





# Contents

<b>1 Purpose of this Report</b> .....	5
<b>2 Conceptual and Operational Issues in Measurement</b> .....	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	
<b>3 Overview of Approaches to Measuring Homelessness</b> .....	23
3.1. Description of Data Collection by Welfare Regime	
3.2 Overview of Data Collection Approaches	
<b>4 Strategies to Tackle Homelessness in Europe</b> .....	31
4.1. Homeless Strategies and Information Monitoring	
4.2. Overview of Homeless Strategies	
4.3. Governance Issues affecting Data Collection	
<b>5 Homelessness and Housing Exclusion Information Strategies</b> .....	40
5.1 Introduction	
5.2 Measuring Homelessness study	
5.3 Implementation Issues	
<b>6 Developing Indicators of Housing Exclusion</b> .....	48
6.1. Housing Quality	
6.2 Monitoring Indicators of Homelessness and Housing Exclusion	
<b>7 Counting the Homeless in the Census</b> .....	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	
<b>8 Review of Statistics Available in Europe</b> .....	62
8.1 Introduction	
8.2 Rooflessness	
8.3 Houselessness	
8.4 Insecure and Inadequate Housing	
<b>9 Summary and Conclusions</b> .....	69
9.1 Conceptual Issues	
9.2 Operational Issues	
9.3 Measurement Issues	
<b>REFERENCES</b> .....	71

## Appendices

<b>I ETHOS – European typology on homelessness and housing exclusion (FEANTSA Typology)</b> .....	73
<b>II Data Matrices</b> .....	74
<b>III Definition of CORE Variables</b> .....	81
<b>IV Set of EU indicators adopted in the field of housing</b> .....	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
<b>Structural</b>	Economic Processes	Affect on income, stability of employment
	Immigration, Citizenship	Discrimination, access to social protection
	Housing Market Processes	Access to affordable / social housing
<b>Institutional</b>	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
<b>Relationship</b>	Family Status	Single people more vulnerable
	Relationship situation	Abusive partners; step-parents
	Relationship breakdown	Death, divorce, separation
<b>Personal</b>	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
<b>Structural</b>	Poverty / Unemployment	Debt Eviction	Housing Judiciary Penal System
	Immigration Status		
	Housing		
<b>Institutional</b>	Institutional Living	Discharge	Social Welfare Surveys Health Services
	Foster / Child Care		
	Prison		
<b>Relationship</b>	Family Structure	Leaving Family Home	Service Providers
	Relationship Situation	Domestic Violence	
	Relationship Breakdown	Living Alone	
<b>Personal</b>	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).



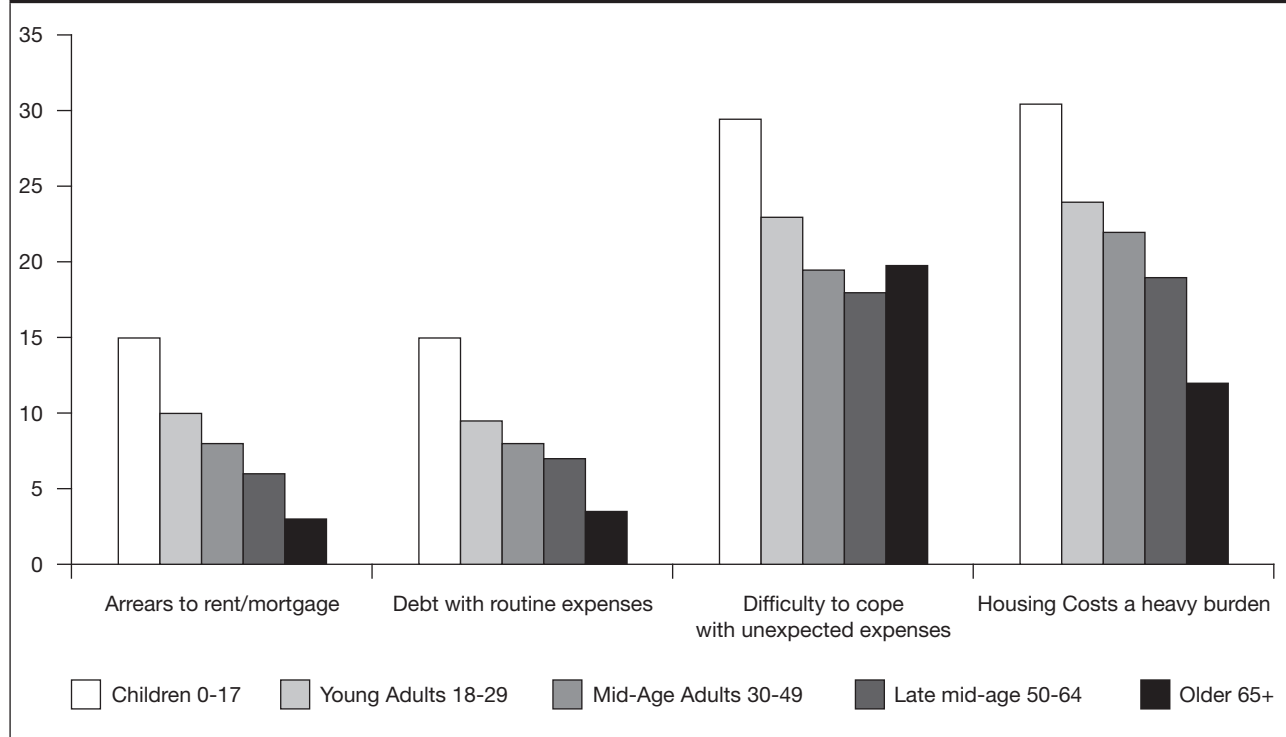
The paths of individual households through the housing stock are influenced by broader societal changes such as increasing incidence of divorce, remarriage and de facto household arrangements as well as life transitions and local housing markets. Just as transition points in the life course are employed 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.

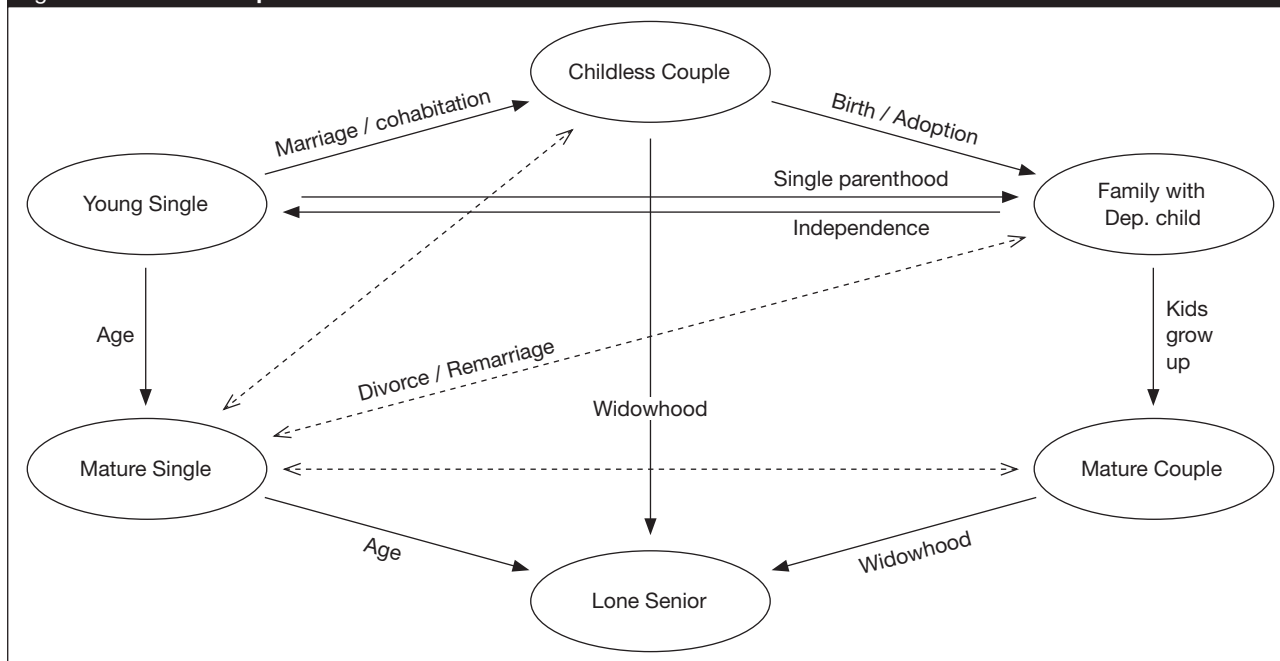
**Figure 2.6 Categories of Institutional Household**

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).

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)

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).

### 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

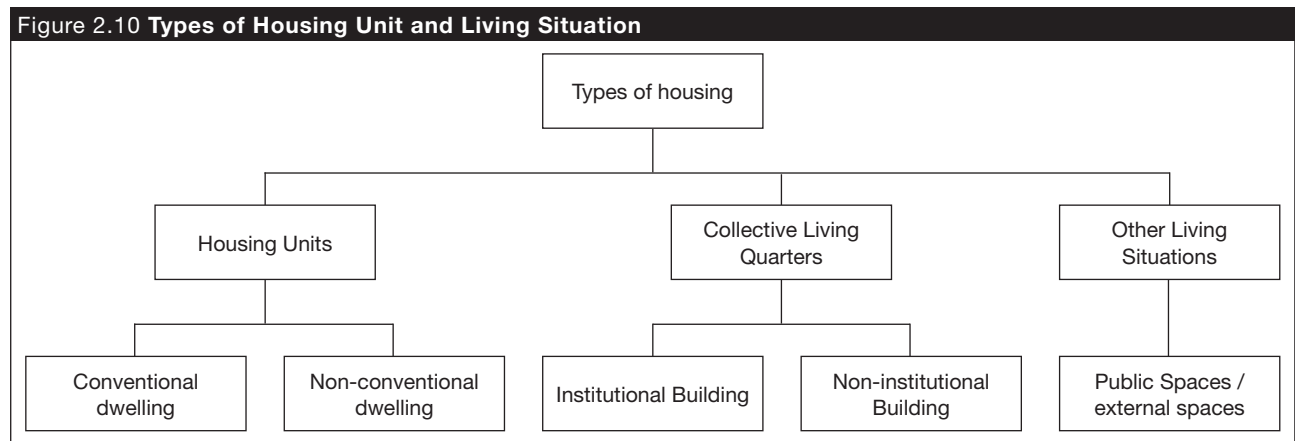
According to the UNECE/EUROSTAT Recommendations (2006; p126) conventional dwellings are structurally separate and independent premises which are designed for permanent human habitation at a fixed location and are used wholly for residential purposes. The report defines the meaning of separate and independent. 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)
	13 Hostels	
	14 Social welfare accommodation	
	15 Workers' dormitories	
	Camps	16 Refugee camps, Workers' camps, Military camps
Public Living Situations	Public Spaces / External Spaces	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.



Figure 2.13 The Domains of Homelessness and Housing Exclusion

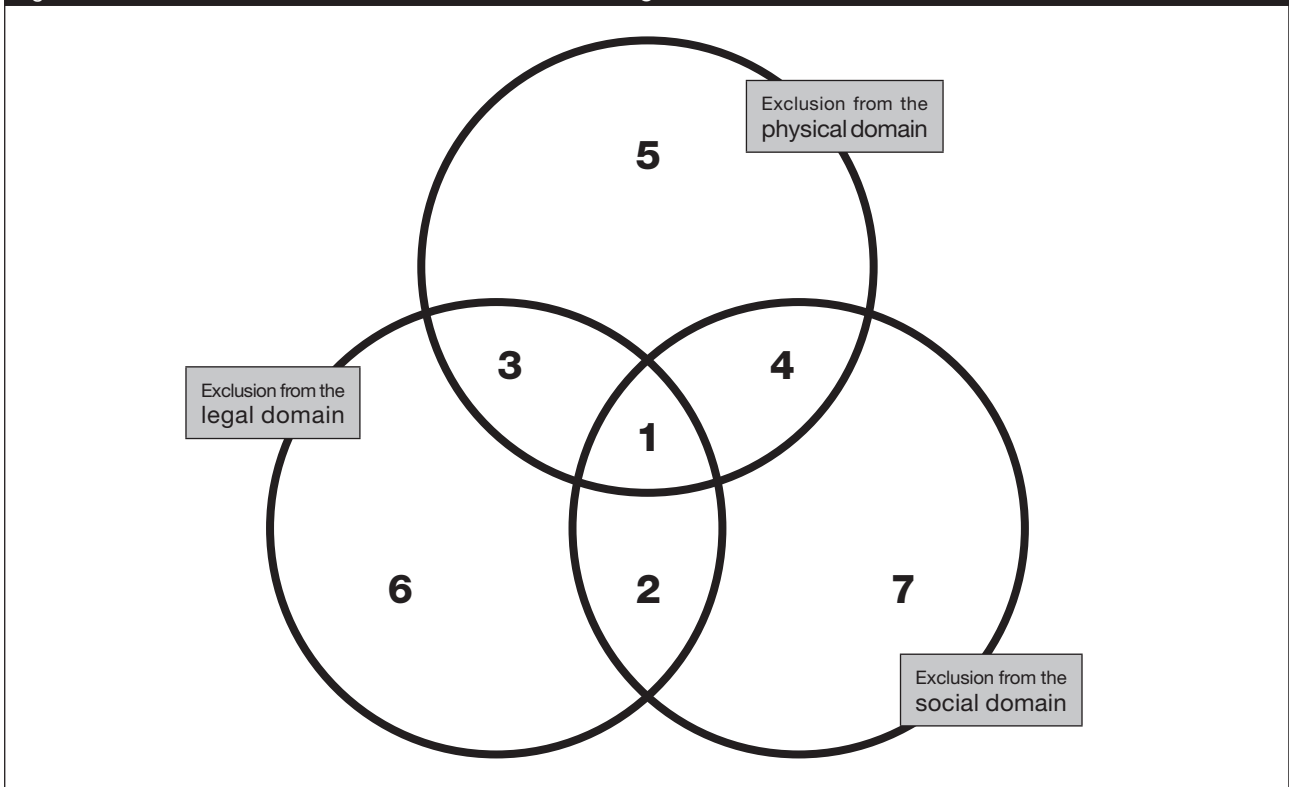


Table 2.1 Seven theoretical domains of homelessness

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

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### 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.”<sup>1</sup>*

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).

<sup>1</sup> 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"> <li>- Distribution of food</li> <li>- Distribution of clothing</li> <li>- Distribution of medicines</li> <li>- Showers and personal hygiene</li> <li>- Canteens</li> <li>- Road units</li> <li>- One-off economic support</li> </ul>
RESIDENTIAL SERVICES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Emergency dormitories</li> <li>- Dormitories</li> <li>- Semi-residential communities</li> <li>- Residential communities</li> <li>- Protected accommodations</li> <li>- Self-managed accommodations</li> </ul>
NON RESIDENTIAL SERVICES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Non residential centres</li> <li>- Residential communities</li> <li>- Recreational centres</li> <li>- Laboratories</li> </ul>
SOCIAL SECRETARIAT SERVICE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Information and guidance services</li> <li>- Fictitious place of residence</li> <li>- Domiciliation</li> <li>- Implementation of formalities</li> <li>- Assistance through territorial services</li> </ul>
ASSISTANCE SERVICES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Tailored projects</li> <li>- Psychological counselling</li> <li>- Educational counselling</li> <li>- Educational support</li> <li>- Psychological support</li> <li>- Structured economic support</li> <li>- Reintegration in the labour market</li> <li>- Nursing/doctor’s surgeries</li> <li>- Custody and administration of therapies</li> </ul>

Source: Fioppsd, 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
	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 Europe<sup>2</sup>, 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.

<sup>2</sup> 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).”<sup>3</sup>*

*“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.”<sup>4</sup>*

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

<sup>3</sup> Edgar et al., 2005

<sup>4</sup> 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.”<sup>5</sup>*

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”:

<sup>5</sup> 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, 2009<sup>6</sup>). 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 are<sup>7</sup>. 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 outcome<sup>8</sup>.

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 legislation<sup>9</sup>.

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 households<sup>10</sup>.

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/>

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 periods<sup>11</sup>.

The Welsh equivalent of P1E are the WHO12 returns which broadly, though not exactly, mirror the data collected by P1E<sup>12</sup>. 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 conducted<sup>13</sup>.

### ***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.

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 counties 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 gminas<sup>14</sup> 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	

<sup>14</sup> 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		
Surveys	Examples	Agency
National counts of people sleeping rough or in overnight hostels	Italy (2000) France (2001) Spain (2004) Portugal (2005)	Social Exclusion Commission INSEE INED Institute for Social Security
Capital city or municipal counts of people sleeping rough or in overnight hostels (1)	Dublin England Netherlands Portugal (Lisbon; 2004)	Homeless Agency DCLG Homeless Monitor City of Lisbon
National counts using a survey of local authorities	Finland Ireland Sweden	National Housing Fund Ministry of the Environment National Board of Health and Welfare
Regional Counts using a survey of local authorities	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		
Register Method	Examples	Responsibility
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"> <li>&gt; Number of eviction petitions shall be reduced by 50%, and the number of evictions by 30%</li> <li>&gt; No-one shall have to spend time in temporary housing upon release from prison</li> <li>&gt; No-one shall have to seek temporary housing upon discharge from an institution</li> </ul>
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"> <li>&gt; incomes</li> <li>&gt; accommodation suited to their needs</li> <li>&gt; non-optional care programmes (temporary if possible, structural where necessary)</li> <li>&gt; feasible forms of work.</li> </ul>	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"> <li>&gt; number of evictions per year</li> <li>&gt; number of evictions leading to homelessness per year</li> </ul>
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
<b>Situation 1:</b> 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
<b>Situation 2:</b> 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
<b>Situation 3:</b> 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
<b>Situation 4:</b> 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.















































































































