

National Analytical Study on Housing

RAXEN Focal Point for Italy

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Executive summary

Changes in the characteristics of immigration to Italy in the last ten years are producing important changes in the housing needs of migrants and public policy requires adjustments in order to provide lasting solutions. Research reports reviewed in this study have highlighted that while situations requiring emergency solutions like first stage reception centres still occur, current characteristics of immigration suggest that public policy in this area needs to focus increasingly on long-term and stable solutions to housing problems of migrants and low-income segments of the population.

Regional governments are directly responsible for housing policies, within a general framework defined by national legislation. One of the consequences of this decentralised housing policy is that, with reference to migrants, the Roma and refugees, different regions and autonomous provinces interpret and implement the national framework legislation in different ways. The study highlights how positive elements in the national legislation concerning migrants and housing have not been implemented accordingly by most regions. Some regions have introduced equal treatment in access to housing irrespective of nationality, following the 1998 Immigration Act that introduced the same principle at national level and others did so well before it was introduced in the national legislation. Some others have not reviewed the legislation on public residential housing which in many cases, date back to the early '90s, well before national law made provision for more favourable conditions for migrants. Others have introduced the principle of equal treatment mitigated by other strict conditionalities such as the principle of reciprocity. Indeed, the study points out how, through restrictive interpretations and in some cases, explicit violation of provisions of national laws, some regional, provincial and municipal authorities have introduced unlawful discriminatory criteria, regulations or procedures in access to housing, that substantially disadvantage non-EU migrants. The procedure adopted by the municipality of Milan to determine those who were eligible for public low-rent houses is a good example of this.

The immigration Act of 1998 took further steps to improve access to public housing by migrants. Firstly, it affirmed the principle of “equal treatment” for foreigners in “access to public services” (*article 2(5)*), albeit “within the limits and modalities defined by law”. It explicitly placed a duty on the “regions, provinces, municipal authorities and other local authorities” to take measures aimed at eliminating the obstacles that “hinder from enjoying full recognition of the rights and legitimate interests accorded to foreigners in the territory of the State, with particular reference to housing, language and social integration, in accordance with fundamental rights of the individual” (*article*

3(5)). In general, it opened up new opportunities for migrants in terms of access to housing and it moved public policy forward on the subject because not only did it provide for equality in access to public housing but also to credit facilities by extending to migrants the tax rebates granted those citizens who wish to buy a first home.

The position of Roma and Sinti populations with regard to housing is quite peculiar. There is a deeply rooted popular conviction in Italy that the Roma are “nomads” and do not like and/or are not used to living in fixed homes. This negative categorization of all Roma has, for decades, found its way into public policies towards this group, leading to a generalized approach to accommodation for them. Almost all regions and autonomous provinces have laws providing for “transit” camps for Roma minorities (both Italian and foreign). These camps are frequently located far away from the city centre, often close to a motorway or railway or to an industrial area not inhabited by non-Roma groups. They are ghettos, usually overcrowded and some do not have drinkable water and electricity within. The bigger these camps are, the greater the social alarm and hostility from residents of nearby quarters. In some cases, such camps are targets of racist campaigns to send the Roma away from the area and a recent campaign of this kind, led by a local leader of the Northern League party in Verona is currently under prosecution for incitement to racial hatred.

In general, it can be said that in spite of legal provisions that affirm the principle of equal treatment in access to public housing, migrants still face discrimination in this area, both in the public and private sectors. In spite of existing anti-discrimination laws and successful prosecution of some real estate agents, advertisement of houses on rent in many specialised journals still carry the specifications that “non-EU citizens are not accepted”. Estate agents who put in such adverts claim that they follow instructions from landlords. Others use very high rents to keep migrants away. The first successful application of the anti-discrimination provisions enacted in 1998 was in the case of a real estate agent who discriminated against an immigrant on grounds of nationality. Since then, other cases have successfully been brought against offenders, including an agency that operates only via the internet which did not write explicitly that non-EU migrants were not accepted but defined the search parameters, which included the nationality of the prospective client, in such a way that entry of a non-EU country automatically yielded no houses on offer.

The housing sector in Italy is characterized, among others, by a high percentage of families who own the houses where they live. According to Istat, data from both the 2001 census and surveys carried out in 2002, show that 72.8 percent of Italian families own the homes where they live, while

the percentage on rent is recorded as 18.7 percent. Among migrants, only about 5 percent nationwide own the homes where they live. Some cities like Milan have recorded averages of up to 8.9 percent of migrants home owners. According to the same source, the stock of houses on rent stood at about 4.2 million units and this is considered to be relatively small and it is said to have increased by only 6 percent during the period 1991 – 2001, while vacant houses or holiday homes remained stable at about 5.2 million or 19.6 percent of the total

Real estate prices increased, in the period from 2000 – 2002, by 18.2 percent partly as a result of an increase in sales in the same period of about 16.7 percent. Rents increased in a similar manner in the same period, in spite of a major reform of the sector carried out in 1998, which sought to liberalize rents, offer proprietors tax rebates as incentive to put more houses on the market for rent and support low-income families in order to secure houses on the market. Information from various sources shows that the private market remains the main source of houses for migrants.

A limited offer of houses for rent and high rents are not the only problems migrants have to face in this sector. The study has highlighted various instances of discrimination on grounds of nationality, ethnic or racial origin, both on the part of public and private institutions. A discrimination testing exercise carried out in Turin documented not only the frequency but also the most common modalities of discrimination used by estate agents to discriminate against migrants. The test found that some national groups seemed to be more discriminated than others and that nationality was more determining as ground of refusing to rent accommodation to a migrant than gender seemed to be, though, for the most discriminated national groups, there did not seem to be significant differences between men and women.

Reaction by public institutions and voluntary organisations to the difficulties encountered by migrants in securing houses on rent has revolves around the setting up of social agencies that act as intermediaries between landlords offering houses on rent and migrants in need. These agencies have been particularly effective in those places where landlords and estate agencies refuse to rent to migrants directly. Some of the first experiences of this type were initiated by NGOs and religious organisations working with migrants. An interesting evolution in this approach is that in some cases, these agencies act as intermediaries between migrants and credit institutions, thereby making it easier for migrants to qualify for mortgage to buy their own homes.

The issue of housing has not escaped being used as part of the anti-immigrant stance of some political parties. In October 2003, the Prefect of Milan convened a meeting of various institutions –

municipal authorities, employers' representatives, banks, voluntary associations etc. - in a bid to coordinate efforts towards solving the pressing need for houses faced by migrants. The minister of Reforms and leader of the Northern League party, Umberto Bossi, publicly criticised the initiative saying that "... there were no houses for migrants and there should be none for them. Houses should first be provided for citizens of *Lombardia* and not for the first "*bingo-bongo*" who came around". This comment was defined as racist by most national and international commentators and was severely criticised by NGOs and migrants' organisations.

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Glossary/definition of terms and concepts used

Discrimination is defined in general terms as any “behaviour which *directly or indirectly* causes distinction, exclusion, restriction or preference based on race, colour, ancestry, national or ethnic origin, religious belief or practice, having the aim or effect of destroying or hindering the recognition or exercise - under equal conditions – of fundamental human rights in the political, economic, social and cultural fields as well as in any other public sector” [Consolidated Act on the status of foreigners, Law nr. 286/1998; article 43.].

Direct discrimination: treating someone less favourably than another is, has been or would be treated in comparable circumstances because of the former’s real or presumed ethnic, racial, national, religious or cultural belonging.

Indirect discrimination: the adoption of regulations, criteria or practice which, irrespective of intentions, put people belonging to a particular group disproportionately at a disadvantage than another is, has been or would be and where such regulations, criteria or practice can not be objectively justified by a legitimate aim and the means of achieving that aim are proportionate and necessary.

New minorities generated by recent migration: this phrase identifies all non-native minorities of immigrant or refugee origin, identified in official documents on the basis of their nationality and not as minorities. The Italian Constitution recognises and protects “linguistic” minorities and does not make any reference to “ethnic” minorities.

Integration of migrants: can also be defined in terms of the gap between economic citizenship (their integration into the production system) and social citizenship (their participation in the social rights system); subordinate integration [Ambrosini 2001, p.169].

First stage reception centres (*Centri di Prima Accoglienza - Cpa*): First stage reception centres are residential facilities that provide, in some cases free of charge, temporary accommodation and food for foreigners in difficulty; where possible, they provide Italian language courses, vocational training, intercultural exchanges and social and health care. They are provided by regional governments, in collaboration with provincial and local authorities, as well as voluntary

organizations. The objective of such centres is to make their users self-sufficient within a short period. All foreigners with stay permits except tourists, who are temporarily unable to provide for their own housing needs, can apply to such reception centres for support¹.

Second stage reception centres or social hostels: These are low-rent reception structures that can be collective (hostels) or single apartments, meant for both natives and foreigners, for limited period of time while residents search for their private accommodation².

Principle of reciprocity: it states that a given condition, for example access to self-employment, ownership of houses etc. can be accorded to a non-EU foreigner only if his/her country of origin accords same conditions to Italians or, in general, does not forbid foreigners from having access to such conditions or property.

Public Residential Housing (*Edilizia Residenziale Pubblica - ERP*): This includes all subsidized public houses acquired, built or renovated using, partly or entirely, contribution of state funds by local authorities or by other economic subjects that have social aims.

Overcrowding: The following situations are defined as *extreme overcrowding*: three or more persons in a room; four to five persons in two inhabitable rooms; six persons in not more than three inhabitable rooms; seven or eight persons in not more than four inhabitable rooms; nine or more persons in six inhabitable rooms.

The following situations are defined as *ordinary overcrowding*: one or two persons in a room; three persons in two inhabitable rooms; four or five persons in three inhabitable rooms; six persons in four inhabitable rooms; seven or eight persons in five inhabitable rooms; nine or more persons in six inhabitable rooms. Source: *Regional Law nr.91 of 15-12-1983, article 7(3b), Lombardy Region, Italy*.

¹ Italy / Law nr.189 (30.07.2002) "Modifica alla normativa in materia di immigrazione e di asilo"; art. 27. Official Gazette 26th August 2002, nr. 199. *Italy, Law, 30th July 2002, nr.189 – Changes to the legislation on immigration and asylum; Official Gazette nr. 199 of August 26th, 2002*. Available at: www.parlamento.it/parlam/leggi/021891.htm (20/10/03).

² Law nr.189: op. cit.

1. Introduction

The aim of this study is to review the state of the art in the housing sector in Italy, with reference to the conditions of groups of people who are vulnerable to discrimination on grounds of racial or ethnic origin. The study covers such aspects as which laws and policies regulate the housing sector and what effects do they have on migrants?; have there been changes in such policies in recent times, why and what consequences did they have for migrants and minorities subject to discrimination on the above grounds?; is there discrimination in access to housing against the above groups, what forms does it take and what measures are in place to combat it and to promote equal treatment in the sector?.

The study draws on research findings, surveys, official statistics, studies in the dynamics of the estate market by both union of tenants and landlords and reports of projects designed and implemented by NGOs in the sector. Information and analysis from these sources are reviewed and assessed in order to find answers, where possible, to the questions raised above.

The study is organised in six distinct chapters and the second examines legislative developments related to housing which affect migrants and other minorities. Focus here is on changes introduced in the national framework legislation on housing, as a result of migratory flows to Italy in the last twenty years. The first policy measures on accommodation for migrants were taken in reaction to what many saw as an emergency situation and these measures revolved around temporary reception centres (*Centri di Prima accoglienza - CPA*) and dormitories modeled after those for the native poor and / or homeless (*alberghi popolari*), are presented in some detail. Legal provisions on equal treatment in access to housing for authorized migrants are described too and regional laws on housing are partly examined only with regard to their provisions on conditions of access by non-EU foreigners to public residential housing.

Chapter three offers an overview of the housing market, outlining the main characteristics and the context in which policies focusing migrants and other minorities are situated. It also examines the position of migrants in the housing market, pointing out the strengths, weaknesses and opportunities. The following chapter looks at available evidence of discrimination in both the public and private sectors. With reference to the public sector, we analyze some examples of indirect discrimination by local authorities where restrictive interpretations of national legislation are used

to disadvantage migrants in access to public subsidized houses. In a similar manner, we present in some detail the result of a discrimination testing exercise which focused on the discriminatory modalities adopted by estate agents in a major industrial city. The chapter ends with a presentation of some case laws concerning both the public and private sectors.

In chapter 5, some initiatives and good practices to overcome the difficulties migrants encounter in securing housing are presented. In the sixth and last chapter, we draw some conclusions based of the information presented in the preceding chapter and some of these conclusions are matched up with specific suggestions.

General information on the characteristics of immigration in Italy is drawn from various sources and attached as annex at the end of the study.

2. Legislation and policies of relevance for migrants and minorities

Regional governments are directly responsible for housing policies, within a general framework defined by national legislation. A major consequence of this decentralised housing policy is that different regions and autonomous provinces interpret and implement the national framework legislation in different ways, particularly with reference to migrants and Roma minorities. The right to shelter is not directly recognised in the Italian Constitution neither for Italians nor for foreigners. Rather, there are some general references such as the definition of a person's home as "inviolable" [article 14(1)] or the statement that "the State favours the use of private savings to acquire houses (...)" [article 47 (2)]³.

All major laws passed in the last fifteen years to regulate migration to Italy contain provisions on migrants' access to public and private housing. The first such law was the immigration and asylum Act of 1990⁴ which introduced the setting-up of reception centres commonly called "first stage reception centres" (*Centri di prima accoglienza*). Besides, this law provided for access by migrants to low-rent public housing managed by municipal authorities and regulated by regional laws. As we shall see later, while the above provision in the national legislation did not subject access by migrants to the principle of reciprocity, many regional laws introduced such conditionality. On the whole, the provisions on housing contained in this law can be said to have been tailored to provide some solutions to an emergency situation.

The immigration Act of 1998 (Consolidated or Unified Text on Immigration)⁵ took further steps to improve access to public housing by migrants. Firstly, it affirmed the principle of "equal treatment" for foreigners in "access to public services" (*article 2(5)*), albeit "within the limits and modalities defined by law". It explicitly placed a duty on the "regions, provinces, municipal authorities and other local authorities" to take measures aimed at eliminating the obstacles that "hinder from enjoying full recognition of the rights and legitimate interests accorded to foreigners in the territory of the State, with particular reference to housing, language and social integration, in accordance

³ Italy / *Constitution of the Republic of Italy*; see full text at: <http://www.quirinale.it/costituzione/costituzione.htm> (20/10/03).

⁴ Italy / Law nr.39 (28.02.1990), c.d. Legge Martelli "Conversione in legge, con modificazioni, del decreto-legge 30 dicembre 1989, n. 416, recante norme urgenti in materia di immigrazione e asilo politico". (*Conversion into law, with modifications, of the Decree of December 30th nr.416, on urgent measures on immigration and asylum*); available at: <http://www.provincia.tn.it/immigrazione/normativa/asilo/testolegge.htm> (20/10/03).

⁵ Italy / Legislative Decree nr. 286 (25.07.1998), "Testo unico delle disposizioni concernenti la disciplina dell'immigrazione e norme sulla condizione dello straniero". Official Gazette 18th August 1998, nr. 191 (*Unified or Consolidated Text of provisions concerning immigration and provisions on the status of foreigners*; O.G. of 18th August 1998, nr.191. Available at: <http://www.stranieriinitalia.com/leggi/testounico.html> (20/10/03).

with fundamental rights of the individual” (*article 3(5)*). In general, it opened up new opportunities for migrants in terms of access to housing and it moved public policy forward on the subject by providing for a medium to long-term solution to the problem of housing for migrants. This notwithstanding, a general weakness of public housing policies for some social categories did not allow for achievement of the objectives it set out for migrants. The provisions of this law were partly modified in 2002 by the immigration Act currently in force, commonly identified as the *Bossi – Fini* law on immigration⁶.

Another important provision of the Immigration Act of 1998 is the prohibition of discrimination in access to public and private housing, not only on grounds of ethnic or racial origin but also on grounds of nationality. In the context of a general prohibition of discrimination in the provision of or access to goods and services, the Act specifies (*Article 43 (2c)*) that “whoever unlawfully imposes less favourable conditions or refuses to grant access to employment, housing, education, training, social and health services, to a legally resident foreigner, only on grounds of his/her condition as a foreigner or of belonging to a particular race, religion, ethnic group or nationality” commits a discriminatory act. This provision has been used (and successfully) on a number of occasions, to challenge cases of discrimination in access to housing by both public and private institutions.

In July, the Government completed the transposition⁷ of the Council Directive 2000/43/CE implementing the principle of equality of treatment irrespective of ethnic or racial origin and the new decree came into force about a month later. Regarding the topic of this study, the new legislation did not change previous provisions on equality of access to housing for legally resident migrants.

2.1 Reception centres and transit Camps for the Roma

As we have noted above, first stage reception centres were first introduced in 1990 in response to an emergency situation faced by many migrants in the housing sector. This approach was modeled after the old “people’s hostels or dormitories” (*alberghi popolari*), which were meant to solve the housing problems of poor sections of the native population and the homeless and according to

⁶ Law nr.189/2002: op. cit.

⁷ Italy / Legislative Decree nr.215 (9.07.2003) – Transposition of the Directive 2000/43/CE on equality of treatment between persons irrespective of race and ethnic origin. O.G. nr. 186 of 12 August 2003.

many, this policy has contributed to consolidate the notion of inferior housing facilities for migrants and to some extent, has limited migrants' access to public low-rent housing⁸.

Until the current immigration Act came into force in 2002, unauthorized migrants who did not have a legal title to live in the country were, under certain emergency conditions, allowed temporary accommodation in first stage reception centres. Under the new legislation, these centres are no longer permitted to do so and though they offer temporary accommodation, they are required to provide some social and cultural services aimed at facilitating integration of legally resident migrants.

Second stage reception centres are more stable than the first type but they, too, provide temporary accommodation and are considered to be a transition stage to securing own accommodation. Residents pay a low rent and according to the law, only cities with large numbers of foreigners are required to set them up. Smaller cities may do so if they have the necessary resources.

According to data from the Ministry of Internal Affairs, the number of reception centres for non-EU citizens⁹ at national level increased by about 42 percent from 1996 to 2001, passing from 742 to 1,057 centres. In 2001, the region with the biggest reception capacity was Lombardy which alone represented 20 percent of the entire national reception capacity, followed by Emilia Romagna (18.92 percent), Veneto (15.51 percent) and Tuscany with a share of 8.89 percent. The southern region with the biggest reception capacity, Puglia, represented only 3.68 percent of total national reception capacity and the first three regions – Lombardy, Veneto and Emilia Romagna - accounted for 55 percent of the total.

The position of Roma and Sinti populations vis-à-vis housing is quite peculiar. There is a deeply rooted popular conviction in Italy that the Roma are “nomads” and do not like and/or are not used to living in fixed homes. This negative categorization of all Roma has, for decades, found its way into public policies towards this group, leading to a generalized approach to accommodation for them. Almost all regions and autonomous provinces have laws providing for “transit” camps for Roma minorities (both Italian and foreign), a situation the ERRC¹⁰ aptly characterised as “campland” in

⁸ Marcetti C., Solimano N. (eds): *L'abitare inferiore. Gli immigrati albanesi a Firenze, Architettura vissuta*, Quaderni della Fondazione Michelucci, Firenze 2000. *Inferior housing. Albanian immigrants in Florence; Living Architecture series, Fondazione Michelucci Florence, 2000; p.5.*

⁹ Data collected yearly by the Prefectures and elaborated by the Central Directorate for Documentation of the Ministry of Internal Affairs. Available at www.interno.it. See Annex 2, Table 2.3 for a time series from 1996 to 2001.

¹⁰ ERRC (2000): *Campland. Racial segregation of Roma in Italy*, ERRC, Budapest; available at: www.errc.org. See also Commissione per le Politiche di Integrazione (2000): *Rom e Sinti. Integrazione possibile. Italia ed Europa a confronto*, Proceedings of the International Conference, June 2000.

reference to the fact that Roma populations in Italy live predominantly in camps. These camps are frequently located far away from the city centre, often close to a motorway or railway or to an industrial area not inhabited by non-Roma groups. They are ghettos, usually overcrowded, in which there is no privacy and groups that do not have much in common are forced to live together. The need to appoint “leaders” and representatives of the camps offer new motives for tension and conflicts. The bigger these camps are, the greater the social alarm and hostility from residents of nearby quarters. In some cases, such camps are targets of racist campaigns to send the Roma away from the area and a recent campaign of this kind, led by a local leader of the Northern League party in Verona is currently under prosecution for incitement to racial hatred. The limited alternative that Roma populations have to live in the camps constitute a discriminatory practice.

2.2. Public Residential Housing

Regional governments and autonomous provinces have legislative competences on housing issues; consequently, migrants’ access to public low-rent houses have so far been determined – facilitated or hindered – at these levels of government. As we have mentioned earlier, the two main immigration Acts passed in the ‘90s both provided for access to public subsidized housing on the part of authorized migrants. In particular, the 1998 Unified Text on immigration provides that “foreigners holding a permanent residence permit or an ordinary stay permit, who are either employed or are enrolled with the unemployment offices (...)”, can apply for subsidized public housing “in conditions of equality with Italian citizens”. This provision is particularly important because, as we shall see later, it has been used to challenge in court, discriminatory practices in access to housing by some local authorities. Furthermore, migrants are allowed access to the services of social agencies acting as intermediaries to facilitate access to housing, as well as to subsidized credit facilities to buy, renovate or rent a first home¹¹. These provisions were revised in 2002 and access to them are limited only to holders of permanent residence permits or ordinary stay permits valid for at least two years; in both cases, the holder must be employed (including self-employment) in order to qualify for application.

All regions and autonomous provinces have laws regulating access to public subsidized housing and for the most part, these laws date back to the mid ‘90s, in any case, before 1998. This means that the provisions of the 1998 immigration Act have not been transposed uniformly in all regional laws on

¹¹ Italy / Legislative Decree nr.286; op. cit; article 40(6).

public housing. With regard to foreigners, there are significant differences in the provisions of these laws between regions. Some of them introduced equal treatment in access to housing irrespective of nationality well before it was introduced in the national legislation in 1998. Others have introduced the principle of equal treatment mitigated by other strict conditionalities such as the principle of reciprocity. Yet others have provided for access to public housing on equal footing by migrants but local authorities in implementing the regional laws, have drawn-up regulations and set-up points systems that substantially disadvantage foreigners. One of the case laws we will examine in a later chapter deals with a situation of this type.

In general, it can be said that in spite of legal provisions that affirm the principle of equal treatment in access to public housing, migrant minorities still face discrimination in this area, as a result of less favourable regulations and criteria defined and enforced at local levels. In a limited number of cases (*Abruzzo, Calabria and Piemonte*)¹², such conditions have been introduced at regional level and in some cases, this has occurred in regions that had liberal policies until recent years. It would seem that such changes have been due to recent changes in the governing coalitions in such regions. The case of *Calabria* region stands out for two reasons: first, the regional law on public subsidized housing dates back to 1990 and secondly, it provides facilitation for its citizens who migrated to other countries years before and who wish to return but it fails to accord legally resident migrants similar rights¹³. The *Piemonte* region had a similar law¹⁴ enacted in 1987 but changed it two years later by granting similar rights to migrants with such additional requisites as a minimum length of residence in the region in order to qualify to submit an application for subsidized public housing or credit facilities to acquire a first home or renovate an existing one¹⁵.

In some cases, local authorities interpret the relevant regional laws in a very restrictive manner, leading to less favourable conditions for access to public subsidized housing by migrants. An example is the case of a provision in most regional laws, requiring that, in order to qualify to be assigned a public house, one should not “own a house which is adequate for a family, wherever located¹⁶”. The expression “wherever located” used by some region in their laws on housing, had always been intended as referring only to the national territory. An extensive interpretation of same

¹² Legge Regionale Abruzzo n.34/99 *Abruzzo Regional Law nr.34/99*; available at: <http://leggi.regione.abruzzo.it/leggireg/1999/1034.html> and Legge Regionale Piemonte n. 22/01; *Piemonte regional law nr.22/01*, available at: <http://arianna.consiglioregionale.piemonte.it/base/leggi/12001022.html>.

¹³ Legge Regionale Calabria n. 17/90, art. 6 *Italy, Calabria Regional law nr.17/90, article 6*; available at: http://www.abramo.it/service/abramo/leggi/fil_mat/fil_leg/leggi/19017.htm.

¹⁴ Legge Regionale Piemonte n. 1/87. *Piemonte regional law nr.1/87*; available at:

¹⁵ See full text at: <http://arianna.consiglioregionale.piemonte.it/base/leggi/11989064.html>.

¹⁶ Cfr. Legge Regionale Piemonte (*Piemonte Regional Law*) n. 46/95, art. 2; Legge Regionale Marche (*Marche Regional Law*) n. 44/97, art. 10; Legge Regionale Abruzzo (*Abruzzo Regional Law*) n. 96/96 art. 2.

phrase was used by the municipality of Pordenone in 2000 to exclude 107 non-EU applicants from access to public subsidized housing¹⁷. This municipality required that Italian applicants show they did not own houses with the above characteristics by making a declaration to that effect while non-EU applicants were required to produce a declaration made by their national authorities, translated and certified by the Italian consulate in the country of origin. It further required that such declarations by foreign authorities should be in conformity with Italian laws and should also contain a description of what practical measures were taken to acquire the information contained in the declaration of the foreign authority. All applicants, Italians and non-EU, were allowed 40 days to provide all the information required under the call for application.

Besides, in accordance with the regional law, only those who had been resident in the region for at least five years by the date of the call were qualified to apply. This condition, in force in other regions, is particularly damaging for the very segment of migrants most likely to have problems securing an adequate accommodation in the first two to four years of settlement. Research in some local contexts has shown that the number of years in the country and the income level, along with not having a legal title to stay, are among the factors that most affect a migrant's chances of securing an adequate accommodation¹⁸.

Another example where restrictive criteria have been used to limit migrants' access to public housing is the case of the municipality of Milan. In this municipality, access to public housing occurs on the basis of a points-system where, a number of factors such as the number of people in a family, income level, state of current accommodation etc., are considered and given pre-determined ratings. In the regulation governing the call for application in 2002, the municipality attributed five points to "having Italian citizenship". This as we shall see later, was challenged in court as violating the principle of non-discrimination irrespective of nationality contained in the immigration law of 1998.

¹⁷ Commissione per le politiche di integrazione degli immigrati (2001), *Secondo rapporto sull'integrazione degli immigrati in Italia*, edited by Zincone G., Bologna: Il Mulino; pp 419-424.

¹⁸ Tosi A. (2000): *L'inserimento degli immigrati: case e città*, in: Marcetti C. Solimano N. (2000): *Culture dell'abitare*, op.cit.

2.3. Access to housing on the market

We have seen in the preceding chapters that the Immigration Act of 1998 introduced major changes in migrants' access to housing. One such change was the abolition of an old provision requiring that the *principle of reciprocity* be applied when granting access to or in the provision of some goods and services to some categories of foreigners. We have also highlighted the fact that this conditionality was extensively applied to non-EU migrants by some regions and local administrations with regard to access to public subsidized housing. The same principles were also applied to ownership of a home, before the entry into force of the above legislation. As we shall see later, according to recent research, the percentage of non-EU migrants who live in their own homes has increased in the last five years, even though it remains far below that of the natives.

A major reform of the housing sector was carried out in 1998¹⁹ and it sought to liberalize rents, offer proprietors tax rebates as incentive to put more houses on the market for rent and support low-income families in order to secure houses on the market²⁰. A specific fund was set up as part of the mechanism with the aim of helping low-income families to pay for rent on the free market. A research by SUNIA, the national union of tenants and beneficiaries of public low-rent houses (*Sindacato Unitario Nazionale Inquilini e Assegnatari*), confirmed the rise in both rents and real estate prices as well as the negative impact of such increases on low-income families²¹ living on rent. The increased demand for houses on rent runs up against a chronically restricted supply and the relative worsening of the housing market that has occurred, partly as a consequence of the liberalisation policies adopted in the 1990's. This is accompanied by a persistent gap between supply and demand for public sector housing [Tosi 2000].

Migrants' housing needs have been changing in line with key transformations in migration and settlement patterns over recent years. The increase in the number of families among migrant groups following family reunion has brought about a shift in the type of accommodation, from the hostel and boarding type facilities of the first period following arrival to full fledged apartments. The growth of this type of demand, which among other things reflects a stabilisation process underway, has meant, in the majority of cases, increased demand for houses on rent and in most cases, for low

¹⁹ Italy / Law n. 431 (9.12.1998), "Disciplina delle locazioni e del rilascio degli immobili adibiti ad uso abitativo" Official Gazette nr. 292 of 15th December 1998. <http://www.parlamento.it/parlam/leggi/984311.htm> (20/10/03).

²⁰ Ares2000 (2003): Affitti fuori controllo, Roma: Ares2000. (*Rents out of control*); Ares2000, Rome. Summary of report is available at: <http://www.ares2000.net/ricerche/affitti.htm>.

²¹ Sunia (2003): L'offerta di abitazioni in affitto, op. cit. (*Houses on offer for rent*) available at: www.sunia.it.

rent housing [Tosi 2000]²². While free market remains the main source of houses for migrants, access to housing on the market remains all the same difficult and replete with discrimination as we shall see in the next chapter. This is true of access to houses on rent as well as to credit facilities for those who wish to buy their own homes.

Changes introduced in 2002 to the Immigration Act²³ did not affect any of the specific provisions regarding the housing sector but one of the new provisions on employment have important implications for migrants' access to housing. The new legislation established a very close link between a migrant's condition of employment and the legal possibility of staying in the country and one of the provisions related to this puts a duty on the employer to provide housing for any migrant worker he/she intends to employ. Concerns have been expressed that this provision will not make any substantial contribution to solving the problems migrants face in gaining access to housing on the private market; rather, it will further reduce migrants' bargaining power towards their employers, thereby leaving more room for abuse²⁴.

²² Tosi A. (2000): *Le culture dell'abitare*; op.cit; see also: Bellaviti P., Granata E., Novak C., Tosi A. (2002): *Le condizioni abitative e l'inserimento territoriale degli immigrati in Lombardia. Rapporto 2001*. Regione Lombardia, Fondazione I.S.MU., Osservatorio Regionale per l'integrazione e la multietnicità, Milano.

²³ Italy / Law nr. 189 (30.07.2002) op. cit.

²⁴ EUMC (2003): *Annual Report Part Two Trends*, Vienna:Eumc.

3. Description and analysis of existing data and sources in the housing sector

3.1. Overview of the housing market

The housing sector in Italy is characterized, among others, by a high percentage of families who own the houses where they live. This aspect was recently confirmed by Istat²⁵, using data from both the 2001 census and surveys carried out in 2002, which showed that 72.8 percent of families owned the homes in which they live, while the percentage on rent was recorded as 18.7 percent. According to the same source, the stock of houses on rent stood at about 4.2 million units and this is considered to be relatively small and it is said to have increased by only 6 percent during the period 1991 – 2001, while vacant houses or holiday homes remained stable at about 5.2 million or 19.6 percent of the total [SUNIA 2003]. About 70 percent of the stock on rent is owned by individuals while the remaining 30 percent is owned partly by the institute for public housing (*Istituti Autonomi Case Popolari* - IACP), other branches of government, welfare agencies and companies and all three have, in recent years, embarked on selling the houses they formerly rented out²⁶.

A great majority of families live in houses with basic amenities (bedroom, kitchen and bathroom) though the percentage of improper houses remained high at 8.4 percent, partly due to earthquakes and flooding that occurred in the last ten years, particularly in the central and southern regions.

Real estate prices increased, in the period from 2000 – 2002, by 18.2 percent partly as a result of an increase in sales in the same period of about 16.7 percent²⁷. Rents increased in a similar manner in the same period, in spite of a major reform of the sector carried out in 1998, which sought to liberalize rents, offer proprietors tax rebates as incentive to put more houses on the market for rent and support low-income families in order to secure houses on the market²⁸. The reform aimed at rendering the real estate market more flexible and competitive, fight such malpractices as renting without contracts and the refusal to put vacant houses on rent. The changes introduced were expected to lead to more competition in the housing market, capable of producing equitable and accessible rent prices. As mentioned earlier, a number of research reports have recorded significant

²⁵ Istat (2003) *Annuario Statistico Italiano 2003*, Roma: Istat. The full text is available at: www.istat.it. See also: Federcasa (2002) *I numeri della casa*, available at: www.federcasa.it

²⁶ Sunia (2003): *L'offerta di abitazioni in affitto. Indagine sulle offerte locative nelle aree metropolitane*, Roma: Sunia. (*Supply of houses for rent. A survey of houses on offer for rent in metropolitan areas*, Sunia, Rome) available at: www.sunia.it.

²⁷ Fondazione Censis (2003) *Rapporto 2002*, Roma: Censis.

²⁸ Ares2000 (2003): *Affitti fuori controllo*, Roma: Ares2000. (*Rents out of control*); Ares2000, Rome. Summary of report is available at: <http://www.ares2000.net/ricerche/affitti.htm>.

increases in rents and real estate prices²⁹. Ares2000 defines the results of a survey of the rent market carried out in 2002 as “alarming”³⁰. The research measured the extent of the rise of rents, how common renting without contract was and analysed spending on housing by households, both for those on rent and those paying a mortgage. It concludes that real estate prices and rents have risen sharply in the absence of any controls in the period covered by the survey and that the stock of public housing has been impoverished leading to a reduction in supply of houses on rent and that this segment of the market seemed increasingly destined to have a marginal role to play.

A recent research on the same subject carried out in metropolitan areas and based on a sample of 11,000 offers of houses for rent, confirmed the findings by the Ares2000 study [SUNIA 2003]. The study found the average monthly rent to be €882.89 with the highest amount recorded in Milan (€1,167.52) and the lowest in Bari (€533.43) in the south east. Analysis of the monthly average rents for different types of apartments and different classes of household incomes, shows that rents have a disproportionately high incidence on all income classes below thirty thousand euro per year. In particular, households that earn less than seven thousand Euro yearly have no access to housing on the free market as their incomes are lower than the yearly rent for all types of apartments except for those with single bedrooms which, for this income level, have an incidence on income of over 80 percent. Households with an income of €15,000 record an incidence of rents on their income of between 40 percent for single bedroom flats, 63 and 73 percent for two and three bedroom flats respectively and 90 percent for four bedroom flats. For families with average yearly incomes of about €22,500 the incidence of annual rents on income is between 30 percent for flats with single bedroom, 42 to 49 percent for medium-sized ones and 62 to 75 percent for big apartments of four bedrooms. Income levels of €30,000 allow access on the free market to small flats of one to two bedrooms, with an incidence of rents on income of less than 30 and 32 percent respectively and for medium to big types, the incidence of rent on income varies from 37 to 57 percent. Only families with annual incomes of over €37,500 record an incidence of rent on income of less than 30 percent for flats with up to three bedrooms and for bigger ones, such incidence does not exceed 45 percent. According to *Unioncasa*, the incidence of rents on the income of migrants’ households is as high as 54 percent and Istat reports an incidence of rents on family incomes of 23 percent for Italians.

²⁹ Sunia (2003): *L’offerta di abitazioni in affitto*, op. cit..

³⁰ Ares2000 (2003) op. cit

In a survey³¹ of a sample of a thousand migrants aged 18 to 54 years (see below for more details) on their income and housing situations, it was found that the average annual income declared by the group was Euro 7,230 and Euro 8,779 for a family of, on the average, four persons. The incidence of rent on income declared by the group was about 24 percent, which is much less than the figures above for these income levels. This same survey found also a high rate of overcrowding (see below) which seems to be a precise strategy adopted in order to afford access to houses with very high rents which, otherwise, would certainly be out of their reach.

3.2. Migrants and the housing market

The specific condition of migrants vis-à-vis the housing market has been examined by a number of national and local researches. In the preceding paragraph, we have seen how difficult it is for medium and low-income households to secure on the market, houses that suit their needs at affordable rents. Various categories of migrants fall into the low-income group and their situation in the housing market is compounded by a high level of distrust on the part of many landlords as well as the tendency by others to take advantage of the difficulties and ask for very high rents or offer for rent to migrants houses that do not have basic amenities. According to some authors, “the general picture is that of large numbers of migrants who encounter enormous difficulties in securing houses or face outright exclusion. Many migrants who are not poor are badly housed and ordinarily poor migrants are often without houses. Their accommodation tends to be worse or more expensive than that of the native population with the same level of income. Precarious accommodation is not unusual for migrants who have regular jobs and incomes”³². The extreme form of exclusion – homelessness in both senses of the word, not having a home and no abode – affects many authorized as well as unauthorized migrants, even though lack of a legal title to stay plays a key role in outright exclusion from access to appropriate housing [Tosi 2001].

The conditions of migrants with regard to housing has been analysed in a number of studies at national level. One such study – a quantitative research – was carried out in 2001 and it was based on a national sample of 1000 migrants aged between 18 and 54 years, defined in accordance with

³¹ Sunia, Ancab-Legacoop (2001) Condizioni abitative degli immigrati in Italia, Roma; (*The housing conditions of immigrants in Italy*, SUNIA, Rome). Available at: www.sunia.it

³² Tosi A. (2001): *Le culture dell'abitare*; op. cit. See also Grassilli M. (2002): *Gabibbo and the Squatters: Who speaks for whom?*. *Alternative and Official representation of immigration in Bologna*, in: Grillo R., Pratt J. eds. (2002): *The Politics of Recognizing Difference. Multiculturalism Italian style*; Ashgate 2002.

the composition of the entire population of authorized immigrants³³. The survey found that 92 percent of the sample lived on rent while 5 percent owned the houses they lived in. The data on ownership is coherent with the findings of a similar survey by Unioncasa and research at local level while the percentage on rent would seem to be overestimated when compared to results obtained by other researchers. A high percentage (83%) of the rented houses found in the sample belonged to individual landlords, 6 percent was owned by private companies and other types of proprietors contributed very low percentages (see Table 1 below).

Table 1 – Percentage of rented houses by type of ownership

Type of ownership	%
Individual private landlords	83
Owned by private companies	6
Public welfare institution	3
Insurance companies	1
Government housing agency	0
Others	7

Source: Sunia, Ancab-Legacoop, 2001, op. cit.

About 37 percent of those who lived on rent did not have a contract, 28 percent had a contract at market price while 17 percent had particular types of contracts for furnished houses, rent of a single room or bed etc. The houses on rent had, on the average, two rooms and an average number of four occupants. This confirms that there is a high rate of overcrowding in houses rented by migrants and it is likely that they are forced to adopt such solutions in order to afford the high rents requested by landlords and estate agents. About 52 percent of the sample said they lived with their families and other persons, 14 percent lived alone and 33 percent lived only with their families.

Table 2 – Composition of the houses rented by migrants

Number of rooms	Percentage of sample
Single room only	9
1 room + kitchen	19
2 rooms + kitchen	40
3 rooms + kitchen	24
4 rooms + kitchen	6
5 or more rooms + kitchen	2

Fonte: Sunia, Ancab-Legacoop, 2001, cit.

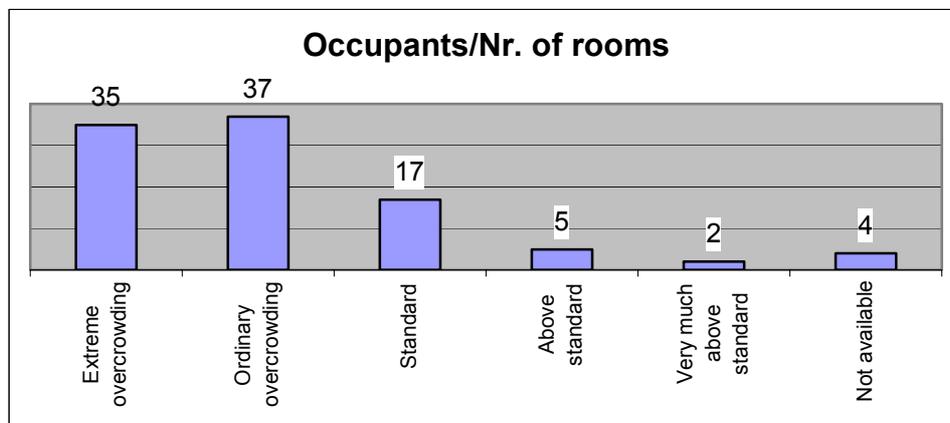
Using the ratio of occupants to number of rooms in an apartment as indicator of overcrowding³⁴, the research found that 73 percent of the sample was faced with either ordinary overcrowding (an

³³ Sunia Ancab-Legacoop (2001) Condizioni abitative degli immigrati in Italia, Roma: Sunia.

³⁴ Defined in the regional laws on access to public housing; see example of such definition taken from the Lombardy Regional Law at the beginning of the report.

average of 3.4 occupants in two rooms) or extreme overcrowding (about 4.6 occupants in one or two rooms). Besides, about 7 percent did not have bathrooms within the apartment but externally.

Graph 1 – Ratio of occupants to number of rooms (in percentage).



Fonte: Sunia, Ancab-Legacoop, 2001, cit.

Regarding the information channels used to secure accommodation, a majority of the sample indicated private individual contacts (*passaparola* or word of mouth), including friends and relatives. For 27 percent of the sample, friends and relatives either provided information on a vacant place or invited them to take their apartments at the time of re-location. About 15 percent used estate agents and 18 percent secured a place by publishing requests in newspapers. NGOs and social workers were used as sources by only 5 and 3 percent respectively.

Table 3 – Channels used to secure accommodation (%)

Channels used	%
Private individual contacts	29
Announcement in newspapers	18
Estate agencies	15
Friends and relatives	27
NGOs	5
Public Social Services	3
Other	4

Fonte: Sunia, Ancab-Legacoop, 2001, cit.

With regard to ownership of houses by migrants, a survey carried out in Milan province by *Unioncasa* found that about 4.7 percent of migrants owned the houses where they live and the national groups that prevail in this category are Filipinos, Egyptians and Chinese. According to this source, the majority of migrants in the area tend to buy medium sized apartments – two or three inhabitable rooms -, located on the outskirts and in old working class quarters. The survey also found that migrants encounter difficulties in securing mortgage, confirming findings by other

studies or court decisions that show that access to credit by migrants is replete with difficulties and in some cases, outright discrimination on grounds of nationality³⁵. Other researchers have come to similar conclusions. According to Ares2000³⁶, migrants pay rents that are higher than those paid by Italians by about 25 to 60 percent (where the minimum difference refers to contracts based on market prices and the maximum refers to private agreements).

The Institute for studies on multi-ethnicity (Ismu Foundation), in its general survey on immigration in Lombardy region in 2002, found similar results. Most migrants were renting (Table 7 below), living alone or with relatives (50.7 percent) or with others not related to them (17.1 percent) and 9.8 percent owned the houses where they lived. About 3.9 percent were in reception centres, 8.2 percent lived with the employer, 2 percent were squatters and less than one percent in hotels.

With regard to nationality, the percentage of migrants living with their employers is highest amongst the Filipinos and Peruvians and least among the Senegalese. This is directly linked to the degree of involvement of these groups in the domestic work sector. Ownership of where they live is highest among the Chinese (17.7 percent), followed by Filipinos, Peruvians and Moroccans while precarious types of accommodation are highest among Moroccans, Senegalese and Albanians (Table 4).

Table 4 – Type of accommodation by nationality and type of contract in Lombardy Region.

Type of accommodation and type of contract	Albania	China	Philippines	Egypt	Morocco	Senegal	Perù	Total
Own house	4.6	17.7	11.3	7.3	7.9	4.2	7.9	8.9
Guesthouse or hotel	1.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.6
On rent (alone or with relatives), written contract	52.0	47.5	40.4	46.3	54.5	42.0	39.1	43.5
On rent (alone or with relatives), no contract	8.1	3.0	3.2	1.5	4.7	4.2	5.9	4.2
On rent (alone or with relatives), n.a.	0.4	1.5	0.0	2.3	0.6	1.7	1.5	0.8
Guest of relatives / friends	2.7	11.9	3.9	2.3	5.2	4.2	9.7	5.6
On rent with other immigrants, written contract	13.0	5.3	10.4	22.9	12.9	28.9	10.7	15.2
On rent with other immigrants, no contract	8.6	3.8	1.1	10.1	3.8	5.4	7.2	6.0
On rent with other immigrants, n.a.	2.2	0.5	0.0	5.9	2.7	4.2	1.0	2.6
Reception structures	3.1	0.3	0.9	0.2	1.9	0.8	0.8	2.3
Lives with employer	1.5	7.8	27.5	1.1	2.2	0.4	14.6	6.9
Occupied house (squatting)	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.5

³⁵ Court of Justice of Trento, Decree 4.7.2002, in: *Diritto, Immigrazione e Cittadinanza*, n.4/2002, Milano: Franco Angeli editore.

³⁶ Ares2000 (eds: R. Nobile, V. Lannutti, A. Cassanelli and P. Venturini) (2000) *Il colore delle case – Primo rapporto sulla condizione abitativa degli immigrati in Italia*, Roma: Ares 2000. Available at: <http://www.ares2000.net/ricerche/colorecase/ilcoloredellecase.htm>.

Free concession	1.1	0.8	1.3	0.0	0.7	0.4	0.8	1.2
Shanty	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.9	0.8	0.0	0.8
Homeless	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	1.9	0.0	0.7
Other	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.8	0.3	0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Ismu (2003) *La presenza straniera in Lombardia (Presence of foreigners in Lombardy)*. Milan: Ismu

In terms of the quality of the houses rented to migrants, there are few studies available and one such report is derived from a multi-regional research project that involved seven regions (Friuli - Venezia Giulia, Veneto, Emilia-Romagna, Marche, Abruzzo, Molise and Puglia), that are on the Adriatic coast³⁷. The project used the availability of utilities such as pipe-borne water, electricity, gas etc. and other equipments in apartments inhabited by immigrants as quality indicators and the results for the regions involved in the project are presented in Table 8 below. The situation in Abruzzo region appears particularly difficult on two aspects: availability of drinkable water and heating facilities in apartments rented by migrants. In this region, winter is usually very cold with temperatures well below 0°C.

Table 5 – Availability of utilities / equipments by Region (%)

Utilities/equipments	Friuli	Veneto	Emilia-Romagna	Marche	Abruzzo	Average
Cooking corner	76,1	99,3	86,6	94,1	91,2	89,5
Bathroom	96,0	100,0	90,6	95,1	95,3	95,4
Pipe-borne water	96,8	99,3	87,2	94,1	95,3	94,5
Drinkable water	88,8	98,0	84,6	91,2	66,5	85,8
Electricity	97,6	98,7	89,9	95,1	96,5	95,6
Gas	75,7	96,0	86,6	87,3	74,7	84,0
Telephone	39,4	43,0	59,1	49,0	40,6	46,2
Heating system	84,1	92,6	86,6	82,4	69,4	83,0
Others	4,4	17,4	-	2,0	-	7,9

Fonte: *Elaborazione su dati Inte.Mi.Gra.*

Other studies carried out in specific local contexts, especially big cities, have highlighted cases of extreme exclusion in housing. In 2000, a study³⁸ promoted by the national commission of enquiry on social exclusion concluded that about 40.7 percent of people without a fixed abode were foreigners. This percentage probably includes those illegally occupying abandoned industrial warehouses, old apartment blocks identified for demolition, temporarily empty warehouses and

³⁷ Tamburini, G., Tironi, F. (2002) *Urbanistica e pianificazione territoriale*, in: Carchedi, F. (ed) (2002) *Intemigra. Progetti oltre frontiera. L'immigrazione straniera nelle regioni adriatiche*, available at: http://www.immigra.net/documenti/ricerca_intemigra/ricerca/indice.html.

³⁸ Fondazione Zancan (2000) *Indagine sulle persone senza dimora*, in: Commissione di indagine sull'esclusione sociale (2000) *Rapporto sulle politiche contro la povertà e l'esclusione sociale*, Rome, 17th July 2000, available at: <http://old.minwelfare.it/main/AreaPoverta/rapporti.asp>.

camps. A recent investigation by Naga³⁹ – a support organisation offering voluntary health services to authorized as well as unauthorized migrants and Roma populations – identified 19 settlements of the above types around the city of Milan, of which four are said to be of big dimension with a population of about one to three hundred people. It is estimated that about 3,500 people live for some time in these settlements per year. Most of them are people without legal title to stay who, as a result, are refused accommodation by reception centers managed by some associations under agreement with local authorities.

Inhabitants of these unauthorized settlements are not only such national groups as Romanians, Bulgarians, Ukrainians etc. whose migration to Italy is fairly recent but also groups like the Albanians and Moroccans whose presence in Italy date back to over ten years and who have a network of people from same country that could help avoid, or at least, reduce the chances of extreme forms of exclusion with regard to housing. About 74 percent of squatters are said to have been in Italy for less than one year, predominantly male (88 percent) and 90 percent are less than 44 years of age. Somewhat surprisingly, 27 percent of squatters are authorized migrants with fixed jobs, two conditions often assumed to be sufficient in order to secure a house on the market. As we have pointed out earlier, while the lack of a legal title to stay excludes access to public subsidized housing as well as housing on the free market with a regular contract, being an authorized and employed migrant does not seem to be sufficient to avoid resorting to squatting. The authors of the report conclude that quite often, the reluctance or refusal to rent houses to migrants, particularly those from countries that are stigmatized such as Albania and Morocco, and the high rents force some to opt for squatting⁴⁰.

It is important to recall here that to have a fixed abode in Italy, which implies being registered as residing at a given address in the municipal registry of residents, has a legal implication and important consequences. One such implication is that it is a necessary condition for access to a number of public and private services. For example, it is an essential requirement in order to obtain a driving licence, a card needed for access to full-fledged health and social services etc. and in the private sector, it is an indispensable requirement for access to credit facilities among others. Consequently, holders of a legal title to stay who are forced to squat, are excluded from a normal access to the above.

³⁹ Naga (2003) *La città invisibile. Rapporto sulla popolazione delle baraccopoli e delle aree dimesse milanesi*, available at: www.naga.it.

⁴⁰ Cfr. Naga (2003) cit., p. 21. For a similar analysis and conclusion, see also ASTAT – Istituto Provinciale di statistica (2002): *Stranieri in Alto Adige, Provincia Autonoma di Bolzano-Alto Adige*, p.73 (*Foreigners in Bolzano South Tyrol*).

The difficulties encountered by many migrants in housing is partly confirmed by data published in the 2002 national report of the Federation of Italian Organisations working with the homeless⁴¹ (FIO.psd). In a survey of member organisations of the above body and their activities in seven major cities (Bari, Bergamo, Bolzano, Livorno, Milano, Roma, Torino), 93 percent of the organisations surveyed reported providing their services to both Italian and migrant users and 43 percent declared that migrant users made up more than 50 percent of their overall users per year. Besides, 63 percent had recorded a significant increase in the number of migrants seeking their services compared to the previous year. The increase in the number of this category of users may partly be due to a worsened situation – more difficulty in affording a home on rent or otherwise – but it may also be due to an improved capacity by these organisations to reach out to their users by way of making more information available on what they offer and how they can be accessed. The service mostly requested by migrants is said to be a sleeping place (bed) in the dormitories and the great majority of users are male (about 90 percent) migrants of an average age which is lower than that of Italians in similar situations. About 70 percent of migrant users are unauthorized, confirming the close link between lack of a legal title to stay and housing exclusion, as well as the difficulties authorized migrants often face in finding a house.

⁴¹ Fio.psd (2002) Rapporto nazionale 2002. Immigrazione e persone senza dimora, available at: www.fiopsd.org.

4. Analysis of direct and indirect discrimination

4.1. Discrimination in the private sector

We have seen above in preceding chapters that, in spite of all difficulties, most migrants secure accommodation on the market and that the limited supply of public residential housing is not likely to become an alternative source in the near future. In this chapter, we will review available evidence of discrimination in the housing sector against migrants and Roma populations.

A discrimination testing exercise was carried out in the housing sector between May and November 2000, in the city of Turin⁴². Like in similar exercises, a foreign and native actor with the same personal and occupational profile except for their nationality, telephoned estate agencies that had published notices of apartments for rent. The foreign actor phoned first and where the reply was not positive (if the agency said the apartment had been rented out), then the native actor phoned (control call). The foreign actor had instructions to declare his / her nationality, besides using a name that sounded “distinctly foreign” to most natives. The aim was to check if there were significant differences in the reply given to the foreigner and the native both in terms of availability of the apartment and in the way the requests were received and treated by the agencies contacted.

The authors of the exercise also aimed to check if different foreign national groups faced less favourable differential treatment on grounds of their various nationalities. In other words, they sort to check if some foreign national groups faced more discrimination than others in access to housing on the private market. To achieve this, the foreign actors were chosen from among the six largest non-EU national groups in Turin at the time of the research (Albania, Morocco, Nigeria, Peru, Romania and Somalia⁴³). For each country including Italy, a male and female operator were chosen leading to a total of 14 actors.

A total of 180 phone calls were made and of these, 54 were considered as not valid because both the foreign and native actors received a negative reply saying that the apartment had already been rented out. Out of 126 valid calls, 90 replied negatively and 36 positively (the flat was available and the foreign actor / actress was able to fix an appointment to go and see it).

⁴² Rete d’Urgenza contro il razzismo (2001): Rapporto Annuale 2000, (*Annual Report, web version*); available at: www.unimondo.org/reteurg/. For a detail description of the design and implementation of the exercise, see full report.

⁴³ Omedè M. (ed.) "Stranieri a Torino nel 1999. Illustrazione dei dati statistici comunali", in: Osservatorio Interistituzionale sugli Stranieri in Provincia di Torino, *Rapporto 1999*, Torino: Città di Torino, 2000.

The negative responses can be classified into five distinct categories. The first group includes all cases where the estate agency made it explicit that they could not rent to foreigners (“we do or can not rent to foreigners”), adding in some cases that they were following instructions of the landlords. The second category includes cases where the foreign actor / actress received a negative response based on the claim that the flat had already been rented out and the control call by the native was positive and the apartment was said to be available. A third group comprises cases where the foreign actor was asked for a much higher rent than what was either published or what the control was asked for afterwards. In the fourth category, we find responses to foreign actor such as “you do not have the necessary requisites or profile”; the flat was said to be free but the foreign actor was not a suitable client for it. Most of such cases were related to the “student” and “family” profiles. The foreign student was refused the flat “because he / she was not employed (“do not have a pay slip” – *busta paga*) or because the apartment was “meant for families only” or the “agency did not consider it appropriate for a student” because it was not furnished. The family profile received negative replies saying the accommodation was for students, singles etc. In both cases, the control calls by the native actor with the same profile received positive responses. The fifth and last group includes more subtle refusal strategies such as postponing a reply to a later date because negotiations were already underway with some other prospective client. Other negative responses said the accommodation “was too big and too expensive” for the foreigner, without specifying neither the size nor the rent. Again in all these cases, the control calls by the native actors found that the flats were available.

The last four categories of responses can be defined as subtle refusal strategies and they account for about 89 percent of negative responses and more than half (58 percent) of all negative responses fall under the second category – accommodation already rented. This type of discrimination is particularly challenging as victims may not even know that they have been discriminated against and whatever doubts they may have as to the real motivation for repeated negative responses, they will remain unable to challenge it in court.

With regard to the country of origin, the results showed that there were significant differences between national groups. Nigerians in the test were the most discriminated (86 percent of negative responses), followed by Albanians (80 percent), Moroccans (77 percent), Somalis and Romanians (64 and 63 percent respectively) and Peruvians appeared to be the *least* discriminated with 57 percent of negative responses. Analysing the responses by gender, the authors found that women recorded more positive responses for all national groups though the gender difference for Nigerian

and Albanian female and male actors were minimal. Following results of the test, the authors concluded that both nationality and gender of the foreigners were significant factors that influence the responses of estate agencies but that nationality seemed to be a stronger determinant of negative responses.

While the total number of valid responses was small, the test confirms findings by other researchers on the difficulties, including discrimination on grounds of nationality or ethnic origin, migrants encounter in access to housing on the market. The test in Turin focused on estate agencies and no such test has been carried out targeting individual landlords. All the same, many migrants and social workers report very similar types of subtle discriminatory strategies. A small enquiry carried out in Verona⁴⁴, found that over a period of one year, a local specialised journal on houses for sale and rent carried 96 distinct advertisements of apartment for rent carrying the specification “not for non-EU citizens” (*no extracomunitari*). The editor of the journal stopped publishing such explicitly discriminatory adverts but there was no indication of any change in attitude of estate agents who paid for such adverts.

Besides, though unlawfully and explicitly discriminatory on grounds of nationality, legal action can not be taken by judicial authorities unless someone who is affected by the exclusion (a non-EU citizen) challenges it in court. This means that the legal prohibition of discrimination is not, *per se*, a strong enough deterrent unless potential victims are sufficiently empowered to combat this kind of discrimination using the available legal instruments.

A second element is that, as we shall see later discussing the good practices, public reaction to discrimination against migrants in housing revolves around creating agencies that can act as intermediaries between migrants and the wider housing market. With the exception of few NGO initiatives, fighting such discrimination using the law does not seem to be part of the institutional reaction to the problem.

4.2. Case law on discrimination in the housing sector

There have been two important case laws on discrimination by estate agents on grounds of nationality and one of them was the first instance of application of the anti-discrimination

⁴⁴ Commissione per le politiche di integrazione degli immigrati (2001): op. cit, p. 425.

legislation introduced in 1998. It involved an estate agent⁴⁵ in Milan who refused to rent an apartment to an Ivorian couple on grounds of their nationality, claiming the agency was simply following instructions from the landlord. A local migrants' support organisation contacted the agency by phone twice and recorded the conversations in which the agent declared that the apartment was available and after being informed that the caller was acting on behalf of a migrant couple of African origin, gave the same reply he had earlier given to the couple. In spite of the absence of the shifting of the burden of proof, the couple, assisted by the organisation, was able to prove they had been discriminated against. The agency was ordered to end the discrimination and pay monetary redress to the victims for moral damages.

The second case involved an estate agency that operates only via the internet (Bancacasa.it), brought before a court in Bologna by some migrants who, while searching for an apartment for rent on the web, realised that the search engine of the above site requested as data necessary for a search, the category “*extracomunitario*”, non-EU citizen, alongside others like Italian, couple, single male, single female etc. Ticking the Italian box yielded a number of offers while ticking the non-EU box returned a negative reply of no offer available. The court ruled that the inclusion of “non-EU citizen” as a search category was discriminatory and that the results obtained by ticking that box had proved the discriminatory act. The owners of the site were ordered to eliminate that particular search criterion and pay damages to the plaintiff⁴⁶.

With regard to discrimination in access to public subsidized housing, a court in Milan found the municipality guilty of violating the principle of non-discrimination in the procedure it adopted to determine eligible candidates for public low-rent housing in 2002⁴⁷. This was a case of institutional direct discrimination on grounds of nationality, based partly on a restrictive interpretation of the regional law on the subject. The municipal council regulation that defined the criteria for access to public residential houses, provided for a points-system in which five points were assigned to “Italian citizenship”. The court ruled that such a criteria violated not only the Constitutional principle of equality but also specific provisions of the 1998 Immigration Act that make it unlawful to treat a legally resident migrant less favourably than others in access to housing, on grounds of the person's nationality or condition as a foreigner. The municipality was found guilty of unlawful

⁴⁵ Cfr. Diritto, Immigrazione e Cittadinanza, n.2/2000, Milano: Franco Angeli editore, p.74 – 75.

⁴⁶ Cfr. Court of Justice of Bologna, Decree 22/02/2001, in: Diritto, immigrazione e cittadinanza, n. 1/2001, Milano: Franco Angeli.

⁴⁷ Cfr. Court of Justice of Milan, Sentence 20/21-03-2002 n. 3614, in: Diritto, immigrazione e cittadinanza, n. 4/2002, Milano: Franco Angeli.

discrimination and ordered, not only to review and eliminate the points attributed to “citizenship”, but also to pay damages to the plaintiffs.

5. Strategies, initiatives and good practices against discrimination

The general weakness of housing policy at national level coupled with rising estate prices and high rents have forced many local actors to look for alternative and affordable solutions to the problems faced by low-income Italian families and migrants in particular, in having access to housing that is adequate to their needs. The situation has been very critical in big cities where many of those facing extreme forms of exclusion from housing, have resorted to squatting. In some regions of the country, shortage of houses for rent affects the capacity of local industries to meet their needs of new workers, represented mainly by migrants. This has been particularly true of the North-East where many employers have difficulties meeting their needs of new manpower to run the enterprises. This situation led to some of the first innovative local solutions to the problem.

Major strategies and initiatives aim at bringing demand and supply closer; increasing the offer of both temporary and permanent accommodation for low-income segments of the population, in addition to public subsidized housing and providing intermediate solutions capable of facilitating the transition from reception centres to individual private homes. In order to achieve these aims, local initiatives have focused attention on the private sector (estate market), trying to mobilise supply, undertaking mediation function, offering guarantees to landlords and economic support to low-income families to enable them to pay for rents at market prices etc. In some cases, efforts have been made to build-up and manage a stock of houses for rent and for short periods at low prices.

The following is a selection of some of the oldest and successful experiences designed and implemented by voluntary associations, cooperatives, local authorities and social partners, religious organisations etc., with the aim of overcoming some of the problems migrants encounter in housing.

Cooperative “*La Casa per gli Extracomunitari*”, Verona – The “Cooperative - a house for non-EU citizens” was set up in 1991, in response to the liberalisation of rents and the estate market and to help migrant workers in Verona province secure houses. In this area, the percentage of authorized migrant workers is very high but their incomes do not allow them to rent at market prices and in similar conditions as Italians.

The activities of the cooperative include: buying or renting houses meant homeless migrants; renovation and transformation of such housing units to suite small groups of six persons at the most or for families; management of organisational aspects related; assisting migrants in estate transactions (applying for mortgage, special rent arrangements that provide for the tenant to buy the

house in the future) in order to enable them to buy homes; advocacy and participation in relevant public *fora* where housing sector policies are discussed. Only authorized migrants with stay permits are allowed to use the cooperative's services. Besides, it is necessary to show evidence of having a job and a regular income capable of covering the costs of such services and / or pay the mortgage.

Building Cooperative “Una Casa per l’Uomo”, Montebelluna (TV) – It started activity in 1992 as a consortium of various actors working with migrants, in an attempt to coordinate efforts in the field. The main objective of the cooperative is to build-up, using the resources conferred by Italian and migrant members, a stock of houses for rent to migrants, who can buy the houses where they live by paying a monthly quota at very low interest rate. The Cooperative has, over the years, gone into other areas by organising cultural activities, running an information service and the training of foreign cultural and linguistic mediators.

Fondazione “La Casa - ONLUS”, Padova – The Foundation was set up in 2002 by a number of local actors – the Chamber of Commerce, an association of Catholic workers (ACLI), the Cooperative *Nuovo Villaggio*, a bank (Banca Popolare Etica) and the Catholic Diocese. It is part of a wider project called “Immigration Project” which aims at facilitating integration by acting in different areas (reception, training, employment counseling, information and housing) and it cooperates with the regional, provincial and municipal authorities, the Prefecture, the Provincial Police office, social partners and voluntary organisations.

The Foundations activities include: providing migrant workers and their families with houses that need to be renovated or being built, facilitate housing integration through training, support migrant tenants in managing relationships with landlords or guide those who wish to buy a home. The resources used come from the public and private sectors. Companies are invited to cover part of a loan needed to renovate or construct new houses and in exchange, apartments are assigned to their employees.

“Società per l’Affitto”, Forlì - The “Firm for Rent” was set up in 2002 with the aim of becoming a point of reference for migrant workers, employers and landlords. Company rents houses from landlords and sublets them to two migrants, possibly of same nationality per room in the case of singles. Families are assigned separate apartments. The experience is not yet fully tested but it is interesting for the wide network of actors involved (eight municipalities of Forlì province, the Employers’ Association, the Confederation of Artisans, Association of Building enterprises, CAN and a local savings bank).

“Un Tetto per Tutti” project, Umbria – The project “A roof for all”, initiated by the association CIDIS in cooperation with Umbria region and some municipalities, is the first experience of self-construction of own houses by a group of people in need of accommodation. Under the project, the interested parties (Italians and foreigners) come together in the form of a cooperative and build their house under the supervision of expert architects and civil engineers. This approach is accredited of being able to reduce costs by almost 70 percent. Each participant must have a given income and a total number of hours he or she is ready to dedicate to the common project. The project is new and there are no evaluations of its performance yet.

Temporary Home, Bolzano South Tyrol – This is a cooperative that rents apartments from landlords and sublets to companies that need accommodation for their workers for short to medium-term periods. The client of this cooperative is the company and not the worker who uses the apartment, mainly single bedroom accommodations. Consequently, neither self-employed workers nor families find a solution to their housing needs through this cooperative.

National Asylum Programme (PNA) – The National Asylum Programme is a system of reception and protection of asylum seekers and integration of refugees and those with stay permits for humanitarian reasons. The PNA network is made up of reception centres at the level of municipalities in almost all parts of the country and in particular in cities that are points of entrance into the country (air and sea ports, land frontiers) and big metropolitan areas. These reception centres offer assistance to asylum seekers while they wait for the outcome of their applications and they provide them with information and support to find jobs and independent accommodation within the area.

Servizio Politiche Abitative, Comune di Padova – The housing policy unit of the municipality of Padova signed, in 1999, an agreement with the local Chamber of Commerce to set up guarantee fund with the aim of facilitating the access of migrants working within the municipality, to housing on the market. It also launched a programme called “Operation Goodhouse”, a protocol of understanding with associations of landlords and estate agents under which the Council stipulates directly a contract for rent of a flat and then assigns it to a third person. Landlords who sign the agreement are granted tax rebates and receive their rents quarterly in advance.

The “Office for Emergency in Housing” is charged with the management of accommodation-related grants and provides information on rent contracts or sales deeds.

6. Conclusions

Changes in the characteristics of immigration to Italy in the last ten years are producing important changes in the housing needs of migrants and public policy requires adjustments in order to provide lasting solutions. Research reports reviewed in this study have highlighted that while situations requiring emergency solutions like first stage reception centres still occur, current characteristics of immigration in Italy suggest that public policy in this area needs to focus increasingly on long-term and stable solutions to housing problems of migrants and low-income segments of the population. The increase in the family component of the population of migrants has brought about increased demand for medium sized apartments at affordable costs. The limited supply of houses on rent and increasing rents for the available offers are making it difficult even for migrants who are regularly employed to find solutions to their housing needs on their own.

Policy makers and administrators need to be more determined in tackling the specific problems migrants face in housing, without fear of a backlash from the natives. There are good examples of where, projects initiated to provide subsidized accommodation for migrants, have equally benefited low-income segments of the native population. Attempts to make the question of limited supply of houses and high rents a “political card” for building consensus should be rejected and isolated. Certainly the example by the minister of Reforms who publicly criticised a local authority for assigning public subsidized housing to those he defined as “*bingo-bongos*” should not be allowed to influence policy measures meant to alleviate the difficulties affected groups encounter in the housing.

We have also seen that there have been improvements over the years in the specific legislation on migrants’ access to public housing and to ownership of estate property. Regional governments are responsible for housing policies within a general framework defined by national legislation. Data collected and analysed in previous chapters indicate that positive elements in the national legislation which are relevant to housing have not been transposed and implemented accordingly by most regions. Indeed, the study points out how, through restrictive interpretations and in some cases, explicit violation of provisions of national laws, some regional, provincial and municipal authorities have introduced unlawful discriminatory criteria or procedures in access to housing, to the detriment of non-EU migrants.

Regional governments and autonomous provinces need to fully implement national provisions on

equal treatment in access to housing, irrespective of nationality. Regional laws and council regulations on criteria and procedures related to access to public residential housing which were adopted before the 1998 Immigration Act came into force should be changed to reflect the positive elements (uphold the principle of non-discrimination) contained in the above Act. In a similar manner, there is an urgent need to critically review existing regional laws on “transit camps” for and reception of Roma populations as an essential step towards tackling the specific problems facing these groups in housing.

Most observers agree that the idea of “camps for nomads” should cease to be at the centre of public policy towards these groups. The current structure and management of these camps appear to respond more to a policy of control than to a housing solution. The isolated location of these camps, the hostility towards them from neighbouring quarters and the living conditions inside, all contribute to perpetuate the disadvantage the Roma face and hinder them from integrating into the wider society. The high costs of running such camps make them not sustainable on the long-run.

Moving away from the idea of “camps for nomads” should not mean forced integration into apartment blocks. There is need for different types of solutions in order to offer appropriate responses to the diversity in life styles, needs and projects. The Roma represent a heterogeneous group for whom there can not be a unique solution to their housing needs and in view of this, different formulas can be applied in principle but no single formula can be generalised⁴⁸. New solutions should be able to, among other things, cover the needs of that part of the Roma population that is sedentary as well as those of travellers; take into account the ethnic differences between them. The seriousness of their conditions requires research-informed positive action measures to enable some of them come out of the present situation, given the negative impact of living in the camps on their interaction with the rest of society.

Part of the information examined in this study shows that a major reform of the housing sector enacted in 1998 has not yet produced the expected results and many observers are saying that it has rather produced the contrary. This reform liberalized rents, ending a long period in which the predominant regime was that of the “*equo canone*” or fair rent. The new regime sort to improve competition which, it was expected, would bring down rents; stimulate supply of houses for rent thanks to tax rebates granted to those who decide to rent their second houses instead of leaving them vacant and, provide low-income families with financial assistance to enable them to afford accommodation at market prices.

⁴⁸ Tosi A. (2000): op. cit.

Both data from Istat and research reports analysed show that about 72.8 percent of the resident population own the homes where they live and among migrants, it is estimated that only about 5 percent nationwide own the homes where they live. Some cities like Milan have recorded values of up to 8 percent of migrant home owners. Rents and estate prices increased significantly between 2000 and 2002 and the stock of houses on rent remained at about 4.2 million units, which is considered to be small. Such estate owners as the institute for public housing, insurance companies, welfare agencies etc. that use to offer houses for rent, have embarked on selling their stock of houses. This is negatively affecting an already limited supply of houses for rent and migrants in particular, as the rent market remains the main source of accommodation. Some sources have reported that the number of migrants turning to services for the homeless has increased.

One consequence of the increases in estate prices and rents has been the high incidence of housing on household incomes. We have seen that households that earn less than €7000 yearly have no access to housing on the free market as their incomes are lower than the yearly rent for all types of apartments except for a one bedroom flat which, for this income level, has an incidence on income of over 80 percent. Information on migrants' incomes reviewed in this study show that the average income declared by individuals was little more than the above amount. The high rate of overcrowding – both ordinary and extreme forms - would seem to be some sort of adaptative strategy used by migrants to reconcile their incomes with high rentals.

A limited offer of houses for rent and high rents are not the only problems migrants have to face in this sector. The study has highlighted various instances of discrimination on grounds of nationality, ethnic or racial origin, both on the part of public and private institutions. One of the rare examples of discrimination testing exercises has been carried out in the housing sector and it documented not only the frequency but also the most common modalities of discrimination used by estate agents in a major industrial city like Turin, to discriminate migrants. The test found that some national groups seemed to be more discriminated at the time of the test than others and that nationality was a much more determining ground of refusing to rent accommodation to a migrant than gender seemed to be, though, for the most discriminated national groups, there did not seem to be significant differences between men and women.

In the public sector, discrimination in access to housing is often indirect as it occurs through the adoption of criteria or procedures which disadvantage migrants without being justified by a legitimate aim. This type of discrimination has been successfully challenged in the courts by the victims and there is now a growing body of case laws on the violation of the principle of equal

treatment on grounds of nationality. The contribution of NGOs and the unions has been important in all the cases that have so far been brought before a tribunal and in the absence of an equality body with statutory powers to collect data on cases of discrimination and support victims, these organisations will remain the only points of reference for victims of discrimination and racism. The legislative decree that transposed Council Directive 2000/43/CE provides for an equality body (*Office against discrimination and for the promotion of equal treatment*) located within the Prime Minister's office. At the time of reporting, it is not yet operative and will become so only after another decree outlining the regulations that will govern it has been published.

Institutional reaction to the difficulties encountered by migrants in securing houses on rent has followed two main lines of action. The first and so far most effective in certain local contexts, has been the setting up of social agencies acting as intermediaries between landlords offering houses on rent and migrants in need. These agencies have been particularly effective in those places where landlords and estate agencies refuse to rent to migrants directly. Some of the first experiences of this type were initiated by NGOs and religious organisations working with migrants. An interesting evolution in this approach is that in some cases, these agencies act as intermediaries between migrants and credit institutions, thereby making it easier for migrants to qualify for mortgage to buy their own homes.

A second line of action is found mainly in the industrial North East where migrant labour is much needed to keep various sectors on the market but where the housing problem seems to be most acute. The underlying idea is that employers are directly involved in finding accommodation for their employees. This idea has found its way into national legislation and concern has been expressed by many on the potential abuses of this provision by unscrupulous employers who can use it as additional leverage against certain employees. A further and interesting development in this approach is that both provincial and municipal authorities are increasingly participating in such arrangements together with NGOs, cooperatives, employers' associations instead of individual entrepreneurs and as we have seen in the previous chapter, even banks and other credit institutions are engaging in the partnership. This kind of consortium of various stakeholders to tackle the housing problem should be promoted across regions because it has the added value of not just trying to overcome discrimination in access to housing by estate agents or landlords but also it can effectively pull together the resources required to increase the stock of houses in different segments of the estate market (ownership, rents, cooperatives' houses etc.).

Public administration could effectively use the instrument of tax rebates to encourage cooperatives and social housing agencies to undertake the renovation or transformation of some abandoned buildings. The emergence of segments of the migrant population that have the resources to buy their own homes is an element that, if sustained by appropriate public policy, could make important contributions to the re-vitalization of parts of some cities that currently face serious reduction in the size of its resident population and consequent rise in the costs of providing services to such quarters. The bigger this segment becomes, the lesser the pressure from migrants for public housing because part of the applications for public houses comes from migrants who can afford to pay their own rents if only they could find what they need on the market. Credit institutions need to become proactive here and fully acknowledge that they have much to gain by providing services to a broader client base which includes new minorities generated by migration.

List of abbreviations and acronyms used in the report

Ancab-Legacoop – Associazione Nazionale Cooperative di Abitanti – Lega Cooperative (National Association of Cooperatives of Residents – League of Cooperatives)

Ares2000 – Associazione Ricerche Economiche e Sociali (Social and economic research association)

Associazione Nazionale Unioncasa Onlus (National association Unioncasa onlus)

ERRC – European Roma Rights Centre

FederCasa – Federazione italiana per la casa (Italian federation for home)

Fiaip – Federazione Italiana Agenti Immobiliari Professionali (Italian federation professional estate agents)

Fio.psd – Federazione Italiana Organismi per le persone senza dimora (Italian federation of bodies for homeless people)

Ismu – Iniziative e Studi sulla Multietnicità (Studies and initiatives on multi-ethnicity)

Istat – Istituto Nazionale di Statistica (National Institute of Statistics)

Naga – Associazione volontaria di assistenza socio-sanitaria e per i diritti di stranieri e nomadi onlus (Naga - Voluntary association of social and health assistance and for foreigners' and nomads' rights, onlus)

Sunia – Sindacato Unitario Nazionale Inquilini e Assegnatari (National trade-union of tenants and assignees)

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Annex 1 – The main characteristics of immigration in Italy

Tab. 1.1 - Foreign citizens with a regular permit of stay by province (31/12/2002)

<i>Province/Region</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Province/Region</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Province/Region</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Province/Region</i>	<i>Total</i>
Torino	56,186	Pordenone	15,623	Pesaro	11,162	Potenza	1,661
Vercelli	4,667	Udine	13,318	Ancona	12,987	Matera	1,844
Novara	10,070	Gorizia	5,926	Macerata	13,667	Basilicata	3,505
Cuneo	13,577	Trieste	13,437	Ascoli Piceno	9,353	Cosenza	3,088
Asti	6,899	Friuli V.G.	48,304	Marche	47,169	Catanzaro	3,438
Alessandria	8,416	Imperia	6,973	Viterbo	6,793	Reggio Calabria	5,610
Biella	4,740	Savona	7,131	Rieti	2,836	Vibo Valentia	1,174
Verbania	3,008	Genova	19,246	Roma	213,834	Crotone	4,288
Piemonte	107,563	La Spezia	3,485	Latina	8,706	Calabria	17,598
Valle d'Aosta	2,913	Liguria	36,835	Frosinone	6,749	Trapani	3,664
Varese	21,461	Piacenza	9,117	Lazio	238,918	Palermo	12,284
Como	15,197	Parma	15,785	L'Aquila	6,955	Messina	7,864
Sondrio	2,843	Reggio Emilia	20,609	Teramo	5,324	Agrigento	2,500
Milano	170,737	Modena	25,900	Pescara	4,378	Caltanissetta	1,310
Bergamo	30,917	Bologna	35,661	Chieti	4,606	Enna	654
Brescia	56,545	Ferrara	6,991	Abruzzo	21,263	Catania	12,806
Pavia	11,018	Ravenna	14,610	Isernia	869	Ragusa	5,692
Cremona	11,130	Forlì	12,615	Campobasso	1,508	Siracusa	2,805
Mantova	15,284	Rimini	9,340	Molise	2,377	Sicilia	49,579
Lodi	5,419	Emilia Romagna	150,628	Caserta	10,497	Sassari	4,397
Lecco	7,747	Massa Carrara	3,635	Benevento	1,246	Nuoro	1,425
Lombardia	348,298	Lucca	7,018	Napoli	35,865	Oristano	612
Bolzano	20,576	Pistoia	8,298	Avellino	3,461	Cagliari	5,303
Trento	18,071	Firenze	34,099	Salerno	7,572	Sardegna	11,737
Trentino A.A.	38,647	Livorno	6,761	Campania	58,641	ITALY	1,512,324
Verona	35,966	Pisa	11,344	Foggia	4,560	% North West	32.8
Vicenza	34,999	Arezzo	12,152	Bari	15,023	% North East	25.9
Belluno	4,835	Siena	9,781	Taranto	2,480	% Centre	28.3
Treviso	35,848	Grosseto	5,185	Brindisi	2,623	% South	8.9
Venezia	17,029	Prato	13,185	Lecce	6,608	% Islands	4.1
Padova	21,710	Toscana	111,458	Puglia	31,294		
Rovigo	4,245	Perugia	25,611				
Veneto	154,632	Terni	5,354				
		Umbria	30,965				

Source: Ministry of the Interior 2003

Tab. 1.2 - Foreign residents and length of stay (31.12.2001)

Areas	In 2000 residents for at least				Territorial distribution
	15 years %	10 years %	5 years %	5 years a.v.	
North West	9.2	25.8	54.6	238,837	32.1
North East	7.4	23.6	52.2	168,641	22.7
Centre	13.3	28.0	55.2	228,320	30.8
South	9.4	22.3	50.8	69,115	9.3
Islands	9.1	36.1	61.7	37,000	5.1
Italy	10.0	26.0	54.2	741,913	100.0
Italy a.v.	137,315	356,687	741,913	741,913	741,913

Source: Caritas/Dossier Statistico Immigrazione on data from the Ministry of the Interior and Istat

Tab. 1.3 - Foreign citizens with regular permit of stay by reason (31.12.2002)

Business	662
Adoption	4,049
Foster care	3,041
Political asylum	6,303
Pending citizenship Art.11/1/C Dpr394/99	1,179
Pending emigration	1
Pending authorization for self-employment	118
Pending employment procedure .	1,291
Pending stateless status Art.11/1/C Dpr394	12
Sports activity	1,528
Declaration of presence Art.4 Par.1 L.39/90	31
In Italy for detention	9
Insertion in the labour market Art.36 Dpr 394	1,256
Invitation	90
Enrolment in the employment list	6,650
Subordinate employment	682,747
Subordinate employment – Prospective employment	29,508
Seamen waiting sail	1
Mission (Voluntary service)	43
Commercial reasons/Self-employment	108,615
Justice	548
Health	7,754
Education	43,058
Family	472,240
Religion	54,128
Special reasons with employment opportunity	2,497
Special reasons	2,048
Mission	5,866
Stay permit-Dublin convention 15/10/90	388
Temporary protection Dcpm 12/05/99	25
Residence of choice	48,001
Political asylum application	10,399
Stay permit's issue Art.18 Dlg.25/07/98	851
Stay permit for minor Art.28 Dpr 394	3,026
Stay permit for work during holidays	30
Seeking employment Art.23 D.L.286	1,796
Internship	136
Tourism - Pending emigration	12,399
TOTAL	1,512,324

Source: Ministry of the Interior, 2003 Data: C.E.D. Interforze

Tab. 1.4 - Immigrants : main national groups (1991-2001)

Country	2001	% incr. '91-2001	% women	Country	2001	% incr. '91-2001	% women
Morocco	158,094	1.89	31.9	Peru	29,627	0.27	66.8
Albania	144,120	6.58	38.3	Egypt	26,166	1.41	20.5
Romania	75,377	9.13	50.6	France	25,880	1.56	60.7
Philippines	64,215	1.77	63.9	Uk	23,617	1.36	56.6
China	56,566	3.59	46.0	Macedonia	23,142	n.a.	32.0
Tunisia	46,494	1.12	24.1	Bangladesh	20,127	3.63	18.6
Usa	43,650	1.05	64.8	Brazil	18,776	1.71	73.1
Yugoslavia	36,614	1.37	41.7	Spain	18,775	1.73	68.4
Germany	35,888	1.36	59.1	Pakistan	18,624	2.67	16.3
Senegal	34,811	1.44	8.6	Ghana	17,791	1.57	37.4
Sri Lanka	34,464	2.84	43.7	Nigeria	17,832	3.17	58.6
Poland	30,658	2.53	71.4	Switzerland	16,895	1.13	56.0
India	29,873	3.01	38.3				

Source: Calculations by Caritas/Dossier Statistico Immigrazione from Ministry of the Interior data

Tab. 1.5 - The first year of activity of the PNA – National Asylum Programme (July 2001- August 2002)

Sex and Age group		Legal status		Regional breakdown		
				Area	Number	Number of centres
Men	949	Asylum seekers	972	North West	417	15
Adults	683	Refugees	191	North East	321	8
Minors	266	Humanitarian protection	67	Centre	395	16
Women	545	Decision Pending	68	South	253	15
Adults	320	Approved by police	196	Sicily	108	5
Minors	225					
Total	1,494	Total	1,494	Total	1,494	59

Source: Calculations by Caritas/Dossier Statistico Immigrazione from PNA data

Tab. 1.6 – Distribution of the expenses for social services for immigrants, Roma and Sinti by type of expenses and regions – Year 2001 (€)

Regions	Direct expenses	In direct expenses	Total
Piemonte	63,000	30,000	93,000
Valle d'Aosta	0	215,000	215,000
Lombardia	101,000	15,000	117,000
Trentino-Alto Adige	0	1,171,000	1,171,000
<i>Bolzano-Bozen</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>
<i>Trento</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>1,171,000</i>	<i>1,171,000</i>
Veneto	72,000	131,000	203,000
Friuli-Venezia Giulia	0	0	0
Liguria	0	0	0
Emilia-Romagna	0	112,000	112,000
Toscana	258,000	31,000	289,000
Umbria	0	0	0
Marche	0	45,000	45,000
Lazio	0	5,008,000	5,008,000
Abruzzo	46,000	119,000	165,000
Molise	0	0	0
Campania	0	0	0
Puglia	499,000	0	499,000
Basilicata	0	9,000	9,000
Calabria	0	26,000	26,000
Sicilia	0	415,000	415,000
Sardegna	0	0	0
ITALY	1,040,000	7,328,000	8,368,000
North	237,000	1,674,000	1,911,000
Centre	258,000	5,084,000	5,342,000
South and Islands	545,000	569,000	1,114,000

Source: Istat – Annuario Statistico 2003

Source: Istat – Annuario Statistico 2003

Tab. 1.7 - Immigration in Italy: main indicators (2002)

<i>Immigrant population</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>%</i>
- registered with the Ministry of the Interior	1,512,324	100.00
- total estimated population, including minors and regularised migrants	2,395,000	100.00
- % of population (57,844,017 on 01/01/02)	-	4.2
<i>Origin by continent</i>		
EU	154,076	10.2
Other European countries	488,276	32.3
Africa	401,440	26.5
Asia	279,816	18.5
America	178,593	11.8
Oceania/Stateless	3,509	0.2
Unknown nationality	6,614	0.5
<i>Reasons for residence</i>		
Work	834,478	55.2
Family (including adoption)	476,289	31.5
Religion, residence from abroad, study	145,187	9.6
Political asylum and application for asylum	6,303	0.4
Other motives	50,067	3.4
<i>Regional breakdown</i>		
North West (Lombardia, Piemonte, Liguria, Valle d'Aosta)	495,609	32.8
North East (Veneto, Friuli V. Giulia, Trentino Alto Adige, Emilia R.)	392,211	25.9
Centre (Toscana, Umbria, Marche, Lazio)	428,510	28.3
South (Abruzzo, Molise, Campania, Basilicata, Puglia, Calabria)	134,378	8.9
Islands (Sicilia, Sardegna)	61,316	4.1
<i>Characteristics of the immigrant population</i>		
Males	n.a.	n.a.
Females	n.a.	n.a.
Married (with or without their children)	783,384	51.8
Single	645,762	42.7
Widows	19,660	1.3
Divorced and separated	24,197	1.6
Marital status not registered	39,321	2.6
<i>Visa for immigration reason</i>		
Employed workers	61,108	34.9
Self-employed workers	4,711	2.7
Family reasons	62,063	35.4
Study	40,655	23.2
Religion	5,870	3.3
Residence from abroad	852	0.5

Source: Calculations by Caritas/Dossier Statistico from Ministry of the Interior and Foreign Affairs data

Annex 2

Tab. 2.1. – Number and percentage of families by type of possession and by some characteristics of the house - Years 2001-2002.

YEAR OF OCCUPATION NUMBER OF ROOMS GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS	2001			2002				
	Rent	Ownership	Other	Number of families	Rent	Ownership	Other	Number of families
YEAR OF OCCUPATION								
Until 1960	10.9	81.7	7.4	2,632,601	10.2	81.8	8.0	2,668,314
From 1961 to 1970	13.0	80.6	6.4	3,129,602	13.2	81.0	5.8	2,991,505
From 1971 to 1980	14.9	79.3	5.8	3,999,270	13.9	80.0	6.1	4,149,069
From 1981 to 1991	18.8	72.8	8.4	5,137,969	16.6	74.8	8.6	4,993,139
After 1990	28.7	60.8	10.5	7,267,799	28.1	60.9	11.0	7,445,842
NUMBER OF ROOMS								
1 room	43.6	46.6	9.8	99,168	45.8	40.1	14.1	141,154
2 rooms	42.1	45.8	12.1	1,438,512	39.6	49.4	11.0	1,656,015
3 rooms	30.5	60.5	9.0	4,626,851	29.3	61.5	9.2	5,035,162
4 rooms	19.9	72.1	8.0	7,572,140	16.9	74.7	8.4	7,647,346
5 rooms	11.5	81.0	7.5	5,037,521	10.9	81.0	8.1	4,799,516
More than 5 rooms	5.6	87.4	7.0	3,393,049	5.0	88.3	6.7	2,968,676
RIPARTIZIONI GEOGRAFICHE								
North	20.7	72.0	7.3	10,628,223	19.4	72.7	7.9	10,674,303
Centre	14.9	77.7	7.4	4,301,071	17.5	73.9	8.6	4,323,389
South and islands	20.7	69.3	10.0	7,237,948	18.4	72.3	9.3	7,250,177
ITALY	19.6	72.2	8.2	22,167,241	18.7	72.8	8.5	22,247,869

Source: Istat, Annuario Statistico Italiano 2003

Tab. 2.2 – Rented and own houses by area of origin of the estate owner / tenant and by city (%)

City	Estate owner			Tenant		
	Italian	Eu Citizen	Non-Eu citizen	Italian	Eu Citizen	Non-Eu citizen
<i>Torino</i>	90	5	5	80	10	10
<i>Milano</i>	90	5	5	80	10	10
<i>Genova</i>	95	1	4	75	2	23
<i>Bologna</i>	98	0	2	89	1	10
<i>Bolzano</i>	97	0	3	90	3	7
<i>Trieste</i>	95	2.5	2.5	80	5	15
<i>Venezia</i>	80	7	13	90	8	2
<i>Firenze</i>	95	4	1	86	7	7
<i>Perugia</i>	92	7	1	75	18	7
<i>Roma</i>	80	5	15	90	0	10
<i>Ancona</i>	60	25	15	50	20	30
<i>Chieti</i>	100	0	0	60	20	20
<i>Napoli</i>	100	0	0	90	0	10
<i>Bari</i>	99	0	1	90	0	10
<i>Reggio C.</i>	99	0	1	96	2	2
<i>Cagliari</i>	100	0	0	98	1	1
<i>Palermo</i>	80	10	10	70	10	20

Source: Fiaip – Osservatorio Immobiliare I semestre 2002

Tab. 2.3 – Average rents by city and by type of rent (m2). Year 2000.

City	Agreed rent	Free rent	Special rent for immigrants
ROMA	5.16 €	7.23 €	8.78 €
VENEZIA	5.06 €	7.12 €	8.68 €
FIRENZE	4.96 €	6.97 €	8.00 €
GENOVA	4.26 €	6.45 €	7.64 €
TORINO	4.00 €	5.94 €	7.13 €
NAPOLI	3.55 €	5.47 €	6.82 €
MILANO	3.33 €	5.37 €	6.76 €

Source: data processing by Ares 2000 and Italian NFP. Data by Sunia e Nomisma.

Tab. 2.4 – Housing need for immigrants by country of origin

Country of origin	Number	Without accommodation	Mq
Morocco	145.843	58.337	583.370
Albania	91.537	36.614	366.140
Philippines	67.574	27.029	270.290
Usa	55.839	22.335	223.350
Tunisia	47.261	18.904	189.040
Former Yugoslavia	40.848	16.339	163.390
Germany	40.749	16.299	162.990
China	38.038	15.215	152.150
Romania	37.114	14.845	148.450
Senegal	35.897	14.358	143.580
Sri Lanka	31.294	12.517	125.170
Egypt	27.664	11.065	110.650
Peru'	26.832	10.732	107.320
India	25.320	10.128	101.280
Brasil	19.747	7.898	78.980
Croatia	17.661	7.064	70.640

Source: Data processing by ARES 2000 on data by Caritas Roma 1999

Tab. 2.5 – Average rents (€ by month) by type of accommodation in some Italian cities.

City	One room	Two rooms	Three rooms	Four rooms	More than four rooms	Average rent
<i>Bari</i>	401.67	468.75	568.69	672.60	808.17	533.43
<i>Bologna</i>	762.33	874.55	1049.61	1439.95	1702.96	1,054.53
<i>Catania</i>	571.35	663.7	764.63	761.43	987.95	748.82
<i>Firenze</i>	650.24	875.09	1046.19	1455.68	1657.36	1,014.80
<i>Genova</i>	578.90	626.65	599.10	791.40	925.74	692.39
<i>Milano</i>	659.25	1000.56	1246.11	1929.42	3007.30	1167.52
<i>Napoli</i>	536.04	768.35	1057.47	1229.77	1560.55	856.49
<i>Palermo</i>	432.39	555.67	633.93	804.45	901.45	634.16
<i>Roma</i>	639.43	1001.36	1312.18	1581.25	1960.00	1,061.16
<i>Torino</i>	367.40	511.62	764.65	1009.69	1345.28	617.81
<i>Venezia</i>	780.41	900.00	1026.59	1268.09	1270.83	1,028.26
Average rent	580.88	792.62	918.49	1153.70	1414.40	882.89

Source: Sunia (2003) L'offerta di abitazioni in affitto, cit.

Tab. 2.6 – Incidence of the rent on the yearly income brackets by type of accommodation (%)

Annual Income classes	One-room flat	Two-room flat	Three-room flat	Four-room flat	More than four rooms
7,500.00	81	127	147	185	226
15,000.00	41	63	73	92	113
22,500.00	27	42	49	62	75
30,000.00	20	32	37	46	57
37,500.00	16	25	29	37	45

Source: Sunia (2003) L'offerta di abitazioni in affitto, cit.

Tab. 2.7 – Homeless people by nationality

Nationality	Number	%
Italian citizens	1,281	48.0
Foreign citizens	1,085	40.7
Stateless persons	15	0.6
Not available	287	10.8
Total	2,668	100.0

Source: Fondazione Zancan (2000), cit.

Tab. 2.8 - Reception structures for non-eu citizens (December 31st 2001). Regional Data.

REGION AND GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	RESIDENTIAL STRUCTURES	% ON TOTAL	NON-RESIDENTIAL STRUCTURES	% ON TOTAL
PIEMONTE	123	11.64	28	7.49
VALLE D'AOSTA	2	0.19	1	0.27
LOMBARDIA	212	20.06	29	7.75
LIGURIA	16	1.51	11	2.94
NORTH WEST	353	33.40	69	18.45
TRENTINO A. A.	17	1.61	15	4.01
VENETO	164	15.52	22	5.88
FRIULI V. GIULIA	33	3.12	4	1.07
EMILIA ROMAGNA	200	18.92	40	10.70
NORTH EAST	414	39.17	81	21.66
TOTAL NORTH	767	72.56	150	40.11
TOSCANA	94	8.89	47	12.57
UMBRIA	19	1.80	11	2.94
MARCHE	28	2.65	28	7.49
LAZIO	29	2.74	16	4.28
CENTRE	170	16.08	102	27.27
ABRUZZO	2	0.19	2	0.53
MOLISE	4	0.38	1	0.27
CAMPANIA	24	2.27	34	9.09
PUGLIA	39	3.69	26	6.95
BASILICATA	5	0.47	2	0.53
CALABRIA	19	1.80	19	5.08
SOUTH	93	8.80	84	22.46
SICILIA	24	2.27	31	8.29
SARDEGNA	3	0.28	7	1.87
ISLANDS	27	2.55	38	10.16
TOTAL ITALY	1,057	100.00	374	100.00

Source: Ministry of Interior 2003 - www.pers.mininterno.it/dcds/compendio2001

Tab. 2.9 - Reception centres for non-EU citizens and beds (31st December 2001). Regional Data

REGION AND GEOGRAPHICAL AREA	PUBLIC		PRIVATE		MIXED		TOTAL	
	Number	Beds	Number	Beds	Number	Beds	Number	Beds
PIEMONTE	19	266	85	1,294	19	310	123	1,870
VALLE D'AOSTA	1	12	1	10	0	0	2	22
LOMBARDIA	70	2,200	126	2,137	16	407	212	4,744
LIGURIA	1	8	15	243	0	0	16	251
NORTH WEST	91	2,486	227	3,684	35	717	353	6,887
TRENTINO A. A.	2	116	9	487	6	235	17	838
VENETO	44	1,060	107	1,711	13	157	164	2,928
FRIULI V. GIULIA	16	188	13	124	4	146	33	458
EMILIA ROMAGNA	135	2,411	46	941	19	314	200	3,666
NORTH EAST	197	3,775	175	3,263	42	852	414	7,890
TOTAL NORTH	288	6,261	402	6,947	77	1,569	767	14,777
TOSCANA	40	619	41	524	13	198	94	1,341
UMBRIA	5	81	10	182	4	65	19	328
MARCHE	2	24	23	321	3	16	28	361
LAZIO	3	50	24	660	2	18	29	728
CENTRE	50	774	98	1,687	22	297	170	2,758
ABRUZZO	1	40	1	14	0	0	2	54
MOLISE	1	50	3	27	0	0	4	77
CAMPANIA	1	8	22	342	1	8	24	358
PUGLIA	7	599	29	692	3	121	39	1,412
BASILICATA	2	57	3	26	0	0	5	83
CALABRIA	1	4	14	222	4	224	19	450
SOUTH	13	758	72	1,323	8	353	93	2,434
SICILIA	3	260	19	376	2	20	24	656
SARDEGNA	1	25	2	25	0	0	3	50
ISLANDS	4	285	21	401	2	20	27	706
TOTAL ITALY	355	8,078	593	10,358	109	2,239	1,057	20,675

Source: Ministry of Interior 2003 - www.pers.mininterno.it/dcds/compendio2001

Tab. 2.10. Reception centres in Italy by regions and geographical areas (1996-2001)

Regions	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	Beds (2000)	Beds (2001)
<i>Piemonte</i>	73	73	81	93	94	123	1,570	1,870
<i>Valle d'Aosta</i>	1	2	2	2	2	2	22	22
<i>Lombardia</i>	161	188	198	211	224	212	4,908	4,744
<i>Liguria</i>	10	11	9	13	16	16	249	251
<i>North-West</i>	245	274	290	319	336	353	6,749	6,887
<i>Trentino Alto Adige</i>	6	9	9	10	15	17	1,033	838
<i>Veneto</i>	97	113	142	163	160	164	2,772	2,928
<i>Friuli V. Giulia</i>	23	23	32	36	35	33	475	458
<i>Emilia Romagna</i>	194	200	200	203	185	200	3,372	3,666
<i>North-East</i>	320	345	383	412	395	414	7,652	7,890
<i>Toscana</i>	40	55	77	79	91	94	1,455	1,341
<i>Umbria</i>	15	20	18	18	21	19	345	328
<i>Marche</i>	13	21	24	25	26	28	345	361
<i>Lazio</i>	32	30	30	27	32	29	783	728
<i>Centre</i>	100	126	149	149	170	170	2,928	2,758
<i>Abruzzo</i>	1	1	1	1	2	2	54	54
<i>Molise</i>	2	2	3	3	3	4	70	77
<i>Campania</i>	11	13	23	21	22	24	335	358
<i>Puglia</i>	24	27	28	37	38	39	1,445	1,412
<i>Basilicata</i>	3	1	2	2	3	5	62	83
<i>Calabria</i>	15	15	16	16	16	19	490	450
<i>Sicilia</i>	20	13	15	17	21	24	611	656
<i>Sardegna</i>	1	3	3	3	3	3	50	50
<i>South and Islands</i>	77	75	91	100	108	120	3,117	3,140
<i>Italy</i>	742	820	913	980	1,009	1,057	20,446	20,675
<i>Variation</i>	-	78	93	67	29	48	-	229
<i>Variation %</i>	-	10.5	11.3	7.3	2.9	4.7	-	1.1

Source: Dossier Statistico Immigrazione Caritas 2003, based on data by Ministry of the Interior.

Tab. 2.11 – Type of accommodation by condition of stay in Lombardy Region.

	With permit of stay	Without permit of stay	Total
Own house	10.8	3.3	9.5
Rented house alone or with relatives, with regular contract	53.4	17.7	47.2
Rented house alone or with relatives, without contract	2.9	6.0	3.4
Rented house alone or with relatives, doesn't know	0.5	0.6	0.5
Rented house alone or with relatives - Total	56.8	24.3	51.1
Rented house with other immigrants, with regular contract	12.5	16.8	13.3
Rented house with other immigrants, without contract	2.2	10.0	3.5
Rented house with other immigrants, doesn't know	0.2	1.7	0.4
Rented house with other immigrants - Total	14.9	28.5	17.2
Rented house with regular contract	65.9	34.5	60.5
With relatives, friends	4.0	19.3	6.6
Reception structures	0.7	1.2	0.8
At the workplace	3.4	5.9	3.8
Free concession	6.0	7.1	6.2
At the workplace or free concession - Total	2.1	1.6	2.0
Occupied house	8.1	8.7	8.2
Shanty	0.2	1.3	0.4
Homeless	0.2	2.8	0.7
Occupied house, shanty homeless - Total	0.3	4.0	0.9
Guesthouse or hotel	0.7	8.1	2.0
Other	0.7	0.8	0.7

Source: Fondazione Ismu and Dipartimento di Statistica 2001

Tab. 2.12 – Type of accommodation by type of contract and by nationality in Lombardy Region.

Type of accommodation and type of contract	Albania	China	Philippines	Egypt	Morocco	Senegal	Perù	Total
Own house	4.6	17.7	11.3	7.3	7.9	4.2	7.9	8.9
Guesthouse or hotel	1.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.6
On rent (alone or with relatives), written contract	52.0	47.5	40.4	46.3	54.5	42.0	39.1	43.5
On rent (alone or with relatives), no contract	8.1	3.0	3.2	1.5	4.7	4.2	5.9	4.2
On rent (alone or with relatives), n.a.	0.4	1.5	0.0	2.3	0.6	1.7	1.5	0.8
Guest of relatives / friends	2.7	11.9	3.9	2.3	5.2	4.2	9.7	5.6
On rent with other immigrants, written contract	13.0	5.3	10.4	22.9	12.9	28.9	10.7	15.2
On rent with other immigrants, no contract	8.6	3.8	1.1	10.1	3.8	5.4	7.2	6.0
On rent with other immigrants, n.a.	2.2	0.5	0.0	5.9	2.7	4.2	1.0	2.6
Reception structures	3.1	0.3	0.9	0.2	1.9	0.8	0.8	2.3
Lives with employer	1.5	7.8	27.5	1.1	2.2	0.4	14.6	6.9

Occupied house (squatting)	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.5
Free concession	1.1	0.8	1.3	0.0	0.7	0.4	0.8	1.2
Shanty	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.9	0.8	0.0	0.8
Homeless	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	1.9	0.0	0.7
Other	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.8	0.3	0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Ismu (2003) *La presenza straniera in Lombardia (Presence of foreigners in Lombardy)*. Milan: Ismu

Tab. 2.13. – Type of accommodation of migrants by region. When they arrived (A) and at the time of the survey (B) (%).

Type of accommodation	FRIULI VENEZIA GIULIA		VENETO		EMILIA- ROMAGN A		MARCHE		ABRUZZO	
	(A)	(B)	(A)	(B)	(A)	(B)	(A)	(B)	(A)	(B)
Guesthouse/hotel	5.2	0.4		0.7	7.5	2.0	6.1	0.0		
Residence/public house	3.2	2.8			0.7	3.4	0.0	0.0		
Rented house found by the person interviewed/relatives	29.1	45.8		58.4	17.7	27.0	19.4	53.1		53.5
Rented house found by the Municipality	3.6	5.6		2.0	0.0	2.7	2.0	8.2		
Rented house found by a cooperative	3.2	4.0		2.0	0.0	0.0	2.0	0.0		
Own house	4.0	14		5	0.0	5	6.1			
House shared with other people (non relatives)	7.6	5.2		4.0	26.5	22.3	17.3	13.3	16.6	14.1
Room in the employer's house	0.4	1.2		2.0	2.7	4.1	8.2	10.2	5.9	4.7
Room/accommodation at the workplace	0.4	1.6		2.0	2.0	1.4	0.0	0.0		
Room in other people's house (guest)	14.7	4.4		8.7	17.7	6.1	22.4	5.1	15.3	8.2
Dormitory/Hostel	7.6	8.4			1.4	6.8	3.1	1.0		
Reception centre	8.0	7.2		6.0	5.4	6.8	2.0	1.0		
Occupied/abandoned house	3.6	0.8			2.7	2.0	1.0	0.0		
Emergency accommodation	0.8	0.4			10.2	2.7	5.1	0.0		
Other	5.6	4.4		4.7	5.4	9.5	5.1	3.1		
No answer	3.2	2.0		0.7			0.0	0.0		

Source: processing on data Inte.Mi.Gra, edited by Francesco Carchedi

Tab. 2.14 – Number of public low-rent houses assigned to non-eu citizens in some provinces of the north-east area – years 2000-2001

Area		Nr of houses assigned				Eligible but in a waiting list			
<i>Public houses of property and managed</i>	<i>Province</i>	<i>Non-eu citizens</i>		<i>Italian citizens</i>		<i>Non-eu citizens</i>		<i>Italian citizens</i>	
		2000	2001	2000	2001	2000	2001	2000	2001
17,410	Trieste	64	24	296	382	246	564	4,504	4,744
8,971	Udine	17	24	128	156	-	300	-	2,145
22,812	Bolzano	12	72	435	586	395	533	3,271	3,420
13,042	Trento	32	40	507	387	627	1,106	2,849	3,438
4,653	Verona	42	47	342	306	773	911	1,711	1,461
10,430	Brescia	19	132	153	28	422	452	590	426
4,272	Mantova	50	56	189	79	344	445	421	448
5,914	Gorizia	-	24	-	150	-	104	-	1,416
5,082	Pordenone	28	15	253	173	80	98	2,184	2,242