



## Thematic report 4

### Gender, ethnic group and migrant dimensions of youth homelessness

*July 2010*

***This report is one of the deliverables of the CSEYHP project: Combating social exclusion among young homeless populations: a comparative investigation of homeless paths among local white, local ethnic groups and migrant young men and women, and appropriate reinsertion methods. The project is funded by the European Union Seventh Framework Programme under the Socio-economic Sciences and Humanities theme.***

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This is one of the reports in a series produced by the Combating Social Exclusion of Young Homeless Populations (CSEYHP) project. There are four thematic reports:

- Trajectories into homelessness and reinsertion points
- Social exclusion and homelessness in Northern, Southern and Central Europe
- Capability and resilience among homeless youth
- Gender, ethnic group and migrant dimensions of homelessness

The four reports are complementary and it is recommended to read the full set.

Other CSEYHP publications include:

- Four national reports on the situation regarding homeless youth in Czech Republic, Netherlands, Portugal and United Kingdom
- A comparative Report on Youth Homelessness and Social Exclusion in the Czech Republic, the Netherlands, Portugal and the UK
- Methodology Annex on Working with Co-researchers
- Methodology Annex on Life Trajectory Interviews

All of these publications can be downloaded from the project website at [www.movisie.nl/homelessyouth](http://www.movisie.nl/homelessyouth)

**Contents**

- 1. Young homeless people at risk in European Countries** 4
  - 1.1 The CSEYHP study in CZ, NL, PT and the UK 5
  - 1.2 The four country samples in context: welfare regimes and young people at risk 13

NB: This introduction is common to all four thematic reports.
  
- 2. Gender** 15
  - 2.1 Important gender issues from the national reports 15
  - 2.2. Gender patterns in the CSEYHP sample 21
  
- 3. Ethnicity** 29
  - 3.1 Overview of ethnic composition in the four countries 30
  - 3.2 Ethnicity related to homelessness in national reports 35
  - 3.3. Ethnicity differences: the CSEYHP sample 41
  
- 4. Conclusions and recommendations** 46
  
- References** 49

## **1. Young homeless people at risk in European countries**

The 27<sup>th</sup> November 2009 resolution of the Council of the European Union proposed a new framework for European cooperation in the field of youth beginning this year, 2010, and continuing until 2018. The framework includes: mainstreaming youth issues into other policies, reaffirming the European Youth Pact (March 2005 European Council) and its role in promoting the Lisbon objectives for jobs and growth, and supporting the Renewed Social Agenda which targets youth and children as a main priority. Much of its evidence derives from the EU Youth Report 2009 <sup>1</sup> and Member States through the successful use of the open method of co-ordination. The two primary objectives of the resolution are to:

- '(i) create more and equal opportunities for all young people in education and in the labour market, and to
- (ii) promote the active citizenship, social inclusion and solidarity of all young people.' (p3).

Whilst the resolution respects Member States' responsibility for youth and the voluntary nature of co-operation in the youth field, to achieve these two primary objectives requires a dual approach of both specific and mainstreaming initiatives. Both the specific initiatives – including non-formal learning participation, voluntary activities and youth work – and the mainstreaming initiatives in education and training, employment, health and culture, are of particular importance to young people interviewed for the CSEYHP research project. The four thematic reports address the challenges of these objectives in the context of a study of homeless young people who have had fewer opportunities than other young people. These reports on the situation of young people experiencing homelessness in the Czech Republic, Netherlands, Portugal and UK form part of the evidence base for co-operation in the youth field.

The thematic reports are presented in the context of previous research into young people's transition to independent adulthood in Europe. The UP2YOUTH project (Youth – Actor of Social Change, funded under the Framework 6<sup>th</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Referenced as 9008/9 ADD

Research Programme, [www.up2youth.org](http://www.up2youth.org)) brought together the findings of European research in the field of youth and reported on the difficulties facing young Europeans seeking to achieve the three traditional markers of transitions from youth to adulthood through success in the labour market, in family formation and active citizenship. The most recent European Youth Report of 2009 reports on the comparative situation of youth in member states based on data from European surveys and also reports previously funded European research projects.

Young people without family support – young people who have been in the care of government authorities and those who rely on formal and informal support structures outside the family setting – face even more difficulties in making these transitions. Questions to be asked include: Is their education level sufficient? Do they have training for work opportunities? How will they find and maintain low cost housing? Two current European Commission Framework 7 research projects are aiming to research and to address some of these issues: the YIPPEE project on young people leaving care and the CSEYHP project on young people who are homeless. The CSEYHP project has collected information on early life experiences, family and other support systems, experience of education, homelessness and work, and life aspirations and achievements and will test both early intervention methods and case work methods in its 3<sup>rd</sup> Phase.

### **1.1 The CSEYHP study in CZ, NL, PT and the UK**

*Phase I:* In the first phase of the CSEYHP project each team reported on the particular issues facing homeless youth in their country through a review of secondary literature and interviews with agency workers in the field of youth homelessness. Average European youth unemployment (15-24yrs) was 15.4% in 2008 but the Netherlands had the lowest rate of youth unemployment at 6%, then CZ at 11%, UK at 14%, and PT at 17% (EYP 2009). UK and NL have higher rates of people not born in the country (10.6%, OECD) and the UK has the highest rate of teenage pregnancy.

Each of the four countries has protective legislation for children and young people; in PT the core legislation was passed in 1911, in the UK in 1989, in CZ in 1991, and in NL new legislation has been passed recently to enable the Ministry for Youth and Families to support families through family and youth centres

(CJG). PT, NL and UK in particular have attempted to counter the risk of young people falling out of education. Both NL and UK have targeted pre-school children as well as school-age children in order to reduce educational disadvantage whilst in PT education support has concentrated on children aged 6-18. In CZ, high rates of educational engagement has led to policies that provide financial support for the poorest rather than general educational intervention.

Of the four countries the UK has the lowest age of criminal responsibility (England and Wales, 10 years of age) and imprisons more young people; CZ also has a punitive approach. Both NL and PT take a less punitive approach to young offenders; NL has developed early intervention programmes whilst PT has a small youth prison population.

Each country team also interviewed key workers and agency managers. Their understandings of the issues facing homeless youth in touch with or supported by their agencies are reported in the Comparative Report, Section 1.5. In CZ key workers reported that unemployment amongst their clients was not the most problematic issue (in 2009); the issues of most importance are the quality of the employment they achieve, their ability to maintain their employment and their lack of qualifications. The lower salaries that the young people receive because they are in poor quality employment leads them to a housing crisis; they cannot afford adequate housing in Prague and are living in squats, poor quality hostels and other types of temporary accommodation.

Dutch key workers reported a major problem of insertion into adult life for young people in the Netherlands because of the break in social support that occurs at 18 years of age; leading young people to be seen as entirely responsible for their own situation in a country where the labour market has demanded greater levels of qualifications and more young people are living at home. Young people aged 19-24 years frequently move to or within the city.

Of the four countries Portugal has the lowest proportion of young people with secondary qualifications and the highest proportion of young people leaving school early, particularly young men. A large majority (80-90%) live with their parents and 18% of young people aged 20-24 years are supported by their families. Key workers in PT are particularly concerned by the situation of youth

living in social housing areas in which half the people are aged under 30 years, with few years of schooling, and many having been reported for youth crimes. Many of these young people have limited institutional connections having dropped out of school very early.

The UK presents a divided picture. The proportion of young people who complete secondary education is similar to NL (80%) but the proportion of young people who are not in employment, education or training (NEET) is the highest in this study. An important concern for key workers is the proportion of young people growing up in workless households (the highest proportion in Europe). Polarisation of opportunities is marked in all areas of life for young people in the UK. Those who can live at home stay at home for longer and longer periods but those who cannot must either find affordable housing in the private rental market or move into homeless hostels. The age at which young women have children has risen but the proportion of disadvantaged young women having children is the highest in Europe.

One manager of a supported housing project in the Medway towns (Thames Gateway, a predominantly UK born white ethnic area) identified a problem of motivating and engaging young people from family backgrounds in which no adult works and who live in areas of predominantly social housing among other workless households. But managers of Birmingham supported accommodation identified the same problem with black ethnic youth born in the UK. Key workers in the UK were more likely to identify young people not born in the UK as being more motivated to do well.

The other issue identified by key workers in the UK is the increasing number of young people coming into homeless hostels with a criminal conviction. Anti-social behaviour orders have been used to control the behaviour of people in communities, predominantly young people; these are civil court actions but if the young person breaches them they are taken through the criminal court. In CZ and the UK young people with criminal convictions are disadvantaged in finding employment.

*Phase 2:* The CSEYHP second phase included interviews with 54 young homeless people in each country undertaken by trained co-researchers who were themselves homeless or ex-homeless youth. As far as possible each country

sample was to include 18 young people from the dominant ethnic group of that country, 18 from minority ethnic groups, and 18 migrants including refugees – each quota should include equal numbers of young women and young men. Only the Portuguese sample achieved this precise breakdown (18,18,18). The Dutch sample interviewed more young people from the ethnic dominant and migrant groups, and slightly fewer from the ethnic minority group. The UK sample interviewed more young people from the ethnic minority group and slightly less from the ethnic dominant and migrant groups. The Czech sample – because of the particular circumstances of CZ- was predominantly composed of ethnic dominant youth.

**Figure 1.1. Structure of the Sample**

Sample Quota	UK	PT	CZ	NL	Total
Born in country/ethnic dominant	17	18	44	20	99
	(8F/9M)	(9F/9M)	(14F/30M)	(8F/12M)	(39F/60M)
	7,9%	8,3%	20,4%	9,3%	45,8%
Born in country/ethnic minority	21	18	3	15	57
	(12F/9M)	(9F/9M)	(0F/3M)	(7F/8M)	(28F/29M)
	9,7%	8,3%	1,4%	6,9%	26,4%
Immigrant	16	18	7	19	60
	(7F/8M)	(9F/9M)	(1F/6M)	(8F/11M)	(25F/35M)
	7,4%	8,3%	3,2%	8,8%	27,8%
<b>Total</b>	<b>54 (25%) (27F/27M)</b>	<b>54 (25%) (27F/27M)</b>	<b>54 (25%) (15F/39M)</b>	<b>54 (25%) (23F/31M)</b>	<b>216 (100%) (92F/124M)</b>

Note: F - Female; M - Male

*Age and gender:* The UK and PT samples have equal numbers of young women and men, the CZ sample includes 15 young women and 39 young men and the NL sample includes 23 young women and 31 young men. Therefore the total survey population comprises 92 young women and 124 young men. A third of the sample are aged under 20 years, and two thirds 20 years and above, but 61% of the UK sample are aged under 20 years, a third of NL and PT (35% and

30%) and 7% of the CZ sample. Women are younger than men; 46% of women are aged under 20 years compared with 24% of men.

*Ethnic minorities:* Ethnic minority youth in three of our samples reflect the colonial pasts of those countries. Ethnic minority youth born in NL include those with Surinamese heritage (7 young people out of 15), in PT those with Cape Verdean heritage (4), and in the UK young people with Caribbean (11) African (2) or Asian heritage (2). Many young people in the NL, PT and UK samples are of mixed heritage either having one parent from the dominant ethnic group or from another ethnic minority group; in the UK the majority of the ethnic minority group (12 of the 21) are of mixed heritage. In PT and CZ the ethnic minority sample include young Roma: 8 in PT and 3 in CR.

*Not born in the country:* In CZ the large majority of young people (47) are born in that country: others are from Slovakia or Moravia. In the other three samples there is a variety of countries of origin among young people not born in that country. The Netherlands sample has the greatest range of birth countries including: other European (3), Turkey (2), North Africa (2), Horn of Africa (2), South America (2), other Africa (3), Indian Sub-Continent (2), and Suriname (1). In Portugal other birth countries include: other European (1), the PALOP countries of Africa (Angola, Cape Verde, Guinea Bissau, Sao Tome - 13), South America (Brazil - 2), and 1 from Congo and 1 from Afghanistan. In the UK sample other birth countries include: the Horn of Africa (Eritrea, Ethiopia, Somalia - 9), Africa (4, including one from Guinea Bissau via Portugal therefore a European migrant), St Lucia (2), and other European countries (1).

Most young people from other countries arrived through channels outside the asylum process. In UK 6 of 16 young people reported they had come as asylum seekers; in the Netherlands 8 out of 19, and in Portugal 3 out of 18. In the UK the majority arrived through family reunification.

*Religion:* The majority of young people in our sample report having a particular or a general faith (57% vs 43% none); 38% of the sample reported being Christian, Catholic or a member of an Evangelical Christian church, 8% are Muslim whilst 9% report a general belief in a God. In the CZ sample a majority of young people (55%) report no faith compared with 43% in the UK and NL samples and 32% in the PT sample. This is partly associated with different

number of migrants born outside Europe in the four samples. In the UK a majority of both the ethnic dominant and ethnic minority groups report having no faith (58%, 59%) whilst 100% of those born outside Europe report having a faith, and this samples includes 5 Pentecostal migrants persecuted in Ethiopia for their faith. In the NL a majority of ethnic dominant youth report having no faith (80%) but not the ethnic minority group (13% none) nor the migrant group (23% none). These differences are important when we consider the structures of support that can promote resilience.

*Current accommodation situation:* Another major difference between the four samples is the degree to which young homeless people were drawn from those currently living in the street or emergency accommodation or those living in long term accommodation. Within the CSEYHP project we are dealing with homeless youth and youth at risk of homelessness. Due to the lack of social provision specialised with young homeless (PT, CZ), the situations of homelessness are, in some cases, broader in terms of the roofless and houseless FEANTSA ETHOS categories. Young people were included for interviews if they were living in one of the following conditions: *without proper and/or legal housing, sleeping rough or sleeping with friends, in hostels or other accommodation intended for less than one year; depending on support services; living in care or move on support; social council tenant having experienced family homelessness (inadequate housing) followed by re-housing (PT).*

The sample of young homeless people recruited in CZ was drawn from young people either living in unfit accommodation such as squats or on the streets (88%) compared with 11% in NL (6 young people living on the streets), 9% in PT (6 young people living in shanty accommodation), 7% UK (4 young people living on the streets). By comparison the sample of young people recruited in the UK was drawn from young people living in long-term supported accommodation (foyers, hostels; 72%), compared with 17% in NL and PT and 0% living in that type of accommodation in CZ. These two samples demonstrate the extreme differences in provision in these two countries – almost no recognition of youth homelessness and provision for young homeless people in CZ and a recognition of the risks of youth homelessness and supported accommodation provision specifically for youth developed over 40 years (particularly in the last 25 years)

in the UK. Of the remaining UK young people, 20% were living in accommodation rented from a social landlord (municipal or housing association).

The two samples from NL and PT are more mixed but equally different. The NL sample includes young people who were living in short term accommodation (less than three months, 37% NL), long term supported accommodation (17%), rented from private landlord (9%), refuge (7%), living with partner (6%), social landlord (4%) and others. The PT sample includes young people who were living with parents in owner occupied accommodation (11%), social housing (19%), private rented (19%), long term facilities (17%), squats/shanty accommodation (9%), and living with a partner (7%).

**Figure 1.2. Previous Accommodation Arrangements**

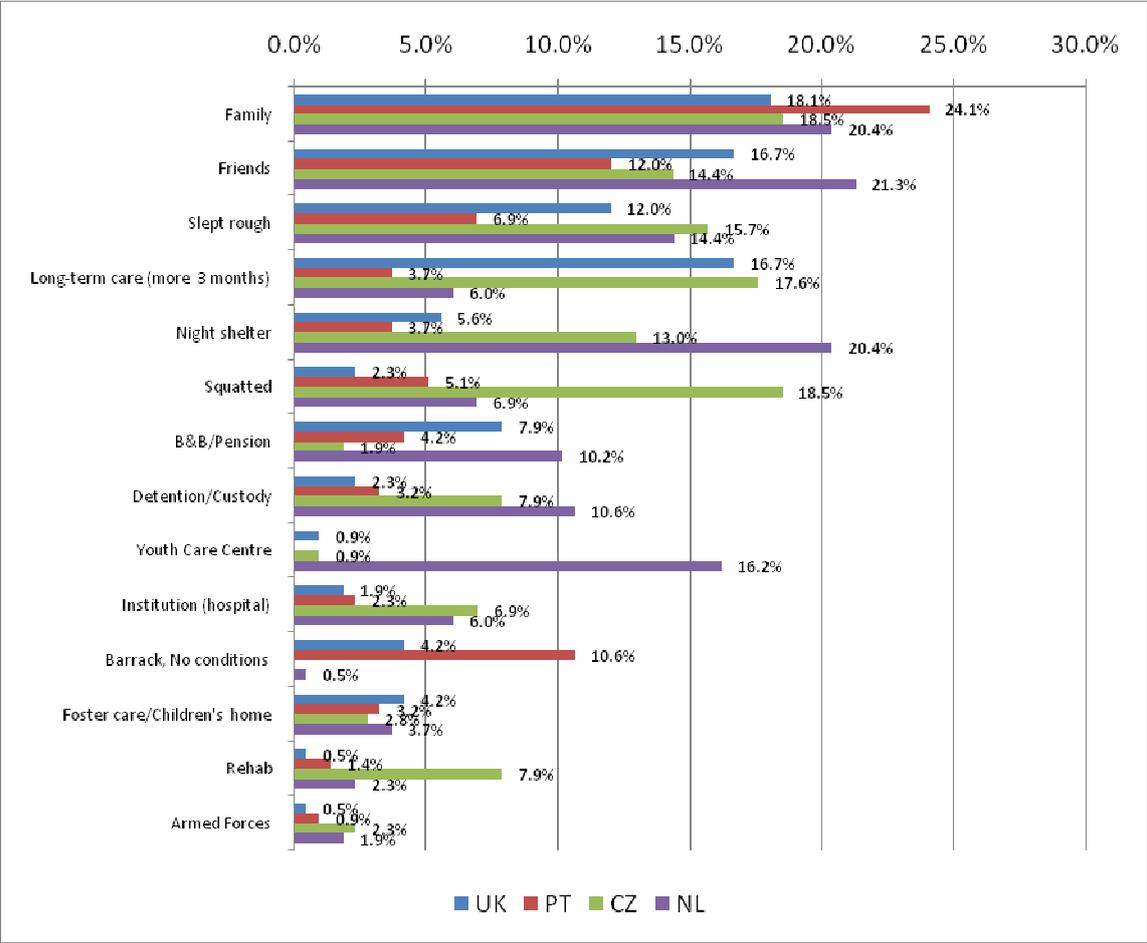


Figure 1.2 reports on all the different circumstances that our 216 young people have lived in after they left their last permanent home. Some had spent time living with family members, particularly in PT (24%) and NL (20%), whilst others had lived with friends (between 17%-21% in each country). Rough sleeping

squatting, as well as rehab are more common among the CZ interviewees (respectively 15,7%, 18,5%, 7,9% in CZ). Detention and custody have a higher presence in CZ (7,9%) and NL (10,6%). PT has a higher proportion of young people who lived in inadequate housing (houses without minimum comfort conditions, unfit for habitation) (10,6%).

*Current domestic situation:* Less than half of the PT sample reported they were single (44%) compared with 56% NL, 61% UK and 72% CZ. In total 50 young people identified they were parents, and 4 young women were pregnant and 5 young men reported that a partner was pregnant.

**Table 1.3: Age, partnership status, parenting status in percentages**

	Country sample				Gender	
	UK	PT	CR	NL	Female	Male
<b>Age</b>						
16-19 years, 33%	61	30	7	35	46	24
20 yrs & above, 67%	39	70	93	65	54	76
<b>Partnered</b>						
Single	61	44	72	56	46	68
Partnered	39	56	28	44	54	32
<b>Has child</b>						
No child, 72%	82	48	71	87	58	82
Yes, living with, 14%	6 (3 cases)	39	4 (2 cases)	7	28	3 (4 cases)
Yes, not living with, 10%	6 (3 cases)	7 (4 cases)	23	4 (2 cases)	9	11
Pregnant, 2%	4 (2 cases)	2 (1 case)	0	2 (1 case)	5 (4 cases)	0
Partner pregnant, 2%	4 (2 cases)	4 (2 cases)	2 (1 case)	0	0	4 (5 cases)
<b>Total cases – Has Child</b>	51	54	52	54	89	122
<b>Missing cases</b>	3	-	2	-	3	2

In all therefore 28% of the total sample reported they were a parent or about to become a parent, a similar result to a study of young homeless people in Birmingham, UK (Smith, 2000). But the pattern was very different across the country samples. Of the 29 young people who report that their child was living with them, 21 are in the PT sample; of the 21 who report that their child was not living with them, 12 were from the CZ sample. This pattern follows differences in levels of family support reported by the four country samples (see Thematic Report 3, Capability and Resilience), but also gender differences as just over a quarter of young women were living with their children but only 4 young men.

## **1.2 The four country samples in context: welfare regimes and young people at risk**

The sample of young homeless people in each country was not intended to be representative but to reflect the range of young people across Europe who are homeless or at risk of homelessness. Quotas allowed us to ensure that, within a limited sample size, more young people born outside of the host country could be included. Including the full range of young homeless people allows us to reflect life trajectories of homeless youth, on processes of social exclusion, capability and resilience , and gender and ethnic differences across country samples but also between young men and young women, and young people from different ethnic and migrant backgrounds.

However, from this brief introduction it is apparent that the contexts in which young people become homeless are quite particular to each country. In 2008, the Up2Youth project compared the structure of welfare policies, education and training systems, labour markets, youth unemployment policies, gender relations and representations of youth across the EU27 countries. They argued that attaining adulthood has become more problematic, as has the timing with which it is attained. Many young people experience a reversible transition to adulthood, in which they may return to the parental home and become dependent once more; the current life courses of young people are destandardised, fragmented and diversified. Moreover these transitions take place within distinctly different welfare regimes for young people: Liberal (Anglo-Saxon); Universalistic (Nordic); Sub-protective (Mediterranean); Employment-centred (Continental) and Post-socialist (Central and Eastern European). In Figure 1.4 we reproduce the main characteristics of these five regimes which will be discussed in thematic reports 2 and 3.

**Figure 1.4 Transition regimes across Europe**

Dimension Regime	Country	School	Training	Social Security	Employment Regime	Female Employment	Concept of Youth	Concept of Disadvantage	Focus of Transition Policies	Policy Trend
<i>Universalistic</i>	Denmark Finland	Not selective	Flexible standards (mixed)	State	Open Low risks	High	Personal development, Citizenship	Individualised and Structure-related	Education Activation	Liberal (more labour market orientation)
<i>Employment-centred</i>	Austria Germany France Netherlands	Selective	Standardized (dual)	State / family	Closed Risks at the margins	Medium	Adaptation to social positions	Individualised	(Pre-) vocational training	Liberal (more activation)
<i>Liberal</i>	Ireland UK	Principally not selective	Flexible, low standards (mixed)	State / family	Open, High risks	High	Early economic independence	Individualised	Employability	Liberal (more education)
<i>Sub-protective</i>	Italy Portugal Spain	Not Selective	Low standards and coverage (mainly school)	Family	Closed High risks (Informal work)	Low	Without distinct status	Structure-related	Some Status (work, education, training)	Liberal (deregulation) and Employment-centred (training)
<i>Post-socialist countries</i>	Bulgaria Czech Rep. Romania Slovakia Slovenia	Principally not selective	Standards in process of transformation (mixed)	Family / state	Closed High risks	Low (except Slovenia)	Mixed	Mixed	Mixed	Liberal (deregulation) and Employment-centred (training) BG, RO: Employment-centred SK: Liberal SI: Universal

In our policy report we summarise our findings of the four thematic reports in relation to the fields of action identified in the November 2009 Council resolution: Education and Training; Employment and Entrepreneurship; Health and Well-Being; Participation; Voluntary Activities; Social Inclusion; Youth and the World: Creativity and Culture. We particularly emphasise the overall thematic priority for the youth field for the period 1 January 2010-June 2011: employment. Over half of our sample are unemployed and looking for work at time of interview and employment initiatives are of particular importance.

## **2. Gender**

The main goal of thematic report 4 is to present relations between gender, ethnicity and migrant status and risks but also capabilities and resilience concerning youth homelessness. In order to establish and analyse those connections, the report will rely mainly on: findings of the national reports of the respective countries<sup>2</sup>, expert interviews and the field research, all carried out as parts of the general CSEYHP project. The report is divided into two principal parts, one related to gender and the other related to ethnicity and migrant status.

### **2.1 Important gender issues from the national reports**

Within the CSEYHP programme four national and one comparative report were produced based on study of literature related to homelessness and carrying out in-depth interviews with experts who work with youth and other homeless people. In this part findings related to gender and youth homelessness will be presented.

One of the most important risk factors for the CZ was found to be placement of children in institutional care, which is not always based only on incapacity of parents to care for their children but very often also on a bad financial situation of the family. Instead of helping the parents, the state essentially removes

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<sup>2</sup> Unless stated otherwise, all the references in this report are taken from the respective national reports, which should be consulted for individual sources.

children from the families. This has long-term negative impact on their future and increases the risk of homelessness. The numbers presented in Table 1 show that the number of boys placed in all types of institutions (including those of closed type with controlled care) is consistently higher than the number of girls.

**Table 2.1. Institutional Care in the Competency of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Physical Education in the years 1993-2003**

Year	Number of institutions	Institutional care in total			
		total	boys	girls	Complete orphans
<b>1993</b>	162	5839	3578	2261	63
<b>1997</b>	209	7184	4367	2817	71
<b>1998</b>	181	6689	4056	2633	72
<b>1999</b>	185	6901	4165	2736	74
<b>2000</b>	191	7333	4462	2871	88
<b>2001</b>	193	7222	4376	2846	81
<b>2002</b>	196	7270	4349	2921	71
<b>2003</b>	199	7250	4341	2909	65
<b>Increase</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>1411</b>	<b>763</b>	<b>648</b>	<b>2</b>

Source: <http://www.helcom.cz/view.php?cisloclanku=2004022608> (assessed 7 April 2009)

In such institutions there are a number of underage pregnant girls and teenage mothers. For them, according to one expert, only ad-hoc solutions are offered when at 18 they are required to leave the institutions (Hradecký 2006:16). There are asylum homes for mothers with children but their places are usually less than needed and available only for a limited period of time.

One of the obstacles in combating homelessness among youth is that according to legal provisions every underage person in the CZ must be either with their family or in an institution, and agencies are not allowed to provide services to them but are required to report such cases. Therefore some agencies such as La Strada offer prevention programmes to girls age 15-18 who might be in danger of being trafficked. Yet others who work with youth prostitutes told us in an anonymous interview that they have to ignore this provision by taking for granted when young people tell them their age to be over 18. Sometimes this might mean the agencies pretend they don't know the age of the clients but

more often they simply can't check it because the services are provided anonymously or the clients have no personal documents.

In the case of girls who work as street prostitutes, one of the experts complained they are invisible for the social protections system: *"I think it is crucial to observe groups, which are not so visible and we don't talk about them. We work with such groups but we name them differently than the homeless and then they are not part of the homeless discourse, which means they don't get the services. The streetwork is focused on one subculture and omits others such as sex workers in the streets. Therefore you don't find them in the National Plan for Social Inclusion."* (La Strada). The invisibility of such groups might affect paths to homelessness as well as reinsertion processes. Girls and young women have lower chances of ending up in the street but they have no home, moving from one partner to another instead or sharing hostels. Some forms of female homelessness tend to be more specific due to prostitution, although prostitution of boys can show a similar pattern.

It seems that in NL the situation of young mothers is also rather complicated. According to expert interviews, the social system requires them to study or work otherwise their benefits might be cut, which would leave them below the social assistance level. At the same time, if they are migrants as well as mothers, they often don't know what their rights are: *"Access to work is difficult, as you need child care for that and there are waiting lists. School is often also difficult, as schools are generally not very flexible and don't take this group into account. On the other hand, these girls often don't know what they're entitled to, as they don't have the (right) information"*. Girls and women from ethnic minorities are in many ways disadvantaged compared to native Dutch women. Contrary to the majority pattern, in the case of minority girls we rarely find alcohol, drugs and tobacco involved, but we see that factors making their life more difficult are cultural prejudices in their own culture towards women, feelings of belonging neither to majority nor minority culture, and different ways of behaviour in and out of home.

In all four countries it is necessary to take into account that girls are more likely to become victims of sexual and domestic violence, which may lead to homelessness. In some ethnic groups they are more likely to become victims of

honour-related violence. In the case of NL it is interesting to note that the number of young mothers (under 20) sharply decreased between 2001-2007, mostly due to decrease among non-western young mothers even though the number of non-western girls aged between 5-20 is increasing.

Despite the decrease, it seems that Dutch society became more severe, as words of one expert from NL show: *"In general, there aren't enough supervised housing projects for young mentally handicapped mothers. They miss out on both fronts. When they're pregnant, they don't qualify for many things. Society has hardened lately and so has the target group. They don't know how to adjust, but they do have to survive. They now dare speak up for themselves, but it's more like a survival strategy. Things weren't as tough in the old days. It was easy to arrange things with organisations, to request housing for a young mother on the basis of urgency. That's no longer possible, as a result of which they end up on the streets, they start drifting or end up in shelters. Sometimes they don't qualify for shelter, because it's only the housing that causes problems and the rest is working fine. Waiting times for a house are 6 to 7 years. Try and do that as an 18 or 19-year-old. They have to rely on the private housing market, where houses are expensive and poorly maintained. Also, society judges these young people as unwilling or street girls, as a result of which they develop a mentality, a survival strategy that works against them. We're creating our own young homeless people".*

According to the Dutch national report, similar to what we found in the Czech National Report, among those young people who are hard to reach are young women and girls who are prostitutes. Also the changing pattern of youth homelessness in the NL seems to indicate an increase of girls of non-western origin.

In case of teenage pregnancy, the risk factors involved are: low IQ, insufficient or false knowledge of contraception, little or no support from the family or friends during pregnancy, unclear resident status, non-western background and unstable or no relationship with fathers of the children. There are indications that a number of unaccompanied underage girls end up as prostitutes in NL, sometimes their being involved in human trafficking as victims is not taken into

account during the asylum procedure by the Dutch Immigration and Naturalisation Service.

In the case of NL, as opposed to CZ where institutional care is the main contributing factor in relation to gender as well, the risk factor seems to be also migrant background in relation to gender. The same can be found in PT, where, according to the Portuguese National Report, Portuguese Roma are in particular risk and among them particularly girls who leave education as early as the age of 10.

In PT, contrary to CZ, we find more girls than boys in institutional care. In CZ, institutional measure are often taken because of family poverty and problems with children's discipline (where boys can have more problems than girls), while in PT the institutional measure seem to be taken as reaction to domestic violence. Girls in PT also seem to seek help more often than boys through a SOS helpline for the young people. The changing pattern of young female homeless behaviour is illustrated by an expert interviewed within our project: *"...there is a vulnerability of the feminine population that before we used to say "the feminine population is always less on the streets since they have other means of subsistence that men don't have", but what is true is that we start seeing more women asking for support on a homeless situation and rejecting prostitution and other ways of subsistence..." (CVP-homeless)*. It is noteworthy that an expert in the CZ from organization Šance claimed that female homelessness is less of a problem, because it is easier for them to find a man to take care of them.

It would be interesting to do a further inquiry into how the level of emancipation in each country affects social work which is very feminized in the CZ (vast majority of social workers are women), although these particular words were uttered by a male social worker.

In UK in 2008 slightly fewer girls than boys were subject to the Child Protection Plan in England (14,000 girls vs 14,700 boys) and Wales (1,090 girls vs 1,180 boys). The difference was greater in Scotland (411 girls vs 598 boys) and Northern Ireland (853 girls vs 952 boys). The Child Protection Plan is a form of institutional care in the UK. According to the UK National Report, 36 African girls were known or suspected as being trafficked for sexual exploitation, the youngest being 12 years old. 14 girls from Eastern Europe and Russia were

trafficked for sexual exploitation. In terms of criminal activities of youth classified by gender, the vast majority of offences are committed by young men but there appears to be a significant increase in criminal activity among young women in the UK. Just over one-fifth of crimes reported to Youth Offending Teams are committed by girls representing a 25% increase on the 47,358 offences committed by girls in 2003-04. In 2007, girls carried out 15,672 violent attacks (a rise of more than 50% over the past three years) and more than one-quarter of all assaults by young people. They were also responsible for 19,722 thefts, 5,964 public order offences and 5,748 incidents of criminal damage. One-hundred-and-eighty girls were convicted of arson, while 954 were found guilty of drugs crimes.

In 2006/07 in the UK the permanent exclusion rate from school for boys was nearly 4 times higher than that for girls. In 2006/07 the fixed period exclusion rate for boys was almost 3 times higher than that for girls. Boys accounted for some 75 % of all fixed period exclusions. Boys are more likely to be excluded (both permanently and for a fixed period) at a younger age than girls, with very few girls being excluded during the primary years.

The UK National Report shows the data on UK population by gender, degree of education and percentage of self-employment. Except for Black Caribbean and mixed nationality we find that there are more girls than boys with no qualification; among those achieving 5 or more GCSE/ GNVQ levels the situation across all groups is favourable for girls; on A-level or equivalent we find more males than females and the same goes for degree level except for the White Irish category. Men tend to be more represented in economic activity.

Similarly to what was mentioned in the Dutch National Report, being a girl and a person with immigrant background in UK puts some young women at risk more because of the confusion to which world they do or should belong. We find the illustration in the words of one of the experts interviewed within our project who said: *"The young girls (from Somalia) are quite introverted, they find it difficult mixing, they don't like to eat when men are present. That can be a problem. The young men are much more able to go out and mix and walk with their friends and so on. Some of the young women look very demure most of the time then they'll go out dressed to the nines and you don't recognise them. They're fighting*

*with the culture. They know how they should appear but they want to run out and..." (West London YMCA).*

In addition it seems that traditionally boys were more likely to be influenced by drugs and alcohol and more likely to be involved in illegal activities (see tables 2.8. and 2.7. in this report). But managers and key workers raised several other issues: anger management issues among boys, boys being more depressed than girls. There was more resentment of the benefits system among boys and boys were more likely to give up a course if they felt they were not progressing well. Young men also had more problems with alcohol and drugs and violence but this is changing as girls develop 'ladette' behaviour. Some social workers stressed the difference between how young men and young women were influenced: young men were led by their peers; young women were led by their boyfriends.

## **2.2. Gender patterns in the CSEYHP sample**

Regardless of the actual numbers classified by gender in the four countries, the original idea of the research design was to include equal numbers of the respondents by gender. The reason why it was not possible in some countries is due to three reasons:

1. general over-representation of homeless men
2. the methods used to recruit the respondents. NL, PT and UK looked for the respondents mostly through agencies when they could ask them to find for the research numbers necessary for our sample. In the CZ, where the research had a pioneer character and the agencies usually did not focus on young homeless specifically, the researchers could hardly influence the sample. In CZ, the researchers took people from the streets directly, which has consequences for the sample but has more general value of opening this subject in the CZ and making this population a bit more visible. In the NL the method of contacting young homeless people through agencies was due to the fact that no young homeless people were to be found in the streets.
3. the combinations of gender, ethnicity (born in or outside the county) made it further complicated finding the required number of girls.

In PT the fact that there are no specific services for young homeless persons made it difficult to reach the initial quota when taking homelessness in a narrow sense. Thereafter, the quota was filled by broadening the definition including cases, among others, of family homelessness followed by a process of re-housing, children living in care, long term accommodation for young mothers and move on accommodation. PT also used connections with co-researchers and the snowball effect.

In the NL it was difficult to find girls especially in the categories 'minority' and 'immigrant'. About one in ten of the Dutch homeless youth are girls. It is also quite difficult to find 'immigrants', especially those who are illegal. According to social workers who asked illegal immigrants to participate as interviewees, most of them didn't want to because they don't want to talk about traumatic experiences. Furthermore illegal immigrants don't feel like participating because they are convinced the interview will not improve their situation, because they feel it is impossible for them to become legal citizens of NL.

The UK shared the difficulty with NL of having interviews with young women not born in the UK. Two young women in this category attended the interview but refused to be recorded, as they were concerned about being identified within a small community; one young man similarly refused to be interviewed. It was possible to fulfil the quota for men not born in the UK, but not for women. Similarly young women and young men not born in the UK who had not yet received the status of 'leave to remain' did not want to be interviewed. However the UK did not share the difficulty of NL in interviewing ethnic minority women UK born. Ethnic minority UK born men and women were over-represented in the interview group and were dropped from the sample of 54. In London it was only possible to interview one ethnic dominant (white British) UK born woman – they were rare within the hostel population (a complete change from the late 80s to mid 1990s). The ethnic dominant women and men in the UK sample were largely interviewed in Birmingham, a rural area (Herefordshire) and an area outside London (Thames Gateway).

In PT, according to co-researchers, it was easier to talk to young women than young men. This is the case since men were more quiet, reserved and suspicious. Women (younger or older) were much more open in speaking about their lives in both parts of the interview. For example, there are women that

have children and relate much of their testimonies to their difficulties as mothers to, for instance, find a job, child care, and so forth. In the UK all the co-researchers were female and some young men were more reticent, particularly in talking to younger female co-researchers. The UK team found that the non-UK born who were interviewed in their own language produced transcripts of a similar length to the UK born. It would have been interesting to compare young men’s responses if interviewed by young male co-researchers.

For the NL, young women were indeed usually somewhat easier to talk to than younger men, the former usually being a bit more elaborate in their answers. But there were also many young men who answered elaborately. There was no difference in ages though, since both young and older interviewees answered elaborately.

In CZ there were no significant differences between male and female respondents but all the co-researchers were women, which might have influenced capability to open and talk freely with the interviewees. The co-researchers were all female in the UK too, but in PT and especially in NL they were of both sexes.

The average age for women respondents in our research was 20.3 and for men 21.1. The following table shows ethnic composition by sex.

**Table 2.2. Ethnicity by sex**

	Born in country/ethnic dominant		Born in country/ethnic minority		Immigrant EU		Immigrant Non-EU		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Female	39	<b>39,4</b>	28	<b>49,1</b>	2	<b>18,2</b>	23	<b>46,9</b>	92	<b>42,6</b>
Male	60	<b>60,6</b>	29	<b>50,9</b>	9	<b>81,8</b>	26	<b>53,1</b>	124	<b>54,7</b>
Total	99	100	57	100	11	100	49	100	216	100

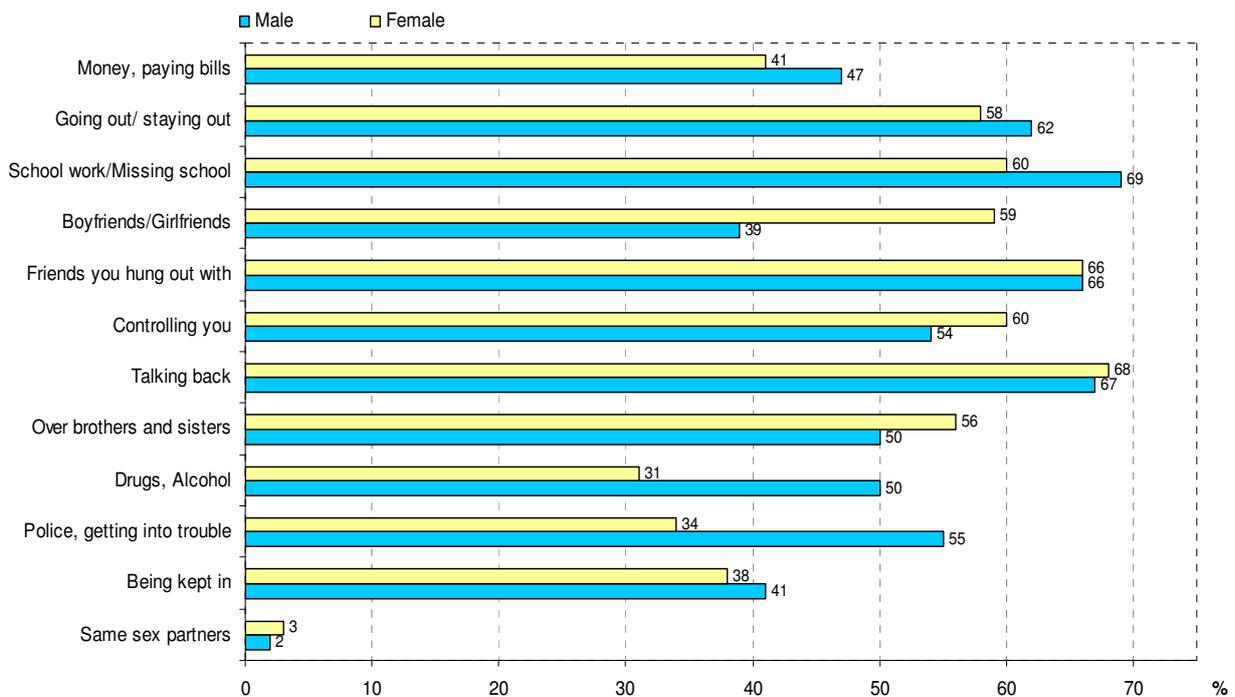
The most numerous group were male born in country, followed by female in the same category. The least numerous were EU female immigrants followed by EU male immigrants.

### 2.2.1. Background , childhood and school

66% of female respondents replied positively to the question if they were religious while the same is true for 50% of males. Only 2% of women and 6% of men said they were in care or foster care at 12 years of age while at 16 years the percentage rose to 8% of women and 10% of men only to drop at 18 to 1% of women and 6% of men. However 24% of women and 32% of men lived in care or foster care throughout their lives.

The following graph shows percentage of answers to questions about arguments with parents by sex and type of argument by those who mentioned specific offered reasons:

**Graph 2.3. Arguments with parents by sex<sup>3</sup>**



Women had significantly more arguments than men over boyfriends while men had significantly more arguments than women over drugs and alcohol within the research sample. Men also argued significantly more over police and getting into trouble. 49% of girls and 38% of boys never argued with their parents, 26% of girls and 40% of boys sometimes and 24% of girls and 22% of boys argued frequently.

<sup>3</sup> In some cases in all the tables sum might be slightly over or less than 100% due to rounding of the figures.

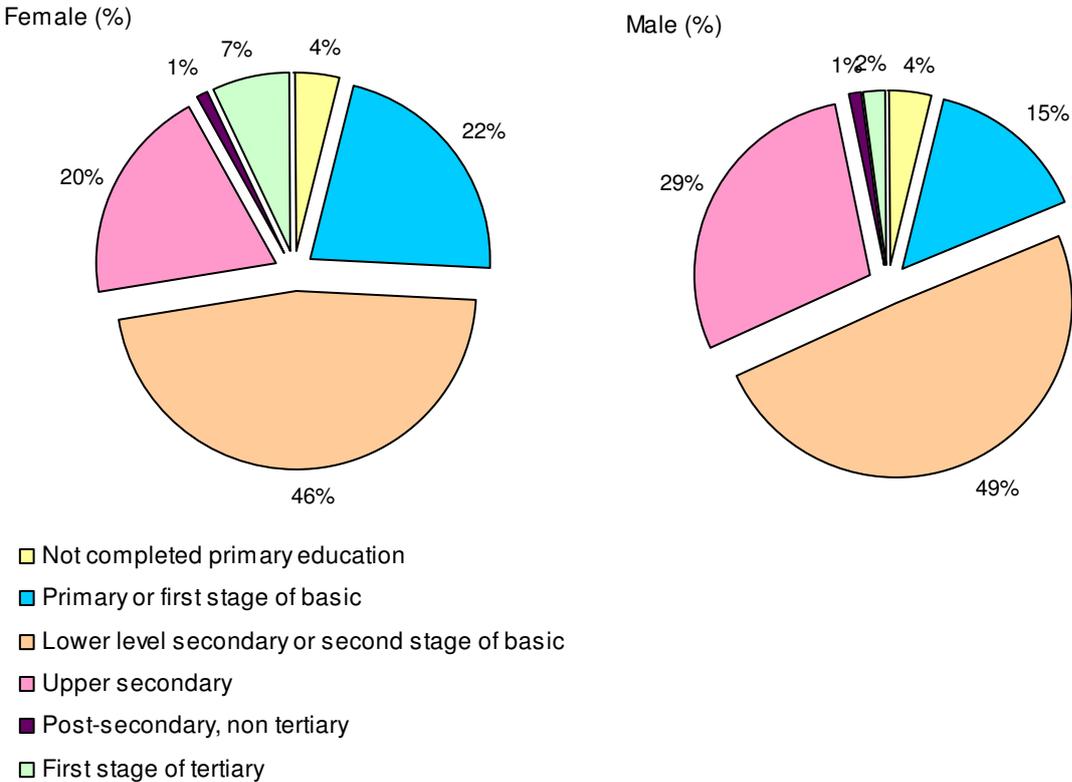
The following table shows percentage of the respondents who answered to the specific problems at schools:

**Table 2.4. Problems at school by sex**

School	Male (%)	Female (%)
School/class specific students	33	30
Excluded from school	40	32
Truanted from school	65	61
Picked on by other kids	39	45
Picked on other kids	31	22
Problems with teachers	60	46
I got a certificate or qualification	65	58

Both sexes truanted from school but boys had significantly more problems with teachers at school. The positive finding is that quite a lot over half of the respondents got a certificate or qualification. We can see from the following table and graph the degree of qualification by sex the respondents acquired:

**Graph 2.5. Qualification by sex in percentage**



Except for the first stage of tertiary education, girls and boys have similar level of qualification although slightly more boys have upper secondary as opposed to slightly more girls having primary stage of basic education.

The average age of leaving home or care for the last time is 17 for both sexes. 66% of men and 42% of women are single, followed by 12% going out with someone for men and 21% living with partner but not married for women. The third most frequent option for both sexes was LAT (living apart together) relationship (11% for men and 14% for women).

The following table shows if the respondents have children and in which arrangement they live with them:

**Table 2.6. Having children by sex in percentage**

	<b>Yes, living with</b>	<b>Yes, not living with</b>	<b>No children</b>	<b>No, but pregnant</b>
<b>Female</b>	29	9	58	3
<b>Male</b>	4	11	83	1 (girlfriend/wife expecting)

*2.2.2. Current activities, source of income and social services*

Moving to the current activities of our respondents, here is how they answered our question bearing in mind that they could choose more than one option: for both sexes the most frequently chosen option was unemployed, looking for work (50%F and 53%M); the second most frequent activity again for both sexes was hanging with friends (28%F and 43%M); where they start differing is that the third most frequent option for boys was something else (26%) and for girls looking after home and family (24%). Fourth option then for both sexes was in full time education (21%F and 18%M).

The most important source of income for the whole sample are benefits (41%), and employment (16%). In terms of gender, however, we find that in the case of girls the second most important source is not employment but family (although the difference is small). The table shows the other options with boys having confessed quite high illegal activities as a source of income:

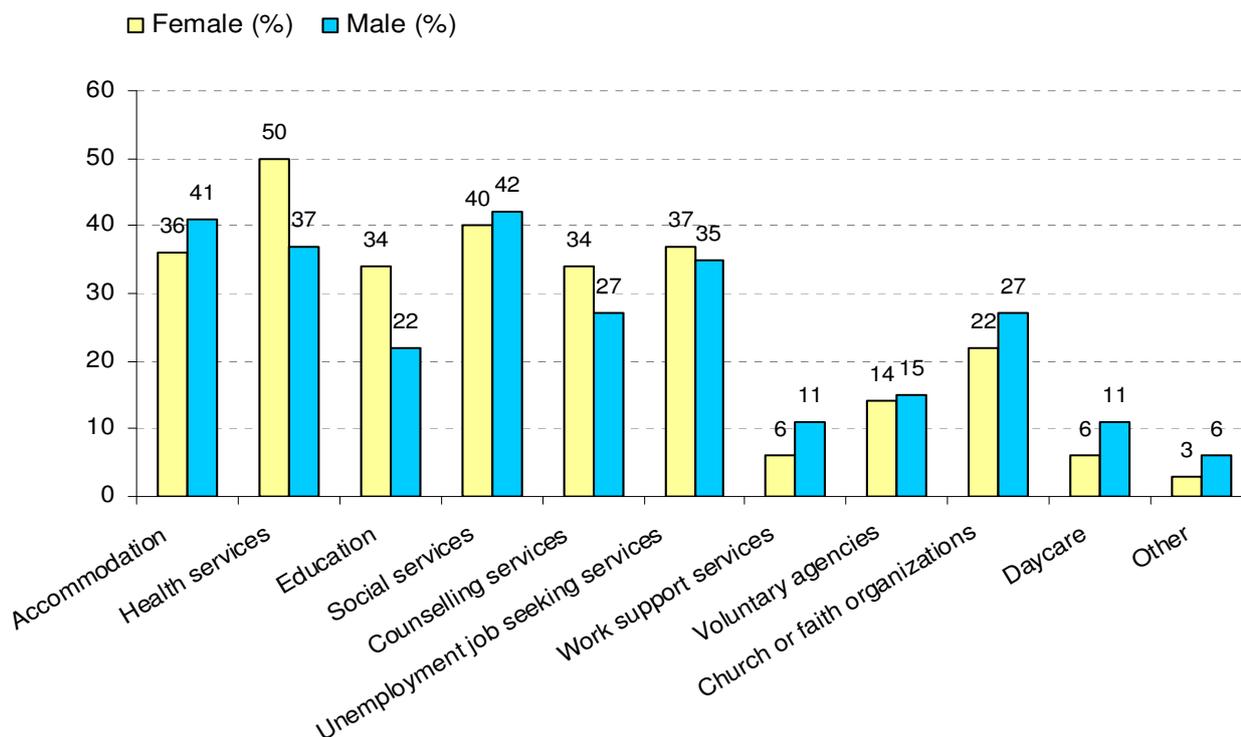
**Table 2.7. Sources of money by sex in %**

<b>Source</b>	<b>Female (%)</b>	<b>Male (%)</b>
Benefits	<b>64</b>	<b>44</b>
Family	<b>26</b>	21
Begging	1	7
Employment	25	<b>28</b>
In part-time education	8	6
Illegal activities	4	19
Charitable support	8	6
Borrowing	15	17
Other	<b>23</b>	<b>30</b>

When we look at the social activities for both sexes, boys show significant frequency in physical activity (45%), day and leisure centres including use of Internet (35%) and clubs or societies (29%); while with girls the activity they most frequently engage in is day and leisure centres (29%) followed by physical activity (24%) and creative arts (23%). Girls' activities seem to be more diverse than boys'.

90% of girls and 95% of boys used social services at any given moment but the type of the services most frequently used somewhat differ for both sexes, which is obvious from the graph 3. While girls use mostly health services, followed by social and job seeking services, boys use social service, accommodation and health services most frequently.

**Graph 2.7. Types of social services used, by sex in %**



*2.2.3. Health issues and current main needs*

For both sexes the biggest health issue they currently face are stress and having trouble sleeping followed by crying frequently for girls and depression for boys. Again both sexes have feeling of anxiety but boys more frequently have health issues with alcohol and drugs.

**Table 2.8. Current health issues by sex in %**

Type of health issue	Female (%)	Male (%)
Stress	<b>60</b>	<b>52</b>
Depression	41	<b>39</b>
Anxiety	39	32
Problems with appetite	27	31
Cry frequently	<b>42</b>	18
Suicide attempts	8	8
Self-harm	9	8
Trouble sleeping	<b>48</b>	<b>46</b>
Problems with drugs	15	25
Problems with alcohol	10	17
Other	4	6

Both sexes in the research stated that what they currently needed most was housing support, followed by employment support. Boys need slightly more help with money management while for the girls the third top priority is education support. We may say that the current needs in terms of services provision are very similar for both sexes, which the following table shows. 66% of girls and 60% of boys stated they had a key worker.

**Table 2.9. Current main needs, by sex in %**

Type of current need	Female (%)	Male (%)
Housing support	<b>61</b>	<b>63</b>
Mental health, counselling	22	17
Substance abuse services	4	12
Education or learning support	<b>46</b>	<b>31</b>
Employment	<b>49</b>	<b>53</b>
Mediation services	8	6
Money management	26	<b>32</b>
Physical health services	15	18
Sexual health info	8	4
Creative activities	14	14
Other	20	12

**3. Ethnicity**

In approaching the subject of ethnicity and general majority/minority background in relation to youth homelessness, it is necessary to take into account two major aspects:

1. The four countries in question have quite different histories of migration in general. While NL and UK are among the most prominent immigration countries post WWII, both CZ and PT have been emigration countries, CZ until 1989 and PT until 2000. In CZ it is furthermore important to understand the wider context of the communist regime, although right-wing dictatorship in PT might have had a similar influence – people

preferred leaving the country to migrating into it. In CZ the situation changed after the fall of communism. Initially, CZ was a transit country for migrants trying to move to the West (to Germany and Austria most often but sometimes to other Western countries) but it changed gradually into a target country. This process intensified after the EU accession (2004). Furthermore, unlike the other three countries, CZ has never been a colonial power, therefore one of the sources of migration (as consequence of de-colonizing) will not be found in CZ. All this leaves us with the situation of relatively high national homogeneity in CZ as opposed to PT and especially NL and UK.

2. While the political and social agenda in NL and UK, but also partly in PT, is heavily influenced by immigration debates, the same can be said in CZ with regard to national minorities and indeed almost exclusively in relation to Roma. In the case of homelessness this is reflected in the CZ sample where almost all respondents are of Czech descent, while Roma homelessness is structurally different and has not been subject of this research. In addition we should take into account that being a Roma is such a stigmatizing label that most Roma do not register as such in census. General social deprivation is related to Roma and not to persons with immigrant background in CZ, but this is not the case in the other three countries. This fact should be kept in mind when analysing homelessness in our research.

### **3.1 Overview of ethnic composition in the four countries**

#### *3.1.1. Ethnic composition in the CZ*

According to statistics (on 31 December 2008) there were 438,300 foreigners with residence permits on the Czech territory who thus made for 4.2% of the populations. The number of foreigners in 2007 was 392,000. The most frequent countries of origin were Ukraine (132,000, or 30.1% of all foreigners) and Slovakia (76,000 or 17.3%), followed by Vietnam (60,300 or 13.7%), Russia (27,200 or 6.2%) and Poland (21,700 or 5%). Recorded foreign immigration shows that the number of inhabitants in CZ increased by 71,800 persons.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>4</sup> <http://www.czso.cz/csu/csu.nsf/informace/coby031309.doc> (13.3.2009)

According to the data for 2007 the age structure of the foreigners is dramatically different from the age structure of the CZ inhabitants. The main difference lies in concentration of the persons in the productive age (15-64; 90% of foreigners are in this group), a higher percentage of children (7.4%) compared to the percentage of the old people (2.7%). Regarding gender composition we see only minor differences. Men are more equally distributed throughout the whole productive age while women are more concentrated in age 22-38. The number of men is higher in the general population of foreigners in the CZ. But some groups tend to have different characteristics than the rest of the population of foreigners. In case of the citizens of Mongolia, Kazakhstan, Belarus and Russia there are more women than men while in the case of the citizens of Germany and the UK the prevalence of men was even higher. In terms of age structure the citizens of Vietnam, China, Russia and Kazakhstan have higher percentage of children younger than 14 (> 12 %) but citizens of Bulgaria, Austria, USA and Germany have higher percentage of the persons older than 65 (> 9 %). (Vývoj 2008: 8-10)

Based on the data for the year 2007 the number of young people age 15-24 among foreigners with regular residence permit in CZ was 61,424 (15.6% of the total number), 43% of which were women. The most numerous were young people from Ukraine (33%), Vietnam (20%), Slovakia (15.6%) and Russia (7%). The number of unaccompanied minors age 15-17 was 32. (Cizinci 2007)

Almost half of the foreigners legally residing in CZ (48%) live in Prague and Central Bohemia. The same applies to the young foreigners aged 15-24. 33% of them live in Prague and 13% in Central Bohemia.

Based on census from the year 2001 (up to 1 March) 94% of the persons living in CZ declared to be of Czech, Moravian or Silesian nationality. The most numerous national minorities are the Slovaks (3%) followed by Poles, Germans, Hungarians and Roma.<sup>5</sup> Less than 12,000 persons declared as Roma officially which is 0.1% but the real number is estimated between 150,000 and 300,000 persons. The Roma population has very different results for the demographic indicators compared to the Czech average e.g. very low percentage of the persons older than 65, higher number of children per woman, lower level of

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<sup>5</sup> The census registers subjective declaration of the respondents' nationality.

education and economic activity. However, detailed data are not available (Národnostní 2003: 23-30)

### *3.1.2. Ethnic composition in the NL*

The Netherlands are a relatively small country with a surface area of 395.6/km<sup>2</sup>. This country is also one of the most densely populated countries in the world. In 2009, according to Statistics Netherlands (CBS), the number of inhabitants is 16,491,000.

The National Institute of Public Health and Environmental Protection (RIVM) is a Dutch research agency that provides information, monitors and scientific substantiation of the public health policy. On 1 January 2007, RIVM estimated that 19% of the total population in the Netherlands was of foreign origin. People from foreign origin in The Netherlands are called 'allochtoon'. According to the national guideline, a person is deemed to be of foreign origin, 'allochtoon', if at least one parent was born outside the Netherlands. 'Allochtoon' people are divided in first and second generation<sup>6</sup>. A total of 45% of the 19% of foreign origin are of non-western background, 55% have western backgrounds. The largest group of non-western 'allochtonen' come from Turkey, Surinam and Morocco. The groups of western origin mainly come from Germany and Indonesia (a former Dutch colony then called The Dutch East Indies) (RIVM, 2007). It is expected that the percentage of non-western people of foreign origin will increase in the future.

The RIVM also presents annual figures on immigration and emigration. Immigrants are those who settle in the Netherlands within a year, emigrants those who leave the Netherlands. In 2008 143.000 immigrants settled and 116.000 emigrants left. Immigrants come mainly from Poland, Germany, Bulgaria and China. Since Poland acceded to the EU, the number of Polish immigrants has risen sharply. People from Poland, the United States, the Netherlands Antilles, Aruba and Turkey account for the largest share in emigration.

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<sup>6</sup> The first generation immigrant is a person who was born abroad, with at least one parent who was born abroad, and the second generation immigrant is a person who was born in the Netherlands and has at least one parent who was born abroad.

### *3.1.3. Ethnic composition in PT*

In 2007, the total resident population in Portugal is 10,617,575. The weight of youth (15-24 years old) is of 11,6% (1,236,004, of which 5,9% are men) (INE, Annual Estimates, 2007). For the same year, the total foreigner resident population is 3,8% (401,612). The group between 15-39 years old represents 55,1% (221,314), and the 0-14, 15,6%. The immigrant population is younger, more male, and mainly in active working ages - 80,2% between 15-64 years old, whereas for the total resident population this group represents 67,2%(Services for Foreigners and Border Control, May 2008).

In 2007, the main represented countries of origin of the immigrant population were: 15,2% Cape Verde, 13,9% Brazil, 8,5% Ukraine, 7,6% Angola, 5,9% United Kingdom, 5,5% Guinea-Bissau, 4,5% Spain, 4,3% Romania, 3,9% Germany, 2,8% Moldavia (Services for Foreigners and Border Control, May 2008).

Regarding the age distribution of the main represented nationalities, specifically the youth group (15-24 years old): Cape Verde is 15,2%; Brazil is 17,72% and Ukraine is 11,68% (SEF, 2005 cited in TRESEGY, 17/10/2007). However, there were marked differences in the age structure, particularly for the male groups from the East and Asians as the most imbalanced. This fact is explained by the relatively recent nature of this immigration, with low expectations of staying definitely and of family reunion. In terms of settlement place, foreigners are increasingly more concentrated and tend to have a preference for the central and south regions, but particularly Lisbon (Lages, et. al, 2006). In what regards gender distribution by nationalities, a higher disparity exists for the African contingent, namely 70,254 men and 52,834 women (Services for Foreigners and Border Control, May 2008).

Portuguese Roma is also a significant ethnic minority in Portugal. This is a particularly segregated group, in terms of residential areas (ghettos) and also depending in large number on the Social Reinsertion Income (3,8% of the total beneficiary families - 135,428). Moreover, children, particularly girls, leave school early (around 10 years old) for internal rules reasons and the main economic activity of this minority is itinerant market selling.

Following a survey (2004) conducted in 46 parishes that cross-check a sample of 1,539 Portuguese and 1,454 immigrants, more PALOPs<sup>7</sup> nationals stated that they were born in Portugal, came as a child or adolescent, or came to join their families which had immigrated, against 20,7% of Brazilians and 10,5% of Eastern European nationals (Lages, et. al, 2006). In sum, among the migrant population are statistically included young immigrant descendents born in Portugal. In spite of the law improvements, these young people still find constraints on legally recognizing their nationality and consequently pursue higher level education and labour inclusion.

#### 3.1.4. *Ethnic composition in the UK*

Using information gathered in the 2001 UK Census the report *Focus on Ethnicity and Religion* (ONS 2005, referred to as *FoER* subsequently) from the National Statistics Office (ONS) identifies eight major ethnic groups in the UK: White British, White Irish, Indian, Pakistani, Bangladeshi, Black Caribbean, Black African and Chinese. The report also provides some information on groups of different mixed ethnic backgrounds and on Travellers and Roma. Minority ethnic groups comprised just over 4.5 million of the UK population in 2001: 8% of the UK population but 9.25% of the population of England.

In 2001 the UK population was mostly White British (88%). The Indian population were the largest non-White ethnic group followed by Pakistani, Mixed, Black Caribbean and Black African.

*FoER* reports that people from ethnic minority groups were concentrated in specific geographical areas in England. Nearly half of all non-White people (45%) lived in London; 13% in West Midlands and 8% in the South-East. In specific areas of some cities ethnic minorities formed a majority; in Birmingham Pakistanis formed a majority in some areas whilst in Tower Hamlets in London it was Bangladeshis. Muslims made up a majority in some parts of Birmingham, whilst Hindus formed the majority in some areas of Leicester, Sikhs were a third of the population in parts of Ealing and Birmingham.

Bangladeshi, Pakistani and Muslim populations have a younger age structure than White British, White Irish, Christian and Jewish populations. The Indian population is younger than the latter group but older than the former. In 2001,

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<sup>7</sup> PALOP - African Countries of Official Portuguese Language

23% of Indians were aged 16 years or younger, compared with 35% of Pakistanis and 38% of Bangladeshis.

It is also apparent that there are distinct gender issues within different ethnic-religious communities. Within the Muslim community there are higher proportions of inactive women. Pakistani and Bangladeshi community women are 31% and 25% economically active compared with 56% of Black African community women. Chinese and Indian women are 57% and 66% economically inactive. Women from White British, White Irish and Black Caribbean ethnic groups are 75% to 74% economically active.

FoER also provides evidence on the rates of lone parenthood (overwhelmingly lone motherhood) in each ethnic group. The highest rates are amongst Black Caribbean (nearly one half) and Black African (over one third) ethnic groups followed by White British and White Irish at just over one fifth of households.

In 2001 of the 4.5 million people not born in the UK, large numbers were from India (450,000), Pakistan (300,000) and, surprisingly, from Germany (233,000, reflecting the period that the British Army was based in Germany). Nearly 200,000 came from South and Eastern Africa, 150,000 from Bangladesh and Jamaica nearly the same, then from USA, South Africa, Kenya and the Far East. However many of those not born in the UK from India, Pakistan and the Caribbean are now elderly with younger people from these ethnic groups being born in the UK.

### **3.2 Ethnicity related to homelessness in national reports**

One of the biggest problem in CZ related to housing is lack of appropriate and at the same time financially affordable flats, i.e. low frequency of housing availability. The construction of municipal flats aiming at households with limited income per person or those who are disadvantaged for health, social and other reasons has started in 2003 only. (Ministerstvo 2005:9) This makes certain national and ethnic minorities, particularly Roma, immigrants, refugees and homeless, vulnerable. (Lux et al. 2003:135) Municipalities do not provide social services for some groups (mainly Roma) to strengthen their capability to keep their housing. Sometimes the municipalities expel such groups and support spatial segregation, which leads to certain social pathological phenomena. (Ministerstvo 2006:51)

As quoted earlier, one of the experts thought that migrant homelessness is not even mentioned in the National Plan for Social Inclusion. Although not part of our research, it seems that migrant homelessness might have yet another pattern and is often related to either trafficking in human beings or prostitution. The expert who gave us this statement works in a non-governmental organization (NGO) providing help to prostitutes of non-Czech origin who are often irregular migrants. Due to confidentiality, NGO La Strada could not provide their clients as respondents in our research.

It is also important to mention a specialized facility for the children of foreigners in Prague and Přebíram if they are unaccompanied minors. Social and legal protection of underage foreigners is provided for those with permanent residence permit in CZ or with an authorized residence permit to stay in CZ for more than 90 days, those who applied for asylum and therefore have the right to stay permanently, or who reside with a parent who applied for temporary protection or received such protection. But the same protection is provided to any foreign child found on the Czech territory with or without right to reside or stay.

In the age group of 15-24 those particularly in danger of social exclusion are Roma. Currently it is estimated that only 26% of the economically active Roma population has never been unemployed, 35% face recurring unemployment and up to 39% are repeatedly and long-term unemployed. Characteristic for Roma unemployment is its durability. 75% of all unemployed Roma are unemployed long-term out of which 30% are unemployed for more than 4 years. Roma unemployment is higher in some areas (Most, Northern Moravia, Northern Bohemia). The reasons for this marginal position of the Roma on the job market should be seen mainly in low or insufficient qualification, in concentration of Roma in industry cities where in the past unqualified work force for manual work was required, and in discrimination of Roma on the job market. (Ministerstvo 2006:48) Although institutional care is a risk factor for the population in general, and although other studies showed that more members of majority than Roma population are actually homeless, one expert stressed that the combination of bad family, institutional care and Roma descent can be fatal for the reinsertion process: *"When we take someone from a very bad family, our success rate is very high. They developed personality structures within the family, it is just necessary to bridge the period so that the kids are safe, finish school, get used to therapy, deal with the issues psychologically and then they live. The success*

*rates are enormous. In case of the kids from institutions it is not the case. The luckier of them had a bad family, but grew up in a normal environment. The longer they are in the institutions, the success rate is lower. For example I don't remember a Roma baby who grew up in the institution to have ever been integrated..." (DOM).*

In 2008, the number of young people in the Netherlands under 25 was estimated to be 4.9 million. In this age bracket, the number of boys is slightly overrepresented: there are around 1,000 more boys than girls. Of the total number of young people in the Netherlands below 25, 23% is of foreign origin. Three-quarters of this 23% (around 1 million) was born in the Netherlands and as such falls within the category of the second-generation immigrants (Statistics Netherlands 2008). Some programmes focus primarily on preventing crimes among young people of non-Dutch origin such as Crime in Relation to Integration of Ethnic Minorities. Programmes of the Ministry of Housing, Spatial Planning and Environment show that immigrants fall into the category of people who need special attention when it comes to housing.

The publication "Social division and social cohesion" of 1999 studies the social inequality among young people. The report argues that social networks of young immigrants could be dysfunctional for social integration in Dutch society and that young immigrants mainly identify themselves with their own ethnic group (Veenman 1999). The reason for this is the one-sided ethnic composition of the networks and the lack of information on Dutch society. Also the denser the network of co-ethnic members, the less useful it is for integration into Dutch society.

With almost 7 percent, the percentage of early school leavers among non-western immigrants was higher than among native Dutch people (3%) in 2005/2006. When looking at country of origin (Turkey, Morocco, Surinam, the Netherlands Antilles and Aruba), the differences in school drop-out rates among non-western immigrants are small.

Different family patterns may influence the young immigrants' life trajectories: *"Young immigrants often have no father figure. They're raised by single mums, who often have little money. They're expected to take on the role of father at an extremely young age, as a result of which it is difficult for their mothers to control them. Consequently, they have to act like adults at a very young age. Relations in those families are often disturbed."* (Group educator at youth

*custodial institution*) The experts cited cultural differences and traumatic experience in the country of origin as specific risk factors for young immigrants. The situation seems to be very worrying in case of young irregular homeless migrants who were studied in Amsterdam. They are out of reach of any help and, without prospect of obtaining legal documents, other forms of help cannot change their situation substantially.

In Portugal some groups of migrants are at bigger risk of ethnic stereotyping when renting property. They come predominantly from São Tomé and Guinea. The discrimination of the immigrants and xenophobia assumes an evident expression in terms of housing conditions - more than 11.000 immigrants live in non-classical type of housing – that also drives them to a parallel market of “rented beds and rooms” (Housing Strategic Plan, 2008/2013, CIES-ISCTE/IRIC). The report also mentions troubles related to existence in between two cultures.

The immigrants with intermediate and higher qualification show higher employment rates than the nationals with low school levels, however when compared with the nationals, they participate more in the unskilled labour market which reveals inequality in the access to more qualified jobs. Unemployment also affects unequally nationals and non nationals. The disparity in unemployment rate between nationals and foreigners outside the EU is 5.4 percentual points in 2005 (regarding 8.1 percentual points in the EU) (Eurostat, Labour Force Survey). Difficulties in providing solutions for these groups, the absence of family networks, difficulties in accessing housing, and in speaking the language, are other factors making the immigrants particularly vulnerable to situations of social exclusion. Sometimes, immigration occurs within organized criminal networks which refer the workers to informal and unprotected sectors of the economy. Immigrants are exposed to increasing difficulty in accessing rights and different services as well as frequently being victims of processes of segregation and isolation. They also have language cultural inhibitions. (NAPIncl 2006-2008 PNR)

Moreover, immigrants’ diversity of professional profiles in their countries of origin diminishes drastically relatively to the profession they have in Portugal. *“In terms of average incomes, it can be seen that PALOPs immigrants have the lowest incomes, followed by Eastern European immigrants and, a considerable way in front, Brazilians”*. Around half of the immigrant population has received aid since

they arrived in Portugal, from relatives, friends and acquaintances being the most used way of assistance (87,3% of the respondents), particularly from the same national community (Lages et al., 2006 PNR). Young migrant students also have higher levels of early school leaving. A group of outreach teams in the city of Lisbon has registered, for an approximate total of 1.100 contacts, that 33% of the population who were found to be homeless was immigrant .

The Portuguese Roma school attainment is also significantly lower. The majority is at the basic level, in spite of the trend for staying at school longer. In 2003/2004, a total of 9.335 Roma students were registered, but only 34 at the secondary level (ME, 2003/04- PNR).

As is the case in the NL, irregular homeless migrants face the biggest difficulties having essentially access only to basic medical services excluding medication: *"... without documents a person gets his hands and feet tied up. After the documents situation, it is obvious that an immigrant citizen that doesn't dominate the language is harder to communicate, understand, and search for a job. After, the fact of not having a family support because many came here alone or see themselves alone from a moment to another, if they are not working, live on what they earn from work and, sometimes, don't have work, don't have a family to ask for help, without work can't pay the rent and end up staying at the streets.."* (CNAI – immigrants)

Associated with the reasons of persecution, the refugees have specific integration issues compared to immigrants, namely the impossibility to contact the country of origin, including other family members, obtain documents that certify their identity and competences, traumas and death of family members, no possibility to go back, and so forth.

In the UK there are one third to half a million 'irregular migrants' – smuggled, false documents, overstaying a visa. Further, there is now evidence that some areas of England have large numbers of onward migrants from other areas of Europe – Somalis in Leicester for example who resettled from the Netherlands. In some areas, particularly in London, new migrants have been perceived as the cause of housing problems, as well as suffering poor housing and a lack of housing security themselves. Unaccompanied minors supported by Social Services have access to public funds, as do families with small children, but new

migrant single people without access to public funds have begun to be found amongst the homeless and rough sleepers.

Immigration officials and staff in detention centres do not have a duty under Section 11 of the Children Act 2004 to take the welfare of children into consideration. There is concern about the neglect of children in detention centres for asylum seekers. In interviews at the Yarls Wood detention Centre, children said they were *upset I felt I was in Jail*, and *frightened by the big and noisy shoes worn by the officers*. Only 4 out of the 13 children said they felt happy. In particular there was concern about the length of time children were detained. A quarter of the children were kept between 20 and 112 days (Bonomi, 2006). Save the Children estimates that around 2000 children are imprisoned in detention centres each year for up to 268 days (Crawley and Lester, 2005). Parents of children who have been refused the right to remain in the UK are denied public funds and therefore access to services. This even affects women fleeing violence who are denied a place in women's refuges.

Home Office statistics do not state clearly the numbers of dependant and unaccompanied children being deported each year. From the total number of deportations, the percentage of minors amongst dependants indicates that around 1500 children are removed from the UK each year. The main destinations of deportees are Iraq, Serbia Montenegro, Afghanistan, Iran, Turkey, Nigeria and until recently Zimbabwe. A number of these children were born in the UK or spent the greatest part of their lives in this country.

The total number of asylum seekers in the UK who are supported by NASS (The National Asylum Support Service) is 44,495. Over 15,000 unaccompanied minors have entered the UK since 2000. Refugee organisations argue that unaccompanied minors can be placed in poor quality hostels, mixed with wrong people, leading to criminal records. That leads to being refused asylum and then the young person would not be entitled to NASS support. A further issue is that while people are waiting for assessment they have no entitlement to work, nor recourse to public funds, which means that they work illegally. Asylum seekers have been arrested and jailed for one year for working and for false papers.

Homeless Link research found that 15% of people accessing London's day centres, night shelters and outreach teams in March 2006 were A8 nationals.<sup>8</sup> Research by Broadway found that in a one night count of London hostels 19% of bed space was occupied by refugees and asylum seekers. The risk factors for these groups of migrants are very different from other homeless people, being unrelated to family background and related to leaving their own country. There are serious issues of abuse in relation to ethnic minority young women. In 2008 the Home Office estimated that about 3000 women every year are subjected to forced marriage in the UK and men can also be victims of this form of abuse (Khanum, 2008). Children from ethnic minorities of all ages, particularly those living in areas with few minority ethnic communities, are more likely than their white counterparts to experience bullying.

In England and particularly in London, Black and Minority Ethnic groups are around three times more likely than the general population to be homeless (DCLG, 2006, Gervais and Rehman, 2005). This includes single people, couples and /or those who have children (Quiglers et al 2008). Statistics from Centrepoint, a homeless organisation based in London showed that 76% of its hostel users were from a minority ethnic background (Trieu, 2008). Black African and black Caribbean groups are especially vulnerable to homelessness, being twice as likely to be registered as homeless as people of Indian, Pakistani or Bangladeshi origin (Netto 2006). One reason for this overrepresentation is that in addition to the common problems faced by the majority population resulting in homelessness, individuals from some Black and Minority ethnic communities face discrimination in terms of service provision, policies and legislation (Netto 2006).

### **3.3. Ethnicity differences: the CSEYHP sample**

The EU Youth Report 2009 explicitly quotes the following risk factors leading (among other things) to homelessness: "...early school dropouts, low educational achievements, a migrant or Roma background, mental health problems, a low socioeconomic background, disability, exposure to violence and substance

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<sup>8</sup> The Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia joined the EU in May 2004 and are often called 'A8' nations.

abuse.”<sup>9</sup> It is interesting that there isn't a single mention of youth refugees or asylum-seekers in the Report and Roma were mentioned once, in the example quoted above. (EU Youth Report 2009)

### *3.3.1 Background, childhood and school*

If we turn now to our research, we find that in case of majority, EU and non-EU immigrant the age structure varies between 18-25; only in case of minority background the most frequent age is 18. The youngest group is minority (average age 20) and the oldest EU immigrants (average 24). When asked if their parents were at risk of poverty, 28% of minority responded positive and the same is true for 23% of majority, 18% of EU immigrants and only 15% of non-EU immigrants. However, it is necessary to keep in mind that the results tell more about the NL, PT and UK since the quota in the CZ was not fulfilled.

Arguing with parents was seen as frequent by 51% of non-EU immigrants, 46% of EU immigrants, 38% of majority and 27% of minority. Non-EU immigrants and minorities mentioned the lowest frequency in arguments with parents involving hitting, EU immigrants the highest frequency.

91% of EU immigrants (bearing in mind there were only 11 in the sample) had experience with running away from home, 68% of majority, 54% of minority and 47% of non-EU immigrants.

42% of all respondents said they missed social services while growing up and also indicated that it would have made a difference if they had had them at the time. 40% missed the opportunity to talk to someone (in both cases the majority missed them most) 34% missed having a place where they could hide in the case of an emergency (this service was missed least by non-EU immigrants).

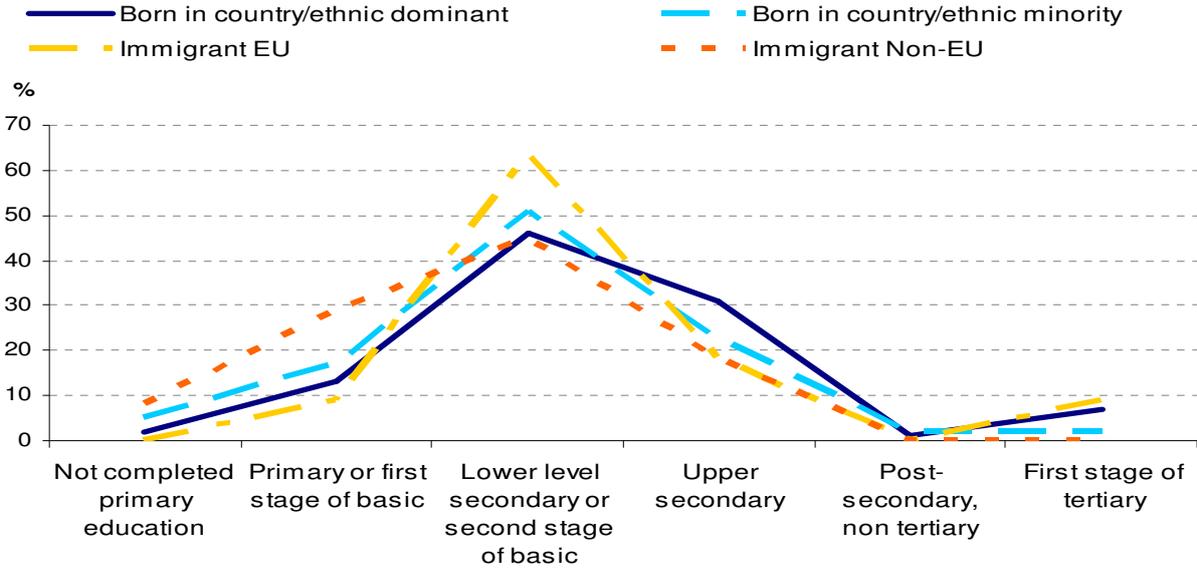
30% of all respondents said they attended special school/class; most frequently this answer was given by minority members (36%) and least frequently by EU immigrants (10%). 51% of all respondents had problems at school; this was true for EU and non-EU immigrants least frequently. The following graph shows the respondents' current qualification:

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<sup>9</sup> EU Youth Report 2009, p.39. Available at:

[http://ec.europa.eu/youth/news/doc/new\\_strategy/youth\\_report\\_final.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/youth/news/doc/new_strategy/youth_report_final.pdf) (accessed July 2010)

**Graph 3.1. Current qualification by ethnicity in %**



Lower level secondary or second stage of basic education was the most frequent option for all four groups but the second option in the case of non-EU immigrants was primary or first stage of basic while for the other three it was upper secondary level.

Education risk is approximately the same for all groups. The average age of leaving the parental home is 17 for all groups, with EU immigrants slightly higher at 18 years. Three most frequent marital status situations are shown in the following table in % by ethnicity. The overall majority in all groups has no children but 21% of the respondents of the ethnic minority group has a child/children and lives with them.

**Table 3.2. The three most frequent marital status situation by ethnicity in %**

	Single	Going out with someone	LAT relationship	Living with partner but not married
Born in country/ethnic dominant	51	17		15
Born in country/ethnic minority	42		21	17
Immigrant EU	73	18		9
Immigrant non-EU	78		10	<sup>10</sup> (see footnote)

<sup>10</sup> In case of non-EU immigrants the third most preferred answer were equally: engaged, planning to marry, married and separated and divorced – all 4%.

### 3.3.2. Current activities, source of income and social activities

Out of current activities, the respondents most frequently stated three and their frequency for each group is shown below.

Born in country/ethnic majority	- 29% Unemployed looking for work, 11 % Hanging out with friends, 10 % In full-time education
Born in country/ethnic minority	- 32% Unemployed looking for work, 23% In full-time education, 9 % Hanging out with friends
Immigrant EU	- 30 % Unemployed looking for work, 10 % In full-time education a 10 % In part-time job
Non-EU	- 31% Unemployed looking for work, 20% In full-time education, 12% In part-time education

The majority of the respondents of all groups have problems finding the job that they want (73% EU-immigrants, 67% non-EU immigrants, 66% majority and 59% minority). The following table shows their main source of income by three most frequently chosen answers:

**Table 3.3. Source of income by ethnicity in %**

Source of income	Majority	Minority	EU-immigrant	Non-EU immigrant
Benefits	<b>35</b>	<b>56</b>	10	<b>51</b>
Employment	20	14	<b>20</b>	14
Illegal activities	9			
Family		9		
Begging			10	
Part-time education				10

In the case of social activities, the three most frequently chosen options sorted by groups in % are the following:

**Table 3.4. Social activities by ethnicity in %**

Type of activity	Majority	Minority	EU immigrant	Non-EU immigrant
Physical activity	<b>21</b>	<b>19</b>	9	16
Day, leisure centre	13	17	<b>18</b>	8
Creative arts	10	14		8
Clubs or societies			9	
Learning activities				<b>18</b>

In the following table we find answers related directly to homelessness:

**Table 3.5. % of those who answered yes to the question related to homelessness**

<b>Answered yes/question</b>	Would you describe yourself as being at risk of becoming homeless	Would you like to go back home but you can't	Do you think you have your own place
Majority	36	58	<b>62</b>
Minority	22	47	56
EU immigrant	<b>63</b>	<b>80</b>	30
Non-EU immigrant	41	56	47

### 3.3.3. Health problems and current needs

The highest percentage of those who stated they had mental or physical problems before they turned 16 was in the group of ethnic majority, but mental and physical health problems after turning 16 troubled mostly EU immigrants.

In terms of current needs, the following table shows the four most frequently chosen answers by ethnicity in %.

**Table 3.6 Four main current needs by ethnicity in %**

	Housing support	Substance Abuse Services	Education or learning support	Employment	Money management	Physical health services	Other
Born in country /ethnic majority	60		28	50	27		
Born in country /ethnic minority	58		49	47	39		
Immigrant EU	73	18	18	54		18	27
Immigrant Non-EU	69		49	57	29		

77% of minority have their key-worker, followed by 65% of non-EU immigrant and 58% of majority, while only 20% of EU immigrants have one.

#### **4. Conclusions and recommendations**

The following conclusions and recommendations are based on the CSEYHP research bearing in mind that the sample was limited in number and that the quota in certain cases was not reached as explained above.

1. Our research showed that during childhood boys argued more over alcohol, drugs, police and getting into trouble while girls mainly argued over boyfriends, points towards different paths of becoming homeless or different ways of getting into a situation of homelessness vulnerability. This would suggest different early intervention and prevention programmes for boys and girls. In case of boys the recommendation would be to focus on early intervention and prevention of substance abuse and crime rates, while in case of girls it would be appropriate to stress work with family or care givers. Since boys had more problems at school with teachers, which might point to a different understanding of authority, it would be appropriate to recommend working specially with boys on the issue of authority building at schools. Both sexes truanted from school, which means that the monitoring process could detect the problem in an early stage and involve family/care givers or social workers. As expected, girls more often have children in their care, which confirms a special vulnerability of single mothers (boys either have no children or are not the ones looking after their children).
2. In case of current activities, the research showed no significant differences, except that girls spend more time looking after home and family. This obligation put on girls, expected according to traditional gender stereotype, might be an additional burden for them and could weaken their capability of reinsertion. The agencies working with homeless should then pay special attention to work provided by girls in such circumstances, since work they have to provide at home might prevent them from attending school successfully or from deciding on their careers. Both sexes in the sample are unemployed and their main source of income are benefits, followed by family for girls and employment for boys (probably irregular work and cash-in-hand type of work since most of the respondents stated they were unemployed). Girls therefore are more engaged by family matters but can also rely more on family. On the one

hand this can prevent them from participating in further education on the other it can be a source of support. Boys also stated as their source of income significantly more illegal activities, which should be taken into account by providing alternatives in working with them. Although girls' activities are more diverse than boys', both sexes spend their time in terms of social activities in day and leisure centres, which might point to the place where homeless or potentially homeless youth can be contacted and where various awareness raising activities can be realized as well as information distributed. Judging by types of services both sexes use, girls are mostly health issues services users while boys use typically social services within the sample we researched.

3. It is quite significant that both sexes feel stress and as a result trouble with sleeping. Girls cry frequently and boys are depressed, which might be the same thing. These are their main health issues. The current needs for both sexes are the same: housing support, employment and education and learning support. There is no reason to offer different types of services to boys and girls, but it would be recommendable to focus within these services on differences in position in the family, substance abuse and dangers of involvement in illegal activities.
4. In case of conclusions about ethnicity and migrant background, it is necessary to keep in mind that the results should be applied to NL, PT and UK since the CZ had insignificant number of the respondents in this category. The rate of arguments with parents in case of non-EU immigrants is almost double the rate of minority group. Although argument involving hitting were most frequently mentioned by EU immigrants who score second in arguments with parents. Although more than half of the sample had problems at school, minority members were most likely to end up in special school/class. More data should be available to see if this is the same for a larger sample and for what reasons, but generally special schools often do not open path to regular employment. In terms of education no significant difference was found except that the second most frequent option in case of non-EU immigrants was primary or basic, while for the other three groups it was upper secondary. Specific support therefore is needed for minority members before deciding to put

them in special schools, and in case of non-EU immigrants, in opening paths to further education.

5. The group which was most likely to have children was the ethnic minority. Single rates were highest for both groups of immigrants. Non-EU immigrants were the only group who stated they were married, although in very low numbers.
6. In all four groups the most frequent activity was unemployed, looking for work, followed by in full-time education for all except for the majority group, where hanging out with friends was the second most frequent option. Also all four groups have problems with finding a job that they want. Their source of income are benefits except for the EU-immigrants, which might be due to the period of time required by the EU legislation for EU immigrants to qualify for access to social benefit system. While majority and minority members engage in physical activities, the EU immigrants spend their time in day and leisure centres while the non-EU immigrants engage in learning activities, which might be relevant for their capacity building and resilience.
7. EU immigrants in the limited sample see themselves as being at risk of homelessness and very high rate would like to go back home but can't. Close to or over half of the other three groups would also like to go back home but can't. This longing to go home offers opportunities to build on and attempt to repair the damaged family relationships.
8. All groups in terms of their current needs stated most frequently housing support. The second option for all except the minority group was help with employment, while for minority members the second most important was education or learning support.

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