Crisis Assessment for support or re-housing Receiving support or training Resettlement, rehabilitation or refuge

By using a combination of these criteria, it is possible to create a broad typology of homelessness services. However, it is still hard in some individual cases to classify services into these service types for statistical purposes.

“It is difficult even to separately identify data for emergency hostels from general homeless (short stay) hostels in most countries.... In some countries there is a clear separation

between emergency provision and other forms of hostel (for reception, assessment, transitional living or temporary accommodation), while in other countries there is more of a continuum of provision.”⁵

Edgar *et al.*, (2007 ; p79) further develop this approach “we believe that by considering some additional criteria, it should be possible to classify homelessness accommodation services into one of four types to map onto the homelessness population as follows”:

⁵ Edgar *et al.*, 2005

Table 2.4 Mapping accommodation services to classification of living situations

Living situation	Access	Intended length of stay	Purpose	Other criteria	
Homeless	2 People in emergency accommodation	Direct access or by referral	Overnight or for a few nights	To provide a bed for a homeless person or family Main purpose is accommodation, but other services such as practical assistance or low level support may also be offered.	Low threshold Do not always require ID Often free to use Often maintain a day-time curfew Often no formal legal tenancy More likely to be shared sleeping accommodation Access is normally on day of referral
	3 People living in accommodation for the homeless	Direct access or by referral	Short – medium stay (up to 12 months)	To provide accommodation to homeless people who meet defined criteria, such as a need for support or access as part of a planned programme. The accommodation is intended to be short stay, although some people may be long-term residents through lack of alternatives Support provision is variable but normally intended to be assistance with rehousing or move-on to supported housing	Prime purpose of service is to provide accommodation rather than support – however many residents will have support needs, and support may be provided Often have restrictions on resident access (night-time curfews) or visitors policies May operate waiting lists, or have a referral process that takes several days
	4 People in crisis shelters for domestic violence	Direct access or by referral	Short stay, but can include crisis stays of very short duration	Accommodation is specifically for women and children experiencing domestic violence or abuse.	Accommodation normally for both women and children May be either crisis/emergency or longer term – or even provided via floating support
Not homeless	People receiving support (due to homelessness)	Normally by referral	Long stay, and in some cases permanent	The accommodation is either targeted at a specific client group with specialist support needs or if for homeless people is intended to offer long-term accommodation.	Care or support plans are normally compulsory Access is normally via a referral process that takes several days or weeks Residents normally have tenancy agreements and have 24 hour access to the accommodation Sharing of sleeping accommodation is rare Levels of staff cover depend upon levels of support provided

2.5 Operational Issues

The ETHOS typology of homelessness and housing exclusion was developed to reflect the different pathways into homelessness and to emphasise the dynamic nature of the process of homelessness. Some researchers argue that homelessness typically consists of residential instability rather than continual absence of accommodation and so have added a time element to their definitions. Homelessness has also been differentiated by broad duration of homelessness as consisting of the chronic homeless (people who live on the periphery and may remain homeless for long periods of time), the cyclical homeless (people who lose their home during a transition phase in their life) and the temporary homeless (who are without accommodation for a relatively short period) (Statistics New Zealand, 2009). Thus, for example, the Conseil National de l'Information Statistique (CNIS) developed a classification of housing situations which included a temporal classification (stability/insecurity classification) (Clanche, 2000). This highlights that one of the key operational issues in measuring homelessness is the temporal dimension.

The episodic nature of homelessness, and the difference in the duration of homelessness for some people, means that the time of data collection can be critical in determining the nature and scale of the phenomenon that is recorded. In survey methods of data collection, seasonal factors as well as the length of the survey period (one night and one week are commonly used) can affect the outcome of the findings. Equally, in register-based systems continuous recording can provide information at different points in the system (entry and exit) and analysis needs to determine the appropriate recording period.

In counting homelessness, it is important to specify whether what is being measured is the stock, the flow or the prevalence of homelessness. Fitzpatrick *et al.*, (2000) give a clear description of this aspect of the measurement issue. They define these elements as:

- > The **stock** of homelessness refers to the number of people or households who are homeless at any point in time. Survey data – for example counts of rough sleepers – is point-in-time or stock data; equally, the specification of the supply capacity in terms of the number of bed-spaces available is a stock figure.
- > The **flow** of homelessness refers to the people who have become homeless, or ceased to be homeless, during any time period. The number of people entering and leaving a homeless accommodation service over time is an example of flow information.
- > The **prevalence** refers to the number of people who have experienced homelessness during a particular time period (period prevalence or lifetime prevalence). The relevant time period will reflect both the data instrument and the policy purpose for which the data is collected. Thus, for example, a homeless module in EU-SILC may ask if people have experienced an episode of homelessness in the last ten years. Or prevalence data can be derived from homeless service registers or administrative records (e.g. the number of prisoners released during a period who have no permanent home to return to).

3 Overview of Approaches to Measuring Homelessness

Introduction

The legislative basis and governance of data collection on homelessness is only weakly developed in most countries. As a result, responsibility for data collection on homelessness is often not clearly defined or co-ordinated. Only a small number of countries have national homeless strategies with a clear responsibility for monitoring and implementation (see chapter 4). A significant number of countries have no official or co-ordinated sources of data collection on homelessness, including most of the EU-10 countries. Countries with a federal structure of government (Austria, Belgium, Germany and Spain) have no national approach to data collection though some regions have more developed systems in place. The following sections describe first, the situation of data collection across the different welfare regimes in Europe and second, the different approaches to data collection. More detail can be found in the national position papers for the 20 countries involved in the MPHASIS project which form the basis of the following description (<http://www.trp.dundee.ac.uk/research/mphasis/meetings.html>).

3.1. Description of Data Collection by Welfare Regime

3.1.1. EU-15 COUNTRIES

The situation of data collection on homelessness and housing exclusion in the EU-15 is best summarised by reference to the different welfare regimes.

The Nordic Countries

(Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden)

All four countries have national homeless strategies and clear responsibility for the monitoring and implementation of those strategies (including responsibility for data collection). It has also been a long-standing approach in the Nordic countries to establish a register-based system of population and housing for the census (UNECE, 2007). However, there appears to be some difficulty in obtaining information on homeless people from such registers. Each Nordic country has undertaken national surveys of homelessness, and although the approach has differed, there are broad similarities. All the

countries have a specific operational definition of homelessness for the purpose of the survey. While Finland has undertaken an annual survey since the 1980s, the other three countries have had less regular surveys. However, despite some disparities in approach and definition over time in each country, the surveys have been frequent enough for all the countries to be able to understand broad trends which have been used to guide policy development. All four countries have recognised the need to include all key stakeholders in the process; for example, the Swedish strategy is entitled “Homelessness: Multiple Faces, Multiple Responsibilities” and the Danish “Our Collective Responsibility”. Detailed descriptions of the surveys can be found elsewhere (Finland – Kärkkäinen 2005; Denmark – Benjaminsen and Christensen, 2007; Norway – Dyb and Johannessen 2009; Sweden – NBHW, 2009)

In addition to the homelessness surveys, specific features also characterise each country’s approach to data collection and monitoring. Norway has a statistics system called KOSTRA (*KOmmune-Stat-RApportering*, “Municipality-State-Reporting”), which is a national information system providing information about municipal operations. There are primarily three systems in the municipalities which deal with homelessness: BOKART (a system for charting homeless people and those suffering hardship on the housing market), the social security systems and IPLOS (a national register which describes those applying for or receiving care services and itemises the services the municipality provides). Denmark has a register-based system for accommodation provided under specific sections of the Social Welfare Act which uses the national identity numbers of individuals and geo-references and thus allows for detailed geographic and service sector analysis as well as longitudinal analysis. Sweden has recently reviewed its overall approach to data collection and evaluated the data available from different sources (NBHW, 2009⁶). In Finland, the Ministry of the Environment established a group of “wise men” to develop a programme to

6 <http://www.trp.dundee.ac.uk/research/mphasis/Sweden.html>

reduce long-term homelessness and a working group has been tasked to consider the quantitative aspects of this programme including relevant monitoring data.

The Liberal Atlantic (Ireland, UK)

Ireland has an agreed national strategy on homelessness which guides the approach to data collection. In the UK, the devolved system of government since 1999 now means that there are regional variations to homeless strategies. However, while Ireland now has a strategy for data collection agreed by all stakeholders under the auspices of the homeless strategy, such a position does not hold in the constituent parts of the UK.

The Way Home, the new Government strategy to address adult homelessness from 2008 to 2013, was published in August 2008. It builds on the progress achieved in tackling homelessness through the implementation of the *Integrated Homeless Strategy* (2000) and *Preventative Strategy* (2002) and is informed by the findings and recommendations of the *Independent Review 2006*. The question of data collection and the development of a new national information system is an integral component of the new homeless strategy, and a review of existing information systems and establishment of a nationwide system is one of the national actions listed in the strategy to be taken forward in the Implementation Plan. The Implementation Plan is being developed in consultation with the relevant statutory bodies through the Cross Departmental Team, with input from the statutory and non-governmental service providers through the NHCC.

Under the Housing Act 1988, local authorities are responsible for making periodic assessments of the number and type of homeless households in their administrative areas. Triennial assessments of homelessness have been carried out by local authorities since 1991 as part of the general housing needs assessment.

Since 1999, there has been continued development and improvement in the methods used to assess homelessness in Dublin. The Homeless Agency, involving the four Dublin local authorities, has refined a survey method (published as "*Counted In*" 1999, 2002 and 2005) that provides a robust assessment of those using homeless services. The survey method involves a questionnaire being completed by every person (or household) in touch with homeless services and/or registered with a local authority over the course of one week. It uses a unique identifier for each household to avoid duplication and provides a reasonably comprehensive picture of homelessness. In addition, because the same method

is applied with consistency in each assessment, trends and comparisons can be made over time. The survey method used has been developed through partnership with statutory and non-governmental service providers and the survey takes place within the broader context of the national statutory assessment of housing need, which is also conducted every three years. Each March and November, the Homeless Agency carries out a count of people sleeping rough across the Dublin City Council area, and once a year a count is undertaken across the four local authorities in Dublin.

UK (England and Wales)

The English homelessness strategy (ODPM, 2005) sets out government's plans on reducing homelessness, including the target to halve the number of households in temporary accommodation by 2010. The strategy makes explicit reference to continuing to improve information on homelessness (it mentions a review of the way statistics are collected and the survey of 2,500 households (Pleace et al, 2008). The strategy also explains that the Government monitors local authorities' delivery of their own homelessness strategies (which they are required to produce) through self-assessments, the quarterly statistics on homelessness decisions and annual estimates of rough sleeping.

In England, homelessness data collection is centred around the operation of the homelessness legislation. The main data set is the P1E homelessness return which is collected by every local housing authority in England on a quarterly basis. P1E is primarily designed to monitor decisions taken by the local authorities as to whether or not a household is statutorily homeless, in priority need, and owed the main duty or is intentionally homeless, not homeless or otherwise ineligible for assistance. The statistics are confined to a 'head count' of households, so an authority records, for example, the number of decisions it has taken, a count of the different types of household that it has accepted and a count of the statutorily homeless households in temporary accommodation arranged by the authority each quarter. Details on each household, in the sense of a case record or 'file' of data about each household are usually recorded by each local authority in England. This case record data is not collated at national level in England. There is no equivalent in England of the Scottish (HL1) statistics that record the size, membership, support needs and service outcomes for each individual statutorily homeless household. P1E data only records how

many of each decision type and household type there are⁷. In addition to the data held on P1E, local authorities complete an HSSA (Housing Strategy Statistical Appendix) return, which provides some information on the re-housing of statutorily homeless households. This gives a record of how many statutorily homeless households an authority has housed itself, how many have been referred to a housing association and how many have taken up private rented sector lets. The data are again confined to simple counts of each outcome⁸.

The other major data sets in England centre on social housing lets and the provision of supported housing. The CORE returns on social housing lets do contain records for each household that have been found statutorily homeless and received a new social housing let, provided either by a local authority or a housing association. CORE does not represent an entirely comprehensive set of records on statutory homelessness because it does not quite include all social landlords, nor are records held for the small number of statutorily homeless households who are re-housed using the private rented sector. Unlike P1E, CORE also records data on 'other' homeless households who have not been found eligible for assistance under the homelessness legislation⁹.

The Client Record for supported housing and the linked Outcomes Data, currently known as the 'Supporting People' data sets, are service episode delivery statistics for hostels, night-shelters, supported housing and floating support and resettlement services that are used by homeless people. Again, these statistics do not represent a record about each homeless household or individual, they are instead a record of which services have been delivered to a homeless individual or household, a count of how many hostel stays, or how much support has been provided by floating support services to homeless service users. This data-set records information on the basis of how many episodes of service delivery have been devoted to each group by each service, not a case record of homeless households¹⁰.

Information on street homelessness is confined to street counts and estimates of levels that are periodically conducted by local authorities. The last street count and estimation exercise was conducted in 2009. The reliability of this methodology has been routinely criticised as street counts only cover restricted areas for very restricted periods¹¹.

The Welsh equivalent of P1E are the WHO12 returns which broadly, though not exactly, mirror the data collected by P1E¹². CORE statistics are not collected for Wales, but counts of social housing lets are monitored by the Welsh Assembly Government. The Client Record or the Outcomes data and national street counts not routinely conducted¹³.

The Continental (Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Luxembourg, Netherlands)

In those countries with a federal structure of government – Austria, Belgium, Germany – the federal government has no competences in relation to housing or homelessness. Hence there is no possibility of a national level system of data collection on homelessness. In all three countries there have been initiatives at regional (and municipal) level to survey homelessness. For example, in Austria the City of Vienna produces a regional annual report on homelessness support in the city (population 1.7 million), while in Germany the region of North Rhine-Westphalia (population 18 million) has, until recently, produced reports based on annual surveys. However, in all three countries the associations of service providers have been the main sources of information. In Austria, BAWO (the umbrella organisation for homeless institutions) undertook a national survey in 1998, and the regional committee of BAWO in Salzburg has undertaken an annual survey for the last ten years. In Belgium, the SAW in Flanders has a client register system (called Tellus) for its members, while La Strada in Brussels and the Walloon Association of Reception Centres have undertaken surveys of street homelessness recently. In Germany, BAGW analyses client register information from its members on a regular basis and publishes annual estimates of the overall number of homeless people in Germany.

7 <http://www.communities.gov.uk/housing/housingresearch/housingstatistics/housingstatisticsby/homelessnessstatistics/publicationhomelessness/>.

8 <http://www.communities.gov.uk/housing/housingresearch/housingstatistics/housingstatisticsby/localauthorityhousing/dataforms/hssa0809/>

9 See: <https://core.tenantservicesauthority.org/>

10 See: <http://www.spclientrecord.org.uk/>

11 See: <http://www.communities.gov.uk/publications/corporate/statistics/roughsleeping2009>

12 See 'homelessness statistics' at <http://dissemination.dataunit-wales.gov.uk/>

13 See: <http://wales.gov.uk/topics/statistics/headlines/housing2009/hdw200903111/?lang=en>

In France and the Netherlands a more mixed system of data collection operates. In France, the typology of homeless people used in the principal enquiries of the national statistical services (INSEE and INED) goes back to the work carried out by the Conseil national de l'information statistique (CNIS) on people living rough in 1966. Three main sources of data can be distinguished: the general census of the population (and related surveys); surveys specifically concerning the homeless population; and the collection of data by administrative systems of recording homeless people.

France operates a rolling population census. The census of homeless persons is carried out within the general framework of the population census. A census of homeless people takes place every five years in municipalities of more than 10 000 inhabitants and by rotation in smaller municipalities. This took place for the first time in 2006. A pilot survey was held in 2009 in Toulouse to prepare for the 2012 census in order to improve the coverage of the homeless population in collaboration with the voluntary sector.

In 2001 INSEE conducted a national survey, questioning users of hostels and hot meal distribution services in agglomerations of more than 20 000 inhabitants. Since 1997, a study of the institutions for persons in social difficulty (a social establishment survey) takes place every four years (most recently in 2005) in which the service users of these establishments are surveyed.

A typology of services to homeless people was prepared in 2005 by the Department of Social Management (DGAS – Direction Générale de l'Action Sociale) referred to as AH1 (Accueil, Hébergement, Insertion). Funding authorities require the collection of data as a condition of certain types of finance for services. Thus, DGAS has statistical data on the number of accommodation places it finances completely or in part. Two types of accommodation are not covered by these statistics (places funded by the town or voluntary groups without State funding; and accommodation based on child benefit for mother and baby centres). A project to formulate an information gathering system has been piloted by groups belonging to the umbrella association FNARS and the administrative services (DDASS). FNARS was commissioned by DGAS to analyse data from the 115 national emergency number which provide an on-line database of all callers and their placement in accommodation.

In the Netherlands, the two nationally used sources are the client record systems Regas (from Federatie Opvang, the Dutch Federation of Shelters,) and Clever (from the Salvation

Army, which is also affiliated with Federatie Opvang). Both systems are used primarily by residential facilities for homeless people (ETHOS category 3), and to a lesser extent by day and night shelters (ETHOS category 2). They are also used by refuges serving women who have fled violence or abuse (ETHOS category 4).

Apart from these client registration systems, a number of other data sources are available in the Netherlands. A nationwide monitoring system is linked to the Homelessness Action Plan, the so-called administrative monitor G4 (the four main cities). This monitoring system has five sets of indicators. Data for the indicators will be obtained from housing association records, from a reporting form (to be designed) on the preparation and monitoring of pathway plans, and especially from records kept by the single local entry points for homeless services (CTMOs). Data for the indicators are to be collected by the local authorities. The Trimbos Institute (the Netherlands Institute of Mental Health and Addiction) incorporates it into the Homelessness Monitoring System (MMO) and reports regularly to the Ministry of Health, Welfare and Sport (VWS).

Several large Dutch cities, including Utrecht, Amsterdam, The Hague and Rotterdam, now work with a system of centralised access to shelter and support services (CTMO). Potential clients apply to a central registration point in the city, where they undergo screening. A special screening form has been developed which records demographic data and a range of other information to profile a client's situation. After a client has been directed to a facility, some of the data collected by the CTMOs are transferred into Regas or Clever. The CTMOs also maintain their own records. In the coming years, the CTMO data will play an important part in monitoring the policies implemented under the Homelessness Action Plan.

The Mediterranean regime (Greece, Italy, Portugal, Spain)

The four Mediterranean countries have very different experiences in relation to the development of information systems on homelessness. Spain is similar to the federal countries of the Continental European regime in that the national Ministries have limited competences in housing and homelessness and progress is dependent upon the activities of the autonomous regional governments. While specific initiatives have been developed in Madrid and Catalonia, progress elsewhere has been patchy. In Greece, there has been no national strategy to combat homelessness and initiatives have relied upon NGOs such as Klimaka which has undertaken the most extensive survey on the issue until the recent (and yet to be published) government survey of rough sleeping in Athens.

In Italy, homelessness has become a focus of interest for policymakers only in recent years. As a consequence, information on homelessness is limited and systems of data collection are under-developed and local in scope. There is no national data on homelessness, apart from that collected in 2000 by a quantitative survey undertaken by CIES through the Fondazione Zancan. However, in 2008 the Ministry for Social Solidarity (now Ministry of Labour, Healthcare and Social Policies) signed an agreement with ISTAT, Fio.PSD and Caritas Italiana to conduct national research / a census of homeless persons in Italy. This is the first systematic research activity on a national level promoted by public funding on this theme. The research aims to establish an in-depth picture of:

- > the quality and quantity of the supply of formal and informal (public and private) services for the homeless
- > the status and profile of the homeless living in Italy
- > the size of the homeless phenomenon on the national territory
- > the way in which the homeless use the territory and services.

The aim is to develop tools to interpret the phenomena linked to severe marginalisation as a pre-condition to define national policies that aim to address severe marginalisation among adults. A new definition of the target group and an update of the 2000 survey stand out as primary goals in the ongoing preparatory work.

In Portugal, a study carried out by the Institute of Social Security (ISS, IP) concluded that there was an urgent need to formulate a national strategy directed towards prevention, intervention and follow-up of the homeless, with a view to their achieving true integration. Based on the assumption that this strategy must, as the PNAI (National Plan for Inclusion 2006-2008) proclaims, count on “*the involvement at all levels of government and the relevant agents*”, an inter-institutional group was formed in May 2007 which included representatives from various public and private entities whose work was, in some way, concerned with this problem. The inter-institutional group responsible for defining the strategy is co-ordinated by the Institute of Social Security, under the Ministry of Labour and Social Solidarity. This Institute is responsible for administration of the social network programme information system, an on-line database which is being implemented throughout the country, and which can be accessed by all local council social services departments. A system for monitoring homelessness is envisaged as part of the strategy, which may simultaneously constitute a working basis for those intervening at various levels – individual, institutional, local and central. It is designed to serve as a

platform for sharing information on existing resources (a database of resources and services providing support) and a client database (making it possible to manage follow-up and assess results, whilst preventing duplication of intervention and guaranteeing confidentiality of data). This monitoring system is currently being evaluated and will likely be integrated into the existing social network programme information system.

3.1.2. EU-10 COUNTRIES

Homelessness as a policy issue has emerged slowly since the transition in 1990. Membership of the EU (in 2004 and 2007) has stimulated consideration of both policy development and data collection through initiatives such as the National Action Plans on Social Inclusion (now the National Strategy Reports on social protection and social inclusion – NSRSPSIs) and the Peer Review process. The development of NGO capacity in the provision of services to homeless people has taken time to develop (see Hradecký, 2007; Teller and Filipovic, 2009). Despite this, NGOs have, in many EU-10 countries, been instrumental in data collection surveys of street homelessness and in the development of client registers of service users (especially in the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland). Legislation in all the new member states requires organisations offering social services to the homeless to be registered with the state in order to be eligible for public funding. This provides a mechanism for obtaining information on a large percentage of service provision and capacity, and provides a basis for the collation of information on clients if governments made this a condition of funding.

There is a group of new member states where the state has not begun to develop strategic policies on homelessness and services are embryonic. These include Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania, Slovakia and Slovenia. In these countries it is difficult to obtain any reliable information on many aspects of homelessness including those sleeping rough and in emergency hostels.

The development of services as well as information has progressed further in the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland though this has been based more on the capital cities (e.g. Prague, Budapest) or key regions (e.g. Pomerania in Poland).

In the Czech Republic, the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs is the responsible ministry. Three client registration systems have been developed. The Association of Hostels (SAD) provides the New People Vision software programme to its members. Naděje has developed the Integration Pro-

gramme Registration System and Prague City Council, in an attempt to unify data collection, developed the Integrated Registration of the Socially Disadvantaged.

In Hungary, in order to operate social services for the homeless, providers must obtain permission from the local municipality or the Social and Child Protection Administration. This regulation also includes the use of mandatory documentation systems. The government specifies the subject of the National Statistical Programme for Data Collection (NSPDC). The Central Statistical Offices collates the data for publication in the Social Statistics Yearbook. This provides stock data on the number of staff, capacity, features of services and some of the characteristics of clients using services.

In Poland, the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy publishes the statistics for social welfare annually and data is gathered from the Social Welfare Centres in all gminas¹⁴ in Poland. These reports include several indicators connected with homelessness, such as the number of families or persons provided with support by the Social Welfare Centres due to their being homeless. The Ministry also publishes an annual report on the implementation of the subsidised

homelessness programme. According to the report conducted in 2007, as many as 83 804 persons (53 322 men, 19 059 women, 11 423 children) have used the support provided by the programme. Forms of support ranged from prevention through intervention and shelter to programmes aimed at getting out of homelessness.

3.2 Overview of Data Collection Approaches

This section describes a broad overview of approaches to data collection on homelessness. Broadly, three main approaches are described using survey methods to count the homeless, register-based approaches and use of census and related official surveys (e.g. of housing and households) – see Figure 3.1. Thus, three main sources of information can be identified; from surveys of homeless people, collation of information from service providers and administrative records, and surveys of the general population. Each of these approaches focuses on different components of the homeless population as defined in the ETHOS typology. They also have benefits and disadvantages in relation to the type of information they provide (prevalence or point-in-time data) and the frequency and cost of provision. For a more detailed discussion of these approaches, see Edgar and Meert (2006).

Figure 3.1 Summary of the main broad approaches adopted to collect data on homelessness and housing exclusion

APPROACH	METHOD	FOCUS
SURVEYS (COUNTS)	National Counts	ETHOS categories 1,2(3) Homeless People Point-in-time (stock)
	Capital City Counts	
	Local Authority Surveys (national / regional)	
REGISTERS	Municipal (client-based)	Homeless Services Social Welfare Services Profile Data Prevalence, Flow (Stock)
	Service Provider	
	NGO (client-based)	
CENSUS (Market Surveys)	Census 2001 / 2011	All ETHOS Categories Point-in-time (stock) Infrequent
	Housing Market Surveys	
	Housing Needs Assessments	
	Homeless Surveys	

¹⁴ A gmina is the basic administrative unit in Poland

3.2.1 SURVEYS, NATIONAL COUNTS AND STREET COUNTS

Two distinct forms of survey are evident. First, there are surveys of homeless people; second, there are surveys of local authorities or service providers.

Most commonly, surveys of homeless people are employed to make a point-in-time estimate of the number of people sleeping in a public place or in an overnight emergency shelter. A distinction can be made between surveys, which rely on statistical methods to estimate the size of the homeless population from a sample survey, and counts which aim to

count all people sleeping in a public place (or in temporary accommodation for the homeless) on a given night. Different approaches can be identified across Europe.

Surveys can also be employed to quantify different aspects of homelessness including, for example, the number of people living temporarily with family and friends. Such methods are less common and are not generally employed as part of the data collection approaches to estimate the scale of homelessness on a regular basis. However, there are numerous examples of ad hoc research-based surveys at a local level on specific aspects of the homeless population.

Table 3.1 Survey-Based Methods of Data Collection

<i>Surveys</i>	<i>Examples</i>	<i>Agency</i>
<i>National counts of people sleeping rough or in overnight hostels</i>	Italy (2000) France (2001) Spain (2004) Portugal (2005)	Social Exclusion Commission INSEE INED Institute for Social Security
<i>Capital city or municipal counts of people sleeping rough or in overnight hostels (1)</i>	Dublin England Netherlands Portugal (Lisbon; 2004)	Homeless Agency DCLG Homeless Monitor City of Lisbon
<i>National counts using a survey of local authorities</i>	Finland Ireland Sweden	National Housing Fund Ministry of the Environment National Board of Health and Welfare
<i>Regional Counts using a survey of local authorities</i>	North Rhine-Westphalia (Germany) Saxony (Germany)	Office of Statistics Regional Ministry of Social Affairs

Note (1) Conducted as part of official data collection

3.2.2 REGISTERS AND ADMINISTRATIVE DATA

Registration or administrative records are employed in a number of countries to collate statistics on the number and profile of homeless people. These can take a number of differ-

ent forms. They are often recent in origin and there is evidence of changes in systems to take advantage of improvements in database technology. Three main approaches are identified here and selected examples are used to illustrate them.

Table 3.2 Register-based Methods of Data Collection

<i>Register Method</i>	<i>Examples</i>	<i>Responsibility</i>
Official national returns from local authorities and/or service providers (of clients)	Denmark (since 1999) England	Social Appeals Board DCLG
Official registers of service provision	Czech Republic Hungary	MOSLA Central Statistical Office
NGO client record systems	Netherlands Germany – AG STADO Czech Republic Portugal	SAD, Federatie Opvang BAGW SAD, Nadeje AMI

3.2.3 CENSUSES, HOUSING SURVEYS AND POPULATION REGISTERS

National censuses and household surveys can be used as a source of information for some categories of homelessness. They can provide information on those parts of the population who live in institutional situations, those who live temporarily with family or friends or in accommodation provided for the homeless, those living in overcrowded conditions or in unfit or non-conventional dwellings.

A distinction needs to be made between countries that employ a register-based population census and those that adopt a survey-based (decennial) census. In several countries (e.g. Denmark, Finland and the Netherlands), the traditional census questionnaire survey has been replaced by registers as the sources of population and housing censuses. The existence of a Central Population Register (CPR) with a unique national identification number and a dwelling register with a unique identification key is used to establish a link between dwellings and persons in register-based countries. Germany and Sweden plan to move fully to register-based censuses and some countries have, or plan to adopt, a mix of traditional censuses and registers (including Austria, Belgium, Latvia and Slovenia). France has adopted a 'rolling' census (INED, 2006). The remaining countries retain traditional questionnaire-based surveys.

In theory, it ought to be possible to count the number of people living in different types of institution and people with no usual place of residence from central population registers. In Finland, the Population Register is fully integrated into the postal system (and other national registers). This means that changes in postal address are automatically recorded. Further, every person must be registered to receive benefits and public health services. As a test for this study, the Finnish Register was interrogated in November 2006 and indicated a total of 26 519 people with no usual place of residence. Of this number are a group of people whose location is unknown (Group 903, 8,424 people). This will include people who have moved abroad or who have 'vanished into thin air'. This leaves a total of 16 674 persons who lack permanent housing (Group 901). However, that figure is almost double the number counted in the annual Housing Fund Survey as homeless. While the Housing Fund survey may be understood to under-estimate the number of people living with

family and friends, further research would be needed to reconcile the two sets of figures. For other countries using register-based systems, it seems to be rather more difficult to provide counts of people not residing in conventional dwellings. This clearly is an issue beyond the scope of this study but is one that merits further investigation.

Countries utilising traditional questionnaire-based surveys can provide information on inadequate and non-conventional housing. However, they could also adopt an enumeration process to include homeless people; the Australian Census provides information in this way. France and Lithuania are examples of countries in Europe where census surveys are used to count people sleeping rough.

Population censuses are now undertaken annually in France (since January 2004). The census counts homeless people living in hostels in the same manner as it counts all other "communities". Night shelters are a separate category and so should allow a count of this part of the roofless population. However, long-stay homeless accommodation is lumped together with other forms of long-stay community accommodation, like old people's homes. For rough sleepers, collaboration with voluntary groups (including FNARS) and close involvement by local councils and survey enumerators have helped reduce the risks of multiple counting and omissions. Also, the roofless population (rough sleepers) in municipalities of under 10 000 people are surveyed in the same year as the rest of the town's population (i.e., once every 5 years). For municipalities with populations of 10 000 and over, approximately 8% of the municipality's homes are surveyed each year, and the roofless are surveyed every 5 years over the entire municipal area. The homeless are enumerated as a matter of principle: the homeless are French citizens like any other and must also be counted (all those that can be interviewed personally fill in the same census form as the rest of the population).

In Lithuania, the 2001 Population and Housing Census is the single data source on the number of people living in a public space. Information about rough sleepers included gender, nationality, age and education. No more information about roofless persons was produced after 2001.

4 Strategies to Tackle Homelessness in Europe

4.1. Homeless Strategies and Information Monitoring

It has been argued that the approach to information collection on homelessness and housing exclusion should be driven by the strategies in place to tackle homelessness (Edgar *et al.*, 2007). It has also been proposed that a homeless monitoring information strategy should form an integral part of the homeless strategy. It is certainly broadly accepted that homelessness policies should be evidence-based.

This chapter gives a brief overview of the strategies to tackle homelessness across Europe in order to identify the issues involved in data collection. This leads to a discussion of the governance issues that can affect data collection and that may be instrumental in achieving progress to improving capacity for data collection regarding the broader definition of homelessness and housing exclusion represented by the ETHOS typology. The chapter concludes by examining the issues raised for data collection by some of the more recent changes in homeless strategies using examples from a number of different countries who have adopted national strategies in recent years.

4.2. Overview of Homeless Strategies

The purpose of collecting data on homelessness should be to provide the information necessary to improve policies and the provision of services in order to prevent and alleviate homelessness. The information collected on homeless people should be adequate to inform national and local governments who, in the framework of the EU Social Inclusion Strategy, should be developing strategies to:

- > prevent homelessness
- > tackle the causes of homelessness
- > reduce the level of homelessness
- > reduce the negative effects on homeless people and their families
- > ensure that formerly homeless people can sustain permanent independent housing.

There is a diversity of approaches to tackling homelessness across Europe and approaches have been changing markedly in recent years. This is not the place to discuss the factors that have led to the emergence of more integrated approaches. For our purposes, it is sufficient to emphasise the recognition that homeless strategies should be evidence-based. This requires a clear and consensual definition of homelessness among policy-makers and a robust method of data collection based on that understanding. However, there is no correct single definition of homelessness or single count of the phenomenon that will be an accurate reflection of reality. Rather, different counts will be required for different policy purposes. Hence, the definition adopted and the numbers counted as homeless will be a reflection of the policy context and policy purpose in which they are employed.

This section describes the situation regarding the development of homeless strategies.

4.2.1 SCOTLAND

The homeless strategy adopted in **Scotland** in 2001 is described in detail by Anderson (2007). The legislation enacted in 2001 required local authorities to produce comprehensive strategies to assess the level of homelessness in their areas and develop appropriate multi-agency responses, with effect from October 2001. Anderson (2007) argues that, although not explicitly announced as a 'right to housing', the combination of measures provided for in the legislation would mean that by 2012 there would effectively be a duty on local authorities to ensure that all households in Scotland had some form of accommodation. Besides the legislative change, local authorities were also expected to embrace the prevention of homelessness within their strategies. Research by Pawson *et al.*, (2007), argued that homelessness prevention should become *more* important as Scotland moves towards the 2012 target. As part of the implementation of the strategy, the Scottish Government established a Homelessness Monitoring Group which identified a number of key criteria to be monitored as part of the process of assessing progress on programme delivery (2006):

- > number of households applying as homeless
- > number assessed as homeless
- > % households placed directly into permanent accommodation
- > number experiencing repeat homelessness
- > households/families in B&B
- > time taken to deal with cases
- > indicators of customer satisfaction.

Output Issues include:

- > Prevention of homelessness
- > Quality of shelter accommodation
- > Access to permanent housing.

Process Issues include:

- > Co-ordination arrangements
- > Collaboration agreements / Protocols
- > Evidence base and monitoring procedures.

4.2.2 NORWAY

The **Norwegian** strategy to combat homelessness was launched as a national strategy in 2004 under the title “The Pathway to a Permanent Home”. The key components of the strategy include issues of output and issues of process which can be summarised as:

The strategy is explicitly based on results of the national surveys of homelessness and develops approaches to monitor and collect information.

The strategy covered the period 2005-2007 and identified three primary objectives and five specific targets (see Figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1 The objectives and specific targets established by the strategy	
Primary objective	Target
Preventing people from becoming homeless	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Number of eviction petitions shall be reduced by 50%, and the number of evictions by 30% > No-one shall have to spend time in temporary housing upon release from prison > No-one shall have to seek temporary housing upon discharge from an institution
Contribute to improve the quality of overnight shelters	No-one shall be offered overnight shelters without a quality agreement
Help ensure that homeless people receive offers of permanent housing without undue delay	No-one shall stay more than three months in temporary housing

Source: *The Pathway to a Permanent Home, 2006*

4.2.3 THE NETHERLANDS

The strategy adopted by the **Dutch** government in 2006 covers the four main cities (referred to as the G4). The strategy is a complex approach focussed on identified homeless people on the one hand and improved co-ordination between key agencies on the other hand. However, the strategy identifies

five main aims or targets and associated indicators (see Figure 4.2). The strategy specifies three main components – firstly, to improve the situation of 10 150 identified homeless persons; secondly, to prevent a further 11 800 people becoming homeless; thirdly, to focus on providing firm foundations for these 11 800 people (e.g. care, social contacts, work).

Figure 4.2 Dutch Strategy – G4 Cities (2006-2012)	
Aims of the Strategy Plan	Indicators identified by the Plan
Homeless persons to have <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > incomes > accommodation suited to their needs > non-optional care programmes (temporary if possible, structural where necessary) > feasible forms of work. 	homelessness stability index (stable living accommodation, regular income, stable contact with the support services and form of daily occupation)
The number of evictions in 2008 reduced to less than 30% of the 2005 figure.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > number of evictions per year > number of evictions leading to homelessness per year
End homelessness following prison discharge	number of cases of homelessness following detention
End homelessness as a result of leaving care institutions	number of cases of homelessness after leaving care institutions
Reduction in anti-social behaviour	Number of convictions Number of reports of harassment

4.2.4 SWEDEN

The **Swedish** Government's strategy contains four objectives for future work.

- 1) Everyone has to be guaranteed a roof over their head and be offered further co-ordinated action based on their individual needs.
- 2) The number of women and men who have been admitted to or registered at a prison or treatment unit or have supported accommodation or are staying in care homes and do not have any accommodation arranged before being discharged has to decrease.
- 3) Entry into the ordinary housing market has to be facilitated for women and men who are on housing ladders, in training flats or other forms of accommodation provided by the social services or other actors.
- 4) The number of evictions has to decrease and no children are to be evicted.

The strategy clearly specifies that developments concerning the scale of homelessness and exclusion from the housing market should be monitored continuously. In 2007, the Government commissioned the National Board of Housing, Building and Planning and the National Board of Health and Welfare to produce a plan for a survey of the secondary housing market in Sweden. The term secondary housing market refers to the housing let under various types of agreements or in some other way by the social services or through other actors. In the same year, the Swedish Enforcement Authority was instructed to develop statistics on eviction orders and their enforcement. The statistics are intended

to show the number of applications made and the number of eviction orders and evictions actually enforced per municipality. The surveys of the scale of homelessness conducted by the National Board of Health and Welfare, with the possibility of following developments over time, are another important source of knowledge. In order to take a concerted approach, the National Board of Health and Welfare was commissioned to propose, along with the relevant agencies, how to follow the continuous monitoring of homelessness and exclusion from the housing market. The "plan for continuous monitoring of the extent and character of homelessness" was published in March 2009 (NBHW, 2009). This argues that a plan for monitoring homelessness and exclusion from the housing market over time involves a number of questions:

- > How is homelessness to be defined?
- > What sources can be used to be able to monitor the development of homelessness over time?
- > What methods are being applied today to collect information that can be used to survey homelessness?
- > At what intervals are statistics relevant for homelessness surveys presented?
- > What core variables should be included in surveys of homelessness?
- > How can various types of housing support measures be categorised?
- > Are there any homelessness situations that are not covered by the existing source material?

The Plan reviews the sources of information about homelessness produced by different authorities in Sweden. Figure 4.3 summarises the sources of information for four situations of homelessness identified in the Strategy.

Figure 4.3 Sources of Information in Sweden on Homelessness Situations

Homeless Situation	Source	Stakeholder Authority
Situation 1: People sleeping rough, living in shelters, emergency accommodation, women's refuges, hotels or camp sites	Official Statistics of Sweden Municipal Homelessness Surveys	The National Board of Health and Welfare Municipalities
Situation 2: People to be discharged within three months from correctional facilities or institutions without having arranged housing.	Statistics on the housing situation of inmates of correctional facilities facing probation The DOK Report Municipal Homelessness Surveys	Swedish Prison and Probation Service The National Board of Health and Welfare Municipalities
Situation 3: People in insecure housing situations, treatment institutions, HVB, etc.. Discharge/release is not planned within the next three months. No housing has been arranged before discharge/release.	Official Statistics of Sweden Monitoring of the secondary housing market Municipal Surveys	The National Board of Health and Welfare The National Board of Housing Building and Planning together with the National Board of Health and Welfare Municipalities
Situation 4: People living without a tenancy agreement with friends and acquaintances or having a subletting contract for less than three months.	Municipal Surveys	Municipalities

4.2.5 IRELAND

The new **Irish** strategy to address adult homelessness from 2008 to 2013 (“The Way Home”, 2008) builds on the progress achieved to date in tackling homelessness through the implementation of the Integrated Homeless Strategy (2000) and Preventative Strategy (2002), and is informed by the findings and recommendations of the Review of the Implementation of Homeless Strategies (Fitzpatrick Associates, 2006). This commitment is reiterated in the latest social partnership agreement (Towards 2016) and in the housing policy statement (Delivering Homes, Sustaining Communities) which both contain specific provisions to address homelessness.

The Way Home document identifies six strategic aims to:

1. prevent homelessness
2. eliminate the need to sleep rough
3. eliminate long term homelessness
4. meet long term housing needs
5. ensure effective services for homeless people, and
6. better co-ordinate funding arrangements.

The strategy identifies a number of performance indicators including:

- > The number of homeless households
- > The number of people becoming homeless
- > The number of homeless households settled successfully out of homelessness
- > The average length of time homeless and the number of people remaining homeless for longer than six months
- > The number of rough sleepers
- > Compliance by homeless services with quality standards
- > Trends in expenditure on emergency accommodation

Since 1999, there has been continued development and improvement in the methods used to assess homelessness in Dublin. The Homeless Agency, including the four Dublin local authorities, has refined a survey method (published as Counted In 1999, 2002 and 2005) that provides a robust assessment of those using homeless services. The survey method involves a questionnaire being completed by every person (or household) in touch with homeless services and/or registered with a local authority over the course of one week. It uses a unique identifier for each household to avoid duplication and provides a reasonably comprehensive picture of homelessness. In addition, because the same method is applied with consistency in each assessment, trends and comparisons can be made over time.

The housing policy statement Delivering Homes, Sustaining Communities (2007) recognises the shortcomings of the existing models of housing needs and homelessness assessments and provides for them to be addressed through the development of a new approach to housing need assessment at an individual, household and area level. The homeless strategy aims to address these shortfalls and to put a more robust national information framework in place.

The Data Sub-Group of the National Homeless Consultative Committee will monitor the Homeless Agency’s experience in utilising the ETHOS methodological toolkit, and will consider the feasibility and usefulness of rolling out this approach nationally.

The Review of Homelessness (Fitzpatrick and Associates, 2006) made 21 recommendations including the proposal that “the definition of homelessness should be revisited in order to produce a clearer, unambiguous understanding of what homelessness means for measurement and funding purposes. This should be used as the basis for a common information gathering system establishing the causes, extent and nature of homelessness and rolled out to all areas of the country” (recommendation 18).

4.2.6 ENGLAND

The **English** strategy to end rough sleeping (“No one left out”, 2007) aims to end rough sleeping by 2012. The strategy makes several references to the approach to be adopted to monitor the number of people sleeping rough. Previous strategies required local authorities to undertake annual counts of rough sleepers. While the new strategy will keep the local counts as a useful measure, it argues that the counts provide only a limited snapshot and suggests that they should be the start of the process not the end. The strategy aims to use the counts and other sources of data to bring together a fuller picture of the different needs of people sleeping rough, the services offered and the outcomes achieved in order to ensure that people are getting the help that they need. For this reason, the strategy launched three new approaches to information monitoring:

- > a new approach to help local authorities monitor progress and track people sleeping rough, ensuring that counts are not just an opportunity to identify levels of need but more importantly, to do something about it
- > it introduced “Street Needs Audits” to give a much better understanding of the needs of people on the streets, and
- > it aimed to develop new ways of using data to understand and monitor outcomes for people who have slept rough.

The strategy recognised that regular counts of rough sleeping provide an effective way of tracking progress over time and maintain focus on the issue. However, the strategy document argues that snapshot counts cannot tell the whole story and suggests that it is necessary to understand the pattern of the constant flow of people on and off the streets. The CHAIN database (Combined Homeless Action and Information Network) records all interactions between homeless services and people sleeping rough in the capital. This database provides the evidence that while there is a constant flow of people coming to the streets, most do not stay there long. The proportion of people who are seen bedded down more

than ten times in the course of a year is, according to the database evidence, less than one per cent. The database is a continuous recording system which shows that these proportions have remained consistent, year on year, for a three year period.

4.2.7 FINLAND

The **Finnish** programme to reduce long-term homelessness focuses on the 10 biggest urban growth centres, where also most of the homeless are to be found. The main priority, however, is the Helsinki Metropolitan Area, and especially Helsinki itself, where long-term homelessness is concentrated. The programme is structured around the ‘housing first’ principle. The programme’s objectives are:

- > To halve long-term homelessness by 2011
- > More effective measures to prevent homelessness. For a detailed description of the programme see Tainio and Fredriksson (2009). The programme to reduce long-term homelessness is part of the housing policy programme for the period 2008-2011. As well as involving the main municipalities, the programme relies on measures implemented by the Ministry of Environment, the Housing Finance and Development Centre, the Ministry of Social Affairs and Health and the Criminal Sanctions Agency. While the main evidence base for the programme has relied upon the annual housing market survey, it has been argued that data from the central population register can be used to monitor the programme since this can be used to establish the duration of homelessness for individuals as well as their demographic profile (Statistics Finland, 2009).

4.2.8 FRANCE

In **France**, an Action Plan (2007) specified three main aims to focus on:

1. the implementation of the enforceable right to housing
2. to develop efforts in broadening access to social housing
3. to alter the conditions for admission to emergency accommodation.

These latter two aims specify targets to be accomplished. Thus, assisted rental loans for integration (PLAI) and rental loans to finance the construction, acquisition and improvement of rented housing for people with limited resources who need social support (PLUS) should be increased to 80 000 per annum. In addition, 27 100 new places in accommodation centres of different types are to be provided.

4.2.9 PORTUGAL

An inter-institutional group was formed in May 2007 (co-ordinated by the Institute of Social Security under the Ministry of Labour and Social Solidarity) which included representatives from various public and private stakeholders involved in homelessness to define a national strategy which was approved in March 2009 (“National Strategy for the Integration of Homeless People – Prevention, Intervention and Follow-up – 2009-2015”). The strategy addresses the areas of prevention, intervention and follow-up in order to ensure that not only those who fall within the agreed definition of the concept of the homeless are covered, but also all those who are at risk of becoming homeless (for whatever reason) or who, whilst not currently homeless, may revert to that state.

A key component of the strategy is a nationally-agreed definition to be employed by all agencies and services. The implementation of the strategy is to be carried out at local level based on specific homelessness plans which take into account identified local needs and intervention principles.

The strategy is organised around two main strategic axes aiming at:

1. achieving more evidence-based knowledge on homelessness, namely by the use and dissemination of an agreed definition of homelessness and of shared information and monitoring systems
2. promoting the quality of the provision of homelessness services and responses by:
 - a. eliminating the need to sleep rough
 - b. increasing the quality of temporary accommodation
 - c. addressing the lack of accommodation and support upon discharge from an institution
 - d. reinforcing permanent housing solutions
 - e. improving access to social benefits and (mental) health care services
 - f. promoting training and qualification opportunities of workers in this field
 - g. drafting of local homelessness plans.

The strategy defines three specific areas to be tackled by the different measures proposed under the two strategic axes:

1. a focus on preventative actions in order to avoid homelessness situations arising, namely from eviction or from discharge from an institution

2. direct intervention in homelessness situations (focussing on the clarification of procedures and responsibilities within a specific intervention model and also on experimentation using innovative projects)
3. follow-up of the situations ensuring the continuity – when needed – of support after resettlement, achieved within the local partnership network.

The document also establishes an organisational structure for the implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the measures and targets established both at a national level (e.g. executive and consultation bodies) and at a local level (e.g. executive units, co-operation with local social networks). As the co-ordinating body, the Institute is responsible for administration of the social network programme information system, an on-line database which is being implemented throughout the country and which can be accessed by all local council social services departments. It contains information on the following:

- > Names and descriptions of local council institutions
- > Social responses and specific programmes and projects implemented by different institutions
- > Tools used in local council strategies (social diagnosis, social development plan and local council action plans)
- > Links between local council strategies and National Action Plans for Inclusion, the National Action Plan for Employment and the National Action Plan for Equality.

However, it has not yet been determined whether this will be the system used to gather and share information on the homeless. The possibility of including a client register and allowing access for all institutions involved in social work in this area is still being considered. Another hypothesis being studied is the possibility of migrating data from existing databases, provided that they include the variables that are considered essential.

In the municipalities of Lisbon, Porto, Coimbra, Braga, Águeda, Leiria, Figueira da Foz, Guimarães and Loures some co-ordinated work specifically directed towards the homeless is being undertaken and a municipal plan is being prepared. However, the existing practices vary widely and use different tools and types of information technology. The strategy expresses the intention to standardise these different approaches through the use of a computerised system, both in terms of characterising and defining services and registering clients.

4.2.10 DENMARK

The Danish national strategy to reduce the number of homeless people has defined four objectives:

1. The number of homeless people sleeping in the streets must be reduced
2. For young homeless people (below 24 years) better options than placement in a homeless hostel have to be given
3. The average time spent in a homeless hostel must be reduced to 3-4 months for people who are ready to move to a dwelling with necessary support
4. Solutions for housing problems have to be made prior to release from prison and treatment centres.

The Danish government has set aside funding over a 4-year period starting in 2009 for the implementation of the strategy. One part of the funding will be distributed to selected municipalities with the largest homeless populations on the basis of negotiations between central government and municipalities. Another part of the funding will be reserved for initiatives like housing support in other municipalities.

Each municipal council in the selected municipalities will adapt a municipal action plan including specific goals in order to reduce homelessness in the municipality within one or more of the four objectives. Initiatives will be designed to match the objectives. This action plan also includes an obligation to continue the initiatives after the 4-year period.

The strategy both involves monitoring on an individual level in terms of documentation of the effectiveness of methods developed and initiated, and monitoring on an aggregate level in terms of monitoring of the development of homelessness on national and municipal levels.

An important part of the strategy is that methods have to be developed and tested by the public authorities and suppliers of services. The initiatives should take a point of departure in existing knowledge of interventions in the field of homelessness. Both support in housing and specialised supported housing are among initiatives which can be established under the programme. The aim is to develop methods with documentation of their effectiveness and to distribute this knowledge to municipalities in other parts of the countries.

On the aggregate level, a national count on homelessness was made in week 6, 2007 and was repeated in week 6, 2009. The count is based on a subset of categories from the ETHOS definition adapted to the national context. The count sets a baseline for the national strategy and will be repeated in 2011. Also, data from the national client monitoring system in §110 homeless hostels are used to give information on length of stays in shelters and the number of young people staying in shelters.

Figure 4.4 Summary of Homeless Strategies in Europe

Country	Strategy Title	Ministry Responsible	Date
Scotland	The Housing (Scotland) Act, 2001	Scottish Government	2001
Norway	The Pathway to a Permanent Home – Strategy to Prevent and Combat Homelessness. 2005-2007	Norwegian Government (1)	2006
The Netherlands	Strategy Plan for Social Relief of 4 Major Cities (Amsterdam, Rotterdam, The Hague and Utrecht)	Dutch Government 4 Major Cities	2006 (February)
France	Plan d’action renforcé du dispositif d’hébergement et de logement des personnes sans abris (PARSA)	Ministry of Employment, Social Cohesion & Housing	2007 (January)
Sweden	Homelessness, Multiple Faces, Multiple Responsibilities – A Strategy to Combat Homelessness and Exclusion from the Housing Market, 2007-2009	Government Offices	2007
Ireland	The Way Home: A Strategy to Address Adult Homelessness in Ireland, 2008-2013	Department of the Environment, Heritage and Local Government	2008 (August)
England	No One Left Out: Communities Ending Rough Sleeping	Communities and Local Government	2008 (November)
Finland	Programme to Reduce Long-term Homelessness, 2008-2011	Ministry of the Environment	2008 (February)
Portugal	National Strategy for the Integration of Homeless People – 2009-2015	Ministry of Labour and Social Solidarity	2009 (March)
Denmark	Afskaffelse af ufrivillig hjemloshed	Ministry of Social Welfare	2009

Source: FEANTSA, <http://www.feantsa.org/code/en/pg.asp?Page=1169> (date 15 May 2009)

4.3. Governance Issues affecting Data Collection

The current underpinnings of the European debate on homelessness strategies highlight the need:

- > To develop national strategic policies on homelessness that involve all relevant stakeholders including all relevant Ministries
- > To identify mechanisms for local delivery of policy
- > To have clear responsibility for co-ordination and implementation
- > To have clear targets and mechanisms for measuring outcomes against a baseline of reliable information
- > To have evidence-based policies.

It has been argued that the collection of data on homelessness is most effective when it is developed as a component part of an integrated strategy to tackle or prevent homelessness (Edgar *et al.*, 2007). The brief review of homeless strategies described above shows that only a small proportion of member states have a defined national strategy. The lack of national strategic policies on homelessness points to an inherent weakness in the approach to data collection on the phenomenon. Our review of those strategies that do exist also illustrates that some do not make explicit reference to the mechanisms for data collection to monitor the implementation of the strategy.

As identified by our review above, the locus of responsibility for homeless policies, programmes and strategies differs between member states. At national (or regional) level different ministries of government have a role to play both in the development and implementation of homelessness strategies and in the collection of the data required to monitor progress. This review of strategies identifies that responsibility for (data collection on) homelessness lies either with ministries with housing responsibilities (Finland, Ireland, Norway, England) or with responsibility for social welfare (Sweden, Netherlands, Portugal, France). In those countries which have specified targets to prevent evictions or prevent homelessness following prison discharge, the judiciary or enforcement departments have been involved in data collection (Sweden, Netherlands, Norway). Co-ordination and joint responsibility between key ministries has been a feature of the development of strategies in Norway, Ireland, Sweden and Finland. Elsewhere co-ordination in relation to data collection has taken longer to develop.

Where responsibility for the delivery of homelessness strategies is devolved to regional or local authorities then central government has a role in improving the capacity and compe-

tence of those authorities in managing the collection of information on homelessness. For example, the recent Peer Review of the Norwegian national strategy to prevent homelessness identifies that a co-ordinating agency (the Housing Bank) has been given responsibility for the co-ordination, implementation and promotion of the strategy (Edgar, 2006). One aspect of this role includes the provision of competence grants to municipalities and the organisation of regional and local networks and forums to improve the capacity of municipal authorities in delivering the strategy.

In a few countries, national or regional statistical offices have been involved in the collection of data on homelessness (e.g. France, Spain and Germany). While it is not necessary in any case that the production of such data is organised and carried through by national statistical offices directly, and while it is essential that intensive co-operation with experts in service provision for the homeless and with other experts in this field is procured, it has been argued that national statistical offices should be involved in compiling and reporting the national data for the European level (Edgar *et al.*, 2007). They should have responsibility to secure the quality and reliability of national data and should be involved in strategies to improve the comparability of homelessness data between member states.

The EU study (Edgar *et al.*, 2007) has argued that the homelessness strategy should develop a homelessness monitoring information strategy. In relation to the governance of homelessness strategies, it is relevant at this point to stress the need for the strategy to incorporate specific mechanisms for monitoring progress. Different approaches are possible for this purpose. For example, the Scottish Executive has established a Homelessness Monitoring Group consisting of all relevant stakeholders who meet on a regular (quarterly) basis and whose role is to examine all sources of information on the implementation of the strategy. The Norwegian Peer Review describes that the responsible Ministry (in collaboration with five other Ministries involved) funded homelessness surveys and has also promoted the development of a specific information system implemented by the Housing Bank. Ireland has established a data sub-group of the National Homeless Consultative Committee. Sweden has commissioned the National Board of Health and Welfare to prepare a plan for the continuous monitoring of information on homelessness which has identified specific responsibilities for the key agencies involved.

4.3.1 TRENDS IN HOMELESS STRATEGIES – IMPLICATIONS FOR DATA COLLECTION

This brief overview of the available strategies highlights a number of common features or trends with regard to the objectives of the strategies which have implications for the approach to data collection.

The reviewed strategies illustrate, especially in the Nordic countries, how national surveys were used to underpin the definition of the key issues to be addressed by the strategy. Norway used the national survey to evidence the high percentage of ex-offenders among the homeless population. Sweden used the national survey of 2006 to specify objectives related to evictions and people in the secondary housing market. Finland refers to the long-term trends highlighted by their annual surveys to focus on the need to address the issue of long-term homelessness.

The strategies identify the need for the continued use of such surveys (e.g. the local authority counts of rough sleeping in England, the annual Housing Market Surveys in Finland). Indeed, the Swedish plan for monitoring homelessness concludes that, since “there is no authority... with an overarching responsibility for the homeless issue” (NBHW, 2009; p32), surveys on a national level will continue to be needed. However, there is also evidence of a shift towards greater reliance on continuous recording methods even in the context of street homeless (see the CHAIN system implemented in England).

The use of client registers to collate national or regional information on homeless people to provide counts and profile data has been developed for some time in Denmark (see Edgar *et al.*, 2006; Stax, 2004) but has been slow to develop elsewhere. See Edgar *et al.*, (2007) for a detailed account of client recording systems. However, the review of the available strategies suggests an increased reliance upon register data (and administrative data) especially for eviction data from the courts and discharge data from prisons, child care and health institutions in a number of countries. This indicates a closer degree of co-operation between relevant agencies in the compilation and use of data for monitoring purposes.

Two national strategies (in Ireland and Sweden) have undertaken an explicit review of data collection methods as part of the strategy. In the case of Ireland, this review of data collection on homelessness is also linked to a review of local housing needs assessments.

There is a clear shift in many strategies towards an overarching *aim of prevention*. This may relate to preventing people from becoming homeless as a result of eviction or discharge from an institution or prison (e.g. Norway, Netherlands, Sweden), prevention of rough sleeping (e.g. England, Ireland), or the prevention of long-term homelessness (e.g. Finland, Ireland). In other contexts, the aim is more broadly defined to prevent homelessness by widening access to (social) permanent housing for homeless people and vulnerable groups (e.g. France, Scotland).

The shift towards prevention strategies raises some significant issues in relation to data collection. The focus on “at-risk” groups leads on the one hand to more targeted monitoring (e.g. on evictions, on institution discharge), but on the other hand it raises questions about the definition of homelessness. While the broad typology of ETHOS allows for the specification of specific categories, the understanding of socially excluded groups who are vulnerable in the housing market becomes more diffuse.

The focus on prevention has, in a number of countries, been linked explicitly to “*Housing First*” policies which have led to a revised understanding of the nature and purpose of temporary and emergency accommodation.

This shift to “Housing First” approaches was described above in relation specifically to the Finnish strategy, but similar examples can be found elsewhere (Ireland, Germany; see Busch-Geertsema and Fitzpatrick, 2008 for a detailed debate). However, Finland has probably the most developed policy in this respect with the aim of abolishing night shelters and hostels by 2015. The use of normal housing with support, and of designated supported accommodation, rather than emergency hostels and temporary accommodation means that people who are housed in this manner are not *strictu sensu* homeless. In this situation is there a policy purpose to monitor the number and profile of people receiving such housing and support?

This overview also illustrates the approach adopted of linking very specific objectives to clear targets which are capable of evidence-based monitoring and evaluation.

5 Homelessness and Housing Exclusion

Information Strategies

5.1 Introduction

It has been argued that homeless strategies should include an information strategy as a core element (Edgar *et al.*, 2007). In this manner, it is argued, the homeless strategy objectives should drive the approach to data collection and identify clear responsibility for implementation and monitoring. This chapter summarises the issues involved in the development and implementation of a homeless information strategy which are discussed in detail by Edgar *et al.*, (2007). Since the development of a homeless information strategy requires key decisions of policy and the co-ordination of a range of governmental and non-governmental agencies, the chapter also considers some of the issues affecting the governance of data collection.

5.2 Measuring Homelessness study

The Measuring Homelessness report (Edgar *et al* 2007) made a number of recommendations to improve the capacities of national authorities to collect information on homelessness which identified action required at national and EU level. These are summarised below, and it is anticipated that the national seminars will be an important step in many countries to their implementation.

Recommendations to national level

1. Prepare a national Homelessness Monitoring Information Strategy, developed in consultation with all relevant ministries and stakeholders
2. Identify (or establish) a co-ordinating mechanism or agency for data collection on homelessness
3. Adopt the harmonised definition of living situations and homelessness as a basic framework for data collection
4. Adopt the set of standard core variables and their definition as a basic set of variables to be employed in data collection
5. Adopt a national definition of services for homelessness
6. Establish and maintain a directory of services
7. Ensure that funding for homeless service providers requires the provision of basic (anonymised) data on clients and provide funding to facilitate this as necessary
8. Establish a strategy for collection of data from service provider client registration systems
9. Ensure added value of data collection for the services and homeless people.

Recommendations to EU level

10. Require Member States to develop in the framework of the streamlined EU strategy for social protection and social inclusion national strategies to combat homelessness
11. Require member States to identify progress reached with the development of national strategies and whether this incorporates a homelessness monitoring information strategy
12. Monitor progress of member states towards continuous client recording systems
13. Encourage national statistics offices to adopt the harmonised definition of homelessness for data collection purposes while recognising that alternative definitions may be used for policy purposes
14. Encourage national statistics offices to play a co-ordination role in the collection of data on homelessness
15. Reduce the obstacles to achieving homeless information monitoring (e.g. through the use of funding under FP7, structural funds and European research programmes).

5.2.1 THE DEVELOPMENT OF A HOMELESS MONITORING INFORMATION STRATEGY

Edgar *et al.*, (2007) argue that homeless strategies should include, as an integral element, a homelessness monitoring information strategy. Given the diversity of information sources that may be available, research will be needed at national level to establish the nature and use of information and how different sources can be combined or utilised in a compatible manner. This, they argue, should form part of the development of the homelessness strategy.

The initial step in developing a homelessness information strategy should be a review of the sources of information available in relation to the different categories of the homeless population as well as the at-risk populations (e.g. the institutionalised and the insecurely or inadequately housed) in relation to the definition of homelessness employed for the strategy. This should involve a review of administrative sources as well as survey sources, and should consider the nature, availability and reliability of the information. This review should also include the information systems employed by service providers.

The development of a homelessness monitoring strategy requires a number of key decisions to be taken by the responsible agencies. These include decisions related to:

1. The definition of homelessness: this may involve a broader definition where the focus of policy is aimed at prevention since, in that context, the population at risk of homelessness will be included.
2. The services to be included in the data collection from service providers. The information strategy should also determine the approach and responsibility for the development and maintenance of a database of service providers.
3. The core variables required for monitoring and the definition of these variables to ensure consistency in data collection between geographical areas and over time.
4. Phased geographical implementation may be required. Hence, prioritisation of geographical coverage is a key planning decision in the implementation of data collection from service providers.

5. The planning stages of the 2011 census should include consideration of the use that can be made of population register data and the approach to enumeration to count the homeless population (or at least that part of the homeless population living in collective living situations and non-conventional dwellings). Consideration should be given in census planning to whether baseline data can be obtained for some categories of homeless people (e.g. people living with family and friends or sharing accommodation involuntarily).
6. Planning for national social surveys should consider whether retrospective modules on homelessness can be incorporated (see the module incorporated in the EU-SILC and the Urban Audit Survey).
7. The information strategy should also consider the value and use that can be made of administrative data. For example, court records on eviction orders, prison records on release dates or hospital records on discharge all have relevance to aspects of the definition of homelessness identified above.

It is evident that homelessness is one aspect providing an evaluation of the efficiency of the way the housing market operates. Assessments of housing need are a key component of planning in a number of EU countries. Equally, under social inclusion programmes, the provision of support to vulnerable people in order to enable them to live independently in the community also involves the use of information on clients to monitor and plan services. The homelessness monitoring information strategy should ensure compatibility and co-ordination with these related planning mechanisms.

5.2.2 SERVICE PROVIDER DATABASES

A key element of research carried out to measure homelessness has been to gather data on services for homeless people and establish service provider databases. As these services are in contact with or indeed house many homeless people, they can provide crucial statistics about their numbers and characteristics, and also provide access to clients for researchers to include in surveys. To collect data on services for the measurement of homelessness, it is necessary

to classify which types of services need to be considered. A database then needs to be developed to hold relevant information about them so that standard variables of data can then be gathered from their client registers or via surveys.

By looking at current examples of service provider databases, Edgar *et al.*, (2007) propose a flexible procedure with 7 stages for national authorities to create and maintain a database of services for homeless people:

1. *Assessment of any existing databases/directories*
2. *Requirements and specification* (i.e. purpose, scope, coverage, data to be collected, etc.) and staffing needs (including project management, IT, research and administrative skills). Project requirements should also address: methodology for data collection, IT issues, updating of data, and access to data.
3. *Resources and funding*

4. *Project tasks and timetable*; the following are the main stages in developing the database and content, some of which can run concurrently:

- > Specify data structure, codings and fields
- > Research and build database of contacts for services and for inputting service details
- > Devise research tools (e.g. questionnaires, telephone interview schedules)
- > Carry out research (e.g. mailings of questionnaires) and chase non-respondents
- > Write and edit entries about services.

5. *Utilisation/dissemination of the database*

6. *Updating the data*

7. *Evaluation of the database*

They propose three levels of data to be included in the service database or directory (see Figure 5.1).

Figure 5.1 Level 1 Data	
Organisational details	
Name of organisation/service	Those organisations that have multiple services may need differentiating and separate entries
Contact address and details (telephone, fax, email, website)	May be admin or head office address rather than service itself. Some addresses are confidential and some services are telephone only
Referral address and details (telephone, fax, email)	If different from above. NB: this data is required if details are to be published for referral purposes
Geographical location of service	Town, city, municipality, region or other relevant geographical area
Type of organisation	Specialist homeless or non-specialist service, and whether municipal, NGO, private, etc.
Client details	
Target and client group	Including age, gender, etc., and any restrictions
Area served	Some services, especially hostels and day centres, may not restrict provision of services to a particular area. Different organisations may also serve a variety of different but overlapping areas (e.g. those based on geography, municipal boundaries or the remit of funding bodies)
Service details	
Purpose/intention of service	e.g. emergency, interim, transitional or specialist accommodation, day centre, outreach service, etc., based on classification of services used
Access criteria	e.g. directly in person or agency referral, appointment or drop-in, etc.
Period of stay	Intended maximum length of stay for accommodation services
Support provided	This may be a freetext description and/or may involve a system of codings to designate various support provided
Opening hours/staff cover	Opening hours for non-residential services, staff cover for accommodation
Style of accommodation	e.g. numbers of dormitories, shared or single rooms, or flats
Number of bedspaces	Total number
Resident access to accommodation	e.g. curfews or if residents have to be out during the day
Occupancy levels or usage	Average occupancy levels for accommodation services, number of services provided per week and/or numbers and types of client groups using services

5.2.3 CLIENT REGISTER AND RECORDING DATA SYSTEMS

Client data is collected for different purposes, such as to document the process of support and service provision, or to provide information for funding authorities, the public and (sometimes) scientific research. The review of client record systems in operation in different countries illustrated the

range of issues to be considered by national authorities in developing methodologies to collate or aggregate statistics on homelessness using client registers. The report discusses a number of issues summarised below.

Responsibility for developing the system

The role of the relevant national authority in developing systems differs largely in relation to the extent to which participation in the system is made compulsory.

Where participation is compulsory, the development of systems is normally funded by the relevant central government ministry. This has meant that key issues of data definition and data protection can be determined at national level. Where participation is voluntary, the approach has normally been for the relevant ministry to subsidise development, or just to focus on the aggregation of data from systems developed outside of government control and to fund the analysis of this aggregate data.

Services covered by the systems

Client record systems often cover different service types. A specific problem is the high turnover of clients in short-term and low threshold services. This may also be related to funding issues and also to problems of data capture and duplication of data that need to be resolved to collect accurate profile information on this category of service user. However, the fact that some systems collect this data illustrates that it is possible to resolve these issues. Only a few systems have been used to collect information from women's refuge shelters for domestic violence. This again is often an issue of funding and policy rather than of the logistics of data capture.

Software system development

Two distinct approaches can be identified in the development of software systems for such registers of client information. First, data is extracted from commercial systems that have been developed and are commercially sold for social service case management or housing management. These systems allow the client information to be extracted for analysis either through the use of an extract program or by access to a specific module within the program. Second, there are systems developed specifically for the purpose of data capture of client information or for client monitoring purposes. They are characterised by being bespoke systems that allow add-on modules to meet the user's requirements.

Functionality

Programs need to ensure that ease of data entry does not compromise data quality. The systems reviewed are either Windows-based or web-based interfaces that use drop-down menus and radio buttons to allow pre-coded data entry. Secondly, programs can enhance data quality by allowing for data validation and error reporting at the data entry stage. Many of the programs examined also allow a second

level of validation at the point of data export when staff at the central data processing centre can resolve data issues with the inputting agency staff. Finally, programs provide facilities to export data in agreed formats.

Data protection

While all the systems conformed to national data protection requirements, the approach to this varied, especially in regards to aggregation of data at the national level. The German system is the most rigid in allowing only aggregated data to be exported for analysis at national level. This greatly inhibits the analysis and use of the data. All other systems allow for individual level records to be analysed by the use of anonymised data routines to create unique identifiers. The problem of double counting exists, particularly where no unique client identifiers are used. For measuring prevalence and flow it is almost impossible to exclude double counting of the same persons without unique client identifiers.

A number of techniques are used to anonymise and protect individual identity, so that data extraction is made compatible with data protection rules and with justified interests of service users that their personal data are not misused.

Data quality assurance

Data collected in this manner is often criticised because of a suspicion that the use of a large number of people entering data will lead to inaccurate and unreliable information. Data quality and integrity need to be assured.

First, the software program itself can ensure a level of accuracy and consistency in data recording. Second, where data is exported to a central processing unit more robust validation algorithms can be employed. Third, data monitoring and trend analysis can also assist in reporting back to the users who are inputting the data. Fourth, direct contact with agency staff is essential. The monitoring approach described above is usually combined with staff training, manuals of guidance, newsletters and user groups. Most systems also provide help-desks to resolve specific issues. Web-based systems supplement these approaches with on-line help systems.

Data export

A wide range of approaches to exporting the data to the central processing unit were identified. Paper-based returns (with central data processing) is increasingly uncommon and the most time-consuming and costly approach. Electronic data transfer can be accommodated by several routes but

again the review suggests that web-based systems using standard XML protocols are now commonly employed in new or updated systems.

Data analysis

Using individual records rather than pre-aggregated data allows the most flexible approach to data analysis at national level, as only access to individual records allows cross-tabulation across any of the variables collected. This needs to be combined with an appropriate geography for analysis (linked to census and/or administrative geographies).

Implementation

Review of the approaches adopted in different countries indicates a number of stages or phases in the implementation of client record systems. This phasing is to be regarded as critical to the successful development of such systems, and the report outlines four stages to ensure effective implementation.

Finances, resources and budgeting

The cost of implementing data collection from client register systems involves consideration of two distinct issues – the overall implementation of the approach and the creation of the software or data collection and aggregation system. The report reviewed the financial costs of different options for developing software and implementation.

5.2.4 HARMONISATION ISSUES

An information strategy on homelessness will usually not just attempt to monitor the number of homeless persons, but will also aim at collecting and providing further information on their profile. In order to make meaningful comparisons between different sets of client data on the local, regional, national and international level it is absolutely essential to agree on a certain minimum of variables which are collected in the same way. Even without full coverage of the homeless population, a set of harmonised core variables would enhance the understanding of homelessness and of the changing profile of the homeless population. The study on Measuring Homelessness (Edgar *et al.*, 2007) proposed a core data set with a restricted number of variables which should be collected all over Europe using the same definitions and which should provide the basis for information about the profile of homeless people in Europe.

This core data set should inform about

- > basic demographic characteristic (age and gender)
- > nationality and migration background (country of birth)
- > composition of homeless households

- > their accommodation situation (immediately before service period and at time of data collection)
- > the duration of (current) homelessness, and
- > the reasons for (last) homelessness.

A list of those variables and data items recommended as core variables is presented in Appendix 3. Reasons for selecting those variables as core variables are their importance for providing information about the profiles of the homeless population, but also their availability in (most) existing registration systems (which usually collect much more data than these). A key criterion for their selection is that it should be relatively easy to harmonise the definition of these items for European data collection purposes. However, not all of the items are recorded by all existing systems and there will still be a need for change of definitions on the national level in a number of cases.

Such a restricted list of core variables increases the feasibility of data harmonisation. While developed mainly for accommodation-based services, the variables can also be used as a core data set for client registration at non-residential services for the homeless and can also guide the definition of variables employed in surveys. For some of the variables there might be more missing data than for others, although systems to improve and ensure data quality can have a substantial effect on the number of non-responses and missing data.

A second set of non-core variables was also recommended. The collection of such information (for example, on support needs) using the same definitions across Europe would also be important to add value to existing data sets and to allow more comparative analysis to be undertaken. However, for some variables it will take time to harmonise definitions and to reach a European-wide consensus. Furthermore, information on some of the items is less common in existing client registration systems or it is more controversial whether such information is really needed. The collection of non-core items should therefore be optional for national authorities.

The proposed non-core variables comprise data on:

- > main activity
- > source of income
- > highest educational attainment, and
- > the main areas of support needs.

The latter would also provide some additional information on contributing factors to the reasons of homelessness reported as a core topic.

5.3 Implementation Issues

This chapter considers some of the implementation issues to be considered if national authorities are to improve the information base on homelessness. In some countries, this will involve building the capacity for data collection overall, while in other countries it may revolve around improving the administrative geography of information analysis, and in yet other countries it will involve extending the scope of data to include sources not currently tapped.

5.3.1 DEVELOPING A HOMELESS MONITORING INFORMATION STRATEGY

In Section 2, above, the issues of the governance of data collection were discussed. These issues can be summarised in relation to:

1. Development / Planning
Decisions on who is responsible for data collection on homelessness and other aspects of social exclusion and housing will involve a range of government departments. All the key ministries should be involved in this process.
2. Implementation
Depending on the definition of homelessness and housing exclusion adopted, the implementation of a homeless information strategy can be undertaken using different models. Whichever model is adopted it should include the collation of information from service providers (Edgar *et al.*, 2007).
3. Funding
Appropriate budgets are required, and the implementation should be realistically budgeted and planned for.

The report discusses a range of issues involved in improving data collection on homelessness in the context of developing a strategic approach to monitoring homeless information. These issues are summarised here as the key stages involved.

Figure 5.2 Key Stages of Implementation of a Homeless Information system

Stage	Action	Description
1	Consultation	Involve all relevant stakeholders in the statutory and voluntary sectors
2	Definitions	Agree a definition of homelessness Develop harmonised operational definitions of variables
3	Information Needs	Use the strategy on homelessness to identify what information is needed and where priorities lie to improve data collection
4	Review of Information Sources	Identify what information is available and review its usefulness for policy development and evaluation
5	Data Protection	Ensure appropriate protocols exist for data protection and anonymisation of information
6	Timetable of Implementation	Plan the implementation (especially where phased introduction is required) to ensure the needs of stakeholders are met
7	Service Provider Database	Prepare and maintain a database of service provision
8	Client Data	Implement a strategy to collate and aggregate client register data from service providers
9	Administrative Data	Ensure administrative data, registers and surveys can be captured to inform policy analysis
10	Combining Information	Establish joint protocols to eliminate double counting and harmonise operational definitions Standardise systems of unique identifiers and methods of anonymisation of data Identify appropriate geographies for analysis

5.3.2 MANAGEMENT OF DATA COLLECTION

Key principles in the management of data collection on homelessness can be described which should underpin the process of developing a homeless information strategy.

1. Successful implementation and maintenance of data collection systems require mechanisms of consultation and review involving all relevant stakeholders. The appropriate stakeholders need to be identified in each country but will probably include both service providers and all the key ministries of government as well as representatives of regional and municipal government.
2. National collation of client record data from many suppliers, and regular reporting at the relevant geographies, requires a range of skills and a team approach. These skills include project management, user training and consultation, database management, data quality assurance, programming and data analysis. While different approaches are evident in different countries, it is necessary to have a dedicated team for this project whether this is provided in-house or is out-sourced. The team should be responsible for all aspects of the process not simply data processing or analysis.

3. In all countries, national standards exist for data protection. European and international standards also exist for database management systems, for example, in relation to the management of external data and the use of structured query languages (SQL)¹⁵. These standards should apply equally to information from service providers and they need to be specified for national compliance prior to data collection.
4. United Nations and Eurostat protocols have been developed in order to harmonise concepts, definitions and classifications in social surveys. The draft UN protocol on Statistical Integration as part of the National Statistics Code of Practice promotes standards for the harmonisation of classifications (geographical, social and economic), statistical units (family, household, dwelling), definitions (standard concepts and variables). These harmonised concepts and definitions of variables should be adhered to in the development of data collection procedures and protocols for homeless data, and national statistics offices should be consulted on this issue. Equally, Eurostat is developing harmonised Key Social Indicators, and data collection procedures should reference these indicators where possible.
5. Intuitively (and evidentially), data collection is best achieved where the person entering the data can understand a direct payoff to him/herself, to the client or to the organisation. Hence, data extracted from systems linked to casework management and/or organisational management are more likely to return good quality information. Software systems should incorporate reporting functions that facilitate organisational management information as well as data collection.
6. Database management systems should be developed in the context of a clear policy on client confidentiality that is easy to understand, explain and apply. That policy needs to be reviewed on a regular basis.

5.3.3 BARRIERS

The problem of counting the homeless is often presented as a technical problem. However, research has shown that most of the technical problems can be resolved and the main problem is all too often the lack of political will, inadequate funding, unclear structures of responsibility and weak management structures.

A range of technical issues are addressed in the report and we review how these have been tackled in existing systems. Perhaps the most critical aspect of the success of a system in collecting client record data is the approach taken to guarantee data quality. Different approaches to data quality assurance are in evidence and there is established good practice in this respect. The software is critical to data quality. The ease of use of data entry menus is, of course, essential but needs to be combined with appropriate validation routines and error checks. The agency responsible for data entry, cleaning and analysis needs to develop data quality assurance procedures and structures involving all staff. This will involve regular management monitoring procedures and reporting. Finally, training of staff in the provider agencies is essential and can be achieved using traditional training as well as e-learning techniques.

Technical problems related to the use of different or incompatible operating systems are reported in some countries but are relatively minor and have been overcome. The increasing use of online systems will reduce the significance of this issue. Where problems are caused by insufficient funding, the necessary resources have to be made available by funding authorities. National governments as well as authorities on the EU level might need to provide support where structural and technical problems still exist.

The problem of double counting exists, particularly where unique client identifiers are not used. Our report explains how this is dealt with in surveys. For prevalence data and flow data it is almost impossible to exclude double counting of the same persons without unique client identifiers. Such identifiers are recommended and a number of techniques are presented about how these identifiers can be anonymised and protected, so that data extraction is made compatible with data protection rules and with justified interests of service users that their personal data are not misused.

If services are not provided exclusively to homeless people (but for a wider range of clients) it is necessary to isolate the data of homeless clients from those of other clients. For this purpose clear information is needed in order to distinguish those clients who are homeless from those who are not.

¹⁵ ISO/IEC 9075-9: 2003: *Information technology – Database languages – SQL – Management of External Data (SQL/MED)*

Finally, we identify a range of management issues related to the development and implementation, and extraction of data from client record systems. Although it is acceptable for different software systems for registering client data to use different variables, it is important that the core variables are consistently defined. If a variety of client register systems are used by services for the homeless it takes time and resources to harmonise the variables and make systems compatible at least to an extent that allows the extraction of a basic set of data variables. Examples are quoted from Germany and the Netherlands to show how this can be done.

A specific concern to be addressed is the extent to which data can be captured in accommodation services such as emergency or low threshold hostels. These services are normally characterised by a process of direct access rather than referral and by a high turnover of clients. They are often also characterised by serving a client group with more difficult problems (e.g. drug or alcohol dependency or illegal immigrants with language problems). Often there are not enough time and staff available to collect data from people who might only stay one or two nights. Some of these services will also have a principle of anonymity to provide services for people who have no legal papers or feel deterred by the administrative procedures of other services. Data requirements could be reduced for these types of services in order to get at least a minimum of information about turnover and occupation rates. Examples from a number of systems used show that, in practice, it is indeed possible to get reliable data from low threshold services as well as outreach services.

The lack of continuity of staff and a lack of training are other management issues which have to be dealt with in order to secure reliable data. As we have seen, good client registration systems do not require a lot of specialised knowledge, but there is a need for proper training and (on-line) support for those working with data registration systems. The costs of such support have to be taken into account and covered by authorities funding the services.

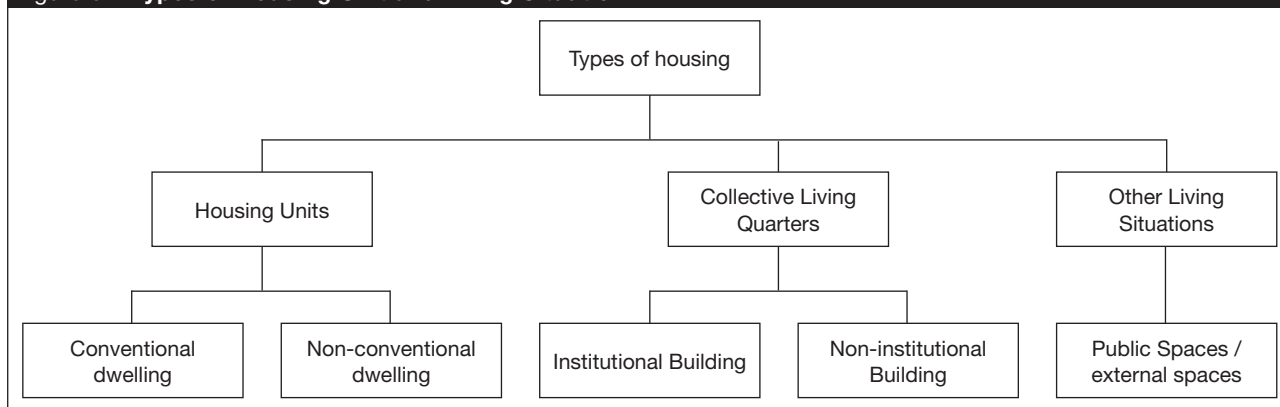
6 Developing Indicators of Housing Exclusion

6.1. Housing Quality

The Indicators Sub-Group of the Social Protection Committee (ISG) has been discussing the structure of indicators on housing deprivation including the quality of housing and housing costs. Part of the deliberation of the ISG has been to consider possible indicators that make use of existing data sources and in particular the variables from EU-SILC. However, the 2011 census will also provide a standard set of variables in each country which include measures of housing quality and overcrowding. The ETHOS typology includes categories of inadequate housing relating to non-conventional dwellings, dwellings which are unfit for habitation and dwellings where the household is living in extreme overcrowding according to nationally defined standards.

This section uses the conceptual approach adopted in developing the ETHOS typology to specify a conceptual and operational definition of housing deprivation. First, though, it is necessary to confirm the definition of a dwelling unit. The CES report (2006) defines living situations to include housing units, collective living quarters and other living situations (see figure 6.1). Housing deprivation applies to both conventional and non-conventional dwellings as defined by the UNECE/EUROSTAT (2006). While the 2011 census will enumerate people living in both situations, the EU-SILC does not cover non-conventional dwellings.

Figure 6.1 Types of Housing Unit and Living Situation



Source: Adapted from UNECE/EUROSTAT (2005) Chart 4, p 123

6.1.1 CONCEPTUAL DEFINITION

Employing the conceptual logic of the ETHOS methodology, we can suggest that there are three relevant domains to consider in order to establish a conceptual definition of housing deprivation. These can be referred to as:

> *Structural Domain*:

This domain refers to the structural stability of a dwelling. This will determine if it is fit for habitation.

> *Physical Domain*:

This domain refers to the availability of basic amenities that society regards as necessary to normal life.

> *Social Domain*:

This domain refers to whether the dwelling is ‘fit for purpose’, which is to say whether it is adequate to meet the needs of the household.

To some degree, all of these conceptual domains contain a normative element but can also include an absolute component.

Using these conceptual domains it is possible to identify seven different situations of dwelling deprivation where the dwelling lacks one or more of the identified domains. This is summarised in Figure 6.2.

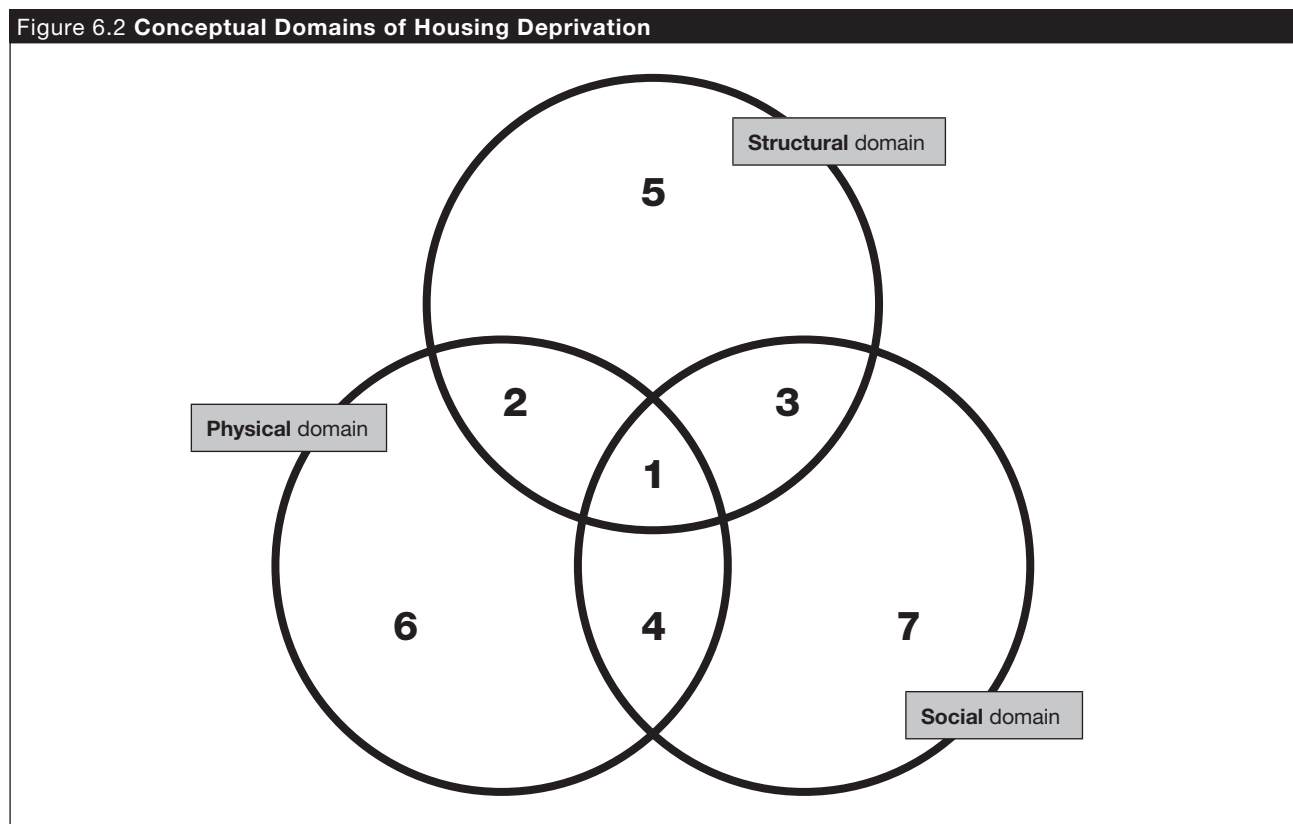


Figure 6.3 Seven Theoretical Domains of Housing Deprivation

	Conceptual Category	Structural Domain	Physical Domain	Social Domain
1	Unfit for habitation	Poor structural state	Lacks basic amenities	Lacks adequate space
2	Requires substantial modernisation	Poor structural state	Lacks basic amenities	
3	Serious disrepair	Poor structural state		Lacks adequate space
4	Inadequate dwelling		Lacks basic amenities	Lacks adequate space
5	Disrepair	Poor structural state		
6	Lacks basic amenities		Lacks basic amenities	
7	Overcrowded			Lacks adequate space

6.1.2 OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

This section considers the operational definition of each of these domains so that we can begin to identify the range of variables that can be employed to measure housing deprivation or that are relevant to incorporate into an indicator.

A. Structural Domain

Different approaches can be used to define the structural domain operationally, but essentially the aim is to measure:

- > Whether the dwelling is fit for habitation (i.e. whether it is structurally stable and wind- and water-tight)
- > Whether the key elements of the building are in disrepair (e.g. roof, windows, key building fabric elements which may be injurious to health or to the normal expectations of family life).

Thus, in the UK, the statutory definition of fitness for habitation includes items such as:

- > be structurally stable
- > be free from dampness prejudicial to the health of the occupants
- > have adequate provision for lighting, heating and ventilation
- > have an adequate piped supply of wholesome water
- > have an effective system for the drainage of foul, waste and surface water
- > have satisfactory facilities for the preparation and cooking of food, including a sink with hot and cold water.

State of disrepair can, of course, be defined in different ways. The English House Condition survey uses a scale from – “in need of improvement” to “serious disrepair” – and uses current costs to specify the different points on the scale.

B. Physical Domain

This dimension is defined by reference to the presence or absence of basic amenities which social norms determine are required for normal life. While these may (in part) be culturally determined, essential amenities are commonly taken to include:

- > have a suitably located WC for exclusive use of the occupants
- > have a bath or shower and wash-hand basin, with hot and cold water.

C. Social Domain

This dimension refers to the space standards and suitability of the dwelling for the household which occupies it. Hence, this is the overcrowding dimension. Three definitions can be identified in common use in Europe:

- > Internal space standards (measured in square metres of habitable rooms – i.e. excluding hall and bathroom)
- > Occupancy standards (number of persons per habitable room)
- > Involuntary sharing (single family occupancy; household should not be required to share a dwelling with people to whom they are unrelated due to lack of housing).

These definitions relate to different types of measure – physical (space), social (occupancy) or normative (single family). In addition to the operational definition of these items there are, of course, a range of measurement issues that affect the reliability, availability and use of data measuring these items.

6.1.3. UNECE/EUROSTAT RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE 2011 CENSUS

At the time of writing, the UNECE/EUROSTAT Recommendations for the 2011 census provides the only data source that is common to all EU member states. This section considers these variables to identify those which can be utilised to measure these operational dimensions of housing deprivation. The UNECE/EUROSTAT Recommendations define a number of variables which relate to housing and to housing quality. These are summarised in Figure 6.4.



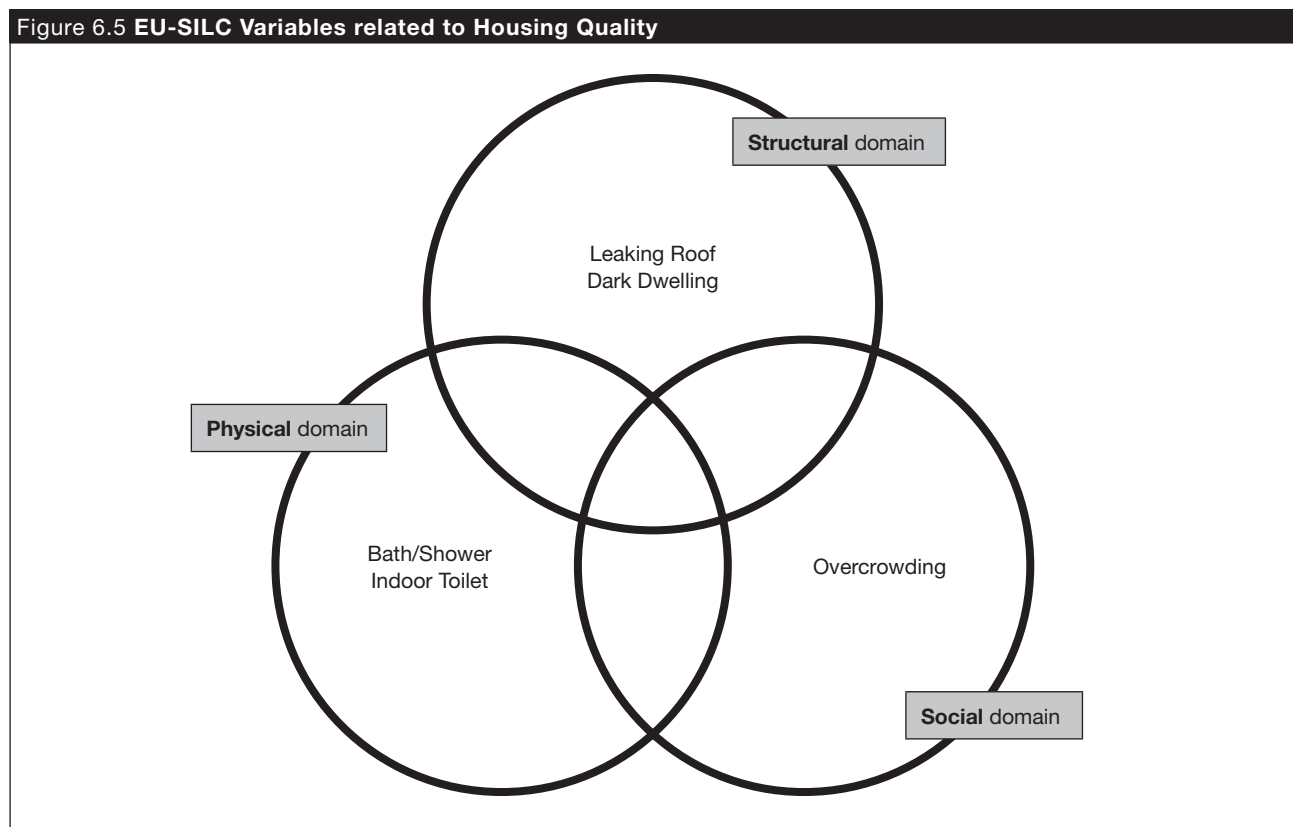
Figure 6.4 UNECE/EUROSTAT recommended variables related to housing quality

CORE TOPIC	NONCORE TOPIC
Number of occupants	Occupancy by number of private households
Useful floor space and/or number of rooms of housing units	Type of rooms
Density standard	Hot water
Water supply system	Type of sewage disposal system
Toilet facilities	Kitchen
Bathing facilities	Cooking facilities
Type of heating	Electricity
	Air-conditioning
	Accessibility to dwelling

6.1.4 EU-SILC

EU-SILC variables can also be mapped onto the conceptual model described above (see Figure 6.5). A number of deprivation items are considered in EU-SILC including:

1. Overcrowding: number of rooms available to the household
2. Leaking roof: leaking room, damp walls/floors, rot in windows/floors
3. Bath/shower: bath or shower in dwelling
4. Indoor toilet: indoor flushing toilet for sole use of household
5. Dark dwelling: lack of light in the dwelling.



Taking each of the three domains in turn, and using the data from the EU-SILC for the member states, the following pattern emerges.

Structural Domain :

Leaking Roof: with the exception of Finland and Portugal, this variable in all cases produces a higher score than the Dark Dwelling variable (range from 4.5 in Finland to 41.4 in Poland). The variable also clearly distinguishes between the EU-15 and the EU-10.

Dark Dwelling : scores for this variable range from 3.7 (Slovakia) to 18.8 (Portugal) and give a very mixed picture when comparing the EU-15 and EU-10. They also show a skewed distribution – 15 countries are below the average of 7.7 (with France, Italy, UK, Belgium, Spain and Portugal all higher than the average).

Physical Domain :

Bath / Shower and Indoor Toilet: The range, average and distribution of these two variables are very similar, with the same five countries above the average in each case (Hungary, Poland, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania).

Social Domain :

Overcrowding: measured as density or persons per (habitable) room, this variable provides a robust measure of housing deprivation. It may be that the EU-SILC question – number of rooms available – does not allow derivation of an occupancy or density measure of overcrowding.

Using the EU-SILC variables the ISG recently adopted a set of secondary level housing indicators (see Appendix 4). These include indicators on overcrowding and housing deprivation. Figure 6.6 summarises the specification of these indicators.

Figure 6.6 Secondary Indicators on Overcrowding and Housing Deprivation proposed by the Indicators Sub-Group (July 2009)		
<p>Overcrowding rate Percentage of people living in an overcrowded household > All households¹⁶ > excluding single households.</p>	<p>sex, age (0-17; 18-64; 65+); income quintiles, poor/non-poor; tenure status (4 categories: full ownership; owner still paying mortgage; tenants at market price; tenants at subsidised price or rent free); degree of urbanisation; household type</p>	<p>The person is considered as living in an overcrowded household if the household does not have at its disposal at least:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > one room for the household > one room for each couple > one room for each single person aged 18+ > one room for two single people of the same sex between 12 and 17 years of age > one room for each single person of different sex between 12 and 17 years of age > one room for two people under 12 years of age
<p>Housing deprivation by item Percentage of the population deprived of each housing deprivation item, and by number of items</p>	<p>sex, age (0-17; 18-64; 65+); income quintiles, poor/non-poor; tenure status (4 categories: full ownership; owner still paying mortgage; tenants at market price; tenants at subsidised price or rent free); degree of urbanisation; household type</p>	<p>The following housing deprivation items are considered:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> > leaking roof, damp walls/floors/foundations, or rot in window frames or floors > no bath or shower in the dwelling > no indoor flushing toilet for the sole use of the household > dwelling too dark

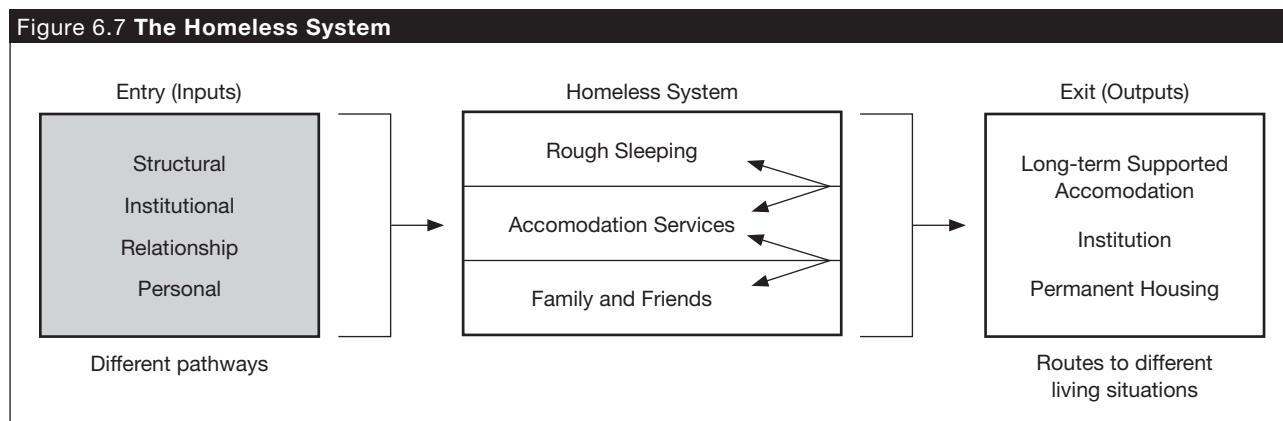
Source: ISG July 2009

¹⁶ The calculation includes single households and considers them as deprived if they live in a studio with a bedroom not separated from the living room. This calculation based on all households should systematically be used if the overcrowding criteria are analysed together with other housing quality criteria.

6.2 Monitoring Indicators of Homelessness and Housing Exclusion

The review of homeless strategies in Chapter 4 identified that most strategies have specified clear objectives and linked targets or indicators by which progress can be measured and evaluated. This section considers the approach to specifying indicators to monitor changes in homelessness (level or nature of the population) and to monitor the effectiveness of policy implementation. Edgar *et al.*, (2007) describe the need

for input, system and output indicators. They describe the nature of the system to be managed in relation to the pathways into homelessness (related to prevention indicators), accommodation and related homeless services (system indicators) and pathways out of homelessness (output and outcome measures) – see Figure 6.7.



Source: Edgar *et al.*, 2007

From this approach it is possible to specify input, system and output indicators, for example:

Input indicators

- > Threatened with eviction
- > Leaving institutions
- > Children leaving care

System indicators

- > Number of people receiving services
- > Time spent in the system
- > Flow of people through the system

Output indicators

- > People re-housed (with/without support)

Our review of the homeless strategies in Europe illustrates the manner in which a number of strategies specify specific targets linked to broad aims and objectives of policy (see Figure 6.8). These are usually expressed as a target level of reduction in key indicators such as eviction or prison discharge. This allows for the indicator to be defined and the source of information (and frequency of monitoring) to be identified.

Figure 6.8 Summary of Homeless Strategy Aims and Indicators		
Country	Strategy Aims / Objectives	Targets / Monitoring Indicators
Scotland	All households to be guaranteed accommodation by 2012	Priority Need Assessment (2009 + 2012)
Norway	Prevent people from becoming homeless	> Number of eviction petitions shall be reduced by 50%, and the number of evictions by 30%. > No one shall have to spend time in temporary housing upon release from prison > No one shall have to seek temporary housing upon discharge from an institution
	Improve the quality of overnight shelters	No shall be offered overnight shelter without a quality agreement
	Ensure that homeless people receive offers of permanent housing without undue delay	No one shall stay more than three months in temporary housing
Netherlands	Homeless people to have income, care, accommodation and work	Homeless stability index
	The number of evictions in 2008 reduced to less than 30% of the 2005 figure	> number of evictions per year > number of evictions leading to homelessness per year
	> End homelessness following prison discharge	> number of cases of homelessness following detention
	> End homelessness as a result of leaving care institutions	> number of cases of homelessness after leaving care institutions
France	Implement enforceable right to housing	Not specified
	Widen access to social housing	PLAI and PLUS increase to 80 000 per annum
	Alter conditions for access to emergency accommodation	27 100 new places
Sweden	Everyone guaranteed a roof and support based on their individual needs	
	Reduce discharge from prison or treatment unit or care homes with no home to go to	
	Access to ordinary housing for those in secondary housing	
	Reduce evictions (no children are to be evicted)	
Ireland	1. prevent homelessness 2. eliminate the need to sleep rough 3. eliminate long-term homelessness 4. meet long-term housing needs 5. ensure effective services for homeless people, and 6. better co-ordinate funding arrangements	> The number of homeless households > The number of people becoming homeless > The number of homeless households settled successfully out of homelessness > The average length of time homeless and the number of people remaining homeless for longer than six months > The number of rough sleepers > Compliance by homeless services with quality standards > Trends in expenditure on emergency accommodation
England	End rough sleeping by 2012	
Finland	End long-term homelessness in 10 urban growth centres	Halve long-term homelessness by 2011
Portugal	1. eliminate the need to sleep rough 2. increase the quality of temporary accommodation 3. address the lack of accommodation and support upon discharge from an institution 4. reinforce permanent housing solutions 5. improve access to social benefits and (mental) health care services 6. promote training and qualification opportunities of workers in this field 7. draft local homelessness plans	
Denmark	1. The number of homeless people sleeping in the streets must be reduced 2. For young homeless people (below 24 years) better options than placement in a homeless hostel have to be given 3. The average time spent in a homeless hostel must be reduced to 3-4 months for people who are ready to move to a dwelling with necessary support 4. Solutions for housing problems have to be made prior to release from prison and treatment centres	Number of rough sleepers (national count) Number of young people staying in homeless hostels (annual statistics of social appeals board and national count) Length of stays in homeless hostels (annual statistics of social appeals board) Homelessness due to institutional release (national count)

In addition to specific indicators, some strategies also specify performance indicators which include hard and soft measures. Ireland, the Netherlands, Norway and Portugal can be cited as examples here. For example, the Irish strategy specifies a number of performance indicators to monitor progress of the implementation of the strategy and its impact nationally for each of the six strategic aims (Figure 6.9). The Dutch

strategy uses the homeless stability index to reflect this performance measure. The Norwegian strategy identifies a number of process issues linked to co-ordination arrangements and protocol procedures, together with the targeting of funding to local peer reviews and capacity initiatives. In Portugal this is also reflected in the training of staff and adoption of local homelessness plans.

Figure 6.9 Performance Indicators Specified in the Irish Homelessness Strategy

Strategic Aim	Performance Indicator
To reduce the number of households who become homeless through the further development and enhancement of preventative measures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Number of households newly homeless by household and last address > Number of people homeless on admission to state care and hospitals, by last address > Number of people homeless on discharge or discharged into homelessness, by institution and area > Trends in participation in health, treatment and education by people while they are homeless > Completion of research on links between domestic violence and homelessness on time > Protocols in place for ensuring that people have access to education, training and treatment services when they are homeless
To eliminate the need for people to sleep rough	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Trends in numbers of people sleeping rough by gender, age and area > Review of street outreach teams completed on time > Trends in compliance with national good practice guidelines (from 2010) > Number of sleepers accommodated by household type, area, type of accommodation > Trends in number of people accommodated returning to rough sleeping
To eliminate long-term homelessness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Trends in the number of people long-term in emergency accommodation by area, service provider, and household type > Trends in expenditure on long-term housing options compared to emergency accommodation > Trends in the length of time people are homeless by area, provider and household type > Trends in compliance with quality standards for long-term supported housing for implementation from 2009
To meet long-term housing needs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > The number and % of households settled by household type, by landlord (private, local authority, RAS, voluntary and co-operative, supported) by area and previous status (rough sleeping, long-term in homelessness) > Number of households engaged with tenancy sustainment services, by location, housing type and length of engagement
To ensure that all services for people who are homeless are effective in addressing needs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Review existing information systems and establishment of nationwide system by end 2009 > Establishment and implementation of a programme of homeless service evaluation by 2009 > Completion of national quality standards on case management and interagency working by 2009
To re-orientate spending on homeless services, away from emergency responses to the provision of long-term housing and support services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> > Trends in funding for emergency and long-term responses > Roll out funding arrangements nationally on a phased basis.

7 Counting the Homeless in the Census

7.1. Census Information on Homelessness

In July 2008, the EU adopted a legally-binding regulation on population and housing censuses which provides for the holding of population and housing censuses in all EU member states in 2011. The regulation clearly provides for the collection of data on “housing arrangements” (see list of core topics in the Annex of the legislation). The UNECE/EUROSTAT Recommendations define *housing arrangements* as:

“The relationship between the population and the living quarters, and which can be referred to either the individuals or the households... Housing arrangements cover the whole population and is defined as the type of housing where a person is a usual resident at the time of the census – this covers all persons who are usual residents in different types of living quarters, or who do not have a usual residence and stay temporarily in living quarters, or are roofless persons sleeping rough or in emergency shelters when the census was taken.”¹⁷

The UNECE/CES Recommendations (pp.136-137) include the following four housing categories: people living in conventional dwellings, people living in other housing units (non-conventional dwellings), people living in collective living quarters (institutions, hotels, camps, etc.), and people who have no usual place of residence in any other living quarter (such as homeless people).

Not all ‘housing topics’ are identified by UNECE/EUROSTAT as ‘core’, as for some housing types the topic is not relevant or the topic is difficult to measure in a census for a particular housing type. However, UNECE/EUROSTAT has identified the *housing arrangements* of people experiencing homelessness as ‘core’, in order to ensure that the whole population is classified according to all the units counted in the housing census, including the consideration of those who are roofless.

7.1.1. THE UNECE/EUROSTAT DEFINITION OF HOMELESSNESS

In its Recommendations for the Censuses of Population and Housing, UNECE/EUROSTAT identifies homeless people under two broad groups:

1. Primary homelessness (or rooflessness). This category includes persons living in the streets without a shelter that would fall within the scope of living quarters.
2. Secondary homelessness. This category may include persons with no place of usual residence who move frequently between various types of accommodations (including dwellings, shelters, institutions for the homeless or other living quarters). This category includes persons living in private dwellings but reporting ‘no usual address’ on their census form.

UNECE/EUROSTAT acknowledges that the above approach does not provide a full definition of the ‘homeless’. The recent study on measuring homelessness published by DG Employment and Social Affairs (Edgar *et al.*, 2007) specifies a six-fold definition of homelessness. Figure 7.1 compares these definitions. Since the harmonised definition provided in the Measuring Homelessness Study (2007) provides a more disaggregated classification of “secondary homelessness”, this approach will be used in this report to consider the measurement of homelessness provided by different census methods.

¹⁷ ‘Conference of European Statisticians Recommendations for the 2010 Censuses of Population and Housing’, United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, 2006, p. 129, 136

Figure 7.1 The UNECE/EUROSTAT Recommended Definition and the Measuring Homelessness Study Definition

Operational Category	Measuring Homelessness Study 2007	UNECE / CES Recommendations 2006
1	People living rough	Secondary Homeless
2	People in emergency accommodation	
3	People living in accommodation for the homeless	
4	People living in institutions (due to be released but no home to go to)	
5	People living in non-conventional dwellings due to lack of housing	
6	Homeless people living temporarily in conventional housing with family and friends (due to lack of housing)	

7.1.2. DATA COLLECTION APPROACHES

According to the *current version* of the EU Regulation, member states can base the statistics on different data sources, and in particular on the following:

- > Conventional census
- > Register-based census
- > Combination of conventional census and sample survey
- > Combination of register-based census and sample survey
- > Combination of register-based census and conventional census
- > Combination of register-based census, conventional census and sample survey
- > Rolling census

Three broad approaches can be identified which include countries using traditional enumeration survey methods of data collection, countries using register-based methods of data collation and countries using a combination of approaches. Figure 7.2 suggests that 12 countries are employing traditional enumeration techniques, a further 12 are utilising register-based methods or some combination of register and surveys, and that one country has adopted a rolling census approach.

Figure 7.2 Census Data Collection Approaches for 2011

CENSUS APPROACH 2011	COUNTRIES
Conventional census	Greece, Italy, Portugal, Ireland, UK, Poland, Czech, Estonia, Romania, Bulgaria, Hungary, Lithuania
Register-based census	Denmark, Finland, Norway, Sweden, Germany, Austria
Combination of register-based census and conventional census	Latvia, Luxembourg, Slovenia, Spain
Combination of register-based census and sample survey	Belgium, Netherlands
Rolling census	France

The first group of countries have adopted a traditional census, using administrative data and registers only as supporting tools in organising the field work and in data collection, and with no specific plans to replace the traditional model by a new one. Countries belonging to this group are the southern European countries of Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain, most of the new member states including Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Poland and Romania, together with Ireland and the United Kingdom.

The second group of countries have opted for an entirely or largely register-based census; the Nordic countries – Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden – belong to this group. Germany and Austria have also decided to move to a register-based approach. In Germany, the latest proposal is to base population estimates on the local registers of population, to derive employment data for small areas from registers of employment, and otherwise to rely on the 1 per cent micro-census and other statistical sources. Some Lander have talked of carrying out their own traditional census to cover additional topics.

The third group of countries have decided to employ a mix of conventional and register-based censuses; these countries are Belgium, Latvia, Luxembourg, Slovenia and Spain. They are either planning a register-based, or largely register-based, census for the 2010 census round.

France and the Netherlands have adopted different approaches to the census enumeration. France has adopted a continuous rolling census, which involves a rotating total count with 5-year periods for most of the population and estimates to cover the gaps. The Netherlands has developed a distinctive approach of its own. Their census will be a combination of information from administrative sources and of results from sample surveys. The data gathered will be used to build up, through imputation, micro-files covering the whole population.

The different methods of census data collection used will inevitably determine the nature of the enumeration strategies targeting homeless people on census night. The following sections consider the issues involved and the arrangements being considered in the conventional enumeration methods and those involving register-based approaches. The evidence for this is drawn from two main sources. Following the publication of the EU census regulation, FEANTSA conducted a consultation of national statistics offices on the enumeration of homeless people on census night (FEANTSA,

2008). The MPHASIS project¹⁸ has included research on the issues of data collection on the homeless in countries with register-based census approaches using Germany and Slovenia as case studies.

The survey conducted by FEANTSA (2008) suggests that three broad categories of approach can be identified including countries using traditional enumeration approaches with co-operation from homeless services, countries intending to draw information from their registers, and countries which intend to use registers plus support from homeless services.

Figure 7.3 Approaches to Counting the Homeless in the 2011 Census

Homeless enumerated through traditional methods and co-operation with homeless services	Homeless enumerated as part of a register	Homeless enumerated through register and homeless services
Czech Republic England France Hungary Ireland Italy Lithuania Luxembourg Poland Portugal	Austria Belgium Denmark Finland Netherlands Sweden	Estonia Spain Latvia Slovenia Germany

Source: FEANTSA survey of census offices

7.2 Counting the Homeless in Conventional Census Enumeration

The FEANTSA survey (2008) identified that some countries have clear intentions of enumerating homeless people through a combination of methods, whereas other countries are still looking into different possibilities. This section takes a closer look at these methods in countries using conventional enumeration surveys for the census in 2011.

Countries using the conventional census enumeration approach intend to work closely with service providers to enumerate the primary homeless population (mainly through hiring special enumerators who are familiar with the homeless population), to enumerate the secondary homeless population living in emergency and transitional accommodation (mainly through use of databases of homeless services) or both.

¹⁸ MPHASIS stands for **Mutual Progress on Homelessness through Advancing and Strengthening Information Systems**, and aims to improve the capacity of member states in data collection on homelessness

Information on the strategies being adopted to count the **primary homeless** is available for only a small number of countries – the remainder having no clearly articulated plan at this stage.

The UK and France have conducted pilot surveys to test methodologies. In **the UK (England)**, special arrangements are being made with housing organisations and local authorities to devise a strategy to count the homeless which will be tested in a pre-census rehearsal in a number of local authority areas in March and October 2009. Census staff will also accompany local authority officials in their own field activities to count homeless people in a programme leading up to the 2011 census. In **France**, where a rolling census is conducted, people sleeping rough and persons usually living in mobile homes are enumerated by municipalities in the first two days of the census surveys. A methodological pilot survey of rough sleepers in the city of Toulouse took place in January 2009 in order to prepare the methods to be adopted for the 2012 national homelessness survey, to ensure the maximum coverage of rough sleepers.

A pilot population and accommodation census was conducted in **Lithuania** in September 2008. However, it is not clear to what extent people “with no usual place of residence” were covered in the pilot census. In the **Czech Republic**, the statistics office hopes to co-operate with homeless agencies to conduct a street count where these people usually concentrate.

In **Ireland**, census enumerators are expected to ‘count’ all persons in their area including those who are sleeping rough on the night of the census. However, it is unclear what methodology is adopted to identify these people. Currently, persons sleeping rough are enumerated on the census household form (i.e. the form used for private households) and are thus categorised as ‘persons living in non-conventional dwellings’ in the census outputs. Therefore, currently the data is not categorised in such a way that a total number of ‘people who have no usual place of residence’ can be calculated.

Within the UNECE/EUROSTAT definition of the ‘**secondary homeless**’ population, some countries are taking steps to identify databases of homeless shelters and emergency accommodation and are co-operating with the agencies running these services to enumerate people on census night. However, it is not always possible to ensure that homeless people living in these institutions can be distinguished from people living in other forms of collective living situation.

In the **Czech Republic**, homeless people will be identified as a special category and, in accordance with the UNECE/EUROSTAT Recommendations (para. 162g), their place of enumeration will be taken as their place of usual residence in order to enumerate a total usually resident population for each locality/territorial unit.

In **France**, homeless people accommodated in collective shelters or hostels are surveyed through a separate annual survey of all forms of “collective accommodation”. Only homeless people in emergency shelters can be distinguished in the results of the collective accommodation survey. Homeless people in long-stay hostels are in the same category as people in other kinds of long-stay accommodation not intended for the homeless, and thus cannot be separately identified as homeless people. Homeless people staying in hotel rooms (if on a permanent basis) or in apartments financed by NGOs or other agencies are surveyed during the conventional dwellings enumeration (i.e. in the dwelling census). In this situation, it is also not possible to distinguish them from other households in the resulting data.

In **Ireland**, the census in 2006 collected information on people living in *conventional dwellings, other housing units and collective living quarters (including shelters)*. The ‘shelter’ category includes accommodation for homeless people.

In **Portugal**, the Institute for Social Security is committed to send the statistics office a list of shelters to ensure homeless services are included in the census.

7.3 Counting the Homeless using Register-based Approaches

A register is defined as a systematic collection of *unit-level data* organised in such a way that *updating* is possible (UNECE, 2007). As a rule, a register will contain information on a complete group of units, a *target population* (e.g. persons, buildings, firms). These units are defined by a precise set of *rules* (e.g. resident population in a country). A key requirement is that each unit in the register can always be uniquely identified. This is normally achieved by using a system of *identification codes*, but identification is also possible without such a code if sufficient information on the units is available (for persons: name, address, date of birth, etc.).

The particular advantage of register-based statistics is that they, in principle, provide total coverage (UNECE, 2007). By using registers it is possible to produce more detailed statistics than by using sample surveys, for instance statistics for small areas and for very detailed classifications.

The evidence of the MPHASIS research project identifies a number of issues involved in obtaining a count of homeless people. Three issues can be mentioned here. First is the extent to which homeless people have a national identity number to allow for their inclusion in the population register. Second is the issue of the acceptance and use of a proxy address for people without a usual place of residence. Third is the extent to which homeless institutions can be distinguished in the property registers from other forms of collective living situations in order to allow statistical analysis of the homeless population. Thus, not all homeless people are included in the population register and, where they are included, it is not always possible to identify them for statistical purposes.

In some countries, people without a usual place of residence can ask for a contact or postal address to be established with the social insurance institution (Austria), municipality (Finland) or an agency which provides social support for homeless people (Slovenia). In this situation, people who are included in the register in this way can be counted as people with no usual place of residence. It is uncertain what proportion of people with no usual place of residence register in this manner. Filipovic Hrast (2009) suggests that, in Slovenia, homeless people could be identified from registers but only if the addresses are clearly identified as part of service provision for homeless people.

In some countries using register-based statistics, inhabitants of collective living quarters are exempt from the register method and covered separately by a survey. This is the case for example in Germany, where people living at such “special addresses” are counted in the more “traditional” way by interviews of the inhabitants themselves or of directors of the specific institutions, including “fictitious (postal) addresses” of social services (Gerull, 2009: 17, 18).

The methodological problem in both cases consists in getting as complete a list as possible of all relevant organisations and (for recording and evaluation of the data) of sepa-

rating provision for the homeless from other institutional provision and regular housing. The use of unique identifiers can help to exclude counting the same persons twice.

People living in non-conventional dwellings are as a rule covered by the census. In register-based censuses, people have to be registered at these dwellings with their permanent address in order to be covered by the census. It might be an additional problem to clarify who, of those living there, are really living in garages, huts, shacks or caravans “due to a lack of housing”.

Figure 7.4 summarises the main issues in counting different categories of (primary and secondary) homeless people using register-based methods. This suggests that registers need to be supplemented by survey approaches if a clearer statistical picture of homelessness is to be derived. It also identifies the need to distinguish different types of collective living situation, such that homeless accommodation situations can be distinguished. This, of course, also assumes that the property register is a complete list of collective living situations in each of the disaggregated types of accommodation.

Figure 7.4 Identifying the Operational Categories of Homeless People in Register-based Census Approaches

Measuring Homelessness Study (2007) Operational Categories		Register-based census
1	People living rough	Only covered when registered at support organisation
2	People in emergency accommodation	Can be covered if addresses of such places are identified and inhabitants are either registered there or counted separately
3	People living in accommodation for the homeless	
4	People living in institutions (due to be released, but no home to go to)	In most countries no information is available
5	People living in non-conventional dwellings due to lack of housing	Covered if persons are registered there with permanent address
6	Homeless people living temporarily in conventional housing with family and friends (due to lack of housing)	Will be particularly difficult to cover in register-based census. Only those will be covered who have their postal address registered with a support agency

7.4 Conclusions

This brief review of plans to comply with the UNECE/EUROSTAT Recommendations to count all people, including the homeless, raises a number of key issues which should be considered by relevant agencies prior to the 2011 census.

The definition of homelessness given in the census recommendations is unambiguous in relation to primary homelessness, but the definition of secondary homelessness requires elaboration. This is important if the homeless are not only to be included in the census but are capable of being identified as homeless so that information is made available on the size of the homeless population or of those homeless persons covered by the census.

The FEANTSA survey suggests that enumeration procedures for the primary homeless are still not specified by many census offices. To count this group of people requires procedures to allow the identification of places where people live in external spaces. This is well-understood in empirical research on homelessness, and documented procedures are available. Apart from the few countries who have already conducted such surveys in previous censuses there is little evidence that these procedures are understood or are being implemented in the planning of the 2011 census.

This brief review has identified several key issues concerning the enumeration of the secondary homeless population. First, it appears that in many countries it is only those staying in emergency shelters who will be classified as homeless. According to the UNECE/EUROSTAT recommended definition, those staying in longer-stay temporary accommodation or homeless hostels for less than a year should be counted as not having a usual place of residence and hence to be homeless. However, the database of collective living institutions often does not distinguish homeless accommodation from other forms of accommodation (e.g. for the elderly or other groups) and hence it is not possible to produce aggregate statistics on the homeless as a group.

Secondly, people living temporarily with family and friends who have no usual place of residence are a key component of the homeless population. The census provides the one occasion when it is possible to provide a baseline figure of this group. It is important to ensure that enumeration methods using the census household form and register-based approaches can adequately identify this group.

This review has raised a number of questions regarding the procedures in register-based census systems. The identification of homeless accommodation in property registers should be possible using a typology of accommodation. This could be implemented with limited resource implications. Since the procedures for developing register-based systems are varied there is a need for further research on the ability of registers to count difficult-to-reach groups such as the homeless.

8 Review of Statistics Available in Europe

8.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses some of the issues involved in measuring homelessness using the ETHOS typology categories. A data template is available for each country on the FEANTSA website which gives detail of: the definition of each sub-category in English and the national language, the source of data available, the nature of the measure (stock or prevalence data), the area covered, the frequency of publication and the last date published. The actual data is summarised in the tables contained in Appendix 2.

The purpose of the discussion in this chapter is to focus on issues of measurement which affect our ability to draw international comparisons of homeless data. Data is available for 21 countries. No data was available in time for the preparation of this report from Luxembourg, Bulgaria, Romania, Slovakia, Cyprus and Malta.

8.2 Rooflessness

The ETHOS typology defines rooflessness in terms of two categories – people who sleep rough and people who use overnight shelters. This section examines the measurement issues involved and the data available about people in these situations.

The purpose of counting the number of people living outdoors or in a ‘social emergency’ can vary between countries. In some countries, especially those with more limited provision of services for homeless people, the purpose is to identify the scale of the problem involved. In other countries, especially those with a policy objective to reduce or end the need to sleep rough, the objective lies more in the need to monitor the implementation of policy geographically and over time. Such policy objectives can determine the approach to measuring homelessness among this group of vulnerable people.

It has been argued that “people sleeping rough are more accurately described as a vulnerable, very precariously accommodated population who sometimes sleep outside” (Fitzpatrick *et al.*, 2003). By definition, this is a mobile population who move around between outdoors, public spaces,

living with friends or using emergency low-threshold accommodation. Hence the first measurement problem is to establish a definition of who is to be measured. This involves two key related decisions involving the definition of the population to be counted and the definition of the places (or living situations) to be included in the enumeration process.

8.2.1 MEASUREMENT ISSUES

The population of people sleeping rough is defined in the ETHOS typology by reference to the living situation. Essentially, this makes a distinction between those sleeping in external or public places and those who are sleeping in an overnight or emergency shelter (which normally restricts access during the day).

Review of survey methods adopted in different countries suggests that the definition of public places as enumeration points for counts is often restricted by safety factors or by the level of resources available in the survey period (Edgar *et al.*, 2006). The Conference of European Statisticians defines living situations for the purpose of the census to include places not meant for habitation:

“Other housing units not designed for habitation comprise premises in permanent or semi-permanent buildings such as stables, barns, mills, garages, warehouses, offices, etc. which have not been built, rebuilt, converted or arranged for human habitation but are, nevertheless, used by one or more private households as their usual residence at the time of the census. This category also includes natural shelters such as caves, which are used by one or more private households as their usual residence at the time of the census”. (UNECE/EUROSTAT, 2006; para 603 d)

People living in such situations are *strictu sensu* roofless and should be included in any count of the roofless population. However, it is often difficult to identify such places to include them in a survey as places of enumeration even where survey methodologies include them in the definition.

As can be seen from the data tables which follow, it is not always easy to identify overnight or emergency accommodation from other types of homeless hostel.

8.2.2 SLEEPING ROUGH

A number of countries have no information on the roofless population (Latvia, Lithuania, Slovenia, the Netherlands). A number of countries only have partial geographical coverage – mainly for the capital or major cities (Austria, Belgium, Czech Republic, Hungary, Portugal). Only a few countries have regular data collection which includes people sleeping in external spaces (Denmark, Finland, Ireland, Norway, Sweden, the UK). Those countries (such as France and Spain) which rely on national counts or national surveys have data which is most out of date (2001 and 2005 respectively). The source of information on rough sleeping comes from government (Denmark, Finland, France, Ireland, Norway, Sweden, UK), municipalities (Portugal) and NGOs (Austria, Belgium, Czech Republic, Germany, Hungary, Poland). Information on the roofless population is, with the exception of Germany, a stock figure. This is clearly lower than prevalence data.

8.2.3 OVERNIGHT SHELTERS

An overnight shelter is accommodation which is intended for people in an emergency situation which is characterised by direct access, free to use, and which often maintains a daytime curfew (see Tables 2.4 and 2.5). However, some countries provide such accommodation within the ambit of hostels intended for more long-stay use and thus it is not possible to separately distinguish figures for emergency and other forms of hostel (Denmark, Germany, Slovenia, for example).

For those countries where information can be separately identified, the majority can only provide partial information – usually for the capital cities – rather than a national figure. Furthermore, most of the information is a stock figure reflecting the capacity of the accommodation rather than the actual use (i.e. the flow data or prevalence data). This reflects the fact that either service providers do not collect basic information on clients coming to direct access hostels or the fact that such information is not collated in any systematic manner at a regional or national level.

8.3 Houselessness

The conceptual definition of the houseless population in the ETHOS typology reflects the situation of people who, while having a roof over their heads, are excluded from the legal rights of occupancy and do not have a place to pursue normal social relations. This is operationally defined to include people living in hostels or temporary accommodation for the homeless, women living in refuge accommodation as a result of domestic violence, immigrants living in temporary or specialist accommodation as a result of their immigrant status, people about to be discharged from prison, health or child care institutions who have no identified accommodation in the community, and people who are living in residential homes or supported accommodation designated for homeless people.

8.3.1 HOMELESS HOSTELS AND TEMPORARY ACCOMMODATION

The measurement of the number of people living in houseless situations is complicated by changing trends in the forms of provision and changes in policy development aimed increasingly at re-integration and prevention. The nature of hostels is changing with trends away from large-scale and dormitory provision catering for emergency situations. A number of countries are phasing out the use of temporary accommodation (especially for families) and making more use of ordinary housing for temporary accommodation where this is available (with support) by taking a 'housing first' approach to policy.

Homelessness research and related policy development has increasingly recognised the support needs of homeless people beyond that of basic accommodation. Hence, in a number of countries which are adopting a 'housing first' approach, homeless hostels are effectively being transformed into smaller units of accommodation with support.

For this reason, two main issues affect the measurement of these categories of homeless people, which makes comparative analysis difficult.

1. *Definitional issues*: distinguishing between different forms of hostel and temporary accommodation on the one hand, and between hostel / temporary accommodation and supported accommodation on the other hand.

2. *Responsibility for data collection*: because the different forms of accommodation are funded under different legislation, responsibility for collating information is often split between different bodies. From a comparative European perspective this means collating data that may not be reported under homeless statistics. It also implies that data is not always available for comparative periods.

In a number of countries it is not possible to distinguish between hostels and other forms of temporary and transitional supported accommodation (e.g. Germany, Poland, Spain, Hungary and Lithuania). Traditional homeless hostels provide the main form of accommodation for homeless people in a number of countries (e.g. Austria, Belgium, Czech Republic, Denmark, France, Portugal). However, the shift towards more temporary housing solutions and supported housing is more evident in other countries (e.g. Netherlands, Sweden, UK). The concept of transitional supported accommodation is not reflected in the information in the majority of countries. In some countries (e.g. Finland, Denmark) this is because this form of accommodation is not recorded separately as a homeless service. Elsewhere (e.g. Ireland) it reflects the recent origin of that form of provision. The UK remains the only county with a sizeable level of provision funded under a specific initiative (called Supporting People since 2003).

8.3.2 SHELTERS FOR WOMEN

FLEEING DOMESTIC VIOLENCE

While most countries have facilities providing temporary shelter accommodation for women fleeing domestic violence, the information on the number of women seeking help is often not collected by official sources. Data is normally available at project level and is collated at national level in countries where associations of women’s shelters exist. In a number of countries these facilities have emerged from the feminist movement and are not funded from homelessness budgets, and hence are not included in homelessness statistics in a consistent manner. Since the level of provision is less than that required, women who are turned away from such refuge facilities either return to the perpetrator (or family members) or go to an emergency homeless hostel. Hence, a count of the number of women using such centres provides only a partial picture of the level of homelessness experienced by people experiencing domestic violence. Thus, while it is possible to provide statistics at

European level, this requires some deliberate action to collate the available statistics at national level where these are not already published.

Measurement issues also relate to the unit of measurement of the data and the type of data available. One complicating factor is whether information is provided separately for the woman and her children. Because of the different approaches involved, taking the woman herself as the primary unit of measurement would be needed to provide a consistent measure. In most countries it is possible to identify the number and capacity of women’s shelters and hence to provide an estimated stock figure. However, partly because of the level of under-provision involved, the turnover or prevalence figure provides a more reliable estimate of the level of homelessness involved. Indeed, due to the strict rules of access in many shelters the number of women turned away is also a relevant statistic, but this is not collected in a consistent manner.

In a number of countries it is not possible to obtain accurate national figures on the level of accommodation provision for women fleeing domestic violence (e.g. France, Finland, Germany). In general, the level of provision is very low. Four countries provide around one place per 1,000 women (Austria, Denmark, Lithuania, UK); five countries have less than half a place per 1,000 women in the population (Hungary, Netherlands, Spain, Slovenia, Belgium).

8.3.3 TEMPORARY ACCOMMODATION FOR IMMIGRANTS

Reasonably accurate figures are available in most countries for the number of asylum seekers provided with accommodation in reception centres. However, the data mixes the stock figure of places available and the prevalence figure of persons accommodated. Furthermore, many countries make a distinction between emergency reception accommodation and temporary accommodation. Thus, Germany has 17 900 reception places and 46 000 temporary accommodation places. France has specific emergency and temporary accommodation as well as dedicated places in other homeless services – AUDA (Accueil d’urgence des demandeurs d’asile; 9,190 places), Centre d’accueil des demandeurs d’asile (CADA; 20 140 places), les centres provisoires d’hébergement (CPH; 1,020 places) and the CHU (9,719 places).

Migrant workers hostels exist in some of the new member states (Hungary, Latvia and Lithuania) where such provision has remained during the transition period. Within the EU-15 countries only France has hostels for migrant workers built during the 1960s and 1970s by the state-owned SONA-COTRA (Société Nationale de Construction de Logement

pour les Travailleurs Africains) called “foyers des travailleurs africains”. There are currently around 62 500 places in these hostels and many of the residents are now over retirement age with no family ties in France (Hunter, 2009).

8.3.4 INSTITUTIONAL RELEASE AND HOMELESSNESS

Protocols for the discharge of people from institutions of the state should ensure that people are released into permanent appropriate housing (with support where necessary). However, it remains the case that people released from prison or from child care institutions frequently become homeless. Equally, though more difficult to measure, people remain in long-stay medical institutions due to a lack of adequate housing and/or support in the community.

Research in a number of countries has shown that ex-prisoners constitute a significant proportion of homeless people (Adamczuk, 2007). Our review of homeless strategies (Chapter 6) illustrates that a number of countries include as a key target that people, on release from prison, should not have to go into temporary accommodation. Despite the widespread recognition of this as an issue, and the inclusion of such policies in homeless strategies, it remains difficult to get reliable data on this issue in most countries. In some countries it is only possible to find the figure for the number of people in prison (e.g. Belgium, Italy), while in other countries it is possible to obtain the figure of the number of people released during the year (e.g. Austria, Lithuania). In only a small number of countries is it possible to obtain a figure of the number of people released from prison who are homeless (Denmark, Finland, Norway, UK).

The ETHOS typology was modified to take account of comments from several countries that it was important to include a category for children leaving state care institutions. However, it has only been possible to obtain information from the Czech Republic, Hungary, Ireland and the UK on this aspect of homelessness.

8.3.5 RESIDENTIAL AND SUPPORTED ACCOMMODATION

It has been argued that it is necessary to keep the ETHOS typology under review since new forms of homeless services and accommodation provision emerge over time in response to changing needs or modes of government intervention. These categories reflect two specific examples of this issue. First, there is increasing recognition of the need for services targeted specifically to the needs of older people who have experienced long periods of homelessness. The Danish policy “Our Collective Responsibility” identifies specific provision for residential care for older homeless people. Second,

there is increasing recognition of the need for housing with support for formerly homeless people. Hence the most recent strategy in Ireland has introduced the Supported Living Initiative, while the recent Finnish strategy aims to end long-term homelessness by (among other policies) building more supported accommodation.

Although these categories are significant in policy terms and in relation to the prevention of homelessness, only a small number of countries can separately identify the amount of accommodation provided in this manner.

8.4 Insecure and Inadequate Housing

The EU Social Inclusion Strategy, following the Lisbon Council, has the objective of ensuring access to decent housing. While the definition of adequate housing is problematic and has only recently been addressed by the Social Protection Committee in terms of established harmonised indicators using the EU-SILC variables, the ETHOS typology identifies key aspects of housing exclusion related to issues of insecurity of tenure and inadequate housing which can place families at risk of homelessness.

8.4.1 INSECURE HOUSING

Insecure housing is identified in the ETHOS typology in relation to three distinct living situations. First, where people have no legal right of occupancy; second, where people are under threat of eviction or expulsion from the dwelling; third, where people are living under a threat of violence.

8.4.1.1 No legal right of occupancy

These categories represent the “hidden homeless” and as such are difficult to quantify.

Living with family and friends

This category (living with family and friends) relates to people who live temporarily with others and move around due to their homeless situation. It is not intended to include those who are sharing a dwelling involuntarily with others due to a lack of housing.

Only a small number of countries provide information on this category. One group of countries (Denmark, Finland, Ireland, Norway and Sweden) are able to provide information from recent homeless or housing market surveys. The Norwegian survey (2008) demonstrates that this is the largest group of homeless people (37% of the homeless population), and that in small municipalities this level is even higher (due to the lack of homeless accommodation). The survey also demonstrates

that more than half of the under-25s live with family and friends – a finding which is reflected in other countries. A second group of countries (Czech Republic, France, Hungary, Lithuania) draw the information from the census. In this latter group of countries, the figure includes people who are living as concealed households (i.e. households sharing accommodation). Countries that have moved to a population register in theory ought to be able to identify people with no usual place of residence living in conventional dwellings. However, our review indicates that this is difficult to operationalise in practice in these countries.

No legal tenancy

A number of countries require all tenanted accommodation to be registered by the state or municipality and make provision for inspection of such properties. In the UK, dwellings in multiple occupation (occupied by 3 or more unrelated individuals) are required to be registered and inspected. In theory, therefore, it ought to be possible to gain some insight into this issue from administrative sources. However, only Estonia and Hungary provide information on this category drawn from the last census.

Illegal occupancy of land

Illegal occupation of land by travellers or Roma is recorded systematically in some countries but is notably absent in the majority of countries. Countries with legislation requiring local authorities to provide serviced sites for travellers record instances of people using illegal sites (e.g. Ireland). Some countries with a significant Roma population also systematically report on those living or occupying land illegally (e.g. Hungary).

8.4.1.2 Threat of eviction or re-possession

A number of countries with homeless strategies (see Chapter 6, Figure 6.7) identify the reduction of evictions as a key target of the prevention of homelessness (e.g. Norway, Netherlands, Sweden). The levels of evictions from rented accommodation appear highest in France and Spain where the figures include all those taken to court (i.e. not just those evictions carried through). However, relatively high levels of enforced evictions are also to be found in Italy (23 780) and England (29 825). While these figures give an indication of the number of people or households who are homeless due to eviction, a realistic comparison requires an understanding of the level of rented accommodation in each country. However, even in countries with active strategies to prevent evictions (e.g., Austria, Netherlands and Norway) eviction remains a significant cause of homelessness.

Only three countries indicate any significant levels of loss of a home due to mortgage re-possession – Denmark, Netherlands and UK. It is anticipated that the current economic recession will increase the risk of evictions and mortgage re-possession (see Ball, 2009). Review of the mortgage debt situation across Europe (using data from Ball, 2009) suggests the risk of an increase in mortgage re-possession is higher in some countries than others (see Figure 8.1).

Figure 8.1 Estimated Risk of Increase in Eviction Due to Mortgage Re-possession

Risk	Credit Crunch Eviction Risk	Mortgage Debt Situation
LOW	France	Long term fixed-rate mortgages
	Germany	Flat house price / rent increase for decade
	Italy	Mortgages at a low level; recent tenancy reform
	Netherlands	Lender code of conduct tightened / insurance backing Prevention of eviction policy (in G4)
	Hungary + Poland	High borrowing in foreign currencies
	Ireland + Spain	Most heavily indebted / rising defaults
	Sweden	Debt to income ratio 150%
HIGH	UK	Arrears to double to 500 000 Repossessions to increase to 75 000

8.4.1.3 Living under threat of violence

Survey and research evidence demonstrates that a relatively high percentage of women experience domestic abuse, but that only a small proportion of cases, where the abuse is serious and sustained, results in the woman fleeing the home. Women who leave the perpetrator will become homeless either living temporarily with family or friends, finding shelter in a homeless hostel or in a women’s organisation shelter for domestic violence. The reason why this category is included in the ETHOS typology is that, due to a lack of refuge provision in all countries (see paragraph 8.3.2), women often remain in a dwelling with a perpetrator of violence.

In 11 countries, it is possible to derive figures from police records of domestic violence incidents that could relate to a threat of homelessness. Police records appear to relate to two distinct situations. First, is the record made of any incident of domestic violence to which the police are summoned (e.g. Poland). Second, are the countries which record breaches in court-imposed domestic violence orders (e.g. Ireland). Recent changes in legislation and the introduction of new national action plans against domestic violence have occurred in some countries (e.g., Czech Republic, France, Netherlands) which may lead to changes in data collected in the future.

8.4.2 INADEQUATE HOUSING

The ETHOS typology identifies three distinct situations of inadequate housing (see Chapter 6 for a detailed discussion of the issues involved in the definition of these living situations). First, there are living situations of non-conventional dwellings and shanty dwellings (following the CES definition, 2006). Second, there are living situations in which dwellings are determined (according to national norms) to be unfit for habitation. Third, there are living situations where households are living in extreme overcrowding according to nationally-determined norms. For the most part, information on these categories is available from household or housing market surveys, dwelling registers and census surveys.

8.4.2.1 Non-conventional dwellings / shanty dwellings

Only a very few countries are able to provide information on these categories, and in almost all cases the information is derived from the last census. Ireland is able to provide information based on a national triennial housing needs assessment.

8.4.2.2 Dwellings unfit for habitation

In the majority of countries, the source of information on this category is derived from the census and thus the information is significantly out of date. Nevertheless, the information indicates that a significant number of households in Europe live in situations where the dwelling is unfit for habitation.

No information is available in 8 countries. In 4 countries (the Nordic countries and Luxembourg) this is because the issue is relatively insignificant; in the remainder, the data was not provided at the time of writing. With that caveat, this is a significant feature in the remaining member states.

8.4.2.3 Households living in extreme overcrowding

Extreme over-crowding is one form of precarious housing situation that can be included in a category that indicates the household does not enjoy a decent housing situation that is compatible with normal social or family life. It can also, in situations of shared or multiple occupancy, relate specifically to homelessness or risk of homelessness. However, the perception of the nature of overcrowding and tolerance of it varies across Europe. It is for that reason that the ETHOS typology defines this category in relation to the highest (i.e. most extreme) national norms.

Four distinct approaches are evident in the definition of overcrowding. Some countries use more than one definition for different purposes (e.g. census definitions compared to housing needs assessment). This makes cross-country comparison difficult. The four approaches are summarised in Table 8.1.

Definition	Normal Standard	Countries Adopting
Persons per habitable room	More than 2 persons per room	Austria, Sweden, Finland, Poland, Czech Republic, UK
Floor space standards	Square metres per inhabitant	France, Italy, Poland, Hungary, Lithuania, Czech Republic
Bedroom standard	People of opposite sex over defined age sharing bedroom	Ireland, Portugal, Sweden, UK
Sharing households	Dwellings in multiple occupancy	Ireland, UK

Since the census is a major source of information on overcrowding in most countries (and in some is the only source), the recommendations of the UNECE/EUROSTAT report on the 2011 census have relevance here. This defines overcrowding by two main indicators. First, overcrowding indicators can be calculated using a cross-tabulation of the number of occupants in housing units (i.e. housing units with one person, two persons, etc.), and the housing units classified by number of rooms (i.e. one-room, two-room, etc.) or by number of bedrooms. In addition, the average useful floor space per occupant can be counted separately for housing units with one person, housing units with two persons and so on. This provides a classification (of eight categories) of useful floor space per occupant from under 10 square metres per occupant to 80 square metres and over per occupant. The second indicator is used in countries where it is considered that the number of bedrooms provides a more accurate indicator of overcrowding, especially where overcrowding is defined by number of bedrooms and age, sex and relationships of members within the household. In July 2009, the Indicators Sub-Group of the Social Protection Committee specified a secondary indicator on overcrowding (see Appendix 4).

Information is only available for 11 countries in Europe at the time of writing. It is difficult to compare between countries since in some cases the data relates to households (or dwellings) while in others it relates to persons.

Figure 8.2 UNECE/EUROSTAT

Census Recommendations

Useful floor space in square metres divided by the number of occupants in a housing unit is generally regarded as a better measure of density standard than the number of rooms divided by the number of occupants in a housing unit because rooms vary in size. However, in some countries the population may not know, with any degree of accuracy, the useful floor space. For comparative purposes it is better that countries collect both the number of rooms per occupant and the useful floor space in square metres per occupant where possible.

Source: UNECE/EUROSTAT Census Recommendations, 2006 (paragraphs 649-656)

9 Summary and Conclusions

9.1 Conceptual Issues

The ETHOS typology has provided a useful tool for countries to develop approaches to data collection and to enable key stakeholders in government and civil society to discuss and agree on a definition of homelessness and housing exclusion for policy purposes as well as for data collection. The Measuring Homelessness Study (Edgar *et al.*, 2007) has suggested a more modified version of ETHOS.

Taking account of the experience in using ETHOS, the availability of data for the conceptual categories and the focus of homeless strategies, it is possible to suggest a modified version of ETHOS focussing on homelessness and risk of homelessness, and including categories 1 (living rough), 2 (emergency accommodation), 3 (living in homeless hostels), 4 (living in accommodation for women fleeing domestic violence), 6 (due to be released from an institution with no permanent home), 8.1 (living with family and friends) and 9 (living under threat of eviction).

9.2 Operational Issues

It is an irony that the categories of homelessness in which there is total consensus (rough sleeping and living in emergency homeless hostels) are the categories in which it is most difficult to obtain consistent and up-to-date information in a comparable format. It has been clear from the data available (see Appendix 2) that in many countries only partial information is available for these categories. In most countries, this lack of information is due to the fact that available information is not collated; though it also reflects weaknesses in data collection on this most basic indicator of homelessness.

This conclusion points to the need for a clear governance of data collection on homelessness and housing exclusion (see Edgar *et al.*, 2007). Our review of data collection approaches across Europe points to good practice examples in a number of countries. There is a need therefore to provide guidance and more transnational exchange on these key issues.

The census in 2011 is to be undertaken according to clear regulations and directives which require that all citizens (including the homeless) are enumerated. This should ensure that a baseline figure of rough sleeping and emergency hostels is available in every country for census night. That could provide a basis to allow for monitoring systems to be built in which these aspects of homelessness can be more clearly mapped. However, that requires that the national statistics offices adopt clear and robust methods of enumeration for these groups of people. Consultation with service providers on the methodology of data collection and on implementation of the enumeration process is important in this respect. Our review in Chapter 7 suggests that this has not already occurred.

The MPHASIS project has recommended a set of core variables which could provide the basis for more consistent and comparative data.

9.3 Measurement Issues

The availability of a database of homeless services (based on an agreed definition of services) is an essential prerequisite to monitor data on a regular basis or to provide the basis for surveys. Information on service capacity and occupancy rates would, of itself, provide a basis of information on demand as well as supply.

Our review of the available homeless strategies indicates the need to begin to address more detailed issues of data definition and collection. For example, our review points to the need to define terms such as “long-term homelessness” and “repeat homelessness” if the evaluation of prevention policies is to be undertaken. Furthermore, the requirement for sustainable policies and policies that can evaluate the quality of service provision will require the development of high-level indicators of outcome measures. The development of measurement tools in the framework of initiatives on social services of general interest (e.g. the Prometheus project) need to be related to the measurement of homeless services.

The recent adoption by the Indicators Sub-Group of the Social Protection Committee of indicators of housing deprivation highlights the need to ensure that information on the categories of inadequate housing (e.g. people living in unfit dwellings and people living in extreme overcrowding) need to be made more robust. It is clear from our review of the data available on these issues that many countries do not have clear legal or administrative definitions for these dimensions and that information is lacking in many countries. The CES recommendations provide census definitions that could allow a greater degree of harmonisation on these important aspects of housing exclusion.

REFERENCES

- Adamczuk, H. (2007) *Meeting the housing needs of prisoners and ex-offenders in the UK: Opportunities and limitations*, ENHR Conference, Rotterdam, 2007
- Anderson, I. (2007) "Sustainable Solutions to Homelessness: the Scottish Case", *European Journal of Homelessness*, volume 1 pages 163-184
- Atkinson, A. B., Cantillon, B., Marlier, E. and Nolan, B. (2005). *Taking Forward the EU Social Inclusion Process*. Luxembourg Presidency of the Council of the European Union.
- Ball, M. (2009) *European Housing Review*, RICS, London
- Benjaminsen, L. and Christensen, I. (2007) *Hjemløshed i Danmark 2007: National kortlægning. SFI: 07: 22. (Homelessness in Denmark 2007: national survey)*. København: SFI – Det Nationale Forskningscenter for Velfærd, pp. 159
- Bradshaw, J. Ditch, J., Holmes, H. and Whiteford, P. (1993) *Support for Children – a Comparison of Arrangements in Fifteen Countries*, Research Report No. 21, UK Department of Social Security, London
- Busch-Geertsema, V and Fitzpatrick, S. (2008) Effective Homelessness Prevention? Explaining Reductions in Homelessness in Germany and England. *European Journal of Homelessness* 2: 69-95.
- Chamberlain, C. and MacKenzie D. (2003) *Homeless Careers: Pathways In and Out of Homelessness*, Australian Housing & Urban Research Institute, RMIT University, Adelaide
- Clanché, F. (2000) «Le classement des situations de logement. Les sans-domicile dans des nomenclatures générales», in M. Marpsat, J.-M. Firdion (eds), *La Rue et le foyer. Une recherche sur les sans-domicile et les mal-logés dans les années 90*, Paris, puf /Ined, n° 144, pp.193-207.
- Clark, W. A. V., and Davies Withers, S. (2007) Family migration and mobility sequences in the United States: Spatial mobility in the context of the life course, *Demographic Research* 17(20): 591–622.
- CNIS (1996) *Pour une meilleure connaissance des sans-abri et de l'exclusion du logement*, rapport final du groupe de travail sur les sans-abri, rapport du CNIS, no.29
- Dyb, E. and Johannessen, K. (2009) Bostedsløse i Norge 2008 – en kartlegging (Homelessness in Norway 2008 – A Survey), NIBR Report 2009: 17 (Oslo: Norwegian Institute for Urban and Regional Research)
- Dyb, E., Helgesen, M. K., Johannessen, K. (2008) På vei til egen bolig. Evaluering av nasjonal strategi for å forebygge og bekjempe bostedsløshet 2005-2007. (The Pathway to a Permanent Home. Evaluation of the national strategy to prevent and counteract homelessness 2005-2007), NIBR Report 2008: 15 (Oslo: Norwegian Institute for Urban and Regional Research)
- Edgar, W. Doherty, J and Mina-Coull, A. (1999) *Services for Homeless People: innovation and change in the European Union*, Policy Press, Bristol
- Edgar, W. Doherty, J. and Meert, H. (2004) *Third Review of Statistics on Homelessness in Europe*, FEANTSA, Brussels
- Edgar, W. and Meert, H. (2005) *Fourth Review of Statistics on Homelessness in Europe*, FEANTSA, Brussels
- Edgar, W. (2006) *Norwegian Homelessness Strategy: Pathways to a permanent home*, Social Inclusion Peer Review, OSB, Vienna
- Edgar, W. Harrison, M., Watson, P. and Busch-Geertsema, V. (2007) *Measurement of Homelessness at European Union Level*, DG Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities, Brussels
- Edgar, W. Doherty, J. and Mina-Coull A. (1999) *Support and Housing in Europe: tackling social exclusion in the European Union*, Policy Press, Bristol.
- Elder, G. H. (ed) (1985) *Life Course Dynamics: Trajectories and Transitions*, Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.
- Ermisch, J.F. and Overton, E. (1985) Minimal Household Units: A New Approach to the Analysis of Household Formation. *Population Studies*, Volume 39, Number 1, pages 33-54.
- Fiopds (2009) *Implementing a Service Provider Database in Italy*, Summary Report for the Mphasis Project, University of Dundee, (<http://www.trp.dundee.ac.uk/research/mphasis/>)
- Fitzpatrick Associates (2006) *Review of Implementation of Homeless Strategies*. (Dublin: Department of the Environment, Heritage and Local Government).

- Fitzpatrick, S. Kemp, P. and Klinker, S. (2000) *Single homelessness: an overview of research in Britain*, The Policy Press and Joseph Rowntree Foundation, Bristol and York
- Golledge, R.G. and Stimpson, R.J. (2006) *Spatial Behavior: A Geographic Perspective*, New York & London: The Guildford Press.
- Hagestad, G. O. and Neugarten, B.L (1985) « Age and the Life Course. » in Robert H. Binstock and Ethel Shanas (eds) *Handbook of Aging and the Social Sciences*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold. Pp. 46-61
- Heidenreich, M. and Zeitlin, J. (eds) (2009) *Changing European Employment and Welfare Regimes: The Influence of the Open Method of Coordination on National Reforms*, Routledge, London
- Hunter, A. (2009) "La mobilité des résidents retraités des foyers de travailleurs migrants" [The mobility of retired residents of migrant worker hostels], paper given at the *Seminar series organised by the Research Unit of the French Old Age Pensions Agency (Caisse nationale d'Assurance vieillesse)*, Paris – France, 9 January 2009.
- Kärkkäinen, S-L. (2005) *Finland National Report for the European Observatory on Homelessness: Statistical Update*, FEANTSA, STAKES
- Kendig, H. (1984) 'Housing careers, life cycle, and residential mobility: implications for the housing market', *Urban Studies*, vol. 21, pp. 271-283.
- Loison-Leruste, M. and Quilgars, D. (2009) *Increasing Access to Housing – Implementing the Right to Housing in England and France*, *European Journal of Homelessness* vol 3 forthcoming
- Meert, H. and Stuyck, K. (2005) *Homelessness, disorder in public space and the revanchist city*, Liege
- National Board of Health and Welfare (2009) *Homelessness: Multiple Faces, Multiple Responsibilities*, Socialstyrelsen, Stockholm
- Nicaise, I. Morissens, A. and Cincinnato, S. (2009) *Registering, surveying and counting homeless people in Belgium: Belgian position paper in the framework of the MPHASIS project*, HIVA, Leuven
- OECD (2005) *Extending Opportunities: How Active Social Policy Can Benefit Us All*, OECD, Paris
- ODPM (2005) *Sustainable Communities: Settled Homes; Changing Lives*, London: ODPM)
- Pawson, H., Davidson, E. & Netto, G. (2007) *Evaluating Homelessness Prevention Activities in Scotland*; Edinburgh: Scottish Executive
<http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2007/03/26095144/0>
- Pleace, N, Fitzpatrick, S., Johnsen, S., Quilgars, D., Sanderson, D. (2008) *Statutory Homelessness in England: The experience of families and 16-17 year olds*, London: Department for Communities and Local Government
- Room, G. (ed) (1995) *Beyond the threshold: the measurement and analysis of social exclusion*, Bristol, Policy Press
- Rossi, P. H. (1955) *Why Families Move; a study in the social psychology of urban residential mobility*, Glencoe Illinois Free Press
- Rowntree, B.S. (1901) *Poverty: A Study of Town Life*, Macmillan and Co., London
- Statistics Finland (2009) *Defining Homeless People in a Register-based Census – case Finland*, paper presented to the Meeting on Population and Housing Censuses, 28030 October 2009, UNECE, Geneva
<http://www.unece.org/stats/documents/2009.10.census.htm>
- Statistics New Zealand (2009) *Developing a definition of homelessness*, discussion paper, Statistics New Zealand, Christchurch <http://www.stats.govt.nz/~media/statistics/publications/developments/homelessness-definition/homelessness-definition-july09.aspx>
- Stax, T. (2004) *Longitudinal analyses of homelessness in Denmark*, paper for the third thematic workshop in CUHP, Copenhagen, April, 29-30, 2004
- Tainio, H. and Fredriksson, P. (2009) *The Finnish Homelessness Strategy: From a 'Staircase' Model to a 'Housing First' Approach to Tackling Long-Term Homelessness*. *European Journal of Homelessness*, Vol. 3, December 2009
- UNECE (2007) *Register-based statistics in the Nordic countries*, UNECE, Geneva
- UNECE/EUROSTAT (2006) *Conference of European Statisticians Recommendations for the 2010 Censuses of Population and Housing*, UNECE, Geneva
- Whelan, C.T. and Maitre, B. (2009) *Welfare Regime and Social Class Variation in Poverty and Economic Vulnerability in Europe: An Analysis of EU-SILC*, WP303, Economic and Social Research Institute (ESRI), Dublin

APPENDIX I

ETHOS – European typology on homelessness and housing exclusion (FEANTSA Typology)

		Operational Category		Living Situation		Generic Definition	
Conceptual Category	ROOFLESS	1	People Living Rough	1.1	Public space or external space	Living in the streets or public spaces, without a shelter that can be defined as living quarters	
		2	People in emergency accommodation	2.1	Night shelter	People with no usual place of residence who make use of overnight shelter, low threshold shelter	
	HOUSELESS	3	People in accommodation for the homeless	3.1	Homeless hostel	Where the period of stay is intended to be short term	
				3.2	Temporary Accommodation		
				3.3	Transitional supported accommodation		
		4	People in Women's Shelter	4.1	Women's shelter accommodation	Women accommodated due to experience of domestic violence and where the period of stay is intended to be short term	
		5	People in accommodation for immigrants	5.1	Temporary accommodation / reception centres	Immigrants in reception or short term accommodation due to their immigrant status	
	5.2			Migrant workers accommodation			
	6	People due to be released from institutions	6.1	Penal institutions	No housing available prior to release Stay longer than needed due to lack of housing		
			6.2	Medical institutions			
	INSECURE	7	People receiving longer-term support (due to homelessness)	6.3	Children's institutions / homes	No housing identified (e.g by 18th birthday)	
				7.1	Residential care for older homeless people		
				7.2	Supported accommodation for formerly homeless people		
8		People living in insecure accommodation	8.1	Temporarily with family/friends	Living in conventional housing but not the usual place of residence due to lack of housing Occupation of dwelling with no legal tenancy illegal occupation of a dwelling Occupation of land with no legal rights		
			8.2	No legal (sub)tenancy			
			8.3	Illegal occupation of land			
9		People living under threat of eviction	9.1	Legal orders enforced (rented)	Where orders for eviction are operative Where mortgagor has legal order to re-possess		
			9.2	Re-possession orders (owned)			
10		People living under threat of violence	10.1	Police recorded incidents	Where police action is taken to ensure place of safety for victims of domestic violence		
INADEQUATE		11	People living in temporary / non-conventional structures	11.1	Mobile homes	Not intended as place of usual residence Makeshift shelter, shack or shanty Semi-permanent structure hut or cabin	
	11.2			Non-conventional building			
	11.3			Temporary structure			
12	People living in unfit housing	12.1	Occupied dwellings unfit for habitation	Defined as unfit for habitation by national legislation or building regulations			
13	People living in extreme overcrowding	13.1	Highest national norm of overcrowding	Defined as exceeding national density standard for floor-space or useable rooms			

APPENDIX II

Data Matrices

ETHOS Category	1.1	2.1	Notes	
	Roofless	Overnight Shelter	1.1	2.1
Austria	1 113	1 149	<i>2006; excludes Vienna and Steiermark counties</i>	
Belgium	2 000	293	<i>Brussels (2007)</i>	<i>Flanders and Brussels (part)</i>
Czech Republic	1 868	5 232	<i>2004: Prague</i>	<i>2009; Prague and Ostrava</i>
Denmark	552	n/a	<i>2007</i>	<i>See 3.1</i>
Estonia	1 800	1 480	<i>2005</i>	<i>2005</i>
Finland	488		<i>2008</i>	
France	5 080	14 774	<i>2001 INSEE</i>	<i>2008; Places</i>
Germany	18 000		<i>2006 (prevalence)</i>	<i>See 3.1</i>
Greece				
Hungary	2 862	1 468	<i>2009 main cities</i>	<i>2008; Budapest</i>
Ireland	110	1 388	<i>2008</i>	<i>2008; includes private emergency</i>
Italy	408	1 152	<i>MHS 2008; Milan</i>	<i>MHS 2008; Milan</i>
Latvia	n/a	3 288		<i>2008; prevalence</i>
Lithuania	n/a	n/a		
Luxembourg				
Netherlands	n/a	1 806		
Norway	110	189		
Poland	366	5 599		
Portugal	1 377	265	<i>2007; Lisbon 2008, Coimbra and Amadora</i>	<i>2007; Lisbon</i>
Slovenia	n/a	n/a		<i>See 3.1</i>
Spain	8 218	4 058	<i>2005 (survey)</i>	<i>2005 (survey)</i>
Sweden	900		<i>2006</i>	
UK – England	483	8 952	<i>2008</i>	
Scotland	330	n/a	<i>2005</i>	<i>2007 (bedspaces)</i>

ETHOS Category	3.1	3.2	3.3	Notes		
ETHOS Label	Homeless Hostel	Temporary Accommodation	Transitional Supported	3.1	3.2	3.3
Austria	3 740	2 668	n/a	2006	2006	
Belgium	7 535	2 162		6 416 men; 1 119 women		See 3.2
Czech Republic	4 542	n/a	n/a	2007; MOSLA		
Denmark	6 674	n/a	n/a	2007		
Estonia	90	2 606	n/a	2005	2005	
Finland	1 028	300	n/a		Families	
France	9 802 32 713 7 051 24 700	39 274	4 619	07; Hotel places 07; CHRS 07; Stabilisation 07 Aid for temporary housing	Residences	
Germany	254 000					
Greece						
Hungary	7 016		n/a			
Ireland	617	n/a	392	2008		2008
Italy	1152			MHS 2008; Milan		
Latvia	n/a	n/a	n/a			
Lithuania	1 977			2005		
Luxembourg						
Netherlands	903	5 251	n/a		2001	
Norway	1 385		n/a			
Poland	17 261					
Portugal	2 202	132	n/a	Inland Portugal		
Slovenia	540	n/a	290	2007		
Spain	6 574			2005		
Sweden	178	4 272				
UK – England	5 250	62 230	48 500			
UK – Scotland	1 036	8 500	n/a			

ETHOS Category	4.1	Notes
ETHOS Label	Women's Shelters	Fleeing Domestic Violence
Austria	3 143	2006 report of women's shelter
Belgium	719	
Czech Republic	36	2009; Prague
Denmark	1 893	2007
Estonia	n/a	
Finland		14 shelters
France	n/a	
Germany	n/a	Separate structure to homeless sector
Greece	50	2006
Hungary	1 536	
Ireland	53	2008
Italy	130	MHS 2008; Milan
Latvia	49	2005
Lithuania	1 727	2005
Luxembourg		
Netherlands	2 158	
Norway	183	
Poland	326	
Portugal	415	2006; places
Slovenia	792	2007, users
Spain	4 144	2004
Sweden	170	
UK – England	17 545	Plus 25 451 children
UK – Scotland	9 536	Includes children

ETHOS Category	5.1	5.2	Notes	
ETHOS Label	Reception Immigrants	Migrant Workers Hostels	5.1	5.2
Austria	1 162	735	2006; asylum	2006; integration houses asylum
Belgium	100 000	n/a		
Czech Republic	n/a	n/a		
Denmark	1 843	n/a		
Estonia	35	n/a	2005	
Finland	4 035	n/a		
France	40 009	62 500		
Germany	63 900	n/a		
Greece	554	n/a		
Hungary	1 697	10 000	2000	2000
Ireland	6 604	n/a	2009 March	
Italy	8 412	n/a	Sprar – ANCI 2009	
Latvia	2 428	6 269	2006	2003
Lithuania		130		2005
Luxembourg				
Netherlands	20 131	n/a		
Norway	n/a	n/a		
Poland	5 216	n/a		
Portugal	83	n/a		
Slovenia	99	n/a	2007 asylum homes	
Spain	5 254	n/a	2005	
Sweden	15 700	n/a	2005	
UK – England UK – Scotland	35 590	n/a	UK figure	

ETHOS Category	6.1	6.2	6.3	Notes		
ETHOS Label	Penal Institutions	Medical Institutions	Children's Institutions	6.1	6.2	6.3
Austria	3 811	n/a	n/a	2006; estimated		
Belgium	16 065	n/a	n/a	Prisoners		
Czech Republic	37	61	20 000	Prague	Prague	2004
Denmark	219	223	n/a			
Estonia	n/a	n/a	n/a			
Finland	246	1 404	n/a			
France	n/a	180	n/a		CHU beds Paris	
Germany	n/a	n/a	n/a			
Greece	n/a	2 500	n/a		2006	
Hungary	n/a	n/a	4 102			
Ireland	n/a	n/a	262			2005
Italy	63 587	n/a	n/a	Justice Ministry 2009		
Latvia	24	n/a	n/a	2005		
Lithuania	5 296	56	n/a	2004 released	Rehab homes	
Luxembourg						
Netherlands	n/a	n/a	n/a			
Norway	506	1 025				
Poland	2 781	n/a	n/a			
Portugal	n/a	n/a	n/a			
Slovenia	35	n/a	n/a	2008		
Spain	2 235	n/a	n/a	2006		
Sweden	890	4 094	n/a			
UK – England	590	n/a	980			
UK – Scotland	1 938	372	n/a			

ETHOS Category	7.1	7.2	Notes	
ETHOS Label	Residential Older Homeless	Supported Housing	7.1	7.2
Austria	n/a	2 668		2006; homeless service providers apartments
Belgium	n/a	n/a		
Czech Republic	64	n/a	Prague 2009	
Denmark	145	n/a		
Estonia	n/a	562		
Finland	n/a	n/a		Not counted in homeless data
France	n/a	1 800		
Germany	See category 3.1			
Greece				
Hungary	591	1 000		
Ireland	n/a	340		2008
Italy	n/a	n/a		
Latvia	n/a	168		
Lithuania	n/a	n/a		
Luxembourg				
Netherlands	886	n/a	2001	
Norway	n/a	n/a		
Poland	See 3.1	149		
Portugal	n/a	85	2004; apartments	
Slovenia	n/a	10		
Spain	14 469	n/a	2004	
Sweden	n/a	See 3.2		
UK – England	n/a	52 752; 15 715	Single people; families	
UK – Scotland	n/a	n/a		

ETHOS Category	8.1	8.2	8.3	Notes		
ETHOS Label	Family / Friends	No Tenancy (legal)	Illegal Occupation (land)	8.1	8.2	8.3
Austria	n/a	n/a	n/a			
Belgium	n/a	n/a	n/a			
Czech Republic	17 213	n/a	n/a	2001		
Denmark	1 025	n/a	n/a			
Estonia	n/a	5 420	n/a		2000	
Finland	4 795	n/a	n/a			
France	180 000	n/a	n/a	2002		
Germany	See 3.1		n/a	2006; prevalence		
Greece	n/a	n/a	n/a		2000	
Hungary	57 217	57 000	1 000	2000		2005
Ireland	3 375	n/a	788	2005		Families
Italy	124 000	n/a	4 792	ISTAT, 2001		Milan + Rome
Latvia	800	n/a	n/a	2000		
Lithuania	11 138	n/a	n/a	2005		
Luxembourg						
Netherlands	n/a	n/a	n/a			
Norway	2 288	n/a	n/a			
Poland	n/a	n/a	n/a			
Portugal	94	n/a	92			
Slovenia	n/a	n/a	n/a			
Spain	n/a	n/a	n/a			
Sweden	4 700		n/a			
UK – England UK – Scotland	n/a	n/a	n/a			

ETHOS Category	9.1	9.2	Notes	
ETHOS Label	Evictions (rented)	Re-possession (mortgage)	9.1	9.2
Austria	7 183	n/a	2006; households (14 366 persons)	
Belgium	n/a	n/a		
Czech Republic	n/a	n/a		
Denmark	3 762	1 756		
Estonia	n/a	n/a		
Finland	1 448	n/a		
France	221 000	n/a		
Germany	n/a	n/a		
Greece	n/a	n/a		
Hungary	1 500	n/a	2005	
Ireland	141	n/a	2007; households	
Italy	23 780	n/a	2004; enforced	
Latvia	n/a	n/a		
Lithuania	n/a	249	2003	
Luxembourg	n/a	n/a		
Netherlands	8 085	1 920	2003	2005
Norway	2 829	n/a		
Poland	7 035	n/a		
Portugal	341		2004	
Slovenia	n/a	n/a		
Spain	51 738	n/a	2004	
Sweden	3004	n/a		
UK – England UK – Scotland	29 825	12 800	UK figure	UK figure

ETHOS Category	10.1	Notes
ETHOS Label	Domestic Violence	Registered Police Incidents
Austria	3 143	See 4.1
Belgium	n/a	
Czech Republic	n/a	
Denmark	n/a	
Estonia	41 000	2003
Finland	4 109	2005
France	35 113	2006
Germany	n/a	
Greece	n/a	
Hungary	n/a	
Ireland	5 474	2005; orders granted
Italy	n/a	
Latvia	n/a	
Lithuania	n/a	
Luxembourg	n/a	
Netherlands	54 420	2005
Norway	n/a	
Poland	139 747	
Portugal	21 908	2007
Slovenia	5 066	2005
Spain	78 256	2005
Sweden	n/a	
UK – England	342 000	
UK – Scotland	49 655	

ETHOS Category	11.1	11.2	11.3	Notes		
ETHOS Label	Mobile / Caravan	Non-conventional	Temporary Structure	11.1	11.2	11.3
Austria	n/a	n/a	n/a			
Belgium	n/a	n/a	n/a			
Czech Republic	222	n/a	n/a	2001; CZSO		
Denmark	n/a	n/a	n/a			
Estonia	n/a	n/a	n/a			
Finland	n/a	n/a	n/a			
France	100 000	See 12.1	41 400	2005; persons		
Germany	n/a	n/a	n/a			
Greece	n/a	n/a	n/a			
Hungary	5 167	12 267	n/a	households	2000	
Ireland		7 225		2006; households		
Italy		32 500		ISTAT, 2001		
Latvia	n/a	n/a	n/a			
Lithuania		554		2003; dwellings		
Luxembourg	n/a	n/a	n/a			
Netherlands	n/a	n/a	n/a			
Norway	n/a	n/a	n/a			
Poland	n/a	358	n/a			
Portugal	n/a	15 779	n/a		2001	
Slovenia	See 11.3	1 651	1 417		2002	2002
Spain			52 051	2001		
Sweden	550	n/a	n/a			
UK – England	n/a	n/a	n/a			
UK – Scotland	4 121	n/a	n/a			

ETHOS Category	12.1	Notes
ETHOS Label	Unfit Dwellings	
Austria	223 000	2006; precarious housing – EU-SILC definition
Belgium	17 559	
Czech Republic	15 751	2001; CZSO
Denmark	10 000	
Estonia	52 266	2004; persons
Finland	n/a	
France	1 150 000	2001; persons
Germany	n/a	
Greece	n/a	
Hungary	674 803	
Ireland	1 757	2008; households
Italy	23 581	2001
Latvia	2 876	2004; persons
Lithuania	n/a	
Luxembourg	n/a	
Netherlands	n/a	
Norway	n/a	
Poland	6 481 200	2002; persons
Portugal	2 001	2003
Slovenia	32 921	2002, without toilet
Spain	112 824	2001
Sweden	n/a	
UK – England UK – Scotland	1 238 000	2001; UK figure; persons

ETHOS Category	13.1	Notes
ETHOS Label	Overcrowding	
Austria	606 000	EU-SILC 2007
Belgium	n/a	
Czech Republic	446 208	2001; CZSO
Denmark	n/a	
Estonia	150 000	2004
Finland	5 661	households
France	140 000	households
Germany	n/a	
Greece	n/a	
Hungary	480 000	
Ireland	4 805	2008; households
Italy	1 150 000	Cresme, 2006
Latvia	n/a	
Lithuania	n/a	
Luxembourg	n/a	
Netherlands	n/a	
Norway	n/a	
Poland	225 828	2002; persons
Portugal	568 886	2001; dwellings
Slovenia	n/a	
Spain	1 310 162	2001; persons
Sweden	n/a	
UK – England UK – Scotland	1 767 779	2001; persons

APPENDIX III

Definition of CORE Variables

Variable	CORE
Demographic Characteristics : Age and Gender	
Age	Date of birth
Sex	Male/Female
Nationality / Migration background	
Nationality (Country of citizenship)	national; non-national (national of other EU member state; national of non-EU country)
Country of birth	Native-born; foreign-born (born in another EU member state; born in non-EU country)
Household / family characteristics	
Household structure/ living situation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - One-person households - Multi-person households: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Lone parent living with child(ren) aged less than 25 - Couple living without child(ren) aged less than 25 - Couple living with child(ren) aged less than 25 - Other type of household
Housing characteristics	
Previous accommodation, night before entering service and current accommodation situation (at date of counting)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Living rough (public space / external space) In emergency accommodation (overnight shelters) In accommodation for the homeless (homeless hostels, temporary accommodation, transitional supported accommodation) Living in crisis shelter for domestic violence Living in institutions (health care, prison, child care) Living in non-conventional dwellings due to lack of housing (mobile homes, non-standard building, temporary structure) Sharing with friends or relatives (due to homelessness) Homeless and living in other types of accommodation Not homeless
Duration of (current) homelessness	Less than 2 months; 2 to under 6 months; 6 months to under 1 year; 1 to under 2 years; 2 to under 5 years; 5 years and longer
Reasons for Homelessness	
Reason(s) for last period of homelessness as defined by the homeless person (several answers possible)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Landlord action (eviction) / Mortgage repossession End of contract / unfit housing / lack of housing Relationship breakdown / family conflict / death Loss of job / unemployment Violence Personal (support needs / addiction / health) Financial (debt) Discharge from institution / armed forces Immigration Force majeure (fire, flood, etc.). Other reasons

Source: Busch-Geertsema V and Edgar W (2009) *Survey on the Use and Potential Harmonisation of Core Variables for Measuring Homelessness*

APPENDIX IV

Set of EU indicators adopted in the field of housing

Secondary indicator	Dimension	Title and definition	Breakdowns	Comment
	Housing costs	Housing costs overburden rate Percentage of the population living in a household where total housing costs (net of housing allowances) represent more than 40% of the total disposable household income (net of housing allowances)	sex, age (0-17; 18-64; 65+); income quintiles, poor/non-poor; tenure status (4 categories: full ownership; owner still paying mortgage; tenants at market price; tenants at subsidised price or rent-free); degree of urbanisation, household type	Housing costs include mortgage interest payments (net of any tax relief) for owners and rent payments, gross of housing benefits for renters, housing benefits for rent-free households. They also include structural insurance, mandatory services and charges (sewage removal, refuse removal, etc.), regular maintenance and repairs, taxes, and the cost of utilities (water, electricity, gas and heating). They do not include capital repayment for mortgage holders. Housing allowances include rent benefits ¹⁹ and benefits to owner-occupiers ²⁰
Secondary indicator	Overcrowding	Overcrowding rate Percentage of people living in an overcrowded household - all households ²¹ - excluding single households	sex, age (0-17; 18-64; 65+); income quintiles, poor/non-poor; tenure status (4 categories: full ownership; owner still paying mortgage; tenants at market price; tenants at subsidised price or rent-free); degree of urbanisation; household type	The person is considered as living in an overcrowded household if the household does not have at its disposal at least: - one room for the household - one room for each couple - one room for each single person aged 18+ - one room for two single people of the same sex between 12 and 17 years of age - one room for each single person of different sex between 12 and 17 years of age - one room for two people under 12 years of age
Context information	Housing deprivation	Housing deprivation by item Percentage of the population deprived of each housing deprivation item, and by number of items	sex, age (0-17; 18-64; 65+); income quintiles, poor/non-poor; tenure status (4 categories: full ownership; owner still paying mortgage; tenants at market price; tenants at subsidised price or rent-free); degree of urbanisation; household type	The following housing deprivation items are considered - leaking roof, damp walls/floors/foundations, or rot in window frames or floors - no bath or shower in the dwelling - no indoor flushing toilet for the sole use of the household - dwelling too dark
Context information	Housing cost	Share of housing costs in total disposable household income Median of the distribution among individuals of the share of housing costs (net of housing allowances) in total disposable income (net of housing allowances) - median for the total population + - median for people at-risk-of poverty	sex, age (0-17; 18-64; 65+); income quintiles, tenure status (4 categories: full ownership; owner still paying mortgage; tenants at market price; tenants at subsidised price or rent free), degree of urbanisation, household type	

¹⁹ Rent benefit: a current means-tested transfer granted by public authority to tenants, temporarily or on a long-term basis, to help them with rent costs.

²⁰ Benefit to owner-occupier: a means-tested transfer by public authority to owner-occupiers to alleviate their current housing costs; in practice, often help with mortgage repayments.

²¹ The calculation includes single households and considers them as deprived if they live in a studio with a bedroom not separated from the living room. This calculation based on all households should systematically be used if the overcrowding criterion is analysed together with other housing quality criteria.

This report has two main objectives. First, it collates the development of ideas relating to the measurement of homelessness and housing exclusion in Europe that were presented in previous publications of the European Observatory on Homelessness. This should provide a single source of reference for those interested in the topic. Second, it updates information on homelessness and housing exclusion for all those member states for which information is available.

The report is presented in four main sections. Section 1 examines the issues involved in measuring homelessness in Europe. Section 2 examines the governance of data collection. Section 3 considers some emerging issues in relation to data collection on HHE in Europe. Finally, Section 4 provides an overview of the information currently available in each country in Europe in relation to the ETHOS categories (rooflessness, houselessness, insecure housing, inadequate housing).



FEANTSA is supported by
the European Community Programme
for Employment and Social Solidarity (2007-2013).

This programme was established to financially support the implementation of the objectives of the European Union in the employment and social affairs area, as set out in the Social Agenda, and thereby contribute to the achievement of the Lisbon Strategy goals in these fields.

The seven-year Programme targets all stakeholders who can help shape the development of appropriate and effective employment and social legislation and policies, across the EU-27, EFTA and EU candidate and pre-candidate countries.

To that effect, PROGRESS purports at:

- > providing analysis and policy advice on employment, social solidarity and gender equality policy areas;
- > monitoring and reporting on the implementation of EU legislation and policies in employment, social solidarity and gender equality policy areas;
- > promoting policy transfer, learning and support among Member States on EU objectives and priorities; and
- > relaying the views of the stakeholders and society at large.

For more information see: http://ec.europa.eu/employment_social/progress/index_en.html

FEANTSA is supported financially by the European Commission. The views expressed herein are those of the authors and the Commission is not responsible for any use that may be made of the information contained herein.

ISBN: 9789075529661

■ **European Federation of National Associations Working with the Homeless AISBL**

Fédération Européenne d'Associations Nationales Travaillant avec les Sans-Abri AISBL

194, Chaussée de Louvain ■ 1210 Brussels ■ Belgium ■ Tel.: + 32 2 538 66 69 ■ Fax: +32 2 539 41 74 ■ research@feantsa.org ■ www.feantsa.org