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Dated

THE WINSTON CHURCHILL MEMORIAL TRUST OF AUSTRALIA

Lucy Adams

2013 Churchill Fellow
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Signed:

Dated: 16 April 2014
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Acknowledgements

It has been an extraordinary privilege to travel so widely and speak so extensively with such a vast range of experts on homelessness and the law. Thank you to the Winston Churchill Memorial Trust for making this possible.

Thank you to my colleagues and friends at Justice Connect Homeless Law for the privilege I have of working with a group of such committed, talented people – it’s a joy to work with you. Particular thanks to Jiselle Hanna for phenomenal trip arrangements, to Chris Holt for taking time to review the report, to Sarah Roberts and Katie Ho for being wonderful, supportive colleagues (and introducing me to geocaching) and to Deb Di Natale for fitting even more into her days while I was away. Thank you to the fabulous Rachel Brown for her communications prowess and to Annabelle Craft for her supreme editing. Also to my friend and former colleague, Chris Povey, for his support and guidance from the outset of this project, through to finalisation of the report.

Thank you to the person referred to as Scott in this report for his permission to use his story for the purpose of creating awareness about the impact of laws regulating public space on people experiencing homelessness.

Thank you to Clayton Utz and Minter Ellison for transcribing my interviews.

I commend the homelessness, community and legal sectors in Victoria for their ongoing work in this field. In particular, to the members of the Infringements Working Group who continue to work to reduce the impact of this system on struggling Victorians. Also, to the pro bono lawyers at Homeless Law’s member law firms whose assistance with fines directly related to homelessness allows our clients to address overwhelming financial burdens, avoid imprisonment and often to move ahead with a clean slate.

My thanks to the members of Victoria Police, the Department of Justice and the City of Melbourne who have expressed interest in this report. I look forward to discussing my findings with you.

This report brings together the wide range of insights people generously shared with me. I was blown away by the time experts took to speak with me about these issues and I am grateful to each of you. Particular thanks to Professor Gary Blasi from UCLA for getting me off to an inspiring start in Los Angeles (and for following the blog); to Lucy Fitzpatrick from Public Counsel for wonderful assistance in Los Angeles, extending to public transport advice, setting up meetings and a lift; Eric Tars and Jeremy Rosen for keeping me up to date with the National Law Center on Homelessness and Poverty’s ground-breaking human rights advocacy and Maria Foscarinis for inviting me to the premier of Sugar; Nan Roman from the National Alliance to End Homelessness for her thoughtful recommendations of experts in this field; Patty Mullahy Fugere from the Washington Legal Clinic for the Homeless for introducing me to the safety net exercise, www.playspent.org and Homelessness 101; Amy Horton-Newell from the American Bar Association Commission on Homelessness and Poverty for pragmatic, practical insights and ideas about collaboration with non-traditional allies; Barbara Poppe and Liz Osborn from the United States Interagency Council on Homelessness for being so accommodating of our last minute venue change and giving me the opportunity to contribute to their pioneering blog, I Believe in Human Rights; Assistant Chief Diane Groomes from the DC Metropolitan Police Department, our telephone conversation made me enthusiastic about the potential for strong police leadership to change the way we respond to homelessness in our communities; Danielle Minelli Pagnotta from the New York City Department of Homeless Services for arranging to include the NYPD Homeless Outreach Unit and the NYC Department of Parks and Recreation in our conversation; Danielle Malangone and Sonia Chowdhury from the Center for Court Innovation for their thoughtful insights into, and generous tours of, innovative problem-solving courts in NYC; Professor Stephen Gaetz for his compelling research, excellent phone conversation and identification of Canadian cities doing things well; Doug King and DJ Larkin from Pivot Legal Society for the enjoyable, enlightening conversations, including about the parallels of our services and our work; Sergeant Mark Montgomery from the City of London Police for so openly sharing information about Operation Fennel and for inviting me to the City of London Anti-Social Behaviour Interagency Working Group; Dr Sarah Johnsen and Professor Suzanne Fitzpatrick from Heriot-Watt University for a delightful lunch, fantastic conversation and their seemingly endless contribution of evidence and insight in the fields of housing and homelessness; Samara Jones and Freek Spinnewijn of FEANTSA for their comprehensive insights from across Europe; and Magdalena Sepúlveda Carmona, the UN Special Rapporteur on Extreme Poverty and Human Rights (2010 – 2014), a global expert on this issue whom it was an extraordinary privilege to speak with.

Thank you to Lucy McKernan and Phil Lynch for their hospitality, as well as their professional support and contribution to the protection and promotion of human rights initially in Australia and now internationally.

Finally, thank you to my wonderful family and to the lovely Dan McKenzie for their tireless support of me and this project.
1. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

<table>
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<th>Project</th>
<th>In the Public Eye: Addressing the negative impact of laws regulating public space on people experiencing homelessness</th>
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1.1. The background

Scott¹ is a 42 year old father of five. He has an acquired brain injury, he battles depression and anxiety and he has struggled with alcohol dependence for over 20 years. He has been homeless for large parts of his adult life. Scott approached Justice Connect Homeless Law for assistance with thousands of dollars in fines for being drunk in a public place. Each one was over $500. His weekly income was $250. We assisted Scott to navigate the legal system set up to deal with fines and infringements. Two years, four court appearances and 13 supporting reports later, the fines had been resolved. Throughout the protracted process, despite a concerted effort at recovery, Scott had received more fines during relapses. And so the process started again.

Justice Connect Homeless Law is a legal service for people who are homeless or at risk of homelessness.² Each year we provide legal assistance to approximately 200 people who have received fines or charges for ‘public space offences’, including having an open container of liquor in public, begging, being drunk in a public place, littering, and conduct on public transport (for example, not paying to travel, smoking on the platform or having your feet on the seat).

Homelessness makes it:

– more likely that you will receive fines or charges for public space offences because you are carrying out your private life in a public place; and

– extremely difficult to deal with fines or charges either through payment or navigating the unwieldy legal process.

The laws, policies and practices that seek to regulate public space in Victoria do not effectively address the underlying causes of a person’s offending. Instead, financial penalties or charges are issued to struggling people, increasing the strain they’re already under. The system also places a burden on legal and community services that assist clients to deal with their fines and charges and causes congestion in the courts.³

¹ Name has been changed.
² Justice Connect Homeless Law was formerly the PILCH Homeless Persons’ Legal Clinic. Established 12 years ago, Justice Connect Homeless Law is a specialist legal service for people experiencing or at risk of homelessness. Homeless Law staff work closely with over 400 pro bono lawyers to provide legal information, advice and representation to hundreds of people experiencing or at risk of homelessness each year. Our services are outreach based and client centred, and we don’t just focus on legal issues. Our Homeless Law social workers and our relationships with the homelessness sector build our capacity to understand and respond to clients with a range of non-legal needs. Our vision is to improve outcomes for our clients through the provision of holistic legal services and evidence-based advocacy. For more information see www.justiceconnect.org.au/our-programs/homeless-law.
1.2. **Enforcement-based approaches to homelessness**

The use of enforcement to deal with the presence and activities of people experiencing homelessness in public spaces is not unique to Victoria.

There has been a proliferation of laws, policies and practices internationally that seek to address homelessness through enforcement-based measures. These measures vary significantly in their form, intention and impact. They include laws expressly prohibiting the presence or activities of people experiencing homelessness (such as laws prohibiting sitting, sleeping or lying on the sidewalk and begging); differential or discriminatory enforcement of neutral laws (for example, laws prohibiting jaywalking or public drunkenness); and the collaborative use of enforcement measures, including police involvement and court orders, intended to prompt people experiencing homelessness to engage with services.

When considering enforcement-based approaches to homelessness, the following factors are relevant:

- what the laws are;
- how the laws are enforced by decision-makers and enforcement officers (including police and ticket inspectors, and encompassing collaborative relationships with homeless services as part of ‘assertive outreach’); and
- how the justice system deals with people once they have entered it (including through tickets, fines, prison, anti-social behaviour orders or tailored community orders).

At each tier of the enforcement process – through law reform, improved enforcement practices and more effective use of justice mechanisms – there is significant potential to reduce the negative impact of laws regulating public space on people experiencing homelessness.

1.3. **Nine cities, over 60 experts – understanding enforcement and identifying alternatives**

The Churchill Fellowship gave me the rare privilege of speaking with over 60 experts in nine cities throughout the US, Canada and Europe about homelessness and the regulation of public space.4

In addition to organisations like Homeless Law that do both direct casework and law reform work, I spoke with police officers, government agencies, advocacy groups, academics, UN experts, community organisers and people with a direct experience of homelessness in Los Angeles, Washington DC, New York City, Vancouver, London, Edinburgh, Geneva, Lyon and Brussels. In addition to face-to-face meetings with a diverse range of experts, I observed the Red Hook Community Justice Center and the Midtown Community Court in New York City, attended the City of London Anti-Social Behaviour Interagency Working Group, accompanied Pivot Legal Society to a homeless encampment in preparation for potential litigation and attended the fundraising event of Picture the Homeless, one of the US’s most active grassroots organisations, founded and led by people who are, or have been, homeless.

There were three main components to this research:

- **Understanding enforcement-based approaches to homelessness** – I wanted to understand the pressures and motivations behind local decisions to use law enforcement to address homelessness, a trend often referred to as the ‘criminalisation’ of homelessness. I also wanted to learn about the impacts (positive and negative)

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4 For reflections about each city, as well as links to the websites and work of the organisations and experts I met with, see this blog: Lucy Adams, In the Public Eye (available at: www.inthepubliceyeblog.wordpress.com).
of enforcement-based approaches on individuals experiencing homelessness, as well as law enforcement, services, the courts and communities. We need to understand what is behind these laws and policies and what their impacts are if we are going to develop effective, constructive proposals for reform.

– **Changing the conversation** – the regulation of public space and homelessness is often framed as an issue of law and order, safe streets and getting tough on crime. It is important that laws, policies and practices designed to respond to homelessness are informed by evidence about the nature and extent of ‘public space offending’ (including begging, public drinking, travelling without a ticket and rough sleeping) and its causes. There is currently limited understanding amongst the general public or decision-makers about the impact of these laws, policies and practices on people experiencing homelessness. I wanted to learn about effective ways of communicating about these issues, including how we can challenge stereotypes about homelessness and its causes in a way that makes room for better informed approaches to dealing with visible homelessness in our communities.

– **Creating alternatives to enforcement** – there is no one place that has a perfect model for regulating public space, but I wanted to get new insights about ways of addressing homelessness that look beyond law enforcement and the justice system (or contemplate a different role for these agencies). Through conversations with people working on the ground, the aim was to pull together new ideas for practical, effective models for dealing with homelessness and related public conduct in a way that addresses the causes instead of punishing the symptoms.

One of the consistent messages from my conversations is that decision-makers often turn to enforcement because of a perceived lack of alternatives. Part of this project is about identifying alternatives by highlighting jurisdictions that are doing things differently. If we can see models that are working in other places, there is little justification for us to persist with inefficient, ineffective enforcement-based approaches to visible homelessness in our communities.
1.4. Ten recommendations

Informed by the insights, expertise and practical experience of over 60 experts from over 40 organisations in nine cities, as well as the evidence-base from Homeless Law’s provision of direct legal services to approximately 200 clients with fines and charges for conduct directly related to homelessness each year, this report presents 10 recommendations for a better informed, more effective, more efficient approach to dealing with the presence and activities of people experiencing homelessness in public spaces.

It is hoped that these recommendations will inform conversations and contemplations about the way we as a community respond to visible homelessness and hardship, and contribute to a shift away from law enforcement and the justice system as the first resort for regulating public space.

1. Recognise that law enforcement is not the obvious solution – there are practical, workable housing, health and service-based models that more effectively address the underlying causes of a person’s homelessness and associated conduct in public places. We need to shift away from the assumption that law enforcement and the justice system are the obvious or only mechanisms for dealing with the use of public space by people experiencing homelessness. If we recognise that law enforcement should not be the automatic first resort, there will be room to consider more efficient and effective responses.

2. Distinguish between health problems and criminal ones – the circumstances that often underpin rough sleeping and associated activities such as public drunkenness or begging (including mental illness or substance dependence) are health issues, not criminal ones. Service-based responses to conduct such as begging and public drunkenness will deliver better outcomes to people experiencing homelessness without the need for the costly use of police, jail and court resources. Service-based responses include sobering up centres, civilian outreach workers and access to housing with tailored supports. There are international examples of how these models work in practice, which show that although they are not inexpensive to implement, they deliver overall cost savings, while also avoiding the harsh impact of tickets, warrants, arrests and jail on a community's most struggling members.

3. Acknowledge the reasons behind enforcement – it is rare that laws, policies or practices regulating public space are developed and implemented with the intention of punishing people for their homelessness (although in practice this is often the impact). Some of the motivations for enforcement-based approaches to homelessness include: a lack of awareness about other solutions; pressure on decision-makers from local communities or businesses; the belief that enforcement is needed to prompt people who are homeless to engage with services; and the ‘broken windows’ theory of policing, which suggests that minor forms of disorder (for example, jaywalking, begging, graffiti and litter) will, if left unaddressed, result in an increase in serious criminal activity. We need to acknowledge the pressures or motivations that lead to enforcement-based approaches to homelessness if we are going to develop effective, constructive proposals for reform.

4. Avoid enforcement-based approaches that react to community discomfort – many people are uncomfortable with visible homelessness and hardship. This can lead to heightened perceptions of aggression, or complaints from individuals or businesses about the presence and conduct of people experiencing homelessness in their communities. This tension continues to grow as gentrification changes local communities. It is important to consider what shapes community perceptions of people experiencing homelessness so that we can distinguish – both at a policy level and on the ground – between actual aggression, which is unacceptable and can be dealt with via existing justice mechanisms, and perceived aggression, which may be informed by lack of understanding, stereotypes and the general public’s discomfort with people experiencing very obvious hardship in our communities. Laws, policies and practices should respond to evidence about crime and its causes, not to uneasiness or annoyance with people experiencing homelessness.

5. Collect and rely on evidence about causes and impacts – there are multiple relevant qualitative and quantitative studies about the impact of enforcement on people experiencing homelessness, the cost to government of ticketing people experiencing homelessness and the circumstances of people who beg. This evidence is, however, rarely gathered by decision-makers either before introducing enforcement-based
approaches or in the course of evaluating the success or otherwise of these approaches. In the absence of a well-informed understanding of the problems and their causes, it is impossible to design responses that effectively address those problems and it is more likely that unanticipated negative consequences will arise (including in the form of significant costs, congestion in the courts and exacerbated hardship for people experiencing homelessness). We need to include quantitative and qualitative evidence in the development and evaluation of laws, policies and practices dealing with the use of public space by people experiencing homelessness.

6. **Work with non-traditional partners** – often we assume that government, police, business, homeless advocates and people experiencing homelessness have incompatible interests in relation to homelessness and public space. Homelessness is a problem for the entire community and it requires us to work together to address it. There is significant potential for these groups to collaborate to provide the expertise, insights and resources needed to develop and implement effective solutions to homelessness and associated conduct in public places.

7. **Break down stereotypes through advocacy, education and awareness raising** – many enforcement-based approaches to homelessness (including new laws, disproportionate enforcement of existing laws and ‘crackdowns’ or ‘blitzes’ on conduct in public spaces) are a response to pressure from local communities and businesses who are concerned about the presence and activities of people experiencing homelessness in their local area. Increased community understanding of homelessness, including who it affects and why, will lead to better-informed conversations about appropriate responses to homelessness. We need to communicate personal stories that help challenge stereotypes and build awareness and understanding of homelessness, its causes and its impacts. The role of people with a direct experience of homelessness is critical – their insights are crucial to the development and implementation of well thought out, appropriate, effective responses to homelessness.

8. **Recognise that enforcement is a high-risk option for dealing with people experiencing homelessness** – enforcement-based approaches present risks to the wellbeing and safety of people experiencing homelessness, including excluding them from safe spaces, dislocating existing relationships with services or pushing them into more damaging activities. Although there are respected outreach workers and agencies that identify enforcement as having a role to play, as a last resort, in prompting people to engage with services, there are a number of safeguards that are important components of enforcement-based outreach models, including: they should not be used with extremely vulnerable people, particularly people experiencing mental illness; they must be carefully integrated with individually tailored and immediately accessible support services; and there must always be appropriate warning stages. Importantly, these measures will minimise, but not eliminate the risk that enforcement will have a harmful impact on people experiencing homelessness. In light of the high and unavoidable risks, all decision-makers should question whether these initiatives are justified. Furthermore, prison is not a substitute for supported housing, mental health care or substance dependence treatment and its role as the ‘stick’ in enforcement-based approaches to homelessness should be re-considered.

9. **Undertake transparent cost assessments before, during and after enforcement-based approaches** – the financial costs of alternatives to enforcement-based approaches to homelessness are often identified as a barrier to their adoption or implementation. There is no doubt that housing, health and service-based responses to homelessness cost money to implement. However, there is often little analysis of the cost implications for government, police and the courts of developing and implementing enforcement-based approaches to homelessness (for example, considering the costs of police time to issue tickets and carry out arrests for ‘public space offences’, court time to process fines, charges or warrants and jail time). Transparent assessments of the costs of enforcement must be a feature of conversations and decisions about effective and efficient approaches to addressing homelessness and regulating public space in our communities.

10. **Work effectively with law enforcement officers** – there is significant potential to develop strong, effective partnerships with police in a co-operative effort to respond to homelessness and related conduct in public places. Enforcement-based responses to homelessness are resource intensive for police and police are not always equipped to deal with the complex health and social problems underpinning a person’s homelessness.
or conduct. Local police should work with government and non-government agencies to develop a protocol that aims to: avoid unnecessary interactions with people experiencing homelessness; make sure that where interactions do occur they are appropriate; and support officers to consider options other than fines and arrests when dealing with people experiencing homelessness. Leadership within the police force is essential and the protocol needs to be accompanied by education and training to build police awareness about homelessness, its causes and its impact on people’s conduct in public places. Police also need to have access to services and referral pathways, so that they are in a position to link people with supports and play a frontline role in diverting people from the criminal justice path that will not effectively change a person’s conduct or address the underlying causes of offending. There should be a stated and measurable goal of reducing the number of tickets given to, and arrests of, people experiencing homelessness.
2. HOMELESSNESS, PUBLIC SPACE AND THE LAW

The laws, policies and practices that seek to deal with homelessness through enforcement-based measures vary significantly in their form, intention and impact. This section:

– Identifies six different types of enforcement-based approaches to homelessness;
– Explains the Victorian context for regulating homelessness and related conduct, including through the fines and infringements system and a recent targeted response to begging; and
– Provides international examples of enforcement-based approaches to homelessness.

This section provides the definitions and context for the discussion throughout this report.

2.1. Enforcement-based approaches to homelessness and ‘criminalisation’

When this report talks about ‘enforcement-based approaches to homelessness’ it refers to the following types of laws, policies and practices.

### Enforcement-based approaches to homelessness

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<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td><strong>Express laws</strong> – laws that directly prohibit the activities of people experiencing homelessness, including laws prohibiting sleeping in public places, sitting on sidewalks and begging.⁵</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td><strong>Neutral laws with a disproportionate impact</strong> – neutral laws that impact disproportionately on people experiencing homelessness because they are more likely to be carrying out their private activities in public (for example, drinking in public or public urination).⁶</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td><strong>Neutral laws enforced differently</strong> – neutral laws (for example, laws prohibiting jaywalking, public drunkenness and public transport offences and general ‘stop and search’ powers) that are enforced differently because of the increased visibility of people experiencing homelessness and/or attitudes of law enforcement officers toward people experiencing homelessness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td><strong>Targeted collaborative enforcement</strong> – targeted use of police enforcement (for example, arrest or move-on powers) in collaboration with homelessness support agencies to ‘disrupt’ rough sleepers and promote engagement with services.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td><strong>‘Crackdowns’ or blitzes</strong> – more intensive, targeted enforcement of existing laws prohibiting, for example,</td>
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⁵ There is often debate about whether people who beg are experiencing homelessness. This is discussed further in parts 4.2 and 6.1 below.

⁶ See, eg, Dr Tamara Walsh, Homelessness and the Law (Federation Press, 2011) 71. Dr Walsh notes that laws creating public space offences ‘criminalise behaviour conducted in public space that would be lawful if conducted in private space, such as urinating, drinking alcohol or being drunk’.
begging, sleeping in public places and sitting on sidewalks, for short periods as part of a direction by
government or law enforcement officers.

6. **Tickets, fines, court orders and sentences** – use of tickets, fines, court orders and sentences, including
community corrections orders and ‘anti-social behaviour orders’, to deter or modify the movement and
activities of people experiencing homelessness.

When considering enforcement-based approaches to homelessness, the following factors are relevant:

- what the laws are;
- how the laws are enforced by decision-makers and enforcement officers (including police and ticket
inspectors, and encompassing collaborative relationships with homeless services as part of ‘assertive
outreach’); and
- how the justice system deals with people once they have entered it (including through tickets, fines, prison,
anti-social behaviour orders or tailored community orders).

My research did not assume that there is no role for enforcement in addressing homelessness and use of public
space. I considered models that balance enforcement with service provision and learned from international
research about what works and in what circumstances. I learned about the benefits and the often high risks of
enforcement-based approaches to use of public space by people experiencing homelessness.

Accordingly, references to ‘enforcement-based approaches to homelessness’ in this report are not necessarily
critical. Many of the experts I spoke with saw some role for enforcement, particularly in relation to rough sleeping
and begging and these models have been given careful consideration (for example part 4.1).

The term ‘criminalisation’ of homelessness is used throughout this report. ‘Criminalisation’ is widely used in the
US, but is not commonly used in the UK and has only recently been invoked in other parts of Europe. The term is
succinctly explained by O’Grady, Gaetz and Buccieri as ‘[the] use of policing and the criminal justice system as
central features of our response to homelessness.’

‘Criminalisation’ does not necessarily capture all enforcement-based approaches to homelessness, including, for
example, ‘designing out’ people experiencing homelessness through measures such as modification of park
benches or use of ‘trespass barriers’. ‘Criminalisation’ could also be interpreted as a partisan term and is
commonly used for advocacy purposes to criticise enforcement-based approaches to homelessness. This report
does not use the term in that way. Rather, it is used to recognise the reality of most enforcement-based
approaches, which is that using law enforcement mechanisms to address homelessness means that people enter
the criminal justice system. Even carefully considered, service integrated, last resort enforcement measures still
entail interaction with the criminal justice system and this is something we should be open about when
considering the benefits and risks of such approaches.

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10 Bill O’Grady, Stephen Gaetz and Kristy Buccieri, Can I See your ID? The Policing of Youth Homelessness in Toronto (The Homeless Hub Report Series, No 5, 2011) 7 (O’Grady, Gaetz and Buccieri, Can I See your ID?).
2.2. The Victorian context

Homelessness, public space offences and fines

There are 22,789 people experiencing homelessness in Victoria; 1092 people sleep rough and others stay in refuges, temporary accommodation or rooming houses, sleep in cars or couch surf.\(^\text{11}\)

The lack of a safe and secure home means that you are carrying out most of your life in public places. In addition, you are reliant on public transport, experiencing severe financial hardship and may be dealing with other complex circumstances including deteriorating mental health or escalating substance use. Homelessness also makes you very visible to enforcement officers. As the system currently works, these factors mean that, during periods of homelessness, people can accrue multiple charges or thousands of dollars in fines and infringements for a range of behaviours directly related to their homelessness.

Justice Connect Homeless Law assists about 200 clients every year with fines and infringements directly related to homelessness.\(^\text{12}\) The main offences that our clients present with are: having an open container of liquor in public, begging, being drunk in a public place, littering, and conduct on public transport (for example, not paying to travel, smoking on the platform or having your feet on the seat). People sleeping in their cars or travelling between crisis accommodation often also incur fines for parking or tollway offences.

Overwhelming debts and prison

The most common type of enforcement we see is that our clients are issued with infringements (i.e. tickets or citations) for these offences, rather than a charge and summons (which were more common in many of the cities I visited).

A fine for being drunk in a public place is approximately $600 and a fine for not having a valid public transport ticket or for having your feet on the seat is $212. The average weekly wage in Australia is $1422.70 (as at May


\(^\text{12}\) Between 1 July 2012 – 30 June 2013, Homeless Law took 310 enquiries from people seeking assistance with fines and infringements. We opened 166 new matters for clients needing legal assistance with fines and infringements directly related to homelessness.
and the weekly income of a person on Newstart Allowance (Australia’s most basic level of social welfare) is $248.50, i.e. 17.5% of the average weekly earnings.

This means that an infringement for not having a ticket on public transport is 85% of a Newstart recipient’s weekly income. A fine for being drunk in public is 240% of that weekly income.

A person’s poverty and special circumstances may mean that they are unable to pay their fines or engage with the review process within required timeframes. Infringements and penalty costs and fees can become overwhelming debts and cause significant stress and financial strain for disadvantaged Victorians.

If a person does not address their infringements, warrants are issued and the person can have their licence or registration suspended or their property seized. Clients with no assets, who are not eligible for community work (for example, because the amount owing exceeds $15,000 or there are factors such as mental illness, substance dependence or caring obligations that would prevent them completing the work), are arrested, brought before the court and can face imprisonment. 14

In summary, what we see through our work is that the burden of multiple infringements and the threat of enforcement, including the risk of imprisonment, exacerbate the stress and social exclusion of homelessness.

The ‘special circumstances’ process (and its costs)

A strength of the Victorian system is the ‘special circumstances’ process, which allows a fine or fines to be waived where it can be shown that a person’s mental illness, substance dependence and/or homelessness caused them to be unable to understand or control the offending conduct. 15 Unfortunately, it is an unwieldy, inefficient process, which often takes over 12 months and makes it very difficult for clients to stay engaged. 16 It also imposes a significant resource burden on legal and community services that assist clients to deal with their infringements and creates congestion in the justice system.

By way of example, in 2013 Homeless Law engaged an independent consultant to analyse the resource implications of the infringements system. The consultant reviewed 13 infringements files run by Homeless Law and made the following key findings:

- **Overwhelming debts** – on average, individuals accumulated 18 infringements each, valued at $6,363 per person. One person had 61 infringements, with a total value of $17,237.

- **Difficult to resolve** – duration of cases can vary, with cases analysed taking between 6 months and 2.5 years to resolve. The average time taken to resolve an infringements matter was 14 months.

- **Expensive** – the average cost to pro bono law firms of running an infringements matter was $19,825 per case. One case required an investment equivalent to $54,000 in fees to resolve. 17

The current system is a costly one, both in terms of its impact on vulnerable people and its strain courts and services.

**Begging in Melbourne**

In 2005 Victoria repealed the *Vagrancy Act 1966* (Vic), but retained the offence of ‘beg or gather alms’ in the *Summary Offences Act 1966* (Vic). 18

14 *Infringements Act 2006* (Vic) s 160.
17 Justice Connect Homeless Law, *What’s the Cost?*, above n 3.
In 2008 Homeless Law surveyed people begging in the City of Melbourne: 54% had a mental illness; 73% were experiencing long-term unemployment; 23% were victims of domestic or family violence; and 90% were sleeping rough or staying in men’s shelters.18

In early 2013 in response to a reported increase in ‘aggressive’ begging, an enforcement-based approach to begging in the City of Melbourne was commenced.20 Operation Minta is a coordinated response by the City of Melbourne, Victoria Police and the Salvation Army (with some involvement from other agencies including the Magistrates’ Court and Homeless Law).

Under Operation Minta, people begging in the City of Melbourne are charged and required to attend court on a nominated day. They are then put on a compulsory diversion program by a Magistrate. Defendants’ matters are adjourned for three months during which they are required to participate in the court ordered diversion program:

The diversion program would be pretty basic: attend at the Salvos, and get a health check with some counselling and advice; take advantage of the available health, training and employment opportunities; and stay off the streets ... If beggars continue to beg, or continually fail to meet the very basic requirements of a diversion program, legal consequences should follow.21

At the time of the Operation’s introduction in 2013, there was significant media attention on begging in Melbourne, much of which was negative.22 In recent months, the public conversations around homelessness and poverty in Melbourne have shifted slightly. On 5 January 2014, Wayne ‘Mousey’ Perry, was fatally stabbed while sleeping under a bridge in central Melbourne.23 Mr Perry’s tragic death has increased community awareness of the danger and hardship that homelessness brings with it.24 It has drawn attention to the fact that homelessness services cannot keep up with demand and that 86 Victorians are turned away each night.25

The City of Melbourne has also recently published the results of its qualitative research involving interviews with 35 people sleeping rough in the Melbourne. Living Rough in Melbourne aims to capture: ‘the lived experience of those who live rough in the city of Melbourne, with a view to better understanding the pathways into, through and out of rough sleeping’.26 The research identified that:

[Throughout their lives, many of the participants had experienced violence, sexual abuse, poverty, neglect, incarceration and exposure to drugs or alcohol from a young age ... the pathways into homelessness are complex and individual. These are people whose lives have been defined by disadvantage.27

These changes to awareness and perceptions of homelessness in Melbourne create an opening for careful consideration of how we respond to visible homelessness and hardship, including begging, in our community.

19 PILCH Homeless Persons’ Legal Clinic, We Want Change: Calling for the abolition of the criminal offence of begging (November 2010).
20 See, eg, Lord Mayor Robert Doyle, ‘I have a plan to deal with scourge of our streets’, Herald Sun (10 March 2013).
21 Ibid. See also, John Masanauskas, ‘Police appeal to public to refuse aggressive begging’ The Australian (19 April 2013).
22 See, eg, Lord Mayor Robert Doyle, above n 20; John Masanauskas, ‘Tough love plan for city beggars and homeless’ Herald Sun (10 March 2013); Adrian Lowe, ‘New Plan for city’s beggars’ The Age (11 March 2013); Samantha Donovan, ‘Melbourne denies begging crackdown’ ABC PM (11 March 2013); Rebekah Cavanagh, ‘Beggar forced to ask for money because he says he is barely getting by’ Herald Sun (10 March 2013).
24 See, eg, Aisha Dow, ‘Family and friends farewell Wayne ‘Mousey’ Perry’ The Age (10 January 2014); Aisha Dow, ‘Murdered homeless man Wayne “Mousey” Perry a grandfather, says son’ The Age (10 January 2014); Aisha Dow, ‘Hundreds gather to show Wayne “Mousey” Perry’s death not in vain’ The Age (17 February 2014); Kathy Marks, ‘Forgotten in life, a victim shames a city: The violent murder of a homeless man triggers Melbourne’s remorse’ The Independent (12 January 2014).
26 City of Melbourne, Living Rough in Melbourne: Street Count 2013 (January 2014) (City of Melbourne, Living Rough in Melbourne).
27 City of Melbourne, Media Release: Finding a Way Out: New Study into Homelessness (29 January 2014) (available at: http://www.melbourne.vic.gov.au/AboutCouncil/MediaReleases/Pages/Findingawayoutnewstudyintohomelessness.aspx). See City of Melbourne, Living Rough in Melbourne, above n 26: 78% of participants had been exposed to drugs and alcohol as a teenager, 70% experienced childhood sexual or physical abuse, 67% had left school early, 45% had a disability of some kind and 21% had been in state care. Half of those interviewed had been assaulted at some stage while living on the streets.
2.3. **International examples of enforcement-based approaches to homelessness**

Enforcement-based approaches to homelessness take a range of different forms and I wanted to get a sense of what these laws, policies and practices look like in other jurisdictions. This section collates a number of examples that fall into the six categories of enforcement-based approaches to homelessness identified in part 2.1:

1. laws that expressly prohibit the activities of people experiencing homelessness;
2. neutral laws that impact disproportionately on people experiencing homelessness because they are more likely to be carrying out their private activities in public places;
3. neutral laws that are enforced differently because of the increased visibility of people experiencing homelessness and/or attitudes of law enforcement officers toward people experiencing homelessness;
4. targeted use of enforcement in collaboration with homelessness support agencies to ‘disrupt’ rough sleepers and promote engagement with services;
5. ‘crackdowns’ or blitzes or enforcement for short periods as part of a direction by government or law enforcement officers; and
6. use of tickets, fines, court orders and sentences to deter or modify the movement and activities of people experiencing homelessness.

There may be some debate about which category these examples fall into (particularly regarding the cause of differential enforcement and, accordingly, whether an example falls into category 2 or 3). In fact, a number of the examples listed could fall into either category 2 or 3 depending on the nature of enforcement. Furthermore, many enforcement activities will involve more than one of these components. For example:

- a blitz or ‘crackdown’ (5) using an existing law that prohibits sitting, sleeping or lying on the sidewalk (1), which is enforced through arrest and sentencing (6); or
- targeted use of enforcement in collaboration with homelessness support agencies to disrupt rough sleepers and promote engagement with services (4), which relies on laws that expressly prohibit ‘vagrancy’ (1) and where an anti-social behaviour order regulating movement and conduct will be applied for in the event of non-engagement with services (6).

This is not intended to be a comprehensive summary of enforcement-based mechanisms in the jurisdictions I visited. The examples are provided to give context to the analysis carried out below, including the motivation for different enforcement-based measures and their impact on people experiencing homelessness, services, communities and the courts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of enforcement-based law, policy or practice</th>
<th>Jurisdiction and example</th>
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</thead>
</table>
| 1 Express laws – laws that expressly prohibit the activities of people experiencing homelessness | Los Angeles – prohibition on sitting, sleeping or lying on the sidewalk  
Section 41.18 (d) of the *Los Angeles Municipal Code* provides that ‘[n]o person shall sit, lie or sleep in or upon any street, sidewalk or other public way’. Violation of s 41.18(d) is punishable by a fine of up to $1000 or up to six months imprisonment.28  

Toronto – panhandling and squeegeeing |

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<tr>
<th>Type of enforcement-based law, policy or practice</th>
<th>Jurisdiction and example</th>
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| The Ontario Safe Streets Act 1999 was introduced in response to an increase in homelessness and concerns about associated increases in panhandling and ‘squeegee’ (window washing at traffic lights). The Act prohibits solicitation ‘in an aggressive manner’ and of a ‘captive audience’. It defines: | Denver – ban on urban camping  
In May 2012 Denver passed the Unauthorized Camping Ordinance, which makes it a crime for a person to shelter from the elements while residing on any public or private property, without appropriate permission: ‘Under this law, it is illegal for homeless people to sleep, sit for extended periods, or store their personal belongings anywhere in Denver, if they use any form of protection other than their clothing (for example, a blanket or a piece of cardboard to sit upon)’. Violations of the urban camping ban can result in fines up to $999 or one year imprisonment. |
| – ‘solicit’ to mean ‘to request, in person, the immediate provision of money or another thing of value, regardless of whether consideration is offered or provided in return, using the spoken, written or printed word, a gesture or other means’; and | Hungary – Constitution provides for prohibition of rough sleeping  
On 11 March 2013 the Parliament of Hungary adopted the Fourth Amendment to Hungary’s Fundamental Law:  
‘Article XXII  
(1) Hungary shall strive to provide the conditions for housing with human dignity and to guarantee access to public services for everyone.  
(2) The State and local governments shall contribute to creating the conditions for housing with human dignity by striving to guarantee housing for every homeless person.  
(3) An Act of Parliament or local government decree may outlaw the use of certain public spaces for habitation in order to preserve the public order, public safety, public health and cultural values.’ |
| – ‘aggressive manner’ to mean ‘a manner that is likely to cause a reasonable person to be concerned for his or her safety or security’. | England – begging and rough sleeping  
Sections 3 and 4 of the Vagrancy Act 1824 respectively deal with:  
– ‘Every person wandering abroad, or placing himself or herself in any public place, street, highway, court, or passage, to beg or gather alms’; and |

30 Ibid.  
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<tr>
<th>Type of enforcement-based law, policy or practice</th>
<th>Jurisdiction and example</th>
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| 2 Neutral laws with a disproportionate impact — neutral laws that impact disproportionately on people experiencing homelessness because they are more likely to be carrying out their private activities in public places | **Victoria – begging or gathering aims**

Under s 49A(1) of the *Summary Offences Act 1966* (Vic) ‘[a] person must not beg or gather alms’.

**Public urination in US cities**

In 2011, the National Law Center on Homelessness and Poverty (NLCHP) surveyed 154 homeless advocates (43%), service providers (51%) and people who were experiencing or had experienced homelessness (6%) about enforcement-based approaches to homelessness in their cities. When asked whether people experiencing homelessness in their cities were given citations or arrested from conduct in public places, 73% said homeless people were arrested or given a citation for public urination or defecation. In March 2011, UN independent expert Catarina de Albuquerque, who is mandated by the UN Human Rights Council to examine human rights obligations for access to safe drinking water and sanitation, noted that local statutes prohibiting public urination and defecation, ‘while facially constitutional are often discriminatory in their effects’ and, further: ‘Such discrimination often occurs because such statutes are enforced against homeless individuals, who often have no access to public restrooms and are given no alternatives’.

**Victoria – public drunkenness laws**

Despite several major reports recommending that public drunkenness be decriminalised in Victoria, s 13 of the *Summary Offences Act 1966* (Vic) continues to provide that ‘any person found drunk in a public place shall be guilty of an offence’ punishable by a fine of up to eight penalty units.

In December 2009, changes to the *Summary Offences Act 1966* (Vic) expanded the use of infringement notices for public drunkenness offences. These changes were part of an initiative by Government to give police greater powers to combat violence and antisocial behaviour. Under the new powers, between 16 December 2009 and 18 July 2012, 32,474 infringement notices were issued for being drunk in a public place.

In 2011/2012, 14,557 people were taken into custody where the custody reason was an ‘arrest – drunk’.

| 3 Neutral laws enforced | **New York City – stop and frisk** |


3 UN independent expert Catarina de Albuquerque, ‘US discriminates on right to safe water and sanitation, says UN expert’ UN News Centre (4 March 2011).


35 *Summary Offences Act 1966* (Vic) s 13. ‘Public place’ is defined extremely broadly in s 3 of the Summary Offences Act and includes: public highways, roads, streets, bridges, footpaths, avenues or thoroughfares; parks, gardens and other places of public recreation or resort; railway stations, platforms or carriages; wharfs, piers and jetties; public vehicles ‘plying for hire’; churches or chapels open to the public ‘or any other building where divine service is being publicly held’; Government schools or their land; public halls, theatres or rooms ‘while members of the public are in attendance at, or are assembling for or departing from, a public entertainment or meeting therein’; markets; licensed premises or authorised premises within the meaning of the *Liquor Control Reform Act 1998* (Vic); race-courses, cricket or football grounds; and open places that the public are permitted to have access to, whether with or without payment for admission.


37 Ibid.

38 Ibid.
### Type of enforcement-based law, policy or practice

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<th>Jurisdiction and example</th>
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<tr>
<td>differently – neutral laws that are enforced differently because of the increased visibility of people experiencing homelessness and/or attitudes of law enforcement officers toward people experiencing homelessness</td>
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‘Stop and frisk’ is the police practice of temporarily detaining people on the street, questioning them, and possibly also frisking or searching them. Section 140.50 of the New York Criminal Procedure Law authorises a police officer ’to stop a person in a public place ... when he reasonably suspects that such person is committing, has committed or is about to commit either (a) a felony or (b) a misdemeanor’. Approximately 685,000 stop and frisks were carried out in 2011. Approximately 2.4 million stops occurred between 2009 – 2012. Close to 150,000 arrests resulted from those stops (i.e. only 6% of stops resulted in arrest). On 12 August 2013, a federal court judge found that the stops disproportionately impacted minorities (84% of people stopped were black and Latino despite these two groups only making up 52% of the city’s population) and were unconstitutional (i.e. the New York Police Department (NYPD)) had violated the equal protection clause in the Fourteenth Amendment and the Fourth Amendment, which prohibits unreasonable searches and seizures).

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**Jaywalking and illegal street vending in the Downtown Eastside, Vancouver, Canada**

In 2013, the Vancouver Area Network of Drug Users (VANDU) and Pivot Legal Society filed a complaint against the Vancouver Police Department after the results of a freedom of information request showed that 95% of tickets issued under the Street and Traffic Bylaw (for jaywalking and illegal street vending) had been issued in the Downtown Eastside (DTES) (the Vancouver area with the highest concentration of homelessness and poverty).

The data showed that 1448 tickets were given out in the DTES, followed by 28 in the next highest neighbourhood. The complaint highlighted that the enforcement of these offences and the issuing of tickets was discriminatory and disproportionately targeted homeless and low income residents in the DTES.

The Police Board dismissed the complaint. Pivot and VANDU subsequently asked the Office of the Police Complaint Commissioner to review this dismissal. The Complaint Commissioner found that the Police Department’s report was flawed, and called on the Police Board to develop a policy aimed at reducing the number of tickets issued for minor offences in the Downtown Eastside.

**Pedestrian citations in LA’s Skid Row**

A review of ‘pedestrian citations’ (walking on the ‘don’t walk’ signal, jaywalking and walking on a roadway) showed that Safer Cities Initiative police issued about 875 pedestrian citations per month in Skid Row. This compared with 6,977 pedestrian citations per month written by all the officers of the Los Angeles Police Department across the entire City. Skid Row makes up 0.18% of the City’s area and 0.26% of the City’s population, but was home to 12.5% of pedestrian citations. Analysis indicated that ‘all other things being equal, the odds of a person receiving a pedestrian citation are between 48 and 69 times greater in Skid Row than in the rest of the City’.

**Various public conduct under local US laws**

In the 2011 NLCHP survey of homeless advocates, service providers and people who were experiencing or had experienced homelessness, respondents reported arrests, citations or both in their city for the following offences:

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40 City of Vancouver British Columbia Street and Traffic By-Law No 2849 ss 12 and 66.
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<tr>
<th>Type of enforcement-based law, policy or practice</th>
<th>Jurisdiction and example</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Public urination/defecation – 73%</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Camping/sleeping in public – 55%</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Loitering – 55%</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Panhandling – 53%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Public storage of belongings – 20%</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>- Sidewalk-sitting – 19%</td>
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When asked whether people experiencing homelessness are disproportionately targeted by law enforcement, 65% of respondents said that they believed homeless people are more likely than other individuals to be given citations and/or arrested for similar violations.43

4 Targeted collaborative enforcement – targeted use of enforcement in collaboration with homelessness support agencies to ‘disrupt’ rough sleepers and promote engagement with services

44 The UK has been the site of sophisticated homelessness reduction strategies since the 1990s. One aspect of strategies to reduce homelessness, particularly rough sleeping, is a number of collaborative ‘tough love’ approaches to homelessness and public space, involving homeless outreach agencies, police, housing services, local councils and/or drug and alcohol services.45

One example is Operation Poncho: ‘Operation Poncho is an integral part of the approach to engaging with rough sleepers and highlights the effective partnership of Broadway, City of London departments and the police. The operation is running five days a week, financed from the homelessness budget and the Cleansing Services Department of the Built Environment’. Operation Poncho involves homeless outreach workers patrolling streets with police at approximately 1:00 – 3:00am to ‘disrupt’ rough sleepers and prompt them to engage with services.46


43 NLCHP 2011, Criminalizing Crisis, above n 32, 17.
44 See, eg, Suzanne Fitzpatrick, Peter Kemp and Susanne Klinker, Single homelessness: An overview of research in Britain (Policy Press, Bristol UK, 2000) (Fitzpatrick, Kemp and Klinker, Single homelessness).
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| 'Crackdowns' or blitzes – more intensive, targeted enforcement of existing laws as part of a direction by government or law enforcement officers | respectively who moved into accommodation through this model of outreach and enforcement.  

Vancouver – pre-Olympic Games ticketing blitz
A ‘ticketing blitz’ began in late 2008, in the lead up to the 2010 Olympic Games. A year-end report showed 1,264 municipal and provincial bylaw-violation tickets were handed out in December 2008 alone, compared to 544 tickets in all of 2007.  

Begging blitz in the City of London
In the early months of 2013 the City of London Police undertook a blitz on people begging in the City (an area of one square mile with a resident population of approximately 7,400 but a daily influx of approximately 300,000 commuters and business people per day).  Police Sergeant Mark Montgomery from the City of London Police Street Intervention Team explained that, after arresting 48 people and seeing the same faces ‘again and again’, they thought: ‘this is ridiculous, surely there’s got to be a better way of dealing with this’.  Sergeant Montgomery said the motivation to implement a program that addressed the causes of offending behaviour led to Operation Fennel. |

Tickets, fines, court orders and sentences – use of tickets, fines, court orders and sentences to deter or modify the movement and activities of people experiencing homelessness | Anti-social behaviour orders
Anti-social behaviour orders (ASBOs) were introduced by the Crime and Disorder Act 1998 and strengthened by the Police Reform Act 2002. They are civil orders that exist to protect the public from behaviour that causes or is likely to cause ‘harassment, alarm or distress’. Applications for ASBOs can be made to the Magistrates’ Court acting in its civil capacity or the order can be requested if a defendant is convicted of an offence in the criminal courts. It is a civil order, but breach is a criminal offence carrying a sentence of up to five years jail. The kinds of conditions attached to ASBOs include that the individual must not:

– enter a prescribed geographical area;
– be within sight of any entrance of a railway station unless in possession of a valid ticket for departure within one hour;
– ask any person in a prescribed geographical area for money except as part of a retail or banking transaction or under a contract of employment or legitimate benefit claim; or
– be in possession or any item that is believed by officers to have been modified for drug use,
for a set period (often 2 – 3 years).  

Ticketing in Ontario under the Safe Streets Act
The Safe Streets Act 1999 makes aggressive panhandling and ‘squeegeeing’ an offence. A total of 67,388 tickets were issued throughout 2000 – 2010, with a total value of $4,043,280; $8,086.56 of the fines has been paid over the 11 year period.  

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47 Based on conversation with, and material provided by, representatives from New York City Department of Homeless Services, the NYPD and Sanitation and Parks on 18 November 2013.
48 Sunny Dhillon, ‘Ease up on minor Downtown Eastside offences, Vancouver police urged’ The Globe and Mail (5 December 2013).
50 O’Grady, Gaetz and Buccieri, Can I See your ID?, above n 10, 10.
### Type of enforcement-based law, policy or practice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Jurisdiction and example</th>
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<tr>
<td>Community courts – orders targeted at underlying causes</td>
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Community courts ‘seek to address crime, public safety, and quality of life problems at the neighborhood level’. They are multi-jurisdictional in that they cover a range of legal issues arising in the community, including some or all of family law, criminal matters and housing and tenancy, and a range of different support services are co-located at the court site. Core characteristics of their sentencing practices are: “the increased use of alternative sanctions; a decrease in the probability of a “walk” without meaningful consequences; a reduced likelihood of a jail sentence; increased use of secondary jail sentences for initial noncompliance; stricter monitoring and enforcement of the court mandate; and an emphasis on procedural justice in the judge-defendant interaction”.

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3. WHAT MOTIVATES ENFORCEMENT-BASED RESPONSES TO HOMELESSNESS?

There are a range of social, political and economic factors that underpin enforcement-based approaches to homelessness. Understanding the motivations for certain approaches is key to identifying:

- what the aim of the law, policy or practice is (for example, to reduce or remove visible homelessness from city centres or to promote engagement of people experiencing homelessness with services);
- whether the initiative is achieving its aim; and
- whether an alternative approach could achieve that outcome more effectively and efficiently.

With this in mind, I wanted to understand the pressures that had led to enforcement-based responses to homelessness in the cities I visited.

I overwhelmingly heard that enforcement-based approaches to homelessness are not usually motivated by punitive intentions. While the impact is often punitive, the factors that lead to these laws or practices are usually more complex than an intention to punish people experiencing homelessness.

The key causal factors include:

- a lack of understanding of alternative ways of dealing with homelessness;
- public pressure on government decision-makers and law enforcement, often stemming from:
  - community discomfort with visible poverty, including concerns about ‘aggressive’ activity by people experiencing homelessness and poverty; and
  - changing city dynamics as a result of gentrification and/or business and retail concerns about the commercial impact of people begging or sleeping rough near their premises;
- the view that enforcement is needed to prompt people who are homeless to engage with services; and
- the ‘broken windows’ theory of policing, which suggests that minor forms of disorder (for example, jaywalking, begging, graffiti and litter) will, if left unaddressed, result in an increase in serious criminal activity (this approach focuses on cleaning up minor disorder with a view to reducing serious crime).\(^\text{52}\)

Often it is a combination of these factors that contributes to intensified enforcement in response to homelessness.

Each of these motivations is discussed in more detail in this section.

\(^{52}\) George L Kelling and James Q Wilson, ‘Broken Windows: The police and neighborhood safety’ The Atlantic (1 March 1982) 29 (Kelling and Wilson, Broken Windows).
3.1. A local response to a complex problem

In explaining the proliferation of local US laws criminalising homelessness, Executive Director of the National Coalition for the Homeless, Jerry Jones, said: ‘it’s not always deliberately punitive. Often criminalisation is used by local decision-makers confronted with a problem for which they don’t know the real solution ... [it's] used because local officials don’t have better ideas’. Mr Jones also said, ‘the larger mistake is using the law to address homelessness ... it’s the wrong policy instrument’.

Jeremy Rosen, Policy Director at the National Law Center on Homelessness and Poverty (NLCHP), also spoke about the proliferation of enforcement-based approaches to homelessness in US cities and the circumstances behind this:

Unfortunately I think we have seen an epidemic in terms of new laws and policies, largely at the city level, with respect to criminalisation over the past few years. We’ve been in a period of economic downturn and seen cuts to social services at all levels of government whether it’s Federal, state or local government. It seems that under those conditions our communities feel challenged and instead of responding to homelessness by providing housing and social services, they instead adopt the approach of either arresting their way out of the problem or by essentially pushing people who are homeless out of their communities and sending them somewhere else.

Similarly, Professor Stephen Gaetz from York University in Toronto said criminalisation measures are ‘tied to the inadequacy of our response to homelessness ... because we’re not sure what else to do, we get law enforcement involved’.

In addition to prompting government representatives to introduce new laws or initiate more intensive enforcement of existing laws, the lack of awareness of alternatives also impacts on the decisions made by law enforcement officers on the ground. Nan Roman, President and CEO of the National Alliance to End Homelessness, summarised it well when we spoke about the need to create alternatives for police: ‘if they don’t know what else to do, police will arrest people’.

One of the aims of this report is to build awareness of alternatives to enforcement-based approaches, both for government decision-makers and for law enforcement officers, so that the justice system is not seen as the automatic solution when trying to deal with the presence and conduct of people experiencing homelessness in public places.

3.2. Public pressure – visible hardship, discomfort and perceived aggression

In Melbourne, one of the factors that motivated the City’s targeted response to begging, Operation Minta, was a reported increase in complaints about ‘aggressive begging’ in the CBD. 53

Professor Stephen Gaetz from York University in Toronto touched on a similar issue when he talked about the introduction of the Ontario Safe Streets Act 1999 in response to an increase in homelessness and heightened concerns about panhandling and ‘squeegeeing’ (window washing at traffic lights). The Safe Streets Act makes squeegeeing and some forms of panhandling illegal and Professor Gaetz expressed concern about the public sentiment behind the Act’s introduction, particularly the public appetite for enforcement. He said: ‘as long as we make homelessness visible, there are people who don’t want to see it and who are afraid of it and that’s what decision-makers are responding to’.

53 See above at part 2.2.
It is important to consider what shapes community perceptions of people experiencing homelessness so that we can distinguish – both at a policy level and on the ground – between actual aggression, which is unacceptable and can be dealt with via existing justice mechanisms, and perceived aggression, which may be informed by lack of understanding, stereotypes and the general public’s discomfort with people experiencing very obvious hardship in our communities.

**Increased ticketing in Toronto under the Safe Streets Act – evidence-based or reactive?**

O’Grady, Gaetz and Buccieri analysed tickets issued under Ontario’s Safe Streets Act 1999 (for aggressive panhandling and ‘squeegeeing’) over an 11 year period using data obtained from the Toronto Police Service and the Ontario Ministry of the Attorney General via freedom of information.

They found that, despite the decrease in homeless people begging and squeegeeing (in 1999, 29% of their street youth sample reported panhandling and squeegeeing as their main source of income compared with less than 3% in 2009; and the 2009 City of Toronto Street Needs Assessment also showed a decline in panhandling as a source of income from 17.4% in 2006 to 9.7% in 2009), the number of tickets issued by the Toronto Police Service under the Safe Streets Act increased from 710 in 2000 to 15,324 in 2010 (an increase of 2,147%).

O’Grady, Gaetz and Buccieri ask: ‘are police responding to a dramatic ... growth in aggressive panhandling and squeegeeing, or is the increase in ticketing part of a broader strategy to respond to the enduring visibility of homeless persons in public places in Toronto?’

In considering the impact of enforcement on street users in England, Dr Sarah Johnsen and Professor Suzanne Fitzpatrick conducted interviews with 27 members of local communities where ‘enforcement interventions’ had been implemented. Their research considered the local pressures that prompted a shift toward enforcement. Based on the interviews, Johnsen and Fitzpatrick note that, while not groundless, ‘community fears may well be heightened by an instinctive fear of those who are visibly “different”’. They found that ‘[c]oncerns voiced by members of the local community were usually founded on a fear of threat or danger, rather than a personal experience of verbal or physical abuse from street users’. Further, the research showed that ‘while incidences of verbal abuse and/or physical violence are not uncommon within the street population – particularly among street drinkers – such expressions of aggression are only very rarely directed at members of the wider public’.

Assistant Chief Diane Groomes of the District of Columbia Metropolitan Police Department also noted the difference between perceived aggression and actual aggression: ‘a lot of the business community are concerned about panhandling. Most is not aggressive, but if it is aggressive, it’s due to people’s circumstances, including their mental health. When I was commander, most assaults I saw were homeless people against other homeless people. It was very rarely against another member of the community’.

Emeritus Professor Gary Blasi from UCLA School of Law directed me to the work of Robert Sampson and Stephen Raudenbush, which discusses ‘seeing disorder’ in the context of the ‘broken windows’ theory. Their research examined what shapes individuals’ perceptions of disorder and proposed that ‘perceptions of disorder are socially constructed and are shaped by much more than actual levels of disorder.’ They assessed this hypothesis using

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54 O’Grady, Gaetz and Buccieri, Can I See your ID?, above n 10, 10.
56 Ibid 9.
57 Ibid 11.
58 Ibid 11.
59 Johnsen and Fitzpatrick, The Impact of Enforcement, above n 7, 11.
census and police data on key neighbourhood characteristics, compared with personal interviews and the observation of city streets (through video-taping street scapes from the window of an SUV). They concluded that ‘concentrated poverty, proportion black, and proportion Latino are related positively and significantly to perceived disorder’ and ‘in fact, social structure proved a more powerful predictor of perceived disorder than did carefully observed disorder’. In short, ‘perceived disorder reflects more than meets the eye’.

The UN Special Rapporteur on Extreme Poverty and Human Rights (2010 – 2014), Ms Magdalena Sepúlveda Carmona, also spoke of the way in which ‘perceptions, prejudices, stigma and stereotypes perpetuate discriminatory social attitudes’ and influence public policy. She described stigma as ‘a major obstacle to effective poverty reduction strategies’ and said ‘crackdowns on people living in poverty through law and policy are happening everywhere and in my view it’s stigma and prejudice that motivates these approaches – the idea that poor people are lazy and it’s their fault’. The Special Rapporteur also identified the role the media plays in generating and perpetuating these attitudes, noting that: ‘the media feeds into this idea of the deserving and undeserving poor’.

In addition to prompting the introduction of new laws or stronger enforcement of existing laws, perceptions and stereotypes of, and discomfort with, visible homelessness can also inform how laws are enforced on the ground. I heard a clear example of this in Vancouver where a police officer identified Mr Shawn Cossaboom’s passive presence as ‘obstructive solicitation’.

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61 Ibid 320. In addition to physical disorder such as graffiti, broken windows and litter, they considered ‘social disorder’, including ‘the presence or absence of adults loitering or congregating, drinking alcohol in public, peer group with gang indicators, public intoxication, adults fighting or arguing in a hostile manner, selling drugs, and street prostitution’ (326).
63 Ibid 330.
64 Ibid 329.
65 See also Raquel Rolnik (Special Rapporteur on adequate housing as a component of the right to an adequate standard of living, and on the right to non-discrimination in this context) and Maria Magdalena Sepúlveda Carmona (Special Rapporteur on extreme poverty and human rights), ‘Foreword’ (Rolnik and Sepúlveda, Foreword to Mean Streets) in Guillem Fernandez Evangelista and Samara Jones (ed), Mean Streets: A Report on the Criminalisation of Homelessness in Europe (2013) (Evangelista and Jones, Mean Streets) 12: ‘We have noted with alarm the rise in stigmatising and hostile language used by politicians and sections of the media to justify discriminatory public policies toward homeless persons and persons living in poverty. Prejudices preclude policy makers from addressing the systemic factors that create poverty and homelessness, and instead paint the most disadvantaged people as authors of their own misfortune and therefore less deserving of respect, rights and public resources’; Magdalena Sepúlveda Carmona, Report of the Special Rapporteur on Extreme Poverty and Human Rights (4 August 2011) A/66/265 [7] (Sepúlveda, Report of the Special Rapporteur).
In his blog, *Asking for Help Will Cost You*, Douglas King, Barrister and Solicitor with Vancouver’s Pivot Legal Society, writes about his client Shawn Cossaboom who received 20 tickets for begging in five months.

The tickets were for ‘obstructive solicitation’. Shawn was sitting with a book and his dog outside the local Safeway, he didn’t ask for money verbally, he just used a sign. There hadn’t been any complaints and the supermarket permitted him to be there. On one occasion, Shawn was given a ticket for begging and when he didn’t reach out to take it, the officer dropped it on the ground and ticketed Shawn for littering.

When questioned by the judge at the trial, the police officer noted that Shawn hadn’t been physically obstructive, but ‘people were obstructed by Shawn’s presence’. The prosecutor acknowledged this was not what the law meant, and asked the judge to acquit.

Mr King writes:

> That one question, and answer, says a lot about how many of us view poverty in our city. Its existence offends us. We want it to be gone, but we don’t have the means to fix it. Police officers feel the need to act, and dig into their toolbox to grab what they have been trained and told to use, in an effort to force the sight of poverty into remission … At Pivot we don’t pretend to know all the answers, or to have all the solutions. Our hope is that as a society we will continue to move forward, and use the law as a tool to open doors and minds, not suppress the most vulnerable members of our society … At the end of the day poverty has never left town because someone gave it a ticket.

In formulating laws, policies and practices for dealing with visible homelessness and its symptoms, including begging, we need to be mindful of the fact that public uneasiness, while not always unwarranted, is often informed by stereotypes, stigma and a fundamental misunderstanding of the circumstances of people experiencing homelessness.

We should avoid introducing reactive enforcement-based responses to homelessness. These approaches will fail to address the underlying causes of the conduct because the conduct itself (or its agent) has been miscategorised. Laws, policies and practices that avoid reacting to stereotypes and assumptions about people experiencing homelessness and instead rely on evidence are better equipped to deal effectively with the complex circumstances that underpin homelessness and related conduct in public places.

### 3.3. Changing communities and commercial concerns

Another causal factor behind enforcement-based approaches to homelessness is the disharmony between changing city landscapes and visible hardship and poverty. Executive Director of the National Coalition for the Homeless, Jerry Jones, touched on this when he spoke about ‘local laws put in place to push people out of locations that are developing’ and ‘selective enforcement that occurs to get homeless folks out of areas that are gentrifying’.

One of the clearest examples of the way in which friction between visible homelessness and gentrification can contribute to intensified enforcement is Los Angeles’s Skid Row.
RISK mural: part of the Skid Row Freewalls Project, a collaboration by the Skid Row Housing Trust and LALA Arts

Beds outside an overflowing LA shelter (photograph from Public Counsel)
The changing landscape of LA’s Skid Row and the Safer Cities Initiative

Los Angeles’s Skid Row has the highest concentration of homelessness in the US, with an estimated 5000 people experiencing homelessness living in a 50 block area. 67

This concentration was the product of city planning strategies in the 1970s, which aimed to contain homelessness and increase homeless services in Skid Row. 68 As a result, services providing shelter, housing, food, clothing, health care and addiction treatment are also located in Skid Row. 69

For decades, this concentration meant that LA’s homelessness problem was largely invisible to the mainstream population; out of sight, out of mind. The central location is, however, increasingly sought after for business and residential use (Skid Row ‘abuts a fashionable area the city is trying to redevelop’) 70 and the confronting hardship of Skid Row sits uneasily with this shift. 71

In addition to the density, the visibility of homelessness on Skid Row is amplified by the presence of many of the hardships that can accompany homelessness. It has been estimated that ‘well over two thirds of the homeless population on Skid Row have a severe and chronic mental illness, a serious addiction problem, or very frequently, both major mental illness and a substance abuse problem’. 72 Professor Gary Blasi suggested that the visibility of the homeless population in Skid Row was heightened by ‘media coverage and attention brought to the area by the rapid redevelopment and gentrification occurring in recent years’, including ‘no fewer than 165 articles, columns, and other pieces referring to homelessness and Skid Row’ published by the Los Angeles Times in an 18 month period. 73

It’s in this context – i.e. a high concentration of homelessness, and the hardships that accompany it, in a changing city landscape – that the Safer Cities Initiative (SCI) was commenced in September 2006 74 and 50 additional Los Angeles Police Department (LAPD) officers were added to patrol the central LA area, in particular a five block area of Skid Row. 75

There are conflicting views on the role gentrification played in the decision to introduce SCI. LAPD Senior Lead Officer Deon Joseph said:

Many in the Skid Row community and outside of it have asked and have been asked “Why SCI?” Some have said that it is for gentrification, others have tried to tout that this is some adversarial movement against the poor. These are complete falsehoods because the service providers of Skid Row are not going anywhere ... What we are for is ridding this community of the lawlessness ... we are trying to create an environment conducive to real change in the lives of those with the will to change. 76

General Dogan, a resident of Skid Row and member of the LA Community Action Network, articulated an

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67 See Blasi et al, Policing Our Way out of Homelessness?, above n 42, 9: ‘Comprising about 0.85 square miles, Skid Row contains about 0.18% of the land area in the City but about 7.6% of the homeless population, a density 42 times the citywide average’.

68 See, eg, Harold Katz (former Chairman of the Citizens’ Advisory Committee on the Central Business District Redevelopment Project), ‘Skid Row Housing’ Los Angeles Times (30 August 1987): ‘We did an intensive study of Skid Row and its impact on the downtown community and came up with the policy of containment and increased services. It is my opinion that, if this committee was reformed now and an update of the study performed, we would come up with exactly the same recommendations’.


70 Paul Boden, ‘The Quality of Whose Life? An Introduction to America’s Modern Anti-Poor Movement’ Huffington Post (5 October 2010).


72 Blasi et al, Policing Our Way out of Homelessness?, above n 42, 12.

73 Ibid 10.


alternative view:

The only thing they care about is removing the poor and brown people off of Skid Row so that these yuppies in the lofts can walk their $5000 French poodle down Main Street without seeing Ed the wino or Ted the panhandler. This is what it’s all about – it’s all about displacing the poor, the homeless. The first year SCI put 50 cops [in Skid Row], they spent $6.2 million on just 50 cops but they spent $5 million citywide on homeless services. All this money for what?77

What is largely uncontested is the scale of enforcement as part of SCI. A report on the first year of the SCI estimated that the LAPD had issued approximately 12,000 citations (the majority for ‘pedestrian violations’), which was 48–69 times the rate of citations issued citywide.78 Figures from 2009 estimated over 30,000 citations and 25,000 arrests since the SCI’s commencement.79

Not dissimilar to the ‘containment’ of Skid Row in Los Angeles, Vancouver’s rough sleeping population is concentrated in the Downtown Eastside (DTES), particularly in Hastings Street. The Vancouver Homeless Count conducted on 13 March 2013, ‘while always an undercount’, identified 1,600 people experiencing homelessness, comprised of 273 people who were unsheltered and 1,327 who were sheltered.80 Also similar to Los Angeles, the central location of DTES is increasingly coveted for condominiums and commercial use and there is palpable concern that changes to the area will push low income people out of its familiar streets.81 In addition to being ‘priced out’ of the community, DJ Larkin, Barrister and Lawyer from Pivot Legal Society explained that the residents fear that the movement of wealthier people into their community brings with it tougher treatment of the original residents. She commented ‘the moving organism that is [the DTES] is very complicated’ and said she wouldn’t be surprised if there was another increase in ticketing in response to new residents’ discomfort with visible hardship in their adopted streets and consequent pressure for tougher enforcement in relation to public space offences.

On top of the concerns of residents, are the concerns of business and retailers. The significant potential for positive collaboration with business in developing solutions to homelessness is discussed in part 6.2. In the absence of a constructive relationship, however, business lobby groups, including Business Improvement Districts in many cities in the US, Canada and the UK, can be a vocal source of pressure for ‘crackdowns’ on homeless people in public places motivated by commercial concerns.

Johnsen and Fitzpatrick’s research on enforcement responses in England refers to the view of business proprietors that ‘the presence of street users deterred potential customers from entering their shops’ and quoted a Leeds shop proprietor: ‘[Begging] actually puts people off and turns people away. You’ll actually see people make a diversion to go away from them and that possibly actually turns people away from our store.’82

As previously ‘undesirable’ parts of cities become increasingly occupied by residents and businesses that are uneasy with visible poverty and homelessness, decision-makers and law enforcement officers will come under greater pressure. Police Sergeant Mark Montgomery from the City of London Police Street Intervention Team said:

77 Morrison, Safer City Initiative, above n 74.
78 Press Release: Los Angeles Community Action Network with Gary Blasi, Nicholas Dahmann, Anat Rubin and Forrest Stuart, Safer Cities Initiative Third Year Analysis (September 2009) cited in Blasi et al, Policing Our Way out of Homelessness?, above n 42; Gary Blasi and Forrest Stuart, ‘Research Report: Has the Safer Cities Initiative in Skid Row Reduced Serious Crime?’ (15 September 2008) (available at: http://wraphome.org/downloads/safer_cities.pdf) (Blasi and Stuart, Has the Safer Cities Initiative Reduced Serious Crime?). See also LAPD SCI Press Release, above n 75, which reported that between 17 September 2006 when SCI commenced and 1 June 2007, ‘the uniformed component of the Safer Cities Initiative, comprised of the Safer Cities Task Force, Eastside Detail and officers assigned to the Metropolitan Division Mounted Unit’ had: made 1,800 felony arrests and 1,300 misdemeanor arrests; performed 8,000 warrant checks; impounded 208 vehicles; issued more than 8,000 citations; and responded to 424 calls for service.
79 See Blasi and Stuart, Has the Safer Cities Initiative Reduced Serious Crime?, above n 78.
81 See, eg, Travis Lupick, ‘Protesters target Cuchillo as another symbol of gentrification in Vancouver’s Downtown Eastside’ Straight.com (5 July 2013).
82 Johnsen and Fitzpatrick, The Impact of Enforcement, above n 7; 10.
We face pressure from residents, business people and politicians to ‘clean up the streets’ or move homeless people on. We have to remind them that it’s not an offence for homeless people just to be in public and, unless there’s legislation that empowers us, we can’t just move people on.

It’s helpful to recognise the community dynamics that are often behind tougher enforcement-based approaches to homelessness, which on their face may seem to come directly from law enforcement officers or government. We need to work on improving community awareness and understanding of homelessness and its causes, with a view to reducing the public appetite for enforcement and making room for more thoughtful responses to homelessness by government and community members.

3.4. Using enforcement to promote service engagement

The UK has been the site of sophisticated homelessness reduction strategies since the 1990s. Despite years of these successful programs, however, the economic crisis, combined with tough cuts to welfare and social services and a lack of affordable housing, have seen a worrying resurgence of homelessness in England and present a risk for Scotland’s first class homelessness prevention model.

In the earlier landscape of successful homelessness reduction, particularly rough sleeping, England developed a number of collaborative ‘tough love’ approaches to homelessness and public space, involving some or all of homeless outreach agencies, police, housing services, local councils and drug and alcohol services.

Liz Blackender, Team Leader City Outreach and Pan London Personalised Budgets at Broadway Homelessness and Support summarised the philosophy that underpins the multi-agency approaches to rough sleeping in the UK: ‘it’s not okay for people to sleep rough. They’re not going to be left alone. We live in the 21st Century and everyone should have a roof over their head’. Ms Blackender explained that the police are seen as having a role to play in assertive outreach: ‘we use a multi-agency approach, including some disruption which can encourage entrenched rough sleepers to engage with outreach services and consider change’.

I saw this inter-agency cooperation in practice at the monthly City of London Anti-Social Behaviour Interagency Working Group, which has been running for over 18 months and is attended by a range of government and non-government services, including police, housing services, homelessness outreach agencies, local council and substance misuse services. There was a high level of information sharing and collaboration at the meeting; individuals were identified by name and updates were provided on whether or not they are engaging with services (for example, housing or drug and alcohol). Where individuals weren’t engaging with the services on offer, enforcement-based responses, including arrests under the Vagrancy Act 1824 or an application for an anti-social behaviour order (ASBO), were discussed.

The collaboration between different agencies is strong and Ms Blackender explained the understanding that ‘if you work in partnership with other agencies, you get results ... we’re all singing from the same song book’.

83 See, eg, Fitzpatrick, Kemp and Klinker, Single homelessness, above n 44: ‘Statutory responses to homelessness initially focused on families with children rather than single people ... The growing numbers of single homeless people sleeping rough in the late 1980s prompted central government to establish a series of Rough Sleepers Initiatives (RSI); first in London in 1990, and then elsewhere in England and in Scotland’. The Rough Sleepers Unit and the Scottish Homelessness Task Force prioritised homelessness prevention and reduction from 1999 and 2000 respectively.


85 See, eg, Fitzpatrick, Kemp and Klinker, Single homelessness, above n 44.

86 See Vagrancy Act 1824 which makes it an offence to beg (s 3), persistently beg (s 4) and sleep rough where it can be shown that the individual has been directed to a ‘free’ place of shelter and has failed to take this up (s 4). If convicted people can be fined (but not imprisoned).
In this model, the motivation for an enforcement-based approach is a commitment to the idea that people can be offered services and encouraged to engage to a point, but beyond that, the stick of enforcement has a role to play in moving people off the streets.87

3.5. Crime prevention, public order and broken windows

George Kelling and James Wilson published ‘Broken Windows: The police and neighborhood safety’ in the *Atlantic Monthly*88 in 1982 and since that time, as a theory of policing and crime prevention, ‘[f]ew ideas have become more influential than “broken windows”’.89 The theory can be summarised as the idea that: ‘if minor offenses and local disorder are not addressed, they will create an environment that encourages more serious crime’.90

The wording in Kelling and Wilson’s original article is less benign:

The citizen who fears the ill-smelling drunk, the rowdy teenager, or the importuning beggar is not merely expressing his distaste for unseemly behavior; he is also giving voice to a bit of folk wisdom that happens to be a correct generalization—namely, that serious street crime flourishes in areas in which disorderly behavior goes unchecked. The unchecked panhandler is, in effect, the first broken window. Muggers and robbers, whether opportunistic or professional, believe they reduce their chances of being caught or even identified if they operate on streets where potential victims are already intimidated by prevailing conditions. If the neighborhood cannot keep a bothersome panhandler from annoying passersby, the thief may reason, it is even less likely to call the police to identify a potential mugger or to interfere if the mugging actually takes place.91

87 See, eg, Fitzpatrick, Kemp and Klinker, *Single homelessness*, above n 44, 6, which refers to ‘the threat of punitive action if they do not take up the opportunities offered’ as underlying the UK approach to homelessness.
88 Kelling and Wilson, *Broken Windows*, above n 52.
89 Sampson and Raudenbush, *Seeing Disorder*, above n 60.
The outdated wording of the original article has not stopped the theory enjoying significant traction. Its influence extends beyond law enforcement agencies and the ‘place-based’ approach of broken windows has also been adopted by innovative justice programs that aim to regenerate local communities. By way of example, the Midtown Community Court in New York City recently marked its twentieth birthday and the celebratory reflections included recognition that ‘the Court was inspired, at least in part, by James Q Wilson and George Kelling’s groundbreaking “Broken Windows” theory’. The court’s mission ‘to reduce both crime and incarceration by linking misdemeanor defendants to community restitution projects and social services instead of short-term jail sentences’ arose from:

the realities of the early 1990s, when low-level crime—shoplifting, fare-beating, vandalism and the like—seemed a permanent feature of New York City. Lacking other options, judges at the time often had to choose between sentencing defendants to a few days of jail time and nothing at all. Either choice failed to impress upon victims, the community, or defendants that these offenses were being taken seriously.

New York City: Midtown Community Court

The broken windows theory suggests that police and enforcement have a role to play in maintaining community order which will, in turn, lead to safer communities. It provides support for using law enforcement to regulate public spaces and its followers are likely to be strong opponents of alternative mechanisms for dealing with visible homelessness and the conduct that can accompany it:

This wish to “decriminalize” disreputable behavior that “harms no one”—and thus remove the ultimate sanction the police can employ to maintain neighborhood order—is, we think, a mistake. Arresting a single drunk or a single vagrant who has harmed no identifiable person seems unjust, and in a sense it is. But failing to do anything about a score of drunks or a hundred vagrants may destroy an entire community. A particular rule that seems to make sense in the individual case makes no sense when it is made a universal rule and applied to all cases. It makes no sense because it fails to take into account the connection between one broken window left untended and a thousand broken windows.

Interestingly, the theory is not solely aimed at reducing crime, but also at minimising fear of crime. Kelling and Wilson state:

92 Berman, NYC’s Midtown Community Court, above n 90.
93 Ibid.
94 Kelling and Wilson, Broken Windows, above n 52, 29.
But how can a neighborhood be “safer” when the crime rate has not gone down—in fact, may have gone up? Finding the answer requires first that we understand what most often frightens people in public places. Many citizens, of course, are primarily frightened by crime, especially crime involving a sudden, violent attack by a stranger. This risk is very real ... But we tend to overlook another source of fear—the fear of being bothered by disorderly people. Not violent people, nor, necessarily, criminals, but disreputable or obstreperous or unpredictable people: panhandlers, drunks, addicts, rowdy teenagers, prostitutes, loiterers, the mentally disturbed.  

The controversy of the broken windows theory will not be resolved by this report. For present purposes, it is adequate to point out that, when considering the motivations behind enforcement-based approaches to public space and homelessness, we need to be mindful of the view that the visible minor disorder of homelessness and poverty needs to be addressed as part of ‘a larger strategy to prevent and reduce crime ... [and] to address social conditions that contribute to crime’. Unless we are able to present constructive solutions that address these concerns – either through limiting public disorder via other means or through addressing the public’s perception of, and reaction to, disorder – suggestions for alternatives are likely to meet strong opposition.

New York City: Central Park

Ibid.  
4. THE IMPACTS OF ENFORCEMENT-BASED APPROACHES TO HOMELESSNESS

One of the aims of the fellowship was to get insights about the impact of different enforcement-based approaches to homelessness on homeless individuals, services, enforcement agencies, courts and communities.

Keeping in mind the six categories of enforcement-based interventions (see part 2), some key factors that are relevant to the impact of enforcement are:

– what the laws are (i.e. what conduct is prohibited);
– how the laws are enforced, by whom and for what purpose; and
– the enforcement mechanism, including tickets, fines, court orders or sentences.

As discussed, the motivations for enforcement-based approaches to homelessness are complex and varied and what the approach intends to do will determine whether or not it is successful. By way of example, the Safer Cities Initiative in Los Angeles has been identified by many as a success because its intention was to reduce crime and, by some evaluations, it has done so. In doing so, however, it has taken an overwhelmingly heavy toll on an already struggling population, imposed a strain on the courts and prison system and required a reported annual investment of approximately $6 million.

It is important that we evaluate programs regulating public space in the broad context in which they exist. A narrow impact assessment will disguise potentially costly impacts. With this in mind, this section discusses the following impacts – both positive and negative – of enforcement-based approaches to homelessness and public space:

– Impacts on people experiencing homelessness
  – Linking people with services, successful interventions or ‘turning points’
  – Entrenching marginalisation and isolation
    – Personal marginalisation – limiting access to services and leading to more damaging conduct
    – Practical exclusion – jailed and excluded from safe spaces, employment and housing
    – Financial marginalisation – overwhelming debts spiralling into something bigger
– Impacts on the community
  – Increased public safety and order and deterrence
  – Reinforcing and responding to public stereotypes about homelessness

98 Blasi et al, Policing Our Way out of Homelessness?, above n 42, 7: ‘The estimated cost of just the 50-officer SCI Task Force in Skid Row is about $6 million per year. [In 2007] the City has budgeted $5.7 million out of the same General Fund for homeless shelters and services for the entire City’.
- Impacts on police and relationships with communities
  - The strain on police
  - Diminished trust in law enforcement and broken relationships with police

- Impacts on the effectiveness and efficiency of the justice system
  - The burden on legal services
  - Judicial responses and congestion in the courts

- The financial costs.

4.1. Impacts on people experiencing homelessness

Much of the focus when considering the success or otherwise of laws or practices regulating public space focuses on ‘cleaning up the streets’ and, accordingly, impact is assessed using measurements such as reduced numbers of rough sleepers or people begging in the local area and fewer complaints about people experiencing homelessness.\(^9\)

This section considers the personal, health, financial and legal impacts of enforcement-based approaches to homelessness on the individuals themselves. If we are aiming to address underlying causes of offending conduct, the impact on the people whose conduct is being targeted is a critical consideration in any intervention.

**Linking people with services, successful interventions or ‘turning points’**

Some of the experts I spoke with saw a role for enforcement – primarily in the form of police intervention through use of move-on powers or arrests and potentially with the prospect of a court order such as an anti-social behaviour order – in addressing rough sleeping and problematic conduct in public places. They noted though that it must be accompanied by services and, crucially, the interests of the person must be at the heart of it: ‘It’s a different story if the sole reason for the action is to clean up the streets’.

The City of London Police’s begging initiative, Operation Fennel, is an example of a program where enforcement (in the form of targeted police approaches of people begging and collaborative engagement with services, underpinned by the prospect of an anti-social behaviour order) features as a component of homeless outreach.

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**Operation Fennel – City of London Police linking people begging with services**

Operation Fennel has been running since June 2013 and has the stated intention of providing ‘help, guidance and assistance to persons suspected of begging with a view to preventing further offences’.\(^10\)

The City of London Police have reported on the outcomes in relation to the 180 tickets for begging issued to 94 people between July – November 2013.\(^11\) The majority of the reported outcomes are focussed on linking people with services, assisting them to move into housing and building relationships and understanding between the police and people who are begging in the City of London. Two of the outcomes are responding to other aims (i.e.

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\(^9\) See, eg. Johnsen and Fitzpatrick, The Impact of Enforcement, above n 7. viii: ‘Affected members of the public and enforcement agents, were not unsympathetic to the vulnerability of street users, but were clear that their top priority was a reduction in the negative impact of street culture on their daily lives. Most felt that the strategies adopted in their local area had been successful in bringing about a sharp decline in street activities’.


\(^11\) Ibid.
‘prolific beggars’ leaving the City area and praise from the business community). The final outcome, which is 15 applications for anti-social behaviour orders (ASBOs) comes at the end of a process that appears to be genuinely aimed at prompting engagement with supports and addressing the underlying causes of the person’s begging.

Operation Fennel is discussed in detail in part 6.4 below.

The research of Dr Johnsen and Professor Fitzpatrick assesses the impact of enforcement on the welfare of ‘street users’ in England. The research for the report, The Impact of Enforcement on Street Users in England, involved case studies of five different local areas that had introduced ‘enforcement interventions’ in response to ‘problematic street culture’, particularly begging and street drinking. The research considered the motivations for these interventions and, importantly, 37 in-depth interviews were conducted with current or former ‘street users’ to assess the impact of enforcement on their wellbeing.

The below case study extracted from Johnsen and Fitzpatrick’s report provides an example of an enforcement-based approach – in this case the use of anti-social behaviour order and subsequent prison sentence – presenting a turning point or critical intervention for a person experiencing homelessness and substance dependence.

### Adam – ASBO and prison as an intervention point

‘Aged 33, Adam was living in shared accommodation run by a drug treatment agency while subject to a two-year ASBO for begging. He had lived in local authority care from the age of 12, where he was introduced to drugs by other residents in a children’s home. Adam claimed that much of his life could be described as “a mission to self-destruct”, evidenced by a self-perpetuating cycle of drug abuse, dealing, burglary, prison and homelessness (including extended periods of rough sleeping): “I’d lost interest in life really, I didn’t want to know.…. It was get up in the morning, do what I had to do and spend the rest of the day using drugs”.

He was targeted by a street community police team and arrested regularly for begging, while being offered intensive support by the street outreach team. Having lost hope of ever being drug free because of previous relapses, Adam rejected all supportive interventions at the time. He was served an ASBO but carried on begging and breached it several times: “I didn’t care what they were saying…. If you want to send me to prison, send me to prison”. Adam had recently served a 10-week sentence for breaching his ASBO and had successfully remained ‘clean’ since release, but found it difficult to explain why treatment had ‘worked’ this time. His health had improved dramatically, he had re-entered education, was working as a volunteer, and looked forward to establishing a relationship with a daughter he had never met. He concluded that “I think I am probably an ASBO success story…. I had my first clean birthday as an adult about two weeks ago”.

Johnsen and Fitzpatrick undertake a careful analysis of the factors that influence the impact of enforcement on individuals. They ask: ‘when can enforcement benefit street users?’ and identify the following policy and practice conditions in which enforcement action is most likely to have positive benefits for street users:

102 Johnsen and Fitzpatrick, The Impact of Enforcement, above n 7.
103 Extracted in full from Johnsen and Fitzpatrick, The Impact of Enforcement, above n 7, 27.
104 Johnsen and Fitzpatrick, The Impact of Enforcement, above n 7, 44.
– it must always be carefully integrated with individually tailored and (immediately) accessible supportive interventions, so that support workers can take advantage of any ‘window of opportunity’ for engagement that enforcement might present;

– it requires effective interagency working between police and support providers (including accommodation, drug and alcohol and outreach services);

– harder enforcement measures (including ASBOs) should only be used as a last resort, after appropriate ‘warning stages’, and should never be used with extremely vulnerable street users, particularly those people with mental health problems; and

– ‘blanket’ enforcement policies are inappropriate.\(^\text{105}\)

Johnsen and Fitzpatrick are cautious though: ‘the existence of these conditions in no way guarantees success, but positive outcomes appear highly unlikely if these arrangements are not in place when any enforcement initiative is implemented’\(^\text{106}\) and further, ‘if taken into account within enforcement strategies, these considerations will minimise, although not eliminate, the risk of harm to vulnerable street users by enforcement action’.\(^\text{107}\)

The adverse consequences of enforcement, the risks of which Johnsen and Fitzpatrick note are high and cannot be eliminated, are discussed in the next section.

**Entrenched marginalisation and isolation**

While, as discussed in part 3, it is rare that the intention of public space regulation is solely to punish people for their disadvantage, the impact of enforcement-based measures, including tickets, arrests and anti-social behaviour orders, can be punitive regardless of the intention or motivation. There is a risk that enforcement-based approaches, even when thoughtfully implemented, can further marginalise people:

– personally (though interfering with service engagement and pushing people into more damaging activities);

– practically (through geographical exclusion, jail, ineligibility for housing and criminal records); and

– financially and socially (through overwhelming debts and the risk of jail stemming from tickets and fines).

In these ways, enforcement-based measures can risk impeding rather than supporting people’s exit from homelessness.

**Personal marginalisation – interfering with service engagement and pushing people into more damaging activities**

The use of law enforcement to address conduct directly related to homelessness (including sleeping rough, begging or public intoxication) is intended to, and often does, affect the activities and movements of people experiencing homelessness. While there is debate about the ‘deterrent’ effect of enforcement-mechanisms (particularly fines and tickets (see part 4.2)), the risk of being approached by police, arrested, repeatedly ticketed, becoming the subject of a court order or even jailed, may alter the conduct of people experiencing homelessness in unanticipated, unhelpful and even damaging ways.

In relation to anti-social behaviour orders in the UK, Peter Cockersell, Director of Health and Recovery at St Mungo’s, one of Britain’s largest charities supporting people who are homeless or at risk of homelessness, said that it was relatively uncommon for their clients to be the subject of ASBOs because St Mungo’s does a lot of work with the police and encourages them to work with services and supports rather than resorting to an ASBO. He said support workers would prefer the police to engage with them rather than apply for an ASBO because ‘often

\(^{105}\) Ibid ix–x and 48–8.  
\(^{106}\) Ibid x.  
\(^{107}\) Ibid 52.
[ASBOs] can prevent people doing things that are useful to their recovery ... sometimes, not always, they are blunt and unhelpful instruments’.

A London-based homeless outreach worker I spoke with said that once people are the subject of an ASBO, ‘they are constantly in and out of prison; as soon as services start to do something, he’s whisked off to prison’.

In contrast to Adam’s ‘ASBO success story’ above, Johnsen and Fitzpatrick’s report contained the following case study of a homeless teenager who had resorted to sex work to support his drug dependence to avoid the police crackdown on begging and being jailed for breach of his anti-social behaviour order.

Matt – turning to more dangerous activity to avoid going to prison for begging

‘Aged 19, Matt had had a stable childhood until his father left when he was eight years old and his mother developed a heroin habit. He left home when he was 15, by which time he already had a heroin addiction himself, and later took crack. He said that he craved the drugs to “… give you some peace and take away the pain”. He had ‘sofa-surfed’ (staying with different friends) and slept rough since then.

Matt was heavily involved in begging and was moved on and arrested for this many times, ultimately receiving an ASBO for begging that barred him from the city centre. He had also been an occasional Big Issue vendor but again, since being excluded from the city centre, did not do this any more. He had not breached his ASBO but had become involved in street sex work to feed his drug habit, and claimed that this was a direct result of the restrictions imposed by his ASBO.

He was not offered any support as part of the ASBO process, and was extremely bitter about the impact of the ASBO that drove him, as he saw it, into sex work. He seemed very isolated and the only support he was receiving was on an informal basis from a project worker who saw him on the street in her own time.’

Examples like this make it apparent that enforcement-based approaches, including targeted ‘crackdowns’ on conduct of people experiencing homelessness in public places, are high risk practices that carry the potential to have negative and harmful effects on vulnerable people.

Unless the people implementing these strategies – often the police on the beat – are equipped to balance these complex personal and policy considerations, there are significant risks that using arrests, tickets, move-on powers and court orders to regulate public space will have a harsh and damaging impact on people experiencing homelessness.

Practical exclusion – jailed and excluded from safe spaces, employment and housing

As discussed in part 3.1, enforcement-based approaches to homelessness are often local responses to local concerns. Often they are responding to community or business pressure about visible homelessness and poverty. Alternatively, they may be designed in co-operation with local homelessness agencies to prompt engagement by people experiencing homelessness or they may be designed to tackle low level crime with a view to preventing more serious crime in a particular community.

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Given this local focus, it is easy for assessments of the success of enforcement-based measures to be narrowly concentrated on local indicators.

By way of example, enforcement-based initiatives in London are localised and primarily implemented borough to borough. Evaluation shows that Operation Fennel has been very successful at reducing the number of people begging on the beat of the City of London. While the figures show that a number of people have stopped begging and are engaged with services,\(^{109}\) for others it is not clear whether they have stopped begging or moved to an area with fewer police resources.

We need to be mindful of the risk that this type of enforcement will simply push homeless people to move themselves on and in doing so to become more isolated, less safe and more difficult for services engage with.

This risk was examined in relation to the ban on ‘urban camping’ in Denver, Colorado.

The risks of excluding homeless people from central areas – Denver, Colorado

In May 2012, Denver passed the Unauthorized Camping Ordinance, which makes it a crime for a person to shelter from the elements while residing on any public or private property, without appropriate permission: ‘Under this law, it is illegal for homeless people to sleep, sit for extended periods, or store their personal belongings anywhere in Denver, if they use any form of protection other than their clothing (e.g., a blanket or a piece of cardboard to sit upon).’\(^{110}\) Violations of the urban camping ban can result in fines up to $999 or one year imprisonment.\(^{111}\)

Local council representatives suggested that the ordinance is ‘the first step in providing services to those who truly need them, while simultaneously creating a healthy environment for residents of Denver’s urban core’ and indicated that police were using their discretion in enforcing the ban so that people are linked with services rather than arrested.\(^{112}\)

The Denver Police Department reported that 158 street checks for unauthorised camping impacting 386 members of the homeless community occurred in the first four months of the urban camping ban. Local advocacy organisation, Denver Homeless Out Loud, and the University of Colorado then undertook a survey of 512 members of the homeless community to determine the impact of the ban on their lives (see part 6.1 ).

A snap shot of the survey results is:

- 57% of survey respondents were contacted by police regarding violations of the camping ban.
- 83% of those were asked by police to ‘move along’ without being offered alternative services.
- 76% were issued a formal oral or written warning of camping ban violation.
- 26% were arrested or cited for other violations (the most common citations were violations of park curfew or trespassing on private property).
- Only 12% of respondents were advised by police of available social services; 4% of respondents said the police contacted an outreach worker to help them.
- 52% of respondents who used to sleep downtown said they did so because that area was safe and well-lit and 66% said they now usually sleep in more hidden and unsafe locations.

\(^{109}\) Operation Fennel, City of London Policing Plan, above n 100.

\(^{110}\) Denver Homeless Out Loud, Report from the Street, above n 29, 7.

\(^{111}\) Ibid.

\(^{112}\) See, eg, Albus Brooks, ‘Denver’s camping ordinance helps us address needs of homeless’ The Denver Post (19 July 2013).
– 40% have tried to get into shelters more often, but 63% say shelters are more crowded and harder to get into than they used to be; 73% report being turned away from shelters with some frequency.

– 60% report that they get less sleep as they frequently are being ‘moved along’ (or live in fear of this), and feel less secure in the new areas they are finding to sleep.

– 58% say that it has become more necessary to avoid the police (4% say the police have become more helpful).113

In summary, the respondents indicated that they find it increasingly difficult to access overcrowded shelters, they avoid well-lit and safe downtown areas for hidden locations and they feel less safe.114

In relation to efforts to reduce visible homelessness in particular geographical areas, Professor Blasi reminds us: ‘over policing of homelessness doesn’t address homelessness, it just moves it’. One of the places that it moves people to is prison. Both under ASBOs in the UK and broken windows policing in the US, I heard about people cycling in and out of prison. One person Professor Blasi spoke about was a woman called Annie. Annie has been arrested 93 times and the first 60 times were for being on the same corner of the same intersection (under s 41.18(d) of the Los Angeles Municipal Code which prohibits sitting, lying or sleeping on the footpath). She moved corners and the process started again. She was recently sentenced to six months in prison (although was released early due to prison overcrowding). Annie is homeless and has a mental illness.

In New York City I also heard about people being taken into the cells for the night for public space offences and the consequences this had. Nahal Zamani, Advocacy Program Manager, Government Misconduct and Racial Justice with the Center for Constitutional Rights (CCR) coordinated 54 interviews with people who had been stopped under the NYPD’s stop and frisk policy as part of CCR’s report Stop and Frisk: The Human Impact.115 Ms Zamani spoke about homeless people who were sleeping in shelters being arrested for a ‘quality of life offence’, put in lock-up and losing their bed because it had been unattended for over 48 hours.116 She described it as: ‘a forced introduction to the criminal justice system via tickets and arrests for minor offences’.

In addition to the immediate impact of physical exclusion or jail, enforcement-based approaches can have longer term impacts on individuals, including through the imposition of criminal records which can limit employment opportunities117 and, in some cases, eligibility for affordable housing.

By way of example, in the US, it is common for people to be denied access to social housing because of a criminal record.118 Given the abundant evidence regarding the need for stable housing to minimise the risk of recidivism,119 this is a harsh and perplexing policy. It was explained to me as a matter of discretion of social landlords: only around one-quarter of people nationally who need a housing subsidy get it; ‘will they house the single mum or the guy with a criminal record?’120 In this environment, the impact of convictions for public space offences is acute — they directly prevent people exiting homelessness.

113 Denver Homeless Out Loud, Report from the Street, above n 29, 8–9.
114 Tony Robinson, ‘Denver’s camping ban is counterproductive’ The Denver Post (19 July 2013).
117 See, eg, NLCHP 2011, Criminalizing Crisis, above n 32, 32 regarding the impact of criminal records on employment: 38 out of 50 US states permit employers to ask about or rely on arrests that never resulted in convictions when making employment decisions. In Victoria, criminal records will be released with any finding of guilt for a period of ten years from date of sentencing (five years if sentenced as a minor) and include findings of guilt where no conviction is recorded.
118 See, eg, NLCHP 2011, Criminalizing Crisis, above n 32.
119 See, eg, Justice Center, the Council of State Governments, Housing (available at: http://cgjusticecenter.org/reentry/issue-areas/housing/).
120 See NLCHP 2011, Criminalizing Crisis, above n 32, 34; ‘Despite the need of many homeless individuals for permanent housing, many Public Housing Authorities (PHAs) use overly exclusive policies when determining whether an applicant with a criminal record is eligible for public housing’. See also, US Department of Housing and Urban Development, “One Strike and You’re Out” Screening and Eviction Guidelines for Public Housing Authorities’ Notice PH 96-16 (HA) (1996). In 2011, following commitments made during the Universal Periodic Review, the Department of Housing and Urban
Financial marginalisation – overwhelming debts spiralling into something bigger

In 2013, Homeless Law worked with six people who had experienced homelessness and been issued with fines or tickets for conduct directly related to their homelessness (including begging, being drunk in public and travelling on public transport without a ticket). The project, *In the Public Eye – personal stories of homelessness and fines* captured the participants’ insights in short films, audio recordings and photographs.121

The six participants talk about the impossibility of paying fines on limited incomes and the complexity of the process required to address fines and infringements. They talk about being overwhelmed financially and psychologically by their infringements.

### Julia – the stress of $2000 in public transport fines

Julia* found herself homeless after having to leave private rental. During her time staying in emergency accommodation and couch surfing she accrued about $2000 in fines for travelling on public transport without a ticket and failing to vote. She said:

Well the effect of having the fines is very stressful because when you are unemployed or you are on a pension it is pretty difficult to survive as it is – because the fines are quite expensive and if you are on a pension or any kind of Centrelink payment it is a lot of money, it is quite a large percentage of your fortnightly budget and you don’t have a spare $200 just to give to a fine and if you are homeless as well it is even more stressful because it’s already incredibly stressful not having a place of your own.122

*Name has been changed

### Emma – the build-up of fines for begging

Emma became homeless at 16. During her time sleeping on the streets she got fines for not having a tram ticket and for begging. She has two young sons and is now housed. She said:

I got a lot of fines during my time being on the streets due to either not having a ticket on public transport, on the trains, which is probably quite a common occurrence, and then there was also the fines with beg alms – when I was begging on the streets to support my drug habit … The effect of fines on my life I guess – at the time there wasn’t really much of an effect but now it is – they built up and built up and you get quite a shock to see how much they really add up to. Even with my lifestyle at the moment and trying to budget the fine system is just ridiculous – how is someone on a pension expected to pay $250 for not having a ticket?123

### Darren – overwhelming fines for public drunkenness

Darren has been homeless on and off for almost 15 years and has struggled with alcohol addiction since his teens. A combination of these two factors has resulted in him getting about $15,000 in fines. He said:

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122 Ibid (Julia).
123 Ibid (Emma).
The impact of the fines in my case just got harder because I kept getting more of them. Before I was able to address or pay for the existing one I already had I would cop another one and another one and it just got overwhelming. I was unable to pay due to the fact that I was only on Newstart at that time and living in boarding houses, which the rent there was pretty much a third of my payment so I couldn’t live.124

In Vancouver, Aiyanas Ormond, Community Organiser from Vancouver Area Network of Drug Users (VANDU), spoke about tickets issued for minor offences such as jaywalking, illegal vending and public urination escalating into warrants for failure to appear in court. Mr Ormond said they see VANDU members going to jail as an indirect consequence of tickets for minor offences. He also said: ‘Another part of the dynamic is that people start to rack up long rap sheets for procedural offences and when they come before a court the lengthy list and failure to appear warrants make a harsher sentence more likely’.

Professor Blasi also paints a picture of tickets and citations spiralling into larger criminal matters under the Safer Cities Initiative in LA’s Skid Row:

For most residents of the City, a citation for jaywalking or walking against a signal light are a reminder, an inconvenience, and an unplanned expense. The “fine or bail” for the most common violation, walking against the “don’t walk” signal is $25.00. But by the time the various penalties and assessments are added (including sums earmarked for court facilities, DNA testing, and emergency medical services), the total comes to $159.00. Again, for many of us this may be an inconvenience. But to someone subsisting on County General Relief, it is equal to nearly three weeks total income. And for a person with no income at all, there is no possibility of paying the “fine or bail.” Those who do not pay can try to contest the citation in court, but a very high proportion of those cited in Skid Row are simply too disabled to comprehend what that might entail ... An interaction that began with an officer writing a ticket to a mentally disabled person unable to get his shopping cart across the intersection in time will have a more severe result the next time that person encounters a police officer: he will be arrested and taken to jail pursuant to the warrant. Fragile arrangements for food and shelter are likely to be disrupted and possessions lost in the shuffle. Certainly, there is no apparent mental health benefit to a trip to the County Jail, even for a short time.125

Javier Beltran, Directing Attorney of the Los Angeles Inner City Law Center Homelessness Prevention Project, spoke about the flow-on effects of citations or warrants for public space offences once people are housed. He said a lot of the issues they see with people facing eviction for rent arrears are ‘to do with other baggage, including trying to pay their citations or warrants. It’s hard for people to prioritise and it can jeopardise their housing’.

The above accounts make it clear that the burden of multiple citations or fines, the threat of enforcement and the very real risk of prison can exacerbate the stress and social exclusion of homelessness.

In thinking about policies and processes for regulating public space, we can’t ignore the impact tickets have on people’s already difficult circumstances and their future opportunities — it doesn’t stop with the ticket.

The wisdom of using financial penalties to regulate use of public space by people experiencing the social and financial hardship of homelessness should be re-considered. In addition to the personal financial burdens they place on people experiencing or exiting homelessness, the financial costs they impose on the justice system are discussed in part 4.5 below.

### 4.2. Impacts on community safety and wellbeing

As discussed in part 3, the impetus for enforcement-based approaches to homelessness is often concerns about the impact of visible homelessness, and associated conduct, on the quality of life of other members of residential

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124 Ibid (Darren).
125 Blasi et al, Policing Our Way out of Homelessness?, above n 42, 30–1 (citations omitted).
and business communities. Decision-makers are required to balance the circumstances of the general community against those of individuals experiencing homelessness.

This section considers the impact of enforcement-based approaches to public space on communities. It discusses two different impacts:

- increased public safety and order, including through deterrence; and
- reinforced or legitimised public stereotypes about homelessness.

**Increased public safety and order and deterrence**

As has been discussed throughout this report, members of the general public or businesses can be uncomfortable with the presence of people experiencing homelessness sleeping rough, begging or drinking in their neighbourhood. In response, enforcement-based measures are introduced to address this conduct or remove it from local areas.

As has also been discussed, in many cases the issue is perceived disorder or lack of public safety, rather than an actual threat or risk. As Johnsen and Fitzpatrick acknowledge, however, ‘the impact of these [street] activities on other members of the community must be given due regard when assessing the overall appropriateness and justice of interventions, particularly where street activities have a major impact on particular sections of the community’.  

With this in mind, this section considers whether enforcement-based initiatives are effective in improving public safety and order in local communities through reducing crime and ‘anti-social behaviour’, including any deterrent effect of potential enforcement.

The table below provides a snapshot of evaluations and assessments of enforcement-based initiatives in terms of whether or not they have improved public order and safety. The examples focus only on reported outcomes as they relate to actual or perceived improvements in public safety and order – they are of course not comprehensive evaluations.

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<th>Jurisdiction</th>
<th>Enforcement-based approach</th>
<th>Impact on public safety and order</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Los Angeles</td>
<td>Safer Cities Initiative (SCI) – 50 new police officers deployed to police Skid Row (see part 3.3)</td>
<td>There are conflicting views on whether the SCI has reduced crime in Skid Row. Berk and MacDonald’s evaluation of the SCI found a small decline in each type of crime (nuisance, property and violent crimes) after the SCI was implemented and, while this trend was also found in comparison areas (i.e. areas where SCI had not been introduced), their analysis indicated a downward trend unique to the Central Division of Los Angeles, where the SCI was targeted. In contrast, Blasi and Stuart analysed figures for the year prior to the launch of SCI and the year after and compared the data on crimes occurring in Skid Row with those occurring in the remainder of the Central Area. They found that, ‘as to overall serious or violent crime, the reduction in crime in the SCI...’</td>
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127 Berk and MacDonald, *Policing the homeless*, above n 97.
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<th>Jurisdiction</th>
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<td>deployment area was not statistically significant from the reduction in the non-SCI area. Their figures show:</td>
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<td>- The SCI resulted in about 750 arrests per month.</td>
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<td>- Of these, more than half (55.3%) were for drug offences. Of the drug offences, there were a nearly equal number of arrests for drug sales as for drug possession and the high percentage of drug sales arrests appeared to result from 'buy/bust' stings targeting ordinary addicts.</td>
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<td>- Of the non-drug offences, few arrests were for serious, violent crimes. Of 1,346 arrests by the SCI Task Force, only 22 were for homicide (1), robbery (8), rape (0), or aggravated assault (13).</td>
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<tr>
<td>New York City</td>
<td>Stop and frisk</td>
<td>Approximately 2.4 million stops occurred between 2009 – 2012. Close to 150,000 arrests resulted from those stops (i.e. only 6% of stops resulted in arrest).</td>
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<td>On 12 August 2013, a federal court judge found that the stops disproportionately impacted minorities (84% of people stopped were black and Latino despite these two groups only making up 52% of the city’s population) and were unconstitutional (i.e. the NYPD had violated the equal protection clause in the Fourteenth Amendment and the Fourth Amendment, which prohibits unreasonable searches and seizures).</td>
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<td>The Attorney General released a report finding that:</td>
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<td>- of the 6% of people stopped and frisked who were arrested, roughly half (i.e. 3% of total stops) led to guilty pleas or convictions at trial;</td>
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<td>- 0.3% of total stops led to jail sentences of more than 30 days; and</td>
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<td>- 0.1% of total stops led to convictions for a violent crime.</td>
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<td>The Attorney General’s report states: ‘These findings merit consideration in the broader discussion of the efficacy of stop and frisk as a law enforcement tool’.</td>
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<td>City of London</td>
<td>Operation Fennel – targeted begging initiative, combining services and enforcement</td>
<td>As discussed in part 4.1, a number of the reported outcomes for Operation Fennel focussed on linking people suspected of begging with services and shelter. Four reported outcomes refer to improved public safety.</td>
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128 Blasi and Stuart, Has the Safer Cities Initiative Reduced Serious Crime?, above n 78.
129 Ibid.
130 Under stop and frisk, citizens are temporarily detained for purposes of questioning, and at times frisked or searched. Section 140.50 of the New York Criminal Procedure Law authorizes a police officer ‘to stop a person in a public place ... when he reasonably suspects that such person is committing, has committed or is about to commit either (a) a felony or (b) a misdemeanor.’ Once that stop has been made, the Criminal Procedure Law authorises a frisk of the person only if the officer ‘reasonably suspects’ that he is in danger of physical injury.
133 Ibid 4.
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| (see part 4.1 and part 6.4) | order or the reduced presence of people begging in the City:  
- relocation assistance to homeless people who want to go home to other parts of the country;  
- 3 prolific and problem beggars have left the City area;  
- the business community has praised Operation Fennel for its success in dealing with their begging issues; and  
- public houses having far less trouble with anti-social behaviour.¹³⁴ |
| United Kingdom | Enforcement interventions in five UK cities, including ASBOs, injunctions, arrests for begging or sleeping rough under the Vagrancy Act 1824, controlled drinking zones, dispersal orders, designing out and alternative giving schemes | ‘Affected members of the public, and enforcement agents, were not unsympathetic to the vulnerability of street users, but were clear that their top priority was a reduction in the negative impact of street culture on their daily lives. Most felt that the strategies adopted in their local area had been successful in bringing about a sharp decline in street activities ... “Harder” forms of enforcement – particularly ASBOs – were key to the reduction of street activities in targeted areas and clearly had a powerful (direct and indirect) deterrent effect ... “softer” forms of enforcement – especially controlled drinking zones and environmental designing out measures – were highly effective in reducing the visibility of street activities.”¹³⁵ |
| Hungary | Prohibition on habitually residing in a public place (see part 5.5) | ‘[R]egarding busy public places and transport hubs, overcrowding decreased visibly and public health conditions were improved as a consequence of the measures’.¹³⁶ |
| Toronto | Safe Streets Act (SSA) – prohibition on aggressive begging and ‘squeegeeing’ (see part 3.2) | O’Grady, Gaetz and Bucciari note:  
- There is evidence that panhandling and squeegeeing have declined over the past decade – in 1999 29% of the street youth sample reported panhandling and squeegeeing as their main source of income compared with less than 3% in 2009.  
- The 2009 City of Toronto Street Needs Assessment also shows a decline in panhandling as a source of income, from 17.4% in 2006, to 9.7% in 2009.  
- It is not clear whether or not the SSA is a major factor in precipitating this decline (other factors including the outreach strategy of Streets to Home also undoubtedly contributed), but ‘there is little doubt that the SSA has also had an impact’.¹³⁷ |

¹³⁴ Operation Fennel, City of London Policing Plan, above n 100.  
¹³⁷ O’Grady, Gaetz and Bucciari, Can I See your ID?, above n 10, 29.
Jurisdiction | Enforcement-based approach | Impact on public safety and order
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 |  | – The law “is designed to address aggressive panhandling and squeegeeing, not as a broader and more general strategy to eradicate these forms of income generation”. 138
 |  | – Despite the decrease in homeless people begging and squeegeeing, the number of tickets issued by the Toronto Police Service under the SSA increased from 710 in 2000 to 15,324 in 2010 (an increase of 2,147%). 139

From the sample above, most of the jurisdictions reported a decline in ‘street activity’ including begging, street drinking or squeegeeing, which was at least partly attributable to enforcement-based measures. However, evidence regarding any improvement in public safety through a reduction in serious crime is inconclusive (in New York City, only 6% of people stopped under stop and frisk were arrested and 0.1% were convicted of a violent crime). 140 Furthermore, there are findings of discriminatory impacts on innocent members of the community and in some cases a sense that activity is moved elsewhere rather than addressed. Essentially, the causal link between tougher enforcement and improved public safety is not clear.

In examining the impact of enforcement on improved safety and public order, we also need to consider the deterrent effect of enforcement i.e. the idea that people will modify their behaviour in response to the risk of enforcement.

Johnsen and Fitzpatrick found that:

> even the threat of an ASBO could bring about substantial changes in street behaviour because of the possibility of long prison sentences for breach of ASBO conditions. Moreover, when preceded by warning stages … and integrated with intensive support interventions, ASBOs could bring about positive benefits for some street users – causing them to desist from anti-social behaviour … and engage with drug treatment and other services. 141

In this example, ASBOs were used as a last resort after warning stages and accompanied by access to supports. Even then, there was a significant risk of the ‘deterrent’ manifesting in unpredictable, negative ways on vulnerable people, including geographical and activity displacement (i.e. isolation from services and supports and engagement in potentially higher risk activities). 142

The case study below highlights the limited deterrent effect of tickets, infringements or fines as an enforcement-based mechanism for regulating public space.

**The deterrent of ticketing or fining people experiencing homelessness – Victoria**

Homeless Law client Scott, whose circumstances motivated this project, initially sought legal assistance with approximately $6000 in fines for being drunk in public. Scott battles chronic alcohol dependence, depression and...
anxiety, an acquired brain injury and has cycled in and out of homelessness for much of his adult life.

When he came before the court the first time, Scott’s matter was adjourned subject to an undertaking to be of ‘good behaviour’ and continue to engage with his psychologist and drug and alcohol counsellor.

The undertaking was for a six-month period. During this time, Scott’s relationship broke down, he was forced to move back into a boarding house and he was unable to maintain sobriety. Scott relied heavily on alcohol to deal with the end of his relationship and the danger of his living environment. He received two more fines for being drunk in public during the undertaking period.

Scott had to go back before the court three more times in relation to these fines. Throughout this time, he consistently engaged with his psychologist and drug and alcohol counsellor and was dedicated to his recovery.

Scott provides a compelling example of someone who should not be caught up in the fines system in the first place. The prospect of being fined for public drunkenness did not act as a deterrent for him because his behaviour was dictated by addiction and homelessness; nor did it provide an incentive for him to recover.

Scott was making a committed effort to engage with support services to assist him with his rehabilitation and he indicated that he was motivated to do this by the needs of his children and his health rather than the stressful legal proceedings. The fact that he suffered countless barriers to overcoming his 20 year alcohol dependence was not addressed by criminalising what is a health and social issue.143

In summary, fining people experiencing homelessness, mental illness and/or substance dependence rarely has the preventative effect that it might otherwise have for people whose conduct is not so heavily influenced by severe hardship. Furthermore, enforcement mechanisms such as anti-social behaviour orders which are powerful deterrents because of the potentially severe consequences (‘[t]he ASBO is what scares people because that’s the thing that’s really gonna impact on their life’)144 present high risks in terms of the re-direction of vulnerable people’s conduct (for example, toward theft or sex work).145

The risks of (a) ineffectiveness; or (b) ostensible effectiveness, but with highly adverse consequences for vulnerable people, must be kept in mind when assessing the potential for enforcement-based mechanisms to address conduct related to homelessness and improve safety and public order in local areas.

Reinforcing and responding to public stereotypes about homelessness

As discussed throughout this report, enforcement-based approaches to homelessness are often motivated by public concerns about the presence and conduct of people experiencing homelessness in local areas.

Professor Stephen Gaetz discussed reactive law-making in the context of Ontario’s Safe Streets Act. He recounted that at the time of introducing the Act, the then Attorney-General had said words to the effect of: ‘when the public feels unsafe walking on the street, that’s when it’s time for government to act’. Professor Gaetz said: ‘that’s not the case at all … legislators need to respond to criminality, not fear and prejudice’.

Reflecting on the extract of Broken Windows in part 3.5 above, which refers to law enforcement that seeks to minimise ‘fear’ of crime not necessarily crime itself, it is important to consider whether such unquestioning reactions to public concern are the foundation of effective law and policy. While certainly community concerns

144 Johnsen and Fitzpatrick, The Impact of Enforcement, above n 7, 30 quoting a police representative from Birmingham.
must be heard and considered, they are not the only factor that should determine whether an enforcement-based approach is necessary and appropriate.

The Leeds ‘zero tolerance’ approach to people begging in the city is another example of reactive enforcement-based responses to community pressures.

### Leeds – market research poll informs response to begging

In 2004, the police in Leeds adopted a ‘zero tolerance’ approach to people begging in the city, under which they arrested all people begging regardless of whether it was passive or aggressive. This decision was informed by market research poll which found that members of the public felt threatened even by those begging ‘passively’.  

Over three years, there were 300 arrests (of 106 individuals) for begging and 37 ASBOs were issued. Members of the community were given information leaflets, which included the individual’s name, photograph and a list of activities prohibited by their ASBO so they could easily identify and report alleged breaches of the ASBO.

An ‘alternative giving’ scheme was also introduced, which reminded people that ‘begging is a crime’ and discouraged the public from giving directly to people begging but suggested that they instead donate to a local homelessness agency.

‘Alternative’ or ‘diverted’ giving schemes are community education initiatives that discourage members of the public from giving money directly to people begging and instead encourage donations to identified local homelessness charities. They usually entail a public awareness campaign, including posters and stalls at train stations where homeless sector workers explain to commuters why they should avoid giving money to people who are begging.

The *Killing with Kindness* ‘alternative giving’ scheme was on foot while I was in London.

146 See Johnsen and Fitzpatrick, *The Impact of Enforcement*, above n 7, 16.
147 Ibid.
148 Ibid.
Killing with Kindness – alternative or diverted giving campaigns

The Killing with Kindness campaign has been run by Thames Reach – a large London-based homeless charity with the ultimate goal of ending street homelessness – since 2003 and is supported by a number of other agencies. An earlier campaign poster delivered the message: ‘Can you spare 20p for a cup of tea? How about £10 for a bag of heroin? Or £12 for a rock of crack? The money you give to those who beg may help keep them on the streets. It may even help to buy the drugs that kill them. Put your spare change where it counts instead. Thames Reach Bondway – Ending street homelessness’. A newer version of the poster says: ‘Are you killing with kindness? The money you give to people begging is likely to be spent on heroin, crack cocaine and alcohol. Don’t line the pockets of drug dealers – support your local homelessness charity instead. If you see someone sleeping rough or begging, you can call the Lambeth SORT helpline on 0870 383 3300 so that our outreach team can help. To make a donation, volunteer your time, or for more information on how we are working to end rough sleeping, visit www.thamesreach.org.uk. Thank you.’

The campaign is based on ‘[o]verwhelming evidence [which] shows that people who beg on the streets of London do so in order to buy hard drugs, particularly crack cocaine and heroin, and super-strength alcoholic beers and ciders’. The evidence cited includes evidence from outreach teams who say ‘80 per cent of people begging do so to support a drug habit’ and drug testing of people arrested for begging done by the Metropolitan Police, which ‘indicated that between 70 and 80 per cent tested positive for Class A drugs’. The campaign is also based on the suggestion that ‘only 40 per cent of people arrested for begging in a Metropolitan Police operation claimed to be homeless. Most people begging have accommodation of sorts, either a hostel place or a flat or bed-sit’.

Underpinning the campaign is the notion that ‘people are more likely to accept help and to address their addictions when they are not receiving money from begging’, which is drawn from the experience of frontline outreach workers.

The risks, desperation and health implications that substance dependence can bring are clear and efforts to support people to deal with their addictions, including through assisting the efforts of frontline outreach workers, should be welcomed. However, the following aspects of this campaign and others like it warrant further consideration:

- **Evidence-base and communication** – the evidence does not appear to be as ‘overwhelming’ as indicated: it is made up of anecdotal (although important) evidence from outreach teams and drug testing and questioning by the Metropolitan Police. Moreover, it refers to 70 – 80% of people arrested for begging testing positive for drugs and ‘only 40%’ being homeless. Phrased differently, almost half of people begging were homeless and 20 – 30% showed no signs of drug use. These are important figures.

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149 See Thames Reach, Killing with Kindness (available at: http://www.thamesreach.org.uk/news-and-views/campaigns/giving-to-beggars/) (Thames Reach, Killing with Kindness); Jeremy Swain (CEO of Thames Reach), ‘Do the Right Thing’ Inside Housing UK (25 October 2013) (Swain, Do the Right Thing). In 2013, Thames Reach joined forces with the City of London, Tower Hamlets and Broadway to run the ‘advertising campaign’ in two boroughs.
151 Ibid.
152 Ibid; Swain, Do the Right Thing, above n 149.
153 Ibid.
154 Ibid.
155 Ibid; Swain, Do the Right Thing, above n 149.
– **Links with homelessness** – the links between homelessness and begging are unclear: in noting that only 40% of people arrested for begging by the Metropolitan Police were homeless, Thames Reach indicates that the other 60% had ‘accommodation of sorts, either a hostel place or a flat or bed-sit’. Hostels are emergency accommodation ‘for single homeless people ... where you can stay for a short time’. By many definitions, including in the UK and Australia, people in hostels are homeless. Furthermore, this evidence is not incontrovertible. By way of example, all of the ‘street users’ interviewed as part of Fitzpatrick and Johnsen’s research on the impact of enforcement on street users were homeless or had a history of homelessness:

Given the controversy over this issue ... it is important to highlight that three quarters of the in-depth interview sample (27 interviewees) were homeless at the point of interview: 10 were sleeping rough, 11 were living in hostels, rolling/night shelters or Bed and Breakfast hotels, five were “sofa-surfing” round friends and relatives and one was staying in a squat. All of the 10 interviewees who had settled accommodation at the point of the interview had a history of homelessness.

An earlier study of 19 people begging in London, Luton, York and Edinburgh found that almost 50% (nine) of participants were sleeping rough, seven were staying in hostels or with friends and three had accommodation.

– **Impact on public understanding** – even if people begging are battling drug dependence and are not ‘homeless’, these strongly delivered messages oversimplify complex circumstances and reinforce stereotypes about poverty, homelessness and substance dependence that we’ve all fought hard to dispel. In its simplest form it says people whose hardship is extremely visible all have a drug problem and in this way it risks leading to broader, unhelpful changes in public attitudes to poverty (or indeed entrenching attitudes that still exist). There is also the risk that engagement with support isn’t the only alternative to begging and if a person is dealing with acute drug dependence other measures that are less safe for the community and the individual may be resorted to.

While they are driven by very different motives – (a) to encourage people to engage with services and (b) to clean up the streets to avoid public discomfort with people begging – both alternative giving schemes and ‘zero tolerance’ approaches to begging reinforce and respond to unhelpful attitudes about people experiencing homelessness and poverty.

Instead, we should be working to improve community understanding about the complex causal factors behind homelessness, begging and substance dependence and encouraging more evidence-based, less reactive responses to these issues.


157 See, eg, Australian Bureau of Statistics, *Information Paper – A Statistical Definition of Homelessness* (4922.0: 4 September 2012), which explains the ABS definition: ‘When a person does not have suitable accommodation alternatives they are considered homeless if their current living arrangement is in a dwelling that is inadequate; or has no tenure, or if their initial tenure is short and not extendible; or does not allow them to have control of, and access to space for social relations’.


160 See, eg, Joe Hermer, ‘Policing compassion: “Diverted Giving” on the Winchester High Street’ in Dean, *Begging Questions*, above n 159: ‘retailers benefited from a moralised environment where anyone begging in the downtown area could be labelled as unworthy and subjected to being moved on’. Hermer also said that the scheme: ‘generated a coherent and concrete set of circumstances which was aligned with the interests of city officials, retailers, and the police: to “target the undesirables” and configure public compassion in a way that made the “moving on” of beggars acceptable to the pedestrian conscience’ (215).

161 See part 4.1 above. See also ibid 203, which discusses an early ‘diverted giving’ scheme and the unanticipated impact on homelessness services. The nominated homelessness charities reported that the ‘diverted giving’ money accounted for less than 2% of their operating budget, but because of the significant promotion around the scheme, people experiencing homelessness requested free or reduced cost shelter and meals. When staff indicated it wasn’t possible, people would – understandably – refer to local newspaper articles stating that the service just got £2000 from the ‘begging boxes’. People experiencing homelessness also resented the services for the perceived role they played in the parallel ‘harsher policing regime’. One of the services requested that their name be removed from the begging boxes.
4.3. Impacts on police and relationships with communities

The reliance on enforcement-based responses to homelessness requires a heavy investment of resources from police. This role can present challenges for local police both in terms of their capacity and their skill set – police are not always equipped to play this role and in many cases it is not a role they want to play.

In addition to considering these pressures, this section discusses the impact that frequent contact with police in relation to minor offences can have on relationships between police and homeless members of the community and the increased vulnerability of people experiencing homelessness that can result from this fractured relationship.

The strain on police

The focus of enforcement-based approaches to regulating public space is often on the role of police as enforcing laws and implementing ‘crackdowns’ or targeted responses to people experiencing homelessness. Frequently, however, it is not police initiating these responses, rather the response comes from government decision-makers and police are directed to implement it. Sometimes it is the police who resist tougher enforcement or, as was the case with the City of London Police’s Operation Fennel, propose an alternative approach.

South Carolina – ban on homeless people resisted by local police

In an effort to revitalise the city, Columbia, South Carolina proposed a plan to ban homeless people from the local downtown area. The operation hours of the 240-bed homeless shelter on the outskirts of the city were going to be extended and it was proposed that vans would shuttle homeless clients to daily appointments for jobs, medical services or mental health treatment.

The 1500 people experiencing homelessness would be asked to leave the city centre and existing ordinances, including prohibitions on loitering, public urination and other nuisance violations were going to be strictly enforced against homeless people in the city. The city would post more police officers on key downtown streets to enforce public space laws and at least one police officer would be posted at a key access road to the shelter to make sure homeless people were not entering the city centre on foot. There was going to be a ‘hotline’ for community or business members to contact if homeless people were identified in the city.

Homelessness advocates expressed significant concern about the proposal, but the plan was passed by the Council. The local police chief then opposed the plan, identifying that this wasn’t what he wanted to spend limited police resources on. Executive Director of the National Coalition for the Homeless, Jerry Jones, indicated that the police’s resistance to the proposal was crucial to its eventual revocation.

The Columbia police chief’s concern with implementing the proposed plan was the strain it would place on police resources. Police forces have not been immune to budget cuts in recent years and their limited resources must be allocated carefully. By way of example, no additional resources were available to the City of London Police to run Operation Fennel, so other police operations had to be cut back to make room for the targeted begging initiative.

In addition to the resource pressure, a number of people I spoke with recognised that ‘police are not social workers’. While on the one hand, it is critical that they are provided with comprehensive training to assist them to understand and respond appropriately to people experiencing homelessness, including through choosing options other than arrests or tickets; on the other hand, there are limits to the role police can play in addressing the complex economic, social and health-based problems that underpin homelessness.

Assistant Chief Diane Groomes of the District of Columbia Metropolitan Police Department summarised this well:

> A lot of what we deal with now is not crime ... a lot of investment should go into services instead of using police to solve these problems: we’re not psychologists ... At the moment it’s so easy to find police, but people need services.

Police are often the automatic go-to agency for concerns about problematic conduct in public places. In addition to imposing a resource burden on the police – and potentially diverting resources from more serious crime – this role is not necessarily a role officers are best equipped to play and in these ways enforcement-based approaches to homelessness can place an unreasonable strain on local police.

**Diminished trust in law enforcement and broken relationships with police**

People experiencing homelessness have a disproportionate amount of contact with police and enforcement officers. This contact may be initiated because the person is:

- breaking a law that specifically prohibits homelessness (for example, laws prohibiting rough sleeping, urban camping or sitting or lying on the sidewalk);
- breaking a law which he or she would not have broken if they had a private place to conduct their private lives (for example, public drunkenness or urination);
- breaking a law that is enforced in a discretionary way and may go unpunished for other members of the community (for example, jaywalking or being drunk in a public place);
- undertaking activity that is the subject of a ‘crackdown’, blitz or targeted law enforcement operation (for example, an operation to target begging or rough sleeping in the local area); and/or
- not breaking any law, but the attention of law enforcement officers is heightened by the visibility of homelessness and, in some cases, the attitudes of enforcement officers to people experiencing homelessness.

The impact of repeatedly coming to the attention of enforcement officers for one or more of the above reasons can cause people experiencing homelessness to feel targeted, harassed and/or discriminated against. One of the participants in *In the Public Eye - personal stories of homelessness and fines* spoke about what it’s like to feel targeted by enforcement officers. Hamish has been homeless since his mid-teens. He has battled drug dependence and mental illness and accrued $13,000 in infringements for not having a ticket on trains and trams. He said:

> It’s a bit upsetting when you are on a tram or train and you find that whenever there is a ticket officer they immediately bee-line their way to you. It does something to your self esteem. The first few times it happens you think nothing of it, but then by the end you are looking for these people. I’m like a dog who has been hit. Once you’ve had the crap beaten out of you a few times it just becomes “yes sir”, it’s kind of sad in a way. 164

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164 Justice Connect Homeless Law, *In the Public Eye*, above n 121 (Hamish) (name has been changed).
In addition to causing people experiencing homelessness to be caught up in the justice system, with overwhelming debts, outstanding warrants or facing jail, frequent contact between enforcement officers and homeless people erodes trust and damages the relationship between police and homeless members of the community.165

In relation to tickets issued to homeless youth in Toronto, O’Grady, Gaetz and Buccieri note that while many of the 244 homeless young people they interviewed acknowledge that they were breaking the law at the time, ‘one third believe[d] the charges to be frivolous, and that they were singled out for offences that the average person would not be’.166

The way in which the regularity of contact between police and people experiencing homelessness impacts on the relationship between these two groups was apparent when I spoke with the City of London Police about the attempts of Operation Fennel to link people begging in the City with support services.

### Trust and policing – fear of getting nicked

A primary stated aim of Operation Fennel is to link people begging in the City of London with services to help them address the underlying causes of their begging.

The fragile relationship between police and people experiencing homelessness (for various reasons, including past interactions) initially impacted on Operation Fennel and people didn’t show up to the service hubs. The service hubs brought together a range of services and attendance at the hub was the alternative to being charged for begging by the City of London Police.

Sergeant Montgomery explained: ‘they thought we were trying to get them in one place and nab them; they thought it was a trick’. Gradually, through word of mouth, trust was built and more people started to show up and Sergeant Montgomery said ‘it’s picking up steam now’.

This is a clear example of the impact that policing practices or interactions can have on the relationship between police and people experiencing homelessness. This lack of trust affects the way in which people experiencing homelessness respond to police. The trust can be damaged by regularity of contact and it is further eroded if there is actual perceived discrimination in the policing of marginalised groups in the community.

Kelling and Wilson, creators of the broken windows theory and arguably the world’s most well-known proponents of rigorous policing, were mindful of the risk of discrimination in their proposed policing method:

> The concern about equity is more serious. We might agree that certain behavior makes one person more undesirable than another but how do we ensure that age or skin color or national origin or harmless mannerisms will not also become the basis for distinguishing the undesirable from the desirable? How do we ensure, in short, that the police do not become the agents of neighborhood bigotry?

We can offer no wholly satisfactory answer to this important question. We are not confident that there is a satisfactory answer except to hope that by their selection, training, and supervision, the police will be inculcated with a clear sense of the outer limit of their discretionary authority. That limit, roughly, is this—the police exist to help regulate behavior, not to maintain the racial or ethnic purity of a neighborhood.167

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165 See, eg, Roger Hopkins Burke, ‘Tolerance or intolerance? The policing of begging in the urban context’ in Dean, Begging Questions, above n 159, 219, 227 discussing ‘zero tolerance’ policing in the UK in the late 1990s and quoting Charles Pollard, Chief Constable of the Thames Valley Constabulary, who described it as a ‘short-term fix and long-term liability’. Hopkins Burke notes that a ‘key main concern from this viewpoint is that insensitive policing could lead to an escalation of conflict between the police and the communities they are charged with policing’.

166 O’Grady, Gaetz and Buccieri, Can I See your ID?, above n 10, 11.

167 Kelling and Wilson, Broken Windows, above n 52.
A US federal court has recently found that discrimination was a factor in the NYPD’s use of their ‘discretionary authority’ and that stop and frisk practices impacted disproportionately on racial minorities and violated the Constitution. The impact of this approach on the community’s confidence in the police was apparent when I visited New York City.

Stop and frisk – the impact on relationships with the NYPD

In 2011–12 the Center for Constitutional Rights (CCR) conducted 54 interviews with people who had been stopped and frisked by the NYPD about the impact those stops had on them. Although the focus was on race-based stops, Nahal Zamani, Advocacy Program Manager, Government Misconduct and Racial Justice with CCR said: ‘we couldn’t divorce housing status, income and people who were, or were perceived to be, homeless from what we were hearing: people were stopped for who they were, not what they were doing and it was having a lasting effect’.

A clear message from the Talking Transition forum on policing and public safety (a community conversation in preparation for Mayor Bill de Blasio’s inauguration) was: ‘you should feel safe when you see the police’. When people don’t have this confidence, they don’t seek help when things go wrong, which makes communities or groups within communities less safe.

People at the forum called for a new era of safety and respect in their communities. They talked about wanting a change in practices and law, but also ‘a change in tone’. One young person said: ‘we want it to be about protecting us, not criminalising us’. The message was that it’s possible to have policing that’s ‘lawful and just and effective’.

The CCR points out: ‘NYPD’s aggressive use of stop and frisk does significant damage to police-community relations in ways that may actually reduce public safety’. It refers to several of the 54 people interviewed about their experience of stop and frisk as saying that they would never call the police if they needed help.

The danger of these broken police-community relationships was apparent in the Missing Women Commission of Inquiry in Vancouver, which identified that local low income women’s vulnerability was amplified by their reluctance to engage with police, including because of outstanding warrants.

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169 CCR, Stop and Frisk: The Human Impact, above n 115, 15.
170 Ibid.
In September 2010 the Missing Women Commission of Inquiry was established to examine police investigations into the murders and disappearances of numerous women from the Downtown Eastside between 1997 and 2002. The inquiry was also reconsidering the decision of the Criminal Justice Branch to stay proceedings against Robert Pickton on charges of attempted murder, assault with a weapon, forcible confinement, and aggravated assault. Pickton was later convicted of the murder of six women and sentenced to life in prison.

The final report of the Commission, *Forsaken*,\(^\text{171}\) was released by Commissioner Wally Oppal QC in November 2012. It is 1,448 pages, contains 63 recommendations and concludes that ‘the police investigations into the missing and murdered women were blatant failures’.\(^\text{172}\)

Amongst many other things, the report talks about the way in which tickets and warrants for poverty-related offences affected women’s relationships with the police and notes that, because women had outstanding warrants and were reluctant to engage with the police, their vulnerability was amplified.

Addressing the relationship between Vancouver’s poorest neighbourhood and the Vancouver Police Department, Oppal recommended ‘that the City of Vancouver and the Vancouver Police Department take proactive measures to reduce the number of court warrants issued for minor offences by:

- reducing the number of tickets issued and charges laid for minor offences;
- developing guidelines to facilitate greater and more consistent use of police discretion not to lay charges; and


\(^{172}\) Ibid 160.
Persistent contact with police in relation to day-to-day conduct in public places can diminish the trust of people experiencing homelessness in law enforcement. This can have flow-on effects in terms of further isolating already vulnerable people. The recommendations from the Canadian former Court of Appeal judge and Attorney General, the Honourable Wally Oppal QC, are insightful and compelling: reducing the number of tickets issued and charges laid for minor offences, and developing guidelines to facilitate greater and more consistent use of police discretion not to lay charges, will foster a stronger, safer relationship between homeless members of the community and local police.

4.4. Impacts on the effectiveness and efficiency of the justice system

Enforcement-based responses to homelessness invoke law enforcement and the justice system as tools for managing the presence and activities of homeless people in public places. Depending on the nature of the enforcement mechanism (for example, infringements or tickets, arrests, move-on powers, sentencing and/or court orders), different arms of the justice system will be impacted to varying degrees.

This section considers the impacts of using enforcement-based mechanisms to deal with homelessness on the following players in the justice system:

– legal and community services that assist clients to navigate the legal system; and
– courts.

The burden on legal services

Part of the motivation for this project was the recognition that, for Homeless Law’s 13 year existence, fines, infringements and warrants for conduct directly related to homelessness have prevailed as the most common legal issue affecting our clients. Assisting clients with these matters comprises approximately 50% of our annual work and in FY 2012 – 2013 we opened 166 new matters for clients overwhelmed with fines, some of whom were facing prison.

As discussed above, an analysis of 13 Homeless Law public space files by an external consultant showed that cases took between 6 months and 2.5 years to resolve (the average time was 14 months) and the average cost to pro bono law firms of running a public space file was $19,825 per matter. One matter required an investment equivalent to $54,000 in fees to resolve.  

In a recent position paper, a working group of Victorian community legal centres and financial counselling services noted: ‘In addition to imposing hardship on individuals, the current system presents a significant resource burden for the legal services, financial counsellors and other support services that assist clients to deal with infringements’.

This is not unique to Victoria:

173 Ibid 131.
174 Justice Connect Homeless Law, What’s the Cost?, above n 3.
175 Infringements Working Group, Position Paper: A simple, fair and effective infringements system for all Victorians (July 2013).
Pivot Legal Society does not generally provide direct legal services to individuals with tickets or warrants – the demand would be completely unmanageable. They run strategic matters and advocate for reform as part of their Accountable Police program.\(^{176}\)

The National Law Center on Homelessness and Poverty (NLCHP) reported that a public defender in St Petersburg, Florida announced that he would no longer represent indigent people arrested for violating municipal ordinances to protest what he called excessive arrests of homeless individuals by the City of St Petersburg. The records of the public defender’s office showed that the vast majority of people in the local jail on municipal ordinances were people experiencing homelessness.\(^{177}\)

In contrast, Patty Mullahy Fugere, co-founder and Executive Director of the Washington Legal Clinic for the Homeless (WLCH) said that citations, charges and warrants for public space offences do not make up a significant proportion of the WLCH’s total work. It is possible that this is linked with the approach to policing taken by the District of Columbia Metropolitan Police Department (MPD), as well as the increased awareness of homelessness generated through the Homelessness 101 training that WLCH delivers to the MPD (see part 6.4). Accordingly, this serves as a good example of the way in which an informed, appropriate frontline response can reduce the burden on homeless individuals, police, services and the courts.

### Judicial responses and congestion in the courts

Enforcement-based approaches to homelessness can bring people experiencing homelessness into the court system via a number of avenues, including charges, warrants for unpaid fines or tickets and applications for anti-social behaviour orders (or alleged breaches of these orders).

Douglas King, Barrister and Solicitor with Vancouver’s Pivot Legal Society, highlighted the effects on the court system that flow directly from enforcement-based approaches to homelessness on the ground. He referred to the congestion in the courts that resulted from a ‘ticketing blitz’ by the Vancouver Police Department in the Downtown Eastside in 2008. He said, ‘the court system couldn’t keep up with the tickets and the prosecutors did not see it as the best use of their time to pursue these matters against homeless people, so many of the matters were dropped’.

One of the judicial responses to the proliferation of tickets and charges issued to people experiencing homelessness in the US is ‘homeless courts’.

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**The Homeless Court Program**

There are 25 specialist homeless courts (or specialist lists/dockets) in the US. The first was started in San Diego in 1989. They are special court sessions convened in homeless shelters where homeless participants can voluntarily resolve outstanding misdemeanour offences and warrants. Models vary, but at their best, US homeless courts:

- build partnerships between the court, the prosecutor, the public defender, local shelters, service agencies and homeless participants;
- are voluntary (a person signs up through a service provider and the service provider refers the person to the...

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\(^{177}\) NLCHP and NCH 2009, *Homes not Handcuffs*, above n 8, 11.
Homeless Court Program);

- can resolve people’s misdemeanours in 3 – 4 months (participants complete their participation in service provider programs before appearing at the Homeless Court Program session and most cases are heard and resolved in one hearing);\(^{178}\) and

- do not require a guilty plea and therefore do not appear on a person’s criminal record (an important distinction from Victoria’s system).

The foundation of the Homeless Court Program is ‘a collaborative effort to promote trust and confidence in the court while addressing community safety issues and removing legal barriers to self-sufficiency’.\(^{179}\)

The Homeless Court Program addresses a wide range of misdemeanour offences including charges of being under the influence of a controlled substance, theft and driving under the influence. It is noted that in many cases the voluntary program activities required as part of the Homeless Court actually ‘exceed the demands a court might order for treatment of low-term felony cases’, including certain drug and theft charges.\(^{180}\)

Amy Horton-Newell, Director of the American Bar Association Commission on Homelessness and Poverty, explained that ‘some homeless courts can get through 200 cases (many people have multiple cases) in an afternoon thanks to the voluntary participation of homeless clients, as opposed to the traditional court where homeless defendants often fail to appear and significant court time is wasted’. Ms Horton-Newell also summarised the guiding principles of the courts:

- participation is voluntary;

- no one goes to jail;

- traditional court sanctions such as fines are replaced with credit for participation in appropriate treatment and services; and

- participants retain the option to be transferred to the general court if needed.

Ninety per cent of the cases in the Homeless Court Program are dismissed.\(^{181}\)

I also spoke with Lucy Fitzpatrick, Supervising Senior Staff Attorney with the Homelessness Prevention Law Project at Public Counsel, who is responsible for Los Angeles’ Homeless Court.\(^{182}\)


\(^{179}\) Ibid x referring to the American Bar Association Homeless Court Program Guidelines (2006).

\(^{180}\) Ibid 5.

\(^{181}\) Ibid 7.

Homeless Court in Los Angeles

One of the service-based accompaniments to the tough enforcement-based approach of the Safer Cities Initiative in Los Angeles is the Homeless Court,\(^\text{183}\) which was created by the Los Angeles County Superior Court, Los Angeles City Attorney, the Los Angeles County Public Defender and advocates including Public Counsel and the LA Homeless Service Authority.

The LA Homeless Court operates differently to the Homeless Court Program. In the LA Homeless Court, if a person with a history of homelessness has undertaken 90 days of rehabilitation, has not offended in 6 months and can obtain a satisfactory report from a service provider, they can apply to have certain tickets and warrants dismissed (the program does not apply to offences involving a victim, a weapon or possession of drugs).

Many of the challenges the court faces are similar to Victoria’s special circumstances process: it is administratively burdensome for social services required to provide documentation, as well as legal services assisting clients to navigate the system and enforcement agencies assessing the applications; and the process takes a minimum of six months, which presents problems for client engagement.

These burdens have weighed down the court and required it at times to put a temporary hold on new applications.

That said, the benefits delivered to people who are able to have their warrants addressed and ‘begin fresh’ are significant and an essential (if inadequate) feature of a system in which homelessness is so harshly penalised.

Homeless Courts represent the judiciary’s response to the ‘criminalisation’ of homelessness. They recognise that the scale of ticketing or charging and the vulnerability of the respondents present challenges for courts’ efficiency.

\(^{183}\) See Department of Public Social Services, Homeless Court (available at: http://www.ladpss.org/dpss/grow/homeless_court.cfm).
and effectiveness. In commenting on the Homeless Court Program, San Diego County Judge, Hon David Ryan, said:

The Homeless Court Program tries to get away from the criminalization of substance abuse. And it’s incredibly cost effective. Taxpayers pay about $25 a minute to hear one case in one traditional court. In Homeless Court, we do 200 cases in three hours. That’s efficiency.\(^{184}\)

Professor Blasi, however, expressed concern about the impact of the Homeless Court ‘in a city where homelessness has been so intensely criminalised’. He has also written on this point:

We observed one session of ‘Homeless Court’ and understand how valuable it can be for those who are able to access it. Given the number of citations and low grade misdemeanor arrests taking place as part of [the Safer Cities Initiative], however, it is clear that “Homeless Court” offers scant amelioration for the effects of 1,000 citations per month.\(^{185}\)

Even with the innovative development of Homeless Courts around the US, the inundation of courts with homeless people who have been given tickets or charges for conduct directly related to homelessness imposes a burden on the justice system and presents questions about whether the courts are the best mechanism for addressing some of the complex health and social problems that bring homeless defendants before them.

### 4.5. The financial costs

The development and implementation of enforcement-based approaches to homelessness has budgetary implications for government, including police and the courts.

This section identifies three studies that analyse the costs of enforcement-based approaches to homelessness, including by calculating the:

- prevalence of homelessness amongst a city’s ‘chronic offenders’ (41% of those who were arrested at least five times in the prior year were homeless);
- average annual number of arrests and nights in jail for 33 people experiencing homelessness (and the annual cost of this of $9,266.20 per offender or approximately $306,000 in total);
- interactions with the justice system of 37 people experiencing homelessness over a three year period (they were arrested 1,271 times) and the cost of this (the total jail cost was $278,000); and
- police time spent issuing tickets for begging and squeegeeing and the associated financial cost of this over an 11 year period (67,388 tickets were issued at a cost of $936,019 and 16,847 hours of police time).

The examples below set out interesting, practical ways of monitoring the impact of enforcement-based approaches to homelessness on homeless individuals and the financial implications of these approaches.

#### Review of North Carolina city’s 81 ‘chronic offenders’

The Sheriff’s Department in North Carolina city, Charlotte-Mecklenburg, reviewed data on 81 ‘chronic offenders’ (arrested at least five times in the prior year) and found:

- 33 (41%) were experiencing homelessness;
- the average number of arrests for the 33 homeless chronic offenders was 11.1 per year;

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\(^{184}\) See Binder and Merriam, San Diego Service Provider Toolkit, above n 178, 52.

the average length of stay in jail over the course of a year was 86.6 days; and
this translated into an annual cost to the County of $9,266.20 per offender or a total of nearly $306,000 annually.

The report noted: ‘Petty larceny, trespassing, drug and alcohol and public disturbance charges were the most common for this group. Most are not hard-core criminals’.

It also identified that ‘housing’ a person in the county jail costs approximately $107 per night. In contrast, the cost of housing a person in a shelter for an entire year in Charlotte ranged from $16.50 to $38 per night, which is 15–35% the cost of detaining an individual in jail. 186

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**Three year review of 37 rough sleepers’ contact with police, jail and hospital**

Buncombe County in North Carolina followed 37 people experiencing chronic homelessness over a three year period and recorded that:

- they were arrested 1,271 times over three years;
- the total jail cost was $278,000;
- when police costs, prosecution and court costs were added, the total cost, according to the Asheville Police Department, climbed to about $10,000 per person per year;
- the same 37 people used ambulance services 280 times over the same three year period, costing $120,000; and
- hospitalisation costs for the same time period were $425,000. 187

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**The financial costs of ticketing homeless young people**

The research of O’Grady, Gaetz and Buccieri, *Can I See your ID? The Policing of Youth Homelessness in Toronto* 188 analyses the financial costs of issuing tickets to homeless young people. The report considers tickets issued under Ontario’s Safe Streets Act (for aggressive panhandling and ‘squeegeeing’) over an 11 year period (2000–2010). The authors obtained the relevant data through two freedom of information requests from the Toronto Police Service, and the Ontario Ministry of the Attorney General.

A total of 67,388 tickets were issued throughout 2000–2010, with a total value of $4,043,280. 189

The research identifies that over an 11 year period, it has:

- cost $936,019 to issue tickets under the Safe Streets Act (based on 15 minutes of time ($13.89) for a...
These studies show that in addition to having a heavy impact on vulnerable people, delivering questionable improvements to levels of public safety and imposing a resource burden on police, services and courts, enforcement-based approaches to homelessness are also extremely expensive. As the US Interagency Council on Homelessness identifies: ‘In today’s economic climate, it is important for state, county, and local entities to invest in programs that work rather than spend money on activities that are unlikely to achieve the desired result.’\(^{192}\)

The financial costs of alternatives to enforcement-based approaches to homelessness are often identified as a barrier to their adoption or implementation. However, as these case studies show, transparent assessments of the costs of enforcement must be a feature of conversations and decisions about effective and efficient approaches to addressing homelessness and regulating public space in our communities.
5. CHANGING THE CONVERSATION – INCREASING UNDERSTANDING AND ADVOCATING EFFECTIVELY

The regulation of public space and homelessness is often framed as an issue of law and order, safe streets and getting tough on crime. It is important that laws, policies and practices designed to respond to visible homelessness are informed by evidence about the nature and extent of ‘public space offending’ (including begging, public drinking, travelling without a ticket and rough sleeping) and its causes. In contributing to conversations about homelessness and public space, I wanted to learn about how we can reframe these issues so that there is room for evidence, planning, evaluation and new ideas, which do not automatically turn to law enforcement to regulate conduct related to homelessness.

This section deals with interesting, effective ways of communicating about these issues. It discusses methods we can use to talk about the work we do in a way that cuts through stereotypes. It is about building awareness both within decision-makers and within the general public. As it stands, these are not issues that attract the attention or the empathy of the general population. There is little understanding about the impact of these laws, practices and policies on people experiencing homelessness.

This section identifies a range of different strategies, approaches and methods for increasing awareness about the impact of these laws, policies and practices and presents new ideas for changing laws and how they are enforced. It is about changing the conversation to make room for informed, evidence-based approaches to dealing with people experiencing homelessness and regulation of public space.

The strategies, approaches and methods discussed are:

- reporting – collating and using evidence effectively;
- community organising – member-based initiatives;
- building understanding and challenging stereotypes through personal stories;
- litigation – challenging ‘criminalisation’ in the courts; and
- human rights based work.

5.1. Reporting – collating and using evidence effectively

In Canada, I spoke with Professor Stephen Gaetz about the way public perceptions of people experiencing homelessness inform laws and policies designed to regulate public space. I asked about the most effective ways to break through some of these perceptions, which are often based on stereotypes or lack of understanding. Professor Gaetz said: ‘changing public opinion is really difficult ... Personal stories will resonate with different people who’ll say, “I never thought about that”, but you also need the quantitative evidence ... we need to come at it from different angles’.
The National Law Center on Homelessness and Poverty (NLCHP) are experts at collating and documenting evidence about laws ‘criminalising’ homelessness throughout the United States. They describe this work and its purpose:

The Law Center creates reports on homelessness and poverty and leverages these as outreach tools for policymakers, advocates, and the public. These reports analyze emerging trends and discuss their legal and policy implications while offering recommendations. The Law Center’s reports are widely covered in the media, ensuring the public and policymakers remain abreast of growing trends and giving advocates concrete tools with which to create change.\footnote{193}

Documenting the ‘criminalisation’ of homelessness in the US and equipping advocates

The NLCHP has produced 10 reports on criminalisation and homelessness since 1991. The reports document ‘cities with the worst record related to criminalizing homelessness and trends in the criminalization of homelessness, as well as initiatives in some cities that constituted more constructive approaches to street homelessness.’\footnote{194}

A snapshot of the two most recent reports on criminalisation of homelessness in the US is below.

\textit{Homes Not Handcuffs: The Criminalisation of Homelessness in U.S. Cities} – prepared by the NLCHP and the National Coalition for the Homeless in 2009, the report discusses the costs of criminalisation (including studies done in five cities) and constructive alternatives to criminalisation. It also identifies the ‘10 meanest cities’. The report is 191 pages long, almost 100 of which are a ‘prohibited conduct chart’ listing laws and practices of 235 surveyed US cities and case summaries of approximately 130 State and Federal lawsuits challenging laws criminalising homelessness.\footnote{195}

\textit{Criminalizing Crisis: The Criminalization of Homelessness in U.S. Cities} – prepared by the NLCHP in 2011, the report documents the results of a survey of 154 homeless advocates (43%), service providers (51%) and people who were experiencing or had experienced homelessness (6%). The reported results include the percentage of respondents who noted arrests, citations or both in their city for the following offences:

\begin{itemize}
  \item public urination/defecation – 73%;
  \item camping/sleeping in public – 55%;
  \item loitering – 55%;
  \item panhandling – 53%;
  \item public storage of belongings – 20%; and
  \item sidewalk-sitting – 19%.\footnote{196}
\end{itemize}

The 2011 report updates information on the laws, polices or practices of the 235 cities surveyed in 2009 and notes changes, including a trend of increased criminalisation of homelessness, showing that between the 2009 – 2011 results, there had been a 7% increase in prohibitions on panhandling and camping in public places and a 10% increase in prohibitions on loitering in certain public places.\footnote{197}
The 2011 report also considers the costs and other impacts of criminalisation, including the impact on homeless people, service providers, the criminal justice system and the broader community. The report attaches an Advocacy Manual, which provides guidance and tools for advocates, including in relation to dispelling myths, calculating costs, ‘grading your city’ and bringing litigation. The Advocacy Manual also contains a Model General Police Order to guide police interactions with people experiencing homelessness, including use of move-on orders, arrests, referrals to services and treatment of personal property. The 2011 report includes the prohibited conduct chart and case summaries as annexures to the Advocacy Manual.

The reports contain quotes and stories from individuals impacted by these laws and collate research and evidence collected throughout the country. Together with the Advocacy Manual, these documents ‘help advocates, service providers, attorneys, and homeless people combat such counterproductive laws and policies. [They provide] information on legal and non-legal strategies they can use in their own communities’. 

The comprehensive evidence gathering and reporting on criminalisation of homelessness by the NLCHP is an effective tool for raising awareness of the scale of criminalisation in the US, as well as providing comparative information so cities can assess what other jurisdictions are doing in a national context. It is a powerful instrument for equipping both advocates and policy-makers with the evidence they need to make informed arguments and decisions about the criminalisation of homelessness. By way of example, the NLCHP’s report is cited extensively throughout the report by the US Interagency Council on Homelessness, Searching Out Solutions: Constructive Alternatives to the Criminalization of Homelessness and, in this way, the NLCHP’s work informed an unprecedentedly balanced, constructive federal policy contribution on the criminalisation of homelessness in the US.

No similar evidence gathering and reporting had previously existed in Europe. In fact, when I spoke with Professor Gaetz, he said that 10 years ago when he had discussed the ‘criminalisation’ of homelessness in Canada and the US, a European counterpart had indicated: ‘that would never happen in Europe’. It is now recognised, however, that in Europe:

\[
\text{Laws, regulations and administrative measures penalising homelessness are being introduced during an economic crisis that has resulted in record levels of unemployment and poverty, driving entire families to live on the streets. Such measures are often motivated by the desire to reduce the visibility of homelessness and poverty and hide them as social issues.}\]

In light of this, the European Federation of National Organisations working with the Homeless (FEANTSA) and Housing Rights Watch produced a report on the nature and extent of the penalisation of homelessness in Europe in 2013.

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**Mean Streets**

– Europe’s first analysis of laws ‘criminalising’ homelessness

The challenges of a European report include diverse and numerous local and national legal frameworks and

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198 Ibid.
199 Ibid 16.
associated language barriers, which makes it a formidable task to liaise with local agencies and document ‘criminalisation’ measures in the same way as the NLCHP. Instead, the report includes articles from academics, activists, lawyers and NGOs, which discuss the historical context of penalisation of homelessness in Europe and highlight examples (including case studies from Belgium, Poland and Hungary). Mean Streets also makes recommendations for reform in the European Union and at national and local government levels.

The report strongly positions penalisation of homelessness in a human rights context and, in their joint foreword, Special Rapporteur on adequate housing as a component of the right to an adequate standard of living, and on the right to non-discrimination in this context, Raquel Rolnik, and Special Rapporteur on extreme poverty and human rights, Magdalena Sepúlveda Carmona, state that the work ‘will contribute significantly toward scholarship, advocacy and public debate on this issue’.

In addition to advocacy organisations, universities and academics play a valuable role in the contributing to the evidence base that informs homelessness law and policy. The Canadian Homelessness Research Network is a strong example of this.

**Mobilising homelessness research and knowledge**

The work of the Canadian Homelessness Research Network (CHRN) and the Homeless Hub is an impressive example of research presented in a way that is accessible outside its immediate academic context.

The CHRN is ‘dedicated to helping end homelessness by improving the impact of homelessness research on policy and practice’ and the Homeless Hub was created to address the need for a single place to find homelessness information from across Canada: ‘[It] is a web-based research library and information center representing an innovative step forward in the use of technology to enhance knowledge mobilization and networking. The Homeless Hub has emerged as a place where community services providers, researchers, government representatives, and the general public can access and share research, stories, and best practices’.

It is a pleasure to look at CHRN’s clear, concise reports, as well as the infographics, videos, blogs, media and social media that generally accompany their research publications. By presenting their research in this way, the network aims to equip advocates with the material they need to advocate for change through their work on the ground. Put simply: ‘the CHRN is committed to enhancing the impact of research on the homelessness crisis’.

Bridging the gap between research and evidence on one hand and homelessness policy and practice on the other is critical to making sure we develop well-informed programs and initiatives for addressing homelessness in our communities. For as long as our policies and practices continue to be based on sentiment and anecdote rather than evidence and research, they will continue to be flawed and present risks of being ineffective, costly and potentially harmful.

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201 Rolnik and Sepúlveda, *Foreword to Mean Streets*, above n 65, 12.
5.2. Community organising – member-based initiatives

Too often decisions about homelessness and public space are made behind closed doors, with little or no input from the people directly affected by the proposed laws, policies or practices.

The insights, experience and expertise that can be brought to the table by people who are or have been homeless should not be understated. This input is crucial in the development of effective strategies and the evaluation of existing strategies. It also plays a critical role in increasing awareness about the realities of homelessness, including its causes and its impacts on a person’s life.

Eric Post, Staff Attorney at Public Counsel’s Homelessness Prevention Law Project in Los Angeles said:

[more and more homeless folks are starting to organise and that’s an important effort. Empowering folks to make a change both in terms of policy and in their own lives makes people realise “hey these are people” and we need to create space for these voices to be heard.]

This section contains a snap shot of the member-based campaigns or initiatives I came across during my fellowship.

Nothing about us, without us – community action in and around Vancouver

I had the privilege of travelling with the Pivot Legal Society team to Abbotsford about 40 minutes outside Vancouver to observe their work with a group of local people experiencing homelessness who had been sleeping in tents in Jubilee Park for about 30 days at that time.

Previously all the camp members slept rough separately, but in recent times a sense of community had grown amongst the group and they had merged both their location and their voices to call for more affordable housing and better homelessness services in Abbotsford. When I visited, the City had successfully applied for an injunction requiring the camp members to leave Jubilee Park and the community had relocated to the neighbouring parking lot pending further legal proceedings.

The call of the group was ‘nothing about us, without us!’ Unsurprisingly, the group wanted a say in the City’s decision about how to tackle Abbotsford’s growing homelessness problem.

During my brief visit, I got a sense that this kind of powerful community organising isn’t unusual in and around Vancouver. In addition to the Jubilee Park community, the member run campaigns of the Vancouver Area Network of Drug Users (VANDU) make sure the voices of the people directly affected by legal and policy decisions are heard in what can otherwise become highly bureaucratic debates.

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204 Pivot Legal, Abbotsford homeless file human rights complaint as City prepares to clear out encampment (27 November 2013) (available at: http://www.pivotlegal.org/abbotsford_homeless_file_human_rights_complaint_as_cityprepares_to_clear_out_encampment); Peter Wrinch, ‘Abbotsford’s Homeless ask court to recognize their right to exist as equal citizens’ Pivot Legal Society Blog (7 March 2014) (available at: http://www.pivotlegal.org/abbotsford_s_homeless_ask_court_to_recognize_their_right_to_exist_as_equal_citizens).
My visit to New York City coincided with the ‘dancegiving’ event of Picture the Homeless (PTH): ‘celebrating our struggles [and] our victories and getting ready for the work that lies ahead’. PTH is ‘a grassroots organization, founded and led by homeless people’. PTH’s work includes ‘know your rights’ training and information sessions for people experiencing homelessness as well as community organising around housing and homelessness issues, including policing.

In PTH’s own words: ‘It’s about homeless leaders being their own advocates for police reform legislation … [and] it means challenging stereotypes that dehumanise homeless New Yorkers by highlighting the valuable contributions that PTH members make everyday towards building a more just and respectful New York City for all’.

In addition to ensuring better informed policies Aiyanas Ormond, VANDU Community Organiser, said:

"Participating in a broader social justice project is a public health intervention ... there’s recognition that playing a role of leadership in their community is beneficial for people’s health ... [Further] any number of good arguments, based on good evidence won’t change things — the affected communities have to stand up and demand change."

In short, the input of people with a direct experience of homelessness is critical to the development of well-informed laws and policies regulating public space and their insights should be included in decision-making processes.

5.3. Building understanding and challenging stereotypes through personal stories

Eric Post, Staff Attorney with Public Counsel’s Homelessness Prevention Law Project in Los Angeles, identified that there is a problem with the ‘imagery’ or perception of people who are homeless. He explained that ‘we need to combat this with personal stories that humanise these issues and build understanding … We need to make space for more first person accounts; they’re powerful and compelling and have potential to gradually change attitudes and break down stereotypes’.

I spoke with Katharine Sacks-Jones, Head of Policy and Campaigns at Crisis about the use of personal stories in campaign and advocacy work. She said: ‘it’s about understanding what resonates. Practicalities and costs might resonate with government, but then there’s the question of how you win over the public. It’s not enough just to talk about facts and figures; we need to tell a human story’.

When I was in Washington DC, Nan Roman, President and CEO of the National Alliance to End Homelessness (NAEH), said that the NAEH is cautious about using people’s stories in their advocacy. She said individual stories ‘can backfire’ because they can encourage community members and decision-makers to think: ‘is this a good person? I’m happy for them to be helped if they’re a good person’ and can feed problematic notions about the deserving and undeserving poor. She also said that using personal stories risks perpetuating the suggestion that individuals cause homelessness, and distracting from the fact that the main causes of homelessness — poverty and an acute shortage of affordable housing — are structural and have little to do with individuals. Ms Roman said: ‘Homelessness is a macroeconomic problem. There are solutions to it. It costs us money to let it happen. We can do better and smarter’.

On the question of where this caution leaves the use of personal stories in advocacy and campaigns about homelessness, Ms Sacks-Jones said: ‘It depends how you tell the story and what the story is. Often it is very clear
where the systemic issues are. The overwhelming evidence is that facts and figures don’t work’. She referred to focus groups and polling, which showed that ‘people just don’t hear facts and figures’. She said:

If a person holds a belief and you try to challenge it with a fact, they will try to challenge the fact. People just don’t think in that way ... political parties are a good example, they don’t rely just on facts but find ways to try and talk to people’s values. Images and stories are incredibly powerful. We kid ourselves if we think we can challenge that emotion and that imagery with facts.

The UN Special Rapporteur on Extreme Poverty and Human Rights (2010 – 2014), Magdalena Sepúlveda Carmona, also spoke about the importance of communicating people’s personal stories to change attitudes and increase awareness. She said: ‘these things are very difficult for the middle classes to understand ... they don’t see the impact’. She encouraged us to work to show the personal impact of these laws on people: ‘changing culture and educating people about this impact ... this is where we currently fail. How we cut through the stigma is the million dollar question, and my guess is it's with education’.

This section sets out examples of personal stories that help raise awareness, challenge stereotypes, humanise issues that are otherwise abstract (in particular questions of law enforcement) and generally build awareness and understanding of homelessness, its causes and its impacts.

The human impact of stop and frisk in New York City

‘The stories behind the numbers, the effects on our communities’ is the sub-title for the 2012 report of the Center for Constitutional Rights (CCR), Stop and Frisk: The Human Impact. The report ‘documents some of the human
stories behind the staggering statistics and sheds new light on the breadth of impact this policy is having on individuals and groups, in neighborhoods, and citywide. It recognises that the numbers alone do not tell the whole story.

The report captures quotes from 54 people who had been the subject of stop and frisk that draw attention to the lasting effects the practices has on people:

If you have violations or you have [been] convicted of crimes, you can’t get into public housing. So that’s one of the ways that it really crushes people that are homeless. It closes off that gate into New York City housing right away. Just by being arrested and coming out. And here’s the thing about it: Nobody informs you of this. [They] never tell you, “You know what? If you plead guilty today, you’re never going to be able to get New York City housing.

The CCR is also a member of Communities United for Police Reform (CUPR), which is ‘an unprecedented campaign to end discriminatory policing practices in New York, bringing together a movement of community members, lawyers, researchers and activists to work for change’. CUPR has made three short films about stop and frisk practices and their impact from three different perspectives: a young person; a pastor; and a police officer.

The ‘docuseries’ is called Where I am Going and states: ‘We all have places to go. Stop-and-frisk shouldn’t stop us’. Police officer, Adhyl Polanco, talks about growing up with the constant crime and shootings in Washington Heights and always dreaming of becoming one of the ‘good guys’. He explains that after the ‘1 arrest / 20 summons / 5 stop and frisks’ monthly policy was mandated by the NYPD in 2009, he reached a turning point that compelled him to choose between his career and his morals.

Mr Polanco’s story has been viewed online approximately 168,400 times.
When I visited the Washington Legal Clinic for the Homeless (WLCH), co-founder and Executive Director, Patty Mullahy Fugere, told me about the safety net training WLCH runs. The straightforward, powerful exercise steps people through a series of questions to work out what their personal safety net is.

Horizontal strings in the net represent factors that you have little or no control over, including whether you grew up knowing both parents, any physical illnesses, whether you’ve experienced abuse and whether or not you’ve ever been discriminated against on the basis of your race, gender or ethnicity. Vertical strings represent factors that you have some control over, but which are ‘rooted in what horizontal threads we have’. These include whether you have a college degree, a job, access to a car, a good credit record, substance use problems or involvement with the justice system.

Often the people participating in the exercise will realise that their safety net is reasonably robust. Ms Mullahy Fugere then steps through the same questions for a person experiencing or at risk of homelessness. The example she shared was a 20 year-old single mother of two children with health problems who has been the victim of family violence and whose mother passed away when she was two. This woman’s safety net is threadbare. Her situation is perpetually fragile and there is no room for anything to go wrong.

An hi-tech version of this exercise is Spent (www.playspent.org), which is a confronting choose-your-own-adventure that prompts participants to navigate their way through poverty on their screens. It opens with: ‘Urban Ministries of Durham serves over 6000 people per year. But you’d never need help right?’ It then explains that you have lost your job and your home, you’re a single parent and you have $1000 left. It presents the challenge – can you get through the month? It then steps you through the impossible decisions you have to make each day between housing that is cheaper but 50 miles from work, health insurance, paying for kids’ excursions and which bills to pay. I made it nine days in before the $1000 was gone.

These kinds of tools have a role to play in building community understanding about how little people on very low incomes have to survive on, the kinds of decisions they have to make about how to spend their extremely limited money and the debilitating consequences of not being able to stretch your income far enough. Ultimately, they help people understand how people can end up homeless through no fault of their own.

Into the mix of an indie film with a young, talented cast, a good soundtrack and a Venice Beach backdrop, writer and director Rotimi Rainwater puts the more unexpected ingredient of youth homelessness.

[I] hope to give people a realistic view of what it’s like on the streets, to humanize the youth who’ve ended up homeless; because no child on the streets is there by choice. No 13-year old watching Disney with his or her parents wakes up one day and decides to leave home and go eat out of a garbage can.

The film is the anchor for a campaign to end youth homelessness and in mid-2013 it was screened to Congress on
Capitol Hill. Its Washington DC premier was supported by the US Interagency Council on Homelessness, the National Coalition for the Homeless, the National Law Center on Homelessness and Poverty, the National Alliance to End Homelessness, the National Network for Youth and the Sasha Bruce Youthwork.

Films like this have the potential to appeal to a mainstream, outside-the-homelessness-sector audience. In doing this, it has a role to play in building community awareness of the 10,000 young people who are homeless in the US and generating momentum for change.

Many enforcement-based approaches to homelessness (including new laws, disproportionate enforcement of existing laws and ‘crackdowns’ or ‘blitzes’ on conduct in public places), are a response to pressure from local communities and businesses who are concerned about the presence and activities of people experiencing homelessness in their local area. While it is essential that steps are taken to address homelessness, increasing community understanding of homelessness, including who it affects and why, will lead to better-informed conversations about appropriate responses to homelessness.

Importantly, we are not trying to generate a situation where visible homelessness and poverty are accepted or tolerated by the community, but rather a situation where community attitudes leave room for non-punitive responses to people experiencing these problems.

5.4. Litigation – challenging ‘criminalisation’ in the courts

In some cases, often where communication has broken down and other alternatives have been exhausted, individuals turn to the courts to resolve questions about their rights and the limitation of laws regulating public space.

In addition to being of benefit to the individual, litigation can also have a wide reaching strategic impact, in some cases leading to significant reform of laws or practices that affect people experiencing homelessness in a disproportionate or discriminatory way.

Litigation is by its nature adversarial. The process is protracted and potentially expensive and, for clients experiencing homelessness and any of the hardships that may accompany it, it will not always be a desirable or feasible option. Where alternative mechanisms, including training, negotiation and protocols (see part 6.4 below) are an option, it is questionable whether the courts are the most effective avenue for achieving reform. When litigation is successful, however, it can be a highly effective catalyst for change, particularly when it is accompanied by broad awareness raising, educative, advocacy activities.

The context of litigation in relation to regulation of public space and homelessness in the US is markedly different from Australia because of the Constitutional protection of rights. The National Law Center on Homelessness and Poverty summarises the ‘constitutional questions’ raised by ‘criminalization measures’ in the US:

- ‘Laws that restrict or penalize begging may raise free speech concerns, as courts have found begging to be protected speech under the First Amendment.
- When a city destroys a homeless person’s belongings, such actions may violate the Fourth Amendment right to be free from unreasonable searches and seizures.
- When a city enforces a law that imposes criminal penalties on a homeless person for engaging in necessary life activities such as sleeping in public, such a law could violate that person’s Eighth Amendment right to be free from cruel and unusual punishment if the person has nowhere else to perform the activity.
When a city passes a loitering or vagrancy law that provides insufficient notice of what types of conduct it prohibits, or allows for arbitrary enforcement by law enforcement officials, such a law may be overly vague, in violation of the Constitution.211

Two examples of the use of litigation to reduce the negative impact of laws regulating public space on people experiencing homelessness and minority members of the community are set out below. They highlight the benefits and challenges of litigation and the need to push for change both inside and outside the court room.

Taking the Safer Cities Initiative to the Courts in Los Angeles

In 2003, the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU) of Southern California the National Lawyers Guild filed proceedings seeking to limit the enforcement of s 41.18 (d) of Los Angeles Municipal Code, which provides that ‘[n]o person shall sit, lie or sleep in or upon any street, sidewalk or other public way’. 212

The ACLU identified that ‘in Los Angeles County at least 88,000 men, women and children – 8,000 to 10,000 in Downtown Los Angeles alone – are without homes. There are beds for less than half of the homeless in Los Angeles county, comprehensive services are available to far fewer than half, and the county jails are routinely used as a substitution for mental health facilities’. 213

The plaintiffs were six people experiencing homelessness and living on the streets of Skid Row: Edward Jones, Patricia Vinson, George Vinson, Thomas Cash, Stanley Barger, and Robert Lee Purrie.214

They alleged that the City was criminalising the status of homelessness in contravention of the Eighth Amendment protection against cruel and unusual punishment and the Fourteenth Amendment’s equal protection clause. The district court dismissed the application, finding that the ordinance criminalised conduct rather than status. 215

On appeal in Jones v City of Los Angeles (Jones)216 a panel of Ninth Circuit judges held 2 to 1 to reverse the district court’s decision. The appeals court found that, for as long as there are insufficient places to sleep, it was unconstitutional to criminalise sitting, lying or sleeping on the street. The court found that: ‘Section 41.18(d) is one of the most restrictive municipal laws regulating public spaces in the United States’. 217 Judge Wardlaw stated: ‘The Eighth Amendment prohibits the City from punishing involuntary sitting, lying, or sleeping on public sidewalks that is an unavoidable consequence of being human and homeless without shelter in the City of Los Angeles’. 218

Key to the court’s finding was that what was being prohibited was an involuntary status (rather than conduct): homelessness is ‘a chronic state that may have been acquired “innocently or involuntarily” and sleeping or lying on the streets of Skid Row is an inevitable consequence of this status’. 219

The City filed a motion for rehearing and the court ordered mediation. The matter was settled by agreement that the Los Angeles Police Department would not enforce this law between 9:00pm – 6:00am until an additional

211 NLCHP 2011, Criminalizing Crisis, above n 32, 10. See also NLCHP and NCH 2009, Homes not Handcuffs, above n 8, 85–165 for case summaries of cases where people experiencing homelessness or advocates have sought to challenge laws and policies that criminalise homelessness in the courts, including: challenges to restrictions on sleeping, camping, sitting, or storing property in public places; challenges to anti-begging, anti-soliciting and anti-peddling laws; challenges to vagrancy, loitering and curfew laws; and challenges to restrictions on food sharing in state and federal courts.

212 See Gerry, Jones v City of Los Angeles, above n 28.


214 See Jones v City of Los Angeles, 444 F.3d 1118, 1124–5 (9th Cir 2006) for an account of the plaintiffs’ circumstances and the situations in which they were cited or arrested under s 41.18(d).

215 Ibid.

216 Ibid.

217 Ibid 1123.

218 Ibid 1138.

219 Ibid.
1250 units of permanent supportive housing were constructed within the City of Los Angeles, at least 50% of which are in Skid Row or greater downtown Los Angeles.\(^{220}\)

Professor Gary Blasi indicated that this housing target is close to being met and – despite levels of homelessness remaining at crisis level – the return of 24 hour policing in Skid Row could be on the immediate horizon.

Professor Blasi discussed the limitations of litigation and the potential unanticipated consequences. He mentioned the case of *Lavan v City of Los Angeles*,\(^ {221}\) which limited the way in which police can dispose of a person’s goods in the absence of procedural fairness (arising out of the situation where the possessions – often the only possessions – of people experiencing homelessness were being destroyed if temporarily left on the streets of Skid Row). Professor Blasi explained that the impact of this decision has been constrained by the increase in the number of private security officers – the ‘red shirts’ – taking part in law enforcement in LA who aren’t bound by the authority and who can therefore carry out the problematic disposals.

An even stronger example of the limitations of litigation is an alleged comment Professor Blasi became aware of made by an LA law enforcement officer in response to Jones: ‘it doesn’t change anything, we’ve still got 50 more things we can do to them’. Gerry acknowledges this reaction and articulates an explanation for it in her article on Jones: ‘Localities … have rebelled against exertions of judicial authority that officials view as robbing them of valuable tools in the fight against social unrest.’\(^ {222}\)

Contrasted with more collaborative, negotiated approaches to reducing the impact of enforcement on people experiencing homelessness, there are barriers to the effectiveness of litigation as a tool for generating change. That said, when the door is not open to discussions, litigation can be a necessary (and effective) avenue. I asked Robert Gangi, Director of the Police Reform Organizing Project (PROP) at the Urban Justice Center in New York City, about whether PROP has a contact person or liaison within the NYPD that they can work effectively with or whether the relationship has broken down. He said ‘Kelly and Bloomberg [former New York City Police Commissioner and Mayor] made it very clear, very early on that there was no room for discussion about stop and frisk’. From that point PROP and other community and advocacy organisations focussed on building coalitions, community organising, reporting, activism and, in some cases, litigation.\(^ {223}\)

Stop and Frisk in the courts and on the streets – New York City

The recent case of *Floyd et al v City of New York et al* (*Floyd*)\(^ {224}\) challenged New York City’s stop and frisk program as discriminatory and unconstitutional. The plaintiffs submitted that searches were carried out without reasonable suspicion, that 84% of people stopped were black and latino (despite these two groups only making up 52% of the city’s population), that 88% of the people stopped were neither arrested nor received summonses and, despite the stated purpose of the policy, weapons and contraband were recovered less than 2% of the time.\(^ {225}\)

The plaintiffs in the case – David Floyd, David Ourlicht, Lalit Clarkson, and Deon Dennis – are men of colour who,

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\(^{222}\) Gerry, *Jones v City of Los Angeles*, above n 28, 239.

\(^{223}\) Note that in my most recent correspondence with Robert Gangi on 25 March 2014 he noted: ‘the situation has changed with the new administration in the city – we’ve already had two meetings with high-level police officials to discuss our concerns, the kinds of meetings that would have never taken place during the Bloomberg/Kelly years’.


it was argued, were stopped by NYPD officers ‘without any cause on the way to work, in front of their house, or just walking down the street’. Law firms Beldock, Levine and Hoffman, and Covington & Burling LLP were co-counsel in the matter.

The background to the trial was proceedings that the Center for Constitutional Rights (CCR) commenced in 1999, Daniels v City of New York. Daniels settled in 2003 and the terms required the NYPD to provide quarterly stop and frisk data to CCR. When this data showed an increase in stop and frisks (the NYPD reported a record 685,724 stops in 2011) and a continuing race-based pattern in the stops, CCR commenced the Floyd case.

Following a 10-week trial, on 12 August 2013, a federal court judge found that the NYPD had violated the equal protection clause in the Fourteenth Amendment and the Fourth Amendment, which prohibits unreasonable searches and seizures. The court issued two rulings: an Order on Liability and an Order on Remedy. The City appealed and filed a Motion to Stay the court’s Remedial Order pending appeal with the US Second Circuit Court of Appeals.

On 1 January 2014, Mayor de Blasio took office, replacing Bloomberg and becoming New York City’s first new mayor in 12 years. Mayor de Blasio had campaigned on a platform of police reform and, on 30 January 2014, the City of New York agreed to withdraw its appeal.

The agreed remedies include: a court-appointed monitor with a term of three years, conditional on the City substantially complying with the remedies, and a joint reform process involving all the stakeholders to ensure accountability to directly affected communities.

The process of bringing meaningful change to the NYPD and the communities they police will now begin.

Because of the long road to the court room and the significant community organising work surrounding stop and frisk (for example, Communities United for Police Reform), Floyd was unlike typical litigation – the court room was packed every day and the case received significant local, national and international media attention. It is a relatively rare example of litigation joining community organising in a way that extends awareness of discriminatory policing beyond the court room and, in doing so, significantly amplifies the potential for social change.

There are a number of factors to consider when determining whether litigation is an appropriate mechanism to challenge the negative impact of laws regulating public space on people experiencing homelessness, including: the grounds for challenging the law (i.e. the legislative or Constitutional protections in the relevant jurisdiction); the resources of the legal services assisting the client; and, of course, the client themselves and their wishes and instructions in light of the protracted, stressful nature of the proceedings and the potential cost consequences.

Furthermore, as Professor Blasi reminded me: ‘litigation will address isolated aspects of criminalisation, but without leadership or political will it doesn’t necessarily deliver a solution’.

In light of this, we need to keep litigation in mind as one option for generating change, but we also need to be aware that litigation alone will not deliver effective, sustainable solutions to the negative impact of laws regulating
public space on minorities, including people experiencing homelessness. It needs to be accompanied by a range of activities that generate momentum for reform in the community and amongst decision-makers.

5.5. Human rights based work

Much of the discussion regarding appropriate approaches to addressing homelessness and regulating public space turns on pragmatic positions based on evidence and cost effectiveness. In addition to these undeniably compelling arguments, it is important not to forget the human rights implications of enforcement-based approaches to homelessness. We need to balance pragmatic arguments based on the inefficiency of criminalisation with the position that the criminalisation of homelessness is, in many cases, also a contravention of governments’ human rights obligations under the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR).

The international human rights framework can often seem impenetrable and removed when doing the day-to-day work on the ground. However, it is incumbent on us, as members of the homelessness sector, to give human rights – and the legal frameworks set up to protect them – a place in our strategies to improve outcomes for people experiencing homelessness in our communities.

This section highlights campaigns, actions and mechanisms that have drawn on human rights protections to reduce the negative impact of laws regulating public space on people experiencing homelessness.

Framing ‘criminalisation’ as a human rights issue nationally and internationally

The National Law Center on Homelessness and Poverty (NLCHP) has been instrumental in framing the ‘criminalisation’ of homelessness as a human rights issue both at the US federal level and internationally.

Eric Tars, Director of Human Rights and Children’s Rights Programs at the NLCHP, explained the NLCHP’s human rights work:

> the human rights work is really trying to bring international human rights standards and mechanisms into our litigation and our policy and advocacy. For example, right now we’re really active in trying to get the issue of criminalisation of homelessness reframed as cruel, inhuman and degrading treatment because that’s very similar to our own Eighth Amendment cruel and unusual standards and it could be a good entry point for using some of the international standards in litigation.

Through their sophisticated advocacy, which contextualises on the ground evidence of criminalisation within international human rights frameworks, the NLCHP has highlighted that enforcement-based approaches to homelessness cannot be considered purely as a local issue – in many cases, these practices contravene international human rights standards and warrant international attention and federal government action.

Federal agency recognition of criminalisation as a human rights issue

In its 2012 report, Searching Out Solutions: Constructive Alternatives to the Criminalization of Homelessness, the US Interagency Council on Homelessness recognised that: ‘in addition to violating domestic law, criminalization measures may also violate international human rights law, specifically the Convention Against Torture and the [ICCPR].’231 This was the first time a US federal government agency had ‘recognized domestic practices toward

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231 US Interagency Council on Homelessness, Searching Out Solutions, above n 192, 8.
homeless people as potential sources of a treaty violation and was a significant breakthrough for homelessness advocates.

This recognition has been useful both in terms of raising awareness and as a tool for advocates. Barbara Poppe, Executive Director of the US Interagency Council on Homelessness, said that the report has ‘created a level of awareness’ and been a ‘public governmental statement’ about criminalisation. She said it ‘it is one of the tools of persuasion that advocates have when presenting constructive alternatives to enforcement’.

Ms Poppe said that ‘the train of enforcement can be difficult to stop if local political forces mobilise around criminalisation as a solution and this national report supports advocates in local areas to weigh in on the debate’.

The NLCHP has used this federal government recognition as part of its ongoing work ‘to integrate international human rights standards into the domestic policy discourse on issues of homelessness’.

Despite this powerful acknowledgement of the human rights impact of criminalisation, ‘the federal government’s recognition that criminalization of homelessness is poor public policy and contrary to its legal obligations has not translated to improved treatment of homeless people in many communities’. The US has continued to see a growing number of laws prohibiting conduct directly related to homelessness (including urban camping, sitting or lying in public places, loitering and begging), as well as the disparate enforcement of laws against people experiencing homelessness.

The NLCHP extended its advocacy to the international arena via the fourth periodic review of the US’s compliance with the ICCPR by the UN Human Rights Committee. In its report to the Committee in preparation for the review, the NLCHP identified that: ‘Explicit recognition that criminalization of homelessness is discriminatory and constitutes cruel, inhuman, and degrading treatment would be a powerful affirmation for advocates working to safeguard the fundamental rights of homeless people in the United States’.

232 NLCHP, Human Rights Committee Report, above n 120, 9.
234 NLCHP Human Rights Committee Report, above n 120, 6.
235 Ibid 7.
236 Ibid 5.
The NLCHP has done ground-breaking, persistent and compelling work identifying the ways in which criminalisation of homelessness is inconsistent with obligations under the ICCPR. US NGOs have focussed their attention on the ICCPR because the US remains one of the few countries that have not ratified the ICESCR. That said, it also provides an opportunity to remind the US and international community that the two sets of rights are indivisible.

The NLCHP submitted a detailed report on the criminalisation of homelessness in the US to the UN Human Rights Committee in advance of the fourth review of the US’s compliance with the ICCPR. In Cruel, Inhuman, and Degrading: Homelessness in the United States Under the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, the NLCHP identifies that laws that penalise people for their involuntary homeless status contravene the following obligations under the ICCPR:

- The right to non-discrimination (Articles 2 and 26) – ‘[c]riminalization measures discriminate against homeless people on the basis of their status or property. Discrimination also affects homeless subpopulations, such as racial minorities, women and transgender people, in unique ways’. \(^\text{237}\)

- The right to be free from cruel, inhuman and degrading treatment (Article 7) – ‘criminalization of homelessness and its associated activities in public space, when people have nowhere else to go, deprives individuals of safe, legal, and dignified opportunities to perform necessary human functions, such as sleeping, eating, urinating, and defecating. This deprivation constitutes a violation of the Article 7 rights of homeless people’. \(^\text{238}\)

- The right to liberty and security of the person (Article 9) – ‘[r]egulations and practices that criminalize behavior that homeless people cannot avoid routinely result in unjustified arrests under Article 9 ... These

\(^{237}\) Ibid 15.
\(^{238}\) Ibid 6.
deprivations of homeless people’s liberty are disproportionate, unfair, and irregular, violating Article 9’s protection against arbitrary arrest and detention’. 239

− The right to privacy (Article 17) – ‘[s]ince the United States fails to provide homeless people with adequate shelter, they have no choice but to live on the streets ... the harsh repercussions that sweeps impose on homeless people are disproportionate to the ends of cleaning up public spaces and are a violation of the homeless population’s right to privacy’. 240

− The right to family (Articles 17 and 23) – shelters that impose regulations based on sex or familial status, for example by excluding fathers or adolescent males, threaten family integrity. Homeless families (in 2009, 535,000 families sought shelter in the US) are also at increased risk of separation from state removal of children for ‘neglect’ related to homelessness and poverty. ‘When the United States follows laws and practices that obstruct the integrity of homeless families, it violates the children’s and parents’ rights under Article 17 and Article 23’. 241

− The right to freedom of assembly (Article 21) – ‘[a]ssembly by people in homelessness serves many purposes, including safety, community formation, expression, and access to services. Unjustified restrictions on the use of public space by homeless people undercuts their ability to enjoy these basic human goods’. 242

− Voting rights (Article 25) – ‘US laws increasingly disenfranchise homeless people by making voting contingent upon proof of identification, citizenship, or residency’. 243

On 13 March 2014, the UN Human Rights Committee reviewed US compliance with ICCPR. This is the first time that issues of criminalisation have been brought before the Committee and, accordingly, is a ground-breaking achievement in terms of promoting recognition that punitive approaches to homelessness are, in addition to being ineffective and expensive, often a violation of the human rights of homeless members of the community; rights which governments have a legal obligation to uphold.

Chair of the UN Human Rights Committee, Sir Nigel Rodley, concluded the review of the US by saying:

In terms of victims victimised ... I’m simply baffled by the idea that people can be without shelter in a country and then be treated as criminals for being without shelter ... the idea of criminalising people who don’t have shelter is something that I think many of my colleagues would find as difficult as I do to even begin to comprehend. 244

On 26 March 2014, the UN Human Rights Committee handed down its Concluding Observations, which specifically identify the ‘criminalization of homelessness’ as raising concerns of cruel, inhuman, or degrading treatment and call on the US government to take corrective action:

While appreciating the steps taken by federal and some state and local authorities to address homelessness, the Committee is concerned about reports of criminalization of people living on the street for everyday activities such as eating, sleeping, sitting in particular areas etc. The Committee notes that such criminalization raises concerns of discrimination and cruel, inhuman, or degrading treatment (arts. 2, 7, 9, 17, and 26).

The State party should engage with state and local authorities to: (a) abolish criminalization of homelessness laws and policies at state and local levels; (b) ensure close cooperation between all relevant stakeholders including social, health, law enforcement and justice professionals at all levels to intensify efforts to find solutions for the homeless in accordance with human rights standards; and (c) offer incentives for decriminalization and implementation of such

239 Ibid 10.
240 Ibid 12.
241 Ibid 14.
This advocacy by the NLCHP is a compelling reminder of the importance of using international human rights mechanisms to draw attention to local laws and policies that impact disproportionately on people experiencing homelessness. Recognising that human rights mechanisms deal directly with federal governments, rather than the local authorities that often introduce enforcement-based approaches to homelessness, the NLCHP proposed ways in which the federal government could influence local governments to reverse the trend of criminalisation. They sought recommendations from the Human Rights Committee (which were largely reflected in the Committee’s Concluding Observations) that federal agencies should:

- promulgate guidance for communities emphasising the negative consequences of criminalisation;
- provide incentives for decriminalisation and constructive alternative approaches;
- discontinue their funding of local law enforcement practices that criminalise homelessness; and
- investigate and prosecute criminalisation policies or enforcement whenever they occur.

The goal is for international advocacy to have a local impact and the NLCHP has run its international work alongside its ongoing relationships with federal agencies, the Department of Housing and Urban Development, which has ‘indicated a willingness to use its influence to reverse this inhumane, costly and senseless trend’, and that the US Interagency Council on Homelessness, which ‘is working with [the NLCHP] to encourage its members to forgo criminalization in favor of constructive alternatives that respect human rights’.

Reframing local enforcement-based approaches to homelessness in an international human rights context is an important way in which we can generate new perspectives and insights, as well as questions or challenges, about how we are dealing with homelessness in our communities and whether these approaches are justified and proportionate. Contextualising these issues in a human rights framework also shifts the conversation from one of charity or welfare to one of rights and obligations. It provides a mechanism for balancing competing rights and obligations and it comes with international systems of reporting, accountability and scrutiny.

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245 UN Human Rights Committee, Concluding observations on the fourth report of the United States of America (advance unedited version) (26 March 2014) [19].
246 NLCHP Human Rights Committee Report, above n 120, 17.
247 Maria Foscarinis, Executive Director, National Law Center on Homelessness and Poverty, In Just Times (March 2014).
In addition to making use of the periodic reviews of countries’ human rights compliance, we should keep in mind the complaints-based mechanisms, which UN Special Rapporteur on Extreme Poverty and Human Rights (2010 – 2014), Ms Magdalena Sepúlveda Carmona, described as an ‘amazing tool’ for placing pressure on states and encouraging accountability.

By way of background, ‘special procedures’ are the mechanisms (either individual experts such as special rapporteurs or working groups) set up to address specific country situations and ‘thematic issues’ throughout the world: ‘They are prominent, independent experts working on a voluntary basis, appointed by the Human Rights Council’. The two most relevant experts in relation to enforcement-based approaches to homelessness are the Special Rapporteur on Adequate Housing as a Component of the Right to an Adequate Standard of Living, and the Special Rapporteur on Extreme Poverty and Human Rights.

The Special Rapporteur on Extreme Poverty and Human Rights is the global expert on ‘the relationship between the enjoyment of human rights and extreme poverty’ and ‘is required by the Human Rights Council to examine and report back to member States on initiatives taken to promote and protect the rights of those living in extreme poverty’. The Special Rapporteur’s activities include:

– country visits;
– responding to information provided about the human rights of people living in extreme poverty (including individual complaints about alleged violations);
– developing constructive dialogue with governments, international organisations, civil society and other relevant actors with a view to identifying ways to remove all obstacles to the full enjoyment of human rights for people living in extreme poverty; and
– submitting annual reports to the Human Rights Council and the General Assembly.

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250 Ibid.
Where individuals or advocates are concerned about the impact of laws or policies on people experiencing homelessness, the Special Rapporteur encourages individual complaints.

An example of what this complaints process looks like in practice – including the complaint, the letter of allegation (which includes targeted questions and requests for evidence), the country response and associated media releases and local advocacy – are discussed below in relation to laws prohibiting rough sleeping in Hungary.

### Complaints to the Special Rapporteur – the case of Hungary

#### Background

In April 2011, the Budapest City Council issued a decree that made sleeping on the street an offence and subjected people sleeping rough to fines of €200 and detention. Based on these amendments, during October 2011, Budapest police allegedly evicted homeless persons from 13 underpasses in the inner city and demolished multiple self-made shelters in various parts of the city. The evicted persons were reportedly not provided with alternative shelter options and some were arrested.

In November 2011, the Hungarian Parliament introduced a law which allowed for the imprisonment (up to 60 days) or a €600 fine for people found guilty of rough sleeping twice in a six month period.\(^{251}\) The law refers to ‘habitual residing’ in public places.\(^{252}\)

#### Individual complaint mechanism

An individual or agency can make an individual complaint to a Special Rapporteur about human rights concerns in their country. Unlike treaty body mechanisms, domestic avenues do not have to be exhausted before making an individual complaint, which makes it easier to incorporate this step into an organisation’s advocacy strategy. The source of the individual complaint can also remain anonymous.

In response to an individual complaint, the Special Rapporteur, either herself or together with another Special Rapporteur can send a ‘letter of allegation’ to the head of a country identifying human rights concerns and presenting a series of questions. The country has 60 days to respond.

#### Letter of allegation, targeted questions and government response

On 21 December 2011, a letter of allegation was sent to the Hungarian Government by the Special Rapporteur on extreme poverty and human rights and the Special Rapporteur on adequate housing as a component of the right to an adequate standard of living. The letter outlined the Special Rapporteurs’ concerns about the human rights impact of the alleged laws and practices criminalising rough sleeping in Hungary. They presented a series of questions, including requests for:

- details of the shelter available to people experiencing homelessness in Hungary, particularly Budapest;
- details of a National Housing Strategy;
- information about any consultation that occurred in relation to the legislative amendments;
- information about any human rights impact assessment that was carried out in relation to the new laws;
- an estimate of the costs of enforcing the new laws; and

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\(^{251}\) See FEANTSA, Monitoring Report, above n 9, 76.

\(^{252}\) See Balint Misetics, ‘The Criminalisation of Homelessness in Hungary’ in Evangelista and Jones, above n 65, 103, 104.
— information about the legal resources available to people affected by the new legislation, including the provision of legal aid.\(^{253}\)

The Hungarian Government provided a detailed response on 21 February 2012,\(^{254}\) but before it had done so (it was outside the 60 day period), the Special Rapporteurs issued a press release: *Hungary’s homeless need roofs, not handcuffs* calling on Hungary to reconsider the legislation.\(^{255}\)

**Successful constitutional challenge**

The City is for All, an organisation of ‘homeless and formerly homeless people, those struggling with housing problems and their allies’,\(^{256}\) initiated a constitutional challenge of the legislation prohibiting rough sleeping.

In 2012, the Hungarian Constitutional Court (decision II/1477/2012) annulled the legislation as contravening the constitutional requirements for legal certainty and the protection of the right to human dignity and the right to property.\(^{257}\)

The Special Rapporteurs issued another press release: *UN experts urge Hungary to uphold Constitutional Court decision to decriminalize homelessness,*\(^{258}\) which called on the Hungarian Government: ‘to uphold the recent Constitutional Court decision decriminalizing homelessness, to amend the anti-homeless legislation and to adopt a national housing strategy, which will take into account the needs and views of the homeless and those inadequately housed, in conformity with international human rights obligations’.\(^{259}\)

**Outcome – the impact of grassroots advocacy and human rights accountability**

Ordinarily, this would have been a successful outcome and a strong positive example of the role grassroots advocacy, litigation and international human rights mechanisms can play in reforming laws that criminalise homelessness.

However, the Hungarian Government was determined to have legislative power to prohibit rough sleeping and amended the Constitution to reflect this. On 11 March 2013 the Hungarian Parliament adopted the Fourth Amendment to Hungary’s *Fundamental Law*. Article 8(3) of the amendment states: ‘an Act of Parliament or local government decree may outlaw the use of certain public spaces for habitation in order to preserve the public order, public safety, public health and cultural values’.\(^{260}\)

The Special Rapporteurs issued a second letter of allegation on 12 March 2013 presenting a number of questions, including in relation to consultation about the constitutional changes, consideration of the human rights impact of the changes, current housing and homelessness strategies and whether any assessment was conducted about the impact of the previous legislation and relevant details (including the number of people arrested or detained under the legislation, the number of people fined and whether or not the legislation had any impact on the extent of homelessness and rough sleeping in Budapest or other municipalities).\(^{261}\)

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256 The City is for All, Who are we? (available at: http://avarosmindenkie.blog.hu/2011/12/04/who_are_we_3).


259 Ibid.

260 Ibid.

The Hungarian Government responded on 19 April 2013 indicating that:

The Amendment, in accordance with the international obligations of Hungary, neither aims at criminalizing homeless people nor does it contain a general prohibition regarding homelessness. The Amendment provides the State and local governments with a constitutional possibility of regulation: the Amendment entitles them to prohibit permanent living in specific areas (but only in certain and not all areas) of public spaces, when necessary in the interest of protecting public order, public safety, public health and cultural values.\textsuperscript{262}

While not successful in bringing about the repeal of the problematic laws, there is an indication from local advocates that the spotlight of international human rights mechanisms and local community organisers has led to increased accountability of law enforcement officers and potentially to more restrained enforcement of the laws than was feared. Misetics states:

As far as the criminalisation of street homelessness ... there seems to be an apparent inconsistency between government rhetoric and the actual practice of law enforcement. Besides the operational and financial constraints of law enforcement agencies, this may also be due to the widespread public criticism of punitive measures in general and, in particular, to powerful grassroots mobilisation of homeless people and their allies.\textsuperscript{263}

The spotlight and scrutiny of international human rights experts, combined with the attention of local advocates, can be powerful tools for increasing government accountability in relation to the enforcement of laws regulating public space. We need to keep these mechanisms in mind as part of our advocacy strategies for reducing the existence and impact of enforcement-based approaches to homelessness in our communities.

\textsuperscript{262} Government of Hungary Response to Joint Urgent Appeal 2013, above n 136.

6. NEW IDEAS — WHAT’S WORKING?

In addition to expanding the way we think about these complex issues, the purpose of an opportunity like this fellowship is to get new ideas, develop constructive recommendations, broaden insights and renew motivation for improving the way we address issues of homelessness and public space regulation.

There is no single jurisdiction that is managing public space and homelessness perfectly — it is a complex social, economic and legal issue and one that requires careful balancing of competing needs, interests and priorities. There are, however, a number of innovative, thoughtful, effective measures being taken throughout the world, which can be shared and learned from.

This section sets out these insights and ideas in the following categories:

- effective research, planning and evaluation;
- new partnerships and working with ‘non-traditional allies’;
- non-justice based responses – focussing on health, housing and practical solutions;
- strong, effective relationships with police; and
- the role for the courts – innovative justice models.

6.1. Effective research, planning and evaluation

In the same way that this report encourages advocates to consider the motivations behind enforcement-based approaches to homelessness, it is essential that decision-makers base laws and policies on research and evidence about the causes of problematic conduct in public spaces.

Given the general trend toward enforcement-based approaches to homelessness, you might expect that there is a solid body of evidence supporting this approach as an effective way of addressing ‘public space offending’. Troublingly, however, research about people experiencing homelessness and the causes of their activities, including public drunkenness, sleeping rough and begging, is relatively scarce. Certainly, this insight or evidence-base has not been a prerequisite or sometimes even a consideration in developing enforcement-based approaches to homelessness.

By way of example, there are a number common assumptions that inform enforcement-based approaches to begging in local areas – including that people who beg are not homeless, are addicted to drugs or alcohol, are ‘professional’ or part of an organised initiative and/or earn more money than people engaged in standard employment — but there is often an absence of robust research and evidence supporting these assumptions.

In Melbourne, for example, anecdotal evidence informed the begging strategy, Operation Minta. There was an indication that there had been an increase in ‘aggressive’ begging and a suggestion that not all of the people

264 See, eg, Angus Erskine and Ian McIntosh, ‘Why begging offends: historical perspectives and continuities’ in Dean, Begging Questions, above n 159, 27, 28–9, which refers to media reports that ‘consistently portray people who beg as dishonest and undeserving of sympathy or generosity of the passer-by’, and identifying two key features of these stories: ‘that those who beg may not be what they seem, and questions about the amount of money that they make’.
begging in the CBD were experiencing homelessness. However, it wasn’t clear that research had been done about people begging in the CBD, including their circumstances, why they were begging or what might need to change for them to stop begging. Some impressive research has since been carried out by the City of Melbourne in relation to the circumstances of people sleeping rough in the City, but at this stage no link has been made between these insights and the enforcement-based response to begging.

The City of London Police’s Operation Fennel, also an enforcement-based approach to begging, is collecting data, including information about why people are begging, but it is being collected as part of the active enforcement operation rather than as part of the planning phase. It is preferable, this report suggests, for this research to be undertaken prior to the development of programs aimed at dealing with homelessness and public space.

In the absence of understanding why people are engaging in the conduct that is the subject of concern, it is difficult if not impossible to develop sensible, effective, sustainable solutions to the perceived problem.

With this in mind, this section showcases some examples of research that examines the causes of problematic conduct in public places by people experiencing homelessness and the impact of enforcement-based approaches to addressing this conduct. It is recommended that research takes places at each of the following phases of designing and implementing strategies for managing the use of public space by people experiencing homelessness:

– in designing responses – considering causes and appropriate responses;
– during and after implementation – assessing the impacts and outcomes (including assessment of the impact of enforcement-based approaches on people experiencing homelessness); and
– before, during and after implementation – undertaking transparent, accountable cost assessments.

This sample checklist for designing, implementing and evaluating new models for regulating public space is provided by way of practical guidance about the research that should be undertaken and the evidence that should be evaluated as part of this process.

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**Eight step checklist for designing, implementing and evaluating approaches to dealing with homelessness and regulation of public space**

1. **What are we trying to do?** For example, to clean up the streets, reduce homelessness, link people with services, stop people begging or reduce public drunkenness.

2. **Why are we trying to do it?** For example, in response to public concern about disorder or safety, pressure from businesses regarding commercial impacts, to improve the wellbeing of people experiencing homelessness or as part of a strategy to reduce homelessness.

3. **Balancing the competing needs and interests** – if we are trying to clean up the streets or respond to public pressure about disorder, for example, these concerns need to be balanced against other needs and interests, including those of individuals experiencing homelessness, service providers, the police and the courts.

4. **Assess the proposed methods and what their impacts might be** – consider the potential impact of the proposed method, for example, a ‘crackdown’ or ‘blitz’ on people begging will require significant police

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265 See, eg, John Masanauskas, ‘Police appeal to public to refuse aggressive begging’ The Australian (19 April 2013), which quotes the responsible Victoria Police commander: ‘We went out with the Salvos because they know who a lot of the beggars are. We categorised those who are genuinely homeless and needy, and those who are just looking for extra money ... some beggars are quite aggressive and people hand over money because they are in fear’.

266 City of Melbourne, Living Rough in Melbourne, above n 26.
resources, court intervention and service involvement. It will impact on people who are begging, including potentially through breaking links with services, prompting other more dangerous activities and damaging relationships with police.

5. Are there alternative ways of dealing with this problem? Consider interventions by services other than law enforcement, including housing, health, drug and alcohol or mental health services. Comparative research is important in this respect. It is a local problem, but it is not unique and we can look further afield for ideas about what is working. Consult with services and people with a direct experience of homelessness in considering alternatives.

6. What will this cost and how much would alternatives cost? Consider the costs of police and court resources, involvement of legal services, any jail time or administration costs and assess these costs against the cost of alternatives, including provision of housing with support or targeted health-based support.

7. Is this working? During the implementation of an enforcement-based approach to homelessness, assess the impacts on individuals, community, crime rates, courts, police and services.

8. What were the impacts and outcomes? Publicly discuss the impacts and re-evaluate the program.

The examples of research in this section show the types of information that should be gathered and the methods of collecting and analysing this evidence when developing, implementing and evaluating responses to homelessness and related conduct in public places.

In designing responses – considering causes and appropriate responses

The following are examples of the kinds of research that needs to be undertaken in developing responses to homelessness and public space. The case studies below highlight the method of research, some of the key findings and the implications for policy.

Multiple Exclusion Homelessness – a quantitative study of the causes of acutely visible hardship in the UK

Background on the research

A 2012 paper by Fitzpatrick, Bramley and Johnsen presented: ‘the first statistically robust analysis of pathways into homelessness and associated forms of severe and multiple disadvantage in the UK’ with the aim of ‘deepen[ing] understanding of the causation of one of the most extreme, and visible, forms of social exclusion found in the UK and elsewhere in the developed world’.267

It was a quantitative analysis of routes into homelessness and multiple exclusion, as opposed to previous research on these pathways which was primarily qualitative: ‘While qualitative research is well suited to providing in-depth, nuanced information about the nature of individual experiences and perceptions, it is not designed to address research questions that require quantification—such as the frequency with which particular combinations or sequences of experiences are found in the homeless population’.268

268 Ibid 150.
The study defined a person as having experienced multiple exclusion homelessness (MEH) if they have, "been “homeless” (including experience of temporary/unsuitable accommodation as well as sleeping rough) and have also experienced one or more of the following other “domains” of deep social exclusion: “institutional care” (prison, local authority care, mental health hospitals or wards); “substance misuse” (drug, alcohol, solvent or gas misuse); or participation in “street culture activities” (begging, street drinking, “survival” shoplifting or sex work)."  

Research methodology

Research was carried out in seven cities where people experiencing MEH were concentrated between February and May 2010: Belfast; Birmingham; Bristol; Cardiff; Glasgow; and Westminster (London).

– **Agency selection** – agencies offering low threshold support services to people experiencing deep social exclusion were identified (such as street outreach, drop-in services, day centres, direct access accommodation, church-based soup runs, etc) as they make relatively few ‘demands’ on service users and might therefore be expected to reach the most excluded groups. From this sample frame, six services were randomly selected in each location (39 low threshold services in total).

– **Questionnaire** – a questionnaire survey was undertaken with the users of these low threshold services over a two-week time window. The questionnaire asked 14 yes/no questions to capture experience of the four domains of deep exclusion specified in the MEH definition (i.e. homelessness, substance misuse, institutional care and street culture activities). The questionnaire was designed for self-completion, but interviewers from the research team and staff from the relevant service were on hand to provide assistance and the questionnaire was translated into four other languages. In total, 1286 census survey questionnaires were returned, representing a response rate of 52%.

– **Extended face-to-face interviews** – interviews were conducted with users of low threshold services who had experienced MEH. A structured questionnaire was designed to generate detailed information on the characteristics and life experiences of these service users. Interviews were recorded via computer-assisted personal interviewing technology, and lasted 46 minutes on average. Particularly sensitive questions were asked in a self-completion section. Interpreting services were made available for those whose first language was not English. In total, 452 extended interviews were achieved, with a response rate of 51%.

– **Feedback seminars and a launch event** – these were conducted in all seven case study locations (attended by approximately 120 local policy-makers and practitioners) in addition to a national launch event (attended by almost 100 policy-makers, practitioners and service users).

Findings and policy implications

The findings are complex, but a summary is:

[T]he relationship between childhood deprivations and trauma and the more complex end of the MEH spectrum is striking. Sequencing analysis revealed that substance misuse and mental health issues tended to arise early in MEH pathways, consistent with the argument that childhood trauma can undermine coping mechanisms in young adulthood, with potentially long-term consequences for health, wellbeing and social functioning. Homelessness, street lifestyles and adverse life events typically occur later in these pathways, strongly implying that these experiences are more likely to be consequences than originating generative causes of deep exclusion.

The authors consider the policy and practice implications, including:

– the need to co-ordinate responses across all aspects of people’s lives, rather than view them through a series of separate professional lenses (for example, ‘criminal justice’, ‘homelessness’ and ‘substance misuse’);
there is a ‘forgotten middle’ of men in their 30s who often face the most extreme forms of MEH, usually associated with hard drug use whose service needs were not being met; and

the need to focus on homelessness prevention (applying for public housing or staying in homeless shelters are ‘typically rather late signs of MEH’ and instead ‘preventative interventions should focus on earlier signs of distress wherever possible, with schools, drugs and alcohol services, and the criminal justice system, likely to come into contact with people vulnerable to MEH well before housing and homelessness agencies do, thus having a crucial role to play in prevention efforts’).

While obviously specific to the context in which this research took place, the rigorous methodology (including the partnership with carefully selected direct service providers and the use of feedback sessions with practitioners and policy-makers) provides helpful guidance in terms of the kind of research that goes into understanding the pathways into rough sleeping. If we develop strategies for working with people experiencing this acute form of homelessness and social exclusion in the absence of an understanding of the causes of their circumstances, our strategies will inevitably be ineffective and will risk inflicting further hardship on intensely vulnerable people.

The case study below summarises research undertaken about people begging in the London. It deals with:

the methodology of the research (including collaboration with a range of services, selection of appropriate interviewers and consultation with people with a direct experience of homelessness in survey design); and

its key findings, which – contrary to a number of pre-existing assumptions about people who beg – paint a picture of acute vulnerability, homelessness, low yields and hopes for housing and a stable future.

We are Human Too: A Study of People Who Beg

In 1993 the Director of the UK’s national charity for single homeless people, Crisis, said: ‘When we reflected on the media coverage of some beggars, the impression left in a few quarters was of skilful con-artists feigning hardship and homelessness to beg money, aggressively, from a caring, guilty or scared public’. Despite this, Crisis noted that ‘hard facts about begging didn’t exist’ and set out to assess whether people begging ‘actually need our help’.

Research methodology

Between October and December 1993, 145 people were interviewed who had an experience of begging (either current or past) in central London. The interviews took place on the streets (30), in day centres and advice centres (82) and in hostels (33). No names were asked.

A structured questionnaire was developed with the help of a group of people experiencing homelessness ‘so that it would be as user friendly as possible’. The survey was divided into two parts, one straightforward and one more...

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271 Ibid 163.
273 Ibid viii.
274 Ibid viii.
The interviews took an average of 45 minutes each.

‘All except one of the 16 interviewers were volunteers, from all different walks of life, chosen for their friendly manner and experience of working with homeless people. This made a major contribution to the success of the fieldwork, which took over 200 hours, spread over a mixture of mornings, afternoons, evenings and weekends.’ 275

A total of 29 agencies and organisations (predominantly housing, homelessness and support services, but also including the Metropolitan Police) were identified as having ‘hosted the interviews or contributed ideas and support’. 276

**Key findings**

Some of the key findings of the Crisis research were:

– People begging were of all ages and ethnic groups; most were men.

– There was a very clear link between begging and homelessness – almost 80% were homeless the previous night (30% slept rough and the remainder stayed in temporary accommodation such as a hostel). Sixteen per cent had accommodation of their own but just under half were in contact with social workers and most had been homeless previously. For almost all homeless people begging, homelessness was not a chosen way of life – four in five previously had a home (the loss of a partner was the most common reason for losing that home). All but two people who were homeless wanted a home.

– Most people found it very difficult to start begging – shortage of money (including delayed or stolen benefits) was the most common reason for doing so. Over three quarters found it extremely difficult and humiliating to start.

– Nearly half the people begging had been in care; one quarter slept rough before the age of 16. Almost one in two had no family contact whatsoever.

– One third of people had a history of mental health problems. Seventeen per cent had been in a psychiatric hospital.

– One third of people begging had a recognisable substance abuse problem, most commonly alcohol. The most common reason for using alcohol or drugs was to counter depression.

– The most common single wish of people begging was for housing, followed by work.

– The majority of people begging had been abused by the public. One in three had been physically assaulted. Over one third had been sexually harassed. Two thirds had received verbal abuse.

– Begging income was varied and fluctuated as most people beg sporadically – it is generally used to ‘top-up’ inadequate benefits to buy items to meet immediate needs. Average takings in a day were £10–£20. Food was the item most commonly bought with begging money.

– Four in five had been in contact with the police while begging. Seventy eight per cent had been moved on. One in two had been arrested. Almost three quarters of people begging thought the police were reasonable.

**Recommendations**

The paper presents recommendations for: government; the police; local authorities; not-for-profit sector agencies; and the general public. The recommendations highlight five urgent areas for action:

– Changes to the benefits system – in terms of levels, eligibility and delivery.
– Improved access to both emergency and long-term housing – for all ages and special needs groups, along with practical support to help people stay housed.
– Regional strategies to tackle homelessness – led by local authorities, but encouraging co-working between different departments, agencies and the police, and with the maximum involvement of the local community.
– Extended daytime and evening services for homeless people – offering practical help, access to specialised services and opportunities to get back into employment (noting this would need Government funding).
– Repeal of the Vagrancy Act 1824 – ‘a costly and impractical piece of legislation designed in 1824 to criminalise people who are homeless and destitute’.

Despite being 20 years old, the method of consultation (including involvement of people with a direct experience of homelessness in the survey design), careful research and analysis of the policy implications of the research findings is a model that should be emulated in other jurisdictions trying to develop effective responses to homelessness and related activities in public places, including begging, sleeping rough or drinking in public. This kind of informed consideration of the diverse and complex factors that push people into homelessness and begging is critical to the formulation and implementation of policy solutions.

**During and after implementation – the impacts and outcomes**

As has been discussed throughout this report, enforcement-based mechanisms are often introduced in response to public pressure to address visible homelessness in local areas. After their introduction, however, there is often little evaluation of the effectiveness or otherwise of these measures.

While local councils or police departments may report on reduced rates of rough sleeping or begging in their local area or the number of arrests under the relevant laws, it is rare that broader research is conducted on the impact of these initiatives on people experiencing homelessness. In this way, it is not clear whether enforcement, or the risk of it, has just altered or moved homeless people’s conduct to make it less visible and has simply moved the problem – in potentially exacerbated form – elsewhere.

Throughout my travels, I came across a number of impressive research projects, which involved academics partnering or working with homelessness agencies and speaking directly with people experiencing homelessness about the impact of enforcement on them. These projects are profiled below. Importantly, each of these projects has been conducted independently of the agency that introduced the enforcement measures. While the independence of the evaluation is important, impact evaluation should be built into enforcement-based initiatives and should be the responsibility of the government agency who introduced the particular enforcement-based program.

**Surveying 512 homeless people about Denver’s urban camping ban**

As discussed above (part 4.1), in May 2012 Denver introduced a ban on ‘urban camping’.

Local council representatives suggested that the ordinance would help link people experiencing homelessness with services and also that police were using their discretion in enforcing the ban so that people are linked with services rather than arrested.

Local advocacy organisation, Denver Homeless Out Loud, and the University of Colorado undertook a survey of

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277 Ibid x.
278 See, eg, Albus Brooks, ‘Denver’s camping ordinance helps us address needs of homeless’ The Denver Post (19 July 2013).
members of the homeless community to determine the impact of the ban on their day-to-day lives. The survey assessed:

- frequency and nature of police contacts with homeless individuals;
- result of those police contacts;
- patterns of shelter use or non-use;
- nature of services being offered to homeless individuals;
- whether homeless survey respondents have changed their behaviour following the ban, such as by changing sleeping arrangements, daily routines, service-access, or areas of town frequented;
- whether homeless people feel more or less safe since the ban, and why; and
- personal stories regarding experiences on the street that might shed light on the implementation of this new law.

The survey results showed that the ban was not working as intended (for example, 83% of people approached by the police about violations of the camping ban, were asked to move on and were not offered alternative services).

In summary, the respondents indicated that they: found it increasingly difficult to access overcrowded shelters; avoided well-lit and safe downtown areas for hidden locations; and felt less safe.

As discussed above, the research of Dr Johnsen and Professor Fitzpatrick assesses the impact of enforcement on the welfare of ‘street users’ in England. As part of their study of five local areas that had introduced ‘enforcement interventions’ in response to ‘problematic street culture’, particularly begging and street drinking, Johnsen and Fitzpatrick:

- collected data on the use of enforcement interventions in the case study areas (for example, the number of ASBOs granted and breached and the number of prison sentences for breach);
- conducted interviews (either one-on-one or through focus groups) with a total of 82 frontline workers from a range of services and enforcement agents (including police officers, magistrates, city centre managers);
- conducted 37 in-depth interviews and held focus groups with 29 current or former ‘street users’ to assess the impact of enforcement on their wellbeing;
- undertook focus groups or one-on-one conversations with 27 local residents and business proprietors;
- attended multiagency anti-social behaviour operational forums and/or accompanied street outreach workers.

37 in-depth interviews with UK ‘street users’ about the impact of enforcement on their wellbeing

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280 Denver Homeless Out Loud, Report from the Street, above n 29, 8–9.
or community police officers on their ‘rounds’; and
– conducted ‘feedback seminars’ on the final draft of the report to confirm the factual content of each case study, test the recommendations against experience and ‘give something back’ to those who had assisted with the research.283

This comprehensive qualitative study provides insights into ‘what works, for whom, in what circumstances’.284 In doing this, it is able to highlight the risks and benefits associated with enforcement-based approaches and to make suggestions about ways to reduce the risks that enforcement will have a damaging impact on ‘street users’. The essential features of enforcement-based approaches (including immediately available, tailored services, warning stages and a policy not to use enforcement against people with a mental illness) that the research identified are discussed in part 4.1 above. Importantly, Johnsen and Fitzpatrick note that, although these features are essential to any potentially beneficial impact of enforcement on street users, the features do not guarantee success and nor do they eliminate the risk that enforcement will have a damaging impact on individuals experiencing homelessness.285

Even the most comprehensive research will not deliver clear-cut solutions to complex problems. It will, however, increase our understanding of the causes of the problems, identify necessary features of successful initiatives to address the problems and highlight any consequences that might otherwise be unanticipated (for example, increased isolation and risk for people experiencing homelessness). This information is essential to weighing up the proposed enforcement-based approach to homelessness against alternatives. It is also critical to reassessing whether an existing enforcement-based approach should be modified or discontinued because the risk of harmful impacts are unable to be effectively managed or are deemed to be too high for the approach to be justified.

**Transparent, accountable cost assessments**

The development and implementation of enforcement-based approaches to homelessness is never free. Accurate, open, accountable assessments of the financial costs are, however, less common than you would hope.

As governments are under pressure to cut spending, including on public housing, health and support services, it is important that we consider whether increased spending on enforcement-based mechanisms is the most efficient, effective way to deal with visible homelessness and poverty in our cities.

The costs of enforcement-based approaches are discussed in part 4.5, which sets out three studies that analyse the costs of enforcement-based approaches to homelessness, including by calculating:

– the prevalence of homelessness amongst a city’s ‘chronic offenders’ (41% of those who were arrested at least five times in the prior year were homeless);286
– the average annual number of arrests and nights in jail for 33 people experiencing homelessness (and the annual cost of this of $9,266.20 per offender or approximately $306,000 in total);287
– the interactions with the justice system of 37 people experiencing homelessness over a three year period (they were arrested 1,271 times) and the cost of this (the jail cost alone was $278,000); 288

283 Ibid 4–6.
285 Johnsen and Fitzpatrick, *The Impact of Enforcement*, above n 7, 52: ‘If taken into account within enforcement strategies, these considerations will minimise, although not eliminate, the risk of harm to vulnerable street users by enforcement action’.
287 Ibid.
288 Ibid.
the police time spent issuing tickets for begging and squeegeeing and the associated financial cost of this over an 11 year period (67,388 tickets were issued at a cost of $936,019 and 16,847 hours of police time).

It is strongly recommended that decision-makers proposing new enforcement measures or evaluating existing programs consider the cost of:

- increased numbers of law enforcement officers;
- the time of enforcement officers issuing tickets or arresting people;
- jail time;
- administration costs, including issuing tickets, reminders, warrants, processing waiver applications; and
- court resources.

Governments should consider these costs against alternative mechanisms for dealing with conduct in public places by people experiencing homelessness (including the service-based approaches discussed in part 6.3 below).

In addition to the financial costs of enforcement-based approaches, decision-makers should consider the resource burden on related services, including legal services. The use of citations, tickets and warrants has resource implications for services that provide legal and non-legal assistance to people experiencing homelessness. These services are often required to assist vulnerable clients to navigate the legal system and to link them with the services they need to help address the underlying causes of the offending conduct. Importantly, the resources used by legal and non-legal services to assist clients to avoid prison or overwhelming debts are resources that are diverted from other areas of need, including homelessness prevention.

Currently this balancing of competing resource pressures and sensible assessment of the costs of alternative measures seems to be uncommon; the result can be costly, ineffective measures for regulating the use of public space by people experiencing homelessness.

6.2. New partnerships and working with ‘non-traditional allies’

As discussed throughout this report, the commercial considerations of the business sector can motivate enforcement-based approaches to homelessness in local communities. Concerns about the impact of visible homelessness on local businesses can motivate local decision-makers to initiate ‘crackdowns’ or other measures to reduce the visibility of homelessness in the local area.

It is short sighted, however, to assume that the interests of local businesses and homelessness advocates are necessarily at odds. The role of the Business Improvement Districts in the US are an example of the way in which the interests of these different parties can be compatible and conducive to a collaborative, solution-focussed approach.

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289 O’Grady, Gaetz and Buccieri, Can I See your ID?, above n 10.
290 See, eg, Justice Connect Homeless Law, What’s the Cost?, above n 3: an analysis by an independent consultant of 13 infringements files run by Homeless Law found that cases took between 6 months and 2.5 years to resolve; the average time taken to resolve an infringements matter was 14 months; the average cost to pro bono law firms of running an infringements matter was $19,625. One matter required an investment equivalent to $54,000 in fees to resolve.
A relatively recent but now well established phenomenon across the US are local ‘business improvement districts’ (BIDs). There are approximately 1200 BIDs in the US. They are generally established by local legislation and funded by a levy paid by local businesses.

Businesses within a defined area contribute to a common fund for the ‘improvement’ of their shared business district. Their aim is to improve the commerciality of local areas and, accordingly, BIDs add another dimension to regulation of public space and homelessness, which can be positive or negative, depending on the predisposition of the particular BID and its members. On the one hand, BIDs are a strong lobby group and can be a source of pressure for ‘crackdowns’ on homeless people in public places motivated by commercial concerns. On the other, they can be an unconventional ally (and potential source of financial support) for initiatives that facilitate homeless people to move out of public places.

In their most positive form, BIDs have provided funding for outreach workers and drop-in clinics to link rough sleepers with support services.291

Assistant Chief Diane Groomes of the District of Columbia Metropolitan Police Department said that three of DC’s eight BIDs had hired outreach workers with a mental health background and that this had played a significant role in reducing some of the need for police intervention.

The Downtown DC BID ‘has the only non-governmental, clinically-based outreach team for individuals experiencing homelessness in Washington, DC’. The BID’s website states:

291 See, eg, US Interagency Council on Homelessness, Searching Out Solutions, above n 192, 25 which refers to the Downtown Homeless Outreach Team in Washington DC, a multi-disciplinary team of outreach workers who engage people experiencing homelessness on the streets of downtown DC. The outreach team is fully funded by downtown property owners through the Downtown Business Improvement District and managed by the non-profit Pathways to Housing DC.
The BID’s philosophy is that homeless individuals are part of the city’s fabric, too. And like every other citizen -- Downtown workers, residents and visitors -- we need to serve this segment of the population. We’re about finding solutions to people living on the streets. Our goal is not to maintain those who are homeless, but to provide a hand-up.292

The Downtown DC BID has partnered with the city government and 20 local service providers to ‘facilitate overall best practices to end homelessness’. It partners with Pathways to Housing DC to employ the Downtown Homeless Services Team: ‘a four-person, clinically-based outreach team that provides street-level intervention to move individuals beyond homelessness to independence’.293

Amy Horton-Newell, Director of the American Bar Association Commission on Homelessness and Poverty, provided helpful insights into working collaboratively with the business community in relation to addressing homelessness. She said, ‘for the most part, the business community and advocates are on the same page – no one wants people drinking, begging or sleeping on the street, so the community should work collaboratively to address the problem by providing housing and supportive services.’ Ms Horton-Newell said, from experience, a good starting point is to get a range of different parties around the table (business, elected officials, police, providers, advocates and consumers) and facilitate a constructive dialogue on moving people off the streets and into housing. She said, perhaps start from the point of: ‘we understand what prompts criminalisation efforts, but it won’t get the result you want; instead, we need to focus on ensuring sufficient housing and supportive services are available and accessible’.

Ms Horton-Newell explained that models that have been successful in the US proactively engage people experiencing homelessness through outreach and collaborative approaches. As an example, some BIDs collaborate with homeless outreach workers and service providers and encourage business owners with concerns to call outreach workers rather than the police, but ‘the trick is to have a housing option for the homeless person sitting on the sidewalk … and the reality in most communities in the US is that we don’t have sufficient housing options’.

Barbara Poppe, Executive Director of the US Interagency Council on Homelessness, also encouraged collaboration between different sectors. She said the starting point for ‘community solutions’ is to get people with a mix of perspectives round the table ‘and agree what the problem is and make a start on some of the solutions’.

Searching for Balance – federal legislation and a summit of interested parties

The US Interagency Council on Homelessness has strongly recommended engaging broad sectors of the community to develop ‘solutions that both help people who are homeless and address the concerns of the broader community’.294

The US Federal Homeless Emergency Assistance and Rapid Transition to Housing Act 2009 required the US Interagency Council on Homelessness to ‘develop alternatives to laws and policies that prohibit sleeping, eating, sitting, resting, or lying in public spaces when there are no suitable alternatives, result in destruction of property belonging to people experiencing homelessness without due process, or are selectively enforced against people experiencing homelessness’. As part of this, the US Interagency Council on Homelessness joined with the Access to Justice Initiative of the US Department of Justice and the Department of Housing and Urban Development to hold a summit on the ‘development of constructive alternatives to the criminalization of homelessness’ called

293 Ibid.
294 Ibid 10.
Searching for Balance: Civic Engagement in Communities Responding to Homelessness.

The summit was a full day forum that brought together city and county government officials, police officers, business improvement district leaders, court officials, health providers, national advocates, federal partners, and men and women who had experienced homelessness. Based on the solutions proposed at the summit, the US Interagency Council on Homelessness prepared its ground-breaking report Searching out Solutions: Constructive Alternatives to Criminalization. Searching Out Solutions states:

Some of these solutions involved partnerships among sectors that have not previously worked together, some involve new programs and services funded all or in part by business and community associations, and some involve the donation of volunteer time and expertise by members of the community as leaders of coalitions or providers of needed skills or services. All involve communitywide collaboration, openness to innovation, and a commitment to real solutions to underlying problems rather than to short-term fixes. 295

Often we assume that government, police, business, homeless advocates and people experiencing homelessness have incompatible interests in relation to homelessness and public space. Homelessness is a problem for the entire community and it requires us to work together to address it. It is important that we are cognisant of, and open to, the significant potential for these groups to work together to provide the expertise, insights and resources needed to develop and implement effective solutions to homelessness and associated conduct in public places.

6.3. Non-justice based models – focusing on health, housing and practical solutions

In most jurisdictions I visited we are in the disappointing position where law enforcement and the justice system have become the default mechanism for dealing with visible homelessness and associated activity in public places.

Whether or not police are the best equipped agency and individuals to carry out this role has received inadequate consideration. Berk and MacDonald reached positive conclusions about crime reduction under the Safer Cities Initiative in Los Angeles, but articulated the reminder: ‘law enforcement actions do not address the roots of homelessness nor most of its consequences. Getting tough on the homeless should not be confused with policies or programs that respond fundamentally to the social and personal problems that homelessness presents’. 296

Barbara Poppe, Executive Director of the US Interagency Council on Homelessness, noted that thought also needs to go into who makes the offer of assistance and asked: ‘how welcome is it if a police officer makes it?’ While recognising that there are officers with homelessness expertise, Ms Poppe noted the risk that: ‘links with services are less likely to be successful if they’re coming from the arresting officer’.

With this in mind, we need to move to a position where law enforcement and the justice system are not the first resort for dealing with homelessness in our communities. As discussed in part 3.1 above, this often happens because of a lack of awareness of viable alternatives.

This section sets out a number of alternatives to enforcement-based responses to homelessness and related conduct in public places. It highlights examples of:

– dealing effectively with alcohol dependence and homelessness;

295 See, eg, US Interagency Council on Homelessness, Searching Out Solutions, above n 192, 10.
296 Berk and MacDonald, Policing the homeless, above n 97.
Dealing effectively with alcohol dependence and homelessness

The motivation for this fellowship was my client Scott who had an acquired brain injury, anxiety and depression and who cycled in and out of homelessness. He also battled chronic alcohol dependence and had done for over 20 years. During periods of homelessness, Scott would be arrested for being drunk in a public place, taken to the cells for about four hours, released and issued with an infringement for approximately $600. Sometimes this would happen multiple times in one day and Scott incurred about $15,000 in infringements for being drunk in a public place in a five year period.

Scott’s example – one of many – gives rise to questions about whether this is the most effective way of dealing with alcohol dependence and homelessness in our communities. It is a question other jurisdictions have given thought to and some insights are below.

Frank Paul’s death – sobering centres recommended in Vancouver

Frank Paul was a 48-year-old Mi’kmaw who died of exposure and hypothermia in a Vancouver alley on 5 or 6 December 1998, after he was left there by police while severely intoxicated and wet. Mr Paul experienced homelessness, alcohol dependence and mental illness.

The Government of British Columbia appointed an independent commission of inquiry to examine the circumstances surrounding the death of Mr Paul. The Commissioner was former Supreme Court Justice William Davies QC. The Terms of Reference included inquiry into the:

- circumstances surrounding Mr Paul’s death;
- response of five public bodies to his death;
- rules, policies and procedures of those bodies in their interaction with people incapacitated by alcohol or drug use, or when an individual dies in similar circumstances; and
- health care and social services programs and facilities available in Vancouver for people experiencing chronic alcohol dependence and homelessness.

The Commission held 60 days of evidentiary hearings at which 68 people testified. It also convened nine days of informal roundtable discussions of policy issues, and considered submissions from participants and members of the public.

Commissioner Davies concluded: ‘The evidence requires me to conclude that despite the service of many fine and diligent professionals, our systems of justice and social service ultimately failed Frank Paul’.

Commissioner Davies set out Vancouver’s process for dealing with persons intoxicated in public:

[They] are transported to the sobering unit of the Detox Centre (operated by the Vancouver Coastal Health Authority) or, if they have a history of violence, to the Jail (which includes a separate holding facility for intoxicated people). Jail staff members are required to replace wet clothing and check on intoxicated prisoners every 15 minutes.

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298 William H Davies QC, Commissioner, Alone and Cold: The Davies Commission Inquiry into the Death of Frank Paul (12 February 2009) (see: http://frankpaulinquiryca.nationprotect.net/) (Davies, Alone and Cold). The Criminal Justice Branch of the Ministry of Attorney General challenged the commission’s jurisdiction to inquire into its response to Mr Paul’s death (i.e. the decision of whether or not to charge the police officers involved) and this decision was subject to an application for judicial review and appeal. The 2009 interim report dealt with all issues other than this question.
staff must visually assess prisoners on admission, and every hour thereafter. Before release, Jail staff must ensure that prisoners are able to care for themselves, are dressed appropriately for the weather, and have a place to go and a means to get there. Chronic alcoholics are released with few or no community supports, and the cycle of release and re-arrest repeats itself with alarming regularity.  

The Commissioner found:

In spite of universal recognition that chronic alcoholism is a medical condition deserving of a medical or harm reduction response, Vancouver’s continued reliance on police officers to enforce the “state of intoxication in a public place” legislation is a drain on scarce police resources, a punitive revolving-door policy that ignores the underlying housing, medical and social needs of chronic alcoholics. Many jurisdictions have successfully converted to an entirely civilian-based response ... It is time for Vancouver to move toward a similar type of civilian response.

His first recommendation was ‘that the City of Vancouver, the Vancouver Coastal Health Authority, the provincial Ministry of Housing and Social Development, and the Aboriginal community jointly develop a comprehensive response to the needs of homeless chronic alcoholics within the city of Vancouver. This would include (but not be limited to) the following components:

- a civilian-operated program for attending to chronic alcoholics who are incapacitated in a public place;
- a civilian-operated sobering centre;
- an enhanced civilian-based detoxification program;
- the provision of permanent low-barrier housing designed for the specific needs of chronic alcoholics, which would offer (if needed) palatable alcohol substitution and managed alcohol programs; and
- the provision of community-based, multidisciplinary assertive community treatment services.

The Commissioner recommended that a third party be appointed to lead the development of the response and that it be overseen by the Ombudsman.

Pivot Legal Society notes that this recommendation has not been followed yet. Pivot reports having two active cases where harms could have been avoided if the individuals involved had been taken to a sobering centre instead of to jail. They state: ‘These cases are far too common, and we are using legal action and engagement with government to ensure that this important and potentially life-saving recommendation is followed.’

Assistant Chief Groomes of the District of Columbia Metropolitan Police Department spoke about the value of detox centres for police. She said ‘a lot of people want us to deal with public drunkenness, but we’re not looking to arrest people. We try to take them to a detox centre ... We don’t want to criminalise someone for a sickness. I don’t believe in that’.

Two models where these centres are in place and working effectively are set out below.

### A health-based response and Sobering Station in Portland, Oregon

In his recommendations in the inquiry into the social and justice systems for dealing with people experiencing chronic alcohol dependence and homelessness in Vancouver, Commissioner Davies said: ‘Many jurisdictions have

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299 Ibid.
300 Ibid. Commissioner Davies noted: ‘I do not mean to suggest that the VPD favours retention of the current punitive approach. For more than a decade, the department has been advocating a civilian-based harm reduction response to public inebriation’.
301 Ibid.
302 Pivot Legal, Accountable Policing, above n 176.
successes found in specified places under the influence of alcohol or controlled substances; or being an alcoholic or a drug dependent person is ill and should be afforded treatment for that illness. Oregon has no law against public intoxication and treats public intoxication as a public health problem, not a crime. Under the Oregon Revised Statutes § 430.399 a police officer is required to take a person who is intoxicated in public to a treatment facility if: the person is belligerent, incapacitated, or under the influence. However, if an intoxicated person needs medical attention, police must take the person to the nearest medical facility. The Legislative Assembly finds alcoholism or drug dependence is an illness. The alcoholic or drug dependent person is ill and should be afforded treatment for that illness. Rather than take intoxicated people to jail, Central City Concern staff and the police bring them to the sobering station where they can get sober in a safe, appropriate environment. Central City Concern operates a roving van throughout the inner city to transport inebriated individuals to the sobering station. The van is staffed by Emergency Medical Technicians trained to work with people experiencing severe substance dependence and mental illness, ‘thus providing significant assistance to the police’. People generally spend 3 – 5 hours getting sober. They are provided with information about treatment and recovery upon release.

Central City Concern reports that the sobering station was ‘a safe place to sober up for more than 8,400 admissions; the Central City Concern van brought 2,200 admissions to the program’ (i.e. about 75% are brought by police).

Central City Concern operates an emergency response phone line from 1:45 pm to 11:45 pm seven days per week. Outside these hours people need to contact the Portland Police Bureau’s non-emergency line. Central City Concern has a range of other programs that it can link people to, including treatment programs, low barrier housing, employment and peer support.

The van is funded by the Portland Police Bureau and the sobering station’s annual budget is split between Portland City (which also funds the police) and Multnomah County.

303 Davies, Alone and Cold, above n 298.
304 Central City Concern, Hooper Detoxification Stabilization Center (available at: http://www.centralcityconcern.org/services/health-recovery/hooper-detoxification-center/index.html). The Oregon Revised Statutes (the codified laws of the State of Oregon) § 430.315 states: ‘the Legislative Assembly finds alcoholism or drug dependence is an illness. The alcoholic or drug-dependent person is ill and should be afforded treatment for that illness’. Oregon has no law against public intoxication and treats public intoxication as a public health problem, not a crime. Under the Oregon Revised Statutes § 430.399 a police officer is required to take a person who is intoxicated in public to a treatment facility if: the person is incapacitated (unable to make rational decisions about the person’s need for treatment); the person’s health appears to be in danger; or the officer has reason to believe the person is dangerous to him or herself or others. If taken to a treatment centre, the person must be released from protective custody within 48 hours unless the person seeks voluntary admission to the centre. If no treatment centre is available, a person who is drunk or under the influence of drugs may be taken to jail until the person is no longer intoxicated, incapacitated, or under the influence. However, if an intoxicated person needs medical attention, police must take the person to the nearest medical facility. The Oregon Revised Statutes § 430.402 provides that local governments in Oregon are prohibited from adopting or enforcing local laws or regulations criminalising or penalising: public intoxication; public drinking (except that local governments may prohibit public drinking in places where any consumption of alcohol is forbidden); being drunk and disorderly; ‘vagrant or other behavior that includes as one of its elements either drinking alcoholic beverages or using controlled substances in public, being an alcoholic or a drug-dependent person, or being found in specified places under the influence of alcohol or controlled substances’; or using or being under the influence of a controlled substance.
305 Central City Concern, Sobering Station/CHIERS (available at: http://www.centralcityconcern.org/services/health-recovery/sobering-station-chiers/index.html).
306 Ibid.
307 Ibid.
308 See Central City Concern, Services (available at: http://www.centralcityconcern.org/services/).
Maryhaven is a provider of ‘integrated behavioral healthcare services, with a specialization in addiction recovery care, to help men, women, and adolescents restore their lives from addictive and mental illness’. 309

Maryhaven runs a range of health services, one of which is the Maryhaven Engagement Center, which ‘is designed to provide a refuge for public[ly] inebriated homeless men and women and to offer them the opportunities to begin making changes to rebuild their lives’. 310 When people experiencing homelessness are found drunk in public by outreach workers or safety officers, they are taken to a specialist centre where they can sleep and have a shower.

Individuals must meet the following criteria for admission: 18 years of age or older; transported by Reach Out Workers or Safety Officers; permanently or temporarily without a home; and publicly under the influence of alcohol and/or drugs.

The centre shelters 42 men and eight women per night. There is 24 hour medical care, and the centre is open 365 days a year. People are offered access to services when sober. The services are not compulsory or an ultimatum. Importantly, the centre is a medical facility, not a justice one.

Maryhaven Engagement Center staff also work with the Community Shelter Board’s Rebuilding Lives Initiative, which provides transitional and permanent housing for individuals and families brought into the Maryhaven program. 311

The reality is that these services are not inexpensive to operate and there would need to be discussion about the funding arrangements for such a centre, including the breakdown of local and state government contributions, as well as any potential partnerships with the private or not-for-profit sectors.

As discussed above, however, the current system of putting people in lock up, fining them and releasing them into a cycle of homelessness, hospitalisation and repeat offending is by no means inexpensive. In addition, the current system does nothing to assist the person to address the underlying causes of offending and therefore carries both a human and financial cost.

Barbara Poppe, Executive Director of the US Interagency Council on Homelessness, touched on this when she referred to the sobering or engagement centres. She said: ‘It’s not an inexpensive service to provide but it’s highly valued by police, businesses and health services’.

In addition to cost, another barrier that is sometimes raised about civilian-based responses to public drunkenness is the inability of civilian staff to cope with severely substance affected individuals, whose behaviour may be aggressive. The Central City Concern sobering station has a number of solitary rooms for people to be taken to if they present a risk. Further, both the van and the station are staffed by medical professionals with specific expertise in dealing with people experiencing substance dependence and mental illness – it is strongly arguable that these professionals are better equipped to deal with the health-based symptoms of these conditions than most police officers.

311 See also US Interagency Council on Homelessness, Searching Out Solutions, above n 192, 17.
A clear and obvious message coming out of my fellowship is that the ultimate solution to problematic conduct in public space is access to permanent supported housing. Patty Mullahy Fugere, co-founder and Executive Director of the Washington Legal Clinic for the Homeless summarised it well: ‘we need to have a community where the reliance on public space to live private lives is minimised by having access to affordable housing ... public space issues arise because people don’t have private space to do the things that we should all be able to do in private’.

Importantly, advocates remind us that housing alone is not enough. Amy Horton-Newell, Director of the American Bar Association Commission on Homelessness and Poverty said clearly: ‘it’s slightly misleading to say that housing alone is the ultimate solution’. For people who’ve experienced chronic homelessness, four walls and a roof is just the beginning – built-in support programs are critical.

Discussing effective models of tenancy sustainment is beyond the scope of this report, but they are worth keeping in mind when thinking about solutions to public space offences. To that end, here are two examples of models for helping people to access and then sustain housing that I had the benefit of hearing about.

### Addressing chronic homelessness through personalised budgets

The personalised budget program has been run by City of London and Broadway since May 2009. The program

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312 For a comprehensive, insightful analysis on this topic, see Chris Povey, Churchill Fellowship Report, Investigating tenancy sustainment programs and approaches in relation to clients at risk of homelessness (2010) (available at: http://www.churchilltrust.com.au/media/fellows/2010_Povey_Christopher.pdf). See also US Interagency Council on Homelessness, Searching Out Solutions, above n 192, 14–18 for a range of practical examples of US programs that combine housing with health and social service supports to prevent and end homelessness. One example is the Chicago Housing for Health Partnership (CHHP), a ‘hospital-to-housing’ program that identifies chronically ill individuals who are homeless at hospitals, places them in permanent supportive housing, and provides intensive case management services so that they can maintain their health and secure long-term housing stability. The program recognises that it is too common for people to be discharged from hospital into homelessness. A 2011 evaluation of CHHP showed that the costs of providing housing and case management are more than offset by the reduced costs of hospital and nursing home services, prison or jail, and other services. See US Interagency Council on Homelessness, Chicago Housing for Health Partnership (available at: http://usich.gov/usich_resources/solutions/explore/chicago_housing_for_health_partnership#CHHP 3) citing A Basu, R Kee, D Buchanan and L Sadowski, Comparative Cost Analysis of Housing and Case Management Program for Chronically Ill Homeless Adults Compared to Usual Care’ Health Services Research (2011).
is described as ‘new way of working to get the most entrenched long-term rough sleepers off the streets by giving back choice and control to the individual’.  

Liz Blackender, Team Leader City Outreach and Pan London Personalised Budgets at Broadway Homelessness and Support explained: ‘the key is that they have one dedicated worker who gets to know them, who is very flexible and adaptable and who understands that different people want different things. There are no pressures to make decisions’.

The personalised budget allocates up to £3,000 to the individual and supports them to make decisions about what they need to exit homelessness: ‘it gives them a feeling of control over their life’, Ms Blackender said. An action plan is developed, but there is no set time limit. The kinds of things people budget for are mobile phones, clothing to improve their self-esteem, acquiring their birth certificate, passport or ID and accommodation costs. Once people are in accommodation, small amounts are spent on things that will help them to sustain their tenancy and reintegrate into the community, including courses, furniture, bikes, fishing rods or lap tops. An evaluation in 2010 found: ‘Fifteen people who had been sleeping rough for between four and 45 years were offered a personalised budget. By the time of the evaluation, the majority were in accommodation (seven) or making plans to move into accommodation (two)’.

The evaluation also recognised: ‘Many people experienced high levels of anxiety around moving into accommodation. Long-term personalised support after resettlement, provided by one dedicated worker, was seen as essential to maintaining tenancies’.

Approximately 80 chronic rough sleepers have now been referred to the program.

Social enterprises and sustaining housing

Tom Laviolette, Director of Project Development at PHS Community Services Society (PHS), said they were well aware that housing alone isn’t enough for many people, particularly those who’ve experienced long-term homelessness and the hardship and isolation that come with it. Mr Laviolette spoke about a resident in PHS’s community housing who disclosed: ‘If I’m alone in a room at night, I start to panic’.

One approach PHS takes to addressing this is to create employment or community engagement opportunities for their residents through social enterprises. Examples include working in local cafes, staffing and making items for retail stores and working in community gardens.

Mr Laviolette spoke about the way these kinds of options can ‘help people reintegrate into their community, build confidence and create further opportunities down the track’.

The effective integration of social enterprises, and the opportunities they create, into the operation of a housing provider is an interesting model for helping tenants to sustain their housing after periods of homelessness and accompanying hardship and social exclusion.

313 Broadway Homelessness and Support, Personalised Budgets for rough sleepers in the City of London wins Andy Ludlow Homelessness Awards (available at: http://www.broadwaylondon.org/aboutus/LatestNews/PersonalisedBudgetsProjectWinsAndyLudlowAward.html) (Broadway Homelessness and Support). See also Homeless Link, City of London – Personalisation Pilot working with entrenched rough sleepers in partnership with Broadway (available at: http://homeless.org.uk/london-broadway-personalisation-pilot#Ux6tqjNWFD9).

314 Broadway Homelessness and Support, above n 313.


316 Ibid 5.

317 See: http://scoutmagazine.ca/tag/portland-hotelsociety/.


The two examples in this section focus on using empowering, supportive, creative models for assisting people to access and sustain housing after periods of homelessness and acute hardship. They are programs that recognise that four walls and a roof will not be enough to successfully end a person’s homelessness, particularly if that person has experienced long-term homelessness and any of the accompanying hardships, including mental illness or substance dependence, that can be both a cause and a consequence of protracted homelessness.

Practical alternatives to fines and tickets

A key theme throughout this report has been the tendency to turn to law enforcement because of a lack of awareness of other solutions to problems of homelessness and related conduct in public places. In many cases, what is required is careful consideration of the problem at hand and identification of potentially workable solutions. When I met with Aijanas Ormond, Community Organiser from the Vancouver Area Network of Drug Users (VANDU) he spoke to me about the way in which the VANDU members had thought about the kinds of things that would help them and community members in the Downtown Eastside to avoid the conduct that they were being so heavily ticketed for.

Downtown Eastside – speed limits, public toilets and a market

The three offences that local residents are most frequently ticketed for in Vancouver’s Downtown Eastside are jaywalking, public urination and illegal street vending.

In each case advocates and residents have proposed constructive, practical strategies that aim to prevent the ‘offending’ conduct and reduce the number of tickets issued.

- **Jaywalking** – over a tragic period there were numerous VANDU members and other Hastings Street residents killed or injured by cars as they crossed local streets. There was no evidence to suggest that issuing tickets for jaywalking increased pedestrian safety, so instead advocates successfully pushed for a 30km/hour zone to be introduced in recognition of the significant difference speed makes to a driver’s ability to stop or at least to minimising impact.\(^{320}\) The numbers of injuries and fatalities have apparently significantly reduced since this change.

- **Public urination** – advocates called for more public toilets, noting that both people sleeping rough and people living in overcrowded, poorly equipped single room occupancies (SROs) lack access to toilets and are left with no alternative to public urination.\(^{321}\)

- **Illegal street vending** – steps are currently being taken to formalise the ad hoc markets that had previously been the subject of a ticketing blitz for street vendors. The more structured market currently operates once a week and there are hopes to expand it. On the issue of street vending and why he does it, a Downtown Eastside resident who has received multiple tickets, Dave Hamm, said: ‘We don’t have front yards because we live in SROs so in order for us to have a yard sale we need to set up on the sidewalk. We can’t survive on the current welfare and disability rates, but we are allowed to make at least $200 under the new rules — we shouldn’t be criminalized for just trying to survive.’\(^{322}\)

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\(^{322}\) King, VANDU and Pivot Allege Discrimination, above n 41.
This kind of advocacy is what we should all be trying to do. It recognises the concerns of decision-makers, considers mechanisms for addressing the underlying causes and presents constructive, workable solutions. Central to these examples was the guidance of people with an experience of homelessness as well as the recognition that fines and tickets were doing nothing to prevent the conduct or effectively address the concerns of government, police and other members of the community.

### 6.4. Strong, effective relationships with police

As has been discussed throughout the report, when considering enforcement-based approaches to homelessness the following factors are relevant:

- what the laws are;
- how the laws are enforced by decision-makers and enforcement officers (including police and ticket inspectors and encompassing collaborative relationships with homeless services as part of ‘assertive outreach’); and
- how the justice system deals with people once they have entered it (including through tickets, fines, prison, anti-social behaviour orders or tailored community orders).

The second limb – the point at which a decision is made about the appropriate way to deal with a person experiencing homelessness in a public place – is an area where there is enormous potential for a significant, positive change to occur. It is at this point, the front end, where police, advocates, decision-makers and people with an experience of homelessness need to work together to improve the options available to police and the knowledge that informs their exercise of discretion.

This section discusses key elements of policing and homelessness:

- building relationships with police and the need for leadership;
- training and education – Homelessness 101;
- a protocol – guidance for dealing with homeless people in public places (including supporting police in their interaction with, and exercise of discretion in relation to, people experiencing homelessness); and
- examples of best practice policing (including creating options other than tickets and charges for police to use in their interactions with people experiencing homelessness).

At the outset, a reminder that a key message from this research is that despite the potential for the police to play a positive role in dealing with people experiencing homelessness in their communities (particularly if equipped with a better understanding of other options for dealing with problematic conduct in public places), they should not be the automatic go-to agency for tackling visible homelessness.

This position is consistent with the views of police representatives I spoke with. By way of example, Assistant Chief Diane Groomes of the District of Columbia Metropolitan Police Department said:

> A lot of what we deal with now is not crime … a lot of investment should go into services instead of using police to solve these problems: we’re not psychologists. Social workers and social services need to be 24 hours a day. My officers are frustrated – they want to help out but the resources aren’t there. There aren’t enough services to get people into. We need a redirection of resources. At the moment it’s so easy to find police, but people need services.

On the question of whether police are the agents best placed to undertake outreach work for people who are homeless or begging in the City of London, Sergeant Montgomery said: ‘probably not … it makes it conflictual straight away, but we’re the ones people turn to’.

With these considerations in mind, this section presents constructive recommendations for working with police to reduce the negative impact of laws regulating public space on people experiencing homelessness in their communities.
Building relationships with police and the need for leadership

One of the impacts of enforcement-based approaches discussed in part 4.3 is that they can damage the relationship between police and people experiencing homelessness in the community, with the consequence that already vulnerable individuals can become further marginalised and subject to greater risk.

Both police and advocates spoke about the importance of maintaining relationships between police and homeless people. Tom Laviolette, Director of Project Development at PHS Community Services Society has worked on the Downtown Eastside for approximately 20 years. He said that throughout that time, relationships with police have ‘ebbed and flowed’. Douglas King, Barrister and Solicitor with Vancouver’s Pivot Legal Society said a ‘ticketing blitz’ in 2008 before the Olympics was a dramatic failure; it ‘created havoc’, damaged the relationship between the police and the Downtown Eastside community and drowned prosecutors and courts to the point that most of the tickets weren’t prosecuted. Mr Laviolette said: ‘The best times are when we’ve got a police contact person who sticks around long enough ... police sometimes move too much and then you have to start from scratch with building understanding’.

Constable Jodyne Keller, Homeless Outreach & SRO Liaison with Vancouver Police Department explained that her position has existed for approximately five years and, in that time, the VPD has ‘changed how we offer services to the homeless and have bridged gaps which were originally faced by the homeless and the police’. In her role, she works closely ‘with all levels of government as well as directly with the homeless on the street’.

Ultimately, leadership within the force is critical to improving approaches to people experiencing homelessness. Some of the suggested ways in which relationships can be improved include senior police officers attending regular meetings with community organisations, including peer representatives. Mr Laviolette said: ‘Problems arise when you have less experienced, less acclimatised officers policing the streets ... We need officers attuned to the needs of the community to progress within the force’.

Assistant Chief Groomes from the District of Columbia Metropolitan Police Department said:

> We need our officers to understand that we need really good relationships with the community. We can’t just jump out and search people. It takes a very frank discussion and supervision is key. You must have supervision out there.

> There is nothing wrong with initiating a conversation, but it’s how you do it. That is the biggest gap – how we talk to people ... Intense training is needed. I’m worried for the future, because the new recruits who are coming through are used to emails and phones. You need to be able to talk to people. That’s how things escalate if you don’t talk to people well. There should always be verbal interactive components of training ... We need empathy.

Assistant Chief Groomes also explained that she plays a role in communicating to residents and business that ‘it’s not a crime to be homeless; just being homeless itself is not a crime and we cannot arbitrarily arrest or harass homeless people’.

In addition to leadership, supervision and encouragement from the top, police officers need training and education to assist them to understand and engage effectively with people experiencing homelessness. Formal training and guidance, as well as identification of alternative mechanisms for dealing with people experiencing homelessness (including access to services and referral pathways), are crucial to supporting police to exercise their discretion to choose options other than ticketing or arresting people experiencing homelessness on their beat.

Training and education – Homelessness 101

The causes of homelessness and its impacts on people’s lives and conduct are complex and difficult to understand without well-designed, targeted training. New recruits and existing officers require training to assist them to better understand homelessness and deal appropriately with people experiencing homelessness. As Lucy Fitzpatrick, Supervising Senior Staff Attorney with the Homelessness Prevention Law Project at Public Counsel in Los Angeles phrased it: ‘training is needed to help officers understand when a person’s behaviour is caused by something other than defiance’.

In the Public Eye | Lucy Adams
Patty Mullahy Fugere, co-founder and Executive Director of the Washington Legal Clinic for the Homeless (WLCH) talked to me about the training the WLCH provides for the new recruits of the District of Columbia Metropolitan Police Department and the role it has played in developing a constructive relationship with the police in DC.\(^{323}\)

### Homelessness 101 and working with law enforcement officers in Washington DC

The WLCH runs regular training for new recruits to the District of Columbia Metropolitan Police Department (MPD) called ‘Homelessness 101’. One of their expert lawyers runs the training in partnership with a person who has previously experienced homelessness and they aim to ‘blow away some of the myths and stereotypes about homeless folks’.

The training has become a permanent component of MPD’s training curriculum for new recruits. It includes key facts about homelessness that ‘attempt to get to the heart of both the causes and the face of homelessness in the District’: Who is homeless? Why are so many people homeless? Is there enough shelter? Is there enough housing?\(^{324}\)

The training builds awareness about homelessness and its causes, as well as resources and services that are available to people experiencing homelessness. Ms Mullahy Fugere said the training has been ‘helpful in getting people to understand and respond more appropriately to homelessness’.

In addition to its openness to training and education about homelessness, the MPD also nominates Assistant Chief Groomes as a representative on the District of Columbia Interagency Council on Homelessness (ICH). Assistant Chief Groomes spoke highly of the ICH, particularly because it gives people experiencing homelessness a chance to have their voices heard. Assistant Chief Groomes also spoke about the ‘crisis intervention’ training provided to MPD officers. She said that while the MPD does not have specialist homeless outreach officers, they have approximately 520 officers with ‘crisis intervention’ skills who are trained to respond to mental illness.

All new and existing issuing officers should be given training about the complex circumstances that may affect the people they’re dealing with, including homelessness, mental illness and substance dependence.\(^{325}\) This training should involve people with a direct experience of these circumstances, who can play an effective role in improving understanding and addressing any pre-existing stereotypes or assumptions that officers may have.

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\(^{323}\) See also See, eg, US Interagency Council on Homelessness, Searching Out Solutions, above n 192, 25 which refers to the Homelessness 101 ‘police sensitivity training project’ in Broward County, Florida which aims to ‘raise police officers’ awareness to the reality and causes of homelessness, address the most effective intervention techniques, and decrease the number of trespassing arrests for individuals experiencing homelessness in the county’. It reports that since the training commenced, the total number of trespassing arrests in Fort Lauderdale has decreased 26%.


\(^{325}\) See, eg, US Interagency Council on Homelessness, Searching Out Solutions, above n 192, 25 regarding the way in which ‘cross-training’ of police officers and service providers assists police officers to engage with people experiencing homelessness, identify and respond to mental health issues and make referrals to housing and service providers. It also notes that these training programs facilitate improved communication and trust between parties.
Police officers are required to make difficult on-the-spot decisions in the face of competing obligations and they need to be supported to balance competing priorities, consider people’s individual circumstances, deal appropriately with vulnerable people and weigh up alternatives to tickets and arrests.

In recognition of the complexity of this role, the District of Columbia Metropolitan Police Department has a General Order, Interactions with Homeless Persons (Order), which was introduced in 2011. Assistant Chief Diane Groomes of the MPD talked to me about the introduction of the Order. She said that the need for it arose because: ‘one of the issues in DC is the shelter system is just for overnight, not a 24-hour shelter, again because of resources. People are pushed out, unless it’s too cold, and there is no place for them to go but the public space’. She said there was some initial resistance to the Order, with people asking ‘why are you treating the homeless differently?’ Her response was: ‘special populations need a little more detail. It’s important to be clear so there’s no doubt’.

**District of Columbia Metropolitan Police Department – General Order: Interacting with Homeless Persons**

**Purpose**

The stated purpose of the MPD General Order, Interacting with Homeless Persons is:

> to ensure that members of the Metropolitan Police Department (MPD) understand and are sensitive to the needs and rights of homeless persons in the District of Columbia, and to set forth procedures for members to follow during
contacts with homeless persons. This policy recognizes that all persons, including people experiencing homelessness, have the right to be peacefully in any public place of the District of Columbia as long as their activities are lawful. It also explicitly affirms that homelessness is not a crime.326

Policy

The policy underpinning the Order is:

The policy of the Metropolitan Police Department is to treat homeless persons in a manner that protects their needs, rights and dignity, while providing appropriate law enforcement services to the entire community. The Department recognizes that in law enforcement situations involving homeless individuals, it is preferable to make referrals to organizations that provide services to them, and to refrain from initiating contacts that interrupt innocent activity and may violate an individual’s constitutional rights.327

Key provisions

Some key elements of the guidance provided by the Order are:

- ‘Members shall not detain arrest, interrogate, or initiate any other criminal law enforcement interaction with any persons based solely upon their “status” of being or appearing to be homeless, as long as they are not engaged in unlawful activities’.328

- ‘Members shall not communicate in any way to persons who are or appear to be homeless that they are not allowed to be in a particular public space in the District because of their homeless status’.329

- ‘Members shall not order any person to move to another location when that person has a legal right to be present where he or she is, absent safety, security, or other constitutionally permissible reasons’.330

- ‘At no time shall members request or demand identification in order to harass, intimidate, threaten or make any other unwarranted show of authority toward a person who is or appears to be homeless’.331

- ‘Members shall refrain from instituting any search, frisk, or other such investigation where the elements of reasonable suspicion or probable cause are not met. A person’s status of being or appearing to be homeless, without more, does not constitute reasonable suspicion for such a search’.332

- ‘Nothing in this order is intended to preclude a member from arresting an individual, including a person who is or appears to be homeless, when the member has probable cause to believe the person has committed a crime’.333

New South Wales also has a protocol that guides police and agency interactions with people experiencing homelessness in public places.
Responding effectively to homelessness – NSW Government Protocol for Homeless People in Public Places

Aims and signatories

The NSW Protocol aims to ‘help ensure that homeless people are treated respectfully and appropriately and are not discriminated against on the basis of their homeless status’ and to ‘provide a framework for interactions between officials and homeless people in public places’. 334

Signatories to the NSW Protocol are: Housing NSW, NSW Police Force, Community Services, Department of Premier and Cabinet, Office of Environment and Heritage, NSW Health, RailCorp, State Transit Authority of NSW, Sydney Harbour Foreshore Authority, Sydney Olympic Park Authority, Aboriginal Affairs and Ambulance Service of NSW. 335

Guidance on appropriate responses

The NSW Protocol acknowledges that ‘like all other members of the public, homeless people have a right to be in public places … at the same time respecting the right of local communities to live in a safe and peaceful environment’.

The NSW Protocol provides that a homeless person is not to be approached unless:

– they request assistance;
– they appear to be distressed or in need of assistance;
– an official seeks to engage with the person for the purpose of information exchange or provision of a service;
– their behaviour threatens their safety or the safety and security of people around them;
– their behaviour is likely to result in damage to property or have a negative impact on natural and cultural conservation of environment, including cultural heritage, water pollution and fire risks;
– they are sheltering in circumstances that place their or others’ health and safety at risk (for example, staying in derelict buildings, high risk areas);
– they are a child who appears to be under the age of 16;
– they are a young person who appears to be 16 to 17 years old who may be at risk of significant harm; and
– they are a child or young person who is in the care of the Director-General of the Department of Family and Community Services or the parental responsibility of the Minister for Family and Community Services.

The Protocol is an agreement by government organisations to respond appropriately to homeless people who are in public places and acting lawfully. It doesn’t prevent agencies from acting where health or safety is at risk or a breach of the peace or unlawful behaviour has occurred. It encourages officials to consider the individual’s circumstances when enforcing laws and to use discretion which takes account of ‘the complex needs of homeless people, including mental health issues, drug and alcohol misuse and cognitive impairment’. 336

Implementation and evaluation

‘Guidelines for Implementation’ have been published and it is recommended that the NSW Protocol is addressed

335 Ibid 4.
in induction training for all new staff and in development training for existing staff. Housing NSW developed a ‘Protocol Training Package’ to support organisations to adopt and implement the protocol.

Signatories are also advised to conduct internal monitoring and review of the NSW Protocol and its implementation and impact. The Protocol will be reviewed every two years.

This kind of practical, clear guidance provides police with support and resources to engage appropriately and effectively with people experiencing homelessness. On their own these orders or protocols are not necessarily powerful documents (they are not prescriptive and they leave room for the discretion of the individual officer), but with appropriate training and leadership, they are a strong statement about expectations when dealing with people experiencing homelessness, as well as a source of direction or support for officers making difficult decisions in complex situations.

These documents – and the negotiation, education and leadership that accompany their development and implementation – have the potential to play a significant role in reducing the negative impact of laws regulating public space on people experiencing homelessness through improving the understanding of police and providing them with direction and guidance about when and how to interact with people experiencing homelessness.

They also support officers to exercise their discretion in a way that prevents homeless people entering the justice system when their needs could be more appropriately dealt with by health, housing and support services.

Examples of best practice policing

Throughout the fellowship I experienced directly, and heard about, initiatives where police played a key role in addressing homelessness and related conduct in public places, in co-operation with a range of local service providers.

This section features two examples of carefully planned, well thought out roles for police as one part of a broader strategy to address homelessness in the community. It was clear that the jurisdictions where police played a positive, collaborative, constructive role in the response to homelessness had strong leaders within the police force. In a Canadian context, Professor Gaetz said: ‘None of these initiatives would have happened without a particular person ... it takes that person’. In both North America and the UK, these initiatives were happening in communities that have robust, coordinated responses to homelessness where addressing homelessness isn’t just seen as the role of the homeless sector, but also health, child protection, education and police services.

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337 See also NLCHP 2011, Criminalizing Crisis, above n 32, Advocacy Manual 31, which includes ‘model policies and procedures that cities can adopt to ensure their homeless residents are treated with respect and that their rights are respected’, including a Model General Police Order. This model order is substantially the same as the MPD Order, except it contains the following helpful provision which is not included in the MPD Order: ‘When encountering a homeless person who has allegedly committed a nonviolent misdemeanor, where the continued freedom of the individual would not result in a breach of the peace or a more serious crime, Members are encouraged to utilize referral to an appropriate social service provider in lieu of physical arrest, such referral being contingent on the voluntary treatment of the individual’.

338 See, eg, US Interagency Council on Homelessness, Searching Out Solutions, above n 192, 27 which identifies the benefits of improved collaboration between police, social service providers and mental health providers as including: diversion from the criminal justice system and reduced costs associated with incidents of arrest; more appropriate use of jail and prison space and police time; increased knowledge and awareness by law enforcement about available services for people who are homeless; increased referrals to mental health systems and permanent supportive housing; enhanced communication and coordination between law enforcement and service providers to enable more efficient interventions; stronger focus on addressing the underlying causes of homelessness; and improved officer morale and job satisfaction with more effective use of police time.
Calgary, Canada – Police and Crisis Team: homelessness is not a criminal justice issue

The Calgary Police Service (CPS) website says: ‘[h]omelessness and poverty in itself are not criminal justice issues; they are societal issues that require a community response as a whole. The Calgary Police Service works closely with community members, partners and stakeholders to assist those experiencing homelessness’.

The Police and Crisis Team (PACT) is a partnership between Alberta Health Services (AHS) and the CPS that was established in 2010 in response to an identified need for a joint mental health and police response:

AHS clinicians and CPS officers comprise two-person outreach teams that are intended to provide a joint response to incidents involving individuals/families experiencing a mental health, addiction, or psychosocial crisis, when homelessness and/or danger to the public are present. PACT teams assess and manage clients, conducting street level intervention where possible, with the aim of connecting clients to community resources and diverting service delivery away from the hospital Emergency Department and justice system when appropriate.

It is a three year pilot project funded through the Safe Communities Initiative with the Government of Alberta. Meaghan Bell, Manager of Research and Policy at the Calgary Homeless Foundation said: ‘It has been hugely successful in reducing the use of emergency response services for people experiencing homelessness as well as those who are recently rehoused. There was an evaluation done on the program ... that demonstrated tremendously positive outcomes and cost savings’.

She noted though: ‘[o]ne of the challenges with PACT is that it is a pilot project and it does not operate 24/7 – so there remains a gap in our services in the community’.

A second initiative was launched in Calgary in late 2013. The Safe Communities Opportunity and Resource Centre (SORCe), is a centralised location where people who are homeless (or at risk) can access programs and services. SORCe offers information; provides an initial assessment to determine a person’s need; will offer counselling as required; facilitates referrals for individuals to a range of programs and services that respond to their unique circumstances; and transports people to agencies when appropriate.

Ms Bell explained that: ‘The intention of SORCe was to provide a physical location for people to go to access the multitude of services available in Calgary without having people knocking on doors throughout the city just to learn they do not qualify or there is a waitlist’. Furthermore, she said that SORCe was also championed in the community as a new opportunity for police officers to connect vulnerable people with services rather than arresting or ticketing. There was a sense of frustration from officers that they were seeing the same guys out on the streets and, as police officers, they did not have the knowledge or awareness of resources in the community, so the idea (and expectation from our Police Chief), was the officers would be able to physically bring vulnerable people to the SORCe to get them connected.

The examples in Calgary show that once decision-makers and service providers begin to consider options other than ticketing or arresting people experiencing homelessness, there is room for new ideas about how to effectively deal with use of public space by people experiencing homelessness, which focus on addressing the underlying


342 See Safe Communities Opportunity and Resource Centre (SORCe), About SORCe (available at: http://www.scorce.ca/about-sorce).
causes of the person’s homelessness and public space offending rather than the symptoms. In both cases, the police themselves sought an alternative to ticketing or arresting people experiencing homelessness and mental illness.

The motivation within the police to find better ways of dealing with people begging in public places in the City of London was also the motivation for Operation Fennel.

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**Operation Fennel – City of London Police begging initiative**

**Background on Operation Fennel – targeting the causes of offending**

Operation Fennel is the City of London Police initiative to combat begging in the City of London that has been running since June 2013.

In the early months of 2013 the City of London Police undertook a blitz on people begging in the City (an area of one square mile with a resident population of approximately 7,400 but a daily influx of approximately 300,000 commuters and business people per day). Police Sergeant Mark Montgomery from the City of London Police Street Intervention Team explained that after arresting 48 people and seeing the same faces ‘again and again’ they thought: ‘this is ridiculous, surely there’s got to be a better way of dealing with this’. Sergeant Montgomery said the motivation to implement a program that addressed the causes of offending behaviour led to Operation Fennel.

The first stated intention of the City of London Police for Operation Fennel is ‘to provide help, guidance and assistance to persons suspected of begging with a view to preventing further offences’. In contrast to a number of other enforcement-based approaches to conduct in public places, which aim to clean up streets or remove visible homelessness, addressing the underlying causes of the person’s offending conduct appear to be at the forefront of this program.

**How Operation Fennel works – service hubs**

Under Operation Fennel a person suspected of begging is given a ‘Street Awareness Initiative’ ticket, which requires them to attend an ‘educational and welfare appointment’ at a set time and place i.e. a ‘hub’ hosted every 4 – 5 weeks with a wide range of services, including Broadway Homelessness and Support, drug and alcohol workers, veterans’ charities and ‘people to discuss issues with in a completely private and confidential manner’.

If people attend on this day it negates the summons for that offence and no prosecution will take place (there is no ongoing obligation to engage), but if they re-offend they will be given a summons (i.e. it’s a ‘one shot only’ opportunity). The ticket contains the warning: ‘If you do not attend the event, any offences will be logged by City of London Police and proceedings will take place in order to prosecute you for those offences’.

The tickets allow for two warnings before arrest or summons, but in practice the police decide case by case whether more warnings should be given. Sergeant Montgomery pointed out that they do have to take action: ‘if there’s no action for non-compliance, there’s no deterrent and it won’t work’. The police documentation explains: ‘as always our priority is to determine who is offending and how often, [to put] these people in touch with the services, charities and people best suited to combat their problems with them and get them off the streets and

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343 Department of the Built Environment 2011, City of London Census, above n 49.
344 Operation Fennel, City of London Policing Plan, above n 100.
345 City of London Police, Street Awareness Initiative Ticket (copy provided by City of London Police on 2 December 2013).
346 Ibid.
into some sort of safety and rehabilitation programme. However, if these people continue to offend and not accept the help offered then actions will be taken to prosecute them and remove them from the City of London.”

The harsher enforcement-based aspect of Operation Fennel is discussed below.

**Interim outcomes of Operation Fennel**

The first 12 months of Operation Fennel will be the subject of a formal evaluation in mid-2014. The City of London Police are, however, keeping track of the outcomes of Operation Fennel in relation to the 180 tickets for begging issued to 94 people between July – November 2013. They report the following 10 outcomes:

1. ‘Offenders put in touch with “The Big Issue” programme.
2. Links made between homeless individuals and housing charities.
3. Fifteen people currently engaging with drug workers through Operation Fennel.
4. Relocation assistance to homeless people who want to go home to other parts of the country.
5. Assistance on ‘emergency housing’ over the winter period given.
6. Three prolific and problem beggars have left the City area.
7. The business community has praised Operation Fennel for its success in dealing with their begging issues.
8. Public houses having far less trouble with anti-social behaviour.
9. Good relationships built between [City of London Police] and the begging community.
10. 15 beggars failing to engage and who still offend due in court in January where an ASBO ... will be applied for’.
Many aspects of Operation Fennel can be classified as best practice, including the collaboration with services, genuine focus on addressing the underlying reasons for a person’s begging, provision of a range of different service options, attempts to divert vulnerable people away from the criminal justice system, provision of warnings before harsher enforcement is pursued and the monitoring and evaluation of the impact of Operation Fennel.

As part of Operation Fennel, if people don’t show up to the ‘educational and welfare appointment’ multiple times and continue to beg in the City of London, the police prosecute the begging offence and, if the person is convicted, the police request an anti-social behaviour order (ASBO): ‘Prolific offenders who still fail to engage and continue to offend will be taken to court where an ASBO will be applied for’. At the time of my visit, there were 15 summonses for people to attend court and, if convicted, the police will be seeking an ASBO. The aim is that one court date will be allocated and all cases listed on that day. The police try to tailor the ASBOs to the defendant’s particular conduct or circumstance and understand that the judge will strike them out if the terms are overly broad or if the requisite element of ‘harassment, alarm or distress’ cannot be made out.349

As has been discussed throughout this report, the high risk nature of anti-social behaviour orders (ASBOs) (including their potential to divert people into more damaging activities, exacerbate social isolation, disrupt engagement with services and lead to imprisonment) mean that they have not been identified as a best practice element of policing in this report.

Ultimately, Operation Fennel operates within an enforcement-based framework and it is arguable that civilian services, including homelessness and health-based outreach, could play a similar role with less cost to the police, the courts and the individuals targeted by the operation.

This is not to detract from the well-thought out best practice aspects of Operation Fennel and many of our cities still have much to learn from this program.

6.5. The role for the courts – innovative justice models

This report has considered enforcement-based approaches to homelessness in terms of the following factors:

– what the laws are;
– how the laws are enforced by decision-makers and enforcement officers; and
– how the justice system deals with people once they have entered it (including through tickets, fines, prison, anti-social behaviour orders or tailored community orders).

This section focuses on the third tier of this system, being the courts and their role in dealing with people brought before them for offences directly related to homelessness.

People experiencing homelessness can find themselves in court via a number of avenues, including warrants for unpaid fines or tickets, warrants for failure to appear at a previous court hearing, as a result of charges or as the subject of applications for court orders, including anti-social behaviour orders. The transience and chaos of homelessness and the circumstances that can accompany it, including poverty, mental illness or substance dependence, present significant barriers to the ability of people experiencing homelessness to engage with the court system.

Traditional court processes and sentencing options present a risk that people experiencing homelessness will ‘cycle between the criminal justice and homeless worlds, seemingly without any means to stabilize their lives’. 350

Through alternative justice models, however, the courts can play a different role in the trajectory of people experiencing homelessness and this section discusses examples of innovative court-based models aimed at addressing underlying causes of offending.

It also discusses the need for legal representation as part of these court-based programs and the importance of tailored, immediately available services.

At the same time as commending these innovative justice models, this section suggests that even for the most carefully designed, well-implemented court-based responses to homelessness, we need to consider whether the justice system is the best-equipped system to deal with homelessness and its symptoms in our communities.

Problem solving courts and innovative justice

Danielle Malangone, Associate Director, Training and Technical Assistance with the Center for Court Innovation, summarised the role of community courts or justice centres as: ‘harnessing the power of the justice system to connect defendants to services’.

The understanding is that people will be more likely to engage with services to help address the underlying causes of their offending if there is court involvement.351 Importantly, this is not solely based on ideas about the motivating power of potential criminal sanctions, but also on the concept of ‘procedural justice’. Procedural justice is identified as being present ‘when people perceive they have experiencing a decision-maker or decision-

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351 See, eg, Glen Berman, Center for Court Innovation, Principles of Community Justice: A Guide for Community Court Planners (2010) (Berman, Principles of Community Justice) 9: ‘The crisis of arrest may prompt a defendant to seek help. A court can use its coercive power and knowledge of available resources to reinforce that impulse’.
making institution that accords them respect, is neutral, offers an opportunity to participate, and has trustworthy motives’.

This section sets out examples of justice models that have been set up, at least in part, with the intentions of assisting defendants to access the services and supports they need, building confidence and trust in the justice system and addressing the underlying causes of a person’s offending conduct.

### Community courts in New York City and beyond

New York City is home to the Center for Court Innovation and two of its trailblazing projects, the Midtown Community Court and the Red Hook Community Justice Center, both of which are credited with contributing to lower levels of re-offending by defendants, improved levels of trust in the justice system amongst defendants and increased perceptions of safety within their communities.

The Center for Court Innovation and its court projects are well known by the international justice community. Midtown Community Court was established in 1993 to deal with low-level criminality in and around Times Square, including prostitution, vandalism and minor drug possession. The Red Hook Community Justice Center started in 2000 in the Brooklyn community of the same name that was struggling with drug problems and high crime levels. The Center for Court Innovation notes: ‘the Red Hook Community Justice Center shares the same basic DNA as the Midtown Community Court; each is a neighbourhood-based court that seeks to improve the local quality of life and re-engineer the relationship between the justice system and local residents’.

Nearly two decades since Midtown Community Court was established, there are now at least 70 community courts worldwide, including our own Neighbourhood Justice Centre in Collingwood, Victoria. Community courts ‘seek to address crime, public safety, and quality of life problems at the neighborhood level’. They are often multi-jurisdictional in that they cover a range of legal issues arising in the community, including some or all of family law, criminal matters and housing and tenancy, and a range of different support services are co-located at the court site, including job training, education, youth programs, mental health services, drug and alcohol programs, parenting courses and housing services.

Core characteristics of community courts are:

- they are focussed on problem solving in that they look at underlying reasons for offending and try to stop the defendant ‘revolving through the justice system’;
- they focus on alternative sanctions and the process is ‘as individualised as you can make it, rather than a

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352 Lee et al, A Community Court Grown in Brooklyn, above n 51. See Center for Court Innovation, Red Hook Community Justice Center – Overview (available at: http://www.courtinnovation.org/project/red-hook-community-justice-center); ‘More than 85 percent of criminal defendants report that their cases were handled fairly by the Justice Center – results that were consistent regardless of defendant background (e.g. race, sex, education) or case outcome’. See also Lucy Kennedy, ‘At Midtown Community Court, Justice with a Difference’ Chelsea Clinton News (8 November 2007), which refers to 51 year old Wayne Manning who had spent 30 years in and out of New York prisons for petty larceny directly related to his drug dependence. Instead of sentencing him to prison again, Judge Weinberg at the Midtown Community Court gave Mr Manning an opportunity to enrol in a drug program. The article cites Mr Manning saying that Judge Weinberg’s decision and the programs offered by the court gave him the confidence and structure to change his life.

353 See, eg, ibid; Center for Court Innovation, Dispensing Justice Locally: The Implementation and Effects of Midtown Community Court (2000) (Center for Court Innovation, Dispensing Justice Locally).

354 See Glen Berman, Principles of Community Justice, above n 351, 9.


356 Lee et al, A Community Court Grown in Brooklyn, above n 51, 1. See also Center for Court Innovation, Community Courts Around the World (available at: http://www.courtinnovation.org/research/community-courts-around-world?mode=4&url=research%2F4%2Farticle) for a list of community courts.

357 See Evaluating the Neighborhood Justice Centre in Yarra 2007 – 2009, which covered the pilot period March 2007 – 30 June 2009 and found: reduced reoffending (in comparison to offenders with the same profile from other courts, NJC offenders were 14% less likely to reoffend); increased compliance with court ordered community work (75% of people completed their court ordered community work, compared with a statewide average of 65%); for every $1 invested in the NJC, the expected return would range between $1.09 and $2.23; NJC clients reported very high levels of satisfaction with their experience of the NJC, compared to other courts and showed greater confidence in the justice system than at other courts; and since the establishment of the NJC, the crime rate in Yarra has reduced by 12% (residential burglaries are down 26% and motor vehicle theft is down 38%).

358 Quote from Judge Galabreze at the Red Hook Community Justice Center on 20 November 2013.
cookie cutter approach; 359 and

the courts are integrated into the local community through ongoing consultation, consideration of the community’s needs and developing opportunities for people in the community (‘[t]o establish such close ties to the community, a court must do much more than establish an advisory council of local residents or send offenders sentenced to community service out to paint over graffiti’). 360

New York City: Transform mural at the Red Hook Community Justice Center

**Procedural justice in action in the Red Hook Community Justice Center**

In the 1980s and 1990s Red Hook in Brooklyn was hit hard by drug use and gang related violence. In 1992 a school principal, Patrick Daly, was caught in gang cross-fire and killed. After discussion between Brooklyn judges and prosecutors about how to reduce the area’s drug crimes, and consultation to understand the needs of the community, the Center for Court Innovation designed the Red Hook Community Justice Center to hear misdemeanour matters from three police precincts. 361

An underpinning concept of the Red Hook Community Justice Center is the understanding that the presence of procedural justice (i.e. the defendant’s perception that the decision-maker has given them respect, has genuine motives and has acted neutrally) will strengthen their ‘commitment to obey the law’ 362

I had the privilege of speaking with and observing Judge Calabrese, the sole judge at Red Hook Community Justice Center since its inception, as he presided over the court. He reflected on a number of people who had been through his court, using their first names, and showed his photos of defendants graduating from the GED high school equivalency program. He spoke to people in his court with genuine respect and expressed confidence in

359 Ibid.
360 Lee et al, A Community Court Grown in Brooklyn, above n 51.
362 Lee et al, A Community Court Grown in Brooklyn, above n 51, 3.
their ability to make progress toward their goals of education, rehabilitation and employment.

Judge Calabrese explained what happens if people do not comply with the court’s order (for example, they do not attend their drug and alcohol treatment or appointments with a psychologist): ‘we’re not looking for a chance to send people to jail, if things don’t work, if they don’t comply, we ask why and try to make changes’.

Sonia Chowdhury, Program Associate, Technical Assistance with the Center for Court Innovation explained it as ‘a common sense theory, if you treat someone fairly, like Judge Calabrese does, they will be more satisfied with how the system is treating them and more likely to comply with the orders’.

In the short session I observed, the overwhelming number of defendants had complied with the court orders in relation to their engagement with services. This is confirmed by the evidence, which shows 75% of respondents in the Red Hook Community Justice Center comply with their orders, which is 50% higher than in comparable ordinary courts.

Judge Calabrese described it as ‘the blend of services and the power of the court’.

A comprehensive evaluation of the Red Hook Community Justice Center in 2013 found (amongst other things):

- **Increased use of alternative sanctions** – 78% of offenders received community service or social service sanctions, compared to 22% in comparable cases at the regular criminal court in Brooklyn;

- **Reduced recidivism** – adult defendants handled at Red Hook were 10% less likely to commit new offences than offenders processed in a traditional court (this figure was 20% for juvenile defendants); and

- **Cost efficiency** – after factoring in the upfront costs of operating the Justice Center, total resource savings in 2008 were $6,852,477; savings outweighed program costs by a factor of nearly 2 to 1.

Part 4.4 of this report discusses the strain placed on the court system by enforcement-based approaches to homelessness. It also discusses the Homeless Court Program in the US as a judicial response to the inefficiency and ineffectiveness of the traditional court system when dealing with people experiencing homelessness in relation to offences directly related to their homelessness.

In addition to being a judicial response to the overwhelming number of homeless people being brought through the court system in relation to minor offences, the Homeless Court Program is an innovative justice model that aims to deliver positive outcomes for participants and to ‘resolve the problems that homelessness represents with practical and effective solutions’.


364 Lee et al, A Community Court Grown in Brooklyn, above n 51, 5. Note that although the Red Hook Community Justice Center only used jail as a primary sentence in 1% of cases, when secondary sanctions were included (i.e. sanctions imposed when the defendant fails to fulfill a social or community service mandate), Red Hook ultimately sentenced 7% of its defendants to jail compared to 17% in the downtown court. Jail sentences at Red Hook were, on average, much longer than in the downtown court (64 days versus 15 days).

365 Lee et al, A Community Court Grown in Brooklyn, above n 51, 168–9. This was based on the cost-benefit analysis comparing the costs of running the Red Hook Community Justice Center (including rent, wages for staff, costs for partner services) compared to the benefits or costs avoided (including the value of community service and the costs avoided due to lower rates of reoffending). The total estimated costs for the Red Hook Community Justice Center and its community partners amounted to $7,500,000 during FY 2010, including $6,693,915 in fixed costs and an estimated $806,085 in variable costs. ‘We are able to estimate the costs avoided related to victimization resulting from reoffending. Offenders processed by the RHCJC demonstrated significantly lower recidivism for both property and violent offenses than their downtown counterparts … [T]hese differences in recidivism produced more cost-avoidance of victimization costs for the RHCJC relative to the downtown court for both property re-arrests and violent re-offending. The costs of typical property and violent crimes are based on estimates made by Waller et. al (2012). When victimization costs for property and violent offenses are combined, 3,210 offenders processed in the RHCJC will generate $15,266,760 in avoided victimization costs relative to a similar number of offenders processed at the downtown court’.

366 See Binder and Merriam, San Diego Service Provider Toolkit, above n 178, 3.
The foundation of the Homeless Court Program is ‘a collaborative effort to promote trust and confidence in the court while addressing community safety issues and removing legal barriers to self-sufficiency’. The courts are usually held at a shelter or community-based location which is familiar and accessible to people experiencing homelessness, rather than in the ordinary court room. The courts build partnerships between the court, the prosecutor, the public defender (or non-profit or pro bono legal service providers), local shelters, service agencies and participants experiencing homelessness.

In talking about the Homeless Court Program, San Diego County Judge, Hon Robert Trentacosta said:

Any judge who is being honest feels, at some point or another, a sense of “revolving door justice” when dealing with the kinds of cases associated with homeless people. Many homeless individuals have serious long-term problems, they are punished by the criminal justice system … and their problems don’t go away. Most of the time, those problems remain unaddressed. Homeless Court changes the model so that individuals who are interested in changing their lives can get assistance. From the court’s perspective, that works because we are able to address the real issues behind their individual situation or behaviours.

... if we keep doing the same thing and it isn’t working, isn’t it time to get realistic about solving the problem? That’s what the Homeless Court does … We’ve tried a “one-size-fits-all” approach with this population, and we’ve learned that one size doesn’t fit all. The Homeless Court takes extra effort from a lot of people, but if you can get a community member sober, working, educated, and law-abiding, that’s what the essence of justice is all about.

The Deputy District Attorney in San Diego articulates the ‘fundamental difference between the traditional court and Homeless Court’ as being ‘Homeless Court deals with people who have already changed their behaviour. In traditional court, we ask defendants to promise to change their behaviour with the threat of custody and fines – often getting mixed results. The people appearing before Homeless Court have overcome enormous obstacles … prior to the hearing’.

Safeguards or cautions

Innovative justice models allow the courts to play a role in contributing to a person’s reintegration into the community, recovery and/or rehabilitation rather than impeding this progress through ordering fines or prison sentences. At the end of the day, however, these mechanisms still involve the individual entering the criminal justice system. The section below considers the safeguards that need to be in place to make sure people experiencing homelessness are able to: engage with the legal process, including understanding their rights, obligations and options; access appropriate services that will have a meaningful impact on their circumstances; and avoid entering the justice system when they would be more effectively and efficiently dealt with by agencies other than the courts.

Available, appropriate services

Danielle Malangone, Associate Director, Training and Technical Assistance with the Center for Court Innovation said ‘a key philosophy is immediacy – people are linked with services the same day or the next day’. At the Red
Hook Community Justice Center and Midtown Community Court, service providers are co-located at the court and people are generally linked immediately after their court hearing.

This immediate access to services was identified by experts as a key component of the success of innovative justice models. One expert noted: ‘the existence of collaborative courts is premised on access to services. It’s critical that these services are in fact available and effective ... referring people to a waiting list isn’t doing them any favours’. He said: ‘We feel good if we “connect” people with services, but if that service isn’t genuinely available, we’re wasting people’s time’.

These comments highlight two critical aspects of court-based programs for people experiencing homelessness (1) the services need to be immediately available (in the current climate of cuts to social services this is not guaranteed); and (2) they need to be appropriate to the individual and their circumstances. Referring people with varied, complex circumstances to general supports is unlikely to play any meaningful role in addressing the factors contributing to their homelessness and related conduct.

Access to legal representation

Without legal advice and representation, it is incredibly difficult for people experiencing homelessness to engage with the complex legal system, to understand their rights, options and obligations and to have their circumstances put before the court. Access to free legal advice and representation is an essential component of court-based models for dealing with homelessness and associated conduct.371

The role of legal representatives is sometimes raised in relation to problem solving courts, including concerns that the courts undermine the role of defence lawyers as strong advocates and pressure defendants into making guilty pleas in exchange for treatment.372 Judge Calabrese has identified the importance of robust legal representation in problem solving courts:

The first thing that any problem solving court has to remember is that the Constitution comes first and problem-solving comes second ... I’ve seen other courts in the country that get roll-over defense lawyers. In Red Hook, our defense lawyers are not part of the team. What I love about Red Hook is that it is a really healthy court. The lawyers still go at it in court.373

Even therapeutic jurisdictions that aim to make orders that will assist the defendant in their recovery or reintegration into the community require access to legal advice and representation for people experiencing homelessness.

Legal representation is sometimes overlooked in the design of court-based models for dealing with homelessness for a variety of reasons, including: lack of resources to fund access to lawyers; and/or a sense that best efforts are being made by the court and/or the prosecutors to ensure a fair process with alternative sentencing, so legal defence is not necessary.

By way of example, when it commenced in 2013, Operation Minta (the operation targeting people begging in Melbourne) did not link the individuals with legal services to help them understand and navigate the court process. Similarly, access to legal representation has not been built into Operation Fennel, the City of London Police operation targeting begging in London, which involves an application for an anti-social behaviour order (ASBO) in the event that the individual does not engage with the services on offer and continues to beg in the city. The terms of the ASBOs can be very broad, including, for example, that the person must not enter the City of London for three years, and the consequences of non-compliance are significant (i.e. prison). Subject to merit

371 Sepúlveda, Report of the Special Rapporteur, above n 65, [82]. The Special Rapporteur concludes: ‘Access to legal representation is of utmost importance and underpins all forms of penalization of persons living in poverty. States shall ensure quality legal aid for the poorest segments of society, not only for criminal proceedings but also with respect to issues which are particularly relevant for persons living in poverty, such as social benefit appeals, eviction and child protection procedures’.
372 Perrotta, Innovative Brooklyn Court, above n 361.
373 Ibid.
(and the client’s instructions), the lawyer may try to have the application for the ASBO dismissed, but alternatively, they may request that its scope or timeframe is narrowed so that the respondent isn’t ‘set up to fail’. The legal representative may also be able to communicate to the police and the court any concerns about the operation of the ASBO, for example, that it excludes the respondent from an area that they need to enter to access health, familial or social supports that are vital to their recovery.

Legal representatives have an important role to play in conveying the respondent’s information to the court and the prosecutor, assisting the respondent to understand what they need to do to comply with court orders and what the consequences of non-compliance will be. For these reasons, even the best intentioned processes are likely to be flawed if the respondent doesn’t have access to a legal representative who can assist them to engage with the legal path they are taken down.

Avoiding unnecessary entry into the criminal justice system

A key aim of innovative justice models is to prevent recidivism through assisting the individual to address the underlying causes of offending, including homelessness, substance dependence or mental illness. In many cases, the courts play a role in linking people with health, housing or drug and alcohol services (or ordering that they be linked with these services), to help them address these circumstances. The Center for Court Innovation identifies that ‘in many respects, community courts seek to use a court appearance as a gateway to treatment’.374

The Center for Court Innovation is also open about the enforcement-based component of the community court, noting that one of the objectives is to ‘encourage the enforcement of low-level offenses [and to produce] an approach to low-level crime that was designed to “pay back” the victimized community, while addressing the underlying problems of defendants’.375 The recent evaluation of Red Hook Community Justice Center identified its success in motivating compliance through:

the increased use of alternative sanctions; a decrease in the probability of a “walk” without meaningful consequences; a reduced likelihood of a jail sentence; increased use of secondary jail sentences for initial noncompliance; stricter monitoring and enforcement of the court mandate; and an emphasis on procedural justice in the judge-defendant interaction.376

While considered court orders can undeniably play a role in shaping the conduct or engagement of defendants, we need to be mindful of the nature of many of the offences that have brought people before the court – they are by their nature largely focussed on ‘low level offences’.

One person before the Red Hook Community Justice Center when I attended was a 16 year old boy who had been arrested for jumping a turnstile at a train station. Although he was unquestionably treated with respect and provided with a tailored program which linked him in with education, he had appeared multiple times in a courtroom for this offence. Arguably, this young man was experiencing what Nahal Zamani, Advocacy Program Manager, Government Misconduct and Racial Justice with the Center for Constitutional Rights described as: ‘a forced introduction to the criminal justice system via tickets and arrests for minor offences’.

For other people, for example our client Scott who motivated this project, even tailored services mandated by a court with risk of harsher sanctions were not the best mechanism to address the underlying causes of offending. As discussed above in part 4.2, Scott’s public intoxication was a result of addiction, mental illness and homelessness and his interaction with the justice system – although via the specialist list set up to deal with people experiencing homelessness, mental illness and/or substance dependence – did not support his recovery.

These risks were identified when San Francisco first pushed for a community court based on the Midtown Community Court model. There was resistance to the proposal that quality-of-life crimes such as camping on

374 Berman, Principles of Community Justice, above n 351, 9.
375 Ibid.
376 Lee et al, A Community Court Grown in Brooklyn, above n 51, 9.
sidewalks, public urination and public drunkenness would be included in the court’s mandate because of the fear that people experiencing homelessness would be criminalised. The San Francisco Community Justice Center instead opted to focus the court on ‘more serious crimes such as drug dealing, shop lifting and car break-ins’.

As discussed throughout this part 6, there are a number of intervention points prior to a person being brought before the court at which they can be linked with services to address the underlying causes of their offending (in particular the point at which the person is identified engaging in problematic conduct in a public space and a decision is made about what action to take, including linking with outreach workers, delivering to a health-based service, arresting them or issuing them with a ticket or citation). When designing laws and systems to regulate the use of public space, we need to take a step back and consider whether the justice system is the system best equipped to deal with health and social problems. It is costly in terms of police and court time and it necessarily generates increased demand for free legal services. It can impose further strain on vulnerable people and it also provides an entry-point to the criminal justice system. For these reasons, we must consider whether even the most targeted, innovative, integrated court-based approaches are always the right mechanism for dealing with visible homelessness and its symptoms in our communities. While respectfully made, individualised court orders can have a positive impact on people, in many cases using earlier intervention points could prevent people entering the criminal justice system for conduct directly related to homelessness while still facilitating access to the services and supports needed to address the underlying causes of the conduct.

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377 See, eg, Heather Knight ‘5 years in, verdict is positive for S.F. community court’ SF Gate (5 March 2014); Bernice Yeung, ‘A court where solutions rule’ San Francisco Chronicle (12 August 2007).
378 Knight, above n 377.
## ANNEXURE – TABLE OF CONSULTATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>Organisation</th>
<th>Expert(s)</th>
<th>Date of consultation</th>
<th>Type of consultation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>LOS ANGELES, UNITED STATES</strong></td>
<td>Public Counsel</td>
<td>Lucy Fitzpatrick&lt;br&gt;Senior Staff Attorney&lt;br&gt;Homelessness Prevention Law Project&lt;br&gt;Eric Post&lt;br&gt;Staff Attorney&lt;br&gt;Homelessness Prevention Law Project</td>
<td>4 November 2013</td>
<td>Meetings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UCLA School of Law</td>
<td>Gary Blasi&lt;br&gt;Professor of Law Emeritus</td>
<td>6 November 2013</td>
<td>Meeting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skid Row Housing Trust</td>
<td>LaCheryl Porter&lt;br&gt;Housing Operations Director</td>
<td>5 November 2013</td>
<td>Meeting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inner City Law Center</td>
<td>Javier Beltran&lt;br&gt;Directing Attorney&lt;br&gt;Homelessness Prevention Project&lt;br&gt;Brett Terrell&lt;br&gt;Director of Advocacy&lt;br&gt;Harry Batt&lt;br&gt;Director of Development</td>
<td>5 November 2013</td>
<td>Meeting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>WASHINGTON DC, UNITED STATES</strong></td>
<td>National Law Centre on Homelessness and Poverty</td>
<td>Maria Foscarinis&lt;br&gt;Executive Director&lt;br&gt;Jeremy Rosen&lt;br&gt;Policy Director&lt;br&gt;Eric Tars&lt;br&gt;Director of Human Rights &amp; Children’s Rights Programs&lt;br&gt;Tristia Bauman&lt;br&gt;Housing Director&lt;br&gt;Janelle Fernandez&lt;br&gt;Law &amp; Policy Program Associate</td>
<td>14 November 2013</td>
<td>Roundtable, meeting and attendance at premier of youth homelessness film, Sugar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City</td>
<td>Organisation</td>
<td>Expert(s)</td>
<td>Date of consultation</td>
<td>Type of consultation</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
|     |              | Cheryl Cortemeglia  
Volunteer Attorney | 15 November 2013 | Meeting |
|     |              | Kirsten Blume  
Human Rights and the Global Economy Fellow |  | |
|     | National Alliance to End Homelessness | Nan Roman  
President and CEO | 8 November 2013 | Meeting |
|     | National Coalition for the Homeless | Jerry Jones  
Executive Director | 12 November 2013 | Meeting |
|     | Washington Legal Clinic for the Homeless | Patty Mullahy Fugere  
Executive Director | 13 November 2013 | Meeting |
|     | American Bar Association Commission on Homelessness and Poverty | Amy Horton-Newell  
Director | 14 November 2013 | Meeting and contribution to the *I Believe in Human Rights* blog |
|     | United States Interagency Council on Homelessness | Barbara Poppe  
Executive Director | 25 November 2013 | Teleconference |
|     | District of Columbia Metropolitan Police Department | Diane Groomes  
Assistant Chief |  | |
| NEW YORK CITY, UNITED STATES | Center for Court Innovation | Daniella Malangone  
Associate Director, Training and Technical Assistance | 19 and 20 November 2013 | Meetings (as part of attendance at Red Hook Community Justice Center and Midtown Community Court) |
| | Red Hook Community Justice Center | Sonia Chowdhury  
Program Associate, Technical Assistance | 20 November 2013 | Meetings and court attendance |
| | Midtown Community Court | Daniella Malangone  
Associate Director, Training and Technical Assistance | 19 November 2013 | Meetings and court attendance |
| | Center for Constitutional Rights | Nahal Zamani  
Advocacy Program Manager, Government Misconduct and Racial Justice | 18 November 2013 | Meeting |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
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<th>Date of consultation</th>
<th>Type of consultation</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Department of Homeless Services</td>
<td>Danielle Minelli Pagnotta (Director, Street Homelessness Solutions), Echo Bonner (Program Analyst)</td>
<td>18 November 2013</td>
<td>Meeting (including representatives from the New York Police Department Homeless Outreach Unit and the New York City Department of Parks &amp; Recreation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Picture the Homeless</td>
<td>Shaun Lin (Community Organiser), Numerous members</td>
<td>21 November 2013</td>
<td>Attendance at fundraising event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban Justice Center</td>
<td>Robert Gangi (Director, Police Reform Organizing Project), Libby Mathewson (Advocate, Safety Net Project)</td>
<td>22 November 2013</td>
<td>Meeting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vancouver, Canada</td>
<td>Pivot Legal Society</td>
<td>Douglas King (Barrister and Solicitor), DJ Larkin (Barrister and Solicitor)</td>
<td>27 and 28 November 2013</td>
<td>Meeting and attendance at homeless encampment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of York and Canadian Homelessness Research Network</td>
<td>Stephen Gaetz (Associate Professor, Faculty of Education Director, Homeless Hub (Canadian Homelessness Research Network))</td>
<td>25 November 2013</td>
<td>Teleconference</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vancouver Area Network of Drug Users</td>
<td>Aiyanas Ormond (Community Organizer)</td>
<td>26 November 2013</td>
<td>Meeting</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vancouver Police Department</td>
<td>Jodyne Keller (Constable, Homeless Outreach &amp; SRO Liaison)</td>
<td>27 November 2013</td>
<td>Email</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PHS Community Services Society</td>
<td>Tom Laviolette (Director of Project Development)</td>
<td>26 November 2013</td>
<td>Meeting and visit to InSite, supervised safe injecting site</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calgary Homeless Foundation</td>
<td>Meaghan Bell (Manager, Research and Policy)</td>
<td>20 February 2014</td>
<td>Email</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>London &amp; Edinburgh, United Kingdom</td>
<td>Joseph Rowntree Foundation</td>
<td>Kathleen Kelly (Policy and Research Manager – Homelessness)</td>
<td>3 December 2013</td>
<td>Meeting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heriot-Watt University</td>
<td>Suzanne Fitzpatrick (Professor/Director of Research Institute School of the Built Environment)</td>
<td>Dr Sarah Johnsen (Senior Research Fellow School of the Built Environment)</td>
<td>4 December 2013</td>
<td>Meeting and attendance at seminar on UK Annual Homelessness Monitors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City</td>
<td>Organisation</td>
<td>Expert(s)</td>
<td>Date of consultation</td>
<td>Type of consultation</td>
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<tr>
<td>St Mungo’s</td>
<td></td>
<td>Peter Cockersell Director of Health &amp; Recovery</td>
<td>5 and 10 December 2013</td>
<td>Teleconference</td>
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<tr>
<td>Broadway Homelessness and Support</td>
<td></td>
<td>Liz Blackender Team Leader City Outreach and Pan London Personalised Budgets</td>
<td>5 December 2013</td>
<td>Meeting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City of London Police</td>
<td></td>
<td>Mark Montgomery Police Sergeant Street Intervention Team</td>
<td>2 December 2013</td>
<td>Meeting and attendance at City of London Anti-Social Behaviour Interagency Working Group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crisis</td>
<td></td>
<td>Katharine Sacks-Jones Head of Policy and Campaigns</td>
<td>6 December 2013</td>
<td>Meeting</td>
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<tr>
<td>Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights</td>
<td></td>
<td>Caroline Avanzo Human Rights Officer Asia-Pacific Section Field Operations and Technical Cooperation Division</td>
<td>9 December 2013</td>
<td>Meeting</td>
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<tr>
<td>Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights</td>
<td></td>
<td>Benjamin Schachter Associate Human Rights Officer Human Rights and Economic and Social Issues Section Research and Right to Development Division</td>
<td>10 December 2013</td>
<td>Meeting</td>
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<tr>
<td>UN Human Rights Committee</td>
<td></td>
<td>Professor Walter Kaelin Member of the Human Rights Committee</td>
<td>12 December 2013</td>
<td>Meeting</td>
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<tr>
<td>UN Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women</td>
<td></td>
<td>Patricia Schulz Member of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women</td>
<td>13 December 2013</td>
<td>Meeting</td>
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<tr>
<td>Geneva Housing Court</td>
<td></td>
<td>Florian Irminger Civilian Judge</td>
<td>11 December 2013</td>
<td>Meeting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LYON, FRANCE</td>
<td>Fondation Abbe Pierre</td>
<td>Marc Uhr</td>
<td>11 December 2013</td>
<td>Meeting</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Alpil</td>
<td>Julie Clauzier Advocate</td>
<td>11 December 2013</td>
<td>Meeting</td>
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<tr>
<td>BRUSSELS, BELGIUM</td>
<td>FEANTSA, the European Federation of National Organisations working with the Homeless</td>
<td>Samara Jones Human Rights Policy Officer</td>
<td>16 December 2013</td>
<td>Meeting</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Freek Spinnewijn Director</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Cory Potts Criminologist</td>
<td>17 December 2013</td>
<td>Meeting</td>
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