FEDERATIVE REPUBLIC OF BRAZIL

NATIONAL REPORT FOR HABITAT III

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WG composition: Ministry of Cities; Ministry of External Relations; Chief of Staff of the Presidency of the Republic; Secretariat of Institutional Relations of the Presidency of the Republic; Ministry of Finance; Ministry of the Environment; Ministry of National Integration; Ministry of Health; Ministry of Social Development and Fight against Hunger; Ministry of Planning, Budget, and Management; Ministry of Science and Technology; Ministry of Labor and Social Security; Federal Savings Bank; State Public Power representative; Municipal Public Power representative; Workers' entities representative; Corporate entities representative; Professional, academic, and research entities representative; Non-governmental organizations representative, and social movements representatives.

Rapporteur: Institute of Applied Economic Research (IPEA, acronym in Portuguese)

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Abbreviations

ABM	Brazilian Association of Municipalities	Associação Brasileira de Municípios
ANTD	National Decent Work Agenda	Agenda Nacional de Trabalho Decente
APL	Local Productive Arrangements	Arranjos Produtivos Locais
CadÚnico	Single Register for the Federal Government Social Programs	Cadastro Único
CBH	River Basins Councils	Conselhos de Bacias Hidrográficas
CDDPH	Council for the Defense of Human Rights	Conselho de Defesa dos Direitos da Pessoa Humana
CEF	Federal Savings Bank	Caixa Econômica Federal
Cemaden	National Natural Disasters Monitoring and Alert Center	Centro Nacional de Monitoramento e Alerta de Desastres Naturais
CIAMP Rua	Intersectoral Evaluation and Monitoring Committee for the National Policy for Inclusion of the Homeless	Comitê Intersetorial de Avaliação e Monitoramento da Política Nacional para a População em Situação de Rua
CIMCFurb	Intersectoral Commission for Urban Conflict Mediation	Comissão Intersetorial de Mediação de Conflitos Fundiários Urbanos
CNETD	National Conference on Employment and Decent Work	Conferência Nacional de Emprego e Trabalho Decente
CNM	National Confederation of Municipalities	Confederação Nacional de Municípios
CNRH	National Water Resources Council	Conselho Nacional de Recursos Hídricos
CNS	National Health Council	Conselho Nacional de Saúde
CONAMA	National Environmental Council	Conselho Nacional do Meio Ambiente
ConCidades	Council of Cities	Conselhos das Cidades
CONPDEC	National Protection and Civil Defense Council	Conselho Nacional de Proteção e Defesa Civil
CONSEA	National Council on Food and Nutrition Security	Conselho Nacional de Segurança Alimentar e Nutricional
CONTRAN	National Traffic Council	Conselho Nacional de Trânsito
CPDC	Civil Defense Payment Card	Cartão de Pagamento de Defesa Civil
CRAS	Social Assistance Reference Centers	Centros de Referência da Assistência Social
CREAS	Specialized Social Assistance Reference Center	Centro de Referência Especializada em Assistência Social
CTB	Brazilian Traffic Code	Código Brasileiro de Trânsito
DAP/MDA	Declaration of Aptitude for the National Program for the Strengthening of Family Farming	Declaração de Aptidão ao Programa Nacional de Fortalecimento da Agricultura Familiar
DENATRAN	National Traffic Agency	Departamento Nacional de Trânsito
DIEESE	Inter-Union Department of Statistics and Socio-Economic Studies	Departamento Intersindical de Estatística e Estudos Socioeconômicos
EES	Solidarity Economy Endeavors	Empreendimentos Econômicos Solidários
FAR	Residential Leasing Fund	Fundo de Arrendamento Residencial
FGTS	Workers' Severance Fund	Fundo de Garantia por Tempo de Serviço
FJP	João Pinheiro Foundation	Fundação João Pinheiro
FNDE	National Education Development	Fundo Nacional de Desenvolvimento da

	Fund	Educação
FNP	National Front of Mayors	Frente Nacional de Prefeitos
FUNASA	National Health Foundation	Fundação Nacional de Saúde
IBGE	Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics	Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística
IDHM	Municipal Human Development Index	Índice de Desenvolvimento Humano Municipal
INCRA	National Institute for Colonization and Agrarian Reform	Instituto Nacional de Colonização e Reforma Agrária
IPCA	National Wide Consumer Price Index	Índice Nacional de Preços ao Consumidor
IPEA	Institute of Applied Economic Research	Instituto de Pesquisa Econômica Aplicada
IPTU	Urban Property Tax	Imposto sobre a Propriedade Territorial e Urbana
IVS	Social Vulnerability Index	Índice de Vulnerabilidade Social
MCidades	Ministry of Cities	Ministério das Cidades
MCMV	My House, My Life Program	Programa Minha Casa, Minha Vida
MCTI	Ministry of Science, Technology and Innovation	Ministério de Ciência, Tecnologia e Inovação
MDA	Ministry of Agrarian Development	Ministério do Desenvolvimento Agrário
MEI	Individual micro-entrepreneur	Microempreendedor individual
MMA	Ministry of the Enviroment	Ministério do Meio Ambiente
MI	Ministry of National Integration	Ministério da Integração Nacional
MME	Ministry of Mines and Energy	Ministério de Minas e Energia
MR	Metropolitan Regions	Regiões Metropolitanas
MUNIC	Survey of Basic Municipal Information	Pesquisa de Informações Básicas Municipais
OGU	General Budget of the Union	Orçamento Geral da União
PAA	Food Acquisition Program	Programa de Aquisição de Alimentos
PAC	Growth Acceleration Program	Programa de Aceleração do Crescimento
PAR	Residential Leasing Program	Programa de Arrendamento Residencial
PDE	Decennial Plan on Energy	Plano Decenal de Energia
PDUI	Integrated Urban Development Plan	Plano de Desenvolvimento Urbano Integrado
PEA	Economically Active Population	População Economicamente Ativa
PGIRS	Integrated Solid Waste Management Plans	Planos de Gestão Integrada de Resíduos Sólidos
PlanHab	National Housing Plan	Plano Nacional de Habitação
Plano ABC	Low Carbon Agriculture Plan	Plano de Agricultura de Baixo Carbono
Plano Indústria	Sectoral Plan for the Mitigation of Climate Change through Consolidation of a Low Carbon Emission Economy in the Processing Industry	Plano Setorial de Mitigação da Mudança Climática para a Consolidação de uma Economia de Baixa Emissão de Carbono na Indústria de Transformação
PLANSAB	National Basic Sanitation Plan	Plano Nacional de Saneamento Básico
PMBC	Plan on Low Carbon Emission Mining	Plano de Mineração de Baixa Emissão de Carbono
PMGIRS	Municipal Plans for Integrated Solid Waste Management	Planos Municipais de Gestão Integrada de Resíduos Sólidos
PMM	More Doctors Program	Programa Mais Médicos

PNAD	National Household Sample Survey	Pesquisa Nacional de Amostra por Domicílio
PNAE	National School Feeding Program	Programa Nacional da Alimentação Escolar
PNAUP	National Policy on Urban and Peri-urban Agriculture	Política Nacional de Agricultura Urbana e Periurbana
PNDR	National Regional Development Policy	Política Nacional de Desenvolvimento Regional
PNDU	National Urban Development Policy	Política Nacional de Desenvolvimento Urbano
PNMC	National Policy on Climate Change	Política Nacional sobre Mudança do Clima
PNMU	National Urban Mobility Policy	Política Nacional de Mobilidade Urbana
PNOT	National Policy for the Ordainment of the Territory	Política Nacional para o Ordenamento do Território
PNPDEC	National Protection and Civil Defense Policy	Política Nacional de Proteção e Defesa Civil
PNRS	National Solid Waste Policy	Política Nacional de Resíduos Sólidos
PPA	Pluriannual Plan	Plano Plurianual
PPCDAm	Action Plan to Prevent and Control Deforestation in the Legal Amazon	Plano de Ação para a Prevenção e Controle do Desmatamento na Amazônia Legal
PPCerrado	Action Plan to Prevent and Control Deforestation and Fires in Cerrado	Plano de Ação para Prevenção e Controle do Desmatamento e das Queimadas no Cerrado
PREZEIS	Special Social Interest Zones Regularization Program	Programa de Regularização de Zonas Especiais de Interesse Social
PROCONVE	Program for the Controlof Automotive Vehicles Pollution	Programa de Controle da Poluição por Veículos Automotores
PRODECAR	Characterized Demand Program	Programa de Demanda Caracterizada
PRONACOP	Program for the Controlof National Industrial Pollution	Programa Nacional de Controle da Poluição Industrial
PRONAMA	Program for the Controlof National Air Quality	Programa Nacional de Controle da Qualidade do Ar
PRONATEC	National Program for Access to Technical Education and Employment	Programa Nacional de Acesso ao Ensino Técnico e Emprego
PSMC-Saúde	Sectoral Health Plan for Mitigation and Adaptation to Climate Changes	Plano Setorial da Saúde para Mitigação e Adaptação à Mudança do Clima
PSTM	Transport and Urban Mobility Sectoral Plan for the Mitigation of Climate Change	Plano Setorial de Transporte e de Mobilidade Urbana para Mitigação da Mudança do Clima
RAIS	Annual Report on Social Information	Relação Anual de Informações Sociais
RIDEs	Regions of Integrated Development	Regiões Integradas de Desenvolvimento
S2ID	Integrated Information System on Disasters	Sistema de Informação Integrada sobre Desastres
SBPE	Brazilian Savings and Lending System	Sistema Brasileiro de Poupança e Empréstimo
SDH	Human Rights Secretariat	Secretaria de Direitos Humanos
SEDEC	National Civil Defense Secretariat	Secretaria Nacional de Defesa Civil
SENAES	National Secretariat for Solidarity Economy	Secretaria Nacional de Econômica Solidária
SFH	Housing Financing System	Sistema Financeiro Habitacional
SIMU	National Urban Mobility Information System	Sistema Nacional de Informações da Mobilidade Urbana

SIPS	Social Perception Indicator System	Sistema de Indicadores de Percepção Social
SISAGUA	System of Information and Monitoring of Water Quality for Human Consumption	System of Information and Monitoring of Water Quality for Human Consumption
SNHIS	National Social Housing System	Sistema Nacional de Habitação de Interesse Social
SNIS	National Information System on Sanitation	Sistema Nacional de Informações em Saneamento
SNSA	National Environmental Sanitation Secretariat	Secretaria Nacional de Saneamento Ambiental
SUS	Single Health System	Sistema Único de Saúde
UAP	Precarious Settlement Urbanization	Urbanização de Assentamentos Precários
ZEIS	Special Zones of Social Interest	Zonas Especiais de Interesse Social

Introduction

The undertaking of a world conference to discuss urban development presents an opportunity to make commitments for the future, towards a better life and greater well-being, by fighting social inequalities and segregations, changing cities into democratic spaces accessible to all and places for realization of rights and the enjoyment of opportunities.

Brazil is preparing for the Conference in a participatory and inclusive way, based on the understanding that the urban challenge requires engagement of all three levels of government and society, as well as partnership between them. This political commitment is fundamental to build solutions and strategies that guide Brazil to overcome its hardships, aiming at building a fair, more equalitarian, economically and environmentally sustainable society.

Given their role as places of production and consumption, the services they provide, and their function of organizing and controlling the other activities, cities play a significant part in the country's development.

The 1988 Federal Constitution raised municipalities to the status of federal entities, with autonomy to organize and manage a series of public services that became of their competence, changing municipalities' responsibilities agenda. Currently, the political-administrative organization of the Federative Republic of Brazil comprises the Union, 26 states, the Federal District, and 5,568 municipalities – all autonomous from each other.[1]

Cities, the housing location for 160.9 million Brazilians (Table 04), are the first and foremost territories to think the national development, and particularly the means of providing access to the basic urban conditions necessary for enabling a daily life with quality: infrastructure for water supply, sewer collection and treatment, complete road system with sidewalks, signalization, as well as access to adequate housing and all other basic services.

The Brazilian housing demand, partly comprised by unsuitable households and demographic growth, is of approximately 7.71 million units according to the Federal Savings Bank ("*Caixa Econômica Federal*"- CEF) survey (2011) and is concentrated in the three to ten minimum wages range [2] (54% of total). In contrast to previous years, this housing demand is met today in its majority by the formal real estate market and the Federal government's housing programs. In its turn, the housing deficit of around 5.430 million houses (FJP, 2014) is concentrated in the income range of below three minimum wages (73.6%) (FURTADO; LIMA NETO; KRAUSE, 2013).

On the other hand, according to the municipalities that report to the National Information System on Sanitation ("*Sistema Nacional de Informações em Saneamento*" – SNIS; 2013), 92.98% of municipalities have urban water supply, 56.3% have sewage collection, of which 69.42% are equipped with effluent treatment. Public policies target, in this context, the challenge of taking these services to the more vulnerable parcels of the population, seeking to provide universal access to sanitation and drinking water until 2030, as set forth by the National Basic Sanitation Plan (*"Plano Nacional de Saneamento Básico"* - PLANSAB) approved in 2013 (Federal Decree No. 8,141/13).

Inequality in the cities also manifests itself in the population's mobility conditions, affected mostly due to income and compounded by the accessibility difficulties faced by disabled persons as well those with reduced mobility. When traffic levels get close to critical stages for all, it is important to bear in mind that it is worse for those that have to go long distances, with relatively high costs and low quality and safety. Furthermore, those who cannot move because of lack of transportation, opportunity, accessibility or funds should also be taken into consideration. Aiming at changing this reality, federal investments in collective public transportation, legal guarantees of free

[1] Article 18. The political-administrative organization of the Federative Republic of Brazil comprises the Union, states, the Federal District, and municipalities, as set forth in the Constitution.

[2] The minimum wage for 2015, in accordance with Decree No. 8,381, of December 29, 2014, corresponds to R$ 788.00 (seven hundred and eighty-eight Brazilian Reais).

transportation and subsidies in transport fares have become usual in past years.

In addition to sector deficits and to differences in accessing services and basic facilities, other dimensions of life should also be considered: leisure, safety, health, education, culture etc., which generally show the huge challenges for the effective socio-spatial inclusion and for the reduction of inequalities and urban fragmentation.

In order to change this reality, it is crucial to have financial investments, as well as an organized civil society that is engaged in the achievement of fairer and more inclusive cities; of political commitments from the national, state and municipal governments; of further democratization and access to the judiciary; and of greater capability and quality of public managers and governmental agencies.

It became clear and mandatory, since Habitat II, that public management should take place under the aegis of planning and social participation with integrated social mechanisms seeking the production of cities for all.

Among the Brazilian cities, the case of metropolises or large cities should be highlighted. They concentrate expressive parts of the urban population (50% of the Brazilian population live in the 25 largest urban agglomerates) and of wealth production (63% of the domestic GDP is produced in the metropolises). The main metropolises perform a significant role in the network of cities since 1960s, when the territorial integration was thought out based on those spaces. Ever since, metropolises began to concentrate not only people, but investments in general, becoming spaces of wealth and poverty, in which the socio-spatial segregation – a feature of the Brazilian urbanization – reveals itself more intensely.

Cities, places for political action and urban development, are still seen as a sectorized system of goods, facilities, and services. The territorial integration of policies, indispensable for cities to effectively and completely provide for their inhabitants' needs, is also a challenge for the world agenda of cities.

Brazil set forth, in the past 20 years, a sound legal and normative framework to implement an effective urban reform. Progress has been made, for example, in land and urban regularization of informal low-income settlements (favelas, slum tenements, irregular and illegal land allotment etc.) and in implementing major instruments such as the Special Zones of Social Interest ("*Zonas Especiais de Interesse Social*" - ZEIS), which creates areas subject to specific rules of land settlement, use and occupation and directs them to the provision of housing to the low income population.

However, it should be noted that a series of urban issues are structurally set as hindrances and obstacles to the national development. Among them, the urbanization model based on social exclusion and socio-spatial segregation, which creates fragmented and even split urban spaces, is the most obvious and urgent.

The debate on the Right to the City is of great relevance in this context. Its discussion has been gaining ground in several international forums and events, in which documents seeking to define the contours of this right are often presented. This can be exemplified by the Letter from Rio de Janeiro, presented by social movements during the 5th World Urban Forum (Rio de Janeiro, March 22 – 26, 2010) – which had as main topic "The Right to the City: Bridging the Urban Divide ".

It is stated in the Letter that, among others, "[the] Right to the City should constitute a collective right of present and future generations to a sustainable city, without discrimination based on gender, age, race, health conditions, income, nationality, ethnicity, migratory status, political orientation, religious affiliation or sexual orientation, at the same time preserving cultural memory and identity " and that "cities should be understood as a privileged space and place for the exercise of citizenship and democracy as a means to ensure equal, fair and sustainable distribution and enjoyment of its resources, wealth, services, goods, and opportunities to its citizens, comprised by all the people that permanent or transitorily inhabit the cities".

Thus, the right to the city is debated under the perspective of the right to use by all, without privileges or distinction of any kind, of the collective and public space of the city, as well as of the

duty of public entities to ensure that the creation of the city is intended to the materialization of its social function.

The discussions on the right to the city seek, therefore, to translate the yearnings of city's dwellers to live the urban space in its entirety, indistinctively and independently of income, race, gender, age, creed or religion – to participate in the production of the city in its multiple dimensions, and to be able to fully enjoy the city.

Furthermore, these discussions emphasize the importance of defining and implementing urban policies in a participatory fashion, from the urban dwellers and in their collective benefit, making effective the social function of the city in order to break the historically excluding and spatially segregating urbanization mechanism and model, which often privileges economic or social interests of non-representative groups in detriment to the majority of those living in the cities.

Therefore, the right to the city shows the relationship of people with the city within a perspective of integrality, considering that the city per se, as well as its form, infrastructure, and architecture, is not the holder of rights. The city and its symbolic features, values, material and immaterial assets, collective memory and identity – which in many cases already count on legal protection due to its inherent characteristics – , are all indissociable, constituting a created environment (with forms and contents) to be shared according to equal rights of access, use and management for all, the right to the city.

The consolidation of the public and collective domains is incumbent upon the Brazilian society. This must be accomplished through the reinforcement of the citizens' awareness, which is obviously related to the recognition of a set of rights that need to become effective in the urban praxis and in the daily relationships, and not only recognized in legislation. It is also related to the process of enabling all members of society to equally share the public space, the produced space, its assets and infrastructures, recognizing the social function of property and sharing services and goods currently distributed unequally and selectively through the urban space.

In Brazil, the Statute of the City established the right to sustainable cities, which is defined in its Article 2 (I) as the "right to urban land, housing, environmental sanitation, urban infrastructure, transportation and public services, work and leisure, for the present and future generations". The basis of this legal framework is the social function of property and of the city, which is the guiding principle to make effective the right to the city by means of all legal, urbanistic and tax instruments set forth in the Statute and subsequent legislation. It is worth noting that the right to the city received a legal treatment of diffuse right in the public civil suit law (Law No. 7,347, of July 24, 1985) by establishing that people are harmed by damages to the urbanistic order.

Based on this legal landmark and on the recognition of this right and of the social function, in addition to the need to set up participatory processes to that end, a significant portion of the Brazilian society has increasingly taken a stance in favor of that change, in favor of the definition of new bases, primarily collective and social, for the urban production. The changes of the normative framework and of urban policies in recent years represent a deep change of society seeking to guarantee its rights, to reduce inequalities and to make citizenship a reality to all Brazilians; thus, of constructing the edifice called right to the city.

To think of the right to the city is to think about ways to use the city in a public and collective way. It is to think about the planned city – produced and reproduced by all and for all – as an essential space of sociability, as well as for the consolidation of the spirit of citizenship and for the interaction of differences. An essential space, thus, for the materialization of peace and harmony between individuals and peoples.

I. Urban demographic issues and challenges for a New Urban Agenda

The challenges for a new urban agenda in Brazil have as a starting point the major progresses achieved since Habitat II. The normative framework, the recognition of rights, and the priority given

to public investments have marked the past years. However, the old challenges of universal access to facilities, goods, and basic services are still a part of the future agenda, which is partially renewed, but also characterized by a greater sense of urgency. Guaranteeing people's right to the city is the synthesis of the new urban agenda.

During the second half of the 20th Century, as a result of industrialization, a strong demographic growth was seen in Brazilian metropolises and big cities. In more recent periods, the exploitation of mineral resources, the advancing of the agriculture and livestock frontier, as well as the positioning of big infrastructure endeavors in the country's interior, attract and move large contingents, particularly toward the North and Central West regions.

The Brazilian population was, in 2010, of 190.7 million people (Table 04). The Brazilian urbanization rate reached 84.4% in the same period. The rural population growth rate, in turn, was negative with an average annual reduction of 0.7% between 1991 and 2010 (Table 4). Bearing in mind that those figures tend to stabilize, the change of their components is what is worth noticing.

For example, the growth of the urban economically active population ("*população economicamente ativa*" – PEA) between 2001 and 2011 was, in relative terms, only 0.01 p.p., from 53.5% to 53.51% (Table 2). However, considering the population growth in the decade, the outcome is the increase of around 15 million people old enough to exercise economic activities in cities.

An increase in the population over 60 years old was also observed (Table 3). In 1996 it represented 8.61% of total population, with approximately 11 million people. In 2013, it reached 13.04% of the Brazilian population – or 26.3 million people, practically twice as much in absolute terms. Similarly, the 2010 Census showed that 23.91% of the population, or 45.6 million people, have some kind of disability – visual, hearing, motor, mental, or intellectual. As disaggregated data show, this figure also relates to the aging of population, given that, while severe disability (8.3% of the population) reaches individuals at any age, its prevalence is proportionally higher in the elderly group: the prevalence of severe hearing disability is multiplied fivefold among elder people (from 2.4% of the population up to 60 years old to 12%), visual disability is multiplied almost ninefold (0.6% to 5.2%), and the motor disability almost elevenfold (1.1% to 12.1%).

Such demographic changes – such as increase in the economically active population with the entry of young people into the labor market and the expressive increase of the elder population with disability – bring new challenges for the urban policy, which must turn its attention toward these specific groups.

1. Managing rapid urbanization

With the intensification of the industrialization process, Brazil went through an accelerated process of urbanization, coupled with demographic explosion. The predominantly rural population became mostly urban in less than 40 years. In 1950 (Table 4), the urban population was equivalent to 36% and, in 1980, it represented already almost 70% of the Brazilian population. The urban population increased 70.39% from 1950 to 1960. Thereafter, by 1970, the increase was of 65.3%; by 1980, an increase of 55.02%; and by 1991, of 35.19%. Later on, this increase decelerated to 24.24% by 2000, and to 16.82% in 2010. In 50 years, from 1960 to 2010, the urban Brazil grew 402%, from 32 million to 160 million people.

Such urbanization took a notably metropolitan profile. In the largest Brazilian cities, the rapid process of urbanization was marked, on one hand, by irregular land development as a housing solution in the peripheral areas and, on the other hand, by the multiplication of urban voids and of vacant real estates in urbanized areas, resulting in socio-territorial disintegration between districts and central areas, socio-spatial segregation, spatial fragmentation, and increased costs of urban infrastructure implementation and use, among other problems. The urban vacancy reached 4.7 million households in 2010[3].

[3] See Table 5 of IPEA, in the Annex to this report.

Closed land development for the high income classes and horizontal condominiums also appeared very fast. Such excluding urbanization model has been rapidly growing in recent years, not only in the metropolises, but in medium-sized cities as well.

In order to deal with urbanization strategically, associating it to a national development process that promotes territorial integration and decreases regional differences –following usually accepted models of definition and exploitation of productive networks, optimized exploitation of location factors of different activities, multiplication and decentralization of opportunities etc.–, it is necessary to define minimum elements to characterize the city and, consequently, villages and settlements. The same applies to metropolises. Such definitions would make it possible to structure strategic development and investment policies, even at global level, based on the current configuration of the territories and the desired future production.

In the Brazilian federalism[4], given the municipal political-administrative autonomy, the hierarchical definition of settlements, villages, cities, metropolises, and the function that each exercises in the development become a huge challenge. In recent years, the number of municipalities in Brazil[5] increased from 4,491 in 1991 to 5,565 in 2010, thus 1,074 new "cities" were created with the entire political and administrative structure of a federative entity. However, several municipalities do not have individually the set of capabilities required to put into practice local policies that ensure the social function of property and of the city as set forth in the Statute of the City, and even in their totality a national urban and social development policy.

The Brazilian urban network is still unbalanced. Some big metropolises, a limited number of medium-sized cities and thousands of small municipalities are predominantly connected through a highway network, often precarious or incipient. Around 370 municipalities are comprised in a metropolis' or regional capital city's region of influence. The small cities, several villages and settlements are connected to a medium-sized city that, in turn, is connected to a metropolis. Therefore, they constitute a hierarchical network with few levels and many connections yet to be established. Recent "capillarization" policies of technical and higher education institutions, as well as the establishment of the public Single Health System ("*Sistema Único de Saúde*" – SUS), throughout many years have contributed to the equalization of the urban network and to the reduction of regional inequalities.

2. Managing urban-rural linkages

The demographic and population transition from rural to urban experienced in Brazil since the late 19th Century and mainly during the 20th Century led to changes in the occupation of the territory and influenced the regional development process, causing economic, environmental, and social impacts.

Currently, 29.8 million Brazilians live in the rural area (IBGE, 2010a) and there are more than 4 million establishments of family farming (IBGE, 2006), encompassing over 5 million farming households in accordance with the official registry of the Ministry of Agrarian Development ("*Ministério do Desenvolvimento Agrário*"- MDA) – DAP/MDA (MDA's Declaration of Aptitude for the National Program for the Strengthening of Family Farming)[6].

One of the means to investigate urban-rural linkages consists in considering the urban and rural population whose main work activity is opposed to the characteristics of the zone in which they live. Put in other words, it means accounting (i) the percentage of individuals living in urban zone and working in the agricultural sector; and (ii) the percentage of individuals living in rural zone that does

[4] The political-administrative organization of the Federative Republic of Brazil encompasses the Union, 26 states, the Federal District, and 5,568 Municipalities, all autonomous from each other, according to the 1988 Federal Constitution.
[5] http://www.ibge.gov.br/home/presidencia/noticias/imprensa/ppts/00000006841812102011183809119 60.pdf
[6] It is important to stress that job records do not identify family agriculture, one of the most important activities in rural areas, since the farmer is not an employee and his family members, who are involved in production, also do not have their work defined by labor relations.

not work in the agricultural sector.

The first condition shows decreasing percentage throughout the observed period (Table 6): from 3.7% in 1996 to 3.31% in 2006, and 2.41% in 2013. The Northeast region presents the highest percentage with 3.58% of individuals living in urban areas working in agriculture in 2013. The second condition, inversely, shows increasing percentage in the observed period: from 11.54% in 1996, to 14.71%, and 16.41%. The highest percentage is in the South region: 20.74%. Furthermore, considering individuals living in rural areas that do not work in agricultural activity, their percentage is much higher in the metropolitan regions (MRs): 30.56%. It is a demonstration of the attractiveness of the urban work and areas to the detriment of the rural, notably in dense and consolidated spaces. It also indicates the search for greater quality of life and access to health services and education, especially for young people.

On the other hand, pluriactivity (development of other activities in addition to agriculture and livestock ones) by part of the rural population indicates a trend to close association between activities typically linked to the urban but connected to the rural. Additionally, in spite of significant governmental effort in interiorizing facilities, goods and services, such as rural housing programs, expansion of the Single Health System, particularly with the More Doctors Program ("*Programa Mais Médicos*" - PMM), and remarkable advances in education (rural schools, rural school transportation, universities, technology institutes etc.), as well as the recent effort (Decree No. 7,352, of November 04, 2010) in the institutionalization of a specific pedagogic design for these areas, a major portion of the rural population continues developing activities in the urban environment.

The rural exodus associated with the stability of migrant population decreased, but the "temporary migration" associated with the temporary work in agriculture, livestock activities, and civil construction continues to occur quite substantially.

In areas of expansion of the agricultural frontier and near the great works of territorial integration, the influx of migrants does not differ from the process experienced in the 1970s. This also happens in some suburbs of metropolitan and medium-sized cities in rapidly growing process.

On the other hand, small towns and inland villages were left empty, contrasting with the new frontiers of agricultural expansion and their new precarious settlements. The big metropolises with non-urbanized and dense peripheries watch medium-sized cities in the country's interior receiving migration movements and going through population growth with the same rationale of non-assistance and lack of planning of both public and private actions, which are deleterious marks of exclusion and of segregation.

Moreover, the downtrend of people across the country living in the urban areas and working in the rural zone (decrease from 3.31% in 1996 to 2.41% of the entire urban population in 2013) should also be taken into consideration.

Unlike previous decades, it is becoming increasingly more complex to adopt a definition consistent with urban and rural reproduction patterns. However, there is some progress in the definition of policies related to the subject, particularly regarding the promotion of agricultural activities in urban areas. The National Council on Food and Nutrition Security ("*Conselho Nacional de Segurança Alimentar e Nutricional*" – CONSEA) prepared a technical document in November 2014 with subsidies for a National Policy on Urban and Peri-urban Agriculture ("*Política Nacional de Agricultura Urbana e Periurbana"* - PNAUP). Currently, the document is being discussed by the Technical Committee created within the scope of the Inter-ministerial Chamber on Food and Nutrition Security ("*Câmara Interministerial de Segurança Alimentar e Nutricional*" – CAISAN), the government body responsible for coordinating and monitoring federal public policies related to food and nutrition security, fight against hunger, and promoting the human right to adequate food.

The current challenge is to keep making progress, in the context of a New Urban Agenda, on policies that strengthen complementarities between urban and rural areas and that deepen the process of providing the latter with physical and social infrastructure, urban facilities and services, thus eliminating the anachronistic view of the rural as synonymous of backwardness, as well as the duality between rural and urban.

Denying the rural is denying the urban. Both spaces should be analyzed in their complementarities, more so than in their differences, always synthesized in their relationships and not in isolation. The availability of infrastructure (water supply, housing, communication, energy), services (health, education) and assets of these two spaces, mistakenly seen as watertight, is increasingly similar. Population from those spaces are increasingly creating relationships with both environments, blurring boundaries between modes –urban and rural – and forms –country and city.

3. Addressing urban youth needs

There is a decelerating process of youth population growth in Brazil in the past twenty years (Table 7). In 1996, young people aged 15 to 18 years old comprised 8.76% of the population; in 2013, they are 7.07% (and even less, 6.62%, in metropolitan regions). Young people aged 19 to 29 years old were 18.28% of the population in 1996; and 17.25% in 2013.

The schooling of the 18 to 29 years old population with complete basic education (Table 8) shows increase in the Brazilian average, from 38% in 1991 to 74% in 2010. This increase was more noticeable particularly in the biggest cities, where it surpassed 80% in all regions, except for the North region (77%). Municipalities with up to 100 thousand inhabitants show the same pattern, but they started with figures well below the national average in 1991. The extreme cases are the North region – where 17% of the youth had completed basic education in 1991, and 55% in 2010 – and the South region, with 35% in 1991 and 78% in 2010.

The high school education level is, in contemporary Brazil, a condition for entry into the labor market that is required in about 90% of the new jobs. Accordingly, it is worth to point out the reduction in the precocious school dropout rate, which decreased from 48% to 36.5% between 2000 and 2010 (youth population aged 18 to 24 years old that had not completed high school level education and that were not in school). (IBGE, 2010b). However, a strong variation of this indicator is noticed in relation to income: in 2013, the precocious school dropout rate corresponded to 50.8% in the first quintile of income, contrasting with dropout rate of 9.8% in the last quintile of income (IBGE, 2014).

As far as the number of enrolments in universities is concerned, Brazil has advanced from 3.5 million to 7.0 million since the creation of the National Program for Access to Technical Education and Employment ("*Programa Nacional de Acesso ao Ensino Técnico e Emprego*" – PRONATEC) in 2011, implemented in more than 400 federal technical institutes.

Currently, many municipalities have made available, in order to provide access to educational activities, half bus fare or even full gratuity, although generally restricted to home-school displacement. The young people who are in the formal labor market count on, depending on income, transportation vouchers of unrestricted use on any trip, but with a monthly number of vouchers restricted to the number of trips required for home-work displacement.

Regarding informal work, in 2013, 17.83% of young people aged 19 to 29 years old were in this situation, in comparison to 24.45% in 2006 (Table 9). The Northeast region, however, still shows a percentage close to that figure (24.5%) in 2013, but with a downtrend. Informality among young people is lower in metropolitan regions than in Brazil: 13.64%. According to the criteria of race/color, there was a reduction among young black people aged 19 to 29 years old with jobs in the informal market between 2006 (24.14%) and 2013 (17.74%).

The social and economic improvement that Brazil went through in the last decade generated increase in family income, suggesting that many young people, particularly in the urban peripheries, had the pressure for entry into the labor market mitigated, increasing the number of years in school. However, as pointed out by Camarano and Kanso (2012), there was an increase, between 2000 and 2010, of young people aged 15 to 29 years old that neither study nor work. This situation is related to families' low income and education levels – the lower the income level, the greater was the increase of this condition.

In 2013, the percentage of "young people who neither study nor work" (16.68% and 10.83%, respectively for the age groups of 19 to 29 years old, and of 15 to 18 years old) were below those seen in 1996 (19.64% and 11.83%), but higher than in 2006 (14.9% and 9.08%), a fact that could be related to moments of economic growth and downturn (Table 10). Among the regions, the highest percentages in 2013 were seen in the Northeast (21.13% and 12.54% for age groups between 19-29 and 15-18 years old respectively) and the lowest in the Central West (11.39% and 9.12%, respectively). The data produced by the Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics ("*Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística"* – IBGE) also shows a race dimension: in 2010, 62.4% of those young people were black (blacks and brown). When the gender dimension is considered, a larger incidence among women can be observed, with a percentage higher than the national average in all analyzed years (1996, 2006, and 2013). Among young people in this category, 60% are women, and among those 50% are mothers. Thus, the gender component reveals new challenges for the cities, in addition to the need of education and work, it is also necessary to fully address these issues in the urban space, providing nurseries, full-time schools, and access to work.

A problem that directly impacts the youth is the public safety issue. In 2012, there were 56 thousand victims of homicides in the country, whereas, of the total, 53% were young people aged 15 to 29 years old, whereas 77% blacks and 93.30% male (WAISELFISZ, 2014). According to the victim's color/race criterion, there was a particular trend in homicides against young people, between 2002 and 2012, with a reduction of 32% of white victims and an increase of 32.3% of black victims (WAISELFISZ, 2014).

The homicide rate (Table 11), regardless of the disaggregation by age, varies according to the regional insertion in the city, and has increased in almost every region, except in the Southeast. In this sense, in 1996, in the Southeast region, the indicator, which was of 34 deaths per 100 thousand inhabitants, decreased to 21.8 in 2009. In contrast, the Northeast, which presented in 1996 a rate of 18.2 deaths from external causes per 100 thousand inhabitants, rose to the second position in 2009, followed by the Central West, with rates of 33.5 and 32.4 per 100 thousand inhabitants, respectively. This increase portrays the process of decentralization and accelerated growth in both regions, which with greater presence of the young population, tend to present a more intensive evolution of the mortality rates for these specific groups.

The percentage of young people in jail increased by 32% between 2007 and 2012, reaching 266.3 thousand individuals (Table 12). This contingent is bigger than the non-youth group (214 thousand), but the variation in the incarceration of the latter group was higher. If the race/color criterion is considered, the incarcerated blacks rate (young and not-young) also increased by 32% in the same period, whilst it increased less among whites, by 26%.

The incarcerated population (among individuals of all ages) is higher among men than among women (Table 13): 483.6 thousand against 31.8 thousand in 2012; however, the variation between 2007 and 2012 was greater among women: an increase of 67% against 39% among men.

Correlating schooling, violence, and incarceration data, it is possible to observe, firstly, that young blacks remain experiencing situations of vulnerability, despite the existence of social public policies to tackle racism. The same happens with women that go through more vulnerable conditions, which require tailored and specific policies.

The listed phenomena have a strong correlation with income and, consequently, with the location of people in the territory and the opportunities of access that are presented to them. In this context, the drastic decrease of the several forms of urban violence, which seem to summarize a series of needs of the youth, is to be achieved with measures that go beyond isolated race and gender policies. New urbanization models, with special attention to urban expansion areas and full and integrated re-urbanization of precarious settlements, must be continued and enhanced in order to provide urbanity to everyone in the city.

4. Responding to the needs of the aged and disabled persons

On the other hand, the growth of the elderly population has accelerated in the period since the Habitat II. The ratio of the Brazilian elderly population (aged 60 years old or more) represented in 1996 about 8.61% of the population, rising to 10.18% in 2006 and 13.04% in 2013 (Table 3). The disaggregation of data by gender evidences the feminization of the elderly population in all studied years, including higher compared to the national average (9.31% in 1996, 11.10% in 2006, and 14.09% in 2013).

When comparing the country's regions, there is an increase of older persons in all of them, with the North region presenting the lowest ratio in all analyzed years. Thus, in 2013, the South and Southeast regions presented bigger ratios of older persons – 14.55% and 14.17%, respectively –, compared to only 8.83% in the North.

The percentage of older persons as "family's breadwinner" (Table 16), thus considered the cases in which the older person's income is higher than 50% of the household income, remained relatively stable, with a slight increase, in the past twenty years (40.61% in 1996, 43.77% in 2006, and 42.01% in 2013).

The data show that a large number of older persons guarantee the survival of their families and, in a way, contribute to the country's economic dynamism. As regards the Brazilian MRs, there is a different picture, with a more expressive growth of this situation, from 35.69% in 1996 to 44.32% in 2006, and to 49.94% in 2013.

The data suggest that society and the cities will live with more intensity the challenges of a large elderly population, which demand specific services and infrastructure and have a structuring role in the urban economics and dynamics.

In this context, it is important to note that the aging of the population is related to the achievements of rights of the elderly in public health, social assistance and education policies. Incidentally, in 2011, 96% of municipalities have indicated some action or policy for the elderly population (Table 15).

Similarly, it is crucial to ensure the full and equitable enjoyment of all human rights and fundamental freedoms for all persons with disability, estimated in 23.91% of the Brazilian population, according to the 2010 Census, the majority of which (84.36%) live in urban areas. To that end, cities need to provide equal opportunities and architectonic, communicational, and attitudinal accessibility, in accordance with the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, which was adopted by Brazil with the equivalence of a constitutional amendment.

Thus, it is incumbent upon the Public Power, in the three levels of the Federation, to take all appropriate measures to enable persons with disability to live independently and to participate fully in all aspects of life, with access to the physical environment, to transportation, to information and communication, and to services and facilities open to the public and for public use. Illustrative of the big federative challenge is the fact that, in 2011, almost half of municipalities (42.6%) did not have any item of accessibility in their town hall buildings and only 290 of them (5.2% of total) allowed access to people accompanied by guide dogs. (IBGE, 2011)

The access of older and disabled persons to public actions regarding everyday mobility is necessary for the enforcement of these policies. It is, in itself, a major challenge, not only to enable mobility, but to guarantee that it is carried out in a safe and accessible environment. The sixth cause of death among older persons in Brazil, in 2011, was "external causes" (3.4%), and death from traffic accidents the second reason in this category. By disaggregating data by age and gender, it is possible to observe that more older men die for this reason (37.2%, 60-69 years old; 32.3%, 70 -79 years old; 18.3%, 80 years old or over) than older women (36.0%, 60-69 years old; 24.0%, 70-79 years old; 7.2%, 80 years old or over) (BRASIL, 2014g).

The road system has an important role in the humanization of cities, enabling the inclusion of population groups with reduced mobility, older and disabled persons, as well as children. Thus, the

exercise of rights with autonomy by older persons or people with disability requires adjusting the road system to their specificities. In this context, the construction of sidewalks, footbridges and pedestrian crossings must be a priority. However, in 2011 (Table 17), only 17.1% of elder people living in municipalities with less than 100 thousand inhabitants counted with some kind of accessibility policy. In contrast, cities with population of 1 to 1.5 million in 100% of the cases informed having some kind of accessibility policy. The 2010 Census also showed that only 66.4% of dwellers living in permanent private households counted on sidewalks surrounding their homes, and only 3.9% had gangways for wheel-chairs.

The issue of older persons' economic capacity to access collective transportation was already tackled in Brazil, which constitutionally guaranteed gratuity in the system. Furthermore, specific policies were put in place in several leisure and cultural events – which are available for free or with 50% discount for older persons. Despite that fact – and, in some measure because of it –, there is a huge resistance in adopting more accessible collective transportation vehicles, such as urban buses with lowered floor and intercity buses with lifting platforms.

Regarding housing, two issues should be considered: the access to goods, the financing for older persons and persons with disability, and the adequacy of projects, including with spaces of sociability. The Statute of the Elderly guarantees the reservation of at least 3% (three percent) of the housing units for older persons. Currently, the My House, My Life Program ("*Programa Minha, Casa Minha Vida*" - MCMV) provides 6.2% of housing units for older persons. Furthermore, the persons with disability with income of less than R$ 1,600.00 have priority in funding for the houses in the program, all of them adaptable, which means that every environment has space for wheel-chairs maneuvering, doors with at least 80cm of clearance and lower electrical installations, among other measures. Additionally, 3% of the houses are adapted – that is, they receive kits in accordance with the dweller's disability (hearing, physical, visual, or dwarfism).

For the next twenty years, the main goal regarding older persons and persons with disability in the cities is to guarantee mobility, with accessibility, safety and autonomy, including enabling social interaction and the enjoyment of rights, especially by expanding services in the Social Assistance Reference Centers ("*Centros de Referência da Assistência Social*" - CRAS) and social protection services.

5. Integrating gender in urban development

The number of households headed by women increased in Brazil in recent years. In 1996, 26.27% of urban households had this condition, which rose from 33.89% in 2006 to 41.37% in 2013 (Table 18). The highest percentages among regions are in the Northeast and North regions (respectively, 44.41% and 44.03%). This ratio is even higher in slums, 46% (DATA POPULAR, 2014). The proportion of households where women are the breadwinners also increased from 18.87% in 1996 to 27.19% in 2013 (Table 19), which means that in these households they are accountable for more than half of the family income. Once more, the Northeast region showed the highest ratio: 32.19% in 2013.

The inequality income index for women, compared to men, decreased in past years (Table 20). This difference was, in 1996, 33% higher for men and, in 2013, of 23%, considering formal jobs in both cases. However, inequality is higher when informal jobs are considered: in 1996, the difference was 41% higher for men and, in 2013, of 37%. When gender inequality is considered together with color/race inequality, the data show that black women comprise 32% of total workers receiving one minimum wage (ILO, 2014).

The working hours should be thought in a broader way as a decent work indicator for men and women. Thus, taking as example women's total working hours, that is, including the time still dedicated almost exclusively by them to the domestic chores and caring for their children and elders, women also work, in average, around 5 more hours than men (ILO, 2014).

The effort undertaken by Brazil to formulate the first[7] and the second[8] National Plan of Policies for Women in a participatory manner should be stressed. Local participation resulting from the formulation of the second plan contributed to the dissemination and expansion of the local in the national policy, which consequently resulted in the formulation of local political frameworks: the municipal plans of policies for women.

Indeed, the number of municipalities that in 2006 had adopted municipal plans was insignificant; in 2013 this picture was different: 64.3% of the municipalities with population of 1 to 5 million already had a local plan (Table 21). This tool seems to be characteristic of the largest cities, given that the percentages fall as the size of the cities decreases: only 2.5% of municipalities with less than 100 thousand inhabitants count on such plans.

The qualification of public spaces is crucial to integrate gender in the urban development. It is important to think, plan and produce the city as a space with guarantees of human rights for women, that is, guaranteeing the adequacy of the transportation system, public lighting and security as a means to tackle gender inequalities[9]. Another point that deserves attention refers to the importance of producing safe and healthy spaces for street vendors, who make up a large number in Brazilian cities, a majority of which is poor and have to deal with precarious situations in terms of work. The importance of sanitary service (public toilets in urban centers), either for pedestrians in general or for street vendors, is not a negligible fact and, therefore, is an issue that strongly incises in terms of gender (IBANHEZ, 1999).

II. Land and Urban Planning: issues and challenges for a New Urban Agenda

Urban planning in Brazil has undergone significant changes, both in the institutional and normative areas since the 1988 Federal Constitution and, thirteen years later, with the approval of the Statute of the City (Law No. 10,257/01). The principle of the social function of the urban property was established and introduced new rights, such as the right to housing (Article 6, with wording provided by the Constitutional Amendment No. 26, of 2000), urban planning and land regularization.

This urban legal framework changed the legal status of the municipal master plan ("*planos diretores*"), which began to perform the role as a key instrument of urban policy and, as such, to constitute the basis for the application of urban, legal, and tax instruments of the Statute of the City. One of the major points of this legislation is the reaffirmation of the social function of urban property, which must encompass elements such as equity and fair distribution of the benefits from urbanization in favor of a city for all.

The creation in 2003 of the Ministry of Cities ("*Ministério das Cidades*" – MCidades), at the institutional level, enabled the unification, in a single public institution, of the management of several sectoral policies of urban development, such as urban planning, housing, environmental sanitation, urban mobility, transportation and traffic, as well as the creation of a participatory management body at national level: the Council of Cities ("*Conselho das Cidades*" – ConCidades).

The ConCidades is an advisory and deliberative entity which integrates the Ministry of Cities and is comprised of several representatives from the public power and civil society (Article 10 of MP 2,220/01 c/c Article 29, Item III c/c Article 31, Item X c/c Article 33, Item VIII, of the Federal Law No. 10,683/03 later regulated by Decree No. 5,031/2004, revoked by Decree No. 5,790/2006). The members of the Council of Cities are elected during the National Conference of Cities (Article 19, Decree No. 5,790/2006).

The work of MCidades and of ConCidades in the last decade was responsible for the mobilization, capacity building and training of several public agents, politicians, and members of civil society that

[7] See: http://bvsms.saude.gov.br/bvs/publicacoes/pnpm_compacta.pdf
[8] See:http://portal.mec.gov.br/dmdocuments/planonacional_politicamulheres.pdf
[9] See: http://www.inclusivecities.org/pt/ e http://www.cidadesseguras.org.br/

have to deal with urban planning.

In the normative field, in addition to strengthening of the master plans, the legislation established new planning tools based on the regulation of sectoral policies at national level. These normative advances in the last decade revolve around housing and land regularization[10]; environmental sanitation and solid waste[11] ; of transportation and urban mobility[12]; and areas susceptible to the occurrence of high-impacting landslides, sudden floods or geological or hydrological processes[13] . The Council of Cities also approved the National Housing Plan ("*Plano Nacional de Habitação"* – PlanHab) and the National Basic Sanitation Plan- the latter was also approved by the National Health Council ("*Conselho Nacional de Saúde"* – CNS), by the National Environmental Council ("*Conselho Nacional do Meio-Ambiente*" – CONAMA) and by the National Water Resources Council ("*Conselho Nacional de Recursos Hídricos"* – CNRH).

At the local level, many municipalities instituted territorial planning tools, within the local scope. As far as the sectoral plans are concerned, the number of municipalities that already have housing plans or that are preparaing them increased from 10.9% (2008) to 28.0% (IBGE, 2011). The number of municipalities with sanitation plans, ready or under elaboration, also increased from 10.8% (2011) to 39.5% (2013) (IBGE, 2011; IBGE, 2013). As far as the existence of emergency/contingency plans is concerned, according to a survey of Civil Defense, 15% of municipalities (IBGE, 2013) and 83% of municipalities located in risk areas have prepared risk management plans, according to a survey carried out by MCidades[14] .

In accordance with the Survey of Basic Municipal Information ("*Pesquisa de Informações Básicas Municipais*" IBGE, MUNIC 2014), which had 2013 as year of reference, 1,865 municipalities have declared having prepared their Integrated Solid Waste Management Plans ("*Planos de Gestão Integrada de Resíduos Sólidos*" - PGIRS) within the framework of Law No. 12,305/2010. At the state level, data from the Ministry of the Environment show that 6 states have completed Solid Waste Plans ("*Planos de Resíduos Sólidos*"), and over half of the units of the federation have completed studies on the regionalization of the integrated solid waste management.

During the last twenty years, marked by economic stability and growth, at least in more dynamic areas of the national territory, where there is a greater interest of the real estate capital, it is possible to observe a certain discrepancy in keeping pace between formulation of legislation, frameworks and planning and management tools, on the one hand, and financing processes and financialization (investments and real estate valuation), on the other, resulting in low implementation of the principles set forth in the normative framework.

As demonstrated by Maricato (2013), in Sao Paulo and in Rio de Janeiro, real estate prices increased by 153% and 194%, respectively between 2009 and 2012[15]. The common understanding among urbanists is that urban land management is under pressure by the real estate capital, and, in many cases, a relaxation or modification of laws in its benefit can be observed.

There is still a particular challenge of major importance regarding MRs. The Federal Constitution delegated to states the capability of creating metropolitan regions by law. Consequently, the number of metropolitan regions has multiplied in the country – in addition to the nine created by the federal government in 1973 and 1974, 58 created by the states were added up by the end of 2012, a process that was described as "institutional metropolization" (BALBIM et al., 2012).

Currently, there are already 70 metropolitan regions, of which the 12 largest and most important[16]

[10] Federal Law No. 11,124/2005; Federal Decree No. 5,796/2006; Laws No. 11,481/2007; No. 11,952/2009, and No. 11,977/2009.

[11] Federal Law No. 11,445/2007; Federal Decree No. 7,217/2010; Federal Law No. 12,305/2010; Federal Decree No. 7,404/2010

[12] Federal Law No. 12,587/2012.

[13] Federal Law No. 12,608/2012, the Statute of the City.

[14] See: http://www.ibge.gov.br/home/estatistica/economia/perfilmunic/2013/

[15] For a simple comparison, in accordance with the Central Bank (2014) real estate valuation for the period between 2009 and 2013 was of 113% (valuation based on the Index of Guarantee Values of Financed Housing–IVG-R). See: https://www3.bcb.gov.br/sgspub/consultarvalores/consultarValoresSeries.do?method=getPagina

[16] Belém MR, Belo Horizonte MR, Curitiba MR, RIDE/DF and Surroundings, Fortaleza ME, Goiânia ME, Manaus MR, Porto Alegre MR, Recife MR, Rio de Janeiro MR, Salvador MR, and São Paulo MR.

concentrate 64.93 million inhabitants, about 34% of the country's population (2010 Census). On the other hand, if the same criteria were used in the 1970s to define metropolitan regions, with due adaptation to new context, it is estimated that currently the number of metropolitan regions would be only 26 (CASTELLO BRANCO et al., 2013).

The metropolitan regions of the 1970s counted on management, planning, and financing instruments, as they were considered priority territories for the country's development. This is not necessarily the case with the new metropolitan regions, although sectoral policies have specific criteria and values for assisting these areas.

When analyzing the institutionalized management systems in fifteen major metropolitan regions of the country, Costa and Tsukumo (2013) found that only 47% count on an exclusive management instance; despite the fact that most of them (80%) have established deliberative councils (33% of which provide for the participation of civil society, and two thirds did not have any meeting during year that preceded the study); and 73% have instituted funds (60% of which never received funds). Finally, only one third of the metropolitan regions have metropolitan plans, which shows the specific challenges of joint management of the urban territory.

The process of creating the Statute of the Metropolis (Federal Law No. 13,089 of January 12, 2015) had, among others, the aim of correcting and filling the gaps left by the constitutional text, by clarifying concepts, defining instruments and source of funds, as well as structuring the inter-federative governance and the guidelines for planning and management. The main instrument defined by the new law is the Integrated Urban Development Plan ("*Plano de Desenvolvimento Urbano Integrado*" - PDUI), which shall be established by State legislation and reviewed every 10 years, at least.

For the above reasons, the following are considered general guidelines for a new urban agenda for urban and territorial planning:

- institutionalize the National Urban Development Policy ("*Política Nacional de Desenvolvimento Urbano"* – PNDU), the National Policy for Ordainment of the Territory ("*Política Nacional para o Ordenamento do Território"* - PNOT), and the National Regional Development Policy ("*Política Nacional de Desenvolvimento Regional"* – PNDR);

- promote, in all municipalities and states, technical, financial, and institutional capacity for planning, urban and territorial management, and the provision of services;

- promote, in all municipalities, the implementation of Multipurpose Technical Records (of mapping and properties registers) in accordance with national guidelines integrating them to National Institute for Colonization and Agrarian Reform's ("*Instituto Nacional de Colonização e Reforma Agrária*"- INCRA) rural databases, to the Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics' urban territorial platform, and to notary offices' records;

- strengthen strategies that foster the articulation of urban policies and instruments that promote the social function of property and of the city;

- create incentive mechanisms for municipalities with the aim of giving effectiveness to the instruments that promote the social function of property and of the city, as well as providing them with financing mechanisms;

- significantly increase transparence of state actions in all levels and spheres, as well participation and control instances of civil society over the set of policies;

- make private planning instruments converge with principles and procedures from the Statute of the City;

- expand and qualify popular participation through urban development councils or councils of the cities, in all levels of the federation;

- implement planning instruments aiming at the enjoyment of services and opportunities of cities by all its inhabitants;

- increase land regulation capability by municipalities, especially to correct deviations

and injustices caused by the land market dynamics; and

- implement the environmental management policy for urban areas in line with other urban planning tools.

6. Ensuring sustainable urban planning and design

In the process of preparing and approving master plans, the rules of a representative democratic regime are articulated with new participation and deliberation spaces. Besides the attention given by the Statute of the City to guidelines and instruments for the democratic management of the city, the work of the Council of Cities also stands out, particularly by its Resolution No. 25, of March 18, 2005, which establishes guidelines and recommendations for the preparation of master plans in line with a participatory process. Activities led by the Ministry of Cities added up to this process inasmuch as they provided capacity building to local professionals and technicians in the elaboration of master plans, in 2004 and 2005 and, subsequently, with the creation of the Evaluation and Capacity building Network for the Implementation of the Master Plans ("*Rede de Avaliação e Capacitação para a Implementação dos Planos Diretore*s"). The Network, active since the end of 2007, evaluated over 500 master plans, with extensive collaboration from research institutions and civil society participation.

The actions of promotion and incentive carried out by the federal government yielded results. In 1996, half of municipalities with more than 500 thousand inhabitants had master plans; in 2013, practically all reported having them (Table 22). The greater progress took place among the smaller cities: in those with population range between 100 thousand and 500 thousand inhabitants, this number went from 36%, in 1996, to the totality of municipalities in 2013. The progress was also great among municipalities with less than 100 thousand inhabitants: whilst only 5% of them had master plans in 1996; in 2006, they were 12%; and in 2013, 47%.

In addition to the master plans, municipalities count on a urban normative framework[17] to assist in land management (Table 23). An expansion of this framework was noticed in medium and large cities. The number of municipalities under 100 thousand inhabitants that had this framework rose from 39% that to 91% in 2013. For municipalities between 100 thousand to 500 thousand inhabitants, the rates have gone up from 42% to 100% in recent years. This increase can also be noticed in cities with more than 500 thousand inhabitants, which counted on a growth from 44% to 96% in 2013.

In light of this context, the following objectives should be pursued in the coming period:

- implement the Statute of the City's municipal master plans, with due consideration of the issues of public space valuation and environmental protection in planning, observing different territorial planning scales;
- foster and ensure the effective use of instruments to fight real estate speculation in order to expand access to land and to comply with the social function of property, in articulation with the design and execution of public policies; and
- promote the expansion of technical and institutional structure for urban and territorial planning and management in municipalities and states.

7. Improving land management, including addressing urban sprawl

The Statute of the City was changed in 2012 in order to incorporate an instrument of urban spraw control, according to which municipalities that intend to expand the urban perimeter must elaborate

[17] The following normative and legal instruments were considered as a basic set: Law on Urban Perimeter, Law on Zoning or Land Use and Occupation, the Civil Works Code, and the Law on Land Allotment.

a specific project addressing the areas that will accommodate the city growth. If applied, this device may be an effective way to control urban sprawl based on an evaluation of territorial adequacy before the actual urban occupation.

In addition to the master plan, urban sprawl may also be regulated by other sectoral policies' instruments. This may be exemplified by the local housing plans[18], in as much as they may establish strategies for housing promotion in more central areas, either by using instruments of inclusionary zoning and land reserve for social interest housing (ZEIS) or fostering the use and adequacy of idle real estates.

In this context, it is important to highlight that there was significant increase in the absolute number of vacant households in Brazil in the past two decades, in spite of the slight reduction in percentage terms (Table 5). In 1991, there were 2.963 million vacant households in Brazilian cities, amounting to 9% of total households at that time. In 2000, this figure jumped to 4.58 million, which represents 10% of the total households' stock. There were, in 2010, 4.67 million vacant households, equivalent to about 8% of the total stock (IBGE, 2010c).

The relation between vacant households and housing demand is not direct. There is, for example, a greater presence in relative terms of vacancy in small inland towns, mostly in the Northeast region. However, in absolute terms, the majority of these properties are located in the metropolitan regions, where the housing demand is also concentrated.

The main mechanism to control urban growth should be occupying vacant land left in inner cities, which is one of the major claims in recent social conflicts. The occupation and densification of already urbanized areas enable direct improvement of indicators related to access to goods and services, transportation and mobility. The instruments of the Statute of the City, such as land subdivision, building and mandatory use, have the objective to fulfill the social function of property, rationalizing the use of space, reducing the voids and expanding the available area for building, in addition to curbing speculation.

Several urban movements fighting for housing are engaged in this issue and have held vacant properties occupations both in the peripheries and downtown areas of the cities, especially in Sao Paulo, Rio de Janeiro, Recife, Belo Horizonte, and Salvador (BARBOSA, 2014). Real estate valuation, along with changes derived from Law No. 12,112 of 2009, which amended the Law on Tenancy of 1991, and gave a faster pace to eviction procedures, constituted an incentive for owners to review their contracts, increasing the possibilities of conflicts over urban land.

As an outcome of this framework, the number of land conflicts involving possession and ownership of urban real state in Brazil serves as indicator of this recent movement of struggle for housing. There were 4,036 legal eviction suits in the state of Sao Paulo in 2009; this figure jumped to 36,380 in 2013. There were 2.604 legal eviction suits in the state of Rio de Janeiro in 2009, and 7,269 in 2013. There were 6.329 legal eviction suits in the state of Rio Grande do Sul in 2009, and 7,259 in 2013 (SAULE JR e et. al., 2013).

In order to address this issue, the Interministerial Ordinance No. 17 was published in June 27, 2014, establishing the Intersectoral Commission for Urban Conflict Mediation – *("Comissão Intersetorial de Mediação de Conflitos Fundiários Urbanos* – CIMCFurb), which aims at building peaceful solutions for urban conflicts involving low-income families or vulnerable social groups or involving the guarantee of democratic management of the city, with the objective of ensuring the right to decent and adequate housing, the access to regularized and urbanized land, and the promotion of human rights.

Nevertheless, it still is necessary, on one hand, to strengthen and enhance the tools for redistributing the benefits of urbanization already contained in the Statute of the City, such as charges for additional building, consortiated urban operations, tax on urban property and the improvement contribution as a means to create protection mechanisms for the population affected by urban

[18] As regards the Mobility Plans, in accordance with the National Mobility Policy, it is possible to observe that they have little effect in controlling urban sprawl, given that they are reactive and cannot, under the law, deal with land use and occupation.

projects, in physical, economic, and social terms.

On the other hand, it is essential to consolidate mechanisms preventing involuntary displacement in urban and large scale infrastructure interventions, such as the mechanisms created by Ordinance No. 317 of July 18, 2013, which sets forth measures and procedures to be adopted in the cases of involuntary displacement of families caused by the implementation of programs and activities under management by the Ministry of Cities.

As strategy for solving urban land management problems, there should be:

- monitoring of land conflicts, in order to maximize results in terms of conflict and violence prevention and through mediation and negotiations;
- institution of the National Policy on Prevention and Mediation of Urban Land Conflicts, elaborated in a broad and participatory manner by the Council of Cities;
- development and monitoring of specific urban expansion projects in a participatory manner;
- building specific policies of housing rehabilitation associated to housing and mobility policies, as well as job and income generation, in areas with infrastructure and services; and
- development of strategies and instruments for broad participation in the design and management of urban projects, ensuring transparence of actions, building identities, and disseminating potential benefits for different areas of the cities.

8. Enhancing urban and peri-urban food production

Despite the fact that Brazil does not stand out in terms of massive food production in urban and peri-urban areas, several experts consider it a strategic practice.

The increased understanding of the interdependence between the urban and rural, and between the urban and the peri-urban, has become the object of growing interest in Brazil, and the associated food production associated may have an important role in the urban-rural interdependence, as well as in the perspective of increasing environmental and energetic efficiency of social systems.

Particularly, the urban and peri-urban food production can contribute to urban population's food security, decreased food transportation costs, shortening the distance between production and consumption, access to healthier food and trading in socially equitable basis for families that purchase or produce food (COSTA; MALUF, 2001). Furthermore, as already happens in many Brazilian cities[19], the definition of green belts for vegetable and green leaves production, besides contributing to food production, has the potential to retain urban expansion, that is, control urban sprawl, as exemplified by other Latin American countries[20].

A brief analysis of urban and peri-urban agricultural experiences in Brazil suggests a multiplicity of practices, spaces, and involved actors, which are closely connected to social, economic, and cultural contexts of each city. Thus, urban agriculture turns out to have a very strong connection with municipal policies.

The Brazilian federal government also fosters initiatives in this area. However, these activities are rather pulverized, given that they are not inserted in the scope of a national urban and peri-urban agriculture policy. These policies may be exemplified by the support to Local Productive Arrangements ("*Arranjos Produtivos Locais*" – APL), which has the objective to promote access to medicinal plants and phytotherapeutic medicines within the scope of the Single Health System; and the Educating with School Vegetable Gardening Project ("*Projeto Educando com a Horta Escolar*"), developed by the National Education Development Fund ("*Fundo Nacional de*

[19] Such as Belo Horizonte, Brasília, Campinas, Cianorte-PR, Curitiba, Mogi das Cruzes, Porto Alegre, and São Paulo.

[20] It is worth mentioning the cases, for example, of El Alto (Bolivia), Quito (Equator), Moreno (Argentina), Lima (Peru), Bogota, Medellin, Cartagena, and 90 municipalities in Antióquia (Colombia), and in Cuba as a whole.

Desenvolvimento da Educação" – FNDE) in partnership with the Food and Agriculture Organization.

With increasing urbanization, food production has progressively distanced from urban centers. This factor contributes to the difficulty of access and increased production costs of food such as fruits and greens and, consequently, the increased consumption of processed food by inhabitants from those localities. Consequently, in light of this growing distance between production and consumption areas, the logistics organization to supply urban centers becomes fundamental.

In this context, the activities undertaken under the Food Acquisition Program ("*Programa de Aquisição de Alimentos*" - PAA) should also be highlighted, since they contribute toward food supply in the urban environment. The Program consists in purchasing food produced by the family agriculture, with waiver of the bidding process, and directing it to individuals assisted by the socio-assistance network, by the public food security and nutrition equipment, and by the public and philanthropic education network.

The PAA promotes food supply through government acquisition of food; it strengthens local and regional circuits and trading networks; it values biodiversity and organic and agroecological food production; fosters healthy eating habits and stimulates cooperative and associative work. In 2014, the PAA purchased 291 thousand tons of food supplied by 107 thousand family farmers. The investment made was of 536 million of Brazilian Reais and the food was donated to 13,000 entities.

One major progress that also deserves to be highlighted is the rule incorporated into the National School Feeding Program ("*Programa Nacional da Alimentação Escolar* - PNAE) by Law No. 11,947/2009, which states that at least 30% of funds transferred to states and municipalities, the Federal District, and federal schools by FNDE, within the scope of PNAE, must be used in the direct purchase of food from family agriculture, prioritizing local production, the agrarian reform settlements, traditional indigenous communities, and "quilombolas" communities.

The major role of small municipalities in the Brazilian food production must also be emphasized. The 3,343 municipalities with population less than or equal to 50,000 inhabitants and that present predominantly an urban population profile account for 59% of the agriculture and livestock GDP and account for about 59% of animal production value, 63% of annual temporary crop production, and 62% of permanent crop production value (IBGE; 2012).

Despite the several positive reasons to improve conditions of access to food, there are still few municipalities that incorporate in their master plans guidelines and instruments designed to enhance the urban-rural linkages, including food production. Thus, the Strategic Master Plan of the municipality of Sao Paulo, approved in 2014[21], stands out for addressing this activity and marking it in zoning.

Although the urban and peri-urban agriculture has growth potential in Brazil, this potential is not utilized partially because of the high availability of rural land for production in a country with continental dimensions.

The challenge for Brazil is to descry that it is not enough to count on huge extensions of land and that it is more sustainable to approach food consumption and production following the path of the already adopted and mentioned food policies, as well as PNAE's parameter that 30% of food should be purchased from family agriculture.

The National Solid Waste Policy ("*Política Nacional de Resíduos Sólidos*"- PNRS), aligned to the above mentioned federal government strategies, establishes solid waste recycling among its principles, and has as one of its objectives the promotion of this activity, aiming at propitiating the use of raw material and inputs derived of recyclable and recycled materials. It is important to point out that the organic fraction of the solid waste produced in the cities accounts for a significant portion of the total composition of the waste generated in the country – which is, however, generally taken to final disposal in landfills or dump sites.

[21]See:
http://www.prefeitura.sp.gov.br/cidade/secretarias/desenvolvimento_urbano/legislacao/plano_diretor/index.php

Composting, as an environmentally proper disposal of the organic portion of waste, is set as key to reduce the amount of waste disposed in landfills and dump sites, thus ensuring the priority order of the different stages throughout the solid waste management process, that is: non-generation, reduction, reuse, recycling, solid waste treatment, and environmentally sound disposal.

The cycling of nutrients that occurs through the application of compost derived from organic waste in the urban and peri-urban agriculture consists in one of the main benefits from this kind of initiative. It has a great potential for expansion in Brazil through the integration of public policies, particularly with the perspective of the work of cooperatives of reusable and recyclable material scavengers in the management of this type of waste in these areas.

The implementation of organic solid waste composting systems, as well as the ways of using the produced compost (fertilizer for green areas, for food production by family agriculture, among others), depend on the articulation of local public power -holder of public urban cleaning and solid waste management services –with the economic and social actors, ensuring, thus, the shared responsibility for the lifecycle of products. In this sense, integration between urban and peri-urban agricultures and organic waste management should be promoted aiming at increasing food production in these areas.

The Ministry of the Environment ("*Ministério do Meio Ambiente*" – MMA), as the coordinator of the National Solid Waste Policy, has sought to give greater emphasis to this fraction of waste and, through dialogue with the Ministry of Cities, the National Health Foundation ("*Fundação Nacional de Saúde*"- FUNASA), and the General Secretariat of Presidency of the Republic ("*Secretaria Geral da Presidência da República*"), has searched for perspectives and ways to expand the recycling of this waste connected with work opportunities and income generation for recyclable waste scavengers. Additionally, a draft of resolution for rules on organic recycling is under elaboration in the National Environmental Council.

9. Addressing urban mobility challenges

Mobility consists in a structural axis of the people's right to enjoy services and opportunities offered by cities. It is the possibility of having a sense of ownership over the city, including of making other rights effective. Seen as such, mobility is a social right, as provided for in the Constitutional Amendment Proposal No. 90/2011, under discussion in the National Congress, which includes mobility on the list of social rights. In this context, public policies shall be defined to guarantee such right (BALBIM et al., 2013).

Importantly, the challenges of urban mobility are not restricted to transportation systems, and are diverse in nature: technological, socioeconomic, and a result of cities' model of production, especially in regard to the rationality of the urban space, land use and occupation.

According to the National Urban Mobility Information System ("*Sistema Nacional de Informações da Mobilidade Urban*" - SIMU),[22] around 63 billion trips were undertaken in the country in 2012[23], the majority (40%) by means of non-motorized transport (cycling and walking), while the individual and public transportation means present values close to 30% each. As the size of the city changes, the distribution of the means that population uses to move in the territory also changes: the smaller the municipality, the greater is the proportion of the non-motorized means, which demands specific actions for these localities. Additionally, it should be noted that, in the metropolitan regions, there is a direct relation between trip duration and individuals' income in the home-to-work displacement, (PEREIRA; SCHWANEN, 2013), where, the smaller the income, the greater the commuting time, and this indicator has increased during the period from 1992 to 2012. For a better understanding of

[22] The National Urban Mobility Information System is systemized by the National Association of Public Transportation ("*Agência Nacional de Transporte Público*" - ANTP). See: http://antp.org.br/_5dotSystem/download/dcmDocument/2014/08/01/CB06D67E-03DD-400E-8B86-D64D78AFC553.pdf

[23] The calculation is made only for cities with more than 60 thousand inhabitants.

reality, it is urgent to produce information on everyday mobility, specifically surveys on origin and destination.

Even though public policies are targeted to sustainable mobility, such as the mobility axis of the Growth Acceleration Program ("*Programa de Aceleração do Crescimento"* – PAC), and the National Urban Mobility Policy ("*Política Nacional de Mobilidade Urbana*" – PNMU, Federal Law No. 12,587/2012), other measures put in place in the context of reaction to the international economic crisis that had started in 2008 and of the adoption of anti-cyclic macroeconomic measures have stimulated production, acquisition and use of individual means of transportation. Over the past years, Brazil saw an expressive increase of motorization rates.

According to the National Traffic Agency ("*Departamento Nacional de Trânsito*"- DENATRAN)[24], there was an increase of 68% in number of vehicles between 1998 and 2006 and, from 2006 to 2013, the increment was of 71%. Considering the motorcycles, the increase was even higher, of 208% and 129%, in the respective periods.

In 1998, the motorization rate corresponded to 10 individuals per vehicle (Table 24), rising to 4 in 2013, which is an increment of 250%. This increase did not take place linearly across the regions. Regions with more consolidated urbanization, such as the South and the Southeast regions, presented an indicator of 7 individuals per vehicle in 1998, reaching 3 individuals in 2013. On the other hand, the rate in the North and Northeast regions dropped from 41 and 29 to 10 and 9, respectively. This shows the effect of the income expansion of the poorer population, which started to have financial conditions to acquire a vehicle, consequently changing their means of transportation – from public to private.

At the same time, there was an increase in the absolute number of deaths in traffic accidents, which went from 35,545 in 1996, to 37,249 in 2006, and to 44,553 in 2011, for all age ranges. Considering the period from 2000 to 2011, the increase was of 50.3% (WAISELFIZ, 2014). This situation would be worse were it not for legal and political enhancements that recently came into force and contributed to improve road safety, such as updates of the Brazilian Traffic Code ("*Código Brasileiro de Trânsito*"- CTB) and the resolutions of the National Traffic Council ("*Conselho Nacional de Trânsito*" – CONTRAN)[25]. At the international level, the Brazilian government is strongly engaged in the debates to implement the United Nations Decade of Action for Road Safety 2011-2020. It hosted, in November 2015, the Second Global High-Level Conference on Road Safety, an event that, by gathering ministers, experts, and civil society and private sector representatives, evaluated the progresses achieved up to the second half of the decade, and ways to accelerate the progress in this area.

The diagnosis reveals a framework of huge challenges for the mobility systems in the Brazilian cities, since the increased motorization could not be followed by investments matching the road space. On the other hand, the road space supply crisis, symbolized by the presence of traffic jams in small and medium-sized cities, may be a chance to discuss the use of automobiles, public and collective transportation alternatives, and incentives for non-motorized transportation integrated with other means of transportation and for short distances displacements. The mobility system planning should aim at urban development through democratization of people and cargo displacements.

The data reveal some challenges set for urban mobility based on the current situation of expressive increase in the number of private vehicles. The new urban agenda, beyond the mentioned topics and others that still to be addressed, must have as guidelines:

- adapt cities to universal accessibility, improving pedestrians displacements by inserting sidewalks in the transportation system;
- regulate the uses of urban space in order to enable the reduction of distances and

[24] Available at: http://www.denatran.gov.br/frota.htm

[25] Resolution CONTRAN 277/2008 determines the mandatory use of helmets on motorcycles, as well as the transportation of children and babies in the back seats with specific devices. Resolution CONTRAN 430/2013 sets forth the ban on alcohol consumption for vehicles drivers.

commuting time, in addition to structuring ways to control the use of vehicles in urban areas;

- expand population mobility, encouraging collective and non-motorized modes of transport;
- o increase the daily mobility rate of poorer strata, dwellers of dormitory quarters;
- expand participation, in urban displacement, of "lighter" transport modes, such as bicycles, as well as clean technologies in the generation of services;
- expand integration between mobility and urban land use and occupation policies, in order to enable the creation of diverse urban places (multi-use) in functional and social terms, which contribute to a lower demand for mobility, and with sustainable mobility and accessibility options; and
- integrate transportation modes and tariffs, providing new alternatives to displacement and to transportation accessibility.

Mobility has a significant role in the realization of the right to the city, in overcoming segregation and urban fragmentation. To enable greater mobility to citizens, of all classes, using mainly the collective or non-motorized modes, is ensuring the use and appropriation of the public space.

10. Improving technical capacity to plan and manage cities

The Brazilian Constitution considers the municipality the main executor of the urban policy. During the 1990s, the municipality performed a core role in the management of cities, with several positive practices in public policies implementation, such as participatory budget, income transfer programs, and land regularization, which constituted a true "transformative praxis".

Over the past years, these good municipal practices have been incorporated into national policies. This has the effect of reducing regional asymmetries and expanding the outcomes of those policies and universalizing rights. However, the Federation faces difficulties in expanding innovation mechanisms targeted to planning and management of urban issues. Although master plans have been approved by local laws, most of the instruments of the Statute of the City have not been implemented, with special attention to those related to the fulfillment of the social function of urban property.

Investments and federal and state funds themselves were often not articulated to the principles of the territorial planning instruments. Additionally, the financing instruments and mechanisms are not linked to an effective land policy capable of reversing inequalities in the access to public goods and services in the city.

The increase in resources and federal investments in urban development since 2003 was not followed by a similar increase in technical and institutional capacity of municipalities, which still resent difficulties in developing programs and projects and in proposing solutions to urban problems. Despite such difficulties, progresses in specific areas that show the technical capacity to manage cities should be pointed out, such as the presence of municipal agency with attributions in areas correlated to urban development planning in the housing sector.[26] For example, in 2011, in 71% of the Brazilian municipalities (Table 25) there was an institutional structure to deal with the issue[27]. This percentage is practically the same among municipalities with less than 100 thousand inhabitants. Municipalities with more than 500 thousand inhabitants from all regions, except for those from the North region, have some type of housing agency. Considering only the existence of a secretariat (exclusive or along with other policy) or indirect administration agency and, therefore,

[26] The following were considered institutional bodies in the housing sector in municipalities: the municipal secretariat together with other policies; indirect administration agency; sector directly subordinated to the head of executive; exclusive municipal secretariat; and sector subordinated to another secretariat, according to the MUNIC Survey category.

[27] Idem.

excluding administrative instances (Table 26), this figure drops to only 18.8% of the Brazilian municipalities in 2011. Nevertheless, this data can still be considered as positive, as in 2008 only 11.4% of municipalities had this type of housing agency.

The percentage of statutory workers over the total direct administration workers also points to some form of administrative permanence in light of changes in management, being useful to evaluate consistency, soundness, and professionalization of the local bureaucracy (Table 27). For Brazil as a whole, this percentage increased from 60.8% in 2006 to 63.3% in 2013. As a rule, the percentage is higher the bigger are the cities. Thus, if the percentage in 2013 is close to 60% among cities with up to 100 thousand inhabitants, it reaches almost 75% among those with 1 million to 5 million, and 90.6% among cities with more than 5 million inhabitants.

In face of the challenges regarding technical capacity to manage the cities, it is important to:

- deepen the discussion on the National Urban Development System in order to ensure the balance of accountability between federative entities within the scope of the urban policy;
- promote institutionalization of the urban development policy and its instruments (planning, enforcement, regulation, social participation and control of policies), increasing the capacity of local governments to promote sustainable urban planning and integrated territorial management;
- promote social participation and ensure public access to information while protecting the fundamental freedoms; and
- encourage the formation of public consortia in the scope of urban planning and territorial management between municipalities and between them and other federative entities.

III. Environment and urbanization: issues and challenges for a New Urban Agenda

The degradation of the urban environment is one of the main problems to be solved in the cities, since its outcomes generally affect the population as a whole, although not equally, considering the inequalities present in the territory and the difference in the capacity of adapting of the different socioeconomic groups. In this sense, the impacts of environmental changes are stronger in areas more deprived of infrastructure and urban services.

The climate changes that have been causing extreme events do not simply lead to the proliferation of natural disasters risks, but also to the accentuation of the possibility that they occur in disorderly urbanized areas, already previously classified as of risk, occupied by the most vulnerable portion of the population, historically not fully attended by the public policies of access to housing, thus entailing a socio-spatial issue and problem.

The biggest environmental challenges of Brazilian cities include: equating the problem of occupations in environmental risk areas, including with reallocation of dwellings whenever necessary; collecting and treating all the produced sewage; addressing solid waste in an environmentally appropriate manner, according to the priority order of the solid waste management stages (non-generation, reduction, reuse, recycling, solid waste treatment and environmentally adequate final disposal of effluents); implementing full urban drainage systems; in addition to controlling local emissions associated mainly to the traffic of automotive vehicles. A fundamental feature to be internalized in designing methodological scripts for review and implementation of municipal master plans is the compliance with previous environmental zoning as planning platforms that recover and incorporate the ecosystemic view in the urban heterotrophic ecosystems.

11. Addressing climate change

Climate change is an issue that underpins urban agendas of countries and cities worldwide. In 2009, the federal government approved the National Policy on Climate Change ("*Política Nacional sobre Mudança do Clima"*- PNMC), which formalizes the country's voluntary commitment to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. The following are tools to implement the policy: the National Plan on Climate Change; the National Fund on Climate Change (*"Fundo Nacional de Mudança do Clima*"- Fundo Clima) and Brazil's Official Communication to the UNFCCC, among others.

The National Plan was approved in December 2008 and revised in 2014. The following sectoral Mitigation and Adaptation Plans were launched in 2013: Action Plan to Prevent and Control Deforestation in the Legal Amazon ("*Plano de Ação para a Prevenção e Controle do Desmatamento na Amazônia Legal*"- PPCDAm), Action Plan to Prevent and Control Deforestation and Fires in Cerrado ("*Plano de Ação para Prevenção e Controle do Desmatamento e das Queimadas no Cerrado*" – PPCerrado), Decennial Plan on Energy ("*Plano Decenal de Energia*"-PDE), Low Carbon Agriculture Plan ("*Plano de Agricultura de Baixo Carbono*"- Plano ABC), Sectoral Plan for the Mitigation of Climate Change through Consolidation of a Low Carbon Emission Economy in the Processing Industry ("*Plano Setorial de Mitigação da Mudança Climática para a Consolidação de uma Economia de Baixa Emissão de Carbono na Indústria de Transformação*"- Plano Indústria), Plan on Low Carbon Emission Mining ("*Plano de Mineração de Baixa Emissão de Carbono*"- PMBC), Transport and Urban Mobility Sectoral Plan for the Mitigation of Climate Change *("Plano Setorial de Transporte e de Mobilidade Urbana para Mitigação da Mudança do Clima - PSTM*), Sectoral Health Plan for Mitigation and Adaptation to Climate Change ("*Plano Setorial da Saúde para Mitigação e Adaptação à Mudança do Clima*" – PSMC-Saúde), Siderurgy's Emissions Reduction Plan ("*Plano de Redução de Emissões da Siderurgia*"). These plans go beyond the Brazilian proposal presented in 2009 as voluntary commitment, annotated in the so-called Copenhagen Accord.

Among these sectoral plans, it is important to highlight the Transport and Urban Mobility Sectoral Plan for the Mitigation of Climate Change. The PSTM presents challenging guidelines and goals for alleviating the weight of individual transportation's participation in the national matrix and increasing the participation of collective public transportation in the mobility matrix. According to the plan, CO2 emissions, from the burning of fuels in passengers' road transportation increased almost continuously from 1985 to the present day (BRASIL, 2013a). Despite the increasing popularity of ethanol due to flex-fuel vehicles, fossil fuels accounted for 70% of total consumption in road passenger transportation in 2010. Additionally, the plan informs that fuel consumption increased 24.2% between 2000 and 2010, boosted mainly by "individual" transport that accounted for 78% of this consumption in 2010.

Another important topic for discussion in Habitat III relates to the National Plan for Adaptation to Climate Change, which started to be elaborated in 2013 and is expected to be completed in 2015. The issue of adaptation is important for cities due to the local impacts of climate change. The plan addresses 11 topics, including infrastructure, cities and industries. As far as local initiatives are concerned, it is important to highlight that the city of Rio de Janeiro was the first to elaborate its Resilience Plan against Heavy Rains ("*Plano de Resiliência contra Chuvas Fortes*"), in partnership with the National Civil Defense Secretariat of the Ministry of National Integration ("*Secretaria de Defesa Civil do Ministério da Integração Nacional*" – SEDEC/MI)[28] .

Additionally, even though urgent actions are unavoidable, long term public policies are considered equally necessary. They must be able to coordinate multi-dimensional, multi-sectoral, and multi-scale strategies under the new urban agenda. In this context, the notion of human rights, the right to water, sanitation, housing, transportation and a sustainable city can be strategically built into an intergovernmental dialogue of long term agendas.

[28] See: http://www.rio.rj.gov.br/dlstatic/10112/4402327/4109121/RIODEJANEIRORESILIENTE_2013.pdf

Furthermore, regarding the discussion on climate change in the urban environment, it is important to emphasize the need of formulating the concept of resilience in developing countries' cities in order to articulate it with the debate on the right to the city, incorporating the issue of technological appropriation and the use of appropriate and adapted technologies, as well as the progress in south-south cooperation.

12. Disaster risk reduction

Brazil has been experiencing emergency situations related to the occurrence of extreme climate events every year. Thus, new challenges arise and some regions of the country started to be subject to environmental risk situations. The Southeast region, for example, has experienced an expressive increase of these phenomena.

The recurrence of natural disasters, particularly flooding, land collapse, and landslides are often the consequence of an exclusionary urbanization model, which allowed the occupation of areas inadequate for housing, such as the margins of creeks and slopes, and lead to the displacement of families and require the government's response in order to repair damages deriving from the catastrophe, particularly related to housing.

Data from SEDEC show the occurrence of extreme events and disasters in Brazilian municipalities linked to dry spells, inundations, droughts, extreme rainfall, water logging, and landslide (Table 28).

Between 2006 and 2014, 11,399 natural disasters related to dry spells occurred in Brazil, mostly in the Northeast region (7,970). In this same period, disasters resulting from high precipitation rates were recorded – 4,528 events related to floods, 2,013 of which in the South region, 1,323 in the Southeast, and 791 events in the Northeast region. Moreover, 3,017 inundations were recorded in the country between 2006 and 2014, (1,037 in the Southeast region, 765 in the Northeast, 533 in the North region, and 521 in the South region). Regarding droughts, there were 1,904 between 2006 and 2014 in Brazil (1,481 in the Northeast region, 393 in the Southeast region, 24 in the North region, and 6 in the South region, without any record in the Central West region). Furthermore, 612 water logging events were reported across Brazil (245 in the Southeast, 186 cases in the South region, and 93 cases in the Northeast region). There were 594 cases of extreme rainfall recorded in Brazil (346 cases in the South, 111 cases in the Southeast, and 104 in the Central West region, 24 in North and 8 in the Northeast regions respectively).

Besides causing temporary or permanent population displacements, disasters related to extreme events are associated with worsening of health problems resulting from hydro-communicable and infectious diseases, as well as stress, depression, and social, economic, and psychological problems arising from human and material losses.

Metropolitan regions deserve special attention from public policies in this context given several factors, such as soil sealing levels that favor the phenomenon of heat islands, inundations, and waterlogging; occupation of fragile areas from the environmental stand point, mainly by the low income population; difficulties related to dispersion of pollutants in regions with large population agglomerates etc.

It is necessary to expand risk management and monitoring of disasters in an integrated fashion in the three entities of the federation. To this end, Brazil has been developing action in accordance with the international agreements of Natural Disasters Risk Reduction and in line with the guidelines set by the recently signed Sendai Framework (2015), which succeeded the Hyogo Protocol (2005).

Accordingly, Brazil structured, in 2011, a monitoring and alert system through the establishment of the National Natural Disasters Monitoring and Alert Center ("*Centro Nacional de Monitoramento e Alerta de Desastres Naturais*"- Cemaden) and approved, in April 2012, through federal legislation[29], the National Protection and Civil Defense Policy ("*Política Nacional de Proteção e Defesa Civil*"- PNPDEC), which structured a national system under the perspective of prevention,

[29] Law 12,608/2012 sets forth the National Protection and Civil Defense Policy.

monitoring, and response to disasters, as well as addressing the establishment of a National Protection and Civil Defense Council ("*Conselho Nacional de Proteção e Defesa Civil*"- CONPDEC). The legislation sets forth duties of the Union, states, the Federal District, and municipalities related to measures needed to reduce the risks of disasters.

That same year the National Joint Protocol for Full Protection of Children and Adolescents, Older Persons and Persons with Disability in Risk and Disasters Situation ("*Protocolo Nacional Conjunto para Proteção Integral a Crianças e adolescentes, Pessoas Idosas e Pessoas com Deficiência em Situação de Riscos e Desastres*") was formulated. Under coordination of the Human Rights Secretariat of the Presidency of the Republic ("*Secretaria de Direitos Humanos da Presidência da República*"- SDH), and the Ministry of National Integration, the Protocol has as main objective to ensure full protection and to reduce the vulnerability of these groups in risk and disaster situations.

The National Plan on Risk Management and Response to Disasters ("*Plano Nacional de Gestão de Riscos e Resposta a Desastres*") was also launched in 2012. The Plan substantively boosted the national policy on the topic in recent years. It established performance axes in risk management, under the aspects of mapping, monitoring, prevention, response, and governance, with activities jointly coordinated by the Ministry of Cities, the Ministry of National Integration, the Ministry of Science, Technology and Innovation ("*Ministério de Ciência, Tecnologia e Inovação*"- MCTI), the Ministry of Mines and Energy ("*Ministério de Minas e Energia"*- MME*)* and the Ministry of the Environment. One of the forms of the inter-institutional coordination is the strengthening of integrated management of natural disasters by means of international partnerships, among which stands out the one signed with the Government of Japan (with planned duration of 4 years, 2013-2017), and with the United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction.

In the mapping field, knowledge about the country's risk areas was expanded with the production of susceptibility mapping and identification of sectors of high and very high risk to inundations, floods, and landslides in several municipalities, in addition to the development of the Atlas of Vulnerability to Inundations ("*Atlas de Vulnerabilidade a Inundações*"), which gathers information on the vulnerability level to flooding in stretches of rivers in the Brazilian states.

In the monitoring field, the installation of situation rooms targeting hydrological monitoring progressed in almost all units of the federation, in partnership with the state governments, aiming at following up rainfall evolution, reservoirs levels, and rivers outflow, and helping in the prevention of floods and droughts. At the local level, the municipality of Blumenau in Santa Catarina became a national reference by creating a local system to monitor the weather and the levels of rivers to prevent disasters related to inundations, landslides, and waterlogging, with a strong performance in awareness activities and participation of the population.

In the response field, the computerization of the federal process of recognition of emergency situations or state of public calamity was implemented, via the Integrated Information System on Disasters ("*Sistema de Informação Integrada sobre Desastres*" - S2ID). Furthermore, the Civil Defense Payment Card ("*Cartão de Pagamento de Defesa Civil*" - CDPC) was created, enabling the transferring of federal funds to help and assist the victims of disasters. However, the strengthening of state and municipal civil defense for immediate action in post-disaster situations is still a major challenge.

Finally, as far as prevention is concerned, the development and implementation of structuring and non-structuring measures progressed. The Ministry of Cities currently invests around R$ 2.3 billion Brazilian Reais to support states and municipalities in designing projects and implementing slopes containment works in urban areas with high landslide risk, as well as in the elaboration of municipal plans to reduce risks and geotechnical maps of urban suitability, core instruments for preventing the creation of new risk areas.

It is a consensus that one of the most efficient ways to prevent situations of risk to natural disasters is through the planning and occupation of urban territory. In this respect, the Ministry of Cities is developing methodologies in partnership with the Japanese government for urban expansion planning that takes into account the variables related to the occurrence of floods and landslides. The aim of this activity is to make available to municipalities a methodological script on how to deal appropriately with the topic during the planning stage, mitigating natural disasters risks and, at the same time,

maximizing the use and occupation of urban land.

Another work front related to prevention is the provision of adequate housing for population living in risk areas. The former Council for the Defense of Human Rights ("*Conselho de Defesa dos Direitos da Pessoa Humana*" – CDDPH)[30] created a Working Group, in 2012, on the guarantee of the human right to adequate housing, to carry out a broad national dialogue on the subject, receive and monitor complaints of violations and to design and propose guidelines for the effective guarantee of the right to adequate housing. A specific subgroup was established within the scope of the WG to analyze the housing conditions resulting from natural disasters and emergency situations. The subgroup highlighted several challenges regarding this topic, namely:

(1) regulate Law No. 12,608, of April 10, 2012, that sets forth the National Protection and Civil Defense Policy;

(2) create a specific program for post-disaster reconstruction, which is focused on risk management and provides, in addition to housing, the whole urban infrastructure needed;

(3) foster, together with states and municipalities, the strengthening of local civil defense structures;

(4) improve equipment and instruments for the country's meteorological, hydrological, and geological monitoring, enabling the quick and accurate alert communication of adverse events to civil defense agencies and concerned population; and

(5) establish Specialized Social Assistance Reference Centers ("*Centros de Referência Especializada em Assistência Social*" - CREAS) in municipalities affected by natural and technological disasters, and risk situations, aiming at post-trauma psychosocial assistance of those affected.

13. Reducing traffic congestion

Recalling that socio-spatial segregation and exclusion and urban fragmentation are realities closely linked to mobility, it is crucial to think about reducing traffic congestions as a measure associated to improving life conditions for all, and not simply to enhancing circulation of private automobiles.

The increase of the fleet of private vehicles and consequent traffic retentions result in loss of life quality for all citizens, with increased noise and air pollution, local temperature and accident rates. For those that use public transport, which competes for space with cars, this situation leads to increased commuting time and transportation costs, generating inefficiency across the system.

On average, 44.3% of Brazil's population use public transport for displacement, the car coming in second, followed by motorcycle, used by 23.8% and 12.6% of the Brazilian population, respectively (Table 29). The population living in cities of the Southeast region uses more public transport (50.7%), while, at the same time, it is the region that most uses private transport.

An indirect indicator of traffic congestions is the time spent by people going from their homes to the workplace. Since 1996, this indicator remained relatively stable, but at the same time showing that a high number of individuals take more than 30 minutes for this displacement (Table 31): in 1996, they were 30.45%; in 2006, 33.76%; and in 2013, 31.15%. The highest percentages were seen in the Southeast region: 35.64% in 1996; 40.61% in 2006; and 36.99% in 2013. In this last year, in the metropolitan regions, 47.29 % of individuals took over 30 minutes in these displacements. In the metropolitan regions of the Southeast region, 52.12% of the population surpassed thirty minutes – the highest value among the Brazilian regions, whilst the lowest rates were seen in the North region (36.12%) and in the South region (35.84%).

In recent years, investments have been made to balance the urban mobility system, reducing displacement time and changing the paradigm related to the priority given to individual transportation, promoting a better quality of public transport, transparency, and social accountability.

[30] Agency linked to the Human Rights Secretariat of the Presidency of the Republic and later succeed by the National Human Rights Council.

Over R$ 150 billion Brazilian Reais from the federal government's PAC are invested in high and medium capacity systems – railways, subways, exclusive corridors etc. – across the national territory.

It should be noted that investments in the road systems are not exclusively directed to individual transportation, having changed its focus in a positive way toward public transport. However, there are still few integrations experiments between land use and occupation and the mobility system, including pedestrians and cyclists, as measures to reduce traffic congestions in the cities. An ongoing alternative is the designing and implementation of municipal urban mobility plans that, integrated to municipal master plans and to the instruments of the Statute of the City, may relate land use and occupation guidelines with guidelines to optimize transportation systems, aiming at reducing the negative impacts of urban sprawl and contributing to reversing the effects of immobility and territorial exclusion.

Two goals impose themselves in light of increased car traffic. The first is to establish policies and programs that regulate private automobile use – parking policies being one of the possible examples. A second goal, which would change mobility patterns and would tackle the congestions issue, is to establish mechanisms so that individual transport property and/or use contribute toward investments in collective and non-motorized transport, generating benefits for both modes. Both aspects are approached in the National Urban Mobility Policy, which sets forth a non-exhaustive list of demand management instruments to be used by local officials.

14. Air Pollution

Air pollution is a crucial topic in the global agenda and it has been associated to the worsening of breathing and cardiovascular and neurologic diseases, particularly in large cities. Studies also show the correlation between exposition to some pollutants and the occurrence of certain types of cancer. In addition to effects on human health, air pollutants may also have impacts on the natural ecosystems. Furthermore, air pollution may have social and economic consequences, which may be exemplified by the higher vulnerability of the poor population, the costs to the health system due to hospitalizations and drops in agriculture yield.

Air pollutants may be defined as substances emitted to the atmosphere that make or can make the air inappropriate, noxious, or injurious to health; inconvenient to the public well-being; harmful to materials, to the fauna and flora; detrimental to safety, use and enjoyment of property, and community's regular activities. The following substances may be highlighted among air pollutants: sulphur dioxide (SO_2), nitrogen dioxide (NO_2), carbon monoxide (CO), ozone (O_3), hydrocarbon (HC), and particulate matter, which are the pollutants treated as a priority in the national air quality agenda, due to their representativeness of anthropic emissions and their large international use in quantifying emissions and concentrations of air pollutants in a given region.

Concerning the sources of air pollution emission, these may be classified with respect to their typology (fixed, mobile, or linear) and origin of emissions (natural or anthropogenic).

The main sources of air pollutants' emission in Brazil are the industrial and the transport sectors. In the past year, the latter presented a major influence in the urban environment and in its inhabitants, due to the steady increase of the vehicle fleet, to their increased concentration in the cities and the industrial deconcentration process that is taking place in the national territory. Despite being one of the most serious environmental issues, and still a preponderant problem in large metropolitan regions and specific industrial hubs, air pollution has decreased a lot in the past thirty years. This is due mainly to the establishment of increasingly rigid maximum emission limits for fixed and mobile sources and to the industrial deconcentration process.

Air quality management in Brazil follows the federative rationale set by the 1988 Federal Constitution, which set forth shared responsibilities among federative entities, making it incumbent upon the federal, state, and municipal governments to comply with the existing regulations.

The emission of air pollutants in Brazil is regulated by CONAMA resolutions. Resolution No. 5, that established the Program for the Control of National Air Quality ("*Programa Nacional de Controle da Qualidade do Ar*" – PRONAMA), dates back to 1989. PRONAR is comprised by strategies and instruments to manage air quality and has as basic strategies to establish national limits on emissions, according to sources' typology and pollutants' priority, reserving the use of air quality standards as a complementary controlling activity.

Under a management perspective and as means to instrumentalize its measures, other programs were incorporated to the PRONAR, such as: (i) Program for the Control of Automotive Vehicles Pollution ("*Programa de Controle da Poluição por Veículos Automotores*" - PROCONVE); (ii) Program for the Control of National Industrial Pollution ("*Programa Nacional de Controle da Poluição Industrial"* - PRONACOP); (iii) National Air Quality Evaluation Program ("*Programa Nacional de Avaliação da Qualidade do Ar*"); (iv) National Inventory of Air Polluting Sources Program ("*Programa Nacional de Inventário de Fontes Poluidoras do Ar*"), and (v) State Air Pollution Control Programs ("*Programas Estaduais de Controle da Poluição do Ar*").

Air quality standards have been set by CONAMA Resolution No. 3, of 1990, which defines the maximum tolerable concentrations of air pollutants. They are one of the main instruments for air quality management used by the states. Those standards are currently under discussion in CONAMA, in view of the technological changes and the most current knowledge of the impacts from those pollutants on human health and the environment. The proposed values are comparable to those recommended by the World Health Organization in 2005 as the safest values for human health.

PROCONVE may be highlighted as one of the most successful environmental programs in the country. It started in 1986 and was later encompassed in PRONAR. PROCONVE limits automotive vehicles emissions by continuous establishment of phases in which maximum emission limits are defined for each typology of vehicles, so that only vehicles that meet those emission limits may be traded in the Brazilian market.

Still regarding the road sector, the National Inventory of Air Emission by Road Automotive Vehicles 2013: Basis year 2012[31] (BRASIL, 2014b) brought in the most current data on air pollutant emissions from this modal. According to the data, the decrease of pollutants emission, in spite of the large increase of the national vehicle fleet seen in the past years, resulted from the various regulations set within the scope of the PROCONVE.

As regards the fixed source of pollutant emission, Brazil currently counts on extremely rigid emission limits set by CONAMA Resolutions No. 382/2006, which establishes limits for new sources installed since 2007, and No. 436/2011, which imposed limits to those already existing sources that were installed up to 2007, resulting in improvements for the entire national industrial park on the subject of air pollutants' emissions.

This normative set and the work of environmental agencies have ensured the improvement of the country's air quality, which can be noticed in Table 32, where an improvement in morbidity rates across the country's regions can be observed.

The 1st Diagnosis of Air Quality Monitoring Networks, launched in 2014[32], ("*1º Diagnóstico das Redes de Monitoramento da Qualidade do Ar*") drew a picture of the current status of the existing monitoring networks in the country.

By the time of the diagnosis, only 12 states had some kind of monitoring, and only 9 of those had reliable time series data with continuous disclosure of their data on the internet. The study showed the big disparity between states with respect to air quality management in the number of stations, in criteria for installation of equipment, in size of work teams or even in outcomes' disclosure format. This work made it possible to glimpse the future actions required in order to have national coverage and generation of reliable data. It was also possible to note the need to expand the networks, train

[31] See: http://www.mma.gov.br/images/arquivo/80060/Inventario_de_Emissoes_por_Veiculos_Rodoviarios_2013.pdf

[32] Available at: http://www.mma.gov.br/images/arquivo/80060/Diagnostico_Rede_de_Monitoramento_da_Qualidade_do_Ar.pdf

technicians, set up norms to install equipment, data validation, in addition to the need for more resources.

In March 2014, in the 19th Meeting of the Forum of Ministers of Environment of Latin American and the Caribbean, held in Mexico, Brazil signed the Regional Action Plan for Intergovernmental Cooperation on Air Pollution for Latin American and the Caribbean. This plan had as main objective to design common guidelines of short, medium, and long term, for reduction of air contamination in the region and to mitigate priority contaminants' emissions, in addition to substantially decrease their impact at local, regional, and world levels. States committed to improve air quality and public health, through the elaboration, application and enforcement of national plans of priority air pollutants' reduction. This objective is being internalized by Brazil - the elaboration of its national plan is one of its next steps in the domestic agenda to improve air quality.

The elaboration of the Brazilian National Plan comes at an appropriate time, in which there is already a consolidation of major instruments of air quality management, such as the setup of pollutants' maximum emission limits for fixed and mobile sources, the setting of air quality standards, and the elaboration of regular inventories. However, there is still a long way to go for more efficient management, mainly regarding articulation among different spheres of government, and the integrated territorial management of the metropolitan areas.

IV. Urban governance and legislation: issues and challenges for a New Urban Agenda

As already described above, in the past twenty years, Brazil was the protagonist of an enormous progress within the legislative and institutional framework, as well as in the recognition of rights and social policies. At the institutional level, the creation of the Ministry of Cities in 2003 brought together several urban development activities in four national secretariats: Accessibility and Urban Programs; Housing; Environmental Sanitation; and Urban Mobility. This was followed by the institutionalization of two major instruments of democratic management at federal level: the Council of Cities and the National Conference of Cities.

More recently, the Brazilian legislation created new planning tools for the cities based on the regulation of some sectoral policies in national level, such as housing and land regularization, environmental sanitation, solid waste, transport and urban mobility. It is worth mentioning some of these important national laws:

- Federal Law No. 10,257, of July 10, 2001, which establishes the urban policy principles and fundamental guidelines.
- Federal Law No. 11,124/2005 and Federal Decree No. 5,796/2006, which chreate the National Social Housing System ("*Sistema Nacional de Habitação de Interesse Social* - SNHIS), the National Social Housing Fund ("*Fundo Nacional de Habitação de Interesse* Social – FNHIS), and the FNHIS Managing Council;
- Federal Law No. 11,481/2007 and Federal Law No. 11,952/2009, which provide for measures for social interest land regularization in property owned by the Union, and specific norms for the Legal Amazon;
- Federal Law No. 11,977/2009, which creates the My House My Life Program and provides for land regularization of settlements located in urban areas;
- Federal Law No. 11,445/2007 and Federal Decree No. 7,217/2010, which establish national guidelines for basic sanitation;
- Federal Law No. 12,305/10 and Federal Decree No. 7,404/2010, which institute and regulate, respectively, the National Solid Waste Policy;
- Federal Law No. 12,587/2012, which institutes the National Urban Mobility Policy;

- Federal Laws No. 10,048/2000 and 10,098/2000, Federal Decree No. 5,296/2004, which define the regulatory framework for the promotion of accessibility for persons with disability or reduced mobility; and

- Federal Law No. 12,836/2013, which institutes rules for municipalities located in risk areas and/or that intend to expand their urban perimeter.

To make territorial policies effective, urban governance was improved with the approval of the Law on Public Consortia ("*Lei de Consórcios Públicos*") and its respective regulation (Federal Law No. 11,107/2005 and Federal Decree No. 6,017/2007). This legislation institutes new ways of cooperation among federative entities, expanding the possibilities of institutional arrangements. According to data from the Federal Revenue Service of Brazil, the number of public consortia is increasing. In 2014, there were 1,263 active public consortia of public law. All regions across the country have consortia, although regional inequality still stands out, as the number in the Southeast region (458) is six times higher than in the North region (75).[33]

According to the same source, the consortia activities are distributed mainly among the following areas: 31% social assistance; 26% administrative; 10% health; 7% sanitation; 1% security, and less than 1% infrastructure. Data still show low utilization of this instrument in urban development policies and, particularly, metropolitan regions, where intergovernmental cooperation is particularly necessary for the exercise of public functions of common interest.

Concerning land regularization, in the past years Brazil carried out a legislative reform at federal level, aiming at enabling the implementation of local activities, simplifying procedures both for integration of settlements in the city and titling for their dwellers. In addition to the previously mentioned legislation, the following laws were approved: Federal Laws No. 11,952 of 2009, that addresses federal land regularization in Legal Amazon, No. 12,424 of 2011, addressing real estate register in the urban land regularization, and No. 12,651 of 2012 (New Brazilian Forestry Code – *"Novo Código Florestal Brasileiro*"), that sets forth on land regularization of urban settlements in Permanent Preservation Areas ("*Áreas de Preservação Permanente*").

In addition to this legislative reform, Brazil has incorporated land regularization as a mandatory component in its housing programs, as well as environmental sanitation in irregular settlements (integrated sanitation). There is also a specific support program to titling actions targeted to states, municipalities, and non-profit civil entities. The incorporation of land regularization in the agenda of an expressive number of Brazilian municipalities stands out as the outcome these measures of foment and regulation at federal level.

The Statute of the Metropolis (Federal Law No. 13,089/15) has been passed as a way to respond to current challenges. It sets forth general guidelines for planning, management, and implementation of public functions of common interest in metropolitan regions, as well as inter-federative cooperation instruments. This legislation establishes the definition of a specific set of guidelines for metropolitan regions, in addition to those stated in the Statute of the City. Among these guidelines, which are to be observed in the inter-federative governance, the following stand out: implementation of permanent and shared planning and decision-making process; the definition of shared means of administrative organization, and implementation of public functions of common interest through previously agreed distribution of costs within the scope of the inter-federative governance structure.

Since the 1988 Constitution, when competence was decentralized to states (Article 25, § 3),[34] different criteria and models were adopted in each federative unit. In most of them, the governing body belongs to the state, and the governance structures within the municipalities is still theoretical; the metropolitan funds are non-existent or fragile; there are few concentrated sectoral activities and

[33] Data extracted by the Secretariat of Institutional Relations of the Presidency of the Republic from the data of the Federal Revenue Service of Brazil. Private Law public consortia were not considered, given that since they have the same legal nature as civil associations, they are mixed in the database.

[34] Federal Constitution Article 25 §3: States may, by means of complementary legislation, institute metropolitan regions, urban agglomerations, and micro-regions, constituted by grouping of bordering municipalities to comprise the organization, the planning and implementation of common interest public functions.

inadequacy of the main regional development financing instruments.

Overcoming challenges of the Brazilian urbanization model also involves both the integration of sectoral policies in the territory and the territorial integration itself, in the intra-urban, regional, and national scales. Governmental activities are aimed at the creation of a National Urban Development Policy, integrated to the National Regional Development Policy, having the national development as its driving force. There were significant legislative progresses at municipal level after the enactment of the Statute of the City. Considering all municipalities with more than twenty thousand inhabitants – for which the elaboration of the master plan is mandatory –, the proportion of elaborated plans in relation to total still is even higher: in 2009, of the 1,644 Brazilian municipalities with more than twenty thousand inhabitants, 1,433 declared having a master plan, which corresponds to 87% of the total (SANTOS JUNIOR; MONTANDON, 2011).

Brazil has adopted mechanisms for direct popular participation, such as councils, conferences, and public consultations for the elaboration of public policies. At the federal level, for example, 82 national conferences were undertaken until 2011, mobilizing millions of people in the country (SOUZA et al., 2013). In the scope of urban policy, five National Conferences of Cities were carried out. Throughout this process, ConCidades started to organize the Conferences of Cities, jointly with the MCidades.

It is noteworthy that the number of delegates in the national conferences remained stable: 2,500 in all five editions. All national conferences were preceded by municipal (or regional) and state preparatory conferences. In 2003, the participation of 3,457 municipalities at the municipal/regional level has been recorded, and this number dropped to 2,282 in 2010. Municipal conferences were carried out in 2,800 municipalities in 2013, with participation of 240 thousand people[35]. State conferences were held in all 27 units of the federation.

The text approved in the last Conference restates the importance of creating a National Urban Development System and a National Urban Development Plan "*of participatory nature, establishing the strategic objective of federal government intervention in the urban development policy for the next 10 years*".

The progress in setting up mechanisms of democratic management of cities at municipal level may also be noticed in a recent survey. The establishment of councils by municipalities in the past twenty years may be noticed in the data from the last MUNIC/IBGE survey (Table 33). In 1996, only 4% of municipalities with less than 100 thousand inhabitants indicated the existence of councils of cities, housing, transportation, urban development, or sanitation. In 2012, this number reached the total of 62%. It is possible to observe that the existence of participation instruments relates to the size of the cities, that is, the bigger the city, the greater is the presence of instituted councils.

In light of the above, it is possible to note that significant legal and institutional advances occurred in the last period. Therefore, their implementation is the next challenge. The main guideline, in this sense, is analyzing the proposed draft of the bill that institutes the National Urban Development Policy, System, and Fund, which is believed that will make these advances effective.

15. Culture as driver of urban development

Culture is central in the experience of the cities: meanings, habits, identities, and the sense of belonging. Cities are man's greatest invention. To create and inhabit the city are our greatest cultural facts. We need to incorporate culture as a driver of urban development so that we may, one day, strive for new perspectives.

It is clear that urban movements for the right to the city have in the cultural expressions their main form of resistance, giving new meanings to the urban. It is also vital to consider that, in territories

[35] As informed by the executive secretary of the MCidades, Carlos Vieira, during the closing session of the 5th National Conference of Cities. http://www.cidades.gov.br/5conferencia/387- the-5th-conference-was-an-effort-for-democracy-said the executive-secretary,-carlos-vieira.html

with cultural spaces and movements, the notion of identity prevails, the community ties of belonging are strengthened and, thus, violence is reduced. For this reasons, the Ministry of Culture ("*Ministério da Cutura*") recently joined the National Plan to Reduce Homicides ("*Plano Nacional para a Redução de Homicídios*"), coordinated by the Ministry of Justice ("*Ministério da Justiça*"), with activities aimed at the occupation and maximization of urban public facilities.

The occupation movements, such as the South Market in Taguatinga and the Occupy Estelita in Recife, among others, are essentially engaged in the reorganization of urban space. The densification of the cities and urban mobility are topics inherent to culture, as an axis that allows for diverse, healthy, and democratic coexistence. In this sense, the spaces that we inhabit are the areas of daily experience. Improving them is not only an infrastructure or functionality issue, but an urgent matter.

The question of what kind of city we want cannot be separated from the types of social bonds, relationship with nature, food and leisure standards, technologies, and esthetical and ethical values we desire. The right to the city is much more than the individual freedom to access urban resources: it is the right to change ourselves by changing the city (HARVEY, 2008). The necessity of meeting, of moving freely and of producing emancipatory meanings for the city through interaction is fundamental to people. The socio-spatial exclusion is, therefore, the symptom and cause of the socio-cultural fragmentation through which the citizen perceives and lives the city.

16. Improving urban legislation

Brazil significantly progressed from the institutional and legislative point of view in urban development policy. Nevertheless, there are continued efforts for the institution of a National Urban Development System, a topic over which society and, particularly, the Council of Cities has been leaning over for many years. In 2013, at the 5th National Conference of Cities, a proposal was approved to set up the National Urban Development System, aiming at instituting coordination mechanisms of intergovernmental policies, which is fundamental in a federative State. Currently under debate, the System shall establish, when implemented, articulation mechanisms among urbanistic sectoral normative frameworks (housing, land regularization, environmental sanitation, risk areas, metropolitan management etc.) based on the urbanistic and environmental competences of the Union, states, and municipalities.

It is necessary to deepen the dialogue with the environmental legislation, particularly regarding the licensing of enterprises, since there is a legislative and administrative separation between urban and environmental licensing.

It is imperative to pursue the effective application of the legal order, especially regarding implementation of compliance instruments with the social function of property.

It is important, thus, to insert the teaching of urban law in Brazilian universities so as to train the various legal operators (public attorneys, judges, public defenders, municipal attorney generals, notary offices etc.), as well as to raise awareness on topics related to urban policy within the judiciary.

17. Decentralization and strengthening of local authorities

Brazil is considered a highly decentralized country since the 1988 Federal Constitution, which raised municipalities to the status of federative entities, in equal terms with states and the Union. Currently, the Federative Republic of Brazil is comprised by 26 federated states and 5,568 municipalities, in addition to the Federal District.

Municipalities respond autonomously for local interest issues and taxes of their competence; public transportation; children's education and the first grades of basic education; basic health services;

adequate territorial planning; and local historical-cultural heritage. The topics to be addressed in the Conference are also municipal competences, as follows: territorial planning, urban governance and legislation, housing, sanitation, environment, civil defense, mobility, local economic development, and other interventions in human settlements.

The timing of the Habitat II Conference coincided with the beginning of a period of major decentralization of public policies and strengthening of municipalism in Brazil, with the development of successful initiatives, such as the participatory budget, land regularization and participatory and self-managed housing production. Since the middle of the last decade there was an increase of the federal government's role in the institution of new national legal frameworks, in addition to the implementation of programs and massive financing, changing local capabilities in designing adapted responses to more specific issues.

The institution and organization of an adequate information system could contribute to empowering local government and, thus, enhance the innovation capacity that in the previous period contributed extraordinarily to the designing of instruments and development of practices recognized in the Statute of the City and subsequent national regulations.

In this sense, the Single Register for the Federal Government's Social Programs ("*Cadastro Único*", - CadÚnico) has been fulfilling a major role in the country's social policies and, potentially, in housing and urban development policies. On one hand, municipalities are responsible for the maintenance and updating of the CadÚnico in its municipal scope; on the other, municipalities may use it to know the demand and select beneficiaries of several social policies.

This refined knowledge of the urban territory given by crossing information sources and databases, which may be decentralized and even made public, may allow local governments in designing activities adapted to their context, generating innovations that may become universal.

The following objectives should be sought for:

- strengthen technical assistance mechanisms for local governments to design and implement urban planning instruments; an
- enhance urban public policies aligned to regional differences, considering local activities.

18. Improving participation and human rights in urban development

In the last two decades, municipal councils on urban development have multiplied in Brazil. The percentage of municipalities with councils[36] went from 4% in 1996, to 24% in 2006, and to 64% in 2012 (Table 33). Their presence is as more frequent as bigger are the cities: in 2012, councils were present in all municipalities with more than 500 thousand inhabitants. On the other hand, in the population range of up to 100 thousand inhabitants, councils were present in 62% of municipalities. The highest frequencies were noticed in the South and Central West regions (86% and 73%, respectively) and the lowest in the North and Northeast regions (56% and 49%).

The increased number of councils indicates a consolidation of the democratic practices in the elaboration of housing and urban development policies. Some experiences of direct participation stand out. In 2014, the city of Sao Paulo developed its Strategic Master Plan[37] ("*Plano Diretor Estratégico"*) through a broad participatory and collaborative process using new social technologies (digital participatory platforms) and face-to-face activities, such as seminars, workshops, dialogue with specific stakeholders and public hearings, which resulted in the participation of 25,692 people.

Also, the approval of the Master Plan was marked by heated disputes and various negotiations, with street actions, occupation of vacant buildings, and camping of social movements in front of the City Hall during the days when the bill of the Plan was discussed and voted. This participation dynamics

[36] The following councils were considered: Councils of the City, of Housing or Transport, either of advisory, deliberative, normative, or enforcement nature.

[37] See: at: http://www.prefeitura.sp.gov.br/cidade/secretarias/desenvolvimento_urbano/legislacao/plano_diretor/index.php

and political pressure at the time of approving master plans have become one of the marks of the Brazilian society and democracy.

The democratic governance of the urban territory, through cooperation between the different levels of government and with civil society participation, not only through the councils of the cities, but also through the most diverse political and social instances brings in ways of constructing and making effective women, youth, and persons with disabilities' rights related to ethnical and racial issues; in addition to protection and use of common goods - such as water, through the River Basins Councils ("*Conselhos de Bacias*" – CBH) etc.

The human, civil, political, social, economic, and diffuse rights, the guarantee of the public and common use of the urban space, its democratic management, the enjoyment of the right to adequate housing, access to land and security of tenure, protection against forced evictions, access to essential, good quality public services, as well as infrastructure services, water, sanitation, and mobility, are issues that make up the debate on the right to the city.

19. Enhancing urban safety and security

Public safety is one of the foundations of the democratic use of the city inasmuch as it ensures the exercise of the rights to come and go, to relate, and to communicate in the urban space.

There was, in the past years, an increase in the number of homicides in Brazil. In 2002, the total reported homicides in the country were 49,695 and, in 2012, this figure increased to 56,337. If this data is analyzed by region, it is possible to observe that in all of them there was an increment in the number of homicides, except for the Southeast region. In 1992 and 2012, respectively, homicides in the North region were 2,937 and 6,098; in the Northeast region 10,947 and 20,960; in the Central West region 3,676 and 5,505; in the South region 4,704 and 6,643; and in the Southeast region 27,431 and 17,131 (WAISELFIS, 2014). The concentration of homicides is higher in the metropolitan regions, but is falling in comparison to other areas: in 1994, the ten biggest metropolitan regions accounted for 62% of homicides in Brazil and, in 2004, for 55.2%.

If the data is disaggregated according to color and race criteria for youth, the pattern of homicides rates in Brazil shows reverse trends according to the race and color of victims: from 2002 to 2010, the homicide rate for whites fell from 40.6 per 100 thousand to 28.3 per 100 thousand, while, in the same period, the homicide rate for blacks increased from 69.6 per 100 thousand to 72 per 100 thousand. The Northeast is the region that shows the biggest difference among rates, according to race/color: in 2010, 16.8 per 100 thousand whites (the lowest among all regions) compared to 86.9 per 100 thousand blacks (the highest). In 2011, 142 municipalities concentrated 70% of deaths of young people in the country.

In addition to factual data, it is important to present perceptions on urban violence: a Data Popular survey (2014) in the Brazilian slums areas, carried out in 2013, indicates that 85% of their dwellers consider public safety unsatisfactory. Relating the increase of homicide rate and the perception of violence, it is suggested that people experienced violence differently, according to the territorial, color/race and income elements, in the context of segregated and fragmented cities. Likewise, it is necessary to build universal public policies, but with focus on the inter-urban territories as a important strategy against violence.

In this sense, focusing activities on intra-urban spaces, marked by intense social vulnerability, is one of the strategies to prevent and fight the so-called black youth mortality. The concentration of homicides in the youth in those territories highlights the intrinsic relationship between violence and social vulnerability. In that sense, a public safety policy should not dispense with integrated social assistance activities for population in territories of severe vulnerability.

In the case of black youth, it is in the inter-crossing of variables that explains the fact that they are a social group of extreme vulnerability: they represent the portion of the population with low education levels and fragile insertion in the labor market, they are victims of stereotyping associated

to criminality, and they are subject to the culture of violence that marks mostly these territories.

Social and infrastructure policies that focus on these spaces should, therefore, pay attention to the racial dimension that pervades the problems to be faced, otherwise they may incur the risk of reinforcing stereotypes and expanding racial segregation, which is reflected in the different homicide rates of whites and blacks. Thus, the fight against racism and against the culture of violence should pervade the strategies of public policies in vulnerable areas.

It is also important to approach the subject from a gender perspective. Recently, the Institute for Applied Economic Research ("*Instituto de Pesquisa Econômica Aplicada*" – IPEA) launched the study "Violence against women: female homicides in Brazil". The study estimated that there were over 50 thousand female homicides[38] in Brazil during the period from 2001 to 2011, which is equivalent to about 5,000 deaths per year. According to Meneghel and Hirakata (2011), female homicides (femicides) is the death of women deriving from gender conflicts, *i.e.*, by the fact that they are women. The study also shows that the Northeast region presents the highest rate of deaths by gender, reaching 6.90 of the total of 100 thousand women between 2009 and 2011 (GARCIA et al., 2013).

Another phenomenon that touches the issue of urban security are traffic accidents, a major cause of mortality in Brazil, despite the approval of the Brazilian Traffic Code (Law No. 9,503/1997), which institutes a set of preventive and repressive norms aiming at decreasing accidents.

Indeed, taking into account the country as a whole, there was a reduction in the death rate, from 22,6 per 100 thousand to 20.1 per 100 thousand inhabitants, between 1996 and 2009. However, here too the problem manifests itself in differentiated manner, as shown by the rates increase between 1996 and 2009, in the North and Northeast regions – from 14.3 per 100 thousand to 18.6 per 100 thousand in the North region; and from 13.6 per 100 thousand to 18.3 per 100 thousand in the Northeast region (Table 34). According to IPEA's updated survey[39], the cost of urban traffic violence is of R$ 10 billion per year, while the cost of accidents in highways is of R$ 40 billion/year.

Among the goals to be pursued to improve urban safety, the main one is building integrated public safety policies based on the territory, since violence, even in traffic, is localized and often concentrated, revealing the correlation with urban or spatial factors.

Gender violence permeates cultural, social, and economic issues. In order to build social policies based on gender equality, it is necessary, for example, to have financing and human investments in activities such as:

- strengthen institutional mechanisms for the defense of rights, such as the measures provided for in the Maria da Penha Law (11,340/06);
- strengthen spaces for social participation and accountability, such as councils and conferences; and
- financial investments in public policies for protection of women victims of violence, as well as professionalization and income generation activities.

20. Improving social inclusion and equity

There were significant improvements in the past twenty years in the Brazilian Municipal Human Development Index ("*Índice de Desenvolvimento Humano Municipal*" - IDHM), from 0.493 in 1991 to 0.727 in 2010 (Table 35). By disaggregating data per region, in the same period, it is possible to notice the index evolution in all regions of the country, including a notable increase in the North and Northeast regions (HDI respective values in 1991 and in 2010: North region, 0.305 and 0.609;

[38] Femicide is the death of women deriving from gender conflicts, that is, by the fact of being women. See: http://www.ipea.gov.br/portal/images/stories/PDFs/130925_sum_estudo_feminicidio_leilagarcia.pdf

[39] Ipea's Survey Report. Costs Estimate of Traffic Accidents in Brazil based on the simplified update of Ipea's previous surveys. Brasilia, 2015

Northeast region, 0.291 and 0.588; Southeast region, 0.447 and 0.705; South region, 0.455 and 0.716; Central West region, 0.408 and 0.693.

Considering the data for cities with less than 100 thousand inhabitants in the North and Northeast regions, a further increase in the index is even more noticeable: the HDI values in 1991-2010 were 0.300 and 0.605, and 0.290 and 0.587, respectively. For the same regions and at the same period, cities with 1 million and 5 million inhabitants follow the same pattern (in the North region 0.542 and 0.742; in the Northeast region 0.563 and 0.764). Despite HDI increase per municipality (and, especially, for the North and Northeast regions, those regions hold the lowest Brazilian IDHM. (Table 35)

Another quality of life index in Brazil is the Social Vulnerability Index ("*Índice de Vulnerabilidade Social"*- IVS), which measures the level of inclusion/exclusion and social vulnerability considering environmental, cultural, economic, legal, and safety dimensions per municipality. In one decade (between 2000 and 2010), the IVS was reduced from 0.446 to 0.326 (Table 36). By separating data per region, a continued reduction of the index (of exclusion) is perceived in past years. Although the North and Northeast regions follow the reduction trend, they maintain high levels when compared to other Brazilian regions: 0.639 to 0.474 and 0.602 to 0.463, respectively.

The analysis per municipality follows the same pattern, with continued decrease among the cities, considering those with less than 100 thousand inhabitants and those with more than 5 million. Municipalities with less than 100 thousand inhabitants from Brazil's South and Southeast regions presented, in 2000, the best Social Vulnerability Indexes, of 0.358 and 0.379, while in the North and Northeast regions the indexes are 0.643 and 0.604. In 2010, for cities in the same population range, the index in the South is 0.240, in the Southeast is 0.269, in the North and Northeast are 0.480 and 0.466, respectively.

It is noticed that Brazil's social policies in the past period were capable of improving the quality of life of the population; nevertheless, regional differences appear when the results are divided by regions. For example, the vulnerability indexes in the North and Northeast cities, one decade later, still are higher than the 2000 indexes of the country's South and Southeast municipalities.

In urban areas, a group with high social vulnerability is the population living on the street, which is estimated in 50 thousand people in Brazil, located in the 75 biggest Brazilian cities, according to the National Survey on the Homeless Population ("*Pesquisa Nacional sobre a População em Situação de Rua*"; BRASIL, 2008). This population, in its majority, is comprised of men (82%), between 25 and 45 years old (54%), with incomplete basic education (48%), who are gainfully employed (70.9%) and are able to have at least one meal per day (81%). The majority of the homeless individuals usually sleep on the street (69.6%). A relatively smaller group (22.1%) usually sleeps in hostels or other institutions. Only 8.3% usually alternate, sometimes sleeping on the street, sometimes in hostels.

They are individuals with difficulty in accessing public policies, mainly housing. Lack of documentation, added to lack of fixed address, and several passages in equipment without resoluteness make their inclusion in housing programs difficult.

Currently, the street population is supported by the My House, My Life Program in Ministry of Cities' Ordinance No. 595 of 2013, as a municipal manager's priority option. However, there are still few that opt for the inclusion of this population.

In order to ensure the overcoming of homelessness, Brazil instituted, through Presidential Decree, a National Policy for Inclusion of the Homeless, and it established the Intersectoral Evaluation and Monitoring Committee for the National Policy for Inclusion of the Homeless ("*Comitê Intersetorial de Avaliação e Monitoramento da Política Nacional para a População em Situação de Rua*" – CIAMP Rua). Such Committee places upon the Ministry of Cities and eight other Ministries the task of thinking the possibilities of inclusion and access to public policies for this population.

Another dimension of inclusion in urban areas is including people in the virtual space. There is a major effort by the Brazilian State for digital inclusion, enabling citizens to exercise his/her political participation in the knowledge society. In that sense, for example, between 2005 and 2013, the

number of households with web access in Brazil rose from 13.6 million to 42.4 million[40]. The series of initiatives in this area by multiple public agents aim at ensuring dissemination and use of the information and communications technologies targeted to people-centered social, economic, political, cultural, environmental, and technological development, particularly in excluded communities and groups.

V. Urban economy: issues and challenges for a New Urban Agenda

Since 2008, a formalization movement of the small size economic activities (revenue of up to R$ 60 thousand) is observed in Brazil with the creation of the legal figure of the individual micro-entrepreneur ("*microempreendedor individual*" – MEI) by Complementary Law No. 128, of December 19, 2008. This movement had great impact in the formalization of the urban economic relations – approximately 50% of individuals that have opted for being a micro-entrepreneur were not employed (OLIVEIRA, 2013).

There were, until September 2014, 4.43 million MEIs in Brazil. These are entrepreneurs that entered the formal market, along with their endeavors, trades and services that characterize produced urban spaces, such as small workshops, trades, general services etc. These small entrepreneurs reveal a strong entrepreneurial activity, forming a labor market of major relevance.

The solidarity economy, which presents major political progress in rural areas, starts to develop through significant initiatives in the cities. This innovative way of thinking the economic development, in an inclusive manner, has as one of its principles that economic activity is rooted in its most immediate context, having territoriality and local development as frames of reference, in addition supporting popular organization, and the full exercise of the rights and responsibilities of citizenship. The National Secretariat for Solidarity Economy ("*Secretaria Nacional de Economia Solidária"* – SENAES) released, between 2011 and 2014, funds of approximately R$ 406.9 million for developing activities in 2,275 Brazilian municipalities, R$ 26.7 million of which for actions of solidarity finance, seeking to help the access to credit for the Secretariat target group (SINGER et al., 2014); R$ 208.8 million for actions specifically targeted to recyclable materials scavengers; R$ 125.7 million for integrated actions of the solidarity economy with the states and municipalities; and R$ 45.7 million for activities with the solidarity cooperation networks.

The solidarity economy example reveals that the search for effectiveness of social policies involves the understanding of the territory. It is important to understand urban conditions, its constraints and possibilities that may prevent a social policy from becoming fully effective. For instance, a portion of social policy's benefits may be "sucked" by the social reproduction cost and by the social immobility of the peripheries and precarious settlements.

The organization of solidarity endeavors, as a rule, translates itself into the expansion of its members' circle of relationships, allowing them to access contacts and possibilities to overcome their status of precariousness. This process is reinforced when endeavors are articulated in solidarity cooperation networks, a guideline reinforced by the SENAES, which, in urban territories, allows the construction of economic circuits between solidarity economy endeavors ("*Empreendimentos Econômicos Solidários* – EESs), and other social actors, enabling help, inter-cooperation and mutual learning.

Particularly in the case of urban peripheries' youth, the establishment of solidarity cooperation networks comprised by endeavors that work in the cultural area has performed a relevant role in the re-signification of territories, providing income generation processes based on the value of brands linked to culture and territorial identity, with the organization of cultural activities and creations of products such as clothing, books, and CDs.

Another aspect of the urban economy is the financing of cities, especially urban development. In that sense, it is worth highlighting responsibilities assumed by Brazilian municipalities since the 1988

[40] See: http://www.mc.gov.br/dados

Constitution. In Brazil, according to the Federal Revenue Service (Ministry Of Finance, 2012), municipalities were responsible, in 2012, for only 5.79% of total tax revenues, while states collected 25.16 % and the Union, 69.05%.

21. Improving municipal/local financing

Generally, Brazilian municipalities present strong dependence on transfer of funds from other entities of the federation. The transfers from states and Union in 2013 helped to fund about 72% of municipalities' total expenditures (Table 37). The participation of transfers is as larger as the smaller are the towns. Thus, in municipalities with more than 5 million inhabitants, dependence on funds from the Union, states, and other sources for their expenditures is lower, representing 41% of the cost. On the other extreme, municipalities with less than 100 thousand inhabitants received transfers that represented 87% of their total expenditures. In this population range, transfers were still larger in the North and Northeast regions (93% and 91%, respectively).

When analyzing municipalities' own revenue collection in the period from 2002 to 2013, an increment is noticed for municipalities of all sizes. And as the city size increases, there is an increment of the indicator of municipal costs and investment capacity (Table 38).

It is necessary, in this scenario, to encourage the use of alternative sources to finance Brazilian cities, in order to empower municipalities with alternatives for their costs and for investments in urban development. Both the National Tax Code and the Statute of the City establish progressive instruments for taxation and capture of land and real estate valuation, such as on Urban Property Tax ("*Imposto sobre a Propriedade Territorial e Urbana*" – IPTU), property taxes (IPTU) that are progressive over time, improvement fees, charges for additional building and change of use, among others. However, according to the findings from the Participatory Master Plans' Evaluation Network ("*Rede de Avaliação dos Planos Diretores Participativos*", SANTOS JUNIOR; MONTANDON, 2011), effective forms of implementation of such instruments are still few in the territory.

In order to increase local financial capacity, it is important to:

- undertake the allocation of funds, subvention and inter-governmental transfers in a more equitable and fair manner to reduce urban and regional inequalities, and to associate the creation of new burdens and attributions to municipalities with the source of adequate revenues;
- undertake progressive real estate taxation and capture of land and real estate valuations;
- invest in infrastructure of tax collection offices, as well as of areas related to planning and expenditures of municipalities by acquiring equipment, developing and acquiring systems, expanding staff number, and continuous training of employees;
- promote progressive charge of public services, distinguishing groups or persons in vulnerable situations, either by income, age range, gender etc;
- implement integrated systems of public administration management that integrate tax and financing management and favors operationality, effectiveness, and economy;
- implement systems for tax and management information sharing, contributing to the efficiency of revenue collection and public expenditures, particularly the multi-purpose technical register;
- capacity building of municipal public servants to deal with topics related to local finance;
- implement tools that enable social control of revenues and public expenditures;
- proceed with the effective charging of tax and non-tax revenues toward the increase of revenue collection, adopting criteria of tax payers' economic capacity;

- exempt or reduce the tax burden, within its extra-fiscal function of taxes, for the regulation of markets, fomenting strategic sectors, generating new job positions from new investments and regulation of the real estate market.

The alternatives proposed to leverage municipal financing capacity in much depend on the technical capacity of local public administration that, in most municipalities, lack trained and experienced human resources to implement urban public policies.

The articulation of local governments is a relevant practice to improve the management capacity of cities. The Brazilian Association of Municipalities ("*Associação Brasileira de Municípios"* – ABM), the National Confederation of Municipalities ("*Confederação Nacional de Municípios*" – CNM) and the National Front of Mayors ("*Frente Nacional de Prefeitos*" – FNP) are among the main representative entities of cities that work with specific agendas or jointly with this objective.

FNP, for example, noticed a specific phenomenon that involved densely populated municipalities with low revenues and large portion of the population in vulnerable situations. In this context, in 2009, the *g100* was created, comprising a group of municipalities with more than 80 thousand inhabitants and social indices well below the national averages, for which capacity building activities in economic development, professional qualification, and micro-credit were developed with the support of the European Union (2013- 2015) and partnerships with the federal public sector (114 among 385 Brazilian municipalities with more than 80,000 inhabitants present the above characteristics).

22. Strengthening and improving access to housing financing

The second half of the 1990s was marked by resuming regulation of housing policy by the State. In that moment, a new National Housing Policy (PNH/96) was designed, and later reviewed in 2004. under the management of the Ministry of Cities. It had, among other principles, the creation of new sources of financing and maintenance of the economic-financial balance of the Housing Financing System ("*Sistema Financeiro de Habitação*" – SFH).

The housing programs created at that moment comprised traditional financing sources – the Production Support Program ("*Programa de Apoio à Produção"*), the Characterized Demand Program ("*Programa de Demanda Caracterizada"* - PRODECAR) and the Letter of Credit Program (granting of credit by the financial agent to the final burrower) – and own-source revenue – Residential Leasing Program ("*Programa de Arrendamento Residencial"* - PAR) and respective Residential Leasing Fund ("*Fundo de Arrendamento Residencial"* - FAR) –, as well as financing with subsidized or non-repayable interests – "*Pró-Moradia*", with funds from the Workers' Severance Fund ("*Fundo de Garantia por Tempo de Serviço"* – FGTS), and the "*Habitar-Brazil Program*", with funds from the General Budget of the Union ("*Orçamento Geral da União"* - OGU), both targeted to the urbanization of precarious settlement for housing purposes, land regularization, production of urbanized land plots and new housing units.

Between 1999 and 2002, the Residential Leasing Program, created to serve population in the income range from 0 to 6 minimum wages and, as a priority, the population of metropolitan regions, accounted for the construction of 88,549 housing units, 48% of which in the Southeast region and 31% in the Northeast region. Since 2000, the target public of the program was expanded to the population of the capital cities and the Federal District, and after 2001 to municipalities with more than one hundred thousand inhabitants (CARMO, 2006).

In past years, the increase of funds made available for housing financing was outstanding in Brazil. The funds from the Brazilian Savings and Lending System ("*Sistema Brasileiro de Poupança e Empréstimo*" – SBPE), targeted to medium and high income families increased by 1,956% between 1998 and 2013 (Tables 39 and 40), considering the amount of funds for housing construction and acquisition. In the period between 2011-2014, the System's expected value of R$ 176 billion was

surpassed: financing in the amount of R$ 360 billion was granted to 1.91 million families[41].

However, real estate units financed by the SBPE have features that hardly can be considered as social housing, bearing in mind the target public's profile, the real estate value, and the income of families. In turn, funds granted by the Workers' Severance Fund for purchasing real estate units with maximum value of R$ 500 thousand, that is, for families with medium and low-medium income, increased by 816% between 2002[42] and 2013[43], from R$ 5.817 billion (original amount of R$ 3.074 billion that was updated by the National Wide Consumer Price Index – "*Índice Nacional de Preços ao Consumidor*") to R$ 47.5 billion allocated for housing. In 2015, the Fund's budget intended to grant housing loans to individuals or legal entities that benefit families with income of up to R$ 3,750.00, will be of up to R$ 28.8 billion.

Additionally to financing, FGTS also grants subsidies, under the form of discounts in those operations, giving sequence to the work started in 2004, with Resolution No. 460 from its Board of Trustees, which changed subsidies granting policy, benefiting low income families. In 2013, total discounts related to financing operations was about R$ 8 billion for families with income of up to R$ 3,275.00. And, for 2015, the application of discounts for purchasing urban real estate units that fit in the My House, My Life Program is set at R$ 7.5 billion[44].

Finally, the most important milestone in the extension of subsidies to lower-income families (up to R$ 1,600.00 monthly), using funds from the General Budget of the Union, was the launching of the My House My Life Program in 2009. It is an umbrella program that began to encompass several federal government initiatives for housing production and acquisition. Its subprograms and modalities are suited to the diversity of housing demand, considering, above all, the family income range of beneficiaries, priority groups, characteristics of the area (urban or rural) and the size of municipality.

Since its launching, over R$ 240 billion were invested in subsidies for housing production and acquisition, of which at least one third serve families with income of up to R$ 1,600.00. In the modalities operated through the Residential Leasing Fund and the Social Development Fund, which specifically serve this income range, the MCMV grants subsidies that may reach 95% of housing units' production cost. According to an evaluation of the second Growth Acceleration Program (PAC 2), until 2014, the My House, My Life Program contracted 3.7 million and delivered 1.87 million housing units (BRAZIL, 2014d).

In recent years (2007, PAC; 2009, MCMV) there was an extraordinary progress in the topic, marked basically by programs and investments, in addition to the enhancement of the legal framework that started in 2003, which, among others, enables the execution of current funds and ensures legal certainty to real estate developers.

As far as the possibility of acquiring a housing loan is concerned, one of the challenges is to consolidate a housing policy that integrates urban planning and instruments that ensure compliance with the social function of the city and property, as well as with the democratic management of public policies.

In the current juncture of large investments in the country's logistics and urban infrastructure, the involuntary displacement of families for enabling projects and works is highlighted in the national debate on the guarantee of the right to housing, particularly for low income families.

It is in this context that the "Adequate Housing" WG, created by the former Council for the Defense of Human Rights, established the subgroup on "Mega events and mega projects of large urban and social impact". It defined, as a methodological approach, visits to affected communities in cities that had large infrastructure projects, to draw a national overview and to contribute to the debate through recommendations to institutions and governments in their different spheres.

[41] Data from December 2014, accrued from 2011-2014, informed by MPOG.

[42] See: http://www.caixa.gov.br/Downloads/fgtsdemonstracaofinanceira/DEMONSTRACAO_FINANCEIRA_FGTS_2002.PDF

[43] See: http://www.caixa.gov.br/Downloads/fgtsdemonstracaofinanceira/DEMONSTRACAO_FINANCEIRA_FGTS_2013.pdf

[44] Ministry of Cities' Normative Instruction No.36, of 12/19/14. See: http://www.cidades.gov.br/index.php/programas-e-acoes/4701-orcamento.html

Five big cities were selected to be analyzed by the Working Group for the elaboration of recommendations. In order to define those 5 (five) cities, two criteria were combined: the dossier of the National Articulation of the Cup's Popular Committees on Situations of Violations of Human Rights ("*Articulação Nacional dos Comitês Populares da Copa sobre as Situações de Violações dos Direitos Humanos*") and suggestions made by representatives from civil society organizations and forums and members of the WG of relevant cases of social impact on the human right to adequate housing.

Based on the conjugation of those criteria, the following cities were selected: Fortaleza/CE, Curitiba/PR, Porto Alegre/RS, Belo Horizonte/MG, Rio de Janeiro/RJ, and Sao Paulo/SP.

The WG was able to point out a series of similarities both regarding characteristics of the impacts on the human right to adequate housing, as well as the modus operandi of public authorities in the visited locations. The impact on the human right to adequate housing, regardless of being associated to mega events or mega projects, derives from public authorities' work in the process of implementation of infrastructure and urban qualification projects, or their inaction in facing urban liabilities and housing deficits installed in the territory.

After completion of the Final Report, the former Council for the Defense of Human Rights issued recommendations to competent federal, state, and municipal agencies aiming at ensuring the right to adequate housing to the affected population.

23. Supporting local economic development

An indicator that may translate local economic dynamic regarding investments in the built environment is the percentage of jobs in the construction sector (Table 41). Between 2000 and 2010, the job level in civil construction has remained stable in Brazil: the percentage of employees in the sector changed little and upward from 7.2% to 7.4%. In absolute figures, the growth is expressive; between 2006 and 2013, according to the Annual Report on Social Information ("*Relação Anual de Informações Sociais*" – RAIS), the number of employees more than doubled, from 1.4 million to 2.9 million employees in the civil construction. When analyzing the jobs variation by region, it is noted that the biggest progress occurred in the North and Northeast regions (from 6.02% to 7.31%, and from 6.28% to 7.4%, respectively), alongside with some drawback in the Southeast (from 7.82% to 7.46%), and little change in the other regions.

Another indicator which also reflects local economic development is the evolution of the number of micro and small businesses, which increased, from 2002 to 2012, from 4.8 million to 6.3 million establishments according to data of the Inter-Union Department of Statistics and Socio-Economic Studies ("*Departamento Intersindical de Estatística e Estudos Socioeconômicos*" - DIEESE; SEBRAE, 2013).

The economic development of slums deserves an individualized treatment. They are governed by the sense of entrepreneurship, the willingness of running one's own business in the slum. Such attitude is related to the recognition by slum dwellers of the difficulty of finding formal jobs with the desired compensation; thus, entrepreneurship is an objective way of getting out of this process. Nevertheless, formal employment is also valued in slums, as there is a recognition that economic growth and increased income from the formal employment growth is what enables new business (MEIRELES; ATAHAYDE, 2014).

In the recent period, there have been advances in the legislation that facilitate the formalization of businesses, via MEIs, resulting in, up to February 2013, approximately 2.80 million registered MEIs (OLIVEIRA, 2013). However, sided by the acknowledgement of the importance of this way to structure businesses, there is the challenge of integrating such measures and taxation policies in each municipality, including adjusting to the recent changes promoted by Complementary Law No. 147 of 2014. This law prohibits the application of higher rates of urban property taxes (IPTU), related to commercial real estates, as well as more costly service fees to properties reported as reference addresses for individual micro-entrepreneurs. It also ensures exemption of fees, emoluments, and

contributions related to registry offices, licensing, regulation, technical responsibility note, and inspection.

Accordingly, the support to local economic development calls for the replication of legal enhancements and policies fostering entrepreneurial activities in the urban context, setting up urban taxation and tariffs adapted to income conditions and location of endeavors. Likewise, it is necessary to institute policies to ensure decent conditions so that recyclable material scavengers, street vendors, and other workers can exercise their economic activities in streets with dignity, safety, and respecting the social function of the public space. To that end, the creation of popular shopping malls in Belo Horizonte since 2002, linked to the strategies to rehabilitate the city's downtown area, is exemplary.

Regarding recyclable material scavengers, the activities of the federal government Pro-scavenger Program ("*Programa Pró-Catador*") are targeted to support and foster the group's productive organization, the improvement of working conditions, and expansion of social and economic inclusion opportunities based on the solidarity economy rationale. Thus, the activities follow the proposal of working firstly with scavengers who work on the streets or in waste final disposal locations, then in the organization of cooperatives and associations, and finally in the organization of cooperatives centers and solidarity networks, generating productive scale and efficiency.

One of the principles of the National Solid Waste Policy is the recognition of reusable and recyclable solid waste's economic and social value, generating work and income, in addition to promoting citizenship. By allying social and environmental aspects, it promotes sustainable development with the generation of decent work for a traditionally marginalized segment in the urban environment.

According to IPEA estimates (2013), there are about 400 thousand individuals who reported being recyclable materials scavengers in Brazil, of which 10% are organized in associations and cooperatives. Scavengers are responsible for directing 90% of the recyclable materials of the country, and according to IPEA (2010), the economic and environmental benefits generated by recycling are around R$ 1.4 billion and R$3.3 billion per year, according to the total of effectively recycled material by the recycling chain and estimates on selective waste collection. This means that there is potential for increasing those benefits.

24. Creating decent jobs and livelihoods

Work can be seen as a powerful path for social inclusion, since it comprises a significant percentage of families' income. Nevertheless, work, generically understood, may be the source of reproduction of inequalities, which leads to the importance of promoting decent work. According to the International Labor Organization, decent work involves opportunities for work that is productive and delivers a fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families, better prospects for personal development and social integration, freedom for people to express their concerns, organize and participate in the decisions that affect their lives and equality of opportunity and treatment for all women and men.

As far as the promotion of decent work in Brazil is concerned, it is important to highlight the elaboration of the National Decent Work Agenda ("*Agenda Nacional de Trabalho Decente*" - ANTD), launched in 2006, the National Employment and Decent Work Plan ("*Plano Nacional de Trabalho Decente*" - PNTD), of 2010, and the undertaking of the 1st National Conference on Employment and Decent Work ("*Conferência Nacional de Emprego e Trabalho Decente*" - CNETD) in 2012, which discussed the need to strengthen local work, employment, ad income policies as source of local development, social inclusion and a way of reducing asymmetries among regions. The launching in 2014, by ILO Regional Office in the country, of the System of Municipal Indicators of Decent Work should also be noted. This system allows for the identification of

opportunities and special challenges of each of the 5,565 Brazilian municipalities in this area.[45]

However, many forms of informal work are noticed in several sectors of the urban economy in the Brazilian cities. It is necessary, in that sense, to recognize that informal work is fundamental for supporting a major portion of the city's dwellers and of the city itself, and it may be considered as mechanism of adapting to the precarious conditions of urbanization, that manifests itself in the lack of residential address, for example, and in the resulting difficulty of accessing credit.

However, 53% of the slums dwellers have formal jobs, which is compatible with the increase of employment formalization seen in Brazil in past years. The indicator that divides the number of people in the formal market by the number of economically active people (Table 52) shows an evolution from 55% in 1996, to 60% in 2006, and 69% in 2013. The percentage is higher in the metropolitan regions, reaching 77% in 2013.

The presence of child labor (Table 42) is measured by the number of children and adolescents who work, divided by the total number of children and adolescents (aged from 10 to 17 years old). The indicator dropped, in this case, from 23.89% in 1996, to 17.55% in 2006, and to 11.51% in 2013. The metropolitan regions always had lower percentage of working children, dropping to 7.3% in 2013.

25. Integration of the urban economy into national development policy

The PNDR, designed in 2007, aims at reducing regional inequalities, which are understood as a hindrance to the country's development process. This policy stratified the territory in sub-regional spaces based on the average income and GDP per capita, grouping the regions according to the following ranking: high income, dynamic, stagnated, and low income. Programs and actions were developed to work in these territories having as premise the PNDR objective.

By observing the GDP evolution as a measure of development, the annual evolution of the indicator was different among the micro-regions of the PNDR. Considering the period preceding the PNDR (1999-2006) and the subsequent period (2006 – 2012), growth was identified in practically all categories, with exception of the dynamic regions that presented a lower increase rate than in the previous period (Table 43). The dynamic micro-regions[46] are characterized by medium and low dynamism territories, but with economic dynamism and low urbanization level (57.9%).

It should be noted that there may not be a causal relation between PNDR activities and GDP growth, which may partially be the effect of the macroeconomic growth observed in Brazil during this period and not a result of a public policy targeted to that purpose.

In that sense, strategic reflections are appropriate in the articulation of local economy and national development global strategies. The articulation at the federal level of different programs and institutions as an effort of public policies' territorial action, which may be exemplified by the experience of the Territories of Citizenship ("*Territórios da Cidadania"*), should be complemented by innovations that address local realities of social and economic inclusion in the cities.

VI. Housing and basic services: issues and challenges for a New Urban Agenda

The past twenty years presented several milestones that perhaps, more than in any other moment, defined institutional paths for provision of housing and urban services. In 2005, as an outcome of a legislative proposal of popular initiative (PL 2,710/1992) the National Housing System of Social Interest was created. The law that instituted the system also created a fund and a national council with social participation. Additionally, the law gave federal treatment to the housing topic,

[45] The system can be accessed at the following electronic address: http://www.bsb.ilo.org/simtd/.
[46] See: http://www.integracao.gov.br/c/document_library/get_file?uuid=240b7eb3-af5d-458a-ad65-1e9f4d5e9095&groupId=24915

establishing that federation units should adhere to the system, and that they should create, to that purpose, local funds and councils. These initiatives have been encouraged by the federal government, which held campaigns aimed at states and municipalities and gave support in the design of their local housing plans. Until March 2015, 12 states and 1.151 municipalities (20.7 % of total) were in regular status, complying with the System's requirements[47], and therefore able to receive disbursement for already signed contracts and to request new funds as well.

The federal government also prepared the National Housing Plan in 2009. PlanHab, which integrated technical advisory and social participation instances in its elaboration process, quantified the housing needs for the period up to 2023. Additionally, it considered that the demographic demand generated in the period should be met, which added to the deficit, would reach 35 million housing units until 2023 (Brazil, 2009).

The Plan presented methods for housing provision suited to different urban and regional contexts. With the My House, My Life Program, the federal government opted to prioritize the production of new housing units with participation of the private sector, in order to reach production scales that could meet the housing needs. The two first phases of the MCMV reached a total of 3.75 million contracted houses. The third phase of MCMV predicting 3 million of housing units was announced in 2014 by the President.

The period was also marked by the support to self-managed housing production. Since 2004, when the Solidarity Credit Program was created, cooperatives and associations have built housing units for their members. The FNHIS, as well, and more recently the MCMV Program have been supporting the self-managed production. The production scale is still small in comparison to the production carried with participation of developing firms. Thus, it is verified that there still is repressed demand in the self-management domain (BALBIM; KRAUSE, 2014), which could be met if entities' operational capacity were increased and if needed funds were allocated.

The Brazilian housing deficit indicator shows decrease in the period, reaching 5.430 million households in 2012, which is equivalent to 8.5% of total permanent or improvised private households (Table 45). Throughout the period, methodological improvements provided more accuracy to deficit calculation; however, these changes make comparisons difficult between deficit values at different times, for which reason other indicators will also be used.

Among housing deficit components, the biggest weight is the excessive burden with payment of rent in urban households, corresponding to 45.9% of total deficit. This is the only component that increased in the period of 2007-2012, while the others (precarious housing, family cohabitation and excessive densification) dropped. In effect, there are indications that in metropolitan regions the location of recent housing production is less correlated to the location of a substantial part of the deficit, the excessive burden. (LIMA NETO et al., 2014). Therefore, these facts point to the challenge of strengthening the fight against excessive rent burden.

Slum upgrading measures in Brazil combine housing investments with basic sanitation actions and have been carried out since the 1980s. It is worth noting that, in the past two decades, the slum issue began to be dealt as national policy through several programs for which pioneer local experiment from the previous period have contributed – such as the Special Social Interest Zones Regularization Program ("*Programa de Regularização de Zonas Especiais de Interesse Social"* – PREZEIS), implemented in Recife since 1987, by force of state Ordinary Law No. 14,947/1987, and the Slum-District ("*Favela-Bairro"*) program in the city of Rio de Janeiro, in 1994.

The launching, in 2007, of the Growth Acceleration Program and its axis of Precarious Settlement Urbanization ("*Urbanização de Assentamentos Precários*" – UAP) allowed for the undertaking of comprehensive interventions in precarious settlements of large dimensions, such as the slums complexes in Rio de Janeiro, Sao Paulo, and in other Brazilian metropolises. The interventions amount to around R$ 27.7 billion of investments and the more than 1.7 thousand operations have already benefited 1,865.475 families.

The interventions in precarious settlements encompass a set of activities aimed at raising the levels

[47] Source: https://www.cidades.gov.br/situacao_snhis/src/situacaoSnhis/formSituacoes?view=site. Accessed in 03/19/2015.

of urbanistic quality by tackling inadequacies identified in the intervention areas. In addition to improvements in housing and construction of new units, the projects can provide for the implementation of basic infrastructure – including power grid, public lighting, water supply systems, sewage, storm water drainage, suitable conditions for waste collection and soil containment and stabilization to eliminate risks. Adjustments are done in land parceling and road system in order to enable access to public and emergency care services, improving functional relations of the intervention area with the urban fabric in which it is inserted.

All housing programs, including PAC and MCMV, have social work as a key component for achieving the goals of improving the quality of life of people through housing and access to the city. The integration of the several social policies in the territory has been sought, and the PAC-UAP contributes to that purpose by enabling the construction of public or community facilities, as well as public leisure spaces, articulating them to road and public services.

The new legal framework that sets national guidelines for basic sanitation (Federal Law No. 11,445/2007) comprises four components: drinking water supply, sanitary sewage system, urban cleaning and solid waste management, and storm water drainage and management. Sanitation, in Brazil, is a concurring attribution of all three federative levels.

The federal government has financially supported the implementation and expansion of water supply systems and sewage, especially through PAC. More recently, urban drainage has also become subject to PAC financing, associated to mitigation of disasters risks or rehabilitation of infrastructures. It is important to notice that urban drainage is still not perceived as urban "service".

It is also important to highlight solid waste management, bearing in mind the approval of Federal Law No. 12,305/2010, with instituted the National Solid Waste Policy. Data for the month of March 2014, as pointed out in a study by IPEA, show that only 40.4% of Brazilian municipalities adequately disposed of waste in landfills, while 45% of municipalities used the so-called "dumps", which should have ceased at the deadline set by law – August 2, 2014; the remnant municipalities, 14.6%, used the so-called "controlled dumps", an intermediary situation from the environmental stand point, but inadequate from the legal point of view, since the National Policy mandates that controlled dumps should be remediated. Thus, a major portion of the Brazilian municipalities are in irregular situation.

A greater attention to planning can also be noticed as regards the issue of solid waste, at least for what is denoted by the increased presence of instruments, such as the Municipal Plans for Integrated Solid Waste Management ("*Planos Municipais de Gestão Integrada de Resíduos Sólidos*" – PMGIRS), in comparison to the other basic sanitation components. This situation is probably due to Law No. 12,305, which provides that since August 2012 the existence of the PMGIRS is a condition for states and municipalities to access funds from the Union or controlled by it, targeted to endeavors and services related to solid waste management.

The provision of electric power services to houses is practically universal in Brazilian cities. The public consultation at the platform "participa.br/habitat", carried out as input for elaboration of this report, shows higher level of satisfaction from the population, if compared to all other evaluated services (housing, transportation, and basic sanitation). It is also important to notice the frequent mentions to the elaboration of plans, when adressing all components of basic sanitation services. The priorities for solid waste should be extended to related actors, that is, recyclable materials scavengers and cooperatives. Regarding storm water management and drainage, there is more frequent mention to a policy alternative that comprises non-structural measures than to an alternative that comprises structural measures.

26. Slum upgrading and prevention

Housing precariousness in Brazil has multiple sources, such as insufficient supply of housing solutions for the low income population, high cost of urbanized land, and families' low purchasing power. These factors, combined, lead to informal production of precarious houses in irregular lands

(from the titling or urbanistic point of view), without infrastructure and basic urban services (sanitation, electric power, health and educational facilities, and public transport), located, in their majority in peripheral areas of big cities – which presupposes huge displacements and expenditures with transport – or in lands where there is no interest from the real estate market, almost always subject to natural disasters risks (flooding, landslides).

The lack of tackling the issue for many decades, effectively since the emergence of the first slums in early 20th Century, contributed to aggravating and multiplying this housing strategy, which is nonetheless some sort of housing production of popular initiative that does not goes through the government – an actor that historically was not able to meet the housing demand for the low income population.

According to the 2010 Census[48], 323 Brazilian municipalities have subnormal agglomerates. Another survey shows that 799 municipalities reported, in 2011, the existence of slums or similar areas[49]. However, the expansion of investment in urbanization over the last decades, above all with the PAC- UAP, has led to good results.

Analyzing the evolution, between 2000 and 2010, of the characteristics of heads of households[50] (literacy), as well as of the households (adequate sanitary sewage system and the existence of two or more toilets), Mation et al. (2014) verified that improvements were more pronounced in subnormal agglomerates:

- percentage of literate head of households in slums increased almost 7% (from 83.5% in 2000 to 89.2% in 2010), in comparison with an increase of 4% (from 86.9% to 90.4%) in areas that are not subnormal agglomerates. By the end of the period, a convergence of this feature between slums and other areas was noted.

- percentage of households with sanitary sewage system increased 17% in slums (from 60.2% to 70.7%), in comparison with an increase of 4% (from 71.6% to 74.8%) in areas that are not slums. In this case, the greater increase may be associated to greater concentration of public investments in sewage in slum areas.

- percentage of households with two or more toilets, in subnormal agglomerates increased 81% (from 7.% in 2000 to 14.3% in 2010), in comparison with an increase of 27% (from 24% to 30.4%) in areas that are not subnormal agglomerates. Such progress may indicate that families from subnormal agglomerates made, proportionally, more investments in housing improvements, following income increase trends and the reduction of inequalities in the period.

The improvement of housing units in slums/precarious settlement indicates not only that there was an increase in income among families, but also changes in the Government's stance in the strategy to face slum problems. Based on the understanding that slums are not transitory dwellings but rather areas of housing precariousness, combined with the increase of urbanization programs, families living in these areas began to feel secure to invest in their own houses.

The PAC-UAP counts on approximately R$ 30 billion in contracts, distributed in almost 900 endeavors. As stated in the most recent National Follow-Up Report on the Millennium Development Goals, Brazil was able, in the past twenty years (1992-2012), to reduce the urban population living in inadequate houses in almost 17 percentage points.

The urbanization of precarious settlements constitutes a form of tackling housing and socio-environmental liabilities in our cities, particularly in metropolitan and integrated development regions ("*Regiões Integradas de Desenvolvimento*" – RIDEs) that housed 90.8% of total dwellers in subnormal agglomerates of Brazil in 2010 (IBGE).

[48] The definition of subnormal agglomerates (IBGE, 2011) uses multiple criteria, comprising parameters of scale (at least 51 households), urban morphology (roads with irregular alignment), land titling regularity (illegal occupation of public and private land) and of access to public services. Except for size and land titling, there are not fully objective cut lines for the other criteria, which creates difficulties for defining censing sectors with these features.

[49] The MUNIC (IBGE, 2012) does not define a minimum number of households in slums or other precarious settlements.

[50] The characteristics refer only to variables that are in the questionnaire of the demographic censuses universe.

In accordance with the 11th evaluation of the Growth Acceleration Program (BRAZIL, 2014d), between 2007 and 2009, investments amounting to total of R$ 20.8 billion were selected and contracted for urbanization of precarious settlements, of which around 83% were directed to metropolitan regions, capital cities, and municipalities with more than 150 thousand inhabitants; the remaining values were targeted to municipalities with less than 150 thousand inhabitants. In the second phase of PAC, that is, in the 2011-2014 period, investments amounting to total of R$ 17 billion and contracts amounting to R$ 12.7 billion were selected; of those, 90.5% were targeted to metropolitan regions, capital cities, and municipalities with more than 70 thousand or 100 thousand inhabitants, depending on the country's region. The implementation of a national policy on slum upgrading, starting with the creation of the Ministry of Cities, confers gains in scale in the upgrading activities in these areas. The initial activities of the Habitat-Brazil/IDB Program stand out. It counted on foreign financing and, later, with the inclusion of investments from the "Urbanization, Regularization, and Integration of Precarious Settlements" and "Integrated Sanitation" – programs of the Pluriannual Plan ("*Plano Plurianual*" – PPA) within the scope of the slum urbanization axis of the Growth Acceleration Program. These activities were preceded in the 1990s and early 2000s by innovative policies at the level of states and municipalities, with highlights for activities in the cities of Porto Alegre, Recife, Belo Horizonte, and Rio de Janeiro.

Finally, by approaching the slum urbanization and regularization issue, as well as the mitigation and prevention of slums in Brazil, it is understood that even more positive outcomes depend on several factors, including:

- lasting urbanization interventions of slums, that is, improvements in infrastructure and services which remain in good working conditions over time – a factor that depends on the quality of the execution of slums upgrading interventions themselves and the capacity of the local public power to keep services running;
- existence of alternative of access to adequate housing in and out of slums – a factor that depends on the policy for housing of social interest, generally linked with urban and land policy;
- control and enforcement of new land occupations and slum formation – a factor that depends on municipal institutional conditions;
- socio-technical work that provides effective responses to dwellers' needs and, above all, that collaborates with valorizations of individuals and of their living space, contributing to ownership and maintenance of the interventions; and
- land regularization in favor of families and dwellers of settlements that have gone through interventions, as a means of promoting legal security of tenure and guarantee the constitutional right to housing, including for future generations, through titling and registry of titles.

The governability of the first two factors depends, basically, on federal action, jointly with the states and municipalities, executors of the slum urbanization and housing provision policies, and is conditioned to macroeconomic frameworks that allow the continuity of investments. The third factor is harder to evaluate, since it depends on local measures, exclusively in charge of municipal management. The social work, the fourth factor, is a practice that has been an increasingly structuring element of housing policies in all levels of government.

27. Improving access to adequate housing

The right to adequate housing, recognized in several international instruments, such as the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), the International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights (1966) and the Habitat Agenda (1996), is not restricted to housing physical features, encompassing also the guarantee of security of tenure, availability of services, infrastructure and public urban facilities, affordable cost for purchase or rent, not excessively compromising family

budget, and good habitability conditions – protection against climatic variations and extreme events and risks, adequate size and number of rooms and an adequate location, which offers conditions for human development and cultural adequacy.

As regards the homeless population, there is the perspective of inclusion in the My House, My Life Program, as a vulnerable group, whose prioritization becomes necessary by local governments. The housing focus is essential for ceasing violations of this population's rights. Their actions should be connected with the other facilities of the homeless population servicing network so that social inclusion is integrally provided.

The production of new housing units has advantages as stimuli to industry, generation of jobs and fight against housing precariousness and proliferation of irregular settlements. However, there are other major alternatives for tackling housing needs and access to adequate housing. The fight against excessive burden, precariousness of shelter and infrastructure, excessive densification, and cohabitation are also alternatives to achieve adequate housing.

According to the last update of the Brazilian housing deficit by the João Pinheiro Foundation ("*Fundação João Pinheiro*" - FJP) and the Center of Statistics and Information ("*Centro de Estatística e Informação*", Table 45, relative to 2012), there is a deficit of 5.430 million households, divided as follows between the country's regions: 10% in the North, 33% in the Northeast, 39% in the Southeast, 10% in the South, and 8% in the Central West. About 16.3% of the Brazilian deficit correspond to precarious dwellings, while 34.4% refers to cohabitation, and 42.5% to excessive burden with payment of rent; only 6.8% is related to excessive densification. The precariousness is greater in Northeast region's households, followed by the North region, while cohabitation and excessive burden have greater expression in the Southeast and Northeast regions (Table 45).

The improvements to specifications for calculating the housing deficit made in recent years, despite being necessary, may create difficulties related to elaboration of time series. Therefore, it is convenient to use the percentage of the population living in adequate houses as an indicator of access to adequate housing[51]. The percentage of population in this condition increased from 44.74% in 1996, to 53.77% in 2006, and 59.89% in 2013. Nevertheless, large regional differences remain: in the Southeast, 75.63% of the population live in adequate conditions, while only 39.4% of the population in the North, and 45.57% in the Northeast region live in those conditions. On the other hand, the metropolitan regions always show higher percentage than those of respective larger regions where they are inserted; in the set of MRs, the percentage of population in adequate houses reached 73.15%in 2013; in the regions, the highest value is among the MRs of the South with 78.63%.

The production of new housing units by the MCMV Program is adequate, given that it is targeted to families with income of up to R$1,600.00 and the housing deficit is concentrated in families with income of up to three minimum wages, as shown in the survey undertaken with beneficiaries of the program, serviced by the programmatic line operated with funds from FAR (BRAZIL, 2014e): total income of household informed by interviewees has an average value of R$ 907.57, which is significantly lower than the upper threshold of the program, in the line under analysis (R$ 1,600.00).

Analysis of the income distribution shows that 30% of households have income of up to one minimum wage. The application of already existing guidelines (brought in by the Statute of City and incorporated into municipal master plans) in the Brazilian municipalities would raise the possibility of access to adequate housing:

- application of the instruments of the Statute of City to ensure provision of public lands for social interest purposes (ZEIS, property taxes that are progressive over time and expropriation with payment in public debt securities);
- requalification of unused buildings in downtown areas of big metropolises to serve

[51] This indicator considers all private households that have the following features: water supply by general network, sanitary sewage system by general network or septic tanks, brick or plane lumber walls or walls covered with tiles or concrete slab, up to three dwellers per room serving as dormitory, and security of tenure. Any of the following situations are considered as security of tenure: owned and financed real state or land, as long as there is no income commitment with installments over 30% of the family income, in addition to households rented with the same limitation.

low income families;

- inter-federative programs and financing lines targeted to fight excessive burden with payment of rent;
- continuity and expansion of slum urbanization programs, technical assistance for requalification of housing and provision of housing units associated to urbanistic and land titling strategies; and
- compliance with national and international guidelines for involuntary displacement of families in a decent manner and with definitive or provisory alternatives of housing.

28. Ensuring sustainable access to safe drinking water

In 2004, the guidelines of an environmental sanitation policy were presented in a brochure made by the Ministry of Cities (BRAZIL, 2004), and later discussed and proposed in the 2005 National Conference of Cities. The definition of a sanitation regulatory framework began in that year through a Law that received over eight hundred amendments in the federal parliament (FIX, 2013).

One of the Basic Sanitation Policy instruments (Federal Law No. 11,445/07; Federal Decree No. 7,217/10) is the National Basic Sanitation Plan approved in 2013 (Federal Decree No. 8,141/13; Interministry Ordinance No. 571/13). The Plan promotes integrated basic sanitation planning until 2033, including its four components: drinking water supply, sanitary sewage system, solid waste management, draining and management of urban storm water, with notations of investments needed toward the universal access to basic sanitation services.[52]

The secondary information inserted in the Plan was generated from four different data sources: I) the surveys by the Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics, including the 2010 Demographic Census, the National Basic Sanitation Survey ("*Pesquisa Nacional de Saneamento Básico*" – PNSB) of 2000 and 2008, and the National Household Sample Survey ("*Pesquisa Nacional de Amostra por Domicílio"* - PNAD) from 2001 to 2011; II) the SNIS of 2010, from the National Environmental Sanitation Secretariat ("*Secretaria Nacional de Saneamento Ambiental*" – SNSA) of the Ministry of Cities; III) the System of Information and Monitoring of Water Quality for Human Consumption ("*Sistema de Informação de Vigilância da Qualidade da Água para Consumo Humano*" – SISAGUA) from 2010 to 2012, of the Ministry of Health; IV) data from the SEDEC, from 2007 to 2009.

The National Environmental Sanitation Secretariat, when reviewing the National Basic Sanitation Plan, shall standardize and harmonize such information sources with goals, promoting the necessary adjustments. The Plan has as guiding principles, among others: universal access; reduction of social inequalities; comprehensiveness in order to ensure full access to all components, with due quality; and inter-sectoriality.

Since 2014, the National Basic Sanitation Plan is followed by the Inter-institutional Working Group of Follow-up on PLANSAB's Implementation (GTI-Plansab), instituted by Decree No. 8,141/2013.

The sector's planning activities, which have been progressively enlarged, include – in addition to implementation, monitoring, and periodic evaluation of PLANSAB –support to the elaboration of Municipal Basic Sanitation Plans; elaboration of Sanitation Plans for RIDEs; the maintenance and structuring of the National Information System on Sanitation; among several other planning and capacity building activities.

After 2007, with the adoption of the Growth Acceleration Program, sound investments were made

[52] PLANSAB is the outcome of a broad democratic and participatory process, coordinated by the Ministry of Cities, with the support of an Inter-institutional Working Group created by the Presidency of the Republic, which included undertaking of Seminars in the country's five macro regions, and public consultation through the internet. It was also examined and approved by CNS, CNRH, CONAMA and ConCidades.

in basic sanitation infrastructures of drinking water supply, sanitary sewage system, public cleaning and solid waste management, and drainage and management of storm water, but there is still much to be done in order to ensure universal access of the population to these basic sanitation services.

The access to the general water network or wells or springs with plumbing increased in urban households from 95% in 2000 to 97% in 2013 in Brazil (Table 46). The regions that are closer to universal access are the Southeast (99%) and South (99%). It is important to notice that, in past years, regions considered relatively well-serviced have undergone water shortage and crisis associated to planning and management problems, which may mean drawbacks, such as the Southeast region of Brazil.

Currently, the South region has the best indicators, but it presented a relatively shy evolution in the past twenty years. In 2000, 98% of its urban population had access to drinking water, in 2006 this ratio was 99% and in 2013 the percentage remained stable (99%). The Southeast region, which presents servicing percentages very close to those of the South region, also had, in 2000, 98% of its urban population accessing drinking water. In 2006, this ratio was 99%, and it remained 99% in 2013.

The Central West region also presented a shy evolution. In 2000, the region had 94% of its population with drinking water supply through a distribution network. In 2006, this figure was 97% of the urban households in this condition, whereas in 2013 this indicator was 98%.

The North and Northeast regions considerably progressed in the last two decades. In the latter, in 2000, 88% of urban households had access to drinking water through a distribution network, reaching 95% in 2006, and 94% in 2013. In turn, the North region, despite having the lowest value of the indicator, was the region that progressed most in this regard. In 2000, 79% of its urban households were serviced with drinking water distributed by a distribution network. In 2006, it was 78% and this number increased to 92% in 2013. Thus, it is noticed that the North region, mainly in the past seven years, presented a strong progress in terms of access to drinking water by the urban population – which is noteworthy.

In short, the regions that are closer to universal access are the South (99%), Southeast (99%), and Central West (98%). The North, however, despite presenting a lower reference indicator, reduced the disparity in comparison to the other regions.

The data also show that there are major challenges to be faced, such as: availability, quality (safety), cultural accessibility, financial accessibility, privacy and dignity, non-discrimination and equity, access to information and transparency, social participation and control in public policy and management, and sustainability.

Among the challenges for the coming years, there is the target of guaranteeing adequate access to water supply in 100% of urban households in all regions. It is important to advance in the integration of the sanitation – and especially drinking water supply service – with other urban development policies, as well as with the public health policy.

29. Ensuring sustainable access to basic sanitation and drainage

From the stand point of ensuring the sustainable access to sanitary sewage system and drainage, the country, especially since 2004, undertook major progresses, mainly related to institutional efforts and increased investments in recent years.

In 1996, 75.39% of the country's urban population had access to adequate sanitary sewage systems (considered as an adequate collection system or septic tank; Table 47). The Southeast and South regions presented the country's best indicators, with 88.17% and 74.63% of urban population serviced. The Central West, North, and Northeast regions presented the lowest indicators of access to sewage, with 45.61%, 45.9%, and 52.4%, respectively. In 2006, around 77.7% of the country's urban population had access to an adequate sanitary sewage system, whereas the best serviced regions still corresponded to the Southeast and South regions with 91.36% and 83.09% respectively.

The Central West, North, and Northeast regions, in that same year, presented again the lowest indicators, 49.58%, 61.44%, and 60.77%, respectively, revealing that regional inequality remained.

2013 data show that 82.52% of the urban population lived in adequate conditions in that respect. If the metropolitan regions were considered, the same indicator would be in 91.44% of the population in this situation. The Southeast and South regions appear again with indicators above the national average, with 94.89% and 85.56% of the urban population with access to adequate sanitary sewage system. On the other hand, the Central West, North, and Northeast regions remained with indicators below the national average, with 63.36%, 62.46%, and 69.44% of their urban population with access to adequate sanitary sewage system.

Indicators are different regarding access to service of treated sanitary sewage. The indicator "Index of Treated Sewage Relative to Consumed Water" (Table 48) shows that in 1998 around 19% of sewage generated in the country was treated. This indicator was, in 2006, of 32% and in 2013 about 39% of total generated sewage. The extreme values show how the country is marked by regional inequalities. In the Central West region the treated sewage index, relative to consumed water, was equivalent to 11% (1998), 38% (2006), and 46% (2013); in the Southeast region, however, the same indicator was equivalent to 22% (1998), 35% (2006), and 44% (2013); and in the South region it was equivalent to 11% (1998), 27% (2006), and 35% (2013).

On the other hand, in the North and Northeast regions, the index was equivalent to 2% (1998), 6% (2006) and 15% (2013); and to 18% (1998), 30% (2006), and 29% (2013), respectively, which shows that treated sewage indices lag far behind what is necessary both in terms of public health and environmental preservation.

From the stand point of urban drainage, the indicator referring to percentage of cities with an agency responsible for managing drainage service and urban storm water management also shows that public investments are extremely needed for the coming years.

Around 54% of the Brazilian cities with less than 100 thousand inhabitants had an agency responsible for managing drainage service and handling urban storm water (Table 49). This indicator drops to 18% in the North region, and equals to 60% in the Northeast, 63% in the Southeast, 53% in the South, and around 38% in the Central West. Considering cities between 100 thousand and 500 thousand inhabitants, the indicators correspond to 74% for Brazil as a whole, 45% in the North, 71% in the Northeast, 84% in the Southeast, and 70% in the South. For cities with population between 500 thousand and 1 million inhabitants, around 64% have an agency responsible for managing drainage service and handling urban storm water in Brazil. Around 71% of the cities in the Northeast, 73% of cities in the Southeast, and 50% of cities in the Central West have an agency with that attribution. Concerning cities with population between 1 and 5 million, the following is noticed: about 57% of Brazilian cities have an agency responsible for managing drainage service and handling urban storm water. Around 75% of cities in this range had this type of agency in the Northeast; 50% in the Southeast; 100% in the South, and 50% in the Central West. Finally, the totality of cities in the Southeast with population over 5 million has an agency responsible for managing drainage service and handling urban storm water.

Discussions within the Brazilian civil society point to the importance of looking into the sanitation problem as a whole, and of sanitary sewage systems specifically, through the lens of human rights. In this sense, the approach to wastewater collection and treatment service also depends on the recognition of the importance of full accessibility, and are based on the same principles already listed above regarding water supply.

The goals set by the National Basic Sanitation Plan are references for the sector. In this sense, up to 2033, Brazil shall count on 93% of urban households serviced with collection system or septic tank. However, considering the existing regional differences, the regional distribution of this goal is not homogeneous: 89% for the North region, 86% for the Northeast region, whilst for the Southeast, South, and Central West regions the goal is 98%, 96%, and 92%, respectively.

Another challenge refers to reduction of the percentage of households without sanitary installations, a problem eminently located in the North and Northeast regions of the country, where, in 2009,

around 6.96% and 9.78% of households did not present sanitary installations in the dwellings[53]. Therefore, it is noticed that the effectiveness of the sanitation policy depends not only on the fulfillment of quantitative targets of household connections, but also on major qualitative dimensions, such as respect to gender specificities, cultural and financial accessibility, and transparency, in addition to articulation with other sectoral policies, such as housing, urban development, and public health.

30. Improved access to clean domestic energy

Due to its singular characteristics related to the use of natural water resources, Brazil is considered one of the countries of the world with the highest ration of renewable energies in its power matrix. In 2013, while the world average was around 13% of renewable energies in their overall matrix, in Brazil this ratio was around 41%, which is remarkable (BRAZIL, 2014f). Concerning electricity, around 62.8% of installed generation capacity comes from hydroelectric plants, about 28.25% from thermal power plants, around 3.65% from wind power plants, 3.58% coming from small hydroelectric power plants, 1.49% from nuclear power plants, 0.23% from hydroelectric generating centrals, and 0.01% from solar energy (BRAZIL, 2014). Thus, 29.74% of the installed capacity of electric power generation of the country are comprised of energy sources considered non-renewable, compared to 70.26% from source considered as renewable.

Regarding the ratio of dwellers living in households with electric power over total population (Table 51), in 1996, 98.86% of the Brazilian families lived in households with access to electric power. In 2006, this ratio was 99.72% of the population, and in 2013, 99.94%.

In Brazil, the electric shower accounts for 24% of electric power consumption. On the other hand, it is noticed that the electric shower is present in 73.1% of Brazilian households and in 99% of households in the South region of Brazil. Water heating for bathing using electric shower is considered one of the country's major problems, due to its high power consumption[54].

In the first phase of the My House, My Life Program, the use of solar heating system was voluntary for the South, Southeast, and Central West regions, reaching around 7% of the contracted housing units. During the second phase of MCMV, it was established that all single-family houses should have the system[55]. Thus, until June 2014, over 200 thousand dwellings produced within the MCMV's scope counted with the installation of solar water heating system, which enabled savings in power consumption and tariff rates to be paid by families[56] .

The stimulus for implementation of decentralized power systems, aiming at reducing losses caused by the large distances separating the big consuming centers from power generation localities is an interesting strategy. The photovoltaic solar power has a high generation cost if compared to other sources. However, when losses in distribution and power thefts are considered, the photovoltaic solar power becomes competitive. From a socio-environmental perspective, this source is presented as attractive, contributing to the reduction of pollutant gases emissions, with power generation close to the consumption place, without the need of using fossil fuels (which is the case of thermal electric) or flooding of extensive areas (which is the case of hydroelectric power). Pilot experiments are under development within the scope of the MCMV Program, such as the Juazeiro Project that provides for the installation of solar and wind power micro-systems in households roofs and common areas.

[53] The indicator does not surpass 1% in the other regions. See: http://seriesestatisticas.ibge.gov.br/series.aspx?no=6&op=0&vcodigo=PD271&t=existencia-instalacao-sanitaria-domicilio.
[54] See: file:///C:/Users/User/Downloads/C_Aquecimento%20solar_%20(1).pdf
[55] See: file:///C:/Users/User/Downloads/C_Solar_minha%20casa-minha%20vida.pdf
[56] See: http://www20.caixa.gov.br/Paginas/Noticias/Noticia/Default.aspx?newsID=927

31. Improving access to sustainable means of transport

The relation between public transport service and the appropriation of the city by the population passes through issues such as the location of jobs and housing, and the consequent time spent in home-work displacement. An efficient transport system with big capacity to reduce the time spent going to and returning from work is necessary in the big cities. In 1996, approximately 69.5% of workers spent up to 30 minutes in daily displacement, increasing to 66.2% in 2006, and to 68.8 in 2013, having, therefore, worsened in the last two decades. (Table 14)

The time increase in daily displacements generates consequences such as productive loss, increase in emissions of greenhouse gases, increase in number of vehicles circulating, increase in air pollution, mainly by particulate matter, higher incidence of breathing diseases, and increase in health system costs, due to hospitalization and ailments, and negative economic impacts referring to workers' precocious deaths, with loss of years of productive work.

In this sense, the Brazilian State presents as positive and correct initiative of applying investment funds in structuring the urban public transportation axis (subway, LRV, BRT) in the large urban agglomerates and in mobility infrastructure, such as bicycle paths with the Urban Mobility axis of the Grow Acceleration Program[57]. This feature of the policy was reinforced in the results of the query undertaken within the scope of Habitat III community at the Participa.br platform: when asked about their of evaluation of the urban planning in their city or region, over 90% of interviewees consider that such policy as suited to solve urban mobility problems[58].

The designing of the National Urban Mobility Policy can be highlighted as a progress, which brought in major guidelines so states and municipalities can implement their local mobility policies considering, for example, the integration of sectoral policies, the prioritization of more sustainable and affordable transportation modes, the use of instruments that manage the demand for individual transportation and social inclusion.

In spite of the several advances mentioned, the increase of the private vehicle fleet hampers the solution of urban mobility issues in large urban agglomerates.

In parallel with the increase in number of automobiles, there was also an increase in number of motorcycles. The ratio of persons per motorcycle was of 60 inhabitants per motorcycle in 1998 and it went to 9 individuals per motorcycle in 2013, an increment of approximately 670%. Again, the distribution occurred unequally among country's different regions. In the North and Northeast regions, the indicator that corresponded to 128 and 118 individuals per motorcycle in 1996, went to 9 and 10 in 2013, a hike of 1,294% in the period. This phenomenon had direct consequences in the expansion in number of accidents with victims and, again, impacts in the health sector. (Table 24)

The manifestations on public transport that marked Brazilian cities in 2013 gave support to mayors to invest more vigorously in public transport and, in some cases, in systems and infrastructure for non-motorized modes of transportation. In recent years, the municipality of Sao Paulo, for example, initiated investments referring to the increase in the average speed and comfort of public transportation trips, with the creation of over 460 km of exclusive bus lanes and the plan to build 150 km of bus corridors. Such actions gave rise to an average saving of 38 minutes per day, reaching more than four hours per week in the home-work-home displacement[59]. It has also stimulated the use of bicycles, through new bicycle paths, bike racks, and bicycle bridges. Moreover, the government of the city of São Paulo plans to deploy 400 km of bike paths in the city until the end of 2015. [60]

It is necessary, however, to start a new investment cycle beyond the continuity of PAC investment

[57] It is noticed that the investments in urban mobility will be perceived better after completion of ongoing works, since the majority of endeavors started in 2013 and will begin to be operational from 2015, and most of them will be completed by 2018.

[58] In this same survey, more than 90 % of interviewees also indicate the adoption of policies that foster adoption of non-motorized and collective transport as a positive solution for urban mobility problems.

[59] See: http://www.capital.sp.gov.br/portal/noticia/3715#ad-image-0

[60] See: http://www.capital.sp.gov.br/portal/noticia/3525

cycle. This is so because public transport services are present in all big cities and in the majority of the Brazilian medium cities. Among the latter, considering the population range of 100 thousand to 500 thousand inhabitants, the services are present in 96% of municipalities (100% in the South and Central West regions). Among the smaller cities (population up to 100 thousand), 34.8% had the service in 2012 (compared to only 21.9% in 2005). But the situation varies much according to regions: thus, in the South and Southeast about half of municipalities with up to 100 thousand inhabitants have the service, while in the North and Northeast regions only about 20% of municipalities have public transport.

Among the main goals to improve access to public transport, the following may be mentioned;

- prioritize investment in sidewalks and footpaths, crossings and footbridges, as they constitute basic infrastructure for pedestrian's universal mobility;
- increase participation of public transport in the transportation mode matrix and integrate the different modes, including non-motorized, expanding accessibility, reducing pollutants emissions and increasing the average speed of passenger transport;
- invest in actions to change the energy matrix in urban transport;
- modernize the totality of urban rail used for passenger and cargo transportation with the implementation of electric and light systems;
- invest in railway and port transport, reducing the use of highways as transportation and accidents deriving from cargo excess;
- identify technical criteria to define solutions and decision-making about the different modes to be used for public transport, fomenting its implementation and expansion;
- institute policies regulating the use of individual transport, optimizing the use of the road system, mitigating traffic congestions and improving conditions for public transport; and
- promote the implantation of automated ticketing system in public transport, targeting modal integration and revenue advancement (daily, weekly, and monthly passes, for example).

Challenges for a New Urban Agenda

In this third part of the report, the main aspirations, guidelines, and objectives of a new Brazilian urban agenda for the coming twenty years are listed synthetically, aiming at enumerating actions needed to change the Brazilian urbanization process. At the same time, they aim to bring forward objectives that allow the unification of different, but not antagonistic, stances in the elaboration of a new world agenda.

The formulations are organized as follows: firstly, the objectives that to a certain extent translate themselves into guidelines and basic principles are introduced; subsequently, formulations pertaining to the Brazilian urban reality are presented, comprising, in most cases, aspirations of achieving universal access and, thus, tackling old challenges. There are also propositions regarding the future of cities, mostly related to technological innovation adapted to the country's development realities and living conditions.

The views of the world and the city expressed here for the coming twenty years are derived from analyses carried out on the Brazilian urbanization process during the last period and, at the same time, rely on and conciliate political positions expressed in this report, in addition to the use of bibliographic references, as well as guidelines and positions expressed in programs, actions, and international agreements of the Brazilian government.

To look at the city of the future is firstly to recognize that one stands before a complexity. The city, not only in Brazil, but also worldwide, cannot be explained based on dualities anymore, such as

formal and informal, regular and irregular, with or without access, visible or invisible etc. In Brazil, several recent accomplishments, above all in the national legal framework, enabled the production of the urban and the understanding of society beyond it old dualities. On the other hand, worldwide, new technologies create a virtual urban space in which people and their actions also escape old labels.

In this sense, listed below are the positions taken as common – and not positions of one person or institution – and that were systemized since September 2014, when this process started, in the context of debates that occurred in the ConCidades' Working Group, and comprise structuring contributions that arose from the National Habitat III Seminar and via social participation platform. The following are guidelines, principles, and general objectives for the formulation of a New Urban Agenda:

- consolidate a shared understanding and recognition of the right to city as a founding notion of the production of territories;
- promote inclusive, solidary, and sustainable cities, paying special attention to historically excluded groups;
- promote citizen education and ensure the access of the youth, the elderly, and disabled persons, without discrimination, to urban services and facilities, guaranteeing the exercise of the right to the city and the promotion of citizenship, in addition to ensuring access to the means of urban cultural and identity production, with safety and autonomy;
- promote gender equality and opportunity of access to education and to the formal work market, promoting day care centers and full time schools which are neighboring or linked to the public transport system;
- promote safe cities for women, particularly in the public transport system and in the organization of the urban space, taking into consideration women's specific needs;
- promote accessibility in cities, considering principles of universal design and reasonable adaptation, for the benefit of all people, particularly the elderly and persons with disability or reduced mobility;
- strengthen mechanisms that institute universal transparency of urban and public finance management (open data), with societal participation and control;
- promote the use and access to appropriate and adapted technologies for local generation of renewable energy and reduction of families' energy consumption;
- promote the local goods circulation policy, stimulating notably the production and trade of products originated from urban and peri-urban agriculture, in addition to solidarity and circular economies;
- encourage the development of policies aimed at the recovery and enhancement of the public and common space, ensuring means and conditions for its use, improving the city's image, and increasing inhabitants' appreciation for the space of their city;
- ensure compliance with national and international guidelines of involuntary displacement of families, which should be negotiated and carried out in a decent manner and with housing alternatives, permanent or temporary, reducing urban land tenure conflicts through mediation and negotiations; and
- promote international cooperation for achieving sustainable urban development by fostering, among others, bilateral, triangular, and multilateral cooperation, with particular attention to south-south cooperation; facilitation of technology; and fulfillment by developed countries of their commitments on official development assistance (ODA).

The following are general guidelines, more directly related to Brazilian cities, but that also manifest stances in the overall framework of a New Urban Agenda:

- promote environmental education through programs that foster commissions on the quality of life in school, training teachers and developing processes focused on the issue

of environmental sustainability;

- promote land regularization of irregular settlements, hamlets, villages, districts, and seats of Brazilian municipalities, in order to ensure legal security of tenure for the resident population, through titling, and unencumbering public and private investments in the territory, stimulating the economic and social development of cities;
- structure the national policy of mediation of urban land tenure conflicts, emphasizing the establishment of procedures and protocols for addressing cases and promoting the creation of regional instances of mediation;
- make effective, in all three levels of the federation, the social function of property and the city, inserting citizenship as a means and an end of a new urban agenda;
- design and implement the national urban development policy in an integrated manner with the regional development policies, adapting public policies to regional differences and scale of cities, aiming at integrating the national territory and diminishing regional differences;
- proceed with the discussion on setting up the national urban development system in partnership with states and municipalities, making participation and social control effective;
- work for enhancing the federative model, with consolidation of municipal autonomy, decentralizing access to facilities and services in the national territory and in cities, with adequate provision of funds, aiming at reducing regional and intra-urban inequalities, promoting entrepreneurship and innovation, ensuring the free and open access to virtual means of interaction (web) in public and common spaces, aiming at activating the economy of the city and access to information, increasing the esteem of population and deepening its identity with the place of living;
- promote broad access to information on the urban territory, ensuring its strategic analysis for the formulation of an effective public safety policy that does not make distinctions of color or race, gender, age, and income, valuing dwellers and the safety of common public space, as well as fighting all forms of police violence;
- promote the institution and review of participatory master plans and other ways of territorial urban planning, making the constitutional principle of social function of property effective, ensuring effective application of legal and urban instruments, directing the multi-annual and annual budget to ensure its execution;
- promote the creation of public consortia among municipalities and between federative entities within the scope of urban planning, of territorial management and execution of public functions of common interest;
- promote the reduction of daily trips distances in the city through installation of neighborhood facilities, polycentrism, and the organization of the labor market;
- promote the institution of metropolitan governance with territorial solidarity and local autonomy, implementing fiscal, institutional, and budgetary reforms that make execution feasible in redistributive terms of the access to public facilities and services, and for the implementation of public functions of common interest, with social participation and control, and transparency of public actions;
- prevent damages caused by natural disasters and/or minimize impacts and damages caused by these events by means of prevention and mitigation policies implemented in a coordinated manner by all three levels of the federation and, notably, promote storm water intra-plot management, with sanitation safety, in addition to implementation of management and execution of urban drainage as a public service;
- ensure local economic development through enhancement of the legal framework and of policies that foster entrepreneurship, instituting progressive taxation and tariffs, adapted to income conditions and the location of projects;

- promote the development of state and local agendas of decent work;
- promote decent and safe working conditions for recyclable materials scavengers, street vendors, and other workers who exercise their economic activities on the streets, with capacity-building and qualification, fostering micro-entrepreneurship and solidarity economy, the formation of urban identities, and increased appreciation by city's dwellers.
- expand real estate rehabilitation policy by associating it to housing and mobility policies, as well as job and income generation, in areas with already installed infrastructure and services, promoting mechanisms to fight gentrification, ensuring the permanence of traditional population, and use of vacant real state;
- promote progressive real estate taxation and capture of land and real estate valuations, and promote progressive charge of public services, distinguishing between specific groups associated with vulnerability;
- integrate housing financing to urban planning, promoting fairer and more solidary cities;
- promote comprehensive and integrated urbanization of all slums and precarious settlements, ensuring access to public facilities and services, promoting the generation of urban centralities and sub centralities in these areas, ensuring access to urbanity and to the city;
- universalize the access to basic sanitation infrastructures in cities, ensuring drinking water supply, sanitary sewage systems, solid waste management and urban storm water drainage and management, as a public and collective good, instituting social tariffs or fees, aligned with national policies of social development and fight against poverty;
- formulate and implement actions that promote urban water security;
- promote expansion of urban mobility rates as a means of access to the city, ensuring social access to public transport services for the lower income social strata, and decreasing distances and travel time, integrating mobility policies to urban planning and to land use and occupation policies, and paying attention to the accessibility of public transport;
- promote cities development so that sidewalks, footpaths, crossing stripes, footbridge, stairways, bicycle paths and/or lanes etc., integrate the urban circulation infrastructure, with universal accessibility, with high urbanistic quality of infrastructure recovery and adaptation projects, contributing to the improvement of public and common space;
- increase the share of collective transport in the modal matrix and integrate different modes, including the non-motorized, identifying technical criteria and producing information and indicators for the definition of solutions and decision-making, and ensure coordination with what is established in master plans; and
- institute regulatory policies for the use of individual transport, optimizing the road system and mitigating traffic congestions.

It is important to recognize that cities are very different among themselves and, thus, need strategies, mechanisms and instruments appropriate to their specificities. The proposals here expressed are, however, in their majority of generic nature, enabling declination for each specific situation and use in the most diverse policies. Metropolises appear with major challenges from the stand point of the complexity of problems, as well as inequality, violence, conflicts and the need of territorially integrated and democratic planning and management. Small cities present more difficulties in terms of institutional structure, human resources, and financial shortages. Additionally, from the political point of view, small cities present specificities that should also be considered, such as their low representativeness and capability of economic articulation in the national and regional context. On the other hand, medium cities in their majority fulfill – or may come to fulfill – a fundamental role in the possibility of making cities inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable.

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Annex

Table 1 – Urbanization Rate (%)

Region	1991	2007	2010
Brazil	**75.59**	**83.48**	**84.36**
North	59.05	76.43	73.53
Northeast	60.65	71.76	73.13
Southeast	88.02	92.03	92.95
South	74.12	82.9	84.93
Central West	81.28	86.81	88.8

Source: http://seriesestatisticas.ibge.gov.br/series.aspx?vcodigo=POP122

Table 2 – Evolution of the Economically Active Population (in 1,000)

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2011
Urban (absolute numbers)	74,290	77,325	78,696	80,183	83,033	85,214	85,929	87,851	89,126	89,362
Rural (absolute numbers)	15,747	15,954	16,019	18,135	18,988	18,744	18,365	18,053	17,863	15,916
Urban (relative numbers)	53.5	54.6	54.54	53.67	54.54	54.9	54.46	54.73	54.76	53.51
Rural (relative numbers)	11.34	11.26	11.1	12.14	12.47	12.08	11.64	11.25	10.98	9.53

Source: IBGE, PNAD 2001/2011.

Table 3 – Elderly Population Rate (% 60 or more years old)

	All - 1996	MR - 1996	All - 2006	MR - 2006	All - 2013	MR - 2013
Brazil	8.61	8.42	10.18	10.34	13.04	13.38
North	5.80	6.41	6.46	7.81	8.83	10.72
Northeast	8.46	7.17	9.62	8.20	12.39	11.85
Southeast	9.29	9.13	11.33	11.43	14.17	14.18
South	8.99	8.11	10.94	10.08	14.55	13.95
Central West	5.97	4.25	8.19	6.58	11.06	9.43
Women	9.31	9.55	11.10	11.82	14.09	14.96
Black	8.47	8.31	10.13	10.34	12.97	13.34

Source: PNAD, IBGE.

Table 4 – Evolution of the Brazilian urban and rural population

Year	Urban Population	Rural Population	Urban Population's Annual Geometric Growth Rate	Rural Population's Annual Geometric Growth Rate	% Urban Population	% Rural Population
1950	18,782,891	33,161,506	**-**	-	36.2%	63.8%
1960	32,004,817	38,987,526	**5.5%**	1.6%	45.1%	54.9%
1970	52,904,744	41,603,839	**5.2%**	0.7%	56.0%	44.0%
1980	82,013,375	39,137,198	**4.5%**	-0.6%	67.7%	32.3%
1991	110,875,826	36,041,633	**2.8%**	-0.8%	75.5%	24.5%
1996	123,076,831	33,993,332	**2.1%**	-1.1%	78.4%	21.6%
2000	137,953,959	31,845,211	**2.9%**	-1.6%	81.3%	18.8%
2010	160,925,804	29,829,995	**1.6%**	-0.7%	84.4%	15.6%

Source: CENSO, IBGE.

Table 5 – Total of vacant households

	1991		2000		2010	
Region	**Number of Vacant Households**	**Percentage**	**Number of Vacant Households**	**Percentage**	**Number of Vacant Households**	**Percentage**
Brazil	4,416,124	11%	6,029,756	11%	6,097,778	9%
Rural	1,453,309	15%	1,449,609	15%	1,427,354	13%
Urban	2,962,815	9%	4,580,147	10%	4,670,424	8%
North	249,946	10%	313,431	9%	407,280	9%
Rural	101,803	11%	79,604	8%	100,716	9%
Urban	148,143	10%	233,827	10%	306,564	9%
Northeast	1,406,747	13%	1,765,220	13%	1,938,250	11%
Rural	669,200	16%	689,075	16%	728,836	15%
Urban	737,547	11%	1,076,145	11%	1,209,414	9%
Southeast	1,951,529	10%	2,794,954	11%	2,478,630	8%
Rural	430,352	18%	422,879	17%	364,590	15%
Urban	1,521,177	9%	2,372,075	11%	2,114,040	8%
South	521,587	8%	735,362	9%	814,424	8%
Rural	170,336	11%	173,976	11%	160,178	10%
Urban	351,251	7%	561,386	8%	654,246	7%
Central West	286,315	11%	420,789	11%	459,194	9%
Rural	81,618	15%	84,075	14%	73,034	11%
Urban	204,697	10%	336,714	11%	386,160	9%

Source: IBGE, Demographic Census 1991, 2000 and 2010.

Table 6 – Percentage of urban and rural population whose main work activity is opposed to the characteristics of the zone in which they live (%)

	All - 1996		MR - 1996		All - 2006		MR - 2006		All - 2013		MR - 2013	
	Urban area – rural activity	**Rural area – urban activity**	**Urban area – rural activity**	**Rural area – urban activity**	**Urban area – rural activity**	**Rural area – urban activity**	**Urban area – rural activity**	**Rural area – urban activity**	**Urban area – rural activity**	**Rural area – urban activity**	**Urban area – rural activity**	**Rural area – urban activity**
Brazil	3.70	11.54	0.66	29.89	3.31	14.71	0.60	32.78	2.41	16.41	0.35	30.56
North	4.85	13.38	0.58	NA	3.28	20.91	0.49	30.49	3.17	16.95	0.37	29.35
Northeast	5.48	9.15	0.84	21.45	5.38	10.72	0.87	27.84	3.58	14.01	0.65	28.24
Southeast	2.49	14.52	0.55	35.78	2.17	18.18	0.46	35.03	1.63	18.76	0.25	32.47
South	4.06	13.94	1.04	28.84	3.76	16.73	1.15	32.13	2.38	20.74	0.43	31.27
Central West	4.28	13.28	0.60	30.89	2.99	16.80	0.16	37.50	2.66	18.23	0.31	30.96
Women	1.93	10.84	0.50	23.53	1.77	13.86	0.45	26.50	1.15	15.23	0.20	24.07
Black	3.63	11.56	0.64	29.92	3.30	14.74	0.59	NA	2.38	16.42	0.34	30.17

Source: PNAD, IBGE.

Table 7 – Brazilian youth population rate (%)

	All - 1996		MR - 1996		All - 2006		MR - 2006		All - 2013		MR - 2013	
	Between 15 - 18	Between 19 - 29	Between 15 - 18	Between 19 - 29	Between 15 - 18	Between 19 - 29	Between 15 - 18	Between 19 - 29	Between 15 - 18	Between 19 - 29	Between 15 - 18	Between 19 - 29
Brazil	8.76	18.28	8.32	19.11	7.50	19.49	6.72	20.13	7.07	17.25	6.62	17.28
North	10.16	19.24	10.11	21.54	8.39	20.68	7.39	21.70	8.26	18.73	7.36	18.80
Northeast	9.62	18.08	9.31	20.58	8.24	20.22	7.32	21.65	7.72	17.65	7.06	18.32
Southeast	8.29	18.14	7.95	18.50	6.95	19.02	6.44	19.52	6.55	16.85	6.45	16.95
South	7.83	17.93	8.07	18.57	7.09	18.35	6.72	19.70	6.71	16.28	6.61	16.44
Central West	9.09	20.05	9.63	22.90	7.63	20.39	7.61	22.42	6.98	18.23	6.68	18.48
Women	8.42	18.14	7.89	18.83	7.29	19.27	6.50	19.78	6.71	17.01	6.14	16.86
Black	8.77	18.28	8.30	19.14	7.53	19.38	6.73	19.94	7.12	17.16	6.64	17.17

Source: PNAD, IBGE.

Table 8 – Percentage of the youth population (18 to 24 years) with basic education

	NORTH			NORTHEAST			SOUTHEAST			SOUTH			CENTRAL WEST		
Year	1991	2000	2010	1991	2000	2010	1991	2000	2010	1991	2000	2010	1991	2000	2010
Up to 100 thousand	17%	30%	55%	18%	28%	59%	33%	54%	75%	35%	57%	78%	27%	43%	71%
Between 100 and 500 thousand	39%	56%	75%	36%	47%	72%	48%	66%	82%	50%	67%	81%	43%	57%	77%
Between 500 thousand and 1 million				49%	57%	77%	52%	69%	83%			86%	52%	66%	82%
Between 1 and 5 million	49%	59%	77%	48%	61%	80%	54%	70%	84%	64%	76%	84%	55%	66%	84%
Over 5 million							59%	72%	82%						

Source: IBGE:CENSO.

Table 9 – Percentage of young people employed in the informal market (%)

	All - 1996		MR - 1996		All - 2006		MR - 2006		All - 2013		MR - 2013	
	Between 15 - 18	Between 19 - 29	Between 15 - 18	Between 19 - 29	Between 15 - 18	Between 19 - 29	Between 15 - 18	Between 19 - 29	Between 15 - 18	Between 19 - 29	Between 15 - 18	Between 19 - 29
Brazil	19.074	18.799	15.498	15.161	23.012	24.450	19.783	22.154	16.233	17.829	12.667	13.644
North	19.359	23.317	14.070	23.154	21.220	26.779	13.898	25.011	14.676	21.259	8.345	15.343
Northeast	17.484	21.329	15.269	17.640	21.249	29.295	18.338	25.746	17.197	24.504	14.861	16.195
Southeast	20.222	16.911	15.721	14.334	23.748	21.970	20.270	21.286	14.948	14.011	12.395	12.841
South	16.719	14.889	14.986	12.474	23.991	19.411	23.370	19.157	17.038	13.417	12.359	12.288
Central West	23.975	24.527	15.521	18.727	26.894	25.813	15.302	23.405	19.665	17.257	11.204	15.144
Women	15.631	16.047	12.259	14.362	20.422	23.935	17.814	23.039	13.650	17.115	10.261	13.236
Black	18.860	18.407	15.392	14.916	22.791	24.142	19.337	21.820	16.050	17.749	12.117	13.493

Source: PNAD, IBGE.

Note: Workers in production for own consumption and workers in construction for personal use were not considered as informal activity.

Table 10 – Percentage of the young population who neither study nor work (%)

	All - 1996		MR - 1996		All - 2006		MR - 2006		All - 2013		MR - 2013	
	Between 15 - 18	Between 19 - 29	Between 15 - 18	Between 19 - 29	Between 15 - 18	Between 19 - 29	Between 15 - 18	Between 19 - 29	Between 15 - 18	Between 19 - 29	Between 15 - 18	Between 19 - 29
Brazil	11.83	19.64	10.76	18.27	9.08	14.90	7.88	12.77	10.83	16.68	10.68	15.04
North	11.09	19.28	8.52	15.52	9.22	14.93	8.49	11.73	9.59	14.44	8.64	9.54
Northeast	14.04	22.83	12.02	20.57	10.62	18.59	10.06	15.54	12.54	21.13	12.91	16.60
Southeast	12.69	21.10	9.38	18.76	11.43	18.97	10.31	18.24	11.45	20.81	13.21	20.84
South	10.88	18.53	10.50	18.14	7.35	12.52	6.49	11.75	10.18	14.85	9.51	14.88
Central West	9.44	16.29	11.11	16.13	8.98	11.61	10.01	11.91	9.12	11.39	12.70	13.58
Women	16.27	32.74	13.03	29.23	12.37	23.70	9.40	19.46	13.63	25.12	12.35	21.30
Black	11.66	19.78	1.07	18.41	8.99	14.93	7.68	12.73	10.74	16.54	10.71	14.94

Source: PNAD, IBGE.

Table 11- Homicide rate per 100 mil inhabitants

Region	1990	1996	2006	2009
North	20.2	17.2	27	33.8
Northeast	14.9	18.2	28	33.5
Southeast	30.3	34	27.3	21.8
South	14.9	13.9	21	24.4
Central West	20.8	26.5	28.2	32.4
Brazil	**22.2**	**24.8**	**26.6**	**27.2**

Source: http://seriesestatisticas.ibge.gov.br/lista_tema.aspx?op=0&de=5&no=3

Table 12 – Incarcerated young population

	Youth		Non-Youth			Variation beween 2007 and 2012	
States/Region	**X2007**	**X2012**	**X2007.1**	**X2008.1**	**X2012.1**	**Youth**	**Non-youth**
North	**13,916**	**19,707**	**8,294**	**9,088**	**12,460**	**42%**	**50%**
Northeast	**30,694**	**45,748**	**22,026**	**19,869**	**34,744**	**49%**	**58%**
Southeast	**106,759**	**143,612**	**68,528**	**77,200**	**113,428**	**35%**	**66%**
South	**30,108**	**33,118**	**26,085**	**29,000**	**34,227**	**10%**	**31%**
Central West	**20,436**	**24,171**	**14,593**	**16,157**	**19,178**	**18%**	**31%**
Brazil	**201,913**	**266,356**	**139,526**	**151,314**	**214,037**	**32%**	**53%**

Source: http://juventude.gov.br/articles/participatorio/0009/3230/mapa-encarceramento-jovens.pdf

Table 13 – Incarcerated population by gender, from 2007 to 2012

		Women		Men		Variation between 2007 and 2012	
	YEAR	**X2007**	**X2012**	**X2007.1**	**X2012.1**	**txMulher**	**txHomem**
7	**North**	**1,269**	**2,597**	**21,092**	**32,113**	**105%**	**52%**
17	**Northeast**	**2,453**	**4,965**	**57,203**	**81,696**	**102%**	**43%**
22	**Southeast**	**9,420**	**16,942**	**182,587**	**265,065**	**80%**	**45%**
26	**South**	**3,394**	**4,315**	**53,840**	**63,261**	**27%**	**17%**
31	**Central West**	**2,498**	**3,005**	**32,603**	**41,523**	**20%**	**27%**
32	**Brazil**	**19,034**	**31,824**	**347,325**	**483,658**	**67%**	**39%**

Source: http://juventude.gov.br/articles/participatorio/0009/3230/mapa-encarceramento-jovens.pdf

Table 14 – Percentage of people by time spent in home-work displacement

	1996				2006				2013			
	Up to 30	**From 30 min to 1 h**	**From 1 to 2 h**	**Over 2 h**	**Up to 30**	**From 30 min to 1 h**	**From 1 to 2 h**	**More than 2 h**	**Up to 30 min**	**From 30 min to 1 h**	**From 1 to 2 h**	**Over 2 h**
Brazil	69.5	21.6	7.0	1.8	66.2	23.1	8.4	2.2	68.8	21.9	7.6	1.7
Central West	72.8	19.6	5.9	1.8	65.5	23.4	8.5	2.6	70.8	21.4	6.2	1.7
Northeast	71.4	21.5	5.3	1.7	71.7	20.2	6.4	1.7	72.3	20.2	6.0	1.5
North	77.0	16.1	3.7	3.1	70.7	20.9	6.7	1.8	73.0	20.4	4.4	2.2
Southeast	64.3	23.9	9.5	2.2	59.4	26.5	11.1	2.9	63.0	24.7	10.2	2.0
South	78.6	16.8	3.4	0.7	76.7	18.1	4.3	0.9	78.4	16.6	4.2	0.7
Women	73.4	20.0	5.6	0.9	67.3	22.4	8.6	1.7	71.2	20.6	7.1	1.1
Black	70.0	21.2	6.8	1.8	67.0	22.6	8.2	2.1	69.5	21.4	7.4	1.6

Source: PNAD, IBGE.

Table 15 – Population living in municipalities with some action or policy for the elderly population

	2009		2011	
1 - North	423,655	58%	690,899	95%
2 - Northeast	2,338,019	61%	3,589,620	94%
3 - Southeast	3,752,793	58%	6,274,124	97%
4 - South	1,480,518	67%	2,141,938	97%
5 - Central West	677,500	83%	812,994	99%
Brazil	**8,672,485**	**62%**	**13,509,575**	**96%**

Source: MUNIC, IBGE.

Table 16 – Percentage persons who are more than 60 years and provide the primary source of financial support for their families

	All - 1996	MR - 1996	All - 2006	MR - 2006	All - 2013	MR - 2013
Brazil	40.61	39.09	43.77	44.32	42.01	49.94
Northeast	42.50	35.69	44.20	43.19	41.68	50.10
North	35.98	32.06	38.26	35.40	38.68	45.04
Southeast	39.44	39.42	43.82	44.39	42.01	49.17
South	41.59	42.86	45.07	47.48	43.86	55.49
Central West	40.60	37.45	42.88	43.60	41.76	46.78
Women	28.90	27.64	35.36	36.24	35.39	41.90
Black	40.64	39.55	43.74	44.37	42.04	50.00

Source: PNAD, IBGE

Table 17 – Rate of municipalities with accessibility policies

	North		Northeast		Southeast		South		Central West		Brazil	
	2009	2011	2009	2011	2009	2011	2009	2011	2009	2011	2009	2011
Up to 100 thousand	8,2%	9,1%	7,8%	12,1%	14,4%	20,7%	14,6%	21,8%	10,7%	19,6%	11,5%	17,1%
Between 100 and 500 thousand	22,2%	50,0%	44,7%	43,8%	54,9%	63,9%	52,3%	61,4%	21,4%	78,6%	48,2%	59,3%
Between 500 thousand and 1 million			57,1%	71,4%	75,0%	90,9%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	50,0%	73,9%	81,8%
Between 1 and 5 million	100,0%	100,0%	75,0%	100,0%	66,7%	100,0%	50,0%	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%	76,9%	100,0%
Over 5 million					100,0%	100,0%					100,0%	100,0%
Total											**13,5%**	**19,3%**

Source: MUNIC, IBGE.

Table 18 – Rate of households headed by women (%)

	All - 1996		MR - 1996		All - 2006		MR - 2006		All - 2013		MR - 2013	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
Brazil	26,27	15,03	28,24	20,61	33,89	16,76	37,53	23,79	41,37	23,08	43,60	27,02
North	28,25	13,01	37,68	0,00	37,27	16,09	41,67	23,46	44,03	20,93	52,34	31,82
Northeast	29,25	18,53	32,60	19,48	36,57	18,84	41,85	29,76	44,41	26,80	45,44	25,33
Southeast	25,50	13,32	26,93	23,50	33,24	16,25	36,23	24,27	39,85	20,00	42,48	23,58
South	23,73	9,95	27,32	12,49	31,11	14,58	36,15	20,22	40,40	19,63	43,35	31,92
Central West	26,56	10,48	30,36	27,12	32,50	10,96	39,62	23,79	41,16	16,43	46,34	20,93

Source: PNAD, IBGE.

Table 19 – Percentage of women who provide the primary source of financial support for their families (%)

	All - 1996	MR - 1996	All - 2006	MR - 2006	All - 2013	MR - 2013
Brazil	18.87	20.97	24.72	26.84	27.19	27.52
North	19.40	19.67	20.91	22.95	24.94	23.80
Northeast	19.91	20.96	26.65	27.82	32.19	28.49
Southeast	18.59	20.53	24.47	26.44	25.28	27.17
South	18.25	22.55	24.46	27.36	26.12	28.37
Central West	17.71	24.37	23.58	30.38	24.59	28.85
Black	18.57	20.65	24.30	26.40	26.86	27.08

Source: PNAD, IBGE.

Table 20 – Main income ratio between genders (formal and informal work)

	Todos - 1996		RM - 1996		Todos - 2006		RM - 2006		Todos - 2013		RM - 2013	
	Informal	Formal	Informal	Formal	Informal	Formal	Informal	Formal	Informal	Formal	Informal	Formal
Brazil	1.41	1.33	1.61	1.36	1.42	1.24	1.58	1.29	1.37	1.23	1.56	1.23
North	1.39	1.18	1.44	1.27	1.38	1.11	1.36	1.24	1.25	1.05	1.40	1.12
Northeast	1.26	1.23	1.49	1.27	1.24	1.06	1.43	1.20	1.23	1.04	1.35	1.10
Southeast	1.45	1.40	1.59	1.39	1.51	1.34	1.59	1.34	1.47	1.31	1.55	1.26
South	1.70	1.33	1.80	1.38	1.67	1.30	1.58	1.31	1.56	1.34	1.69	1.32
Central West	1.58	1.22	2.03	1.15	1.57	1.13	1.93	1.15	1.63	1.23	1.90	1.22
Black	1.08	0.95	1.06	0.99	1.48	0.93	1.60	1.32	1.42	1.26	1.59	1.28

Source: PNAD, IBGE.

Note: Average income of men divided by the average income of women per labor situation

Table 21 – Rate of municipalities with Municipal Plan on Policies for Women.

	Brazil		North		Northeast		Southeast		South		Central West	
	2006	2013	2006	2013	2006	2013	2006	2013	2006	2013	2006	2013
Up to 100 thousand	0.3%	2.5%	0.2%	3.1%	0.3%	4.4%	0.3%	0.9%	0.3%	1.5%	0.7%	2.7%
Between 100 and 500 thousand	0.0%	13.8%	0.0%	12.5%	0.0%	24.0%	0.0%	10.5%	0.0%	10.4%	0.0%	21.4%
Between 500 thousand and 1 million	0.0%	30.4%			0.0%	42.9%	0.0%	27.3%		50.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Between 1 and 5 million	0.0%	64.3%	0.0%	50.0%	0.0%	75.0%	0.0%	75.0%	0.0%	50.0%	0.0%	50.0%
Over 5 million	0.0%	50.0%					0.0%	50.0%				
Total	**0.3%**	**3.3%**										

Source: MUNIC, IBGE.

Note: Based on MUNIC 2013. The missing data from the release year was imputed.

Table 22 – Rate of municipalities with master plans

	BRAZIL			NORTH			NORTHEAST			SOUTHEAST			SOUTH			CENTRAL WEST		
	1996	2006	2013	1996	2006	2013	1996	2006	2013	1996	2006	2013	1996	2006	2013	1996	2006	2013
Up to 100 thousand	5%	12%	47%	2%	9%	51%	1%	7%	38%	5%	10%	41%	14%	23%	72%	2%	9%	38%
Between 100 and 500 thousand	36%	65%	100%	33%	47%	100%	20%	61%	100%	41%	66%	99%	42%	79%	100%	30%	50%	100%
Between 500 thousand and 1 million	52%	86%	96%				43%	71%	100%	50%	92%	91%			100%	100%	100%	100%
Between 1 and 5 million	58%	100%	100%	50%	100%	100%	67%	100%	100%	67%	100%	100%	50%	100%	100%	50%	100%	100%
Over 5 million	50%	100%	100%							50%	100%	100%						

Source: MUNIC, IBGE.

Table 23 – Rate of municipalities with approved urban legislation

	BRAZIL			NORTH			NORTHEAST			SOUTHEAST			SOUTH			CENTRAL WEST		
	1996	2006	2013	1996	2006	2013	1996	2006	2013	1996	2006	2013	1996	2006	2013	1996	2006	2013
Up to 100 thousand	39%	64%	91%	33%	58%	88%	26%	56%	80%	50%	76%	96%	39%	60%	99%	56%	78%	95%
Between 100 and 500 thousand	42%	73%	100%	50%	69%	100%	22%	70%	100%	56%	79%	100%	24%	58%	100%	44%	90%	100%
Between 500 thousand and 1 million	44%	57%	96%				17%	29%	100%	64%	75%	91%			100%	0%	50%	100%
Between 1 and 5 million	36%	83%	100%	50%	100%	100%	33%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	0%	50%	100%	0%	50%	100%
Over 5 million	100%	100%	100%							100%	100%	100%						
Total	39%	65%	91%															

Source: MUNIC, IBGE.

Not1 1: MUNIC 2013 (parto of the data was imputed)

Note 2: Laws under consideration: [1] Law on Urban Perimeter, [2] Law on Zoning or Land Use and Occupation, [3] the Civil Works Code, and [4] Law on Land Allotment.

Table 24 – Motorization rate

Number of persons per vehicle									
	1998			2006			2013		
	Automobiles	Motorcycles	Bus	Automobiles	Motorcycles	Bus	Automobiles	Motorcycles	Bus
Brazil	10	60	67	6	20	64	4	9	59
Norte	41	128	149	19	22	128	10	9	128
Northeast	29	118	148	16	27	130	9	10	117
Southeast	7	52	55	5	20	50	3	10	44
South	7	38	46	4	14	48	3	9	46
Central West	9	44	44	6	13	51	3	7	58

Source: DENATRAN

Table 25 – Number of municipalities with a body in the housing sector

	Brazil		North		Northeast		Southeast		South		Central West	
	2008	**2011**	**2008**	**2011**	**2008**	**2011**	**2008**	**2011**	**2008**	**2011**	**2008**	**2011**
Up to 100 thousand	69.6%	70.5%	67.7%	58.1%	82.3%	73.4%	59.8%	63.9%	68.8%	77.0%	57.2%	76.8%
Between 100 and 500 thousand	85.2%	95.6%	70.6%	90.0%	95.2%	93.8%	85.6%	95.9%	87.8%	100.0%	54.5%	92.9%
Between 500 thousand and 1 million	100.0%	100.0%			100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Between 1 and 5 million	91.7%	92.9%	100.0%	50.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	50.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Over 5 million	100.0%	100.0%					100.0%	100.0%				
Total	**70.4%**	**71.1%**										

Source: MUNIC, IBGE.

Table 26 – Number of municipalities with a specific body in the housing sector

	Brazil		North		Northeast		Southeast		South		Central West	
	2008	2011	2008	2011	2008	2011	2008	2011	2008	2011	2008	2011
Up to 100 thousand	9.6%	16.6%	13.5%	23.0%	8.2%	16.8%	6.1%	11.1%	15.9%	21.6%	7.3%	15.6%
Between 100 and 500 thousand	41.9%	59.7%	23.5%	70.0%	35.7%	33.3%	37.3%	63.9%	75.6%	84.1%	18.2%	21.4%
Between 500 thousand and 1 million	82.6%	86.4%			75.0%	71.4%	83.3%	90.9%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Between 1 and 5 million	66.7%	92.9%	50.0%	50.0%	66.7%	100.0%	66.7%	100.0%	50.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Over 5 million	100.0%	100.0%					100.0%	100.0%				
Total	**11.4%**	**18.8%**										

Source: MUNIC, IBGE.

Table 27 – Percentage of statutory workers over the total direct administration workers

	Brazil		North		Northeast		Southeast		South		Central West	
	2006	2013	2006	2013	2006	2013	2006	2013	2006	2013	2006	2013
Up to 100 thousand	58.2%	59.9%	58.0%	58.0%	55.8%	59.8%	55.1%	54.2%	68.5%	69.3%	63.9%	67.8%
Between 100 and 500 thousand	55.4%	61.5%	53.6%	58.4%	49.6%	53.5%	52.4%	61.9%	69.5%	71.9%	61.3%	61.9%
Between 500 thousand and 1 million	67.5%	73.1%			62.6%	77.1%	70.6%	71.6%		89.6%	67.5%	64.2%
Between 1 and 5 million	74.4%	74.7%	64.9%	72.3%	77.6%	75.2%	64.9%	59.1%	75.0%	74.4%	81.5%	83.9%
Over 5 million	93.2%	90.6%					93.2%	90.6%				
Total	**60.8%**	**63.3%**	**58.1%**	**59.4%**	**56.3%**	**60.5%**	**60.6%**	**61.8%**	**69.3%**	**70.8%**	**68.9%**	**71.7%**

Source: MUNIC, IBGE

Table 28 – Occurrence of extreme events and disasters in Brazilian municipalities

	Brazil 2006-2014	%	North 2006-2014	%	Northeast 2006-2014	%	Southeast 2006-2014	%	South 2006-2014	%	Central West 2006-2014	%
Dry spell	11,399	43%	142	12%	7,970	69%	1,371	23%	1866	27%	50	7%
Flood	4,528	17%	188	16%	791	7%	1,323	22%	2013	29%	213	29%
Inundation	3,017	11%	533	45%	765	7%	1,037	17%	521	8%	161	22%
Drought	1,904	7%	24	2%	1,481	13%	393	7%	6	0%		0%
Gale	1,569	6%	32	3%	24	0%	388	6%	1098	16%	27	4%
Hail	740	3%		0%	5	0%	111	2%	616	9%	8	1%
Landslide	644	2%	15	1%	56	0%	496	8%	71	1%	6	1%
Water logging	612	2%	51	4%	93	1%	245	4%	186	3%	37	5%
Extreme rainfall	594	2%	8	1%	25	0%	111	2%	346	5%	104	14%
Other	1,337	5%	194	16%	276	2%	532	9%	207	3%	128	17%
Total	**26,344**	**100%**	**1187**	**100%**	**11,486**	**100%**	**6,007**	**100%**	**6,930**	**100%**	**734**	**100%**

Source: SEDEC

Table 29 – Rate of use of transport by region

	Norte	Northeast	Southeast	South	Central West	Brazil
Public transport	40.3	37.5	50.7	46.3	39.6	44.3
Automobile	17.6	13	25.6	31.7	36.5	23.8
Motorcycle	8.2	19.4	11.6	12.4	6.5	12.6
By foot	16.1	18.8	8.3	7.6	13.7	12.3
Bicycle	17.9	11.3	3.8	2	3.7	7

Source: SIPS, 2010

Table 30 – Percentage of persons that face traffic jams (%)

	North	Northeast	Southeast	South	Central West	Brazil
More than once a day	26.2	14.1	21.6	21.9	20.8	20.5
Once a day	19.7	16.2	15.5	14	16.3	16
2 to 3 times a day	8.6	12	12.2	12.3	11.1	11.6
Once a week	11.5	7.5	10.8	7.7	6.3	9.1
Fortnightly	3.7	2.8	4.7	4	0.7	3.6
Once a month	6.6	6.8	4.3	7.6	6.3	5.8
Never	22.5	39.3	29.7	26.5	34.4	31
Does not know	0	0	0	0	1.7	0.2
Did not answer	1.2	1.3	1.1	6.3	2.4	2.1

Source: SIPS, 2010.

Table 31 – Rate of workers who take more than 30 minutes to go from work to home (%)

	All - 1996	MR - 1996	All - 2006	MR - 2006	All - 2013	MR - 2013
Brazil	30.45	45.61	33.76	53.76	31.15	47.29
North	22.96	22.51	29.34	44.29	27.02	36.12
Northeast	28.55	39.51	28.26	47.30	27.65	40.78
Southeast	35.64	49.59	40.61	58.89	36.99	52.12
South	20.94	35.76	23.28	40.37	21.47	35.84
Central West	27.23	43.37	34.49	51.08	29.19	42.85
Women	26.54	42.55	32.73	53.57	28.75	45.95
Black	29.87	44.88	32.96	53.17	30.45	46.56

Source: PNAD, IBGE

Table 32– Morbidity rate for respiratory diseases (2011-2014)

Region	Hospitalization rate for respiratory disease, in the general population (x1000)				Hospitalization rate for respiratory disease, population up to 5 years (x1000)				Hospitalization rate for respiratory disease, population over 60 years (x1000)			
	2011	**2012**	**2013**	**2014**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014**
North	8.18	7.46	7.57	6.70	34.56	31.57	32.20	28.43	22.03	20.84	20.17	19.35
Northeast	7.25	6.13	6.16	5.82	29.39	24.36	25.12	23.32	18.35	15.71	16.35	15.71
Southeast	5.76	5.56	5.45	5.20	24.84	25.56	24.55	23.58	16.33	15.19	14.81	14.30
South	9.97	9.63	9.56	8.83	34.74	36.78	34.96	32.91	32.21	28.54	29.21	26.70
Central West	7.80	7.22	7.27	6.59	30.56	29.21	30.34	26.72	28.68	24.45	24.05	21.90
Brazil	7.13	6.59	6.55	6.13	29.02	27.55	27.34	25.46	20.51	18.39	18.44	17.45

Source (hospitalization): Area for Environmental and Occupational Health Situation Analysis, Ministry of Health (ASISAST). Available at: http://177.153.6.85/iimr/

Source (population): IBGE/Research Directorate. Coordination of Population and Social Indicators. Studies Analysis of Demographic Dynamics. Projection of Brazil's population by age and sex for the period of 2000-2060.

Table 33 – Rate of municipalities and states with deliberative, advisory or parity councils

	Brazil			North			Northeast			Southeast			South			Central West		
	1996	2006	2012	1996	2006	2012	1996	2006	2012	1996	2006	2012	1996	2006	2012	1996	2006	2012
Up to 100 thousand	4%	24%	62%	0%	14%	56%	1%	13%	49%	4%	24%	58%	11%	46%	86%	4%	20%	73%
Between 100 and 500 thousand	7%	31%	94%	20%	67%	82%	2%	15%	94%	7%	32%	96%	7%	33%	100%	0%	20%	86%
Between 500 thousand and 1 million	10%	52%	100%				14%	43%	100%	8%	58%	100%			100%	0%	50%	100%
Between 1 and 5 million	17%	42%	100%	50%	100%	100%	0%	0%	100%	0%	33%	100%	0%	50%	100%	50%	50%	100%
Over 5 million	0%	50%	100%							0%	50%	100%						
Total	**4%**	**24%**	**64%**															

Source: MUNIC, IBGE.

Note: Municipalities that indicated the existence of councils of cities, housing and/or transportation were considered. Data of 2011 was ued for the Housing Council of 2012.

Table 34 – Death rate in traffic accidents per 100 thousand inhabitants

Region	1996	2006	2009
North	14.3	17.8	18.6
Northeast	13.6	16.9	18.3
Southeast	25.8	19.2	18.1
South	31.5	25.7	25.6
Central West	29.8	26.6	29.3
Brazil	**22.6**	**19.9**	**20.1**

Source: Mortality Information System ("*Sistema de Informações sobre Mortalidade*" – SIM) of the Ministry of Health

Table 35 - Municipal Human Development Index

	Brazil			North			Northeast			Southeast			South			Central West		
	1991	**2000**	**2010**	**1991**	**2000**	**2010**	**1991**	**2000**	**2010**	**1991**	**2000**	**2010**	**1991**	**2000**	**2010**	**1991**	**2000**	**2010**
Up to 100 thousand	0.377	0.526	0.660	0.300	0.440	0.605	0.290	0.418	0.587	0.443	0.594	0.700	0.453	0.603	0.715	0.407	0.554	0.691
Between 100 and 500 thousand	0.527	0.651	0.746	0.485	0.586	0.703	0.427	0.551	0.683	0.545	0.675	0.765	0.550	0.671	0.757	0.496	0.633	0.741
Between 500 thousand and 1 million	0.563	0.661	0.776				0.536	0.635	0.751	0.558	0.706	0.784			0.794	0.582	0.673	0.785
Between 1 and 5 million	0.576	0.678	0.772	0.542	0.623	0.742	0.563	0.654	0.764	0.602	0.702	0.805	0.650	0.747	0.814	0.616	0.720	0.812
Over 5 million	0.626	0.716	0.799							0.633	0.725	0.802						
Total	**0.493**	**0.612**	**0.727**	**0.305**	**0.442**	**0.609**	**0.291**	**0.420**	**0.588**	**0.447**	**0.600**	**0.705**	**0.455**	**0.606**	**0.716**	**0.408**	**0.555**	**0.693**

Sources: IBGE:CENSO.

Note: These are the median values between classes.

Table 36– Social Vulnerability Index

	Brazil		**North**		**Northeast**		**Southeast**		**South**		**Central West**	
	2000	2010	2000	2010	2000	2010	2000	2010	2000	2010	2000	2010
Up to 100 thousand	0.484	0.340	0.643	0.480	0.604	0.466	0.379	0.269	0.358	0.240	0.446	0.296
Between 100 and 500 thousand	0.376	0.269	0.466	0.386	0.479	0.360	0.336	0.236	0.327	0.222	0.379	0.299
Between 500 thousand and 1 million	0.397	0.286			0.462	0.292	0.361	0.278		0.242	0.378	0.266
Between 1 and 5 million	0.408	0.310	0.467	0.352	0.448	0.340	0.390	0.277	0.331	0.251	0.370	0.293
Over 5 million	0.364	0.291					0.364	0.291				
Total	**0.446**	**0.326**	**0.639**	**0.474**	**0.602**	**0.463**	**0.377**	**0.268**	**0.355**	**0.240**	**0.445**	**0.295**

Source: IPEA.
Note: These are the median values between classes.

Table 37 – Municipal revenue derived from sources other than municipalities' own revenue collection

	Brazil			North			Northeast			Southeast			South			Central West		
	2002	**2006**	**2013**	**2002**	**2006**	**2013**	**2002**	**2006**	**2013**	**2002**	**2006**	**2013**	**2002**	**2006**	**2013**	**2002**	**2006**	**2013**
Up to 100 thousand	89%	88%	87%	94%	93%	91%	96%	94%	93%	85%	84%	84%	85%	84%	82%	90%	88%	84%
Between 100 and 500 thousand	74%	74%	71%	87%	84%	79%	85%	84%	82%	71%	72%	68%	69%	70%	67%	81%	79%	73%
Between 500 thousand and 1 million	71%	69%	66%	100%	100%	100%	77%	74%	69%	68%	67%	65%	100%	100%	61%	74%	66%	63%
Between 1 and 5 million	63%	61%	61%	68%	69%	66%	60%	60%	60%	60%	60%	61%	65%	61%	59%	71%	58%	65%
Over 5 million	47%	42%	41%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	47%	42%	41%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Total	76%	75%	72%	87%	86%	83%	88%	86%	84%	68%	67%	65%	77%	76%	73%	84%	80%	76%

Source: FINBRA.

Table 38 – Municipal revenue derived from municipalities' own revenue collection

	Brazil			North			Northeast			Southeast			South			Central West		
	2002	**2006**	**2013**	**2002**	**2006**	**2013**	**2002**	**2006**	**2013**	**2002**	**2006**	**2013**	**2002**	**2006**	**2013**	**2002**	**2006**	**2013**
Up to 100 thousand	11%	12%	13%	6%	7%	9%	4%	6%	7%	15%	16%	16%	15%	16%	18%	10%	12%	16%
Between 100 and 500 thousand	26%	26%	29%	13%	16%	21%	15%	16%	18%	29%	28%	32%	31%	30%	33%	19%	21%	27%
Between 500 thousand and 1 million	29%	31%	34%				23%	26%	31%	32%	33%	35%			39%	26%	34%	37%
Between 1 and 5 million	37%	39%	39%	32%	31%	34%	40%	40%	40%	40%	40%	39%	35%	39%	41%	29%	42%	35%
Over 5 million	53%	58%	59%							53%	58%	59%						
Total	**24%**	**25%**	**28%**	**13%**	**14%**	**17%**	**12%**	**14%**	**16%**	**32%**	**33%**	**35%**	**23%**	**24%**	**27%**	**16%**	**20%**	**24%**

Source: FINBRA.

Table 39 – Real estate financing for the purchase*, construction**, building materials, renovation or expansion with SBPE resources (in R$ millions) - granted during the period

	TOTAL 1998			TOTAL 2006			TOTAL 2013		
	Construction**	**Purchase***	**Total**	**Construction****	**Purchase***	**Total**	**Construction****	**Purchase***	**Total**
North	7.54	13.52	21.07	136.12	105.92	242.04	701.40	2,322.22	3,023.62
Northeast	80.28	64.42	144.70	343.54	584.52	928.06	3,372.93	8,653.12	12,026.05
Southeast	2,311.10	1,857.13	4,168.23	4,934.41	4,431.95	9,366.36	21,658.74	46,505.78	68,164.52
South	568.74	499.77	1,068.52	723.83	1,289.59	2,013.42	4,180.72	12,199.24	16,379.96
Central West	53.66	125.05	178.72	336.97	642.78	979.75	2,295.94	7,283.38	9,579.31
Brazil	3,021.33	2,559.90	5,581.23	6,474.87	7,054.75	13,529.63	32,209.72	76,963.74	109,173.46

Source: Brazilian Chamber of Construction Industries ("*Câmara Brasileira da Indústria da Construção*" – CBIC).
http://www.cbicdados.com.br/menu/financiamento-habitacional/sbpe

Table 40 – Evolution of real estate financing with SBPE resources

	Growth 2006 - 1998			Growth 2013 - 2006			Growth 2013 - 1998		
	Construction**	Purchase*	Total	Construction**	Purchase*	Total	Construction**	Purchase*	Total
North	1804%	783%	1149%	515%	2192%	1249%	9297%	17172%	14352%
Northeast	428%	907%	641%	982%	1480%	1296%	4201%	13432%	8311%
Southeast	214%	239%	225%	439%	1049%	728%	937%	2504%	1635%
South	127%	258%	188%	578%	946%	814%	735%	2441%	1533%
Central West	628%	514%	548%	681%	1133%	978%	4278%	5824%	5360%
Brazil	214%	276%	242%	497%	1091%	807%	1066%	3007%	1956%

Source: SBPE (http://www.cbicdados.com.br/menu/financiamento-habitacional/sbpe)
Note: Values updated by IPCA 2013.

Table 41 – Workers in the construction sector – over 18 years old (%)

	2000	2010
Brazil	7.20	7.40
North	6.02	7.31
Northeast	6.28	7.40
Southeast	7.82	7.46
South	7.02	7.09
Central West	7.83	7.87

Source: IBGE:CENSO.

Table 42 – Rate of working children (%)

	All - 1996	MR - 1996	All - 2006	MR - 2006	All - 2013	MR - 2013
	5 to 17 years old	5 to 17 years old	5 to 17 years old	5 to 17 years old	5 to 17 years old	5 to 17 years old
Brazil			11.72	5.72	7.50	4.73
North			13.16	5.25	8.15	2.51
Northeast			14.80	5.63	8.04	4.89
Southeast			8.47	5.36	6.18	4.65
South			13.70	8.50	9.55	6.37
Central West			9.91	3.82	7.57	2.92
Women			8.45	4.75	5.42	3.81
Black			11.72	5.61	7.43	4.49
	10 to 17 years old	10 to 17 years old	10 to 17 years old	10 to 17 years old	10 to 17 years old	10 to 17 years old
Brazil	23.89	13.78	17.55	9.10	11.51	7.30
North	17.85	12.05	20.16	7.97	12.56	3.85
Northeast	28.42	12.42	21.45	8.64	12.31	7.40
Southeast	19.42	13.76	13.13	8.63	9.50	7.22
South	29.14	17.96	20.55	13.53	14.51	9.78
Central West	22.69	10.18	15.15	6.25	11.74	4.44
Women	16.35	10.08	12.73	7.53	8.37	5.92
Black	23.91	13.92	17.61	8.97	11.44	6.97

Source: PNAD, IBGE.

Table 43 - GDP evolution by PNDR's micro-region

PNDR Classification	1999 - GDP	Annual Growth Rate 99/06	2006 - GDP	Annual Growth Rate 06/12	2012 - PIB
High Income	1,901,222,407.57	5%	2,480,715,638.34	5%	3,282,889,519.00
Low Income	44,606,208.38	8%	66,093,168.98	7%	93,084,931.00
Dynamic	76,385,063.85	13%	135,491,693.05	8%	201,445,202.00
Stagnated	388,381,333.23	8%	571,792,023.65	7%	814,630,481.00
Total	**2,410,595,013.03**	6%	**3,254,092,524.02**	6%	**4,392,050,133.00**

Source: Regional Development Secretariat of the Ministry of National Integration

Table 44 – Adequacy and inadequacy of households

	Year of 1996				Year of 2006				Year of 2013			
	All - Adequate	**MR - Adequate**	**All - Inadequate**	**MR - Inadequate**	**All - Adequate**	**MR - Adequate**	**All - Inadequate**	**MR - Inadequate**	**All - Adequate**	**MR - Adequate**	**All - Inadequate**	**MR - Inadequate**
Brazil	44.74	59.49	55.26	40.51	53.77	67.22	46.23	32.78	59.89	73.15	40.11	26.85
North	30.3	44.22	69.7	55.78	35.12	63.35	64.88	36.65	39.4	64.25	60.6	35.75
Northeast	26.94	47.97	73.06	52.03	37.02	52.8	62.98	47.2	45.57	62.75	54.43	37.25
Southeast	58.82	61.1	41.18	38.9	68.7	69.52	31.3	30.48	73.58	75.63	26.42	24.37
South	51.14	70.28	48.86	29.72	63.26	78.24	36.74	21.76	66.84	78.63	33.16	21.37
Center-West	28.01	61.46	71.99	38.54	34.21	68.51	65.79	31.49	47.68	73.88	52.32	26.12
Women	45.49	60.02	54.51	39.98	54.69	67.56	45.31	32.44	60.63	73.39	39.37	26.61
Black	45.11	60.09	54.89	39.91	53.78	67.42	46.22	32.58	60.03	73.39	39.97	26.61

Source: PNAD, IBGE.

Table 45 – Distribution of the housing deficit by region in 2012

	Absolute numbers	Relative numbers	Precariousness	Cohabitation	Rent burden	Excessive densification
North	564,620	12.3	120,766	266,646	131,873	45,335
Northeast	1,777,212	10.6	536,662	627,700	536,364	76,486
Southeast	2,108,602	7.6	89,785	656,714	1,161,923	200,180
South	550,726	5.7	99,515	177,294	252,258	21,659
Central West	429,402	8.9	37,049	137,103	228,224	27,026
Brazil	5,430,562	8.5	883,777	1,865,457	2,310,642	370,686
MRs	1,556,580	8.0	105,808	503,429	798,280	149,063
Other	3,873,982	8.8	777,969	1,362,028	1,512,362	221,623

Source: Fundação João Pinheiro, 2014

Table 46- Rate of households served by general network, wells or springs with canalization

General network, wells or springs with canalization						
	2000		2006		2013	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
Brazil	**95%**	**52%**	**95%**	**48%**	**97%**	**62%**
North	79%	25%	78%	32%	92%	49%
Northeast	88%	26%	88%	28%	94%	47%
Southeast	98%	85%	99%	81%	99%	90%
South	98%	84%	99%	91%	99%	92%
Central West	94%	72%	97%	77%	98%	87%

Source: Censo e PNAD.

Table 47 – Percentage of the population with access to adequate sanitary sewage systems (%)

	All - 1996	MR - 1996	All - 2006	MR - 2006	All - 2013	MR - 2013
Brazil	72.20	83.68	77.70	86.70	82.52	91.44
North	45.90	68.07	60.77	88.47	62.46	82.06
Northeast	52.40	64.61	61.44	65.99	69.44	76.62
Southeast	88.17	87.82	91.36	90.60	94.89	95.11
South	74.63	89.49	83.09	94.76	85.56	95.65
Central West	45.61	94.26	49.58	96.30	63.36	97.76
Women	72.62	84.11	78.15	87.04	82.92	91.74
Black	72.43	84.01	77.62	86.66	82.55	91.50

Source: PNAD, IBGE.

Table 48 - Index of Treated Sewage Relative to Consumed Water

	1998	2006	2013
North	2%	6%	15%
Northeast	18%	30%	29%
Southeast	22%	35%	44%
South	11%	27%	35%
Central West	11%	38%	46%
Total	19%	32%	39%

Source: SNIS. http://www.snis.gov.br/PaginaCarrega.php?EWRErterterTERTer=6

Table 49 – Municipalities with body responsible for managing drainage service and handling urban storm water

	Brazil	North	Northeast	Southeast	South	Central West
Up to 100 thousand	**54%**	18%	60%	63%	53%	38%
Between 100 and 500 thousand	**74%**	45%	71%	84%	70%	50%
Between 500 thousand and 1 million	**64%**		71%	73%	0%	50%
Between 1 and 5 million	**57%**	0%	75%	50%	100%	50%
Over 5 million	**100%**			100%		
Total	**54%**					

Source: MUNIC, 2011

Table 50 - Evolution of the Brazilian matrix of electric power generation

Installed capacity up to 31/12/2014			
Type	Amount	Power (kW)	%
Hydroelectric Generating Centrals - CGH	497	308,301	0.23
Wind power plants - EOL	228	4,887,694	3.65
Small Hydroelectric Power Plants - PCH	487	4,790,271	3.58
Solar energy - SOL	311	15,090	0.01
Hydroelectric Power Plants - UHE	202	84,094,838	62.80
Thermal Power Plant – UTE	1,935	37,826,770	28.25
Nuclear Thermal Power Plant - UTN	2	1,990,000	1.49
Subtotal	3,662	133,912,964.00	100.0

Source: National Electric Energy Agency's Statistical Yearbook ("*Anuário Estatístico da Agência Nacional de Energia Elétrica*").

Table 51 – Percentage of residents in urban permanent private households with access to electric lighting

	1996	2006	2013
Brazil	98.86%	99.72%	99.94%
North	96.91%	99.29%	99.96%
Northeast	97.45%	99.47%	99.88%
Southeast	99.61%	99.88%	99.96%
South	99.32%	99.80%	99.97%
Central West	99.05%	99.83%	99.97%

Source: IBGE: PNAD

Table 52 – Rate of persons in the formal market

	1996	2006	2013
Brazil	55%	60%	69%
Central West	51%	61%	72%
Northeast	46%	49%	56%
North	50%	53%	61%
Southeast	61%	66%	76%
South	58%	66%	76%
Women	45%	51%	63%
Black	56%	60%	70%

Source: IBGE:PNAD.