



FEANTSA

**SPAIN REPORT 2004 FOR THE EUROPEAN
OBSERVATORY ON HOMELESSNESS: STATISTICAL
UPDATE**

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1. Updated statistics

1.1 Trends in the housing market

As is well known, the most significant element that differentiates Spain within the EU is the fact that the overwhelming majority of Spanish households own their own accommodation. As shown in the last census, 82% of the nearly fifteen million Spanish households live in their own accommodation, either already paid off or are in the processing of being paid; the latter case pertains to 3.2 million Spanish households, representing 22.8% of Spanish families. The rent system is used by only 11.5% of Spanish households, which is one third of the rental rate in the EU. A housing policy that has provided inducements for purchasing housing through substantial tax relief, combined with an extremely reduced offer of public housing and high rates, owing to the scarcity of the private housing available for rent, have had a negative effect on this type of housing system, and have led households on a massive scale to turn to the private housing market, of better or worse quality, but always under the ownership system.

This trend of giving greater weight each time to ownership at the expense of renting has picked up momentum in recent years (see Table), so that in the inter-census period 1991-2001, ownership went up by 27.3%, while renting went down by nearly 8 percentage points; even though what is probably the most telling element for the social implications of every type is the spectacular increase in the number of households that are still trapped by the effort to pay a mortgage, the number of which has gone up by 80% in recent years.

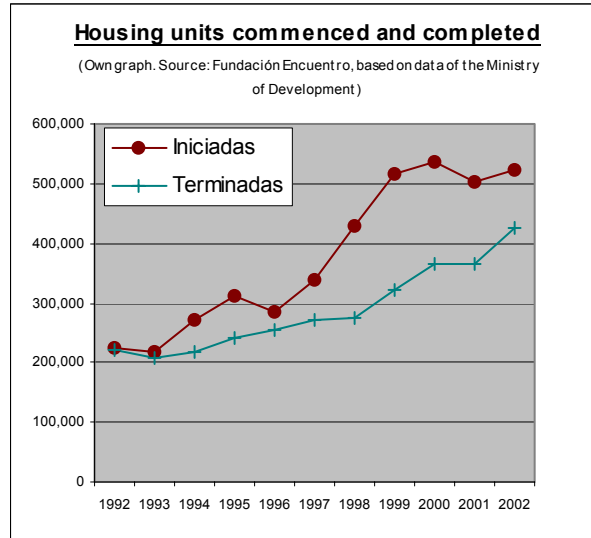
Main residence. Spain (PAREJA y SAN MARTÍN, 2003)

	Census 1991		Census 2001		2001/1991
	nº	%	nº	%	%
Own housing	9,194,491	78.3%	11,701,938	82.0%	27.3%
Totally paid	7,361,235	62.7%	8,448,228	59.2%	14.8%
Payments pending	1,833,256	15.6%	3,253,710	22.8%	77.5%
Renting	1,780,695	15.2%	1,641,125	11.5%	-7.8%
Other	761,190	6.5%	927,593	6.5%	21.9%
Total	11,736,376	100.0%	14,270,656	100.0%	21.6%

Other: free or semi-free housing made available by companies or families, plus other forms of tenancy
Source: Housing Census, 1991 and 2001

All experts agree, that construction emerged in the nineties as the main driving motor of the Spanish economy, together with tourism, and in large measure connected to the latter, as a good part of housing is purchased as second residence. The housing production rate

in the last years has been spectacularly high: over 500,000 housing units commenced annually from 1999 to the present. Nearly all have been build as dwellings on the free market; for instance, in 2002, out of a total of 524,182 housing units started, only forty-four thousand (8.4%) enjoyed some type of official protection.



commenced
completed

Still at the end of 2003, in spite of indications of a certain slowdown on the real-estate market, developers expected sales of around 450,000 per year until 2008 (*El País*, 25 November 2003), of which 242,000 as main residence, and 175 for a second residence, both for Spaniards and for tourists. According to the real estate firm Metro 3, of the three of the approximately one million housing units sold in Spain every year, two are for private use, and the third for investment (*El País*, 5 May 2003). This share of housing purchased for investment purposes may comprise very different situations, such as for instance, the future use of the housing units for one's children, reselling, rent or second residence in the city for members of the family who live in rural areas.

At this time, owing to the extraordinary dynamism of the real-estate market, nearly all the housing supply has been entrusted to the market with the consequent lack of arrangements and problems of accessibility for people with lower income levels. It is worth bearing in mind that while in the mid 1980s, half of the housing units produced enjoyed official protection as social housing, today this figure does not even account for 10% of the total, and in any event, nearly all housing units built in Spain are the fruit of private initiative, so that housing units built by the Public Administration, whether directly or through state-owned companies, do not even amount to 1% of the total of housing units built in the country (see Table).

Completed housing units. Type of developer in % (PAREJA y SAN MARTÍN, 2003)		
Total housing	Private Developers	Public developers

	units	Trading Companies	Individual, Municipalities, cooperatives and others	
1997	100%	65.8%	31.9%	2.3%
1998	100%	67.2%	31.5%	1.4%
1999	100%	63.3%	35.3%	1.4%
2000	100%	67.7%	31.4%	1.0%
2001	100%	75.1%	24.1%	0.8%
2002	100%	80.7%	18.6%	0.8%

Source: Ministry of Development

At such times, it appears obvious that home ownership is out of reach for those segments of the population with lower income levels, and the supply of housing units for rent is small and expensive; so it comes as no surprise that the policy measures announced by the new socialist government are geared to trying to increase the supply of housing for rent, either from the private market, or by intensifying the construction of social housing for rent. In fact, the new measures announced by the new minister for housing, María Antonia Trujillo, as part of the shock plan adopted by the new government in an effort to deal with the current difficult situation, include tax relief for tenants, as such relief exists only for home owners present, and the creation of a Public Rent Agency to give impetus to the market and act as an intermediary between owners and tenants. According to Ms Trujillo, “the aim is to create a rent market, reconciling supply and demand, by the State and in cooperation with the Autonomous Communities and town councils, with private agents, and all types of institutions.” (*El País*, 26 May 2004).

The option of renting at reasonable prices is particularly urgent and necessary, when we consider two concrete groups: migrants and young people. Curiously enough, the small supply of housing at a cheap rent that still exists in Spain is occupied primarily by households of elderly people who are the only ones who can continue to enjoy a special rent control system that had historically accounted for the majority of housing in Spain up to the 1960s – known as old income housing – which prevents the owner from raising the rents by adopting them to the consumer price index, so that rents were gradually reduced and are much lower than the current market prices.

1.1.1 The price of housing

During 2003, the escalation of housing prices broke historical records in Spain, growing by up to 16% on average, the largest such increase in 14 years, according to data made available by valuation societies. A report published by the European Central Bank in mid December 2003 pointed out that Spain had been the country where housing had gone up most in 2002 in the Euro zone (*El País*, 12 December 2003). The reasons put forward to explain this increase have to do with the expansive moment of the economy, the fact that a good part of the family income and of investment were moved from the stock exchange to the real estate market in search of a better return, and the rise in the price of land. In provincial capitals, the average price by square metre exceeded €1,931, the most expensive capitals being Barcelona

(€2,917 m²) and Madrid (€2,868 m²). The result of this entire process of price rises is that a new housing unit is today sold at nearly six times the amount of 1985, with an average increase of 11% in the last 18 years (*El País*, 9 January 2004).

In September 2003, housing had gone up by 16.78% in the previous twelve months, according to TINSA, a valuation society, in a bull market that far from decelerating, continued its upward climb, affecting also, albeit at a slower rate, used housing, which was up to 28% cheaper than new housing on average.

More recently, the latest data made available by TINSA on 31 March 2004, were those given in the table below, which show how the difficulties in accessing new housing are causing an increase in the prices for used housing, where in certain cases the prices are higher than for new housing:

Average valued price of housing on the free market in Spain
Annual moving average. €/m2 const. and variation %

	31 March 04	% Increase 12 months	% increase 3 months
Total new housing	1,681.1	17.31	3.50
Capitals	2,240.8	18.47	3.40
Rest of country	1,377.3	16.20	3.54
Total used housing	1,389.1	16.94	4.40
Capitals	1,816.7	15.89	4.21
Rest of country	1,155.8	17.92	4.60

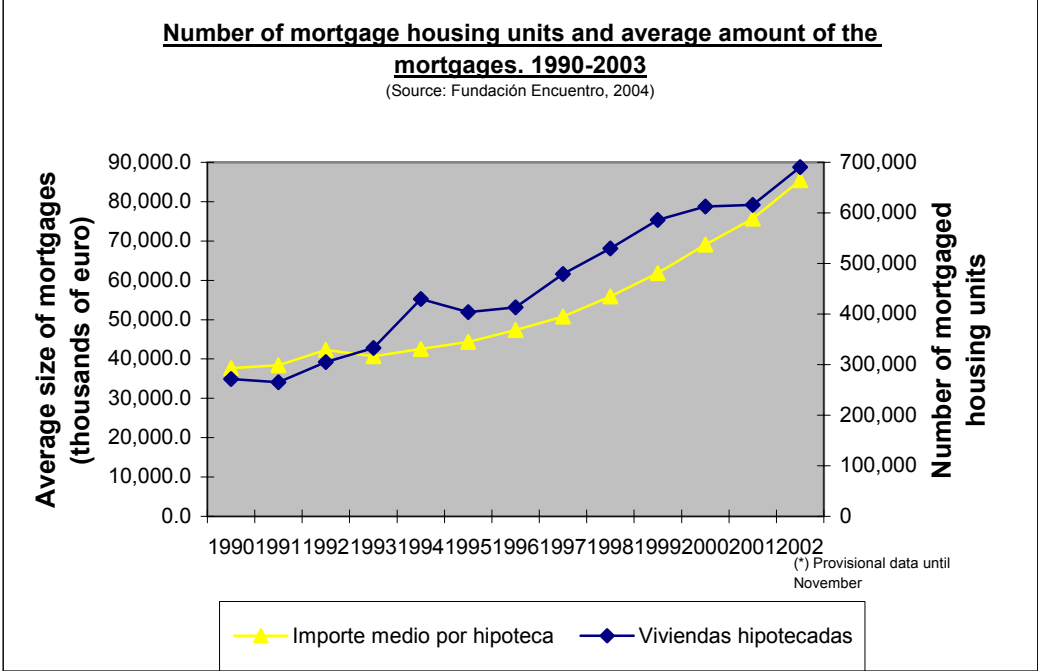
Source: Tinsa

This entire process of escalating housing prices obviously leads to a high rise in the level of indebtedness of households which in turn, led the International Monetary Fund to express its concerns in mid-November 2003 about the dangers of a rapid increase in prices and the serious repercussions this could have on the entire financial system if a slowdown picked up pace owing to a drop in price or a rise in interest rates.

For its part, in the beginning of December, *The Economist* drew attention to the escalation of prices at international level and discussed several countries, including Spain, in which the prices had been “unsustainable,” warning that “there is clearly a bubble in those markets.” In the meantime, the Minister for the Economy of the People’s Party, Rodrigo Rato, limited his comments to saying that housing had gone up in price because everything that is built is sold: “The primary cause, and undoubtedly one cause, is that 700,000 housing units are today being built and sold in Spain. So let us not make a big deal of it” (*El País*, 20 November 2003)

Paradoxically, owing to factors such as the low interest rates and the very long depreciation periods of mortgage loans, two experts from the BBVA group, Pareja and San Martín, have concluded their analysis of the Spanish housing system by stating that the cost of buying a house for Spanish families was not higher than that for families of the rest of the EU, which could be because the housing units acquired in Spain are smaller than their European equivalents.

According to data compiled by the “Fundación Encuentro” from various sources collected by CECS from the NSI, between 1999 and 2002, the number of mortgaged housing units went from 271,260 to a total of 690, 230, and in the same period, the average cost of a mortgaged housing unit went from €37,711 to €85,458. (See graph).



Average amount per mortgage Mortgaged housing units

More recently, El País (3 July 2004) cited a report of the Bank of Spain, according to which the percentage of households with a mortgage loan for acquiring their first house had been approximately 16.5% in 1994 and had grown to 22% in 2000. The average value of the mortgages, which was €98,000 in mid 2002, had gone up to €116,000 in August 2003. In the meantime, the growth in disposable family income during this period had been considerably lower. Undoubtedly, the low interest rates, together with the very long depreciation periods offered by financial institutions have given an impression of greater accessibility, as a result of which many Spanish households have gone into debt as never before, using variable mortgage and interest rates, that could lead to dramatic situations in many households, if the downward trend were to change, and an increase in interest rates were to ensue.

The main positive element at present with regard to the situation of the mid 1980s, when households were faced with annual rates of up to 16%, is the fact that the euro is now a much stronger currency and resistant to tensions on the international monetary markets that characterised the peseta; so whereas there is hope for greater relative stability on the horizon, slight changes in interest rates could raise the mortgage bill to crisis level for many households. We think that in good part owing to the effort that families have to make to buy a house, the indebtedness of the households at the end of 2003, as presented by the Bank of Spain, represented 90% of its available gross income – a figure twice that of indebtedness in the mid 1990s, when the People’s Party came to power. In the same report, the governor of the Bank of Spain pointed

out that according to data of the Household Panel, financing for the purchase of housing represented nearly 70% of the debt of households (*El País*, 3 July 2004).

At present, the demand for housing is being sustained in large measure by purchases by foreigners, either as a second residence in the tourist areas, as many EU citizens are doing (according to Pareja and San Martín (2003), foreign investments in real estate in Spain have reached such a level as to present growth rates approaching 30% on average in the last ten years), or as part of a residential radication project that enables many migrants to avoid the burden of rent as soon as they can embark, like the rest of Spanish citizens, on the adventure of purchasing a house, which is much more cost-effective in the long term, irrespective of whether they intend to stay in Spain for ever or return to their country of origin. Whereas there were 14.6 million households in Spain in 2001, with an influx of 150,000 migrants per year (a figure normally quite higher), experts forecast that the 18.2 million level will be exceeded in a decade, with the consequent demand for housing, whether owned or rented (Pareja and San Martín 2003).

1.2 Housing policy

- In Barcelona, the Town Council estimates that there could be some 19,000 flats unoccupied, which would be only 22% of the 85,000 housing units for which it was not possible to register statistics for the 2001 census. To conclude that it is unoccupied, the work refers to the sample of a series of apparently unoccupied housing units, for which utilities and the testimonies of neighbours are analysed. For taxation purposes, “an unoccupied flat shall be understood to be a flat not occupied for a year: between 1 January and 31 December; if during this period, there has been no discharge of water and electricity charges, or if the consumption of water and electricity is less than 5 cubic metres and 15 kilowatts respectively” (*El País*, 20 November 2003).

1.2.1 Specific measures

1.2.1.1 Young people

One of the groups affected most by the problem of scarce affordable housing in Spain is undoubtedly that of young people. Only 40% of those under 34 years of age can access their own housing; according to *El País* (27 November 2003), data collected for the study by Carme Trilla “La vivienda en Cataluña” [Housing in Catalonia], based on a survey of 2,000 households (5,500 people) conducted for the Panel on Social Inequalities in Catalonia, led to the conclusion that “only 15% of young people aged 18 to 24 could leave the family home and move in on their own in 2000; this figure reaches 41.9% when the age bracket is extended from 18 to 34.”

It is getting increasingly more difficult for young people to access housing. In issue n. 5 of OBJOVI (Spanish acronym for the Young Housing Observatory) of April 2004, at the end of 2003, the average annual salary of a young person was €12,493, having gone up 1.6% from the previous quarter, whereas the average price of housing on the free market had risen by 4.2%. As a result, the authors consider that this means that if a young person wanted to buy a 100 m² flat, he or she would have to earmark 18.5 years of salary, to be able to afford the €151,122 that such a housing unit is worth on the market. This explains why the emancipation rate (percentage of young people aged 18 to 34 who live outside the original or parental home) is only 36.6%. In fact, though this rate rises with age, it includes older age brackets, i.e. those between 30 and 34, among young people, 30.3% of whom continue to live with their parents because of the difficulties in finding affordable housing, to which is added unemployment (15% among young people) and/or job insecurity (only 31.6% of young people are employed under contract for an unspecified period).

Meanwhile, measures specifically intended to improve the access of young people to housing being considered in the National Housing Plan 2002-2005, are reduced to aid for acquiring social housing (bearing in mind that very little such housing is being built) and consist in an entry-level aid between 5% and 11% of the selling price, together with a subsidy for the loan, which ranges from 5% to 20% depending on the income. Another option is to forego the entry-level aid, and to increase the loan subsidy, which can range from 5% to 40%.

To these aids for low-income households, can be added a special aid of €3,000 for young people, over and on top of the other aids.

As regards rent, the only measures adopted up to the end of 2003, consisted in the signing of agreements by and between the Youth Institute (known by the Spanish acronym INJUVE) and the Autonomous Communities, to create youth rent exchanges, that act as intermediaries to obtain prices lower than those of the market, by concluding agreements with the owners.

In any event, such measures are scarce and punctual, and do not manage to do away with the problem, nor to reduce it in any appreciable and significant manner. It comes as no surprise, therefore, that in the midst of the electoral campaign in Catalonia, the Socialist candidate was promising direct rent aid to young people of up to €240. In this case, it was a subsidy of 50% for a specified period of up to three years, and for rents below a certain level. It would be tantamount to aid with an emancipation loan of up to €30,000 over 10 years.

1.2.1.2 *Migrants*

Among the measures most often demanded is that of being able to hire migrants who are already in Spain, including those without documents, instead of having to hire them from the country of origin, assuming the transport and return costs, or obliging those who are already residing in Spain, to have to go back to their country of origin and apply for a visa.

The annual report for 2004 of SOS Racism indicated that the level of respect of civil rights in 2003 was the lowest in the last nine years, i.e. since the time such reports have been published. Particularly serious is the situation of migrants and gypsies, the two most vulnerable groups, who instead of being provided with greater security, see their rights impaired with greater frequency (*El País*, 22 April 2004).

1.3 Homelessness

In 2004 was published the first report drawn up by a Spanish official statistical agency on the homeless. As a result of the work impelled by Eurostat, the National Statistical Institute (NSI, 2004) undertook the task of conducting a survey to gauge the network of centres that can provide assistance to the homeless in Spain. To this end, it was necessary to create a national directory of centres, as no such thing existed, except the records used in the research conducted by *Cáritas* a few years before (Cabrera 2000), to which were added data made available by the competent social service authorities.

The work published presents the results of a survey conducted by mail between November 2002 and March 2003, to which responded 555 centres of a total of 619 detected as a universe of reference, for a reply rate of 88% -- certainly a high figure for a survey of such characteristics.

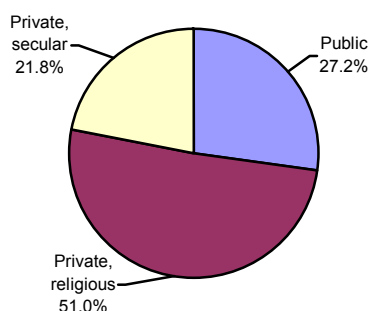
The most relevant conclusions are as follows:

Most of such centres (73%) are in cities with more than 50,000 inhabitants; with 41% being concentrated in cities with more than 100,000 inhabitants.

This is a private network for the most part, as the Public Administration accounts for approximately one fourth of the centres (27.2%). In turn, 70% of the private centres belong to religious institutions, so that denominational market continues to play a dominant role in many of the facilities used by the homeless in Spain.

Affiliation of the centres

(Own graph. Source: NSI: Survey of Centres for the Homeless 2004)



As substantiated in previous studies, the attention provided is centred in welfare assistance services and subsistence aids: most of the centres offer accommodation of one type or another (73.9%), board (69.7%) and clothing (43.8%), in addition to information and reception (79.6%), while services more geared to re-integration processes continue to be relatively scarce, and are offered only in a small percentage of the centres currently in Spain, such as employment workshops (offered in 22.5% of the centres) or workshops for reintegration in the world of work (15.3%), perhaps because these are more complete and more expensive services than the more traditional ones.

In general, centres with a more modern profile geared to (re)integration are found in large cities, and curiously enough, given the more stereotypical vision that tends to combine religiosity and “welfare work,” all these actions geared more to subsistence (workshops, training and artistic activities) are more present in private than public centres; the latter being more anchored in minimal assistance, as moreover they are in greater proportion to offer accommodation of very short duration (between one and five days).

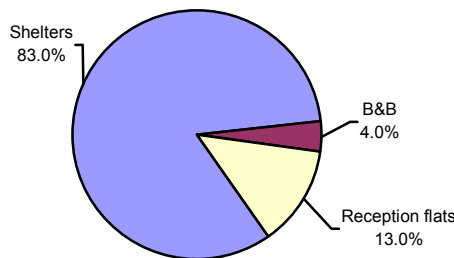
The stereotype that links homelessness with single men, continues to make these centres more difficult to access for women (80.9%) and for couples, which are admitted in less than half of the centres (only 48.1%).

Accommodation services

According to the NSI, there are 410 centres in Spain that offer one or another type of accommodation, with a total of 12,139 places in November 2003, found essentially in the cities (68.2% of all were in cities with more than 100,000 inhabitants). The overwhelming majority are shelters or institutions offering another type of collective accommodation (10,073 places), which perpetuates the asylum assistance model;¹ followed by those offered in reception flats (1,580), which presupposes a closer, more individualised approach; while the B&B model has not really taken root in our country; nearly 4% of the existing accommodation places for the homeless use this form in Spain.

Existing accommodation places for the homeless in Spain

(Own graph. Source: NSI Survey of Centres for the Homeless 2004)



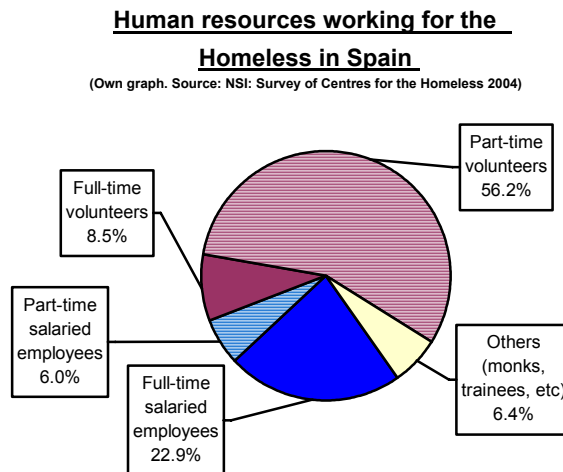
Board services

¹ Approximately half of these centres (46.4%) offer accommodations with 4 beds or more, where privacy is minimal.

Of the centres that replied to the NSI survey, 387 offer board services (77% of those offer accommodation too). They serve on average 38,000 daily meals, breakfast, lunch and/or dinner. In the case of canteens, the proportion of private centres is even higher than for the total (74.2%). Normally, these are canteens connected to religious congregations. Only three fourths are adapted to the prevailing eating times in Spain (breakfast between 7:30 and 10:00 AM; lunch between 1:00 and 3:30 PM; dinner between 7:30 and 10:30 PM), whereas a serious lack of adjustment prevails in the rest, which tends to increase the danger of social isolation and disconnection on the part of their clients from society in general.

Personnel

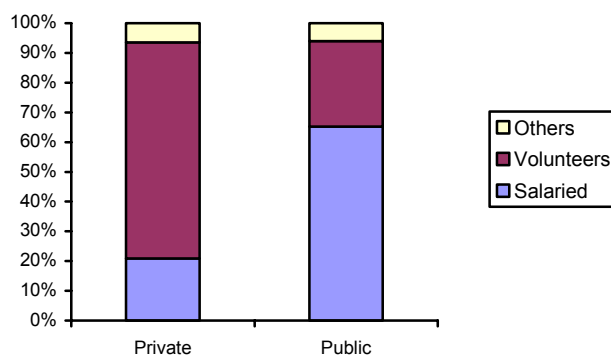
In all, 12,757 people in all work in the network providing services to the homeless in Spain, the overwhelming majority of which part-time (66.2%) and on a volunteer basis; only 28.9% of the people who work with the homeless are salaried employees.



Furthermore, most of the salaried employees are auxiliary staff, so that the technical personnel represent only 15% of the total. It is true, however, that auxiliary staff performing socio-educational duties often include university graduates who were forced to take a position below their academic qualifications owing to their difficulties in finding a job. In light of the foregoing, the sector is characterised by a scarcity in professionalism, which is far more pronounced however in the private centres, where the scarcity of resources and the greater capacity to mobilise solidarity between individuals mean that they rely more on volunteers than the network as a whole, with a sharp contrast between the human resources working in the private sector from those in the public sector, as can be gauged from the graph below.

Human resources according to title of the centre

(Own graph. Source: NSI: Survey on centres for the homeless 2004)



Financial resources

As to the financial resources managed by the centres, the total volume of expenditure for the homeless in Spain in 2002 amounted to €118.44 million.

In spite of representing only 27.2% of the total, they account for 40.3% of the expenditure of the resources, whereby the average expenditure per public centre is nearly double the expenditure in private centres. In part because the centres are larger, but also because they have to rely much more on salaried employees and higher levels of remuneration than those paid in the private centres.

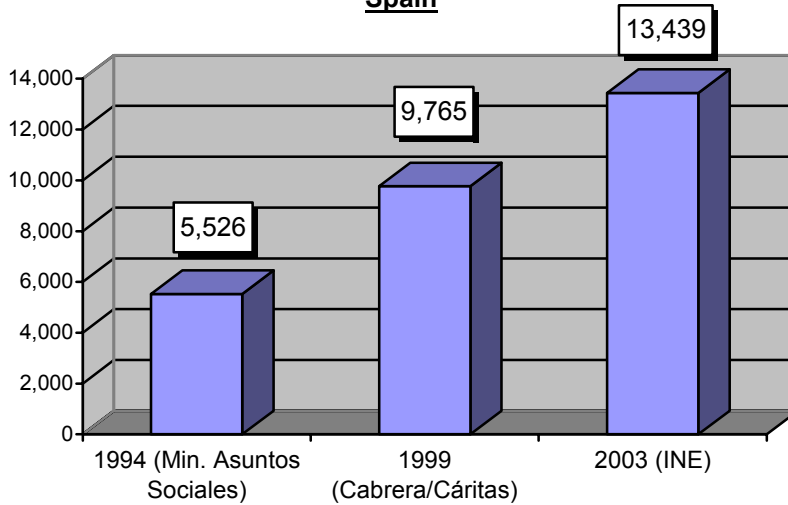
As has been demonstrated in previous studies, most of the financial effort carried out in the country comes from the public authorities, but contributions from private sources and the civil society are indispensable, though those from companies are particularly ridiculous and insignificant. Undoubtedly, because of the limitations that Spanish legislation has always placed on employers and in particular the lack of awareness raising among business leaders, the levels of involvement of the Spanish corporate sector in the fight against social exclusion are still extremely scarce.

Users of the network

Although the main objective of the NSI survey was not to estimate the number of homeless people in Spain, nor to analyse their socio-demographic composition, since a second phase of the survey is currently being prepared, geared not to the centres but to the homeless persons themselves, the study nonetheless contains certain figures on the number of homeless people in Spain, obtained from information provided by the centres. It is worth bearing in mind that the NSI estimate would not offer us a minimum number of homeless people, as we would be dealing with strict homelessness, i.e. homeless catered to as such by the centres and services intended for the homeless.

With due consideration of the non-reply effect, the NSI believes that there are probably 13,439 accommodation places, which is in line with the sizeable rise estimated in previous studies:

Number of accommodation places for the homeless in Spain



(Ministry
of Social Affairs)

Taking into account that the degree of occupation was approximately 80%, this figures enables us to calculate that there were about 11,000 people (10,791 according to the NSI) accommodated in the network on 5 November 2003.

If we adjust this figure upward to include also homeless persons who on a given day find themselves outside the accommodation network, applying a ratio that could range between 1:1 and 1:2, we would obtain a figure between 16,000 and 21,500 homeless people on a given day.

When this latter bracket is corrected from the estimate of the surplus of people served in the canteens (a part of whom undoubtedly do have a home), whereby we would add to those accommodated in shelters, the number of those sleeping rough, since the great majority of that group are not accommodated in shelters, but do use the canteens to eat, the NSI offers an average estimate of 17,600 homeless on the average day in 2002. This figure would be raised to **18,500 homeless people on 5 November 2003**, which is the date of reference adopted for the survey.

If we stick to the estimated annual total expenditure for 2003 (€118.44 million), and translate it in terms of daily expenditure of the network (€324,493), this would give us **€18** spent per day for each of these 17,600 homeless people in Spain on average on a given day to cater to all their needs, both their basic necessities (bed, food, clothing, shelter), and those pertaining to their integration and psycho-social recovery (education, therapy, vocational training, social advice and support, etc.). If this money can serve as an indicator to gauge the level of social protection and solidarity that a rich society like that of Spain allocates in the beginning of the third millennium for its most excluded citizens, the picture is frankly sad and lamentable.

1.4 Profile of the homeless population

The data pertaining to the socio-demographic profile are more or less similar to those of previous years. As in other years, in the absence of data compiled on a national scale, we have to keep to the local profile offered by the reports of the social services of some of the large urban centres to which we were able to gain access; beyond regional differences, all these yield certain common aspects which can be generalised at national level.

Starting with the capital, the report of the **Madrid** Town Council on services for the homeless is marred by serious shortcomings that prevent us from getting a general picture of the actual situation in the Spanish capital. As there is no unified inter-centre database, nor any homogeneous criteria for collecting information, each centre presents its own data. For instance, the “Centro de Acogida San Isidro” – largest centre run by the public authorities in Spain (266 beds)-, opted to present 100% occupation rates for 2003, and reached a total of 1,228 separate people, which suggests a 20% increase from the previous year. Taking into account that it was full at all times, this means that the average duration of stay was significantly reduced (95 days on average in 2002 and 79 days in 2003), which for some cases, undoubtedly meant a considerable deterioration in conditions. The only possible explanation is trying to cater for a growing demand that cannot be met because the centre is saturated, which in turns requires a higher turnover of clients in the municipal shelter. Males continue to represent approximately 69%, a figure conditioned by the fact that there is a fixed number of beds intended for women pre-established at 32% of all beds. Furthermore, migrants have registered a slight increase, going from 20.6% to 21.3%, which is insignificant, in view of the criterion applied at the shelter not to admit foreigners without accommodation, unless in addition to being homeless, they are suffering from serious sense of uprooting and psycho-social deterioration.

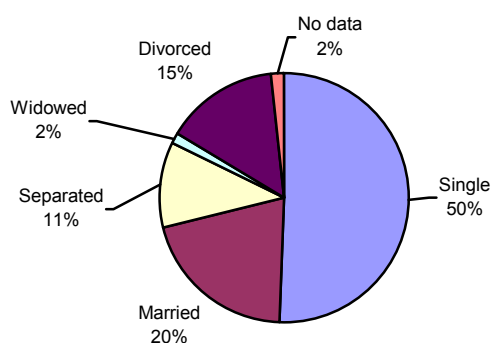
Many of these foreigners without accommodation in Madrid sleep in makeshift shelters throughout the year (train stations, airport, in parks, etc.) and appear statistically as clients of the accommodation resources only when they turn to shelters under the “campaign against the cold;” thus, the data of “Casa de Campo” pavilions, which have 87 beds: of a total of 1070 people accommodated, 720 were foreigners, the large majority of whom (688) non-EU nationals. This means that in this emergency shelter set up so that people will not die on the street from the cold, foreigners represent 67% of those accommodated in it, and non-EU nationals accounted for 64% of the clientele. Except for days when the temperature drops below zero, all these people are sleeping literally rough.

Taking into account the difficulty of integrating data from the different centres, since in certain cases we have doubts that the figures concerning people correspond to different persons and that there are no duplications, we can estimate that, whereas some 9,354 people were accommodated in all the centres, public and private, in Madrid, by applying the same data aggregation methodology, and taking account of the more than probable duplication of entries, the number of people accommodated in 2003 in the same centres

was 9,829, or a **5% increase** from the previous year. Women represent 11.1%, which denotes the scarce reception capacity of the network since, for example, in the Caritas centre where men and women are accommodated separately and there are no pre-assigned places according to sex, the percentage is as high as 21%, and if we stick only to people accommodated in concerted centres, then the number of women rises up to 26.9%, which clearly shows a serious bias owing to gender depending on the type of facility to which women are referred². In fact, if we rely on the data contained in the report of the “Asociación Realidades,” a service catering specifically to the homeless in Madrid, which operates such a day centre without gender barriers, the percentage of women in the overall number of professional actions carried out by this association in recent years is as high as 18%. We can therefore say that women most probably represent one fifth of the homeless in Madrid.

As no national data are available, other than the data of the municipal authorities, we can try to rely on the annual reports of private institutions. In the case of the FACIAM network, which comprises most of the shelters and day centres in Madrid, plus one run by the institutions of Asturias, the profile of the homeless people accommodated reveals a population with an average age of 40, most of whom are single (50%), or who are alone owing to divorce (15%), separation (11%) or widowhood (2%).

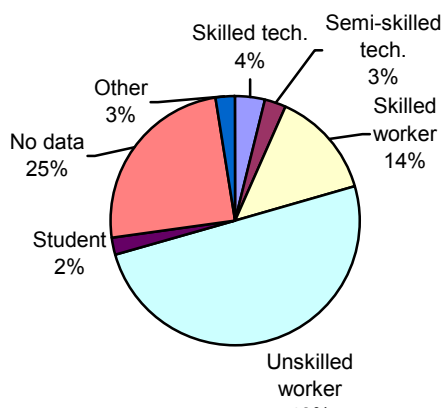
Civil status of homeless persons attended to in the FACIAM network (Report 2003)



As to what the report refers to as occupation, but which has more to do with gathering any reference to what the person has done on the employment front in terms of qualifications, the picture we get from the data (see graph) shows that the overwhelming majority are manual workers, most of whom are in turn unskilled.

² In general, they tend to be accommodated in those that appear to be more normalised and less institutionalised. .

"Occupation" of homeless persons attended to
in the FACIAM network (Memoria 2003)



The proportion of foreigners among the population catered for varies from 75% in some canteens in Madrid, to only 24% in one shelter. Naturally, this figure reflects the policy of admission of each centre; however for the FACIAM network on the whole, foreigners represent 46% of the homeless population, and 90% of all foreigners are non-EU nationals.

Whereas the data for Madrid are incomplete and have serious restrictions, those of **Barcelona** are less so. Furthermore, there is a unified database there, where the various services provide their own statistics, so that it is not possible to obtain information from them distinctly. The data made available by the Barcelona Town Council obtained from the Homeless Reception Network indicate some 200 places throughout the city, plus 60 more under the winter accommodation plan that is deployed for 87 days, and an additional 40 places during the 10 coldest days. If we accept that all those accommodated were separate persons, 1,873 people would have gone through the network, staying for a little over a month (32.6 days) on average, although the period of stay varies from those that propitiate rotation every month, and those that offer stays of up to four months.

The social work is organised according to the level of uprooting detected: "initial," "advanced" or "consolidated." Each of these possibilities is established from the sum of a number of indicators for 13 analysis dimensions. In spite of the enormous difficulties entailed by the strict application of this type of instruments for the initial assessment of social work, we think that we can identify certain points of interest for those working in the sector, which applied with flexibility can offer an initial guide for gauging the situations of the homeless; so we have translated it from Catalan and are presenting it here.

CONDITIONS AND CRITERIA FOR ACCESSING THE RESOURCES OF THE BARCELONA TOWN COUNCIL PROGRAMME FOR THE HOMELESS

DIMENSION	DEFINITION OF INDICATORS: CATEGORIES
1. HOUSING	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Does not have housing b. Alternates between homes of friends, family members, boarding houses and the street on occasion c. Alternates between boarding houses, shelters and the street intermittently d. Alternates between shelters and the street continuously
2. LEVELS OF FAMILY RELATIONS AND SOCIAL SUPPORT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. without nuclear family b. Maintains fragile family and social ties c. Broken previous family and social ties d. Without social and/or family recourse or ties
3. EMPLOYMENT SITUATION	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Participation in the legal labour market or underground economy in an unstable and/or sporadic manner b. Participation in marginal activities such as begging, collection of scrap and other c. Without occupation/Unemployed/Long-term unemployed d. With work habits/Loss of work habits/without work habits e. Skill possibilities/few skill possibilities or unemployability f. Looking for work / Not looking for work
4. ECONOMIC INCOME	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Irregular and/or insufficient income b. Irregular and/or insufficient income from social welfare funds c. Without income or precarious income and/or income from social welfare funds (minimum integration income/untaxed pensions and/or retiring allowances)
5. PRESENCE OF HEALTH IMPEDIMENTS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. The state of physical and mental health is good. b. The state of physical health is precarious: chronic disorders with back pain, migraine, cirrhosis of the liver, skin and respiratory ailments. In relation to mental health, depression and consumption of addictive substances. c. The state of physical health shows serious ailments and neurological degenerative diseases. In relation to the mental health, there are severe mental disturbances and a high consumption of addictive substances (chiefly alcohol).
6. ACCESSIBILITY TO COMMUNITY SERVICES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Apply for social welfare. Use the resources on occasion and accept and stick to social and health treatments. b. Apply for and accept social action, but have difficulties sticking to the social and health treatment. c. Do not apply and/or accept social welfare.
7. AUTONOMY FOR DAILY LIFE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Have personal, social and occupational capacities. Do not recognise the situation. With fear/stress and doubt about the future. Attitudes of mistrust. With motivation to get out of the situation on their own. b. Still maintain certain habits of personal care and hygiene. Not capable of going on their own and start to recognise the situation. Attitude of rebellion, protest and demand. With motivation, but frequent lapses. c. Have lost personal care and hygiene habits. Incapable of going on their own. Recognise the situation. State of anomia. Without motivation.
8. PERIOD OF LIVING IN THE STREET	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. 0-3 years. Adaptation to the street very fragile owing to ignorance of specific resources and no network in the street.

	<p>b. 3-5 years. Knows the resources and people in the same situation in the street. They use the specific social resources and know people in the same situation.</p> <p>c. > 5 years. Adaptation in the street. Know perfectly well the specific resources and have a sufficient network in the territory to facilitate life in the street. Introduces these to new people met in this situation.</p>
9. TERRITORIAL ATTACHMENT	<p>a. Wants to maintain administrative and/or emotional ties with the territory/district</p> <p>b. Persons with ties to the city, but with mobility for occupational reasons</p> <p>c. Administrative and/or emotional attachment with the territory is not decisive</p>
10. LEGAL SITUATION	<p>a. In legal situation</p> <p>b. In illegal situation</p> <p>c. Undocumented</p>
11. EMERGENCY/ VULNERABILITY SITUATIONS	<p>a. Homeless people over 65 years of age who accept being put in an old-age centre</p> <p>b. Homeless people with health and/or disorientation problems</p> <p>c. Homeless people with under-aged dependents</p>
12. SEX	<p>a. Male</p> <p>b. Female</p>
13. AGE AND FAMILY NUCLEUS	<p>a. > 18, without under-aged dependents</p> <p>b. > 18, with under-aged dependents</p>

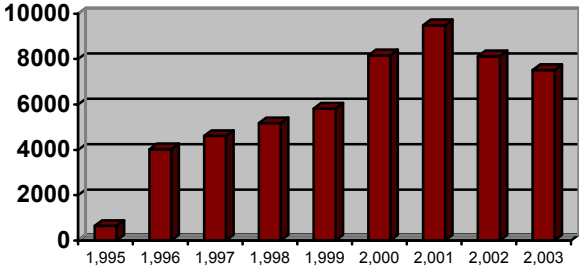
Finally, to be able to access resources available for the homeless, the Barcelona Town Council has set minimum requirements which undoubtedly screen the demand, and in removing the most strictly excluded population from the residential point of view, undoubtedly erect evident barriers to access, e.g. for undocumented aliens. These minimum requirements are:

MINIMUM REQUIREMENTS FOR ALL ACCOMMODATION RESOURCES	
1.	Be in the initial, advanced or consolidated phase of social uprooting
2.	Without address or without fixed address
3.	Be more than 18 years of age (or accompanied minors)
4.	Be in a regularised legal situation
5.	Without administrative and/or emotional attachment in the territory/district
6.	Without economic income, or without sufficient income to cover subsistence needs
7.	Without work or working sporadically
8.	Without family support or social network
9.	Who accept welfare action voluntarily

The data on the profile of Madrid and Barcelona have the disadvantage of reflecting strictly the outline that the institutions draw of the population that they are intended to serve, so that it is difficult to evaluate the importance of such elements as age, sex, etc. within the total homeless population. Especially with regard to the presence of women, the bias is particularly pronounced in religious shelters, since most of them are not mixed and accommodate only men. To try and remedy this situation, we must turn to the few places where a coordinated and integrated system exists that unifies and breaks down the data of all homeless people catered for in a city. This is the case of **Valencia**, which is the largest conurbation of those that have a coordinated welfare system for the homeless, which does not occur in either Barcelona or Madrid, the two Spanish cities with a larger population than Valencia. Based on the data contained in the report from the Centro de Atención a Personas Sin Techo³ (known by the Spanish acronym CAST), in Valencia, **women account for 23.3% of the homeless population**, which means that when integrated such systems do exist, the percentage of homeless women rises considerably, whereas if we stick to the data from shelters, this proportion drops down to 15%.

The volume of the homeless population attended to (see graph) has apparently dropped slightly in the last two years, which could be attributable not so much to a real decline in the number of homeless people, but to the fact that a certain level of saturation has been reached in the system, and the current trend of offering accommodation of longer duration so as to proceed with a more global action, which means a reduction in the total number of separate individuals accommodated throughout the year.

Number of homeless attended to in Valencia
(Source: CAST Report 2003)



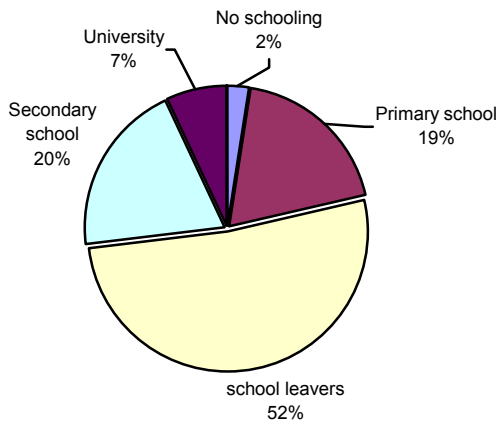
Homeless **foreigners** accommodated in Valencia account for **57.3%** of the total, the overwhelming majority of whom (93.8%) are non-EU nationals. The modal **age** bracket of the homeless is between 31 and 40, with an average age that can be estimated at **43**.

³ According to the last such report for 2003, the stated objective of CAST is to “attend to homeless people (persons who resort to begging, without official address, transients, drug addicts, etc.), by carrying out work to promote the social integration of those groups”, where it can be seen how a definition of a homeless person is much more centred on exclusion from accommodation than on the “nature” of the problems that led to it.

The **level of education** attained is not excessively bad, although those with a university education (7%) are in the minority (see graph).

Education level of the homeless in Valencia

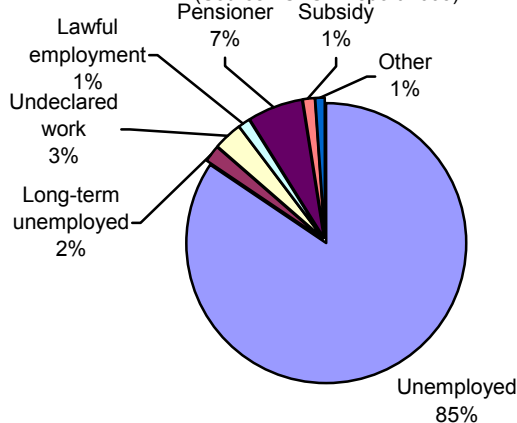
(Source: CAST Report 2003)



What is perhaps the most significant characteristic is the crushing unemployment at the time of coming into contact with the network working with the homeless in Valencia: 86.36%, including 1.96% unemployed for over two years. In the end, either as cause or as consequence of the other added problems, the fact of not having a job and economic resources, is the precipitating circumstance for winding up homeless. That said, we must not overlook the importance of 9% of those people who, in spite of having a regular job, receive a pension or some type of subsidy, nonetheless do not have income to afford an accommodation and turn to CAST or to begging to be able to subsist.

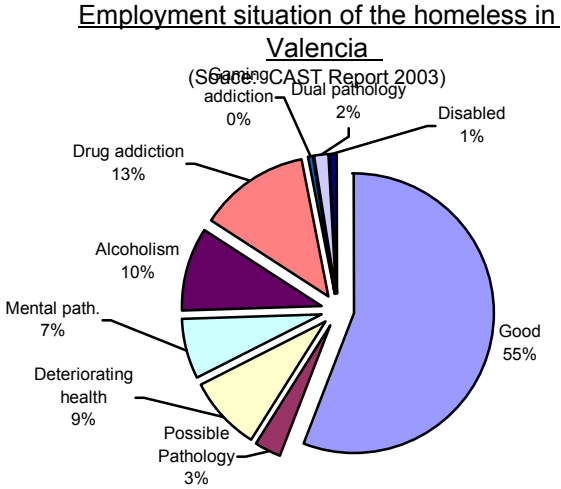
Employment situation of the homeless in Valencia

(Source: CAST Report 2003)



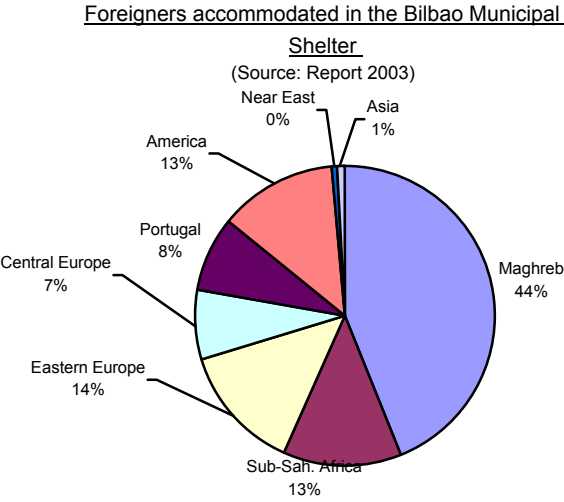
CAST uses a classification of the population that can help identify separate problems or main groups that comprise the homeless at the time they come into contact with the network working with the homeless.

For instance, the state of health of the homeless attended to is the most characteristic element, as reflected in graph below, where although most of the persons accommodated have an acceptable state of health, the incidence of serious problems is unquestionably very high, the most important of which are drug addiction, alcoholism and mental illness (in that order).



According to the data collected in Valencia, only 16.3% of the homeless resort to begging in the street, which indicates that the stereotype of one situation or another, is justified in only a small part of the cases, i.e. around one sixth.

In the north of the Country, we find that in **Bilbao**, the Municipal Shelter accommodated a total of 2,811 people, or 7.2% more than the previous year – in spite of the fact that the average period of stay was extended even more. Women account for 14.7% of the total number of people accommodated, with foreigners representing 53.63%, most of whom from the Maghreb, followed by Eastern Europeans, Latin Americans, and Sub-Saharan Africans.



The Bilbao Municipal Shelter report stresses the progressive increase of family groups that turn to emergency accommodation services, i.e. mothers with children in nearly all

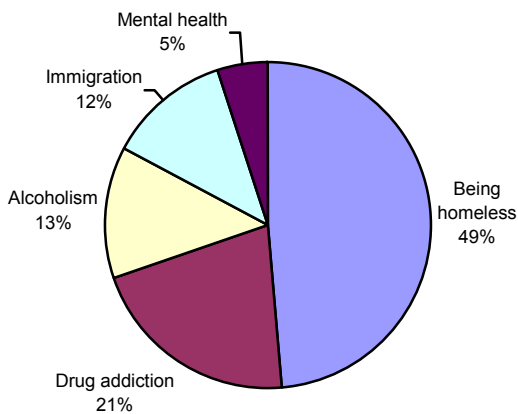
such cases, which makes it necessary to consider other types of resources so as to be able to meet this new demand that includes the presence of minors and thus requires specific services ranging from swaddling clothes to schooling.

In the case of Bilbao, we have the results of a coordinated and inter-institutional experiment conducted by the Inter-area Work Group (GRUPO 2004) which was entrusted with the task of drawing up a coordinated intervention proposal for the homeless in Bilbao. These results provide us with the following socio-demographic profile of the homeless:

- “20 % are women
- 38 % are under 35 years old
- 87 % live alone
- 20 % have someone they have to take care of
- 31 % come from a non-EU country, and most are experiencing the difficulties of the migratory process”
- 21% have been to prison
- 32% have serious problems with their physical health

If they had to chose a single problem as being the most important or dominant cause of homelessness, the answers of professionals working with the homeless are shown in the graph below:

Dominant problem of the homeless in Bilbao
according to the professionals (GRUPO, 2003)



Finally, as regards their relation with the world of work:

- “34 % have employment experience but are currently unemployed
- 21 % do not appear to have ever worked
- 3.5 % are disabled or on benefit
- The remaining 40 % fluctuates between precarious and illicit work”

Another novel and peculiar element of the Municipality of Bilbao has to do with the fact that this year, 100 emergency places in a pelota court were made available during the cold

campaign, to try and provide shelter for persons who are more reticent about accepting accommodation in other centres, who in many cases opted to spend the night sleeping rough under the arcades of the Plaza Nueva (*El País*, 1 March 2004). Beyond the local peculiarity which entails using a pelota court, as well as other provisional emergency resources to remedy the situation during the coldest months, the objectives pursued are much broader, as can be gauged from the report, i.e. to:

- 1st* “Offer homeless persons accommodation conditions that can reduce the impact of adverse weather conditions on the health of those people.
- 2nd* Facilitate contacts with social welfare professionals (social workers and educators) so as to offer such services as information, development, assessment and access to existing resources with a view to satisfying the basic necessities and to promote processes for re-integration in society.
- 3rd* Reduce or cancel the negative impact that persons sleeping rough have on the community in the Casco Viejo area, with regard to the public hygiene and image.”

These types of emergency measures are relatively common. For example, in Madrid, last winter the Metro tunnel that used to open when temperature at night fell below zero, was closed, as it was one of the measures that combined the least dignified conditions for the homeless in Spain, for these people only had a floor to sleep on and a reduced space of 80 m² to accommodate up to 200 people. It was replaced by an emergency shelter with 130 mattresses and some basic services in an area more removed from the centre of the capital, so that its opening was accompanied by a bus service that the clients of the shelter could use free of charge. In **San Sebastián** is operated what is known as the “cold flat” which last winter offered 20 beds in a facility located in an old factory, where on nights with the coldest temperature, accommodation was offered to those in need. Unlike other years when means of transport offered by the Red Cross had to be used, the central, accessible location resulted in full (100%) occupancy (*Deia*, 14 March 2004).

In the third Basque capital, **Vitoria**, The Social Welfare Department of the Town Council, in addition to a reduced version on paper, published an excellent report on CD-ROM, which contained detailed data on its actions that provide an exhaustive picture of its work with the homeless. Even though due account must be taken of the fact that whereas all the centres working with the homeless fall under the Social Integration Department, it is also true that they are grouped under different programmes depending on the “group” for which they are intended, such as women who are victims of gender violence, or migrants, for instance.

Overall, foreign nationals, who at this time make up 4.81% of population of Vitoria, account for 26.6% of the persons accommodated by the municipal social welfare services, the majority of whom from Africa and South America; finally, the percentage of foreign nationals rises up to 50% of the people accommodated by the municipal social emergency service, a centre that operates round the clock and deals with the most dramatic and urgent situations, which would bring us closer to its weight among the homeless population. It is true that social services for migrants in Vitoria are particularly well

planned, with a local plan and a centre of reference (Norabide), from which are coordinated the actions of the public and private services for migrants, which could explain this important incorporation of foreigners in the social services. These include a programme of accommodation and cohabitation “to provide an alternative to **accommodation and cohabitation** with families (preferably) or persons of foreign origin who find themselves in an emergency social situation” in agreement with the Association of Afro-American Residents, as well as with an accommodation programme in social housing. A total of 645 people, including 13 families, went through the two programmes in 2003, which shows how the existence of homeless families in Spain are brought to light through the migrants. Rumanian gypsy families should be mentioned separately, as owing to their itinerant ways, they are approached with a special programme intended to facilitate their settling and integration into society. This programme has catered for 83 families (191 persons of which 36 (92 persons) are currently residing autonomously and independently in traditional housing), after having initiated the programme in a plot of land turned into a provisional camp.

The way things have been unfolding in Spain, none of these people will be included in the figures on homeless people, unless entered under the “migrant” programme, although the fact of the matter is that their situation reflects the absence of a stable place in which to reside. The same applies to women who are victims of gender violence, for which there is an extensive programme that last year accommodated 19 women and their children.

Among the resources and programmes for specific groups, we must look in the one for “marginal, homeless people” for the main data relative to work with the homeless (this programme includes flats intended to offer support and facilities for the re-integration into society of men and women coming out of prison, which is curious since it is one of the few places where the social services expressly assume the homeless condition of these former detainees). The street programme worked with 108 people (20% women), the overwhelming majority of which (5%), unlike in large cities like Madrid and Barcelona, were Spanish nationals.

The municipal shelter (known as the “Centro municipal de acogida social”) which operates round the clock and offers 69 accommodation places, accommodated 3,115 people (although it is not easy to verify whether these were separate individuals or the same ones at different times during the year). It is one of the few municipal shelters which can accommodate family groups, including minors under 18, provided they are accompanied by their parents. The period of stay is very short (four nights maximum), so that they have to turn to other resources for longer periods of accommodation: “Casa abierta” [Open House], in agreement with the Anti-AIDS Citizens’ Committee (a very active organisation in Vitoria), social housing etc. Unfortunately, because the databases of users that avail themselves of the entire network of resources are not integrated, it is not possible to find out the number of homeless people, whether for a given day, or throughout the year, who have used the services for the homeless.

In **Zaragoza**, one of the larger institutions of those working with the homeless in Spain, *la Santa y Real Hermandad del Nuestra Señora del Refugio y Piedad*, better known as the “Hermandad del Refugio,” [Brotherhood of Refuge], accommodated 1,421 people under its “transients” programme, 46% of whom were foreign nationals, predominantly:

Moroccans, Rumanians, Algerians and Portuguese. Whereas among Spanish “transient” nationals, women represented 10% of the total, among foreigners they accounted for 20%. And whereas there were serious problems among Spanish nationals with alcoholism (39%), mental illness (12%) and drug addiction (11%), the main obstacle among foreign nationals was the lack of residence and work permit (45%).

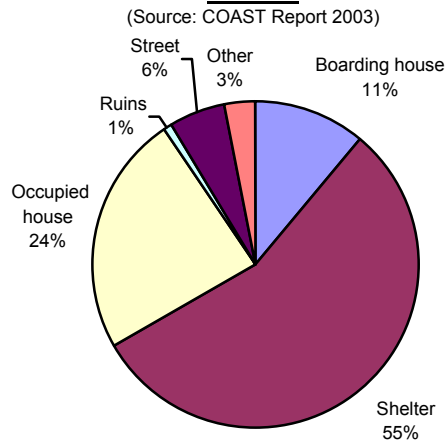
If we go down to the South, we find that in **Granada**, 1,639 people were accommodated in 2003, which for a city of 237,663 inhabitants at the beginning of 2003, means 6.89 per thousand. The average age is a little younger than those in other cities: 36.7. Women accounted for 12.4%, whereas the proportion of migrants was 34%.

The report of the Centre that coordinates work with the homeless in Granada (COAST) draws attention to the high percentage of individuals (19.11%) “who have been living in the street for more than three years, including a large number of migrants who come to Spain in search of employment and have wound up as the new ‘homeless’ of this country;” adding further on: “Year after year, the number of migrants accommodated by resources earmarked for persons with radical exclusion problems is increasing. Year after year, the number of migrants with problems specific to people living in the street is increasing: mental disturbance, addiction, low self-esteem, disruptive behaviour, etc.” In fact, Spanish nationals account for less than half of the persons accommodated in Granada: 46.7%, whilst migrants account for 53.3%, and only migrants, i.e. non-EU foreign nationals, account for 46.7% of the homeless, i.e. equal the number of Spaniards. It is important to point out that nearly three fourths of these migrants are undocumented.

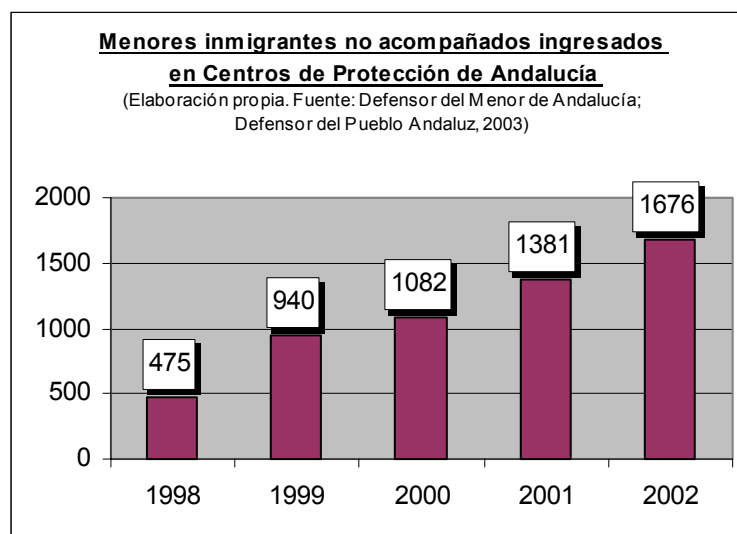
As in other places, unemployment is the main cause of social exclusion, followed by far by alcohol and drug addiction (15%) and by mental illness, of whom 3% with serious mental illness – the group for which the most serious difficulties are encountered in coordinating work with the mental health services, and getting the specific attention they need.

This report includes statistics on the official residence in which they spend the night, in which is evaluated, together with the majority option of homes, shelters, etc., the occupancy rate of empty homes (24%), and boarding houses (11%), while only 6% of the homeless are literally without a roof over their head and live directly in the street.

Accommodation used for the homeless in Granada



Finally, a brief reference to a partial but telling aspect of the most recent changes in the profile of the homeless. In the case of Andalusia, we can turn to work that can help us obtain some reliable information on the emerging phenomenon which has been monitored with growing concern in recent years, i.e. that of **minors**, usually of foreign origin, living in the street. The Minor's Advocate of Andalusia together with the Andalusian People's Advocate recently made public a report on unaccompanied migrant minors in Andalusia. In spite of the difficulties of not having a unified register, which leads to duplications as the same person can be catered for in different centres and/or have given a different name, the general data that point to this new form of homeless exclusion, leave no room for doubt as to its rapid growth (see graph). Some 97% of these are men, although a slight increase in the number of women seems perceptible. There is also a nearly absolute predominance of Moroccans (90.2% in 2002), followed, by a long distance, by the Rumanians, although the latter are not always unaccompanied minors, but minors taken from their families by the social services.



Data obtained from interviews with the children themselves indicate that nearly half travel in secret under a lorry, and nearly 20% by boat. Approximately 90% travel without

any documentation, which is standard practice so as to make it difficult to send them back. At present, the situation is somewhat more under control, and the system has overcome the phase in which it was completely overwhelmed, which commenced in the mid 1990s, when owing in part to the amnesty proclaimed when Mohamed VI came to the throne, “a sizeable number of minors with criminal backgrounds and serious behavioural problems reached the Andalusian coast, whose presence in the Andalusian social welfare centres led to an unusual increase in the level of conflicts, producing repeated complaints for assault against other minors or the attending staff, and continued flights which led to an alarming social situation and a generalised recoil on the part of the Spanish population in regard to a group identified with delinquency and marginalisation” (Minor’s Advocate of Andalusia; Andalusian People’s Advocate, 2003: 525). The overwhelming majority of this group consists of minors who have never gone to school, who have worked since a very tender age in unskilled manual tasks, and who aspire to work in manual professions in Spain, the most desired of which is that of mechanic.

Nearly one third of the minors interviewed had lived in the street for some time before being taken in the centres, as attested by the case of one who stated that he had lived in the street for six years in his own country. Although the majority had lived with their family, in 36% of the cases, it was their own families that had encouraged them to emigrate, in particular because they already had family members (uncles, cousins and brothers) in Spain (41%) or in other European countries (27%). In spite of all the difficulties encountered, 98% now think that their decision to emigrate has been justified, in particular because most of them believe that their situation will improve in the future (91%), so that they plan to stay in Spain and return periodically to their country for visits.