



Department for
Communities and
Local Government



English Housing Survey PROFILE OF ENGLISH HOUSING 2013



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Department for
Communities and
Local Government



English Housing Survey: PROFILE OF ENGLISH HOUSING

Annual report on England's housing stock, 2013

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- All the households who gave up their time to take part in the survey.
- NatCen who managed the English Housing Survey on behalf of the department and led the production of the 2013-14 Households Report.
- The Building Research Establishment (BRE) who managed the physical survey of properties and led the production of the 2013 Profile of English housing report, the 2013 Energy efficiency of English housing report and the 2013-14 Fire and fire safety report.
- The NatCen interviewers who conducted the household interviews and the CADS Housing Surveys surveyors who carried out the visual inspections of properties.
- And finally, the team at DCLG who worked on the survey and who were involved in the production of this report.

Introduction

1. The English Housing Survey (EHS) is a national survey of people's housing circumstances and the condition and energy efficiency of housing in England. In its current form, it was first run in 2008-09. Prior to then, the survey was run as two standalone surveys: the English House Condition Survey and the Survey of English Housing. This report provides the findings from the 2013 survey.
2. The report focuses on the physical characteristics of the English housing stock and is split into three sections. The first provides an overall profile of the stock in 2013 and how this has changed over time. It then examines the characteristics of new build properties and how these differ from the rest of the stock. The second section, on services, amenities and accessibility, examines the provision of key features present in 2013, for example, water meters, secondary WCs and security features and how provision has changed over time. The accessibility of the housing stock for people with mobility problems is also explored. The final section investigates the overall dwelling condition and safety of the housing stock in 2013 and over time, using five key indicators: disrepair; the incidence of damp and mould; electrical safety; the most serious hazards assessed under the Housing Health and Safety Rating System (HHSRS) and Decent Homes. It provides a summary of poor housing conditions among different types of homes and the extent to which poor homes have a combination of problems. Additional annex tables provide further detail to that covered in the main body of the report.
3. The report builds on findings first released in the 2013-14 English Housing Survey Headline Report, which was published on the Department for Communities and Local Government (DCLG) website in February 2015¹.
4. Results are presented for '2013' and are based on fieldwork carried out between April 2012 and March 2014 (a mid-point of April 2013). The sample comprises 12,498 occupied or vacant dwellings where a physical inspection was carried out. Throughout the report, this is referred to as the 'dwelling sample'.
5. In tables, where the numbers of cases in the sample are too small for any inference to be drawn about the national picture, the cell contents are replaced with a u. This happens when the cell is based on sample of less than five

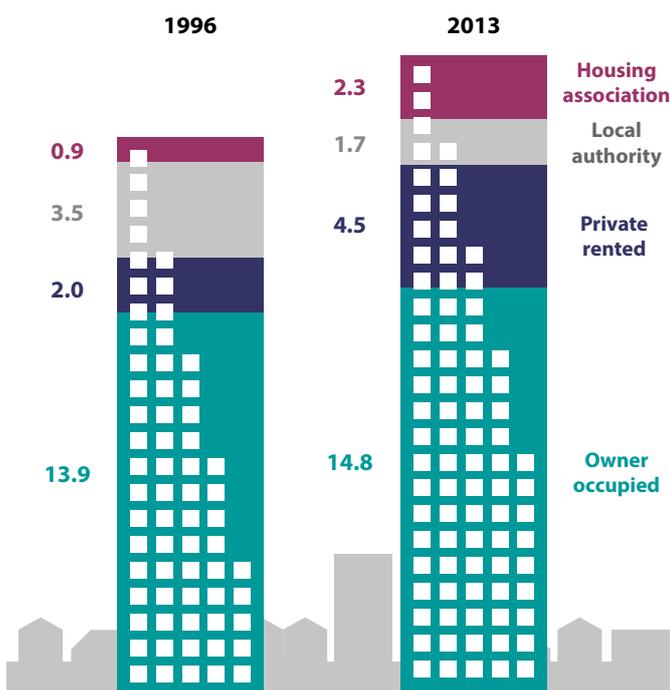
¹ <https://www.gov.uk/government/statistics/english-housing-survey-2013-to-2014-headline-report>

cases. Where cell contents are in italics this indicates a total sample size of less than 30, and the results should be treated as indicative only.

6. Where comparative statements have been made in the text, these have been significance tested to a 95% confidence level. This means we are 95% confident that the statements we are making are true
7. Additional annex tables, including the data underlying the figures and charts, are published on the DCLG website: <https://www.gov.uk/government/organisations/department-for-communities-and-local-government/series/english-housing-survey> alongside many supplementary tables, which are updated each year but are too numerous to include in our reports. Further information on the technical details of the survey, and information and past reports on the Survey of English Housing and the English House Condition Survey can also be accessed via this link.
8. If you have any queries about this report, would like any further information or have suggestions for analyses you would like to see included in future EHS reports, please contact ehs@communities.gsi.gov.uk
9. The responsible statistician for this report is: Jeremy Barton, English Housing Survey Team, Strategic Statistics Division, DCLG. Contact via ehs@communities.gsi.gov.uk

Profile of English housing 2013

The total number of dwellings in England increased from 20.3 million in 1996 to 23.3 million in 2013. Much of this increase was due to growth in private rented housing.



Above figures in millions

The number of fully visitable¹ homes increased from 744,000 in 2007 to 1.4 million in 2013.



¹ enabling dwellings to be more accessible for people with disabilities, including wheelchair users. The four visitability features are: level access; flush threshold; sufficiently wide doors and circulation space; WC at entrance level.

Presence of water meters



Homes built before 1919

Homes built after 1990

Average usable floor area



Average standardised basic repair costs²



² a measure of disrepair which expresses costs in pounds per square metre of floor area (£/m²) based on prices for the East Midlands region

Main findings

Growth in housing since 1996 was driven by growth in the private sector

- From 1996 to 2013, the total number of dwellings in England increased steadily from 20.3 million in 1996 to 23.3 million in 2013. Much of this was due to the notable growth in private rented housing which more than doubled in size from 2.0 million to 4.5 million (19% of the stock) over this period.
- The number of owner occupied homes increased less sharply by 800 thousand to 14.8 million (63% of the stock).
- Over the same period the number of social sector homes decreased from 4.4 million in 1996 to 4.0 million (17% of the stock) in 2013.

A quarter of private rented homes were built after 1980

- In 2013 there were 1.1 million privately rented homes built after 1980 increasing from 8% of the total private rented stock in 1996 to 25% over this period.
- The proportion of pre 1919 homes dwellings in the private rented sector fell from 52% in 1996 to 32% in 2013, although the actual numbers of these increased by 400,000.

Much of the rise in private rented stock since 1996 was in suburban areas

- Within the private rented sector, there was an increase in the proportion of dwellings in suburban residential areas, from 41% in 1996 to 51% in 2013 (from 800,000 to 2.3 million).

A higher proportion of new build homes were flats compared with the older housing stock

- A large proportion of new build homes were flats (42%), notably greater than the proportion found among older homes (19%). The proportion of semi-detached homes among new build stock was lower (11%) than the proportion among older homes (29%).
- There was a smaller proportion of three bedroomed homes among new builds (23%) compared with older homes (43%). However a higher proportion of new build homes had at least four bedrooms (27%) compared to older homes (20%).

-
- One half of new homes had one or two bedrooms compared with 37% of older homes.

Owner occupied homes were larger than rented homes on average

- Owner occupied homes had an average of 109m² of usable floor area, compared with 78m² in private rented dwellings and 66m² for both local authority and housing association homes.
- The most common number of bedrooms in owner occupied homes was three (47%). Rented homes most commonly had two bedrooms (40% of private rented stock and 36% of social rented stock).

Water meter provision increased since 2010 and was higher in newer homes than much older homes

- There was an increase in the proportion of dwellings with a water meter from 34% in 2010 to 42% in 2013. Increased provision was evident among all tenures.
- Water meters were present at 76% of homes built after 1990 but only 26% of homes built before 1919.
- Although metering was lowest among local authority homes throughout this period, the percentage with water meters increased from 12% in 2010 to 19% in 2013.

Households with at least one member aged 60 or over were more likely to have a water meter compared with other households.

- Around half (52%) of single households where the HRP was 60 years of age or more had a water meter, as did 50% of couples aged 60 or over with no dependent children, compared with 41% of all households.
- Those households with HRPs in full-time education (21%) and HRPs who were unemployed (25%) were less likely to have a meter compared with households with a full time working HRP (40%).

The number of homes with all four visitability features¹ increased since 2007

- There was an overall improvement in the visitability of English housing stock from 2007 to 2013, with the number of fully visitable homes increasing by around 86% from 744,000 to 1.4 million (3% of the stock to 6%).

¹ Enabling dwellings to be more accessible for people with disabilities, including wheelchair users. The four visitability features are: level access; flush threshold; sufficiently wide doors and circulation space; WC at entrance level – see Chapter 2 for further details.

-
- The highest proportion of homes with all four visitability features (i.e. were fully visitable) were those built after 1990 (27%), up from 14% in 2007. Similarly just 8% of these homes had no visitability features.
 - Conversely only a very small proportion of homes built before 1945 were fully visitable (1%) and about a third had no visitability features.
 - The most common accessibility feature was the absence of a change in floor level or trip steps at entrance level (75%). Some 63% of homes had a WC at entrance level and 56% had a room at entrance level that would be suitable for a bedroom.
 - Purpose-built high rise flats (33%) were more likely to have full visitability, up from 12% in 2007. Almost half of small terraced houses (48%) had none of the four accessibility features.

The level of disrepair varied across tenure, dwelling types and dwelling age

- Average standardised basic repair costs² were highest for private rented dwellings compared to other tenures (£20/m² compared with £13/m² for owner occupied dwellings and £12/m² for social rented dwellings).
- Converted flats were the dwelling type with highest average standardised basic repair costs (£25/m²) and purpose built flats the lowest (£10/m²).
- Dwelling age related strongly to average standardised basic repair costs with homes built pre 1919 at £27/m² and homes built post 1980 at £4/m²).
- Since 2001, the average basic repair cost for the whole stock reduced by 46% from £26/m² to £14/m². Costs have fallen for all tenures since 2001 in particular for private rented stock (from £55/m² to £20/m²).

² a measure of disrepair which expresses costs in pounds per square metre of floor area (£/m²) based on prices for the East Midlands region

Chapter 1

Stock profile

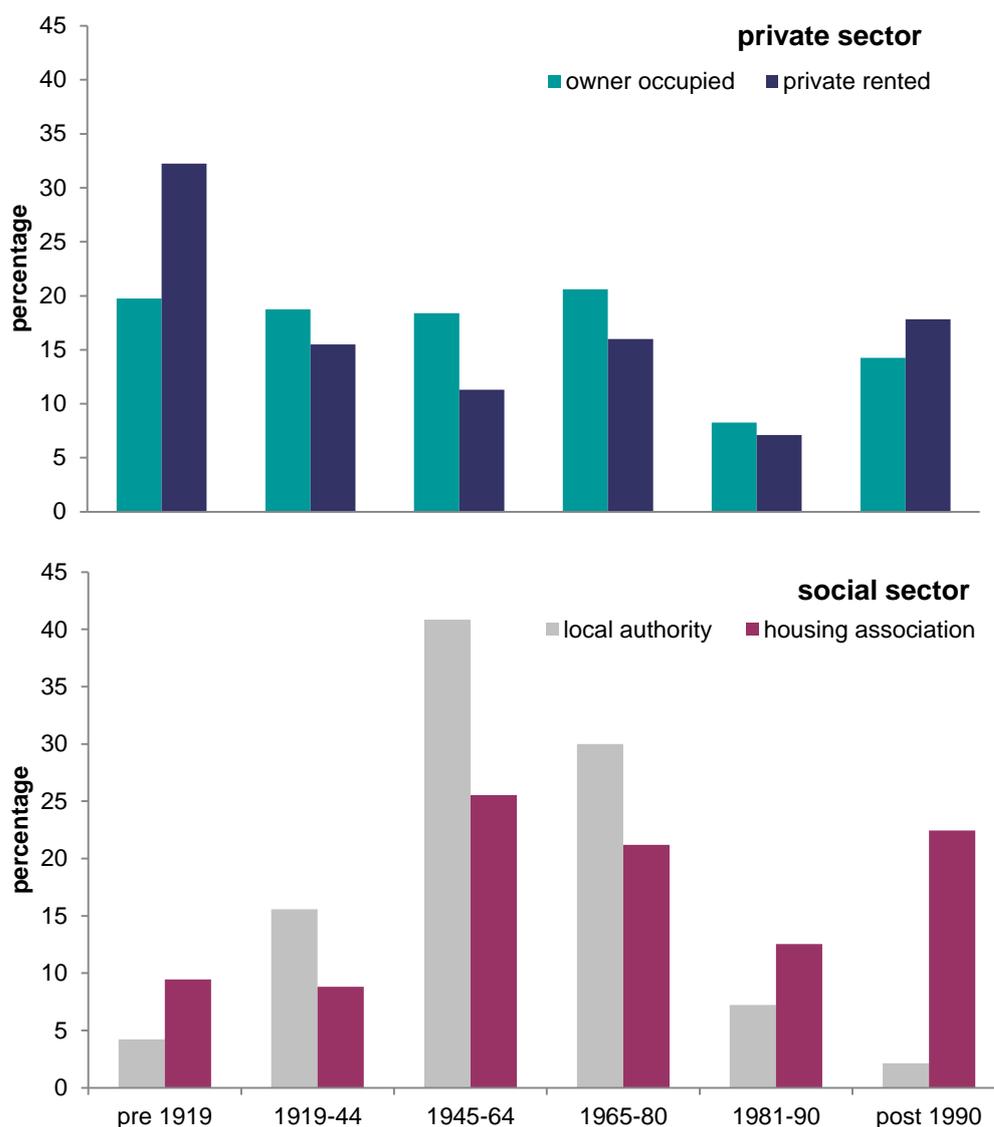
- 1.1 This chapter profiles the English housing stock in 2013 in terms of its age and type of homes, including a comparison of the London area with the rest of England. It explores how the tenure profile of the housing stock including vacant homes has changed since 1996. It then provides a profile of newer homes built after 2003. Finally, the chapter examines the internal space in homes, the number and types of rooms and the nature of external space (plot size and parking facilities). Further information on the profile of the English housing stock is available in the live web table DA1101.

Dwelling type, age and location

- 1.2 In 2013, there were 23.3 million dwellings in England. Of these, 63% (14.8 million) were owner occupied, 19% (4.5 million) were privately rented and 17% (4.0 million) were rented from social landlords. The social sector consisted of 1.7 million local authority homes¹ and 2.3 million housing association homes, Annex Table 1.1.
- 1.3 Owner occupied properties were fairly evenly distributed by dwelling age compared with other tenures. Within the private rented stock a large percentage of homes were built before 1919 (32%). Most local authority properties were built between 1945 and 1980 (71%) with a low proportion before or after. For housing association properties a low proportion were built before 1945 and a fairly even proportion built thereafter, Figure 1.1.

¹ Local authority dwellings include those managed by Arms Length Management Organisations (ALMOs) as these dwellings are still owned by the local authority

Figure 1.1: Dwelling age by tenure, 2013



Base: all dwellings

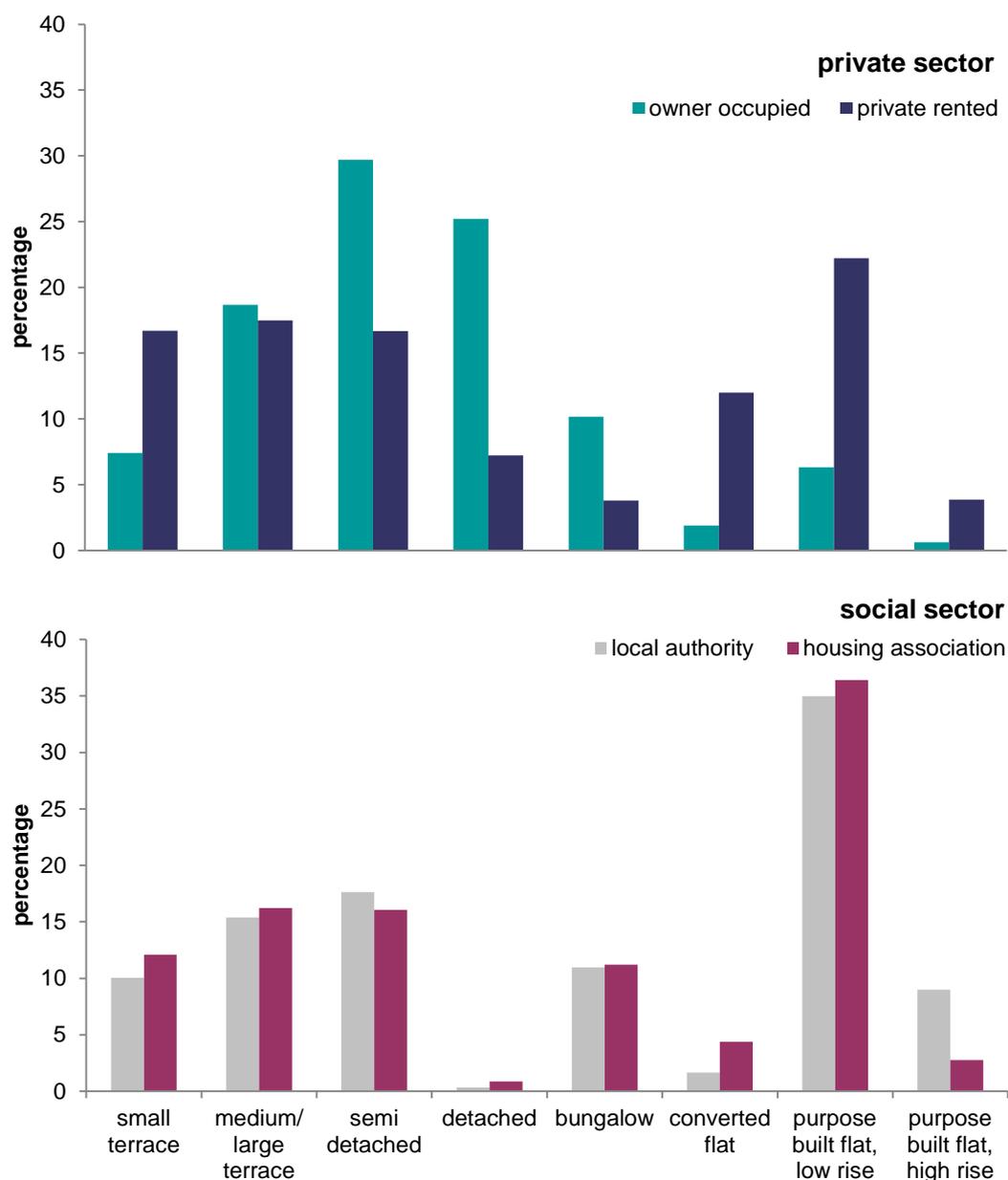
Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.1

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

1.4 Around half the properties (53%) in England were either terraced or semi-detached houses, 18% were detached and 9% were bungalows. The remaining 21% of homes were flats: purpose built low rise flats (14%), converted flats (4%) and purpose built high rise flats (2%), Annex Table 1.1.

1.5 The distribution of dwelling types varied across different tenures. Over half of owner occupied homes were either semi-detached (30%) or detached (25%). Over one fifth (22%) of private rented homes were purpose built low rise flats and this sector also had the largest proportion of converted flats (12%). The largest proportions of flats were found in the social sector; purpose built low rise flats accounted for 35% of local authority dwellings and 36% of housing association dwellings, Figure 1.2.

Figure 1.2: Dwelling type by tenure, 2013



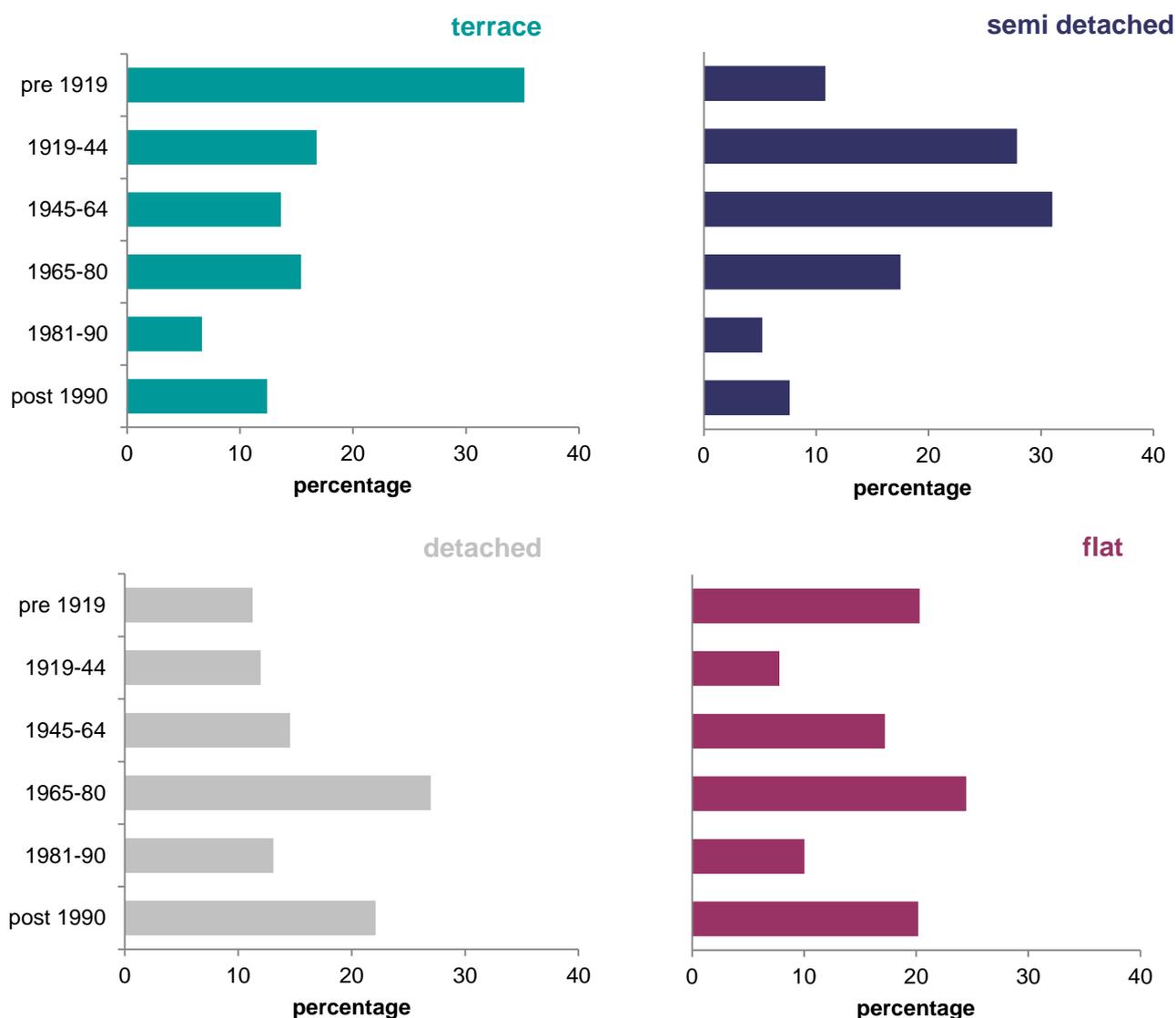
Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.1

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

1.6 Dwelling age varied within different dwelling types, with the highest proportion of terraced homes (35%) built before 1919 and over one half of semi-detached homes (59%) built between 1919 and 1964. The highest proportions of detached houses (27%) and flats (24%) were built between 1965 and 1980, Figure 1.3.

Figure 1.3: Dwelling type by dwelling age, 2013



Base: all dwellings

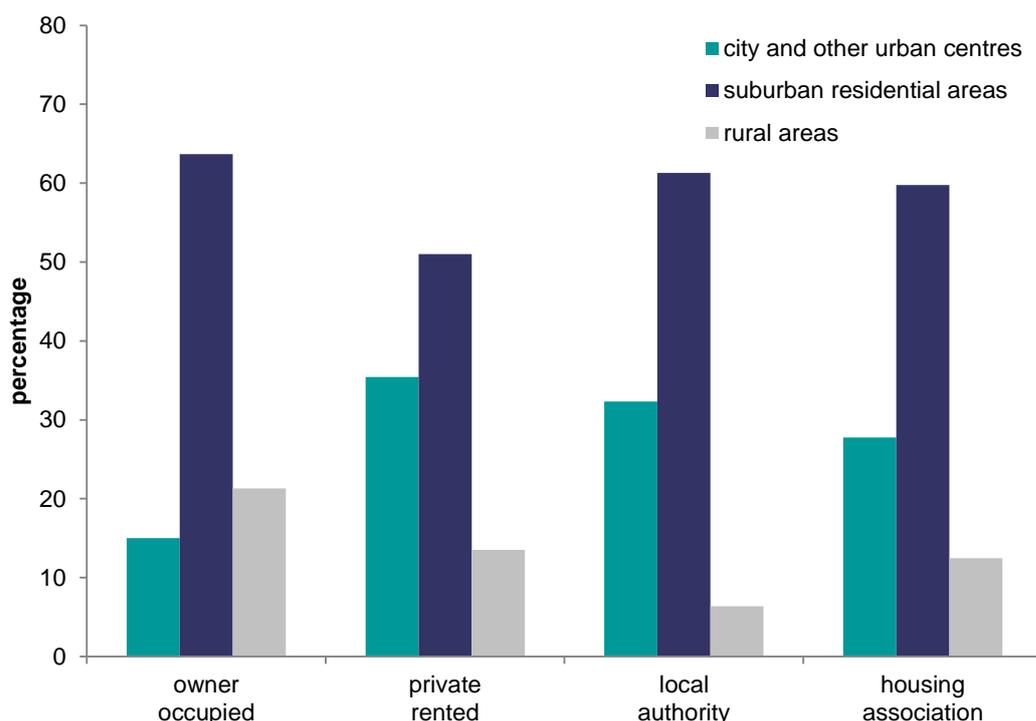
Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.2

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

1.7 Some 14.1 million homes were located in suburban residential areas, 5.0 million homes were in urban areas² and the remaining stock of just over 4.1 million homes was in rural areas, Annex Table 1.1. Around two thirds (64%) of owner occupied homes were in suburban residential areas compared with 51% in the private rented sector. There were a higher proportion of rented dwellings in urban areas: 35% of private rented dwellings, 32% of local authority dwellings and 28% of housing association dwellings compared with 15% of owner occupied dwellings. The proportion of local authority (6%) and housing association (12%) dwellings located in rural areas was notably less than the proportion of rural homes in owner occupation (21%), Figure 1.4.

² urban areas refers to dwellings in city or other urban centres, see the Glossary for further detail

Figure 1.4: Type of area by tenure, 2013



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.1

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

- 1.8 The profile of homes in London looked notably different to the rest of the English stock as a whole. Owner occupied homes comprised roughly half of London homes (49%), compared with 66% of homes outside of London, whilst the private rented sector accounted for 27% of London homes compared with 18% of homes outside of London, Annex Table 1.3.
- 1.9 Overall London homes were older with over half of homes built prior to 1945 (54%) compared with 34% of non-London homes. Flats were also over represented within the London area comprising almost half (49%) of the stock compared with 16% of homes outside the capital. Some 65% of England's purpose built high rise flats were located in London as were over one third (36%) of all converted flats, Annex Table 1.3.

Changes in the English housing stock since 1996

- 1.10 Since 1996 government policies and economic developments have continued to transform England's tenure structure. These developments occurred against a demographic backdrop of continued population growth which placed increasing demands on the supply of housing. This section examines long-term tenure trends.

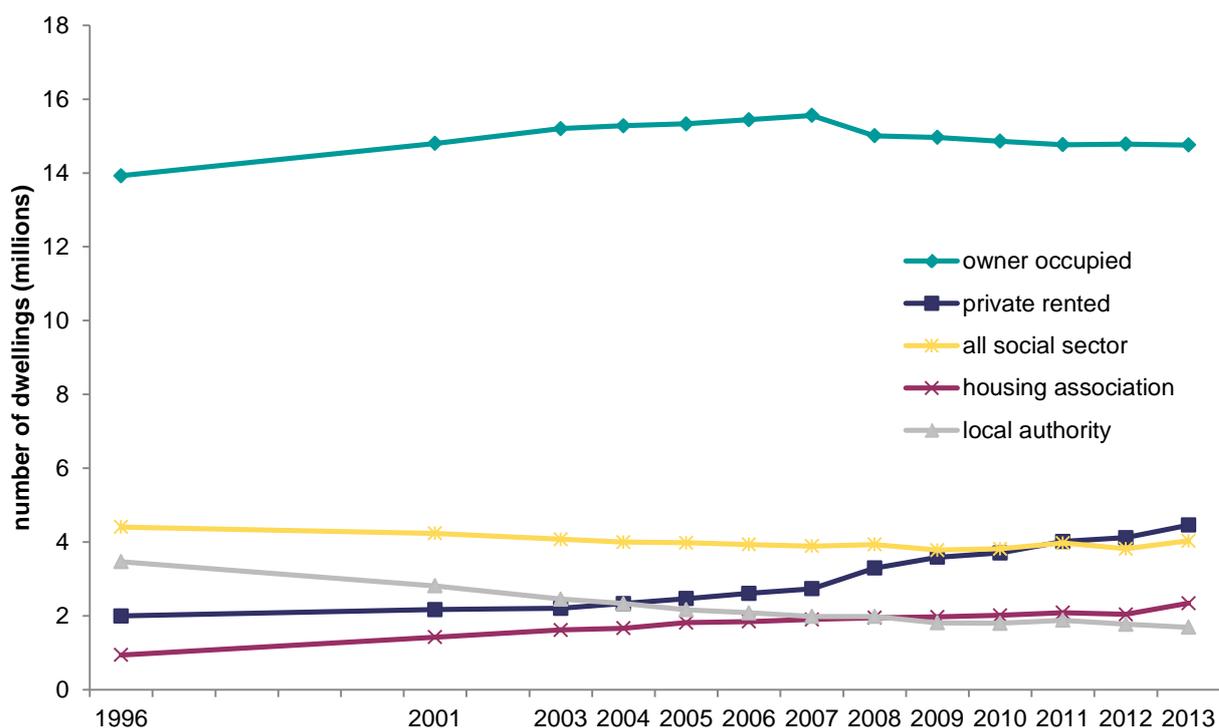
-
- 1.11 From 1996 to 2013, the total number of dwellings in England increased steadily from 20.3 million in 1996 to 23.3 million in 2013. Much of this increase was due to the notable growth in private rented housing which more than doubled in size from 2.0 million to 4.5 million over this period. The number of owner occupied homes increased at a slower rate, by 800,000 over the period, Figure 1.5.
- 1.12 There were significant changes within the social rented sector from 1996. This is partly due to the ownership of many local authority dwellings being transferred to housing associations through Large Scale Voluntary Transfer (LSVT)³, which first took place in 1988. A key driver for LSVT was the securing of resources required to remedy the backlog of council housing disrepair. Housing associations also expanded their stock through new building. The local authority housing stock was also affected by the Right to Buy (RTB) introduced in 1980⁴; around 540,000 Right to Buy sales occurred between 1996 and 2013⁵. As a result the overall number of social sector homes decreased from 4.4 million in 1996 to 4.0 million in 2013, Figure 1.5.

³ a Large Scale Voluntary Transfer (LSVT) involves the council transferring ownership of its homes with the agreement of its tenants to a new or existing Registered Housing Provider/ Housing Association

⁴ Right to Buy was introduced in the 1980 Housing Act, see glossary for further details

⁵ source: <https://www.gov.uk/government/statistical-data-sets/live-tables-on-social-housing-sales> (Table 678)

Figure 1.5: Numbers of dwellings by tenure in 1996-2013



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.4

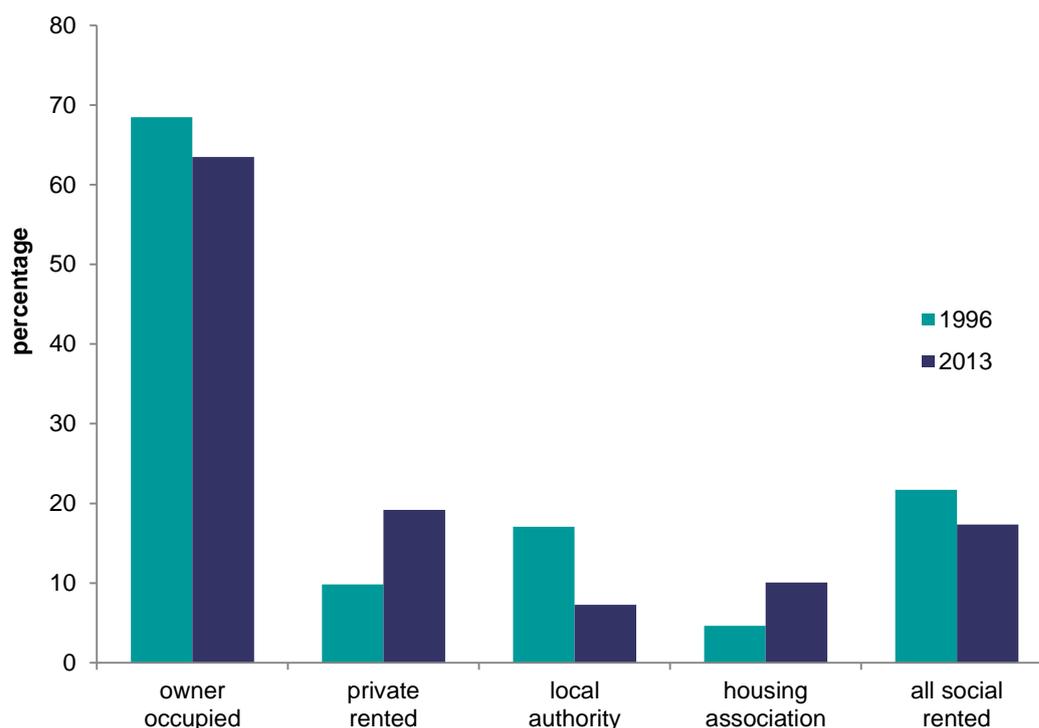
Sources:

1996-2007: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample

2008-2013: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

1.13 The increase in the proportion of private rented dwellings (from 10% in 1996 to 19% in 2013, Annex Table 1.4) was due to a number of factors including the fall in the number of households getting on the housing ladder normally through a mortgage; higher house prices, tighter mortgage lending and relative low wage growth all contributing to this. In the late 1990s rent controls were removed, and assured shorthold tenancies became the standard, giving greater flexibility in the length of tenancies. Lenders also introduced the buy-to-let mortgage at around the same time, which meant that a greater proportion of newer homes moved into the private rented sector relatively soon after purchase.

Figure 1.6: Percentage of dwellings by tenure in 1996 and 2013



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.4

Sources:

1996-2007: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample

2008-2013: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

Owner occupied homes

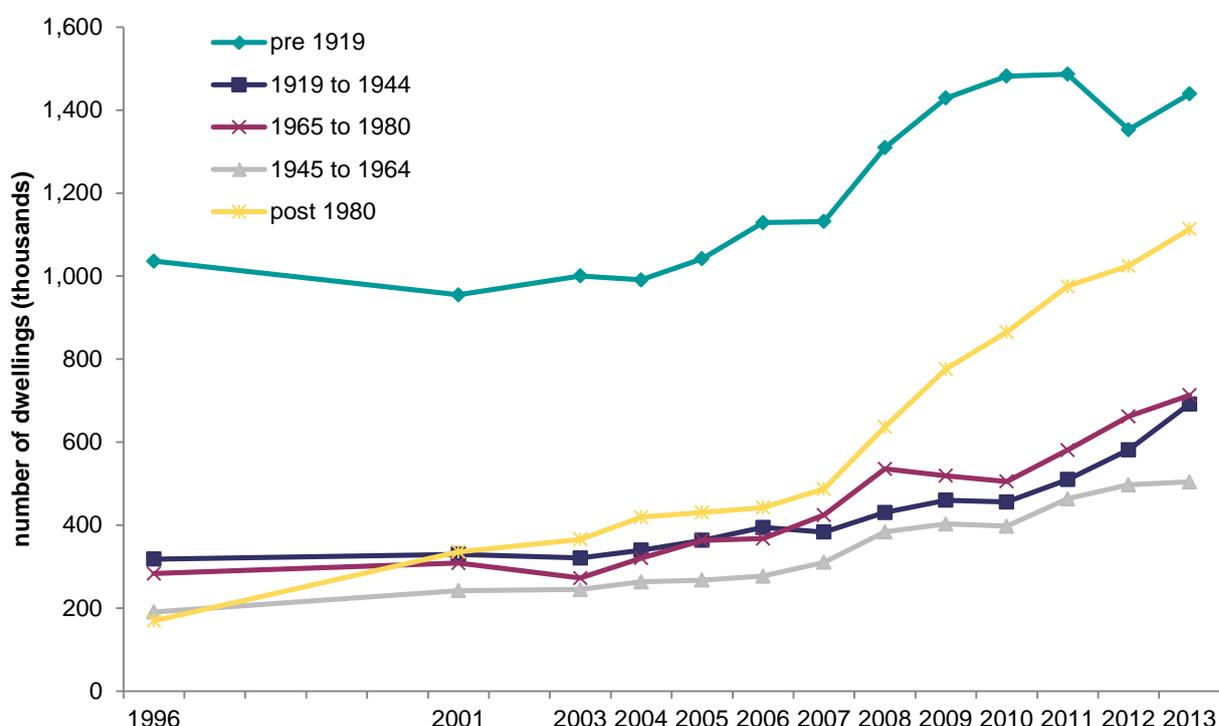
- 1.14 The owner occupied sector in England began to grow in the 1950s and by the 1970s had become the largest sector⁶. From 1996, the number of owner occupied dwellings remained fairly steady. The aforementioned difficulties in entering into home ownership and the subsequent growth in private renting have, however, resulted in the proportion of owner occupied homes falling from 68% to 63% over this period, Annex Table 1.4. More information on the forms of owner occupation such as shared ownership is provided in chapter 3 of the 2013-14 Household report.
- 1.15 There were small changes in the dwelling age distribution of owner occupied homes over this period, with a decrease in pre 1919 dwellings (from 25% to 20%) and an increase in post 1980 dwellings (from 14% to 23%). This is to be expected due to, for example, new homes being built, the transfer of homes to the private rented sector, and older homes being demolished or converted, Annex Table 1.5.

⁶ See English Housing Survey: Households Report, 2012-13, https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/335751/EHS_Households_Report_2012-13.pdf

Privately rented homes

- 1.16 The lack of affordable housing, the increase of 'buy to let' purchases and the reduced availability of local authority housing during this period were all critical factors leading to the rise in private renting, particularly among the under 35 age group⁷ (see chapter 4 of the 2013-14 Household report).
- 1.17 The number of private rented homes of all ages increased in number since 1996, with homes built after 1980 increasing at the fastest rate, demonstrating that newer dwellings had a significant impact on this sector. Around a quarter of homes built after 2003 were in this sector (see the 'New Builds' section of this chapter). However, homes built before 1919 also increased because private rented housing has transferred from the owner occupied sector, Figure 1.7.

Figure 1.7: Number of private rented dwellings by dwelling age, 1996-2013



Base: all private rented dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.6

Sources:

1996-2007: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample

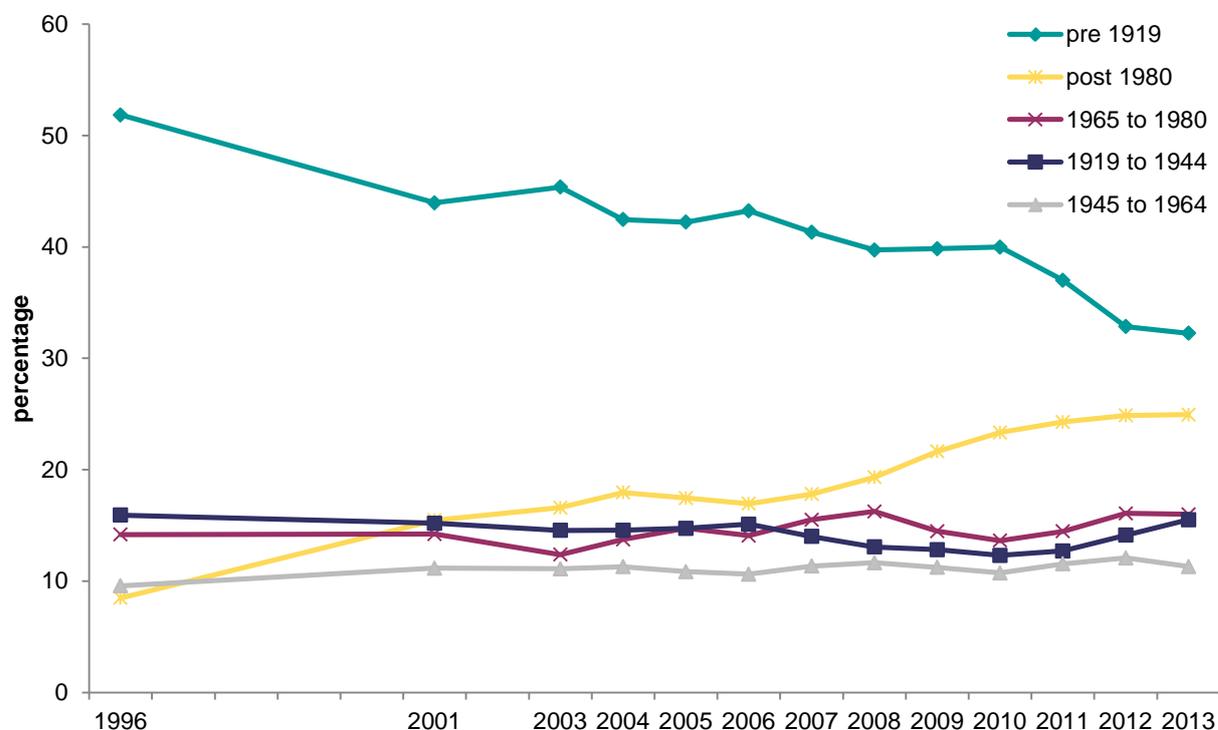
2008-2013: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

- 1.18 Despite an additional 400,000 pre 1919 homes that transferred to the private rented sector, the proportion of these dwellings fell from 52% in 1996 to 32% in 2013. This is due to the increase in the number of post 1980 dwellings, which increased by 940,000 from 8% in 1996 to 25% over this period. In 2013

⁷ For further information see <http://www.cml.org.uk/cml/statistics>

there were 1.1 million privately rented homes built after 1980, Figure 1.8 and Annex Table 1.6.

Figure 1.8: Proportion of private rented dwellings by dwelling age, 1996-2013



Base: all private rented dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.6

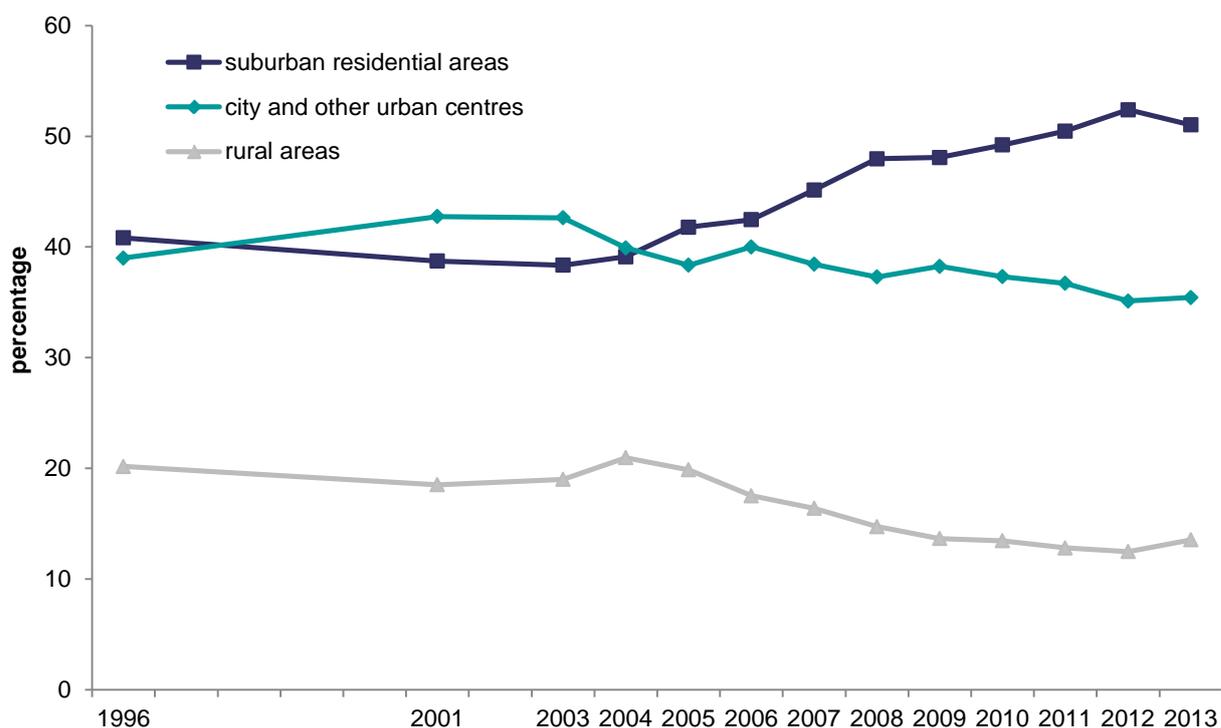
Sources:

1996-2007: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample

2008-2013: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

- 1.19 The proportion of privately rented dwellings that were either houses or bungalows remained fairly constant, with terraced dwellings comprising the largest proportion of the stock throughout the period (33%-35%). There were more changes in the proportion of privately rented flats, with a decrease in converted flats (from 19% in 1996 to 12% in 2013) and an increase in purpose built flats (18% in 1996 to 26% in 2013), Annex Table 1.6
- 1.20 Within the private rented sector, there was an increase in the proportion of dwellings in suburban residential areas, from 41% in 1996 to 51% in 2013. The proportion in urban areas was fairly constant but there was a decline in the proportion of dwellings in rural areas from 20% to 14%, although the actual number of private rented dwellings in rural areas had risen from 400,000 in 1996 to 600,000 in 2013, Figure 1.9 and Annex Table 1.6.

Figure 1.9 Percentage of private rented dwellings by type of area, 1996-2013



Base: all private rented dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.6

Sources:

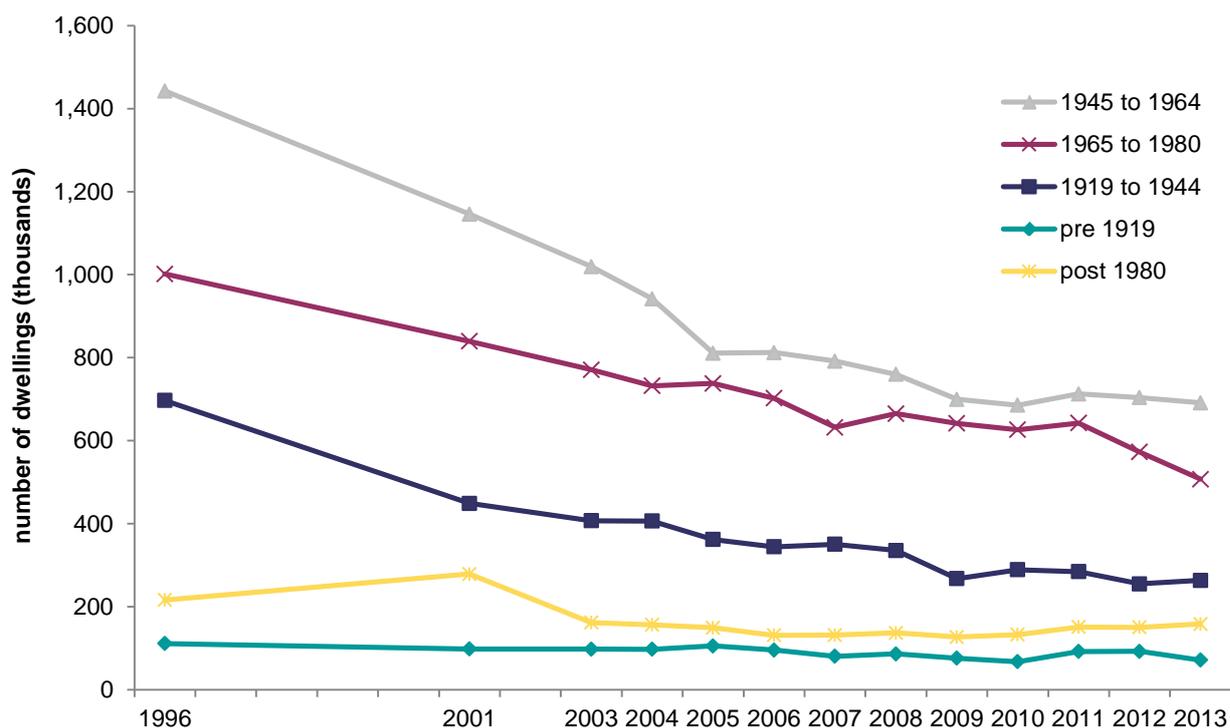
1996-2007: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample

2008-2013: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

Local authority homes

1.21 The number of local authority dwellings declined from 3.5 million in 1996 to 1.7 million in 2013 due to the impact of LSVT and RTB (see paragraph 1.12), Annex Table 1.4. The largest reductions were in homes built between 1945 and 1964 (when most local authority homes were originally built), which saw a loss to the sector of around 750,000 dwellings, Figure 1.10.

Figure 1.10 Number of local authority dwellings by dwelling age, 1996-2013



Base: all local authority dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.7

Sources:

1996-2007: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample

2008-2013: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

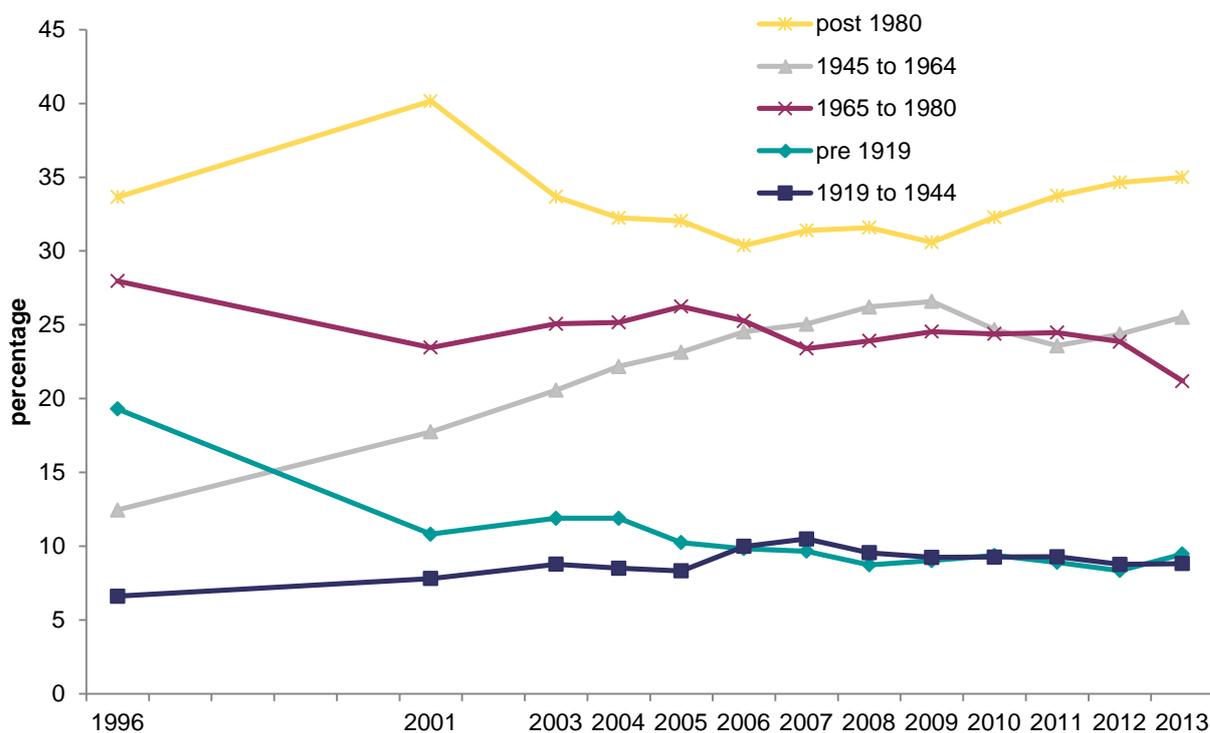
1.22 A large proportion of all the dwellings lost to local authorities were houses and bungalows. This has resulted in a shift in the dwelling type profile over this period. There was an increase in the proportion of purpose built flats (from 40% to 44%) and a reduction in the proportion of semi-detached houses (from 22% to 18%) over this period, Annex Table 1.7.

1.23 The area profile of local authority homes also changed, with a fall in the proportion of homes in both rural and suburban residential areas (by 4% and 3% respectively) and an increase of 7% for homes located in urban areas, from 1996 to 2013, Annex Table 1.7.

Housing association homes

1.24 There was a change to the housing association stock profile as the sector grew largely due to LSVT. As a high proportion of local authority homes were built between 1945 and 1964, it is not surprising that following LSVT, there was an increase in homes of this age within the housing association stock (from 12% in 1996 to 26% in 2013). Conversely, the proportion of homes built before 1919 fell from 19% to 9% over this period, Figure 1.11.

Figure 1.11: Percentage of housing association dwellings by dwelling age, 1996-2013



Base: all housing association dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.8

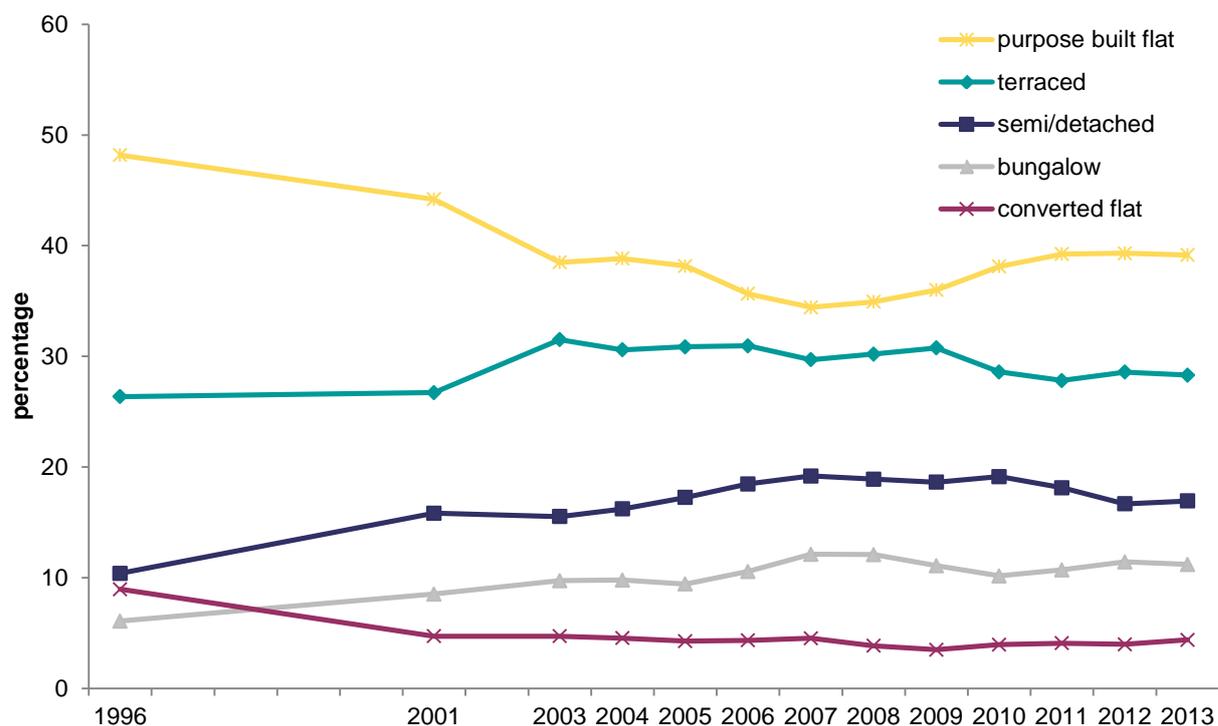
Sources:

1996-2007: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample

2008-2013: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

1.25 The dwelling type profile for housing association dwellings also changed markedly. Semi and detached homes increased from 10% of the stock in 1996 to 17% in 2013, whereas the proportion of purpose built flats decreased from 48% to 39% over this period, Figure 1.12.

Figure 1.12: Percentage of housing association dwellings by dwelling type, 1996-2013



Base: all housing association dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.8

Sources:

1996-2007: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample

2008-2013: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

1.26 The proportion of housing association homes in suburban residential areas increased from 52% to 60% whilst the proportion in urban areas declined from 32% to 28%, Annex Table 1.8.

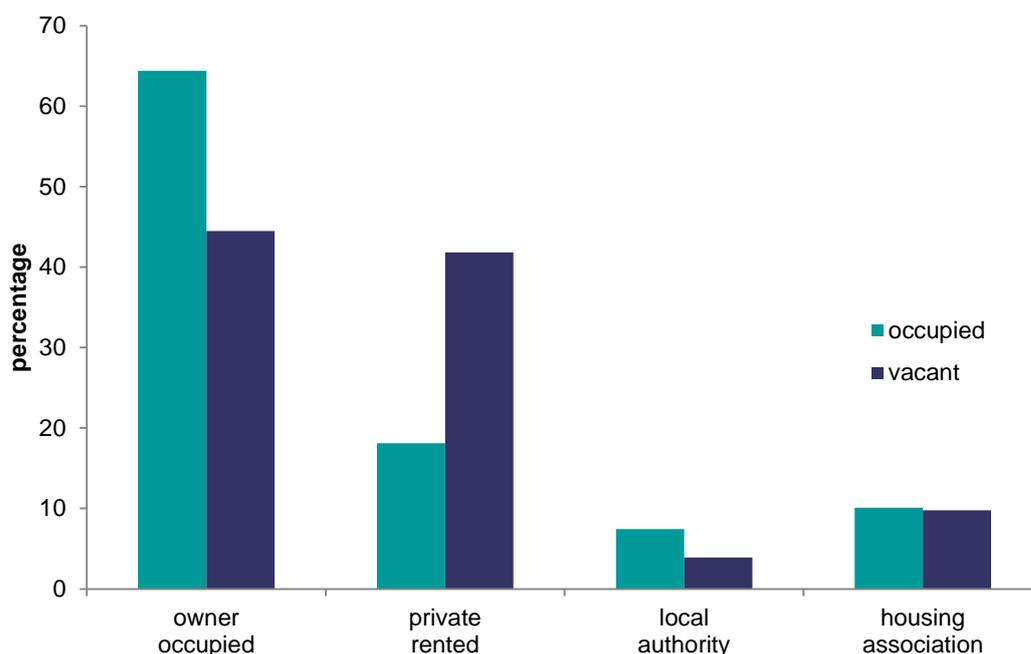
Vacant homes⁸

1.27 Vacant homes particularly those empty for long periods can have a negative impact on surrounding homes and areas. Given the recognised need for housing in England, it is desirable to keep vacant stock to a minimum. Although action to tackle empty homes cannot be expected to meet the large need for new homes, it is considered important to make best use of the existing housing stock. Tackling empty homes may also improve local housing conditions and reduce anti-social behaviour, and help foster local partnership working between local authorities, housing associations and local companies in the property and construction sector.

⁸ The assessment of whether or not a dwelling is vacant is made at the time of the interviewer's visit. Clarification of vacancy is sought from neighbours. Surveyors are required to gain access to vacant dwellings and undertake full inspections.

- 1.28 Homes may become vacant for several reasons, for example, as part of the process of being sold, a gap between tenancies or because they are too expensive to be repaired in order to make them into desirable homes for sale. Vacant homes had a different profile to occupied dwellings and these differences are explored in this section. Derelict homes are not surveyed as part of the EHS⁹.
- 1.29 There were around 1.1 million vacant dwellings in England (5% of the total stock) at the time of the survey. A third of these (33%) did not meet the Decent Homes standard, Annex Table 1.9.
- 1.30 A similar proportion of vacant homes were privately rented as were owner occupied (42% and 44% respectively, despite the private rented sector being a much smaller proportion of the total dwelling stock). Vacancy rates tend to be higher among privately rented homes because there is a much higher turn round of occupants than for owner occupation or social renting. Few vacant homes were in the social sector, just 4% of vacant homes were local authority homes compared with 7% of occupied homes that were owned by local authorities, Figure 1.13.

Figure 1.13: Percentage of dwellings occupied and vacant by tenure, 2013



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.9

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

⁹ The assessment of whether a dwelling is derelict is made by a trained surveyor. These dwellings would normally be unsafe to enter to allow a full physical survey to be undertaken.

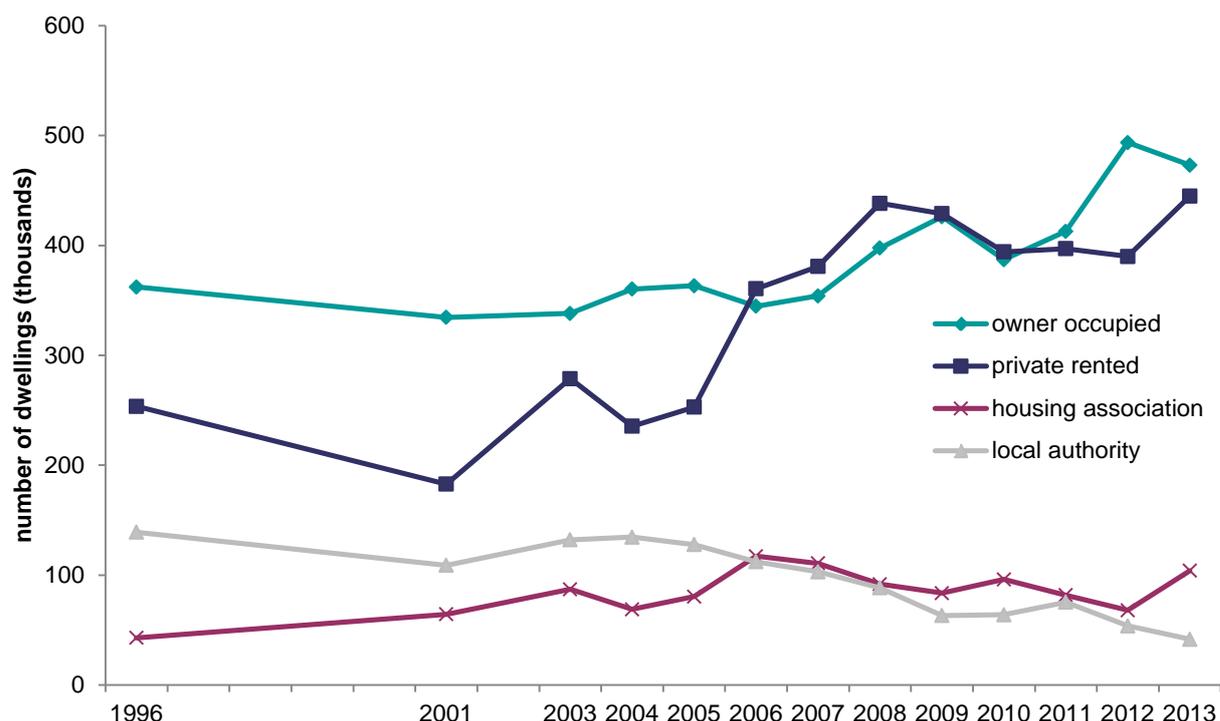
-
- 1.31 Flats were over represented among vacant dwellings (35%). These tend to have more changes of occupancy than houses, increasing chances of vacant periods, Annex Table 1.9.
 - 1.32 Homes built before 1919 comprised 19% of the occupied stock but the proportion was much higher for vacant homes (31%), perhaps reflecting the higher costs of disrepair among homes of this age (see Chapter 3 of this report), Annex Table 1.9. Of these 325,000 dwellings 49% failed to meet the Decent Homes standard, Annex Table 1.10.
 - 1.33 Homes in urban areas represented 31% of vacant homes compared with 21% of occupied homes, reflecting the higher proportion of older homes and flats in these locations, Annex Table 1.11, Annex Table 1.9.
 - 1.34 Although the London area contained a high proportion of flats, the incidence of vacant homes was no greater here than for all other areas of England, likely reflecting the particularly high demand for homes in the capital, Annex Table 1.9.

Changes in vacant homes since 1996

- 1.35 Although the number of vacant homes increased from around 800,000 to over 1.1 million since 1996¹⁰, Annex Table 1.12, the proportion of vacant homes within the stock remained constant, most often around 4%.
- 1.36 As the private rented stock grew markedly over this period, it is not surprising that the number of vacant homes rose in this sector from 254,000 in 1996 to 445,000 in 2013 (32% of all vacant homes to 42% over the period). Conversely, the number of vacant homes owned by local authorities fell from 139,000 to under 50,000 (from 17% of all vacant homes to 4%). Homes in both the social sectors generally have very high demand and social landlords therefore have a strong incentive to maximise the use of their stock by reducing the time that properties stand empty, Annex Table 1.12 and Figure 1.14.
- 1.37 Although the number of vacant homes in the owner occupied sector has risen by around 111,000 over the 1996 to 2013 period, the proportion of owner occupied homes within the total vacant stock has remained relatively constant over time due to the increasing number of private rented vacant homes, Annex Table 1.12 and Figure 1.14.

¹⁰ Vacant figures from DCLG Live tables on dwelling stock (including vacants), Table 615, show that from 2004 there has been a fall in the number of vacant dwellings in England from 711,000 to 635,000 in 2013. The definition for vacants is different from that used in the EHS and takes vacant figures from Local Authority Council Tax base, <https://www.gov.uk/government/statistical-data-sets/live-tables-on-dwelling-stock-including-vacants>

Figure 1.14: Number of vacant dwellings by tenure, 1996 - 2013



Base: all vacant dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.12

Sources:

1996-2007: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample

2008 onwards: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

New builds

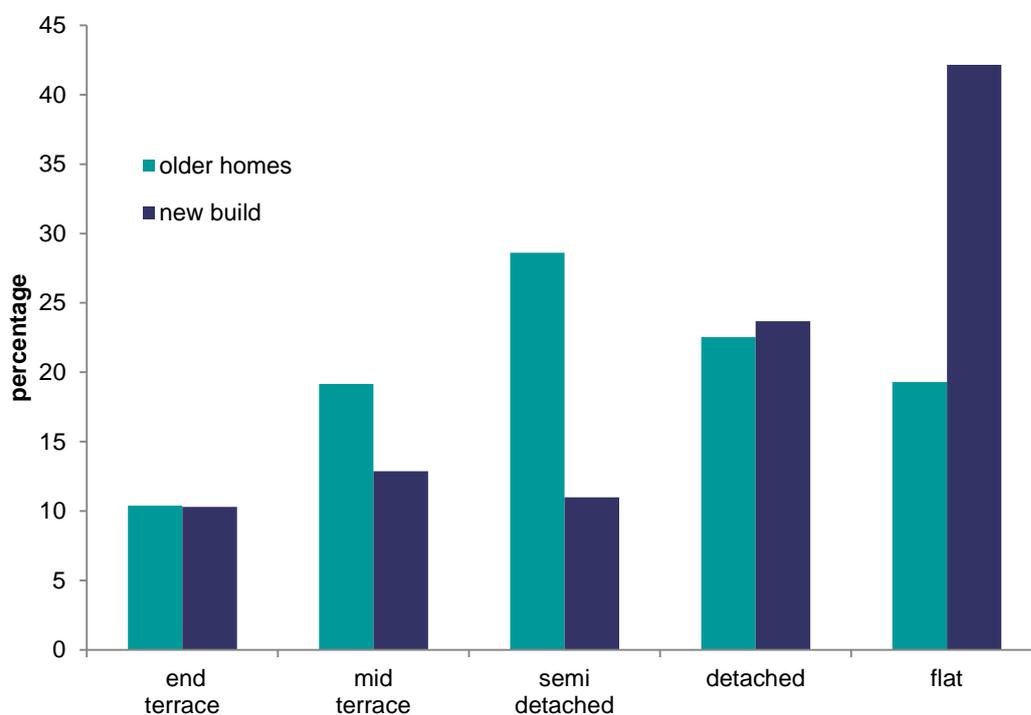
1.38 This section examines the profile of the newest homes built after 2003, to look at how the characteristics of these dwellings differed from the rest of the housing stock. A ten year age threshold was chosen, as undertaken for the 2012 EHS report, to capture the newest homes where sample sizes allowed for useful analysis. For the rest of this section, homes built after 2003 will be referred to as 'new builds', and the housing stock built up to and including 2003 referred to as 'older homes'.

1.39 There were 1.3 million new build homes in 2013 making up 6% of the 23.3 million dwellings in the English stock. Over half of these homes were owner occupied (57%) and over one quarter (26%) were in the private rented sector, reflecting the rapid growth of the tenure through, for example, buy to let. The remaining 16% were social rented homes (predominantly housing association), Annex Table 1.13.

1.40 A large proportion of new builds were flats (42%), notably greater than the proportion found among older homes (19%). Whilst the proportion of detached homes was very similar among new builds and older homes (24% and 23%

respectively), the proportion of semi-detached homes among new build stock was lower (11%) than the proportion among older homes (29%), Figure 1.15.

Figure 1.15: Percentage of new build and older homes by dwelling type, 2013



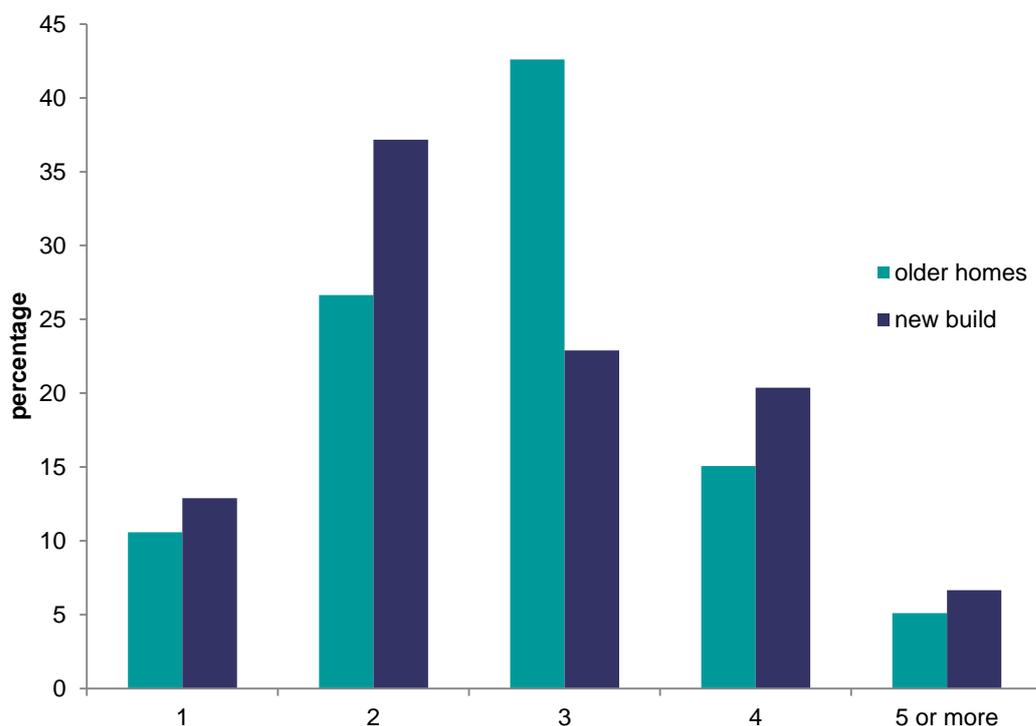
Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.13

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

1.41 Given the greater proportion of flats built among new builds, it is not surprising that the distribution of the number of bedrooms was also different to older homes. One half of new homes had one or two bedrooms compared with 37% of older homes. There was a smaller proportion of three bedroomed homes among new builds (23%) compared with older homes (43%) although some 27% of new build homes had at least four bedrooms, higher than the proportion among older homes (20%), Figure 1.16.

Figure 1.16: Percentage of new build and older homes by the number of bedrooms, 2013



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.13

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

1.42 The average internal floor area among new build and older homes was similar, 98m² compared with 95m² respectively. When comparing homes with the same number of bedrooms the differences were not statistically significant, Annex Table 1.14.

Space

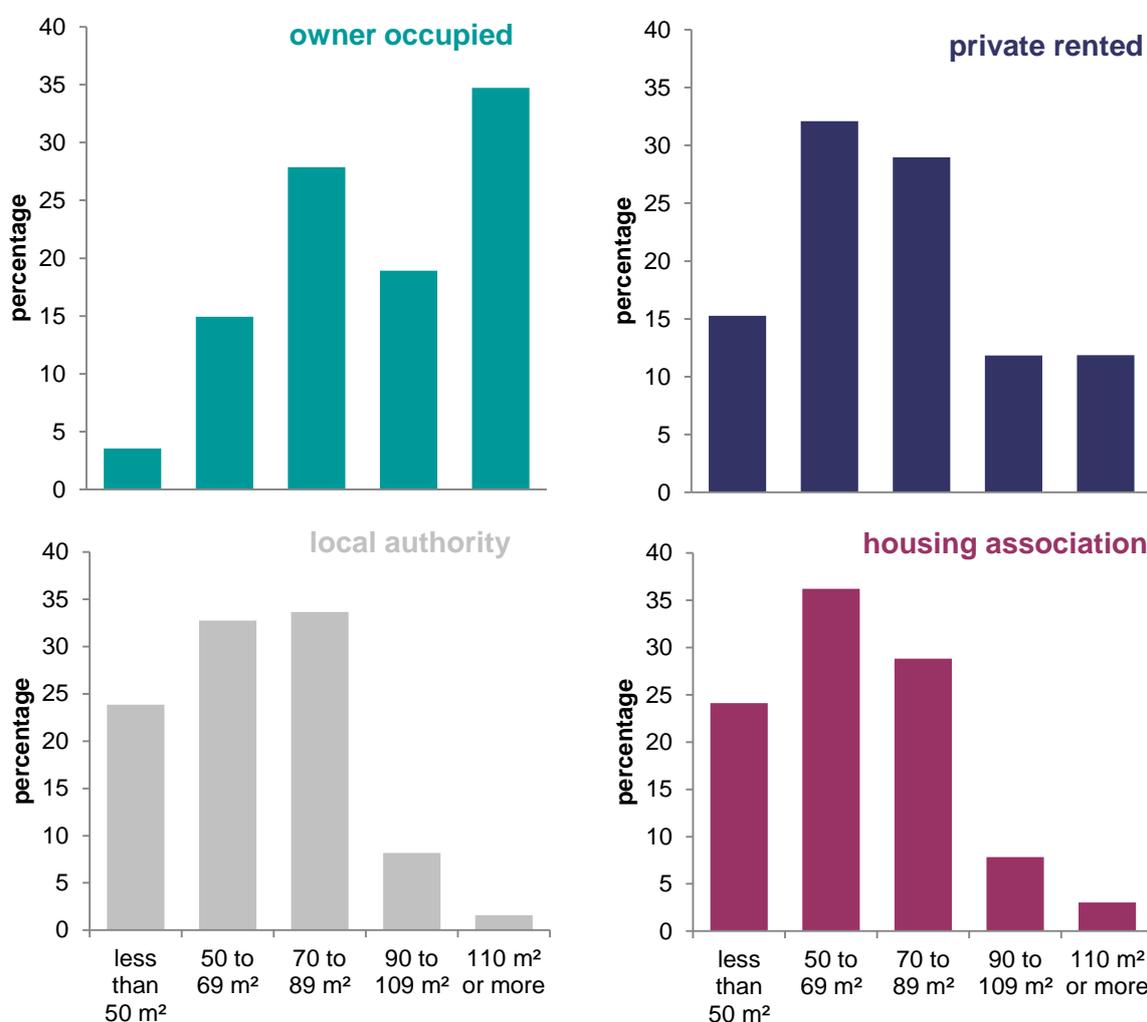
Inside the home – internal floor area

1.43 In 2013, homes had a mean total usable floor area of 95m². Around 2.2 million homes had less than 50m² of internal floor space and at the other end of the scale, around 5.8 million homes had at least 110m² of this space. The average floor area varied considerably by tenure, from an average of 109m² for owner occupied homes to 66m² for both local authority and housing association homes. Private rented dwellings were more similar in average size to social rented homes with an average floor area of 78m², Annex Table 1.15.

1.44 Owner occupied homes were generally larger than rented homes; over one half (54%) had 90m² or more internal floor area. Despite this some 19% of them had a total floor area of less than 70m². Variation in floor space was

most pronounced in the private rented sector where 47% were smaller than 70m² but 24% had a floor area of at least 90m². Social sector homes tended to be relatively small on average; only 10% of local authority homes and 11% of housing association homes were 90m² or more in area, Figure 1.17.

Figure 1.17: Percentage of dwellings by tenure and by floor area, 2013



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.15

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

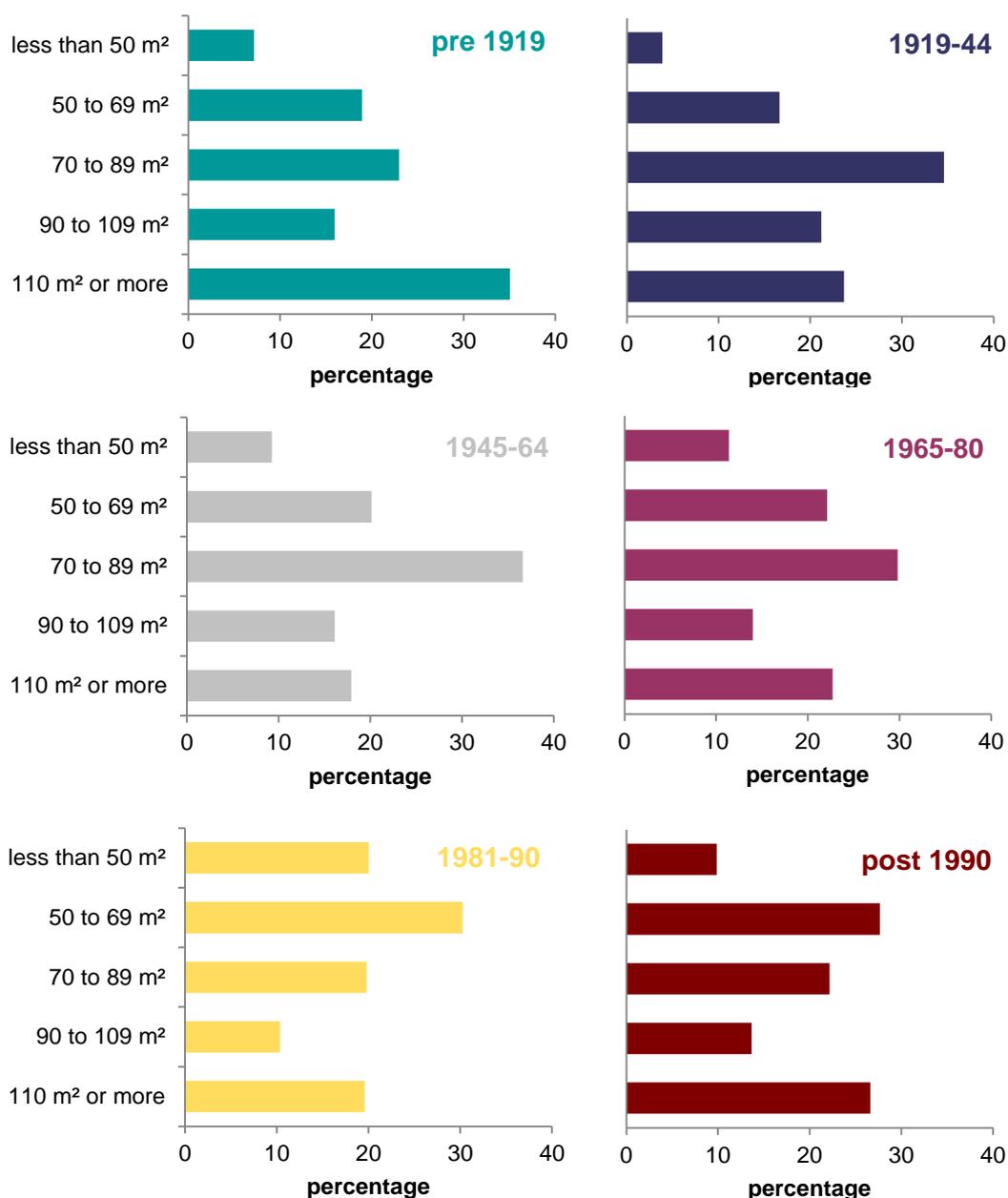
1.45 These variations in floor size by tenure reflect the different dwelling types, ages and sizes in each tenure. For example, social sector dwellings tended to be smaller than privately owned dwellings because they were much more likely to be purpose built flats, which were smaller on average than other dwelling types. Some 35% of purpose built low rise flats and 21% of purpose built high rise flats were smaller than 50m², compared with 9% of all dwelling types, Annex Table 1.15.

1.46 Dwellings built before 1919 had a higher average floor area (110m²) than dwellings in other age bands (less than 98m²). This is partly because many of these older homes have had extra space added over the years through loft

conversions and extensions. On average, dwellings built between 1945 and 1990 were significantly smaller than those built during other periods, with average useable floor areas of 84-90m². This is mainly because a relatively higher proportion of homes built during this period were located in the social sector which had a higher proportion of flats, Annex Table 1.15.

- 1.47 The highest proportion (20%) of homes with less than 50m² of internal space were built during the 1980s, likely due to a high proportion of purpose built flats constructed at this time. As a much higher proportion of homes were built for the private sector after 1990, this likely explains why these newer aged homes have a larger proportion of homes over 90m² (40%) compared with other aged homes built after 1945 (30-37%), Figure 1.18.

Figure 1.18: Dwelling age by banded floor area, 2013



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.15

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

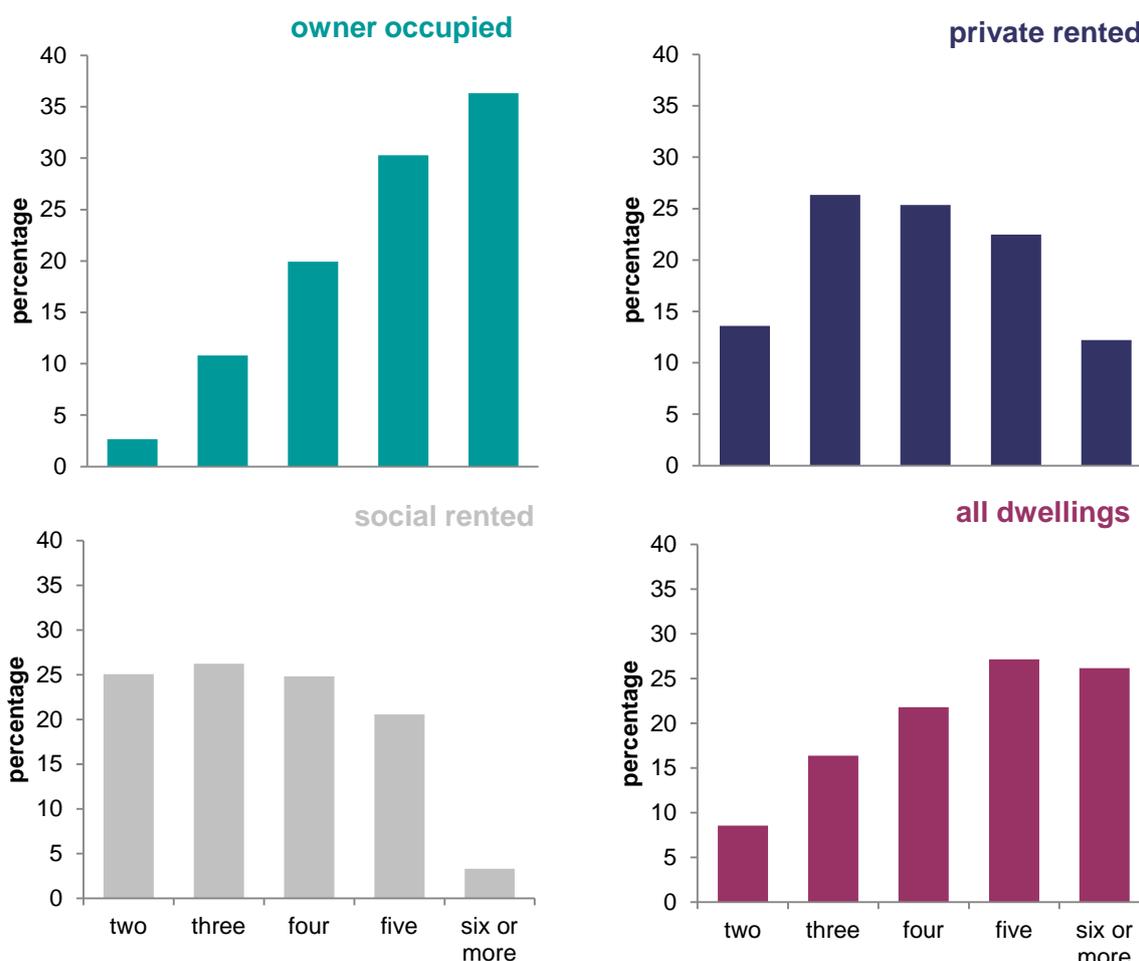
Inside the home – number of rooms and bedrooms

1.48 The EHS collects information on the number and types of room in homes, which can be used to help determine the suitability of the stock against current and future demographic trends, people’s expectations of space and the needs of a wide range of people, including families with children, older people and disabled people. The type of internal space available may impact on the accessibility or adaptability of homes to meet changing household needs, for example, converting a living room area into a suitable bedroom for

a person with mobility problems. For ease the following analysis excludes houses in multiple occupation and studio flats.

1.49 Around 9.8 million (67%) of owner occupied homes contained five or more habitable rooms¹¹, a far higher proportion than private rented homes (35%) and social rented homes (24%). Conversely, over one half (51%) of social rented homes had two or three habitable rooms compared with 40% of private rented homes and 13% of owner occupied homes, Annex Table 1.16.

Figure 1.19: Percentage of habitable rooms by tenure, 2013



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.16

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

1.50 Excluding houses in multiple occupation and studio flats, 10% of homes had one bedroom, 27% had two bedrooms, 42% had three bedrooms and the remaining 20% comprised of homes with four or more bedrooms. This varied by tenure, Annex Table 1.16.

¹¹ See Glossary for definition

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- 1.51 The most common number of bedrooms for owner occupied homes was three (47%). Only 4% of these homes had one bedroom whilst 28% had at least four bedrooms. Private rented homes most commonly had two bedrooms (40%) and 17% comprised of one bedroomed homes. Over a quarter of social sector homes (29%) had one bedroom whilst 36% had two bedrooms. Some 32% had three bedrooms and only 3% were four or more bedroomed homes, Annex Table 1.16.
- 1.52 The vast majority of homes (98% or 22.6 million) had at least one double¹² sized bedroom. One half (50%) or 11.5 million of all homes had two double bedrooms, although this proportion was higher among owner occupied homes (53%). Owner occupied homes comprised the vast majority of homes with three or more double sized rooms (4.0 million of the 4.6 million homes). The private rented sector contained 11% of these homes and the social sector just 4%, Annex Table 1.16.
- 1.53 Just over a half (51%) or 11.8 million of all homes had one single sized bedroom, and a further 13% or 2.9 million had two single rooms. Only 2% of homes had three or more single bedrooms, the majority (70%) of these were in the owner occupied sector, Annex Table 1.16.

Inside the home – kitchen, living areas and bathrooms

Kitchens

- 1.54 For this analysis, the kitchens in dwellings have been split into two types; those that were big enough to provide enough space to accommodate a table and chairs for dining, which we refer to as an ‘eat-in kitchen’, and those with insufficient space for additional dining furniture, referred to as a ‘small kitchen’. Around 13.5 million homes (59%) had one small kitchen whilst some 9.4 million homes (41%) had an eat-in kitchen, Annex Table 1.17.
- 1.55 Among those 13.5 million homes with a small kitchen,
- 7.5 million (33%) had one additional living space
 - 6.0 million (26%) had two or more additional living spaces, Annex Table 1.17.
- 1.56 Among those 9.4 million homes with an eat-in kitchen;
- 8.9 million homes had an eat-in kitchen plus additional living space. Some 5.5 million (24%) had one additional living space and around 3.4 million (15%) had two or more additional living spaces

¹² A double sized bedroom refers to a twin or double bedroom that could reasonably take two single beds or a double bed. As a rough guide, a twin/double bedroom is approximately 9m² or more in size.

-
- 540,000 homes (2%) lacked any other form of separate living area, Annex Table 1.17.
- 1.57 The kitchen provision varied by tenure. Some 44% of owner occupied homes (the highest percentage of all tenures) had an 'eat-in kitchen' with additional living space. Only 1% had an 'eat-in kitchen' only. Owner occupiers were less likely to have a small kitchen than other tenures but had the highest proportion of small kitchens with two or more additional living spaces (32%), Annex Table 1.17.
- 1.58 For private rented homes, 30% contained eat-in kitchens with additional living space and 6% had an eat-in kitchen with no additional space for living. There were 63% which had a small kitchen with additional living space, Annex Table 1.17.
- 1.59 The highest proportion of social homes had a small kitchen and one additional living space (58%). Comparatively few of these homes had a small kitchen with two or more additional living spaces (10%). Some 2% of them had an eat-in kitchen with no additional living space, Annex Table 1.17.

Living rooms

- 1.60 This analysis examines the number of living rooms in the English housing stock irrespective of whether they are used as living/dining areas. Some 7.5 million homes (33%) had one living room, 10.5 million (46%) had two living rooms and 4.5 million (19%) had three or more living room areas. The remaining 2% comprising of the homes with a kitchen-diner and no additional living space¹³, Annex Table 1.17.
- 1.61 This distribution varied by tenure. Owner occupied homes were far more likely to have three or more living areas (28%) compared with private rented homes (8%) and those in the social sector (1%). Rented homes were more likely to have one living room area; 58% of social sector and 42% of private rented homes compared with 23% of owner occupied homes. Six percent of private rented homes had no living room, compared with 2% of social rented homes and 1% of owner occupied homes, Annex Table 1.17.

Bathrooms

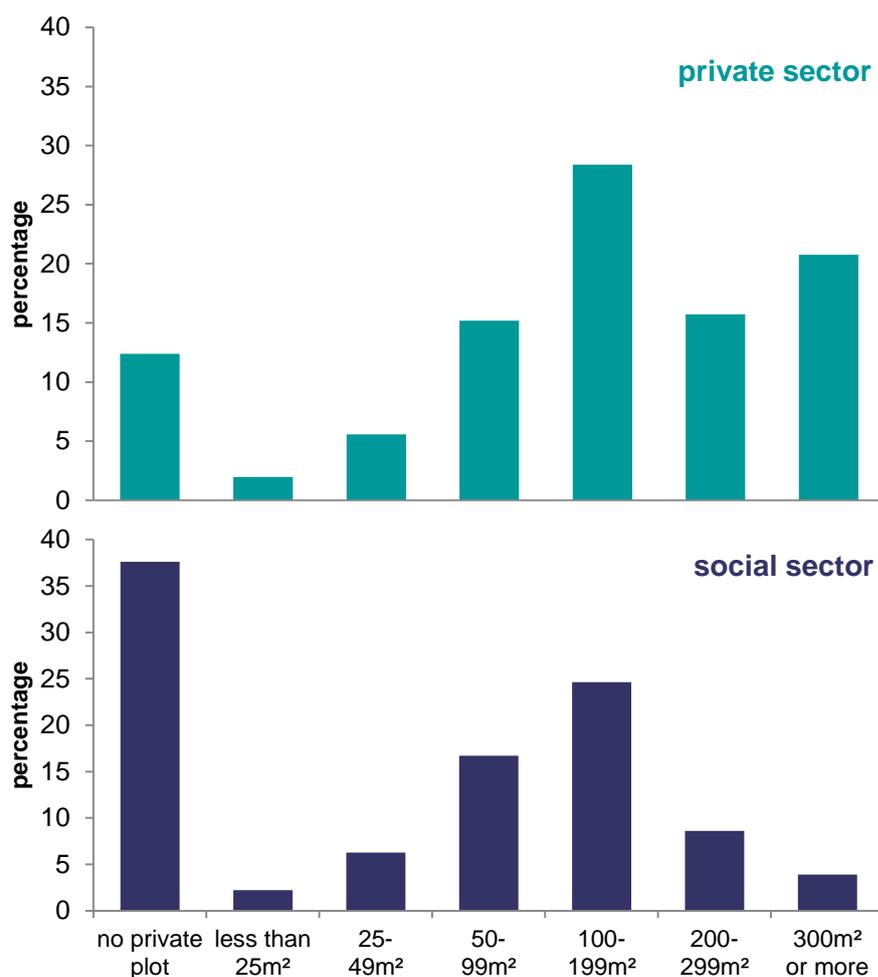
- 1.62 Most homes (76% or 17.5 million) had one bathroom and some 24% (5.5 million) had two or more bathrooms. One third (33%) of owner occupied homes had more than one bathroom whilst additional bathrooms were far less common among private rented homes (13%) and social rented homes (2%), Annex Table 1.17.

¹³ numbers do not total 100% due to rounding

Outdoor space – plots

- 1.63 Households perceptions on how spacious their home feels may be influenced by the amount of external space they have. The amount of external space can also impact on the degree to which noise travels between dwellings. Estimating the total plot area at a dwelling is difficult to calculate from the EHS data. The dimensions of any rear and front plot at the survey dwelling (with a private plot) are recorded but any area(s) at the side of dwellings, sometimes found in larger homes and those with a corner plot, are not recorded.
- 1.64 Around 19.4 million homes (83%) had a private plot, although there was a good deal of variation in both the presence of a private plot and the size of these within tenure. Social rented homes were far more likely to have no private plot (38%) due to the higher proportion of flats among these homes. Private sector homes, which are generally larger, were more likely to have larger sized plots of at least 200m² (36%) compared with social rented homes (13%), Figure 1.20.

Figure 1.20: External plot area by tenure, 2013



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.18

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

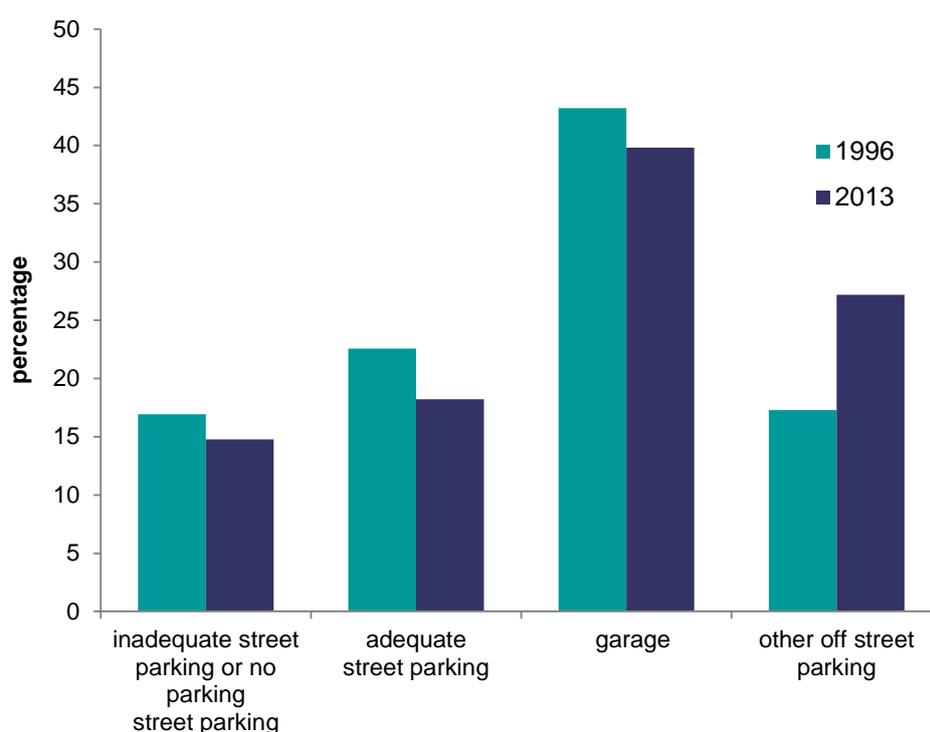
Outdoor space – parking

- 1.65 In 2013 some 40% of homes had the use of a garage and a further 45% had either off street parking or adequate street parking. Around 15% of homes had inadequate street parking or no parking provision, Annex Table 1.19.
- 1.66 The nature of parking provision varied by tenure, reflecting the differing dwelling types and location of homes within each sector. The vast majority of owner occupied homes benefitted from either a garage or other off street parking (82%)¹⁴, whilst these types of provision were least common among housing association (35%) and local authority homes (24%), Annex Table 1.19.

¹⁴ off street parking refers to either a designated parking space or a car port at the dwelling plot

- 1.67 Owing to the higher proportions of flats in urban areas with the stock, all rented homes were more likely to be without adequate parking or have no parking provision; this ranged from around 24% for housing association and private rented homes to 31% for local authority homes, Annex Table 1.19.
- 1.68 Some aspects of parking provision improved over time. The proportion of homes with other off street parking increased from 17% in 1996 to 27% in 2013 and the percentage with inadequate street parking or no parking provision fell slightly from 17% to 15% over the same period. The proportion of homes with a garage decreased slightly from 43% to 40% during this period, Figure 1.22.

Figure 1.21: Parking provision, 1996 and 2013



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.19

Sources:

1996: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample;

2013: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

- 1.69 Whilst there appear to be only minor changes in parking provision overall between 1996 and 2013, tenures have seen differing changes in parking provision over this period. Garages are least common among socially rented homes (8% in 1996 for both types of landlord), and this sector has seen the largest reduction in provision up to 2013. This fell to 5% for local authority homes and 4% for housing association homes and may be due to the demolition of blocks of garages on estates together with the loss of houses through the Right to Buy scheme, Annex Table 1.19.

1.70 The prevalence of inadequate street parking or no parking provision fell among owner occupier and privately rented homes but increased among local authority homes (rising from 28 to 31%)¹⁵. Similarly all tenures had an increase in the proportion of homes (rise of 10 percentage points) with other off street parking over this period bar local authority homes where growth in this provision was less marked (4 percentage points), Annex Table 1.19.

¹⁵ the reduction in inadequate street parking or no parking was not statistically significant for housing association homes

Chapter 2

Services, amenities, and accessibility

- 2.1. This chapter provides a brief overview of key services and amenities present in the English housing stock in 2013 focussing on mains services, water meters, and security. For water meters, logistic regression analysis was used to determine which types of dwellings and households were most likely to have this feature. The chapter also examines the key features that enable homes to be more accessible to occupants (and their visitors) and how easy it would be to adapt dwellings to improve accessibility.
- 2.2. Additional findings relating to amenities and services, including the age of kitchens and bathrooms and secondary amenities can be found in web tables A2101 to DA2303¹.

Mains services

Electricity

- 2.3. Virtually all homes² in England had a mains electricity supply in 2013, an unchanged position since 1996, Annex Table 2.1.
- 2.4. Around 3.1 million homes (13%) had an off-peak electricity supply³ in 2013, a fall from 1996 when 3.7 million homes (18%) had this feature. The number of houses and bungalows with an off-peak supply fell from 2.8 million to 1.9 million over this period, likely reflecting the increased installation of gas central heating in these homes. Conversely the number of flats with this feature rose from 0.9 million to 1.2 million; partly reflecting the growth of these homes and that the installation of other means of heating such as gas central heating is not generally viable among flats. The number of dwellings with this feature rose in urban areas (where flats are over represented, Annex Table 1.11). Off-peak supply also rose in the private rented and housing association sectors, which have grown notably over this period, for example, through the

¹ see <https://www.gov.uk/government/collections/english-housing-survey#2012-to-2013>

² a very small number of sampled addresses reported no mains electricity supply but the sample size is too small to provide an estimate of the number of dwellings in England

³ see the glossary for more details on off-peak electricity supply

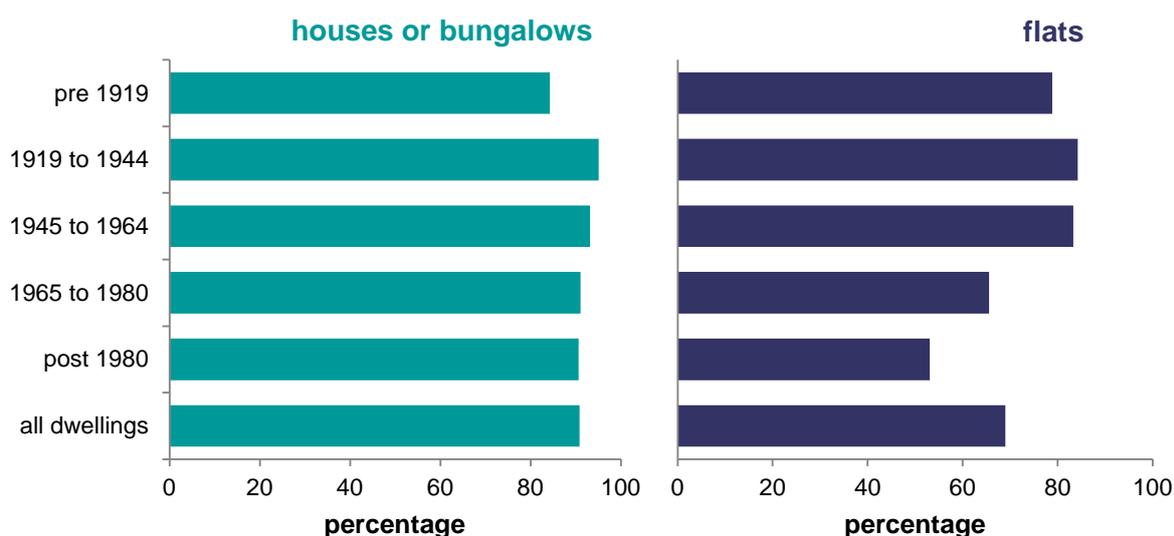
transfer of local authority homes to the housing association sector through LSVT⁴, Annex Table 2.2.

- 2.5. Electric storage heaters normally use electricity to ‘charge up’ overnight and then release heat during the day, so having an off-peak electricity supply is more cost-effective. Virtually all the 1.4 million homes with storage heating had an off-peak electricity supply (98%), a rise from 90% in 1996, Annex Table 2.2.

Mains gas

- 2.6. A mains gas supply was present in 86% of homes in 2013, and this varied by dwelling characteristics. Flats were less likely to have mains gas (69%) compared with houses and bungalows (91%) but for both types of homes, dwelling age also impacted on provision, Annex Table 2.3.
- 2.7. Among houses and bungalows, the oldest houses, built before 1919, were less likely to have mains gas (84%). This is partly because these older homes had a higher proportion of dwellings in urban areas, which were less likely to have a mains gas supply compared with homes in suburban areas (Annex Table 2.4). In addition urban areas had a higher proportion of flats (Annex Table 1.11) which were less likely to have mains gas, Figure 2.1.
- 2.8. For flats, the provision of mains gas was notably lower in homes built from 1965, Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: Mains gas provision by dwelling age and dwelling type, 2013



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 2.3

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

⁴ see Glossary or chapter 1 of this report for further information on LSVT

2.9. The provision of a mains gas supply among the whole stock rose from 82% in 1996 to 86% in 2013. Although all four tenures experienced a rise in the proportion of stock with mains gas, the number of homes with mains gas actually fell among local authority homes from 2.7 million to 1.5 million. This is most likely due to the impact of stock changes through LSVT, as the number of housing association homes with mains gas rose from 640,000 to 1.9 million over this period, Annex Table 2.4.

2.10. Homes in rural areas were least likely to have a gas mains supply throughout this period (61% in 1996 and 66% in 2013), Annex Table 2.4.

Mains drainage

2.11. In 2013, only 3% of homes lacked mains drainage. This was an improvement on the 1996 position when 9% of homes lacked this service. Despite improved provision for homes in rural areas and those built before 1919, lack of provision remained higher for these types of homes (15% and 9% respectively) in 2013, Annex Table 2.1.

Water meters and occupied homes

2.12. Water use in homes, with or without meters, varies to a great extent. Energy Savings Trust research estimates that each person in the UK uses about 142 litres of water each day, and that the average household in the UK uses 349 litres of water each day⁵. Water metering has a key role to play in improving water efficiency, detecting any water leaks and giving customers more control of their water usage bills.

2.13. Some households can save money by having a meter installed but this is dependent on a number of factors including:

- the number of people in the household
- the rateable value of the home⁶
- how much water is normally used and how much the household is able to reduce water use

2.14. In addition the amount of water used impacts on gas or electricity bills since heating water uses a lot of energy. Consequently, using water wisely can save household expenditure on these services too. See Box 2.1 for legal rights in relation to water meters.

⁵ Based on an average household size of 2.52. Figures include all metered and unmetered households. For full report see [http://www.energysavingtrust.org.uk/sites/default/files/reports/AtHomewithWater\(7\).pdf](http://www.energysavingtrust.org.uk/sites/default/files/reports/AtHomewithWater(7).pdf)

⁶ the rateable value of the dwelling is used to calculate water charges in non-metered homes

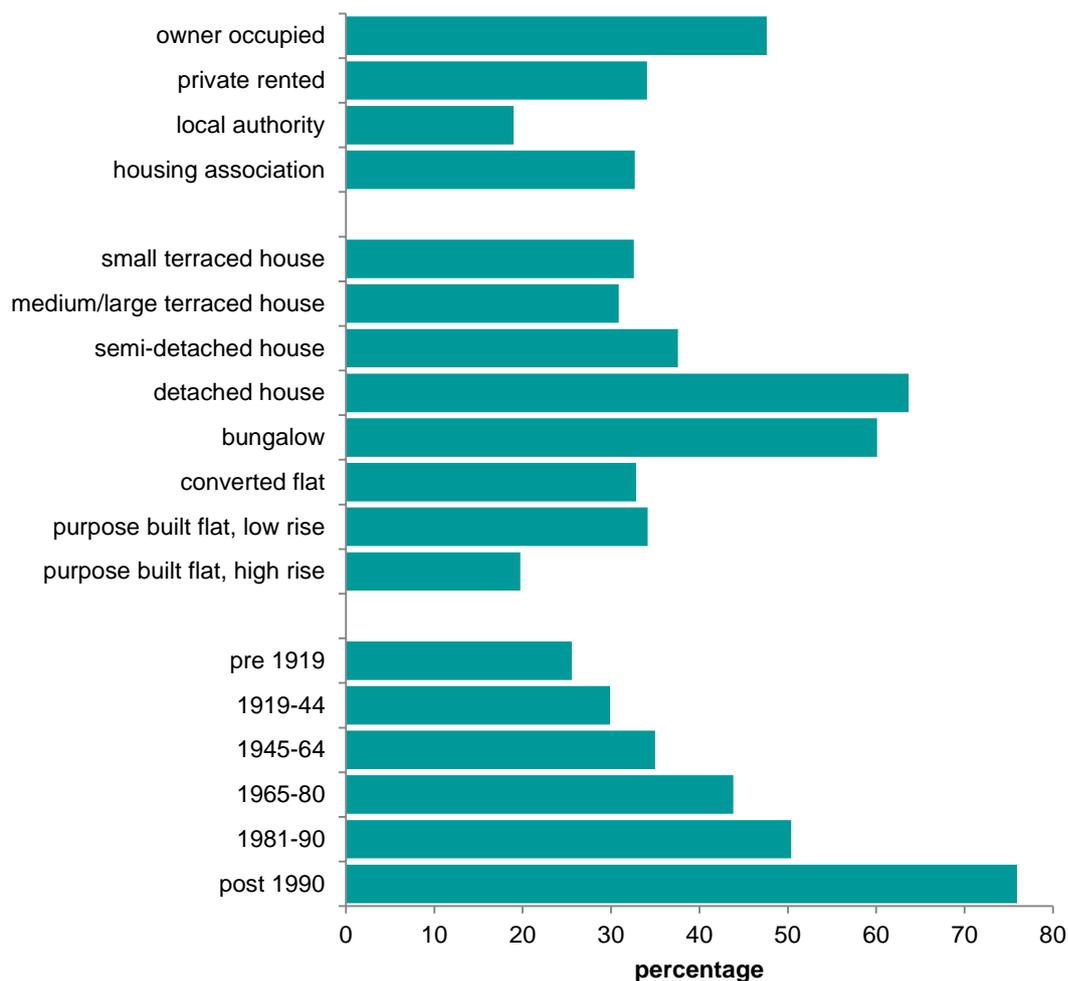
Box 2.1: Water meters

The Water Industry Act 1999 introduced the right to remain on an unmetered charge. Domestic customers paying on an unmetered basis have a legally protected right to choose whether or not they are charged for water according to a meter in their current home. The Act also introduced the right for customers to have a meter installed free of charge where it is practical for the water company to do so and does not entail excessive costs. Companies have had discretionary powers to install meters in all new homes since 1990, although if an operating area is an 'area of water scarcity' the company can be given the right to compulsorily meter all its customers over the next ten years in order to reduce overall demand for water.

- 2.15. In 2013, around 9.2 million occupied homes had water meters⁷ (42%). At the time of the survey around 576,000 households (3%) were unsure as to whether they had this provision, Annex Table 2.5.
- 2.16. Some 48% of owner occupied homes had a water meter, but provision was lower among rented homes, particularly local authority dwellings (19%). This is because local authority homes contained a higher proportion of high rise flats, which are sometimes unsuitable for metering due to the practical difficulties of isolating the water supply to an individual property. Around 20% of high rise purpose built flats had a water meter whilst provision was highest among detached houses (64%) and bungalows (60%), Figure 2.2.
- 2.17. There was a relationship between dwelling age and water meter provision; the newer the home, the greater the likelihood of having a water meter. Water meters were present at 76% of homes built after 1990 but only 26% of homes built before 1919. As over one-third of terraced homes were built before 1919 (see Annex Table 1.2 of this report) the impact of age likely explains the lower incidence of water meters in these types of homes compared with other types of houses and bungalows, Figure 2.2.

⁷ this analysis excludes those cases where data could not be obtained through the household questionnaire e.g. because they household did not wish to offer a response

Figure 2.2: Percentage of occupied dwellings with water meters by dwelling characteristics, 2013



Base: all occupied dwellings

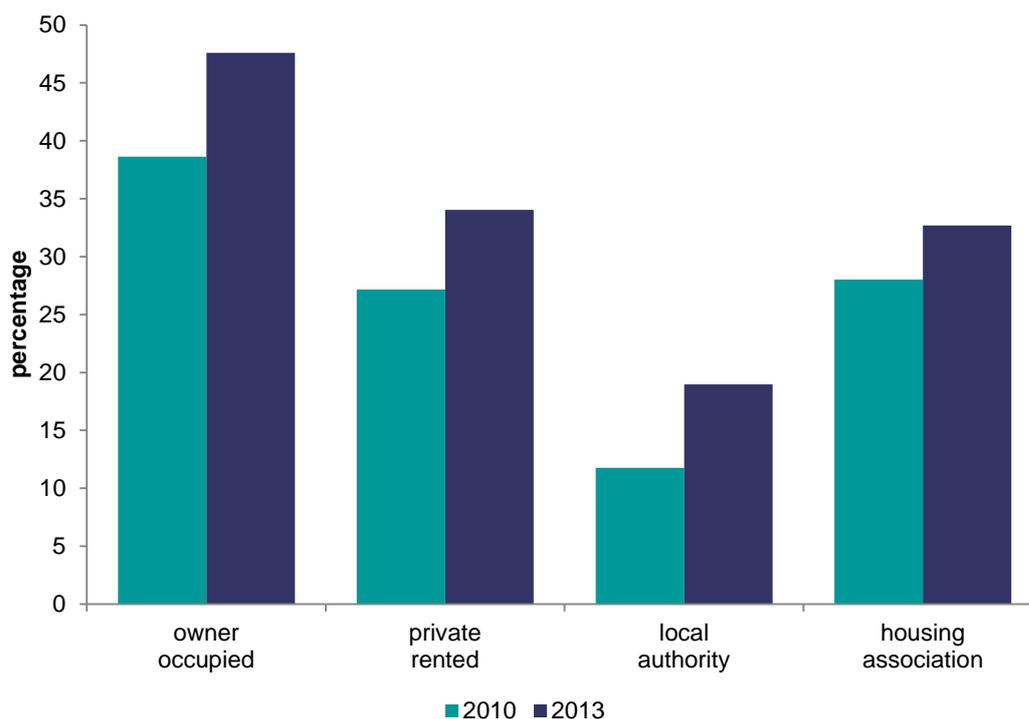
Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 2.5

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

- 2.18. Due to the higher concentration of flats and older homes in urban areas (Annex Table 1.11), water meters were less prevalent in these locations (27%) compared with suburban residential areas (44%) and rural areas (50%), Annex Table 2.5.
- 2.19. There was an increase in the proportion of dwellings with a water meter from 34% in 2010 to 42% in 2013⁸. Improved provision was evident among all tenures. Although metering was lowest among local authority homes throughout this period, the percentage with water meters increased from 12% in 2010 to 19% in 2013, Figure 2.3.

⁸ The 2010 figures are from the combined 2009+2010 dataset. Since 2009, the EHS has collected data on water meters from the short household questionnaire that forms part of the physical survey. Prior to this, data was collected in the full household survey but the figures are not directly comparable due to differences in the question wording and sample coverage.

Figure 2.3: Water meters by tenure, 2010 and 2013



Base: all occupied dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 2.6

Sources: 2010 and 2013, English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

Water meters and types of households

- 2.20. Water meter provision also varied by type of household. Households with at least one member aged 60 or over were more likely to have a water meter compared with other households. Around half (52%) of single households where the HRP was 60 years of age or more had a water meter, as did 50% of couples aged 60 or over with no dependent children, compared with 41% of all households. Those in full-time education (21%) and unemployed households (25%) were less likely to have a meter compared with working households (40%) showing that household income may have impacted on provision, Annex Table 2.7.
- 2.21. Ethnic minority HRP households (26%), especially black HRP households (20%) were less likely to have water meters than households with a white HRP (43%), Annex Table 2.7.
- 2.22. These findings are likely to reflect the different distributions of tenure and accommodation type among these household groups; for example, ownership and residence in a house (as opposed to a flat) was more common among white HRP households. Conversely non-working households and ethnic minority HRP households were more likely to reside in a rented property and/or in a flat where water meter provision was less prevalent.

-
- 2.23. Generally speaking, the larger the household, the lower the likelihood of being metered. This may suggest that some larger households were less confident about making financial savings through being metered. There was no clear relationship between household size and tenure, Annex Table 2.7.

Multivariate analysis of water meter provision

- 2.24. Multivariate analysis was conducted to identify dwelling and household characteristics most likely to influence presence of water meters. Logistic regression was used to assess which key factors were statistically related to having this amenity. These factors are outlined below. Although logistic regression can be used to explore associations between variables, it does not necessarily imply causation and the following findings should be treated as indicative of a relationship, rather than conclusive. For further information on the logistic regression methodology and the results for this analysis see Appendix 1 of this chapter.
- 2.25. Factors were identified that were deemed likely to affect water meter ownership. These consisted of two dwelling characteristic variables, dwelling type and dwelling age and seven household characteristic variables.
- 2.26. Table 2.1 in Appendix 1 shows the variables that were in the final model listed in the order of the strength of their predictiveness on water meter usage. It shows that dwelling age and dwelling type were the strongest predictors of a household having a water meter in 2013. These findings are not unexpected given the relationships found earlier in this Chapter: the newer the home, the greater the likelihood of having a water meter; and the type of accommodation can predetermine whether or not a household can feasibly install a water meter, irrespective of their specific characteristics. The model shows that household types were also predictors of owning a water meter, though the relationships were less strong (further details below).

Dwelling age

- 2.27. Households living in homes built after 1990 had the highest likelihood of having a water meter. All other types of households had a significantly lower likelihood of having this amenity. This likely reflects the fact that water companies have had discretionary powers to install meters in all new homes since 1990.

Dwelling type

2.28. Households living in detached houses had the highest likelihood of having a water meter and households that lived in bungalows and converted properties were not significantly different. Households in all other dwelling types had a significantly lower likelihood of having a water meter. Households living in high rise purpose built flats had the lowest likelihood of all types. This is likely to be due to these homes being unsuitable for metering due to the practical difficulties of isolating the water supply to an individual flat.

Tenure

2.29. Tenure along with the combined household composition and size were the strongest household characteristic predictors of having a water meter. Owner occupier households were found to have the highest likelihood of having a water meter compared to other tenures. Private renters were only slightly less likely than owner occupiers, whilst local authority and housing association tenants had the lowest likelihood.

Household composition and size combined⁹

2.30. Single person households had the highest likelihood of having a water meter. This is probably because single person households are likely to use less water than a multi person household, so would have the most economic incentive to install a water meter.

Household age

2.31. Households that had an HRP age 65 or over had the highest likelihood of having a water meter and was significantly higher than all other age groups except 16-24 year olds.

Ethnicity

2.32. Compared to households with a white HRP, households with a Black or other ethnicity HRP had lower odds of having a water meter at their home. Households with an Asian HRP were not significantly more or less likely to have a water meter than households with a White HRP.

Income level¹⁰

2.33. Households in the highest income band quintile were found to have the highest likelihood of having a water meter. Those households in the lowest income quintile had the lowest odds.

⁹ A new variable was created by combining the household compositions variable with the size of the household. This was to eliminate the influence of the interrelationship between these two variables in the modelling.

¹⁰ Basic annual net household income of the HRP and their partner including non-work related income, such as savings and investments, banded into quintiles.

Employment status of the HRP and long term disability or sickness

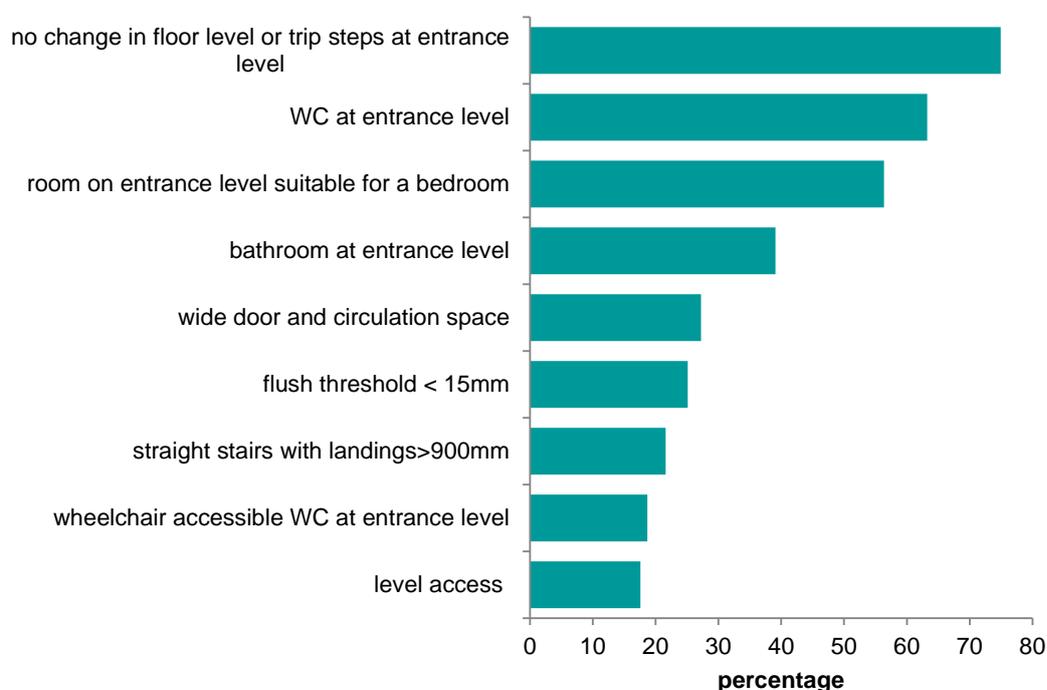
2.34. The employment status of the HRP and households with a long term disability or sickness were not found to be predictors of water meter ownership in this model.

Accessibility of dwellings and disability adaptations

2.35. This section examines the prevalence of features within the housing stock that enable dwellings to be more accessible for people with disabilities, including wheelchair users. The 'visitability' of homes, based on four key accessibility features, is then examined by dwelling characteristics (see Box 2.2 for definitions). The section then looks at how the 2013 position on visitability compares with 2007. Finally, it investigates the relative ease of adapting homes to provide all four visitability features where these did not already exist.

2.36. The most common accessibility feature, assessed for the EHS, was the absence of a change in floor level or trip steps at entrance level (75%). Some 63% of homes had a WC at entrance level and 56% had a room at entrance level that would be suitable for a bedroom. Other features were far less common; just 18% of homes had level access and 19% had a wheelchair accessible WC at entrance level, Figure 2.4.

Figure 2.4: Accessibility features of dwellings, 2013



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 2.8

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

Visitability of dwellings

Box 2.2: Visitability: four key features

Visitability comprises four key features which are considered to be the most important for enabling people with mobility problems to either access their home or visit someone else's home. These four features form the basis for the requirements in part M of the Building Regulations, although the EHS cannot exactly mirror the detailed requirements contained there.

1. **Level access:** For all dwellings with a private or shared plot, there are no steps between the gate/pavement and the front door into the house or block of flats to negotiate. This includes level access to the entrance of the survey module (i.e. a group of flats containing the surveyed flat). Dwellings without a plot are excluded from the analysis as access is, in effect, the pavement/road adjacent to the dwelling.
2. **Flush threshold:** a wheelchair can be wheeled directly into the dwelling from outside the entrance door with no steps to negotiate and no obstruction higher than 15mm.
3. **Sufficiently wide doors and circulation space:** the doors and circulation space serving habitable rooms, kitchen, bathroom and WC comply with the requirements of part M of the Building Regulations.
4. **WC at entrance level:** there is an inside WC located on the entrance floor to the dwelling.

2.37. In 2013, around 1.4 million homes (6%) possessed all four of the key features for full visitability. Some 16 million homes (69%) had between one and three of these visitability features; of these 10% had three features, 21% had two and 38% had one. The remaining 25% (5.8 million dwellings) had none of the four visitability features, Annex Table 2.9.

2.38. The likelihood of a home being fully visitable was dependent upon its age, tenure and type. Owing to the requirements of modern building regulations it is not surprising that the highest proportion of homes with all four visitability features were those built after 1990 (27%). Similarly just 8% of these homes had no visitability features. Conversely only a very small proportion of homes built before 1945 had all four visitability features (1%) and 32-33% had no visitability features, Annex Table 2.9.

2.39. As housing association dwellings had the highest proportion of the newest homes built after 1990, it is not surprising that these were markedly more likely to have all four visitability features (16%) than other tenures (4-7%).

Local authority homes were less likely to have no visitability features (21%) compared with owner occupied homes (25%) and privately rented homes (29%). This is most likely due to the higher proportion of purpose built flats, which are generally more accessible, within the local authority stock, Figure 2.5.

Figure 2.5: Visitability of dwellings by tenure, 2013



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 2.9

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

2.40. Purpose built high rise flats (33%) and purposes built low rise flats (17%) were markedly more likely to have full visitability, with 5% or less of other types of dwellings having all four accessibility features. Almost half of small terraced houses (48%) had none of the four accessibility features, compared with 11% of detached houses and 2% of bungalows, Annex Table 2.9.

Visitability of dwellings over time

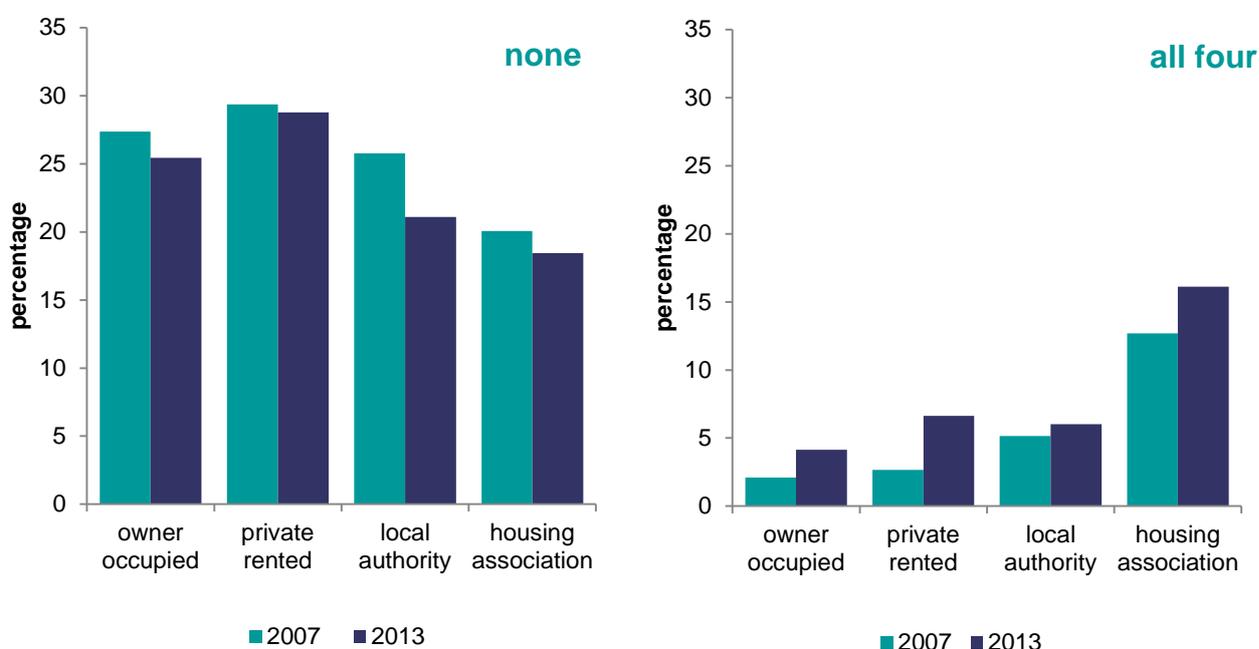
2.41. There was an overall improvement in the visitability of English housing stock from 2007 to 2013, with the number of fully visitable homes increasing by around 87% from 744,000 to 1.4 million (3% of the stock to 6%). Furthermore

around 128,000 fewer homes had no visitability features in 2013 than in 2007, Annex Table 2.9.

2.42. Notable improvements in full visitability since 2007 occurred among purpose built high rise flats (12% rising to 33%), and homes built after 1990 (14% rising to 27%). Interestingly there was a notable reduction in the proportion of converted flats with no visitability features, falling from 26% to 16% over this period, Annex Table 2.9.

2.43. The proportion of homes with all four visitability features increased for all tenures except local authority homes¹¹. However, the proportion of local authority homes with no visitable features fell from 26% to 21%, Figure 2.6.

Figure 2.6: Proportions of dwellings with no or all four visitability features by tenure, 2007 and 2013



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 2.9

Sources:

2007: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample;

2013: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

Difficulty of adapting homes to make them visitable

2.44. The required scope and nature of remedial work required to provide all four visitability features, where these do not already exist, has been grouped into a straightforward four-point scale detailed in Box 2.3.

¹¹ the increase for local authority homes was not statistically significant

Box 2.3: Scale of difficulty in adapting homes to make them visitable

Each dwelling is classified according to the highest degree of difficulty of the required work, for example, if work to provide a flush threshold is minor but providing a WC at ground floor involves building an extension, the dwelling is classed as requiring major works in order to make it fully visitable.

1. **Minor work** - no structural alterations required. Costs likely to be under £1,000. Examples include replacing a door and frame to create a flush threshold or installing a ramp for level access.
2. **Moderate work** - rearrangements of internal space required that will involve removing internal partitions and/or increasing size of doorways. Costs are likely to be in the region of £1,000-£15,000 depending on the size of dwelling and the precise nature of the work. Examples include:
 - internal structural alterations such as using an integral garage, storage cupboard or larder to create a WC at entrance level. This will likely involve partitioning off existing rooms together with associated works to water supplies, wastes and heating.
 - removing some wall partitions (where this does not contravene fire regulations) to create sufficient width for internal doorways or hallways.
3. **Major work** - building extensions required. Works will be in excess of about £15,000 and the precise amount will depend on the size of the extension to be built, the scale of work to water and drainage services and ground conditions. A home, for example, may require an extension for a downstairs WC.
4. **Not feasible** - it is not physically possible to carry out the necessary work. For example, this could be due to the physical impossibility of building an extension or installing a ramp up to the front door.

- 2.45. Of the 21.9 million homes that were not already fully visitable, around 2.7 million (12%) could comply through minor work and a further 9.6 million (44%) could comply with moderate work. Around 3.5 million (16%) homes could only be made fully visitable through major (and more problematic) works and the remaining 6.0 million (28%) homes were considered not feasible to make fully visitable, Annex Table 2.10.

-
- 2.46. Not surprisingly, the ease of adaptability varied considerably for different groups of dwellings. The newest aged homes built after 1990 were much more likely to require only minor works to make them fully visitable (21%). In contrast, over half (54%) of the oldest homes built before 1919 were not feasible to make fully visitable, Annex Table 2.10.
- 2.47. The types of homes most likely to be classed as not feasible to make fully visitable were small terraced houses (69%), converted flats (48%) and medium/large terraced houses (42%), as the design of these homes is more likely to prevent sufficient extension of space. Even though a small proportion of bungalows were fully visitable in 2013, 84% could be made so through minor or moderate work, Annex Table 2.10.
- 2.48. The ease of adaptability by tenure is provided in Figure 2.7 below. The owner occupied sector had the largest proportion of homes that could be made fully visitable through either minor or moderate works (63%). The proportion of homes that could be made fully visitable through either minor or moderate works was similar for local authority (50%) and housing association (49%) homes but lower for private rented homes (40%).
- 2.49. Owner occupied homes had the lowest proportion of homes in need of more major work to provide full visitability (13%) compared with all types of rented homes. The private rented sector had the highest proportion of homes (39%) that were assessed as not feasible to make visitable. Almost one third (32%) of private rented homes were built before 1919 (see Annex Table 1.1 of this report) and these oldest homes were most likely to be not feasible to make fully visitable, Figure 2.7.

Figure 2.7: Level of work required to provide all four visitability features by tenure, 2013



Base: all dwellings that are not currently fully 'visitable'
Notes: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 2.10
Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

Security

2.50. This section looks at key security measures present in homes and any variations in the provision of these by tenure. The measures examined are: security provided by windows and doors (in terms of ease of physically breaking into the dwelling); door viewers; burglar alarms; external lighting; and controlled door entry systems for flats with common areas.

2.51. In 2013, the presence of secure windows and doors¹² was fairly similar among owner occupied, local authority and housing association homes (82-86%), but was notably lower among privately rented homes (75%), Figure 2.8.

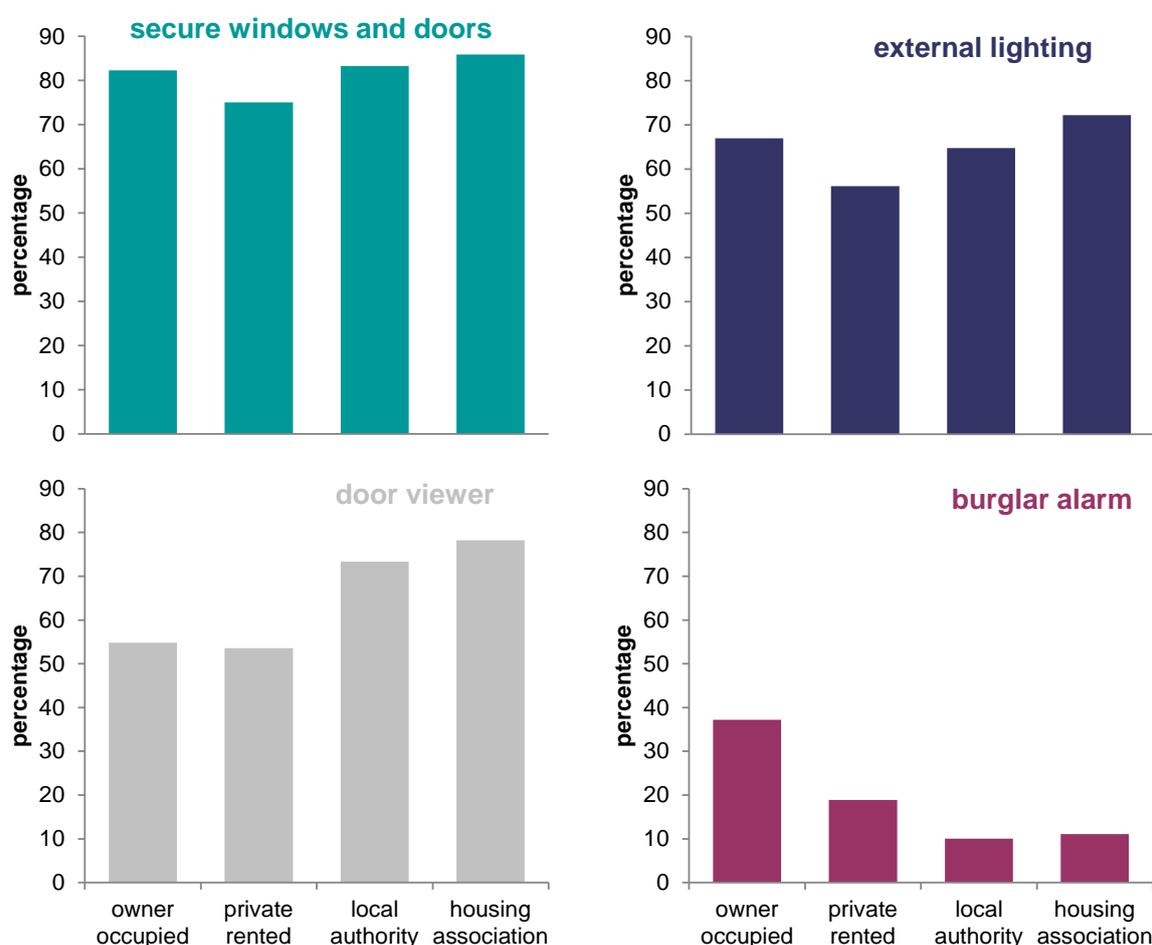
2.52. Door viewers were far more common among social rented homes (73-78%) compared with those in the private sector (54-55%). These findings likely

¹² see Glossary for definition

reflect the greater prevalence of door viewers among flats which were more common in the social rented sector. They may also be due to many social landlords establishing a door replacement programme, for example, as part of Decent Homes work, Figure 2.8.

2.53. Owner occupied homes were more likely to have a burglar alarm (37%) particularly when compared with social rented homes (10-11%). Around two-thirds (65%) of all homes had external lighting to private entrances or shared areas. This feature was most common among housing association homes (72%) but least common in the private rented sector (56%), Figure 2.8.

Figure 2.8: Provision of security measures by tenure, 2013



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 2.11

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

Controlled entry systems in flats with common areas

- 2.54. Around 3.6 million flats had shared common areas in 2013 and 77% of these had a controlled door entry system for added security. Housing association flats (81%) and local authority flats (79%) with common areas were more likely to have this feature compared with privately rented homes (75%), Annex Table 2.12.
- 2.55. At the time of the survey, the vast majority (94%) of these door systems were working. This proportion was very similar across all tenures, Annex Table 2.13.

Appendix 1 Logistic regression analysis

1. Stepwise logistic regression has been used to assess which key factors (independent variables) are predictors of households having a water meter (the dependent variable). The stepwise method involves adding independent variables to the model in steps and keeping only if they appear to have a relationship to the dependent variable.
2. As all of the independent variables for the modelling are categorical variables, the regression analysis provides an insight into which categories or groups of households are more or less likely to have a water meter. When using categorical variables in regression analysis one of the groups needs to be specified as the baseline group. The odds ratio, EXP (β) of the baseline group, is set as 1 (labelled as 'Reference category' in Table 1). Where the odds ratio is less than 1 this group is less likely to have a water meter compared with the baseline group. Conversely, a higher odds ratio indicates that the group is more likely to have a water meter.
3. A significance value is given to indicate if the odds ratio is significantly different from one i.e. no more or less likely to have a water meter than the baseline group. A value less than 0.05 is normally taken to mean that the difference is not due to chance.
4. The 'Nagelkerk R-squared' indicates the amount of variation in the population which is explained by the model. It takes a value between 0 and 1 with a higher figure meaning that the model predicts water meter presence more accurately. The 'Contribution to R-squared' indicates the amount that each independent variable contributes to the model.
5. The independent variables in the table are presented in order of their 'usefulness as predictors' as informed by the 'Contribution to R-squared'. This mirrors the order of the descriptive information provided in this chapter.
6. The 'Nagelkerk R-squared' value of the model is 0.26 which shows that the independent variables account for 26% of the variability in the dependent variable. This suggests there may be other factors not identified which could influence the presence of water meters.
7. The logistic regression used standardised weighted data, (by weighting the weights by the overall mean weight) so that any relationships found would not be biased to the over-sampled groups or the very large weighted sample size.
8. Although logistic regression can be used to explore associations between variables, it does not necessarily imply causation and results should be treated as indicative rather than conclusive.

Table 2.1: Logistic regression model for dwelling and household characteristics for owning a water meter, 2013-14

all households

independent variables	odds ratios	significance	Contribution to R-squared
dwelling age			
<i>post 1990</i>	<i>Reference category</i>		
pre 1919	0.07	**	0.00
1919-44	0.09	**	0.00
1945-64	0.12	**	0.00
1965-80	0.17	**	0.00
1981-90	0.26	**	0.00
			0.154
dwelling type			
<i>detached house</i>	<i>Reference category</i>		
small terraced house	0.43	**	0.00
medium/large terraced house	0.49	**	0.00
semi-detached house	0.52	**	0.00
bungalow	0.84		0.07
converted flat	0.84		0.24
purpose built flat, low rise	0.34	**	0.00
purpose built flat, high rise	0.16	**	0.00
			0.062
tenure			
<i>owner occupier</i>	<i>Reference category</i>		
private renter	0.85	*	0.02
local authority tenant	0.41	**	0.00
housing association tenant	0.58	**	0.00
			0.023
household composition			
<i>single person households</i>	<i>Reference category</i>		
couple only	0.73	**	0.00
lone parent and one child	0.74	*	0.01
multi-person household, two people	0.75	**	0.01
couple household with three or more people	0.56	**	0.00
single parent household with three or more people	0.55	**	0.00
multi-person household, with three or more people	0.39	**	0.00
			0.015

continued

all households

independent variables	odds ratios	significance	Contribution to R-squared
age of hrp			
<i>65 or older</i>	<i>Reference category</i>		
16-24	0.82		0.14
25-34	0.69	**	0.00
35-44	0.80	**	0.01
45-54	0.72	**	0.00
55-64	0.74	**	0.00
			0.003
ethnicity			
<i>white</i>	<i>Reference category</i>		
black	0.59	**	0.00
asian	0.90		0.36
other	0.74	**	0.04
			0.002
income level			
<i>highest 20%</i>	<i>Reference category</i>		
lowest 20%	0.79	*	0.01
quintile 2	0.82	*	0.02
quintile 3	0.81	*	0.01
quintile 4	0.82	*	0.01
			0.001
constant value for the odds ratio	19.75		
Nagelkerk R-squared			0.260

sample size

11,600

Note: significance: * the result is significant at the .05 level / ** the result is significant at the 1% level

Sources: English Housing Survey, household sub sample

Chapter 3

Dwelling condition and safety

3.1 This chapter provides an overview of the dwelling condition and safety of the housing stock in 2013 and how this has changed over time. Five key indicators of dwelling condition are examined:

- disrepair
- the incidence of damp and mould
- electrical safety
- health and safety hazards assessed under the Housing Health and Safety Rating System (HHSRS)
- Decent Homes standard.

It summarises the performance of different types of dwellings, including vacant dwellings, in respect to these indicators. Lastly a summary of poor housing conditions is provided which examines the extent to which homes have a combination of these problems.

Disrepair to dwellings

3.2 This section firstly examines the level of disrepair within the whole stock, and then investigates which types of dwellings have the highest levels of disrepair. It then examines how the overall level of disrepair within the stock has changed over time.

Cost of dealing with disrepair

3.3 For the EHS, the cost of dealing with disrepair is examined in two ways: 'required expenditure', and 'standardised costs'. 'Required expenditure' costs reflect the actual cost for each individual property; these costs incorporate geographic and tenure factors and are not adjusted for dwelling floor area, so will be higher for larger dwellings. An index of disrepair, referred to as 'standardised repair cost' is used to compare repair costs for different dwelling types, whilst removing the effects of size and area (see Box 3.1). The EHS distinguishes between three different levels of repairs needed at a dwelling (see Box 3.2). The analysis in this chapter focuses chiefly on basic repair costs (urgent repairs and repairs required in the medium term).

Box 3.1: Repair cost measures

Required expenditure - total cost per dwelling in pounds that represents the best estimate of what the specified work would actually cost in 2013 prices. These costs are influenced by regional variations in prices and assume different project sizes for work to houses in different tenures. In the owner occupied and private rented sector, the contract size (i.e. the number of dwellings covered by a theoretical contract) for work to houses is taken to be one. In the social rented sector, the contract size is taken as the number of dwellings on the estate, unless the house is not on an estate when it is assumed to be a street property with a contract size of one. For flats, the contract size for exterior works is the size of the block regardless of tenure. This measure assumes that all work is carried out by contractors who operate to health and safety regulations. The costs do not include any VAT or mark up for profit. These costs should not be used for assessing differences in condition between different tenures or dwelling types as they vary according to dwelling size, tenure and location. When making such comparisons among different dwelling characteristics, it would be more appropriate to use 'standardised repair costs' as explained below.

Standardised repair costs - a measure of disrepair which expresses costs in pounds per square metre of floor area (£/m²) based on prices for the East Midlands region (where prices can be regarded as a mid-point in the range of regional prices). Under the standardised repair cost measure it is assumed that all work is undertaken by contractors on a block contract basis. For flats, the size of the contract is assumed to be the number of dwellings in the whole block. For houses, regardless of tenure, it is taken as a group of five dwellings, representing costs that are more typical of those which may be incurred by a landlord organising the work on a planned programme basis. By reducing costs to a £/m² basis the effect of building size on the amount of disrepair recorded is removed. Standardised repair costs should *not* be used as an indication of the actual expenditure required to remedy problems.

Box 3.2: Categories of repair measured in the survey

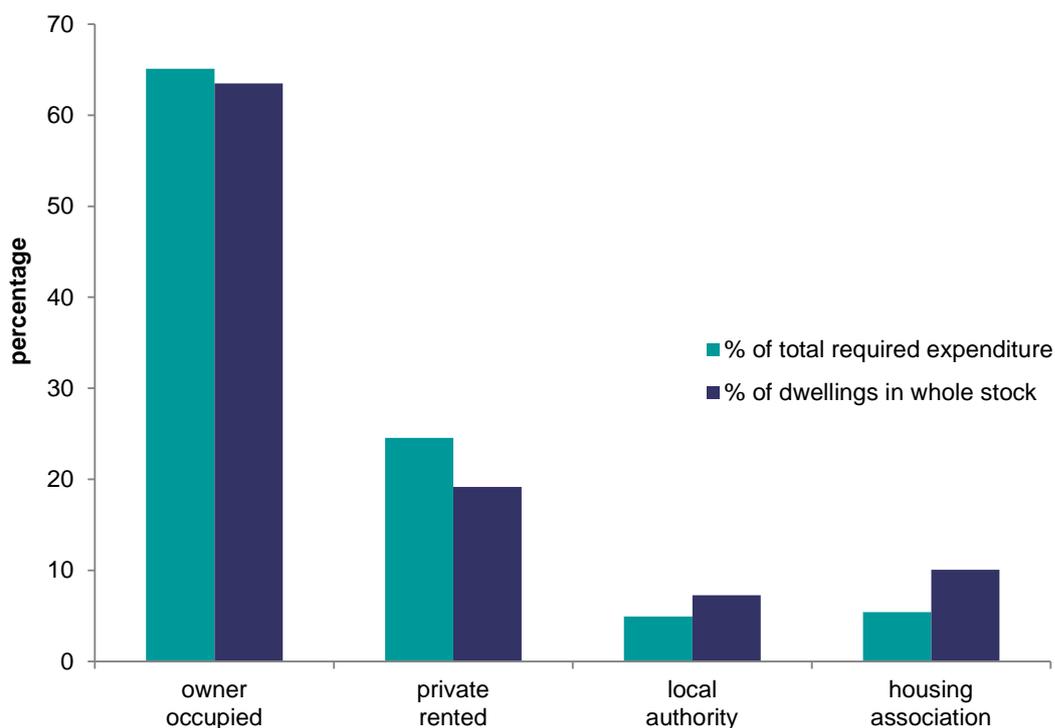
Urgent repairs - work which needs to be undertaken to tackle problems presenting a risk of health, safety, security or further significant deterioration in the short term; examples include leaking roofs, broken locks to external doors, and cracked socket covers.

Basic repairs - any urgent repairs plus additional visible work to be carried out in the medium term (within five years). These do not include replacement of building elements nearing the end of their life where the surveyor has recorded that this action could be delayed by more than five years.

Comprehensive repairs - the above two categories, plus any replacements the surveyor has assessed as being needed in the next 10 years. This measure provides a better basis for identifying work which would form part of a planned programme of repair by landlords.

- 3.4 The first section of the analysis examines the distribution and average required costs of the work necessary to remedy disrepair within the housing stock and how these vary by dwelling characteristics. These costs help to give some idea of the likely level of investment needed for different types of homes, but without taking into account differences caused by size and area.
- 3.5 It is estimated that the full cost to carry out all basic repairs across the stock was around £36 billion in 2013, an average cost of £1,563 per dwelling. If more comprehensive repairs were undertaken for the planned maintenance of building elements that require attention within the next ten years, this cost would rise to around £94 billion, an average cost of £4,054 per dwelling, Annex Table 3.1 and Table 3.1.
- 3.6 Owner occupied dwellings accounted for the largest proportion (65%) of total basic repair costs, but similar to the sector's share of the total stock, and the private rented sector accounted for 25% (larger than this sector's share of the total stock, 19%). The proportion of total basic repair costs for both local authority and housing association homes was less than their share of the whole stock, Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1: Distribution of dwellings and total expenditure required for basic repairs, by tenure, 2013



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.1

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

- 3.7 The private rented sector had the highest average repair costs for urgent (£1,342) and basic repairs (£2,000) compared with all other tenures. Average comprehensive repair costs were similar for private rented and owner occupied homes but greater than social sector homes. The social sector had the lowest average costs, ranging from £685 (urgent repair cost) to £2,278 (for comprehensive repair) per dwelling. The latter finding reflects the impact of on-going responsive repairs programmes, the works undertaken as part of the Decent Homes programme, and the relatively higher proportion of purpose built flats, which have lower average repair costs (see para 3.11) in the social sector, Table 3.1.
- 3.8 For all types of disrepair, average costs increased with dwelling age. Furthermore pre 1919 built homes comprised 41% of total basic repair costs (Annex Table 3.1). There was also variation across different dwelling types; urgent and basic repairs costs were highest for converted flats (£1,725 and £2,491 respectively) and comprehensive repairs highest for semi and detached homes (£4,812). Purpose built flats had the lowest average repair costs, Table 3.1.
- 3.9 Repair costs for vacant dwellings were a lot higher compared with occupied homes. A long term vacancy may arise in part due to a dwelling being in a

poor state of disrepair but empty homes can deteriorate more rapidly, for example, due to undetected urgent disrepair or vandalism, Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Average required expenditure per dwelling, by dwelling characteristics, 2013

<i>all dwellings</i>				
	urgent repairs	basic repairs	comprehensive repairs	sample size
<i>£ per dwelling</i>				
tenure				
owner occupied	1,042	1,603	4,414	4,994
private rented	1,342	2,000	4,471	2,590
social rented	685	932	2,278	4,914
dwelling age				
pre 1919	2,046	3,169	6,792	1,990
1919 to 1944	1,510	2,323	5,852	1,903
1945 to 1964	938	1,351	3,967	3,053
1965 to 1980	619	858	2,886	2,800
post 1980	279	428	1,499	2,752
dwelling type				
all terraced	1,134	1,692	4,215	3,722
semi and detached	1,093	1,742	4,812	4,359
bungalow	975	1,369	3,894	1,179
converted flat	1,725	2,491	4,551	441
purpose built flat	596	765	1,806	2,797
occupancy status				
occupied	878	1,392	3,899	12,008
vacant	4,368	5,133	7,301	490
all dwellings	1,037	1,563	4,054	12,498

Base: all dwellings

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

Comparative levels of disrepair within different types of dwellings using standardised repair costs

3.10 For most types of home average standardised basic repair costs were highest in the private rented sector. Repair costs for vacant homes were highest among owner occupied dwellings (£74/m² compared with £33/m² in the social sector and £31/m² in the private rented sector). This is likely because the owner occupied sector contained a higher proportion of longer term empty homes which tend to be older¹, Table 3.2.

¹ see 'Vacant Dwellings in England, The challenges and costs of bringing them back into use', BRE FB25, Bracknell, HIS BRE Press 2010

3.11 For owner occupied and private rented sectors, purpose built flats had the lowest levels of disrepair ranging from £7/m² to £10/m². Across the whole stock the highest standardised basic repair costs were for converted flats (£25/m²), rising to £31/m² in the private rented sector, Table 3.2.

3.12 The level of disrepair increased with dwelling age and this relationship was evident across all tenures, Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Average standardised basic repair cost by dwelling characteristics and tenure, 2013

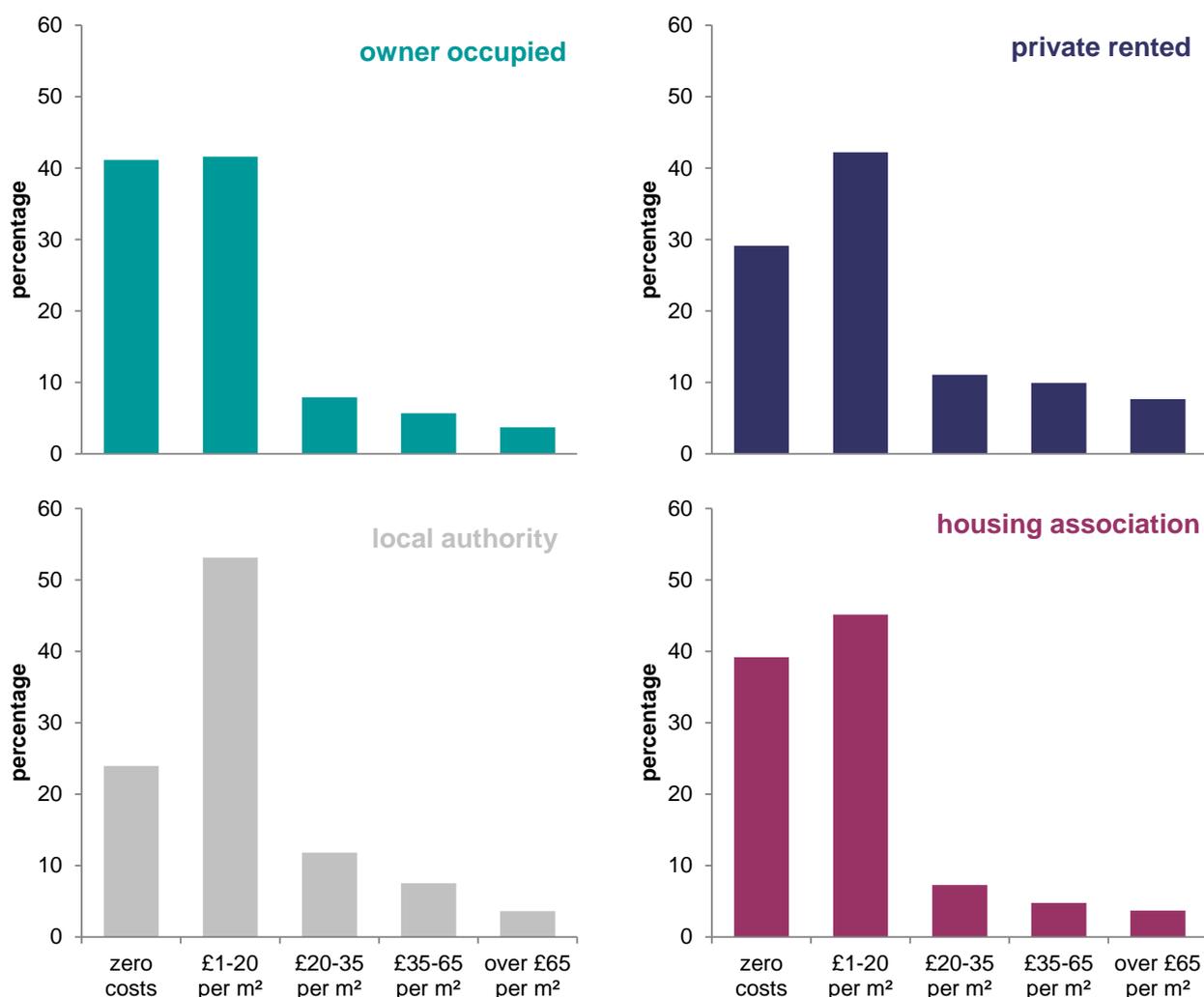
<i>all dwellings</i>				
	owner occupied	private rented	social rented	all dwellings
	<i>£ per m²</i>			
type of vacancy				
occupied	10.7	18.3	11.6	12.3
vacant	73.6	30.8	32.7	50.1
dwelling type				
all terraced	15.9	22.6	13.5	17.1
semi and detached	10.7	19.4	15.0	12.0
bungalow	18.3	19.6	10.8	16.8
converted flat	17.3	31.3	19.0	25.4
purpose built flat	7.1	10.4	10.4	9.5
dwelling age				
pre 1919	24.0	32.9	23.9	26.7
1919-44	20.9	25.3	18.6	21.4
1945-64	11.8	18.6	13.1	12.9
1965-80	6.0	10.1	11.0	7.6
post 1980	3.1	5.5	6.3	4.2
all dwellings	12.7	19.6	12.3	14.0
<i>sample size</i>	<i>4,994</i>	<i>2,590</i>	<i>4,914</i>	<i>12,498</i>

Base: all dwellings

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

3.13 In 2013, local authority homes had the lowest proportion of dwellings (24%) with no repairs expenditure, particularly when compared with owner occupied homes (41%). At the other end of the scale, for dwellings needing repairs in excess of £65/m², private rented homes had the highest proportion (8%) compared with 4% for all other tenures, Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2: Standardised basic repair costs, by tenure, 2013



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.2

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

Change in disrepair over time from 2001 to 2013

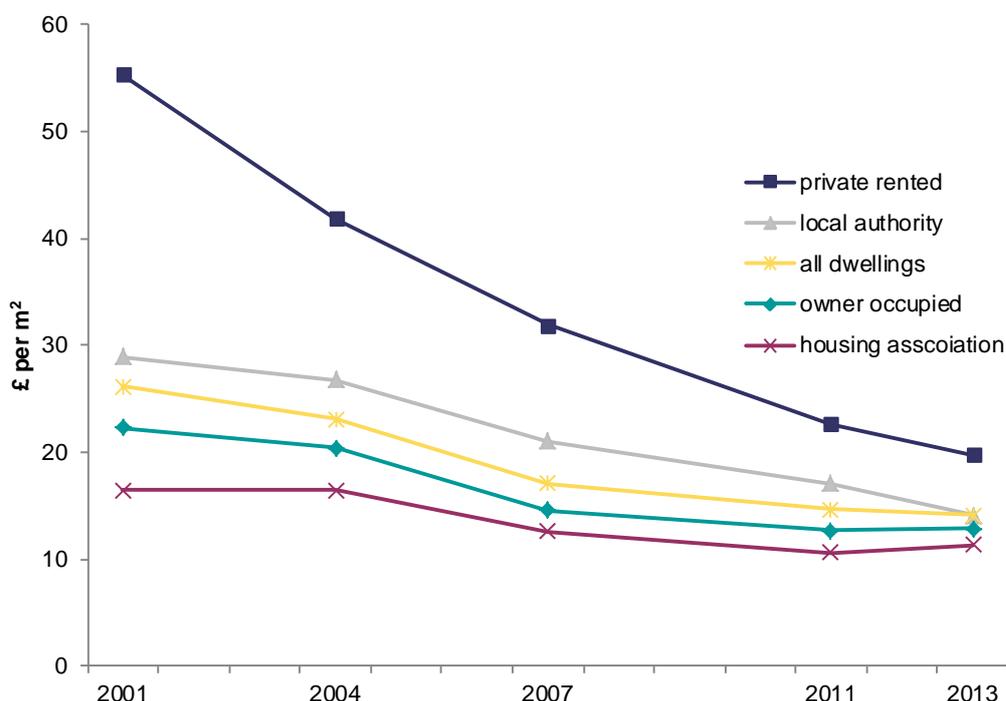
3.14 This section examines changes in the amount of disrepair within the whole stock since 2001, highlighting which tenures and ages of homes have seen the least and greatest improvement. The analysis uses the basic standardised repair costs (£/m²) converted to 2013 prices using the Building Cost Information Service (BCIS) National Index². This rebasing of costs allows for a time series of comparative analysis of repair costs, since it removes the impact of building cost inflation/ deflation.

²the BCIS is the Royal Institution of Chartered Surveyors' Building Cost Information Service. The data provides an inflation factor for building costs enabling the cost of disrepair in the housing stock in any given year to be measured against a baseline cost.

3.15 Since 2001, the average basic repair cost for the whole stock reduced by 46% from £26/m² to £14/m², suggesting that there have been improvements in how dwellings have been maintained over time, Figure 3.3.

3.16 Although average repair costs have always been significantly higher for private rented homes, these costs fell by around 64% from £55m² to £20m². Average repair costs fell least sharply for housing association homes but levels of disrepair have always been lower in this sector owing to it having a larger proportion of newer homes, Figure 3.3.

Figure 3.3: Mean basic standardised repair costs by tenure, 2001-2013



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.3

Sources:

2001 to 2007: English Housing Condition Survey, dwelling sample;

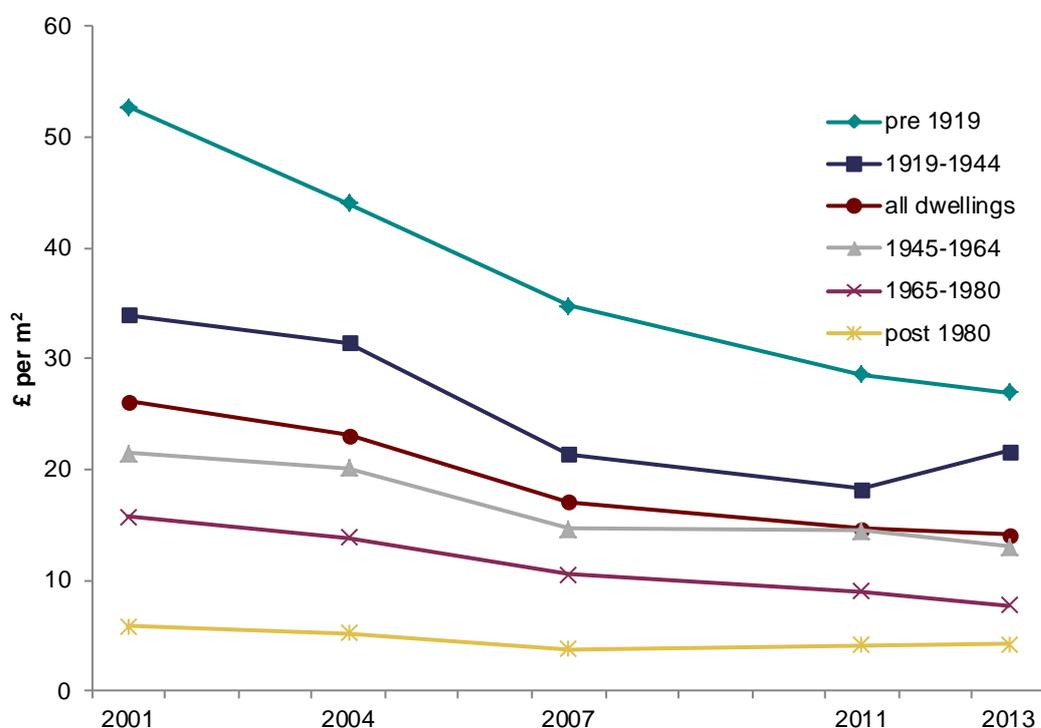
2008 onwards: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

3.17 Many vacant homes may be in a relatively poorer condition before they became empty i.e. the poor conditions led them to become vacant. Equally it may be the case, especially for long term vacant homes that these dwellings deteriorate more rapidly due to, for example, vandalism or undetected faults. Vacant homes have, therefore, always had notably higher levels of disrepair, although these have reduced over time from £69/m² to £51 m², Annex Table 3.3.

3.18 Average repair costs for the oldest dwellings built before 1919 were markedly higher over the 2001-2013 period, but did fall from £53/m² to £27/m². Whilst average repair costs also fell for all other ages of homes, the biggest

percentage fall occurred for homes built between 1965 and 1980, reducing by over 50% from around £16 m² to £8/m², Figure 3.4.

Figure 3.4: Mean basic standardised repair costs by dwelling age, 2001-2013



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.3

Sources:

2001 to 2007: English Housing Condition Survey, dwelling sample

2008 onwards: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

Damp and mould

3.19 Dampness encourages the prevalence of house dust mites and mould and fungal growth which all pose a risk of poor health if left untreated. Dampness can also lead to the rapid deterioration of the fabric of the dwelling, creating further problems and more expensive repairs to the property.

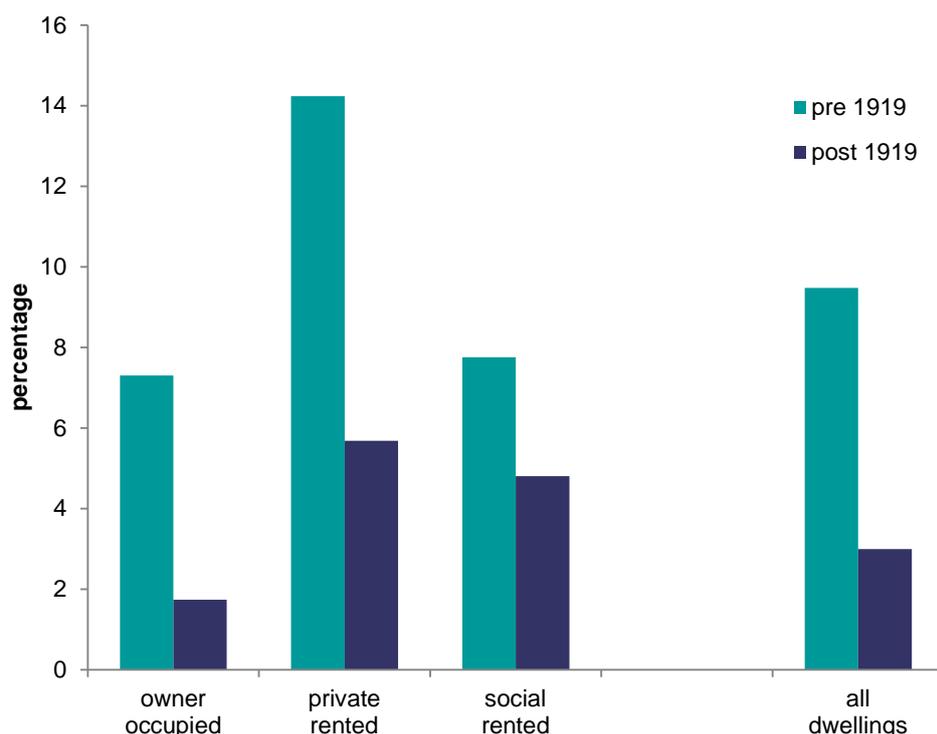
3.20 This section investigates the incidence of damp in 2013 including the three types of damp that can be present in homes (rising damp, penetrating damp and serious condensation and mould growth). It then examines the incidence of damp in homes occupied by certain key household groups: households including people who are potentially vulnerable on account of their age, long term illness or disability, and groups which tend to be disadvantaged such as ethnic minorities and those in poverty³. Finally it examines the incidence of damp over time. Additional data on the incidence of any damp by different

³ see Glossary for definitions

dwelling and household characteristics can be found in the web tables DA5101 to DA5103⁴.

- 3.21 Around 1.0 million dwellings (4%) had a problem with damp in one or more rooms in 2013. The most common type of damp affecting dwellings was serious condensation and mould growth, present in 3% of homes. Penetrating damp (2%) and rising damp (1%) were less common, Annex Table 3.4.
- 3.22 The likelihood of damp being present in a dwelling varied by dwelling characteristics including tenure and dwelling age. Across the whole stock older homes built before 1919 were far more likely to have damp (9% compared with 3% for all post 1919 built homes). This is mainly due to older dwellings having higher levels of disrepair and being less energy efficient. This finding on the relationship between dwelling age and incidence of damp was found in the private sector, which comprised the vast majority of the total housing stock. The private rented sector had the highest proportion of homes with damp (8%) and this rose to 14% among pre 1919 built homes, Figure 3.5 and Annex table 3.5.

Figure 3.5: Incidence of any damp by tenure and dwelling age, 2013



Base: all dwellings

Notes:

1) the difference in the incidence of damp between pre 1919 and post 1919 social rented homes was not statistically significant, in part due to the small sample size for pre 1919 social rented dwellings.

2) underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.5

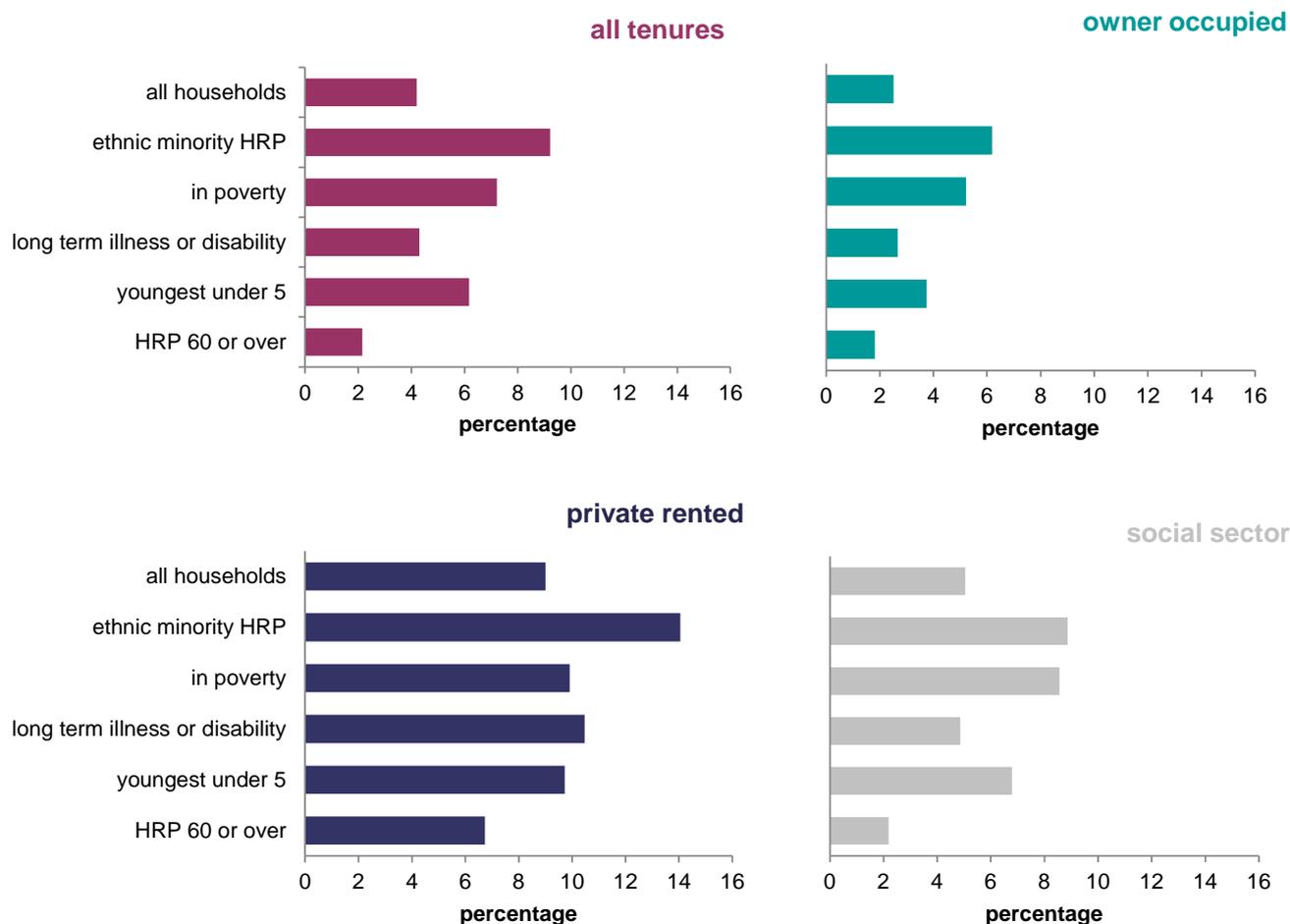
Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

⁴ <https://www.gov.uk/government/statistical-data-sets/dwelling-condition-and-safety>

3.23 Overall 4% of households had damp present in their property. Households where the HRP was over 60 years of age (2%) were less likely to have problems with damp than all households. Conversely, households where the youngest child was under 5 years (6%), households in poverty (7%) and ethnic minority HRP households (9%) were more likely to have problems with damp, Figure 3.6

3.24 Ethnic minority HRP households were more likely to live in a damp home irrespective of their tenure compared with all households In England. Households in poverty, however, were more likely to live in a damp home compared with all households if they were owners or social sector tenants but not if they were private renters. The differences in the incidences of damp between all households and those where the youngest child was under 5 years were not found to be statistically significant within each tenure, Figure 3.6

Figure 3.6: Households living in dwellings with any damp problem, by household groups, 2013



Base: all households

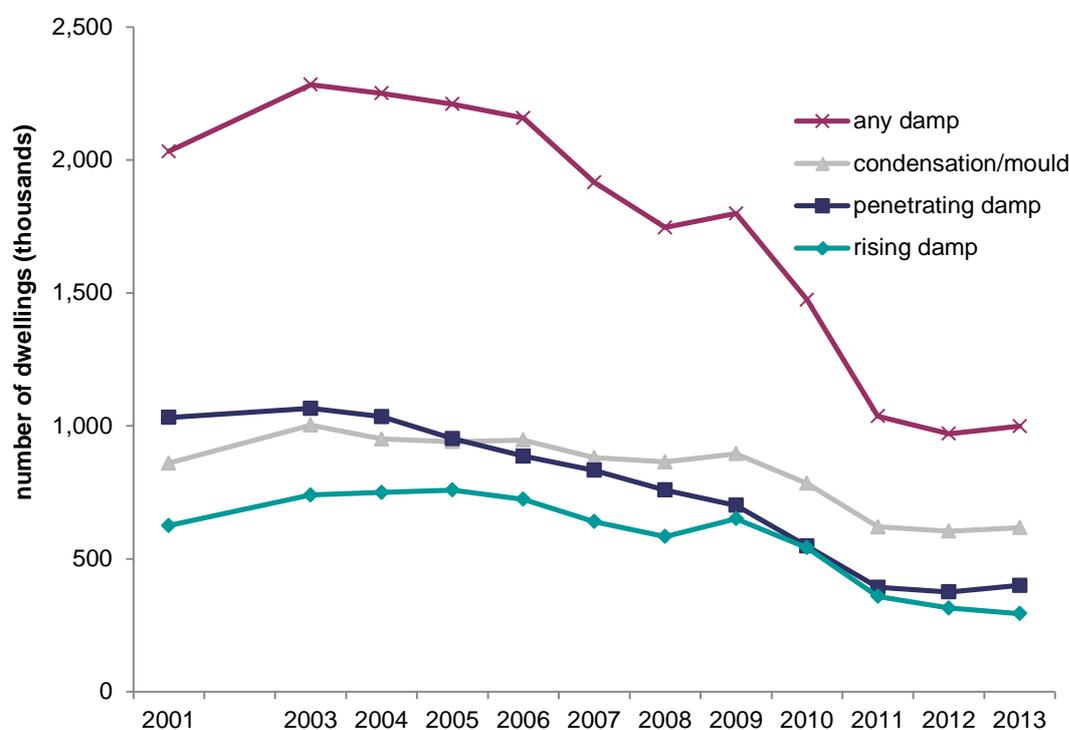
Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.6

Source: English Housing Survey, household sub-sample

Damp and mould over time

- 3.25 From 2001, there was a fall in the number of dwellings with each type of damp, particularly penetrating damp which reduced from 1.0 million in 2001 to around 400,000 in 2013, Figure 3.7.
- 3.26 The overall reduction in any form of damp from 2.0 million homes (10%) to 1.0 million (4%) is mainly due to the overall improvement in the maintenance of dwellings, as examined earlier in this chapter, and due to improvements in the energy efficiency of homes (see Chapter 1 of the Energy efficiency of English housing). Despite this increase in energy performance, the incidence of serious condensation and mould decreased at a slower rate, falling from 860,000 to 618,000 homes over this period. This is likely to be partly attributable to how occupants behave in their homes, for example not creating an adequate airflow by keeping their windows closed too often, Figure 3.7.

Figure 3.7: Incidence of each type of damp, 2001-2013



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.4

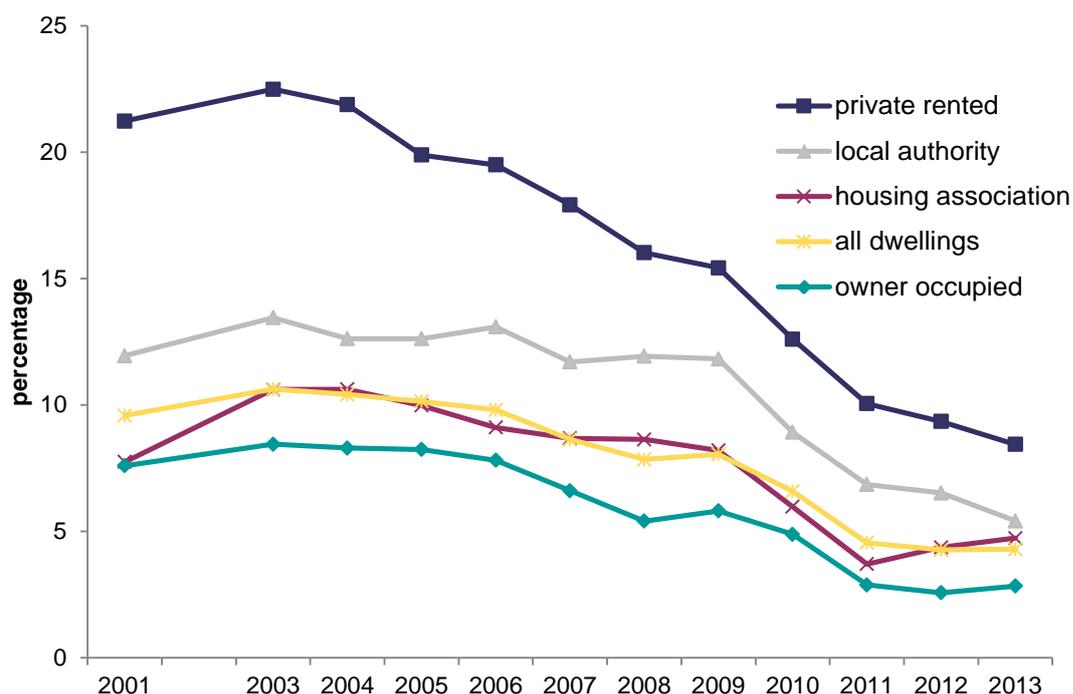
Sources:

2001 to 2007: English Housing Condition Survey, dwelling sample;

2008 onwards: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

- 3.27 Between 2001 and 2013, the most marked decrease in the presence of damp occurred in private rented homes (from 21% to 8%), although the proportion of dwellings with damp in this sector was still higher than in other tenures in 2013, Figure 3.8.

Figure 3.8: Any type of damp problem by tenure, 2001-2013



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.7

Sources:

2001 to 2007: English Housing Condition Survey, dwelling sample;

2008 onwards: English Housing Survey

Electrical safety

3.28 Electricity plays an essential role in how our homes operate but aging and faulty electrical systems could cause a fire and have the potential to cause serious harm, or even fatal electrocution. This section examines the incidence of five key areas of electrical safety in 2013⁵ within the whole stock and by tenure before investigating the provision of these over time⁶. It then examines the provision of electrical safety features in 2013 by the age of the household. Additional information on the prevalence of electrical safety features are in the live web tables DA5201 to DA5203⁷.

3.29 In 2013, almost all homes in every tenure (98-99%) had modern PVC wiring throughout. In addition, 94% of homes had modern earthing wires, although

⁵ modern PVC wiring, modern earthing, modern consumer boxes, miniature circuit breakers and residual current devices

⁶ It may not be possible for the surveyor to identify the presence of each electrical safety feature e.g. due to problems accessing a garage, so there will be some unknown cases. For this analysis, these unknown cases have not been redistributed according to the profile of other dwellings so as not to inflate the prevalence of these features within the stock

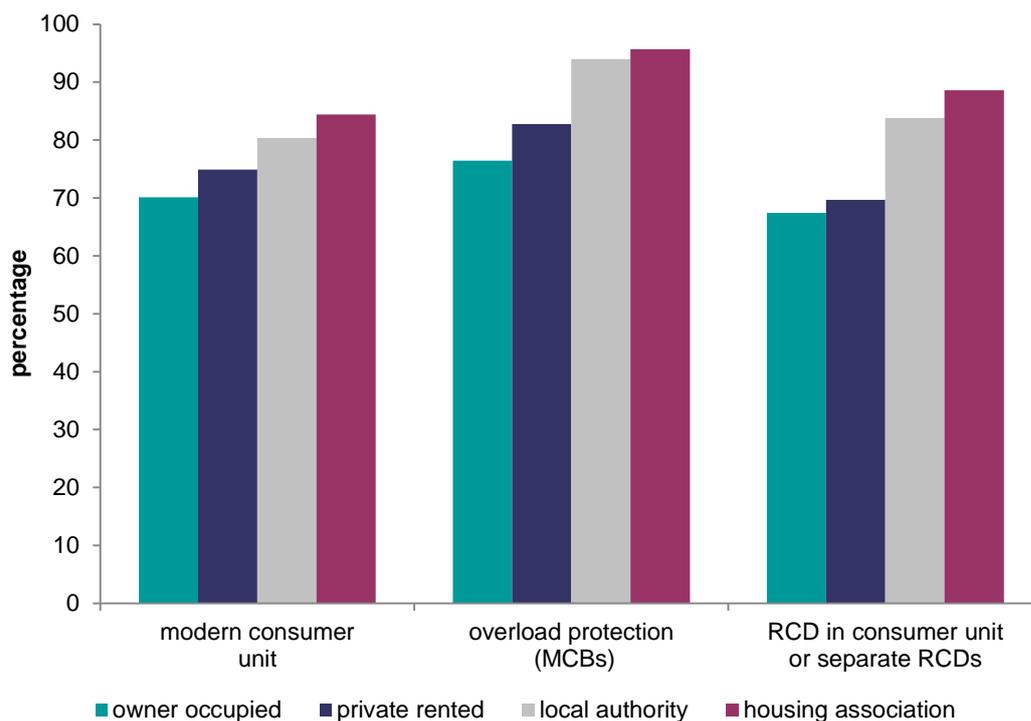
⁷ <https://www.gov.uk/government/statistical-data-sets/dwelling-condition-and-safety>

provision was slightly higher among social sector homes (97-98%), Annex Table 3.8.

3.30 Modern consumer units were present in 73% of homes; these units comprise one or two accessible boxes which accommodate Miniature Circuit Breakers (MCBs), Residual Current Devices (RCDs), various timers or off-peak supply controllers. MCBs, which provide overload protection, were present in 81% of homes and RCDs, which break electrical circuits when an ‘abnormality’ is detected such as a person touching a live wire, were present in 71% of homes, Annex Table 3.8.

3.31 The presence of these three features varied by tenure. Provision of each feature was higher in social sector homes than in the private sector. Within the private sector provision was not as high among owner occupied homes. This is likely to be due to landlords in both the private and social sector having legal obligations to ensure electric safety⁸, Figure 3.9

Figure 3.9: Dwellings with modern consumer units and electrical protection measures by tenure, 2013



Base: all dwellings

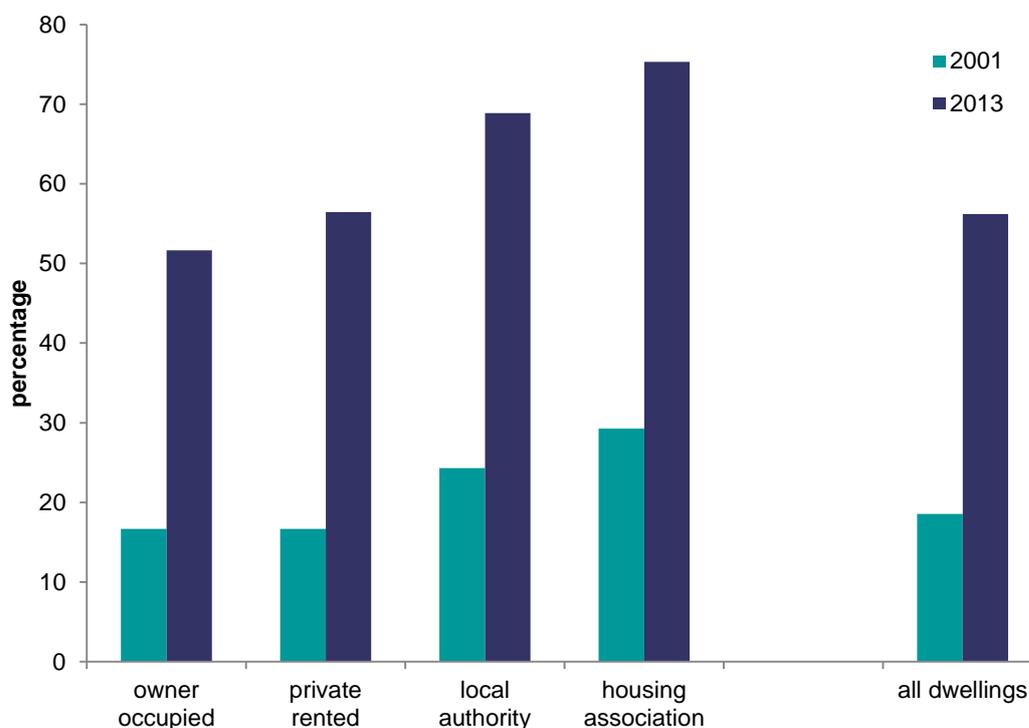
Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.8

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

⁸ by law, private landlords must ensure electrical installations and wiring are maintained in a safe condition throughout the tenancy. For HMOs, landlords are required to have fixed electrical installations inspected and tested at intervals not exceeding 5 years by a qualified electrician. A certificate must be obtained.

3.32 In 2013 over one half of all homes (56%) had all five safety features a marked increase in provision compared with the 2001 position when 19% of homes had all five features. Large increases in this provision were evident across all tenures, Figure 3.10.

Figure 3.10: Dwellings with all five electrical safety measures, by tenure, 2001 and 2013



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.8

Sources:

2001: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample;

2013: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

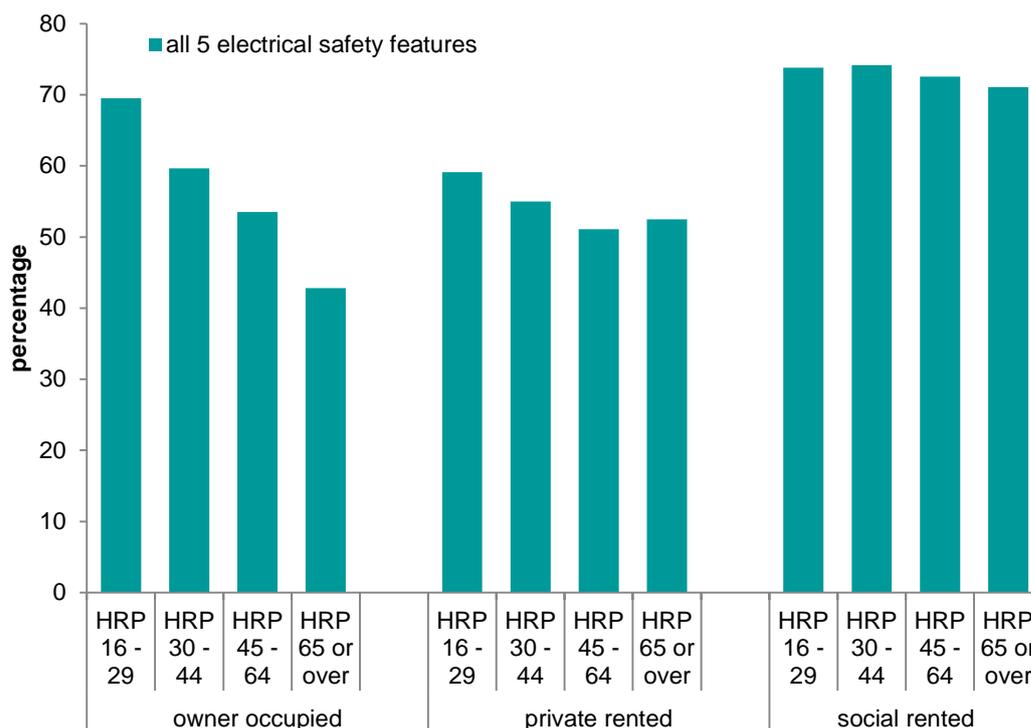
3.33 This section examines the prevalence of electrical safety features by age of the HRP. Evidence suggests that some older people are disproportionately at risk from electrical safety hazards since the presence of all 5 electrical features in a home reduces as household age increases.

3.34 Overall some 56% of households had all five electrical safety features, but this proportion was lower for households aged 65 years or over (48%). Households aged 16 to 29 years were most likely to have all five measures (64%), Annex Table 3.9.

3.35 These findings are mainly driven by the differences evident among owner occupied homes, which comprised the largest proportion of the total housing stock. Some 70% of households where the age of the HRP was 16-29 years and an owner occupier had all five electrical safety features. This was notably higher compared with 43% of households where the HRP was 65 years or more and an owner of their home, Annex Table 3.9.

3.36 Differences by the age of the HRP in the private rented sector were less marked, likely owing to landlord requirements to ensure that electrical installation in a rented property is safe when tenants move in and maintained in a safe condition throughout duration of the tenancy. Provision was similar among all social sector households regardless their age, again due to the various legislative requirements placed on social landlords, Figure 3.11.

Figure 3.11: Provision of all five electrical safety measures, by age of HRP and tenure, 2013



Base: all households

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.9

Source: English Housing Survey, household sub sample

Housing Health and Safety Rating System (HHSRS)

3.37 The HHSRS is a risk-based assessment that identifies hazards in dwellings and evaluates their potential effects on the health and safety of occupants and their visitors, particularly vulnerable people. The EHS assesses 26 out of the 29 hazards covered by the HHSRS⁹. The live web tables DA4101 to

⁹ Surveyors working on the EHS receive extensive training and support to help ensure their HHSRS assessments are consistent and robust (see chapter 5, Annex 5 of the 2012-13 EHS Technical Report). While these measures ensure a good level of consistency in judgements, some surveyor variability is to be expected. See also 2011-12 EHS Technical Advice Note on surveyor variability

https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/211310/Surveyor_variability.pdf

DA4103¹⁰ provide data on the incidence of any hazard and the most common types of hazards within the total housing stock.

- 3.38 In 2013, some 2.8 million dwellings (12%) had at least one Category 1 hazard, of which 460,000 (2% of the total stock) had two or more of these hazards. The most common Category 1 hazards were those associated with falls (on stairs, between levels, on the level and those associated with baths). These affected around 1.6 million dwellings (7%). The next most common hazard was excess cold affecting 1.0 million dwellings (4%). Dwellings with any of the remaining 21 Category 1 hazards (covered by the survey) were less common, affecting around 560,000 homes (2%), Annex Table 3.10.
- 3.39 Generally speaking the incidence of these hazards increased with dwelling age; some 29% of homes built before 1919 had at least one Category 1 hazard. The private rented sector had the highest proportion (17%) of Category 1 hazards compared with other tenures. This is partly because this sector had the highest proportion of homes built before 1919 and the highest proportion of converted flats, 23% of which had a Category 1 hazard, Annex Table 3.11.

Changes over time

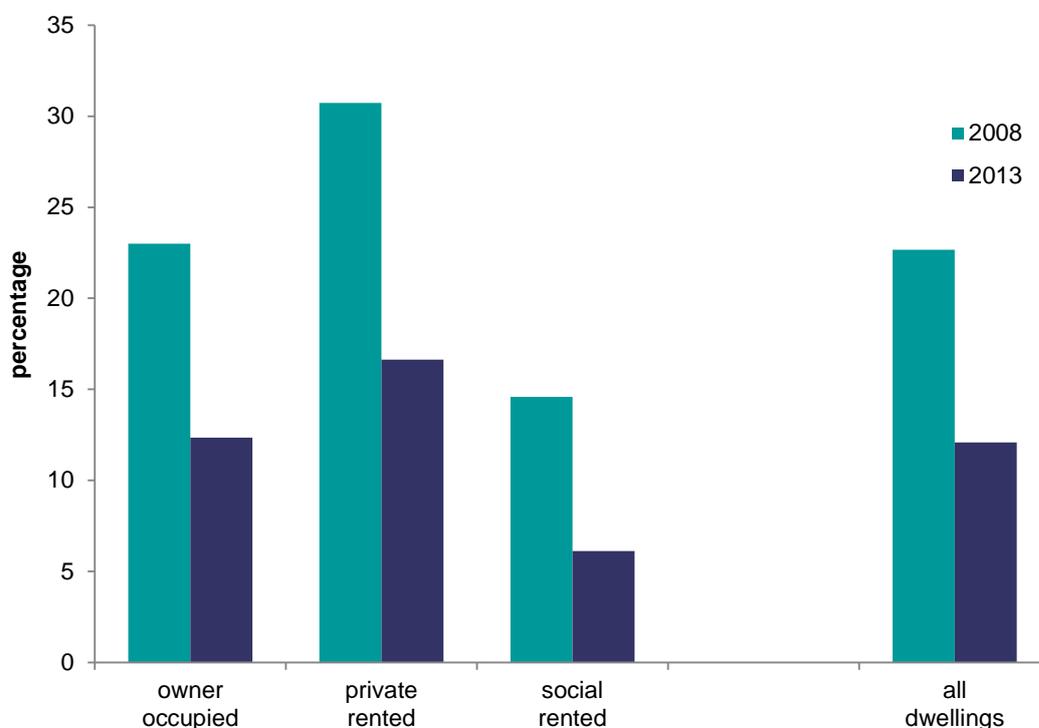
- 3.40 This section examines overall changes in the incidence of any Category 1 hazards within the housing stock since 2008¹¹, highlighting which types of dwellings have seen the greatest improvement. In addition to sampling variations there is a degree of surveyor variability to be expected for HHSRS assessments. Also the methodology to assess Category 1 excess cold was changed in 2010 and 2012; this meant that a small number of dwellings failed excess cold under one methodology and not the other, and vice versa. These changes in methodology means that time series findings should be treated with a degree of caution.
- 3.41 The incidence of any Category 1 hazards in dwellings reduced from 23% in 2008 to 12% in 2013. There were improvements across all tenures, particularly within the private rented sector; a reduction of 14 percentage points (from 31% to 17%). Despite this progress the private rented sector continued to have a higher proportion of hazards. Social sector homes continued to have the lowest incidence of these hazards, partly due to the relatively high proportion of flats in the sector, Figure 3.12.
- 3.42 The decrease in the most serious Category 1 hazards is likely to be due to a combination of factors such as: the improvement in the energy efficiency of homes across all tenures, which can reduce the risk of excess cold; the work

¹⁰ <https://www.gov.uk/government/statistical-data-sets/dwelling-condition-and-safety>

¹¹ the 2006 and 2007 English House Condition Surveys collected data on fewer hazards (15) at this time, so HHSRS data from these surveys have not been included for this analysis

associated with the Decent Homes programme in the social sector; and local authority enforcement action against private landlords where these hazards exist.

Figure 3.12: Dwellings with any Category 1 hazard by tenure, 2008 and 2013



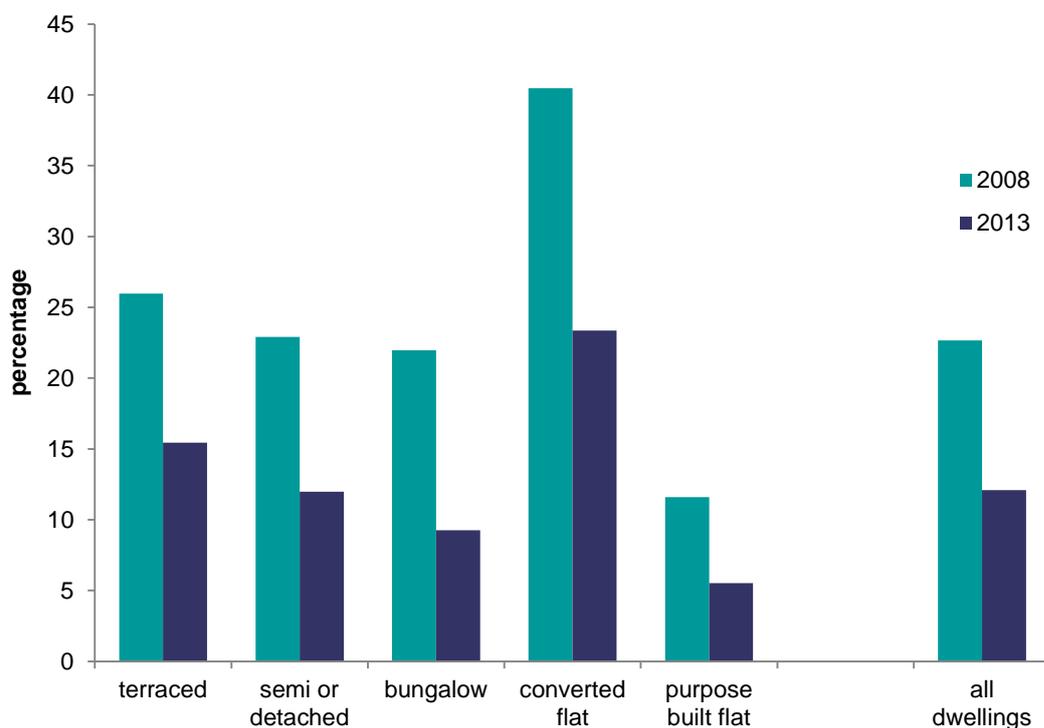
Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.12

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

- 3.43 Improvements were evident among all ages of homes. Category 1 hazards in the oldest pre 1919 homes reduced from 45% to 29%, Annex Table 3.12.
- 3.44 One of the most marked reductions in the incidence of the most serious hazards occurred among converted flats down from 40% to 23% of homes. Converted flats vary a good deal in their internal layout, which is often poor compared with purpose built flats, for example, the required exit route in the event of fire necessitating passage through a kitchen area. Throughout this period purpose built flats had the lowest proportion of Category 1 hazards (12% - 6%), Figure 3.13.

Figure 3.13: Dwellings with any Category 1 hazard by dwelling type, 2008 and 2013



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.12

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

Decent Homes

Box 3.3: For a dwelling to be considered ‘decent’ it must:

- meet the statutory minimum standard for housing (the Housing Health and Safety System (HHSRS) since April 2006), homes posing a Category 1 hazard under the HHSRS are considered non-decent
- be in a reasonable state of repair
- have reasonably modern facilities and services
- provide a reasonable degree of thermal comfort

3.45 For millions of social sector tenants the Decent Homes programme has helped to raise the quality of their homes and for some, their quality of life. This investment into the social sector has had additional benefits such as assisting in the reduction of carbon emissions through the installation of energy efficiency measures, and the reduction of any serious HHSRS hazards. Through tenure comparisons, this section examines both the incidence of non-decency and the reasons for non-decency (see Box 3.3), in 2013 and over time. Additional information of the incidence of non-decent

homes among different dwellings and households can be found in web tables DA3201 to DA3203¹².

- 3.46 In 2013, around 4.8 million homes (21% of all dwellings) failed to meet the Decent Homes standard. Non-decent homes were far more likely to exist in privately rented homes (30%) highlighting the large scope for housing improvements in this sector. The proportion of non-decent homes was lowest in the social sector (15%) reflecting the vast investment in improving the quality of social housing since the inception of the Decent Homes programme, Annex Table 3.13.
- 3.47 The oldest homes built before 1919 had the highest proportion of non-decent homes (40%). Other types of dwellings with higher rates of non-decency were converted flats (40%), vacant homes (33%) and homes in city and other urban areas (28%), all of which contained a higher proportion of older homes. Although London had a relatively higher proportion of older homes, the proportion of non-decent homes here was similar to the rest of England, likely due to the relatively higher proportion of purpose built flats in the capital, Annex Table 3.13.

Non-decent dwellings in 2013 - reasons for non-decency

- 3.48 Of the total 4.8 million non-decent dwellings, 79% failed on one of the Decent Homes criteria, 17% on two with the remaining 4% failing on three or all four criteria. Annex Table 3.14
- 3.49 The most common reason for non-decency was the presence of any Category 1 HHSRS hazard¹³; these were present in 2.8 million homes (58% of all non-decent homes). Some 1.7 million homes failed to meet the thermal comfort (36% of non-decent homes), around 1.1 million homes failed to meet the disrepair component (22% of non-decent homes) and 443,000 homes (9% of non-decent homes) failed due to the lack of modern facilities¹⁴. This pattern varied by tenure, Annex Table 3.15.
- 3.50 Owner occupied and private rented non decent homes showed a fairly similar pattern of reasons for failure to each other. Most failed on HHSRS followed by thermal comfort, disrepair and then modern facilities. For local authority homes also most failed on HHSRS but at a lower rate than owner occupied and private rented homes. The proportion failing on thermal comfort was also lower in local authority homes compared with owner occupied or private rented sector homes but the rates for disrepair and modern facilities were higher, Figure 3.14.

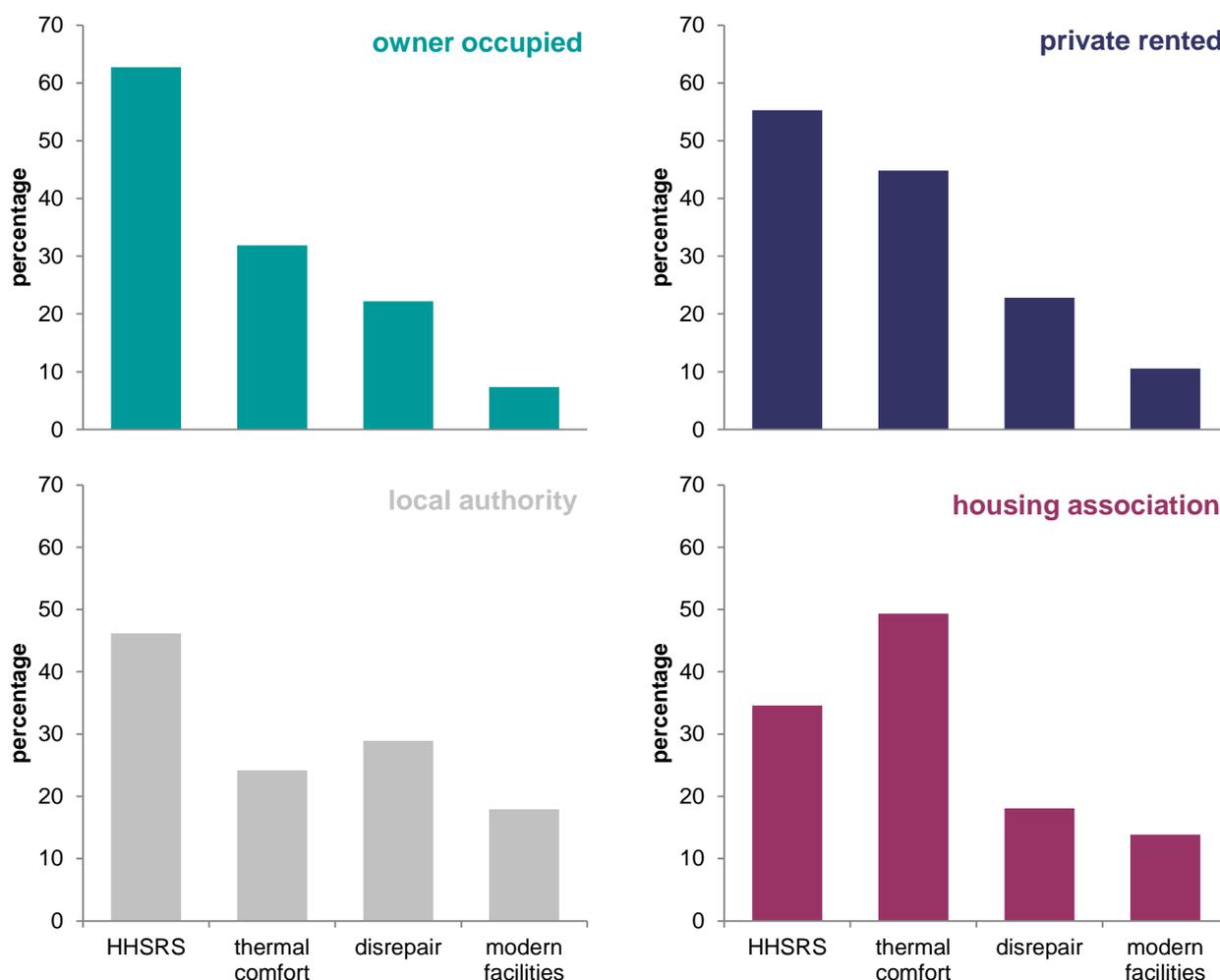
¹² <https://www.gov.uk/government/statistical-data-sets/dwelling-condition-and-safety>

¹³ The HHSRS figures here and in the rest of this chapter relate to just the 15 hazards covered by EHS since 2006. The figures are therefore slightly lower than those presented in the HHSRS section above.

¹⁴ percentages do not sum to 100% as dwellings can be non-decent due to failing more than 1 criterion

3.51 In the housing association sector, non-Decent Homes were most likely to fail due to lack of thermal comfort (49%). This sector's non-decent homes were less likely to fail on the repair criterion compared with all other tenures, Figure 3.14.

Figure 3.14: Non decent homes - reasons for failing to meet the standard, 2013



Base: all non-decent dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.15

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

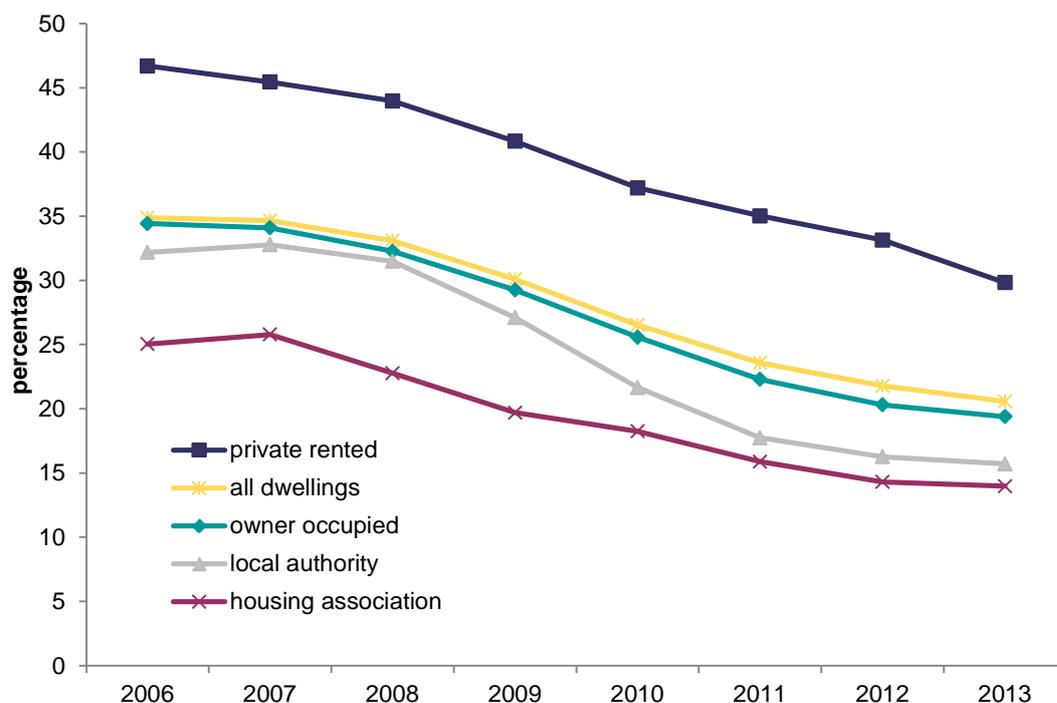
Trends over time

3.52 It is only possible to produce a consistent time-line back to 2006 because the definition of Decent Homes was updated in this year, when the Fitness Standard was replaced by the Housing Health and Safety Rating System (HHSRS) as the statutory criterion of decency.

3.53 Across the whole stock, the proportion of non-decent homes fell from 35% in 2006 to 21% in 2013. The proportion of non-decent local authority stock reduced by over a half from 32% in 2006 to 16% in 2013. Notable improvement was also seen in the private rented sector, where the

percentage of non-decent homes fell from 47% to 30% over the same period. There was a lower rate of reduction among housing association homes, although the incidence of non-decency has always been lowest in this sector, Figure 3.15.

Figure 3.15: Dwellings failing the Decent Homes standard, by tenure, 2001-2013



Base: all dwellings

Notes:

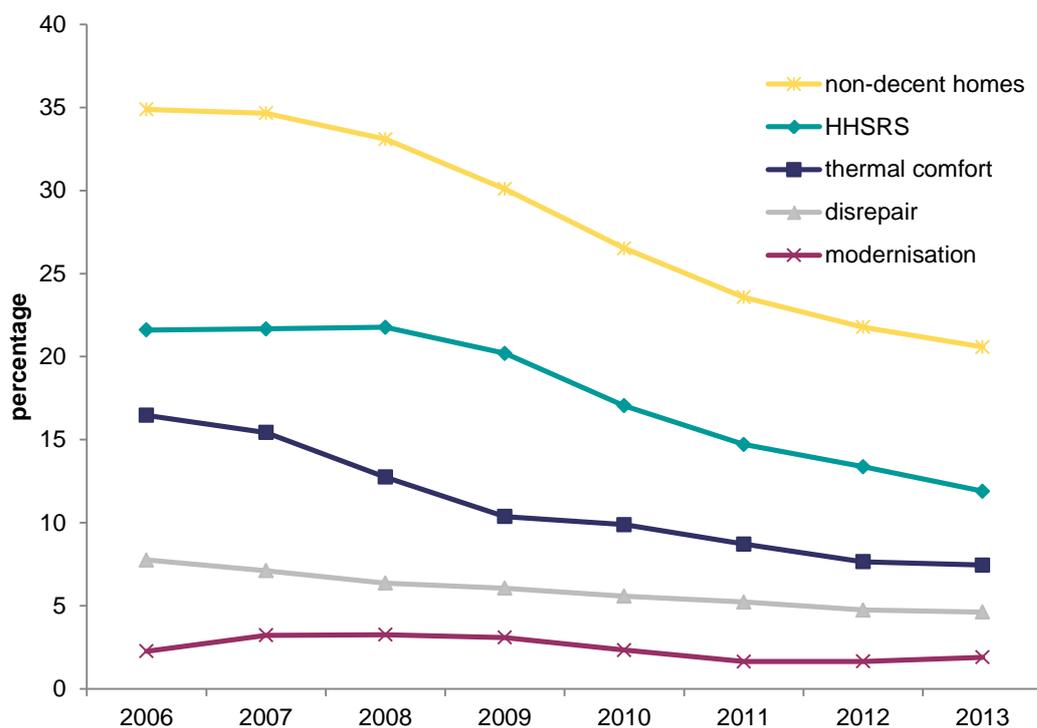
- 1) from 2006 - decent homes model incorporated HHSRS instead of unfitnes
- 2) 2006 – 2009 uses SAP05
- 3) 2010 – 2012 uses SAP09
- 4) 2013 uses SAP12
- 5) underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.16

Sources:

- 2001 to 2007: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample;
 2008 onwards: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

3.54 Since 2006, there have been significant reductions in the proportions of homes failing on all decent homes criteria, including modernisation. The largest improvements were evident for the HHSRS criterion (down from 22% to 12%) and failing the thermal comfort criterion (down from 16% to 7%), Figure 3.16.

Figure 3.16: Dwellings failing different components of the Decent Homes standard 2006 – 2013



Base: all dwellings

Notes:

- 1) from 2006 - decent homes model incorporated HHSRS instead of unfitnes
- 2) 2006 – 2009 uses SAP05
- 3) 2010 – 2012 uses SAP09
- 4) 2013 uses SAP12
- 5) underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.17

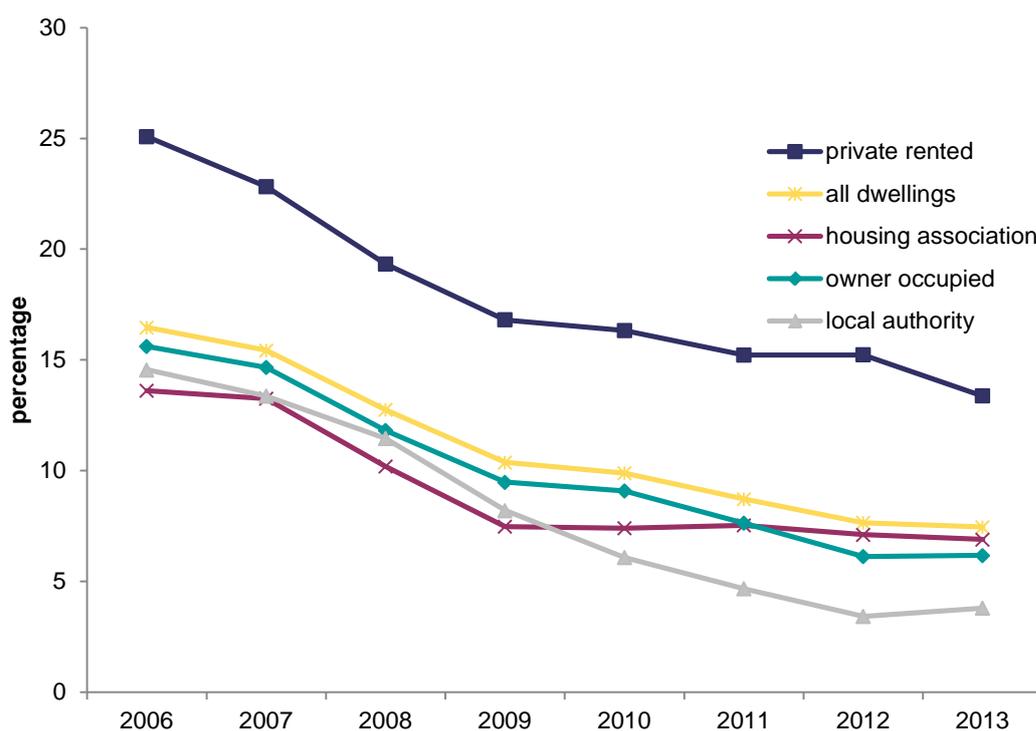
Sources:

- 2006 to 2007: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample;
 2008 onwards: English Housing Survey, 2010 dwelling sample

- 3.55 The following analysis looks at the tenure time trends for the three components of Decent Homes that reduced most notably over time: HHSRS, thermal comfort and disrepair.
- 3.56 Across the stock, the proportion of dwellings failing the HHSRS component reduced markedly from 22% to 12%. Improvement was evident for all tenures. There was a similar rate of improvement in the proportion of homes failing the HHSRS component for local authority homes (down 7 percentage points from 14% to 7%) and housing association homes (down 6 percentage points from 11% to 5%). There was a higher rate of improvement within the private sector; the proportion of owner occupied homes failing this component reduced by 10 percentage points from 22% to 12% whilst the proportion for private rented sector homes fell by 14 percentage points from 31% to 16%. Nonetheless, both owner occupier and private rented homes were still more likely to fail this component of Decent Homes in 2013, Annex Table 3.18.

3.57 The proportion of all homes failing the standard due to lack of thermal comfort reduced by over one half (from 16% to 7%) over the 2006 to 2013 period. Local authority homes showed the largest improvements in thermal comfort: the proportion failing the Decent Homes standard for this component decreased from 15% to 4%. Improvement in the private sector was lower and in 2013 this sector still had a notably higher proportion of homes lacking reasonable thermal comfort, Figure 3.17.

Figure 3.17: Dwellings failing the thermal comfort component by tenure 2006 – 2013



Base: all dwellings

Notes:

- 1) 2006 – 2009 uses SAP05
- 2) 2010 – 2012 uses SAP09
- 3) 2013 uses SAP12
- 4) underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.19

Sources:

- 2006 to 2007: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample;
 2008 onwards: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

3.58 Overall, the proportion of dwellings failing the disrepair component fell from 8% to 5% between 2006 and 2013. Interestingly the private rented sector had the greatest improvement; the percentage of homes failing on disrepair fell from 14% in 2006 to 7% in 2013. Less improvement on this component occurred among housing association homes, where the proportion fell from 4% to 3%, Annex Table 3.20.

Summary of poor housing conditions

- 3.59 This section summarises the incidence of four key measures of poor housing examined in this chapter: substantial disrepair¹⁵, serious damp and mould, Category 1 HHSRS hazards and non-decency. Using these indicators, it examines the prevalence of multiple poor housing problems, as these problems co-exist for a significant number of dwellings. Statistics on the occurrence of each of these four housing conditions by dwelling and location characteristics are provided in Table 3.3.
- 3.60 Dwellings in the private rented sector were more likely to have each of the four poor housing measures, whereas housing association dwellings were least likely. This is mainly because privately rented dwellings have a higher proportion of older dwellings, which were far more likely to have each of these poor housing conditions. The social sector performed better than the private sector for all poor housing measures including the incidence of serious dampness in homes, Table 3.3.
- 3.61 Unsurprisingly, vacant dwellings had a higher incidence of these poor housing conditions compared with occupied homes, particularly with regards to substantial disrepair (26% compared with 10% respectively), Table 3.3.
- 3.62 There was a general relationship between poor housing and dwelling age; the oldest homes built before 1919 were far more likely to have each of these indicators of poor housing. This was most evident for the incidence of non-decency and Category 1 hazards, Table 3.3.
- 3.63 Dwelling location also impacted on the likelihood of poor housing conditions; dwellings in suburban and residential areas were less likely to have any of the four problems than dwellings in urban or rural areas. However, there was generally more similarity between London and the rest of England, with the exception of serious dampness. This was more prevalent in London (7% compared to 4% in the rest of England, Table 3.3) likely due to the higher incidence of older homes and other factors such as overcrowding; 8% of London homes were below the bedroom standard compared with 2% of homes in other parts of England, Annex Table 3.21.

¹⁵ basic standardised repair costs of over £35m²

Table 3.3: Different types of housing condition problems by dwelling characteristics, 2013

all dwellings

	any Category 1 hazard	non-decent	damp in one or more rooms	substantial disrepair	sample size
	<i>percentages</i>				
tenure					
owner occupied	12.3	19.4	2.8	9.4	4,994
private rented	16.6	29.8	8.4	17.6	2,590
all private sector	13.3	21.8	4.1	11.3	7,584
local authority	7.5	15.7	5.4	11.1	2,214
housing association	5.2	14.0	4.7	8.4	2,700
all social sector	6.1	14.7	5.0	9.6	4,914
type of vacancy					
occupied	11.7	20.0	4.1	10.2	12,008
vacant	19.4	33.1	8.3	26.3	490
dwelling age					
pre 1919	29.0	40.1	9.5	24.0	1,990
1919-44	13.3	24.1	5.2	15.9	1,903
1945-64	8.1	16.6	3.2	9.9	3,053
1965-80	9.1	17.5	2.4	4.8	2,800
1981-90	4.7	17.6	2.8	4.4	1,058
post 1990	1.5	1.5	1.1	1.5	1,694
dwelling type					
small terraced house	14.1	24.3	6.7	16.2	1,406
medium/large terraced house	16.2	25.0	6.9	14.6	2,316
semi-detached house	12.2	18.9	3.2	11.8	2,916
detached house	11.6	14.9	1.2	5.8	1,443
bungalow	9.3	16.4	1.8	8.4	1,179
converted flat	23.4	40.0	10.0	23.4	441
purpose built flat, low rise	5.5	20.1	5.3	7.1	2,461
purpose built flat, high rise	5.6	16.1	2.1	2.3	336
area type					
city and other urban centres	16.6	27.7	7.3	15.2	2,792
suburban residential areas	9.0	16.8	3.4	9.6	7,778
rural areas	17.1	25.0	3.9	10.5	1,928
region					
London	12.2	21.1	7.0	11.9	1,604
rest of England	12.1	20.5	3.8	10.8	10,894
all dwellings	12.1	20.6	4.3	11.0	12,498

Base: all dwellings

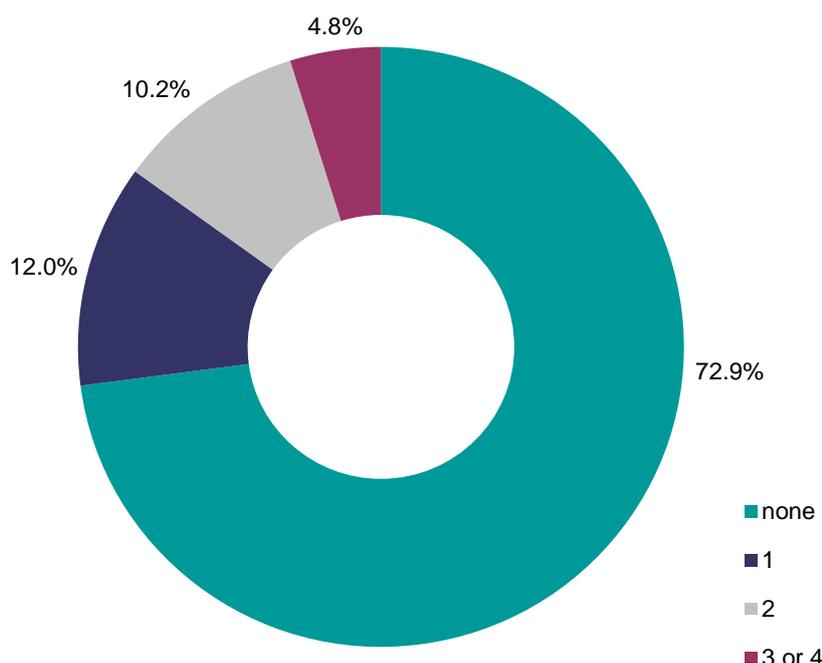
Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.22

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

Dwellings with multiple poor housing conditions

3.64 There were 17.0 million homes (73%) in England that did not have any of the four key measures of poor housing. Of the 6.3 million homes with poor housing measures 2.8 million (12% of total stock) had just one measure, 2.4 million (10% of the total stock) had two and the remaining 1.1 million (5% of the total stock) had 3 or 4 measures, Figure 3.18.

Figure 3:18: Number of poor housing measures, 2013



Base: all dwellings

Notes: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.23

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

3.65 The private rented sector had the highest proportion of homes with some measure of poor housing (40%), and it was also far more likely to have three or four measures (9%). Owner occupied and social sector homes both had a lower proportion of homes with some measure of poor housing (23-24%), but owner occupied homes were more likely to have two or more measures (14% and 9% respectively), Annex Table 3.23.

3.66 Half of converted flats (50%) had at least one poor housing measure, higher than any other dwelling type, and 11% had 3 or 4 measures. Terraced homes also had a high proportion of poor housing (33%). Bungalows, semi-detached and detached houses had the highest proportion of dwellings with no poor housing indicators (77-79%), Annex Table 3.23.

3.67 Older homes were more likely to have one or more key poor housing measures; half (50%) of pre 1919 dwellings had at least one key measure

compared with 10% of post 1980 dwellings. The proportion of homes with 3 or 4 measures of poor housing was lowest for homes in suburban residential areas (3%) compared with those in urban (8%) and rural areas (6%). The proportion of homes with poor housing was similar for homes in London and other parts of England, Annex Table 3.23.

Glossary

Accessibility features: The first four accessibility features listed below form the basis of the requirements in part M of the Building Regulations¹, although the EHS cannot exactly mirror the detailed requirements. The EHS also collects information on features that make a home more accessible:

1. **level access:** there are no steps between the gate/pavement and the front door into the house or block of flats to negotiate. The path also has a gradient of less than 1 in 20. Analysed for dwellings with a private or shared plot.
2. **flush threshold:** a wheelchair can be wheeled directly into the dwelling from outside the entrance door with no steps to negotiate and no obstruction higher than 15mm. For houses, this usually involves a specified adaptation. Flats on upper or basement levels can be regarded as having a flush threshold provided that there is a lift and there are no obstructions higher than 15mm on the route from outside the entrance door to the block into the flat itself.
3. **sufficiently wide doors and circulation space:** the doors and circulation space serving habitable rooms, kitchen, bathroom and WC comply with the requirements of Part M. This means that doorways should be at least 750mm wide and corridors 900mm wide and that these minimum widths are higher where the person has to turn into the room from the corridor than when the corridor leads head on into the room.
4. **WC at entrance level:** there is an inside WC located on the entrance floor to the dwelling. For houses, this is usually the ground floor and for flats it will be the same level as the main entrance door into the flat. The WC does not have to be fully wheelchair accessible to be coded as 'at entry level'.
5. **bathroom at entrance level:** there is an inside bathroom located on the entrance floor to the dwelling. For houses, this is usually the ground floor and for flats it will be the same level as the main entrance door into the flat. The bathroom does not have to be fully wheelchair accessible to be coded as 'at entry level'.
6. **room on entrance level suitable for a bedroom:** must be large enough to accommodate a single bed. It must provide adequate privacy and be heated. The room cannot be the main living room, kitchen or bathroom.

¹ <http://www.planningportal.gov.uk/buildingregulations/approveddocuments/partm/>

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7. **straight stairs with landings at least 900 mm:** internal stairs which are straight and have at least 900 mm square landings top and bottom to allow wheelchair access. It should be possible to install a stair lift if required.
 8. **no change in floor level or trip steps at entrance level:** there are no steps at entrance level within the dwelling creating a change in floor level.
 9. **wheelchair accessible WC at entrance level:** meets the following criteria:
 - the space between the front of the WC bowl and the opposite wall/door should be a minimum of 750 mm.
 - the distance from the central line of the cistern and the adjoin wall should be a minimum of 450 mm.
 - where oblique (non-direct/angled) access is provided, there should be a minimum of 250 mm to the side of the door.
 - the WC door should open outwards. Wheelchair users should be able to enter the amenities unaided.

For more details on accessibility features 1-4, see the Technical Report, Chapter 5, Annex 3

Area type:

This is based on the surveyor's assessment of the area around the dwelling. It is derived in the following way:

- **city or other urban centre:** includes
 - *city centre:* the area within the core of a large city.
 - *other urban centre:* the area around towns and small cities, and also older urban areas which have been swallowed up by a metropolitan area.
- **suburban residential:** the outer area of a town or city; characterised by large planned housing estates.
- **rural:** includes
 - *rural residential:* a suburban area of a village, often meeting the housing needs of people who work in nearby towns and cities.
 - *village centre:* the traditional village or the old heart of a village which has been suburbanised.
 - *rural:* an area which is predominantly rural e.g. mainly agricultural land with isolated dwellings or small hamlets.

Basic repair costs: Basic repairs include urgent work required in the short term to tackle problems presenting a risk to health, safety, security or further significant deterioration plus any additional work that will become necessary within the next five years. See Chapter 5, Annex 5 of the Technical Report for more information about how these are calculated and assumptions made.

Comprehensive repair costs: Comprehensive repairs include urgent work required in the short term to tackle problems presenting a risk to health, safety, security or further significant deterioration plus any additional work, including replacement of elements that will become necessary within the next ten years. See Chapter 5, Annex 5 of the Technical Report for more information about how these are calculated and assumptions made.

Damp and mould: Damp and mould in dwellings fall into three main categories:

- **rising damp:** where the surveyor has noted the presence of rising damp in at least one of the rooms surveyed during the physical survey. Rising damp occurs when water from the ground rises up into the walls or floors because damp proof courses in walls or damp proof membranes in floors are either not present or faulty.
- **penetrating damp:** where the surveyor has noted the presence of penetrating damp in at least one of the rooms surveyed during the physical survey. Penetrating damp is caused by leaks from faulty components of the external fabric e.g. roof covering, gutters etc. or leaks from internal plumbing, e.g. water pipes, radiators etc.
- **condensation or mould:** caused by water vapour generated by activities like cooking and bathing condensing on cold surfaces like windows and walls. Virtually all dwellings have some level of condensation. Only serious levels of condensation or mould are considered as a problem in this report, namely where there are extensive patches of mould growth on walls and ceilings and/or mildew on soft furnishings.

Decent home: A home that meets all of the following four criteria

- it meets the current statutory minimum standard for housing as set out in the Housing Health and Safety Rating System (HHSRS – see below).
- it is in a reasonable state of repair (related to the age and condition of a range of building components including walls, roofs, windows, doors, chimneys, electrics and heating systems).
- it has reasonably modern facilities and services (related to the age, size and layout/location of the kitchen, bathroom and WC and any common areas for blocks of flats, and to noise insulation).
- it provides a reasonable degree of thermal comfort (related to insulation and heating efficiency).

The detailed definition for each of these criteria is included in *A Decent Home: Definition and guidance for implementation*, Communities and Local Government, June 2006².

From 2006 the definition of decent homes was updated and the Fitness Standard was replaced by the Housing Health and Safety Rating System (HHSRS) as the statutory criterion of decency. Estimates using the updated definition of decent homes are not comparable with those based on the original definition. Accordingly any change in the number of decent and non-decent homes will be referenced to 2006 only. Estimates for 1996 to 2006 using the original definition are available in the 2006 English House Condition Survey Headline³ and Annual⁴ Reports

Dependent children: Any person aged 0 to 15 in a household (whether or not in a family) or a person aged 16 to 18 in full-time education and living in a family with his or her parent(s) or grandparent(s). It does not include any people aged 16 to 18 who have a spouse, partner or child living in the household.

Deprived areas: These are Lower Layer Super Output Areas (LSOAs) scored and ranked by the 2010 Index of Multiple Deprivation (IMD).

Seven domains of deprivation which can be experienced by people are combined to produce the overall IMD. These seven domains relate to:

- Income deprivation
- Employment deprivation
- Health deprivation and disability
- Education skills and training deprivation
- Barriers to housing and services
- Crime
- Living environment deprivation

LSOAs are statistical geography providing uniformity of size. There are 32,482 in England and on average each contains around 1500 people. These ranked areas have been placed into ten groups of equal numbers of areas, from the 10% most deprived area on the index, to the 10% least deprived.

Door entry system: This would normally consist of a buzzer and an intercom/camera. The surveyor tests the entry system to check that it is working correctly. It is classified as not working if the system is broken, vandalised or abandoned.

² <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/a-decent-home-definition-and-guidance>

³ <http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20121108165934/http://www.communities.gov.uk/publications/housing/ehcsheadline2006>

⁴ <http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20121108165934/http://www.communities.gov.uk/publications/corporate/statistics/ehcs2006annualreport>

Dwelling: A unit of accommodation which may comprise one or more household spaces (a household space is the accommodation used or available for use by an individual household). A dwelling may be classified as shared or unshared. A dwelling is shared if:

- the household spaces it contains are ‘part of a converted or shared house’, or
- not all of the rooms (including kitchen, bathroom and toilet, if any) are behind a door that only that household can use, and
- there is at least one other such household space at the same address with which it can be combined to form the shared dwelling.

Dwellings that do not meet these conditions are unshared dwellings.

The EHS definition of dwelling is consistent with the Census 2011.

Dwelling age: The date of construction of the oldest part of the building.

Dwelling type: Dwellings are classified, on the basis of the surveyor’s inspection, into the following categories:

- **small terraced house:** a house with a total floor area of less than 70m² forming part of a block where at least one house is attached to two or more other houses.
- **medium/large terraced house:** a house with a total floor area of 70m² or more forming part of a block where at least one house is attached to two or more other houses.
- **end terraced house:** a house attached to one other house only in a block where at least one house is attached to two or more other houses.
- **mid-terraced house:** a house attached to two other houses in a block.
- **semi-detached house:** a house that is attached to just one other in a block of two.
- **detached house:** a house where none of the habitable structure is joined to another building (other than garages, outhouses etc.).
- **bungalow:** a house with all of the habitable accommodation on one floor. This excludes chalet bungalows and bungalows with habitable loft conversions, which are treated as houses.
- **converted flat:** a flat resulting from the conversion of a house or former non-residential building. Includes buildings converted into a flat plus commercial premises (such as corner shops).

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- **purpose built flat, low rise:** a flat in a purpose built block less than six storeys high. Includes cases where there is only one flat with independent access in a building which is also used for non-domestic purposes.
 - **purpose built flat, high rise:** a flat in a purpose built block of at least six storeys high.

Door viewer: This includes a 'spyhole' type viewer fitted to the main entrance door or any glazing in the room containing the door that enables the occupant to see clearly who is at the door.

Economic status: Respondents self-report their situation and can give more than one answer.

- **working full-time/part-time:** full-time work is defined as 30 or more hours per week. Part-time work is fewer than 30 hours per week. Where more than one answer is given, 'working' takes priority over other categories (with the exception that all those over State Pension Age (SPA) who regard themselves as retired are classified as such, regardless of what other answers they give).
- **unemployed:** this category covers people who were registered unemployed or not registered unemployed but seeking work.
- **retired:** this category includes all those over the state pension age who reported being retired as well as some other activity. For men the SPA is 65 and for women it is 60 if they were born before 6th April 1950. For women born on or after the 6th April 1950, the state pension age has increased incrementally since April 2010⁵.
- **full-time education:** education undertaken in pursuit of a course, where an average of more than 12 hours per week is spent during term time.
- **other inactive:** all others; they include people who were permanently sick or disabled, those looking after the family or home and any other activity.

Electrical safety:

- **wiring:** this is the cabling from the input electrical supply point, which runs through the meters and consumer units and leading out into the dwelling. The earliest types of wiring used lead or black rubber sheathings to enclose the wires. The danger with this type of cable is the degrading of the rubber: any failure of the insulation can cause the outer covering to become live. Modern wiring is PVC sheathed.

⁵ For further information see: www.gov.uk/browse/working/state-pension

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- **earthing:** these are the wires joining the components at the electrical distribution centre. The early forms of earthing wires were unsheathed then later covered with green rubber, then green plastic. In 1977 the colour convention changed and all wires had to be coloured green and yellow.
 - **consumer unit arrangement (fuse boxes):** in older systems, each individual electrical circuit was fed through an individual switch and fuse box. From 1960s through to the 1980s, fuses were collected together into a small number of smaller boxes, normally with a switch on the front which controlled all the circuits leading to the box. These boxes were normally fitted with a cover, the removal of which gave access to the fuses hidden inside. From the early 1980s, the newly named consumer unit (some dwellings have two) catered for the whole dwelling and was also designed to accommodate modern safety measures namely circuit breakers and residual current devices.
 - **overload protection / miniature circuit breakers (MCBs):** these provide the most modern form of electrical current overload protection by detecting a fault condition and interrupting the current flow. MCBs replaced cartridge fuses and the original wire fuses (these simply melt when overheated) which formed the earliest form of protection.
 - **Residual current devices (RCDs):** these are designed to break an electrical current very easily by detecting any abnormality in the circuit, for example, through someone touching a live wire. They are normally located in the consumer unit but a separate RCD may exist to protect an additional circuit, for example, an electrical circuit used in the garden.

Excess cold (HHSRS Category 1 hazard): Households living in homes with a threat to health arising from sub-optimal indoor temperatures. The assessment is based on the most vulnerable group who, for this hazard, are those aged 65 years or more (the assessment does not require a person of this age to be an occupant). The EHS does not measure achieved temperatures in the home and therefore this hazard is based on dwellings with an energy efficiency rating of less than 35 based on the SAP 2001 methodology. Under the SAP 2009 methodology, used for the 2010- 2012 EHS reports, the comparable threshold was recalculated to be 35.79 and the latter is used in providing statistics for the HHSRS Category 1 hazard. The 2013 EHS Reports use the SAP 2012 methodology and the comparable excess cold threshold was recalculated to 33.52.

External lighting: Exists where entrance to dwelling with a private front plot is adequately lit, or where external lighting exists to dwellings with shared plots or facilities.

Habitable room: A room in the dwelling that offers “living accommodation”. Includes a kitchen if there is additional space to provide a dining area large enough to accommodate a table and chairs (typically an area of 2m² in addition to kitchen space). A fully converted room in the loft space is classified as a habitable room even if it can only be reached by a fixed ladder or unsafe staircase.

Heating system

a) main space heating type:

- **central heating system:** most commonly a system with a gas fired boiler and radiators which distribute heat throughout the dwelling (but also included in this definition are warm air systems, electric ceiling/underfloor and communal heating). It is generally considered to be a cost effective and relatively efficient method of heating a dwelling.
- **storage heaters:** predominately used in dwellings that have an off-peak electricity tariff. Storage heaters use off-peak electricity to store heat in clay bricks or a ceramic material, this heat is then released throughout the day. However, storage heating can prove expensive if too much on peak electricity is used during the day.
- **room heaters:** this category includes all other types of heater such as fixed gas, fixed electric or portable electric heaters, this type of heating is generally considered to be the least cost effective of the main systems and produces more carbon dioxide emissions per kWh.

b) heating fuel:

- **gas:** mains gas is relatively inexpensive and produces lower emissions per unit of energy than most other commonly used fuels. Liquefied Petroleum Gas and bottled gas are still associated with slightly higher costs and emissions.
- **electricity:** standard rate electricity has the highest costs and CO₂ emissions associated with main fuels, but is used in dwellings without a viable alternative or a back-up to mains gas. An off-peak tariff such as Economy 7, is cheaper than bottled gas but with the same emissions as standard electricity.
- **oil:** in terms of both costs and emissions, oil lies between main gas and electricity.
- **solid fuel:** these are similar costs to oil with the exception of processed wood which can be more expensive than off-peak electricity. Fuels included are coal and anthracite, with CO₂ emissions above those of gas and oil; wood, which has the lowest emissions of the main fuels; and smokeless fuel, whose emissions are close to those of electricity. By law, areas (usually towns or cities) are designated as smoke control areas where solid fuels emitting smoke are illegal.

Household: One person living alone, or a group of people (not necessarily related) living at the same address who share cooking facilities and a living room or sitting room or dining area. The EHS definition of household is consistent with the Census 2011.

Household groups: The report focuses on certain key household groups which include people who are potentially vulnerable on account of their age, long term illness or disability; and groups which tend to be disadvantaged such as ethnic minorities and those in poverty.

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- ethnic minority HRP: where the HRP defines their ethnicity as other than white.
 - illness or disability: a household where at least one person in the household has a long-term illness or disability. The respondent assesses this, and long-term is defined as anything that has troubled the person, or is likely to affect them, over a period of time.
 - in poverty: a household with income below 60% of the equivalised median household income (calculated before any housing costs are deducted). Income equivalisation is the adjustment of income to take into account the varied cost of living according to the size and type of household (see the EHE Technical Report, Chapter 5, Annex 4 for further information).
 - HRP 60 years or over: the household reference person is aged 60 years or more
 - youngest under 5: the youngest person in the household is aged 4 or under.

Household reference person (HRP): The person in whose name the dwelling is owned or rented or who is otherwise responsible for the accommodation. In the case of joint owners and tenants, the person with the highest income is taken as the HRP. Where incomes are equal, the older is taken as the HRP. These procedures increase the likelihood that the HRP better characterises the household's social and economic position. The EHS definition of HRP is not consistent with the Census 2011, in which the HRP is chosen on basis of their economic activity. Where economic activity is the same, the older is taken as HRP, or if they are the same age, HRP is the first listed on the questionnaire.

Household type: The main classification of household type uses the following categories:

- married/cohabiting couple with dependent child(ren) – couple may also have non-dependent child(ren).
- married/cohabiting couple under 60 with no dependent children or with non-dependent child(ren) only.
- married/cohabiting couple age 60 or over with no dependent children or with non-dependent child(ren) only.
- lone parent family (one parent with dependent child(ren) – may also include non-dependent child(ren).
- other multi-person household (includes flat sharers, lone parents with non-dependent children only and households containing more than one couple or lone parent family).
- one person aged under 60.
- one person aged 60 or over.

The married/cohabiting couple and lone parent household types (the first four categories above) may include one-person family units in addition to the couple/lone parent family.

Housing Health and Safety Rating System (HHSRS): A risk assessment tool used to assess potential risks to the health and safety of occupants in residential properties in England and Wales. It replaced the Fitness Standard in April 2006.

The purpose of the HHSRS assessment⁶ is not to set a standard but to generate objective information in order to determine and inform enforcement decisions. There are 29 categories of hazard, each of which is separately rated, based on the risk to the potential occupant who is most vulnerable to that hazard. The individual hazard scores are grouped into 10 bands where the highest bands (A-C representing scores of 1,000 or more) are considered to pose Category 1 hazards. Local authorities have a duty to act where Category 1 hazards are present, and may take into account the vulnerability of the actual occupant in determining the best course of action. For the purposes of the decent homes standard, homes posing a Category 1 hazard are non-decent on its criterion that a home must meet the statutory minimum requirements.

The EHS is not able to replicate the HHSRS assessment in full as part of a large scale survey. Its assessment employs a mix of hazards that are directly assessed by surveyors in the field and others that are indirectly assessed from detailed related information collected. For 2006 and 2007, the survey (the then English House Condition Survey) produced estimates based on 15 of the 29 hazards. From 2008, the survey is able to provide a more comprehensive assessment based on 26 of the 29 hazards. See the EHS Technical Report, Chapter 5, Annex 5 for a list of the hazards covered.

Income/equivalised income: Household incomes have been 'equivalised', that is adjusted (using the modified Organisation Economic Co-operation and Development scale) to reflect the number of people in a household. This allows the comparison of incomes for households with different sizes and compositions.

The EHS variables are modelled to produce a Before Housing Cost (BHC) income measure for the purpose of equivalisation. The BHC income variable includes: Household Reference Person and partner's income from benefits and private sources (including income from savings), income from other household members, housing benefit, winter fuel payment and the deduction of net council tax payment.

Large Scale Voluntary Transfer: A Large Scale Voluntary Transfer is the voluntary transfer of ownership of all or some of a local authority's tenanted and leasehold homes to a private registered housing provider, registered by the Social Housing Regulator, in return for a payment for the value of that stock.

Non-dependent children: any person aged over 18 or those aged 16-18 who are not in full-time education living in a family with his or her parent(s) or grandparent(s).

Off-peak electricity: This supply is identified by the presence of a multi-rate meter (as opposed to single rate), and is able to provide discounted electricity tariffs during

⁶ <https://www.gov.uk/government/organisations/department-for-communities-and-local-government/series/housing-health-and-safety-rating-system-hhsrs-guidance>

periods of reduced demand (such as at night). This can reduce the cost of heating, most commonly for those with, storage radiator systems. For cases where presence of off peak electricity was unknown we have assumed this to be not present if there is no off-peak heating or hot water system. Any remaining unknown cases were also assumed to not have off-peak electricity for ease of analysis.

Parking provision: This represents the 'best' parking available to the dwelling i.e. if the home has both a garage and off street parking, parking provision is coded as 'garage'. The parking provision does not have to be located on the plot of the dwelling – the off street parking space or garage may be in a block further down the street or round the corner.

Right to Buy:

Right to Buy gives eligible people who live in council properties in England the right to buy their home at a discount. The scheme is open to people who are secure tenants of a local council and who have spent at least 5 years as a public sector tenant. Secure tenants of non-charitable housing associations also have the Right to Buy.

Tenants of housing associations who had secure tenancies when their homes were transferred from the local council to the housing association under LSVT (see above for definition) also have a preserved Right to Buy. Landlords have a legal duty to explain how tenants can exercise their Right to Buy.

Secure windows and doors: The main entrance door to the dwelling and any accessible windows need to be assessed by surveyors as either highly secure or fairly highly secure

- **Main entrance door:**
 - **High:** good quality door that is double glazed or contains no glazing. It should have a strong frame, and auto deadlocking rim lock in the top one-third of the door plus a mortice lock in the lower third of the door.
 - **Fairly high:** as above but with either a standard Yale lock instead of the auto deadlocking rim lock or the locks not set apart.
- **Accessible windows:**
 - **High:** double glazed windows with key locks
 - **Fairly high:** double glazed windows without key locks

Secondary amenities: Additional WCs and baths/showers that are located inside the dwelling.

Serious condensation or mould: See 'damp and mould growth'

Storeys: The number of storeys *above* ground i.e. it does not include any basements.

Substantial disrepair: Standardised basic repair costs of more than £35/m². Standardised repair costs measure repair costs expressed in pounds per square metre of floor area

Tenure: Four categories are used for most reporting purposes, and for some analyses these four tenure categories are collapsed into two groups:

- **private sector:** includes:
 - *owner occupied:* includes all households in accommodation which they either own outright, are buying with a mortgage or are buying as part of a shared ownership scheme.
 - *private rented:* includes all households living in privately owned property which they do not own. Includes households living rent free, or in tied dwellings (accommodation provided by an employer as it is tied to a specific job) and tenants of housing associations that are not registered.

- **social sector:** includes:
 - *local authority:* includes Arms Length Management Organisations (ALMOs) and Housing Action Trusts.
 - *housing association:* mostly Registered Social Landlords (RSLs), Local Housing Companies, co-operatives and charitable trusts.

A significant number of Housing Association tenants wrongly report that they are Local Authority tenants. The most common reason for this is that their home used to be owned by the Local Authority, and although ownership was transferred to a Housing Association, the tenant still reports that their landlord is the Local Authority. There are also some Local Authority tenants who wrongly report that they are Housing Association tenants. Data from the EHS for 2008-09 onwards incorporate a correction for the great majority of such cases in order to provide a reasonably accurate split of the social rented category.

Urgent repair costs: These cover urgent work only which is defined as work required in the short term to tackle problems presenting a risk to health, safety, security or further significant deterioration of the building. See Chapter 5, Annex 5 of the Technical report for more information about how these are calculated and assumptions made.

Usable floor area: The total usable internal floor area of the dwelling as measured by the surveyor, rounded to the nearest square metre. A new modelling approach for the 2013 report uses assumptions aligned with the Nationally Described Space Standard which was published as part of the Housing Standards Review. It excludes integral garages, balconies, stores accessed from the outside only and the area under external walls. The area remaining represents the total of all room areas, hallways and circulation space including cupboards and stairs. The area under internal partition walls is also included. Loft space is not included unless the loft is habitable, with a fixed stair in place to access it. Dwellings are also grouped into the following five categories:

- less than 50m²
- 50 to 69m²
- 70 to 89m²
- 90 to 109m²

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- 110m² or more.

Vacant dwellings: The assessment of whether or not a dwelling is vacant (i.e. unoccupied) is made at the time of the interviewer's visit. Clarification of vacancy is sought from neighbours. Surveyors are required to gain access to vacant dwellings and undertake full inspections.

Visitability: Four key accessibility features which are considered to be the most important for enabling people with mobility problems to visit someone else's home, see items 1-4 in 'Accessibility features'.

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