

NATIONAL HABITAT III REPORT
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1. Background

The Resolution of the UN-Habitat Governing Council (HSP/GC/24/L.15) entitled *Draft resolution on inputs for and support to the preparatory process of the third United Nations Conference on Housing and Sustainable Urban Development (Habitat III)* invited member states to prepare, "...national reports taking into account the application of the Habitat II agenda and other relevant objectives and goals agreed internationally as well as the new challenges, new emerging trends and a future vision for sustainable human settlements and urban development as the base for formulating a 'New Urban Agenda' in accordance with paragraph 6 of General Assembly resolution 67/216" (paragraph 40).

As a consequence, this report describes urban development in Spain from 1996 and covers a period of almost 20 years.

Over a rich and extensive planning history, Spain has achieved magnificent examples of cities that are well equipped, planned and safe, served by multiple infrastructures with homes for their inhabitants and adapted to the time and place in which they were forged. For a long time – and even today – they have been and are the expression of vital improvement for many persons who condense their dreams of prosperity and social inclusion in them. This explains the important growth of the medium and large cities as well as the phenomenon of metropolitan areas that are the living example of the accelerated urbanisation process that exists on the planetary scale and which, according to all indices, will be maintained and even increased over the next few years.

However, today there is an awareness of the need to revise the traditional patterns for urban development and growth to face the new challenges and new needs demanded by human settlements both in the present and in the future. Challenges that are social because a city cannot be understood without its population. The way in which cities are built has a strong psycho-social impact and determines the form of being for persons as well as the guidelines for community relationships between its residents and between these and their leaders.

Challenges that are economic because it is essential to overcome the crisis and this is shown especially strongly in urban environments – social inequalities, difficult access to housing and to employment opportunities, insufficient energy, detachment from institutions, etc. The deficits connected with the challenges of sustainability, quality of life, governance and social cohesion make cities vulnerable environments which, in turn, make its inhabitants more vulnerable. Cities are therefore fundamental for facing new productive models and for offering answers to all of these problems.

The challenges are also territorial and environmental because cities consume important natural resources (among others, land) and have an enormous effect on the ecological footprint and the consumption of energy.

And finally, reference must be made to the cultural changes because cities are a reflection of the way of life of the population and of patterns of coexistence forged culturally over centuries. It must therefore be understood that there is a specific city model that includes Spain, known internationally as the "Mediterranean city" and that there are others, clearly different, as occurs with the English-speaking city model.

In short, urban structures are the challenge and so are the relationships that these can forge with the rural medium. The challenge consists of ensuring welcoming spaces for the communities that live in both, minimising territorial impacts and the environmental costs that occur and guaranteeing social cohesion. The current crisis is also an urban crisis and most of the solutions must arise from the city. The society of the future will be the result of what occurs in cities. These are the clearest and most convincing indicators of modernity.

The New Urban Agenda must be a set of proposals to face the specific challenges of urban development and a true programme in itself that must start to be applied as soon as possible to reach the necessary speed for facing the most important challenges of social organisation overall in the next few years.

2. Method for preparing the National Report

This report was prepared by the General Directorate of Architecture, Housing and Land of the Ministry for Development² in accordance with the uniform recommendations, directives and format proposed by UN-Habitat. It is therefore structured around the six key themes identified by that organisation:

- I. Urban Demographic: Issues and Challenges for a New Urban Agenda.
- II. Land and Urban Planning: Issues and Challenges for a New Urban Agenda.
- III. Environment and Urbanization: Issues and Challenges for a New Urban Agenda.
- IV. Urban Governance and Legislation: questions and difficulties for a New Urban Agenda.
- V. Urban Economy: Issues and Challenges for a New Urban Agenda.
- VI. Housing and Basic Services: Issues and Challenges for a New Urban Agenda.

The various sections also include the three required types of content:

- a) Descriptive: data on the evolution and current situation.
- b) Evaluative: lessons learned from both the evolution and the impact of the actions and measures taken.
- c) Propositional: future proposals or questions that must form part of the New Urban Agenda.

With regard to the working method, the report was prepared in four phases.

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Phase I: Collection of information (uninterrupted since March 2014). Standard questionnaires were sent to the ministerial departments with powers relating to the required information. This included the Ministry of Agriculture, Food and the Environment (MAGRAMA), the Ministry of Economics and Competitiveness (MINECO), the Ministry of Finance and Public Administration (MINHAP) and the Ministry of Health, Social Services and Equality (MSSSI). Information was also requested from experts related to each of the matters (all belonging to the Spanish Habitat Committee, SHC) and official documentary sources and specific reports from all authorities and from the United Nations were consulted. It should be noted that not all the sources or reports have the same updating level so that the report contains the latest available data from each of them.

Phase II: Preparation of the draft report (June 2014). The work was carried out by a technical team in the General Town Planning Sub-directorate with the collaboration of an expert from the Regional University of Madrid which forms part of the SHC.

Phase III: Analysis, debate and contributions on the draft (first fortnight of July 2014). This internal work was carried out by a reduced group of experts chosen from among the members of the SHC and representatives of the UN-Habitat office in Spain, who made suggestions and comments that were included in the draft before it was sent to all the members of the SHC (including those representing the Ministries mentioned above).

Phase IV: Inclusion in the final report of all contributions received from the SHC (August 2014). The writing of the Spanish Habitat III National Report was an experience of participation and the integration of the points of view of the various persons and sectors involved in the dynamics of urban spaces, in accordance with the governing principles of rigour and participation suggested by UN-Habitat.

3. National Habitat III Report

I. URBAN DEMOGRAPHIC: ISSUES AND CHALLENGES FOR A NEW URBAN AGENDA.

Introduction: demographic question.

Important changes have occurred in the demographic dynamics in Spain since the last National Report, presented in 1996, as well as a notable increase in the urbanised population. Specifically, in the period 2001 – 2011, the population increased by 14.6% according to the National Statistics Institute (INE), caused to a great extent by the increase in the foreign population (more than 3½ million in that period). This trend was maintained up to 2013, when a decrease of more than 3% inter-annually was seen in that population.

In parallel to this growth, a gradual ageing of the population also occurred together with the descent of the weight of the groups of the youngest age (partly due to the reduction of births and, in recent years, due to the growing emigration of young people). In fact, the average age of Spaniards has risen. While in 1999 it was 39.2 years, in 2011 it was 42.3 years (specifically, 43.7 for women and 41 for men).

Both features can be seen in the population pyramid (Figure I.1): a narrowing at the base and a widening higher up.

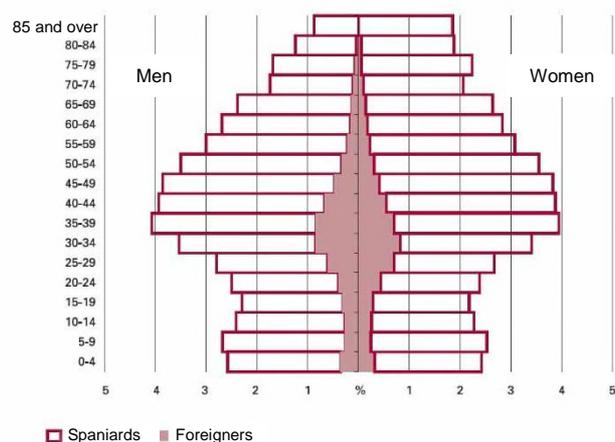


Figure I.1. Spanish population pyramid on 1 January 2013
Source: Anuario Estadístico de España 2014, INE.

With regard to the distribution of the population by age (see also Figure I.2), this has the following features.

- The 0 to 14 years age group has descended slightly by one percentage point since 1996. However, young people from 15 to 29 years have decreased from 24.49% of the total population in 1996 to 16.67% in 2012. By age groups, young people between 15 and 19 years have the least weight within the population structure (4.71%) while the 25 to 29 years group has the greatest weight (6.59%).

- The number of persons between 30 and 64 years has grown by eight points. In 2012 they represented 51% of the total population compared to 43.9% in 1996.

- The population with 65 or more years has grown by two percentage points since 1996, being 17.4% of the total population in 2012. In total, according to the latest provisional data published by the Census Statistics continuously from 1 January 2014, the number of persons aged 65 or more rose to 8,438,497, an increase of 216,301 persons in the last two years.

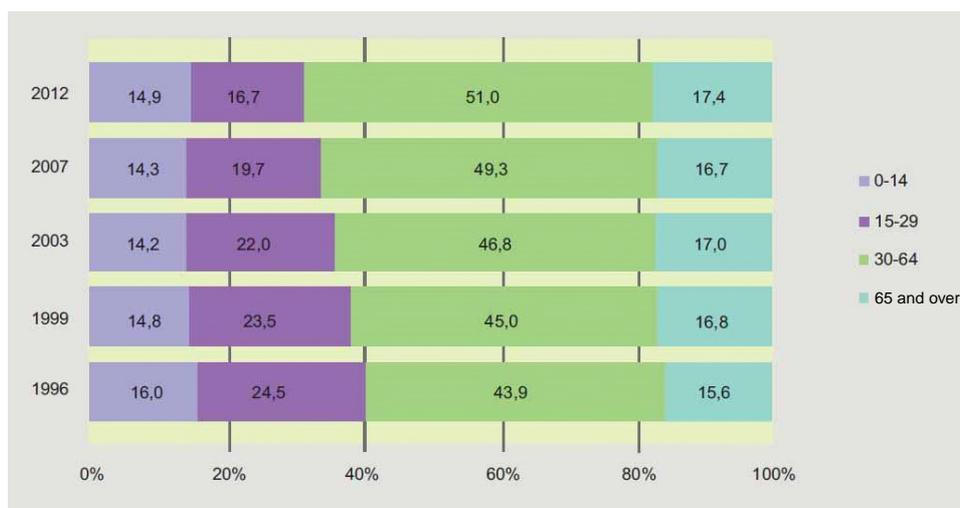


Figure I.2. Evolution of the Spanish population by age groups in the period 1996 – 2012 (in percentages).
Source: Informe Juventud en España 2012, INJUVE.

The forecasts for the next few years give the following variables (Figure I.3.).

a) In a little more than three years, it is foreseeable that there will be more deaths than births (something extraordinary that occurred in Spain only in the Civil War and in the influenza epidemic of 1918).

b) Since 2009, the loss of resident population is increasing as a consequence of the exterior migration balance. While immigrations are stabilising and tending to decrease, emigrations have grown since 2009. In fact, according to provisional migration statistics data from the INE, the immigration flow in 2013 was 291,041 persons while the emigration flow reached 547,890 persons.

c) Over the long term, a loss of 2.6 million inhabitants is expected up to 2022, to give about 44 million inhabitants.

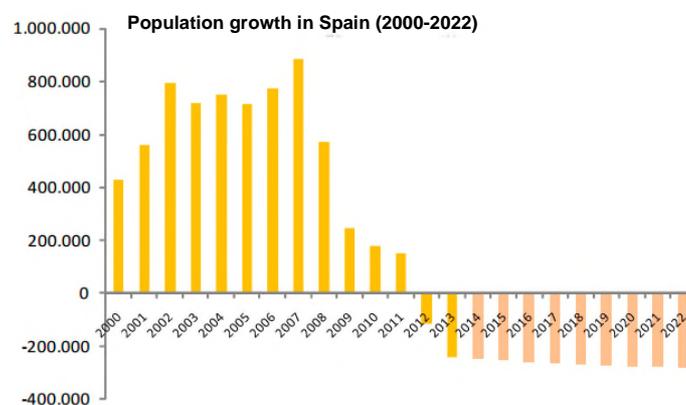


Figure I.3. Population growth in Spain (2000-2022). Source: INE.

1. Rapid urbanization process.

The UN confirms the unstoppable trend of the high concentration of the population in cities, something that gives rise to important social, environmental, territorial, economic and governance challenges. Currently, almost 50 per cent of the world's population is concentrated in them and it is forecast that in 20 years this figure will increase to 80 per cent.

Spain is no stranger to this trend and in the last 20 years has undergone a process of the centralising of the population in cities and in the metropolitan surroundings, very sensitive. Today, the population is concentrated in 20% of the national territory (to a great extent in cities) and 79.1% in municipalities with more than 10,000 inhabitants. Nevertheless, it should be stressed that it is the small urban areas that have undergone the highest growth rhythms (25% between 1996 and 2013).

With regard to non-urban areas, after losing population in the last decades of the 20th century in an identical period they have grown by 8% while the large urban areas grew by 18%.

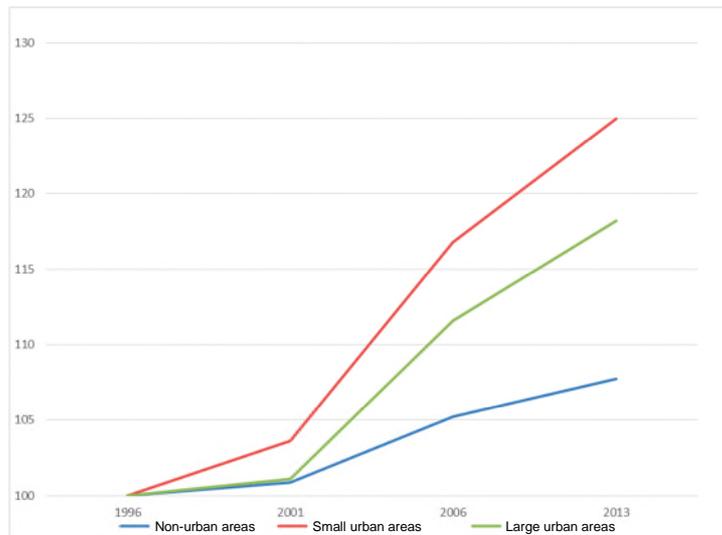


Figure I.4. Development of resident population in large urban areas, small urban areas and non-urban areas.
Source: Atlas digital de las áreas urbanas. Ministry of Development.

This urbanisation process brought prosperity, wealth, modernity and economic growth to the country for many years. But the urban policies generally did not know how to face the important challenges of a model that was remote from the conventional pattern of a compact and concentric city, typical of the Mediterranean city and of the necessary adjustment between supply and demand.

Royal Legislative Decree 2/2008, 20 June, approving the revised text of the Land Law, recognised that "the Spanish urban tradition has revolved fundamentally around production of new cities, decompensating the necessary balance between these actions and others that, aimed at existing urban areas, allow the intelligent intervention in cities, attempting to generate economic and social well-being and guaranteeing the quality of life for their inhabitants." For this reason, it proposed a change of model that must respond to "the requirements of sustainable development and encouraging the regeneration of the existing city."

The recent Law 8/2013, 26 June, on urban rehabilitation, regeneration and renovation, continues to work along this line and sets an ideal regulatory framework to make action on cities already built technically and economically viable. Its Preamble declares that rehabilitation is "the route to financial recovery through the reconversion of the real estate and construction sectors and also the guarantee of a sustainable and integrating model, both environmentally, socially and economically." All of this without forgetting that Spanish town planning legislation already also responds to the urban transformation of the land and to the building of new housing.

In brief, the urban development currently encouraged in Spain is based on a sustainable model to balance growth with the conservation and maintenance of what already exists, that maintains the essence of planning as an essential element to guarantee the correctness of strategic decisions, that strengthens the role of information as a reflection of reality for adopting important decisions for society and the country as a whole and, in brief, that takes into account the triple vision of sustainability – economic, social and environmental.

2. Connection between urban and rural areas.

The traditional separation between rural and urban areas has been reduced in the last 20 years to the point at which, currently, there is a certain continuity between both, encouraged by a clear trend to a greater overlap and interconnection between them. The factors that explain this phenomenon are as follows.

a) Economic interdependency. Cities need food, natural resources and industrial confirmations from the rural environment and the latter cannot survive without the urban markets, central services and communications networks that can reach the furthest interior markets and even markets abroad.

b) The search for mutual environmental sustainability. Rural and urban activities cause environmental impacts that affect both media. The occupation and changes of use of land, the contamination of water from urban, industrial and agricultural discharges, the conservation of natural environments and values and environmental resources linked to biological diversity have an extraordinary relevance for both areas.

c) Economic resilience at the national level. Economic activity is gradually concentrating in some regions, whose contribution to the GNP is proportionally greater, exceeding 50%. A qualitative improvement in urban and rural relationships would contribute to the priority objective of increasing the resilience of the development model for local communities, that is, their capacity to resist changes and convert crises into opportunities.

d) The creation of physical infrastructures for installing, renovating and/or enlarging information and communication technology resources. These resources have facilitated the overlap between rural and urban areas and have to a great extent compensated the trend of the former towards isolation.

The majority of the most developed countries in the world have specific rural development policies to improve the situation in these areas. This has occurred in the main European countries and in the European Union where the rural policy measures have formed a significant part of the Cohesion Policy and of the Common Agricultural Policy.

Spain has had a sustainable rural development law since 2007 that sets up measures and actions by the three levels of government to respond to the triple challenge of environmental sustainability, social cohesion and economic competitiveness in a rural medium that is increasingly diversified, including the following:

- The encouragement of socially just and viable development, both designed to face two of the great problems of rural areas in Spain, depopulation (endemic in certain provinces) and the ageing of the resident population.
- The promotion of sufficient agriculture, compatible with sustainable rural development, that pays preferential attention to the professionals in the sector and gives priority to the landholders. This does not preclude also encouraging economic

diversification such that, as well as the consolidation of the agricultural and food sector, attention is paid to improving food safety and supporting industry, commerce, tourism, etc. These measures, which are fundamental, involve maintaining and increasing the economic base of the rural medium through the preservation of competitive and multi-functional activities that must encourage and improve the commercialising of agricultural products and allow savings in costs and improvements in distribution. They also include diversifying its economy by incorporating new activities that are compatible with sustainable development and in accordance with traditions and with the conservation of natural and cultural resources in the rural medium, paying special attention to the challenges (in terms of the provision of public services) of the fluctuating population, that is, that which appears during holiday periods.

- The promotion of the access for the rural population to basic quality public services: health, education and culture. In this context, it is worth mentioning the long-life-learning strategy³ promoted by the European Union that consists of encouraging learning and the retraining of the adult population throughout life.

- The adopting of measures that make urban development compatible with the maintaining of the rural environment, facilitating access to housing, especially for young people, and favouring the recovery of the rural architectural heritage.

- The establishing of suitable environmental planning to protect the rural areas of highest value, encouraging measures to promote the production and use of renewable energies and encouraging efficiency, saving and the good use of water, especially with the modernising of irrigation systems.

- The encouragement of the use of information and communication technologies, completing and improving the telecommunications coverage.

3. Addressing urban youth needs.

The changes occurring in the urban and commercial fabric in cities and the distribution of activities have a great effect on the young and on their development. They affect their emancipation through access to housing, entry into the employment market, participation in public matters, leisure and enjoyment, education, greater or less autonomy and freedom, etc.

In Spain, the most serious problem that affects young people is currently unemployment. According to the Active Population Survey (EPA), the unemployment rate between the under 25s reached 53.1% in June 2014.

Regarding the specific relationships of the young with the urban phenomenon, the accelerated urbanisation that occurred in Spain in recent years, has changed the cultural and traditional patterns of the Mediterranean city. Current meeting and leisure places for these are mainly shopping centres, which have been become an alternative to the use of public spaces, above all in large cities, which are limited and oriented towards consumption and that are clearly different from public space strictly

³ http://ec.europa.eu/education/policy/vocational-policy/doc/helsinki_es.pdf

speaking, that is, those that have the instrumental function of connecting places, activities and people.

Regardless of the long road remaining to be travelled, interesting initiatives have been adopted in Spain in recent years to reinforce the participation of young people, to encourage entrepreneurship and to guarantee the social inclusion of the young, including:

a) The creation of the Youth Observatory to study and know the situation of young people in order to support the preparation of initiatives, programmes and specific policies for them. This instrument prepares and regularly publishes statistical data, opinion polls, studies and research on the young and periodically publishes the *Youth Studies Magazine (Revista de Estudios de Juventud)*, that discusses monographically the most important and current matters. For its part, the Institute for the Young, in collaboration with the regional governments, local councils and other institutions and associations, develops actions to provide young people with all types of information that may be of interest to them.

The "Youth Information Services Network" currently has more than 3,700 services, centres, offices and information points for the young located throughout Spain. Collaboration in youth information matters also extends to European networks such as the ERYICA (European Youth Information and Counselling Agency).

b) The promotion and support for association through the Institute for the Young with grants and technical support. This latter is carried out through the creation of youth associations and service provision organisations with national coverage, giving priority to programmes aimed at young people between 14 and 30, relating to activities connected to the youth association movement, to their emancipation and greater autonomy, to the promotion of solidarity and tolerance, to the protection of the environment, to healthy living habits, to social integration, to coexistence and education in values and to the development of leisure and free time activities.

c) The promotion of entrepreneurship, again undertaken by the Institute for the Young. The 2013 – 2016 Young Entrepreneurship Strategy (still in the implementation phase) is designed to improve their employability, increase the quality and stability of work posts and promote equal opportunities. Some of the instruments that are already have been created are:

- The "XL Launch" social network (a fast, agile and dynamic platform that encourages entrepreneurial culture) and the National Competition for Young Entrepreneurs.

- The micro credits programme to finance business projects.

- The National Youth Guarantee Implementation Programme, that awards the permanent employment of young people below 25 who are unemployed and neither study nor work.

d) The optimisation of the residential resources to protect children and adolescents

through the 2013 – 2016 National Action Plan for Social Inclusion (PNAIN). This provides specific specialisation actions in residential centres, the strengthening of the figure of educators and the implementing of unified quality standards criteria.

4. Responding to the needs of the aged.

Spain has one of the highest life expectancies in the EU. In women this is 85 years and in men, 79.2. The elderly represent 30.52% of the total population and of these, somewhat more than 2.5 million are 80 or more years old.

The demographic and social changes and this ageing of the population are causing a progressive increase in the number of persons in a situation of dependency and, in some cases, of vulnerability⁴, aggravated by two circumstances, the ageing of the ageing, that is, the increase of the population older than 80 years (which has doubled in just 20 years) and the increase in the survival rate of persons with certain chronic illnesses.

The attention to this group of the population is therefore becoming a challenge for society overall and especially for the authorities. Already in 2002, under Spanish presidency, the European Union defined three criteria for governing the dependency policies and systems of member states, the implementation of which requires "*universality, high quality and sustainability over time.*"

In Spain, Law 39/2006, 14 December, on the provision of personal autonomy and attention to persons in a situation of dependency, was a considerable step forward by regulating the basic conditions for promoting personal autonomy and attention to persons in a situation of dependency through the creation of a System for Autonomy and Attention to Dependency (SAAD) in which all authorities with competencies in the matter collaborate and participate. A personal right was established based on the principles of universality, quality and accessibility and a model was developed for integral attention for the beneficiary. Additionally, since 1992, a gerontological plan and an action plan for the elderly were started and have been updated over time.

The following measures adopted should be emphasised:

a) Resources to support dependency and for gerontological support.

Annually, the IMSERSO (Institute for the Elderly and Social Services) compiles information provided by the regional governments, the cities of Ceuta and Melilla and the Basque Country provincial councils relating to social services aimed at the elderly. Notable among these are⁵:

⁴ Spanish Red Cross bulletin number 8 shows how longevity is accompanied by greater social vulnerability when a series of risk factors coincide, such as insufficient income level, loneliness, health problems, accidents, disability and dependence, low educational level and family responsibility caused by the precarious nature of the living conditions of children and grandchildren in the crisis context.

⁵ All the data mentioned were obtained from sources from the Ministry of Health, Social Services and Equality.

- Home care services:

- The Home Care Service (HCS from now on) grew by 94% between 2000 and 2011 (the number of users grew from 197,306 to 382,575). Currently, the coverage index for this service (users/population > 65 years) * 100) for all of Spain is 4.65, with women making up 64% of the users and persons over 80, 52%. The average national age of the user is around 80.

- The Telecare Service has also undergone important growth in the last decade. If in 2000 the number of users was 79,267, by 31 December 2011 this figure had multiplied by more than eight to 692,462 users. The coverage index increased by more than seven points (from 1.13 to 8.42) and a greater percentage of women was also seen (70.48% of the total) while the distribution of persons of advanced age compared to the youngest is more balanced (persons over 80 are 62.43%, with 56.83% being elderly living alone). The average age of users is 81. The public price is €287.25 per year and although many local councils provided and continue to provide it freely, a slow increase can be seen in the co-payment system.

- Other home care services provided by regional governments, provincial councils and local councils such as meals and/or laundry at home, loans for updating the home, aids for family carers and technical assistance.

- Daytime care services:

- Centres for the elderly that carry out leisure and cultural activities and promote social relationships, active ageing and social participation. In December 2011 it was estimated that the 3,610 Spanish centres had 3,140,257 places (coverage index of 38.20).

- Day centres for the dependent elderly providing daytime psycho-social care services to avoid the elderly leaving their usual home and being uprooted to a strange environment. In December 2011 there was a total of 88,036 places distributed in 3,027 centres (coverage index of 1.07).

- Residential care services:

- Residential centres have undergone important growth since 2001 when there were 215,156 places in 4,158 centres, meaning that 3.06% of the population over 65 had a residential place. On 31 December 2011, the number of places was 372,628, an annual average increase of 14,316 places. Of the places available in the centres, 25% are public, 29% are financed with public funds in private organisations and the remaining 40% are private places.

The users of these residential centres are mostly persons of advanced age, over 80 (66%) with an average age of around 82. The average admission age is 81, 83 for women and 84 men.

- Homes for the elderly. These are centres with 15 or fewer places. They are becoming an alternative that allows the elderly to live in more familiar environments that are more similar to their homes. In December 2011, the offer of places in this type of home was 10,416.

b) Promotion of participation and association through the State Council for the Elderly, which channels its initiatives and demands to the central government, proposing strategic lines and priorities for action, collaborating in the perfection of the association movement and organising congresses for the elderly, encouraging compliance with its conclusions.

Finally, Spain participates in the Global Network of Age-Friendly Cities as an experience of commitment and activation of these policies.

c) Measures to guarantee universal accessibility.

Universal accessibility plays an important role in guaranteeing a model of "independent life" and greater autonomy for the elderly. Law 51/2003, 2 December, on equal opportunities, non-discrimination and universal accessibility for the disabled (LIONDAU) introduced the concept of "universal accessibility" understood as the condition that must be met by environments, products and services so that they are understandable, usable and practical for everyone.

This Law, recently modified by Royal Legislative Decree 1/2013, 29 November, approving the revised text of the general law for the rights of the disabled and their social inclusion, is also joined by other basic state standards that help to guarantee universal accessibility in cities uniformly throughout the country, including:

- Royal Decree 505/2007, 20 April, approving the basic conditions of accessibility and non-discrimination for the disabled for access to and the use of urbanised public spaces and buildings.
- Order VIV/561/2010, 1 February, developing the technical documentation for basic accessibility conditions and non-discrimination for access to and the use of urbanised public spaces.

d) Other lines of urban action focused on the elderly: the promotion of active ageing.

The life expectancy is increasing and the conditions in which advanced ages are reached are also better. Today, the elderly are fundamental pieces in family support and not only from the economic point of view (basically since the crisis) but also, and above all, in relation to the care of grandchildren. Policies and cities must be adapted to this reality.

Currently, the IMSERSO is leading a continuous line of work to design policies in favour of active and healthy ageing, all in coherence with the actions started during the European Year for Active Ageing and Solidarity Between Generations (2012), as well as the declarations of the Council of Europe regarding "guidelines for active ageing and Solidarity between generations" of 6 December 2012.

Finally, actions that the 2013 – 2016 National Action Plan for Social Inclusion described in the "Elderly persons" section can be included here. Notable among these is the preparation of a statute taking into account the quality of treatment, non-discrimination and encouragement of personal autonomy, the design of policies contemplating the entire life cycle, favouring active ageing and, in collaboration with the Third Sector for Social Action, promoting services that enable the elderly to remain at home and in their social and family environments.

5. Integrating gender in urban development.

Progress in gender equality in Spain as a result of the process of change in values is somewhat proven. However, the effective application of equality between men and women requires a projection of that principle onto various transverse ambits of social, cultural, economic and also urban realities that also requires the deep involvement of society.

According to a survey carried out by the European Parliament in 2012⁶, 32% of the persons consulted in Spain thought that gender inequality was a very serious problem and 47% that it was a somewhat serious problem (the averages of European persons surveyed were 15% and 37%, respectively, to both questions). That is, despite all the progress, there is still work to be done, as shown by the following data.

- In terms of income, employment and conciliation, women earn an average annual salary that is 22% less than that of men, 19,502 euros compared to 25,001 euros.
- 15.2% of women have an income that is less than or equal to the minimum inter-professional salary which is 641.2 euros per month, while this percentage drops to 5.6% for men.
- Among those unemployed due to taking care of children, 82.2% are women. For periods of more than one year, 7.4% of employed men have left work after the birth of a child, a figure that rises to 38.2% for women.
- A female pensioner receives an average of 597.21 euros per month while the average pension for a male is 971.92.⁷

According to data in the *European Quality of Life Survey, 2011*, 69% of Spanish interviewees considered that it was very difficult to conciliate family responsibilities due to the time dedicated to paid work, while this percentage was 42% in Denmark and 46% in Finland, to give some examples.

In this ambit, a wide range of measures have been developed seeking to implement a true policy of equality in Spain. Notable at the regulatory level is Organic Law 3/2007, 22 March, for the effective equality of men and women, and the Royal

⁶ http://www.europarl.europa.eu/aboutparliament/es/00191b53ff/Eurobarometer.html?tab=2012_1

⁷ National Statistics Institute, *Mujeres y Hombres en España, 2012*. For further data, see <http://www.inmujer.gob.es/estadisticas/portada/home.htm>

Decree developing it that includes measures and plans for equality in companies as well in matters of the prevention of sexual harassment.

Mention must also be made of the creation of the State Observatory for Violence Against Women as the inter-ministerial body responsible for advising, assessing and preparing reports and studies as well as proposing specific actions, in permanent collaboration with the rest of the institutions involved.

Finally, the 2013 – 2016 Strategic Equal Opportunities Plan includes among its priorities equality between men and women in employment and in the fight against salary discrimination, the conciliation of personal, employment and family life and joint responsibility in the assumption of family responsibilities and against gender violence.

The planned actions notably include:

- The implementation of the “Programme for the social and employment insertion of women victims of gender violence,” considering women victims of gender violence as a preferential group in agreements for collaboration to promote and encourage the employability of unemployed women, signed by the Ministry of Health, Social Services and Equality and the regional authorities⁸ and
- The improvement of the social and employment participation of women in the rural ambit, programming training actions to promote a greater and better incorporation of women into economic activity through employment and self-employment and the social viability of their municipalities, giving value to cultural diversity and counting on the collaboration of local organisations⁹.

6. Challenges experienced and lessons learnt in these areas.

In the last 20 years, Spain has undergone an intensive urbanisation process which initially led to major economic growth based above all on new construction, accompanied by high standards of quality and well-being for its population. There was also a notable increase in the urbanised population and the fading of differences between the urban and rural media.

However, the mismatches produced in this growth model caused negative effects on the country's economy – high unemployment rates, increased poverty and inequality, difficulties to access or retain homes, etc. This was also joined by a relevant environmental cost.

The Spanish demographic dynamics also shows worrying signs. There is a net negative vegetative growth and a slow and systematic increase in the ageing of the population. Various types of urban populations have also appeared, notably single-parent families, and emigration has increased as a consequence of the economic crisis. These emigrants today are different to those of other times and most of them are young persons with a considerable educational level and professional capability.

⁸ PNAIN 2013-2016, page 46.

⁹ PNAIN 2013-2016, page 43.

Meanwhile, the policies for equality between men and women have not managed to overcome the gap that still separates them and those for the specific care of the elderly and the protection of children have suffered as a consequence of the new budgetary stabilisation scenarios.

In this process, of light and shade, a different city has emerged and the main lesson learned is that both this and the urban spaces must be planned and built thinking of the well-being of the public, in improving its quality of life and in social cohesion.

The cities of the future must also respond to the growing social and cultural diversity, promoting equal opportunities and social equality and recognising and valuing the various needs and capabilities expressed by the public. For this, there is nothing better than improving the central urban environments through the regeneration and rehabilitation of urban spaces and buildings, correcting the deficits of habitability and urban environmental quality and redesigning productive, commercial and services structures, mixing uses and achieving compact cities that cut distances, that connect dispersed and isolated districts with their urban centres and that encourage the intelligent, safe and accessible city.

Urban policies must of course have an integrated character and combine territorial and urban solutions with economic, environmental and social ones.

7. Future challenges and issues on urban demographic that could be addressed by a New Urban Agenda.

Aspects understood as necessary for inclusion in the principles for a New Urban Agenda, relating to the urban demographic difficulties, are:

- The planning instruments and the procedures for creating a city must comply with their own objectives. They must also facilitate and encourage the effective participation of the public.
- Planning policies must be integrated in nature and must combine the solutions in the territorial, economic, environmental and social ambits.
- The social aspects that deserve greater protection are those that fight to reduce inequality, poverty and social exclusion. The most vulnerable groups need special attention - the elderly, women, children and the young, the disabled, etc.
- Public space must be recovered as a space for coexistence and a fundamental axis on which urban social life is articulated. In this point it is necessary to connect the dispersed and isolated districts with their urban centres, building and making viable axes connecting the peripheral and central urban areas.
- Countries with a dynamic of progressive growth of the aged population must prepare themselves sufficiently beforehand for the changes that this reality will cause in their economic/productive, social, participative, care and, of course, urban systems. The city, and above all its most central districts, in which there is a wide offer of easily accessed services, is very attractive to the elderly. Planning must suitable reflect a friendly and appropriate city and homes with uses and building

types and accessible public equipment to guarantee them an autonomous and active life.

II. LAND AND URBAN PLANNING: ISSUES AND CHALLENGES FOR A NEW URBAN AGENDA.

Territorial and urban planning consists of the instruments that arrange the territory and urban development, jointly resolving the spatial, environmental, social and economic aspects and minimising the negative effects that may arise in each of the specifically considered territories.

8. Ensuring sustainable urban planning and design.

Territorial and urban planning as the means to arrange and control the use of land has a long history and tradition in Spain, much longer in the case of urban planning in relation to territorial planning but important in both cases. The latter is starting to be relevant, fundamentally after the approval of the territorial zoning directives and plans of the regional authorities, once these took on the exclusive competences in matters of town planning and land zoning as recognised in the Spanish Constitution of 1978 and in the relevant Regional Statutes.

According to data from the Ministry of Development, currently most of the regional authorities have land zoning instruments (on regional or sub-regional scales) and more than 5,324 municipalities have general planning instruments, 65.6% of the total. Only 1,542 municipalities (19%), all with small populations, do not currently have any planning, not even an urban land delimitation project.

However, this important planning profusion, also joined by almost 100 national and regional town planning laws and regulations, has not been sufficient to guarantee the main objective for both town planning and land zoning - sustainable urban development. For decades, the Spanish town planning model has, as described below, featured the urbanising and building of a new city.

Aware of these problems, the Land Law 8/2007, 28 May, now converted into the revised text of the current Land Law of 20 June 2008, developed the contents of the so-called "Principle for sustainable territorial and urban development," which requires public policies for regulating, zoning, occupying, transforming and using land, the rational use of natural resources that harmonise with the requirements of the economy, employment, social cohesion, equal treatment and opportunities, health and safety of persons and the protection of the environment.

Many other instruments detail the same commitment for sustainable urban development, including the Spanish Strategy for Urban and Local Sustainability (EESUL), based on the Thematic Strategy on the Urban Environment (ETEMAU, January 2006, and the Spanish Strategy for Sustainable Development (EEDS, November 2007), the White Book on Sustainability in Spanish Town Planning (2010), the Methods Guide for Systems for Auditing, Certifying or Accrediting Quality and Sustainability in the Urban Medium (2012) and, of course, the recent laws on

Environmental Assessment (December 2013) and Law 8/2013, 26 June, on urban rehabilitation, regeneration and renovation. This last law, national in nature, seeks the necessary balance between the actions for generating new cities and those others oriented at existing urban fabrics. It proposes sustainability on the urban medium requiring sufficient provision, an efficient land occupation model and a functional combination of uses that especially guarantees:

- Reasonable cost and time in mobility.
- Universal accessibility for private and public buildings, spaces for public use and public transport.
- The efficient use of resources and energy, preferably own generation and the introduction of renewable energies.
- The prevention and minimising of the negative effects of urban wastes and noise pollution.

This same development can also be seen at the European level. The Leipzig Charter on Sustainable European Cities contained the consensus reached on urban sustainability matters (2007). Later, the European Reference Framework for Sustainable Cities, RFSC, set the objectives of the Leipzig Charter. Finally, the Toledo Declaration (2010), promoted by the Spanish Presidency, set the basis for integrated urban regeneration signed by all the ministers responsible for urban development in the EU member states.

9. Improving urban land management, including addressing urban sprawl.

The growth of urbanisation has caused remarkable and momentous changes in land occupation despite which, according to data from the Spanish Land Occupation Information System (SIOSE)¹⁰, the proportion of artificial land over the total land area in Spain reached only 3.7%. A great demand has also been generated for infrastructures, costly to both build and maintain, despite the recognition that they contribute to economic and employment growth in Spain, to its competitiveness, to the process for regional convergence in income during the period analysed and the conversion of the country into a modern country on the same level as the countries around it.

10. Enhancing urban and peri-urban food production.

The so-called urban agriculture is related to central questions of sustainability and with resources for mitigating the effects of climate change. It also forms part of the strategic debates on the agenda of international organisations such as the FAO, which connect it with food security and sovereignty¹¹.

Thus, the use of products from nearby places increases in relevance, that is, nearby agriculture, which also has much to do with the rural form of life. This does not only

¹⁰ <http://www.siose.es/siose/>

¹¹ (FAO, 2010: Climatically intelligent agriculture. Policies, practices and financing for food security, adaptation and mitigation. Ed. FAO, 2010.
<http://www.fao.org/docrep/013/i1881s/i1881s00.pdf>.

mean the availability of spaces in urban or peri-urban areas for agricultural production, the most typical example of which are urban farms, but also a strategic agricultural plan to guarantee the production, industrialisation and distribution of food from nearby surroundings.

Urban farms and other agricultural initiatives of all types have appeared timidly in the last 20 years within and around cities or through public groups which, spontaneously or promoted by neighbourhood associations or organisations, use unused interstitial plots or urban spaces for these purposes.

However, despite this phenomenon, there are no significant strategic plans that promote the production of food in short circuits and near urban centres. These plans, that could allow a higher level of food security and sovereignty in cities, are the true strategy for urban sustainability, relating to increased food production in urban and peri-urban areas.

11. Addressing urban mobility challenges.

Mobility guarantees access to goods, services and persons. The design and layout of cities, as far as they contain the main decisions for locating housing and all types of activities, condition mobility, consumption patterns, the quality of life and the main environmental aspects of pollution and noise.

The demand of space for private cars over the last 20 years has generated a growing occupation of public space by traffic and parking to the detriment of other urban uses and functions. Systematically, legal town planning standards include the number of obligatory private parking spaces as a function of the square metres of buildable ceiling allowed by the plan, something included in town planning laws as a real standard of "quality." Further, in many cases, large transport infrastructures cause a barrier to relationships between urban and rural areas.

Today, the urban space occupied by private vehicle mobility is higher than 50% while the share for journeys in that mode is much less in the main Spanish cities, with public transport, together with journeys on foot and on bicycle reaching more than 65% of journeys in cities such as Madrid and Barcelona (up to 85% in the latter city). There is a greater trend in metropolitan areas to the use of private vehicles although the growth in demand of urban and metropolitan public transport passengers has been very important in the last 20 years.

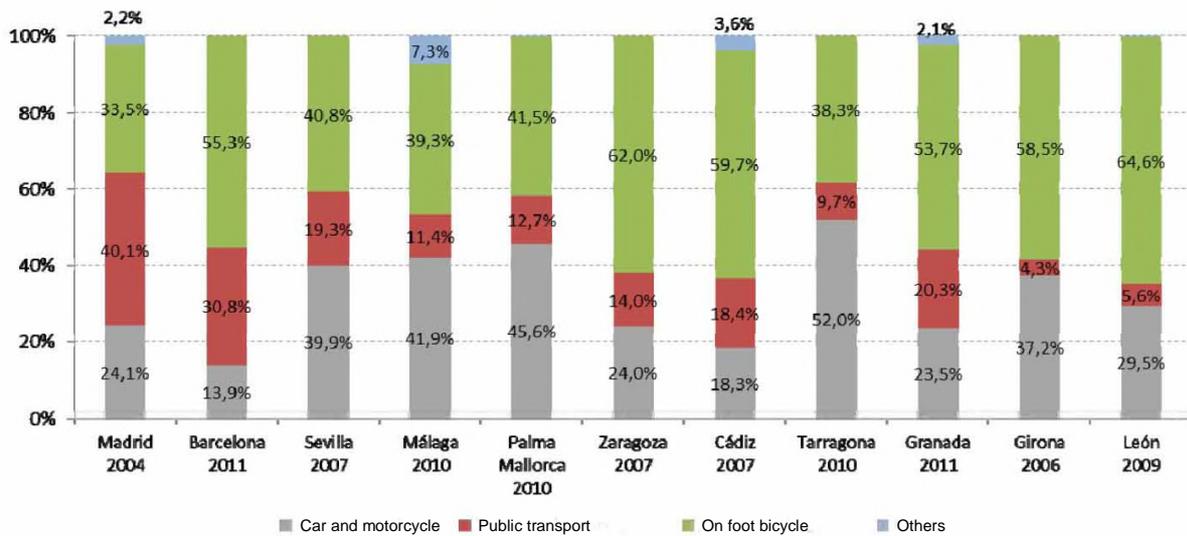


Figure II.3. Share of travel modes in the main Spanish cities. Source: OMM report (Metropolitan Mobility Observatory) 2011.

Public urban passenger transport exceeded 2,800 million annual journeys in 2012 although a general reduction has been seen in mobility in all cities since 2010, fundamentally due to the economic crisis.

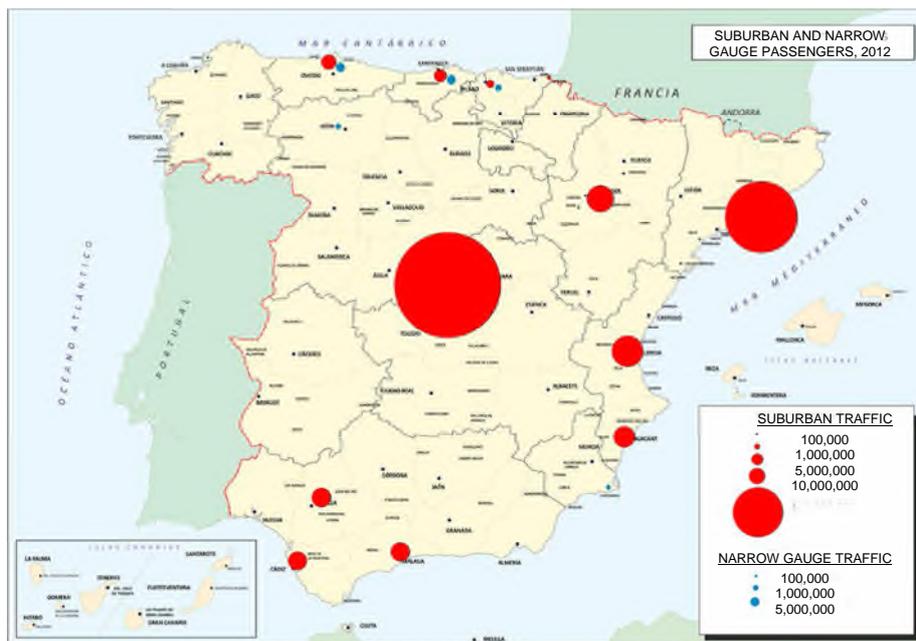


Figure II.4. Annual journeys in nearby nuclei. 2012. Source: PITVI 2012-2024.

Any urban mobility strategy designed to solve the conflicts raised by the city must be transverse in nature and must seek a sustainability which is overall (environmental impacts), local (proximity impacts) and social and economic (consequences on social and economic structures). It must also encourage inter-mode mobility, that is, a suitable mix of means of transport as well as a good quality of life and environment.

Nevertheless, it is the very models of spatial organisation and centres of activity (commercial, administrative, etc.) in the urban space that generate the main demands for mobility. Aspects are required of these such as the distance between the various uses that form the everyday framework of the public, the energy factor,

pollution, etc. It is also these models which, in the first instance, must reduce the number of journeys and demands for movement, much more than determining the number of means of transport that exist and how to guarantee their inter-mode nature.

Mobility plans have been implemented in recent years in almost all municipalities with more than 50,000 inhabitants (from which they have had financing from the 2008-2012 Energy Efficiency Action Plan, undertaken in collaboration with the regional authorities). These plans include access control measures and parking in urban centres, the improvement of the offer of various modes of public transport and interchanging, the development of deterrent car parks in stations or stops on the edges of cities or in the metropolitan area and measures to encourage mobility on foot and on bicycle through the construction and/or reserving of spaces and the removal of architectural barriers, among other relevant aspects.

Law 22/2013, on the national budget, included the application of a mechanism to assess energy efficiency criteria when granting government aid to public transport systems. From 1 January 2014, any aid or grant to regional or local authorities for urban or metropolitan public transport is conditional (to 5% of the assigned amount) on the availability of the appropriate sustainable mobility plan.

More recently, the 2014-2020 National Energy Efficiency Action Plan, presented to the European Commission in April 2014, promotes sustainable mobility plans that must achieve important changes in the share-out of modes, greater participation from the most efficient modes to the detriment of the use of private vehicles with low occupancy and the encouragement of modes that do not consume fossil fuels such as walking and the bicycle. This same sustainable mobility is promoted through the Infrastructures, Transport and Housing Plan, PITVI (2012-2024) which is designed to make its economic and social effects compatible with respect for the environment.

Identical proposals can also be found in the regional authorities and in local councils. In fact, some of these have even achieved international recognition such as has occurred with the cities of Rivas-Vaciamadrid and Vitoria, both finalists for the 2014 European Commission best sustainable urban mobility plan and integrate social, economic and ecological criteria. The Barcelona Urban Mobility Plan (PMU 2013-2018), for example, aims to reduce mobility energy consumption and CO₂ emissions by 20%, from 788.2 tCO₂/year to 630 tCO₂/year. Other cities such as Madrid and Zaragoza place the emphasis on increasing society's awareness and awarding prizes to recognise work in favour of sustainable urban mobility. Meanwhile, the city of Santander has developed a Smart City and urban mobility project that manages local traffic in real time (means of passenger transport, surface car parks free, etc.) and helps to improve the air quality in the city and to reduce unnecessary journeys.

12. Improving technical capacity to plan and manage cities. Review of public intervention instruments.

Public participation in general (the general public, companies, social and economic agents) and that of the three levels of government (national, regional and local) is guaranteed by regulations in Spain in both town and territorial planning. Both also include environmental aspects since they are subject to the so-called Strategic

Environmental Assessment and all sectorial elements (water, coasts, infrastructures, etc.) that are involved in their ambit of application. They therefore form a long and complex process involving numerous competences and interests.

Access to the information available only to the various horizontal and sectorial organisations that must participate mandatorily in the process of the gestation of a planning or management instrument is one of the main problems as well as the cause, to a great extent, of the unpredictability and inaccuracy in terms of time that usually accompany them. The technologies of the new knowledge society and the use of telematic means for planning and managing cities is still neither internalised nor generalised.

The planning must combine well defined environmental, economic, territorial and social objectives. Rigour in planning and in the rationality of the process, coherence between objectives, measures and results, the provision throughout the implementation process of the chosen model, the assessment of its implementation throughout its development and real public participation are crucial, as is the achievement of operational and flexible planning instruments that can quickly and effectively adapt themselves to a living and changing reality.

Work remains to be done in this point. The planning instruments must respond to the new challenges raised by urbanism that demand new or at least renovated instruments.

The report commissioned by the Government Commission for Economic Affairs (CDGAE) in August 2013 from an inter-ministerial working group to analyse the regulations governing activities subjected to environmental and town planning control to simplify and guarantee their consistency and proportionality and the suitable coordination between the various authorities involved, detected various challenges in relation to this matter:

- Coordination of the macro and microscopic focus of planning, that is, the supra-municipal instruments with the local ones.
- Achievement of greater uniformity between the types of plans, approval periods, sectorial reports to be considered, organisations providing the relevant approvals, etc., between regional authorities.
- The rationalisation of the scheme of the sectorial reports and their effect on the planning procedures and even on their orientation.
- Assessment and suitable monitoring of the plans once approved and put into practice to detect problems and to propose solutions as as soon as possible. This also requires a quick and flexible procedure for modifying and reviewing these plans.
- The achievement of real public participation and the involvement of the public as a group in the model of the city. This objective is also accompanied by the incorporation of the telematic means offered by the information society at the service of town planning and the interrelationship between the authorities and the public. Of special interest in this point is the Green Book of Urban and Local Sustainability in the Information Era, prepared by the Ministry of Agriculture, Food and the Environment in 2012.

Meanwhile, Law 8/2013 on urban rehabilitation, regeneration and renovation insists that the actions to improve existing cities must start from an integral vision that combines physical rehabilitation with environmental sustainability (energy efficiency), well-being and social cohesion and revitalisation and economic diversification.

13. Challenges experienced and lessons learnt in these areas.

Land urbanisation generates impacts and involves changes in the natural, economic and social media which, most of the time, are irreversible in nature. Hence it should be preceded by suitable planning that takes into account an overview – as wide as possible – of the features of the chosen site, the existing risks, the needs to be covered, the type of urban fabric involved and the environmental, economic and social impacts to be expected.

Because of this, it is critical to establish criteria that operationally define the requirements of the sustainable urban development model as a reference for social, economic and environmental sustainability and its application to the control of urban development and city planning. These must pay special attention to at least the following, among others:

- a) The importance of the site. The physical, social and cultural elements that affect it must be assessed. Firstly, the exposure to natural and man-made risks and secondly, the elements that condition the extension (with the idea of limiting urban sprawl), building, location of uses and other factors, whether these are technical limitations or due to the existence of elements of heritage interest (natural or cultural) that must be preserved.
- b) The territorial fit of urban development. The development must be in permanent dialogue with the biophysical matrix of the existing territory in terms of connectivity and of functional and morphological continuity. This will result in a compact, concentric and multifunctional model, elements which define the model of sustainable urban development in the EU.
- c) The suitable control on the consumption and efficient use of land.
- d) The prior assessment of the demands on planning. Planning must consider the needs in the area under consideration: equipment and infrastructures, housing, productive spaces, green areas and free spaces, etc. The developments must respond both to the needs for new spaces and to the solving of the deficits in those that already exist.
- e) The promotion of the endogenous local resources. It is necessary to make an inventory of the resources offered by the area being studied in terms of water, energy and food and material resources. This could result in the greatest possible self-sufficiency.

14. Future challenges and issues on land and urban planning that could be addressed by a New Urban Agenda.

The demands and requirements of the generalised commitment to sustainable territorial and urban development must be defined and assumed, which would need:

1. Including the explicit commitment to find a suitable balance between attention to the existing city and to new developments. This requires paying equal attention to the new development actions and to those of urban rehabilitation, regeneration and renovation.

2. Promoting the public and private group commitment to encourage urban change for sustainability in its three aspects – social (promoting social cohesion), environmental (promoting efficiency to reduce the environmental impact of the city) and spatial (favouring the development of compact cities and stimulating the creation of complex cities). This requires:

- Developing territorial and urban planning instruments that take into account an environmental and prior sustainability strategy and that are inserted in a vision shared with the supra-municipal policies (for infrastructures, the protection of natural and cultural spaces, etc.). These instruments must respond to the challenges of the 21st century and where there is a long history and traditions, such as is the case of Spain, they must be reformulated to attend to the new needs that are arising without forgetting the importance of planning as a local element that promotes the recognition of the community identity ties.
- Planning cities on the principle of self-sufficiency and the reduction of distances, because this allows the number of journeys to be reduced, promoting a much more efficient energy consumption and guaranteeing a better quality of life.
- Incorporating sufficient provision of green infrastructure as true spaces for public coexistence and enjoyment.
- Caring for and stimulating quality practices and actions in architecture, landscaping and detailed planning, starting with the compliance with regulatory requirements but proposing advanced and innovative solutions that favour the principles of sustainability and quality of cities.
- Setting up mechanisms for assessing and monitoring the progress of planning and the environmental impact of urban development. For this, models can be designed that are standardised and transferable for whatever the scale on which they are applied.
- Generating a wide public participation that is fully integrated in the urban planning and management processes.

III. ENVIRONMENT AND URBANIZATION: ISSUES AND CHALLENGES FOR A NEW URBAN AGENDA.

Urban development is possibly the factor with the greatest environmental impact ever imagined, arising from human activity. The city is the scenario in which the greatest amount of natural (including land), energy and material resources are transformed. The planet is already fundamentally urban and in the cities, the most important challenges are played with for a suitable balance between persons, their culture and the environment. The recovery of this balance is strategic given the gradual exhaustion of conventional energy resources and the increasing degradation of ecosystems.

This section refers to the indicators that describe the environmental impact of the city and its ecological footprint (emissions of greenhouse gases) as well as the challenges arising from the environmental quality of urban environments – air quality, traffic congestion and the scarcity of energy resources.

15. Addressing climate change.

Climate change is connected to the culture and energy model of societies. The progressive adoption of a model that makes cities scenarios that contribute to a more efficient use of natural sources and material goods, because of their metabolism and growth dynamics, will help to minimise the environmental impacts. The city must therefore be the starting point for the process of changing towards a new energy culture and in which the relationship between climate change, resource consumption (not only energy but also land is a limited natural resource) and the degradation of ecosystems is taken into account. In general terms in Spain, there has been a reduction in the consumption of primary energy since 2007.

From 1996 to 2007, economic growth and energy consumption went hand in hand with the energy sector improving its environmental efficiency from 2007.

According to the Green Book (promoted by the MAGRAMA), energy consumption in the residential sector accounts for 15.9% of the total energy consumed in the country. Table III.2 shows the percentage distribution of energy consumption by activity sectors.

Activity sector	Percentage
Residential	15.9%
Industry	33.3%
Transport	38.8%
Services	9.2%
Agriculture	2.8%

*Table III.2. Energy consumption by sectors (2009).
Source: Green Book (page 429) 2012. Ministry of Agriculture, Food and the Environment.*

In turn, according to the IDAE, energy consumption in homes increased by 68% in the period 1990-2009 and the emission of greenhouse gases attributable to energy consumption in the home increased by 30.2%, from 13,961 kt Co₂ equivalent in 1990 to 18.174 kt Co₂ equivalent in 2009.

Regarding the emissions of pollutants to the air, mainly of CO₂, which must be reduced drastically in the next few years (Figure III.2), this has also descended since 2006 (except for 2011 in which there was a slight increase).

The origin of the reduction in 2008 and 2009 lay in the combination of two factors, the change in the distribution of fuels used to generate electricity (with a strong drop in coal consumption) and the effects of the recession arising from the economic/financial crisis. The increase in 2011 was caused by the increased consumption of coal in power stations, among other causes, despite the reduction of consumption of fuel for road transport and in the residential and services sectors and the reduction in activity levels in important industrial sectors. With the latest available data, from 2012, the greatest rate of greenhouse gas emissions is due to the energy sector which together accounts for more than 77% of total emissions, as can be seen in Table III.1.

Activity sector	Percentage
Energy (including transport emissions, among others)	77.5%
Agriculture	10.6%
Industrial processes (excluding combustion activities which are included in the energy sector)	7.5%
Wastes	4.0%
Use of solvents and other products	0.4%

*Table III.1. Emissions participation of various activity sectors.
Source: Perfil Ambiental de España 2012. Ministry of Agriculture, Food and the Environment.*

A large number of measures have been adopted over the last 20 years, both direct such as planning to make the Kyoto Protocol commitments effective, and to incorporate the regulations arising from the European proposals connected with the so-called 2020 Horizon into Spanish legislation. All these measures have been designed to orient Spanish energy policy towards the challenges of climate change on the basis that the largest proportion of greenhouse gas emissions is caused by the activity of the energy sector and, on the other hand, to decouple the growth of the economy from energy consumption.

Law 54/1997, 27 November, on the electrical sector, introduced the concept of indicative electrical planning – except with regard to electrical transport installations – that were bound to state planning. The basic purpose of this framework is the triple and traditional objective of guaranteeing a quality electricity supply, at the lowest possible cost and protecting the environment. The Spanish Energy Saving and Efficiency Strategy, approved in November 2003, was designed to reduce energy consumptions, contribute to improving competitiveness in the industry and to reduce pollution. Later, the 2005-2007 Action Plan of the Spanish Energy Saving and Efficiency Strategy, The Renewable Energies Plan for 2005-2010 and the National CO₂ Assignment Plan for 2005-2007 were approved.

Law 9/2006, 28 April, for assessing the effects of certain plans and programmes on the environment, transposing Directive 2001/42/CE, required the planning of the electricity and gas sectors and their mandatory subjecting to the process of Strategic Environmental Assessment. The later PNA 2008-2012 contained the objective of limiting the growth of emissions to 37% of the base year, covering the difference between this figure and the Spanish commitment of 15% using flexibility mechanisms (20%) and sinks (2%).

The Spanish Strategy for Climate Change and Clean Energy, 2007-2012-2020 horizon, contains 198 measures to ensure the objective of reducing greenhouse gas emissions, preserving the competitiveness of the Spanish economy, employment and energy supply. Notable is the chapter dedicated to clean energy which sets the objective of reducing energy consumption by at least 2% annually in relation to the usual scenario.

Meanwhile, Law 8/2013, 26 June, on urban rehabilitation, regeneration and renovation, regulates the building assessment report as a necessary instrument for all residential buildings more than 50 years old and its contents include the requirement of the certification of their energy efficiency. Meanwhile, the 2013-2016 state plan to encourage rental and rehabilitation provides public grants to encourage the preparation of this report and the undertaking of energy rehabilitation work in the housing stock.

Finally, on 30 April 2014, Spain presented its 2014–2020 National Energy Efficiency Action Plan to the EU to comply with the objectives to improve energy efficiency imposed on all ambits by energy efficiency Directive 2012/27/EU. It also announced the creation of a National Energy Efficiency Fund created by a Royal Decree Law, approved on 4 July and which has an annual budget of 350 million euros, to start investment projects for improving efficiency in residential, tertiary, industrial, agricultural, etc., buildings. As an appendix to this National Action Plan, a “Long-term strategy for energy rehabilitation in the building sector in Spain” was also presented to the EU to comply with article 4 of Directive 2012/27/EU which requires member states to set up a long-term strategy for mobilising investments in the renovation of the national residential building and commercial stock, both public and private. As well as the above, and as part of the community obligations, the Communication of the Spanish State was prepared to comply with article 9 of Directive 2010/31/EU, 19 May 2010, on the energy efficiency of buildings, called the “National plan to increase the number of buildings with almost zero energy consumption in Spain.”

16. Disaster risk reduction.

Disasters may occur from both natural and technological causes. In the first case, they are the consequence of the interaction in space and over time of a natural phenomenon and of the vulnerability of the place in which they occur. In the second, human integration is basic and the causes may be found in certain types of activities – industrial, the transport of dangerous goods, etc. In both cases, these episodes cause not only an important loss of human life but also serious damage to economic, social and environment property in the country and their seriousness arises from the indicators of damage produced.

In Spain, the magnitude of natural disasters cannot be compared to that of other regions of the planet although on a smaller scale each year there is a varying number of persons affected and fatal victims arising from them. The most relevant environmental risk factor is usually related to the floods typical of the Mediterranean climate, the bad design of methods for prevention or control and, in the case of technological accidents, the deficient location or planning of the management of certain dangerous activities.

According to data from the Ministry of the Interior, the number of fatal victims of natural disasters in Spain between 1995 and 2012 was 1,056. A total of 304 victims (28.8%) were caused by floods, followed by deaths on land caused by sea storms, a total of 222 (21.0%). Storms (lightning and strong wind) caused 183 victims (17.3%), forest fires, 124 victims (11.7% of the total) and heatstroke, 107 victims (10.1% of the total).

In recent years, important measures have been adopted for preventing the risk of natural disasters through urban and territorial planning. Law 6/1998, 13 April, on the regime for land and valuations, required local and regional authorities to classify all land subject to "natural risks accredited in the sectorial planning" as non-developable and of "special protection" (and, as a consequence, impossible for any type of urban development). Later the Land Law of 20 June 2008 reinforced this basic rule with two new limits:

- it requires the preparation of "maps of natural risks" for all the areas in which urban development is foreseen with this requirement being inserted in the procedure for the environmental assessment of the development plan that contemplates such actions.
- The inclusion of technological risks or those arising from other serious accidents together with "natural" risks and with the same regime.

To facilitate the preparation of the natural risks maps, the Ministry of Development provided all local councils with a "Guide to methods for preparing the natural risks maps," published in 2008. In addition, since 2013, the maps showing risks of flooding and of earthquakes have been included in the Ministry of Development Web site, of free access for any member of the public, to improve urban planning. And of course, the relevant emergency and civil defence plans are in force. Perhaps the remaining matter, due to the small size of the risks in Spain as mentioned, is the absence of public communication and training campaigns for risk situations.

17. Reducing traffic congestion.

The communications media often describe the millions of hours lost in traffic jams by the inhabitants of any urban conglomeration, to which must be added other negative effects such as the accident rate, the high energy cost, pollution, noise, etc.

The disturbance of public spaces caused by excessive vehicles, pollution and noise results in notable losses of the opportunities for communication and socialising that are typical of streets in Spanish cities (known throughout the world precisely for these properties).

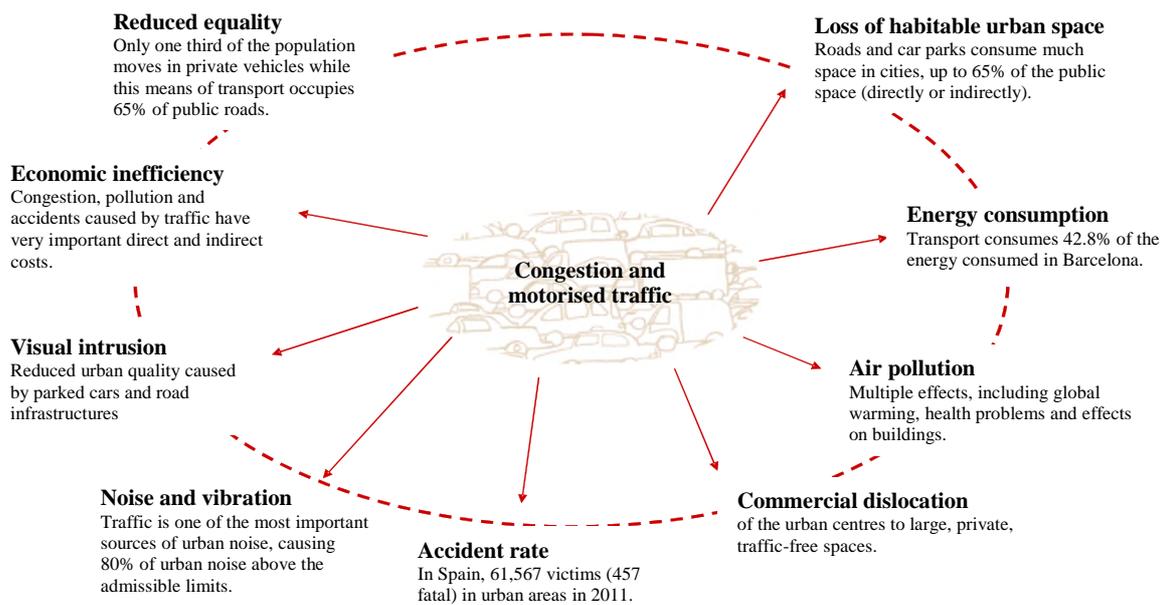


Figure III.4. Effects of traffic on urban life. Source: Agencia de Ecología Urbana. Barcelona.

The energy consumed directly by the transport sector in Spain represents more than 40% of the total, above the industrial, residential and commercial sectors (*Source: IDAE*). This value is for direct consumption and requires additional energy consumptions in the manufacture and maintenance of vehicles and infrastructures. Therefore it can be estimated that the country's mobility needs account for about half of the final energy demand.

Transport has been one of the sectors making the highest contribution to the increased emissions of greenhouse gases in the last 20 years, as shown in Figure III.5. In fact, it represents 25.7% of total emissions (direct emissions from traffic without including emissions from manufacture or from the building and maintenance of the infrastructures it needs).

In the urban ambit, transport represents more than 80% of pollutant emissions of which 79% are in turn from cars. Again with the available data (2010), if air pollution caused 310,000 premature deaths per year in Europe, 16,000 were in Spain (only 5%); three times more persons die from air pollution than from traffic accidents and almost 11 times more than from occupational accidents.

Traffic is the main source of the emissions of nitrogen oxides and particles (PM10), with cars being responsible for most of them. With regard to noise, it is estimated that 74% of the Spanish urban population is affected by traffic noise and that 23% is submitted to unhealthy levels according to the WHO.

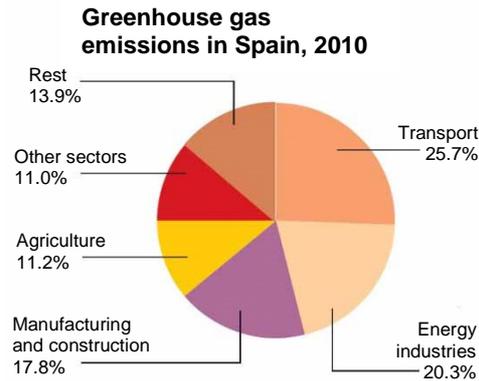


Figure III.5. Greenhouse gas emissions by sectors. Source: España en cifras 2013, INE.

On the other hand, in 2013, inter-urban roads caused 994 fatal accidents in which 1,128 persons died and 5,206 were seriously injured. The number of accidents and victims is reducing each year (13.3% fewer than in 2012) as a consequence of the great efforts being made by the authorities to reduce the accident rate. (Source: Ministry of the Interior).

A wide set of proposals has been developed to combat the problems generated by the presence of private cars in the urban dynamics (some of these have been described in the section on urban mobility). In fact, the problem of movements is a central matter in urban and environmental policy. This change of course requires the setting up of a new mobility culture that must be aimed at achieving a series of interrelated objectives, notably:

- Reducing the dependence on cars, increasing the opportunities of alternative means of transport and increasing the autonomy of social groups without access to a car.
- Reducing the impact of motorised movements and preventing the expansion of spaces that depend on the car.
- Reconstructing proximity as an urban value and recovering coexistence in public space.

18. Air pollution.

At the end of the first decade of this century, various national reports¹² warned of the risks arising from the urban air quality in Spain, particularly in those areas in which the limits set by European Directive 2008/50/CE relating to ambient air quality and a cleaner atmosphere were exceeded. To give one example, in 2010 the mandatory limits for carbon dioxide in Madrid, Barcelona, Valencia, Granada, Palma de Majorca and in the areas of the Lower Nervión and Baix de Llobregat were exceeded. The main cause of this situation was directly related to road traffic. Only in the last two places was it related to industrial activity.

¹² Green Book of Urban and Local Sustainability (chapter VIII, on air quality) and EESUL.

Spain provides annual air quality information to the European Commission to comply with Directives 2008/50/CE and 2004/107/CE. The requirements of the political commitment to air quality are based on article 45 of the 1978 Spanish Constitution and the regulations recently adopted by the Spanish government include Royal Decree 102/2011 on estimated values that obliges the Spanish authorities to assume responsibility for assessing and monitoring air quality. In 2012, to comply with the requirements of that Royal Decree, the air quality was assessed for various pollutants – sulphur dioxide (SO₂), nitrogen dioxide (NO₂), nitrogen oxides (NO_x), particles (PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5}), lead (Pb), benzene (C₆H₆), carbon monoxide (CO), ozone (O₃), arsenic (As), cadmium (Cd), nickel (Ni) and benzo(a)pyrene (B(a)P). The results from the data generated by the regional, local and national air quality systems were:

- a) The situation regarding SO₂ improved over the previous year. Neither of the two legislated limit values was exceeded.
- b) With regard to NO₂, some of the main metropolitan agglomerations exceeded its but the number of these showed signs of reduction.
- c) The positive trend of previous years for particle concentration (PM₁₀) was maintained with a slight reduction regarding exceeding VLD compared to 2011.
- d) Tropospheric ozone continued to show high levels in suburban and rural areas due to the strong sunlight and the maintaining of the emission levels of its precursors (NO_x and volatile organic compounds). However, the number of areas in which the target objective for protecting health was exceeded improved.
- e) The limit values (LVs) for lead, benzene, carbon monoxide and PM_{2.5} particles were not exceeded nor were the target values set As, Cd and benzo(a)pyrene. The target value set for Ni was exceeded occasionally.
- f) The Mean Exposure Indicator (MEI) for PM_{2.5} particles was 3.5% below that of the previous year. (The reduction target for 2020 is 15%.)

2013 was declared the "Year of the Air" with the presentation of the 2013-2016 National Air Quality and Atmosphere Protection Plan. This plan includes a series of measures designed to improve air quality, covering the entire country. With the collaboration of the regional and local authorities involved, it encourages measures to act against more generalised air quality problems so that the legally set values are respected. All of this has two purposes, to protect the health of persons and the environment and, formally, to comply with Directive 2001/81/CE on national ceilings for the emission of certain air pollutants.

The main challenge in the next few years is precisely how to make this plan effective. It will require adopting sectorial preventive (instead of palliative) measures that improve air quality especially in the case of the atmosphere over large urban areas (which must necessarily include private vehicles). Horizontal measures will also be necessary, that is, those that act on information, awareness, administration, research and taxation.

19. Challenges experienced and lessons learnt in these areas.

As described above, the dynamics and functioning of the urban habitat contain elements that have a great impact on the environment. The first lesson learned is that an integrated treatment is necessary for the various problems that arise in the urban medium.

The city is a collection of interrelated elements and it is not possible to disassociate the problems of mobility and traffic from climate change and air quality. An integral treatment is therefore necessary starting from the beginning, that is, with the very planning of the city and with the strategic environmental assessment of the very model proposed. Reducing distances, returning to the model of the compact city, awareness of the limitation or otherwise of natural and energy resources, avoiding risks, etc., must form an essential part of this planning.

Taking into account the data and the framework of the general policy for the fight against climate change, the main challenge is the strategic objective of achieving cities that are CO₂ emissions neutral (that is, that the energy used is produced with renewable systems, offering a final balance of zero emissions of greenhouse gases). It is necessary to react to reduce these emissions not only to comply with the objectives imposed by Europe but also to palliate as far as possible the possible consequences of climate change in both time and intensity. For this purpose, it will also be necessary to design adaptation strategies that provide more precise knowledge of the main vulnerabilities, their possible effects and their long term costs. A country in which a large part of the economy is linked to a sector such as that of tourism cannot remain on the margin of the analysis of the possible consequences of climate change on its economy, of the increased price of energy resources that make transport possible, or on the care of its own natural heritage – coasts, forests, etc., among other aspects.

For the Green Book of Urban and Local Sustainability in the Information Age, prepared by the Ministry of Agriculture, Food and the Environment in 2012, the main measures for mitigating climate change are:

- The development of more energy efficient urban and territorial models based on the Mediterranean type of city, compact, with good densities and a mixture of uses.
- The setting of new energy saving urban and inter-urban mobility models.
- Reducing energy consumption in the residential, industrial, commercial and institutional sectors by promoting passive energy saving, the adopting of energy efficient measures and changes in the behaviour of the public.
- The replacement of energies that emit greenhouse gases with renewable energies as far as possible.
- The implementation of a waste management model with lower greenhouse gas emissions.

- The reduction of the consumption of drinking water by improving the efficiency of the system, changing consumption habits, installing saving devices and encouraging the use of unconventional water sources (rain, grey water, etc.).
- Encouraging carbon capture by forest ecosystems, protecting the existing ones, reforestation and the sustainable forestry management of woodland.

The Green Book also identifies measures for adapting cities to climate change, including:

- Reducing storm water run-off and preventing or reducing flood damage to buildings and infrastructures.
- Integrating periods of extreme drought into the planning of the management of watersheds.
- Adapting buildings bioclimatically including architectural measures and those that affect design, orientation and insulation.
- Naturalising urban areas and developing green urban corridors and infrastructures as well as promoting a greater relationship with the ecosystems in the surroundings of cities (especially with protected natural spaces).

20. Future challenges and issues on environment and urbanization that could be addressed by a New Urban Agenda.

A reference must be included to all the commonly accepted environmental and territorial sustainability indicators for urban development. The city and the modes of creating cities must be permanently compared and, in this aspect, at least the following questions must be taken into account.

- The priority challenge consists of promoting the ecological balance both within the city and in relation to the city with the surrounding territory since it is necessary to consider the environmental costs arising from key aspects of urban development and inefficient energy costs.
- The city is a strategically decisive scenario for the fight against climate change. Both mitigation and adaptation measures must be implemented and started up in and from the city.
- Local authorities must form part of the programmes planned to progressively replace greenhouse gas emitting energies with renewable energies. In this respect, the transfer of the experiences of some local authorities in Spain has great value as well as the fact that this is facilitated by participation in supra-municipal networks for fighting against climate change.
- A higher level of energy autonomy and self-sufficiency is necessary in cities. It is necessary to insist that not only must energy saving patterns be promoted (to reduce energy demand) but the offer model must also be changed, encouraging distributed and decentralised energy models as a resource to reduce energy insufficiency and to reduce the dependency of cities.

- Air quality is a crucial element in the environmental quality of the city and, therefore, each one must define and prepare its own air quality strategy, including the listing of preventive and palliative measures.

- It is essential, on the one hand, to require the preparation of "natural risks maps," as is the case of Spanish legislation, for all ambits in which urban development is planned and, on the other hand, to prepare safety plans for dealing with other technological risks and serious accidents.

IV. URBAN GOVERNANCE AND LEGISLATION: ISSUES AND CHALLENGES FOR A NEW URBAN AGENDA.

The regulation and control of the use of land with a prior planning system has a long tradition in Spain which started, from the legislative point of view, with the Land Law of 1956 and that was established in practice, gradually, from the Land Law of 1976. The role of local authorities in this planning and, as a consequence, in the governance of territory - understood as the political and institutional processes through which decisions are taken and implemented - has been of key importance.

The regional authorities played a fundamental role in both fields after the assumption of exclusive town planning competencies through their regional statutes, but it was above all from 1998, when the block of town planning regulations we currently know and that form the framework of the current urban governance and legislation started to be managed.

21. Improving urban legislation.

To speak of these improvements requires distinguishing two aspects. On the one hand, there is that relating to town planning legislation itself (already referred to in point 8 of section 2 of this report) and, on the other hand, that relating to the culture of public policies (especially in the municipalities) aimed at integrating urban objectives.

With regard to the first perspective, and without wishing to repeat matters already discussed, it is obvious that the complex Spanish regulatory framework can be improved. The search for greater simplicity, flexibility and understanding lies at the base of the improvement attempts being put into practice in recent years by both regional and local authorities. However, it is understood that this matter is essential on the national scale and, because of this, on 29 August 2013, the Government Commission for Economic Affairs adopted an agreement to create the inter-ministerial working group to analyse the regulations for activities subjected to environmental and town planning controls to simplify them, guaranteeing their consistency and proportionality and suitable coordination between the various authorities involved, seeking to reach a balanced and efficient legal framework.

The results of this working group were included in the final report presented to the CDGAE on 17 July 2014 that included proposals of various types and specifically

identified 42 measures for improvement, 14 of these being transverse (to optimise environmental and town planning procedures) and 10 of them directly applicable to the ambit of town planning procedures. Among these 10, the following can be identified as challenges:

- The approval of a programme for regulatory rationalisation with the consensus of all regional authorities and in which the Spanish Federation of Municipalities and Provinces (FEMP) also collaborated.
- The achievement of a certain uniformity in those town planning aspects that are identical throughout the country regardless of who has territorial competencies.
- The promotion that the legal security and preventive controls have the necessary effectiveness on procedures.
- The guaranteeing of flexibility and greater facility in modifying planning so that it can be adapted to a changing reality.
- The rationalising of the scheme for mandatory and binding sectorial reports that are determinants for the town and territorial planner's decisions.
- The gradual replacement of certain licences and authorisations with responsible statements that allow an *ex post* control of those actions that have lesser territorial relevance. This will be the case of works to rehabilitate existing buildings or authorising the first use or opening of them.

From the perspective of the integration of urban objectives in public policies, it is the local councils who exercise these to the greatest extent, always within the area of their competencies and with the budgets available to them, since these are authorities closest to the public and, as a consequence, those which better know its needs.

22. Decentralization and strengthening of local authorities.

The Spanish Constitution endows local authorities with “autonomy for the management of their respective interests” but, unlike that which it provides to the regional authorities and central government, it does not provide a specific list of competencies for them.

Currently, the government is working on the restructuring of the local public sector, the immediate antecedents of which were the agreements between the central government and local authorities of 7 April 2010 and 25 January 2012. The first, generic, was a framework agreement with local authorities on the sustainability of public finances 2010-2013, allowing them to approve a rationalisation plan for the structures in their respective public, administrative and business sectors to improve efficiency and reduce public spending. The second, more specific, concerned the reorganisation and rationalisation of the local public sector and the control of the efficiency and reduction of public spending without reducing the quality of the services it provides.

More recently, the objectives of the Law for the Rationalisation and Sustainability of Local Authorities, 27/2013, 27 December, include the clarification of municipal competencies, the avoidance of duplications with other authorities and making the principle of "one authority, one competence" effective. All of this is under the umbrella of efficiency, stability, financial sustainability and rigorous financial and budgetary control.

The measures taken to improve local governance by strengthening the role of the provincial councils, island councils and governments and equivalent organisations must also be mentioned. The councils were charged with coordinating certain minimum services in municipalities with populations of under 20,000 and were given new functions such as the provision of tax collection services, electronic administration and centralised contracting. Measures were also introduced to encourage the voluntary merger of municipalities to rationalise their structures and overcome the important atomising of the Spanish municipal map. According to data from the INE, 2013, in Spain there are 8,119 municipalities of which only 398 have more than 20,000 inhabitants. A total of 7,718 municipalities have smaller populations.

23. Improving participation in urban development.

Public participation in territorial and urban planning processes and even in the most relevant town planning management processes is fully guaranteed from the formal point of view by Spanish town planning legislation since 1956.

However, in practice there is no true public culture of participating in matters relating to urban development management other than those situations in which each person sees his or her interests particularly affected. This lack of public culture in the planning ambit can be fully extrapolated to the urban ambit generally.

However, it should be stressed that the processes of social participation have seen very interesting initiatives in Spain in the last 15 years:

- The processes connected with the setting up of the Local Agendas 21 shows that this is one of the countries in the EU where most local councils have developed them¹³ (signing of formal commitment to the 1994 Aalborg Charter and the later 2004 Commitments, Aalborg+ 10). Advances have been made in sustainable urban and local management, enhancing the almost exclusively environmental focus from the start with economic and social focuses and consolidating in practice the diagnoses for sustainability coordinated with the development and undertaking of their action plans. All of this has been carried out participatorily and with the support of information and communication technologies, allowing high levels of exemplariness and transferability to be reached. A good proof of this is the number of local councils in the Local Sustainable Development Networks (RRDLS) system.

¹³ The Charter was fully signed by 1,195 Spanish municipalities (out of a total of 2,708 in all of Europe) and by some local or regional networks. The full list can be found at: http://www.aalborgplus10.dk/go.aspx?to=media/short_list_18-02-2009_1_.pdf&navn=short_list_18-02-2009_1_.pdf.

- The greater involvement of local organisations leads to greater involvement of the public in local management through various associative formulas. One example could be Law 2/2004 for the improvement of districts, urban areas and towns which require special attention from the Region of Catalonia, which requires each of the projects to define beforehand the institutional framework and that for public participation. Also specific is the appeal of Law 8/2013 on urban rehabilitation, regeneration and renovation, to the participation of neighbours grouped into owners' associations and in the groups of owners' associations in operations for urban rehabilitation, regeneration and renovation.

- The approval of Law 19/2013 for transparency, access to public information and good government, marking the objectives for the future. The law is intended to increase and reinforce transparency in public activities, recognising and guaranteeing access to information and to set the the obligations for good governance to be met by public leaders as well as the legal consequences arising for failure to comply with them, all of this while increasing and reinforcing the obligations for active publicity in various ambits.

24. Enhancing urban safety and security.

Safety is a quality of life factor that is closely related to urban design. It is the combined result of a perception of absence of risks and the effective absence of them, risks being understood as not only those of a physical nature but also those others that are consequence of the lack of social and economic stability or of social and institutional protection.

In all cases, urban planning can and must respond effectively to the challenges presented by public safety. Urban design will not put a stop to the problem of safety but can help to mitigate the levels of delinquency, above all in the areas most punished by the phenomena of violence or vandalism.

24.1. Strengthening the safety of cities (perception):

It can be said that Spain is one of the safest countries in the world. Safety is measured with both objective and subjective data. The Ministry of the Presidency Sociological Research Centre (CIS) offers among its opinion surveys of Spanish society interesting data relating to subjective safety, that is, that which results from the mental perception of each individual with respect to the surroundings (threats, risks or strengths). The objective data do not always coincide with the public's perception but the combination of both is relevant.

Nationally, according to data from the Ministry of the Interior, the average crime rate is 48 for every thousand inhabitants, a datum that is notably below the European average which is 60 per thousand. Regarding subjective perception, according to the monthly CIS barometer in March 2004 of a sample of 2,466 persons in 241 municipalities, only 2% considered lack of safety as one of the country's three main problems. Very reduced concern was also detected relating to violence arising from terrorism or drugs (reaching only 0.9 and 0.1%, respectively).

There does seem to be greater agreement in the aspects that increase the feeling of vulnerability. This can be summarised in the following points.

- The need to increase the opportunity of seeing and being seen in a specific urban space and of feeling confidence in this space because of its physical properties and the persons inhabiting it. The perception of danger is connected with the design of the space; constructions that give rise to dead ends, nooks, hiding places or corners where an aggressor may be hidden and a lack of lighting or unsuitable lighting.
- The need to strengthen the feeling of belonging to a place, to a district, through increased social life. Knowledge of the nearest environment and the capability to see and understand what is happening in it are important to ensure a feeling of control in a specific situation.
- The suitable maintenance of the surroundings and of the street furniture also gives a greater feeling of security.
- The maintenance and strengthening of the "external" measures of protection and security in the form of public or private security agents or the existence of monitoring cameras.

24.2. Strengthening protection in cities (police measures):

From the point of view of urban protection, one of the greatest problems lies in the crime rate in cities. If the data for the crime rate in the city of Madrid, the main urban nucleus in the country (Figure IV.1 and Table IV.1 for the period 2000-2013) are analysed, both the figures and the most common types of crimes illustrate the problem of delinquency in Spanish urban areas.

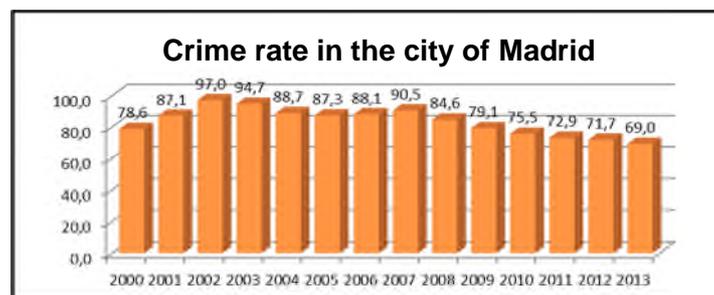


Figure IV.1. Development of the crime rate in the city of Madrid (2000-2013). Ministry of the Interior

The most usual types of crimes in urban environments are those with force against property. Police experience shows the existence of a stretch of crime that shows a lifestyle centred on the repeated committing of crimes against ownership, of little criminal relevance, which without being very serious from this point of view negatively affect the public's subjective perception of safety.

Nevertheless, if the above graph and table are examined, 2013 saw the lowest crime rate in Spain since 2000 and the trend in the systematic decrease in crime has been maintained since 2007. The most common crime continues to be robbery with force but this has also reached its lowest level since 2000. Without doubt, this is due to the

numerous actions carried out to face the challenges of public safety, basically framed in two fundamental lines:

a) Measures and programmes to promote public protection and safety in cities during 1996-2014.

This involves preventive plans promoted or participated in by the Ministry of the Interior, including anti-terrorist prevention and protection, the Elderly security plan, the master plan for coexistence and improvement of security in schools and their surroundings, the police attention and coordination plan against organised and violent juvenile bands, the 2012-2015 Second National Strategic Plan for infancy and Adolescence (II PENIA), the plan against the sexual exploitation of children, the strategic plan for the police response to retail drug trafficking in leisure areas and places and the safe tourism plan.

In developing these plans, the police prepared its operational plans and promoted various instruments aimed at combating specific appearances of crime or insecurity. For example, the operational plan against human trafficking for sexual exploitation, the plan against burglaries in homes, the plan against itinerant urban delinquency, the safe commerce plan and the functional operational gold plan.

Special reference must be made of the plans against computer crime and the Elderly Plan the purpose of which is to protect an especially vulnerable sector, persons over 65 who, in recent years, have seen a 7% increase in the crimes that affect them.

b) Adoption of measures and modifications to the legislative framework.

The main actions during the period of reference were:

- The modification of the Criminal Code to update questions relating to the fight against corruption, gender violence, the criminal responsibility of minors, responsibility in areas of intellectual property and for consumers and users and responsibility in the use of new technologies.
- The updating of the Public Safety Protection Law 1/1992, 21 February, of which work is currently under way on the draft.
- Law 5/2014, 4 April, on private security which involves improving the effectiveness of the organisation and planning, training of personnel, equipping with the necessary legal backing for exercising its legal functions and collaboration between private and public security.
- Organic Law 4/1997, 4 August, regulating the use of video cameras by the police in public places, allowing the use of means to record images and sound with precise guarantees for the legitimate exercising of the rights and liberties recognised in the 1978 Spanish Constitution.
- Public participation in matters of security in accordance with article 9 of the Constitution and in Organic Law 2/1986 on the police and that has developed from the figure of the police/link to the current public participation delegate, all within the

framework of the public participation programme which regularly holds meetings with neighbourhood associations, immigrants, the disabled, traders, etc.

As occurs with other public policies, it is considered necessary to continue to maintain the existing mechanisms and to create other new ones that allow a closer commitment of the public in public safety, promoting a more participative public safety culture that includes the greater involvement of neighbours in the urban management of public spaces and services and which in turn allows the generation of greater identity with them and a feeling of belonging to the districts.

25. Improving social inclusion and equity.

In recent years, the economic crisis and increased unemployment have increased the percentage of population at risk of social exclusion and increased unfavourable social indicators. Specifically, according to the 2014 Spanish National Social Report, the poverty risk rate rose from 24.5% in 2008 to 28% in 2013 (provisional data), an increase of 3.5 points. It must be stressed that a slight reduction in this rate has been achieved when compared to the date of the previous year, 28.2%.

The risk of poverty or exclusion affects young people between 18 and 24 above all, caused principally by the increased unemployment rate (53.1% in June 2014 for those younger than 25) which has caused an increase in the poverty or exclusion rate of 9.6% compared to data for 2008, reaching 35.6. Child poverty has reached 33.8%, an increase of 3.2 points since 2008. However, this rate has decreased for the population over 65, by 11.1 points since 2008 when it was 27.7%, to 16.6% in 2012.

In a recent study on the distribution of income in Spain (*Distribution of income in Spain: inequality, structural changes and cycles*, March 2013), the Economic and Social Council stated that the consequence of the crisis in terms of income loss falls mainly on groups with lower incomes. Among the triggers, the high unemployment rate has been the most determinant factor in the increase in inequality in recent years.

Another of the problems that make social inclusion difficult is that of persons with low educational levels. In Spain, there is a high rate of early educational leaving. In 2012 this reached 24.9% of the young between 18 and 24 but it must be emphasised that this has dropped considerably since 2008 when it reached 31.9%. Regarding adults, 14% have second stage general secondary education instead of professional training as their highest level of studies and only 8% have medium grade professional training.

Given this situation, the so-called 2013-2016 National Social Inclusion Action Plan (PNAIN), approved by the Cabinet on 13 December 2013, has been put into action. The plan introduces a strategy for social inclusion based on a multi dimensional perspective that combines insertion by employment means with support for the least favoured groups through the maintenance of social protection from three points of view - access to the employment market and the promotion of an inclusive employment market, guaranteeing a minimum income, and access to quality services, mainly in education, health and housing. The plan also includes an

objective to fight against child poverty, carried out transversely through multiple actions.

From the housing point of view, an agreement was signed on 17 January 2013 by the Ministries of Economy and Competitiveness, Health, Social Services and Equality and Development, the Bank of Spain, the Spanish Federation of Municipalities and Provinces (FEMP), the Third Sector Platform (non-governmental organisations), banks and 33 credit organisations to constitute the Social Housing Fund (FSV), aimed at renting. This therefore complied with the government's recommendations in Royal Decree Law 27/2012, 15 November, on urgent measures to strengthen the protection of mortgage defaulters. This FCV can benefit those persons who have been evicted from their usual homes and meet certain conditions of vulnerability.

Nevertheless, despite the effort made, it is still possible to identify difficulties for promoting social inclusion and reducing inequality in cities, for which the following aspects must be considered:

- The costs associated with bringing up children. These are families with low incomes and/or low employment intensity and/or severe material deprivation, with children, who suffer the greatest rate of poverty and social exclusion.
- Employment is a central pillar of inclusion and its opposite, unemployment, is one of the elements most associated with poverty and social exclusion.
- Territorial inequalities in terms of unemployment have been worsened by the crisis since the increased unemployment between 2008 and 2012 (in percentage points) has been greater in the regions which started out with the highest rates.

26. Challenges experienced and lessons learnt in these areas.

The models of governance and the laws that support them need permanent review. The new needs and the problems that emerge in each moment in history give rise to new challenges that require quick changes in legislation and in the approach to their management.

Here, the lessons learned are basically related to the following aspects:

- Planning regulations. A more complex arrangement that fundamentally strengthens control *a priori* does not necessarily provide better protection of the land nor of general interests. *Ex post* control instruments are needed together with simple regulations that are easily understood and applied and that respond to the reality of the cities' dynamics and life.
- The necessary strengthening of local authorities requires suitable financing and municipal interests must take into account the supra-municipal policies that plan the territory with wider matrices.
- Occasional actions on needs or specific groups at risk of social exclusion may be important but planned action to mobilise resources against various variables that

affect social exclusion (unemployment, educational deficit, violence, etc.) is much more effective.

27. Future challenges and issues in the urban governance and legislation that could be addressed by a New Urban Agenda.

It will be necessary to include the reference to the need that the urban governance models be sensitive to the specific realities of each community without this altering the rigour of the control procedures and the urban actions. Planning must include the authorities' specific commitments that guaranteed its effective management and undertaking. Scheduling is a good ally for these purposes.

In any case they must include at least the following aspects:

- The recognition of local autonomy for designing urban actions so that they are useful for meeting the needs of the public. This necessary level of autonomy must not prevent urban actions from taking into account the territorial and supra-municipal impacts of policies carried out within cities. In this sense, the action of the organisations and local authorities must take into account supra-municipal plans and criteria.
- It is convenient to re-encounter ways of collaboration between social movements and public authorities, especially local authorities, increasingly strengthening the relationships between social and public spheres.
- Specialised analyses of the problems of safety in cities must be promoted, especially in large metropolitan concentrations, encouraging a more effective involvement of the authorities and the public in adopting measures to fight criminal activity directly.
- It is necessary to address the situations of social exclusion. In this sense, local organisations must commit an important part of their actions and budget to policies to support social inclusion, especially aimed at vulnerable social groups, in collaboration with other government organisations (central government and regional authorities).
- Finally, it is necessary that the New Urban Agenda promotes the creation of groups for debate to obtain updated information on the new urban phenomena. This is the best way to make use of the closeness of the local authorities to persons and urban scenarios.

V. URBAN ECONOMY: ISSUES AND CHALLENGES FOR A NEW URBAN AGENDA.

When speaking of urban economy, one of the most relevant questions arises from the relationship between economic activities in the city and the country's general economy because the latter is the scenario *par excellence*. Cities are the main engines of the economy although they are also the focus of many of the problems that afflict it.

Investment in cities will always be profitable and it is necessary to seek the development of the opportunities offered, economic flexibility, good governance, the

greatest possible decentralisation and the existence of active local governments. All of this despite the fact that it can be shown that not all the positive aspects connected with the economic activities carried out in cities are transferred to local authorities and result in higher quality of life for those communities. This final objective will require greater local financial autonomy and the matching of the local governments' resources with the services they must provide.

28. Improving municipal/local finance.

Sustainable local financing is a fundamental element to guarantee that municipal authorities can take on their responsibilities and contribute to the well-being of their communities. In Spain, councils call for a better local financing along the principles of sufficiency, effectiveness, transparency and subsidiarity together with an improvement of local governance. The councils also demand a defined range of competencies and a balanced budget with regard to the services they provide.

Spanish local financing also has income from its property (including the relevant municipal property including income from development activity) and from private property, with its own taxation system consisting of rates, special contributions and taxes. This is also joined by income from transfers received from charges on regional taxes and those from other local organisations and from central government as well as grants, income for public prices, the result of credit operations, the result of fines and penalties within their competencies and other public services.

Of the local taxes from consumption, economic activities, the rental or ownership of real estate, it is these last that provide the greatest income for local coffers. According to data from the FEMP, property taxes (in the form of the tax on property, IBI¹⁴) represents approximately 40% of total taxation income. Far below the IBI, the Economic Activities Tax (IAE, a municipal tax class provincial charge) generates 10% of this income, vehicle tax, 13%, and the rest of taxation income, approximately 27%, comes jointly from the tax on increased value of urban land and the tax on constructions, installations and works.¹⁵

The objectives of the Local Taxation Law of 5 March 2004 include guaranteeing financial sufficiency for local corporations and providing councils with a greater capacity to develop taxation policies (raising or lowering taxation rates, setting fiscal benefits, etc.).

The recent Law 27/2013, 27 December, on the rationalisation and sustainability of local government, seeks the objectives of governability, rationalising its organisational structure in accordance with the principles of financial efficiency, stability and sustainability and objectives of rigorous financial and budgetary control, adapted to the new requirements of Organic Law 2/2012, 27 April, on budgetary stability and financial sustainability. Although this standard is inserted in a context of budgetary stability, basically required by the need to overcome the economic and

¹⁴ http://www.catastro.minhap.gob.es/documentos/ejemplos_estadisticas.pdf

¹⁵ <http://www.minhap.gob.es/es-ES/Areas%20Tematicas/Administracion%20Electronica/OVEELL/Paginas/DatosFinanciacionEL.aspx>

financial crisis, it links financial resources and local governance beyond a given situation.

According to the latest available data on the deficit of authorities (first half of 2014), local government has complied with and exceeded its objectives, even to obtaining a surplus. With a broken down analysis, local government, as with the Social Security, ended with a surplus of 3,356 million euros (0.32% of the GDP).

29. Strengthening and improving access to housing finance.

For decades, the Spanish housing market has featured three aspects. Firstly, a high rate of home ownership due, among other things, to a weak rental market and easy access to credit arising from a favourable economic situation. Secondly, a policy of public incentives based fundamentally on building subsidised housing for purchase by families with low incomes, and, finally, a taxation policy that favoured the choice of ownership as the main means of acquiring the primary residence.

These elements led to many families indebted themselves to a level which, inside the crisis, have had serious difficulties in the repayment of the loans. One proof of this is the evictions that occurred in recent years. Nevertheless, with a stock of 25.2 million homes, according to new foreclosure statistics published by the INE, the number of these that affected primary residences was 9,464 in the first quarter of this year and 4.2% lower than the period January-March 2013.

The main measures adopted in recent years are aimed at encouraging access to rented housing while encouraging the rehabilitation, regeneration and renovation of the existing city and attempting to resolve the problem of families with difficulty in the payment of mortgage loans

With Law 4/2013, 4 June, measures were adopted to make the rented housing market more flexible and professional. In turn, the 2013-2016 State Housing Plan encourages rental and the building of a public stock of rented homes. The plan promotes generate a stock of public rented housing that can be used in rotation to attend needs of certain vulnerable social groups and links this stock of homes with direct aids for renting, including with the involvement of the social services so that access to housing is part of an integral treatment. The plan also maintains the traditional mortgage subsidies that formed part of previous quadrennial housing plans.

On the other hand, steps have been taken to prevent the loss of or eviction from housing as far as possible. Royal Decree Law 6/2012, 9 March, on urgent measures to protect mortgage defaulters without resources, described various mechanisms for restructuring mortgage debts and making the undertaking of evictions more flexible, allowing defaulters to remain in their homes in exchange for renting them. Likewise, Law 1/2013, 14 May, on measures to strengthen the protection of mortgage defaulters, the restructuring of debt and social rental, allows the immediate, exceptional and temporary suspension of eviction for two years for families in a situation of special risk of exclusion. This report has already mentioned the creation of the Social Housing Fund in January 2013, consisting of homes owned by credit

organisations and destined to persons who have been evicted from their normal homes due to their inability to pay a mortgage, when certain circumstances arise¹⁶.

30. Supporting for local economic development.

Economic development as a practice of local governments and communities has a long tradition in Spain, greatly linked to the local development agencies, the functions of which have included the undertaking of intermediation and promotion of economic development through actions of diagnosis, business encouragement, formulation of investment projects, technological dissemination, commercialisation, financing and the development of human resources as well as channelling and managing information on production activities, new technologies and the information society, emerging markets, opportunities for commercialisation and new sources of employment. Nevertheless, this model is currently undergoing a change and reconsideration with regard to the great principles of the involvement. Encouragement of the creation of wealth and employment to achieve a better quality of life and the need to advance to achieving competitive and sustainable territorial models are today framed not in territorial and local contexts but above all in regional and national ones. The approaching changes affect the strategies and forms of organisation and management.

Law 27/2013, 27 December, on local government rationalisation and sustainability, set a new order of competencies on economic development projects, based fundamentally on strengthening the role of regional authorities, although it allows the delegating of important functions to local corporations through the signing of formal instruments and as long as the corporations are economically healthy. In fact, a Spanish Association of Regional Development Agencies has existed covering all the regional organisations with competencies in regional development matters in the 17 regions and the two autonomous cities (Ceuta and Melilla). Its main objective is to help these agencies to provide a quality public service for entrepreneurs and companies, advanced finance, the development of innovation and information and communication technologies, international cooperation, customer service and training.

The current situation is the fruit of a development in which various experiences are accumulating that combine the overall economic dynamics, in different manners and with variable results, with the local organisations capacity for action.

Any local economic programme must consider economic diversification and innovation as a basic fundamental as well as the wider regional or national context in which it must insert itself. All of this without forgetting the important role that the local economic development agencies have played and must play within the complex decentralised Spanish territorial intervention model. We have over 25 years of local economic development policies that must be recouped and adapted to the keys demanded by the future, all taking into consideration the situation currently being experienced by the local organisations.

¹⁶ http://www.mineco.gob.es/stfls/mineco/comun/pdf/130507_Fondo_Social_Vivienda.pdf

31. Creating jobs and livelihoods.

The economic situation affecting Spain for some years has produced negative effects on employment. As well as the social problem (without doubt the most important), the high unemployment rate represents a significant drag on the perspective for the country's rapid recovery. According to data from the Active Population Survey, the number of unemployed in Spain is 5,427,700 despite a reduction in unemployment of 515,700 persons in one year, the greatest annual drop in unemployment..

It is especially relevant that over half of the young below 25 who wish to work do not find the opportunity to do so. To this must be added the increased emigration which, from 2008 to 2012, has been 86,495 persons aged up to 35, most of whom have good preparation.

Many policies are currently being developed by authorities to try to change this situation and encourage the creation of employment. Nevertheless, it is clear that the process is long. Notable among the economic measures adopted is the approval of Royal Decree Law 1/2011, 11 February, on urgent measures to promote the transition to stable employment and the professional re-qualification of the unemployed, which introduced a programme of professional qualification for persons who have exhausted their unemployment benefit, based on active employment policies together with the receipt of economic support. Royal Decree Law 1/2013, 25 January, extended this programme, setting up also a mechanism of additional protection for those no longer receiving unemployment benefit through which they could receive individual and personalised treatment for their employment insertion.

Special reference must be made to the employment reform approved by Royal Decree Law 3/2012, 10 February, on urgent measures. The Decree was designed to achieve the following objectives in its economic framework:

- a) To favour internal flexibility in companies as a real alternative to the destruction of employment.
- b) To modernise collective negotiation to bring it nearer to the specific needs of companies and workers and to encourage permanent dialogue within the company.
- c) To improve the employability of workers through training and the effectiveness of employment intermediation.
- d) To encourage the creation of stable and quality employment and reduce employment duality.
- e) To combat unjustified employment absenteeism.
- f) To strengthen the mechanisms for controlling and preventing fraud, for protecting the rights of workers and the fight against unfair competition for companies."

Finally, the Youth Entrepreneurship and Employment Strategy, part of the National Reforms Plan and following the recommendations of the EU especially with the objectives and approaches of the so-called "Youth Guarantee," is designed to favour the insertion of young people in the employment ambit and to improve their situation within the employment market, increasing their employability, increasing the quality of the work posts, the stability of employment and equal opportunities for access to the employment market.

The axes on which the strategy is based are the encouragement of contracting and business initiative among the young, adapting the education and training received by them to the reality of the employment market and reducing the rate of premature educational abandonment. It proposes 100 measures designed to favour the employment insertion of the young, of which 15 have immediate or "shock" impact with a short term effects to stimulate contracting and entrepreneurship, the improvement of education and training and intermediation in the employment market. The rest of the measures have medium and long term impacts and are undertaken through actions that require greater development over time to tackle the structural problems that affect youth employment. These measures, already described, introduce stimuli for contracting based on the granting of incentives, part-time contracting connected with training, the elimination of contributions for contracting young people, the creation of "first employment" and "intern" contracts, etc.

This is one of the great challenges and it is necessary to continue to start policies that are designed to change the trend and definitively turn back the situation of unemployment.

The cities and villages also have an important role in the matter because the development of rural and urban policies can contribute to generating work posts, creating new opportunities, improving competitiveness and social cohesion and, with this, the overall economic situation.

32. Integration of the urban economy into national development policy.

A country's national development policy covers the economy of each city and village in it, which in turn affects all sectors of the economy. The design of the city therefore affects both the quality of life of its inhabitants and the opportunities for training, employment, leisure, etc. The planning must therefore include opportunities for implementing economic and business activities, relating them to their location in various urban centres and within a specific population centre.

In accordance with article 1 of Law 8/2013, a sustainable urban planning model must ensure that the urban medium is competitive, efficient and sustainable. The principle of sustainable development must encourage the rational use of natural resources, harmonising the requirements of the economy, employment, social cohesion, equality of treatment and opportunities, the health and safety of persons and the protection of the environment.

In Spain, the location of land for new economic activities is a planned process carried out, in its general directives, through land planning (in the regions that have developed their own land planning instruments) and, in greater detail by municipal development planning (classification and qualification of land).

Broadly speaking, the following trends relating to the urban planning of economic activities can be described as common to Spanish cities: the economic revitalisation of historic centres and the central areas of cities, the containment of excessive terciarisation policies, the development of new areas for decentralising economic activities (business parks, tertiary areas, etc.) as a function of the new opportunities that arise in the territory (availability of land, easy accessibility, etc.), the development of areas for logistics activities in direct relation to the large transport infrastructures,

the renovation of obsolete industrial areas and ports, the development of integrated operations and occasional symbolic projects, etc.

33. Challenges experienced and lessons learnt in these areas.

The main difficulty arises from the seriousness, intensity and persistence of the economic crisis in Spain in the last seven years. Some of its symptoms are clearly related to the real estate boom and the way in which urban development has been planned and managed.

Today, both public and authorities recognise that housing and building deserve good planning and development in the widest context of the city and the country overall. Building a city, providing housing and planning public spaces is, above all, a form of contributing to the improvement of the quality of urban environments and its main justification must be found in this element. Since it is inevitable to recognise that the economic crisis and its causes and effects greatly exceed the ambit of local organisations, it is necessary to emphasise that the main aspects connected with the explosion of the crisis are found in cities.

Local authorities have become aware that the financing cannot depend exclusively on the sale of public land and on the profits obtained from urban capital gains. The lesson learned is that, while maintaining the construction sector as one of Spain's pillars of economic activity, it must be aimed at a model of a city economically, environmentally and socially sustainable. In the city, it will be necessary to find human resources, programmes, ideas and practical experiences that help to overcome the crisis or, at least, to partially mitigate its serious effects.

From a less circumstantial perspective, the need to set up city governance models that are sensitive to the appearances of problems which, although of overall origin, directly affect the public and their daily lives must be stressed as a lesson learned.

34. Future challenges and issues in urban economy matters that could be addressed by a New Urban Agenda.

Keys must be introduced to set up solid synergies of economic relationship between urban dynamics and the overall economic activity. Activities and programmes designed by local authorities to promote education, training and entrepreneurship are good examples of the type of synergy that it is desirable to develop.

In this sense, the Agenda should incorporate the following aspects, among others:

- The principle of financial autonomy and sufficiency for local authorities, which translates into the need to assume commitments that match the dynamics of their economic activity and their budgetary reality. Financial solidity is an indispensable condition for establishing a local governance model that is sensitive to the changing needs arising from changes in the urban dynamics.
- The need to set up urban economic activity models based on diversification and the multiplicity of activities and functions, avoiding the economic specialisation of single activities.

- The development of smart city projects and strategies that integrate environmental, mobility, information and communication technologies and data management aspects.

- The need to connect local economies with general economic policies. Cities are not islands and the economic dynamics of cities, relating to the goods and services they produce and exchange, are a critical prop for the country's economy. Although local authorities do not have the last say in these aspects, their closeness to the public and their capacity for detecting specific needs can be of great use in promoting active employment policies.

- The strategic and decisive role of local government in detecting situations of social exclusion. The commitment to social inclusion and cohesion must start and be supported on solid management at the local level.

In brief, the cities must take advantage of the opportunities offered by the concentration of persons and the diverse activities, to face the challenges of competitiveness and economic sustainability. Cities and local organisations must be considered as agents of a strategically important economic policy.

VI. HOUSING AND BASIC SERVICES: ISSUES AND CHALLENGES FOR A NEW URBAN AGENDA

In urban buildings as a whole, housing occupies 80% of the built-up space and, as such, is a determinant factor of the spatial structuring. From the social point of view, housing is something more than intimate living space housing private episodes of personal biography. It is the basic reference on which decisive aspects of personal identity itself and social performance are anchored.

And as well as being a constitutional right in Spain (article 47), housing is one of the pillars that describe the level of equality and sustainability of society. In this sense, access to housing is the starting point for an inclusive and balanced society.

35. Slum upgrading and prevention.

The term "urban vulnerability" in the Spanish context is used to refer to these districts. This vulnerability is defined as the process of ill-being produced in cities by the combination of multiple dimensions of disadvantage and in which the hope for upward social mobility and the overcoming of the social condition of exclusion or nearness to it is seen as something very difficult to achieve.

Spain has an "Urban Vulnerability Observatory" dating from 1996 when the government formed part of a study on disadvantaged districts, within the OECD, for which all countries prepared a report on their situations. The Spanish report was prepared using the 1991 census and coordinated by the Ministry of Development and the INE. The work was continued with the later updating by the Ministry of Housing for 2001 and 2006 and at this time, the Ministry of Development is again working on its updating with data from the last census, in 2011.

The study works with the three basic urban vulnerability indicators (IBVU), obtained from the population and housing censuses made in Spain every 10 years, the *percentage of the population unemployed*, the *percentage of the population without education* and the *percentage of the population in housing without services or toilets* (without running water, WC, bath or shower in 1991 and without services or toilet in 2001). A fourth one, *immigration rate*, was added in the 2006 Addendum. A situation is understood as vulnerable when these values exceed the reference ones with respect to the national average and even with respect to the regional average. Nevertheless, given the multi-dimensional perspective of urban vulnerability, a set of other indicators (almost 100) was also analysed, grouped into four categories, *social and demographic vulnerability*, *social and economic vulnerability*, *residential vulnerability* and *subjective vulnerability*.

This battery of indicators was used to prepare two tools for the spatial display of the statistical information, using a geographical information system called the Spanish Urban Vulnerability Atlas¹⁷ and the Residential Building Atlas¹⁸. For cities with more than 50,000 inhabitants, these studies were also complemented with so-called "Analysis of Vulnerable Urban Districts," which identified the ambits in which the three basic vulnerability indicators exceeded the average national value. A detailed statistical and planning study was made of these¹⁹.

It is interesting to emphasize that, despite the increase in the population living in vulnerable districts between 1991 and 2001, the national vulnerability indicators improved between these dates. According to the 1991 census, the unemployment rate was 18.66% compared to 14.20% in the 2001 census. The level of studies in 1991 was 18.66% while in 2001 this dropped to 15.30%. With regard to housing deficiencies, the 1991 census differentiated the index of houses without running water (2%), that of houses without toilets (3%) and those with no interior bath or shower, while in 2001 the percentage of persons living in homes without services or toilets was used, 1.00% for that year.

It is also notable that the increased population living in vulnerable districts between 1991 and 2001 did not have an even spread. Of the total of the districts identified, more than 75% and almost 80% of the vulnerable population was concentrated in the four regions with the highest population, Andalusia, Catalonia, Madrid and Valencia. The rest of the regions had fewer than 100,000 residents in vulnerable districts in 2001.

Attending to the weight of the vulnerable population with respect to the total analysed, which in all of Spain reached 20.59% in 2001, it was seen that only six regions exceeded the percentage in that year, Andalusia, the Canary Islands, Extremadura, Catalonia and the autonomous cities of Ceuta and Melilla.

In any case, it must be stated that most of the areas of substandard housing that existed in 1991 (marginal sites) have disappeared and the number of peri-urban

¹⁷ <http://atlasvulnerabilidadurbana.vivienda.es/carto.php>

¹⁸ <http://atlasedificacion.fomento.es/>

¹⁹ http://www.fomento.gob.es/MFOM/LANG_CASTELLANO/DIRECCIONES_GENERALES/ARQ_VIVIENDA/SUELO_Y_POLITICAS/OBSERVATORIO/Analisis_urba_Barrios_Vulnerables/default.htm

areas with the most precarious housing and population indices have disappeared (probably absorbed by the urban growth).

The relative loss of weight of the historic centres of cities as specifically vulnerable districts is also significant.

Spain has valuable examples of urban work on deteriorated urban fabrics in which councils have put into practice instruments for special planning that have a long tradition (protection, conservation, rehabilitation of heritage, design of public spaces, renovation of deteriorated districts, etc.).

The experience of the workshop schools to train professionals in various trades which, generally, had various improvements in the urban medium as their objective (gardening, heritage maintenance, etc.) must be emphasised together with the rehabilitation areas within the various national housing and rehabilitation plans that have financed and continue to finance actions for the functional recovery of historic complexes, urban centres, degraded districts and rural municipalities.

It is also interesting to refer to the programmes and actions carried out from the ministries responsible for social matters through which various activities have been carried out for the social promotion of disadvantaged groups (Gypsies, the unemployed, the inhabitants of vulnerable districts, drug addicts and other marginalised groups). These programmes have been carried out under the format of annual calls and requests by public organisations for specific projects.

In any case, it can be seen that similar roads are travelled from the planning and the care branches (intervention projects). It is necessary to suitably integrate the work of the planners and social workers and to set up methods of legally sanctioned intervention with a regulated procedure. In this sense, the community initiative called URBAN has been very positive. URBAN projects combine actions relating to planning with the setting up of initiatives and experiences that promote social cohesion and the participation of the affected neighbourhood communities in the same programme.

Also of interest is the regulation in Law 8/2013, on urban rehabilitation, regeneration and renovation, for acting on the existing urban fabric, promoting the rehabilitation and revitalising of areas in decline. It has a very different scope to traditional actions although time is still needed to assess its effects on the regeneration of the existing urban space.

In Spain, the main achievements in this field have consisted of setting up a permanent observatory for urban vulnerability to collect data periodically and systematically and to report to the authorities on those places in which actions must take priority. An ideal regulatory framework has also been created to cover most of the actions for integrated urban regeneration and the regeneration of obsolete districts and, finally, public assistance to encourage private actions has been maintained without interruption (local, regional and national grants and other lines of help).

36. Improving access to adequate housing.

The constitutional guarantee of enjoying decent and suitable housing as a responsibility shared among all public authorities has been achieved over recent years with various policies, both taxation and public grants for building subsidised housing and for the acquisition of free and subsidised housing, regulated in successive housing plans by the government and in many cases complemented by the regional authorities and even by some local councils.

According to the latest data from the 2011 census, the percentage of the population living in a rented home is 13.5%, meaning that in Spain the importance of renting is very far from that in the European Union overall (where it is around 30%). In fact Spain is the European country with the highest index of housing for each 1,000 inhabitants but, however, with the smallest stock of rented housing.

Data from the latest census, 2011, show that the percentage of owned homes has reduced slightly to 78.9% with rented homes increasing slightly to 13.5%.

It is also necessary to refer to the important role played by subsidised housing for facilitating access to housing for the social sectors with the greatest difficulties. Its price, fixed regulatory for purchasing and renting, its quality similar to that of free housing and its non-discriminatory location searching for social cohesion, make it ideal for these sectors which are guaranteed equal treatment in the recognition of the right of access to decent and suitable housing.

The successive quadrennial housing plans that have been made without interruption from 1996 (1996-2000, 2001-2004, 2005-2008, 2009-2102 and the latest one, 2013-2016) have achieved an increased volume of subsidised housing, allowing access to it for thousands of families with low incomes (above all in ownership).

Meanwhile, both regional and national planning legislation from 2007 has required town planning to reserve a percentage of land classified for residential use for the building of housing subjected to some subsidising regime. The current Land Law of 2008 sets this percentage uniformly throughout the country at 30% of the land for residential use (for developable land) and 10% (for non--consolidated urban land), percentages that can be exceeded by the regional authorities, although temporarily for a period that expires in June 2017, they are allowed to match this obligatory reserve to the reality of their needs.

More recently, Law 4/2013, 4 June, on measures to flexibilise and encourage the housing rental market, sought to encourage rental and increase the number of families accessing housing in this way. Law 8/2013, on urban rehabilitation, regeneration and renovation, seeks the proper conservation and improvement of houses already built to guarantee the quality of life, habitability, comfort, accessibility and energy efficiency of them. Both laws are complemented with the new 2013-2016 national plan to encourage housing rental, the rehabilitation of buildings and urban regeneration and renovation which set up a new innovative system of incentives to commit all authorities to generate a public stock of homes for rental and urban rehabilitation, regeneration and renovation.

Additionally, actions have also been carried out for access to housing and financing through Law 1/2013, 14 May, on measures to strengthen the protection of mortgage defaulters, debt restructuring and social rental, which provides the exceptional and temporary immediate suspension for two years of the eviction of families in a situation of special risk of exclusion. Finally, the creation of the Social Housing Fund should be mentioned (housing and owned by the credit organisations to offer coverage to persons who had been evicted from their normal home for the inability to pay their mortgage, in certain circumstances) to address potential extreme situations relating to the failure to pay for the acquired housing and to address eviction situations. These last have already been described in this report.

37. Primary residence conditions and equipment.

Of the total of 25.2 million homes in Spain according to the 2011 census, 71.74% son primary residences (18,083,692 homes). According to information compiled by the Housing and Land Observatory (Table VI.3.) 10.56% of these have centralised heating, 46.3% have individual heating, 29.48% have no heating but have independent devices such as heaters and, finally, 13.66% have no heating.

Almost all homes have lavatories and a bath/shower (only 0.58% lack an interior lavatory according to the 2011 census). Regarding running water, 94.54% of homes have a public supply and only 5.3% have a private supply.

The data relating to shortfalls in universal accessibility are more relevant since of the 10.7 million homes in buildings with four or more stories, four million still do not have a lift.

Finally, in the age of the information society, the rate of residences with access to the Internet is relevant. In the large cities and metropolitan areas, there is a very high rate of homes with Internet access. Thus, in Madrid and Barcelona the percentage is between 80% and 87% while overall and for the whole country, somewhat more than half the total of homes have access to the Internet (a percentage that increases in the larger municipalities).

	Total	Inhabitants										
		< 101	101-500	501-1,000	1,001-2,000	2,001-5,000	5,001-10,000	10,001-20,000	20,001-50,000	50,001-100,000	100,001-500,000	> 500,000
Total primary residence	18,083,692	32,682	289,734	307,637	520,189	1,201,582	1,445,422	1,921,013	2,788,142	2,198,994	4,287,326	3,090,970
Heating in %, central	10.56	2.96	4.38	4.95	5.59	5.71	6.4	7.61	6.87	10.07	14.42	16.62
Heating in %, individual	46.3	53.41	56.94	53.86	51.48	49.48	49.11	48.19	41.58	45.49	43.96	47.96
Heating in %, with apparatus	29.48	30.54	26.73	28.64	29.35	30.76	30.92	30.2	34.92	28.97	26.74	27.46
Heating in %, none	13.66	13.09	11.95	12.55	13.58	14.05	13.57	13.99	16.63	15.48	14.88	7.96
Toilet available %, yes	99.42	99.01	99.25	99.33	99.33	99.46	99.47	99.45	99.34	99.38	99.42	99.52
Toilet available %, no	0.58	0.99	0.75	0.67	0.67	0.54	0.53	0.55	0.66	0.62	0.58	0.48
Bath/shower in % yes	99.49	98.26	98.6	98.82	99.02	99.27	99.43	99.5	99.54	99.59	99.58	99.57
Bath/shower in % no	0.51	1.74	1.4	1.18	0.98	0.73	0.57	0.5	0.46	0.41	0.42	0.43
Availability of Internet in % yes	55.68	15.18	29.04	36.3	39.4	45.25	50.76	54.02	56.03	59.77	59.21	62.52
Availability of Internet in % no	44.32	84.82	70.96	63.7	60.6	54.75	49.24	45.98	43.97	40.23	40.79	37.48
Running water in %, public mains	94.54	98	97.21	96.74	95.2	93.34	93.69	94.02	94.66	94.76	94.88	94.38
Running water in %, private	5.3	1.8	2.53	3.04	4.54	6.41	6.05	5.82	5.12	5.12	5.01	5.53
Running water in %, none	0.16	0.2	0.27	0.22	0.26	0.25	0.26	0.16	0.22	0.12	0.11	0.09
	100											

Table VI.3. Primary residences by installations by size of municipality. 2011 census (homes and %).
Source: Housing and Land Observatory. 2011 census special bulletin, INE. Ministry of Development.

a) Access to drinking water

Today, almost all primary residences have access to drinking water. The trend was maintained in 1991-2011 and really the lack of access to drinking water is exceptional and in the minority. Therefore, the main challenge relating to residential water consumption in Spain consists of promoting its more responsible use, for which various authorities carry out frequent campaigns.

b) Sustainable access to basic sewerage and drainage services

Most of the housing stock has both previous mentioned basic services. Overall, the lack of these affects 1.69% of the total primary residences stock (meaning in absolute terms some 30,555 homes out of a total of 18,083,690 homes for permanent residence). The reduction since 1991 has been progressive and constant, from 12.04% in 1991 to 9.53% in 2001 and the above mentioned 1.69% in 2011. The main challenge consists of treating waste water although numerous improvements have been made in the treatment systems and the controlling of discharges.

c) General condition of primary residence buildings

According to the 2011 census, there are 83,532 homes in a ruinous buildings (propped up, officially declared as ruins or with the declaration as ruin in progress), 265,788 in bad condition and 1,380,531 in a deficient state. Nevertheless, an average of over 90% of buildings containing primary residences are in a general condition classified as good.

Without doubt, the most important challenge consists of setting up programmes to prevent the degradation of buildings in line with that proposed in Law 8/2013. This would permit the better maintenance of these during their life without the need for numerous investments which are always necessary when this maintenance has been deficient over decades.

38. Improving access to clean domestic energy.

The integration of HVAC systems, the bioclimatic behaviour of housing and the renewable energy systems defines a complex system that seeks to guarantee that the home functions with energy efficiency criteria, maximising the use of renewable energies.

Various measures have been introduced in Spain since 1996 to improve access to clean domestic energy. Thus, Law 38/1999, 5 November, on construction planning (LOE) set for the first time a basic legal requirement for the rational use of energy in buildings, developed in 2006 with the Technical Building Code approved by Royal Decree 314/2006, 17 March. This code is the regulatory framework that sets the requirements to be met by buildings with regard to basic requirements for safety and habitability, set in turn by the above mentioned law. It is designed to reduce energy needs to the maximum, fundamentally with passive measures such as the limitation of energy demand differentiated according to types of buildings and climate areas but it also introduces the obligatory use of renewable energy in a certain proportion for producing hot water and for generating electricity by photovoltaic means.

These requirements were updated, completed and strengthened in 2013 as part of the road towards buildings with almost zero energy consumption, to be reached by 2020 according to European Directive 2010/31/EU, 19 May. In this respect, a national plan has been prepared to increase the number of buildings with almost zero energy consumption, forming the roadmap started in 2006 to reduce the energy needs of buildings, updated and reinforced in 2013 and, expectedly, in 2016, to reach the final end in which buildings built after 31 December 2020 are considered buildings with almost zero consumption.

Additionally, the requirements for the energy certification of buildings, set in Directive 2002/91/CE, 16 December, transposed in Royal Decree 47/2007, 19 January, approved a basic procedure for the energy efficiency certification of new buildings. Another disposition, Royal Decree 235/2013, 5 April, approved the basic procedure for the energy efficiency certification of existing buildings, thus transposing the above mentioned Directive 2010/31/EU which merged with that of 2002. With this last regulation, it is obligatory to provide the purchasers and users of property in these buildings with an energy efficiency certificate that includes objective energy information to assess their efficiency and to facilitate decision taking. All of this favours the promotion of buildings with high energy efficiency and investments in energy saving. It also helps to inform on CO₂ emissions from the use of energy from emission sources in the residential sector which facilitates the adoption of measures to reduce emissions and to improve the energy classification of buildings.

The current importance of this matter is seen in the above mentioned Building Assessment Report, which is obligatory for collective residential homes more than 50 years old or that wish to apply for public aid incorporating the energy efficiency certificate in their contents under the recent Law 8/2013.

As future challenges, it is necessary to consolidate the application of current energy efficiency measures and to conclude the transposition of European requirements relating to energy efficiency in the current 20-20-20 Packet "Energy and climate change," which gives member states two obligatory objectives, the reduction of greenhouse gas emissions by 20% and the raising of the contribution of renewable energies to 20% of consumption, together with a guideline objective to improve energy efficiency by 20%, and that translate into national objectives.

39. Improving access to sustainable means of transport.

This report has already discussed mobility problems from an objective point of view, that is, from the aspect of their effect on cities. This section also discusses how sustainable transport means and the possibility of access to them are seen from the public's subjectivity.

Although numerous campaigns have been developed on the awareness of the need to change the way we move in large cities, it is clear that, as already mentioned, in the last decades new needs for movements have appeared and increasing motorised mobility, the cause of most of the situations of congestion and conflict of use. Despite all this, the culture of the use of public transport is starting to take root in the large cities because of the existing traffic congestion and the loss of time arising from it.

However this is far from generalised in medium and small cities where private transport is more important.

Together with demand management policies, recent years have seen an especially notable increase in the urban and metropolitan public transport offer in the main Spanish cities with the provision of both infrastructures and of public transport services, justified by the trend for continued growth in mobility.

For example, in the case of suburban railway transport, there are currently 12 centres with suburban services operated by RENFE Operadora with 1,848.6 km of system, 488 stations and 35 lines. To this must be added the six centres of the FEVE (narrow gauge railways) in Galicia, Asturias, Santander, Bilbao, Leon and Cartagena. Generally, the offer of suburban railway services has been maintained or increased in recent years. The railway services in Madrid, Barcelona and Valencia are the most important and consolidated with regard to the coverage of the service offer both by population and by area.

Regarding the quality of the services, it can be stated that the suburban systems in Spain are an example of technology, comfort, accessible prices and offer of services in Europe, with centres such as Madrid also reaching punctuality rates of over 98%.

The authorities also attempt to encourage the use of public transport by matching its price to the purchasing power of the population with various schemes such as combined or multi-use tickets, monthly transport season tickets at a fixed price, limited to certain areas of influence as a function of distance and improved in the case of the retired and young populations, etc. Despite this, in certain cases and above all as a consequence of economic crisis, transport is an important expense for many families.

Finally, and on another working line other than the purely economic for access to sustainable transport, it is necessary to mention the work and role played by new information and communications technologies at the service of sustainability and cities. The so-called smart city is appearing with force and the many possibilities of these technologies for public transport users have no limit today. Services are being offered to the public more interactively and efficiently. All information affecting the main means of transport (timetables, incidents, etc.) is available to the user on increasingly accessible Web sites and through free mobile applications for setting the times and frequency of lines with high precision.

40. Challenges experienced and lessons learnt in these areas.

The greatest difficulty encountered arises from the contrast between the two temporal extremes referred to in this report (1996 on the one hand and 2014 on the other). Both extremes include different cycles. With the first of these, the gates were opened to an expensive period. The second of the two temporal extremes features a more reflective period on the consequences lived as a result of the economic and financial crisis in Spain, also related to the development of the real estate market.

The main lesson learned in this sense is that housing must be considered as an essential element for the dignity of persons as well as forming one of their

fundamental rights. Its habitability, functionality, comfort, security and appropriate location within an urban areas served with the necessary public equipment must be ensured by housing policies developed by the authorities, which must also attend to the needs of the most vulnerable population groups. It is also necessary to pursue policies so that owners keep them in a suitable state of conservation because their degradation and obsolescence result in repercussions for the city overall, on the quality of life levels for the population and on local public budgets, fundamentally.

Taking into account this initial lesson, other difficulties and lessons learned can be emphasised, such as the following.

- The need to act with integrated policies (social, economic and planning) in the districts to guarantee social cohesion and reduce inequalities. In this sense, special attention must be paid to the aftermath of the intense economic crisis that has affected Spain in the last seven years in order to detect urban groups and scenarios that may have been affected by the persistent and serious crisis.

In this field, the role of local organisations, to start programmes that affect persons and urban scenarios and to develop integrated action plans, is important.

- The data that show the relationship between the size of the population and the size of the Spanish housing stock shows that the priority for action on housing must be focused on the integral rehabilitation that affects existing buildings and districts, on setting up measures to promote renting. Already the first signs of this important change which will be necessary over the medium and long terms seem to be seen.

- Regarding the problems of access to housing, the support programmes must be aimed at these specific groups which, because of their economic situation, are in the situation greater vulnerability, above all if they also are responsible for relations (young children, elderly, handicapped, etc.).

- Regarding the equipment of housing, urban rehabilitation and regeneration programmes must give importance to the suitability of rehabilitated homes according to criteria of energy efficiency and the reduction of environmental impacts. In this sense, it is important that these actions include measures and proposals relating to the environmental sustainability of the rehabilitated homes and of the regenerated spaces.

In brief, the current situation presents interesting challenges for carrying out actions on the existing urban fabric that allow a greater level of social and environmental sustainability for urban developments, requiring an important public initiative and new investments.

41. Future challenges and issues in housing and basic services that could be addressed by a New Urban Agenda.

Housing occupies the greatest part of urban territory. Housing and the definition of its quality and equipment standards also form one of the most relevant indicators of the quality of life. In this sense, improvement of housing, access to it and the improvement of basic services must form an unavoidable part of New Urban Agenda.

In the light of the Spanish experience, at least the following aspects must be included.

- The importance of having updated and permanent information. The creation and upkeep of observatories or centres for analysing and monitoring urban phenomena in general and the factors that put the vulnerability of persons and urban areas at risk are crucial for guiding the exercising of priority public policies. Equally, it is necessary to set up procedures for analysing and monitoring the development of the quality, availability and access to housing and its basic services.
- All urban intervention programmes, even including specific and concrete objectives, must be planned from the idea of an integral intervention.
- With regard to the problems arising from access to housing, it is necessary to stress initially the importance of setting up programmes to support access for specific and identified social groups. The emphasis among these must be placed on the relevance of the needs of groups such as the young, the elderly and those others in temporary living situations.
- With regard to the equipping of basic housing services, it must be stressed that as well as the services already considered as essential (access to water, to sewerage systems, accessibility, etc.), housing and buildings must be designed or rehabilitated taking into account environmental sustainability requirements. In this sense, it is important that the New Urban Agenda includes the requirements arising from greater energy efficiency, incorporating both active and passive resources that make possible a lower consumption of resources.
- Equally, it is necessary to stress the need to set up actions that facilitate and promote the greater use of sustainable transport systems.
- Finally, among basic housing equipment it is necessary to consider the importance of incorporating information and communications technologies into residential spaces and to consider these resources as a basic need.

VII. INDICATORS.

i. Percentage of persons living in urban areas with access to drinking water.

Spanish population (%) in the urban environment with access to improved drinking water sources for the period 2000-2010.

	2000	2005	2010
Spain	94	94	100

Note: Improved drinking water sources are defined as those that probably provide safer water in terms of healthiness learned that from unimproved sources because of the technology used for the water supply. Generally, improved water sources are understood as the connection of homes to the water supply system, public or private sources of water, covered excavated drilled wells, etc., while unimproved sources of water include uncovered wells or sources, rivers or ponds, water supplied by sellers or tanker trucks, etc. See the source for further information.

Source: World Health Organisation (via the INE).

ii. Percentage of persons living in urban areas with access to basic sewerage services.

Spanish population (%) in the urban environment with access to improved sewerage systems/installations for the period 2000-2010.

	2000	2005	2010
Spain	98	98	100

Note: Improved sewerage installations are defined as those which are in principle more hygienic and healthy because of the technology they use to fulfil the purpose than those using unimproved technologies. Improved sewerage includes the connection to sewer/septic system, siphon WCs, simple or improved shaft with ventilation. Unimproved installations include public or shared WCs, open pit WCs or bucket WCs. See the source for further information.

Source: World Health Organisation (via the INE).

iii. Percentage of persons living in urban areas with access to regular rubbish collection services.

Percentage of homes whose residents deposit wastes in a specific collection point by type of waste.

	Provincial capitals and municipalities with more than 100,000 inhabitants
Organic wastes only	59.7
Paper and cardboard	80.2
Glass	80.2
Plastic and metal packaging (tins, etc.)	76.3
Chemical products, paint and cleaning products	22.1
Medicines	72.1
Batteries and small batteries	77.5
Cell phones	39.1
Electrical apparatus (domestic appliances, computers, etc.)	67.8
Furniture and other domestic belongings	69.1
Rubble and remains a minor works	43.4
Cooking oil	24
Fluorescent	21.2
Textiles and footwear	57.3

Source: National Statistics Institute, 2008 Homes and Environment Survey.

iv. Percentage of persons living in urban areas with access to clean domestic energy.

Percentage of homes, by type of home and type of energy used.

	TOTAL	Single person home	Couple alone	Couple with children	Single parent with a child	Other type of home
With some source of energy	100	100	100	100	100	100
Electric	100	99.9	100	100	100	99.9
Piped gas	40.5	38.3	41.3	42.4	41.4	35
Liquid petroleum gas/gas bottle	42.1	45.5	40.2	39.4	41.9	50.7
Wood	6.7	6.3	6.5	6.3	5.2	10.2
Liquid fuels	12.5	9.4	12.9	13.7	11.7	12.7
As a source of energy or fuel: total	8.1	7.9	8.4	8.3	7.7	7.7
As a source of energy or fuel: solar energy	0.9	0.4	0.7	1.3	0.7	1

Source: National Statistics Institute, 2008 Homes and Environment Survey.

Other planning related data relevant to the National Report.

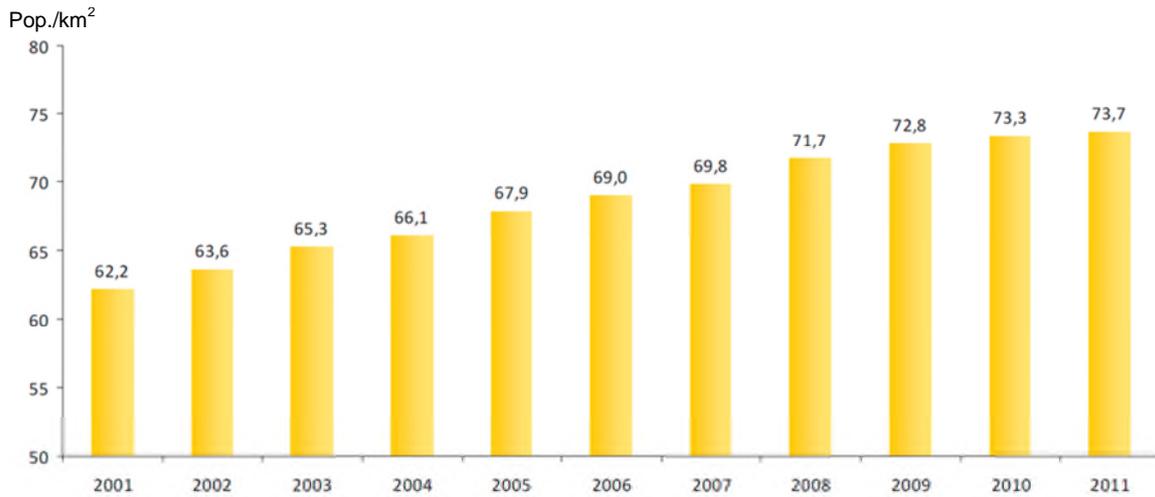
- Estimated housing stock by regions.

Unit: home

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
NATIONAL TOTAL	21,033,759	21,487,307	21,926,409	22,417,950	22,927,382	23,493,772	24,034,966	24,569,715	24,908,126	25,106,251	25,249,053	25,382,415	25,441,306
Andalusia	3,554,198	3,661,570	3,772,509	3,869,035	3,957,925	4,067,012	4,159,934	4,248,653	4,299,768	4,330,256	4,362,573	4,384,954	4,394,515
Aragon	657,555	671,516	685,787	696,640	709,810	722,305	734,445	752,169	765,180	773,915	779,117	785,857	787,938
Asturias (Principality of)	524,336	532,501	541,156	552,308	564,047	576,333	586,204	596,656	602,723	609,935	615,163	619,310	621,278
Balearic Islands	504,041	515,076	525,645	534,557	544,303	553,224	564,062	574,529	581,969	585,687	587,234	590,085	591,709
Canary Islands	855,022	880,598	903,527	926,062	947,791	971,043	990,993	1,016,495	1,030,507	1,038,700	1,042,320	1,044,637	1,045,619
Cantabria	286,901	293,927	302,467	310,948	317,211	327,094	336,277	344,226	352,750	356,094	358,666	360,627	361,673
Castile and Leon	1,455,050	1,484,464	1,509,014	1,535,677	1,565,865	1,604,424	1,640,191	1,674,758	1,696,219	1,709,658	1,720,382	1,730,724	1,735,314
Castile – La Mancha	988,555	1,002,094	1,016,706	1,035,607	1,058,347	1,092,393	1,141,265	1,187,002	1,219,348	1,240,554	1,247,642	1,256,651	1,260,106
Catalonia	3,328,120	3,389,370	3,449,165	3,527,738	3,597,700	3,662,511	3,732,762	3,807,445	3,835,854	3,851,957	3,869,267	3,882,901	3,888,233
Region of Valencia	2,558,691	2,622,936	2,681,679	2,751,137	2,839,518	2,922,289	3,000,215	3,078,014	3,125,409	3,142,938	3,149,218	3,157,657	3,161,095
Extremadura	575,284	581,973	591,382	598,303	605,750	612,085	622,663	632,010	640,603	646,269	650,098	654,789	656,783
Galicia	1,312,496	1,345,625	1,374,478	1,407,723	1,440,998	1,475,077	1,512,422	1,550,411	1,575,449	1,595,995	1,606,880	1,613,132	1,616,838
Madrid (Region of)	2,482,885	2,517,059	2,552,919	2,612,769	2,675,087	2,741,442	2,792,090	2,831,768	2,867,105	2,885,861	2,900,061	2,923,510	2,932,915
Murcia (Region of)	595,319	606,145	617,967	636,440	656,319	693,797	722,252	750,719	769,138	778,071	779,493	783,002	783,875
Navarre (Region of)	261,147	266,064	270,159	274,267	279,563	287,056	293,066	300,192	305,484	307,189	309,418	312,305	314,691
Basque Country	892,009	908,604	919,083	931,408	944,680	957,045	971,426	983,247	994,459	1,003,676	1,019,564	1,028,524	1,033,938
Rioja (La)	156,769	160,891	164,544	168,166	172,723	178,439	183,619	190,047	194,533	197,274	198,973	200,183	200,805
Ceuta and Melilla	45,381	46,894	48,222	49,165	49,742	50,203	51,080	51,374	51,628	52,222	52,984	53,567	53,981

Source: Ministry of Development.

URBAN DENSITY IN SPAIN
(cities with more than 10,000 inhabitants)



The Spanish population reached 47,190,493 inhabitants on 1 January 2011. Of these, 79% is concentrated in urban areas, these being understood as those with a population of more than 10,000.

The increases in the urban population have been constant in recent years meaning that "urban density" (measured as the ratio between the population living in municipalities with more than 10,000 inhabitants and the total area and of the regions) has also increased. In 11 years, the urban density has grown from 62.2 inhabitants/km² in 2001 to 73.7 inhabitants/km² in 2011.

The maximum urban density can be found in the regions of Madrid (761,5 inhabitants/km²), the Canary Islands (255.6 inhabitants/km²), the Basque Country (244.5 inhabitants/km²), Catalonia (191 inhabitants/km²), the Balearic Islands (188.2 inhabitants/km²), the region of Valencia (182 inhabitants/km²) and Murcia (124.9 inhabitants/km²). Asturias, Andalucía y Cantabria are also above the national average (73.7 inhabitants/km²) while the rest are below. Ceuta and Melilla have a demographic situation that cannot be compared with the regions because of their small size and the density of the population.

Source: Ministry of Agriculture, Food and the Environment. INE data.

ACRONYMS

CDGAE: Government Commission for Economic Affairs.

SHC: Spanish Habitat Committee.

ERYICA: European Youth Information and Counselling Agency.

FEMP: Spanish Federation of Municipalities and Provinces.

FSV: Social Housing Fund.

IAE: Tax on economic activities.

IBI: Property tax.

IBVU: Basic urban vulnerability indicators.

IMSERSO: Institute for the Elderly and Social Services.

INE: National Statistics Institute.

LOE: Building Planning Law.

MAGRAMA: Ministry of Agriculture, Food and the Environment.

MINECO: Ministry of Economics and Competitiveness.

MINHAP: Ministry of Finance and Public Administration.

MSSSI: Ministry of Health, Social Services and Equality.

OECD: Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development.

WHO: World Health Organisation.

UN: United Nations.

UN-HABITAT: United Nations Human Settlements Programme.

PENIA: National Strategic Plan for Childhood and Adolescence, 2012-2015.

PNAIN: National Action Plan for Social inclusion.

RENFE: Spanish national railway system.

RFSC: European Reference Framework for Sustainable Cities.

SAAD: System for Autonomy and Attention to Dependence.

GIS: Geographical Information System

SIOSE: Spanish Land Occupation Information System.

SIU: Urban Information System.

ICTs: Information and Communications Technologies.

EU: European Union.

UNICEF: United Nations Children's Fund.