



Department for
Communities and
Local Government



English Housing Survey PROFILE OF ENGLISH HOUSING 2012



The United Kingdom Statistics Authority has designated these statistics as National Statistics, in accordance with the Statistics and Registration Service Act 2007 and Signifying compliance with the Code of Practice for Official Statistics.

Designation can be broadly interpreted to mean that the statistics:

- meet identified user needs;
- are well explained and readily accessible;
- are produced according to sound methods, and
- are managed impartially and objectively in the public interest.

Once statistics have been designated as National Statistics it is a statutory requirement that the Code of Practice shall continue to be observed.



Department for
Communities and
Local Government



English Housing Survey: PROFILE OF ENGLISH HOUSING

Annual report on England's housing stock, 2012

© Crown copyright, 2014

Copyright in the typographical arrangement rests with the Crown.

You may re-use this information (not including logos) free of charge in any format or medium, under the terms of the Open Government Licence. To view this licence, visit <http://www.nationalarchives.gov.uk/doc/open-government-licence/> or write to the Information Policy Team, The National Archives, Kew, London TW9 4DU, or e-mail: psi@nationalarchives.gsi.gov.uk.

This document/publication is also available on our website at www.gov.uk/dclg

Any enquiries regarding this document/publication should be sent to us at:

Department for Communities and Local Government
Eland House
Bressenden Place
London
SW1E 5DU
Telephone: 030 3444 0000

July, 2014

ISBN: 978-1-4098-4277-4

Content

Acknowledgements

Introduction

Key findings

Chapter 1 Stock profile

Chapter 2 Services amenities and accessibility

Chapter 3 Dwelling condition and safety

Appendix A: Infographics

Glossary

Acknowledgements

Each year the English Housing Survey relies on the contributions of a large number of people and organisations. The Department for Communities and Local Government (DCLG) would particularly like to thank the following people and organisations, without whom the 2012-13 survey and this report, would not have been possible:

- 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 2012-13 Households Report.
- The Building Research Establishment (BRE) who managed the physical survey of properties and led the production of the 2012-13 Profile of English Housing Report, the 2012-13 Energy and Energy Efficiency Report and the 2012-13 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 2012 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 2012 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 2012, 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 2012 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 2012-13 English Housing Survey Headline Report, which was published on the Department for Communities and Local Government (DCLG) website in February 2014¹.
4. Results are presented for '2012' and are based on fieldwork carried out between April 2011 and March 2013 (a mid-point of April 2012). The sample comprises 12,763 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 an asterisk. This happens when the cell is based on sample of less than

¹ <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/english-housing-survey-2012-to-2013-headline-report>

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

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

Key findings

In 2012, the majority of dwellings in England had three or more bedrooms; however this varied considerably by tenure

- 62% of all dwellings had three or more bedrooms. Such homes were over represented in the owner occupied sector (75%) and were far less common in the social (35%) and private (44%) rented sectors.
- 11% of all homes had one bedroom while 27% had two bedrooms. The social sector had a greater proportion of one bedroom homes (31%) than both the private rented (17%) and the owner occupied (4%) sectors. The private rented sector had a larger proportion of two bedroom homes (39%) than the social (34%) and owner occupied (22%) sectors.

New build homes were less likely to be three-bedroom homes than older homes

- Half (51%) of homes built after 2002 had one or two bedrooms compared with 37% of older homes. A further 26% of new builds had four or more bedrooms (compared with 20% of older homes) while 24% had three bedrooms (compared with 43% of older homes).
- A larger proportion of new builds dwellings compared with older dwellings were relatively small: 44% of new builds had a useable floor space under 69m², compared with 35% of older dwellings.

The huge increase in the number of private rented homes has resulted in significant changes in the type and profile of dwellings in this sector

- Between 1996 and 2012, the number of homes in the private rented sector more than doubled from 2.0 to 4.1 million (from 10% to 18% of the stock).
- Over this period, the proportion of homes in the private rented sector built after 1980 increased from 8% to 25% while the proportion of oldest homes (built before 1919) decreased from 52% to 33%. It is therefore not surprising that, in 2012, almost a third (30%) of new builds were in the private rented sector or that more than a quarter (27%) of private rented dwellings were purpose built flats (up from 18% in 1996).

In 2012, the majority of homes had mains electricity, drainage and gas

- All but a handful of dwellings had mains electricity in 2012 while 97% of homes had mains drainage and 86% had a mains gas supply.
- Between 1996 and 2012, the proportion of homes with mains electricity did not change but there were increases in the proportions with mains drainage (up from 91%) and mains gas (up from 82%).
- 64% of rural dwellings had mains gas, compared with 93% of suburban dwellings and 84% of city or urban dwellings. While there was an increase in the proportion of suburban homes with mains gas between 1996 and 2012 (from 88% to 93%), provision in other areas did not change.

Water meters were most prevalent in newer homes, larger houses and in the owner occupied sector

- In 2012, 39% of homes had a water meter. These were most common in homes built after 1990 (76%), semi-detached or detached homes (47%) and owner occupied homes (44%).
- Between 2010 and 2012, the proportion of dwellings with a water meter rose from 34% to 39%. This increase was evident across all tenures, but most notably in the private rented sector where provision rose from 27% to 33% over this period.

The accessibility of the English housing stock to people with mobility problems has improved but remains low overall

- While, in 2012, just 5% of homes had four key features (level access, flush threshold, sufficiently wide doors and circulation space, WC at entrance level) for making a dwelling accessible to those with mobility problems, this was an increase from 3% in 2007.
- Among homes that were not accessible, around 12% could become so by carrying out minor work and a further 45% could comply if moderate work involving internal structural alterations was carried out. Accessibility could only be achieved in 16% of homes through major (and more problematic) works and it was simply not feasible to make 28% of the current housing stock accessible.

Between 2001 and 2012, the average basic repair cost fell for all homes but particularly for privately rented homes

- The average basic repair cost for all homes fell from £19/m² in 2001 to £11/m² in 2012, suggesting a general improvement in how dwellings have been maintained over time. The biggest improvement was in the private rented sector where costs fell by over 50% from £40/m² to £16/m², driven in part by improvements to the oldest homes which were more prevalent in the private rented sector.

While the electrical safety of the English housing stock continued to improve there remains room for improvement

- In 2012, 54% of homes had all five electrical safety features¹, up from 19% in 2001. This increase was observed across all tenures, but particularly in the social rented sector.

The number of non-decent homes in England continued to decline

- In 2012, 4.9 million dwellings (22%) failed to meet the decent homes standard, a reduction of some 2.8 million homes since 2006, when 35% of homes failed to meet the decent home standard.
- As in previous years, the private rented sector had the highest proportion of non-decent homes (33%) while the social rented sector had the lowest (15%). Meanwhile, 20% of owner occupied homes failed to meet the decent homes standard in 2012.

Poor housing conditions such as non-decency, substantial disrepair, the presence of a Category 1 hazard or serious damp or mould were all more prevalent in privately rented homes

- In 2012, 42% of privately rented homes had at least one of these poor housing conditions. Such homes were also far more likely to have co-existing housing problems, for example, 10% of these homes had 3 or 4 problems compared with 5% of owner occupied homes and 2% of social rented homes.

¹ Modern PVC wiring, modern earthing, modern consumer boxes, miniature circuit breakers and residual current devices.

Chapter 1

Stock profile

This chapter examines the overall profile of the English housing stock in 2012 in terms of age, type, number of bedrooms and location. It then explores how the profile of the housing stock including vacant homes has changed since 1996. Finally, it profiles newer homes built after 2002, indicating which types of homes may be under or over represented when compared with the rest of the housing stock. Further information on the profile of the English housing stock is available from the live web table DA1101.

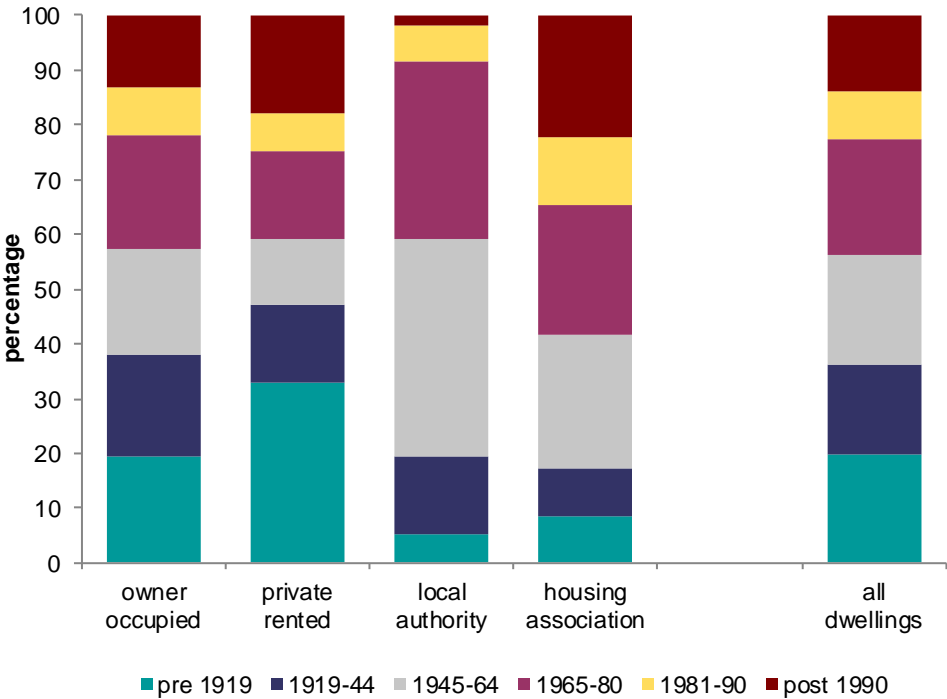
Dwelling type, age and location

- 1.1 In 2012, there were 22.7 million dwellings in England. Of these, 65% (14.8 million) were owner occupied, 18% (4.1 million) were privately rented and the remaining 17% (3.8 million) were rented from social landlords. Within the social sector, there were 2.0 million housing association homes, slightly more than local authority homes, which totalled 1.8 million¹, Annex Table 1.1.
- 1.2 The vast majority (97%) of occupied homes consisted of single family homes, and the remainder included lodgers (1%) and other types of shared home, Annex Table 1.2.
- 1.3 Some 20% of all dwellings were built before 1919 whilst 14% of the stock was built after 1990. The private rented sector had the largest proportion of homes built before 1919 (33%). Housing associations had the largest concentration of homes built after 1990 (22%). In contrast to housing associations, local authorities had the lowest proportion of homes built after 1990 (2%), which partly reflects the differing capacity to build between these two tenures². The largest proportion of local authority stock was built between 1945 and 1964 (40%), 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

² When Right to Buy (RTB) came into force, spending restrictions were also introduced on local authorities, which prevented the sector building new houses with the revenue created from RTB sales. Housing associations did not operate under the same restrictions. However from April 2012, under the reinvigorated Right to Buy, local authorities are now able to keep the receipts from additional Right to Buy sales to pay off debt and fund replacement affordable housing.

Figure 1.1: Age of housing stock, by tenure, 2012



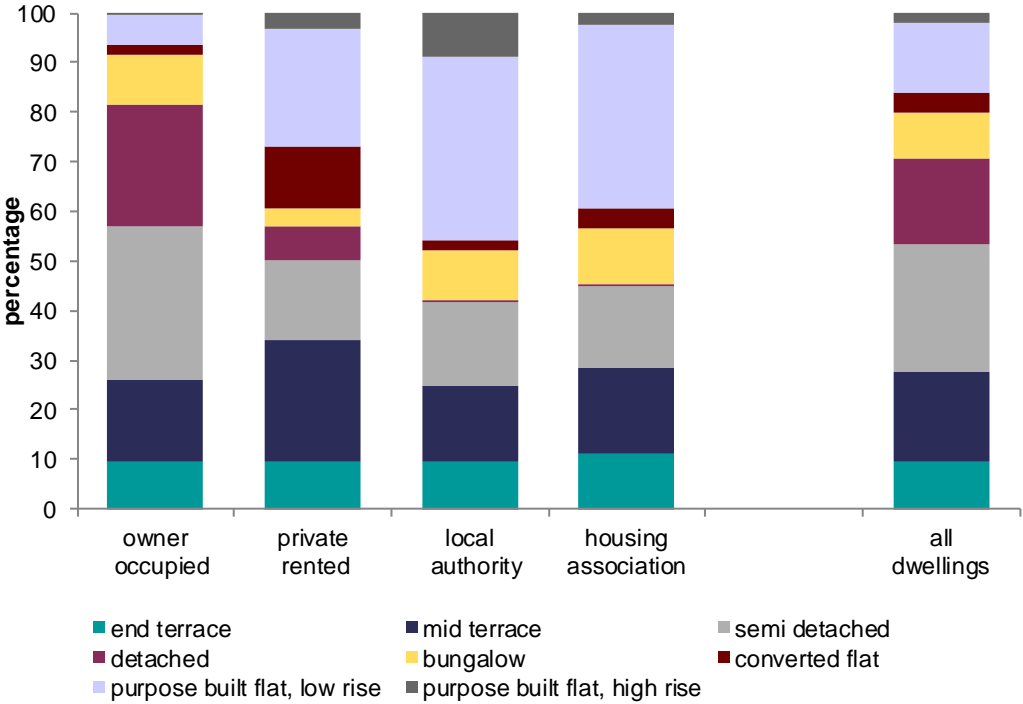
Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.1

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

- 1.4 The majority of properties in England were either terraced (28%) or semi-detached houses (26%). Some 17% were detached houses and 9% were bungalows. The remaining 20% of homes were flats, mainly purpose built low rise flats (14%), Annex Table 1.1.
- 1.5 As with dwelling age, the profile of homes varied by tenure. The largest proportion of flats was found in the social sector, particularly among the local authority stock (48%). The concentration of high rise flats was particularly high among local authority homes (9%) compared with all other tenures. In contrast, just 9% of all owner occupied homes were flats. The private rented sector contained the largest proportion of converted flats (13%). Some 31% of owner occupied homes were semi-detached houses and a further 25% were detached houses, Figure 1.2.

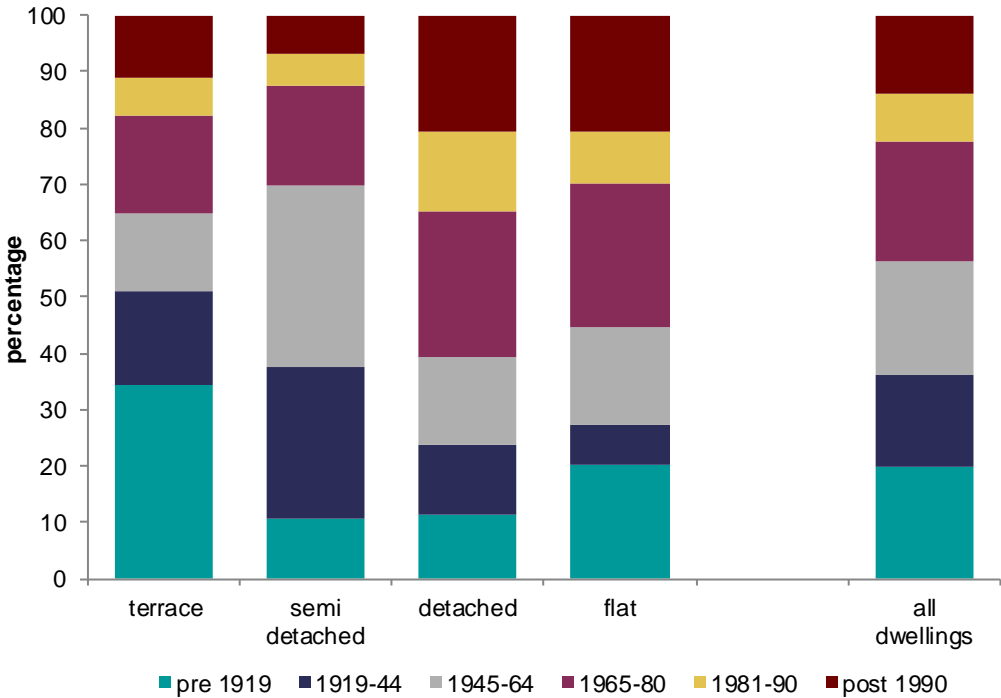
Figure 1.2: Dwelling type, by tenure, 2012



Base: all dwellings
Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.1
Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

1.6 The type of dwelling was linked to dwelling age. Some 35% of terraced homes were built before 1919 whilst 7% of these homes were built from 1981 to 1990. The largest proportion of detached dwellings and flats (26%) were built between 1965 and 1980 and a further 21% of these dwelling types were built after 1990, Figure 1.3.

Figure 1.3: Dwelling age, by dwelling type, 2012



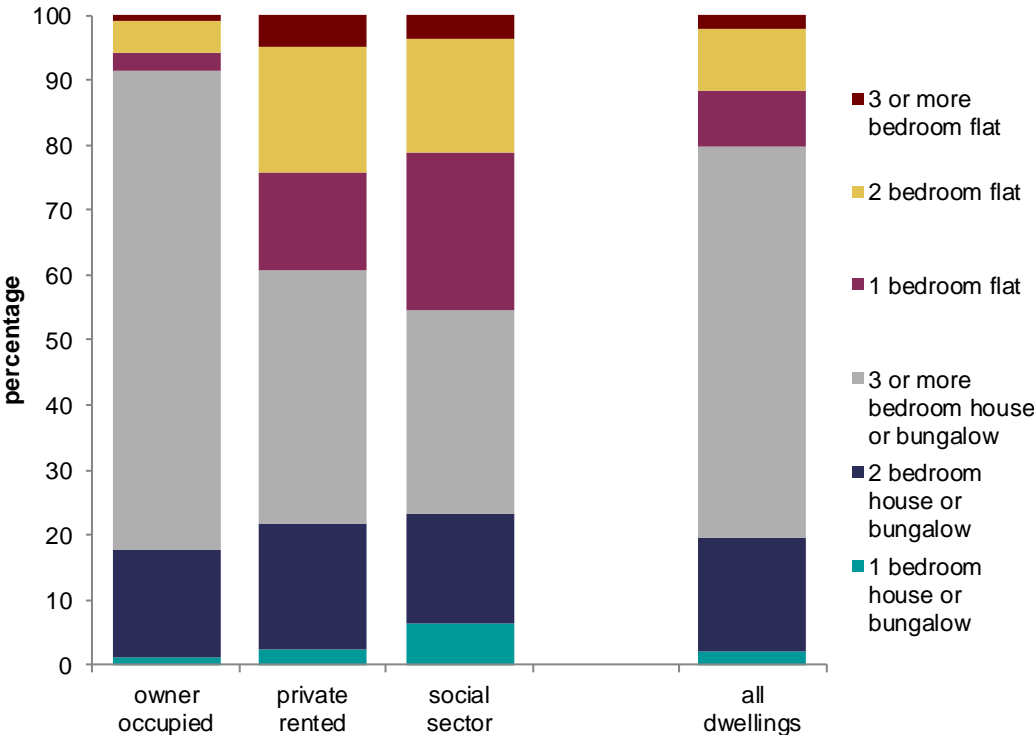
Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.3

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

- 1.7 Overall, 60% of all dwellings were houses or bungalows with three or more bedrooms. These homes were, however, over represented among owner occupied homes (74%) and were far less common within the social sector (31%) and private rented sector (39%), Figure 1.4.
- 1.8 Some 10% of all dwellings were two bedroom flats and 9% were one bedroom flats. However, nearly one quarter (24%) of social sector homes were one bedroom flats and a further 17% were two bedroomed flats. Only 2% of the total social sector stock consisted of 3 bedroomed flats. The social sector had a higher proportion of one bedroom homes (31%) than both the private rented sector (18%) and, most notably, the owner occupied sector (4%).

Figure 1.4: Number of bedrooms and dwelling type, by tenure, 2012



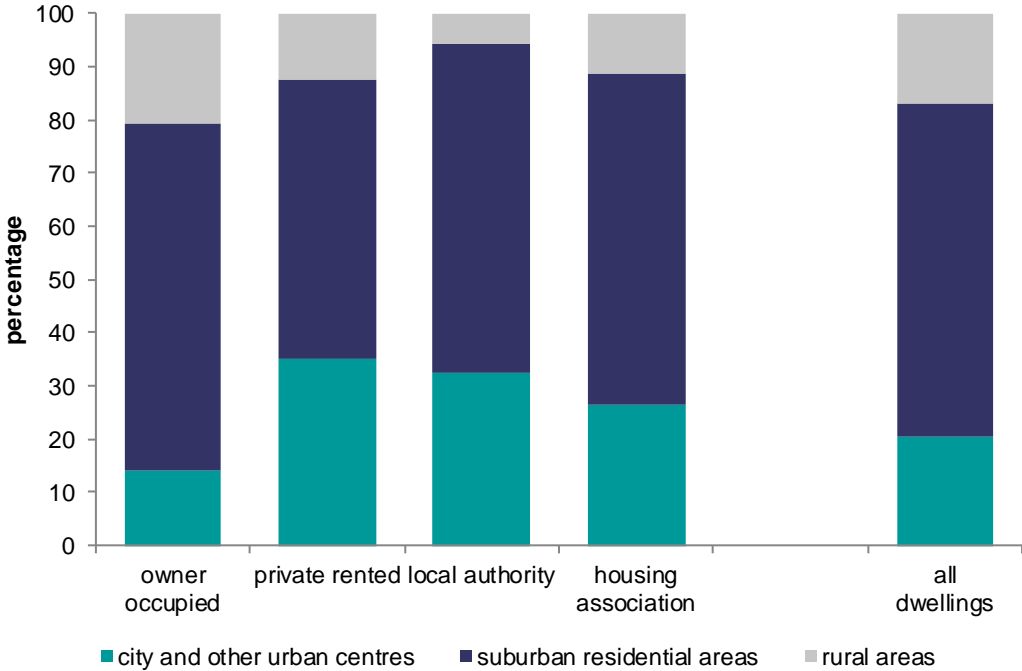
Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.4

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

1.9 The majority of dwellings were situated in suburban residential areas (62%), 21% were in cities and other urban centres and the remaining 17% were in rural areas. Private and social rented dwellings were more likely to be found in urban centres than owner occupied properties, Figure 1.5.

Figure 1.5: Type of area, by tenure, 2012



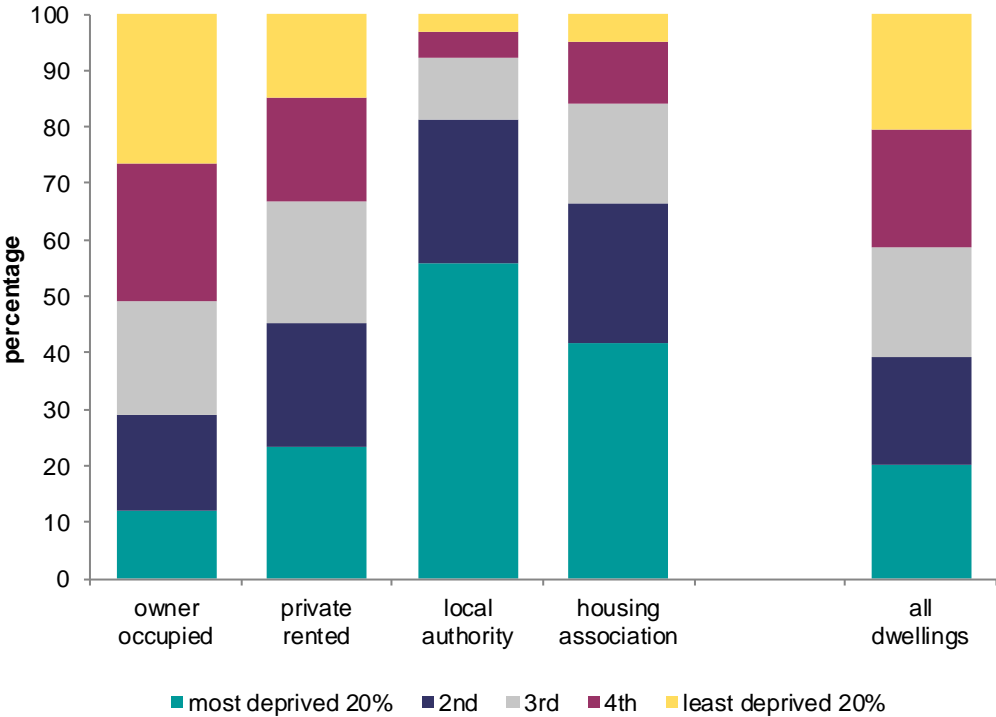
Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.5

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

1.10 Deprivation was strongly related to tenure. Local authorities (56%) and housing associations (42%) had a significantly higher proportion of their stock located within the 20% most deprived areas of England. Furthermore some 3% and 5% respectively of these homes were located in the least deprived 20% of areas. Private rented dwellings were more evenly spread across each of the deprivation bands. Some 12% of owner occupied homes were located in the most deprived areas, Figure 1.6.

Figure 1.6: Deprivation area, by tenure, 2012



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.5

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

Changes in the English housing stock since 1996

1.11 Changes in the tenure distribution of the stock have important implications for many aspects of housing policy and other areas, such as mortgage lending and house building. While annual changes can be difficult to interpret, tenure trends are more evident when viewed over a longer period.

1.12 From 1996 to 2012, there were some notable changes in the number and profile of dwellings in the different tenures, particularly in each of the rented sectors. The number of owner occupied homes remained relatively constant since 1996, though peaked around 2006 before dropping back slightly.

1.13 The number of private rented homes more than doubled from 2.0 to 4.1 million between 1996 and 2012. The pace of growth in the private rented sector was particularly marked between 2006 and 2012. This increase arises from a combination of factors including:

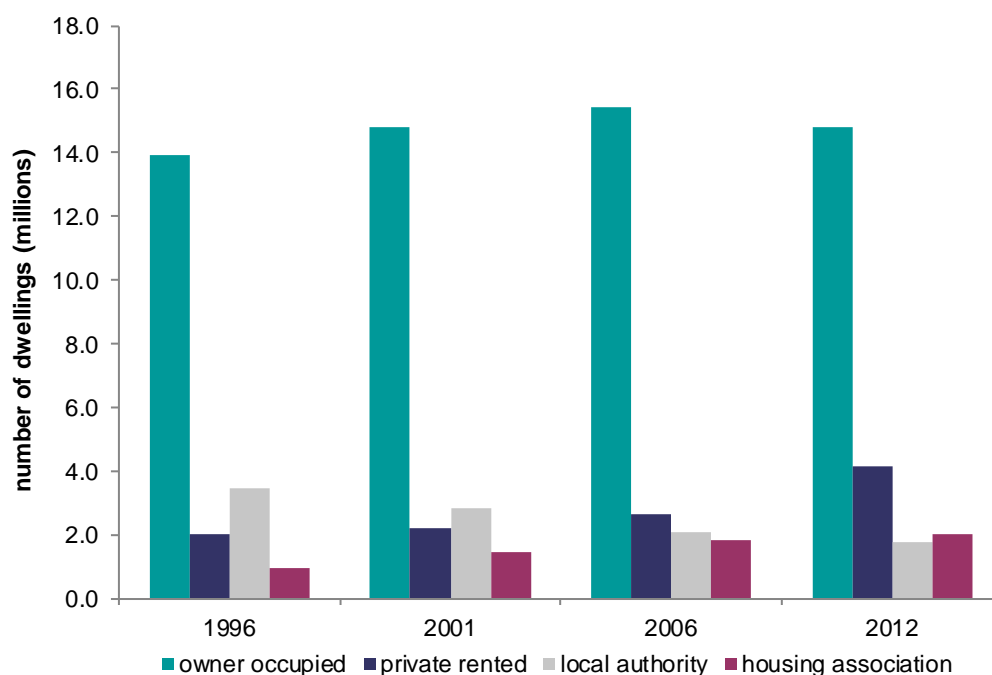
- new build homes and former owner occupied homes (including ex Right to Buy homes) moving into this sector
- the increasing costs of owner occupation, making this tenure less viable for first time buyers

- the limited availability of social sector homes

1.14 There were significant changes in the social rented sector between 1996 and 2012. From 1996 to 2012, the number of local authority homes fell from 3.5 million (17% of the stock) to 1.8 million (8% of the stock). Over the same period, the number of housing association homes more than doubled from around 900,000 to 2 million, Figure 1.7.

1.15 This is partly because the ownership of many local authority dwellings was transferred to housing associations through Large Scale Voluntary Transfers (LSVT) and partly because of new building undertaken by housing associations. An estimated 533,000³ local authority homes were purchased by their sitting tenants through Right to Buy between 1996 and 2012. There was a downward trend in the number of Right to Buy sales per year between 2006 and 2012, but Right to Buy sales have generally increased since April 2012⁴.

Figure 1.7: Trends in dwellings, by tenure, 1996-2012



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.6

Sources:

1996-2006: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample;

2012: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

³ DCLG Statistical dataset, Live Tables on social housing sales, Table 678,

<https://www.gov.uk/government/statistical-data-sets/live-tables-on-social-housing-sales>

⁴ DCLG Right to Buy sales, May 2014, <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/right-to-buy-sales-in-england-january-to-march-2014>

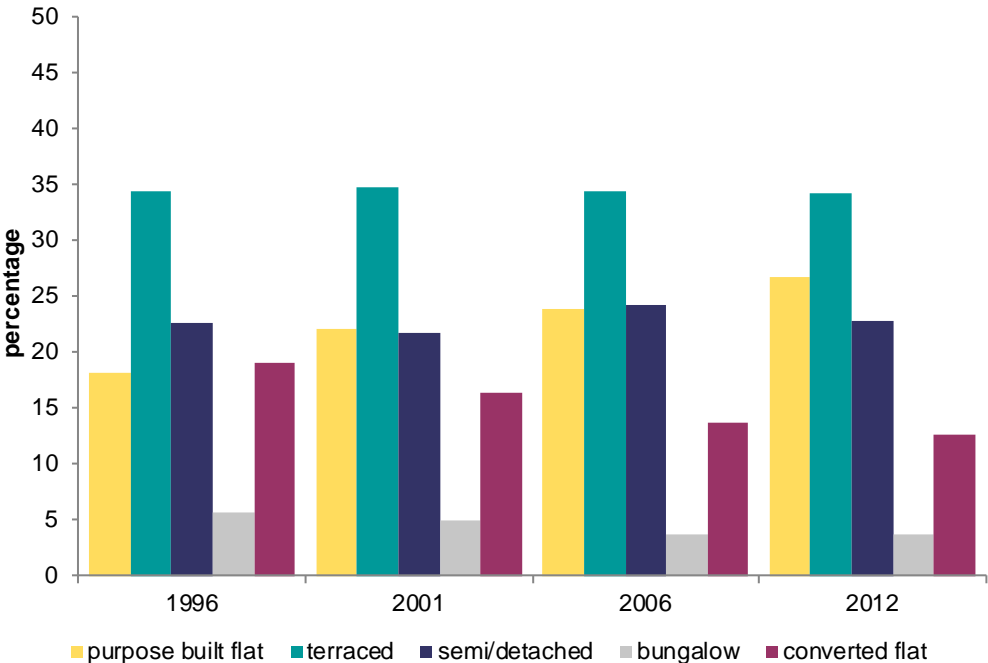
Owner occupied homes

- 1.16 The number of owner occupied homes rose and fell between 1996 and 2012. The recent decline in owner occupation has occurred alongside the growth of the private rented sector. Owner occupied homes comprised 65% of the stock in 2012, down from 68% in 1996, Annex Table 1.6.
- 1.17 As the profile of owner occupied homes has changed very little since 1996, the rest of this section will examine the changes that have occurred within the rented sectors in relation to the age, type and location of homes.

Private rented homes

- 1.18 There was a marked change in the dwelling age profile of private rented homes since 1996. This tenure had a large increase in both the number (170,000 in 1996 to 1 million in 2012) and proportion of homes built after 1980 (from 8% in 1996 to 25% in 2012). As a result, the proportion of dwellings built before 1919 fell from 52% to 33%, Annex Table 1.7.
- 1.19 Whilst the proportion of terraced houses, semi or detached houses and bungalows in the private rented sector remained relatively constant, there was a reduction in the proportion of converted flats (from 19% to 13%) and an increase in the proportion of purpose built flats (18% to 27%), Figure 1.8.

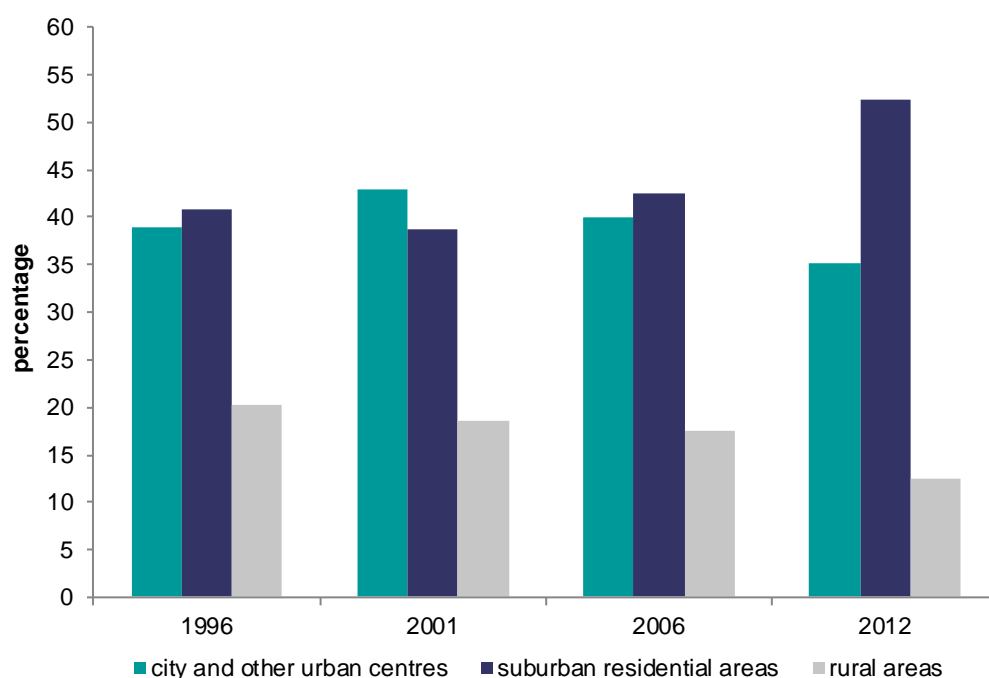
Figure 1.8 Dwelling type, private rented, 1996-2012



Base: all private rented dwellings
Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.7
Sources:
 1996-2006: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample;
 2012: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

1.20 Although there was a rise in the number of privately rented homes in all types of areas, growth was less marked in rural locations. Consequently, the proportion of privately rented homes located in rural areas fell from 20% in 1996 to 12% in 2012. The number and proportion of private rented homes rose most markedly within suburban residential areas from around 800,000 (41%) to 2.2 million (52%), Figure 1.9.

Figure 1.9 Type of area, private rented dwellings, 1996-2012



Base: all private rented dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.7

Sources:

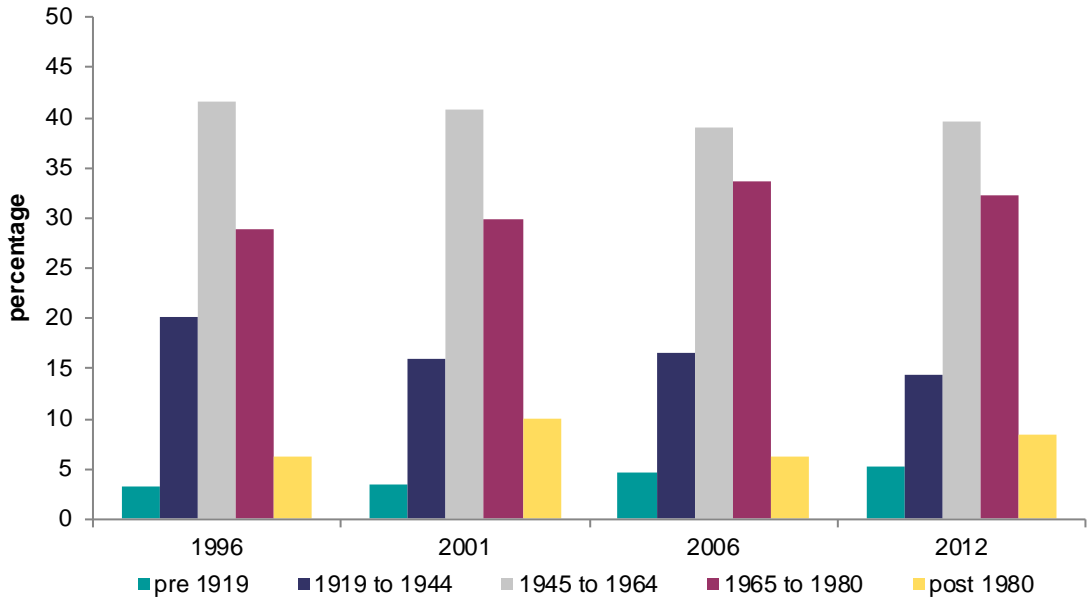
1996-2006: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample;

2012: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

Local authority homes

1.21 The reduction in local authority housing stock between 1996 and 2012 resulted in a shift in the age distribution, with a fall in the proportion of homes built from 1919 to 1964 (62% to 54%) and an increase in proportion of homes built after 1965 (35% to 41%), Figure 1.10

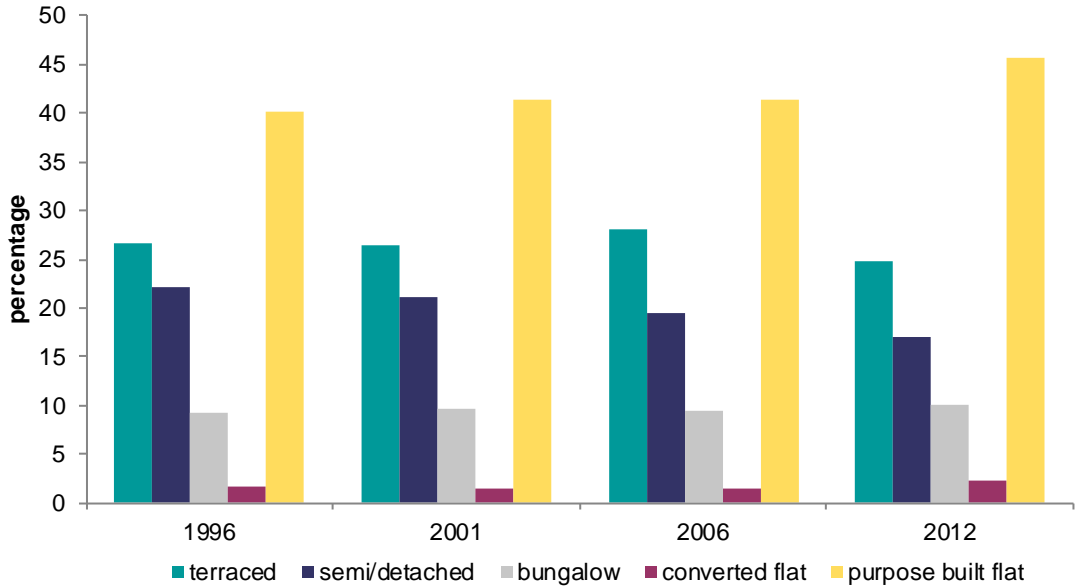
Figure 1.10 Dwelling age, local authority, 1996-2012



Base: all local authority dwellings
Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.8
Sources:
 1996-2006: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample;
 2012: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

1.22 The fall in the number of local authority homes also changed the distribution of dwelling type. The majority of dwellings taken out of the local authority sector were houses and bungalows, so there was a significant rise in the proportion of purpose built flats (from 40% to 46%), Figure 1.11.

Figure 1.11: Dwelling type, local authority, 1996-2012



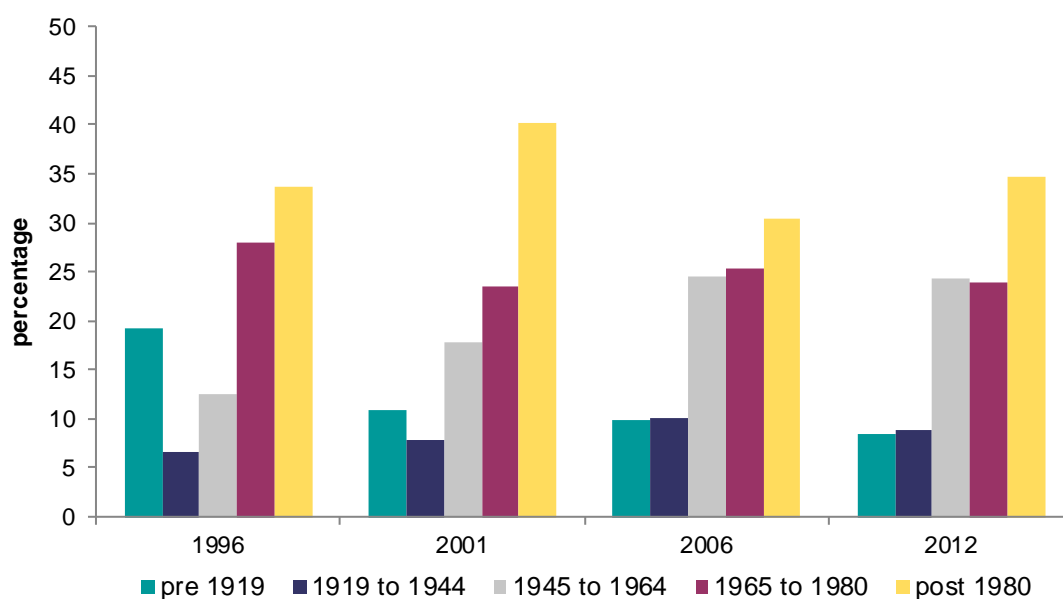
Base: all local authority dwellings
Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.8
Sources:
 1996-2006: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample;
 2012: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

1.23 Of the 368,000 local authority homes located in rural areas in 1996, about one quarter (99,000) rural homes remained under local authority ownership in 2012. As a result, there was a significant fall in the proportion of local authority homes in rural areas (from 11% to 6%). While the proportion of homes located in suburban residential areas was fairly constant over this period, there was a rise in the proportion of homes located in cities and other urban centres from 25% to 33%. These findings are consistent with the increased concentration of purpose built flats within this tenure, Annex Table 1.8.

Housing association homes

1.24 The growth of the housing association sector through large scale voluntary transfer (LSVT) and new building has also resulted in marked changes in the profile of this sector. As the local authority sector grew rapidly from 1945 to 1964, it is not surprising that LSVT resulted in a large increase in homes built during this period within the housing association stock (up from 12% to 24%). The proportion of the oldest pre 1919 stock decreased from 19% to 8%, Figure 1.12.

Figure 1.12: Dwelling age, housing association, 1996-2012



Base: all housing association dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.9

Sources:

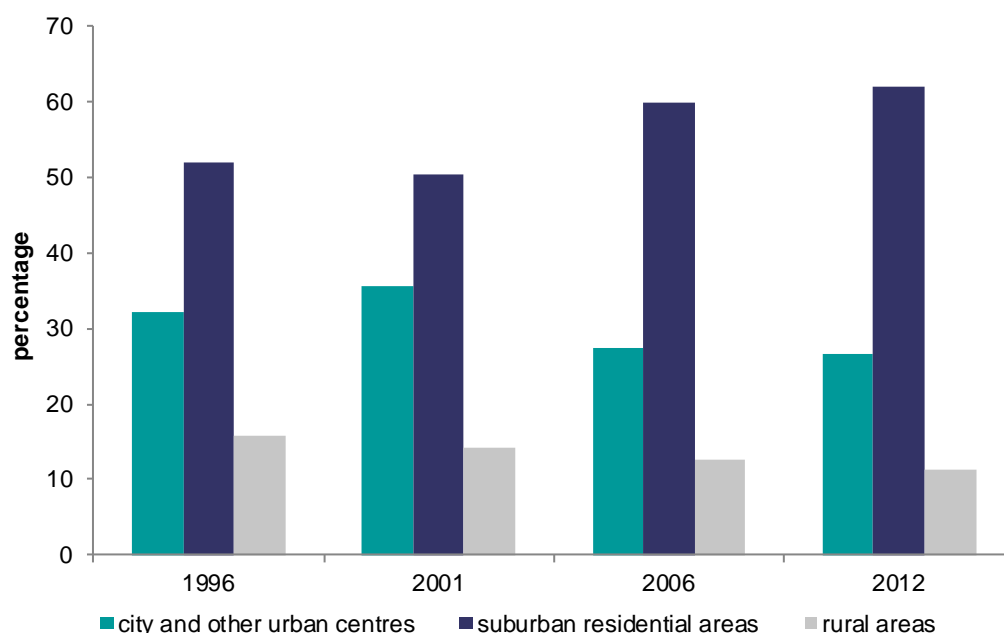
1996-2006: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample;

2012: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

1.25 Since 1996, the main shifts in the dwelling type profile of housing association homes arose among semi-detached houses which increased from 10% of the stock to 17%, and among purpose built flats, which were reduced from 48% of the stock to 39%. These changes are also largely due to the transfer of stock from local authorities, Annex Table 1.9.

1.26 Whilst the growth of this tenure was evident in all types of area, there was a significant expansion of housing association homes located in suburban residential areas. As a result, the proportion of housing association stock in these locations rose from 52% to 62%, Figure 1.13.

Figure 1.13: Type of area, housing association dwellings, 1996-2012



Base: all housing association dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.9

Sources:

1996-2006: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample;

2012: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

Vacant homes⁵

1.27 Homes may become vacant for a number of reasons, for example, as part of the process of being sold, or due to a gap between tenancies. Vacant homes can, however, degrade quickly and become expensive to repair and return to use. Vacant properties restrict the supply of housing and contribute to housing shortages. Given the recognised need for housing in England, keeping vacant stock to a minimum is therefore desirable. 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 EHS⁶.

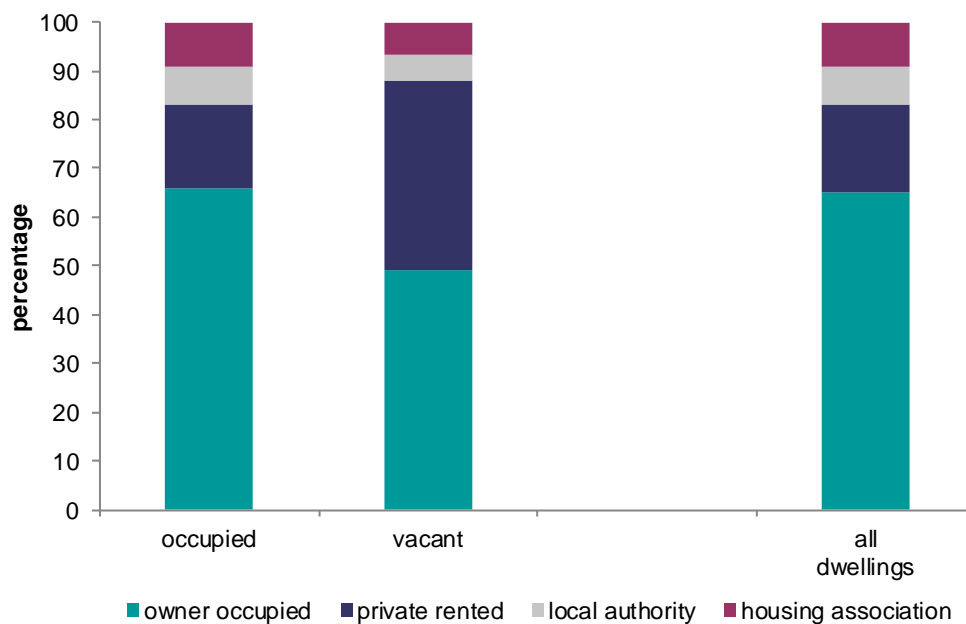
1.28 There were 1.0 million vacant dwellings in England at the time of the survey. Of these, 494,000 (49%) were owner occupied and 122,000 were in the social

⁵ 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.

⁶ 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.

rented sector (12%). The private rented sector was over represented among vacant homes: this tenure comprised 39% of vacant homes (390,000), compared with 17% of occupied homes. Vacancy rates tend to be higher among privately rented homes because there is a much higher turn round of occupants in this sector than for owner occupation or social renting, Figure 1.14

Figure 1.14: Occupied and vacant dwellings, by tenure, 2012



Base: all dwellings

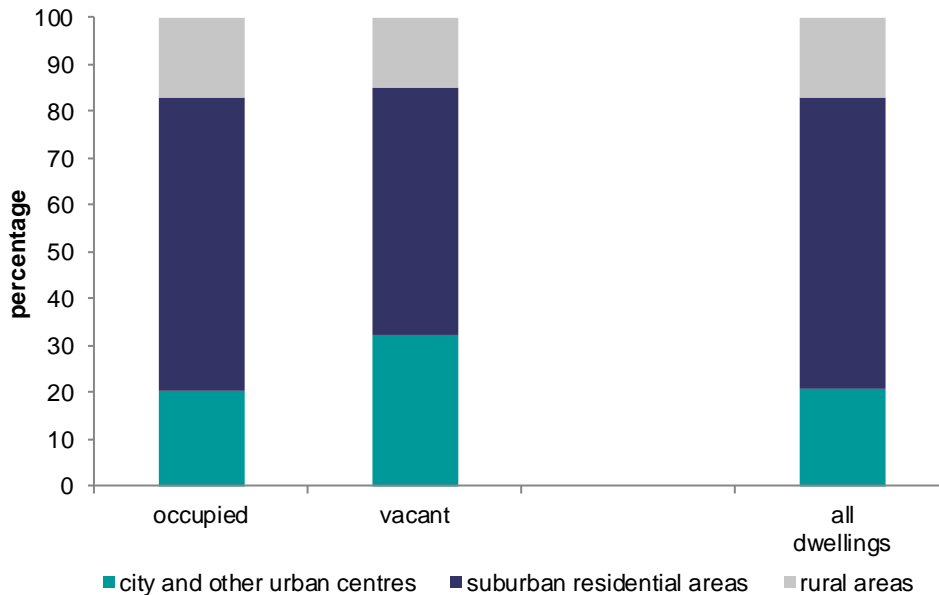
Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.10

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

- 1.29 Homes built before 1919, flats, homes with one or two bedrooms and homes in city and urban centres were over represented in the vacant stock. Around a quarter (26%) of empty homes were built before 1919. Interestingly, 12% of empty homes were built after 1990. The comparable figures for occupied homes were 19% and 14% respectively, Annex Table 1.10.
- 1.30 Among vacant homes, 38% were flats compared with 20% of flats in occupied stock. This may be because flats are more likely to be rented, which have more changes of occupancy than owner occupied dwellings, increasing chances of vacant periods, Annex Table 1.10.
- 1.31 Around half (48%) of vacant dwellings consisted of properties with three or more bedrooms compared with 63% for occupied homes. Some 33% of vacant homes had two bedrooms and 19% had one bedroom; the equivalent proportions for occupied stock were 27% and 10% respectively, Annex Table 1.10.
- 1.32 As with occupied dwellings, the majority of vacant properties were located in suburban residential areas (53%). The proportion of vacant properties in city

and other urban centres (32%) was far higher than the proportion of these homes within the occupied stock (20%). This was due to the relatively higher prevalence of vacant privately rented homes, flats and older dwellings, which were more likely to be located in city and urban centres.

Figure 1.15: Occupied and vacant dwellings, by type of area, 2012



Base: all dwellings

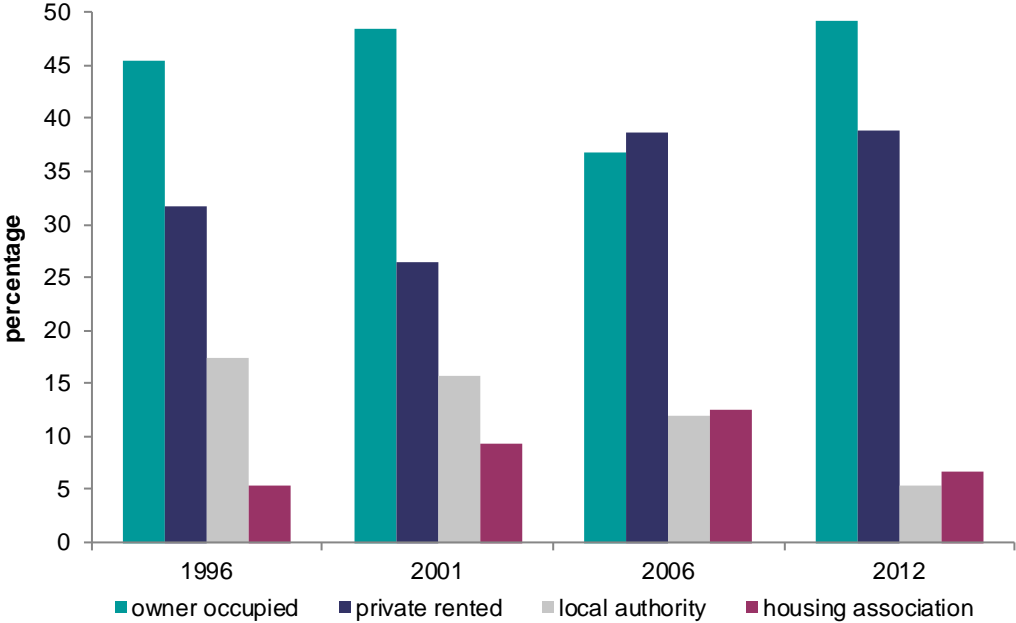
Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.10

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

Changes in vacant homes since 1996

- 1.33 Whilst the number of vacant homes increased from around 800,000 to 1.0 million since 1996, the proportion of vacant homes within the stock remained constant at around 3 or 4%. There were, however, some notable changes in the distribution of these homes by tenure and other dwelling characteristics.
- 1.34 Similar to the trend for all dwellings, the proportion of privately rented homes in the vacant stock rose between 1996 and 2012 (from 32% to 39%), and the proportion of empty local authority homes reduced (from 17% to 5%). Both local authorities and housing associations generally have very high demand for their homes and may also have their own performance targets to maximise the use of their stock. This likely explains the continuous lower concentration of vacancy within the social rented sector, Figure 1.16.

Figure 1.16: Trends in vacant dwellings, by tenure, 1996-2012



Base: all vacant dwellings

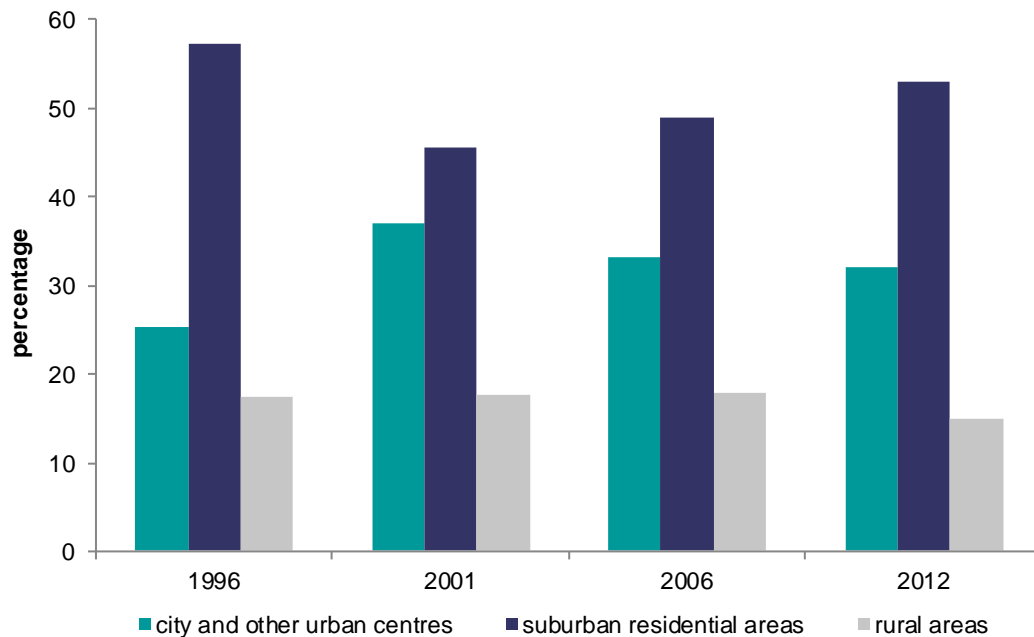
Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.11

Sources:

1996-2006: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample;
 2012: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

- 1.35 As in the occupied stock, the proportion of homes built before 1919 was reduced within the vacant stock from 35% to 26%, due to the impact of new home building. The proportion of homes built after 1980 increased within the vacant stock from 9% to 22%, Annex Table 1.11.
- 1.36 The distribution of vacant homes by type of area fluctuated a little over this period, although the proportion of vacant homes in city and urban areas rose overall (from 25% to 32%). The fall in the proportion of vacant homes in suburban residential areas from 57% to 53% is not statistically significant, Figure 1.17

Figure 1.17: Trends in vacant dwellings, by type of area, 1996-2012



Base: all vacant dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.11

Sources:

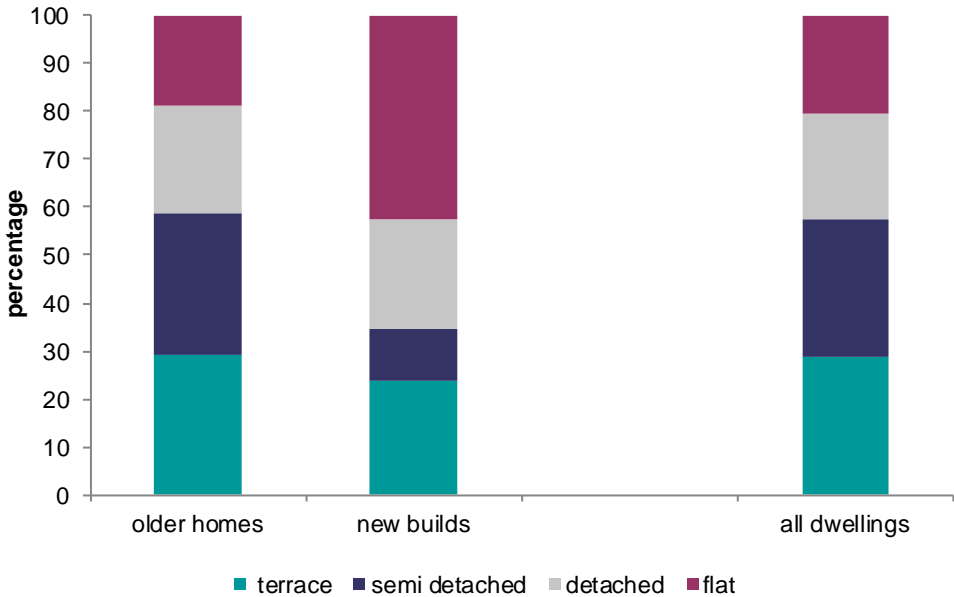
1996-2006: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample;

2012: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

New builds

- 1.37 This section looks at the profile of the newest homes built after 2002, and examines how their characteristics may differ from the rest of the housing stock. It should be noted the characteristics of homes built after 2002 may be very similar to those in other categories e.g. those built in the 1990s, but the 2002 threshold was chosen to capture the newest homes where sample sizes allowed for useful analysis. For the rest of this section, those homes built after 2002 will be referred to as 'new builds', and the housing stock built up to and including 2002 referred to as 'older homes'.
- 1.38 Of the 22.7 million dwellings in England, 1.3 million were new builds (6%). The majority of these homes were owner occupied (57%) but almost a third (30%) were in the private rented sector, reflecting the rapid growth of the tenure. The remaining 13% were social rented homes, Annex Table 1.12.
- 1.39 A large proportion of new builds were flats (43%), noticeably higher than the proportion of flats among older homes (19%). Conversely, the proportion of semi-detached homes among new build stock was much less (11%) than the proportion among older homes (29%).

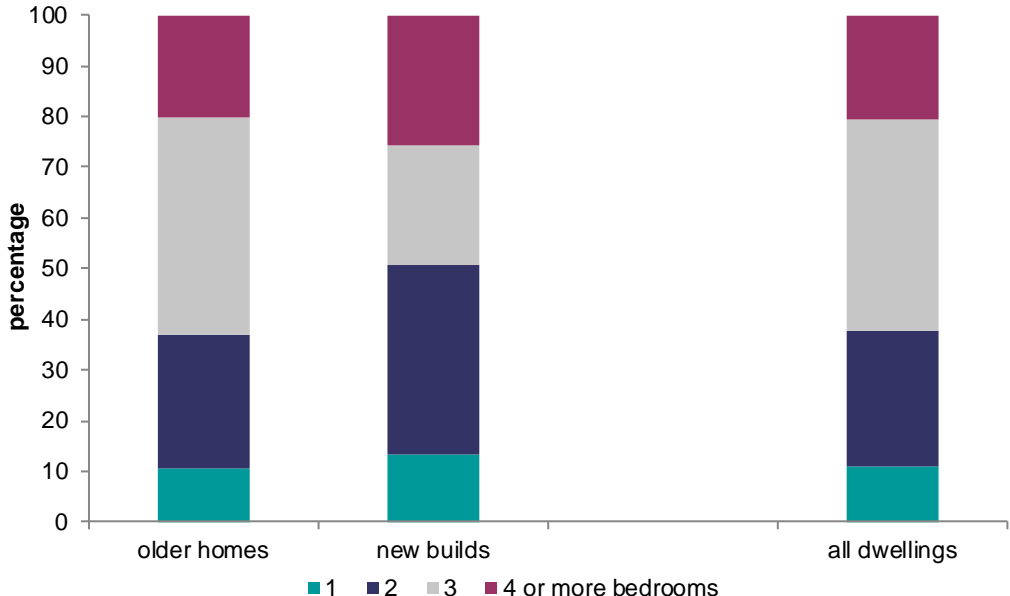
Figure 1.18: New build and older homes, by dwelling type, 2012



Base: all dwellings
Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.12
Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

1.40 The distribution of the number of bedrooms among new builds also differed from those of older homes. Over a third (37%) of new homes had two bedrooms, higher than the proportion (26%) in older homes. Conversely, the proportion of new build three bedroom properties (24%) was lower compared with older homes (43%). The proportion of new builds with four or more bedrooms (26%) was higher than in older homes (20%), Figure 1.19.

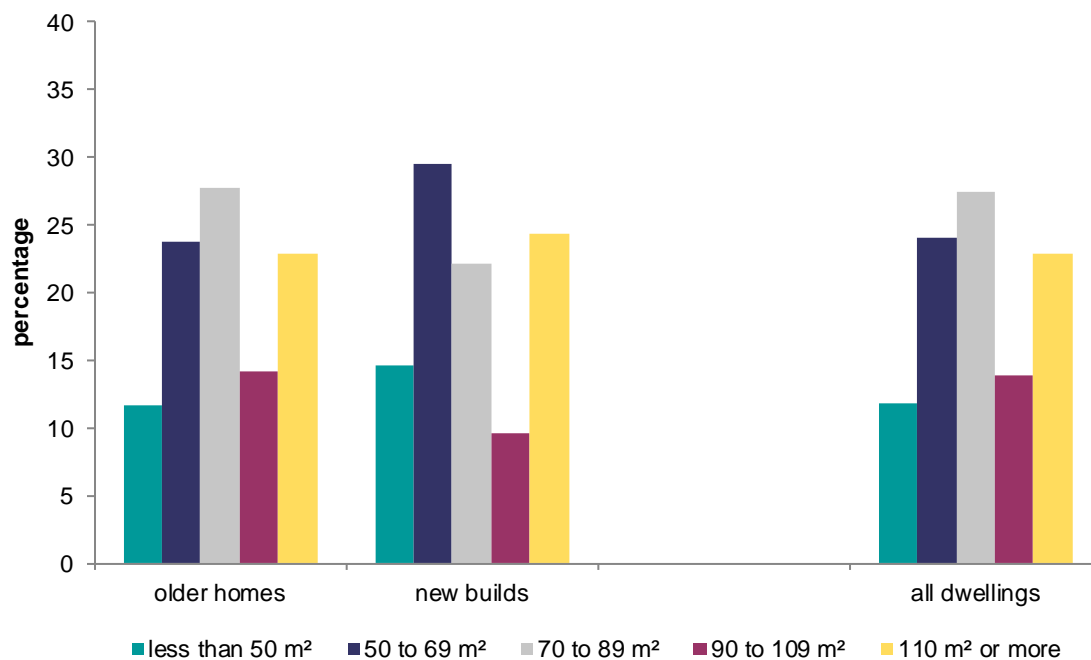
Figure 1.19: New build and older homes, by number of bedrooms, 2012



Base: all dwellings
Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.12
Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

- 1.41 The distribution of new builds across different types of area was broadly similar to that of older homes. Some 61% of new builds were in suburban residential areas and 15% were in rural areas. The proportion of new builds in city and other urban centres was slightly higher (24%) compared with older homes (20%), Annex Table 1.12.
- 1.42 The average total floor area⁷ in new build homes was 96m² and the average for older homes was 92m². However, a number of very large homes over 110m² among new build homes has resulted in this higher average size. The distribution of the banded total floor area of new build properties differed from that found in older dwellings. Some 44% of new build homes had a useable floor space under 69m², greater than the proportion found in older dwellings (35%). Around one quarter (24%) of new builds were 110m² or more in size, similar to the proportion found in older homes (23%).

Figure 1.20: New build and older homes, by banded floor area, 2012



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 1.12

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

⁷ See Chapter 5 of English Housing Survey 2012 to 2013: Household Report for further analysis on floor area.

Chapter 2

Services, amenities, services and accessibility

This chapter examines key services and amenities present in the English housing stock in 2012. It focuses on mains services, water meters, secondary amenities and security. It also examines some 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.

The English Housing Survey Homes Report 2011 contains information about the age of kitchens, bathrooms and WCs; none of these are likely to have changed significantly by 2012. Readers should, therefore, refer to this report for details on the age of these amenities. Additional findings relating to amenities and services can be found in web tables DA2101 to DA2303.

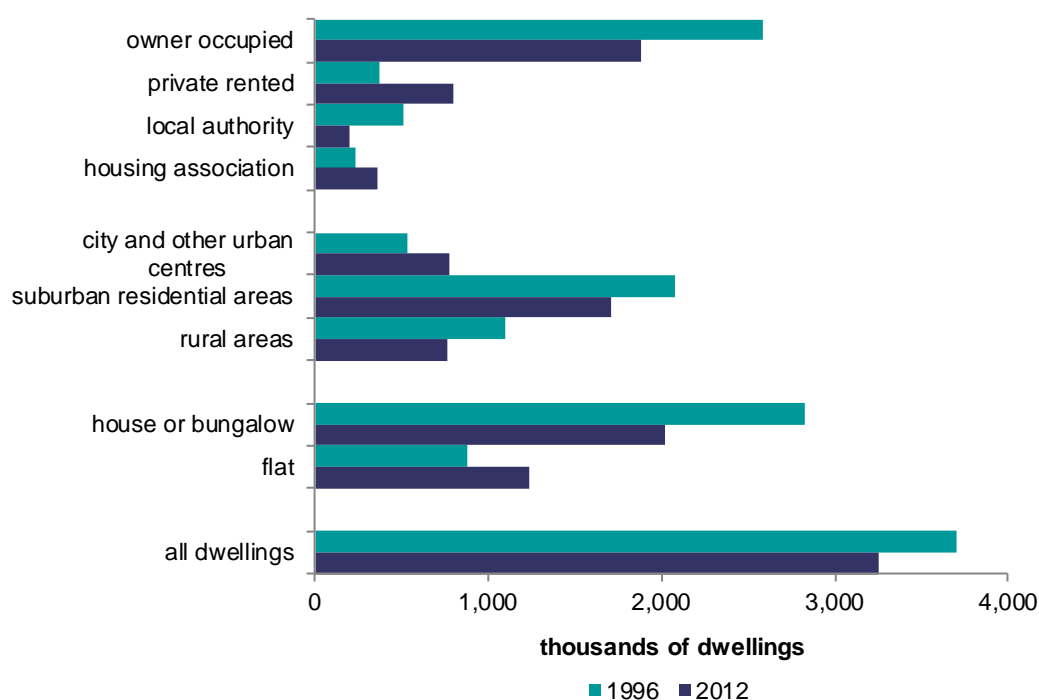
Mains services

Electricity

- 2.1. In 2012 virtually all homes had a mains electricity supply, unchanged since 1996, Annex Table 2.1.
- 2.2. The overall proportion of dwellings with an off peak electricity supply¹ declined from 18% (3.7 million) in 1996 to 14% (3.3 million) in 2012. Although the presence of an off peak electricity supply decreased overall between 1996 and 2012, the number of homes with this provision increased among private rented and housing association homes, flats and within city and urban centres during this period. This finding likely reflects the large proportion of flats built in recent years (see Chapter 1 of this report), Figure 2.1.
- 2.3. Virtually all homes with storage heating had an off-peak electricity supply in 2012 (97%), a rise from 90% in 1996, Annex Table 2.2. Most electric storage heaters use electricity to 'charge up' overnight and then release heat during the day, so off-peak electricity supply is more cost-effective.

¹ See the glossary for more on off peak electricity supply.

Figure 2.1: Off peak electricity, by dwelling characteristics, 2012



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 2.2

Sources:

1996: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample;

2012: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

Mains gas

2.4. In 2012 86% of homes had a mains gas supply, up from 82% in 1996. The increase was evident across all tenures, with the largest rise seen in the housing association sector where the proportion of homes with mains gas increased from 68% in 1996 to 81% in 2012. Homes in rural areas were least likely to have a gas mains supply throughout this period (61% in 1996 and 64% in 2012). The proportion of houses or bungalows with a mains gas supply increased from 85% in 1996 to 91% in 2012, Annex Table 2.3.

Mains drainage

2.5. In 2012, 97% of homes had mains drainage, an increase from 91% in 1996. In 1996 and 2012, the lowest proportions of homes with a mains drainage system were found in rural locations and in homes built before 1919. In 2012 these proportion of these homes with mains drainage was 84% and 91% respectively, Annex Table 2.1.

Water meters

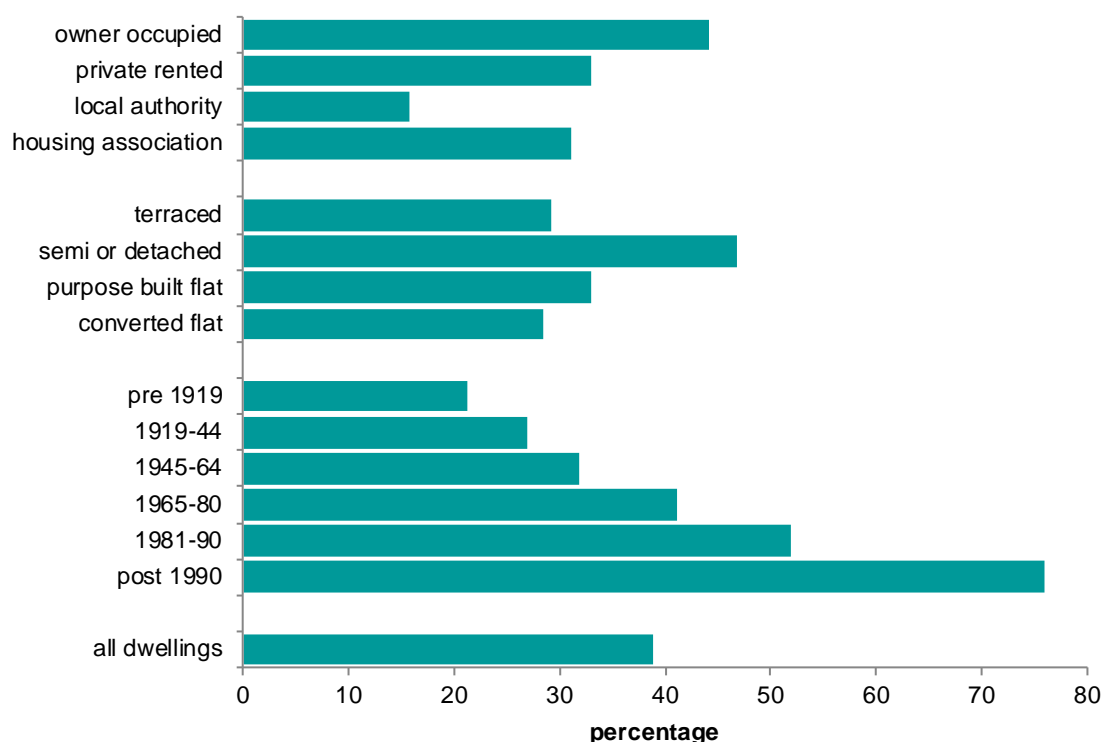
2.6. The Water Industry Act 1999 introduced the right to remain on an unmetered charge. Domestic customers paying on an unmetered basis have a legally

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 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.

- 2.7. In 2012, around 8.4 million occupied homes had water meters² (39%). Water meter provision varied by dwelling characteristics. Owner occupied homes (44%) were most likely to have water meters whilst local authority properties (16%) were least likely. Local authority homes were more likely to be flats, which may not be suitable for metering due to the practical difficulties of isolating the water supply to an individual property. The difference may also be due to some local authorities collecting water rates alongside the rent, Annex Table 2.4.
- 2.8. Water meters were more prevalent in homes built after 1990 (76%) than in other dwelling ages. Around half (47%) of detached and semi-detached homes had water meters, compared with 28% of converted flats and 33% of purpose built flats. As cited above there may be practical difficulties in monitoring water use in individual flats where one water pipe leads into the block, or in the case of a converted flat, into the original house, Figure 2.2.

² The EHS has collected data on water meters since 2009 from the household questionnaire in the physical survey. The analysis in this report excludes vacant homes (note that vacant homes were included in base for the 2011 Homes report so the percentages are not directly comparable). Before 2009, the data was collected in the full household survey but it is not possible to directly compare figures, as there are differences in the question wording and sample coverage.

Figure 2.2: Water meters, by dwelling characteristics, 2012



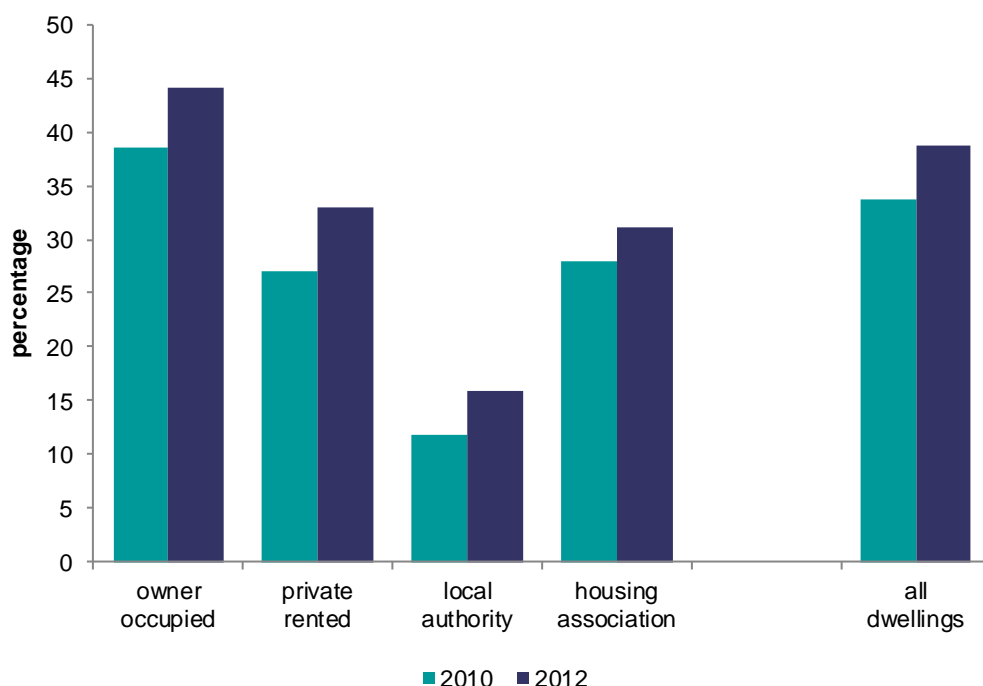
Base: all occupied dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 2.4

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

- 2.9. Those households most likely to have a water meter were those aged 65 years and over (50%), single households aged over 60 (49%) and couples with no dependent children (42%). Lone parents with dependent children (29%) and other multi-person households (26%) were least likely to have a water meter. These findings are partly due to the distribution of these households by tenure; older households are more likely to be owners whilst lone parents are more likely to be renters. However, the position is somewhat complex given that the majority of multi-person households are also owner occupied. Generally, the larger the household, the lower the prevalence of a water meter. This may suggest that smaller households were more confident about making financial savings through being metered, Annex Table 2.5.
- 2.10. From 2010, there was an increase in the proportion of dwellings with a water meter from 34% to 39% in 2012. This increase was evident among all tenures, but most notable in the private rented sector where this rose from 27% in 2010 to 33% in 2012, Figure 2.3

Figure 2.3: Water meters, by tenure, 2010 and 2012



Base: all occupied dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 2.4

Source: 2010 and 2012, English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

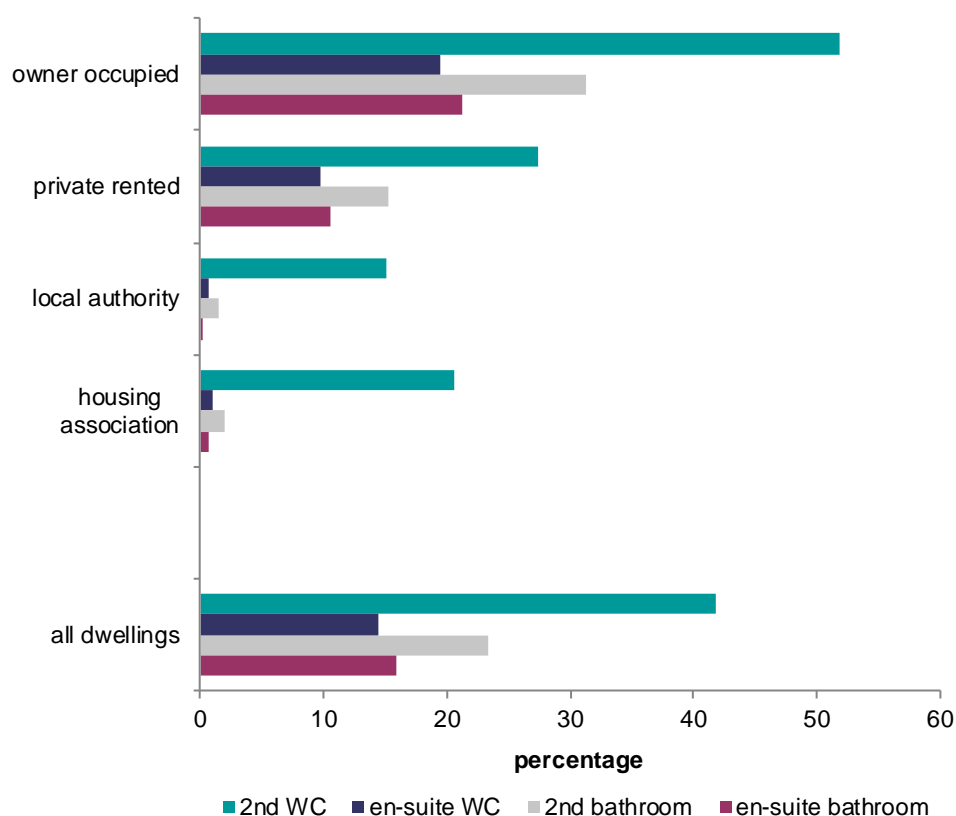
2.11. There was little discernible change in the pattern of water meter provision since 2010, with the findings presented above similar to those found in that year, Annex Table 2.4.

Secondary amenities

2.12. The number, type and arrangement of WC facilities in dwellings are important to ensure adequate personal hygiene, especially for larger households or those who share these amenities with other households.

2.13. In 2012, 42% of homes had a second WC and of these, 35% were en-suite. In addition, some 23% of homes had a second bathroom or shower, of which 68% were en-suite. The presence of secondary amenities in the home varied by tenure. Owner occupiers were far more likely to have any of the secondary amenities including an en-suite than renters. For example, some 52% of owner occupied homes had a second WC and 31% had a second bathroom. In contrast, a second WC was present in 15% of local authority homes and in 21% of housing association homes, Figure 2.4.

Figure 2.4: Secondary amenities, by tenure, 2012



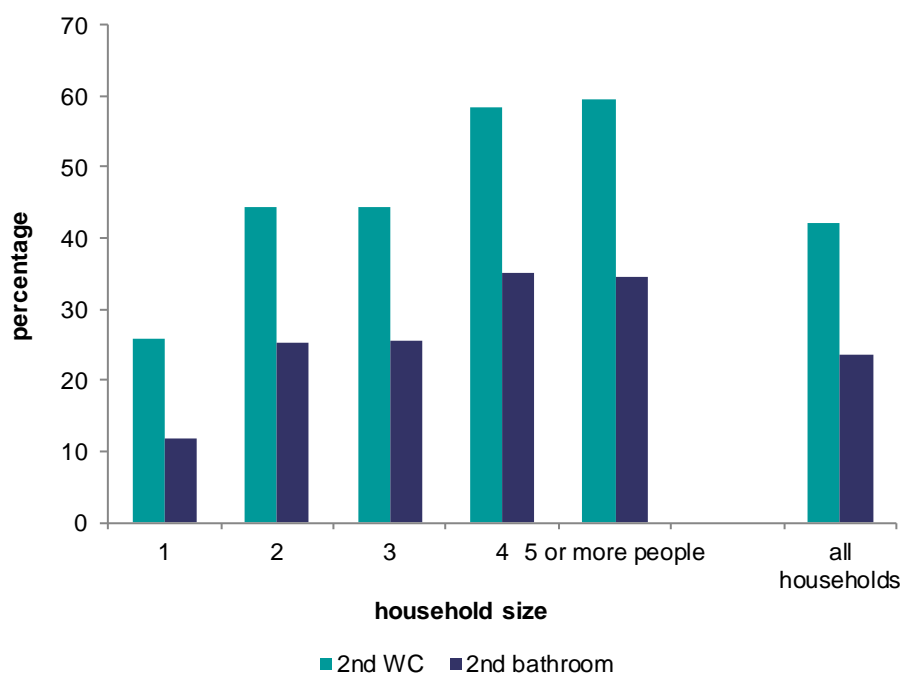
Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 2.6

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

2.14. Larger households were more likely to have secondary amenities. For example, 60% of households with 5 or more people had a second WC compared with 26% of single person households. However, the relationship between household size and the provision of secondary en-suite facilities was less clear: 2 or 3 person households had a similar likelihood of having en-suite facilities at their home compared with the largest households of five people or more, Figure 2.5.

Figure 2.5: Secondary amenities, by household size, 2012



Base: all households

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 2.7

Source: English Housing Survey, household sub-sample

Accessibility of dwellings and disability adaptations

2.15. The EHS physical survey assesses the presence of a number of features that enable dwellings to be more accessible for people with disabilities, including wheelchair users. This section firstly examines the prevalence of each of these features within the housing stock in 2012. It then examines the ‘visitability’ of homes, defined based on four key accessibility features (see Box 2.1), by tenure, age and type for 2012 and how this compares with 2007. Finally, it investigates how easy it would be to adapt homes to provide all four visitability features where they do not already exist.

2.16. In 2012, 74% of homes had no change in floor level or trip steps at entrance level, 63% of homes had a WC at entrance level, 56% had a room at entrance level that would be suitable for a bedroom and 39% had a bathroom at entrance level. Just 17% of homes had level access or a wheelchair accessible WC at entrance level. Around a quarter of all homes had the following features: sufficiently wide door and circulation space (26%) or a flush threshold to the main entrance (24%). Some 21% had straight stairs of sufficient width (900mm) with landings, required for safe and accessible use, Annex Table 2.8.

Visitability of dwellings

Box 2.1: Visitability: four key features

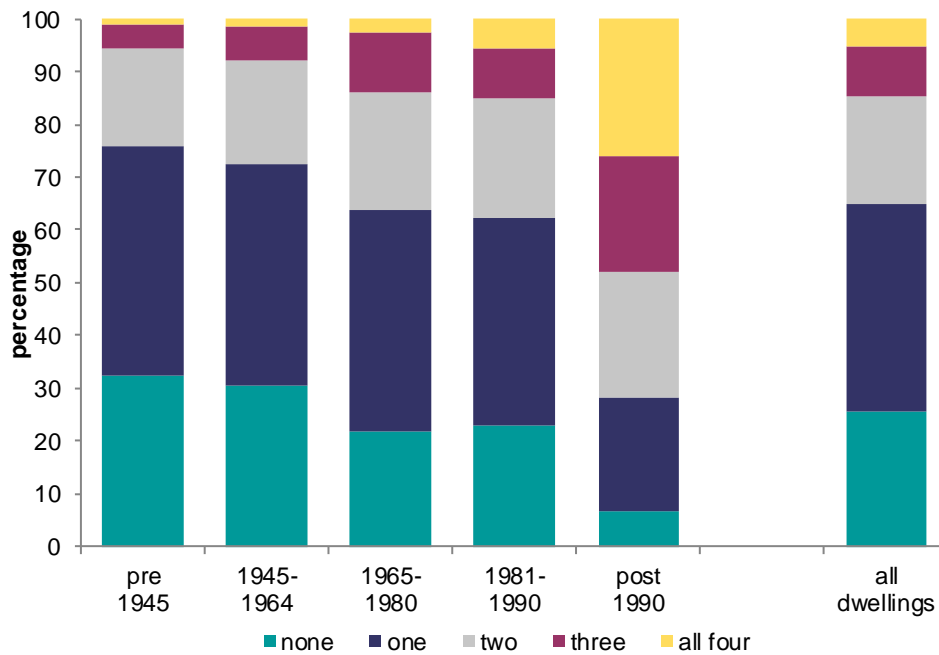
Visitability comprises four key features which are considered to be the most important for enabling people with mobility problems to either access their home or visit someone else's home. These four features form the basis for the requirements in part M of the Building Regulations, although the EHS cannot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

2.17. Overall, 17.0 million dwellings (75%) had at least one of these visitability features, however, only 1.2 million dwellings (5%) possessed all four of the key features (see Box 2.1) for full visitability. Of those with fewer than four features, 9% of all dwellings had three features, 21% had two and 39% had one. The remaining 5.8 million dwellings (25%) had none of the four visitability features, Annex Table 2.9.

2.18. The likelihood of a home being fully visitable varied by age, tenure and type. Not surprisingly, owing to the requirements of modern building regulations, homes built after 1990 were most likely to be fully visitable (26%). Conversely homes built before 1945 (32%) and those built between 1945 and 1964 (30%) were more likely to have no visitability features, Figure 2.6.

Figure 2.6: Visitability, by dwelling age, 2012



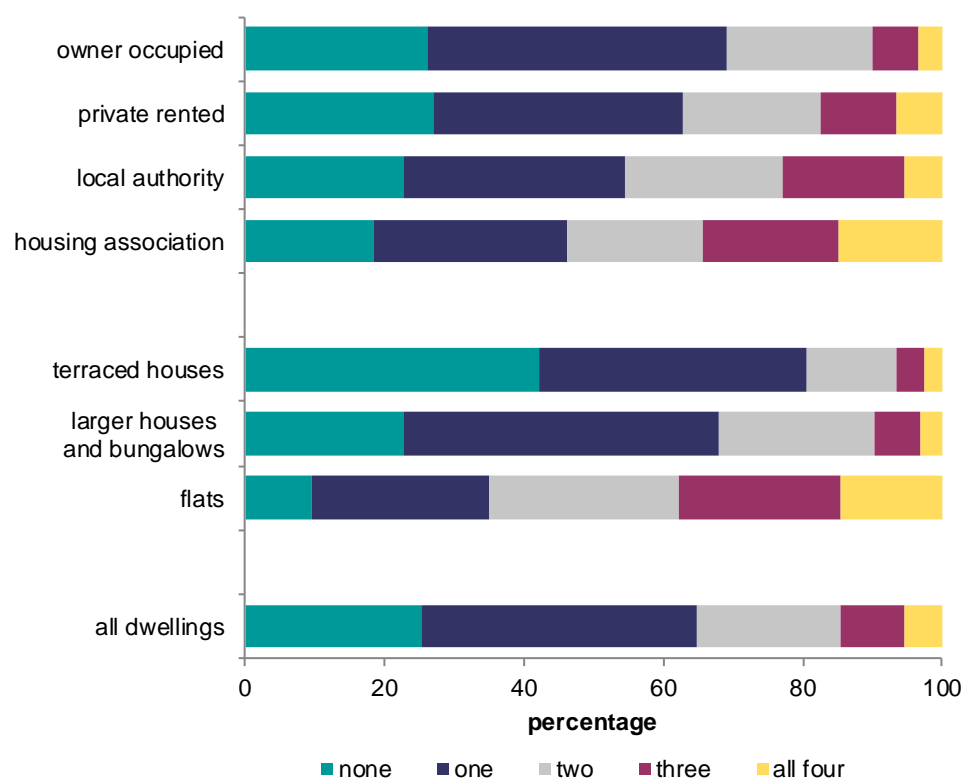
Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 2.9

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

2.19. Housing association homes, which have the highest proportion of the newest homes built after 1990, and flats (15%) were most likely to have full visitability. Overall, local authority homes performed better than those in the private sector. This is most likely due to the higher proportion of purpose built flats within the local authority stock. Terraced houses (42%) and those in the private sector (26-27%) were most likely to have none of the four accessibility features, Figure 2.7.

Figure 2.7: Visitability, by tenure and dwelling type, 2012



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 2.9

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

2.20. Almost half a million more dwellings were fully visitable in 2012 than in 2007 when around 740,000 (3%) homes contained all four required features. The most marked improvements were among homes built after 1990 where 14% of homes were fully visitable in 2007, rising to 26% in 2012. Full visitability also improved among all flats (9% to 15%) and among privately rented homes (3% to 7%). The proportion of homes with none of the four accessibility features reduced over this period from 27% to 25%, Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Visitability, by tenure, dwelling type and age, 2007 and 2012

all dwellings

	number of visitability features						sample size 2007	sample size 2012
	2007	2012	2007	2012	2007	2012		
	none		1 to 3		all 4			
	<i>percentages</i>							
tenure								
owner occupied	27.4	26.2	70.6	70.2	2.1	3.6	7,893	5,314
private rented	29.4	27.0	68.0	66.3	2.7	6.7	2,369	2,683
local authority	25.8	22.7	69.1	71.7	5.2	5.6	3,635	2,280
housing association	20.1	18.3	67.2	66.7	12.7	15.0	2,320	2,486
dwelling type								
terraced house	43.2	42.3	55.6	55.2	1.2	2.5	4,775	3,679
larger houses and bungalows	22.3	22.6	75.1	74.3	2.6	3.2	7,844	5,680
flats	14.4	9.5	76.2	75.9	9.4	14.6	3,598	3,404
dwelling age								
pre 1945	33.1	32.5	66.1	66.5	0.7	1.0	5,769	4,045
1945-64	31.0	30.5	67.6	68.0	1.4	1.5	3,868	3,044
1965-80	22.5	21.6	74.6	75.7	2.8	2.7	3,855	2,904
1981-90	20.6	23.1	72.6	71.4	6.7	5.5	1,324	1,096
post 1990	10.9	6.8	75.0	67.4	14.1	25.8	1,401	1,674
all dwellings	26.8	25.4	69.8	69.3	3.4	5.3	16,217	12,763

Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 2.9

Sources:

2007: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample;

2012: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

Difficulty of adapting homes to make them visitable

2.21. In assessing the degree of difficulty in adapting dwellings to provide all four visitability features in 2012, the scope and nature of the work required has been classified into a straightforward four-point scale outlined in Box 2.2. As the findings are very similar for both 2007 and 2012, this analysis examines the most recent position³.

³ The English House Condition Survey 2007 report, Chapter 4, contains more detailed analysis of the 2007 position on a wider range of accessibility features:

<http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20121108165934/http://www.communities.gov.uk/publications/corporate/statistics/ehcs2007annualreport>.

Box 2.2: Scale of difficulty in adapting homes to make them visitable

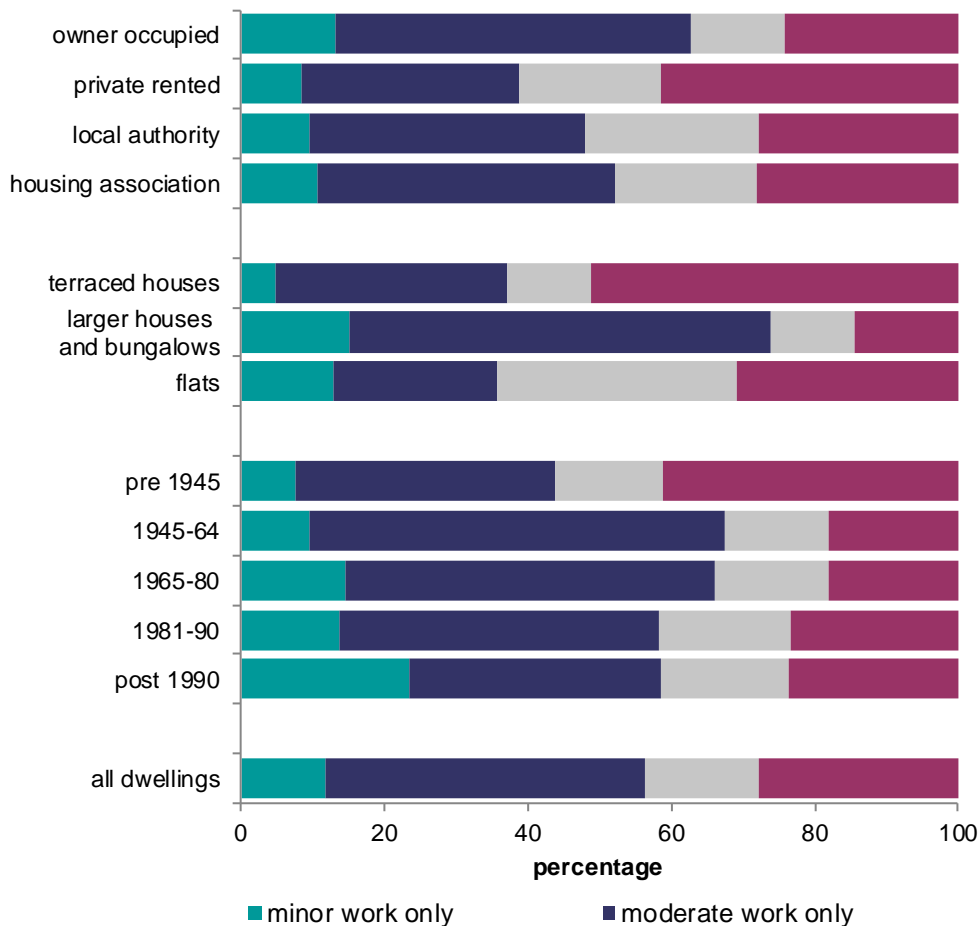
Each dwelling is classified according to the highest degree of difficulty of the required work, for example, if work to provide a flush threshold is minor but providing a WC at ground floor involves building an extension, the dwelling is classed as requiring major works in order to make it fully visitable.

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.

- 2.22. Of the 21.5 million homes (95%) that were not already fully visitable, around 2.5 million (12%) could comply by carrying out minor work and a further 9.6 million (45%) could comply with moderate work. Visitability could only be achieved in 3.4 million (16%) homes through major (and more problematic) works and a further 6.0 million (28%) homes were considered simply not feasible to make visitable, Annex Table 2.10.

2.23. The relative ease of adaptability varied considerably for different types of homes. Those built after 1990 were much more likely to require only minor works, to make them fully visitable (24%). In contrast, the homes most likely to be classed as not feasible to make fully visitable were terraced houses (51%), privately rented homes (42%) and homes built before 1945 (41%), Figure 2.8.

Figure 2.8: Level of work to provide all four visitability features, by tenure, dwelling type and age, 2012



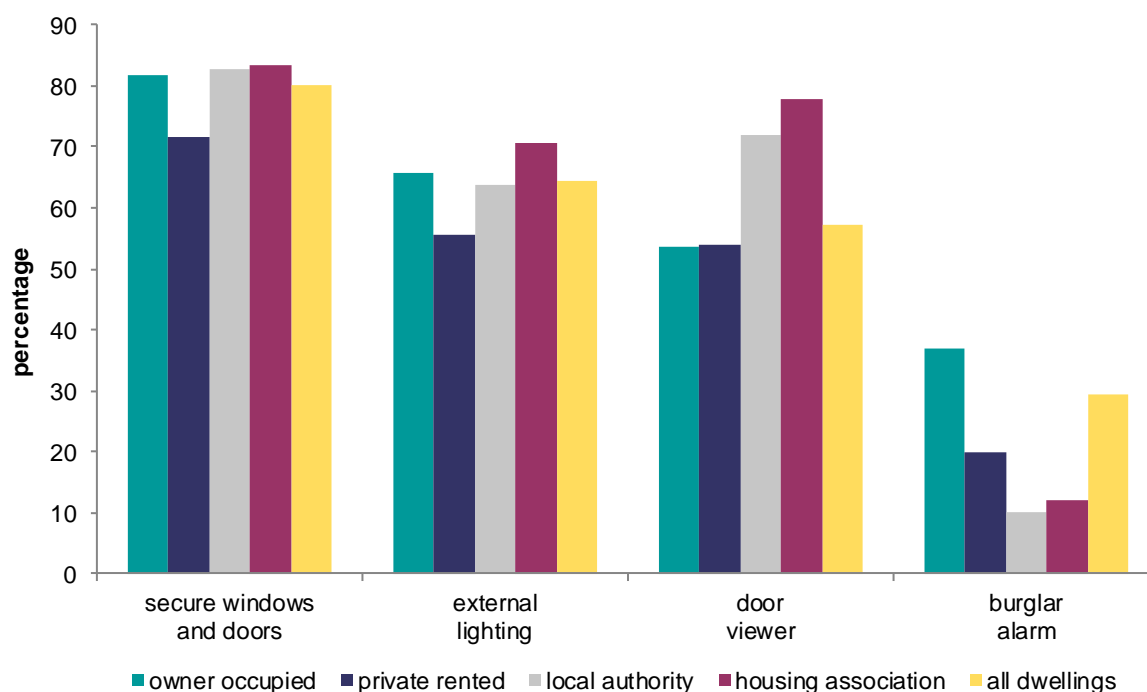
Base: all dwellings that are not currently fully 'visitable'
Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 2.10
Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

Security

2.24. This section looks at key security measures present in homes in 2012 and how these varied across tenure. These measures 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.

- 2.25. The proportion of homes with secure windows and doors⁴ in 2012, were at similar levels among owner occupied, local authority and housing association homes (82-83%). The presence of this feature was less common among privately rented homes (72%), highlighting the greater potential for improvement in this sector, Figure 2.9.
- 2.26. The proportion of door viewers present within owner occupied and privately rented homes was very similar (54%) but the provision of this security feature was notably higher in housing association (78%) and local authority homes (72%). These findings may be due to many social landlords establishing a door replacement programme, for example, as part of Decent Homes work, Figure 2.9.
- 2.27. A burglar alarm was present in 30% of homes in 2012. This measure was notably higher among owner occupied homes (37%). In contrast just 10% of local authority homes had this security feature, Figure 2.9.
- 2.28. There was a higher proportion of external lighting to private entrances or shared areas for housing association homes (71%) whilst this feature was least likely to be present in the private rented sector (56%). A similar proportion of owner occupied and local authority homes (64-66%) had this feature, Figure 2.9.

Figure 2.9: Security measures, by tenure, 2012



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 2.11

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

⁴ See Glossary for definition

Controlled entry systems in flats with common areas

- 2.29. There were about 3.5 million flats with shared common areas in 2012 and of these 2.6 million (77%) had a controlled door entry system for additional security. Housing association flats were most likely to benefit from this feature (84%) whilst this feature was less prevalent within the private rented sector (71%), Annex Table 2.12.
- 2.30. Overall, 93% of these door systems were working at the time of the survey. Again this varied by tenure with 90% working in private rented sector compared with 96% for owner occupied homes, Annex Table 2.13.

Chapter 3

Dwelling condition and safety

This chapter provides an overview of the dwelling condition and safety of the housing stock in 2012 and how this has changed over time. It examines five key indicators of dwelling condition: disrepair; the prevalence of damp and mould; electrical safety; the most serious hazards assessed under the Housing Health and Safety Rating System (HHSRS) and the Decent Homes standard. It summarises how different types of dwellings, including vacant dwellings, perform in respect to these indicators and how this has changed over time. Finally it provides a summary of poor housing conditions by examining the extent to which homes have a combination of problems.

Disrepair to dwellings

3.1 The 2011 EHS Homes Report¹ examined the expenditure required to deal with disrepair to key elements within the stock, such as external features and amenities costs. As none of these findings is likely to have changed significantly, this analysis is not repeated in this year's report. This section examines the level of overall disrepair within the whole stock by key dwelling indicators, before investigating which types of dwellings have the highest levels of disrepair. Finally, it examines how the overall level of disrepair has changed over time.

Cost of dealing with disrepair

3.2 The cost of dealing with disrepair is examined in two ways: 'actual' or 'required expenditure', and 'standardised costs'. 'Required expenditure' costs reflect the actual cost for each individual property; these costs incorporate regional 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 dwellings, regardless of size, tenure and area, on the same basis (see Box 3.1). The EHS distinguishes between three different levels and types of repairs needed at a dwelling (see Box 3.2). The analysis in this chapter mainly focuses on basic repair costs (the day to day maintenance of homes).

¹ <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/english-housing-survey-2011-homes-report>

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 2012 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 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.

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 Midland 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 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.

- 3.3 The total cost to carry out all basic repairs across the stock was around £33 billion, an average cost of £1,471 per dwelling. If additional work was undertaken for planned maintenance of building elements that need attention within the next ten years (comprehensive repairs), this cost would rise to some £83 billion, an average cost of £3,674 per dwelling, Table 3.1.
- 3.4 The distribution of the total costs between the tenures was broadly similar for all types of repair work. The social rented sector, however, accounted for just 10-11% of the total costs for all categories of repair, even though it comprised a higher proportion of all dwellings (17%), Annex Table 1.6. The private rented sector accounted for around a quarter of all urgent and basic repairs (24-25%), but 20% of all comprehensive repairs.
- 3.5 Average costs varied greatly across different tenures for all types of repair, and these costs were notably higher among privately rented dwellings. For example, an average basic repair cost of £1,962 compared with housing associations homes, at £778 per dwelling.

Table 3.1: Required expenditure to remedy disrepair, by tenure, 2012

<i>all dwellings</i>	owner occupied	private rented	local authority	housing association	all dwellings
mean expenditure per dwelling (£)					
urgent repairs	983	1,354	768	558	995
basic repairs	1,485	1,962	1,015	778	1,471
comprehensive repairs	3,946	4,120	2,364	1,946	3,674
total expenditure (£ billion)					
urgent repairs	14.5	5.6	1.4	1.1	22.6
basic repairs	21.9	8.1	1.8	1.6	33.4
comprehensive repairs	58.3	17.0	4.2	4.0	83.5
<i>sample size</i>	5,314	2,683	2,280	2,486	12,763

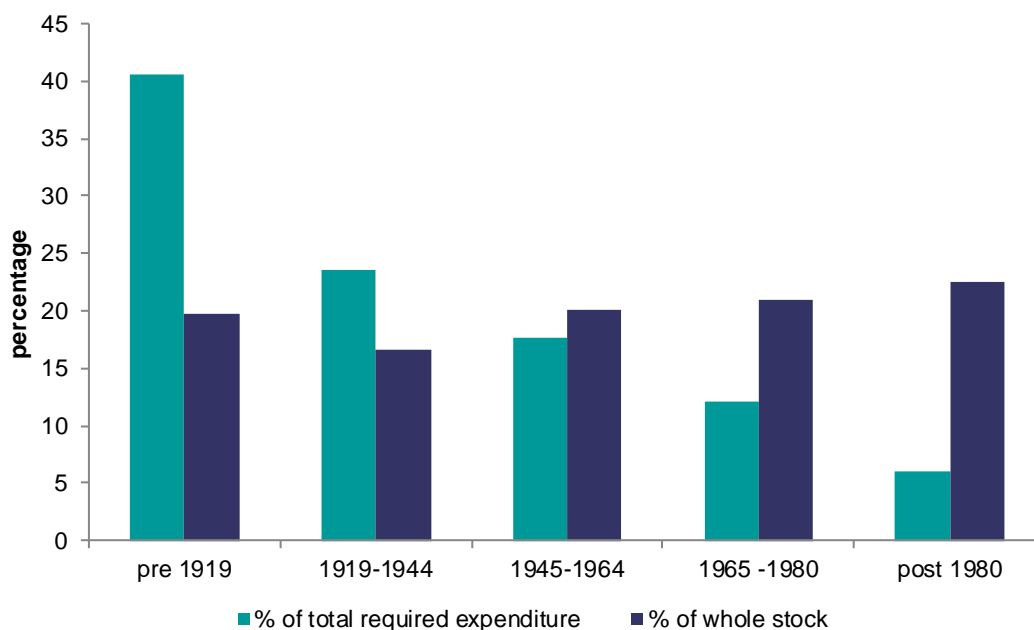
Base: all dwellings

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

- 3.6 Although vacant homes comprised 4% of the total stock (see Chapter 1), the total basic repair cost for these dwellings was around £4.0 billion, 13% of the total cost of basic disrepair to the stock, Annex Table 3.1.

3.7 Dwellings built before 1919 accounted for 41% of the total expenditure for basic repairs, even though these homes made up only 20% of the whole stock. Figure 3.1 shows a correlation between total basic repair costs and the age of dwellings, with the share of total expenditure lower in more modern dwellings. Properties built after 1980 comprised 23% of the stock, but only accounted for 6% of the total basic repair costs, Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1: Distribution of total expenditure required for basic repairs and whole stock, by dwelling age, 2012



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.1

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

Disrepair within different types of dwellings

3.8 Average standardised repair costs were generally higher for all types of privately rented homes, with the exception of vacant properties. The highest repair costs among vacant dwellings were owner occupied properties, £66/m² compared with £29/m² in the private rented sector, Table 3.2. Owner occupied vacant properties may have higher levels of disrepair due to a combination of reasons including:

- a greater proportion of older dwellings and houses within this stock
- a likely higher proportion of longer term empty homes (these are more likely to be older homes)²

3.9 Vacant homes had higher levels of disrepair among all tenures. This may be because these homes were in poor condition before becoming vacant, so

² See 'Vacant Dwellings in England, The challenges and costs of bringing them back into use', BRE FB25, Bracknell, HIS BRE Press 2010

become less attractive for future occupation. Empty dwellings may deteriorate more rapidly, for example, due to undetected urgent disrepair or vandalism.

- 3.10 Converted flats had the highest levels of disrepair among rented homes, with an average cost of £27/m² for all tenures. The lowest level of disrepair for private rented homes was found among purpose built flats, £11/m².
- 3.11 Newer dwellings had lower levels of disrepair and this trend was evident across all tenures. In terms of location, whilst standardised repair costs were highest in the private rented sector for all types of areas, levels of disrepair were more similar for owner occupiers and social rented homes within suburban and rural areas.
- 3.12 Properties in the most deprived areas had higher repair costs across all tenures compared with those in the least deprived areas. The largest difference occurred within the private sector, where the average standardised costs were £10-15/m² higher in the most deprived areas than those in the least deprived areas.

Table 3.2: Standardised basic repair cost, by dwelling characteristics and tenure, 2012

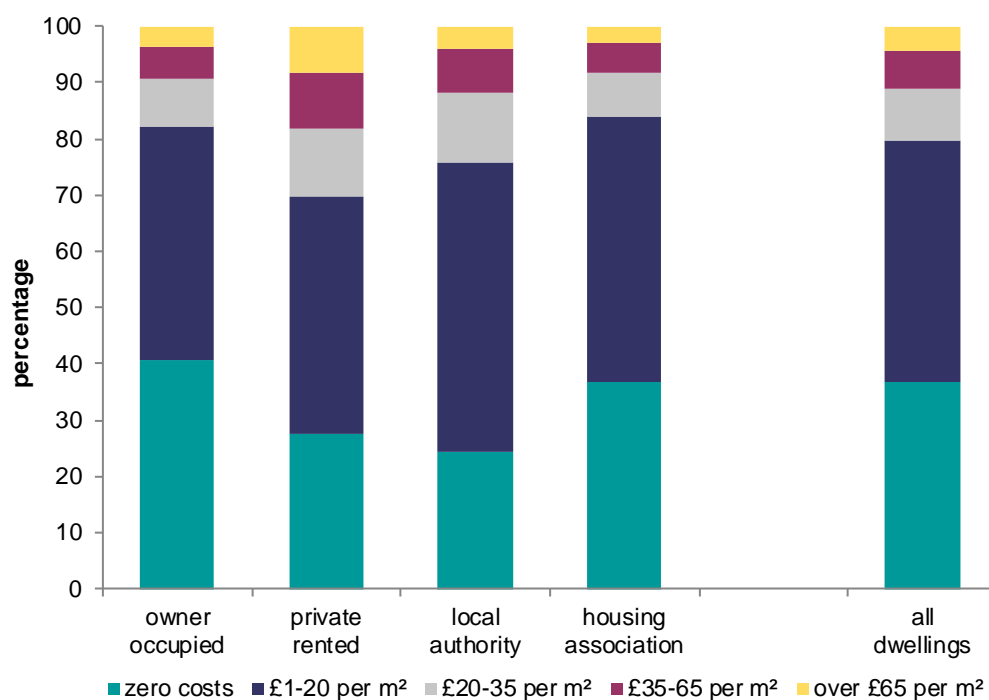
<i>all dwellings</i>				
	owner occupied	private rented	social rented	all dwellings
	<i>£ per m²</i>			
type of vacancy				
occupied	10.8	20.1	12.0	12.6
vacant	65.6	29.2	36.9	48.0
dwelling type				
all terraced	15.7	24.4	13.8	17.3
semi and detached	10.8	20.4	16.1	12.1
bungalow	17.2	22.9	10.4	16.2
converted flat	18.8	34.3	18.5	27.4
purpose built flat	6.9	10.5	11.0	9.8
dwelling age				
pre 1919	24.2	35.8	23.2	27.6
1919-44	19.1	25.4	19.0	20.1
1945-64	11.8	18.5	14.2	13.2
1965-80	6.9	12.6	10.6	8.5
post 1980	3.1	5.4	7.2	4.3
type of area				
city and other urban centres	17.3	25.4	13.1	18.8
suburban residential areas	11.6	17.3	12.8	12.6
rural areas	12.9	23.6	11.4	14.2
level of deprivation				
most deprived 20% areas	19.5	27.3	13.6	18.8
least deprived 20% areas	9.5	12.1	9.4	9.9
all dwellings	12.6	21.0	12.8	14.2
<i>sample size</i>	5,314	2,683	4,766	12,763

Base: all dwellings

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

3.13 The owner occupied sector had the highest proportion of homes that required no repairs (41%) compared with other tenures, particularly local authority homes (24%). The private rented sector had the largest proportion of properties needing repair works in excess of £35/m² (18%), which included 8% of homes with costs over £65/m², Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2: Standardised basic repair costs, by tenure, 2012



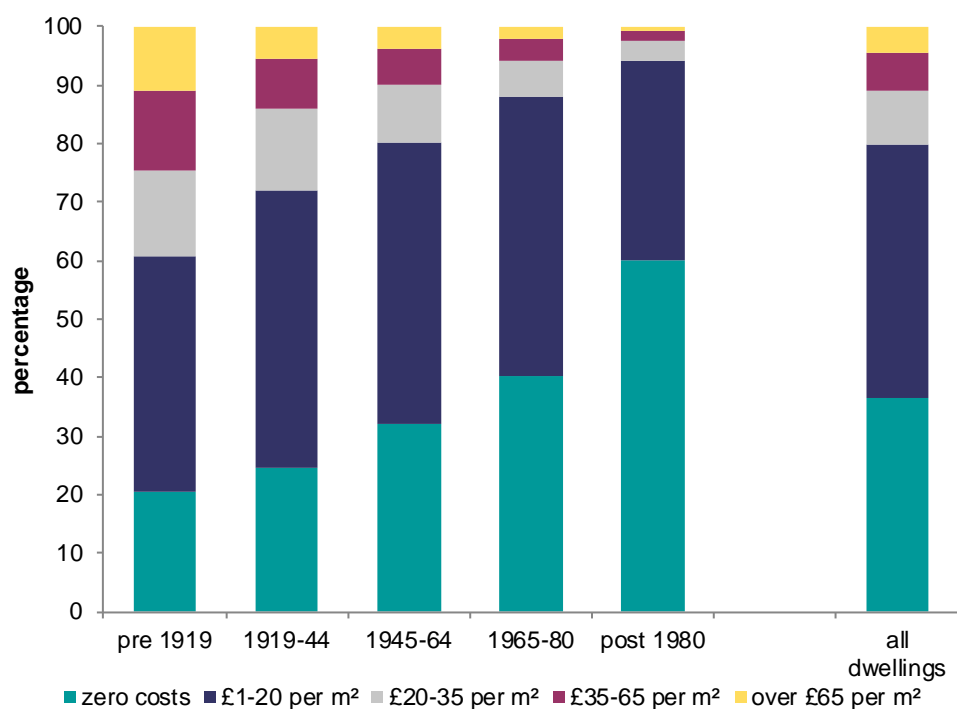
Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.2

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

3.14 Not surprisingly, dwelling age also had a significant impact on repair costs. Properties built after 1980 had the largest proportion of homes with zero repair costs (60%) and the smallest proportion of repairs over £35/m² (3%). Properties built before 1919 had the largest proportion of the highest repair costs with a quarter (25%) of these properties needing repairs costing more than £35/m², including 11% with costs over £65/m², Figure 3.3

Figure 3.3: Standardised basic repair costs, by dwelling age, 2012



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 2012

3.15 The following analysis examines overall changes in the amount of disrepair in the stock since 2001, highlighting which tenures and ages of dwellings have seen the greatest and least improvement. The analysis uses the basic standardised repair costs (£/m²) converted to 2001 prices using the Building Cost Information Service (BCIS) National Index³. This rebasing of costs to 2001 allows for comparative analysis of repair costs to be made over time, since it removes the impact of building cost inflation/ deflation. As annual change in the level of disrepair arises from random fluctuations related to sampling and measurement effects, the section focuses on overall trends from 2001 onwards rather than annual differences.

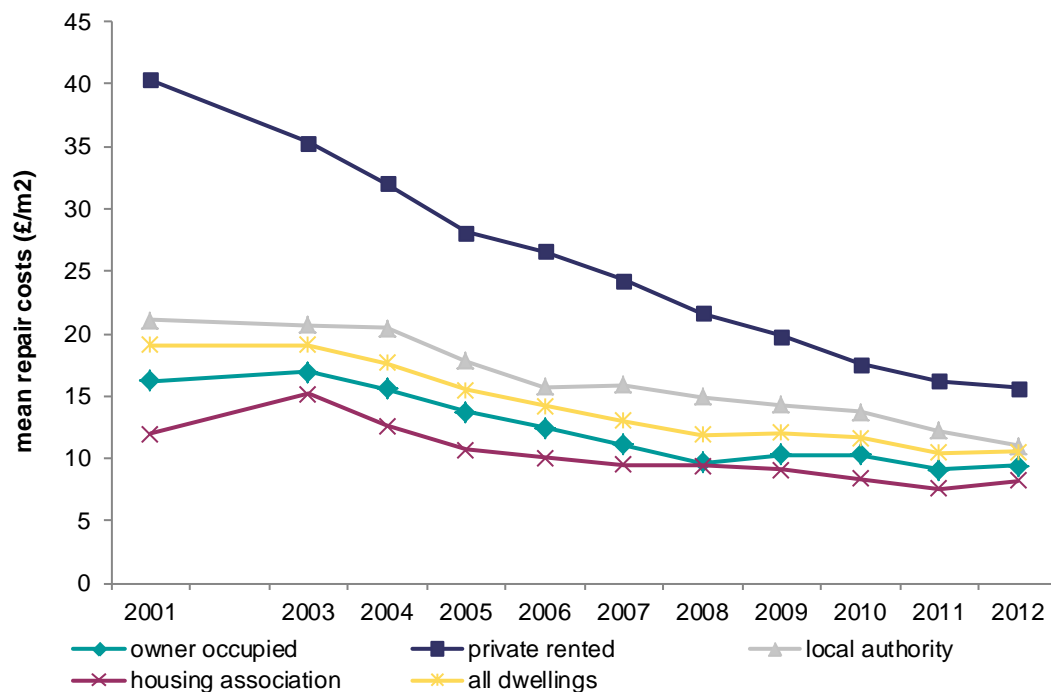
3.16 Since 2001, the average basic repair cost for all tenures reduced from £19/m² to £11/m², suggesting that there have been general improvements in how dwellings have been maintained over time, Figure 3.4.

3.17 The largest reduction in average repair costs occurred in the private rented sector, where costs fell by over 50% from £40/m² to £16/m², although it is important to note that average repair costs have always been significantly higher for these homes. Average repair costs fell far less sharply for housing

³ The 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.

association homes for most of this period, but disrepair has always been lower in this sector owing to it having a larger proportion of newer homes, Figure 3.4.

Figure 3.4: Mean basic standardised repair costs, by tenure, 2001-2012



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.3

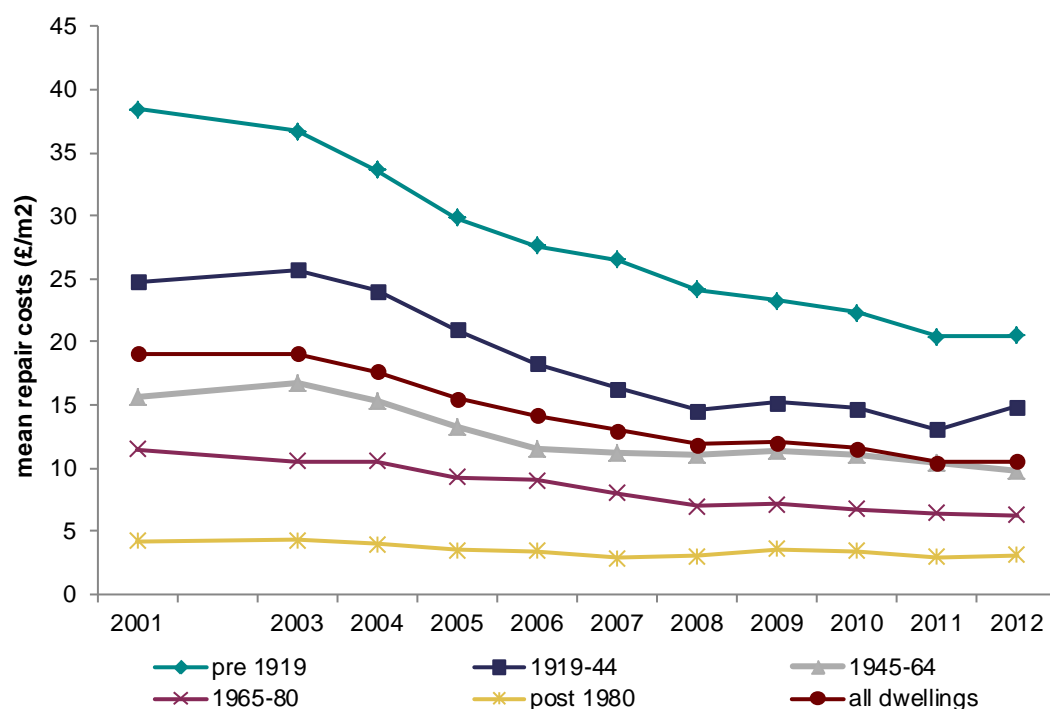
Sources:

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

2008 onwards: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

3.18 Dwellings built before 1919 had a marked fall in average repair costs between 2001 and 2012, falling from £38/m² to £21/m², although repair costs for these older dwellings continue to be much higher compared with newer homes. There was very little change over time to the repair cost for dwellings built after 1980 where levels of disrepair in 2012 were not significantly different to those in 2001, Figure 3.5.

Figure 3.5: Mean basic standardised repair costs, by dwelling age, 2001-2012



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 Damp, cold housing encourages the growth of mould and mites. Mites feed on moulds and both can increase the risk of respiratory illnesses in some people if left untreated. Damp may also have a negative impact on the fabric of the dwelling, leading to its rapid deterioration and the development of additional problems that increase the costs of repair.

3.20 This section first examines the prevalence of any damp in different types of households and how this may vary according to the tenure of the home. It then investigates the prevalence of the three types of damp that can present in homes (rising damp, penetrating damp, serious condensation and mould growth, Figure 3.6) and how the prevalence of these has changed over time. Finally it examines the prevalence of any damp over time within the whole stock and by tenure.

Figure 3.6: Homes with different types of damp



Top left: condensation and mould growth, caused by a mixture of inadequate heating and lack of room ventilation

Top right: rising damp caused by water from the ground which has entered the brickwork

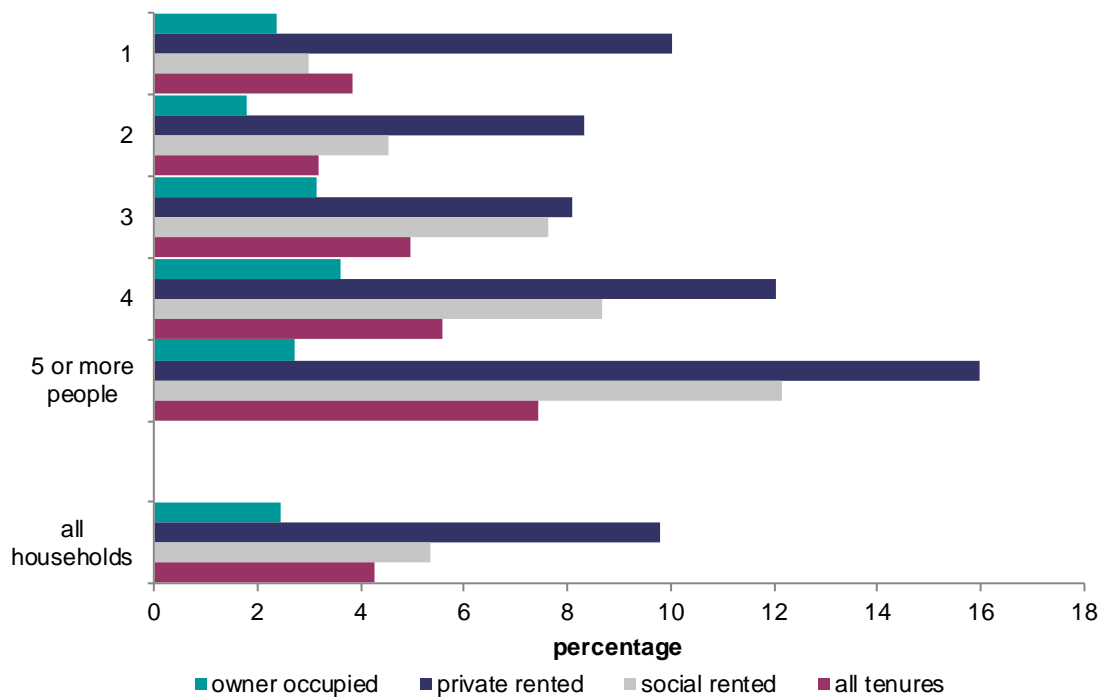
Bottom: penetrating damp caused by water entering the pointing of the walls and cracks in the masonry

Source: BRE photo library

Additional data on the prevalence of any damp by different dwelling and household characteristics can be found in the web tables DA5101 to DA5103.

3.21 In 2012, 4% of households lived in a property with some form of damp. Generally, the larger the household, the greater the likelihood of living in a damp home. Higher levels of occupancy may increase the likelihood of condensation arising through, for example, the greater number of showers/baths taking place in the home. However, the position was somewhat complex with factors such as tenure interacting with findings on household size. Damp was, for example, far more common for all privately rented households, but damp was more evident among single private renters (10%) than private renters with 2 or 3 household members (8%). This would suggest that factors such as the degree of disrepair, the ability to heat a home and occupier lifestyles all play a part in determining the prevalence of damp, Figure 3.7.

Figure 3.7: Households living in dwellings with any damp problems, by household size, 2012



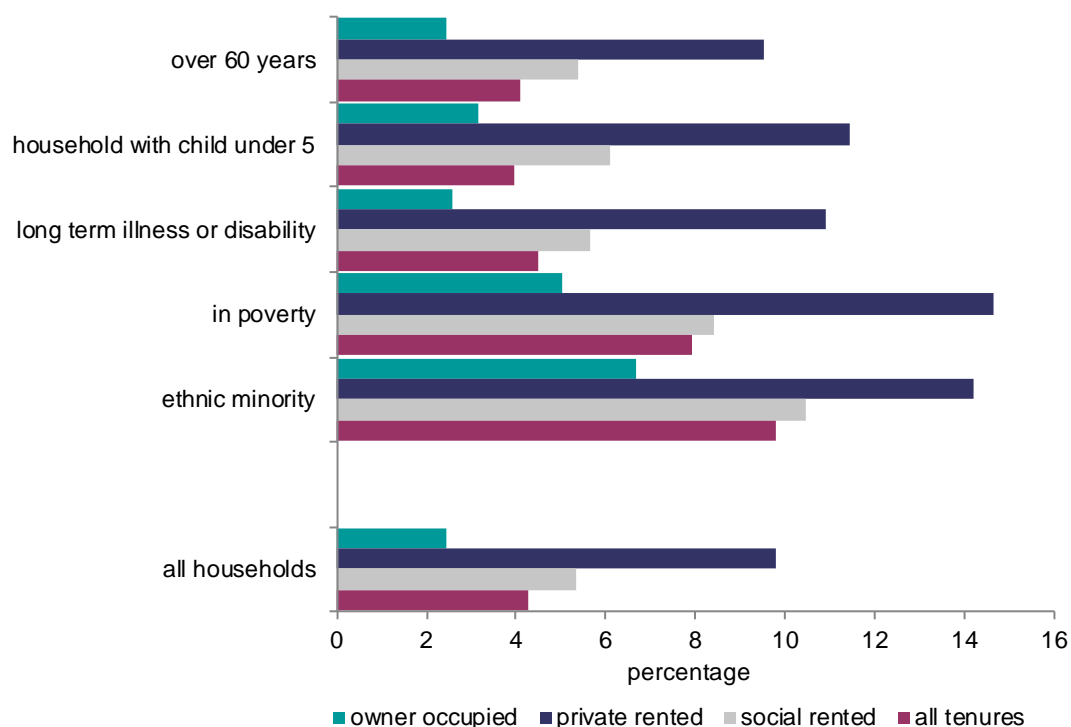
Base: all households

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.4

Source: English Housing Survey, household sub-sample

3.22 Many household groups who may be considered vulnerable on account of their age or long term illness or disability were no more likely to live in a damp home than all households in England (4%). However, households in relative poverty (8%) and ethnic minority households (10%) had a higher prevalence of damp. For all vulnerable groups, including those with very young children, the likelihood of living in a damp home was notably greater within private rented accommodation, Figure 3.8.

Figure 3.8: Households living in dwellings with any damp problems, by household groups, 2012



Base: all households

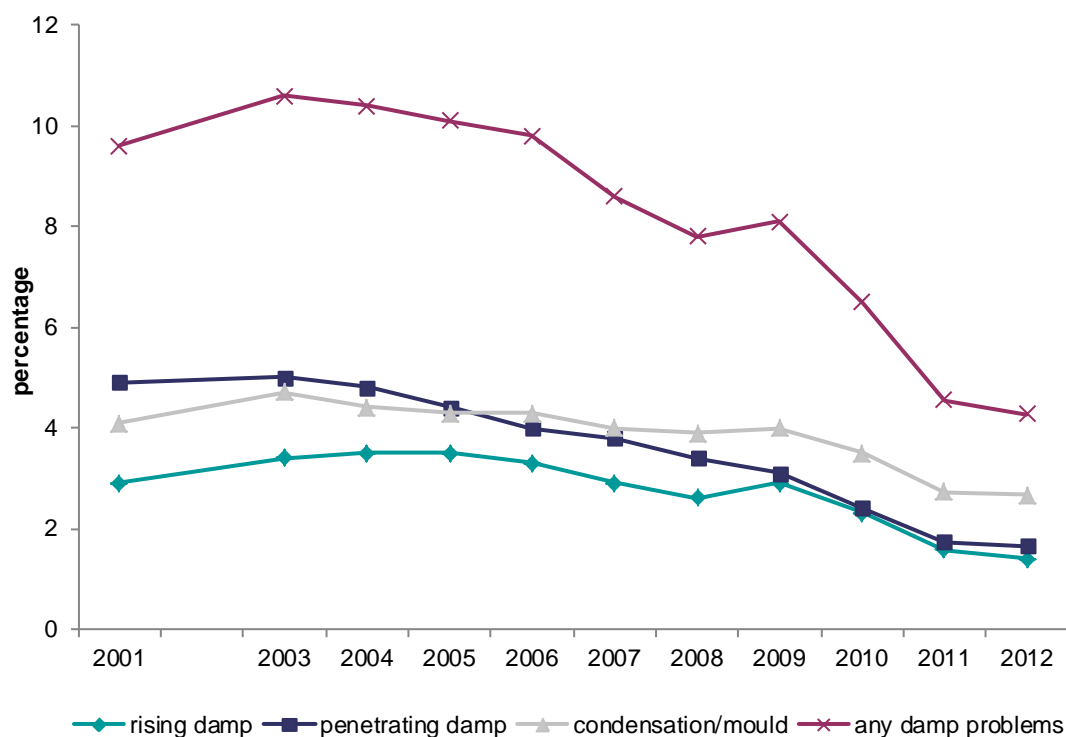
Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.4

Source: English Housing Survey, household sub-sample

Types of damp

- 3.23 In 2012, around 1.0 million (4%) of dwellings had some damp problems. The most common type of damp was serious condensation and mould growth, present in 3% of dwellings. The presence of penetrating damp and rising damp were less common (2% and 1% respectively), Figure 3.9.
- 3.24 From 2001, there was a decrease in the prevalence of all types of damp. The largest decrease was in the proportion of dwellings with penetrating damp, which was the most common form of damp in 2001, from 5%, to 2% in 2012. This reduction is likely to be due to the overall improvement in the maintenance of dwellings, Figure 3.9.

Figure 3.9: Trends in types of damp, 2001-2012



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.5

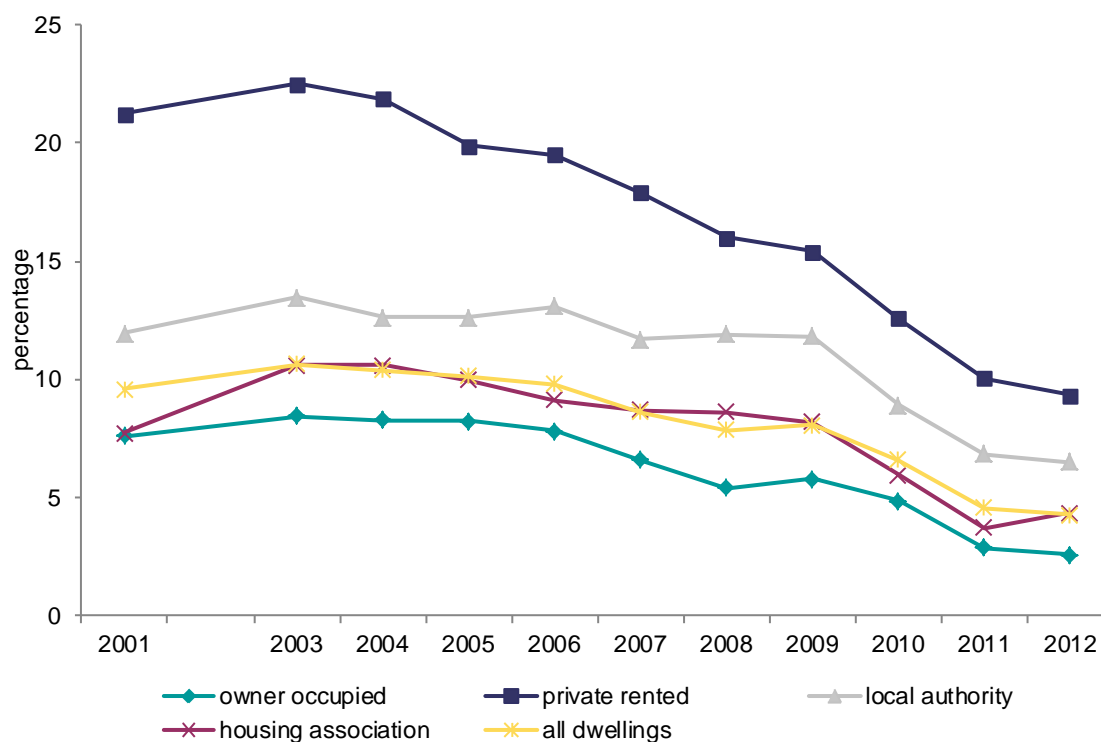
Sources:

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

2008 onwards: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

3.25 In 2012, 4% of dwellings had damp problems, down from 10% of dwellings in 2001. This decrease was largely driven by a large decrease in the proportion of privately rented dwellings having damp problems (from 21% to 9%), although the prevalence of damp problems remains higher in the private rented sector than in other tenures, Figure 3.10.

Figure 3.10: Trends in any type of damp, by tenure, 2001-2012



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.6

Sources:

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

2008 onwards: English Housing Survey

Electrical safety

3.26 All electrical systems have the potential to cause harm, and potential injuries include electrocution (non-fatal or fatal), electric shock and burns. This section examines the prevalence of five key areas of electrical safety⁴ within the whole stock and by tenure and then investigates whether the provision of these has changed over time⁵.

3.27 In 2012, virtually all homes, irrespective of tenure (97-98%) had modern PVC wiring throughout. In addition, some 93% of homes had modern earthing wires. This latter provision was higher among social sector homes (96-97%), Annex Table 3.7.

3.28 Some 72% of homes had modern consumer units, comprising one or two accessible boxes designed to receive overload and personal protection

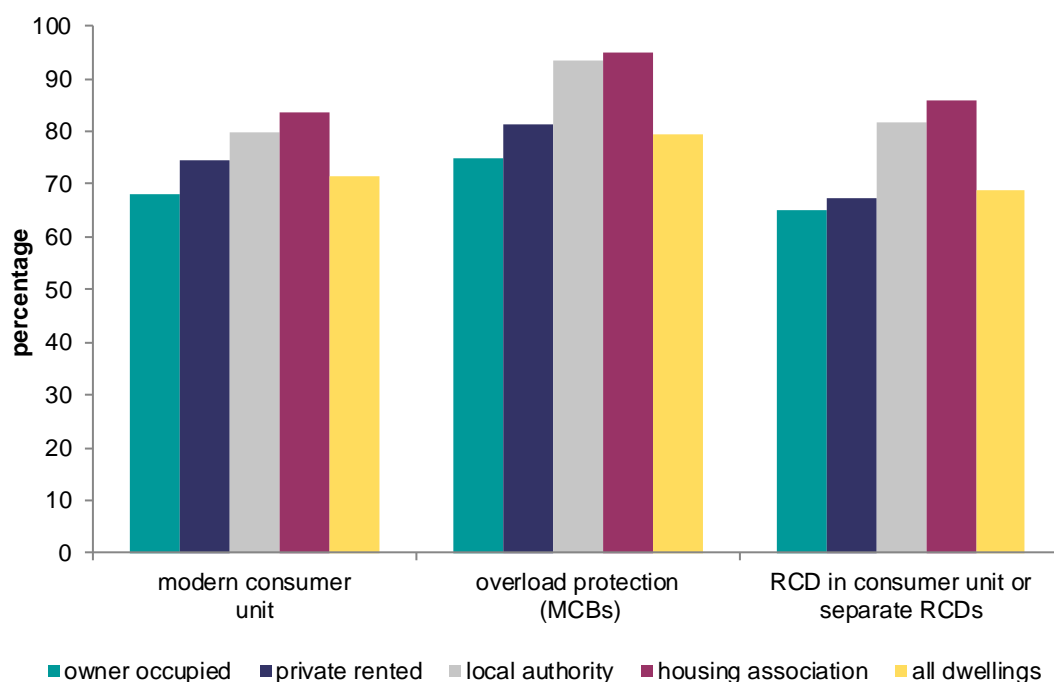
⁴ Modern PVC wiring, modern earthing, modern consumer boxes, miniature circuit breakers and residual current devices

⁵ 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

devices, various timers or off-peak supply controllers. The most modern form of overload protection, Miniature Circuit Breakers (MCBs) were evident in 79% of homes. Residual Current Devices (RCDs), which break electrical circuits when an ‘abnormality’ is detected such as a person touching a live wire, were found in 69% of homes, Annex Table 3.7.

3.29 The provision of modern consumer units, MCBs and RCDs varied by tenure. Among private sector homes, electrical safety provision was generally higher for privately rented homes compared with owner occupied homes⁶. This is probably due to legislation placing obligations on landlords to ensure that electrical systems and supplied electrical appliances are safe⁷. Provision of these safety features was higher among social rented homes, particularly in relation to MCBs and RCDs, Figure 3.11.

Figure 3.11: Modern consumer units and electrical circuit protection, by tenure, 2012



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.7

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

3.30 Interestingly, vacant homes had a similar provision of electrical safety features to occupied homes. For example, RCDs were present in 72% of empty homes and 69% of occupied homes, and all five safety features were present in 57% of empty homes and 54% of occupied homes, Annex Table 3.8.

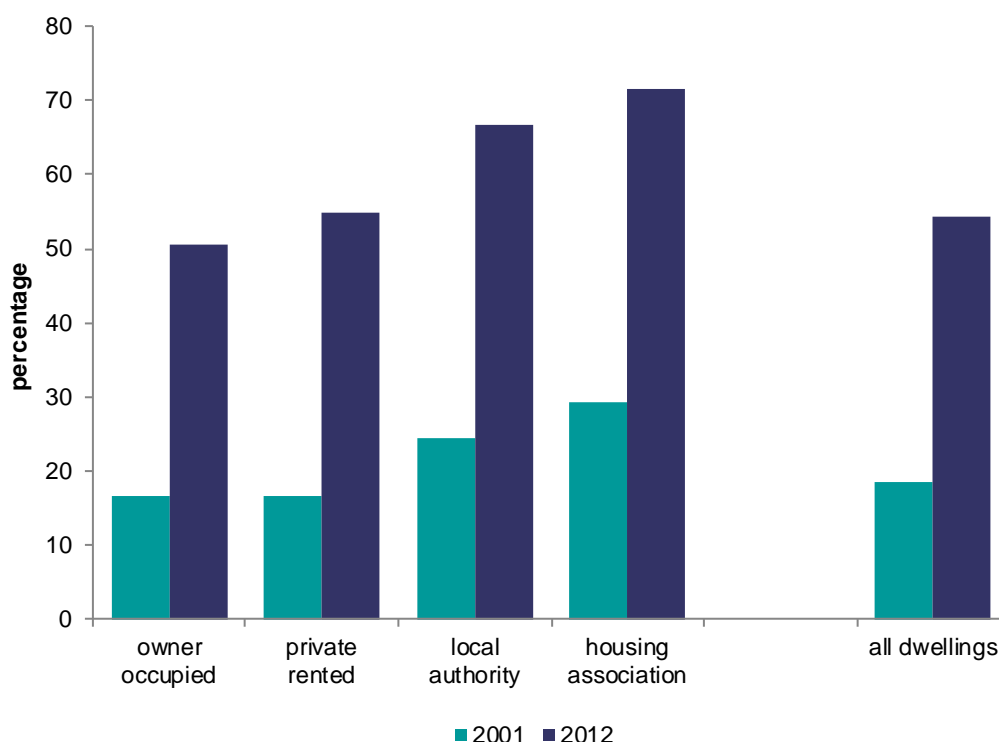
⁶ The difference in the provision of RCDs within the private sector was not statistically significant

⁷ 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.

3.31 Just over half of all homes (54%) had all five safety features in 2012 highlighting the large remaining scope for improvement within the stock. There was, however, a significant rise in the provision of all five safety features over time, from 19% in 2001. There was improved provision of all safety features except modern wiring (already high in 2001). The proportion of homes with modern consumer units rose from 32% in 2001 to 72% in 2012, and the provision of MCBs rose from 48% to 79% over the same period, Annex Table 3.7.

3.32 The overall improvement in the provision of all electrical safety measures was evident among all tenures, especially among social rented homes. The improvement in social sector is likely the result of modernisation work undertaken under the Decent Homes programme, Figure 3.12.

Figure 3.12: Dwellings with all five electrical safety measures, by tenure, 2001 and 2012



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.7

Sources:

2001: English House Condition Survey, dwelling sample;

2012: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

Housing Health and Safety Rating System (HHSRS)

3.33 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 HHSRS⁸.

- 3.34 In 2012, 3.1 million dwellings (14%) had at least one Category 1 hazard, with around 500,000 (2%) homes having two or more of these hazards. The most common types of such hazards were falls (on stairs, between levels, on the level and those associated with baths), affecting 1.8 million (8%) dwellings, followed by excess cold present in around 1.0 million homes (5%). Other Category 1 hazards were far less common within the housing stock: around 600,000 (3%) dwellings had Category 1 hazards relating to one or more of the other 21 hazards covered by the survey, Annex Table 3.9.
- 3.35 The private rented sector was most likely to have any Category 1 hazard (19%), in contrast with only 7% of dwellings in the social rented sector. These findings are partly linked to the differences in tenure stock profiles, for example, the social sector has a higher proportion of newer homes and purpose built flats, which are less likely to have Category 1 hazards.
- 3.36 Category 1 hazards were more prevalent in older dwellings. Homes built before 1919 had by far the highest proportion of these hazards (31%). The higher prevalence of Category 1 hazards in the oldest dwellings is not surprising given the relatively poor level of insulation in many of these older homes combined with the fact that they are more likely to have a steep or winding staircase. Older homes were also more likely to have higher levels of disrepair, which will affect a number of other hazards such as damp and mould growth.
- 3.37 Converted flats (26%) and terraced houses (17-18%) had a higher rate of Category 1 hazards compared with other types of dwelling, particularly high rise (10%) and low rise (6%) purpose built flats.

Changes over time

- 3.38 This section examines overall changes in any Category 1 hazards within the housing stock since 2008⁹. These findings need to be considered with some caution since annual changes in Category 1 hazards may arise from random fluctuations related to sampling effects and a degree of surveyor variability is to be expected for HHSRS assessments. Furthermore, the methodology to model Category 1 excess cold was changed in 2010.

⁸ Surveyors working on the EHS receive extensive training and support to help ensure their HHSRS assessments are consistent and robust (see chapter 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

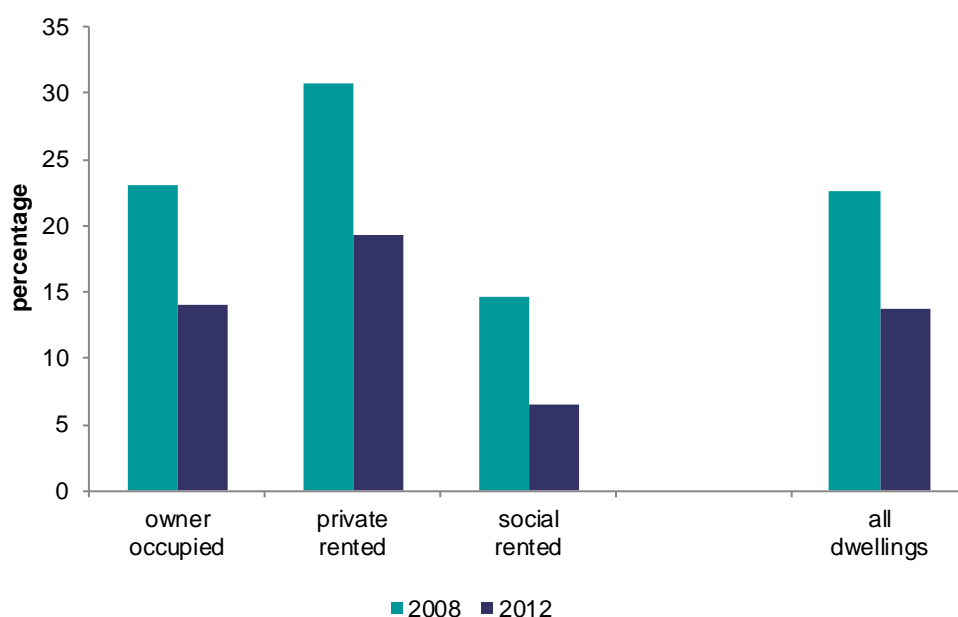
https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/211310/Surveyor_variability.pdf

⁹ 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.

3.39 There was a marked decrease in the prevalence of any Category 1 hazards from 2008 to 2012 (from 23% to 14%). Improvement was evident for all tenures. Even though the social rented sector had the lowest prevalence of Category 1 hazards in 2008, the proportion of these homes with these hazards has fallen by 55%, from 15% to 7%, Figure 3.13. This apparent decrease in Category 1 hazards for all tenures is likely due to a combination of factors.

- Action by councils, homeowners and landlords to improve energy efficiency in dwellings which have positively impacted on remedying excess cold hazards within the stock.
- Works associated with the Decent Homes programme in the social sector, which have not only improved energy efficiency but mitigated other hazards such as those associated with falls, domestic and personal hygiene and electrical safety.
- Local authority enforcement action against private landlords where serious hazards exist.
- Local housing renewal programmes.

Figure 3.13: Any Category 1 hazard, by tenure, 2008 and 2012



Base: all dwellings

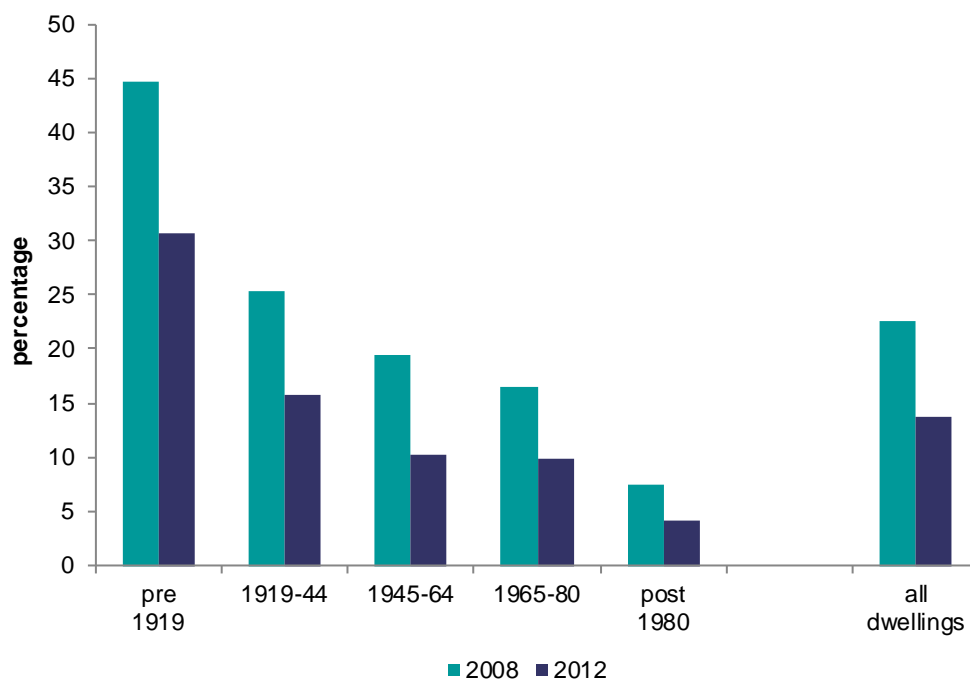
Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.10

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

3.40 Improvement was also evident among all types of dwellings, most notably among converted flats, which were predominant in the private rented sector. The prevalence of any Category 1 hazards for these homes fell from 40% to 26%, Annex Table 3.10. All ages of dwellings also had a lower prevalence of

Category 1 hazards in 2012 compared with 2008. Although the oldest homes built before 1919 saw marked improvement over this period, a fall in the prevalence of hazards from 45% to 31%, these homes continue to perform relatively poorly compared with more modern homes, Figure 3.14.

Figure 3.14: Any Category 1 hazard, by dwelling age, 2008 and 2012



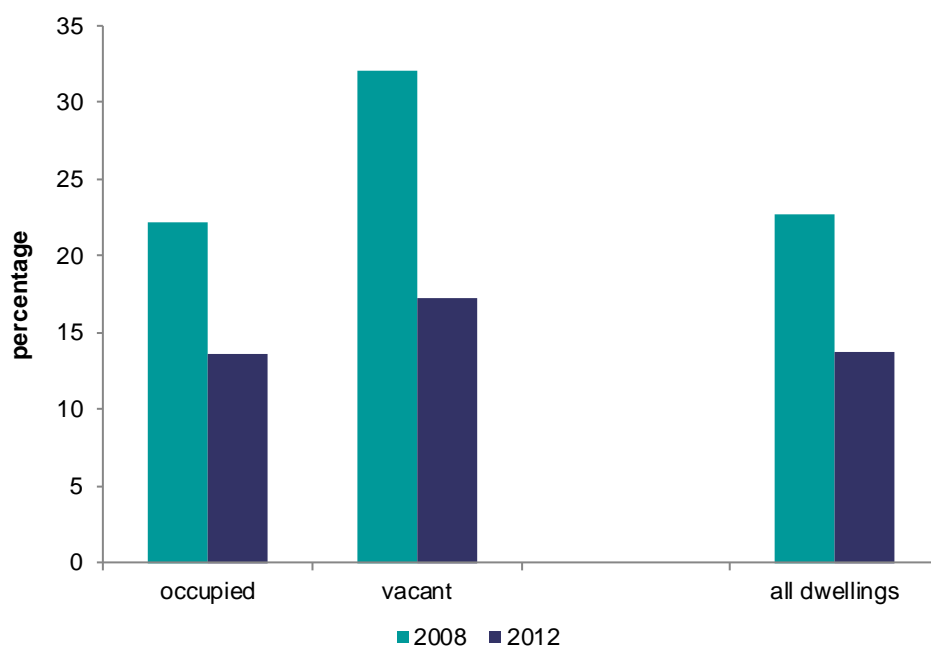
Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.10

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

3.41 Although the prevalence of Category 1 hazards decreased for both occupied and vacant dwellings between 2008 and 2012, vacant dwellings were most improved (from 32% to 17%). This has resulted in a narrowing gap between vacant dwellings and occupied homes in 2012 in terms of the relative prevalence of the most serious hazards, Figure 3.15.

Figure 3.15: Any Category 1 hazard, by vacancy, 2008 and 2012



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.10

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

Decent Homes

3.42 Improvement and remedial work required to meet specified standards of decency not only improves the housing conditions of people living in these homes, it may also have additional benefits such as reduced carbon emissions through improved energy efficiency and the mitigation of any HHSRS hazards that may exist.

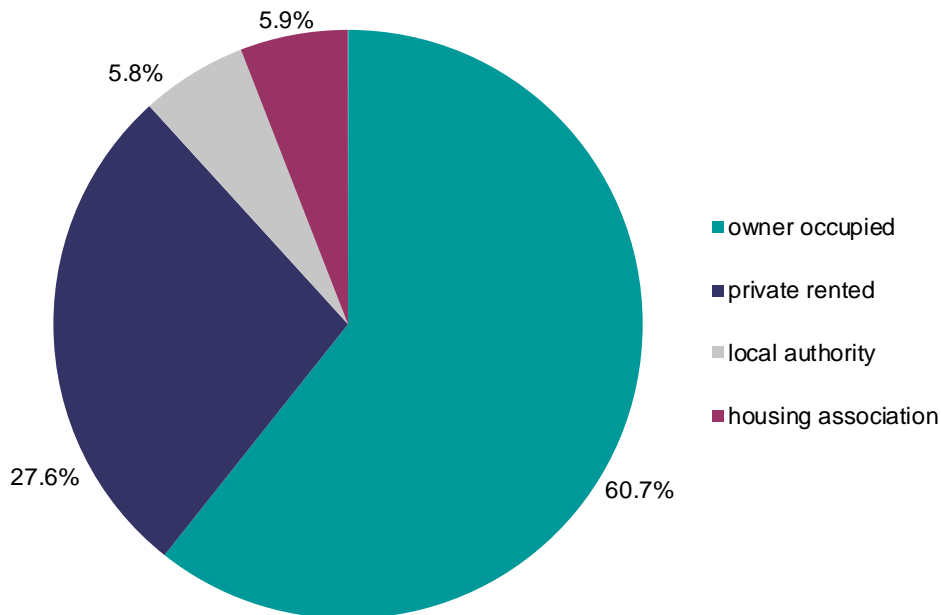
3.43 This section examines the prevalence of non-decent dwellings within the English housing stock in 2012, and the reasons for non-decency. It then looks at those households most likely to live in a non-decent home and how this likelihood varied by tenure. Finally, the section examines the prevalence of non-decency over time. Additional information of the prevalence of non-decent homes among different dwellings and households can be found in web tables DA3201 to DA3203.

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

3.44 In 2012, around 4.9 million homes (22% of all dwellings) failed to meet the Decent Homes standard. Of these, 88% were in the private sector (61% in owner occupied sector and 28% in the private rented sector), Figure 3.16

Figure 3.16: Non-decent homes, by tenure, 2012



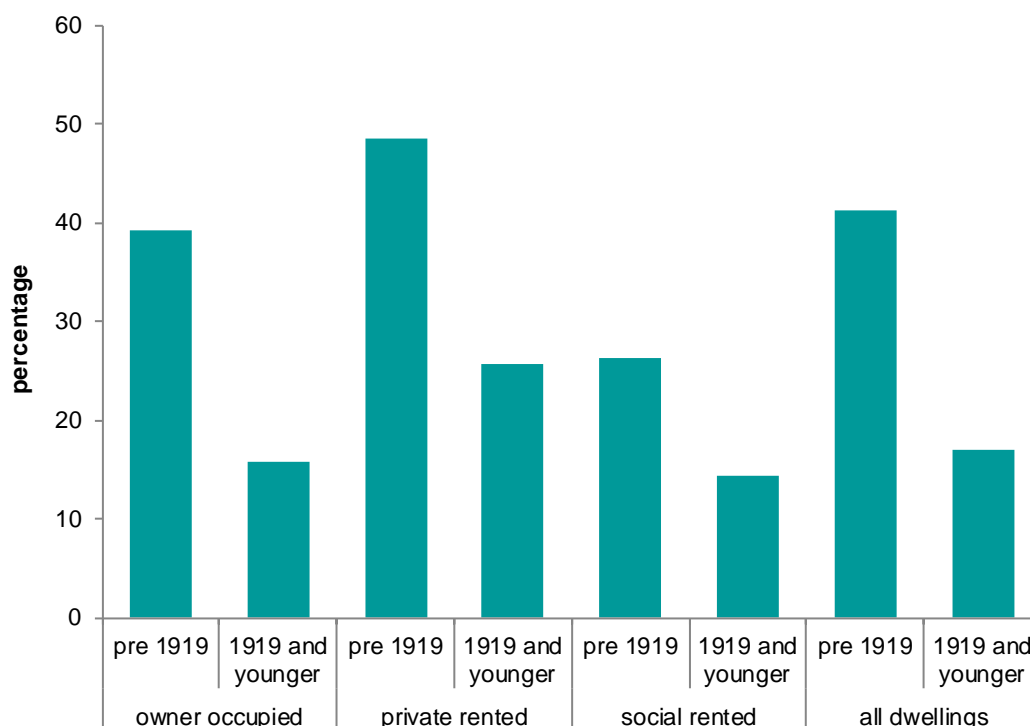
Base: all non-decent dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.11

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

3.45 Older dwellings built before 1919 were most likely to fail the Decent Homes standard (41%). This finding was evident among all tenures. The private rented sector had the highest proportion of non-decent homes built before 1919 (49%), Figure 3.17.

Figure 3.17: Non-decent homes, by dwelling age and tenure, 2012



Base: all dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.12

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

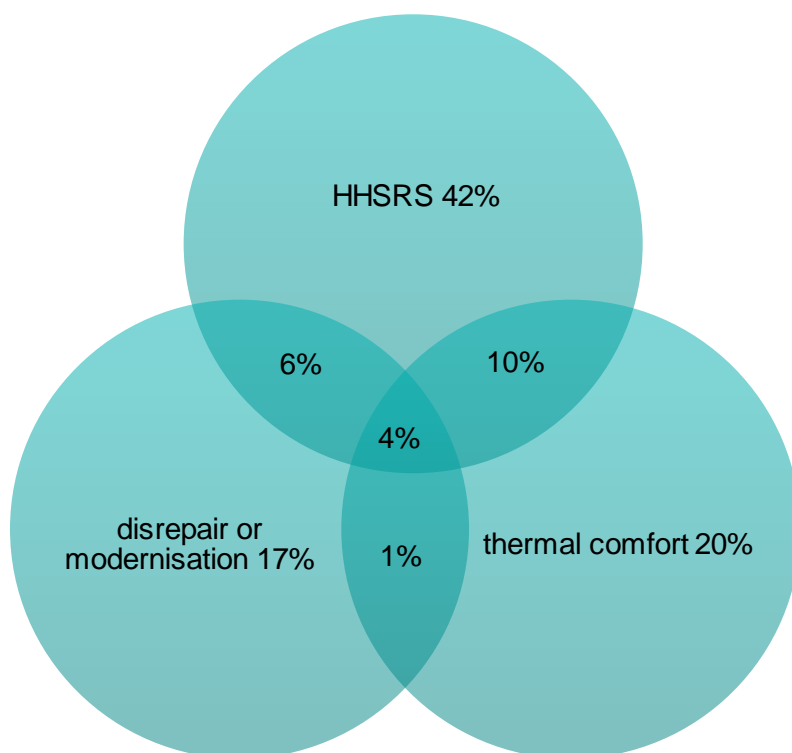
- 3.46 Converted flats were also more likely to fail the Decent Homes standard (39%). This is related to their age as most were built before 1919. A higher proportion of vacant dwellings (28%) were non-decent compared with occupied dwellings (21%), reflecting higher levels of disrepair and Category 1 HHSRS hazards among empty homes, Annex Table 3.13.
- 3.47 There was no clear correlation between non-decency and areas of deprivation. Similar rates of non-decency were found for all areas, with the exception of the least deprived 20% of areas where 15% of homes were non-decent.
- 3.48 Ethnic minority households and households in relative poverty were more likely to live in non-decent housing. A quarter of households with an ethnic minority HRP (25%) lived in non-decent homes compared with 21% of white households, Annex Table 3.14
- 3.49 Ethnic minority households in the private rented sector were more likely to live in a home that failed the Decent Homes standard (34%) than ethnic minority households who lived in the social rented sector (17%), Annex Table 3.15.
- 3.50 Some 26% of households in relative poverty lived in non-decent homes compared with households not in poverty (21%), Annex Table 3.14. Again,

these households were more likely to live in non-decent homes if privately renting (38%), Annex Table 3.16.

Reasons for non-decency

- 3.51 Of the 4.9 million homes that failed the Decent Homes standard, the most common reason for non-decency was the presence of any Category 1 HHSRS hazard, found in 3.0 million homes (61% of all non-decent homes). Failure to meet the thermal comfort criterion was the next common reason, present in 1.7 million homes (35% of non-decent homes). Some 1.1 million homes failed to meet the disrepair component (22% of non-decent homes) and 380,000 homes (8% of non-decent homes) failed due to the lack of modern facilities¹⁰, Annex Table 3.17.
- 3.52 Whilst the vast majority of non-decent homes failed to meet the standard on one criterion, a fifth (21%) of these homes failed to meet two or more of the criteria¹¹, Figure 3.18.

Figure 3.18 Reason for failing Decent Homes standard, 2012



Base: all non-decent dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.18

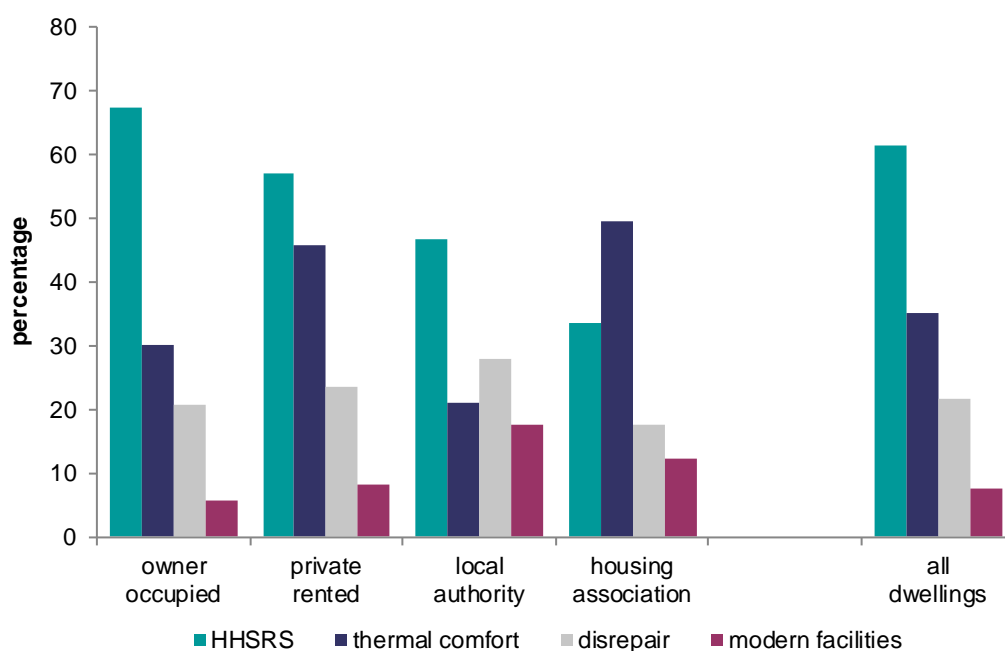
Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

¹⁰ Percentages do not sum to 100% as dwellings can be non-decent due to failing more than 1 criterion

¹¹ As the sample size for dwellings failing all four criteria is small, the modernisation and disrepair criteria have been combined to form a single criterion.

3.53 The reasons for failing the Decent Homes standard varied across different tenures. The pattern of failure was similar for owner occupied and private rented non-decent housing and to the non-decent stock as a whole. Although the housing association sector contains a higher proportion of newer homes, these findings show the marked potential for installing or improving insulation within this sector and among private rented homes, Figure 3.19.

Figure 3.19: Reason for failing Decent Homes standard, by tenure, 2012



Base: all non-decent dwellings

Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.19

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

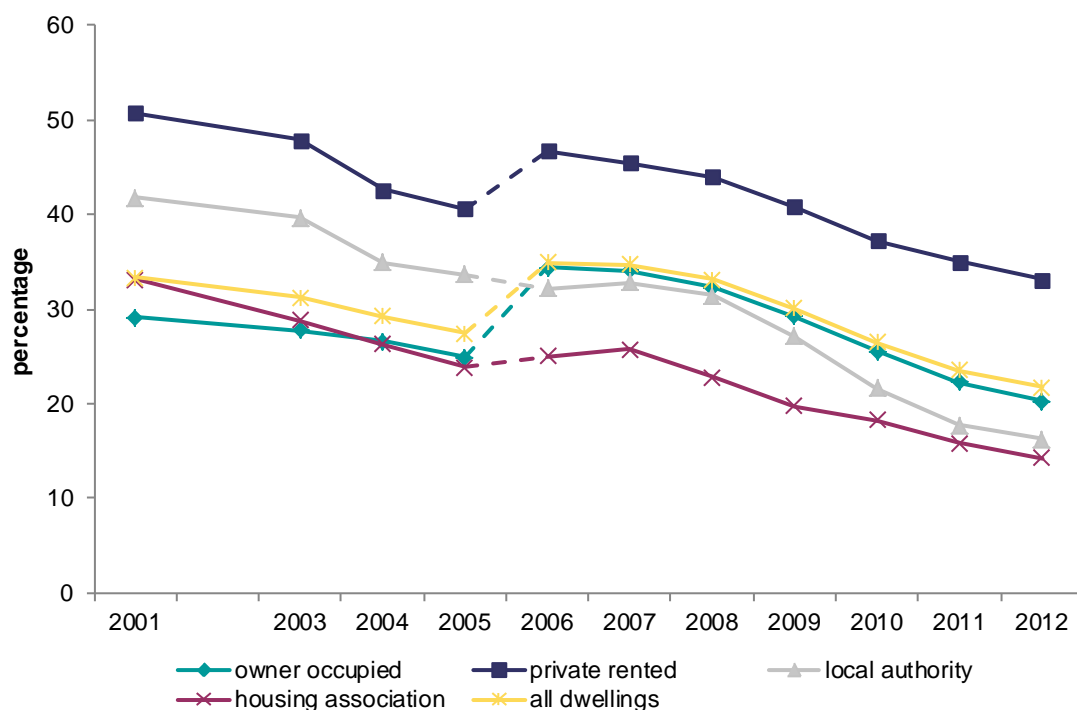
Trends over time

3.54 For this analysis, it is not possible to produce consistent Decent Homes timeline back to 2001 as the definition of Decent Homes was updated in 2006, when the HHSRS replaced the former Fitness Standard as a statutory criterion of decency. Nonetheless, the proportion of dwellings failing the Decent Homes standard reduced across the whole housing stock from 33% in 2001 to 27% in 2005. Since 2006, when 35% of all dwellings failed the updated standard under the revision definition, the rate of non-decency has decreased more steadily to 22% in 2012, Figure 3.20.

3.55 As the social housing sector was required to meet set standards of decency by 2010, it is not surprising that the local authority stock showed the greatest reduction in the proportion of non-decent homes over this period, falling from 32% in 2006 to 16% in 2012. Although less improvement was seen among housing association homes (an 11 percentage point reduction) over the same period, non-decency was far less common among these homes in 2006 (25% falling to 14% in 2012). Despite reductions in the prevalence of non-decency

over time (from 47% in 2006 to 33% in 2012), privately rented homes continued to have the highest rates of non-decency in 2012, Figure 3.20.

Figure 3.20: Dwellings failing the Decent Homes standard, by tenure, 2001-2012



Base: all dwellings

Notes:

- 1) from 2006 - Decent Homes model incorporated HHSRS instead of unfitness
- 2) 2010 - uses SAP09 instead of SAP05
- 3) underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.20

Sources:

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

Summary of poor housing conditions

This section summarises the prevalence of four key measures of poor housing examined in this chapter: substantial disrepair¹², serious damp and mould, Category 1 HHSRS hazards and non-decent. The second part of this section examines the prevalence of multiple poor housing conditions given that these problems co-exist for a significant number of dwellings.

3.56 Table 3.3 provides information of the prevalence of each of these four housing conditions by dwelling and location characteristics. Given the previous findings in this chapter, it is not surprising that private rented homes performed worse for all four poor housing measures compared with all other tenures. Within the social sector housing association dwellings were least

¹² Basic standardised repair costs of over £35m².

likely to have each of these problems compared with local authorities, with the exception of non-decency. This finding likely reflects the greater proportion of newer built homes among housing association homes.

- 3.57 Not surprisingly, vacant dwellings had a higher prevalence of these problems than occupied dwellings, with the exception of serious dampness, where the difference was not statistically significant. This difference was particularly evident in respect to serious disrepair (26% compared with 10% respectively).
- 3.58 The oldest homes were far more likely to have each poor housing indicator than other homes. Given that converted flats and homes in city and rural areas had a relatively higher concentration of these oldest homes, it is not surprising that these homes also performed relatively worse for all key measures compared with other types of homes and those in suburban areas.
- 3.59 There was no clear correlation between the degree of deprivation and poor housing conditions. However, there was a marked contrast between homes in the least deprived areas and those in the most deprived areas. For example, 6% of dwellings in the least deprived areas were in substantial disrepair, compared with 16% in the most deprived areas, Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Housing condition problems, by dwelling characteristics, 2012

all dwellings

	any Category 1 hazard	non-decent	damp in one or more rooms	substantial disrepair	sample size
	<i>percentages</i>				
tenure					
owner occupied	14.1	20.3	2.6	9.3	5,314
private rented	19.3	33.1	9.3	18.4	2,683
local authority	7.9	16.3	6.5	11.8	2,280
housing association	5.4	14.3	4.4	8.2	2,486
type of vacancy					
occupied	13.6	21.5	4.2	10.3	12,269
vacant	17.2	28.1	5.8	25.9	494
dwelling age					
pre 1919	30.7	41.3	10.1	24.7	2,109
1919-44	15.8	25.4	5.3	14.2	1,936
1945-64	10.2	17.7	2.8	10.0	3,044
1965-80	9.9	18.7	2.5	5.7	2,904
1981-90	6.3	17.9	2.7	4.4	1,096
post 1990	2.9	2.8	0.7	1.5	1,674
dwelling type					
small terraced house	18.2	29.1	6.9	16.7	1,323
medium/large terraced house	16.5	25.0	6.6	13.9	2,356
semi-detached house	13.5	20.1	2.6	11.4	2,985
detached house	13.4	15.7	1.6	5.9	1,506
bungalow	12.3	17.7	2.2	9.0	1,189
converted flat	25.6	38.9	11.6	24.6	476
purpose built flat, low rise	6.0	20.5	5.1	7.3	2,550
purpose built flat, high rise	10.4	24.8	3.3	4.3	378
area type					
city and other urban centres	18.4	28.7	8.0	15.4	2,922
suburban residential areas	10.2	17.7	3.1	9.7	7,985
rural areas	21.0	28.4	4.2	10.8	1,856
deprived local area					
most deprived 20% of areas	14.7	24.4	7.3	15.7	3,904
2nd	15.2	23.6	5.6	12.5	2,652
3rd	16.2	24.7	4.5	12.2	2,234
4th	14.4	21.5	2.6	9.2	2,055
least deprived 20% of areas	8.5	14.9	1.4	5.8	1,918
all dwellings	13.7	21.8	4.3	11.0	12,763

Base: all dwellings

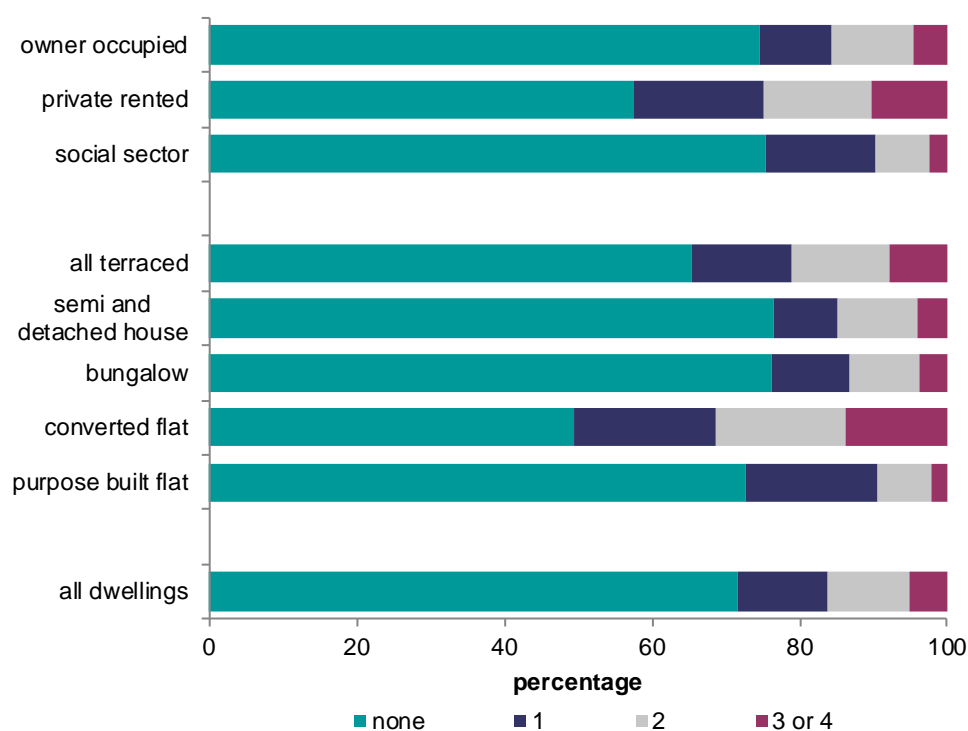
Note: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.21

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

Dwellings with multiple poor housing conditions

- 3.60 Using the above indicators of poor housing, this section examines the prevalence of multiple poor housing problems, as these problems do not always exist in isolation.
- 3.61 Overall, 16.3 million homes (72%) in England did not have any of the key poor housing measures. Some 2.7 million homes (12 %) had one poor housing measure, 2.5 million (11 %) had two measures and around 1.2 million 5% had three or four poor housing measures, Figure 3.21.
- 3.62 Whilst a similar proportion of social rented and owner occupied homes (25%) had some measure of poor housing, some 42% of privately rented homes had some form of poor housing. Furthermore, privately rented homes were far more likely to have multiple condition problems, for example, 10% of these homes had 3 or 4 problems compared with 5% of owner occupied homes and 2% of social rented homes.
- 3.63 Bungalows, semi-detached and detached houses had the highest proportion of dwellings with no poor housing indicators (76-77%). In contrast, around half of converted flats had one or more indicators of poor housing (51%). These homes were also more likely to have 3 or 4 poor housing indicators (14%) compared with all other types of homes, Figure 3.21.

Figure 3.21: Multiple poor housing problems, by tenure and dwelling type, 2012



Base: all dwellings

Notes: underlying data are presented in Annex Table 3.22

Source: English Housing Survey, dwelling sample

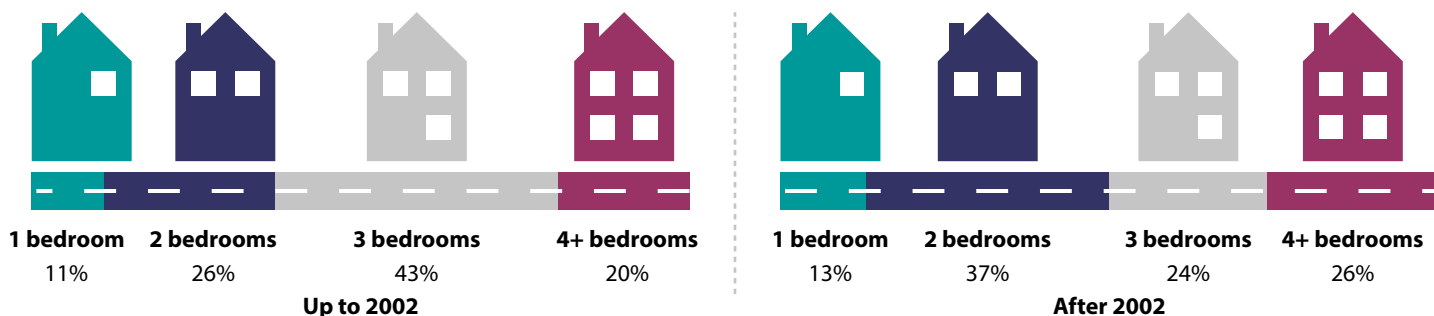
3.64 Around half of pre 1919 dwellings (51%) had one or more key poor housing measures. Newer dwellings generally had lower proportion of homes with any measure of poor housing. Vacant homes had a higher prevalence of 3 or 4 measures of poor housing (13%) than occupied homes (5%). The proportion of homes with 3 or 4 measures of poor housing was slightly higher for homes located in cities and urban areas (9%) and rural homes (7%) compared with suburban residential (4%), Annex Table 3.22.

Appendix A

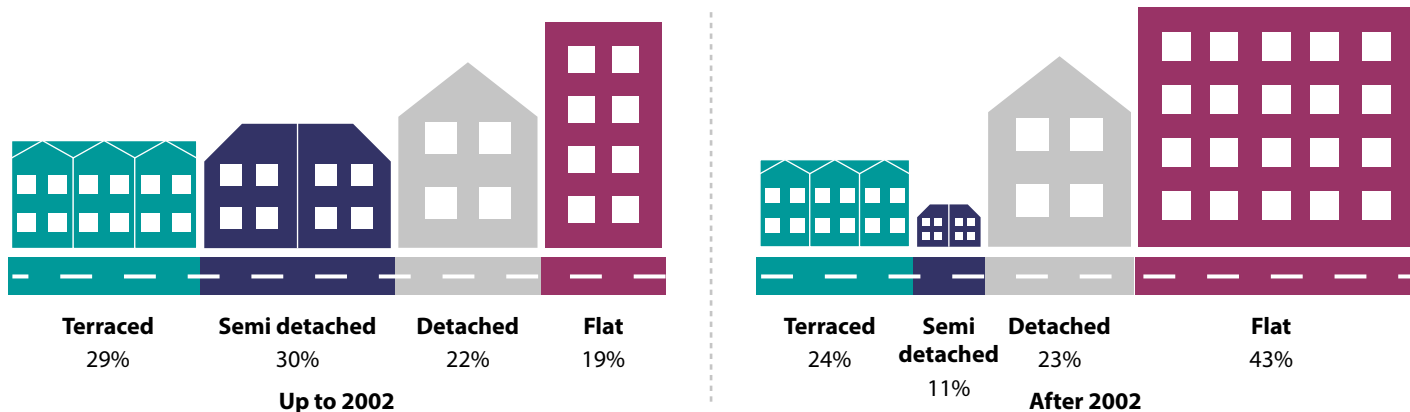
Infographics

Profile of English Housing

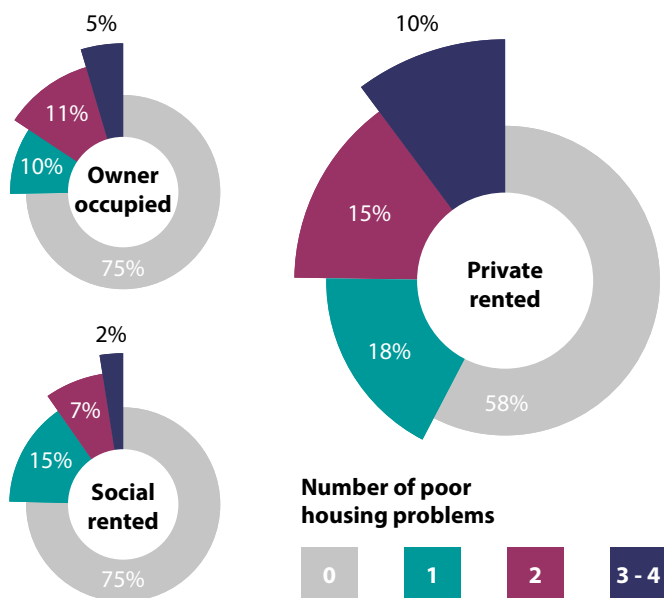
Number of bedrooms in dwellings built up to and including 2002 and after 2002



Type of dwellings built up to and including 2002 and after 2002



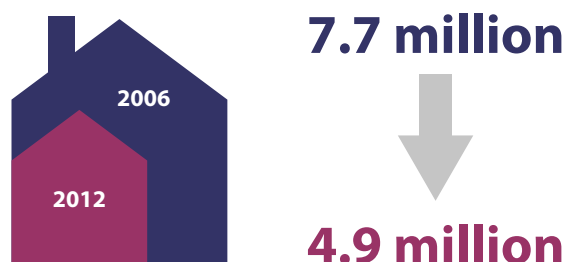
Poor housing problems are more prevalent in private rented homes



Between 2010 and 2012 the number of households with a water meter rose from 34% to 39%



The number of non-decent homes continued to decline from 35% in 2006 to 22% in 2012



Glossary

Accessibility features: The first four accessibility features listed below form the basis of the requirements in part M of the Building Regulations, 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. **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.
6. **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 where this feature exists.
7. **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 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.

Age: The date of construction of the oldest part of the building.

Area type:

- **city or other urban centre:** includes
 - *city centre:* the area around 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 metropolis.
- **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 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 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 2006¹.

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 Headline² and Annual³ Reports

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

¹ <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/a-decent-home-definition-and-guidance>

² <http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20121108165934/http://www.communities.gov.uk/publications/housing/ehcsheadline2006>

³ <http://webarchive.nationalarchives.gov.uk/20121108165934/http://www.communities.gov.uk/publications/corporate/statistics/ehcs2006annualreport>

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.

Double glazing: This covers factory made sealed window units only. It does not include windows with secondary glazing or external doors with double or secondary glazing (other than double glazed patio doors, which are surveyed as representing two windows).

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).
 - **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.

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.
- **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, replacing 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 the comparable threshold was recalculated to be 35.79 and the latter is used in providing statistics for the HHSRS Category 1 hazard.

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.

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

- **ethnic minority HRP:** where the respondent defines their ethnicity as something 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).
- **older people 60+:** a household that includes at least one person aged 60 or over.
- **child 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. This procedure increases 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) – may also include 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 assessment⁴ 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

⁴ <https://www.gov.uk/government/organisations/department-for-communities-and-local-government/series/housing-health-and-safety-rating-system-hhsrs-guidance>

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, for a list of the hazards covered.

Income/equivalised income: Household incomes have been 'equivalised', that is adjusted (using the modified OECD 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.

Off-peak electricity: This supply is identified by the presence of a multi-rate meter, and is able to provide discounted electricity tariffs during periods of reduced demand (such as at night). This can reduce the cost of heating for those with, for example, 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.

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.

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 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 of the Technical report for more information about how these are calculated and assumptions made.

Useable floor area: The total useable internal floor area of the dwelling as measured by the surveyor, rounded to the nearest square metre. It includes integral garages and integral balconies but excludes stores accessed from the outside only, the area under partition walls and the stairwell area. Dwellings are also grouped into the following five categories:

- less than 50m²
- 50 to 69m²
- 70 to 89m²
- 90 to 109m²
- 110m² or more.

Vacant dwellings: 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.

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'.

ISBN: 978-1-4098-4277-4