Chapter 5

Homelessness, housing needs and lettings

Homelessness is a key expression of housing need in which there are marked and growing contrasts between England and the rest of the UK. Both applications and acceptances are growing in England, while they continue to fall in Scotland. In Wales there was little change in numbers applying last year and acceptances also fell. Northern Ireland has also seen little change in numbers of applications, but 2014/15 saw a 14 per cent growth in acceptances (see Figure 2.5.1).

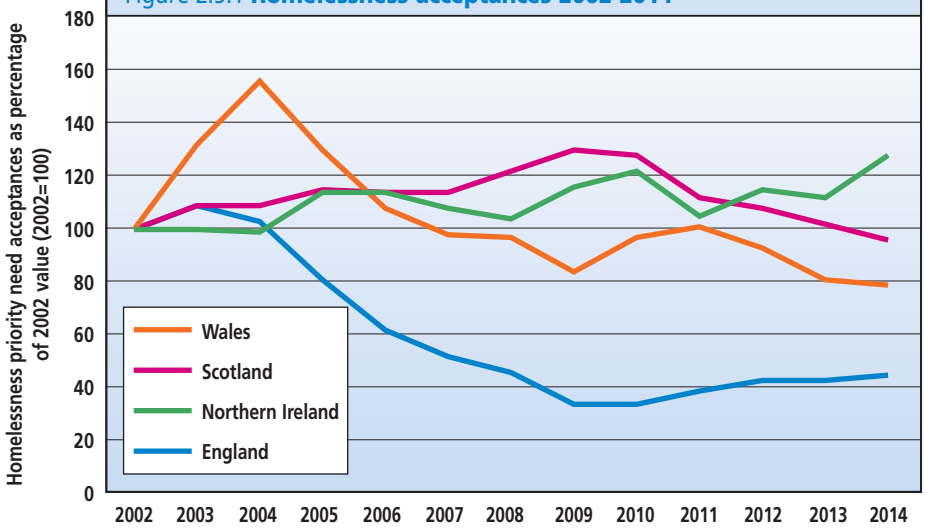
At the same time, looked at in terms of population sizes, for different reasons both Scotland and Northern Ireland have relatively high levels of homeless acceptances (see Table 2.5.1 in last year's *Review*). In Scotland this reflects the wider definition of statutory homelessness and the pressures resulting from the social sector's mismatched profiles of household size and housing stock. In Northern Ireland, the homelessness 'route' is still the main way for older people to secure rehousing.

Changing patterns of those accepted as homeless

Homelessness acceptances in England in the year to September 2015 were 43 per cent higher than in the last year of the previous government (to June 2010). Regional trends shown in earlier editions of the *Review* have reappeared, with the growth in acceptances mainly taking place in the South, and levels in London rising only slightly, while they continue to fall in the Midlands and North (see Figure 2.5.2).

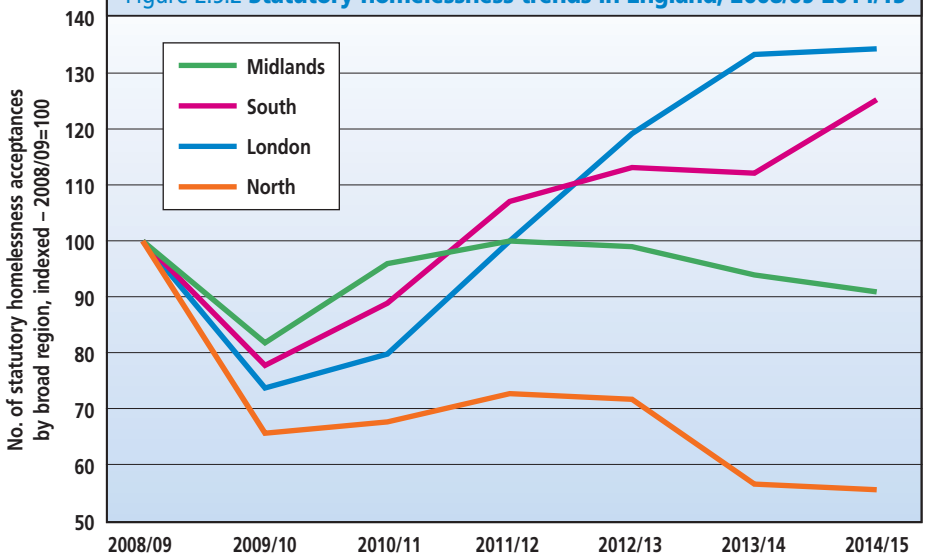
Last year's *Review* noted the age shift in homelessness acceptances in England with fewer households under 25. They form 24 per cent of acceptances currently (June 2015) but eight years ago formed 41 per cent. In contrast, 35 per cent of acceptances in Scotland in 2014/15 were from this age group. In England, considerable numbers of young people are helped as non-statutory homeless: in 2013/14 the total was estimated to be over 19,000. In contrast there are fewer than 900 households in this category in Scotland.[1] The likelihood that young people are falling through the homelessness 'safety net' has also been shown by Centrepoint.

Figure 2.5.1 **Homelessness acceptances 2002-2014**



Sources: See Compendium Tables 90 and 104.
Notes: Figures for Wales and Northern Ireland are for financial years.

Figure 2.5.2 **Statutory homelessness trends in England, 2008/09-2014/15**



Source: Compendium Table 94a.

Across the UK, approximately 150,000 young people (aged 16-25) seek homelessness help from local authorities (of whom 130,000 are in England).[2] Yet less than half receive a formal assessment under the Housing Acts, and only one in eight are accepted as statutorily homeless.

The progressive fall in the proportions of single-person households accepted in England has also continued (from 30 down to 22 per cent over the nine years to 2014/15). In contrast, in Scotland and Wales such households account for more than half of homeless acceptances. (In Northern Ireland data are only available for applications: 53 per cent are from single-person households.) While a recent report from Crisis welcomes the impact on single homeless people of Scotland ending the requirement for them to be in priority need to qualify for settled housing, it does warn that such households still get inconsistent treatment compared with families, even though many are in even more vulnerable circumstances.[3] Crisis also points to evidence from across the UK of considerable *hidden homelessness* among single people who never enter the statutory system, including many in hostels.

Action to prevent homelessness

The significance of homelessness 'prevention' or 'relief', otherwise known as a 'housing options' approach to homelessness, continues to grow across the UK. In England it remains the government's 'first priority'. In Scotland, the housing options approach gained importance with the commitment that all those assessed as unintentionally homeless would be entitled to settled accommodation, and is now for the first time being monitored. In Wales, a new approach to housing options has been set by the Housing (Wales) Act 2014, and in Northern Ireland such an approach remains official policy.

The use of homelessness 'prevention' or 'relief' in England grew continuously until 2013/14 but last year it fell slightly. Table 2.5.1 contrasts prevention work with statutory homelessness actions. It shows that the combined figures are now consistently in excess of 300,000 per year. Just over half of prevention work involved helping those affected get alternative accommodation. Following work by Crisis, the UK Statistics Authority has decided that statutory homelessness data presented alone, without the broader context of prevention work shown here, are potentially misleading. DCLG has agreed to prepare better integrated statistics.

Table 2.5.1 **Homelessness prevention activity and its context – England**

	2009/10 (000s)	2010/11 (000s)	2011/12 (000s)	2012/13 (000s)	2013/14 (000s)	2014/15 (000s)	*% change 209/10-2014/15*
Instances of homelessness prevented or relieved	**165**	**189**	**199**	**202**	**228**	**221**	***34***
assisted into alternative accommodation	**101**	**107**	**113**	**108**	**117**	**112**	***10***
Formal homelessness assessment decisions	**89**	**102**	**109**	**113**	**112**	**112**	***26***
statutory homelessness acceptances	**40**	**44**	**50**	**54**	**52**	**54**	***35***
statutory homeless acceptances – rehoused in social housing	**34**	**28**	**30**	**31**	**30**	**27**	***- 21***
statutory homeless acceptances – rehoused in a private tenancy	**3**	**2**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**2**	***- 33***

Sources: DCLG Homelessness Prevention and Relief statistics; DCLG Statutory Homelessness statistics.
Note: Data are not consistent with earlier versions of this table as 'assisted into alternative accommodation' now includes prevention and relief cases.

In Scotland, monitoring of 'housing options' activities began formally in April 2014 and the first 18 months' data are now available.[4] There were 86,665 prevention cases although not all of these were unique households (some made more than one approach for help). Of the 71,956 cases with a known outcome, just under half went on to make a formal homelessness application, almost a quarter stayed in their current accommodation, and just ten per cent made a known move elsewhere. This suggests that Scotland's approach to prevention is more closely tied to the formal system than is the case in England. New guidance on use of housing options is expected in the New Year after the critical report from the Scottish Housing Regulator noted in last year's *Review*.

In Wales, the new legislation creates a wider duty to prevent/alleviate homelessness that encompasses all cases, including those not in 'priority need'. It also lengthens the period in which someone has to be considered as 'threatened with homelessness' from 28 to 56 days. Early evidence suggests that most authorities are now responding to the changes, and are offering potentially homeless people 'personal housing plans' and using prevention funds creatively, e.g. to clear rent arrears or provide deposits.[5] Welsh authorities have begun to collect prevention data; they will be covered in future editions of the *Review*.

Reasons for homelessness

The need for prevention work is illustrated in the rapid growth of homelessness resulting from the ending of shorthold tenancies. By September 2015 this accounted for 31 per cent of English acceptances (42 per cent in London), by far the biggest cause of statutory homelessness, having risen sharply for the past five years (see Figure 2.5.3). As a cause of homelessness in Wales, loss of a rental tenancy has also increased by one-fifth since 2009/10. Related to this is the rise in landlord repossessions across sectors, which in 2014 reached a record level of 41,967 in England and Wales and in 2015 were running at a similar level.[6] In part, of course, private landlord repossessions have grown in step with the growth of the sector. However, as a proportion of all new English lettings, the numbers coming from a previous PRS tenancy remain relatively low (18 per cent of the total, and within that four per cent who left because an assured shorthold or fixed-term tenancy came to an end).

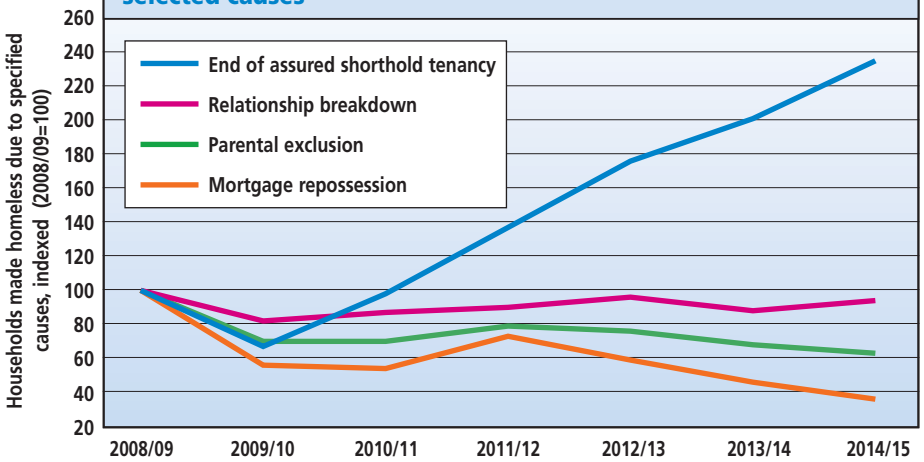
Homelessness in Scotland over recent years is ascribed to a range of reasons and their relative importance has varied little. It should be noted however that there was a marked upturn in social landlord evictions in 2014/15 after a period of steady decline, although they do not yet appear to have had an impact on homelessness figures.[7]

Northern Ireland presents a different pattern of reasons for homelessness (see Figure 2.5.4), although loss of rented accommodation has also risen in importance. However, reasons such as 'no accommodation', or 'accommodation not reasonable', and especially 'neighbourhood harassment/intimidation' are more prominent reasons for homelessness than in the other three UK administrations.

Private rented sector and temporary accommodation placements for those accepted as homeless

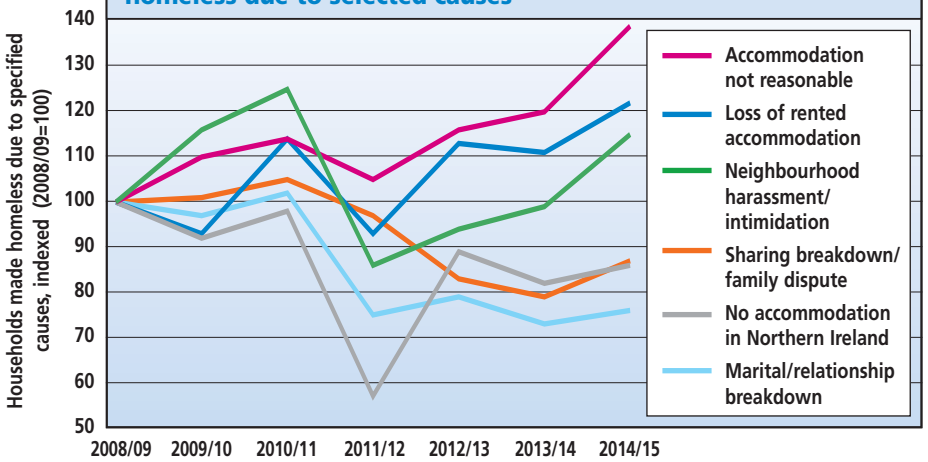
In England the Localism Act allows local authorities to discharge their homelessness duties via obligatory lettings (of at least twelve months) in the private rented sector. Use of the PRS in this way has been recorded for the past two years: it remains limited, although it is growing. As an immediate outcome of an LA's decision to accept a household as homeless, there were 500 such offers in 2013/14 (of which 130 were refused) and 760 in 2014/15 (210 refused).

Figure 2.5.3 **Households in England accepted as homeless due to selected causes**



Source: DCLG Live Tables.

Figure 2.5.4 **Households in Northern Ireland presenting as homeless due to selected causes**

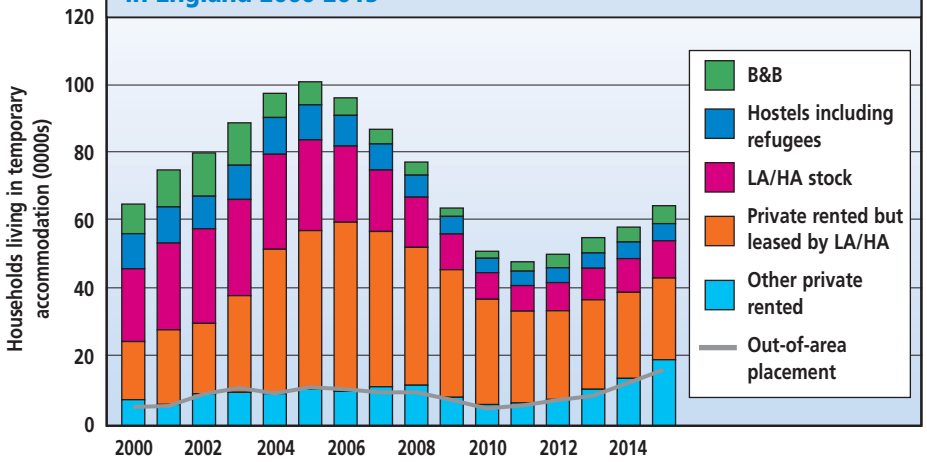


Source: Source: Northern Ireland Housing Bulletin January-March 2015.

For homeless households leaving temporary accommodation (TA), there were 1,090 offers in 2013/14 (of which 80 were refused) and 1,940 in 2014/15 (300 refused). In the last year this represented five per cent of all those leaving TA.[8] Freedom of Information requests suggest that much of this use of the PRS is in London: one investigation found 2,128 homeless households had been placed in the PRS over the period October 2013-January 2015, of which about 1,000 were 'out of borough' placements and 500 outside London (mainly in adjoining LA areas but also including Luton and Birmingham).[9]

A similar ability to use the PRS applies from April 2015 in Wales (but with only a six-month minimum tenancy); it is too soon to assess the effects but future editions of the *Review* will do so. In Scotland, councils can offer a PRS letting but unless it is an assured tenancy the offer is not obligatory: typically, five per cent of homelessness offers result in PRS lettings and almost all are accepted. In Northern Ireland, the NIHE is sponsoring a pilot scheme of voluntary access to PRS accommodation operated by Smartmove Housing in a number of high demand areas. Future use of the PRS for homeless and low-income households will however be more problematic with the freezing of LHA rates and other welfare reforms.

Figure 2.5.5 **Households living in temporary accommodation in England 2000-2015**



Source: DCLG Live Table 775.

High levels of acceptances in England combined with severe pressure on social lettings have led to more homeless households being placed in temporary accommodation rather than in a permanent letting (whether social or private). Compendium Table 91a shows 61,930 TA placements at the end of 2014, but they rose to 68,560 in September 2015, 13 per cent higher than a year earlier (and accounting for 63 per cent of homeless acceptances).

Trends in England are shown in Figure 2.5.5. The recent growth in use of TA has relied increasingly on 'other private rented' accommodation *not owned or leased* by the local authority. Use of the private sector has doubled in three years to 32 per cent of TA (37 per cent in London). It is also notable that 49 per cent of those in TA in London have been there for a year or more. Of those in TA across England, the proportion in non-self-contained accommodation (B&B and hostels) remains high at 17 per cent. There is a legal limit of six weeks on keeping families with children in B&B; numbers exceeding the limit fluctuate but by September 2015 960 families were in this position, of which almost 60 per cent were in London. Use of *out-of-area placements* has also increased markedly: at 18,600, this is the highest level ever recorded; 92 per cent of the placements are by London authorities.

In Scotland, with statutory homeless numbers peaking in 2009, use of TA was falling but has recently begun to rise. In September 2015 there were 10,567 households in TA, a two per cent increase on the year before. Most of these are in social housing stock; of the remainder, just 14 households with children were in B&B. In Wales, the number in temporary accommodation (1,935 households) is the lowest since 2003 and numbers in B&B accommodation also remain low (170 households, 15 with children). Use of temporary accommodation in Northern Ireland is now, at 2,817 households, at its lowest since 2001 (see Compendium Table 104).

Despite being a government priority, resources to tackle homelessness are severely stretched even though spending is maintained or even increased. As an example, a Freedom of Information request in Hackney revealed the borough spending £7 million on homelessness in 2014/15 compared with £3 million in

2009/10, because of rising accommodation costs, yet staffing expenditure had been cut by 20 per cent.[10] Many services also rely on local authorities' declining housing welfare budgets, which in 2014/15 were more than 40 per cent lower in cash terms than in 2009/10.[11] Homeless Link's annual review of agencies supporting people outside the statutory system shows that the number of bedspaces for single homeless people fell from 38,534 in 2013 to 36,540 in November 2014.[12] The number of accommodation projects also fell by one per cent, to 1,253. On average there is only a ten per cent void rate on any given night and many projects operate at full capacity. The majority of these projects are part-funded from housing welfare budgets. A quarter of those currently using accommodation projects could not move due to shortage of self-contained accommodation. Pressures on the housing market and limited supply of rental properties were cited as the main barriers, affecting 62 per cent of projects.[13]

Destitution, rough sleeping and irregular accommodation

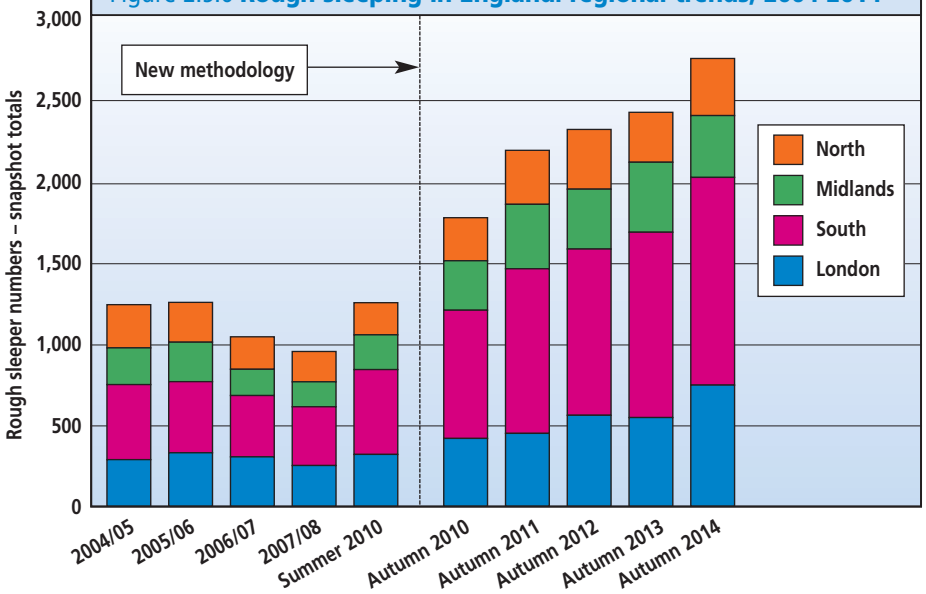
At the extreme of homelessness problems are those who are literally roofless and either sleeping rough or in some sort of illegal or informal accommodation. A problem of unknown scale is the extent to which people are becoming destitute, i.e. without enough money to buy basic food as well as shelter. JRF has commissioned research to define and enumerate destitution across the UK, to report in 2016.[14] One of this study's criteria of destitution is inability to afford food, for which one indicator is use of foodbanks. The Trussell Trust, the biggest charity operating such a service, reports further growth (three per cent) in foodbank use in the six months ending September 2015 compared with the same period last year, and estimates that there were 298,000 unique users. The predominate reason for needing free food (accounting for 43 per cent of cases) remains welfare benefit delays and changes.[15]

English local authorities make annual counts or estimates of rough sleeping in their areas each autumn. In 2014, 49 made counts while 277 provided estimates: the figures therefore have to be treated with caution (see Figure 2.5.6). They continue to show an upward trend, with 2,744 rough sleepers in total (a 14 per cent increase), of which 742 were in London (itself a 37 per cent increase).[16]

London statistics collated by St Mungo's Broadway also show a significant increase in the numbers of people sleeping rough in the capital.[17] Rather than just a single night's count, their 'CHAIN' data assess total numbers sleeping rough at some point during the year. For 2014/15 the increase was 16 per cent, much greater than the year before, with a total of 7,581 people sleeping rough (see Figure 2.5.7).

There are 1,374 more UK nationals sleeping rough than four years ago, suggesting intensifying competition for affordable accommodation in London, exacerbated by the growing impact of welfare benefit cuts. But the pattern of more than half of London rough sleepers being non-UK nationals was maintained (see Figure 2.5.7).The proportion from Central and Eastern Europe was again higher, with a particularly sharp growth in numbers of Romanians (from only 497 two years ago to 1,388 now). Although (except for Croatians) all EEA migrants now have the same rights, they can still suffer problems because of the benefit rules, uncertainty about their eligibility, language barriers and for other reasons.

Figure 2.5.6 **Rough sleeping in England: regional trends, 2004-2014**

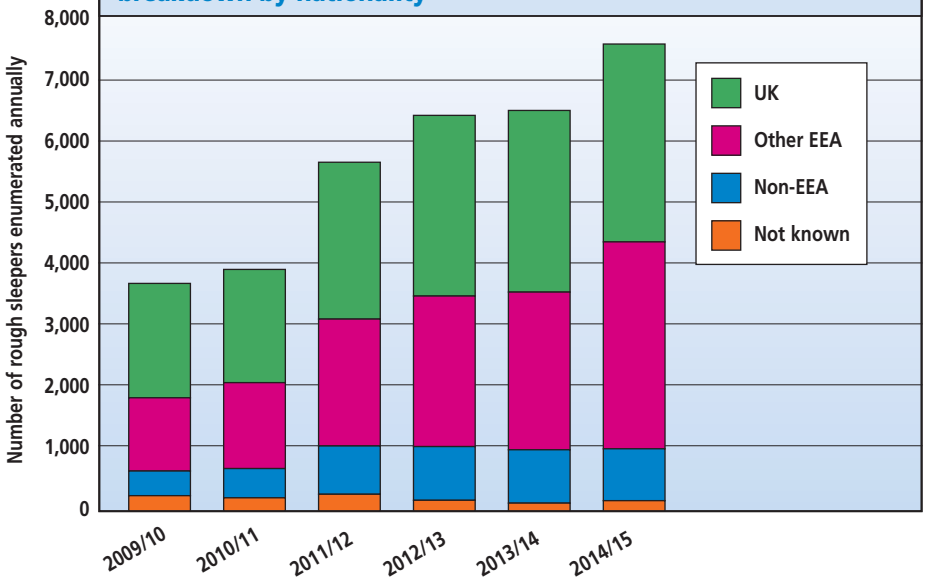


Sources: 2004/05-2007/08 – collated from Audit Commission Best Value Performance Indicators returns; Summer 2010 onwards – DCLG.

Some 11 per cent of rough sleepers were from countries outside the European Economic Area. About one-third of these have 'indefinite leave to remain' in the UK and should in principle be able to access benefits. This leaves a substantial number with varied immigration status, many with no access to public funds. There is evidence that many of these could resolve their immigration status given access to good quality advice, providing they also had stable accommodation. The problem is that they do not have access to benefits to pay rent. Although a small number of projects exist which address these needs, this remains an area where there is a considerable gap in homelessness provision.[18]

CHAIN-equivalent information is not available for the rest of England. In many areas the 'No Second Night Out' initiative is being rolled out (see last year's *Review*) but there has been no survey of outcomes since 2014.[19] Evidence of rough sleeping in the rest of the UK is also limited. The Scottish Government monitors the scale of rough sleeping through the statutory homelessness returns (thus providing data that cannot be readily compared with England's). According to these, 1,409 people applying as homeless in 2014/15 reported sleeping rough the night before, half the numbers for 2007/08. However, while this included 400 cases in Glasgow, the local homelessness network estimated that 800 people regularly sleep rough.[20] In Wales, a one-off count of rough sleepers in November 2014 indicated there were only 83, of whom about a third were in Cardiff (the most recent earlier count was of 124 in 2008). However, when a 'census' approach was adopted over a two-week period the number of rough sleepers was about treble the one-night count, at 244.[21] In Northern Ireland rough sleeping is believed to involve fewer than ten cases per night in Belfast, although the NIHE believes there is potential for up to 100 people to sleep rough without support services; there may also be some limited rough sleeping in Derry/Londonderry.[22]

Figure 2.5.7 **Rough sleeping in London 2009/10-2014/15: breakdown by nationality**



Source: GLA (see http://data.london.gov.uk/dataset/chain-reports).
Note: EEA is the European Economic Area which includes the EU plus Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland.

The accuracy of one-night counts was also called into question by Crisis; its *Homelessness Monitor* team calculate that counts in 2010/11 understated the real extent of rough sleeping by between two and four times.[23] The possibility that official figures also drastically understate levels of 'rooflessness' is emphasised by a new UK-wide study revealing that 26 per cent of young people (aged 16-24) had slept rough at some point, and 17 per cent had done so in the last year. In addition, 20 per cent had 'sofa-surfed' in the past year. The study's conclusion is that in the last year 1.3 million young people had slept rough or in an unsafe place, and just under 300,000 are doing so on any one night. If accurate, this would be far above the official figures quoted above.[24]

Demand for and lettings of social housing tenancies

Recent editions of the *Review* have not focussed on housing waiting lists as an indicator of housing need because of their obvious limitations. Numbers of waiting list applicants in England peaked at 1.85 million in 2012, but in that year the Localism Act gave councils power to put restrictions on who could apply. Waiting list totals fell by a quarter to 1.37 million in 2014 and to 1.24 million in 2015. Some of the most remarkable changes have occurred in London, where some boroughs have retained traditional waiting lists (normally with growing numbers) while the majority have reduced their lists, often by imposing severe new restrictions. Table 2.5.2 contrasts figures for 2014 with those for 2012.

Table 2.5.2 **Changes in waiting lists in London 2012 and 2014**

London Borough	Waiting list 2012	Waiting list 2014	Percentage fall	Percentage increase
City of London	1,147	476	59	–
Barking and Dagenham	13,671	11,024	19	–
Barnet	815	1,045	–	28
Bexley	9,765	3,481	64	–
Brent	16,735	5,102	70	–
Bromley	1,064	3,126	–	193
Camden	18,974	22,409	–	18
Croydon	8,758	5,102	42	–
Ealing	13,870	10,676	23	–
Enfield	6,956	2,237	68	–
Greenwich	11,656	11,375	2	–
Hackney	14,171	7,926	44	–
Hammersmith and Fulham	8,171	433	95	–
Haringey	17,763	9,203	48	–
Harrow	3,953	687	83	–
Havering	9,365	2,271	76	–
Hillingdon	9,948	3,606	64	–
Hounslow	12,284	6,842	44	–
Islington	13,690	17,860	–	30
Kensington and Chelsea	7,551	2,677	66	–
Kingston upon Thames	7,374	6,436	13	–
Lambeth	27,534	15,264	45	–
Lewisham	17,772	8,294	53	–
Merton	7,295	7,625	–	5
Newham	30,975	15,582	50	–
Redbridge	11,290	7,804	31	–
Richmond upon Thames	5,587	4,008	28	–
Southwark	14,112	13,436	5	–
Sutton	5,493	1,496	73	–
Tower Hamlets	23,406	20,425	13	–
Waltham Forest	21,864	20,635	6	–
Wandsworth	5,208	2,788	46	–
Westminster	2,084	4,378	–	110
Total	380,301	255,729	33	–

Source: GLA (http://data.london.gov.uk/dataset/households-local-authority-waiting-list-borough/resource/dac0e8c2-94af-4c5e-b9b9-ef294bfe3915#)

Altogether London waiting lists fell by one-third over the two years, despite a handful of boroughs showing considerable increases, because others cut their lists by as much as 95 per cent. During 2015 there have been successful legal challenges to some boroughs imposing 'local connection' requirements that have excluded homeless families who otherwise would have had 'reasonable preference' for a housing allocation; this may result in allocation policies having to be modified.

Waiting list figures for Scotland have continued to show the steady decline that began in 2006, with a further fall of four per cent in 2014/15 (in part a reflection of Scotland's low household growth). However, it should be noted that many Scottish housing associations operate their own waiting lists. Waiting list data are not available for Wales.

Northern Ireland operates a common waiting list across all its social sector stock, which may therefore be a more reasonable indicator of housing demand. There has been a slight fall in applications registered on the list, from 39,967 at the end of 2013/14 to 39,338 in April 2015.[25] Allocations to applicants fell slightly to 8,129, showing an obvious gap between demand and the ability to meet it, hence the piloting of 'housing options' approaches, noted earlier.

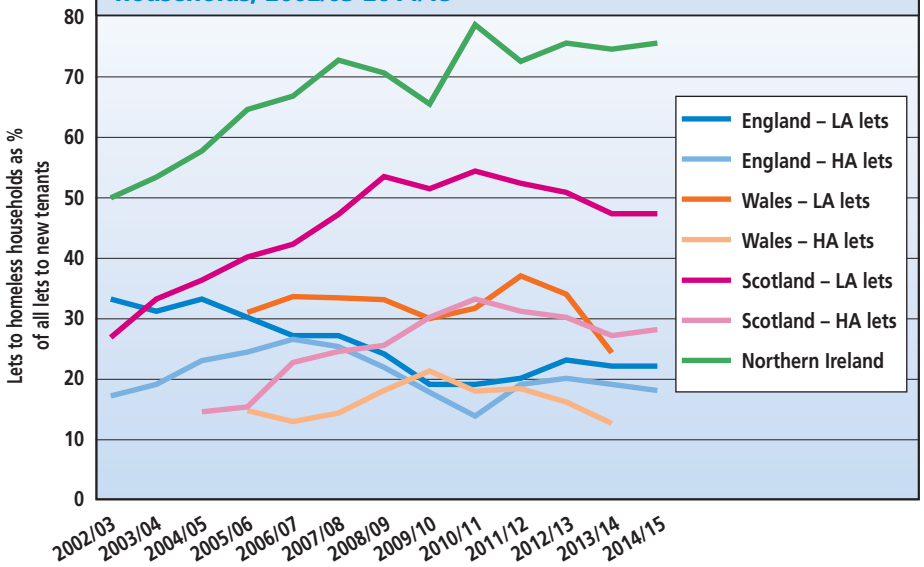
How does supply respond to changing patterns of demand across the UK? The best measure is lettings to new tenants (see Table 2.5.3). While the number in England grew somewhat up to 2010, it has since fallen, although turnover may increase again when measures in the current Housing Bill take effect. Elsewhere in the UK, new lettings have been more stable over this period .

Table 2.5.3 **Lettings to new tenants, 2009/10-2014/15 (000s)**

	2009/10	2010/11	2011/12	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15
England	212	231	221	213	218	212
Wales	17	17	16	16	18	–
Scotland	48	44	45	44	46	44
N. Ireland	9	8	8	8	9	8

Sources: see Compendium Tables 101-104. Figures relate to 'general needs' lettings only.

Figure 2.5.8 **Percentage of social landlord lettings to homeless households, 2002/03-2014/15**



Sources: Compendium Tables 96, 98, 102, 103 and 104.
Notes: 1. Data for English HA lets relate to tenants completely new to social housing; those for English LAs relate to tenants new to the LA landord; from 2011/12 onwards they are on the same basis as for HAs.
2. For the other administrations, data relate to tenants new to the landlord (not the sector).

Figure 2.5.8 presents another element of the interaction between patterns of demand and supply, 'lettings to homeless households as a proportion of all lettings to new tenants'. While traditionally an indicator of social housing stress, it is also possible that lettings to homeless households are now being affected by a range of relatively new factors such as nominations to the private rented sector, the tightening effects of welfare reform on the ability of poorer households to take social tenancies and the increase (in England) of lettings at higher Affordable Rents. In general, the pattern shown by the chart is one of levelling off or slight decline in the proportions of lettings going to homeless households, even though (as we saw in Figure 2.5.1) in England and Northern Ireland acceptances continue to increase.

Changes in types of new social lettings in England

In England, the nature of social housing lettings is changing because most new dwellings are now let at an Affordable Rent (AR); a proportion of relets of existing dwellings is also at these higher rents, underpinning output from the Affordable Homes Programme. The effects on rent levels were discussed in Commentary Chapter 4. Here we consider the extent to which the policy change is affecting *lettings*, especially by housing associations.

As noted in Commentary Chapter 4, the stock of dwellings let at Affordable Rents reached 123,264 by April 2015, five per cent of the total HA stock. The increase on the previous year was relatively small, and so total lettings at Affordable Rents have also grown by a modest amount, to 38,000 or 22 per cent of general needs lettings (see Compendium Table 98). However, as the previous chapter also pointed out, a significant number of new conversions is expected from the new phase of the Affordable Homes Programme that began last year. For this and other reasons, the proportion of new lettings being offered at Affordable Rents is therefore likely to increase more sharply over the next 2-3 years.

The introduction of Affordable Rents coincided with new powers for landlords to opt for fixed-term tenancies (FTTs) in place of traditional open-ended ones. The minimum fixed term is five years (exceptionally only two). The change could eventually result in increased social housing turnover. Use of FTTs by housing associations continues to grow but by local authorities is still minimal (see Table 2.5.4 overleaf). In 2014/15, 16 per cent of HA general needs social lettings were FTTs, compared with 12 per cent the year before. At 14 per cent, the use of FTTS in supported housing social lettings remained the same. Not surprisingly, 39 per cent of AR lettings are FTTs compared with 34 per cent a year ago. Table 2.5.4 also shows that starter tenancies are used for almost three-quarters of AR lettings, possibly because a higher proportion are to new tenants.

Finally, it should again be emphasised that the policy shifts to both Affordable Rent and fixed-term lettings are still confined to England. In Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, where there is still separate provision of intermediate lettings this is not achieved either by removing units from the social lettings pool or by making new funding conditional on higher rents, as is now firmly the case in England.

Table 2.5.4 **Use of fixed-term tenancies by social landlords in England, 2013/14 and 2014/15**

2014/15	General Needs Social Rent				Supported Housing Social Rent				General Needs Affordable Rent				Supported Housing Affordable Rent			
Main Tenancy Type	HA	%	LA	%	HA	%	LA	%	HA	%	LA	%	HA	%	LA	%
Secure (including flexible)	551	0%	102,155	99%	192	0%	10,959	84%	23	0%	720	99%	2	0%	36	100%
Assured	108,937	83%	6	0%	31,681	32%	0	0%	23,257	61%	0	0%	878	83%	0	0%
Assured shorthold (FTT)	21,125	16%	0	0%	13,539	14%	56	0%	14,739	39%	0	0%	154	15%	0	0%
Licence agreement	108	0%	0	0%	51,135	52%	1,894	15%	21	0%	0	0%	5	0%	0	0%
Other	641	0%	655	1%	1117	1%	92	1%	145	0%	8	1%	23	2%	0	0%
Total	131,362		102,816		97,664		13,001		38,185		728		1,062		36	
% offered on starter/introductory period	67%		64%		17%		45%		74%		58%		43%		31%	

2013/14	General Needs Social Rent				Supported Housing Social Rent				General Needs Affordable Rent				Supported Housing Affordable Rent			
Main Tenancy Type	HA	%	LA	%	HA	%	LA	%	HA	%	LA	%	HA	%	LA	%
Secure (including flexible)	522	0%	110,739	99%	269	0%	11.387	87%	38	0%	*	*	*	*	*	*
Assured	115,841	86%	0	0%	33,424	33%	0	0%	23,133	65%	*	*	*	*	*	*
Assured shorthold (FTT)	16,395	12%	267	1%	14,392	14%	70	1%	12,066	34%	*	*	*	*	*	*
Licence agreement	153	0%	0	0%	50,835	51%	77	1%	25	0%	*	*	*	*	*	*
Other	1,267	1%	939	0%	869	1%	1,630	12%	586	2%	*	*	*	*	*	*
Total	134,178		111,946		99,789		13,164		35,848		*		*		*	
% offered on starter/introductory period	62%		60%		16%		43%		70%		*		*		*	

Source: DCLG CORE summary tables. (data in columns showing asterisks were not collected in 2013/14).

Key Reading

Crisis publishes *The Homelessness Monitor* for England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. A new edition for England was published early in 2016 (see www.crisis.org.uk/pages/homelessnessmonitor.html for other editions).

References

Note that, to save space, where data are taken from the main data sets on homeless on the websites of the four administrations, except where necessary these are not referenced in the endnotes below. References to Compendium Tables in the *Review* are included in the main text.

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